12th International Mathematics Competition for University Students Blagoevgrad, July 22 - July 28, 2005

First Day

Problem 1. Let A be the $n \times n$ matrix, whose $(i, j)^{\text{th}}$ entry is i + j for all i, j = 1, 2, ..., n. What is the rank of A?

Solution 1. For n = 1 the rank is 1. Now assume $n \ge 2$. Since $A = (i)_{i,j=1}^n + (j)_{i,j=1}^n$, matrix A is the sum of two matrices of rank 1. Therefore, the rank of A is at most 2. The determinant of the top-left 2×2 minor is -1, so the rank is exactly 2.

Therefore, the rank of A is 1 for n = 1 and 2 for $n \ge 2$.

Solution 2. Consider the case $n \ge 2$. For i = n, n - 1, ..., 2, subtract the (i - 1)th row from the nth row. Then subtract the second row from all lower rows.

$$rank \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & \dots & n+1 \\ 3 & 4 & \dots & n+2 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ n+1 & n+2 & \dots & 2n \end{pmatrix} = rank \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & \dots & n+1 \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} = rank \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 2$$

Problem 2. For an integer $n \ge 3$ consider the sets

$$S_n = \{ (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) : \forall i \ x_i \in \{0, 1, 2\} \}$$
$$A_n = \{ (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in S_n : \forall i \le n - 2 \ |\{x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}\}| \neq 1 \}$$

and

$$B_n = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in S_n : \forall i \le n - 1 \ (x_i = x_{i+1} \Rightarrow x_i \ne 0)\}$$

Prove that $|A_{n+1}| = 3 \cdot |B_n|$.

(|A| denotes the number of elements of the set A.) Solution 1. Extend the definitions also for n = 1, 2. Consider the following sets

$$A'_{n} = \{(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}) \in A_{n} : x_{n-1} = x_{n}\}, \quad A''_{n} = A_{n} \setminus A'_{n},$$
$$B'_{n} = \{(x_{1}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n}) \in B_{n} : x_{n} = 0\}, \quad B''_{n} = B_{n} \setminus B'_{n}$$

and denote $a_n = |A_n|, a'_n = |A'_n|, a''_n = |A''_n|, b_n = |B_n|, b'_n = |B'_n|, b''_n = |B''_n|.$

It is easy to observe the following relations between the a-sequences

$$\begin{cases} a_n = a'_n + a''_n \\ a'_{n+1} = a''_n \\ a''_{n+1} = 2a'_n + 2a''_n \end{cases}$$

which lead to $a_{n+1} = 2a_n + 2a_{n-1}$.

For the b-sequences we have the same relations

$$\begin{cases} b_n = b'_n + b''_n \\ b'_{n+1} = b''_n \\ b''_{n+1} = 2b'_n + 2b''_n \end{cases},$$

therefore $b_{n+1} = 2b_n + 2b_{n-1}$.

By computing the first values of (a_n) and (b_n) we obtain

$$\begin{cases} a_1 = 3, & a_2 = 9, & a_3 = 24 \\ & b_1 = 3, & b_2 = 8 \end{cases}$$

which leads to

$$\begin{cases} a_2 = 3b_1 \\ a_3 = 3b_2 \end{cases}$$

Now, reasoning by induction, it is easy to prove that $a_{n+1} = 3b_n$ for every $n \ge 1$. Solution 2. Regarding x_i to be elements of \mathbb{Z}_3 and working "modulo 3", we have that

 $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in A_n \Rightarrow (x_1 + 1, x_2 + 1, \dots, x_n + 1) \in A_n, (x_1 + 2, x_2 + 2, \dots, x_n + 2) \in A_n$

which means that 1/3 of the elements of A_n start with 0. We establish a bijection between the subset of all the vectors in A_{n+1} which start with 0 and the set B_n by

$$(0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in A_{n+1} \longmapsto (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in B_n$$
$$y_1 = x_1, y_2 = x_2 - x_1, y_3 = x_3 - x_2, \dots, y_n = x_n - x_{n-1}$$

(if $y_k = y_{k+1} = 0$ then $x_k - x_{k-1} = x_{k+1} - x_k = 0$ (where $x_0 = 0$), which gives $x_{k-1} = x_k = x_{k+1}$, which is not possible because of the definition of the sets A_p ; therefore, the definition of the above function is correct).

The inverse is defined by

$$(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in B_n \longmapsto (0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in A_{n+1}$$

 $x_1 = y_1, x_2 = y_1 + y_2, \dots, x_n = y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_n$

Problem 3. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to [0, \infty)$ be a continuously differentiable function. Prove that

$$\left| \int_{0}^{1} f^{3}(x) \, dx - f^{2}(0) \int_{0}^{1} f(x) \, dx \right| \leq \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} |f'(x)| \left(\int_{0}^{1} f(x) \, dx \right)^{2}.$$

Solution 1. Let $M = \max_{0 \le x \le 1} |f'(x)|$. By the inequality $-M \le f'(x) \le M, x \in [0, 1]$ it follows:

$$-Mf(x) \le f(x) f'(x) \le Mf(x), \ x \in [0,1]$$

By integration

$$-M\int_0^x f(t) dt \le \frac{1}{2}f^2(x) - \frac{1}{2}f^2(0) \le M\int_0^x f(t) dt, \ x \in [0, 1]$$
$$-Mf(x)\int_0^x f(t) dt \le \frac{1}{2}f^3(x) - \frac{1}{2}f^2(0) f(x) \le Mf(x)\int_0^x f(t) dt, \ x \in [0, 1].$$

Integrating the last inequality on [0, 1] it follows that

$$-M\left(\int_{0}^{1} f(x)dx\right)^{2} \leq \int_{0}^{1} f^{3}(x) \, dx - f^{2}(0) \int_{0}^{1} f(x) \, dx \leq M\left(\int_{0}^{1} f(x)dx\right)^{2} \Leftrightarrow \left|\int_{0}^{1} f^{3}(x) \, dx - f^{2}(0) \int_{0}^{1} f(x) \, dx\right| \leq M\left(\int_{0}^{1} f(x) \, dx\right)^{2}.$$

Solution 2. Let $M = \max_{0 \le x \le 1} |f'(x)|$ and $F(x) = -\int_x^1 f$; then F' = f, $F(0) = -\int_0^1 f$ and F(1) = 0. Integrating by parts,

$$\int_0^1 f^3 = \int_0^1 f^2 \cdot F' = [f^2 F]_0^1 - \int_0^1 (f^2)' F =$$
$$= f^2(1)F(1) - f^2(0)F(0) - \int_0^1 2Fff' = f^2(0)\int_0^1 f - \int_0^1 2Fff'$$

Then

$$\left|\int_{0}^{1} f^{3}(x) \, dx - f^{2}(0) \int_{0}^{1} f(x) \, dx\right| = \left|\int_{0}^{1} 2Fff'\right| \le \int_{0}^{1} 2Ff|f'| \le M \int_{0}^{1} 2Ff = M \cdot [F^{2}]_{0}^{1} = M \left(\int_{0}^{1} f\right)^{2} dx$$

Problem 4. Find all polynomials $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + ... + a_1 x + a_0$ $(a_n \neq 0)$ satisfying the following two conditions:

(i) $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)$ is a permutation of the numbers (0, 1, ..., n)and

(*ii*) all roots of P(x) are rational numbers.

Solution 1. Note that P(x) does not have any positive root because P(x) > 0 for every x > 0. Thus, we can represent them in the form $-\alpha_i$, i = 1, 2, ..., n, where $\alpha_i \ge 0$. If $a_0 \ne 0$ then there is a $k \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \le k \le n-1$, with $a_k = 0$, so using Viete's formulae we get

$$\alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}...\alpha_{n-k-1}\alpha_{n-k} + \alpha_{1}\alpha_{2}...\alpha_{n-k-1}\alpha_{n-k+1} + ... + \alpha_{k+1}\alpha_{k+2}...\alpha_{n-1}\alpha_{n} = \frac{a_{k}}{a_{n}} = 0,$$

which is impossible because the left side of the equality is positive. Therefore $a_0 = 0$ and one of the roots of the polynomial, say α_n , must be equal to zero. Consider the polynomial $Q(x) = a_n x^{n-1} + a_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \ldots + a_1$. It has zeros $-\alpha_i$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n-1$. Again, Viete's formulae, for $n \ge 3$, yield:

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_{n-1} = \frac{a_1}{a_n} \tag{1}$$

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_{n-2} + \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_{n-3} \alpha_{n-1} + \dots + \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \dots \alpha_{n-1} = \frac{a_2}{a_n}$$
(2)

$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} = \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}.$$
(3)

Dividing (2) by (1) we get

$$\frac{1}{\alpha_1} + \frac{1}{\alpha_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\alpha_{n-1}} = \frac{a_2}{a_1}.$$
(4)

From (3) and (4), applying the AM-HM inequality we obtain

$$\frac{a_{n-1}}{(n-1)a_n} = \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1}}{n-1} \ge \frac{n-1}{\frac{1}{\alpha_1} + \frac{1}{\alpha_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\alpha_{n-1}}} = \frac{(n-1)a_1}{a_2},$$

therefore $\frac{a_2a_{n-1}}{a_1a_n} \ge (n-1)^2$. Hence $\frac{n^2}{2} \ge \frac{a_2a_{n-1}}{a_1a_n} \ge (n-1)^2$, implying $n \le 3$. So, the only polynomials possibly satisfying (i) and (ii) are those of degree at most three. These polynomials can easily be found and they are P(x) = x, $P(x) = x^2 + 2x$, $P(x) = 2x^2 + x$, $P(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x$ and $P(x) = 2x^3 + 3x^2 + x$. \Box

Solution 2. Consider the prime factorization of P in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Since all roots of P are rational, P can be written as a product of n linear polynomials with rational coefficients. Therefore, all prime factor of P are linear and P can be written as

$$P(x) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} (b_k x + c_k)$$

where the coefficients b_k , c_k are integers. Since the leading coefficient of P is positive, we can assume $b_k > 0$ for all k. The coefficients of P are nonnegative, so P cannot have a positive root. This implies $c_k \ge 0$. It is not possible that $c_k = 0$ for two different values of k, because it would imply $a_0 = a_1 = 0$. So $c_k > 0$ in at least n - 1 cases.

Now substitute x = 1.

$$P(1) = a_n + \dots + a_0 = 0 + 1 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \prod_{k=1}^n (b_k + c_k) \ge 2^{n-1};$$

therefore it is necessary that $2^{n-1} \leq \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$, therefore $n \leq 4$. Moreover, the number $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ can be written as a product of n-1 integers greater than 1.

If n = 1, the only solution is P(x) = 1x + 0.

If n = 2, we have $P(1) = 3 = 1 \cdot 3$, so one factor must be x, the other one is x + 2 or 2x + 1. Both $x(x+2) = 1x^2 + 2x + 0$ and $x(2x+1) = 2x^2 + 1x + 0$ are solutions.

If n = 3, then $P(1) = 6 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$, so one factor must be x, another one is x+1, the third one is again x+2 or 2x+1. The two polynomials are $x(x+1)(x+2) = 1x^3+3x^2+2x+0$ and $x(x+1)(2x+1) = 2x^3+3x^2+1x+0$, both have the proper set of coefficients.

In the case n = 4, there is no solution because $\frac{n(n+1)}{2} = 10$ cannot be written as a product of 3 integers greater than 1.

Altogether we found 5 solutions: 1x+0, $1x^2+2x+0$, $2x^2+1x+0$, $1x^3+3x^2+2x+0$ and $2x^3+3x^2+1x+0$.

Problem 5. Let $f: (0,\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a twice continuously differentiable function such that

$$|f''(x) + 2xf'(x) + (x^2 + 1)f(x)| \le 1$$

for all x. Prove that $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = 0$.

Solution 1. Let $g(x) = \widetilde{f'(x)} + xf(x)$; then $f''(x) + 2xf'(x) + (x^2 + 1)f(x) = g'(x) + xg(x)$.

We prove that if h is a continuously differentiable function such that h'(x) + xh(x) is bounded then $\lim h = 0$. Applying this lemma for h = g then for h = f, the statement follows.

Let *M* be an upper bound for |h'(x) + xh(x)| and let $p(x) = h(x)e^{x^2/2}$. (The function $e^{-x^2/2}$ is a solution of the differential equation u'(x) + xu(x) = 0.) Then

$$|p'(x)| = |h'(x) + xh(x)|e^{x^2/2} \le Me^{x^2/2}$$

and

$$|h(x)| = \left|\frac{p(x)}{e^{x^2/2}}\right| = \left|\frac{p(0) + \int_0^x p'}{e^{x^2/2}}\right| \le \frac{|p(0)| + M \int_0^x e^{x^2/2} dx}{e^{x^2/2}}$$

Since $\lim_{x \to \infty} e^{x^2/2} = \infty$ and $\lim \frac{\int_0^x e^{x^2/2} dx}{e^{x^2/2}} = 0$ (by L'Hospital's rule), this implies $\lim_{x \to \infty} h(x) = 0$.

Solution 2. Apply L'Hospital rule twice on the fraction $\frac{f(x)e^{x^2/2}}{e^{x^2/2}}$. (Note that L'Hospital rule is valid if the denominator converges to infinity, without any assumption on the numerator.)

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f(x)e^{x^2/2}}{e^{x^2/2}} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{(f'(x) + xf(x))e^{x^2/2}}{xe^{x^2/2}} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{(f''(x) + 2xf'(x) + (x^2 + 1)f(x))e^{x^2/2}}{(x^2 + 1)e^{x^2/2}} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f''(x) + 2xf'(x) + (x^2 + 1)f(x)}{x^2 + 1} = 0.$$

Problem 6. Given a group G, denote by G(m) the subgroup generated by the m^{th} powers of elements of G. If G(m) and G(n) are commutative, prove that G(gcd(m, n)) is also commutative. (gcd(m, n) denotes the greatest common divisor of m and n.)

Solution. Write d = gcd(m, n). It is easy to see that $\langle G(m), G(n) \rangle = G(d)$; hence, it will suffice to check commutativity for any two elements in $G(m) \cup G(n)$, and so for any two generators a^m and b^n . Consider their commutator $z = a^{-m}b^{-n}a^mb^n$; then the relations

$$z = (a^{-m}ba^{m})^{-n}b^{n} = a^{-m}(b^{-n}ab^{n})^{m}$$

show that $z \in G(m) \cap G(n)$. But then z is in the center of G(d). Now, from the relation $a^m b^n = b^n a^m z$, it easily follows by induction that

$$a^{ml}b^{nl} = b^{nl}a^{ml}z^{l^2}.$$

Setting l = m/d and l = n/d we obtain $z^{(m/d)^2} = z^{(n/d)^2} = e$, but this implies that z = e as well.