

Problems and solutions

Second Selection Test, May 2024

Problem 1. (10 points) For any integer $n \geq 2$ and two $n \times n$ matrices with real entries A, B that satisfy the equation

$$A^{-1} + B^{-1} = (A + B)^{-1},$$

prove that $\det(A) = \det(B)$. Does the same conclusion follow for matrices with complex entries?

Solution. Multiplying the equation by $(A + B)$ we get

$$I = (A + B)(A^{-1} + B^{-1}) = (A + B)(A + B)^{-1} = AA^{-1} + AB^{-1} + BA^{-1} + BB^{-1} = I + AB^{-1} + BA^{-1} + I = 0.$$

Let $X = AB^{-1}$, then $A = XB$ and $BA^{-1} = X^{-1}$, so we have $X + X^{-1} + I = 0$; multiplying by $(X - I)X$,

$$0 = (X - I)X \cdot (X + X^{-1} + I) = (X - I) \cdot (X^2 + X + I) = X^3 - I.$$

Hence,

$$X^3 = I \quad \text{so} \quad (\det X)^3 = \det(X^3) = \det I = 1 \quad \text{thus} \quad \det X = 1$$

$$\det A = \det(XB) = \det X \cdot \det B = \det B.$$

In case of complex matrices the statement is false. Let $\omega = \frac{1}{2}(-1 + i\sqrt{3})$. Obviously $\omega \notin \mathbb{R}$ and $\omega^3 = 1$, so $0 = 1 + \omega + \omega^2 = 1 + \omega + \bar{\omega}$.

Let $A = I$ and let B be a diagonal matrix with all entries along the diagonal equal to either ω or $\bar{\omega} = \omega^2$ such a way that $\det(B) \neq 1$ (if n is not divisible by 3 then one may set $B = \omega I$). Then $A^{-1} = I$, $B^{-1} = B$. Obviously $I + B + B = 0$ and

$$(A + B)^{-1} = (-B)^{-1} = -B = I + B = A^{-1} + B^{-1}.$$

By the choice of A and B , $\det A = 1 \neq \det B$.

Problem 2. (10 points) Let $f : [0; +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = L$ exists (it may be finite or infinite). Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f(nx) dx = L.$$

Solution 1. *Case 1: L is finite.* Take an arbitrary $\epsilon > 0$. We construct a number $K \geq 0$ such that for every $n \geq K$ we have

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(nx) dx - L \right| < \epsilon.$$

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$, there exists a $K_1 \geq 0$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ for every $x \geq K_1$. Hence, for $n \geq K_1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_0^1 f(nx) dx - L \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{n} \int_0^n f(x) dx - L \right| = \frac{1}{n} \left| \int_0^n (f(x) - L) dx \right| \leq \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n} \left(\int_0^{K_1} |f(x) - L| dx + \int_{K_1}^n |f(x) - L| dx \right) \leq \frac{1}{n} \left(\int_0^{K_1} |f(x) - L| dx + (n - K_1) \frac{\epsilon}{2} \right) = \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\int_0^{K_1} |f(x) - L| dx \right) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

If $n \geq K_2 = \frac{2}{\epsilon} \int_0^{K_1} |f(x) - L| dx$ then the first term is at most $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Then for $x \geq K := \max(K_1, K_2)$, we have

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(nx) dx - L \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon.$$

Case 2: $L = +\infty$. Take an arbitrary real M ; we need a $K \geq 0$ such that

$$\int_0^1 f(nx) dx > M$$

for every $x \geq K$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$, there exists a $K_1 \geq 0$ such that $f(x) > M + 1$ for every $x \geq K_1$. Hence, for $n \geq 2K_1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 f(nx) dx &= \frac{1}{n} \int_0^n f(x) dx = \frac{1}{n} \left(\int_0^{K_1} f(x) dx + \int_{K_1}^n f(x) dx \right) = \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\int_0^{K_1} f(x) dx + \int_{K_1}^n (M+1) dx \right) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\int_0^{K_1} f dx + (n - K_1)(M+1) \right). \end{aligned}$$

If $n \geq K_2 := \frac{1}{\int_0^{K_1} f - K_1(M+1)}$, then the first term is at most $-\frac{1}{2}$. For $x \geq K := \max(K_1, K_2)$, we have

$$\int_0^1 f(nx) dx > M.$$

Case 3: $L = -\infty$. We can repeat the steps in Case 2 for the function $-f$.

Solution 2. Let $F(x) = \int_0^x f$. For $t > 0$ we have

$$\int_0^1 f(tx) dx = \frac{F(t)}{t}.$$

Since $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t = \infty$ in the denominator and $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F'(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) = L$, L'Hospital's rule proves

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(t)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F'(t)}{1} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) = L.$$

Then it follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(n)}{n} = L.$$

Problem 3. (10 points) For a positive integer n , let $f(n)$ be the number obtained by writing n in binary and replacing every 0 with 1 and vice versa. For example, $n = 23$ is 10111 in binary, so $f(23)$ is 1000 in binary, therefore $f(23) = 8$. Prove that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(k) \leq \frac{n^2}{4}.$$

When does equality hold?

Solution. If r and k are positive integers with $2^{r-1} \leq k < 2^r$ then k has r binary digits, so $k + f(k) = 11 \dots 1_2 = 2^r - 1$. Assume that $2^{s-1} - 1 \leq n \leq 2^s - 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n f(k) &= \sum_{k=1}^n (k + f(k)) = \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^{s-1} \sum_{k=2^{r-1}}^{2^r-1} (k + f(k)) + \sum_{k=2^{s-1}}^n (k + f(k)) = \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^{s-1} 2^{2r-1} \cdot (2^r - 1) + (n - 2^{s-1} + 1) \cdot (2^s - 1) = \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^{s-1} \left(2^{2r-1} - \sum_{r=1}^{s-1} 2^r + 1 \right) + (n - 2^{s-1} + 1)(2^s - 1) = \\ &= \frac{2}{3}(4^{s-1} - 1) - (2^{s-1} - 1) + (2^s - 1)n - \frac{1}{3}4^s + 2^s - 2 \\ &= (2^s - 1)n - \frac{1}{3}4^s + 2^s - \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$\frac{n^2}{4} - \sum_{k=1}^n f(k) = \frac{n^2}{4} - \left((2^s - 1)n - \frac{1}{3}4^s + 2^s - \frac{2}{3} - \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right) =$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{3}{4}n^2 - (2^s - \frac{3}{2})n + \frac{1}{3}4^s - 2^s + \frac{2}{3} = \\
&= \frac{3}{4} \left(n - \frac{2^{s+1} - 2}{3} \right) \left(n - \frac{2^{s+1} - 4}{3} \right).
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that the difference of the last two factors is less than 1, and one of them must be an integer: $\frac{2^{s+1}-2}{3}$ is integer if s is even, and $\frac{2^{s+1}-4}{3}$ is integer if s is odd. Therefore, either one of them is 0, resulting a zero product, or both factors have the same sign, so the product is strictly positive. This solves the problem and shows that equality occurs if $n = \frac{2^{s+1}-2}{3}$ (s is even) or $n = \frac{2^{s+1}-4}{3}$ (s is odd).

Problem 4. (10 points) For any positive integer m , denote by $P(m)$ the product of positive divisors of m (e.g. $P(6) = 36$). For every positive integer n define the sequence

$$a_1(n) = n, \quad a_{k+1}(n) = P(a_k(n)) \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, 2024).$$

Determine whether for every set $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, 2025\}$, there exists a positive integer n such that the following condition is satisfied:

For every k with $1 \leq k \leq 2025$, the number $a_k(n)$ is a perfect square if and only if $k \in S$.

Solution. We prove that the answer is yes; for every $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, 2025\}$ there exists a suitable n . Specially, n can be a power of 2: $n = 2^{w_1}$ with some nonnegative integer w_1 . Write $a_k(n) = 2^{w_k}$; then

$$2^{w_{k+1}} = a_{k+1}(n) = P(a_k(n)) = P(2^{w_k}) = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot \dots \cdot 2^{w_k} = 2^{\frac{w_k(w_k+1)}{2}},$$

so

$$w_{k+1} = \frac{w_k(w_k+1)}{2}.$$

The proof will be completed if we prove that for each choice of S there exists an initial value w_1 such that w_k is even if and only if $k \in S$.

Lemma. Suppose that the sequences (b_1, b_2, \dots) and (c_1, c_2, \dots) satisfy $b_{k+1} = \frac{b_k(b_k+1)}{2}$ and $c_{k+1} = c_k(c_k+1)$ for $k \geq 1$, and $c_1 = b_1 + 2^m$. Then for each $k = 1, \dots, m$ we have $c_k \equiv b_k \pmod{2^{m-k}+2}$.

As an immediate corollary, we have $b_k \equiv c_k \pmod{2}$ for $1 \leq k \leq m$ and $b_{m+1} \equiv c_{m+1} + 1 \pmod{2}$.

Proof. We prove the lemma by induction. For $k = 1$ we have $c_1 = b_1 + 2^m$ so the statement holds. Suppose the statement is true for some $k < m$, then for $k+1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}
c_{k+1} &= \frac{c_k(c_k+1)}{2} = \frac{(b_k + 2^{m-k} + 1)(b_k + 2^{m-k} + 1 + 1)}{2} \\
&= \frac{b_k^2 + 2^{m-k} + 2b_k + 2^{2m-2k} + 2 + b_k + 2^{m-k} + 1}{2} \\
&= \frac{b_k(b_k+1) + 2^{m-k} + 2^{m-k+1}b_k + 2^{2m-2k+1}}{2} \\
&\equiv b_k(b_k+1) + 2^{m-k} \pmod{2^{m-(k+1)+2}},
\end{aligned}$$

therefore $c_{k+1} \equiv b_{k+1} + 2^{m-(k+1)+1} \pmod{2^{m-(k+1)+2}}$.

Going back to the solution of the problem, for every $1 \leq m \leq 2025$ we construct inductively a sequence (v_1, v_2, \dots) such that $v_{k+1} = \frac{v_k(v_k+1)}{2}$, and for every $1 \leq k \leq m$, v_k is even if and only if $k \in S$.

For $m = 1$ we can choose $v_1 = 0$ if $1 \in S$ or $v_1 = 1$ if $1 \notin S$. If we already have such a sequence (v_1, v_2, \dots) for a positive integer m , we can choose either the same sequence or choose $v'_1 = v_1 + 2^m$ and apply the same recurrence $v'_{k+1} = \frac{v'_k(v'_k+1)}{2}$. By the Lemma, we have $v_k \equiv v'_k \pmod{2}$ for $k \leq m$, but v_{m+1} and v'_{m+1} have opposite parities; hence, either the sequence (v_k) or the sequence (v'_k) satisfies the condition for $m+1$.

Repeating this process for $m = 1, 2, \dots, 2025$, we obtain a suitable sequence (v_k) .

Problem 5. (10 points) Determine whether or not there exist 15 integers m_1, \dots, m_{15} such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{15} m_k \cdot \arctan(k) = \arctan(16).$$

Solution We show that such integers m_1, \dots, m_{15} do not exist. Suppose that equation is satisfied by some integers m_1, \dots, m_{15} . Then the argument of the complex number $z_1 = 1 + 16i$ coincides with the argument of the complex number

$$z_2 = (1 + i)^{m_1} (1 + 2i)^{m_2} (1 + 3i)^{m_3} \dots (1 + 15i)^{m_{15}}.$$

Therefore the ratio $R = \frac{z_2}{z_1}$ is real (and not zero). As $\operatorname{Re}(z_1) = 1$ and $\operatorname{Re}(z_2)$ is an integer, R is a nonzero integer.

By considering the squares of the absolute values of z_1 and z_2 , we get

$$(1 + 16^2)R^2 = \prod_{k=1}^{15} (1 + k^2)^{m_k}.$$

Notice that $p = 1 + 16^2 = 257$ is a prime (the fourth Fermat prime), which yields an easy contradiction through p -adic valuations: all prime factors in the right hand side are strictly below p (as $k < 16$ implies $1 + k^2 < p$). On the other hand, in the left hand side the prime p occurs with an odd exponent.