

# Olympiad Notebook

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## Abstract

An overview of topics from math olympiads with selected problems and solutions. The sources for handouts and expositions are provided when available. Any typos or mistakes are my own - kindly direct them to my inbox.

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# 1 Combinatorics

## 1.1 Invariants and Monovariants

## 1.2 Bijections

## 1.3 Pigeonhole Principle

**Theorem 1.1** (Pigeonhole Principle). *Let  $m, n$  be positive integers with  $m \geq n$ . If  $m + 1$  pigeons fly to  $n$  pigeonholes, then at least one pigeonhole contains at least  $\lfloor \frac{m}{n} \rfloor + 1$  pigeons.*

## 1.4 Extremal Principle

## 1.5 Combinatorial Games

The main strategies for analyzing combinatorial games are:

- Play the game: try to find some forced moves.
- Reduce the game to a simpler game.
- Start at the end of the game: find endgame positions which are winning and losing and work backwards.
- Find an invariant or monovariant that a player can control.

**Problem 1.2.** Four heaps contain 38, 45, 61, and 70 matches respectively. Two players take turns choosing any two of the heaps and removing a non-zero number of matches from each heap. The player who cannot make a move loses. Which one of the players has a winning strategy?

*Proof.* Denote the heaps with a 4-tuple  $(w, x, y, z)$  with  $w \leq x \leq y \leq z$ . We claim the winning positions are of the form  $(w, x, y, z)$  with  $w < y$ . It is clear that  $(0, 0, y, z)$  leads to a win by removing  $y$  and  $z$  and  $(0, x, y, z)$  leads to a win by reducing to  $(0, 1, 1, z)$  which is forced to leave either 1 or 2 heaps.

Since we remove tiles on each move, the game must terminate. If we have  $(w, x, y, z)$  with  $w < y$ , we can reduce to  $(w, w, w, x)$  by sending  $y$  and  $z$  to  $w$ .

We show that  $(w, w, w, z)$  is a losing position. We have three cases:

1. If we remove from two of the  $w$ -heaps, we are left with  $(w', w'', w, z)$ .
2. If we remove from a  $w$ -heap and the  $z$ -heap, we are left with either  $(w', z', w, w)$  or  $(w', w, z', w)$  or  $(w', w, w, z')$ .
3. If we remove any number of heaps entirely, the resulting position is clearly winning.

It follows that  $(w, x, y, z)$  with  $w < y$  is a winning position as desired. □

**Problem 1.3.** The number  $10^{2015}$  is written on a blackboard. Alice and Bob play a game where each player can do one of the following on each turn:

- replace an integer  $x$  on the board with integers  $a, b > 1$  so that  $x = ab$
- erase one or both of two equal integers on the blackboard.

The player who is not able to make a move loses the game. Who has a winning strategy?

*Proof.* We claim Alice has a winning strategy. First, it is clear that the game must eventually terminate. On the first turn, Alice can replace  $10^{2015}$  with  $2^{2015}$  and  $5^{2015}$ . We claim that after any of Bob's turns, Alice can move the board into the state

$$2^{\alpha_1} 2^{\alpha_2} \dots 2^{\alpha_k} 5^{\alpha_1} 5^{\alpha_2} \dots 5^{\alpha_k}.$$

If Bob sends  $2^{\alpha_j}$  to  $2^{\beta_1}, 2^{\beta_2}$ , then Alice can send  $5^{\alpha_j}$  to  $5^{\beta_1}, 5^{\beta_2}$  and vice versa. Otherwise, if Bob removes one or two integers  $2^{\alpha_j}, 2^{\alpha_k}$ , then we have  $\alpha_j = \alpha_k$  so Alice can remove one or two of  $5^{\alpha_j}, 5^{\alpha_k}$  or vice versa. Since Alice can always follow the copycat strategy and the game eventually terminates, we must have that Bob is unable to make a move at some point, which implies that Alice wins the game as desired.  $\square$

## 1.6 Algorithms

## 1.7 Generating Functions

**Problem 1.4** (Putnam 2020 A2). Let  $k$  be a non-negative integer. Evaluate

$$\sum_{j=0}^k 2^{k-j} \binom{k+j}{j}.$$

*Proof.* We claim the sum evaluates to  $4^k$ . Note that  $\binom{k+j}{j} = \binom{k+j}{k}$ . It follows that the sum is the coefficient of  $x^k$  in the power series  $\sum_{j=0}^n 2^{k-j} (1+x)^{k+j}$ . Evaluating this, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=0}^n 2^{k-j} (1+x)^{k+j} &= 2^k (1+x)^k \sum_{j=0}^k 2^{-j} (1+x)^j \\ &= 2^k (1+x)^k \frac{1 - (1+x)^{k+1}/2^{k+1}}{1 - (1+x)/2} \\ &= \frac{2^{k+1} (1+x)^k - (1+x)^{2k+1}}{1-x} \\ &= 2^{k+1} (1+x)^k - (1+x)^{2k+1} \sum_{n \geq 0} x^n. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that the coefficient of  $x^k$  is given by

$$2^{k+1} \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} - \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{2k+1}{j} = 2^{2k+1} - 2^{2k} = 4^k.$$

$\square$

**Problem 1.5.** (CJMO 2020/1) Let  $N$  be a positive integer, and let  $S$  be the set of all tuples with positive integer elements and a sum of  $N$ . For all tuples  $t$ , let  $p(t)$  denote the product of all the elements of  $t$ . Evaluate

$$\sum_{t \in S} p(t).$$

*Proof.* We claim the sum evaluates to  $F_{2N}$ , where  $F_k$  denotes the  $k$ -th Fibonacci number. Note that the sum can be represented as the coefficient of  $x^N$  in  $\sum_{k=1}^N \left( \sum_{n \geq 0} nx^n \right)^k$ . Evaluating this, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^N \left( \sum_{n \geq 0} nx^n \right)^k &= \sum_{k=1}^N \left( \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} \right)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{x^k}{(1-x)^{2k}} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{j \geq 0} \binom{2k-1+j}{2k-1} x^{j+k}. \end{aligned}$$

The coefficient of  $x^N$  is given by

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \binom{N+k-1}{2k-1} = \sum_{k=1}^N \binom{N+k-1}{N-k} = \sum_{j \geq 0} \binom{2N-1-j}{j} = F_{2N}.$$

□

**Problem 1.6** (IMO 1995/6). Let  $p$  be an odd prime number. How many  $p$ -element subsets  $A$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, 2p\}$  are there, the sum of whose elements is divisible by  $p$ ?

*Proof.* Define  $f(x, y) = \prod_{k=1}^{2p} (1 + x^k y)$ . We wish to find the sum of the coefficients of terms of the form  $x^{p\ell} y^p$ . We do this by first considering  $f$  as a generating function in  $x$  using the root of unity filter associated to  $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}$ . Then, we read off the coefficient of  $y^p$  to find the desired expression.

Note that for  $1 \leq k \leq p-1$ ,

$$f(\omega^k, y) = \prod_{k=1}^{2p} (1 + \omega^k y) = \prod_{k=1}^p (1 + \omega^k y)^2 = (1 + y^p)^2.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} f(\omega^i, y) &= \frac{1}{p} \left( (1 + y)^{2p} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} f(\omega^i, y) \right) \\ &= \frac{(1 + y)^{2p} + (p-1)(1 + y^p)^2}{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the coefficient of  $y^p$  is given by

$$\frac{\binom{2p}{p} + 2(p-1)}{2}.$$

□

## 1.8 Enumerative Combinatorics

## 1.9 Probabilistic Method

Some tips for using the probabilistic method:

- A statement  $E$  can be true by showing that its probability is greater than 0. item Show that  $E$  is true is the same as showing  $P(\neg E) < 1$ .
- Show that  $X$  can be at least or at most  $a$  by showing  $E[X] \geq a$  or  $E[X] \leq a$  respectively.
- Show that it is possible for  $|X|$  to be at least or at most  $a > 0$  by showing  $E[X] = 0$  and  $\text{Var}(X) \geq a^2$  or  $\text{Var}(X) \leq a^2$  respectively.

## 1.10 Algebraic Combinatorics

## 1.11 Combinatorial Geometry

### 1.11.1 Convex Hull

**Problem 1.7** (Happy-Ending Problem). Suppose we have five points in the plane with no three collinear. Show that we can find four points whose convex hull is a quadrilateral.

*Proof.* Take the convex hull of the five points. If it is a quadrilateral or pentagon, we are done (choose any 4 points in the latter case). Suppose the convex hull is a triangle. Label the points with  $A$  through  $E$  and without loss of generality, let the points  $A, B, C$  form the triangle and  $D, E$ , be the points inside the hull.

Extend the line  $DE$ . Note that two points must lie on one side of the line - if not then we have three collinear points. It is easy to show that these four points form a convex quadrilateral.  $\square$

**Problem 1.8.** There are  $n > 3$  coplanar points, no three collinear and every four of them are the vertices of a convex quadrilateral. Prove that the  $n$  points are the vertices of a convex  $n$ -sided polygon.

*Proof.* Suppose that some point  $P$  is inside the convex hull of the  $n$  points. Let  $Q$  be some vertex of the convex hull. The diagonals from  $Q$  to the other vertices divide the convex hull into triangles and since no three points are collinear,  $P$  must lie inside some triangle  $\triangle QRS$ . But this is a contradiction since  $P, Q, R, S$  do not form a convex quadrilateral.  $\square$

**Problem 1.9** (1985 IMO Longlist). Let  $A, B$  be finite disjoint sets of points in the plane such that any three distinct points in  $A \cup B$  are not collinear. Assume that at least one of the sets  $A, B$  contains at least five points. Show that there exists a triangle all of whose vertices are contained in  $A$  or in  $B$  that does not contain in its interior any point from the other set.

*Proof.* Suppose  $A$  has at least five points. Take  $A_1 A_2$  on the boundary of the convex hull of  $A$ . For any other  $A_i \in A$ , define  $\theta_i = \angle A_1 A_2 A_i$ . Without loss of generality,  $\theta_3 < \theta_4 < \dots < 180^\circ$ . It follows that  $\text{conv}(\{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5\})$  contains no other points of  $A$ .  $\square$

**Problem 1.10** (Putnam 2001 B6). Assume that  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is an increasing sequence of positive real numbers such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{n} = 0$ . Must there exist infinitely many positive integers  $n$  such that

$$a_{n-i} + a_{n+i} < 2a_n$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, n-1$ ?

*Proof.* We claim such a subsequence exists. Let  $A = \text{conv}\{(n, a_n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  and let  $\partial A$  denote the set of points on the boundary of the convex hull.

We claim that  $\partial A$  contains infinitely many elements. Suppose not. Then,  $\partial A$  has a last point  $(N, a_N)$ . If we let  $m = \sup_{n > N} \frac{a_n - a_N}{n - N}$ , the slope of the line between  $(N, a_N)$  and  $(n, a_n)$ , then the line through  $(N, a_N)$  with slope  $m$  lies above (or contains) each point  $(n, a_n)$  for  $n > N$ . However, since  $a_n/n \rightarrow 0$  and  $a_N, N$  are fixed, we have that

$$\frac{a_n - a_N}{n - N} \rightarrow 0.$$

This implies that the set of slopes attains a maximum, i. e. there is some point  $(M, a_M)$  with  $M > N$  so that  $m = \frac{a_M - a_N}{M - N}$ . But then, we must also have that  $(M, a_M) \in \partial A$ , contradicting the fact that  $(N, a_N)$  is the last point in  $\partial A$ .

For each point on the boundary  $(n, a_n) \in \partial A$ , we must have that midpoint of the line through  $(n-i, a_{n-i})$  and  $(n+i, a_{n+i})$  for  $i \in [n-1]$  must lie below  $(n, a_n)$ . From this, it follows that  $a_n > \frac{a_{n-i} + a_{n+i}}{2}$ , which implies the result.  $\square$

## 2 Algebra

### 2.1 Polynomials

### 2.2 Inequalities

**Theorem 2.1** (QM-AM-GM-HM). *Let  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^+$ . Then,*

$$\sqrt[n]{\frac{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}{n}} \geq \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_n}{n} \geq \sqrt[n]{x_1 \dots x_n} \geq \frac{n}{\frac{1}{x_1} + \dots + \frac{1}{x_n}}$$

*with equality if and only if  $x_1 = \dots = x_n$ .*

**Definition 2.2** (Power Mean). Given  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , define

$$M_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} (\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^p)^{1/p} & \text{if } p \neq 0 \\ \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{w_i} & \text{else} \end{cases}.$$

**Definition 2.3** (Weighted Power Mean). Given  $(w_i)_{i=1}^n$  with  $\sum_i w_i = 1$ , define

$$M_p^w(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} (\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^p)^{1/p} & \text{if } p \neq 0 \\ \prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{w_i} & \text{else} \end{cases}.$$

**Theorem 2.4.** *Given  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , the following properties hold:*

- $\min(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq M_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq M_q(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq \max(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- $M_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = M_p(\sigma(x_1, \dots, x_n))$  for  $\sigma \in S_n$
- $M_p(bx_1, \dots, bx_n) = bM_p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
- $M_p(x_1, \dots, x_{nk}) = M_p(M_p(x_1, \dots, x_n), M_p(x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{2n}), \dots, M_p(x_{(n-1)k+1}, \dots, x_{nk}))$

**Theorem 2.5** (Power Mean Inequality). *If  $p < q$ ,*

$$M_p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq M_q(x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

*with equality if and only if  $x_1 = \dots = x_n$ .*

### 2.3 Functional Equations

### 2.4 Linear Algebra

**Problem 2.6.** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be skew-symmetric. Show that  $\det(A) \geq 0$ .

*Proof.* If  $n$  is odd, note that

$$\det(A) = \det(A^T) = \det(-A) = (-1)^n \det(A) = -\det(A).$$

It follows that  $\det(A) = 0$ .



Otherwise, suppose  $n$  is even and let  $p(\lambda) = \det(A - I_n\lambda)$ . If  $\lambda \neq 0$  is an eigenvalue, note that  $p(\lambda) = 0$  by the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem. Moreover,

$$p(-\lambda) = \det(A + I_n\lambda) = \det(A^\top + I_n^\top\lambda) = \det(-A + I_n\lambda) = 0.$$

Moreover, let  $v$  be an eigenvector with corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . Note that

$$\langle Av, v \rangle = \lambda \langle v, v \rangle = \lambda \|v\|^2,$$

$$\langle Av, v \rangle = \langle v, A^\top v \rangle = \langle v, -Av \rangle = -\bar{\lambda} \langle v, v \rangle = -\bar{\lambda} \|v\|^2.$$

It follows that  $\lambda = -\bar{\lambda}$ , which implies that  $\lambda = ri$  for  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence,

$$\det(A) = \prod_{j=1}^{n/2} (i\lambda_j)(-i\lambda_j) = \prod_{j=1}^n \lambda_j^2 \geq 0.$$

□

**Problem 2.7.** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  with  $A^3 = A + I_n$ . Show that  $\det(A) > 0$ .

*Proof.* Let  $p(x) = x^3 - x - 1$ . Note that  $p(0) = -1$ ,  $p(2) = 5$ , so the polynomial has a root in the interval  $(0, 2)$  by the intermediate value theorem. Furthermore,  $p'(x) = 3x^2 - 1$  so the polynomial has critical points at  $\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ . It is easy to see that at both of these values,  $p(x) < 0$  so it follows that the other roots of  $p(x)$  are conjugate complex numbers. Let the roots be  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$  with  $\lambda_1$  being the positive real root and  $\lambda_2, \lambda_3$  the conjugate complex ones. If  $A$  satisfies  $A^3 = A + I_n$ , then we must have the eigenvalues of  $A$  are  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  and  $\lambda_3$ , with multiplicity  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$  respectively. Since  $\lambda_2, \lambda_3$  are complex conjugates, we must have  $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3$ , so it follows that

$$\det(A) = \lambda_1^{\alpha_1} (\lambda_2 \lambda_3)^{\alpha_2} = \lambda_1^{\alpha_1} |\lambda_2|^{\alpha_2} > 0.$$

□

**Problem 2.8.** If  $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $AB = BA$ , then  $\det(A^2 + B^2) \geq 0$ .

*Proof.*

$$\det(A^2 + B^2) = \det(A + iB) \det(A - iB) = \det(A + iB) \overline{\det(A + iB)} = |\det(A + iB)|^2 \geq 0.$$

□

**Problem 2.9.** Let  $A, B \in M_2(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $AB = BA$  and  $\det(A^2 + B^2) = 0$ . Show that  $\det(A) = \det(B)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $p_{A,B}(\lambda) = \det(A + \lambda B) = \det(B)\lambda^2 + (\text{tr } A + \text{tr } B - \text{tr}(AB))\lambda + \det(A)$ . By Problem 1.3, we have  $\det(A + iB)$  and  $\det(A - iB) = 0$ , which implies that  $p_{A,B}(\lambda) = c(\lambda - i)(\lambda + i) = c(\lambda^2 + 1)$ . It follows that  $c = \det B = \det A$ . □

**Problem 2.10.** Let  $A \in M_2(\mathbb{R})$  with  $\det A = -1$ . Show that  $\det(A^2 + I_2) \geq 4$ . When does equality hold?

*Proof.* First, note the identity

$$\det(X + Y) + \det(X - Y) = 2(\det X + \det Y).$$

This follows from writing  $p(z) = \det(X + zY) = \det(Y)z^2 + (\operatorname{tr} X + \operatorname{tr} Y - \operatorname{tr}(XY))z + \det(X)$  and taking

$$p(1) + p(-1) = \det(X + Y) + \det(X - Y) = 2\det Y + 2\det X.$$

Then, taking  $X = A^2 + I$  and  $Y = 2A$ , we have

$$0 \leq \det(A + I)^2 + \det(A - I)^2 = 2(\det(A^2 + I) + \det(2A)) = 2(\det(A^2 + I) - 4).$$

It follows that  $\det(A^2 + I) \geq 4$  as desired. We have equality when the eigenvalues of  $A$  are 1 and  $-1$ .  $\square$

**Problem 2.11.** Let  $A, B \in M_3(\mathbb{C})$  with  $\det(A) = \det(B) = 1$ . Show that  $\det(A + \sqrt{2}B) \neq 0$ .

## 2.5 Group Theory

**Theorem 2.12** (Lagrange's Theorem). *Let  $G$  be a finite field. If  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , then  $|G| = [G : H]|H|$ .*

## 2.6 Field Theory

### 3 Number Theory

#### 3.1 Orders

#### 3.2 P-adic Valuation

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $p$  be a prime and let  $n$  be a non-zero integer. We define  $\nu_p(n)$  to be the exponent of  $p$  in the prime factorization of  $n$ .

**Theorem 3.2** (Legendre's Theorem).

$$\nu_p(n!) = \sum_{k \geq 1} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^k} \right\rfloor.$$

**Problem 3.3** (Putnam 2003/B3). Show that for each positive integer  $n$ ,

$$n! = \prod_{i=1}^n \text{lcm} \left\{ 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{n}{i} \right\rfloor \right\}$$

(Here lcm denotes the least common multiple, and  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer  $\leq x$ .)

*Proof.* Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_p \left( \prod_{k=1}^n \text{lcm} \{ 1, 2, \dots, \lfloor n/k \rfloor \} \right) &= \sum_{k=1}^n \nu_p (\text{lcm} \{ 1, 2, \dots, \lfloor n/k \rfloor \}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \lfloor \log_p \lfloor n/k \rfloor \rfloor \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{\ell: \lfloor n/k \rfloor \geq p^\ell} 1 \\ &= \sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^\ell} \right\rfloor. \end{aligned}$$

This is exactly  $\nu_p(n!)$  by Legendre's Theorem. □

**Theorem 3.4** (Lifting-the-Exponent(LTE) Lemma). *Let  $p$  be prime,  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $p \mid (x - y)$ ,  $p \nmid x$ ,  $p \nmid y$ .*

- if  $p$  is odd,  $\nu_p(x^n - y^n) = \nu_p(x - y) + \nu_p(n)$ ,
- for  $p = 2$  and even  $n$ ,  $\nu_2(x^n - y^n) = \nu_2(x - y) + \nu_2(n) + \nu_2(x + y) - 1$ .

### 3.3 Cyclotomic Polynomials

### 3.4 Finite Field Arithmetic

Refer to [Evan Chen, Summations](#).

**Theorem 3.5** (Fermat's Little Theorem). *Let  $p$  be a prime. Then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  whenever  $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ .*

**Theorem 3.6** (Lagrange's Theorem). *If  $p$  is prime and  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , then either*

- *every coefficient of  $f(x)$  is divisible by  $p$ , or*
- *$f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  has at most  $\deg(f)$  incongruent solutions.*

**Theorem 3.7** (Wilson's Theorem). *For any prime  $p$ ,*

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1.$$

*Proof.* Let  $g(x) = (x-1)(x-2)\dots(x-(p-1))$  and  $h(x) = x^{p-1} - 1$ . Both polynomials have degree  $p-1$  and leading term  $x^{p-1}$ . The constant term for  $g(x)$  is  $(p-1)!$ . By Fermat's little theorem,  $h(x)$  has roots  $1, 2, \dots, p-1$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

Now, consider  $f(x) = g(x) - h(x)$ . Note that  $\deg(f) \leq p-2$  since the leading terms cancel. In  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , it also has the same roots  $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ . By Lagrange's Theorem(3.2), we must have that  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . It follows that  $f(0) = (p-1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  which proves the result.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.8** (Sums of Powers). *Let  $p$  be a prime and  $n$  an integer. Then,*

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k^m \equiv \begin{cases} 0 \pmod{p} & \text{if } p-1 \nmid m \\ -1 \pmod{p} & \text{if } p-1 \mid m \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* If  $p-1 \mid m$ , then  $(p-1)\ell = m$  for some  $\ell$ , so it follows that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k = 1^{p-1} k^m \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} (k^{p-1})^\ell \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} 1 \equiv p-1 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

Otherwise, if we let  $g$  be a generator for  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ , we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} k^m \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-2} g^{km} \equiv \frac{g^{(p-1)m} - 1}{g^m - 1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

since  $g^m - 1 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.9** (Wolstenholme's Theorem). *Let  $p > 3$  be prime. Then*

$$(p-1)! \left( \frac{1}{1} + \dots + \frac{1}{p-1} \right) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}.$$

**Theorem 3.10** (Harmonic modulo  $p$ ). *For any integer  $k = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ , we have*

$$\frac{1}{k} \equiv (-1)^{k-1} \frac{1}{p} \binom{p}{k} \pmod{p}.$$

**Problem 3.11** (ELMO 2009). Let  $p$  be an odd prime and  $x$  be an integer such that  $p \mid x^3 - 1$  but  $p \nmid x - 1$ . Prove that  $p$  divides

$$(p-1)! \left( x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots - \frac{x^{p-1}}{p-1} \right).$$

*Proof.* Note that  $p \mid x^3 - 1$  and  $x \nmid x - 1$  implies that  $p \mid x^2 + x + 1$ , so we have  $1 + x \equiv -x^2 \pmod{p}$ . Using Theorem 3.6, we can rewrite the expression as

$$\begin{aligned} x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots - \frac{x^{p-1}}{p-1} &\equiv \frac{x}{p} \binom{p}{1} + \frac{x^2}{p} \binom{p}{2} + \dots + \frac{x^{p-1}}{p} \binom{p}{p-1} \pmod{p} \\ &= \frac{1}{p} ((1+x)^p - 1 - x^p) \pmod{p} \\ &= -\frac{1}{p} (1 + x^p + x^{2p}). \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $x^{2p} + x^p + 1 \equiv (x^2 + x)^p + 1 \pmod{p}$ . By the Lifting-The-Exponent(LTE) lemma,

$$\nu_p((x^2 + x)^p + 1^p) = \nu_p(x^2 + x + 1) + \nu_p(p) \geq 2.$$

It follows that  $1 + x^p + x^{2p} \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$ , which proves the result.  $\square$

### 3.5 Arithmetic Functions

**Definition 3.12.** A function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is **multiplicative** if  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$  whenever  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ . It is **completely multiplicative** if  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$  for any  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 3.13** (Möbius Function). The Möbius Function,  $\mu$ , is defined by

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} (-1)^m & \text{if } n \text{ has } m \text{ distinct prime factors,} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is not squarefree.} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 3.14** (Dirichlet Convolution). Given two arithmetic functions,  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , we define

$$(f * g)(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)g(n/d) = \sum_{de=n} f(d)g(e).$$

**Theorem 3.15** (Möbius Inversion). *Given two arithmetic functions  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ ,*

$$g(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d) \iff f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)g(n/d).$$

*In other words,  $g = f * 1$  if and only if  $f = g * \mu$ .*

**Problem 3.16** (Bulgaria 1989). Let  $\Omega(n)$  denote the number of prime factors of  $n$ , counted with multiplicity. Evaluate

$$\sum_{n=1}^{1989} (-1)^{\Omega(n)} \left\lfloor \frac{1989}{n} \right\rfloor.$$

*Proof.* Note that  $g(n) = -1^{\Omega(n)}$  is (completely) multiplicative. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{1989} (-1)^{\Omega(n)} \left\lfloor \frac{1989}{n} \right\rfloor &= \sum_{n=1}^{1989} \sum_{k \leq 1989, n|k} (-1)^{\Omega(n)} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{1989} \sum_{n|k} (-1)^{\Omega(n)}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $g * 1$  is multiplicative so it suffices to evaluate  $(g * 1)(k) = \sum_{n|k} (-1)^{\Omega(n)}$  for prime powers. Note that

$$(g * 1)(p^k) = \sum_{r=0}^k (-1)^r = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}.$$

It follows that  $(g * 1)(n) = 1$  when  $n$  is a perfect square and is 0 otherwise. Hence, the sum evaluates to  $\lfloor \sqrt{1989} \rfloor = 44$ .  $\square$

## 4 Analysis

### 4.1 Sequences and Series

### 4.2 Measure Theory and Integration

**Problem 4.1** (Putnam 2002/A6). Fix an integer  $b \geq 2$ . Let  $f(1) = 1$ ,  $f(2) = 2$ , and for each  $n \geq 3$ , define  $f(n) = nf(d)$ , where  $d$  is the number of base- $b$  digits of  $n$ . For which values of  $b$  does the sum  $\sum_{n \geq 1} 1/f(n)$  converge?

*Proof.* The sum converges for  $b = 2$  and diverges for  $b \geq 3$ .

We first consider  $b \geq 3$ . Suppose the sum converges. Note that we can write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(n)} = \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(d)} \sum_{n=b^{d-1}}^{b^d-1} \frac{1}{n}.$$

Note that  $\sum_{n=b^{d-1}}^{b^d-1} \frac{1}{n}$  is a left-endpoint Riemann approximation for the integral  $\int_{b^{d-1}}^{b^d} \frac{1}{x}$  and the function  $\frac{1}{x}$  is monotonically decreasing on this interval so it follows that

$$\sum_{n=b^{d-1}}^{b^d-1} \frac{1}{n} > \int_{b^{d-1}}^{b^d} \frac{1}{x} = \log b.$$

However, this implies that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(n)} > \log b \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(d)},$$

which is a contradiction since  $\log b > 1$ .

Now, we show that the sum converges in the case of  $b = 2$ . Let  $C = \log 2 + \frac{1}{8} < 1$ . We prove by induction that for each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{2^m-1} \frac{1}{f(n)} < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6(1-C)} = L.$$

For  $m = 1, 2$ , the result is clear. Suppose it is true for all  $m \in \{1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$ . Note that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{2^N-1} \frac{1}{f(n)} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \sum_{d=3}^N \frac{1}{f(d)} \sum_{n=2^{d-1}}^{2^d-1} \frac{1}{n}.$$

Then, using a right-endpoint Riemann approximation, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=2^{d-1}}^{2^d-1} \frac{1}{n} &= \frac{1}{2^{d-1}} - \frac{1}{2^d} + \sum_{n=2^{d-1}+1}^{2^d} \frac{1}{n} \\ &< 2^{-d} + \int_{2^{d-1}}^{2^d} \frac{dx}{x} \\ &< \frac{1}{8} + \log 2 = C. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \sum_{d=3}^N \frac{1}{f(d)} < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + C \sum_{d=3}^N \frac{1}{f(d)} \quad (1)$$

$$< 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{C}{6(1-C)} \quad (2)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6(1-C)} = L, \quad (3)$$

where we used the strong induction hypothesis to obtain (2).  $\square$

**Problem 4.2** (Putnam 2003/B6). Let  $f(x)$  be a continuous real-valued function defined on  $[0, 1]$ . Show that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy \geq \int_0^1 |f(x)| \, dx.$$

*Proof.* Let  $f^+ = \max(f(x), 0)$  and  $f^- = f^+ - f$ . Let  $A = \text{supp } f^+$ ,  $B = \text{supp } f^-$ . We will denote  $\|g\| = \int_0^1 |g(x)| \, dx$ .

Note that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy = \left( \iint_{A \times A} + \iint_{B \times B} + 2 \iint_{A \times B} \right) |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy.$$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{A \times A} |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy &= \iint_{A \times A} (f(x) + f(y)) \, dx dy \\ &= \iint_{A \times A} f(x) \, dx dy + \iint_{A \times A} f(y) \, dx dy \\ &= 2|A|\|f^+\|. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $\iint_{B \times B} |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy = 2|B|\|f^-\|$ .

Finally, note that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_{A \times B} |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy &= \iint_{A \times B} |f^+(x) - f^-(y)| \, dx dy \\ &\geq \left| \iint_{A \times B} (f^+(x) - f^-(y)) \, dx dy \right| \\ &= ||B|\|f^+\| - |A|\|f^-\||. \end{aligned}$$

Combining the results, we have that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy \geq 2|A|\|f^+\| + 2|B|\|f^-\| + 2||B|\|f^+\| - |A|\|f^-\||.$$



Squaring both sides of the expression, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left( \int_0^1 \int_0^1 |f(x) + f(y)| \, dx dy \right)^2 \geq (2|A|\|f^+\| + 2|B|\|f^-\| + 2\|B\|\|f^+\| - |A|\|f^-\|)^2 \\
& = 4(|A|\|f^+\| + |B|\|f^-\| + \|B\|\|f^+\| - |A|\|f^-\|)^2 \\
& = 4(|A|\|f^+\| + |B|\|f^-\|)^2 + 4(|B|\|f^+\| - |A|\|f^-\|)^2 + 8(|A|\|f^+\| + |B|\|f^-\|)(\|B\|\|f^+\| - |A|\|f^-\|) \\
& \geq 4(|A|^2\|f^+\|^2 + |B|^2\|f^-\|^2 + |A|^2\|f^-\|^2 + |B|^2\|f^+\|^2) \\
& \geq 4(|A|^2 + |B|^2)(\|f^+\|^2 + \|f^-\|^2) \\
& \geq (|A| + |B|)^2(\|f^+\| + \|f^-\|)^2 \\
& = (1)^2(\|f\|)^2 \\
& = \left( \int_0^1 |f(x)| \, dx \right)^2.
\end{aligned}$$

□

### 4.3 Vector Calculus

### 4.4 Complex Analysis

## 5 Geometry

### 5.1 Classical Results

**Theorem 5.1** (Incenter-Excenter Lemma).

**Theorem 5.2** (Euler's Theorem). *Let  $ABC$  be a triangle. Let  $R$  and  $r$  denote its circumradius and inradius, respectively. Let  $O$  and  $I$  denote the circumcenter and incenter. then  $OI^2 = R(R - 2r)$ . In particular,  $R \geq 2r$ .*

### 5.2 Complex Numbers

**Theorem 5.3** (Complex Special Points). *Let  $(ABC)$  be the unit circle. We have*

- the circumcenter,  $o = 0$ .
- the orthocenter,  $h = a + b + c$ .
- the centroid,  $g = \frac{a+b+c}{3}$ .
- the nine-point center,  $n_9 = \frac{a+b+c}{2}$ .

**Theorem 5.4** (Complex Incenter). *Given  $ABC$  on the unit circle, it is possible to pick  $u, v, w$  such that*

- $a = u^2, b = v^2, c = w^2$ ,
- the midpoint of  $\widehat{BC}$  is  $-vw$ , the midpoint of  $\widehat{CA}$  is  $-wu$  and the midpoint of  $\widehat{ab}$  is  $-uv$ ,
- the incenter  $I = -(uv - vw - wu)$ .

**Theorem 5.5** (Complex Foot). *If  $a \neq b$  are on the unit circle and  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ , then the foot from  $Z$  to  $AB$  is given by*

$$\frac{a + b + z - ab\bar{z}}{2}$$

**Theorem 5.6** (Complex Shoelace). *If  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{C}$ , the signed area of  $\triangle ABC$  is given by*

$$\frac{i}{4} \begin{vmatrix} a & \bar{a} & 1 \\ b & \bar{b} & 1 \\ c & \bar{c} & 1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

**Theorem 5.7** (Concyclic Complex Numbers). *Let  $a, b, c, d$  be distinct complex numbers, not all collinear. Then  $A, B, C, D$  are concyclic if and only if*

$$\frac{b-a}{c-a} \div \frac{b-d}{c-d} \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Problem 5.8** (Putnam 2003/B5). *Let  $A, B$  and  $C$  be equidistant points on the circumference of a circle of unit radius centered at  $O$ , and let  $P$  be any point in the circle's interior. Let  $a, b, c$  be the distances from  $P$  to  $A, B, C$  respectively. Show that there is a triangle with side lengths  $a, b, c$ , and that the area of this triangle depends only on the distance from  $P$  to  $O$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$ ,  $A = 1$ ,  $B = \omega$ ,  $C = \omega^2$ ,  $P = z \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $|z| < 1$ . We have

$$a = |z - 1|, b = |z - \omega|, c = |z - \omega^2|.$$

Note that

$$(z - 1) + \omega(z - \omega) + \omega^2(z - \omega^2) = z(1 + \omega + \omega^2) - (1 + \omega^2 + \omega^4) = 0.$$

The corresponding triangle, where we visualize the complex numbers as vectors that are sides of the triangle, has side lengths of  $a, b, c$  as desired.

The area of the triangle is given by

$$\begin{aligned} |(z - 1)\omega(\bar{z} - \bar{\omega}) - z\bar{z} - 1\omega(\bar{z} - \bar{\omega})|/4 &= |(z - 1)(\omega^2\bar{z} - \bar{\omega}) - (\bar{z} - 1)(\omega z - \omega^2)|/4 \\ &= |z\bar{z}\omega^2 - \omega^2\bar{z} - z\omega + \omega - z\bar{z}\omega + \omega z + \bar{z}\omega^2 - \omega^2|/4 \\ &= |(z\bar{z} - 1)(\omega^2 - \omega)|/4 \\ &= \frac{(1 - |z|^2)\sqrt{3}}{4}, \end{aligned}$$

which is a function of  $z$ , as desired.  $\square$

**Problem 5.9.** Let  $H$  be the orthocenter of  $\triangle ABC$ . Let  $X$  be the reflection of  $H$  over  $\overline{BC}$  and  $Y$  the reflection over the midpoint of  $\overline{BC}$ . Prove that  $X$  and  $Y$  lie on  $(ABC)$ , and  $\overline{AY}$  is a diameter.

*Proof.* Let  $A = a, B = b, C = c$  be the complex number representation and without loss of generality, suppose that  $(ABC)$  is the unit circle. Note that the orthocenter is given by  $h = a + b + c$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} x &= b + (c - b)\overline{\left(\frac{h - b}{c - b}\right)} \\ &= b + (c - b)\left(\frac{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} - \frac{1}{b}}{\frac{1}{c} - \frac{1}{b}}\right) \\ &= b - bc\left(\frac{a + c}{ac}\right) \\ &= b\left(1 - 1 - \frac{c}{a}\right) \\ &= -\frac{bc}{a} \in (ABC). \end{aligned}$$

Next, if we let  $m = \frac{b+c}{2}$ , note that we have

$$y - m = -(h - m) \Rightarrow y = 2m - h = -a \in (ABC).$$

Furthermore, since  $y = -a$ , we have that  $\overline{AY}$  is a diameter of  $(ABC)$ .  $\square$

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3. Evan Chen, [Summation](#)
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