

# Solutions to the 72nd William Lowell Putnam Mathematical Competition

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A1 We claim that the set of points with  $0 \leq x \leq 2011$  and  $0 \leq y \leq 2011$  that cannot be the last point of a growing spiral are as follows:  $(0, y)$  for  $0 \leq y \leq 2011$ ;  $(x, 0)$  and  $(x, 1)$  for  $1 \leq x \leq 2011$ ;  $(x, 2)$  for  $2 \leq x \leq 2011$ ; and  $(x, 3)$  for  $3 \leq x \leq 2011$ . This gives a total of

$$2012 + 2011 + 2011 + 2010 + 2009 = 10053$$

excluded points.

The complement of this set is the set of  $(x, y)$  with  $0 < x < y$ , along with  $(x, y)$  with  $x \geq y \geq 4$ . Clearly the former set is achievable as  $P_2$  in a growing spiral, while a point  $(x, y)$  in the latter set is  $P_6$  in a growing spiral with successive lengths  $1, 2, 3, x+1, x+2$ , and  $x+y-1$ .

We now need to rule out the other cases. Write  $x_1 < y_1 < x_2 < y_2 < \dots$  for the lengths of the line segments in the spiral in order, so that  $P_1 = (x_1, 0)$ ,  $P_2 = (x_1, y_1)$ ,  $P_3 = (x_1 - x_2, y_1)$ , and so forth. Any point beyond  $P_0$  has  $x$ -coordinate of the form  $x_1 - x_2 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1}x_n$  for  $n \geq 1$ ; if  $n$  is odd, we can write this as  $x_1 + (-x_2 + x_3) + \dots + (-x_{n-1} + x_n) > 0$ , while if  $n$  is even, we can write this as  $(x_1 - x_2) + \dots + (x_{n-1} - x_n) < 0$ . Thus no point beyond  $P_0$  can have  $x$ -coordinate 0, and we have ruled out  $(0, y)$  for  $0 \leq y \leq 2011$ .

Next we claim that any point beyond  $P_3$  must have  $y$ -coordinate either negative or  $\geq 4$ . Indeed, each such point has  $y$ -coordinate of the form  $y_1 - y_2 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1}y_n$  for  $n \geq 2$ , which we can write as  $(y_1 - y_2) + \dots + (y_{n-1} - y_n) < 0$  if  $n$  is even, and

$$y_1 + (-y_2 + y_3) + \dots + (-y_{n-1} + y_n) \geq y_1 + 2 \geq 4$$

if  $n \geq 3$  is odd. Thus to rule out the rest of the forbidden points, it suffices to check that they cannot be  $P_2$  or  $P_3$  for any growing spiral. But none of them can be  $P_3 = (x_1 - x_2, y_1)$  since  $x_1 - x_2 < 0$ , and none of them can be  $P_2 = (x_1, y_1)$  since they all have  $y$ -coordinate at most equal to their  $x$ -coordinate.

A2 For  $m \geq 1$ , write

$$S_m = \frac{3}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{b_1 \cdots b_m}{(b_1 + 2) \cdots (b_m + 2)} \right).$$

Then  $S_1 = 1 = 1/a_1$  and a quick calculation yields

$$S_m - S_{m-1} = \frac{b_1 \cdots b_{m-1}}{(b_2 + 2) \cdots (b_m + 2)} = \frac{1}{a_1 \cdots a_m}$$

for  $m \geq 2$ , since  $a_j = (b_j + 2)/b_{j-1}$  for  $j \geq 2$ . It follows that  $S_m = \sum_{n=1}^m 1/(a_1 \cdots a_n)$ .

Now if  $(b_j)$  is bounded above by  $B$ , then  $\frac{b_j}{b_j+2} \leq \frac{B}{B+2}$  for all  $j$ , and so  $3/2 > S_m \geq 3/2(1 - (\frac{B}{B+2})^m)$ . Since  $\frac{B}{B+2} < 1$ , it follows that the sequence  $(S_m)$  converges to  $S = 3/2$ .

A3 We claim that  $(c, L) = (-1, 2/\pi)$  works. Write  $f(r) = \int_0^{\pi/2} x^r \sin x dx$ . Then

$$f(r) < \int_0^{\pi/2} x^r dx = \frac{(\pi/2)^{r+1}}{r+1}$$

while since  $\sin x \geq 2x/\pi$  for  $x \leq \pi/2$ ,

$$f(r) > \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{2x^{r+1}}{\pi} dx = \frac{(\pi/2)^{r+1}}{r+2}.$$

It follows that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} r \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{r+1} f(r) = 1,$$

whence

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(r)}{f(r+1)} = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r(2/\pi)^{r+1} f(r)}{(r+1)(2/\pi)^{r+2} f(r+1)} \cdot \frac{2(r+1)}{\pi r} = \frac{2}{\pi}.$$

Now by integration by parts, we have

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x^r \cos x dx = \frac{1}{r+1} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^{r+1} \sin x dx = \frac{f(r+1)}{r+1}.$$

Thus setting  $c = -1$  in the given limit yields

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(r+1)f(r)}{rf(r+1)} = \frac{2}{\pi},$$

as desired.

A4 The answer is  $n$  odd. Let  $I$  denote the  $n \times n$  identity matrix, and let  $A$  denote the  $n \times n$  matrix all of whose entries are 1. If  $n$  is odd, then the matrix  $A - I$  satisfies the conditions of the problem: the dot product of any row with itself is  $n - 1$ , and the dot product of any two distinct rows is  $n - 2$ .

Conversely, suppose  $n$  is even, and suppose that the matrix  $M$  satisfied the conditions of the problem. Consider all matrices and vectors mod 2. Since the dot product of a row with itself is equal mod 2 to the sum of the entries of the row, we have  $Mv = 0$  where  $v$  is the vector  $(1, 1, \dots, 1)$ , and so  $M$  is singular. On the other hand,  $MM^T = A - I$ ; since

$$(A - I)^2 = A^2 - 2A + I = (n - 2)A + I = I,$$

we have  $(\det M)^2 = \det(A - I) = 1$  and  $\det M = 1$ , contradicting the fact that  $M$  is singular.

A5 (by Abhinav Kumar) Define  $G : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $G(x) = \int_0^x g(t) dt$ . By assumption,  $G$  is a strictly increasing, thrice continuously differentiable function. It is also bounded: for  $x > 1$ , we have

$$0 < G(x) - G(1) = \int_1^x g(t) dt \leq \int_1^x dt/t^2 = 1,$$

and similarly, for  $x < -1$ , we have  $0 > G(x) - G(-1) \geq -1$ . It follows that the image of  $G$  is some open interval  $(A, B)$  and that  $G^{-1} : (A, B) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is also thrice continuously differentiable.

Define  $H : (A, B) \times (A, B) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $H(x, y) = F(G^{-1}(x), G^{-1}(y))$ ; it is twice continuously differentiable since  $F$  and  $G^{-1}$  are. By our assumptions about  $F$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}(G^{-1}(x), G^{-1}(y)) \cdot \frac{1}{g(G^{-1}(x))} \\ &\quad + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}(G^{-1}(x), G^{-1}(y)) \cdot \frac{1}{g(G^{-1}(y))} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $H$  is constant along any line parallel to the vector  $(1, 1)$ , or equivalently,  $H(x, y)$  depends only on  $x - y$ . We may thus write  $H(x, y) = h(x - y)$  for some function  $h$  on  $-(B - A), B - A$ , and we then have  $F(x, y) = h(G(x) - G(y))$ . Since  $F(u, u) = 0$ , we have  $h(0) = 0$ . Also,  $h$  is twice continuously differentiable (since it can be written as  $h(x) = H(x, 0)$ ), so  $|h'|$  is bounded on the closed interval  $[-(B - A)/2, (B - A)/2]$ , say by  $M$ .

Given  $x_1, \dots, x_{n+1} \in \mathbb{R}$  for some  $n \geq 2$ , the numbers  $G(x_1), \dots, G(x_{n+1})$  all belong to  $(A, B)$ , so we can choose indices  $i$  and  $j$  so that  $|G(x_i) - G(x_j)| \leq (B - A)/n \leq (B - A)/2$ . By the mean value theorem,

$$|F(x_i, x_j)| = |h(G(x_i) - G(x_j))| \leq M \frac{B - A}{n},$$

so the claim holds with  $C = M(B - A)$ .

A6 Choose some ordering  $h_1, \dots, h_n$  of the elements of  $G$  with  $h_1 = e$ . Define an  $n \times n$  matrix  $M$  by setting  $M_{ij} = 1/k$  if  $h_j = h_i g$  for some  $g \in \{g_1, \dots, g_k\}$  and  $M_{ij} = 0$  otherwise. Let  $v$  denote the column vector  $(1, 0, \dots, 0)$ . The probability that the product of  $m$  random elements of  $\{g_1, \dots, g_k\}$  equals  $h_i$  can then be interpreted as the  $i$ -th component of the vector  $M^m v$ .

Let  $\hat{G}$  denote the dual group of  $G$ , i.e., the group of complex-valued characters of  $G$ . Let  $\hat{e} \in \hat{G}$  denote the trivial character. For each  $\chi \in \hat{G}$ , the vector  $v_\chi = (\chi(h_i))_{i=1}^n$  is an eigenvector of  $M$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda_\chi = (\chi(g_1) + \dots + \chi(g_k))/k$ . In particular,  $v_{\hat{e}}$  is the all-ones vector and  $\lambda_{\hat{e}} = 1$ . Put

$$b = \max\{|\lambda_\chi| : \chi \in \hat{G} - \{\hat{e}\}\};$$

we show that  $b \in (0, 1)$  as follows. First suppose  $b = 0$ ; then

$$1 = \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \lambda_\chi = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \chi(g_i) = \frac{n}{k}$$

because  $\sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} \chi(g_i)$  equals  $n$  for  $i = 1$  and 0 otherwise. However, this contradicts the hypothesis that  $\{g_1, \dots, g_k\}$  is not all of  $G$ . Hence  $b > 0$ . Next suppose  $b = 1$ , and choose  $\chi \in \hat{G} - \{\hat{e}\}$  with  $|\lambda_\chi| = 1$ . Since each of  $\chi(g_1), \dots, \chi(g_k)$  is a complex number of norm 1, the triangle inequality forces them all to be equal. Since  $\chi(g_1) = \chi(e) = 1$ ,  $\chi$  must map each of  $g_1, \dots, g_k$  to 1, but this is impossible because  $\chi$  is a nontrivial character and  $g_1, \dots, g_k$  form a set of generators of  $G$ . This contradiction yields  $b < 1$ .

Since  $v = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G}} v_\chi$  and  $M v_\chi = \lambda_\chi v_\chi$ , we have

$$M^m v - \frac{1}{n} v_{\hat{e}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G} - \{\hat{e}\}} \lambda_\chi^m v_\chi.$$

Since the vectors  $v_\chi$  are pairwise orthogonal, the limit we are interested in can be written as

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{b^{2m}} (M^m v - \frac{1}{n} v_{\hat{e}}) \cdot (M^m v - \frac{1}{n} v_{\hat{e}}).$$

and then rewritten as

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{b^{2m}} \sum_{\chi \in \hat{G} - \{\hat{e}\}} |\lambda_\chi|^{2m} = \#\{\chi \in \hat{G} : |\lambda_\chi| = b\}.$$

By construction, this last quantity is nonzero and finite.

**Remark.** It is easy to see that the result fails if we do not assume  $g_1 = e$ : take  $G = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n = 1$ , and  $g_1 = 1$ .

**Remark.** Harm Derksen points out that a similar argument applies even if  $G$  is not assumed to be abelian, provided that the operator  $g_1 + \dots + g_k$  in the group algebra  $\mathbb{Z}[G]$  is *normal*, i.e., it commutes with the operator  $g_1^{-1} + \dots + g_k^{-1}$ . This includes the cases where the set  $\{g_1, \dots, g_k\}$  is closed under taking inverses and where it is a union of conjugacy classes (which in turn includes the case of  $G$  abelian).

**Remark.** The matrix  $M$  used above has nonnegative entries with row sums equal to 1 (i.e., it corresponds to a Markov chain), and there exists a positive integer  $m$  such that  $M^m$  has positive entries. For any such matrix, the Perron-Frobenius theorem implies that the sequence of vectors  $M^m v$  converges to a limit  $w$ , and there exists  $b \in [0, 1)$  such that

$$\limsup_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{b^{2m}} \sum_{i=1}^n ((M^m v - w)_i)^2$$

is nonzero and finite. (The intended interpretation in case  $b = 0$  is that  $M^m v = w$  for all large  $m$ .) However, the limit need not exist in general.

B1 Since the rational numbers are dense in the reals, we can find positive integers  $a, b$  such that

$$\frac{3\varepsilon}{hk} < \frac{b}{a} < \frac{4\varepsilon}{hk}.$$

By multiplying  $a$  and  $b$  by a suitably large positive integer, we can also ensure that  $3a^2 > b$ . We then have

$$\frac{\varepsilon}{hk} < \frac{b}{3a} < \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2+b}+a} = \sqrt{a^2+b}-a$$

and

$$\sqrt{a^2+b}-a = \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2+b}+a} \leq \frac{b}{2a} < 2\frac{\varepsilon}{hk}.$$

We may then take  $m = k^2(a^2 + b), n = h^2a^2$ .

B2 Only the primes 2 and 5 appear seven or more times. The fact that these primes appear is demonstrated by the examples

$$(2, 5, 2), (2, 5, 3), (2, 7, 5), (2, 11, 5)$$

and their reversals.

It remains to show that if either  $\ell = 3$  or  $\ell$  is a prime greater than 5, then  $\ell$  occurs at most six times as an element of a triple in  $S$ . Note that  $(p, q, r) \in S$  if and only if  $q^2 - 4pr = a^2$  for some integer  $a$ ; in particular, since  $4pr \geq 16$ , this forces  $q \geq 5$ . In particular,  $q$  is odd, as then is  $a$ , and so  $q^2 \equiv a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ ; consequently, one of  $p, r$  must equal 2. If  $r = 2$ , then  $8p = q^2 - a^2 = (q+a)(q-a)$ ; since both factors are of the same sign and their sum is the positive number  $2q$ , both factors are positive. Since they are also both even, we have  $q+a \in \{2, 4, 2p, 4p\}$  and so  $q \in \{2p+1, p+2\}$ . Similarly, if  $p = 2$ , then  $q \in \{2r+1, r+2\}$ . Consequently,  $\ell$  occurs at most twice as many times as there are prime numbers in the list

$$2\ell+1, \ell+2, \frac{\ell-1}{2}, \ell-2.$$

For  $\ell = 3, \ell-2 = 1$  is not prime. For  $\ell \geq 7$ , the numbers  $\ell-2, \ell, \ell+2$  cannot all be prime, since one of them is always a nontrivial multiple of 3.

**Remark.** The above argument shows that the cases listed for 5 are the only ones that can occur. By contrast, there are infinitely many cases where 2 occurs if either the twin prime conjecture holds or there are infinitely many Sophie Germain primes (both of which are expected to be true).

B3 Yes, it follows that  $f$  is differentiable.

**First solution.** Note first that at 0,  $f/g$  and  $g$  are both continuous, as then is their product  $f$ . If  $f(0) \neq 0$ , then in some neighborhood of 0,  $f$  is either always positive or always negative. We can thus choose  $\varepsilon \in \{\pm 1\}$  so that  $\varepsilon f$  is the composition of the differentiable function

$(fg) \cdot (f/g)$  with the square root function. By the chain rule,  $f$  is differentiable at 0.

If  $f(0) = 0$ , then  $(f/g)(0) = 0$ , so we have

$$(f/g)'(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{xg(x)}.$$

Since  $g$  is continuous at 0, we may multiply limits to deduce that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)/x$  exists.

**Second solution.** Choose a neighborhood  $N$  of 0 on which  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Define the following functions on  $N \setminus \{0\}$ :  $h_1(x) = \frac{f(x)g(x)-f(0)g(0)}{x}$ ;  $h_2(x) = \frac{f(x)g(0)-f(0)g(x)}{xg(0)g(x)}$ ;  $h_3(x) = g(0)g(x)$ ;  $h_4(x) = \frac{1}{g(x)+g(0)}$ . Then by assumption,  $h_1, h_2, h_3, h_4$  all have limits as  $x \rightarrow 0$ . On the other hand,

$$\frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x} = (h_1(x)+h_2(x)h_3(x))h_4(x),$$

and it follows that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x}$  exists, as desired.

B4 Number the games  $1, \dots, 2011$ , and let  $A = (a_{jk})$  be the  $2011 \times 2011$  matrix whose  $jk$  entry is 1 if player  $k$  wins game  $j$  and  $i = \sqrt{-1}$  if player  $k$  loses game  $j$ . Then  $\overline{a_{hj}}a_{jk}$  is 1 if players  $h$  and  $k$  tie in game  $j$ ;  $i$  if player  $h$  wins and player  $k$  loses in game  $j$ ; and  $-i$  if  $h$  loses and  $k$  wins. It follows that  $T + iW = \overline{A}^T A$ .

Now the determinant of  $A$  is unchanged if we subtract the first row of  $A$  from each of the other rows, producing a matrix whose rows, besides the first one, are  $(1-i)$  times a row of integers. Thus we can write  $\det A = (1-i)^{2010}(a+bi)$  for some integers  $a, b$ . But then  $\det(T+iW) = \det(\overline{A}^T A) = 2^{2010}(a^2+b^2)$  is a non-negative integer multiple of  $2^{2010}$ , as desired.

B5 Define the function

$$f(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{(1+x^2)(1+(x+y)^2)}.$$

For  $y \geq 0$ , in the range  $-1 \leq x \leq 0$ , we have

$$(1+x^2)(1+(x+y)^2) \leq (1+1)(1+(1+y)^2) = 2y^2+4y+4 \leq 2y^2+4+2(y^2+1) \leq 6+6y^2.$$

We thus have the lower bound

$$f(y) \geq \frac{1}{6(1+y^2)};$$

the same bound is valid for  $y \leq 0$  because  $f(y) = f(-y)$ .

The original hypothesis can be written as

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n f(a_i - a_j) \leq An$$

and thus implies that

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{1}{1+(a_i - a_j)^2} \leq 6An.$$

By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, this implies

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n (1 + (a_i - a_j)^2) \geq Bn^3$$

for  $B = 1/(6A)$ .

**Remark.** One can also compute explicitly (using partial fractions, Fourier transforms, or contour integration) that  $f(y) = \frac{2\pi}{4+y^2}$ .

**Remark.** Praveen Venkataramana points out that the lower bound can be improved to  $Bn^4$  as follows. For each  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , put  $Q_{z,n} = \{i \in \{1, \dots, n\} : a_i \in [z, z+1)\}$  and  $q_{z,n} = \#Q_{z,n}$ . Then  $\sum_z q_{z,n} = n$  and

$$6An \geq \sum_{i,j=1}^n \frac{1}{1 + (a_i - a_j)^2} \geq \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{1}{2} q_{z,n}^2.$$

If exactly  $k$  of the  $q_{z,n}$  are nonzero, then  $\sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}} q_{z,n}^2 \geq n^2/k$  by Jensen's inequality (or various other methods), so we must have  $k \geq n/(6A)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i,j=1}^n (1 + (a_i - a_j)^2) &\geq n^2 + \sum_{i,j=1}^k \max\{0, (|i-j|-1)^2\} \\ &\geq n^2 + \frac{k^4}{6} - \frac{2k^3}{3} + \frac{5k^2}{6} - \frac{k}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

This is bounded below by  $Bn^4$  for some  $B > 0$ .

In the opposite direction, one can weaken the initial upper bound to  $An^{4/3}$  and still derive a lower bound of  $Bn^3$ . The argument is similar.

**B6** In order to interpret the problem statement, one must choose a convention for the value of  $0^0$ ; we will take it to equal 1. (If one takes  $0^0$  to be 0, then the problem fails for  $p = 3$ .)

**First solution.** By Wilson's theorem,

$$k!(p-1-k)! \equiv (-1)^k (p-1)! \equiv (-1)^{k+1} \pmod{p},$$

so we have a congruence of Laurent polynomials

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} k! x^k &\equiv \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} x^k}{(p-1-k)!} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv -x^{p-1} \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{(-x)^{-k}}{k!} \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Replacing  $x$  with  $-1/x$ , we reduce the original problem to showing that the polynomial

$$g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} \frac{x^k}{k!}$$

over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  has at most  $(p-1)/2$  nonzero roots in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . To see this, write

$$h(x) = x^p - x + g(x)$$

and note that by Wilson's theorem again,

$$h'(x) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \frac{x^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} = x^{p-1} - 1 + g(x).$$

If  $z \in \mathbb{F}_p$  is such that  $g(z) = 0$ , then  $z \neq 0$  because  $g(0) = 1$ . Therefore,  $z^{p-1} = 1$ , so  $h(z) = h'(z) = 0$  and so  $z$  is at least a double root of  $h$ . Since  $h$  is a polynomial of degree  $p$ , there can be at most  $(p-1)/2$  zeroes of  $g$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , as desired.

**Second solution.** (By Noam Elkies) Define the polynomial  $f$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  by

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{p-1} k! x^k.$$

Put  $t = (p-1)/2$ ; the problem statement is that  $f$  has at most  $t$  roots modulo  $p$ . Suppose the contrary; since  $f(0) = 1$ , this means that  $f(x)$  is nonzero for at most  $t-1$  values of  $x \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ . Denote these values by  $x_1, \dots, x_m$ , where by assumption  $m < t$ , and define the polynomial  $Q$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  by

$$Q(x) = \prod_{k=1}^m (x - x_k) = \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} Q_k x^k.$$

Then we can write

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} (1 - x^{p-1})$$

where  $P(x)$  is some polynomial of degree at most  $m$ . This means that the power series expansions of  $f(x)$  and  $P(x)/Q(x)$  coincide modulo  $x^{p-1}$ , so the coefficients of  $x^t, \dots, x^{2t-1}$  in  $f(x)Q(x)$  vanish. In other words, the product of the square matrix

$$A = ((i+j+1)!)_{i,j=0}^{t-1}$$

with the nonzero column vector  $(Q_{t-1}, \dots, Q_0)$  is zero. However, by the following lemma,  $\det(A)$  is nonzero modulo  $p$ , a contradiction.

**Lemma 1.** For any nonnegative integer  $m$  and any integer  $n$ ,

$$\det((i+j+n)!)_{i,j=0}^m = \prod_{k=0}^m k!(k+n)!.$$

*Proof.* Define the  $(m+1) \times (m+1)$  matrix  $A_{m,n}$  by  $(A_{m,n})_{i,j} = \binom{i+j+n}{i}$ ; the desired result is then that  $\det(A_{m,n}) = 1$ . Note that

$$(A_{m,n-1})_{ij} = \begin{cases} (A_{m,n})_{ij} & i = 0 \\ (A_{m,n})_{ij} - (A_{m,n})_{(i-1)j} & i > 0; \end{cases}$$

that is,  $A_{m,n-1}$  can be obtained from  $A_{m,n}$  by elementary row operations. Therefore,  $\det(A_{m,n}) = \det(A_{m,n-1})$ , so  $\det(A_{m,n})$  depends only on  $m$ . The claim now follows by observing that  $A_{0,0}$  is the  $1 \times 1$  matrix with entry 1 and that  $A_{m,-1}$  has the block representation  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & * \\ 0 & A_{m-1,0} \end{pmatrix}$ .  $\square$

**Remark.** Elkies has given a more detailed discussion of the origins of this solution in the theory of orthogonal polynomials; see

<http://mathoverflow.net/questions/82648>.