

## PUTNAM TRAINING

November 18, 2025

### PUTNAM PROBLEMS

**Putnam 1986-A3.** Evaluate  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \operatorname{arccot}(n^2 + n + 1)$ , where  $\operatorname{arccot}(t)$  for  $t \geq 0$  denotes the number  $\theta$  in the interval  $0 < \theta \leq \pi/2$  with  $\cot \theta = t$ .

**Solution.** The answer is  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

In fact, we have

$$S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \operatorname{arccot}(n^2 + n + 1).$$

Using  $t = \cot \theta = 1/\tan \theta$  for  $\theta \in (0, \pi/2]$ , so  $\tan \theta = 1/\cot \theta = 1/t$ , and we get

$$\theta = \operatorname{arccot}(t) = \arctan\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$$

for  $t > 0$ , hence

$$\operatorname{arccot}(n^2 + n + 1) = \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n^2 + n + 1}\right).$$

Next let  $\theta_n = \operatorname{arccot} n = \arctan \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $\tan \theta_n = \frac{1}{n}$ . Using the tangent addition/subtraction formula we have

$$\tan(\theta_n - \theta_{n+1}) = \frac{\tan \theta_n - \tan \theta_{n+1}}{1 + \tan \theta_n \tan \theta_{n+1}} \Rightarrow \theta_n - \theta_{n+1} = \arctan\left(\frac{\tan \theta_n - \tan \theta_{n+1}}{1 + \tan \theta_n \tan \theta_{n+1}}\right),$$

so for  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$\arctan\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) - \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) = \arctan\left(\frac{\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}}{1 + \frac{1}{n(n+1)}}\right) = \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n^2 + n + 1}\right).$$

Hence,

$$\operatorname{arccot}(n^2 + n + 1) = \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) - \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

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Training session conducted by Miguel A. Lerma.

The first term of the sum is  $\operatorname{arccot}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4}$ , and the rest of the series telescopes:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \arctan(1) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{arccot}(n^2 + n + 1) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{4} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) - \arctan\left(\frac{1}{n+1}\right) \right] \\ &= \frac{\pi}{4} + \left( \arctan(1) - \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \arctan \frac{1}{N+1} \right) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

**Putnam 1984-B1.** Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and define

$$f(n) = 1! + 2! + \cdots + n!.$$

Find polynomials  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  such that

$$f(n+2) = P(n)f(n+1) + Q(n)f(n)$$

for all  $n \geq 1$ .

**Solution.** We have

$$f(n+2) - f(n+1) = (n+2)! = (n+2)(n+1)! = (n+2)(f(n+1) - f(n)),$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} f(n+2) &= (n+2)(f(n+1) - f(n)) + f(n+1) \\ &= (n+3)f(n+1) - (n+2)f(n), \end{aligned}$$

and we can take  $P(x) = x + 3$ ,  $Q(x) = -x - 2$ .

**Putnam 2010-A1.** Given a positive integer  $n$ , what is the largest  $k$  such that the numbers  $1, 2, \dots, n$  can be put into  $k$  boxes so that the sum of the numbers in each box is the same? [When  $n = 8$ , the example  $\{1, 2, 3, 6\}$ ,  $\{4, 8\}$ ,  $\{5, 7\}$  shows that the largest  $k$  is *at least* 3.]

**Solution.** The answer is  $k = \lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \rfloor = \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$ .

To get many boxes we need to put as few elements as possible in each box. Since  $n$  itself must be in one of the boxes, the common sum cannot be less than  $n$ , hence  $k \leq (1 + \cdots + n)/n = (n+1)/2$ . The largest  $k$  with that property is  $k = \lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \rfloor$ . It remains to show that the bound is tight. In fact, for  $n$  even, this value is achieved by the partition

$$\{1, n\}, \{2, n-1\}, \dots,$$

and for  $n$  odd, it is achieved by the partition

$$\{n\}, \{1, n-1\}, \{2, n-2\}, \dots$$

**Putnam 2010-B1.** Is there an infinite sequence of real numbers  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  such that

$$a_1^m + a_2^m + a_3^m + \dots = m$$

for every positive integer  $m$ ?

**Solution.** No such sequence exists. We provide two proofs of this claim.

- *First proof:* If it did, then the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality would imply

$$\begin{aligned} 8 &= 2 \cdot 4 = (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots)(a_1^4 + a_2^4 + \dots) \\ &\geq (a_1^3 + a_2^3 + \dots)^2 = 9, \end{aligned}$$

contradiction.

- *Second proof:* Suppose that such a sequence exists. If  $a_k^2 \in [0, 1]$  for all  $k$ , then  $a_k^4 \leq a_k^2$  for all  $k$ , and so

$$4 = a_1^4 + a_2^4 + \dots \leq a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots = 2,$$

contradiction. There thus exists a positive integer  $k$  for which  $a_k^2 > 1$ . However, in this case, for  $m$  large,  $a_k^{2m} > 2m$  and so  $a_1^{2m} + a_2^{2m} + \dots \neq 2m$ .

#### PROBLEMS FROM OTHER COMPETITIONS

**Spanish Mathematical Olympiad 1971, Problem No. 4.** Prove that in a triangle with sides  $a, b, c$  and opposite angles  $A, B, C$  (in radians) the following relation holds:

$$\frac{aA + bB + cC}{a + b + c} \geq \frac{\pi}{3}.$$

You may assume  $a \geq b \geq c \Rightarrow A \geq B \geq C$ .

**Solution.** Actually more is true:

$$\frac{\pi}{3} \leq \frac{aA + bB + cC}{a + b + c} < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

For the first inequality, assume  $a \geq b \geq c, A \geq B \geq C$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq (a - b)(A - B) + (a - c)(A - C) + (b - c)(B - C) \\ &= 3(aA + bB + cC) - (a + b + c)(A + B + C). \end{aligned}$$

Using  $A + B + C = \pi$  and dividing by  $3(a + b + c)$  we get the desired result. Equality holds precisely when  $a = b = c$ , and  $A = B = C$ . [Note: This could also be proved by using *Chebyshev's Inequality*.]

For the second inequality, use the triangle inequalities

$$a + b + c > 2a, \quad a + b + c > 2b, \quad a + b + c > 2c.$$

Multiplying by  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  and adding we get

$$(a + b + c)(A + B + C) > 2(aA + bB + cC),$$

hence

$$\frac{aA + bB + cC}{a + b + c} < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

**Addendum.** The problem allows to assume that  $a \geq b \geq c \implies A \geq B \geq C$ , but the statement has a proof, as shown below.

*Proof.* Using the Law of Cosines,

$$\cos A = \frac{b^2 + c^2 - a^2}{2bc}, \quad \cos B = \frac{a^2 + c^2 - b^2}{2ac}.$$

Consider the difference

$$\cos B - \cos A = \frac{a^2 + c^2 - b^2}{2ac} - \frac{b^2 + c^2 - a^2}{2bc}.$$

Bringing to a common denominator  $2abc$  and simplifying, we obtain

$$\cos B - \cos A = \frac{(a - b)(a + b - c)(a + b + c)}{2abc}.$$

In a triangle we have  $a + b > c$ , and clearly  $a + b + c > 0$  and  $abc > 0$ . Thus the sign of  $\cos B - \cos A$  is the same as the sign of  $a - b$ .

If  $a \geq b$ , then  $a - b \geq 0$ , hence

$$\cos B - \cos A \geq 0 \implies \cos B \geq \cos A.$$

Since  $A, B \in (0, \pi)$  and  $\cos x$  is strictly decreasing on  $(0, \pi)$ , this implies  $B \leq A$ . Thus  $a \geq b \implies A \geq B$ .

Applying the same argument to the pair of sides  $b \geq c$  gives  $B \geq C$ . Therefore

$$a \geq b \geq c \implies A \geq B \geq C.$$

**Killer Problem 1.** Find all functions  $F(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  having the property that for any  $x_1, x_2$  the following inequality holds:

$$F(x_1) - F(x_2) \leq (x_1 - x_2)^2.$$

**Solution.** Since the inequality must still hold after swapping  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  we actually have  $|F(x_1) - F(x_2)| \leq (x_1 - x_2)^2$ . Next, for any  $x$  and  $h \neq 0$  let  $x_2 = x$ ,  $x_1 = x + h$ . Then, the given inequality implies

$$\frac{|F(x + h) - F(x)|}{|h|} = \frac{|F(x_1) - F(x_2)|}{|x_1 - x_2|} \leq |x_1 - x_2| = |h| \longrightarrow 0$$

as  $h \rightarrow 0$ . So  $F$  is differentiable and  $F'(x) = 0$ , hence  $F$  is constant. Since all constant functions verify the inequality, then  $F$  verifies the inequality if and only if  $F$  is constant.

## CHALLENGES

**Challenge.** Compute the last two digits of Graham's number. Graham's number is an astronomically large power-tower of the form

$$G = 3^{3^{3^{\cdot^{\cdot^{\cdot}}}}}.$$

**Solution.** The answer is 87.

*Partial Proof.* Here we prove the simpler statement that the last digit of  $G$  is 7.

**Claim.** The last digit of Graham's number is 7.

Compute the last digit of the first few powers of 3:

$$3^1 = 3, \quad 3^2 = 9, \quad 3^3 = 27, \quad 3^4 = 81.$$

Thus, modulo 10,

$$3, 9, 7, 1, 3, 9, 7, 1, \dots$$

so the last digit of  $3^n$  depends only on  $n \bmod 4$ . That is,

$$3^n \equiv \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ 9 & \text{if } n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}, \\ 7 & \text{if } n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \\ 1 & \text{if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Graham's number is a power tower of 3's, hence  $n = 3^m$ . The sequence of powers  $3^m$  modulo 4 are

$$3^1 \equiv 3, \quad 3^2 = 9 \equiv 1, \quad 3^3 = 27 \equiv 3, \quad \dots \pmod{4}$$

repeating with period 2, hence  $3^m \bmod 4$  depends only on the parity of  $m$ .

In Graham's number  $m$  is again a power of 3, hence odd. Therefore  $n = 3^m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , and  $3^n \equiv 7 \pmod{10}$ .

Hence, the last digit of Graham's number is 7. □

Next, the full proof.

*Full proof.* The last two digits of  $G$  are  $3^E \bmod 100$ , where  $E$  is an extremely large power tower of 3's as defined in the construction of Graham's number.

Since  $100 = 4 \times 25$  and  $\gcd(4, 25) = 1$ , we can use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT), that allows us to find  $3^E \bmod 100$  by computing  $3^E \bmod 4$  and  $3^E \bmod 25$  separately. Here

we do not really need the full force of the CRT, but we will use that the problem of finding  $3^E \bmod 100$  can be separated into the two subproblems  $3^E \bmod 4$  and  $3^E \bmod 25$ .

#### - Modulo 4:

We have that the order of 3 modulo 4 is 2 because

$$3^1 \equiv 3, \quad 3^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4},$$

hence

$$3^E \equiv 3 \pmod{4},$$

because  $E$  is odd.

#### - Modulo 25:

We could do the same and compute successive powers of 3 modulo 25 until the sequence repeats, but we can take a shortcut by using Euler's theorem

$$a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \quad \text{if} \quad \gcd(a, n) = 1,$$

where  $\varphi(n)$  is Euler's totient function. If  $p$  is prime then  $\varphi(p^k) = p^{k-1}(p-1)$ , so for  $n = 25 = 5^2$  we have  $\varphi(5^2) = 5 \times 4 = 20$ , hence

$$3^{\varphi(25)} \equiv 3^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{25},$$

i.e.,  $3^{20k+r} \equiv 3^r \pmod{25}$ , so it suffices to find  $E \bmod 20$ . (*Note:* this does not necessarily means that the order of 3 modulo 25 is 20, it could be shorter, but  $3^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$  is enough for our purposes.)

Next, we compute  $E \bmod 20$ . Let  $E = 3^m$  for some very large  $m$ . The order of 3 modulo 20 is 4 because

$$3^1 \equiv 3, \quad 3^2 \equiv 9, \quad 3^3 \equiv 7, \quad 3^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{20}.$$

Hence

$$3^m \bmod 20 \text{ depends only on } m \bmod 4.$$

Since  $m$  is odd,  $m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , so

$$E \equiv 3^3 \equiv 27 \equiv 7 \pmod{20}.$$

Therefore,

$$3^E \equiv 3^7 \pmod{25}.$$

#### - Modulo 100:

So we have

$$G \equiv 3^E \equiv 3 \pmod{4},$$

$$G \equiv 3^E \equiv 3^7 \pmod{25}.$$

Since 7 is odd we have  $3^7 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , hence  $G \equiv 3^7 \pmod{4}$  and  $G \equiv 3^7 \pmod{25}$ , in other words,  $4 \mid G - 3^7$  and  $25 \mid G - 3^7$ , hence  $100 \mid G - 3^7$ , i.e.,  $G \equiv 3^7 \pmod{100}$ .

So, compute:

$$3^4 = 81, \quad 3^5 \equiv 43, \quad 3^6 \equiv 29, \quad 3^7 \equiv 87 \pmod{100}.$$

Hence, the last two digits of Graham's number are 87 as claimed.  $\square$

## USEFUL RESULTS

**The Chinese Remainder Theorem.** Let  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$  be pairwise coprime positive integers, and let

$$M = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_k.$$

For any integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$ , the system of congruences

$$x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, k,$$

has a solution, and this solution is unique modulo  $M$ .

The solution can be found using the following formula.

Define

$$M_i = \frac{M}{m_i},$$

and let  $N_i$  be the modular inverse of  $M_i$  modulo  $m_i$ , that is,

$$M_i N_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}.$$

Then the solution to the system is given by

$$x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k a_i M_i N_i \pmod{M}.$$

**Euler's theorem.** Let  $\varphi(n)$  be Euler's totient function, defined as the number of positive integers less than or equal to  $n$  that are relatively prime to  $n$ . Then, if  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ :

$$a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Euler's totient function can be computed for  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  (where the  $p_i$  are distinct primes) as

$$\varphi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i-1} (p_i - 1).$$

**Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality (dot product form).** For any vectors  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|,$$

where

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i, \quad \|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}.$$

Equivalently:

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i \right)^2 \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 \right).$$

Equality holds if and only if  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are linearly dependent.

The inequality also applies to infinite series such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |u_i|^2 < \infty$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |v_i|^2 < \infty$ .

**Chebyshev Inequality.** Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  and  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$  be sequences of real numbers which are monotonic in the same direction (we have  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_n$  and  $b_1 \leq b_2 \leq \dots \leq b_n$ , or we could reverse all inequalities.) Then

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \geq \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \right) \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \right).$$