## PUTNAM PRACTICE SET 28: SOLUTIONS

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Problem 1. What is the maximum number of points in the cartesian plane whose both coordinates are rational numbers, which lie on the same circle whose center is not a point whose both coordinates are rational numbers?

Solution. Let $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ be the coordinates of the center of the circle and let $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ for $i=1, \ldots, \ell$ be points with both coordinates rational numbers lying on our circle; our goal is to find the largest value for $\ell$. We know that $\ell=2$ is possible since both $(-1,0)$ and $(1,0)$ lie on the same circle centered at the point $(0, \alpha)$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. We will show below that $\ell \geq 3$ is impossible.

So, assume $\ell \geq 3$; then we know that for each $i=1, \ldots, \ell$, we have that

$$
\left(x_{i}-x_{0}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{i}-y_{0}\right)^{2}=\left(x_{1}-x_{0}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{1}-y_{0}\right)^{2} .
$$

This last equation simplifies to

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{i}^{2}+y_{i}^{2}-x_{1}^{2}-y_{1}^{2}=2\left(x_{i}-x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{0}+2\left(y_{i}-y_{1}\right) \cdot y_{0} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know that noth both $x_{0}$ and $y_{0}$ are rational numbers; without loss of generality, we may assume $y_{0} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Since not all 3 points $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2,3$ can lie on the same line, then we cannot have that $y_{1}=y_{2}=y_{3}$; so, without loss of generality, we assume $y_{3} \neq y_{1}$. Using (1) for $i=3$, we conclude that also $x_{3}-x_{1} \neq 0$ since otherwise we would derive a contradiction because the left hand side is given to be rational, while the right hand wouldn't be rational.

Now, similar to equation (1), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{2}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}-x_{3}^{2}-y_{3}^{2}=2\left(x_{2}-x_{3}\right) \cdot x_{0}+2\left(y_{2}-y_{3}\right) \cdot y_{0} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, either $y_{2}-y_{3} \neq 0$ or $y_{2}-y_{1} \neq 0$; again, without loss of generality, we may assume $y_{2}-y_{1} \neq 0$. Therefore, arguing as before, we get $x_{2}-x_{1} \neq 0$; also, we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x_{2}-x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{0}+\left(y_{2}-y_{1}\right) \cdot y_{0} \in \mathbb{Q} \text { and }\left(x_{3}-x_{1}\right) \cdot x_{0}+\left(y_{3}-y_{1}\right) \cdot y_{0} \in \mathbb{Q} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{y_{2}-y_{1}}{x_{2}-x_{1}} \neq \frac{y_{3}-y_{1}}{x_{3}-x_{1}}, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

then (3) yields that $x_{0}, y_{0} \in \mathbb{Q}$, which is a contradiction. So, we must have that

$$
\frac{y_{3}-y_{1}}{x_{3}-x_{1}}=\frac{y_{2}-y_{1}}{x_{2}-x_{1}}
$$

which means that the three points $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right)$ and $\left(x_{3}, y_{3}\right)$ are on the same line, contradicting that they are on the same circle. So, indeed we cannot have more than 2 points with rational coordinates on the same circle whose center doesn't have rational coordinates.

Problem 2. Let $F_{0}(x)=\log (x)$ and for each $n \geq 1$ and $x>0$, we let

$$
F_{n}(x)=\int_{0}^{x} F_{n-1}(t) \mathrm{dt}
$$

Compute

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!\cdot F_{n}(1)}{\ln (n)}
$$

Solution. We claim that for each $n \geq 1$, we have that

$$
F_{n}(x)=\frac{x^{n}}{n!} \cdot\left(\log (x)-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}\right)
$$

The statement is easily seen to be true when $n=1$ since - integrating by parts we obtain that $F_{1}(x)=x \log (x)-x$. (Here we also use implicitly the fact that

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{+}} x \log (x)=0
$$

and thus, more generally, for any positive integer $m$, we have that

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 0^{+}} x^{m} \log (x)=0
$$

The above limits are easily computed using L'Hôpital's Rule, for example.) Then, inductively, we see that if

$$
F_{n}(x)=\frac{x^{n}}{n!} \cdot\left(\log (x)-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}\right)
$$

then computing $F_{n+1}(x)$ (again using integration by parts and the above limit of $x^{m} \log (x)$ as $\left.x \rightarrow 0^{+}\right)$, we get

$$
F_{n+1}(x)=\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \log (x)-\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!\cdot(n+1)}-\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}\right)
$$

which delivers the desired formula for $F_{n+1}(x)$ inductively. Therefore

$$
n!\cdot F_{n}(1)=-\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}
$$

and so, we are left to compute the limit

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}}{\log (n)}
$$

Now, using the fact that the function $x \mapsto \frac{1}{x}$ is decreasing for $x \geq 1$, we see that

$$
\int_{1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} \mathrm{dx}<\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}<1+\int_{1}^{n} \frac{1}{x} \mathrm{dx}
$$

(after considering left, rspectively right Riemann sums for the integral of $1 / x$ ). So, this means that

$$
\log (n+1)<\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}<1+\log (n)
$$

and therefore, using the Squeeze Theorem, we conclude that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!\cdot F_{n}(1)}{\log (n)}=-\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}}{\log (n)}=-1
$$

Problem 3. Let $p$ be a prime number and let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Assume that the integers $f(k)$ for $0 \leq k \leq p^{2}-1$ are all distinct modulo $p^{2}$. Then prove that for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the integers $f(k)$ for $0 \leq k \leq p^{n}-1$ are distinct modulo $p^{n}$.

Solution. First of all, we know that if

$$
x \equiv y \quad(\bmod m) \text { then } f(x) \equiv f(y) \quad(\bmod m)
$$

for any integers $x, y, m$. In particular, this means that

$$
f(k+p j) \equiv f(k) \quad(\bmod p) \text { for each } k, j=0, \ldots, p-1
$$

On the other hand, a simple computation shows that

$$
f(k+p j) \equiv f(k)+p j f^{\prime}(k) \quad\left(\bmod p^{2}\right) \text { for } k, j=0, \ldots, p-1
$$

Since the numbers $f(k+p j)$ are distinct modulo $p^{2}$, then this means that actually $f^{\prime}(k)$ is not divisible by $p$ (for each $k=0, \ldots, p-1$ ).

Now, we prove inductively on $n$ that the numbers $f(0), \ldots, f\left(p^{n}-1\right)$ are all distinct modulo $p^{n}$; the statement for $n=1,2$ is already the hypothesis in our problem. So, we assume that $f(0), \ldots, f\left(p^{n}-1\right)$ are distinct modulo $p^{n}$ (for some $n \geq 2)$ and we prove that $f(0), \ldots, f\left(p^{n+1}-1\right)$ are distinct modulo $p^{n+1}$.

We have that for each $\ell \in\left\{0, \ldots, p^{n}-1\right\}$,

$$
f^{\prime}(\ell) \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p)
$$

because each $f^{\prime}(\ell)$ is congruent with some $f^{\prime}(k)$ modulo $p$ where $\ell \equiv k(\bmod p)$ and we know that for $k \in\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$, we have that

$$
f^{\prime}(k) \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p)
$$

Now, since each $f(\ell)$ are distinct modulo $p^{n}$ for $\ell=0, \ldots, p^{n}-1$, in order to obtain the inductive conclusion, all we need to show is that for each $j \in\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$, the numbers $f\left(\ell+j p^{n}\right)$ are distinct modulo $p^{n+1}$. But using the same computation as before (which is essentially a Taylor expansion around $x=\ell$, or alternatively obtained from expanding each monomial from $f\left(\ell+j p^{n}\right)$ ), we have that

$$
f\left(\ell+j p^{n}\right) \equiv f(\ell)+j p^{n} f^{\prime}(\ell) \quad\left(\bmod p^{n+1}\right)
$$

Since $p$ doesn't divide $f^{\prime}(\ell)$, then as we vary $j \in\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$, we obtain distinct residue classes modulo $p^{n+1}$ for the numbers $f\left(\ell+j p^{n}\right)$, therefore showing that the integers $f(0), \ldots, f\left(p^{n+1}-1\right)$ are all distinct modulo $p^{n+1}$, as desired. Indeed, if $0 \leq i_{1}<i_{2} \leq p^{n+1}-1$, then either

$$
i_{2} \not \equiv i_{1} \quad\left(\bmod p^{n}\right)
$$

in which case by the inductive hypothesis, we have that

$$
f\left(i_{1}\right) \not \equiv f\left(i_{2}\right) \quad\left(\bmod p^{n}\right)
$$

and therefore, also

$$
f\left(i_{2}\right) \not \equiv f\left(i_{1}\right) \quad\left(\bmod p^{n+1}\right)
$$

or $i_{2}=i_{1}+p^{n} j$ for some $1 \leq j \leq p-1$ and then

$$
f\left(i_{2}\right) \equiv f\left(i_{1}\right)+p^{n} j f^{\prime}\left(i_{1}\right) \quad\left(\bmod p^{n+1}\right)
$$

and because $p$ doesn't divide $f^{\prime}\left(i_{1}\right)$ (nor divides $j$ ), then

$$
f\left(i_{2}\right) \not \equiv f\left(i_{1}\right) \quad\left(\bmod p^{n+1}\right)
$$

Problem 4. Find all functions $f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ whose derivative is continuous with the property that for each rational number $\frac{a}{b}$, written in lowest terms (i.e., $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, we have that also $f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)$ is a rational number whose denominator, when we write $f(a / b)$ in lowest terms, is also equal to $b$.

Solution. Let $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ be a fraction in its lowest terms $(\operatorname{so}, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1)$. We consider the limit:

$$
L:=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f\left(\frac{a}{b}+\frac{1}{b n}\right)-f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)}{\frac{1}{b n}}
$$

Clearly, since $f$ is differentiable, then we have that $L=f^{\prime}\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)$.
On the other hand, we claim that $L$ must be an integer; here's why. We have that

$$
\frac{a}{b}+\frac{1}{b n}=\frac{a n+1}{b n}
$$

is a rational number whose denominator (in lowest terms) is a divisor of $b n$. Therefore, due to our hypothesis, we have that there exists some integer $k_{n}$ such that

$$
f\left(\frac{a}{b}+\frac{1}{b n}\right)=\frac{k_{n}}{b n}
$$

On the other hand, we already know (again due to our hypothesis) that there exists an integer $\ell$ such that

$$
f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)=\frac{\ell}{b}
$$

which means that

$$
\frac{f\left(\frac{a}{b}+\frac{1}{b n}\right)-f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)}{\frac{1}{b n}}=\frac{\frac{k_{n}}{b n}-\frac{\ell}{b}}{\frac{1}{b n}}=k_{n}-n \ell \in \mathbb{Z} .
$$

So, $L$ is actually a limit of some integers; therefore, $L$ itself must be an integer (and actually, it means that for all $n$ sufficiently large, we have that $k_{n}-n \ell$ must be constant).

So, we have that for each rational number $q \in \mathbb{Q}, f^{\prime}(q) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now, since (by our hypothesis), $f^{\prime}(x)$ is a continuous function, then this means that $f^{\prime}(x)$ must be a constant function. Indeed, first of all, because each real number is the limit point of a sequence of rational numbers and $f^{\prime}(q) \in \mathbb{Z}$ when $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, then this forces that for any $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=\lim _{\substack{q \rightarrow x_{0} \\ q \in \mathbb{Q}}} f^{\prime}(q) \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

So, $f^{\prime}: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a continuous function, which in particular, it means that it must satisfy the Intermediate Value Theorem. However $f^{\prime}(x)$ never takes values which are not integers; therefore, $f^{\prime}(x)$ cannot take two distinct integer values $r<s$ (say) because then this would violate the Intermediate Value Theorem since $f^{\prime}(x)$ would never take the value $r+\frac{1}{2}$. So, $f^{\prime}(x)$ is constant (equal to some integer $c$ ), which means that

$$
f(x)=c x+d \text { for some given } c \in \mathbb{Z} \text { and } d \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Now, since $f(q) \in \mathbb{Q}$ whenever $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, then this means that $d \in \mathbb{Q}$. Moreover, because $f(0)=d$, applying our hypothesis to the rational number $\frac{0}{1}$ yields that $d$ itself must be an integer number. We finally claim that $c$ must be either equal to 1 or to -1 .

Now, first of all, $c$ cannot be equal to 0 because then $f(x)=d \in \mathbb{Z}$ and so, $f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ would not be a fraction in its lowest terms with denominator equal to 2 .

Second, if $|c|>1$, then we consider

$$
f\left(\frac{1}{2 c}\right)=\frac{1}{2}+d
$$

is a fraction in lowest terms with denominator equal to 2 , thus contradicting our hypothesis (because it should have denominator equal to $|2 c|>2$ ). So, indeed, we need $|c|=1$.

On the other hand, if $f(x)=x+d$ or $f(x)=-x+d$, then clearly, our hypothesis is verified and we are done.

