

Solution of the Third HKUST Undergraduate Math Competition – Senior Level

1. (*Solution 1 is a common proof involving $\sqrt{3}$*) Assume A, B, C are lattice points and also the vertices of an equilateral triangle. By translation, we may assume $A = (x_0, y_0), B = (x_1, y_1), C = (0, 0)$. Let $r = \sqrt{x_0^2 + y_0^2} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + y_1^2}$. Interchanging the names of A and B if necessary, we may suppose $x_0 = r \cos \theta, y_0 = r \sin \theta$ and

$$x_1 = r \cos(\theta + \pi/3) = (x_0 - y_0\sqrt{3})/2 \quad \text{and} \quad y_1 = r \sin(\theta + \pi/3) = (y_0 + x_0\sqrt{3})/2.$$

One of x_0 or y_0 is nonzero. If $x_0 \neq 0$, then $(2y_1 - y_0)/x_0 = \sqrt{3}$, which is a contradiction. If $y_0 \neq 0$, then $(x_0 - 2x_1)/y_0 = \sqrt{3}$, which is also a contradiction.

(*Solution 2 is a proof without any $\sqrt{3}$ due to HUANG Yifeng*) If A, B, C are lattice points that are vertices of an equilateral triangle, then we may assume $C = (0, 0)$ without loss of generality (just replace A, B by $A - C, B - C$). Then we have $\|A\| = \|B\|$ and

$$\frac{A \cdot B}{\|A\|\|B\|} = \cos 60^\circ = \frac{1}{2}.$$

So $2A \cdot B = \|A\|^2 = \|B\|^2$. Let $A = (x_1, y_1)$ and $B = (x_2, y_2)$. Removing common factor in \mathbb{Z} , we may assume $\gcd(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = 1$.

Now we claim all x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2 are odd. If one is even, say x_1 , then $x_1^2 + y_1^2 = 2(x_1x_2 + y_1y_2) = x_2^2 + y_2^2$ implies y_1 is even. So $x_1^2 + y_1^2 = x_2^2 + y_2^2$ is divisible by 4. Hence, x_2, y_2 are even because otherwise $x_2^2 + y_2^2 \equiv 1$ or $2 \pmod{4}$. This contradicts $\gcd(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = 1$, which establishes the claim. Then $2(x_1x_2 + y_1y_2) \equiv 2(1 + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, contradicting $x_1^2 + y_1^2 \equiv 1 + 1 = 2 \pmod{4}$.

2. (*Solution 1*) If x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots converges to x , then $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x)$. Now $x = f(x)$ if and only if $x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 1 = 0$. Using calculus, we can study the graph of the function $p(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 1$. We can see $p(x)$ has exactly one real root r , which is in the interval $(1, 2)$.

Now for every $x_1 = a \in \mathbb{R}$, $x_n \in f(\mathbb{R}) = [1, 2)$ for $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$. Observe that on $[1, 2)$, we have $x \leq f(x)$ iff $x(1+x^2) \leq 1+2x^2$ iff $p(x) \leq 0$ iff $x \leq r$. Also, since $f'(x) = 2x/(1+x^2)^2 > 0$ on $[1, 2)$, $x \leq r$ implies $f(x) \leq f(r) = r$. If $x_2 < r$, then x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots is increasing and bounded above by r . Similarly, if $x_2 \geq r$, then x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots is decreasing and bounded below by r . Hence, x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots converges to some $x \in [1, 2]$. By the last paragraph, $x = r$ for every $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

(*Solution 2 based on the work of PANG Lok Wing*) The function $f : [1, 2] \rightarrow [1, 2]$ with $f(x) = 1 + \frac{x^2}{1+x^2}$ is a contractive mapping because

$$|f(x) - f(y)| = \left| \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} - \frac{y^2}{1+y^2} \right| = \left| \frac{(x+y)(x-y)}{1+x^2+y^2+x^2y^2} \right| \leq M|x-y|,$$

where $M = \max \left\{ \frac{x+y}{1+x^2+y^2+x^2y^2} : (x, y) \in [1, 2] \times [1, 2] \right\} = \frac{x_0 + y_0}{1 + x_0^2 + y_0^2 + x_0^2y_0^2} < 1$ for some (x_0, y_0) in $[1, 2] \times [1, 2]$. By the contractive mapping theorem, f has a unique fixed point r and every sequence x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots satisfying $x_1 = a \in \mathbb{R}, x_2 \in [1, 2]$ and $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$ converges to r .

3. Since A is positive definite, there exists an orthogonal matrix U such that $A = UEU^{-1}$, where $E = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$ is a diagonal matrix with all d_i 's positive. Take $B = U \text{diag}(\sqrt{d_1}, \sqrt{d_2}, \dots, \sqrt{d_n})U^{-1}$. Then B is symmetric and $A = B^2$.

For C and D , by the last paragraph, $C = F^2$ for some symmetric matrix F and $CD = F^2D = F(FDF)F^{-1}$. So CD and FDF have the same eigenvalues. However, FDF is positive definite, since for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, $x^T FDF x = (Fx)^T D(Fx) > 0$. So all the eigenvalues of FDF are real and positive.

4. Clearly $a \leq b$. Assume $a < b$. Let p be a prime number greater than b . Let $n = (a + 1)(p - 1) + 1$. By Fermat's little theorem, $a^n \equiv a \pmod{p}$ and $b^n \equiv b \pmod{p}$. Now $n \equiv -a \pmod{p}$. Then $a^n + n \equiv a + n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. So $b^n + n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. However, $b^n + n \equiv b - a \pmod{p}$ and $0 < b - a < b < p$, contradiction. So $a = b$.

5. Let $F(y) = \int_y^{y+b-a} f(x) dx$. Then $F(a) = \alpha$. By the fundamental theorem of calculus, $F'(a) = f(b) - f(a)$. It suffices to show $F'(a) = 0$. Since f is continuous and nonnegative on \mathbb{R} , $F(y)$ is continuous, nonnegative and tends to 0 as $y \rightarrow \pm\infty$. So $F(y)$ must attain a maximum value at some point.

Assume $F(a)$ is not the maximum value of F . Then there exists y_0 such that $F(y_0) > F(a)$. Let $G(y) = \int_{y_0}^y f(x) dx$. Then $G(y_0) = 0$ and $G(y_0 + b - a) = F(y_0) > F(a)$. Since f is continuous, so is G . The intermediate value theorem implies that for some $y_1 \in (y_0, y_0 + b - a)$, we have $G(y_1) = F(a) = \alpha$. Since $[y_0, y_1]$ has shorter length than $[a, b]$, this contradicts the condition that $[a, b]$ is an interval of minimal length such that $\int_b^a f(x) = \alpha$. Therefore, $F(a)$ is the maximum value of F and $f(b) - f(a) = F'(a) = 0$.

6. By Schwarz' lemma, $f_1(z) = f(z)/z$ satisfies $|f_1(z)| \leq 1$ for all $z \in D$. The function $g(z) = (z-r)/(1-rz)$ is a bijective analytic map from D to D . Applying Schwarz' lemma to $f_2(z) = f_1\left(\frac{z-r}{1-rz}\right)$, we see that $f_3(z) = f_1(z)/\left(\frac{z+r}{1+rz}\right)$ satisfy $|f_3(z)| \leq 1$ for all $z \in D$. Similarly, applying Schwarz' lemma to $f_4(z) = f_3\left(\frac{z+r}{1+rz}\right)$, we see that $f_5(z) = f_3(z)/\left(\frac{z-r}{1-rz}\right)$ satisfy $|f_5(z)| \leq 1$ for all $z \in D$. Then

$$|f(z)| \leq |z| \left| \frac{z-r}{1-rz} \right| \left| \frac{z+r}{1+rz} \right| |f_5(z)| \leq |z| \left| \frac{z-r}{1-rz} \right| \left| \frac{z+r}{1+rz} \right|.$$