

Solutions to the Bernoulli Trials Problems for 2019

- 1:** For every function $f : \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{N}$ with $0 \leq f(n) \leq n$ for all $n \in \mathbf{N}$, the graph of f contains an infinite set of colinear points.

Solution: This is FALSE. For example we can take $f(x) = \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor$.

- 2:** For $n = \prod_{i=1}^l p_i^{k_i}$ where $l \in \mathbf{Z}^+$, each $k_i \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ and the p_i are distinct primes, let $f(n) = \sum_{i=1}^l k_i p_i$. Then $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(n)}$ converges.

Solution: This is FALSE. When $n = 2^k$ we have $f(n) = 2k$ so $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(n)} \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{f(2^k)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2k} = \infty$.

- 3:** For all integers $n \geq 3$, if $\varphi(n) = \varphi(n-1) + \varphi(n-2)$ then n is prime.

Solution: This is FALSE. For example, when $n = 1037 = 17 \cdot 61$ so that $\varphi(n) = 16 \cdot 60 = 960$, we have $n-1 = 2^2 \cdot 7 \cdot 37$ so that $\varphi(n-1) = 2 \cdot 6 \cdot 36 = 432$ and $n-2 = 1035 = 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 23$ so that $\varphi(n-2) = 6 \cdot 4 \cdot 22 = 528$.

- 4:** For every integer $n \geq 2$ there exists a nonzero $n \times n$ matrix A with entries in \mathbf{Z} such that if we interchange any two rows in the matrix A then the resulting matrix B is skew-symmetric, that is $B^T = -B$.

Solution: This is FALSE. Let $n \geq 2$ and suppose that A is such a matrix. When $k \neq l$ we must have $A_{k,l} = 0$, otherwise interchanging rows k and l would give a matrix B with $B_{l,l} = A_{k,l} \neq 0$ but then $B^T \neq -B$. This shows that A must be a diagonal matrix. Also, if $k \neq l$, we must have $A_{k,k} = -A_{l,l}$ because when we interchange rows k and l we obtain a matrix B with $B_{k,l} = A_{l,l}$ and $B_{l,k} = A_{k,k}$. Thus A must be diagonal with $A_{k,k} = -A_{l,l}$ for all $k \neq l$. This can only occur when $n = 2$.

- 5:** There exists a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ where each $a_n \in \mathbf{R}^2$ with $a_n \rightarrow 0$ such that the open discs $D(a_n, \frac{1}{n})$ are disjoint.

Solution: This is TRUE. For each $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$, place discs of radius $\frac{1}{n^2}, \frac{1}{n^2+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{(n+1)^2-1}$ in a vertical column with the bottom disc, of radius $\frac{1}{n^2}$ sitting in a $\frac{2}{n^2} \times \frac{2}{n^2}$ square with its bottom left vertex at position $a_{n^2} = (\frac{\pi^2}{3} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2}{k^2}, 0)$. Note that $a_{n^2} \rightarrow (0, 0)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and that the height of the column of discs above a_{n^2} is equal to $2(\frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^2+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2-1}) \leq 2 \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot ((n+1)^2 - n^2) = \frac{2(2n+1)}{n^2} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

- 6:** The closed unit square in \mathbf{R}^2 is equal to the union of a collection of disjoint sets each of which is homeomorphic to the open interval $(0, 1)$.

Solution: This is TRUE. For example one set, which is homeomorphic to $(0, 1)$, can follow the boundary of the square starting and ending at the lower left corner $(0, 0)$, and another can follow the V shape with vertices at $(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$, $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$, and the remaining portion of the square is the disjoint union of three open triangles which can be covered by disjoint horizontal open line segments.

- 7:** There is a unique positive integer n such that there exists a connected planar graph G with n vertices each of which has degree 5.

Solution: This is FALSE. The icosahedron is one such graph. Given two such graphs G_1 and G_2 we can form a third such graph, with more vertices, as follows. Choose external edges $e_1 = (u_1, v_1)$ on G_1 and $e_2 = (u_2, v_2)$ on G_2 , then delete the edges e_1 and e_2 and replace them by the edges (u_1, v_1) and (u_2, v_2) .

8: For all $n, l \in \mathbf{Z}^+$, there exists a map $f : \mathbf{Z}_{n^l} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n$ such that every sequence of length l in \mathbf{Z}_n is of the form $f(k+1), f(k+2), \dots, f(k+l)$ for some $k \in \mathbf{Z}_{n^l}$.

Solution: This is TRUE. We can construct such a map f as follows. Let G be the directed graph whose vertices are the n^{l-1} sequences of length $l-1$ in \mathbf{Z}_n with an edge from the vertex $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{l-1})$ to each of the n vertices $(a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{l-1}, x)$ with $x \in \mathbf{Z}_n$. Note that G has n^l edges which correspond to the n^l sequences $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{l-1}, x)$ of length l . Note that G is connected, indeed a walk from the vertex (a_1, \dots, a_{l-1}) to the vertex (b_1, \dots, b_{l-1}) is given by

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{l-1}), (a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{l-1}, b_1), (a_3, \dots, a_{l-1}, b_1, b_2), \dots, (a_{l-1}, b_1, \dots, b_{l-2}), (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{l-1}).$$

Also note that each vertex has the same number of incoming edges as it has outgoing edges, indeed the vertex $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{l-1})$ has the n incoming edges (x, a_1, \dots, a_{l-2}) with $x \in \mathbf{Z}_n$. Since G is connected and each vertex has the same number of incoming and outgoing edges, it follows that G admits an Eulerian cycle (that is a directed cycle which traverses every edge). Given an Eulerian cycle

$$(a_1, \dots, a_{l-1}), (a_2, \dots, a_l), (a_3, \dots, a_{l+1}), \dots, (a_{n^l}, a_1, \dots, a_{l-2}), (a_1, \dots, a_{l-1})$$

we obtain a function $f : \mathbf{Z}_{n^l} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n$ as desired by setting $(f(1), f(2), \dots, f(n^l)) = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n^l})$.

Here is a sketch of a proof that such a graph G admits an Eulerian cycle. First choose a directed cycle C in G of maximal length from the vertex $(00 \dots 0)$ to itself. Suppose, for a contradiction, that this cycle does not traverse every edge of G . The collection of all the missing edges (along with their endpoints) forms a nonempty subgraph H of G . Since each vertex of G has the same number of incoming and outgoing edges, and since H is obtained from G by removing the edges in the cycle C , it follows that each vertex of H has the same number of incoming and outgoing edges. Since G is connected, it follows that one of the vertices in H lies along the cycle C . Starting at a vertex v which lies in both C and H , we form a path in H by adding one edge at a time until we obtain a maximal path D in H . Note that this maximal path D must be a cycle ending at the initial vertex v because H has the property that each vertex in H has the same number of incoming and outgoing edges. This gives us a contradiction because the cycle D in H can be inserted into the cycle C to obtain a cycle in G of greater length than C .

9: There exists an uncountable set S of subsets of \mathbf{Z} with the property that for all $A, B \in S$ with $A \neq B$ the set $A \cap B$ is finite.

Solution: This is TRUE. For example, we can construct such a set S as follows. Let T be the (uncountable) set of all binary sequences $\alpha = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots)$ with $a_0 = 1$. To each $\alpha = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) \in T$, we associate the set $A(\alpha) \subseteq \mathbf{Z}$ whose elements are the numbers whose binary representations are $a_0, a_0a_1, a_0a_1a_2, \dots$. Then we can take $S = \{A(\alpha) \mid \alpha \in T\}$.

10: There exists a sequence of sets A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots where each A_n is an n -element set of positive real numbers with $\prod_{a \in A_n} a = 1$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{a \in A_n} a \right) = 1$.

Solution: This is TRUE. For example, we can choose

$$A_1 = \{1\}, A_{2m} = \bigcup_{k=1}^m \left\{ \frac{2^k+1}{2^k}, \frac{2^k}{2^k+1} \right\} \text{ and } A_{2m+1} = A_{2m} \cup \{1\}.$$

It is clear that each A_n has n elements and the product of the elements in A_n is equal to 1. Let $S_n = \sum_{a \in A_n} a$ and note that

$$S_{2m} = \sum_{k=1}^m \left(\frac{2^k+1}{2^k} + \frac{2^k}{2^k+1} \right) = \sum_{k=1}^m \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^k} + 1 - \frac{1}{2^k+1} \right) = 2m + \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{2^k} - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{2^k+1}.$$

Thus we have $S_{2m} < 2m + \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{2^k} < 2m+1$ and we have $S_{2m} > 2m - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{2^k+1} > 2m - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{2^k} > 2m-1$ so that $\frac{2m-1}{2m} < \frac{1}{2m} S_{2m} < \frac{2m+1}{2m}$. By the Squeeze Theorem, it follows that $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2m} S_{2m} = 1$. Since $S_{2m+1} = S_{2m} + 1$ we have $2m < S_{2m+1} < 2m+2$ so that $\frac{2m}{2m+1} < \frac{1}{2m+1} S_{2m+1} < \frac{2m+2}{2m+1}$ and hence $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2m+1} S_{2m+1} = 1$.

11: For every sequence $\{a_n\}_{n \geq 1}$ in \mathbf{R} , if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k = b \in \mathbf{R}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\log n} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k} = c \in \mathbf{R}$ then $b = c$.

Solution: This is TRUE. Let $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ and suppose that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n}{n} = b$. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and choose ℓ so that $|\frac{S_k}{k} - b| < \epsilon$ for all $k \geq \ell$. By Abel's Summation by Parts Formula, for $n > \ell$ we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k} = \frac{1}{n} S_n + \sum_{k=1}^n S_k \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1} \right) = \frac{1}{n} S_n + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{S_k}{k(k+1)} = \frac{1}{n} S_n + \sum_{k=1}^{\ell} \frac{S_k/k}{k+1} + \sum_{k=\ell+1}^{n-1} \frac{S_k/k}{k+1}$$

and hence $c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\log n} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{k} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\log n} \sum_{k=\ell+1}^{n-1} \frac{S_k/k}{k+1}$. Also, we have

$$(b - \epsilon) \ln \frac{n+1}{\ell+2} \leq (b - \epsilon) \sum_{k=\ell+1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k+1} \leq \sum_{k=\ell+1}^{n-1} \frac{S_k/k}{k+1} \leq (b + \epsilon) \sum_{k=\ell+1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k+1} \leq (b + \epsilon) \ln \frac{n}{\ell+1}$$

and hence (by dividing by $\log n$ and taking the limits) $(b - \epsilon) \leq c \leq (b + \epsilon)$. Since $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, $c = b$.

12: $\int_0^{\infty} \ln^2 \left(\frac{x}{x+3} \right) dx \geq 10$.

Solution: This is FALSE. In fact, $\int_0^{\infty} \ln^2 \left(\frac{x}{x+3} \right) dx = \pi^2 < 10$. Let $t = \ln \left(\frac{x+3}{x} \right)$ so that $e^t = \frac{x+3}{x} = 1 + \frac{3}{x}$ hence $x = \frac{3}{e^t - 1}$. Then, using Integration by Parts (twice), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} \ln^2 \left(\frac{x}{x+3} \right) dx &= \int_0^{\infty} \ln^2 \left(\frac{x+3}{x} \right) dx = \int_{\infty}^0 t^2 d \left(\frac{3}{e^t - 1} \right) = \left[\frac{3t^2}{e^t - 1} \right]_{\infty}^0 - \int_{\infty}^0 \frac{6t}{e^t - 1} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{6t}{e^t - 1} dt = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{6t e^{-t}}{1 - e^{-t}} dt = \int_0^{\infty} 6t (e^{-t} + e^{-2t} + e^{-3t} + \dots) dt \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} 6t e^{-kt} dt = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\left[-\frac{6}{n} t e^{-kt} \right]_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{6}{n} e^{-kt} dt \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[-\frac{6}{n^2} e^{-kt} \right]_0^{\infty} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{6}{n^2} = \pi^2. \end{aligned}$$

13: $1 + 6 \cos \frac{2\pi}{7} \geq 2\sqrt{7} \cos \left(\frac{1}{3} \arctan 3\sqrt{3} \right)$.

Solution: This is TRUE, indeed equality holds. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(7\theta) &= \operatorname{Re} \left((\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^7 \right) = \cos^7 \theta - 21 \cos^5 \theta \sin^2 \theta + 35 \cos^3 \theta \sin^4 \theta - 7 \cos \theta \sin^6 \theta \\ &= \cos^7 \theta - 21 \cos^5 \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta) + 35 \cos^3 \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta)^2 - 7 \cos \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta)^3 \\ &= 64 \cos^7 \theta - 112 \cos^5 \theta + 56 \cos^3 \theta - 7 \cos \theta. \end{aligned}$$

and so $\cos \frac{2\pi}{7}$ is a root of the polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= 64x^5 - 112x^3 + 56x - 7 \\ &= (x - 1)(64x^4 + 64x^3 - 48x^2 - 48x + 8x^2 + 8x + 1) \\ &= (x - 1)(8x^3 + 4x^2 - 4x - 1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

and hence a root of $g(x) = 8x^3 + 4x^2 - 4x - 1$. Indeed, $\cos \frac{2\pi}{7}$ is the unique positive root of $g(x)$ and the other two roots are $\cos \frac{4\pi}{7}$ and $\cos \frac{6\pi}{7}$. It follows that $6 \cos \frac{2\pi}{7}$ is the positive root of $f\left(\frac{x}{6}\right) = \frac{1}{27} x^3 + \frac{1}{9} x^2 - \frac{2}{3} x - 1$ or, equivalently, of $g(x) = 27f\left(\frac{x}{6}\right) = x^3 + 3x^2 - 18x - 27$. Thus $1 + 6 \cos \frac{2\pi}{7}$ is a root of

$$h(x) = g(x - 1) = (x - 1)^3 + 3(x - 1)^2 - 18(x - 1) - 27 = x^3 - 21x - 7.$$

Since $h(0) = -7$, $h(-1) = 13$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} h(x) = -\infty$, the other 2 roots of $h(x)$ are negative, so $1 + 6 \cos \frac{2\pi}{7}$ is the unique positive root of $h(x)$. To solve $h(x) = 0$ we let $x = w + \frac{7}{w}$ to get

$$\begin{aligned} x^3 - 21x - 7 = 0 &\iff \left(w - \frac{7}{w} \right)^3 - 21 \left(w - \frac{7}{w} \right) - 7 = 0 \iff w^3 - \frac{7^3}{w^3} - 7 = 0 \iff w^6 - 7w^3 - 7^3 = 0 \\ &\iff w^3 = \frac{7 \pm \sqrt{7^2 - 4 \cdot 7^3}}{2} = \frac{7}{2} (1 \pm 3\sqrt{3}i) = 7\sqrt{7} e^{\pm i\theta} \iff w = \sqrt{7} e^{\pm i(\theta + 2\pi k)/3}, k \in \{0, 1, 2\} \end{aligned}$$

where $\theta = \tan^{-1} 3\sqrt{3}$. When $w = \sqrt{7} e^{\pm i\theta}$ we have $x = w + \frac{7}{w} = \sqrt{7} (e^{i\theta/3} + e^{-i\theta/3}) = 2\sqrt{7} \cos \left(\frac{\theta}{3} \right)$.

14: There exists a continuous function $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ which crosses the x -axis at uncountably many points, where we say that f crosses the x -axis at a when $f(a) = 0$ and for all $\delta > 0$ there exist $x, y \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ with $f(x) < 0$ and $f(y) > 0$.

Solution: This is TRUE. Let C be the (standard) Cantor set and let $I_{n,k}$ be the open intervals removed when constructing C as follows. We let $C_0 = [0, 1]$ and we let $I_{0,1} = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$. Let $C_1 = C_0 \setminus I_{0,1} = [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1]$ and let $I_{1,1} = (\frac{1}{9}, \frac{2}{9})$ and $I_{1,2} = (\frac{7}{9}, \frac{8}{9})$. At the n^{th} step, C_n is the disjoint union of 2^n closed intervals each of size $\frac{1}{3^n}$ and $I_{n,k}$, for $1 \leq k \leq 2^n$, are the open middle thirds of the closed component intervals of C_n . The Cantor set C is the intersection $C = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n$. It is well-known that C is uncountable and, indeed, that there

is an injective map F from the set of binary sequences into C given by $F(a_1, a_2, \dots) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2a_k}{3^k}$. For each n, k , let $g_{n,k} : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 2^{-n}]$ be a continuous function with $g_{n,k}(x) = 0$ for $x \notin I_{n,k}$ and $0 < g_{n,k}(x) \leq 2^{-n}$ for $x \in I_{n,k}$, and then let $f = \sum_{n,k} (-1)^n g_{n,k}$. Then f is continuous (since the sum converges uniformly by the Weierstrass M-test) and f crosses the x -axis at every point in C .

15: For $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ and $x \in \mathbf{R}$, define $f_n : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ by $f_n(x) = nx - \lfloor nx \rfloor$. Then for some $a < b$, the sequence of functions $\{f_n : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}\}$ has a convergent subsequence.

Solution: This is FALSE. We claim that for every bounded integrable function f of period 1, which is not equivalent to a constant, it is impossible for a subsequence of $\{f(nx)\}$ to converge on any nondegenerate interval $[a, b]$. For any interval $[\alpha, \beta]$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(nx) dx &= \frac{1}{n} \int_{n\alpha}^{n\beta} f(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{k=\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor}^{\lfloor n\beta \rfloor - 1} \int_k^{k+1} f(x) dx + \int_{\lfloor n\beta \rfloor}^{n\beta} f(x) dx - \int_{\lfloor n\alpha \rfloor}^{n\alpha} f(x) dx \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} (\lfloor n\beta \rfloor - \lfloor n\alpha \rfloor) \int_0^1 f(x) dx + o(1) \\ &= (\beta - \alpha) \int_0^1 f(x) dx + o(1) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(nx) dx = (\beta - \alpha)K \quad (1)$$

where $K = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$. Now consider a subsequence $\{f(n_k x)\}$ of $\{f(nx)\}$ and suppose that $f(n_k x) \rightarrow g(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. By the Dominated Convergence Theorem, if $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq [a, b]$ we have

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} g(x) dx = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(n_k x) dx = (\beta - \alpha)K.$$

Thus

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (g(x) - K) dx = 0.$$

Because α and β are arbitrary in $[a, b]$, we must have $g(x) = K$ almost everywhere in $[a, b]$. Apply equation (1) to the function $|f(x) - K|$ and use the Dominated Convergence Theorem to get

$$(b - a) \int_0^1 |f(x) - K| dx = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f(n_k x) - K| dx = \int_a^b |g(x) - K| dx = 0.$$

Thus $f(x) = K$ almost everywhere in $[a, b]$