# A GENERALIZATION OF AN IMO PROBLEM 

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#### Abstract

Bill Sands has conjectured that for no integer $n \geq 3$ does there exist a vector of $n$ integers whose dot products with all permutations of $(1, \ldots, n)$ form a complete residue system mod $n$ !. In this paper we verify this conjecture when $n+1$ is not prime, $n=4$, and $n=6$. We also suggest a generalization of the problem.


## 1. Introduction

In the 2001 International Mathematical Olympiad ([4, 1], or p. 118 of [3]), the following was posed as Problem 4. We have adapted the notation slightly.

Let $n$ be an odd integer greater than 1 , and let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ be given integers. For each of the $n$ ! permutations $\mathbf{b}=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ of $1,2, \ldots, n$, let

$$
T(\mathbf{b})=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i} .
$$

Prove that there are two permutations $\mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}, \mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$, such that $n!$ is a divisor of $T(\mathbf{b})-T\left(\mathbf{b}^{\prime}\right)$.

It will be convenient for our purposes to consider permutations of $0,1, \ldots, n-1$ rather than $1,2, \ldots, n$; this makes no fundamental difference to the problem.

This problem was proposed by Bill Sands, who conjectures ([3], p. 143) that the result holds for all integers $n>2$. It is clearly false for $n=1$ and $n=2$, with $a_{1}=0$ and $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=(0,1)$, respectively, providing counterexamples.

[^0]Our main result addresses a generalization of the above problem, verifying Sands's conjecture for many more $n>2$.

Theorem 1 Let $n$ be a positive integer such that $n+1$ is not prime, and let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ be integers. There exist distinct permutations $\mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ of $0,1, \ldots, n-1$ for which

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i} \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}^{\prime} \quad(\bmod n!)
$$

In particular, Theorem 1 applies when $n>2$ is odd, and so the IMO problem follows as a special case of this theorem.

We will call a vector $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ of integers nice (in the sense of "showing fine discrimination") if there do not exist such permutations $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$, i.e. if

$$
\{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \mid \mathbf{b} \text { a permutation of }\{0, \ldots, n-1\}\}
$$

is a complete set of residues modulo $n$ !. Thus Theorem 1 asserts that there exist no nice vectors of length $n$, for $n+1$ not prime.

In the next section, we present some preliminaries. We then present a proof of Theorem 1 , followed by independent proofs that there are no nice vectors for the cases $n=4$ and $n=6$, which are the two smallest cases not covered by Theorem 1. Finally we comment on some open problems.

## 2. Preliminaries

Any nonzero rational $q$ can be uniquely written as

$$
q= \pm t_{1}^{a_{1}} t_{2}^{a_{2}} \ldots t_{k}^{a_{k}}
$$

where $t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{k}$ are distinct primes and each $a_{i}$ is a nonzero integer. For a prime $t_{i}$, we define $\operatorname{ord}_{t_{i}}(q)$, the order of $t_{i}$ in $q$, to be the exponent $a_{i}$ of $t_{i}$ in the above expression, or 0 if $t_{i}$ does not appear. We also set $\operatorname{ord}_{t}(0)=\infty$ for any prime $t$, and will adopt the usual arithmetical conventions regarding $\infty$, in particular: $\infty+\infty=\infty+n=\infty$ and $n<\infty$ for all positive integers $n$. Then the following lemma is easy to prove.

Lemma 1 For any prime $t$ and rationals $q$ and $r$,
(a) $\operatorname{ord}_{t}(q \pm r) \geq \min \left(\operatorname{ord}_{t}(q), \operatorname{ord}_{t}(r)\right)$, and equality holds if $\operatorname{ord}_{t}(q) \neq \operatorname{ord}_{t}(r)$;
(b) $\operatorname{ord}_{t}(q r)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}(q)+\operatorname{ord}_{t}(r)$;

The Bernoulli numbers $B_{0}, B_{1}, B_{2}, \ldots$ (e.g., see $\S 6.5$ of [2]) are rational numbers defined by the recurrence

$$
B_{0}=1, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{k-1}\binom{k}{i} B_{i}=0 \text { for } k \geq 2
$$

So $B_{1}=-1 / 2, B_{2}=1 / 6, B_{3}=0, B_{4}=-1 / 30$, etc. It is known (e.g., page 301 of [2]) that for $t$ prime,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(B_{t-1}\right)=-1, \quad \operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(B_{i}\right) \geq 0 \text { for all } i<t-1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

One of the most familiar properties of the Bernoulli numbers is that they satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{x-1} i^{t-1}=\frac{1}{t} \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} B_{j}\binom{t}{j} x^{t-j} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all positive integers $t$. In particular, this demonstrates that the function

$$
S_{t}(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{x-1} i^{t}=\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{j=0}^{t} B_{j}\binom{t+1}{j} x^{t+1-j}
$$

is a polynomial in $x$ of degree $t+1$ for each $t \geq 0$.
Write $\left[x^{j}\right] P(x)$ to denote the coefficient of $x^{j}$ in the polynomial $P(x)$.

Lemma 2 For any prime $t$ and any integer $j \geq 0$,

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\left[x^{j}\right] S_{t-1}(x)\right) \geq-1
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\left[x^{j}\right] S_{k-1}(x)\right) \geq 0
$$

for all integers $k<t$.

Proof. In case $j=0$, it suffices to notice that $\left[x^{0}\right] S_{t-1}(x)$ is the constant term of $S_{t-1}(x)$ and is thus 0 , so $\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\left[x^{j}\right] S_{t-1}(x)\right)=\infty$. So let $j>0$ henceforth.

Since $t$ is prime, $t \left\lvert\,\binom{ t}{j}\right.$ for $1 \leq j \leq t-1$. Hence, by (1) and Lemma 1(b), for any integer $j \in[2, t-1]$,

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\left[x^{j}\right] S_{t-1}(x)\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\frac{1}{t} B_{t-j}\binom{t}{t-j}\right) \geq-1+0+1=0
$$

also

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left([x] S_{t-1}(x)\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\frac{1}{t} B_{t-1}\binom{t}{t-1}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(B_{t-1}\right)=-1
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\left[x^{t}\right] S_{t-1}(x)\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\frac{1}{t} B_{0}\binom{t}{0}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)=-1
$$

Also, for each integer $k<t$ and each $1 \leq j \leq k$, again by (1) and Lemma 1(b),

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\left[x^{j}\right] S_{k-1}(x)\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(\frac{1}{k} B_{k-j}\binom{k}{k-j}\right)=\operatorname{ord}_{t}\left(B_{k-j}\right) \geq 0
$$

For positive integers $m$ and $t$, define $\mathcal{D}_{m, t}$ to be the set of all $t$-tuples of distinct integers from $0,1, \ldots, m-1$. Let $\mathbf{q}=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{t}\right)$ be a $t$-tuple of positive integers, and define

$$
s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=\sum_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{D}_{m, t}} \prod_{i=1}^{t} b_{i}^{q_{i}}
$$

where we write $\mathbf{b}=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{t}\right)$. Note that if $m<t$, then the sum is empty and $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=0$.

Lemma 3 For each fixed $\mathbf{q}, s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ is a polynomial in $m$, with $(m-k)$ as a factor for each $k=0,1, \ldots, t-1$.

We present two proofs of Lemma 3.
First proof. We will expand the $\operatorname{sum} s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ with a general form of the inclusion-exclusion principle. Consider the statements $h_{j}=h_{k}$ for each $1 \leq j<k \leq t$. Call the set of all such statements $P$. The sum can then be written as

$$
s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=\sum_{P^{\prime} \subseteq P}(-1)^{\left|P^{\prime}\right|} \sum_{\mathbf{h} \models P^{\prime}} \prod_{i=1}^{t} h_{i}^{q_{i}},
$$

where, for any $P^{\prime} \subseteq P, \mathbf{h} \models P^{\prime}$ means that the sum ranges over all $t$-tuples $\mathbf{h}=\left(h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{t}\right)$ of integers from $[0, m-1]$ for which every member of $P^{\prime}$ is true. Now, to each such subset $P^{\prime}$ there corresponds a graph $G$ on $\{1,2, \ldots, t\}$ defined as follows: the edge $\{j, k\}$ is in $G$ if and only if the statement $h_{j}=h_{k}$ is in $P^{\prime}$. Then for any $j$ and $k, h_{j}$ and $h_{k}$ are forced to be equal in the inner sum if and only if vertices $j$ and $k$ are in the same component of $G$. Let $C_{G, 1}, C_{G, 2}, \ldots, C_{G, s_{G}}$ denote the components of $G$, and let $Q_{i}$ denote the sum $\sum_{j \in C_{G, i}} q_{j}$. Then $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ can be rewritten

$$
s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=\sum_{G}(-1)^{e(G)} \sum_{\mathbf{h}} \prod_{i=1}^{s_{G}} h_{i}^{Q_{i}},
$$

where, for each $G, \mathbf{h}$ ranges over all $s_{G}$-tuples of integers from $[0, m-1]$, and where $e(G)$ is the number of edges of $G$. Now, the term inside the rightmost sum is a product of powers of independent variables, so we can switch the sum and the product, obtaining

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=\sum_{G}(-1)^{e(G)} \prod_{i=1}^{s_{G}} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} k^{Q_{i}}=\sum_{G}(-1)^{e(G)} \prod_{i=1}^{s_{G}} S_{Q_{i}}(m) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

But $S_{Q_{i}}(m)$ is a polynomial in $m$. Furthermore, $s_{G} \leq|G|=t$, and the number of graphs $G$ is at most $2^{|P|}=2^{\binom{t}{2}}$, both bounded for fixed $\mathbf{q}$. So, since $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ is a sum of products of polynomials in $m$, we conclude that it can also be expressed as a polynomial in $m$.

Since $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=0$ when $m<t$, as a polynomial $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ must have the factor $m(m-1) \cdots(m-t+1)$.

Second proof. We will show inductively on $t$ that $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ can be expressed as a polynomial in $m$. When $t=1, s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=S_{q_{1}}(m)$, which is a polynomial in $m$.

Suppose $t>1$. Let $\mathbf{q}^{\prime}=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{t-1}\right)$, and for each $1 \leq i \leq t-1$, let $\mathbf{q}_{i}=$ $\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{i-1}, q_{i}+q_{t}, q_{i+1}, \ldots, q_{t-1}\right)$. Then we can write

$$
s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} i^{q_{t}}\right) s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(m)-\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} s_{\mathbf{q}_{i}}(m)=S_{q_{t}}(m) s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(m)-\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} s_{\mathbf{q}_{i}}(m)
$$

This equation holds even if $m<t . S_{q_{t}}(m)$ is a polynomial in $m$, and inductively $s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(m)$ and $s_{\mathbf{q}_{i}}(m)$ for each $i$ are polynomials in $m$. Thus so is $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$.

Again $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)=0$ when $0 \leq m<t$, so $s_{\mathbf{q}}(m)$ must have the given factors.

## 3. Proof of Theorem 1

Let $n>2$ be an integer with $n+1$ not prime. Towards a contradiction, let $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ be a nice vector. Then as $\mathbf{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ ranges over all permutations of $0,1, \ldots, n-1$ (i.e. over the elements of $\mathcal{D}_{n, n}$ ),

$$
T(\mathbf{b})=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}
$$

takes on a value congruent to each of the integers $0,1, \ldots, n!-1$ at most once. Since $\left|\mathcal{D}_{n, n}\right|=n!, T(\mathbf{b})$ must take on a value congruent to each of $0,1, \ldots, n!-1$ exactly once.

Our condition on $n$ guarantees that we may choose a prime $p<n$ for which $n \equiv-1$ $(\bmod p)$. Then $T(\mathbf{b})^{p-1}$ is congruent to each of $0^{p-1}, 1^{p-1}, \ldots,(n!-1)^{p-1} \bmod n!$ as $\mathbf{b}$ ranges over the elements of $\mathcal{D}_{n, n}$. So

$$
L:=\sum_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{D}_{n, n}}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}\right)^{p-1}
$$

must be congruent modulo $n$ ! to

$$
R:=\sum_{i=0}^{n!-1} i^{p-1}=S_{p-1}(n!)
$$

By the multinomial theorem,

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
L & =\sum_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{D}_{n, n}} \sum_{\mathbf{q}}\left(\begin{array}{ccc} 
& p-1 & \\
q_{1} & q_{2} & \cdots
\end{array}\right. \\
q_{n}
\end{array}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{n}\left(a_{j} b_{j}\right)^{q_{j}} .
$$

as $\mathbf{q}$ ranges over every $n$-tuple of non-negative integers $\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{n}\right)$ satisfying $\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i}=$ $p-1$.

For any such $\mathbf{q}$, let $t_{\mathbf{q}}$ be the number of its components which are nonzero. For any given permutation $\mathbf{c}=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{n}\right)$ of the integers $0,1, \ldots, n-1$, consider the set of all permutations $\mathbf{b}=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ such that $b_{i}=c_{i}$ for all $i$ such that $q_{i}$ is nonzero. There will be $\left(n-t_{\mathbf{q}}\right)$ ! such permutations $\mathbf{b}$, and for each of these permutations the product $\prod_{j=1}^{n} b_{j}^{q_{j}}$ will take the same value. Therefore, we can write

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
L & =\sum_{\mathbf{q}}\left(\begin{array}{ccc} 
& p-1 \\
q_{1} & q_{2} & \cdots
\end{array} q_{n}\right.
\end{array}\right)\left(\prod_{j=1}^{n} a_{j}^{q_{j}}\right)\left(n-t_{\mathbf{q}}\right)!\sum_{\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{D}_{n, t_{\mathbf{q}}}} \prod_{j=1}^{t_{\mathbf{q}}} b_{j}^{q_{j}^{\prime}}
$$

where $\mathbf{q}^{\prime}=\left(q_{1}^{\prime}, q_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, q_{t_{\mathbf{q}}}^{\prime}\right)$ is obtained from $\mathbf{q}$ by deleting all of the zero components. Note that $\sum_{i=1}^{t_{\mathbf{q}}} q_{i}^{\prime}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i}=p-1$.

By (3), for any integer $m, s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(m)$ can be expressed as a sum of products of the form $S_{i_{1}}(m) \ldots S_{i_{k}}(m)$, with $\sum_{j=1}^{k} i_{j}=p-1$. In each such product, no $i_{j}>p-1$, and at most one $i_{j}=p-1$. Thus, by Lemma 2, the order of $p$ in the coefficients of each $S_{i}$ is at least 0 , with one possible exception, where it may be -1 . So if $S(x)$ is any of these products above, then for any integer $a, \operatorname{ord}_{p}\left(\left[x^{a}\right] S(x)\right) \geq-1$ by Lemma $1(\mathrm{~b})$, and consequently ord ${ }_{p}\left(\left[x^{a}\right] s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(x)\right) \geq-1$ by Lemma $1(\mathrm{a})$. Since this holds for any $\mathbf{q}^{\prime}$, we can choose a positive integer $h$ such that for any $\mathbf{q}^{\prime}, h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(x)$ has integer coefficients, and that $p^{2} \nmid h$; we can further require that $p!\mid h$, so that in particular $\operatorname{ord}_{p}(h)=1$.

By Lemma 3, we may define the polynomial

$$
s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}(m)=\frac{s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(m)}{m(m-1) \cdots\left(m-t_{\mathbf{q}}+1\right)}
$$

for any $t_{\mathbf{q}}$-tuple $\mathbf{q}^{\prime}$ of positive integers. We then set

$$
\sigma=\sum_{\mathbf{q}}\left(\begin{array}{ccc} 
& p-1 &  \tag{4}\\
q_{1} & q_{2} & \cdots
\end{array} q_{n}\right)\left(\prod_{j=1}^{n} a_{j}^{q_{j}}\right) h s_{{\mathbf{\mathbf { q } ^ { \prime }}}^{\prime}(n),, ~}^{\text {n }}
$$

where the sum ranges over all $n$-tuples $\mathbf{q}=\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}\right)$ with sum $p-1$, so that $L=\sigma \cdot n!/ h$. Now,

$$
\begin{aligned}
h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}(p-1) & =\frac{h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(p-1)}{(p-1)(p-2) \ldots\left(p-t_{\mathbf{q}}\right)} \\
& =p \cdot s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}(p-1) \cdot\left(\frac{h}{p(p-1)(p-2) \ldots\left(p-t_{\mathbf{q}}\right)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since the second and third factors of the last expression are both integers (in the latter case, by choice of $h$ ), we see that $p \mid h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}(p-1)$. But $h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}$ is a polynomial with integer coefficients by our choice of $h$, so recalling the definition of $s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}, h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ must also be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Consequently, the congruence class of $h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}(m)$ modulo $p$ depends only on the congruence class of $m \bmod p$. In particular, since $p \mid h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}(p-1)$ and $n \equiv-1(\bmod$ $p), p \mid h s_{\mathbf{q}^{\prime}}^{\prime}(n)$. This holds for arbitrary $\mathbf{q}^{\prime}$, which means that $p$ divides each term under the summation in (4), so $p \mid \sigma$, that is, there is an integer $f$ for which $\sigma=p f$. Then $L=n!p f / h$.

We now turn our attention to $R$. From (2), $x$ is a factor of $S_{t}(x)$ and $S_{t}(x) / x$ is a polynomial. Letting $S_{p-1}^{\prime}(m)=S_{p-1}(m) / m$, we have by (2) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{p-1}^{\prime}(n!) & =\frac{S_{p-1}(n!)}{n!}=\frac{1}{n!p} \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} B_{j}\binom{p}{j}(n!)^{p-j} \\
& =\frac{(n!)^{p-1}}{p}+\sum_{j=1}^{p-2} \frac{1}{p}\binom{p}{j} B_{j}(n!)^{p-1-j}+B_{p-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

But note that $p \mid n!($ since $p<n)$, and by $(1) \operatorname{ord}_{p}\left(B_{j}\right) \geq 0$ for $j<p-1, \operatorname{ord}_{p}\left(B_{p-1}\right)=$ -1 , thus $\operatorname{ord}_{p}\left(S_{p-1}^{\prime}(n!)\right)=-1$ by Lemma $1\left(\right.$ a). Because $\operatorname{ord}_{p}(h)=1$ we then have that $\operatorname{ord}_{p}\left(h S_{p-1}^{\prime}(n!)\right)=0$ by Lemma 1(b). Therefore we can write

$$
R=S_{p-1}(n!)=\frac{n!}{h} \cdot h S_{p-1}^{\prime}(n!)=\frac{n!}{h} \cdot k
$$

for rational $k$ such that $\operatorname{ord}_{p}(k)=0$.
Finally, because we have assumed $L$ and $R$ to be congruent modulo $n$ !, we must have $L-R=n!d$ for some integer $d$. However, $h d=h(L-R) / n!=p f-k$, so $k=p f-h d$. In particular, $k$ is integral. But $p \mid h$, while $p \nmid k$, a contradiction. This completes the proof.

## 4. Two other cases

The following lemmas will be convenient to reduce the number of cases in the treatment of other values of $n$.

Lemma 4 Suppose that $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ is nice. Then:
(a) any rearrangement of $\mathbf{a}$ is nice;
(b) for any integer $k$, $\mathbf{a}+k=\left(a_{1}+k, \ldots, a_{n}+k\right)$ is nice; and
(c) for any integer $k$ with $(k, n!)=1, k \mathbf{a}=\left(k a_{1}, \ldots, k a_{n}\right)$ is nice.

Proof. Part (a) is easy to prove. For part (b), we have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(a_{i}+k\right) b_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} k b_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}+\frac{1}{2} n(n+1) k .
$$

The map $\phi(x)=x+\frac{1}{2} n(n+1) k$ is a bijection on the integers $\bmod n!$, so this expression takes each value mod $n!$ exactly once. This proves part (b). Similarly, when $(k, n!)=1$,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(k a_{i}\right) b_{i}=k \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}
$$

As $\phi^{\prime}(x)=k x$ is a bijection on the integers mod $n!$, this takes on every value $\bmod n!$ exactly once, proving part (c).

Recall that in the last section, we defined

$$
T(\mathbf{b})=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} b_{i}
$$

where $\mathbf{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ is a permutation of $0, \ldots, n-1$.

Lemma 5 Let $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ be nice.
(a) Let $m \mid n!$. As $\mathbf{b}$ varies over all permutations of $0, \ldots, n-1, T(\mathbf{b})$ takes a value in each congruence class mod $m$ exactly $n!/ m$ times.
(b) If $n$ is even, then $\sum a_{i}$ is odd.

Proof. Part (a) follows easily from the observations that, modulo $n$ !, $T(\mathbf{a})$ will be congruent to each integer $[0, n!-1]$ exactly once, and that each congruence class $\bmod m$ is a union of $n!/ m$ classes mod $n!$.

As for part (b), let $S_{\mathbf{a}}=\sum T(\mathbf{b})$ as $\mathbf{b}$ ranges over all permutations of $0, \ldots, n-1$. Then, modulo $n$ !,

$$
S_{\mathbf{a}} \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n!-1} i=\frac{n!(n!-1)}{2} \equiv \frac{n!}{2}
$$

However, for any given integer $0 \leq k \leq n-1$ and any index $1 \leq i \leq n, b_{i}=k$ holds of just $(n-1)$ ! different permutations $\mathbf{b}$. So if we consider the expansions of the $n!$ summands $T(\mathbf{b})$,
we see that $a_{i}$ occurs multiplied by $k$ in exactly $(n-1)$ ! of the summands, corresponding to those permutations $\mathbf{b}$ such that $b_{i}=k$. Hence, $S_{\mathbf{a}}$ can also be written ( $\bmod n!$ ) as

$$
S_{\mathbf{a}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \cdot(n-1)!\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k=\frac{(n-1)!n(n-1)}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}=\frac{n!(n-1)}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} .
$$

So $n!/ 2 \equiv n!/ 2 \sum a_{i}(\bmod n!)$, and thus $\sum a_{i}$ must be odd.
In the upcoming proofs, congruence of vectors is to be interpreted componentwise. That is,

$$
\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \equiv\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)(\bmod t)
$$

if and only if $a_{i} \equiv b_{i}(\bmod t)$ for all $i$.
We now handle the case $n=4$, for which Sands also had a proof ([3], p. 143).

Theorem 2 There exist no nice vectors of length $n=4$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)$ were nice. By Lemma 5 (b), the sum of the components of $\mathbf{a}$ is odd, so the number of odd components of $\mathbf{a}$ is either 1 or 3 . If it is 1 , then $\left(a_{1}+1, \ldots, a_{4}+1\right)$ is a solution with three odd components by Lemma 4(b). So we may assume that a has three odd components. By Lemma 4(a), we can assume without loss of generality that $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,1,1,1) \bmod 2$.

Go on to consider $\mathbf{a} \bmod 8$. Of the three odd components of $\mathbf{a}$, either two are congruent $\bmod 8$ or not. Suppose two of the components of a are congruent $\bmod 8$, and, without loss of generality, that these are $a_{2}$ and $a_{3}$. Then the permutations $\mathbf{b}=(1,0,3,2)$ and $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}=(1,3,0,2)$ achieve

$$
T(\mathbf{b})-T\left(\mathbf{b}^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{4} a_{i} b_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{4} a_{i} b_{i}^{\prime}=3\left(a_{3}-a_{2}\right)
$$

Since $8 \mid\left(a_{3}-a_{2}\right)$, it follows that $T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv T\left(\mathbf{b}^{\prime}\right)(\bmod 24)$, which contradicts that $\mathbf{a}$ is nice.
So we can assume that all of the odd components of a are distinct mod 8. Using Lemma 4 to multiply by an odd integer, and rearranging if necessary, it suffices to consider a congruent to $(0,1,5,3) \bmod 8$.

So assume $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,1,5,3)(\bmod 8)$. In this case, we count the permutations $\mathbf{b}$ of $0,1,2,3$ for which $T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv 2(\bmod 8)$. Examining the 24 cases, we find that the only such permutations are $(2,0,3,1)$ and $(2,1,0,3)$; since there are fewer than three of these, this case is impossible, by Lemma 5(a). This completes the proof.

Finally, we examine the case $n=6$.

Theorem 3 There exist no nice vectors of length $n=6$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, \cdots, a_{6}\right)$ were nice. By Lemma 5 (b), we know that $\sum a_{i}$ is odd. By Lemma 4, we may assume without loss of generality that a is congruent to either $(0,1,1,1,1,1)$ or $(0,0,0,1,1,1) \bmod 2($ analogously to the case $n=4)$.

Now, consider a mod 4 . If $\mathbf{a}$ is congruent to $(0,1,1,1,1,1) \bmod 2$, then by Lemma 4 , we can assume that the even element of $\mathbf{a}$ is congruent to $0 \bmod 4$ by adding 2 to a if necessary; also, by possibly multiplying by -1 we can assume that a has more elements congruent to 1 than to $3 \bmod 4$. We then need to consider only the cases in which a is congruent to

$$
(0,1,1,1,1,1),(0,1,1,1,1,3), \text { and }(0,1,1,1,3,3) \bmod 4 .
$$

If $\mathbf{a}$ is congruent to $(0,0,0,1,1,1) \bmod 2$, then we can assume that there there are more elements of a congruent to $0 \bmod 4$ than to 2 , and more congruent to $1 \bmod 4$ than to 3 . Furthermore, if $\mathbf{a}=(0,0,2,1,1,1)$, the nice vector $-\mathbf{a}+1$ will be congruent to ( $0,0,0,1,1,3$ ) $\bmod 4$. So we must also consider the cases in which a is congruent to

$$
(0,0,0,1,1,1),(0,0,0,1,1,3), \text { and }(0,0,2,1,1,3) \bmod 4 .
$$

Altogether, we have six cases to consider. For most of the cases, we will need the fact, from Lemma $5(\mathrm{a})$, that we must have $6!/ 4=180$ values of $T(\mathbf{b})$ in each congruence class $\bmod 4$.

Case (i): $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,1,1,1,1,1)$
For any permutation $\mathbf{b}$, there are $5!=120$ permutations (including $\mathbf{b}$ ) with the same first component, and the values of $T(\mathbf{b})$ for each of these values of $\mathbf{b}$ are congruent mod 4 . Therefore, 120 divides the number of values of $T(\mathbf{b})$ in any congruence class mod 4. But $120 \nmid 180$, so there cannot be equally many values in each congruence class, and we can reject this case.

Case (ii): $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,1,1,1,1,3)$
Similarly to case (i), we obtain sets of $4!=24$ permutations $\mathbf{b}$ for which the values of $T(\mathbf{b})$ are congruent mod 4 , and $24 \nmid 180$, so we can reject this case as well.

Case (iii): $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,1,1,1,3,3)$
Consider the equivalence relation $\sim$ under which two permutations $\mathbf{b}=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{6}\right)$ and $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}=\left(b_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, b_{6}^{\prime}\right)$ satisfy $\mathbf{b} \sim \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ iff $\left\{b_{2}, b_{3}, b_{4}\right\}=\left\{b_{2}^{\prime}, b_{3}^{\prime}, b_{4}^{\prime}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{5}, b_{6}\right\}=\left\{b_{5}^{\prime}, b_{6}^{\prime}\right\}$. Note that when $\mathbf{b} \sim \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$, we will obtain $T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv T\left(\mathbf{b}^{\prime}\right)$. Each equivalence class of $\sim$ has size $3!2!=12$. Thus, it suffices to consider one representative of each equivalence class and ascertain whether we obtain $180 / 12=15$ values of $T(\mathbf{b})$ in each congruence class mod 4 .

We will count the vectors $\mathbf{b}$ for which $T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv-1(\bmod 4)$. Observe that

$$
T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{6} b_{i}+2\left(b_{5}+b_{6}\right)-b_{1} \equiv-1+2\left(b_{5}+b_{6}\right)-b_{1} .
$$

Consequently $2\left(b_{5}+b_{6}\right)-b_{1} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ and $b_{1} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. In the case that $b_{1}$ is either 0 or 4 , we then have $2\left(b_{5}+b_{6}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, so $b_{5}+b_{6} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$, implying $b_{5}$ and $b_{6}$ have the same parity. Of the components $b_{2}, \ldots, b_{6}$, two are even and three are odd, so there are four choices of $b_{5}$ and $b_{6}$. If $b_{1}$ is 2 , we have $2\left(b_{5}+b_{6}\right) \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, so $b_{5}+b_{6} \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$, so $b_{5}$ and $b_{6}$ are of opposite parity. Since there remain two even and three odd $b \mathrm{~s}$, this can be done in 6 ways. Altogether, we have $4+4+6=14$ vectors, not the 15 we needed, ruling out the case $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,1,1,1,3,3)$.

Case (iv): $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,0,0,1,1,3)$
The permutations $\mathbf{b}$ can be placed in classes of size $3!2!=12$ analogous to the classes of the last case. We count vectors $\mathbf{b}$, disregarding the order of $b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}$ and of $b_{4}, b_{5}$, for which $T(b) \equiv b_{4}+b_{5}-b_{6} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$. This requires that $b_{4}+b_{5}-b_{6} \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$, so $b_{4}, b_{5}$, and $b_{6}$ either are all even or else consist of one even and two odd integers. If they are all even, they must be 0,2 , and 4 , and it can be seen that this yields no solution to $b_{4}+b_{5}-b_{6} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$. Suppose now that $b_{4}$ and $b_{5}$ are odd, and wlog $b_{4}<b_{5}$. Then we get 5 solutions, as tabulated here:

| $b_{4}$ | $b_{5}$ | $b_{6}$ | Number of <br> solutions |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 3 | 0,4 | 2 |
| 1 | 5 | 2 | 1 |
| 3 | 5 | 0,4 | 2 |

Otherwise, exactly one of $b_{4}$ and $b_{5}$, say $b_{4}$, is odd, as is $b_{6}$. This yields 8 solutions:

| $b_{4}$ | $b_{6}$ | $b_{5}$ | Number of solutions |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 5 | 0, 4 | 2 |
| 5 | 1 | 0, 4 | 2 |
| 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| 3 | 5 | 2 | 1 |
| 5 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

We obtain 13 solutions in total, not 15 , so we have shown it impossible that $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,0,0,1,1,3)$.
Case (v): $\mathbf{a} \equiv(0,0,2,1,1,3)$
For this value of $\mathbf{a}$ our equivalence classes of $\mathbf{b s}$ have size $2!2!=4$, and for each congruence class of $T(\mathbf{b}) \bmod 4$ we will require $180 / 4=45$ vectors $\mathbf{b}$. We want $T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv 2 b_{3}+b_{4}+b_{5}-b_{6} \equiv$ $0(\bmod 4)$. First, note that when $b_{3}$ is even, this reduces to the case $b_{4}+b_{5}-b_{6} \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, whose solutions we counted in the discussion of case (iv). Since we found 13 solutions then, and each of them had two even numbers among $b_{1}, b_{2}$, and $b_{3}$, we obtain 26 solutions in
this case. Now suppose $b_{3}$ is odd. We then require $b_{4}+b_{5}-b_{6} \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$. We will again tabulate the possible solutions. If $b_{4}, b_{5}$, and $b_{6}$ are all even, we assume that $b_{4}<b_{5}$; then we have 9 solutions:

| $b_{4}$ | $b_{5}$ | $b_{6}$ | $b_{3}$ | Number of <br> solutions |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 2 | 4 | $1,3,5$ | 3 |
| 0 | 4 | 2 | $1,3,5$ | 3 |
| 2 | 4 | 0 | $1,3,5$ | 3 |

If two of $b_{4}, b_{5}$, and $b_{6}$ are odd, still assuming that $b_{4}<b_{5}$ we have 14 solutions:

| $b_{4}$ | $b_{5}$ | $\left(b_{6}, b_{3}\right)$ | Number of <br> solutions |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | $(3,5)$ | 1 |
| 0 | 3 | $(1,5),(5,1)$ | 2 |
| 0 | 5 | $(3,1)$ | 1 |
| 1 | 2 | $(5,3)$ | 1 |
| 1 | 3 | $(2,5)$ | 1 |
| 1 | 4 | $(3,5)$ | 1 |
| 1 | 5 | $(0,3),(4,3)$ | 2 |
| 2 | 3 |  | 0 |
| 2 | 5 | $(1,3)$ | 1 |
| 3 | 4 | $(1,5),(5,1)$ | 2 |
| 3 | 5 | $(2,1)$ | 1 |
| 4 | 5 | $(3,1)$ | 1 |

Altogether we have $26+9+14=49$ possible vectors, and not 45 , showing that $\mathbf{a} \equiv$ $(0,0,2,1,1,3)$ is impossible.

$$
\text { Case (vi): } \mathbf{a} \equiv(0,0,0,1,1,1)
$$

We will examine this case mod 8 . Of the three components congruent to $0 \bmod 4$ in a, at least two must be congruent $\bmod 8$, and of the three components congruent to $1 \bmod 4$, at least two must also be congruent mod 8 . Suppose without loss of generality that $a_{1} \equiv a_{2}$ and $a_{4} \equiv a_{5} \bmod 8$. Then, we can place the permutations $\mathbf{b}$ into classes of size $2!2!=4$, such that two vectors within one class differ only in a possible exchange of $b_{1}$ and $b_{2}$, or of $b_{4}$ and $b_{5}$, or both. Two vectors $\mathbf{b}$ in the same class yield congruent values of $T(\mathbf{b}) \bmod 8$. Thus the number of values of $T(\mathbf{b})$ in any given congruence class $\bmod 8$ is divisible by 4 . Yet there should be $6!/ 8=90$ values in each congruence class by Lemma $5(\mathrm{a})$, and $4 \nmid 90$. Thus, this case as well is impossible.

We have now reached a contradiction in every case, and the proof is finished.

## 5. Open problems

The least values of $n$ for which the result of Theorem 1 is unknown are $n=10$ and $n=12$. It is likely that a proof for any particular one of the unknown cases, along the lines of that for $n=6$ above, could be found, but a general technique is still lacking.

Here is another open problem. Instead of requiring the vectors $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ as in Theorem 1 to be permutations of $0, \ldots, n-1$, let them be permutations of any fixed multiset $S$ of $n$ integers.

Problem. Characterise the multisets $S$ such that for every vector a of length $n=|S|$, there do not exist distinct permutations $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$ of $S$ such that

$$
\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \equiv \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}^{\prime} \quad(\bmod n!)
$$

We will present some basic observations on this problem, including its solution for $n \leq 3$.
We shall say that a vector a is nice for $S$ if $\{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \mid \mathbf{b}$ a permutation of $S\}$ is a complete set of residues modulo $n$ !; we shall also say that a multiset $S$ of size $n$ allows nice vectors if there exists some a that is nice for $S$. Then the above problem asks for all multisets $S$ which allow nice vectors.

There is a sort of symmetry in this problem between a and $S$. Given a and $S$, let $S^{\prime}$ be the multiset of all components of $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{a}^{\prime}$ the vector of all elements of $S$. Let $S=\left\{s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right\}$, and $S^{\prime}=\left\{s_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, s_{n}^{\prime}\right\}$. Any permutation $\mathbf{b}$ of $S$ can be written $\left(s_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, s_{\sigma(n)}\right)$, where $\sigma$ is a permutation of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$; if we then let $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}=\left(s_{\sigma^{-1}(1)}^{\prime}, \ldots, s_{\sigma^{-1}(n)}^{\prime}\right)$, it is easy to confirm that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}=\mathbf{a}^{\prime} \cdot \mathbf{b}^{\prime}$. This establishes a bijection between the permutations of $S$ and those of $S^{\prime}$. In particular, if a is nice for $S$, then $\mathbf{a}^{\prime}$ is nice for $S^{\prime}$.

As this symmetry might suggest, an analogue of Lemma 4 holds in this new problem in which a is replaced by $S$. The more direct analogue of Lemma 4 continues to hold as well. We won't prove this statement here.

We will now consider particular values of $n$, starting with $n=1$. Any multiset $S$ of size 1 allows nice vectors. Indeed, if $|S|=1$, there is only one possible permutation of $S$, so any vector $\mathbf{a}$ is vacuously nice.

For $|S|=2$, if $S$ has two elements of the same parity, it is clear that $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ has the same parity for either permutation $\mathbf{b}$ of $S$, so that $S$ does not allow nice vectors. Otherwise, the multiset $S$ has one even and one odd element. Then $S$ must be congruent mod 2 to $\{0,1\}$, and this problem reduces to our main problem. In particular, $S$ allows nice vectors.

However, we claim that no multiset $S$ with $|S|=3$ allows nice vectors. Let $S=$ $\left\{s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}\right\}$. We consider two cases, according as whether $S$ contains two elements congruent modulo 3 .

Suppose, without loss of generality, that $s_{1} \equiv s_{2}(\bmod 3)$. There must exist two components of $\mathbf{a}=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)$, say $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$, which are congruent mod 2 . Then it is easily seen that for $\mathbf{b}=\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}\right)$ and $\mathbf{b}^{\prime}=\left(s_{2}, s_{1}, s_{3}\right), T(\mathbf{b}) \equiv T\left(\mathbf{b}^{\prime}\right)(\bmod 3!)$. So $S$ does not allow nice vectors.

Now assume $S$ has no two elements congruent modulo 3. $S$ is congruent mod 6 to either $\{k, k+1, k+2\}$ or $\{k, k+2, k+4\}$ for some integer $k$, as we can see by examining all eight possibilities for $S \bmod 6$. Assume that a is nice for $S$. By the analogue of Lemma 4 for $S$ that we mentioned above, $\mathbf{a}$ is then also nice for either $\{0,1,2\}$ or $\{0,2,4\}$. But the first of these cases is our main problem, and we have seen that $\{0,1,2\}$ does not allow nice vectors. As for $S=\{0,2,4\}$, $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ must be even for any permutation $\mathbf{b}$ of $S$, so $\{0,2,4\}$ does not allow nice vectors either. This verifies our claim.

Thus it remains to be resolved: Are there any multisets $S$ of size at least 4 which allow nice vectors?

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