

## SOLUTIONS

No problem is ever permanently closed. Any comments, new solutions, or new insights on old problems are always welcomed by the problem editor.

**113\***. [1998, 46] *Proposed by Kamal Jain, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia.*

Find all ordered pairs  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\tan(a\pi) = b$$

and  $a$  and  $b$  are rational numbers.

*Solution by Bob Prielipp, University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh, Oshkosh, Wisconsin.*

In his article "Rational Values of Trigonometric Functions" [see pp. 507–508 of *The American Mathematical Monthly*, 52 (1945)], J. M. H. Olmsted proved that the only rational values of  $\tan(a\pi)$  (where  $a$  is a rational number) are 0 and  $\pm 1$ .

Thus, if  $a$  and  $b$  are rational numbers then  $(a, b)$  is a solution of  $\tan(a\pi) = b$  if and only if ( $a$  is an arbitrary integer and  $b = 0$ ) or ( $a = \frac{1}{4} + k$  where  $k$  is an arbitrary integer and  $b = 1$ ) or ( $a = -\frac{1}{4} + k$  where  $k$  is an arbitrary integer and  $b = -1$ ).

Also, on the pages leading up to p. 41 of his book *Irrational Numbers*, (Carus Monograph #11) The Mathematical Association of America (distributed by John Wiley and Sons, Inc.), 1963, Ivan Niven proved that if  $\theta$  is rational in degrees, say  $\theta = 2\pi r$  for some rational number  $r$ , then the only rational values of the trigonometric functions of  $\theta$  are as follows:  $\sin \theta, \cos \theta = 0, \pm \frac{1}{2}, \pm 1$ ;  $\sec \theta, \csc \theta = \pm 1, \pm 2$ ;  $\tan \theta, \cot \theta = 0, \pm 1$ .

**114.** [1998, 46] *Proposed by Kenneth B. Davenport, 301 Morea Road, Frackville, Pennsylvania.*

(a) Prove that

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+x^2} \cdot \frac{4}{4+x^2} \cdots \frac{n^2}{n^2+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{n}{2n-1}.$$

(b) Prove that

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+x^2} \cdot \frac{9}{9+x^2} \cdots \frac{(2n+1)^2}{(2n+1)^2+x^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{(\Gamma(2n+2))^3}{2^{5n}(2n+1)^3(\Gamma(n+1))^4 \prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}.$$

*Solution to part (a) by Paul S. Bruckman, 1518 Vanstone Road # 2, Campbell River, British Columbia, Canada.*

Let

$$I_n = \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x^2 + n^2} = \frac{\pi}{2n} \quad \text{and} \quad J_n = \int_0^\infty P_n(x) dx,$$

where

$$P_n(x) = \prod_{k=1}^n (x^2 + k^2)^{-1}.$$

Now

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{A_k}{x - ki} + \frac{\overline{A_k}}{x + ki} \right),$$

where

$$A_k = \lim_{x \rightarrow ki} (x - ki) P_n(x) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} y P_n(y + ki)$$

$$= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{y}{(y + ki)^2 + k^2} \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n [(y + ki)^2 + j^2]^{-1} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{y + 2ik} \cdot \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n (-k^2 + j^2)^{-1} \right),$$

or

$$A_k = \frac{1}{2ik} \cdot \frac{1}{Q_{k,n}},$$

where

$$Q_{k,n} = \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n (j^2 - k^2).$$

Then

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{2ik} \cdot \frac{1}{x - ki} - \frac{1}{2ik} \cdot \frac{1}{x + ki} \right) \frac{1}{Q_{k,n}} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{x^2 + k^2} \cdot \frac{1}{Q_{k,n}}.$$

Then,

$$J_n = \pi \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2kQ_{k,n}}.$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{k,n} &= \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} (j^2 - k^2) \prod_{j=k+1}^n (j^2 - k^2) \\ &= (-1)^{k-1} \cdot (k-1)! \cdot \frac{(2k-1)!}{k!} (n-k)! \frac{(n+k)!}{(2k)!} \\ &= (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(n-k)!(n+k)!}{2k^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
 J_n &= \frac{\pi}{(2n)!} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k-1} \cdot k \binom{2n}{n-k} \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{(2n)!} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} (n-k) \binom{2n}{k} \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{(2n-1)!} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k} - \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} (-1)^{n-k} \binom{2n-1}{k} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, if

$$R_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k} \quad \text{and} \quad S_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n+1}{k},$$

then

$$J_n = \frac{\pi}{(2n-1)!} \left( \frac{1}{2} R_n - S_{n-1} \right).$$

Note that

$$R_n = \sum_{k=n+1}^{2n} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k},$$

so

$$2R_n = \sum_{k=0}^{2n} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k} + \binom{2n}{n}.$$

But

$$\sum_{k=0}^{2n} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k} = (-1)^{n-1} (1-1)^{2n} = 0 \quad (\text{if } n \geq 1),$$

and so

$$R_n = \frac{1}{2} \binom{2n}{n}.$$

Thus,

$$J_n = \frac{\pi}{(2n-1)!} \left( \frac{1}{4} \binom{2n}{n} - S_{n-1} \right).$$

It remains to show that  $S_n = nC_n$ , where

$$C_n = \frac{\binom{2n}{n}}{n+1}$$

is the  $n$ th Catalan number. For then

$$\begin{aligned} J_n &= \frac{\pi}{(2n-1)!} \left( \frac{1}{4} \binom{2n}{n} - \frac{n-1}{n} \binom{2n-2}{n-1} \right) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{(2n-1)!} \left( \frac{2n(2n-1)}{4n^2} - \frac{n-1}{n} \right) \binom{2n-2}{n-1} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{(2n)!} \binom{2n-2}{n-1} = \frac{\pi}{2n(2n-1)[(n-1)!]^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n+1}{k} = (-1)^{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \left( \binom{2n}{k} + \binom{2n}{k-1} \right) \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k} - \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} (-1)^{n-1-k} \binom{2n}{k} \\ &= \binom{2n}{n-1} = \frac{(2n)!}{(n-1)!(n+1)!} = \frac{n}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} = nC_n. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$J_n = \frac{\pi}{2n(2n-1)[(n-1)!]^2}.$$

Hence, the result follows.

*Solution to part (b) by the proposer.* The product is initialized at  $n = 1$ , so begin with

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2+1} \frac{9}{x^2+9} dx.$$

For simplicity, we could ignore the product in the numerator and treat just the partial fractions arising from the product,

$$\frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+25} \cdots$$

Observe that

$$\frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} = \frac{1/8}{x^2+1} - \frac{1/8}{x^2+9},$$

where the numerators of the two partial fractions are given by  $1/(9-1)$  and  $1/(1-9)$  and

$$\frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+25} = \frac{1/192}{x^2+1} - \frac{1/128}{x^2+9} + \frac{1/384}{x^2+25},$$

where the numerators of the partial fractions are given by the products  $1/[(9-1)(25-1)]$ ,  $1/[(1-9)(25-9)]$ , and  $1/[(1-25)(9-25)]$ . Furthermore,

$$\frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+25} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+49} = \frac{1/9216}{x^2+1} - \frac{1/5120}{x^2+9} + \frac{1/9216}{x^2+25} - \frac{1/46080}{x^2+49},$$

where the numerators of the partial fractions are given by the products  $1/[(9-1)(25-1)(49-1)]$ ,  $1/[(1-9)(25-9)(49-9)]$ ,  $1/[(1-25)(9-25)(49-25)]$ , and  $1/[(1-49)(9-49)(25-49)]$ .

Multiply the numerators of the partial fractions through by the last term in the series, in this case by 8, 384, 46080,  $\dots$ . The terms in this series are given by

$$1 \cdot 8, 6 \cdot 8^2, 90 \cdot 8^3, 2520 \cdot 8^4, 113400 \cdot 8^5, \dots$$

where the terms 1, 6, 90, 2520, 113400 are given by the product of the consecutive hexagonal numbers

$$\prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1).$$

So now, following the integration of

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2+1} \frac{1}{x^2+9} dx,$$

we have

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{8} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{2}{3}$$

and for the next 3 fractions in the product, we obtain for

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+25} dx,$$

that

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{384} \cdot \left(2 - \frac{3}{3} + \frac{1}{5}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{384} \cdot \frac{6}{5}$$

and for four fractions in the product, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+25} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+49} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{46080} \cdot \left(5 - \frac{9}{3} + \frac{5}{5} - \frac{1}{7}\right) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{46080} \cdot \frac{20}{7}. \end{aligned}$$

The next two results for a product of 5 and 6 fractions will be

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2580 \cdot 8^4} \left( 14 - \frac{28}{3} + \frac{20}{5} - \frac{7}{7} + \frac{1}{9} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2520 \cdot 8^4} \cdot \frac{70}{9}$$

and

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{113400 \cdot 8^5} \left( 42 - \frac{90}{3} + \frac{75}{5} - \frac{35}{7} + \frac{9}{9} - \frac{1}{11} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{113400 \cdot 8^5} \cdot \frac{252}{11}.$$

So now the series of fractions of the right-most term, namely

$$\frac{2}{3}, \frac{6}{5}, \frac{20}{7}, \frac{70}{9}, \frac{252}{11}, \dots$$

is given by

$$\frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2(2n+1)}.$$

Therefore,

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+(2n+1)^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{8^n} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{(2n+1)(n!)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}.$$

Now multiplying both sides through by the product  $1 \times 9 \times 25 \dots$  which is

$$\frac{[(2n+2)!]^2}{2^{2n+2}[(n+1)!]^2}$$

and recalling that we want the product to begin with  $1 \times 9$ ,  $1 \times 9 \times 25$ , etc., it follows that

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{8^n} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{(2n+1)(n!)^2} \cdot \frac{[(2n+2)!]^2}{2^{2n+2}[(n+1)!]^2} \frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}.$$



Simplifying, we get

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{3n}} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{(2n+1)(n!)^2} \cdot \frac{[(2n+1)!]^2 (2n+2)^2}{2^{2n} 2^2 (n!)^2 (n+1)^2} \frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}$$

and

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{5n}} \cdot \frac{(2n+1)!}{(2n+1)^2 (n!)^2} \cdot \frac{[(2n+1)!]^2}{(n!)^2} \frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}$$

resulting finally in

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{5n}} \cdot \frac{[(2n+1)!]^3}{(2n+1)^2 (n!)^4} \frac{1}{\prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}.$$

And from here we obtain, as stated, the result in terms of the gamma function,

$$\frac{\pi}{2} \frac{[\Gamma(2n+2)]^3}{2^{5n} (2n+1)^2 [\Gamma(n+1)]^4 \prod_{k=1}^n k(2k-1)}$$

for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

*Remark by the proposer.* The integration product formulas are very similar to theorems discovered by Ramanujan (see e.g. *The Man Who Knew Infinity* by Robert Kanigel, Washington Sq. Press, 1991, p. 165). Also, the proposer would like to express appreciation to George Andrews, Ph.D. Penn State University for his helpful assistance and encouragement.

**115.** [1998, 47] *Proposed by Kenneth B. Davenport, 301 Morea Road, Frackville, Pennsylvania.*

(a) Prove that

The number of ways of expressing every number of the form  $3(2n-1)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , as the sum of three numbers is equal to the sum of an  $n$ th ranked hexagonal number and an  $(n-1)$ th square number.

(b) Prove that

The number of ways of expressing every number of the form  $4m$ ,  $m \geq 1$ , as the sum of four numbers is equal to the sum of the first  $m$  tetrahedral numbers, then subtract the sum of the first  $m - 3$  pentagonal numbers, the first  $m - 6$  pentagonal numbers, and so on until you reach 0, 1, or 2.

*Solution by Paul S. Bruckman, 1518 Vanstone Road # 2, Campbell River, British Columbia, Canada.* The generating function for the number of partitions of  $n$  into at most  $m$  parts is the coefficient of  $x^n$  in

$$P_m(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)(1-x^2)\cdots(1-x^m)}.$$

Since

$$P_m(x) = \prod_{j=1}^m \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{jk} \quad \text{for } |x| < 1,$$

this implies

$$P_m(x) = \sum_{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m \geq 0} x^{k_1 + 2k_2 + \cdots + mk_m}.$$

We seek the coefficient of  $x^n$ , where

$$n = \sum_{j=1}^m jk_j \quad \text{for each } k_j \geq 0.$$

The coefficient of  $x^n$  in

$$Q_m(x) = P_m(x) - P_{m-1}(x) = \frac{x^m}{(1-x)(1-x^2)\cdots(1-x^m)} \quad (1)$$

is the number of partitions of  $n$  into exactly  $m$  parts, which we denote as  $p(n, m)$ .

To solve part (a), for  $m = 3$  we have

$$Q_3(x) = \frac{x^3}{(1-x)(1-x^2)(1-x^3)}. \quad (2)$$

The trick is to decompose this into partial fractions. For  $m = 3$ , it's not too bad. Thus we find that

$$Q_3(x) = \frac{1}{6}(1-x)^{-3} - \frac{1}{4}(1-x)^{-2} - \frac{1}{72}(1-x)^{-1} - \frac{1}{8}(1+x)^{-1} + \frac{1}{9}(1-\omega^2x)^{-1} + \frac{1}{9}(1-\omega x)^{-1}$$

where  $\omega = \exp(2i\pi/3)$ . Then

$$p(n, 3) = \frac{1}{6} \binom{n+2}{2} - \frac{1}{4}(n+1) - \frac{1}{72} - \frac{1}{8}(-1)^n + \frac{2}{9} \cos \frac{2n\pi}{3}.$$

After some simplification

$$p(n, 3) = \frac{n^2 - 1 + A_n}{12} \quad (3)$$

where

$$A_n = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{6} \\ 0, & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{6} \\ -3, & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{6} \\ 4, & \text{if } n \equiv 3 \pmod{6}. \end{cases}$$

This is the exact expression, but may be more elegantly expressed as

$$p(n, 3) = \left\langle \frac{n^2}{12} \right\rangle$$

where  $\langle \cdot \rangle$  is the “nearest integer” function. [cf. Vol. 2, p. 160 of Dickson's *History of the Theory of Numbers*.]

We wish to show  $p(3(2n-1), 3) = H_n + S_{n-1}$  where  $H_n$  is the  $n$ th ranked Hexagonal number and  $S_{n-1}$  is the  $(n-1)$ th ranked Square number.  $A_{3(2n-1)} = 4$  since all odd multiples of 3 are congruent to 3 (mod 6). Thus, using (3)

$$\begin{aligned} p(3(2n-1), 3) &= \frac{[3(2n-1)]^2 - 1 + 4}{12} \\ &= \frac{(36n^2 - 36n + 9) + 3}{12} \\ &= 3n^2 - 3n + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} H_n + S_{n-1} &= n(2n-1) + (n-1)^2 \\ &= 2n^2 - n + n^2 - 2n + 1 \\ &= 3n^2 - 3n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

and we are done with part (a).

With part (b), Dickson's, *supra*, is in error. That is,

$$p(n, 4) \neq \left\langle \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 - 4}{144} \right\rangle.$$

The general formula based on (1) is

$$p(n, 4) = \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 - 9n \cdot o_n + B_n}{144} \quad (4)$$

where  $o_n = \frac{1}{2}(1 - (-1)^n)$  and

$$B_n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{12} \\ 5, & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{6} \\ -20, & \text{if } n \equiv 2 \pmod{12} \\ -27, & \text{if } n \equiv 3 \pmod{6} \\ 32, & \text{if } n \equiv 4 \pmod{12} \\ -11, & \text{if } n \equiv 5 \pmod{6} \\ -36, & \text{if } n \equiv 6 \pmod{12} \\ 16, & \text{if } n \equiv 8 \pmod{12} \\ -4, & \text{if } n \equiv 10 \pmod{12}. \end{cases}$$

So now using (4) it can be shown that the following identity holds.

$$p(4n, 4) = \sum_{k=1}^n T_k - \sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor \frac{1}{3}(n-1) \rfloor} \sum_{k=1}^{n-3j} P_k, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

where  $T_n$  is the  $n$ th “tetrahedral”.  $T_n = \binom{n+2}{3}$  and  $P_n$  is the  $n$ th “pentagonal”,

with  $P_n = \frac{3n^2 - n}{2}$ . Let

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p(4n, 4)x^n, \tag{5}$$

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n \sum_{k=1}^n T_k, \tag{6}$$

$$h(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n \sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor \frac{1}{3}(n-1) \rfloor} \sum_{k=1}^{n-3j} P_k. \tag{7}$$

These expressions are assumed valid for all  $|x| < 1$ .

We're required to prove  $f(x) = g(x) - h(x)$  and so substituting  $4n$  for  $n$  into (4) we obtain

$$p(4n, 4) = \frac{64n^3 + 48n^2 + B_{4n}}{144}$$

where

$$B_{4n} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 32 \\ 16 \end{pmatrix},$$

depending on whether

$$4n \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{12}.$$

And so,

$$p(4n, 4) = \frac{4n^3 + 3n^2 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}{9}, \quad n \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{3}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{9} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( 4n^3 + 3n^2 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) x^n \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (4n^3 + 3n^2) x^n + \frac{1}{9} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2x + x^2) x^{3n}. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} 4n^3 + 3n^2 &= 4n^{(3)} + 15n^{(2)} + 7n^{(1)} \\ &= 24 \binom{n}{3} + 30 \binom{n}{2} + 7 \binom{n}{1}. \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{9} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( 24 \binom{n+3}{3} x^{n+3} + 30 \binom{n+2}{2} x^{n+2} + 7 \binom{n+1}{1} x^{n+1} \right) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{9} (2x + x^2)(1 - x^3)^{-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \left( 24x^3(1-x)^{-4} + 30x^2(1-x)^{-3} + 7x(1-x)^{-2} + (2x + x^2)(1 - x^3)^{-1} \right). \end{aligned}$$

After some simplification,

$$f(x) = \frac{x(1+x)(1+x+2x^2)}{(1-x)^4(1+x+x^2)}, \quad |x| < 1. \quad (8)$$

Next,

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} x^n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n+k} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T_k x^k = (1-x)^{-1} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{k+3}{3} x^{k+1} \\ &= x(1-x)^{-1}(1-x)^{-4} = x(1-x)^{-5} \end{aligned}$$

so

$$g(x) = x(1-x)^{-5}, \quad |x| < 1. \quad (9)$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} h(x) &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=3j+1}^{\infty} x^n \sum_{k=1}^{n-3j} P_k = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x^{3j} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n \sum_{k=1}^n P_k \\ &= x^3(1-x^3)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P_k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n+k} = x^3(1-x)^{-1}(1-x^3)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P_k x^k. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P_k x^k &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( 3 \binom{k}{2} + \binom{k}{1} \right) x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( 3 \binom{k+2}{2} x^{k+2} + \binom{k+1}{1} x^{k+1} \right) \\ &= 3x^2(1-x)^{-3} + x(1-x)^{-2} = x(1+2x)(1-x)^{-3}.\end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$h(x) = \frac{x^4(1+2x)}{(1-x)^5(1+x+x^2)}, \quad |x| < 1. \quad (10)$$

From here, it is a fairly straight-forward exercise to show

$$f(x) = g(x) - h(x)$$

which establishes the given identity.

Also, it might be noted that the expression in Dickson's, *supra*, is valid for  $n$  even, in which case a more concise expression is

$$p(n, 4) = \left\langle \frac{n^3 + 3n^2}{144} \right\rangle$$

but for odd  $n$

$$p(n, 4) = \left\langle \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 - 9n}{144} \right\rangle.$$

**116.** [1998, 47] *Proposed by Russell Euler and Jawad Sadek, Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville, Missouri.*

Let  $n$  be a fixed positive real number and let

$$I_n(t) = \int_0^1 \left[ \log \left( \frac{1-rt}{1-r} \right) \right]^n \frac{1-r}{(1-rt)^2} dr,$$



where  $0 < t < 1$ .

Find an upper bound for  $I_n(t)$  as a function of  $n$  in terms of the gamma and zeta functions.

*Solution by the proposers.* Let

$$u = \log\left(\frac{1-tr}{1-r}\right).$$

Then

$$du = \frac{1-t}{(1-tr)(1-r)} dr$$

and we get

$$I_n(t) = \int_0^\infty \frac{u^n e^{-u}}{e^u - t} du.$$

Since  $0 < t < 1$ ,  $e^u - t > e^u - 1$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} I_n(t) &< \int_0^\infty \frac{u^n}{e^u(e^u - 1)} du = \int_0^\infty \left( \frac{-u^n}{e^u} + \frac{u^n}{e^u - 1} \right) du \\ &= -\Gamma(n+1) + \int_0^\infty \frac{u^n}{e^u - 1} du = -\Gamma(n+1) + \int_0^\infty \sum_{k=0}^\infty u^n e^{-(k+1)u} du \\ &= -\Gamma(n+1) + \Gamma(n+1) \sum_{k=0}^\infty \frac{1}{(k+1)^{n+1}} = -\Gamma(n+1) + \Gamma(n+1)\zeta(n+1). \end{aligned}$$