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# On Candido's Identity 

CLAUDIALSINA<br>Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya 08028 Barcelona, Spain claudio.alsina@upc.edu

Lewis \& Clark College Portland, OR 97219, USA nelsen@Iclark.edu

Giacomo Candido [1] (1871-1941) proved the equality

$$
\left[F_{n}^{2}+F_{n+1}^{2}+F_{n+2}^{2}\right]^{2}=2\left[F_{n}^{4}+F_{n+1}^{4}+F_{n+2}^{4}\right],
$$

where $F_{n}$ denotes the $n$th Fibonacci number, by observing that for all reals $x, y$ one has the curious identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[x^{2}+y^{2}+(x+y)^{2}\right]^{2}=2\left[x^{4}+y^{4}+(x+y)^{4}\right] . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Candido's identity (1) can be easily shown to be true not only in $\mathbb{R}^{+}:=[0, \infty)$ but also in any commutative ring and admits a clear visual description as presented recently in [3]. This identity raises the question: is (1) a characteristic property of the polynomial function $y=x^{2}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{+}$? In order to answer this we reformulate (1) as follows. Let $f$ be a function from $\mathbb{R}^{+}$into $\mathbb{R}^{+}$such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(f(x)+f(y)+f(x+y))=2[f(f(x))+f(f(y))+f(f(x+y))] . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In general (2) admits trivial solutions like $f \equiv 0$ as well as many bizarre, highly discontinuous solutions. For example, define $f$ to be any function from $\mathbb{R}^{+}$to $\mathbb{R}^{+}$with the property that $f(x)=0$ whenever $x$ is rational and $f(x)$ is rational (but arbitrary!) whenever $x$ is irrational. It is an exercise (try it) to show that every possible combination of rational or irrational values for the inputs $x$ and $y$ reduces (2) to the identity $0=0$. But if we require $f$ to be a continuous surjection on $\mathbb{R}^{+}$with $f(0)=0$, then we shall show that $f$ can differ from the squaring function only by a multiplicative constant.

Lemma. For any two positive real numbers $a$ and $b$ with $0<a<b$, there are integers $m$ and $n$ such that $a<2^{m} 3^{n}<b$.

Proof. We consider three cases.
Case 1. If $1 \leq a<b$ then $0 \leq \log _{2}(a)<\log _{2}(b)$ and it follows that $\log _{2}(a) / 3^{n}<$ $\log _{2}(b) / 3^{n}<1$ for a sufficiently large positive integer $n$. Since $2^{p} \neq 3^{q}$ for all integers $p, q$ such that $p, q \neq 0$, we deduce $p \log 2 \neq q \log 3$, i.e., $\log _{2}(3)=\log 3 / \log 2$ is clearly irrational (see, e.g., [2]). So it follows from the equidistribution theorem [4,

Theorem 6.2 , p. 72] that the sequence $\log _{2}(3), 2 \log _{2}(3), 3 \log _{2}(3), \ldots$ is uniformly distributed modulo 1, i.e., there is some positive integer $m$ such that

$$
\log _{2}(a) / 3^{n}<\log _{2}\left(3^{m}\right)-\left\lfloor\log _{2}\left(3^{m}\right)\right\rfloor<\log _{2}(b) / 3^{n}
$$

where $\lfloor x\rfloor$ denotes the greatest integer $k \leq x$. Let $r=\log _{2}\left(3^{m}\right)$ and let $s=r-\lfloor r\rfloor$. Then since $2^{r}=3^{m}$, it follows that $2^{s}=3^{m} / 2^{\lfloor r\rfloor}$. With this notation

$$
\log _{2}(a)<3^{n} s<\log _{2}(b)
$$

i.e., $a<2^{\left(3^{n} s\right)}<b$, whence $a<\left(3^{m} / 2^{\lfloor r\rfloor}\right)^{3^{n}}<b$. This shows that there is an integral power of 2 times an integral power of 3 between $a$ and $b$.

Case 2. If $a<1<b$ we can use $n=m=0$.
Case 3. If $0<a<b \leq 1$ we will have $1 \leq 1 / b<1 / a$ so by case 1 there exist integers $m, n$ such that $1 / b<2^{m} 3^{n}<1 / a$ and therefore $a<2^{-m} 3^{-n}<b$.

Now we prove the following:
THEOREM. A continuous surjective function $f$ from $\mathbb{R}^{+}$to $\mathbb{R}^{+}$such that $f(0)=0$ satisfies Candido's equation (2) if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=k x^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k>0$ is an arbitrary constant.
Proof. From Candido's equality (1), it follows that (3) satisfies (2). Conversely, assume that $f$ is a solution of (2) satisfying the above conditions. Since $f(0)=0$ the substitution $y=0$ into (2) yields that for all $x \geq 0$ : $f(2 f(x))=4 f(f(x))$. Since $f$ is surjective, $f(x)$ ranges throughout $\mathbb{R}^{+}$as $x$ ranges throughout $\mathbb{R}^{+}$, so that if we let $z=f(x)$, we have $f(2 z)=4 f(z)$ for all $z$ in $\mathbb{R}^{+}$. It follows by induction

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(2^{n} z\right)=\left(2^{n}\right)^{2} f(z) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers $n \geq 0$.
Since $f(z)=\bar{f}\left(2^{n}\left(z / 2^{n}\right)\right)=\left(2^{n}\right)^{2} f\left(z / 2^{n}\right)$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(2^{-n} z\right)=\left(2^{-n}\right)^{2} f(z) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers $n \geq 1$. Thus from (4) and (5) we can conclude

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(2^{n} z\right)=\left(2^{n}\right)^{2} f(z) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers $n$. Next, set $y=x$ in (2) to obtain

$$
f(2 f(x)+f(2 x))=4 f(f(x))+2 f(f(2 x))
$$

and by virtue of (6), using $f(2 x)=4 f(x)$, we get:

$$
4 f(3 f(x))=f(6 f(x))=4 f(f(x))+2 \cdot 4^{2} \cdot f(f(x))=36 f(f(x))
$$

i.e., with $f(x)=z \geq 0$ arbitrary, $f(3 z)=3^{2} f(z)$ and by induction $f\left(3^{m} z\right)=$ $\left(3^{m}\right)^{2} f(z)$, whenever $m \geq 0$. As above, $f(z)=f\left(3^{m}\left(z / 3^{m}\right)\right)=\left(3^{m}\right)^{2} f\left(z / 3^{m}\right)$ so $f\left(3^{-m} z\right)=\left(3^{-m}\right)^{2} f(z)$ and therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(3^{m} z\right)=\left(3^{m}\right)^{2} f(z) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers $m$. By means of (6) and (7), we obtain that for all integers $m, n$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(2^{n} 3^{m}\right)=\left(2^{n} 3^{m}\right)^{2} f(1) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

By our previous lemma any real numbers in $[0, \infty)$ may be approximated by a sequence in the set $\left\{2^{n} 3^{m} \mid n, m\right.$ integers $\}$ so from (8) and the continuity of $f$ we can conclude that for all $x$ in $\mathbb{R}^{+}, f(x)=k x^{2}$, with $k=f(1)>0$ an arbitrary constant.

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## Monotonic Convergence to $e$ via the Arithmetic-Geometric Mean

## JÓZSEF SÁNDOR

Department of Mathematics and Computer Sciences Babeș-Bolyai University Str. Kogălniceanu Nr. 1
400084 Cluj-Napoca, Romania jjsandor@hotmail.com

Recently, Hansheng Yang and Heng Yang [3], by using only the arithmetic-geometric inequality, have proved the monotonicity of the sequences $\left(x_{n}\right),\left(y_{n}\right)$, related to the number $e$ :

$$
x_{n}=\left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^{n}, \quad y_{n}=\left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1} \quad(n=1,2, \ldots)
$$

Such a method probably is an old one and has been applied e.g. in [1], or [2].
We want to show that the above monotonicities can be proved much easier than in [3].

Recall that the arithmetic-geometric inequality says that for $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}>0$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G_{k}=G_{k}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right) \\
&=\sqrt[k]{a_{1} \ldots a_{k}} \\
& A_{k}=A_{k}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)=\frac{a_{1}+\cdots+a_{k}}{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{k} \leq A_{k} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality only when all $a_{i}$ are equal.

