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On Candido's Identity

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

$$[F_n^2 + F_{n+1}^2 + F_{n+2}^2]^2 = 2[F_n^4 + F_{n+1}^4 + F_{n+2}^4]$$

where F_n denotes the *n*th Fibonacci number, by observing that for all reals x, y one has the curious identity

$$[x^{2} + y^{2} + (x + y)^{2}]^{2} = 2[x^{4} + y^{4} + (x + y)^{4}].$$
 (1)

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

$$f(f(x) + f(y) + f(x + y)) = 2[f(f(x)) + f(f(y)) + f(f(x + y))].$$
 (2)

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 $1 \le a < b$ then $0 \le \log_2(a) < \log_2(b)$ and it follows that $\log_2(a)/3^n < \log_2(b)/3^n < 1$ for a sufficiently large positive integer *n*. Since $2^p \ne 3^q$ for all integers *p*, *q* such that $p, q \ne 0$, we deduce $p \log 2 \ne q \log 3$, 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 $\log_2(3)$, $2\log_2(3)$, $3\log_2(3)$, ... is uniformly distributed modulo 1, i.e., there is some positive integer *m* such that

$$\log_2(a)/3^n < \log_2(3^m) - \lfloor \log_2(3^m) \rfloor < \log_2(b)/3^n,$$

where $\lfloor x \rfloor$ denotes the greatest integer $k \le x$. Let $r = \log_2(3^m)$ 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., $a < 2^{(3^n s)} < b$, whence $a < (3^m/2^{\lfloor r \rfloor})^{3^n} < b$. 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 $0 < a < b \le 1$ we will have $1 \le 1/b < 1/a$ 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

$$f(x) = kx^2, \tag{3}$$

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 $x \ge 0$: f(2f(x)) = 4f(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(2z) = 4f(z) for all z in \mathbb{R}^+ . It follows by induction

$$f(2^{n}z) = (2^{n})^{2}f(z),$$
(4)

for all integers $n \ge 0$.

Since $f(z) = f(2^n(z/2^n)) = (2^n)^2 f(z/2^n)$ we get

$$f(2^{-n}z) = (2^{-n})^2 f(z)$$
(5)

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

$$f(2^{n}z) = (2^{n})^{2} f(z),$$
(6)

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

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

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

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

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

$$f(3^{m}z) = (3^{m})^{2}f(z),$$
(7)

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

$$f(2^n 3^m) = (2^n 3^m)^2 f(1).$$
(8)

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

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Monotonic Convergence to *e* via the Arithmetic-Geometric Mean

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Recently, Hansheng Yang and Heng Yang [3], by using only the arithmetic-geometric inequality, have proved the monotonicity of the sequences (x_n) , (y_n) , related to the number e:

$$x_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n, \quad y_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1} \quad (n = 1, 2, ...)$$

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

$$G_k = G_k(a_1, \dots, a_k) = \sqrt[k]{a_1 \dots a_k},$$
$$A_k = A_k(a_1, \dots, a_k) = \frac{a_1 + \dots + a_k}{k},$$

we have

$$G_k \le A_k,\tag{1}$$

with equality only when all a_i are equal.