$\alpha = n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum a_i$ ,  $\beta = n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum b_i$ .

Then

$$\sum a_i^2 \sum b_i^2 - (\sum a_i b_i)^2 \ge \alpha^2 \sum b_i^2 - 2\alpha\beta \sum a_i b_i + \beta^2 \sum a_i^2$$

with the sign of equality if and only if the three row vectors  $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ ,  $b = (b_1, \ldots, b_n)$ ,  $e = n^{-\frac{1}{2}}(1, \ldots, 1)$  are linearly dependent.

H. Schwerdtfeger

<u>P 20</u>. Given a plane square lattice of side length one and a positive integer n. Form all the sets S of n lattice points. Let L(S) denote the length of the boundary of the convex closure of S. Estimate  $\min_{S}$ L(S) in terms of n. (cf. H.D. Block, Proc. Amer. Math. Soc. 8 (1957), 860-862.)

P. Scherk

<u>P 21</u>. It is possible to metrize an affine plane (with preservation of its natural topology) in such a way that on every affine line the metric is Euclidean, but that the whole plane does not become Euclidean, viz. by a Minkowski metric. Similarly, is it possible to metrize an affine space  $A^n$  (n > 2) in such a way that in every affine plane the metric is Minkowskian, but that the whole space is not Minkowskian?

H. Helfenstein

## SOLUTIONS

<u>Pl.</u> Let f(x) be a Lebesgue integrable function on some interval  $a - \varepsilon \le x \le b + \varepsilon$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and let  $F_h(x) = h^{-1} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt$ . An important theorem in the theory of Lebesgue integration states that  $\lim_{h\to 0} F_h(x) = f(x)$  for almost all x. Show that we also have  $\lim_{h\to 0} \int_a^b |F_h(x) - f(x)| dx = 0$ .

W.A.J. Luxemburg

Solution by the proposer. We restrict ourselves to the case h > 0 as the case h < 0 is similar.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{a}^{b} \left| F_{h}(x) - f(x) \right| & dx = \int_{a}^{b} \left| h^{-1} \int_{x}^{x+h} f(t) dt - f(x) \right| dx \\ &= \int_{a}^{b} \left| h^{-1} \int_{o}^{h} (f(t+x) - f(x)) dt \right| dx \leq h^{-1} \int_{a}^{b} \int_{o}^{h} \left| f(t+x) - f(t) \right| dt dx \\ &= h^{-1} \int_{o}^{h} \left( \int_{a}^{b} \left| f(t+x) - f(t) \right| dx \right) dt \end{aligned}$$

(This last integral exists if h is sufficiently small, as f is integrable over  $(a - \varepsilon, b + \varepsilon)$ .) If we put  $\omega_1(\delta) = \sup\left(\int_a^b |f(x+t)-f(x)| dx, 0 < t \le \delta\right)$  then we know that  $\lim_{\delta \to 0} \omega_1(\delta) = 0$ . (This can be proved as follows; given  $\varepsilon > 0$  we can find a continuous function  $\varphi(x)$ , which is continuous for all x and such that  $\int_{a-\varepsilon}^{b+\varepsilon} |f(x) - \varphi(x)| dx < \varepsilon/3$ , as  $\varphi(x)$  is uniformly continuous on  $(a - \varepsilon, b + \varepsilon)$  we can find a  $\delta(\varepsilon) > 0$  such that  $|\varphi(x+t) - \varphi(x)| < \varepsilon/3$  (b-a) for all  $|t| < \delta$ . If  $0 < t < \min(\varepsilon, \delta)$  then we have  $\int_a^b |f(x+t) - f(x)| dx \le \int_a^b |f(x+t) - \varphi(x+t)| dx + \int_a^b |\varphi(x+t) - \varphi(x)| dx + \int_a^b |\varphi(x) - f(x)| dx \le \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 + \xi/3 + \int_a^b |\varphi(x+t) - \varphi(x)| dx \le \varepsilon$  if  $0 < t < \delta$ .) But as  $\int_a^b |F_h(x) - f(x)| dx \le \omega_1$ (h) we have  $\lim_{h \to 0} \int_a^b |F_h(x) - f(x)| dx = 0$ .

<u>P9</u>. Let f(x) be a polynomial with integer coefficients. Let  $a_0$  be an integer and  $a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$ , n = 0, 1, 2, ...Prove that if  $a_0 = a_k$  (k > 0) then  $a_n = a_{n+2}$  for all  $n \ge 0$ .

J. Lambek and L. Moser

Solution by the proposers. Clearly  $(a_n - a_{n-1}) | (f(a_n) - f(a_{n-1}))$ , that is  $(a_n - a_{n-1}) | (a_{n+1} - a_n)$  for all n > 0. Let  $b_n = a_{n+1} - a_n$ . Then  $b_n | b_{n+1} (n \ge 0)$  and so  $b_n^{2} \le b_{n+1} (n \ge 0)$ . If  $a_0 = a_k$  then  $a_1 = f(a_0) = f(a_k) = a_{k+1}$  and in general  $a_n = a_{n+k} (n \ge 0)$ . Hence also  $b_n = b_{n+k} (n \ge 0)$ . Now  $b_{n+1} \le b_{n+2} \le \ldots \le b_{n+k} = b_n^{2}$ . Thus  $b_n^{2} \le b_{n+1} \le b_n^{2}$  and  $b_n^{2} = b_{n+1} (n \ge 0)$ . Consider two cases: Case 1.  $b_n = b_{n+1}$  for all n. In this case the  $a_0$ ,  $a_1$ , ... is an arithmetic progression and since  $a_0 = a_k$  all the a's must be equal so that  $a_n = a_{n+2}$ . Case 2. For some m,  $b_m = -b_{m+1}$ . This implies  $a_m = a_{m+2}$ . i.e. If  $a_m = c$  and f(c) = d then f(d) = c. Hence beyond a certain stage the a's are alternately c and d. However since  $a_0 = a_k = a_{2k} = \ldots$ ,  $a_0$  must be either c or d and the proof is complete.

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