

## Solutions to the Problems on Induction and Recursion

**1:** Let  $a_0 = 0$  and  $a_1 = 1$  and for  $n \geq 2$  let  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2}$ . Show that  $a_n = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n)$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

Solution: We claim that  $a_n = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n)$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . When  $n = 0$  we have  $a_n = a_0 = 0$  and  $\frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n) = \frac{1}{5}(3^0 - (-2)^0) = 0$ , so the claim is true when  $n = 0$ . When  $n = 1$  we have  $a_n = a_1 = 1$  and  $\frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n) = \frac{1}{5}(3 - (-2)) = 1$ , so the claim is true when  $n = 1$ . Let  $k \geq 2$  and suppose the claim is true for all  $n < k$ . In particular we suppose the claim is true when  $n = k - 1$  and when  $n = k - 2$ , that is we suppose  $a_{k-1} = \frac{1}{5}(3^{k-1} - (-2)^{k-1})$  and  $a_{k-2} = \frac{1}{5}(3^{k-2} - (-2)^{k-2})$ . Then when  $n = k$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= a_k = a_{k-1} + 6a_{k-2} \\ &= \frac{1}{5}(3^{k-1} - (-2)^{k-1}) + \frac{6}{5}(3^{k-2} - (-2)^{k-2}) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{5} \cdot 3^{k-1} + \frac{6}{5} \cdot 3^{k-2}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{5}(-2)^{k-1} + \frac{6}{5}(-2)^{k-2}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{3}{5} \cdot 3^{k-2} + \frac{6}{5} \cdot 3^{k-2}\right) - \left(-\frac{2}{5}(-2)^{k-2} + \frac{6}{5}(-2)^{k-2}\right) \\ &= \frac{9}{5} \cdot 3^{k-2} - \frac{4}{5}(-2)^{k-2} = \frac{1}{5} \cdot 3^k - \frac{1}{5}(-2)^k \\ &= \frac{1}{5}(3^k - (-2)^k) = \frac{1}{5}(3^n - (-2)^n). \end{aligned}$$

Thus the claim is true when  $n = k$ . By Strong Mathematical Induction, the claim is true for all  $n \geq 0$ .

**2:** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . Evaluate  $\sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^i (2i - 1)^2$ .

Solution: Let  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^i (2i - 1)^2$ . Verify that  $S_1 = -1$ ,  $S_2 = 8 = 2 \cdot 4$ ,  $S_3 = -17 = 1 - 2 \cdot 9$ ,  $S_4 = 32 = 2 \cdot 16$ ,  $S_5 = -49 = 1 - 2 \cdot 25$  and  $S_6 = 72 = 2 \cdot 36$ . It appears that for all  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$S_n = \begin{cases} 2n^2 & \text{when } n \text{ is even,} \\ 1 - 2n^2 & \text{when } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

In other words, it appears that  $S_{2m} = 2(2m)^2$  for all  $m \geq 1$  and that  $S_{2m-1} = 1 - 2(2m-1)^2$  for all  $m \geq 1$ . We claim first that  $S_{2m} = 2(2m)^2$  for all  $m \geq 1$ . We have seen that this claim is true when  $m = 1$  (and when  $m = 2, 3$ ). Let  $k \geq 1$  and suppose that the claim is true when  $m = k$ , that is suppose that  $S_{2k} = 2(2k)^2$ . Then when  $m = k + 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} S_{2m} &= \sum_{i=1}^{2k+2} (-1)^i (2i - 1)^2 \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{2k} (-1)^i (2i - 1)^2\right) + (-1)^{2k+1} (4k + 1)^2 + (-1)^{2k+2} (4k + 3)^2 \\ &= 2(2k)^2 - (4k + 1)^2 + (4k + 3)^2 = 8k^2 - (16k^2 + 8k + 1) + (16k^2 + 24k + 8) \\ &= 8k^2 + 16k + 8 = 8(k + 1)^2 = 2(2m)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the claim is true when  $m = k + 1$ . By Mathematical Induction, the claim is true for all  $m \geq 1$ . Finally, note that for all  $m \geq 1$  we have  $1 - 2(2m - 1)^2 = 1 - 2(4m^2 - 4m + 1) = -8m^2 + 8m - 1$  and

$$\begin{aligned} S_{2m-1} &= S_{2m} - (-1)^{2m} (4m - 1)^2 = 2(2m)^2 - (4m - 1)^2 \\ &= 8m^2 - (16m^2 - 8m + 1) = -8m^2 + 8m - 1 = 1 - 2(2m - 1)^2. \end{aligned}$$

**3:** Let  $c, p, q \in \mathbf{R}$  with  $p \neq 0$ . Let  $a_0 = c$  and for  $n \geq 1$  let  $a_n = p a_{n-1} + q$ . Find  $a_n$ .

Solution: We have

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= c \\ a_1 &= pc + q \\ a_2 &= p(pc + q) + q = p^2c + pq + q \\ a_3 &= p(p^2c + pq + q) + q = p^3c + p^2q + pq + q \\ a_4 &= p(p^3c + p^2q + pq + q) + q = p^4c + p^3q + p^2q + pq + q \end{aligned}$$

and in general

$$a_n = p^n c + p^{n-1}q + p^{n-2}q + \cdots + p^2q + pq + q = p^n c + (p^{n-1} + p^{n-2} + \cdots + p^2 + p + 1)q.$$

We can obtain a (non-recursive) formula for the geometric sum  $p^{n-1} + p^{n-2} + \cdots + p^2 + p + 1$  as follows. Let  $S = p^{n-1} + p^{n-2} + \cdots + p^2 + p + 1$  (1). Note that  $pS = p^n + p^{n-1} + p^{n-2} + \cdots + p^2 + p$  (2). Subtracting (1) from (2) gives  $S(p-1) = p^n - 1$  and so  $S = \frac{p^n - 1}{p - 1}$ . Thus we have

$$a_n = p^n c + \frac{p^n - 1}{p - 1} q.$$

**4:** Let  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . Evaluate  $\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n+i}{i} \frac{1}{2^i}$ .

Solution: Let  $S_n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n+i}{i} \frac{1}{2^i}$ . Verify that  $S_0 = 1$ ,  $S_1 = 2$ ,  $S_2 = 4$  and  $S_3 = 8$ . We claim that  $S_n = 2^n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . When  $n = 0$  (and also when  $n = 1, 2$  and  $3$ ) we have seen that the claim is true. Let  $k \geq 0$  and suppose that the claim is true when  $n = k$ , that is suppose  $S_k = 2^k$ . Let  $n = k + 1$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= S_{k+1} = \binom{k+1}{0} + \binom{k+2}{1} \frac{1}{2} + \binom{k+3}{2} \frac{1}{2^2} + \binom{k+4}{3} \frac{1}{2^3} + \cdots + \binom{2k+1}{k} \frac{1}{2^k} + \binom{2k+2}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \\ &= 1 + \left( \binom{k+1}{0} + \binom{k+1}{1} \right) \frac{1}{2} + \left( \binom{k+2}{1} + \binom{k+2}{2} \right) \frac{1}{2^2} + \left( \binom{k+3}{2} + \binom{k+3}{3} \right) \frac{1}{2^3} \\ &\quad + \cdots + \left( \binom{2k}{k-1} + \binom{2k}{k} \right) \frac{1}{2^k} + \left( \binom{2k+1}{k} + \binom{2k+1}{k+1} \right) \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \\ &= \left( \binom{k+1}{0} \frac{1}{2} + \binom{k+2}{1} \frac{1}{2^2} + \binom{k+3}{2} \frac{1}{2^3} + \cdots + \binom{2k}{k-1} \frac{1}{2^k} + \binom{2k+1}{k} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right) \\ &\quad + \left( 1 + \binom{k+1}{1} \frac{1}{2} + \binom{k+2}{2} \frac{1}{2^2} + \binom{k+3}{3} \frac{1}{2^3} + \cdots + \binom{2k}{k} \frac{1}{2^k} + \binom{2k+1}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{2} S_n - \binom{2k+2}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k+2}} \right) + \left( \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k+i}{i} \frac{1}{2^i} + \binom{2k+1}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Subtract  $\frac{1}{2} S_n$  from each side to get

$$\frac{1}{2} S_n = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k+i}{i} \frac{1}{2^i} + \binom{2k+1}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} - \binom{2k+2}{k+1} \frac{1}{2^{k+2}}.$$

Notice that

$$\binom{2k+2}{k+1} = \frac{(2k+2)!}{(k+1)!(k+1)!} = \frac{(2k+2)(2k+1)!}{(k+1)k!(k+1)!} = \frac{2(2k+1)!}{k!(k+1)!} = 2 \binom{2k+1}{k+1}$$

and so we have  $\frac{1}{2} S_n = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k+i}{i} \frac{1}{2^i} = S_k = 2^k$ , that is  $S_n = 2^{k+1} = 2^n$ . Thus the claim holds when  $n = k + 1$ , and so by Mathematical Induction, the claim holds for all  $n \geq 0$ .

**5:** Let  $a_0 = 9$  and for  $n \geq 0$  let  $a_{n+1} = 3a_n^4 + 4a_n^3$ . Show that for all  $n \geq 0$ , the number  $a_n$  has (at least)  $2^n$  nines in its decimal expansion.

Solution: Note first that a positive integer  $m$  ends with (at least)  $l$  nines  $\iff m+1$  ends with  $l$  zeros  $\iff m+1 = 10^l q$  for some positive integer  $q \iff m = 10^l q - 1$  for some positive integer  $q$ .

We claim that for all  $n \geq 0$ ,  $a_n$  ends with (at least)  $2^n$  nines. When  $n = 0$ , the claim is true since  $a_0 = 9$  which ends with  $2^0 = 1$  nine(s). Let  $k \geq 0$  and suppose (inductively) that  $a_k$  ends with  $2^k$  nines, say  $a_k = 10^{2^k} q - 1$ . Then when  $n = k + 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= a_{k+1} = 3a_k^4 + 4a_k^3 \\ &= 3 \left( 10^{2^k} q - 1 \right)^4 + 4 \left( 10^{2^k} q - 1 \right)^3 \\ &= 3 \left( 10^{4 \cdot 2^k} q^4 - 4 \cdot 10^{3 \cdot 2^k} q^3 + 6 \cdot 10^{2 \cdot 2^k} q^2 - 4 \cdot 10^{2^k} q + 1 \right) \\ &\quad + 4 \left( 10^{3 \cdot 2^k} q^3 - 3 \cdot 10^{2 \cdot 2^k} q^2 + 3 \cdot 10^{2^k} q - 1 \right) \\ &= 3 \cdot 10^{4 \cdot 2^k} q^4 - 8 \cdot 10^{3 \cdot 2^k} q^3 + 6 \cdot 10^{2 \cdot 2^k} q^2 - 1 \\ &= 10^{2 \cdot 2^k} \left( 3 \cdot 10^{2 \cdot 2^k} q^4 - 8 \cdot 10^{2^k} q^3 + 6q^2 \right) - 1 \\ &= 10^{2^{k+1}} r - 1, \text{ where } r = 3 \cdot 10^{2 \cdot 2^k} q^4 - 8 \cdot 10^{2^k} q^3 + 6q^2, \end{aligned}$$

which ends with  $2^{k+1}$  nines. Thus for all  $n \geq 0$ ,  $a_n$  ends with  $2^n$  nines, by mathematical induction.

**6:** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . Evaluate  $\sum_{(k,l) \in A} \frac{1}{kl}$  where  $A$  is the set of ordered pairs of integers  $(k, l)$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$ ,  $1 \leq l \leq n$ ,  $k + l > n$  and  $\gcd(k, l) = 1$ .

Solution: Let  $A_n = \{(k, l) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n, 1 \leq l \leq n, k + l > n, \gcd(k, l) = 1\}$  and let  $S_n = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n} \frac{1}{kl}$ . Note that  $A_1 = \{(1, 1)\}$  so that  $S_1 = 1$ . Fix  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  and suppose, inductively, that  $S_n = 1$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} A_n &= \{(k, l) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n, 1 \leq l \leq n, k + l > n, \gcd(k, l) = 1\}, \\ A_{n+1} &= \{(k, l) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n+1, 1 \leq l \leq n+1, k + l > n+1, \gcd(k, l) = 1\}, \\ A_n \setminus A_{n+1} &= \{(k, l) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n, 1 \leq l \leq n, k + l = n+1, \gcd(k, l) = 1\}, \\ &= \{(k, n+1-k) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n, \gcd(k, n+1) = 1\}, \\ A_{n+1} \setminus A_n &= \{(k, l) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n+1, 1 \leq l \leq n+1, \text{ either } k = n+1 \text{ or } l = n+1, \gcd(k, l) = 1\}, \\ &= \{(n+1, l) \mid 1 \leq l \leq n, \gcd(n+1, l) = 1\} \cup \{(k, n+1) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n, \gcd(k, n+1) = 1\}, \text{ and} \\ &= \{(n+1, n+1-j) \mid 1 \leq j \leq n, \gcd(n+1, j) = 1\} \cup \{(k, n+1) \mid 1 \leq k \leq n, \gcd(k, n+1) = 1\}, \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(k,l) \in A_{n+1} \setminus A_n} \frac{1}{kl} &= \sum_{\substack{1 \leq j \leq n \\ \gcd(k, n+1)=1}} \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+1-j)} + \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ \gcd(k, n+1)=1}} \frac{1}{k(n+1)} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ \gcd(k, n+1)=1}} \left( \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+1-k)} + \frac{1}{k(n+1)} \right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ \gcd(k, n+1)=1}} \frac{1}{k(n+1-k)} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n \setminus A_{n+1}} \frac{1}{kl}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $S_{n+1} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_{n+1}} \frac{1}{kl} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n} \frac{1}{kl} + \sum_{(k,l) \in A_{n+1} \setminus A_n} \frac{1}{kl} - \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n \setminus A_{n+1}} \frac{1}{kl} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n} \frac{1}{kl} = S_n = 1$ . By induction,  $S_n = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

**7:** Let  $f : \mathbf{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}^+$  be strictly increasing with  $f(2) = 2$  and  $f(kl) = f(k)f(l)$  for all  $k, l \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  with  $\gcd(k, l) = 1$ . Show that  $f(n) = n$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

Solution: Since  $f(1) \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  and  $f(1) < f(2) = 2$  we must have  $f(1) = 1$ . Since  $f(3) > f(2) = 2$  and since  $f(3)f(5) = f(15) < f(18) = f(2)f(9) < f(2)f(10) = f(2)^2f(5) = 4f(5)$  so that  $f(3) < 4$  we have  $f(3) = 3$ . Since  $f(6) = f(2)f(3) = 2 \cdot 3 = 6$  and since  $1 = f(1) < f(2) < \dots < f(6) = 6$  it follows that  $f(k) = k$  for all  $k \leq 6$ . Let  $l \geq 2$  and suppose, inductively, that  $f(k) = k$  for all  $1 \leq k \leq 2(2l - 1)$ . Note that  $2 < 2(2l - 1)$  and  $2l + 1 < 2(2l - 1)$  and so we have  $f(2(2l + 1)) = f(2)f(2l + 1) = 2(2l + 1)$ . Since  $1 = f(1) < f(2) < \dots < f(2(2l + 1)) = 2(2l + 1)$  it follows that  $f(k) = k$  for all  $1 \leq k \leq 2(2l + 1)$ . By induction, we have  $f(k) = k$  for all  $k \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

**8:** Let  $a_n$  be the  $n^{\text{th}}$  Fibonacci number (so  $a_0 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = 1$  and  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ ). Show that  $a_n^2 + a_{n+1}^2 = a_{2n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

Solution: We begin by trying (and failing) to use induction to prove that  $a_n^2 + a_{n+1}^2 = a_{2n+1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . When  $n = 1$ , we have  $LS = a_1^2 + a_2^2 = 1^2 + 1^2 = 2$  and  $RS = a_3 = a_2 + a_1 = 1 + 1 = 2 = LS$ , so the equality holds. Let  $k \geq 1$  and suppose (inductively) that  $a_k^2 + a_{k+1}^2 = a_{2k+1}$ . Then when  $n = k + 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} LS &= a_{k+1}^2 + a_{k+2}^2 \\ &= a_{k+1}^2 + (a_{k+1} + a_k)^2 \\ &= a_{k+1}^2 + a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1} + a_k^2 \\ &= (a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1}) + (a_k^2 + a_{k+1}^2) \\ &= (a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1}) + a_{2k+1} \end{aligned}$$

(where the last inequality follows from the induction hypothesis), and we have

$$RS = a_{2k+3} = a_{2k+2} + a_{2k+1}.$$

If we could show that  $(a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1}) = a_{2k+2}$  then we would have  $LS = RS$  and our induction proof would work. We shall modify this abortive proof by proving two equalities at once.

We claim that  $a_n^2 + a_{n+1}^2 = a_{2n+1}$  and  $a_{n+1}^2 + 2a_n a_{n+1} = a_{2n+2}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . When  $n = 1$  we have  $a_n^2 + a_{n+1}^2 = a_1^2 + a_2^2 = 1^2 + 1^2 = 2$  and  $a_{2n+1} = a_3 = 2$  so the first equality holds, and we also have  $a_{n+1}^2 + 2a_n a_{n+1} = a_2^2 + 2a_1 a_2 = 1^2 + 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = 3$  and  $a_{2n+2} = a_4 = 3$  so the second equality holds.

Let  $k \geq 1$  and suppose (inductively) that both equalities hold when  $n = k$ , that is  $a_k^2 + a_{k+1}^2 = a_{2k+1}$  and  $a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1} = a_{2k+2}$ .

When  $n = k + 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_n^2 + a_{n+1}^2 &= a_{k+1}^2 + a_{k+2}^2 \\ &= a_{k+1}^2 + (a_{k+1} + a_k)^2 \\ &= a_{k+1}^2 + a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1} + a_k^2 \\ &= (a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1}) + (a_k^2 + a_{k+1}^2) \\ &= a_{2k+2} + a_{2k+1} \\ &= a_{2k+3} = a_{2n+1} \end{aligned}$$

and we have

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1}^2 + 2a_n a_{n+1} &= a_{k+2}^2 + 2a_{k+1} a_{k+2} \\ &= a_{k+2}^2 + 2a_{k+1}(a_{k+1} + a_k) \\ &= a_{k+2}^2 + 2a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1} \\ &= (a_{k+1}^2 + 2a_k a_{k+1}) + (a_{k+1}^2 + a_{k+2}^2) \\ &= a_{2k+2} + a_{2k+3} \\ &= a_{2k+4} = a_{2n+2}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus both equalities hold when  $n = k + 1$ , and hence both equalities hold for all  $n \geq 1$  by mathematical induction.

**9:** (a) Show that every positive integer is equal to a sum of distinct Fibonacci numbers.

Solution: We omit a solution for Part (a) as it follows from Part (b).

(b) Show that every positive integer can be expressed uniquely as a sum of distinct non-consecutive Fibonacci numbers.

Solution: Let  $a_n$  denote the  $n^{\text{th}}$  Fibonacci number (so  $a_1 = a_2 = 1$  and  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 3$ ). We interpret the statement of the problem to mean that every  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  can be represented uniquely in the form  $n = a_{j_1} + a_{j_2} + \cdots + a_{j_m}$  for some  $m \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  and some  $j_i$  with

$$2 \leq j_1, j_1 + 2 \leq j_2, j_2 + 2 \leq j_3, \dots, j_{m-1} + 2 \leq j_m.$$

First we claim that if  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  can be represented in this form then we must have  $j_m = l$  where  $l$  is the index for which  $a_l \leq n < a_{l+1}$ . Suppose, for a contradiction that  $j_m < l$ . Then we have  $j_m \leq l - 1$ ,  $j_{m-1} \leq l - 3$ ,  $j_{m-2} \leq l - 5$  and so on, and so

$$n = a_{j_m} + a_{j_{m-1}} + a_{j_{m-2}} + \cdots + a_{j_1} \leq a_{l-1} + a_{l-3} + a_{l-5} + \cdots + a_\epsilon$$

where  $\epsilon = 2$  when  $l$  is odd and  $\epsilon = 3$  when  $n$  is even. Using induction, it is easy to show that

$$\begin{aligned} a_2 + a_4 + \cdots + a_{2k} &= a_{2k+1} - 1 \\ a_3 + a_5 + \cdots + a_{2k-1} &= a_{2k} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

and so we have  $a_l \leq n \leq a_{l-1} + a_{l-3} + \cdots + a_\epsilon = a_l - 1$ , giving the desired contradiction.

Now let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$  and let  $l$  be the index for which  $a_l \leq n < a_{l+1}$ . If  $n = a_l$  then we take  $m = 1$  and  $j_1 = l$  to get the unique representation  $n = a_{j_1} = a_l$ . Suppose that  $n > a_l$ . Then we have  $n = a_l + (n - a_l)$  with  $1 \leq (n - a_l) < a_{l+1} - a_l = a_{l-1}$ . We may suppose, inductively, that  $n - a_l$  has a unique representation as a sum of distinct non-consecutive Fibonacci numbers, say

$$n - a_l = a_{j_1} + a_{j_2} + \cdots + a_{j_r}.$$

Note that by our above claim, since  $n - a_l < a_{l-1}$  we must have  $j_j < l - 1$ . Thus the unique representation for  $n$  as a sum of distinct non-consecutive Fibonacci numbers is

$$n = a_{j_1} + a_{j_2} + \cdots + a_{j_r} + a_l.$$

**10:** Let  $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbf{Z}^n$  with  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = 1$ . For  $k, l \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , let

$$S_{kl} = \sum_{i=k}^l a_i = \begin{cases} a_k + a_{k+1} + \cdots + a_l & \text{if } k \leq l \leq n, \\ a_k + \cdots + a_n + a_1 + \cdots + a_l & \text{if } 1 \leq l < k. \end{cases}$$

Show that there exists a unique  $k$  such that  $S_{kl} > 0$  for every  $l$ .

Solution: We introduce some terminology. A *unit-sum  $n$ -tuple* is an  $n$ -tuple  $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbf{Z}^n$  with  $\sum a_i = 1$ . For  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  we write  $k * a = (a_k, a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1})$ . The sums  $S_{kl}$  are called the *partial sums* for  $k * a$ . A *positive shift* for  $a$  is an element  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  such that  $S_{kl} > 0$  for all  $l$ . Note that there is only one unit-sum 1-tuple, namely  $a = (1)$ , and it has a unique positive shift in  $\{1\}$ , namely  $k = 1$ . Fix  $n \geq 1$  and suppose, inductively, that every unit-sum  $n$ -tuple has a unique positive shift. Let  $b = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n+1})$  be a unit-sum  $(n + 1)$ -tuple. Note that since each  $b_i \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $\sum b_i = 1$ , we can choose an index  $m$  so that  $b_m > 0$  and  $b_{m+1} \leq 0$  (where we treat indices modulo  $n + 1$  so that if  $m = n + 1$  then  $m + 1 = 1$ ). By cyclicly permuting the terms  $b_i$ , we may suppose that  $m = n$  so we have  $b_n > 0$  and  $b_{n+1} \leq 0$ . Construct a unit-sum  $n$ -tuple  $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  by defining  $a_i = b_i$  for  $1 \leq i < n$  and  $a_n = b_n + b_{n+1}$ . Note that  $k = n + 1$  is not a good shift for  $b$  because we have  $S_{n+1, n+1} = b_{n+1} \leq 0$ . For  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , note that  $k$  is a good shift for  $a$  if and only if  $k$  is a good shift for  $b$  because  $k * a$  and  $k * b$  have the same partial sums except that  $k * b$  has the one additional partial sum  $b_k + b_{k+1} + \cdots + b_{n-1} + b_n = a_k + \cdots + a_{n-1} + b_n > a_k + \cdots + a_{n-1}$  (in the case that  $k = n$ , this additional partial sum is equal to  $b_n > 0$ ). Since, by the induction hypothesis,  $a$  has a unique positive shift, so does  $b$ . By induction, for all  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ , every unit-sum  $n$ -tuple has a unique positive shift.

**11:** Let  $n \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . Suppose that  $n$  distinct points are chosen on the unit circle and a line segment is drawn between each of the  $\binom{n}{2}$  pairs of points and suppose that no three of the line segments are coincident. Let  $a_n$  be the number of regions into which the unit disc is divided by these line segments.

(a) Find  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_5$  and conjecture a formula for  $a_n$ .

Solution: By drawing some pictures, you can check that  $a_1 = 1$ ,  $a_2 = 2$ ,  $a_3 = 4$  and  $a_4 = 8$  and  $a_5 = 16$ . You will then no doubt be tempted to guess that  $a_n = 2^{n-1}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , but this is not the case! Indeed you can draw one more picture to see that  $a_6 = 31$ .

(b) The obvious conjecture from Part (a) is incorrect. Find the correct formula for  $a_n$ .

Solution: We claim first that that when a disc is divided into regions by  $l$  line segments (no 3 of which intersect) which have  $p$  points of intersection inside the circle (not counting the points of intersection that are on the boundary circle), the number of regions is  $l + p + 1$ . We prove this by induction on  $l$ . When  $l = 0$ , we must have  $p = 0$  (when there are no line segments, there are certainly no intersection points) so we have  $l + p + 1 = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$ , and indeed when there are no line segments the circle has not been divided so there is 1 region. Thus the claim is true when  $l = 0$ . Let  $k \geq 0$  and suppose (inductively) that the claim is true whenever  $l = k$  (that is, whenever there are  $k$  line segments). Suppose that we had  $k$  line segments with  $q$  intersection points in the circle, and then we add one more line segment (so that now there are  $l = k + 1$  line segments), and suppose that there are  $r$  new intersection points which lie along this line (so there are now  $p = q + r$  intersection points). By the induction hypothesis, there used to be  $k + q + 1$  regions before we added the final line. Notice that the  $r$  intersection points on the final line segment divide into  $r + 1$  smaller segments, and each of these segments divides one of the previous regions into two new regions. Thus the number of regions increases by  $r + 1$ . The old number of regions was  $k + q + 1$ , so the new number of regions is  $(k + q + 1) + (r + 1) = (k + 1) + (q + r) + 1 = l + p + 1$ , so the claim is still true now that  $l = k + 1$ . By mathematical induction, the claim is true for all  $l \geq 1$ .

When  $n = 1$ , so there is one point on the circle, there are no line segments and no points of intersection, and so we have  $a_1 = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$ . When  $n = 2$  there is one line segment and no intersection points, so we have  $a_2 = 1 + 0 + 1 = 2$ . When  $n = 3$ , there are 3 line segments and no intersection points (inside the circle) so  $a_3 = 3 + 0 + 1 = 4$ . When  $n \geq 4$ , the number of line segments is  $l = \binom{n}{2}$  (since each line segment is determined by its two endpoints, and there are  $\binom{n}{2}$  ways to choose the 2 endpoints), and the number of intersection points in the circle is  $\binom{n}{4}$  (since each intersection point is determined by the 4 endpoints of the two line segments that contain the point). Thus we have

$$a_n = \binom{n}{2} + \binom{n}{4} + 1.$$

If you expand and simplify, you will find that

$$a_n = \frac{n^4 - 6n^3 + 23n^2 - 18n + 24}{24}.$$

As you can check, this formula also works when  $n = 1, 2$  and  $3$  (it even works in the case that  $n = 0$ , that is when there are no points on the circle, and it is not divided, so there is 1 region).

**12:** Let  $p$  be an odd prime and suppose that  $U_{p^2} = \langle a \rangle$ . Show that  $U_{p^k} = \langle a \rangle$  for all  $k \geq 2$ .

Solution: I may include a solution later.