Answers to the Midterm for CSI35

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1. Prove that for all natural numbers n we have:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Answer. We proceed by induction. For n = 0 we have the statement

$$\sum_{i=0}^{0} i^2 = \frac{0(0+1)(2 \cdot 0 + 1)}{6}$$

which is true since both sides are evidently 0. This concludes the basic step.

For the inductive step, we assume that the sentence has been proven for n and we will prove it for n + 1. That is, we assume that,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

and we will prove that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n+1} i^2 = \frac{(n+1)(n+1+1)\left(2(n+1)+1\right)}{6} \tag{1}$$

We start with the LHS of (1):

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n+1} i^2 = \sum_{i=0}^n i^2 + (n+1)^2$$

= $\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} + (n+1)^2$
= $\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1) + 6(n+1)^2}{6}$
= $\frac{(n+1)(n(2n+1) + 6(n+1))}{6}$
= $\frac{(n+1)(n(2n+1) + 6(n+1))}{6}$
= $\frac{(n+1)(2n^2 + 7n + 6)}{6}$

On the other hand, the RHS of (1) is:

$$\frac{(n+1)(n+1+1)(2(n+1)+1)}{6} = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)}{6}$$
$$= \frac{(n+1)(2n^2+7n+6)}{6}$$

Therefore the two sides of (1) are equal. This concludes the proof of (1) and the inductive step. $\hfill \Box$

2. Prove that for all positive integers n, 7 divides $n^7 - n$.

Answer. We proceed by induction. The proposition is true when n = 1 since 7 divides 0. For the inductive step, we assume that 7 divides $n^7 - n$, that is we assume that $n^7 - n = 7k$ for some natural number k, and we are going to prove that 7 divides $(n+1)^7 - (n+1)$.

We use the binomial theorem to expand $(n + 1)^7$. We have:

$$(n + 1)^7 = n^7 + 7n^6 + 21n^5 + 35n^4 + 35n^3 + 21n^2 + 7n + 1$$

where the coefficients were computed as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7\\0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7\\7 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 7\\1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7\\6 \end{pmatrix} = 7$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 7\\2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7\\5 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{7 \cdot 6}{2!} = 21$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 7\\3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 7\\4 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5}{3!} = 35$$

So we have:

$$\begin{split} (n+1)^7 - (n-1) &= n^7 + 7n^6 + 21n^5 + 35n^4 + 35n^3 + 21n^2 + 7n + 1 - n - 1 \\ &= n^7 - n + 7(n^6 + 3n^5 + 5n^4 + 5n^3 + 3n^2 + n) \\ &= 7k + 7(n^6 + 3n^5 + 5n^4 + 5n^3 + 3n^2 + n) \\ &= 7(k + n^6 + 3n^5 + 5n^4 + 5n^3 + 3n^2 + n) \end{split}$$

So 7 divides $(n+1)^7 - (n+1)$, and this concludes the inductive step and the proof. \Box

3. Prove that for natural numbers $n \ge 7$ we have $3^n < n!$

Answer. By induction. For the basic step n = 7, we have: $3^7 = 2187$ while 7! = 5040. Therefore, $3^7 < 7!$. This completes the basic step.

For the inductive step we assume that

$$3^n < n! \tag{2}$$

and we are going to prove that $3^{n+1} < (n+1)!$ Indeed, since $n \ge 7$ we have that

$$3 < n+1 \tag{3}$$

Multiplying the inequalities (2) and (3) we get, since all terms involved are positive:

$$3^{n} \cdot 3 < n! \cdot (n+1)$$

Or equivalently,

$$3^{n+1} < (n+1)!$$

This completes the inductive step and the proof.

4. Consider the following zero-one matrix:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Prove that $A^n = A$ for all natural numbers $n \ge 1$, where the power is with respect to the boolean product.

Answer. The proposition is obviously true for n = 1. For the inductive step we assume

 $A^n = A$

and we'll prove that

$$A^{n+1} = A$$

We have:

$$A^{n+1} = A^{n} \cdot A$$

= $A \cdot A$
= $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
= A

This concludes the inductive step and the proof.

5. Alice and Bob play a game by taking turns removing up to 4 stones from a pile that initially has n stones. The person that removes the last stone wins the game. Alice plays always first. For which values of n does Alice have a winning strategy? For which values of n does Bob have a winning strategy? Prove your answer.

Answer. We will prove that Bob has a winning strategy when n = 5k, for some natural number k. For all other values of n Alice has a winning strategy.

To prove that for n = 5k Bob has a winning strategy, we proceed by induction. For k = 1, that is when there are n = 5 stones, Bob can win no matter what is Alice's first move. Indeed, if Alice takes 1, Bob can take the remaining 4 stones and win, if Alice takes 2, Bob can take the remaining 3 stones and win, if Alice takes 3, Bob can take the remaining 2 stones and win, and if Alice takes 4, Bob can take the remaining stone and win.

For the inductive step, we assume that Bob has a winning strategy when there are n = 5k stones, and we'll prove that he has a strategy when n = 5(k+1) as well. Now, 5(k+1) = 5k + 5 so no matter what Alice's first move is, Bob can ensure that after his second move there are 5k stones left. (Indeed, if Alice takes 1 stone Bob takes 4, if Alice takes 2 Bob takes 3, if Alice takes 3 Bob takes 2 and when Alice takes 4 Bob takes 1; this way after Bob's first move, 5 stones have been removed in total, leaving 5k stones.) Once there are 5k stones with Alice's turn to play, Bob can follow the strategy guaranteed by the inductive hypothesis and win. This completes the inductive step.

Now if n is not a multiple of 5, it will leave remainder 1, 2, 3 or 4 when divided by 5. In other words, for some k we'll have n = 5k + 1, or n = 5k + 2, or n = 5k + 3, or

n = 5k + 4; so in her first move Alice can take 1, or 2, or 3, or 4 respectively leaving 5k stones with Bob's turn to play. We proved in the previous paragraph that when there 5k stones the second player has a winning strategy. So once there are 5k stones and Bob's turn to play, Alice can follow that strategy and win.

6. In Nevereverland chicken nuggets come in packages of 3 and 5. Prove that for $n \ge 8$ a Nevereverlander can combine packages to get a total of exactly n chicken nuggets.

Answer. We will use strong induction. The basic step is n = 8: We can get 8 nuggets by using a package of three and a package of 5. This completes the basic step.

For the indcutive step, we will assume that the statement is true for all integers k with $8 \le k < n$ and we will prove that it it is also true for n. In other words we will assume that one can combine packages to get any number of nuggets k with $8 \le k < n$ and prove that one can also get n nuggets by combining packages.

Indeed, if n is large enough so that $n-3 \ge 8$, i.e. if $n \ge 11$, then by the inductive hypothesis we can get n-3 nuggets by combining packages, so we can get n nuggets by just adding a package of 3. If n is not greater of equal than 11 it will be 8, 9, or 10. We've already seen that we can get 8 nuggets. We can also get 9 by using 3 packages of 3 and we can get 10 nuggets by using 2 packages of 5. So we can get any number $n \ge 8$ and this completes the inductive step and the proof.

7. Let g_n be the number of bitstrings of length n with no consecutive ones. Give a recursive formula for g_n and prove your answer.

Answer. The recursive formula is:

$$g_{n} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 2 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ g_{n-1} + g_{n-2} & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

This definition is correct for n = 0 because the empty bitstring has no consecutive ones in it so we have one bitstring of length 0 with no consecutive ones. When n = 2we have two bitstrings 0, and 1 and none of them has consecutive ones. So $g_1 = 2$.

To make descriptions brief, let us call a bitsring *good* if it has no consecutive ones. For n > 1, the set of good bitstrings length n is the union of two disjoint sets: those that start with 0 and those that start with 1.

We can take any good bitstring of length n-1 and preppend 0 to it to get a good bitstring of length n starting with 0, therefore there are at least g_{n-1} good bitstrings of length n starting with 0. On the other hand there are at most g_{n-1} good bitstrings of length n starting with 0, since if we delete the initial 0 from such a bitstring we get

a good bitstring of length n - 1. It follows that there are exactly g_{n-1} good bistrings of length n that start with 0.

If we take any good bitstring of length n-2 and no consecutive ones and prepend 10 to it we get a good bitstring of length n starting wiht 1. So there are at least g_{n-2} good bistrings of length n starting with 1. On the other hand, a good bitstring of length n that starts with 1 actually has to start with 10, so we can delete the initial two bits of any such bitstring to get a good bitstring of length n-2. Thus there are at most g_{n-2} good bitstrings of length n starting with 1. It follows that there are exactly g_{n-2} good bitstrings of length n that start with 1.

So we have, $g_n = g_{n-1} + g_{n-2}$ as needed.

- 8. For a positive integer n let c_n be the number of ways that n can be written as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours where the order that the summands are written is important. Find a recursive definition of c_n and prove your answer.

Answer. The recursive formula is:

$$c_{n} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } n = 2 \\ 4 & \text{if } n = 3 \\ 8 & \text{if } n = 4 \\ c_{n-1} + c_{n-2} + c_{n-3} + c_{n-4} & \text{if } n > 4 \end{cases}$$

The only way we can write 1 as a sum using 1, 2, 3 and 4 is simply

1 = 1

Therefore $c_1 = 1$.

For n = 2 we have two ways:

$$2 = 1 + 1$$
, or $2 = 2$

Therefore $c_2 = 2$.

For n = 3 we have:

$$3 = 1 + 1 + 1$$
, or $3 = 1 + 2$, or $3 = 2 + 1$, or $3 = 3$

so $c_3 = 4$

For n = 4 we have:

so $c_4 = 8$.

For n > 4 the set of ways that we can write n as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours is the union of four disjoint sets: those that start with 1, those that start with 2, those that srart with 3 and those that start with 4.

Now, there are c_{n-1} ways to write n-1 as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours and by adding 1 at the beginning of such a way we get a way to write n as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours. So there are at least c_{n-1} ways to write n as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours that have 1 as first summand. On the other hand if we have a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours with first summand 1 and total sum of n, we can delete the first summand and get a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours that adds up to n - 1. So there are at most c_{n-1} ways to write n as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours that have 1 as first summand. If follows that there are at most c_{n-1} ways to write n as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours that adds.

By entirely analogous arguments we can prove that there are c_{n-2} ways that start with 2, c_{n-3} ways that start with 3 and c_{n-4} ways that start with 4.

Therefore there are $c_{n-1} + c_{n-2} + c_{n-3} + c_{n-4}$ ways to write n as a sum of ones, twos, threes, or fours.

- 9. A Morse code is a word in the alphabet consisting of two letters, the dot "." and the dash "-". The two letters have different length, the dot has length 1 while the dash has length 2.
 - (a) Give a recursive definition of the set of Morse codes M.
 - (b) Give a recursive definition of the length l(s) of a Morse code s.
 - (c) Give a recursive formula for the number of Morse codes of length n. Prove this recursive formula.

Answer. (a) The set of Morse codes is recursively defined as follows:

- The empty code \emptyset is a Morse code.
- If m is a Morse code so are $m \cdot$ and m-.
- All Morse codes are generated by the previous two rules.
- (b) Since · has length 1 and has length 2, every time we append a dot at the end of a Morse code the length increases by one while every time that we append a dash the length increases by 2. So we have the following recursive definition:
 - $l(\emptyset) = 0$
 - $l(m \cdot) = l(m) + 1$
 - l(m-) = l(m) + 2

(c) If F_n is the number of Morse codes of length n, we have the following formula:

$$F_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

This definition is correct for n = 0 because there is only one Morse code of length 0, namely the empty code. It is also correct for n = 1 since there is only one Morse code of length 1, namely ".".

For $n \ge 2$ we have that the set of Morse codes of length n is the union of two disjoint sets: those that end with \cdot and those that end with -.

There are F_{n-1} Morse codes of length n that end with \cdot . To see that there are at least F_{n-1} codes of length n that end in \cdot , notice that we can append a dot to any Morse code of length n-1 to get a code of length n that ends with a dot. To see that there are at most F_{n-1} codes of length n that end in a dot, notice that if we remove the last dot from such a code we get a code of length n-1.

Similarly, there are F_{n-2} Morse codes of length n that end with -. For, appending a dash to a code of length n-2 yields a code of length n ending in -, while removing the final dash from a code of length n that ends in a dash yields a code of length n.

Therefore, there are $F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ Morse codes of length n.

- 10. On the set Σ^* of words from the alphabet $\Sigma=\{I,M,W\}$ define the flip F(s) of a word s as follows:
 - $F(\emptyset) = \emptyset$, where \emptyset is the empty word
 - For a word s, F(sI) = F(s)I, F(sW) = F(s)M, and F(sM) = F(s)W

Call a word *flippant* if F(s) = R(s), where R(s) stands for the reverse of s. For example, MIW is a flippant word.

- (a) Give a recursive definition for the set of flippant words.
- (b) How many flippant words of length n are there? Give a formula and prove it.

Answer. (a) The following is a recursive definition of the set of fillpant words:

- The empty word is a flippant. The words of length 1, I, M and W are flippant.
- If s is a flippant word then so are MsW, WsM and IsI.
- All flippant words are generated by the previous rules.

(b) If f_n is the number of the flippant words of length n, we have the following formula:

$$f_{n} = \begin{cases} 3^{\frac{n}{2}} & \text{if n is even} \\ 3^{\frac{n+1}{2}} & \text{if n is odd} \end{cases}$$
(4)

Using the ceiling function we can express the above in a single formula:

$$f_n = 3^{\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil}$$

To prove this we first prove the following recursive formula:

$$f_{n} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 3 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 3f_{n-2} & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$
(5)

This formula true for n = 1 and n = 2 as follows from the basic step of the recursive definition of the set of flippant words.

If $n \ge 2$, there are at least $3f_{n-2}$ flippant words, since for each flippant word of length n-2 the recursive step of the definition in part a gives three different flippant words of length n. To see that there cannot be more than $3f_{n-2}$ flippant words of length n, notice that if a flippant word of length n starts with M it has to end with W, if it starts with W it has to end with M and if it starts with I it has to end with I. So all flippants words of length n come from a flippant word of length n-2 by prepending M and appending W, or by prepending W and appending M or by prepending and appending I. Thus there are exactly $3f_{n-2}$ flippant words of length n.

Using formula (5) and strong induction we can prove formula (4) as follows:

The formula (4) is true for n = 1 and n = 2 as seen by simply substituting. Now for the inductive step assume that the formula is true for all numbers less than n and we will prove that it is also true for n. Now according to formula (5)

$$f_n = 3f_{n-2}$$

If n is even, by the inductive hypothesis $f_{n-2} = 3^{\frac{n-2}{2}}$ since n-2 is also even. So for n even we have:

$$f_{n} = 3f_{n-2}$$

= $3 \cdot 3^{\frac{n-2}{2}}$
= $3^{\frac{n-2}{2}+1}$
= $3^{\frac{n}{2}}$

If n is odd then $f_{n-2} = 3^{\frac{n-2+1}{2}}$ since n-2 is also odd. Therefore:

$$f_{n} = 3f_{n-2}$$

= 3 \cdot 3^{\frac{n-2+1}{2}}
= 3^{\frac{n-1}{2}+1}
= 3^{\frac{n+1}{2}}

This completes the inductive step and the proof.

The following questions refer to the digraphs G_1 and G_2 shown bellow:



11. Answer the following questions for i = 1, 2:

- (a) Is G_i reflexive?
- (b) Is G_i irreflexive?
- (c) Is G_i symmetric?
- (d) Is $G_{\mathfrak{i}}$ transitive?

Answer. (a) G_1 is not reflexive, G_2 is.

- (b) Neither G_1 nor G_2 are irreflexive.
- (c) Neither G_1 nor G_2 are symmetric.
- (d) Neither graph is transitive. To see this we will work with the matrices associated with the digraphs. The matrix associated with G_1 is:

$$M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Taking the boolean square of M_1 we have

$$M_{1} \odot M_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since, for example, the (1,1) element of $M_1 \odot M_2$ is 1 while the (1,1) element of M_1 is 0 we conclude that M_1 is not transitive.

The matrix associated with G_1 is:

$$\mathsf{M}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Taking the boolean square of M_2 we have

$$M_{1} \odot M_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since, for example, the (1,3) element of $M_2 \odot M_2$ is 1 while the (1,3) element of M_2 is 0 we conclude that M_2 is not transitive.

12. Draw the digraph $G_2 \circ G_1$.

Answer. We first calculate the matrix associated with $G_2 \circ G_1$.

$$M_2 \odot M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So we have the following graph:



13. What is the last digit of 2009^{2009} ?

Answer. The last digit of 2009^{2009} is 9. To see this we first observe that for any natural number n the last digit of 2009^{n} will be the same as the last digit of 9^{n} , this follows from the well known algorithm for multiplication. We will prove by induction that

The last digit of 9^n is 1 if n is even and 9 if n is odd.

Indeed this is true for n = 0 since 0 is even and $9^0 = 1$. Assume then that it is true that the last digit of 9^n is 1 or 9 according to whether n is even or odd. We will prove that this is true for the last digit of 9^{n+1} as well.

If n + 1 is odd then n is even and according to the inductive hypothesis the last digit of 9^n is 1. Now $9^{n+1} = 9^n \cdot 9$ and when we use the standard multiplication algorithm we'll get 9 to be the last digit of 9^{n+1} . Similarly, if n + 1 is odd, then n is even and therefore the last digit of 9^n is 9. So when we use the standard multiplication algorithm to multiply 9^n with 9 we'll get 1 as the last digit.

14. Prove that 7 divides $5555^{2222} + 2222^{5555}$.

Answer. Since 5555 leaves remainder 4 when divided by 7 and 2222 leaves remainder 3 when divided by 7, it follows that $5555^{2222} + 2222^{5555}$ leaves the same remainder as $4^{2222} + 3^{5555}$ when divided by 7. Now

$$\begin{aligned} 4^{2222} + 3^{5555} &= 4^{2222} + 3^{5555} \\ &= 4^{2 \cdot 1111} + 3^{5 \cdot 1111} \\ &= (4^2)^{1111} + (3^5)^{1111} \\ &= (16)^{1111} + (243)^{1111} \\ &= (16 + 243)(16^{1110} - 16^{1109}243 + \dots - 16 \cdot 243^{1109} + 243^{1110}) \\ &= 259(16^{1110} - 16^{1109}243 + \dots - 16 \cdot 243^{1109} + 243^{1110}) \\ &= 7 \cdot 37(16^{1110} - 16^{1109}243 + \dots - 16 \cdot 243^{1109} + 243^{1110}) \end{aligned}$$

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Thus $4^{2222} + 3^{5555}$ is divisible by 7 and therefore so is $5555^{2222} + 2222^{5555}$.