

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.

Solution 2: Note that $a_{n+1} + 1 = 3a_n^4 + 4a_n^3 + 1 = (a_n + 1)^2(3a_n^2 - 2a_n + 1)$. Hence if a_n ends with 2^n 0's, then $a_{n+1} + 1$ ends with 2^{n+1} 0's.

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 $S_{n+1} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_{n+1}} \frac{1}{kl} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n} \frac{1}{kl} + \sum_{(k,l) \in A_{n+1} \setminus A_n} \frac{1}{kl} - \sum_{(k,l) \in A_n \setminus A_{n+1}} \frac{1}{kl} = \sum_{(k,l) \in A_{n+1}} \frac{1}{kl} = S_n = 1$. 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^{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^{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

$$a_2 + a_4 + \cdots + a_{2k} = a_{2k+1} - 1$$

$$a_3 + a_5 + \cdots + a_{2k-1} = a_{2k} - 1$$

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: Since a is a primitive root mod p^2 , we have $a^{p-1} = 1 + pb$ for some integer b coprime to p . Since a is also a primitive root mod p , it suffices to check that if $a^{p^j(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^k}$ for some integer $j = 1, \dots, k-1$, then $j = k-1$. Now $a^{p^j(p-1)} = (1 + pb)^{p^j} \equiv 1 + p^{j+1}b \pmod{p^{2j}}$. We are now done since b is coprime to p .