

Problem §5.1: 20: Prove that $3^n < n!$ if n is an integer greater than 6.

Solution. We wish to show that $3^n < n!$ for all integers $n > 6$.

Base Case: The smallest integer greater than 6 is $n = 7$, so that's the appropriate base case. To verify that the statement holds for $n = 7$, observe that $3^7 = 2187$, $7! = 5040$, and so $3^7 < 7!$.

Inductive Step: Assume that $3^k < k!$ for some integer $k > 6$. Then observe that

$$\begin{aligned} 3^{k+1} &= 3 \cdot 3^k \\ &< (k+1) \cdot 3^k && \text{(because } k > 6, \text{ so } k+1 > 7 > 3) \\ &< (k+1) \cdot k! && \text{(by the IHOP)} \\ &= (k+1)! \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion: Because we verified the base case $3^7 < 7!$ and showed that $3^k < k!$ implies $3^{k+1} < (k+1)!$ for all $k > 6$, we have shown by the principle of mathematical induction that $3^n < n!$ for all integers $n > 6$, as desired. \square

Problem §5.1: 34: Prove that 6 divides $n^3 - n$ whenever n is a nonnegative integer.

Solution. We wish to show that 6 divides $n^3 - n$ for all nonnegative integers n .

Base Case: The smallest nonnegative integer is $n = 0$. When $n = 0$, the statement trivially holds because $6 \mid 0$ (This is standard notation that means “6 divides 0”).

Inductive Step: Suppose that $6 \mid (k^3 - k)$ for some nonnegative integer k . We wish to show that 6 also divides $(k+1)^3 - (k+1)$. To see this, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} (k+1)^3 - (k+1) &= k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1 - k - 1 \\ &= (k^3 - k) + 3(k^2 + k) \\ &= (k^3 - k) + 3k(k+1) \end{aligned}$$

We know that $6 \mid (k^3 - k)$ by the inductive hypothesis. Observe that the second term, $3k(k+1)$, is clearly divisible by 3. It must also be divisible by 2, because either k or $k+1$ must be even. As such, the second term must also be divisible by 6 and therefore 6 must divide the entire expression, i.e. $6 \mid ((k+1)^3 - (k+1))$.

Conclusion: Because we showed that $6 \mid (0^3 - 0)$ and that having $6 \mid (k^3 - k)$ implies $6 \mid ((k+1)^3 - (k+1))$ for all integers $k \geq 0$, we have therefore shown by the principle of mathematical induction that $6 \mid (n^3 - n)$ for all nonnegative integers n , as desired. \square

Problem §5.1: 49: What is wrong with this “proof” that all horses are the same color?

Let $P(n)$ be the proposition that all the horses in a set of n horses are the same color.

Basis Step: Clearly, $P(1)$ is true.

Inductive Step: Assume that $P(k)$ is true, so that all the horses in any set of k horses are the same color. Consider any $k+1$ horses: number these horses as $1, 2, 3, \dots, k, k+1$. Now the first k of these horses all must have the same color. Because the set of the first k horses and the set of the last k horses overlap, all $k+1$ must be the same color. This shows that $P(k+1)$ is true and finishes the proof by induction.

Solution. This “proof” has the same flaw as Example 3 on the “Errors in Inductive Proofs” worksheet. The problem is that the argument in the inductive step is not valid when $k = 1$. When $k = 1$, the inductive step tells us to divide a set of two horses into a set containing just the first horse and

a set containing just the last horse. In this case, the statement “Because the set of the first k horses and the set of the last k horses overlap...” is nonsense - the set containing just the first horse and the set containing just the second horse are disjoint. \square

Problem §5.1: 51: What is wrong with this “proof”?

“*Theorem*”: For every positive integer n , if x and y are positive integers with $\max(x, y) = n$, then $x = y$.

Basis Step: Suppose that $n = 1$. If $\max(x, y) = 1$ and x and y are positive integers, we have $x = 1$ and $y = 1$.

Inductive Step: Let k be a positive integer. Assume that whenever $\max(x, y) = k$ and x and y are positive integers, then $x = y$. Now let $\max(x, y) = k + 1$, where x and y are positive integers. Then $\max(x - 1, y - 1) = k$, so by the inductive hypothesis $x - 1 = y - 1$. It follows that $x = y$, completing the inductive step.

Solution. Again, the problem with this “proof” is in the inductive step. The inductive step applies the inductive hypothesis to $\max(x - 1, y - 1)$. However, this implicitly assumes that $x - 1$ and $y - 1$ are positive integers whenever x and y are positive integers. This is not always true - for $k = 1$, we could have, for example, $x = 1$ and $y = 2$. Then $x - 1 = 0$ is not a positive integer and the inductive hypothesis doesn't apply. \square

Problem §5.2: 8: Suppose that a store offers gift certificates in denominations of 25 and 40 dollars. Determine the possible total amounts you can form using these gift certificates. Prove your answer using strong induction.

Solution. First, we need to determine which total amounts can be formed using gift certificates in denominations of 25 and 40. Notice that $\$25 = 5(\$5)$ and $\$40 = 8(\$5)$, so every possible dollar amount has the form $\$5n$. Then observe that

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \$25 = 1(\$25) & \$105 = 2(\$40) + 1(\$25) \\
 \$40 = 1(\$40) & \$115 = 1(\$40) + 3(\$25) \\
 \$50 = 2(\$25) & \$120 = 3(\$40) \\
 \$65 = 1(\$40) + 1(\$25) & \$125 = 5(\$25) \\
 \$75 = 3(\$25) & \$130 = 2(\$40) + 2(\$25) \\
 \$80 = 2(\$40) & \$140 = 1(\$40) + 4(\$25) \\
 \$90 = 1(\$40) + 2(\$25) & \$145 = 3(\$40) + 1(\$25) \\
 \$100 = 4(\$25) & \$150 = 5(\$25) \\
 \$125 = 5(\$25) & \$155 = 2(\$40) + 3(\$25) \\
 & \$160 = 4(\$40)
 \end{array}$$

Because we've tested all possible combinations of the gift certificates, we know that there are no gaps in this list. Observe that once $n \geq 28$, we can form $\$5n$ out of $\$25$ and $\$40$ gift certificates.

Let $P(n)$ be the statement that we can form $\$5n$ out of the $\$25$ and $\$40$ gift certificates. We will prove that $P(n)$ holds for all $n \geq 28$ by strong induction.

Base Case: Above, we already explicitly verified that $P(n)$ is true for $n = 28, 29, 30, 31$, and 32 .

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that $P(j)$ is true for all j with $28 \leq j \leq k$, where k is some fixed integer greater than or equal to 32 .

Inductive Step: We want to show that $P(k + 1)$ is true, i.e. that we can form $\$5(k + 1)$ using $\$25$ and $\$40$ gift certificates. Observe that

$$\$5(k + 1) = \$5k + \$5 = \$5k + \$5 - \$25 + \$25 = \$5k - \$20 + \$25 = \$5(k - 4) + \$25.$$

Because $k \geq 32$, we know that $k - 4 \geq 28$ and therefore, by the inductive hypothesis, we can form $\$5(k - 4)$ out of $\$25$ and $\$40$ gift certificates. Adding a single $\$25$ gift certificate gives us $\$5(k + 1)$, as desired.

Conclusion: Because we verified the base cases $P(n)$ for $n = 28, 29, 30, 31$, and 32 and we showed that assuming $P(j)$ for all $28 \leq j \leq k$ implies $P(k + 1)$, we've shown by strong induction that we can form $\$5n$ from $\$25$ and $\$40$ gift cards for all $n \geq 28$, as desired. \square

Problem §5.2: 10: Assume that a chocolate bar consists of n squares arranged in a rectangular pattern. The entire bar, a smaller rectangular piece of the bar, can be broken along on a vertical or horizontal line separating the squares. Assuming that only one piece can be broken at a time, determine how many breaks you must successively make to break the bar into n separate squares. Use strong induction to prove your answer.

Solution. We will prove via strong induction that it takes $n - 1$ breaks to separate a rectangular chocolate bar with n squares into n individual squares. Denote this statement as $P(n)$.

Base Case: If $n = 1$ (i.e., the bar contains only one square), then this is trivially true because it takes zero breaks to reduce the bar to individual squares.

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that for all $1 \leq j \leq k$, for some fixed k , it requires $j - 1$ breaks to reduce a chocolate bar with j squares to individual squares.

Inductive Step: Consider a chocolate bar with $k + 1$ squares. If we want to break this bar into individual squares, the process requires beginning with one initial break. This produces two new bars. Depending on how we broke the bar, this produces two new bars - one with $i + 1$ squares and another with $k - i$ squares, for some $0 \leq i \leq k - 1$. Because both $i + 1$ and $k - i$ are less than k , we can apply the inductive hypothesis. By the inductive hypothesis, reducing a chocolate bar with $i + 1$ squares to individual squares requires $(i + 1) - 1 = i$ breaks and reducing a chocolate bar with $k - i$ squares to individual squares requires $k - i - 1$ breaks. Therefore, the total number of breaks required is

$$i + (k - i - 1) + 1 = k + (i - i) + (1 - 1) = k,$$

as claimed.

Conclusion: Because we verified the base case, $P(0)$, and showed that assuming that $P(0), \dots, P(k)$ implies that $P(k + 1)$ is also true, we have shown by strong induction that it takes exactly $n - 1$ breaks to reduce a chocolate bar with n squares to individual squares, as desired. \square

Problem §6.1: 8: How many different three-letter initials with none of the letters repeated can people have?

Solution. Because each letter must be unique, there are 26 choices for the first initial, 25 choices for the second, and then 24 choices for the third. Hence, by the product rule there are a total of

$$26 \cdot 25 \cdot 24 = 15,600$$

different three-letter initials with no letters repeated. \square

Problem §6.1: 14: How many bit strings of length n , where n is a positive integer, start and end with 1s?

Solution. First, we need to deal with the special case $n = 1$. If $n = 1$, then there is exactly one such string: 1. If $n \geq 2$, then we want to count strings of the form

$$1_ \dots _ 1$$

Because we have two choices (0 or 1) to fill each of the $n - 2$ interior positions of the string, there are 2^{n-2} such strings. \square

Problem §6.1: 16: How many strings are there of four lowercase letters that have the letter x in them?

Solution. We can count the number of strings of four lowercase letters that contain the letter x by instead counting the *complement* of that set. Doing so, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Number of length 4 strings} \\ \text{that contain } x \end{array} \right) &= \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{total number of} \\ \text{length 4 strings} \end{array} \right) - \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{number of length 4 strings} \\ \text{that don't contain } x \end{array} \right) \\ &= 26^4 - 25^4 \\ &= 66,351 \end{aligned}$$

□

Problem §6.1: 26: How many strings of four decimal digits

- (a) do not contain the same digit twice?
- (b) end with an even digit?
- (c) have exactly three digits that are 9s?

Solution. (a) If the digits can't be repeated, then there are 10 ways to choose the first digit, 9 ways to choose the second digit, 8 ways to choose the third digit, and 7 ways to choose the fourth digit. Hence, by the product rule there are $10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7 = 5,040$ such strings.

(b) Now, we allow repetition but require that the last digit be even, i.e. be from the set $\{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. This means that there are 10 ways to choose each of the first three digits and 5 ways to choose the last digit. Hence, by the product rule there are $10^3 \cdot 5 = 5,000$ such strings.

(c) To construct a string of four decimal digits with exactly three digits that are 9s, we need to complete two tasks: choose the position of the digit that isn't a 9, and then choose the digit that will go in that space from the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$. There are 4 ways to choose the position and 9 choices of the digit to place in that position. Hence, by the product rule there are $4 \cdot 9 = 36$ such strings.

□

Problem §6.1: 30: How many license plates can be made using either three uppercase English letters followed by three digits or four uppercase English letters followed by two digits?

Solution. We can answer this question by using both the sum and product rules. First, we can count the number of license plates with three uppercase English letters followed by three digits. There are 26 choices for each letter and 10 choices for each digit, so by the product rule there are $26^3 \cdot 10^3$ such license plates. Then, we can count the number of license plates with four uppercase English letters followed by two digits. Again, the product rule tells us that there are $26^4 \cdot 10^2$ such license plates. Because any valid license plate has to be formed in one of these two ways, we know by the sum rule that there are

$$26^3 \cdot 10^3 + 26^4 \cdot 10^2 = 63,273,600$$

possible valid license plates formed in one of these two ways.

□

Problem §6.1: 36: How many functions are there from the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, where n is a positive integer, to the set $\{0, 1\}$?

Solution. For each element of the domain, we have two choices of function value. Hence, by the product rule there are 2^n such functions.

□

Problem §6.1: 37: How many functions are there from the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, where n is a positive integer, to the set $\{0, 1\}$

- (a) that are one-to-one?
- (b) that assign 0 to both 1 and n ?
- (c) that assign 1 to exactly one of the positive integers less than n ?

Solution. (a) If $n > 2$, then it's not possible to have a one-to-one function from the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ to $\{0, 1\}$. If $n = 1$, then there are two such functions - either $f(1) = 0$ or $f(1) = 1$. If $n = 2$, then there are still two such functions because once the image of 1 is determined, the image of 2 is forced to be the other element.

(b) If $n = 1$, then the function is totally determined and there is only one such function. If $n > 1$, then we still need to determine where the function maps the elements $2, \dots, n - 1$. Observe that there are exactly $n - 2$ elements in this subset. Each of those elements can be mapped to either 0 or 1. Hence, by the product rule, there are 2^{n-2} such functions.

(c) If $n = 1$, then there are no positive integers less than n and therefore there are no such functions. Hence, we only need to think about the $n > 1$ case. In order to define such a function, we need to: (1) decide which number between 1 and $n - 1$ will be mapped to 1, and then (2) determine the function value of n . For (1), we have $n - 1$ choices. For (2), we have two choices because n is free to be mapped to either 0 or 1. Hence, by the product rule there are $2 \cdot (n - 1)$ such functions. □

Problem §6.1: 40: How many subsets of a set with 100 elements have more than one element?

Solution. Again, we can use the idea of counting the *complement* of a set. Observe that

$$\binom{\text{number of subsets}}{\text{with } \geq 1 \text{ elements}} = \binom{\text{total number}}{\text{of subsets}} - \binom{\text{number of subsets}}{\text{with } \leq 1 \text{ elements}}.$$

In total, there are 2^{100} subsets. We can see this by observing that if we construct a subset, we have two choices for each element of the set: we can either include or not include that element. If we think about which of these subsets contain no more than one element, there are 101: the empty set and 100 sets consisting of one element. Hence, the number of subsets with more than one element is $2^{100} - 101$. □

Problem §6.1: 44: How many ways are there to seat four of a group of ten people around a circular table where two seatings are considered the same when everyone has the same immediate left and immediate right neighbor?

Solution. If we were just counting the number of ways to arrangement four people from a set of ten people, there would be $10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7$ such arrangements. This overcounts the number of ways to seat the four people at a round table, however, because we can rotate a seating arrangement around the table in four ways and still have the same seating arrangement. Hence, by the division rule there are

$$\frac{10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7}{4} = \frac{5040}{4} = 1260$$

distinct seating arrangements of four people from a group of ten around a circular table. □