

Problem 1

From my understanding of the question, whoever makes the last move, i.e. being the last person to break the chocolate into 1×1 pieces, is the winner.

Using a previously done proof that a $m \times n$ chocolate bar, regardless of combination, will take $mn - 1$ turns to break. The goal is to reach $mn - 1$ first so that you are the one to break the chocolate into 1×1 pieces.

This would depend on the parity of $mn - 1$:

		Turn Number
P1	1	3
P2	2	4
		... $mn - 1$

\Rightarrow whoever starts first will always have the odd-numbered turn.

The other person will have an even-numbered turn.

Therefore, if $mn - 1$ (turn required to break chocolate to 1×1 piece) is odd, you should start first so you reach this number.

Likewise, if $mn - 1$ is even then you should start last. This should be the winning strategy.

Problem 2

Predicate $P(i) = i - 1$ steps.

Base case $P(1) = 1 - 1 = 0$ steps

Solving a 1-piece jigsaw puzzle takes 0 steps.

Inductive step + hyp. Assume $P(k) = k - 1$ steps. for some $\text{integ} + r k$.

Let us prove that $P(k+1)$ will take k steps to solve.

Assume that we combine two puzzles a and b to make $k+1$ puzzle pieces in total.

$$a+b = k+1$$

Where a and b are the smaller solvable pieces.

We assume per I-H that a and b will take $a-1$ and $b-1$ steps to solve. Therefore, the total number of steps will be:

$$(a-1) + (b-1) + 1$$

\uparrow include the step we take to combine a and b

$$= a+b-1$$

$$= (\overset{\uparrow}{k+1}) - 1$$

$$= k \text{ steps}$$



Problem 3

7 baht + 4 baht coins

Predicate $P(i) = 7a + 4b = i$ for some i

Base case $P(18) = 7a + 4b$

$$\begin{matrix} \downarrow & \downarrow \\ a=2 & b=1 \end{matrix}$$

Inductive Assume $P(k) = 7a + 4b$

step I-H Also assume that $P(k+4)$ is payable since we can only pay in 7-baht and 4-baht intervals.



$$P(k+4) = 7a + 4b + 4$$

\downarrow per I-H

$$= P(k) + 4 \quad \text{or} \quad 7a + 4(b+1)$$

∴ it is payable.

However, we have to consider $18 < k < 18+4$ too \downarrow

$$P(19) = 7(1) + 4(3)$$

$$P(20) = 7(0) + 4(5)$$

$$P(21) = 7(3) + 4(0)$$

Since we know that $k \leq i \leq k+4$ is payable, it is safe to assume any number $i \geq 18$ is payable in 7 or 4 baht coins.



To test, we know that $P(22) = \frac{P(18) + 4}{7(2) + 4(2)}$ base case
 proven proven

and that $P(25) = \frac{P(21) + 4}{7(3) + 4(1)}$ proven
 \downarrow
 $= 7(3) + 4(1)$

Problem 4

Power of two $\Rightarrow 2^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Odd number $\Rightarrow n = 2x - 1$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Z}, x \geq 1$



Predicate $P(i) = 2^n + o$ where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $o = \text{odd number}$

Base case $P(1) = 2^0 + 1$

I.H.

$$P(k) = 2^n + o$$

Consider the parities of each number.

If k is odd, then you can just do $2^0 \times k$

$$= 1 \times k$$

$$= k$$

If k is even, we'd want to assume that k can be written in the form $2a$ where $a \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Per I.H., we assume $a = 2^n \cdot o$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $o = \text{odd}$

meaning that k can be written as $2[2^n \cdot o]$

which is just $2^{n+1} \cdot o$

that fulfills the format we want.

Therefore, we've proven every number $k \geq 1$ can be written as the product between a power of two + odd number



Problem 5

$$T_n = T_{n-1} + T_{n-2} + T_{n-3} \quad n \geq 4$$

Predicate $T_i < 2^i$ for some $i \geq 4$

Base case

$T_1 < 2^1$	$\Rightarrow 1 < 2$	✓
$T_2 < 2^2$	$\Rightarrow 1 < 4$	✓
$T_3 < 2^3$	$\Rightarrow 1 < 8$	✓

I.H and I.S Assume $T_k < 2^k$

T_{k+1} must therefore be less than 2^{k+1}

$$T_{k+1} = T_k + T_{k-1} + T_{k-2}$$

\downarrow per I.H

$$\begin{aligned} T_{k+1} &= 2^k + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} && \text{assume } k \geq 4 \\ &= 2^{k+1} (2^{-1} + 2^{-2} + 2^{-3}) \\ &= 2^{k+1} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} \right) \\ &= 2^{k+1} \left(\frac{4}{8} + \frac{2}{8} + \frac{1}{8} \right) \\ &= 2^{k+1} \circ \frac{7}{8} \end{aligned}$$

since $\frac{7}{8} 2^{k+1} < 2^{k+1}$

via induction we 
have proven the statement.

Problem 6

For $n \geq 1$

$$P(i) = 2^{a_1} + 2^{a_2} + \dots + 2^{a_n}$$

where $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$

Base case $p(1) = 2^0$

IH $p(k) = 2^{a_1} + \dots + 2^{a_n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Consider parity

If k is odd \therefore

Assume $p(k-1) = [2^{a_1} + \dots + 2^{a_n}]$ call this equation X

per IH assume
that anything $< k$ is true

so $p(k) = X + 1$
 \downarrow
base case

$\therefore p(k)$ is a sum of distinct powers of two

If k is even

Assume $k = 2b$ where $b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Assume $b = [2^{a_1} + \dots + 2^{a_n}]$ call this equation Y
 \uparrow
per IH

so k can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} & 2[2^{a_1} + \dots + 2^{a_n}] \\ &= 2^{a_1+1} + \dots + 2^{a_n+1} \end{aligned}$$

which means statement is proven.



problem 7

Predicate Length of periphery of i squares is even for $n \geq 1$

Base case $P(1) = 4$ which is even so ✓
 $E = \forall_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} = 2n$
 $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

IH/LS Assume $P(k) = E$

$P(k+1) = E$



know that $P(k+1) = P(k) + x$



x is dependent on how we place the new square.

Take $P(k)$

Take $P(1) = 4$



$P(1)$

x cannot be 4 since at least one side will be amalgamated w/ the larger shape.

Possibilities:

(Suppose we are adding to a shape already)



1 side gone

3 sides added

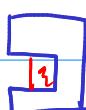
$$\Rightarrow P(k) - 1 + 3 = P(k) + 2$$



2 sides gone

2 sides added

$$\Rightarrow P(k) - 2 + 2 = P(k)$$



3 sides gone

1 side added

$$\Rightarrow P(k) - 3 + 1 = P(k) - 2$$



Know that even ± even = even

∴ statement proven via induction



Theorem: If we have n straight lines in a 2 dimensional plane ($n \geq 2$), and none of the lines are parallel to each other, then all lines must intersect at exactly one and the same point.

Proof: by induction-ish?

Inductive Predicate: $P(n)$ = every set of n straight lines intersect at exactly one point.

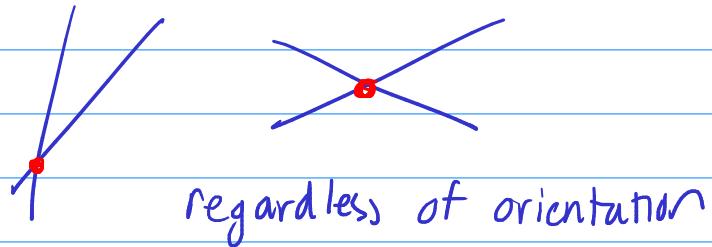
Base Case: $n = 2$. Every two lines intersect at one point. Therefore, $P(2)$ is true.

Inductive Step:

Assume that every n straight lines intersect at one point, we want to show that every $n + 1$ line intersect at one point.

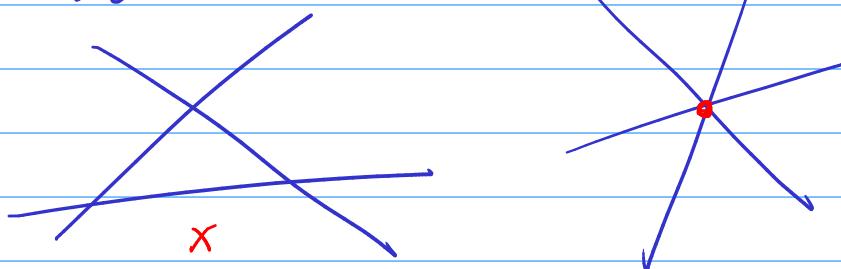
- Let the set of $n + 1$ be $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}\}$
- From the inductive hypothesis $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}$ must intersect at one point since it is a set of n lines. Let us call the intersection point for these lines D .
- Similarly, $\{a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}\}$ intersect at exactly one point since there are n lines in this set. Let us call this point E .
- Since both D and E are the point where a_2 intersects a_3 . D and E are therefore the same point.
- Therefore, $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}\}$ intersect at exactly one point. ■

Consider $n = 2$:



regardless of orientation

Consider $n = 3$:



Whilst possible, not all lines will have a common intersect.

Additionally, the proof uses sets to determine intersect points. It assumes that a set has lines that will intersect ONCE at a specific point.

It assumes if two lines are in both sets, their intersect must also be true for the whole set, both sets included. This generalization creates a flaw in the proof. This, along with us showing $n = 3$ is not necessarily true for all configurations of the 3 lines, means the proposition is not true.