

# ITT9132 Concrete Mathematics

Lecture 2: 2 February 2021

Chapter One

**The Tower of Hanoi**

**Lines in the Plane**

**The Josephus Problem**

Original slides 2010–2014 Jaan Penjam; modified 2016–2021 Silvio Capobianco

# Contents

- 1 The Tower of Hanoi
- 2 Lines in the Plane
- 3 The Josephus Problem
- 4 Intermezzo: Structural induction
- 5 Binary representation
- 6 Generalization of Josephus function

# Next section

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# The Tower of Hanoi: Description

The Tower of Hanoi puzzle was invented by the French mathematician Édouard Lucas in 1883.

- The board has three pegs.
- The tiles are  $n$  disks, all of different sizes, with a hole in the middle so that they can be put on the pegs.
- At the beginning of the game, the disks are all on the first peg, in decreasing order from bottom to top (larger at the bottom, smaller at the top)..
- The aim of the game is to put all the disks on the third peg, using the second peg as a help, so that **at no time a disk is above a smaller disk.**

# The Tower of Hanoi: Solution

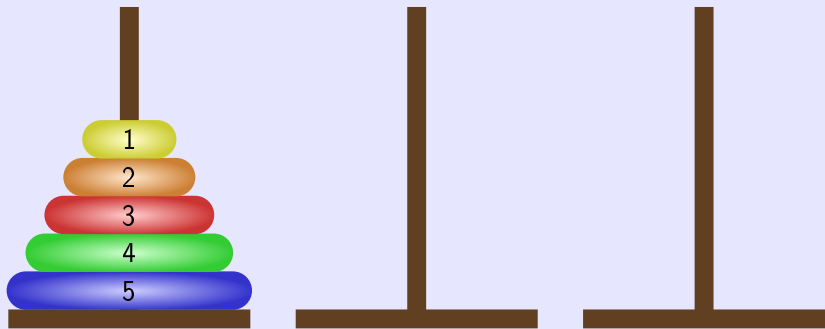
Using **mathematical induction** the following can be proved:

For the Tower of Hanoi puzzle with  $n \geq 0$ , the minimum number of moves needed is:

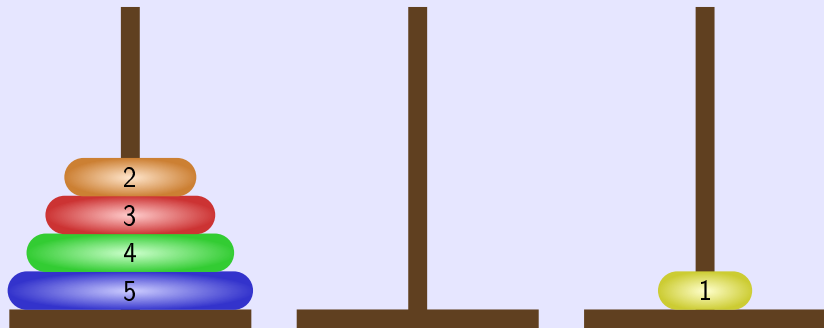
$$T_n = 2^n - 1.$$

Let's look at the example borrowed from **Martin Hofmann** and **Berteun Damman**.

# Tower of Hanoi – 5 Discs

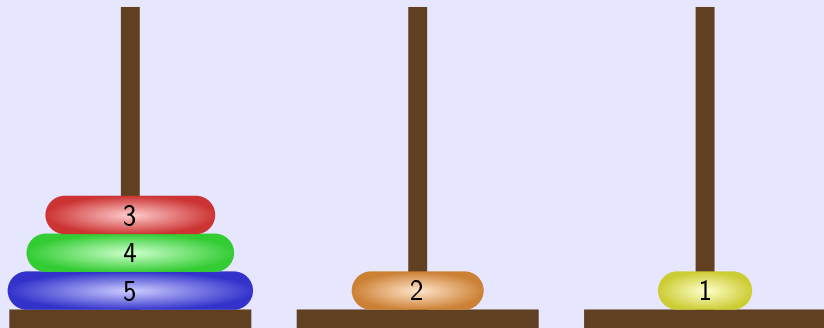


# Tower of Hanoi – 5 Discs



Moved disc from pole 1 to pole 3.

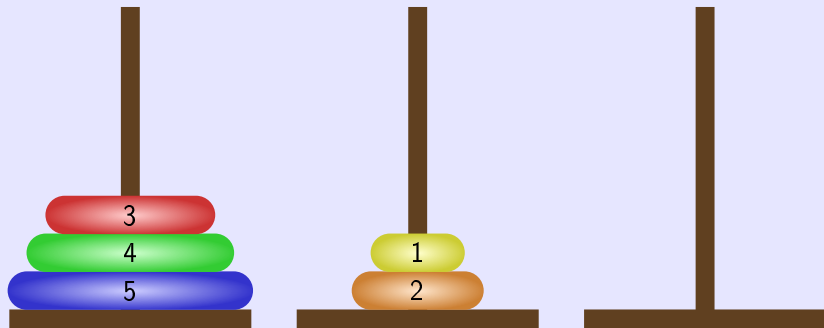
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Moved disc from pole 1 to pole 2.

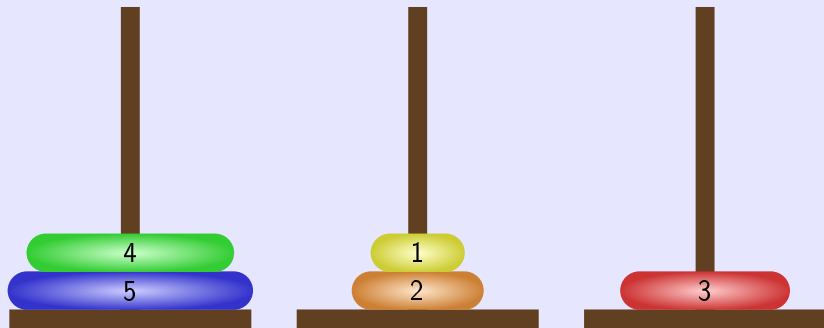


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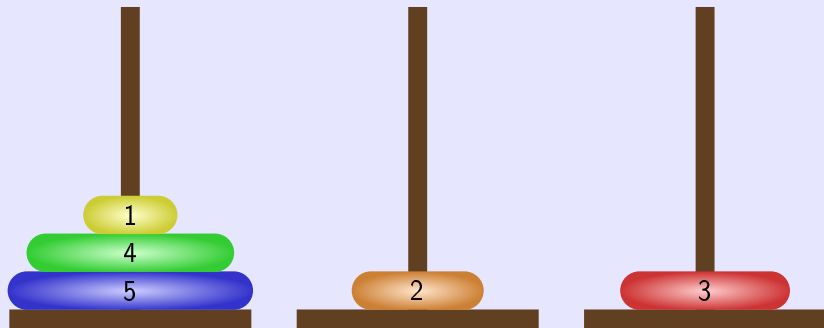
Moved disc from pole 3 to pole 2.

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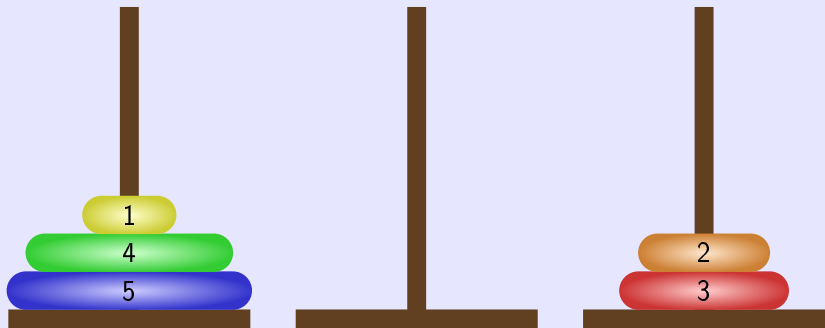
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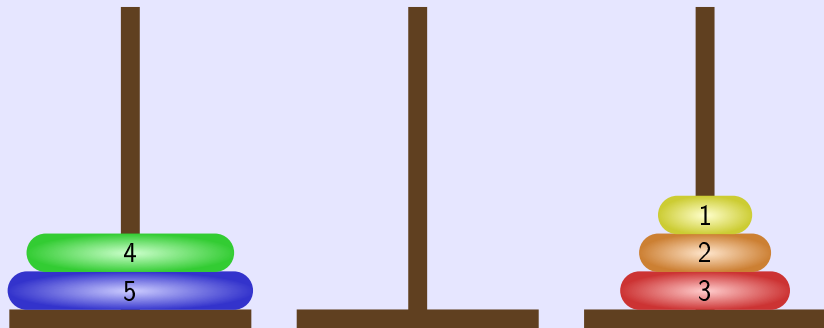
Moved disc from pole 2 to pole 1.

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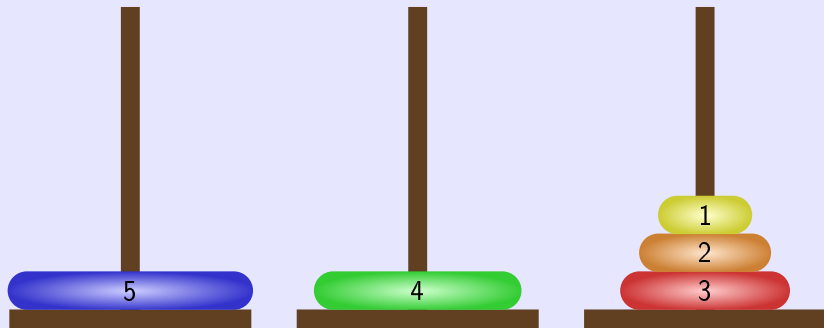
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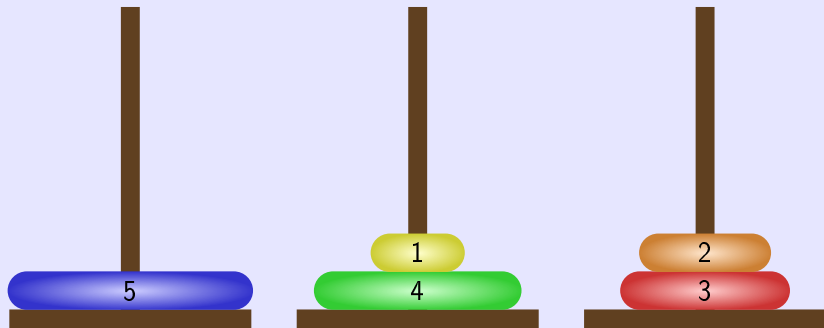
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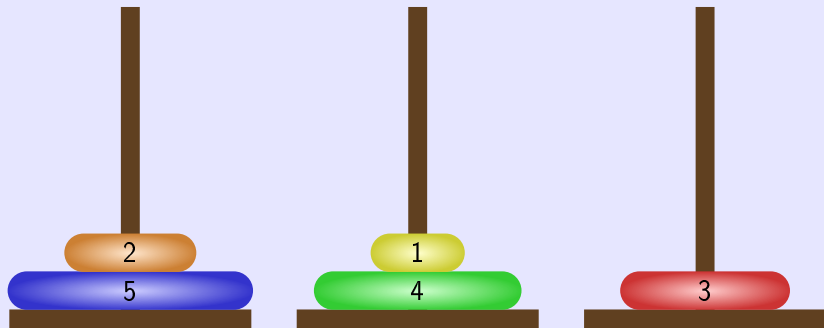
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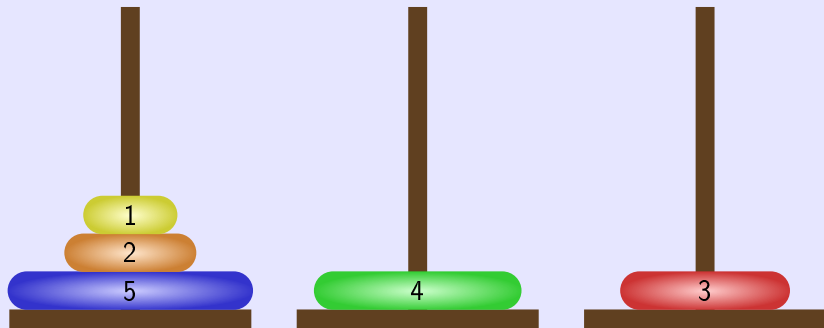
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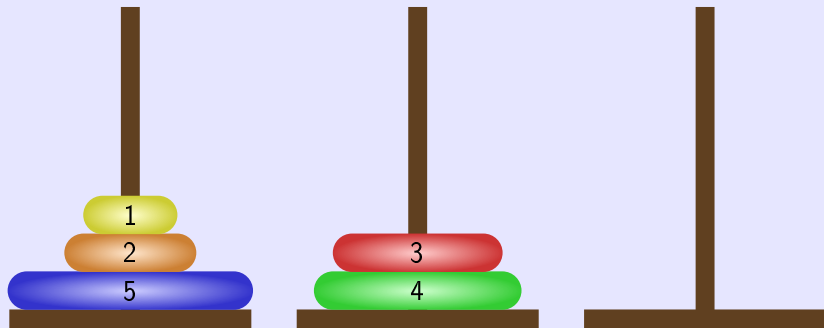


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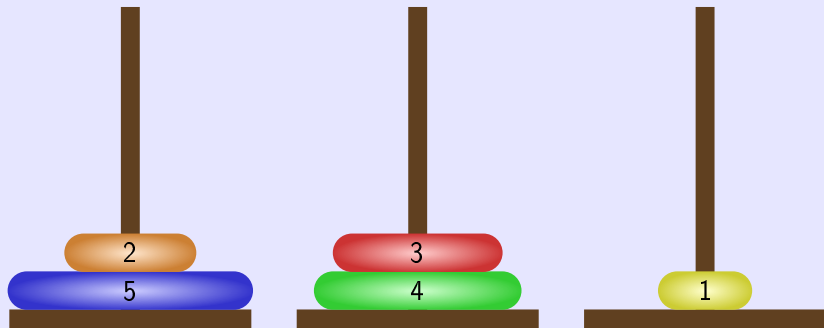
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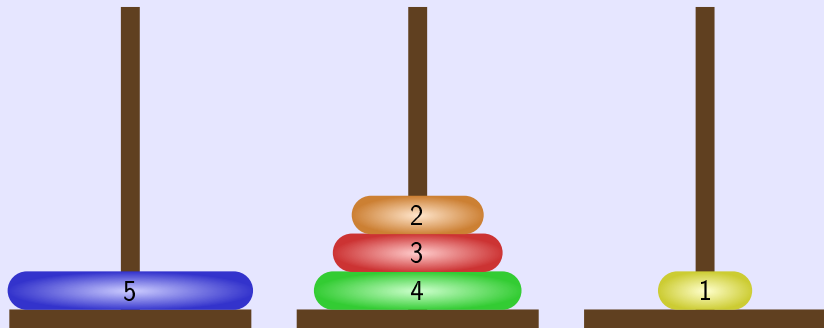
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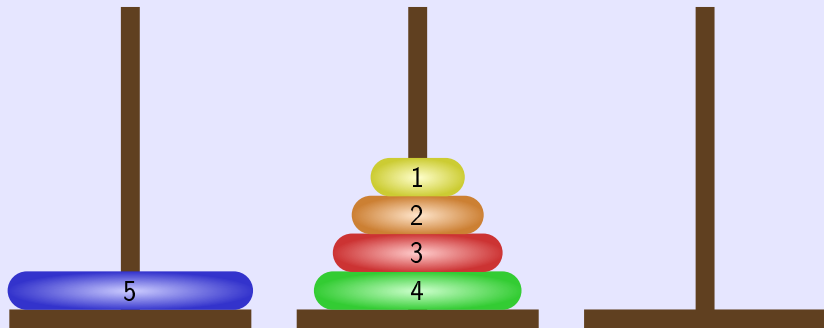
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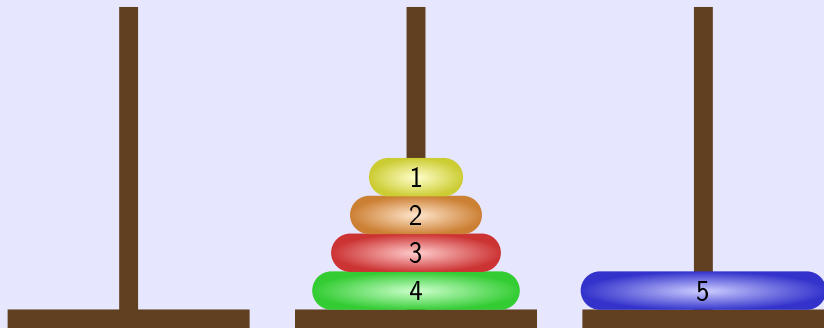
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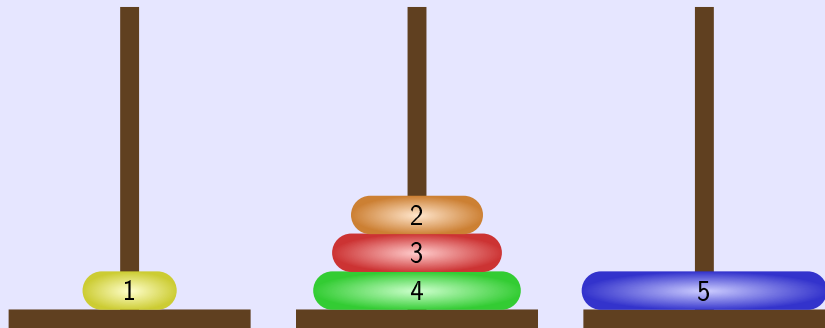
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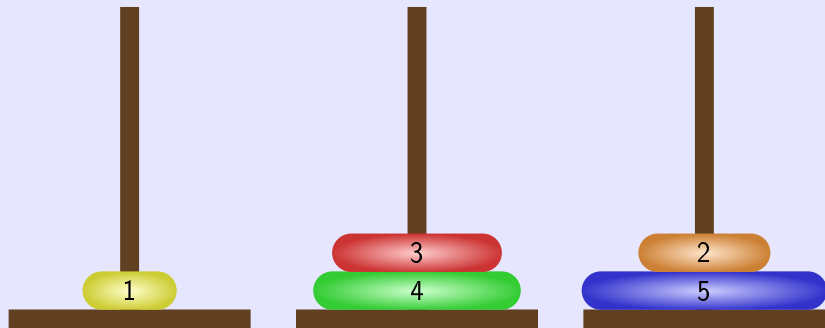
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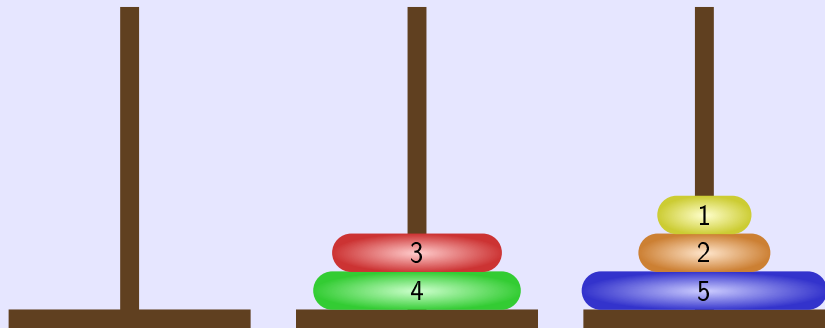
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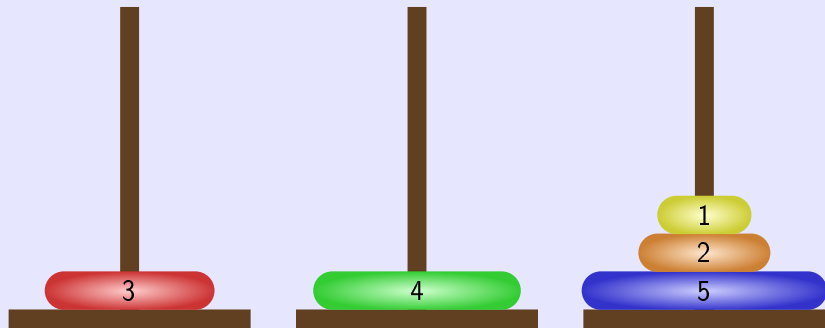


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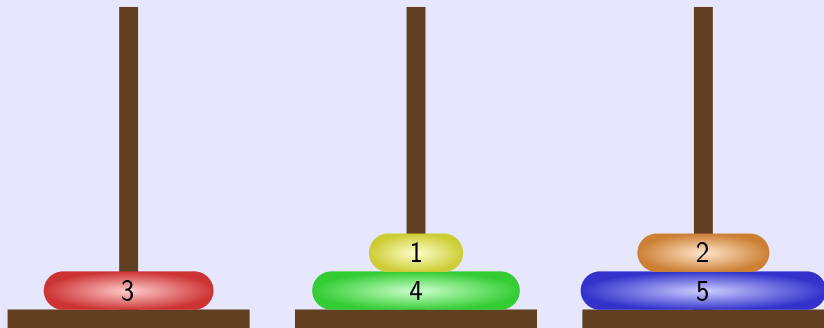
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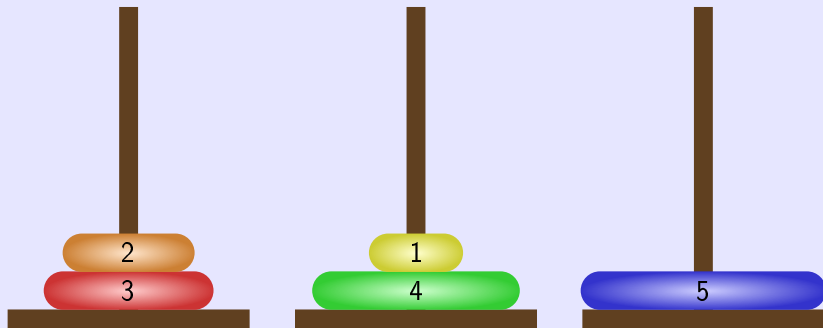
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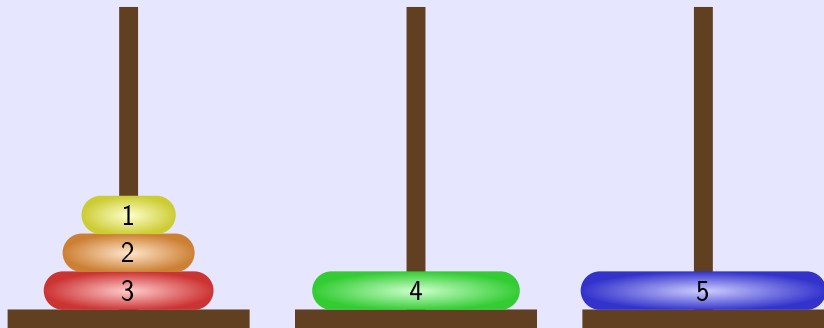
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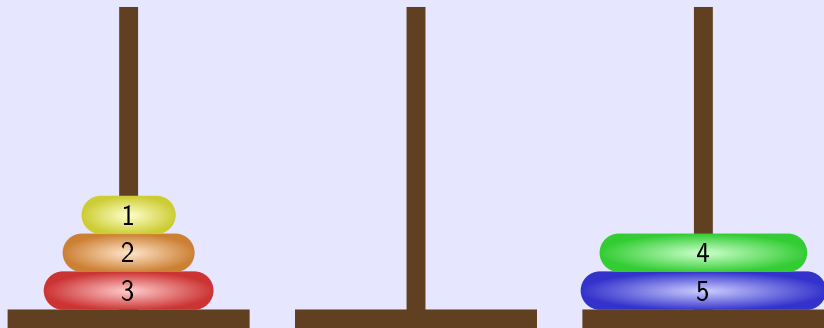
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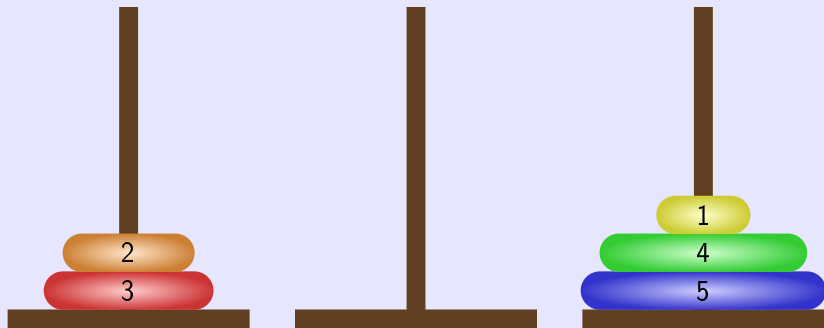
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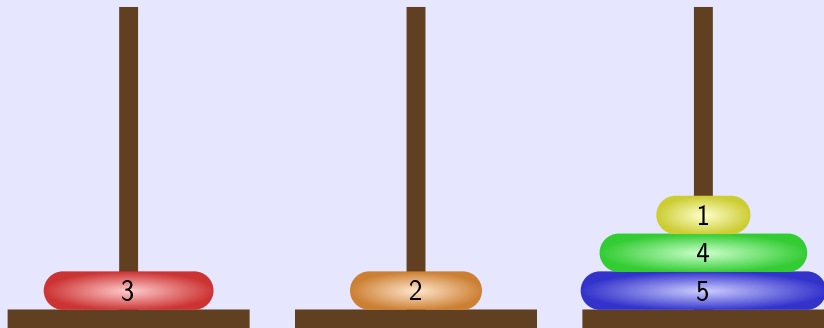
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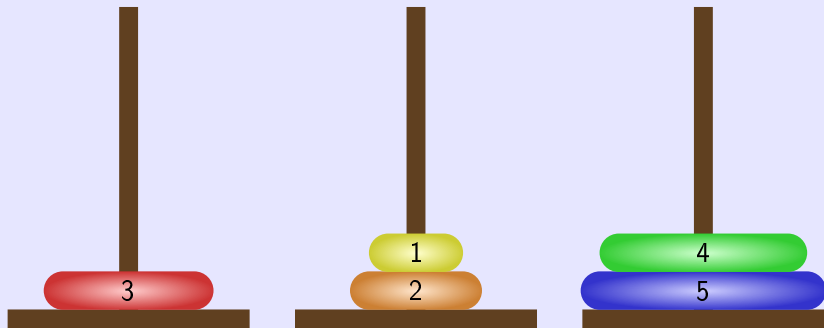
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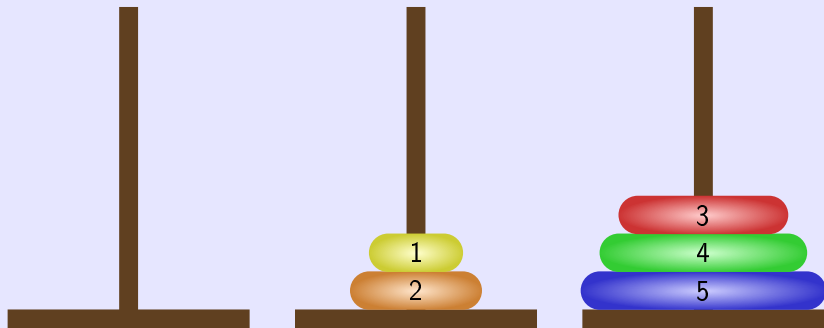


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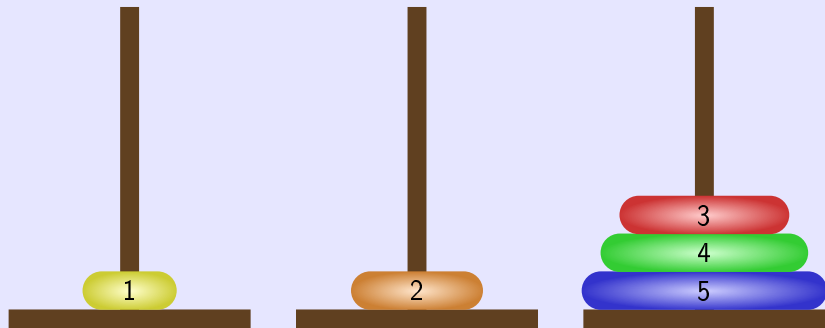
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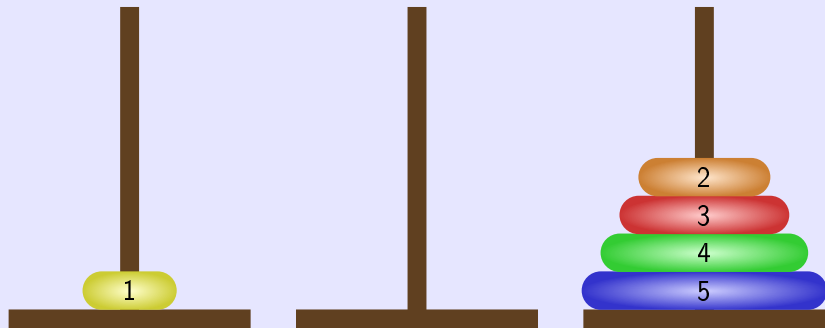
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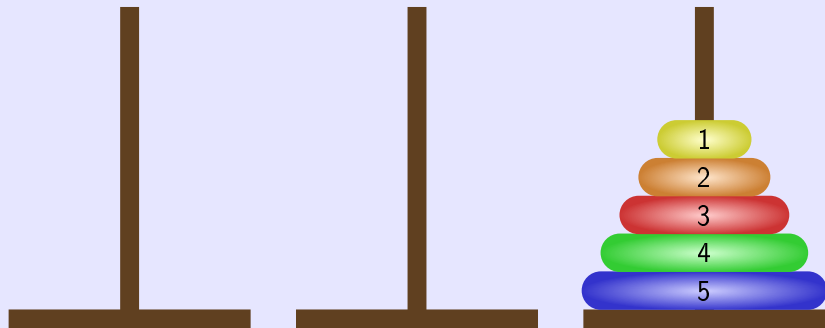
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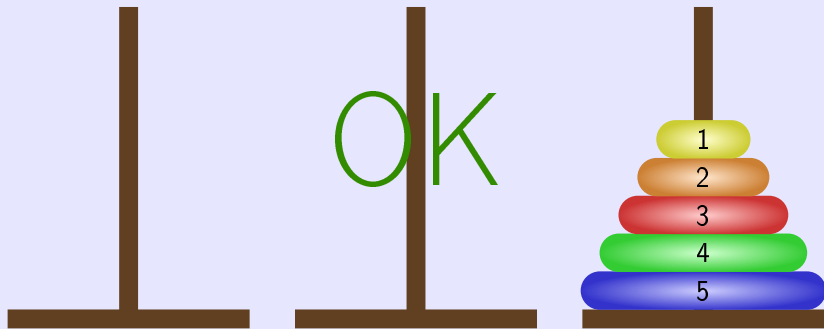
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# Tower of Hanoi – 5 Discs



# The Principle of Mathematical Induction

Let  $P(n)$  be a predicate whose truth or falsehood depends on the value taken by a variable  $n$  in the set  $\mathbb{N}$  of nonnegative integers.

Suppose the following happen:

- 1 For some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $P(k)$  is true.
- 2 For every  $n \geq k$ , the implication  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$  holds: that is, if  $P(n)$  is true, then  $P(n+1)$  is also true.

Then  $P(n)$  is true for every  $n \geq k$ .

# A recursive solution in Python

---

```
#!/usr/bin/env python3

import os

def hanoi(n, start='1', step='2', stop='3'):
    '''Solve the Hanoi tower with n disks, from start
    peg to stop peg, using step peg as a spool'''
    if n > 0:
        hanoi(n-1, start, stop, step)
        move(n, start, stop)
        hanoi(n-1, step, start, stop)

def move(n, start, stop):
    '''Display move of disk n from start to stop'''
    print("Disk %d: %s -> %s" % (n, start, stop))

if __name__ == '__main__':
    n = int(input('How many disks? '))
    hanoi(n, '1', '2', '3')
```

---



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```

---

**Question:** why does this program show that  $T_n = 2^n - 1$ ?

# Tower of Hanoi: Running time

**Base case:**  $n = 1$ .

- Then the Python script only performs `move('1', '3')`, so  $T_1 = 1 = 2^1 - 1$ .

**Inductive step:**  $n$  disks require  $2^n - 1$  steps.

- Then the Python script performs:
  - `hanoi(n, '1', '3', '2')`
  - `move('1', '3')`
  - `hanoi(n, '2', '1', '3')`

which, by inductive hypothesis, requires:

$$T_{n+1} = (2^n - 1) + 1 + (2^n - 1) = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

moves.

# Warmup: What is wrong with this “proof by induction”?

## Theorem

All children have the same color of eyes.

## “Proof”

The thesis is clearly true for  $n = 1$ , so let  $n > 1$ .

- 1 Put the  $n$  children on a line.
- 2 By inductive hypothesis, the  $n - 1$  *leftmost* children have the same color of eyes, and so do the  $n - 1$  *rightmost* children.
- 3 Then the  $n - 2$  children *in the middle* have the same color of eyes.
- 4 The first and last child must then have *that* color of eyes.

# Warmup: What is wrong with this “proof by induction”?

## Theorem

All children have the same color of eyes.

## Solution

The problem is with:

- Then the  $n-2$  children *in the middle* have the same color of eyes.

For  $n=2$  there are no “ $n-2$  children in the middle”.

So the implication  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$  is not true for every  $n \geq 1$ .

# Next section

- 1 The Tower of Hanoi
- 2 Lines in the Plane**
- 3 The Josephus Problem
- 4 Intermezzo: Structural induction
- 5 Binary representation
- 6 Generalization of Josephus function

# Lines in the Plane

## Problem

**Popularly:** How many slices of pizza can a person obtain by making  $n$  straight cuts with a pizza knife?

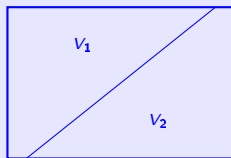
**Academically:** What is the maximum number  $L_n$  of regions defined by  $n$  lines in the plane?

Solved first in 1826, by the Swiss mathematician **Jacob Steiner** .

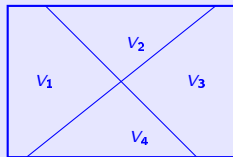
# Lines in the Plane – small cases



$$L_0 = 1$$



$$L_1 = 2$$

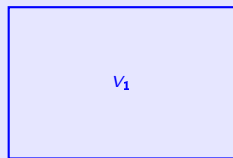


$$L_2 = 4$$

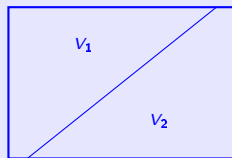


$$L_3 = L_2 + 3 = 7$$

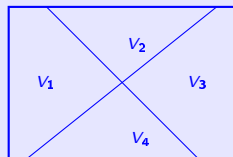
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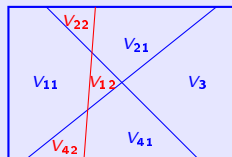
$$L_0 = 1$$



$$L_1 = 2$$



$$L_2 = 4$$



$$L_3 = L_2 + 3 = 7$$



# Lines in the Plane – generalization

## Observation:

The  $n$ -th line (for  $n > 0$ ) increases the number of regions by  $k$

iff it splits  $k$  of the “old regions”

iff it hits the previous lines in  $k - 1$  different places.

## Lines in the Plane – generalization

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The  $n$ -th line (for  $n > 0$ ) increases the number of regions by  $k$

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iff it hits the previous lines in  $k - 1$  different places.

Then  $k$  must be less or equal to  $n$ . – Why?

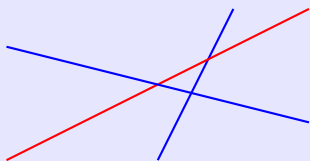
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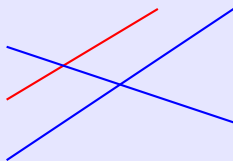
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$k = 3$ ; 2 places



$k = 2$ ; 1 place

## Lines in the Plane – generalization (2)

Therefore the new line can intersect the  $n - 1$  “old” lines in at most “ $n - 1$ ” different points, we have established the upper bound:

$$L_n \leq L_{n-1} + n \quad \text{for } n > 0.$$

If  $n$ -th line is not parallel to any of the others (hence it intersects them all), and doesn't go through any of the existing intersection points (hence it intersects them all in different places) then we get the **recurrence equation**:

$$L_0 = 1;$$

$$L_n = L_{n-1} + n \quad \text{for } n > 0.$$

$n$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	...
$L_n$	1	2	4	7	11	16	22	29	37	46	...

## Lines in the Plane – solving recurrence

Observation:

$$\begin{aligned}L_n &= L_{n-1} + n \\ &= L_{n-2} + (n-1) + n \\ &= L_{n-3} + (n-2) + (n-1) + n \\ &= \dots \\ &= L_0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n \\ &= 1 + S_n,\end{aligned}$$

where  $S_n = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-1) + n$ .

## Lines in the Plane – solving recurrence (2)

Evaluation of  $S_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1) + n$ .

Recurrent equation:

$$S_0 = 0;$$

$$S_n = S_{n-1} + n \quad \forall n \geq 1.$$

Solution (Gauss, 1786):

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} S_n & = & 1 & + & 2 & + & \dots & + & (n-1) & + & n \\ +S_n & = & n & + & (n-1) & + & \dots & + & 2 & + & 1 \\ \hline 2S_n & = & (n+1) & + & (n+1) & + & \dots & + & (n+1) & + & (n+1) \end{array}$$

Then  $2S_n = n \cdot (n+1)$ , so that  $S_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .

## Lines in the Plane – solving recurrence (2)

Evaluation of  $S_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1) + n$ .

Recurrent equation:

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Then  $2S_n = n \cdot (n+1)$ , so that  $S_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .

## Lines in the Plane – solving recurrence (3)

Theorem: Closed formula for  $L_n$

$$L_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1 \text{ for every } n \geq 0.$$

*Proof (by induction).*

**Base:**  $L_0 = 1 = \frac{0(0+1)}{2} + 1$ .

**Step:** Let's assume  $L_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1$  and evaluate

$$\begin{aligned} L_{n+1} &= L_n + n + 1 \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1 + n + 1 \\ &= \frac{n(n+1) + 2 + 2n}{2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{n(n+1) + 2(n+1)}{2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.



# Triangular numbers

The  $n$ th **triangular number** is defined as:

$$T_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \text{ for every } n \geq 0$$

- Then  $T_n$  is the solution of the first order recurrence equation:

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + n \text{ for every } n \geq 1$$

with the initial condition  $a_0 = 0$ .

- The numbers  $L_n$  are the solution of the same recurrence, but with initial condition  $a_0 = 1$ .

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# The Josephus Problem

## Legend:

During the Jewish-Roman war, **Flavius Josephus**, a famous historian of the first century, was among a band of 41 Jewish rebels trapped in a cave by the Romans. Preferring suicide to capture, the rebels decided to form a circle and, proceeding around it, to kill every third remaining person until no one was left. But Josephus, together with his friend, wanted to avoid being killed. So he quickly calculated where he and his friend should stand in the vicious circle

# The Josephus Problem

## Our variation of the problem:

- We start with  $n$  people numbered 1 to  $n$  around a circle.
- We eliminate every second remaining person until only one survives.

**Task** is to compute the survivor's number,  $J(n)$

Example,  $n = 10$ .



The elimination order is  
2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 3, 7, 1, 9 . So, we have

$$J(10) = 5$$

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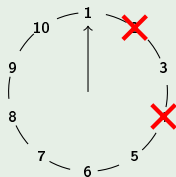
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- We start with  $n$  people numbered 1 to  $n$  around a circle.
- We eliminate every second remaining person until only one survives.

**Task** is to compute the survivor's number,  $J(n)$

## Example, $n = 10$ .



The elimination order is  
2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 3, 7, 1, 9 . So, we have

$$J(10) = 5$$

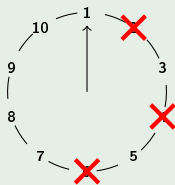
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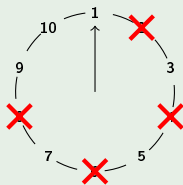
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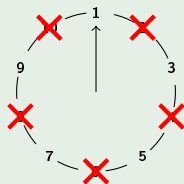
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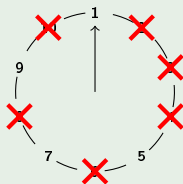
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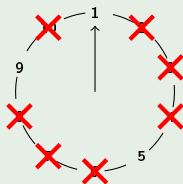
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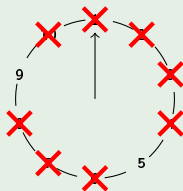
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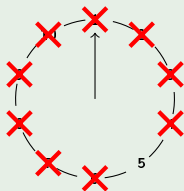
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# The Josephus Problem – small numbers

Evaluate  $J(n)$  for small  $n$ :

$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	...
$J(n)$	1	1	3	1	3	5	7	1	3	5	7	9	11	13	15	1	...

# The Josephus Problem – small numbers

Evaluate  $J(n)$  for small  $n$ :

$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	...
$J(n)$	1	1	3	1	3	5	7	1	3	5	7	9	11	13	15	1	...

## Properties

- 1  $J(n)$  is always odd.
- 2 Recurrence equation:

$$\begin{aligned}J(1) &= 1; \\J(2n) &= 2J(n) - 1 \text{ for } n \geq 1; \\J(2n+1) &= 2J(n) + 1 \text{ for } n \geq 1.\end{aligned}$$

This is still a recurrence in the sense given in the introduction, with  $f_n(n; a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1) = J(n)$ .

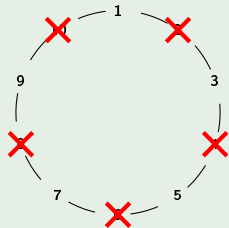
- 3 Closed formula:

$$J(2^m + \ell) = 2\ell + 1 \text{ for } m \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq \ell < 2^m.$$



# The Josephus Problem – recurrent equation (1)

Case  $n = 2m$ .



First trip eliminates all **even numbers**. Then we change numbers and repeat:

Old number $k$	1	3	5	7	9
New number $k'$	1	2	3	4	5

or

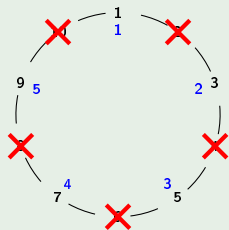
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That correspondance between “old” and “new number” gives us that:

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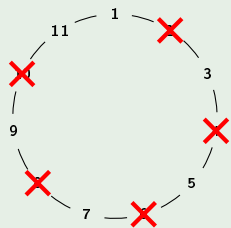
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That correspondance between “old” and “new number” gives us that:

$$J(2n) = 2J(n) - 1$$

# The Josephus Problem – recurrent equation (2)

Case  $n = 2m + 1$ .



First trip eliminates all **even numbers**. Then we change numbers and repeat:

Old number $k$	1	3	5	7	9	11
New number $k'$	0	1	2	3	4	5

or

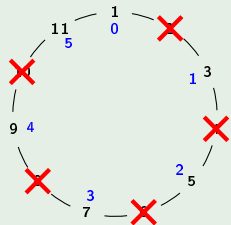
$$k = 2k' + 1$$

That correspondence between “old” and “new” numbers gives us that:

$$J(2n + 1) = 2J(n) + 1$$

# The Josephus Problem – recurrent equation (2)

Case  $n = 2m + 1$ .



First trip eliminates all **even numbers**. Then we change numbers and repeat:

Old number $k$	1	3	5	7	9	11
New number $k'$	0	1	2	3	4	5

or

$$k = 2k' + 1$$

That correspondence between “old” and “new” numbers gives us that:

$$J(2n + 1) = 2J(n) + 1$$

# The Josephus Problem – application of recurrence

The equation

$$\begin{aligned}J(1) &= 1; \\J(2n) &= 2J(n) - 1 \text{ for } n \geq 1; \\J(2n+1) &= 2J(n) + 1 \text{ for } n \geq 1\end{aligned}$$

can be used for computing function for large arguments.

For example

$$\begin{aligned}J(86) &= 2J(43) - 1 = 45 \\J(43) &= 2J(21) + 1 = 23 \\J(21) &= 2J(10) + 1 = 11 \\J(10) &= 5\end{aligned}$$

# The Josephus Problem – closed formula

## Theorem

$$J(2^m + \ell) = 2\ell + 1 \text{ for } m \geq 0 \text{ and } 0 \leq \ell < 2^m.$$

*Proof by induction over  $m$ .*

**Base** If  $m = 0$  then also  $\ell = 0$ , and  $J(1) = 1$ .

**Step** ■ If  $m > 0$  and  $2^m + \ell = 2n$ , then  $\ell$  is even and:

$$J(2^m + \ell) = 2J(2^{m-1} + \ell/2) - 1 = 2(2\ell/2 + 1) - 1 = 2\ell + 1.$$

■ If  $2^m + \ell = 2n + 1$ , then:

$$J(2n + 1) = 2 + J(2n) = 2 + 2(\ell - 1) + 1 = 2\ell + 1$$

Q.E.D.

## The Josephus Problem – closed formula (2)

Closed formula can be used for computing function  $J(n)$ :

### Example

We have  $1030 = 2^{10} + 6$ , so  $J(1030) = 2 \cdot 6 + 1 = 13$ .

# Next section

- 1 The Tower of Hanoi
- 2 Lines in the Plane
- 3 The Josephus Problem
- 4 Intermezzo: Structural induction**
- 5 Binary representation
- 6 Generalization of Josephus function



# Structural induction

## Premises

Let  $S$  be a set having the following features:

- 1 A set  $S_B$  of **basic cases** is contained in  $S$ .
- 2 Finitely many operations  $u_i : S^{m_i} \rightarrow S$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , exist such that, if  $x_1, \dots, x_{m_i} \in S$ , then  $u_i(x_1, \dots, x_{m_i}) \in S$ .
- 3 Nothing else belongs to  $S$ .

## Technique

Let  $P$  be a property such that:

- 1 Each base case  $x \in S_B$  has property  $P$ .
- 2 For every  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and every  $x_1, \dots, x_{m_i} \in S$ , if each value  $x_1, \dots, x_{m_i}$  has property  $P$ , then  $u_i(x_1, \dots, x_{m_i})$  has property  $P$ .

Then every element of  $S$  has property  $P$ .

# Mathematical induction as structural induction

## Premises

The set  $S = \mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers is constructed as follows:

- 1 A set  $S_B = \{0\}$  of basic cases is contained in  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- 2 A single operation, the *successor*,  $s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , exists such that, if  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $s(n) \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- 3 Nothing else belongs to  $\mathbb{N}$ .

## Technique

Let  $P$  be a property such that

- 1 0 has property  $P$ .
- 2 For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , if  $n$  has property  $P$ , then  $s(n)$  has property  $P$ .

Then every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  has property  $P$ .

# Structural induction on positive integers

The set  $S = \mathbb{Z}^+$  of positive integers is constructed as follows:

- 1 A set  $S_B = \{1\}$  of basic cases is contained in  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ .
- 2 Two operations:
  - 1 **doubling**  $d : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+, d(n) = 2n$ ;
  - 2 **doubling increased**  $sd : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+, sd(n) = 2n + 1$ ;exists such that, if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $d(n), sd(n) \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .
- 3 Nothing else belongs to  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ .

Let  $P$  be a property such that

- 1 1 has property  $P$ .
- 2 For every  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , if  $n$  has property  $P$ , then  $d(n)$  and  $sd(n)$  have property  $P$ .

Then every  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  has property  $P$ .

# Next section

- 1 The Tower of Hanoi
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- 5 Binary representation**
- 6 Generalization of Josephus function

# Binary expansion of $n = 2^m + \ell$

Denote

$$n = (b_m b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2$$

where  $b_i \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $b_m = 1$ .

This notation stands for

$$n = b_m 2^m + b_{m-1} 2^{m-1} + \dots + b_1 2 + b_0$$

For example

$$20 = (10100)_2 \quad \text{and} \quad 83 = (1010011)_2$$

# Binary expansion of $n = 2^m + \ell$ , where $0 \leq \ell < 2^m$

## Observations:

- 1  $\ell = (0b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2$ .
- 2  $2\ell = (b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0 0)_2$ .
- 3  $2^m = (10 \dots 00)_2$  and  $1 = (00 \dots 01)_2$ .
- 4  $n = 2^m + \ell = (1b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2$ .
- 5  $2\ell + 1 = (b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0 1)_2$

## Corollary

$$J((\boxed{1} b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2) = (b_{m-1} \dots b_1 b_0 \boxed{1})_2$$

*shift*


# Binary expansion of $n = 2^m + \ell$ , where $0 \leq \ell < 2^m$

## Observations:

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Binary expansion of  $n = 2^m + \ell$ , where  $0 \leq \ell < 2^m$

### Example

$$100 = 64 + 32 + 4$$

$$J(100) = J((1100100)_2) = (1001001)_2$$

$$J(100) = 64 + 8 + 1 = 73$$



# Iterating the Josephus function

Consider a sequence  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots$  where:

- $x_0 = n$  is an arbitrary positive integer; and
- $x_k = J(x_{k-1})$  for every  $k \geq 1$ .

Questions:

- 1 Will the sequence reach a **fixed point**?  
That is: will  $x_{k+1} = x_k$  for every  $k$  large enough?
- 2 If so: what are the **possible** fixed points?

# Iterating the Josephus function: the answer

## Proposition A

For every positive integer  $n$ , the sequence defined by:

$$\begin{aligned}x_0 &= n, \\x_k &= J(x_{k-1}) \quad \forall k \geq 1\end{aligned}$$

reaches the fixed point  $2^{v(n)} - 1$ , where  $v(n)$  is the number of bits equal to 1 in the binary representation of  $n$ .

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Proof that  $x_k$  reaches a fixed point:

- For every  $n = 2^m + \ell$  we have  $J(n) = 2\ell + 1 \leq n$ .
- Then the sequence  $x_k$  is *nonincreasing* in  $k$ :  
If  $k \leq m$ , then  $x_k \geq x_m$ .
- But a nonincreasing sequence of positive integers is ultimately constant.

# Iterating the Josephus function: the answer

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Proof that the fixed point is  $2^{v(n)} - 1$ :

- The binary representation of  $J(n)$  is obtained from that of  $n$  by a circular permutation.
- But after such a permutation, a leading 0 **disappears**, while a leading 1 **is preserved**.
- Then the binary writing of any fixed point must be made entirely of 1s.

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# Generalization

Josephus function  $J : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

was defined using recurrences:

$$\begin{aligned}J(1) &= 1; \\J(2n) &= 2J(n) - 1 \text{ for } n \geq 1; \\J(2n+1) &= 2J(n) + 1 \text{ for } n \geq 1.\end{aligned}$$

Introducing integer constants  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ , generalize it as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}J(1) &= \alpha; \\J(2n) &= 2J(n) + \beta \text{ for } n \geq 1; \\J(2n+1) &= 2J(n) + \gamma \text{ for } n \geq 1.\end{aligned}$$

Our  $J(n)$  corresponds to  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $\beta = -1$ ,  $\gamma = 1$ .

# The repertoire method

To find **closed form** of a function  $f$ :

**Step 1** Find few initial values for  $f$ .

**Step 2** Find (or guess) closed formula from the values found by Step 1:

*examine a repertoire of cases and combine them to find general closed formula.*

**Step 3** Verify the closed formula constructed as the result of Step 2.

The idea is to examine a repertoire of cases and use it to find a general closed formula for the recurrently defined function.

## Repertoire method for generalized $f$ : STEP 1

$n$	$f(n)$	Calculation
1	$\alpha$	$f(1) = \alpha$
2	$2\alpha + \beta$	$f(2) = 2f(1) + \beta$
3	$2\alpha + \gamma$	$f(3) = 2f(1) + \gamma$
4	$4\alpha + 3\beta$	$f(4) = 2f(2) + \beta$
5	$4\alpha + 2\beta + \gamma$	$f(5) = 2f(2) + \gamma$
6	$4\alpha + \beta + 2\gamma$	$f(6) = 2f(3) + \beta$
7	$4\alpha + 3\gamma$	$f(7) = 2f(3) + \gamma$
8	$8\alpha + 7\beta$	$f(8) = 2f(4) + \beta$
9	$8\alpha + 6\beta + \gamma$	$f(9) = 2f(4) + \gamma$



## Repertoire method for generalized $f$ : STEP 2

### Observations:

For  $n = 1, 2, \dots, 9$ , taking  $n = 2^k + \ell$ :

- The coefficient of  $\alpha$  is  $2^k$ ;
- The coefficient of  $\beta$  is  $2^k - 1 - \ell$ ;
- The coefficient of  $\gamma$  is  $\ell$ .

# Repertoire method for generalized $f$ : STEP 3

## Proposition

If the function  $f$  is defined by the recurrence formula:

$$\begin{aligned}f(1) &= \alpha; \\f(2n) &= 2f(n) + \beta \text{ for } n \geq 1; \\f(2n+1) &= 2f(n) + \gamma \text{ for } n \geq 1.\end{aligned}$$

then letting  $n = 2^k + \ell$ ,

$$f(n) = A(n)\alpha + B(n)\beta + C(n)\gamma,$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned}A(n) &= 2^k; \\B(n) &= 2^k - 1 - \ell; \\C(n) &= \ell.\end{aligned}$$

# Proof of the Proposition (1)

**Lemma 1.**  $A(n) = 2^k$ , where  $n = 2^k + \ell$  and  $0 \leq \ell < 2^k$ .

*Proof.*

Let  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\beta = \gamma = 0$ . Then  $f(n) = A(n)$  and:

$$A(1) = 1; \quad A(2n) = 2A(n) \text{ for } n > 0; A(2n+1) = 2A(n) \text{ for } n > 0.$$

Proof by induction over  $k$ :

**Basis:** If  $k = 0$ , then  $n = 2^0 + \ell$  and  $0 \leq \ell < 1$ . Thus  $n = 1$  and

$$A(1) = 2^0 = 1.$$

**Step:** Let us assume that  $A(2^{k-1} + t) = 2^{k-1}$ , where  $0 \leq t < 2^{k-1}$ . Two cases:

- If  $n$  is even, then  $\ell$  is even and  $\ell/2 < 2^{k-1}$ , thus

$$A(n) = A(2^k + \ell) = 2A(2^{k-1} + \ell/2) = 2 \cdot 2^{k-1} = 2^k$$

- If  $n$  is odd, then  $\ell - 1$  is even and  $(\ell - 1)/2 < 2^{k-1}$ , thus

$$A(n) = A(2^k + \ell) = 2A(2^{k-1} + (\ell - 1)/2) = 2 \cdot 2^{k-1} = 2^k$$

## Proof of the Proposition (2)

**Lemma 2.**  $A(n) - B(n) - C(n) = 1$ , for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.*

Let  $f$  be the constant function  $f(n) = 1$ . Then:

$$f(1) = \alpha; \quad f(2n) = 2f(n) + \beta; \quad f(2n+1) = 2f(n) + \gamma$$

or equivalently,

$$1 = \alpha; \quad 1 = 2 + \beta; \quad 1 = 2 + \gamma.$$

As this must hold for **every**  $n \geq 1$ , it must be  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\beta = \gamma = -1$ . □

# Proof of the Proposition (3)

**Lemma 3.**  $A(n) + C(n) = n$ , for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.*

Let  $f(n) = n$ . Then:

$$f(1) = \alpha; \quad f(2n) = 2f(n) + \beta; \quad f(2n+1) = 2f(n) + \gamma$$

or equivalently,

$$1 = \alpha; \quad 2n = 2n + \beta; \quad 2n+1 = 2n + \gamma.$$

As this must hold for **every**  $n \geq 1$ , it must be  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $\beta = 0$  and  $\gamma = 1$ . □

## Proof of the Proposition (4)

From Lemma 3 and Lemma 1 we can conclude:

$$2^k + C(n) = A(n) + C(n) = n = 2^k + \ell,$$

which gives:

$$C(n) = \ell.$$

From Lemma 2 follows:

$$B(n) = A(n) - 1 - C(n) = 2^k - 1 - \ell.$$

