
CMSC 250H - Homework 4, Induction

March 9, 2026

CMSC250H

Safe Primes

Definition:

A prime p is a safe prime if

$$\frac{p-1}{2}$$

is also prime.

Example:

- $p = 23$ is safe
- $(23 - 1)/2 = 11$ which is prime

Safe primes are important in cryptography (Diffie–Hellman groups).

Prime Number Theorem Conjecture

It is known that

$$\pi(n) \approx \frac{n}{\ln n}$$

where $\pi(n)$ is the number of primes $\leq n$.

From experimental data we estimate

$$\pi(n) \approx A \frac{n}{\ln n}$$

Observation from data: A is close to 1.

This matches the Prime Number Theorem.

Safe Prime Growth

From the experimental data we estimate a function $f(n)$ such that

$$\text{safe primes} \leq n \approx f(n)$$

Empirically, safe primes appear much less frequently than primes.
Rough heuristic:

$$f(n) \approx \frac{n}{(\ln n)^2}$$

So safe primes are about a factor of $1/\ln n$ rarer than primes.

Generators of Safe Prime Groups

Let p be a safe prime.

We examine numbers $g \in \{1, \dots, p\}$ and test if g is a generator of the multiplicative group mod p .

For each safe prime we record:

p — generators — fraction of generators

This measures how common generators are.

Generator Conjecture

From experimental data we observe:

$$\text{generators} \approx \alpha p$$

For safe primes

$$\alpha \approx \frac{1}{2}$$

Reason:

For prime p , the number of generators is

$$\varphi(p - 1)$$

When p is safe, $p - 1 = 2q$ where q is prime, so

$$\varphi(2q) = q - 1 \approx \frac{p}{2}.$$

Fourth Powers Mod 16

We compute

$$0^4, 1^4, 2^4, \dots, 15^4 \pmod{16}$$

Observation:

- Even numbers give $0 \pmod{16}$
- Odd numbers give $1 \pmod{16}$

So any fourth power mod 16 is either

0 or 1.

Sums of 15 Fourth Powers

Each fourth power is 0 or 1 mod 16.

So the sum of 15 fourth powers can only be

$$0, 1, 2, \dots, 15 \pmod{16}$$

but never $15 \pmod{16}$.

Thus numbers congruent to 15 mod 16 cannot be written as

$$x_1^4 + x_2^4 + \dots + x_{15}^4.$$

Infinite Family of Counterexamples

Numbers of the form

$$16k + 15$$

are $15 \pmod{16}$.

Since these cannot be written as sums of 15 fourth powers, there are infinitely many such numbers.

Therefore:

There are infinitely many integers that are not sums of 15 fourth powers.

Ordered Sets with Successors and Predecessors

We construct a subset $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Example:

$$D = \{2^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \cup \{-(2^k) : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Looks like:

$$\dots, -4, -2, -1, -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{4}, \dots$$
$$\dots \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 2, 4, \dots$$

Never cross zero! Properties:

- Every element has a predecessor
- Every element has a successor
- There exist $x < y$ for which you can't reach y from a chain of successors x (ex. 1 and $-\frac{1}{2}$)

Planar Graph Coloring

Known result:

Every planar graph is 4-colorable.

Definition:

A graph has crossing number c if removing c edges makes it planar.

Graphs With Crossing Number c

If removing c edges makes the graph planar:

- 1 Remove those c edges
- 2 Color the planar graph with 4 colors
- 3 Reinsert edges

Each removed edge may require an additional color.
Thus the graph can be colored with

$$f(c) = 4 + c$$

colors.

Conclusion

Key ideas from this homework:

- Experimental mathematics with primes
- Structure of safe primes and generators
- Modular arithmetic arguments
- Constructing ordered sets
- Graph coloring via planar reductions

These techniques appear throughout number theory and combinatorics.

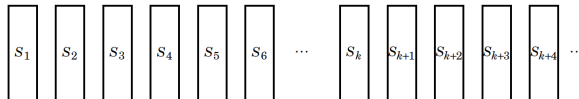
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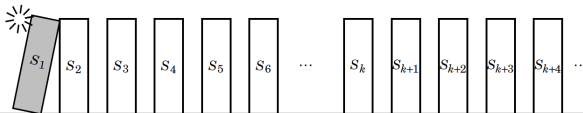
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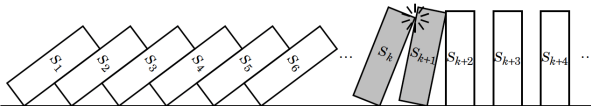
The Simple Idea Behind Mathematical Induction



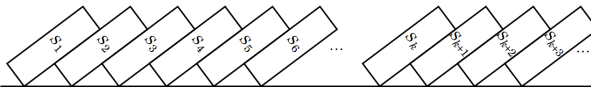
Statements are lined up like dominoes.



(1) Suppose the first statement falls (i.e. is proved true);



(2) Suppose the k^{th} falling always causes the $(k+1)^{\text{th}}$ to fall;



Then all must fall (i.e. all statements are proved true).

Proposition

The statements $S_1, S_2, S_3 \dots$ are all true.

- 1 Prove that the first statement S_1 is true (or several first statements depending on what you need).
- 2 Given any integer $k \geq 1$, prove that $S_1 \wedge S_2 \wedge S_3 \wedge \dots \wedge S_k \implies S_{k+1}$ is true
- 3 It follows that S_n is true for all n

Example

Theorem

For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\sum_{i=0}^n i \cdot i! = (n+1)! - 1$$

Try it yourself!

Proof.

For $n = 0$, LHS:

$$0 \cdot 0! = 0 \cdot 1 = 0$$

RHS:

$$(0 + 1)! - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$$

So the statement holds for $n = 0$

Assume it holds for all $0 \leq k < n$. We have

$$\sum_{i=0}^n i \cdot i! = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i \cdot i! + n \cdot n!$$



Proof.

By the Inductive Hypothesis

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i \cdot i! + n \cdot n! = (n-1+1)! - 1 + n \cdot n! = n! - 1 + n \cdot n!$$

Rearranging:

$$\begin{aligned} n! + n \cdot n! - 1 &= n!(n+1) - 1 \\ &= (n+1)! - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the statement holds for all n . □

Example

Theorem

If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then 12 divides $n^4 - n^2$

How many base cases do we need for this one?

Intuition

Observe that

$$n^4 - n^2 = n^2(n - 1)(n + 1)$$

So $n^4 - n^2$ is a product of three consecutive integers $n - 1, n, n + 1$. It is known that the product of 3 consecutive integers is divisible by 6.

We also have an extra factor of n :

- 1 If n is even, then its divisible by 12 immediately.
- 2 If n is odd, then, $n - 1$ and $n + 1$ are even, so $4 \cdot 3 = 12$, so it is also divisible by 12.

Idea: We need at least two multiples of 2, one multiple of 3

Proof.

① $n = 1, \quad 1^4 - 1^2 = 0$

② $n = 2, \quad 2^4 - 2^2 = 12$

③ $n = 3, \quad 3^4 - 3^2 = 72$

④ $n = 4, \quad 4^4 - 4^2 = 240$

⑤ $n = 5, \quad 5^4 - 5^2 = 600$

⑥ $n = 6, \quad 6^4 - 6^2 = 1260$

All of these are divisible by 12.

Now assume it holds for $6 \leq m \leq n$. For simplicity let $m = n - 5$ □

Proof.

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}(n+1)^4 - (n+1)^2 &= (m+6)^4 - (m+6)^2 \\ &= m^4 + 24m^3 + 216m^2 + 864m + 1296 - (m^2 + 12m + 36) \\ &= (m^4 - m^2) + 24m^3 + 216m^2 + 852m + 1260 \\ &= 12(a + 2m^3 + 18m^2 + 71m + 105)\end{aligned}$$

with $m^4 - m^2 = 12a$ by the Inductive Hypothesis. Thus, the statement holds for all n . □

Fibonacci Sequence

Definition

The Fibonacci Sequence is a recursive sequence defined by

$$F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2)$$

for $n \geq 2$ with $F(0) = 0$ and $F(1) = 1$

It actually has a closed form as well!

Solving Fibonacci by Guessing

Observe that the roots for the polynomial $x^2 - x - 1$ are

$$\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

We also have that $\alpha^2 = 1 + \alpha$, $\beta^2 = 1 + \beta$ since they are roots.

Theorem

For all n , $\sqrt{5}F(n) = \alpha^n - \beta^n$

Proof.

Observe that for $n = 0, 1$

$$F(0) = 0 \implies \sqrt{5}F(0) = 0 = \alpha^0 - \beta^0$$

and

$$F(1) = 1 \implies \sqrt{5}F(1) = \sqrt{5} = \alpha - \beta$$

So it holds for $n = 0, 1$



Proof.

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{5}F(n) &= \sqrt{5}[F(n-1) + F(n-2)] \\ &= [\alpha^{n-1} - \beta^{n-1} + \alpha^{n-2} - \beta^{n-2}] \\ &= [\alpha^{n-2}(\alpha + 1) - \beta^{n-2}(\beta + 1)] \\ &= [\alpha^{n-2} \cdot \alpha^2 - \beta^{n-2} \cdot \beta^2] \\ &= \alpha^n - \beta^n\end{aligned}$$



$$\text{So, } \sqrt{5}F(n) = \alpha^n - \beta^n \implies F(n) = \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Classic CS Problem

Suppose we have a $2^n \times 2^n$ board, and we want to tile them with L-shaped trominoes.



Figure: 2×2

Is it possible to tile the board and only leave one square uncovered?

Theorem

For all $n \geq 1 \in \mathbb{N}$, a $2^n \times 2^n$ board can be tiled with L-shaped trominoes with only one square remaining.

Proof.

I shall draw it on the board!

