

of 1's. At the end of a loop, the α 's are changed to deltas and more 1's are changed into α 's to correspond to the number of β 's which begin the string. The deltas are then changed to β 's. Thus, after one loop, the number of α 's has changed from F_i to F_{i+1} , and the number of β 's has changed from F_{i+1} to

$$F_i + F_{i+1} = F_{i+2}.$$

If there are no more 1's to be changed at the end of a loop, the Markov algorithm stops at rule 12, indicating that the original string of 1's was a Fibonacci number. If, however, the string was not a Fibonacci number, the Markov algorithm jumps out of the loop in midstream of changing 1's to α 's and goes into an endless loop at rule 14 after changing the α 's back to 1's.

REFERENCES

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ON SOME CONJECTURES OF GOULD ON THE PARITIES OF THE BINOMIAL COEFFICIENTS

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In studying the parities of the binomial coefficients, Gould [1] noted several interesting relationships about the signs of the sequence of numbers

$$(-1)^{\binom{n}{0}}, (-1)^{\binom{n}{1}}, \dots, (-1)^{\binom{n}{n}}.$$

Further interesting relationships may be discovered by converting each such sequence to a binary number, $f(2, n)$, by

$$f(x, n) = \sum_{k=0}^n x^{k1} \frac{-(-1)^{\binom{n}{k}}}{2} \quad (1)$$

and then comparing the numbers of the sequence $f(2, 0), f(2, 1), f(2, 2), \dots$. The following conjectures were then proposed by Gould.

Conjecture 1: $f(2, 2^m - 1) = 2^{2^m} - 1$.

Conjecture 2: $f(2, 2) = 2^{2^m} + 1$.

Conjecture 3: $f(x, 2n + 1) = (x + 1)f(x, 2n)$.

We will prove these conjectures and present some related results.

The following lemma provides a convenient recursive scheme for generating the sequence of numbers $f(x, 0), f(x, 1), \dots$. We use the notation $(\cdot)_x$ to denote the representation of a number to the base x .

Lemma 1: The sequence $f(x, n)$ may be defined by $f(x, 0) = 1$, and if

$$f(x, n - 1) = (a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0)_x$$

for $n > 0$, then

$$f(x, n) = x^n + 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x^k |\alpha_k - \alpha_{k-1}|. \quad (2)$$

Proof: It follows directly from (1) that

$$f(x, n) = x^n + 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x^k \frac{1 - (-1)^{\binom{n}{k}}}{2}.$$

By the well-known recursion for binomial coefficients,

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1},$$

so that

$$(-1)^{\binom{n}{k}} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } (-1)^{\binom{n-1}{k-1}} = (-1)^{\binom{n-1}{k}} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{1 - (-1)^{\binom{n}{k}}}{2} = |\alpha_k - \alpha_{k-1}| \quad \text{for } n-1 \geq k \geq 1.$$

Theorem 1: $f(x, 2^m - 1) = \sum_{k=0}^{2^m-1} x^k.$

Proof: The theorem is clearly satisfied for $m = 1$. Assume that

$$f(x, 2^m - 1) = \sum_{k=0}^{2^m-1} x^k = (a_{2^m-1}, \dots, a_0)_x,$$

where $a_k = 1$ for $2^m - 1 \geq k \geq 0$. By Lemma 1,

$$f(x, 2^m) = x^{2^m} f(x, 0) + f(x, 0).$$

We may apply (2) to both parts of $f(x, 2^m)$ independently for $2^m - 1$ times, and then add the results to obtain

$$f(x, 2^m + 2^m - 1) = x^{2^m} f(x, 2^m - 1) + f(x, 2^m - 1).$$

By the induction hypothesis,

$$f(x, 2^{m+1} - 1) = x^{2^m} \sum_{k=0}^{2^m-1} x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{2^m-1} x^k = \sum_{k=2^m}^{2^{m+1}-1} x^k + \sum_{k=0}^{2^m-1} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{2^{m+1}-1} x^k.$$

Corollary 1 (Conjecture 1): $f(2, 2^m - 1) = 2^{2^m} - 1.$

Corollary 2: $f(x, 2^m) = x^{2^m} + 1.$

Proof: Apply (2) to the result of Theorem 1.

Corollary 3 (Conjecture 2): $f(2, 2^m) = 2^{2^m} + 1.$

Let $L(n)$ denote $2^{\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor}$, where $\lfloor y \rfloor$ denotes the integer part of y . Examining each number $f(x, n)$ as a number to the base x , the following striking symmetry may be noticed: the sequence of the least significant $L(n)$ digits of $f(x, n)$, is equal to the sequence of the next most significant $L(n)$ digits of $f(x, n)$, which is also equal to the sequence of the least most significant $L(n)$ digits of $f(x, n - L(n))$. The following lemma, which is based on this symmetry provides another recursive scheme for generating the sequence $f(x, 0), f(x, 1), \dots$

Lemma 2: For $n > 0$, $f(x, n) \bmod(x^{L(n)}) = \left[\frac{f(x, n)}{x^{L(n)}} \right] = f(x, n - L(n)).$

Proof: We distinguish between the two cases of whether or not there exists an integer m such that $n = 2^m$. If $n = 2^m$ for some integer m , then from Corollary 2 it follows that $f(x, n) = x^n + 1$ and

$$f(x, n) \bmod(x^n) = 1 = \left\lfloor \frac{f(x, n)}{x^n} \right\rfloor.$$

Furthermore, since $L(n) = n$, it follows that $f(x, n - L(n)) = f(x, 0) = 1$, and the lemma is established for this case.

For the case $n \neq L(n)$, it follows from Corollary 2 that

$$f(x, L(n)) = x^{L(n)} f(x, 0) + f(x, 0).$$

Applying (2) to $f(x, L(n))$ for $n - L(n)$ times, we may treat the two parts independently and

$$f(x, n) = x^{L(n)} f(x, n - L(n)) + f(x, n - L(n)).$$

Consequently,

$$f(x, n) \bmod(x^{L(n)}) = \left\lfloor \frac{f(x, n)}{x^{L(n)}} \right\rfloor = f(x, n - L(n)).$$

We are now in a position to prove Conjecture 3.

Theorem 2 (Conjecture 3): $f(x, 2n + 1) = (x + 1)f(x, 2n)$.

Proof: Since $x + 1 = (1, 1)_x$, the theorem will follow from elementary rules of multiplication in the base x if we can prove that when $f(x, 2n)$ is expressed in the base x , no pair of consecutive digits are 1's. We will prove this property by induction. This is certainly true for $f(x, 0) = (1)_x$. For arbitrary $n > 0$, let

$$f(x, 2n) = (a_{2L(2n)-1}, \dots, a_0)_x.$$

By Lemma 2, each half of this number is equal to $f(x, 2n - L(2n))$ which, by the induction hypothesis, does not have two consecutive 1's when expressed in the base x . It remains to be shown that $a_{L(2n)-1} = 0$. But, by Lemma 2,

$$a_{L(2n)-1} = a_{2L(2n)-1},$$

and $a_{2L(2n)-1}$ cannot be equal to 1 because $f(x, 2n) < x^{2L(2n)-1}$.

We conclude with a final observation on the sequence of numbers $f(x, n)$. Examining the $2^m \times 2^m$ binary matrix in which the entry a_{ij} is the j th digit of $f(x, i - 1)$, we note that the matrix is symmetric about its major diagonal.

REFERENCE

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