Generalizations on the Classical Problem 'Mice and the Poison'

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Abstract

The classical problem 'Mice and the Poison' is expressed as follows.

There are 1000 bottles of liquid with one of them poisoned. A mouse will die after one week if it takes the poison. Otherwise it will remain living. Can you use only 10 mice to check out which bottle contains the poison within one week?

This essay generalizes the problem, and obtains the following topics and conclusions.

(1) Time constraints are generalized and Radix Scheme is developed and studied.

(2) A new restriction is added to the 'mice', which also makes the problem more difficult. A new method called 'Chart-Filling' Method is contrived, and its feasibility demonstration is adopted to solve the new problem, which also raises new themes.

(3) Replacement for 'the poison' to 'two poisons' leads to a big challenge, which 'Coordinates-Grouping' Scheme is created to tackle. Upper and Lower bounds are obtained, and computer programs are employed to work out both exact solutions and appraisal solutions. New conjectures are also made due to these efforts.

Key words mice and the poison; radix; binary; status; coordinate; grouping; combination; chart-filling.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Original Problem and Background

We once read an interesting passage on <u>http://www.matrix67.com/blog/archives/4361</u>, which states a curious problem named 'Mice and the Poison' and several new thoughts in this problem. We were attracted by the amazing solution of the problem, and wanted to do some new research on it.

The original problem 'Mice and the Poison' is expressed as follows. There are 1000 bottles of liquid with one of them poisoned. A mouse will die after one week if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. Can you use only 10 mice to check out which bottle contains the poison within one week? (It can be easily worked out that we can only do one experiment according to the time constriction. What is more, to guarantee that a solution is possible, we must suppose that several medicines can be taken by one mouse at a time and the poison works just as it is the only one the mouse takes)

The solution given by the website writer uses binary representation. We give a binary number to each bottle, namely from 000000001 to 111110100. The experiment is carried out so that the ith $(1 \le i \le 10)$ mouse takes all medicines whose *i*th digit is '1'. Finally, if the *i*th mouse is dead one week later, we can deduce that the *i*th digit of the poison's number is 1, or else it is 0.

Hence we can easily tell that the maximum amount of bottles we are able to check by the manipulation is the amount of all binary numbers with 10 digits, that is, 1024. Further more, if we have n mice instead of 10, the maximum number turns out to be 2^n .

This passage raised heated discussion online, and lots of other generalizations are advanced. The author himself gave a radix 3 solution to a situation of the time generalization which we will consider in the first part of our essay. 'yh' and lots of others discussed noticed difficulties of not having the discrete hypothesis, which we are to think about as well in the first part. One commentator named 'yac' displayed a concrete version of the two-poison problem which we shall try in the third part of this essay. He claimed it to be an interview question of a company named 'GaoSheng', and gave the Coordinate Scheme (named by us) of n = 10 in addition. In fact, this problem also has several different variations, for instance, the problem of 'IBM Ponder This' (May 2011). While our researches rely on concepts such as 'mice' and 'poison', we will only consider the problem itself in the passage.

Since the only basis of our paper is the question posted on the website, we are not to show reference again at the end of the paper.

1.2 Motivation

As we have already seen from the previous section, when we have n mice instead of 10, the maximum number will vary correspondingly. If we change other conditions of it, we probably will get some similar results. Therefore, we try changing every concrete number to variable in the problem as well as adding new restrictions and new conditions, and get three main results

which we shall state in the following section.

Firstly, we change those numbers representing time to variables since the writer of the blog led us to do so by changing the 'one week' to 'two weeks'.

Secondly, we notice that in the original problem, each mouse has to be fed with more than 500 different kinds of medicine all at a time, which in some way is too ideal. So we add a new constraint and get an entirely new problem.

Thirdly, we consider the two-poison problem, which was displayed in the website by yac first.

1.3 Main Results

In the *Time Generalization* part of our essay, we consider the following problem.

Problem1 There are some bottles of liquid with one of them poisoned. A mouse will die after t weeks if it takes the poison; otherwise it will remain alive. Now we have n mice to check out which bottle contains the poison in m weeks' time, what is the maximum number of bottles we are able to check from?

Let a(n, m, t) denotes the optimal answer, we conclude that $a(n, m, t) = (m - t + 2)^n$ by generalizing the binary solution to radix scheme. While doing this, we notice the core of the problem and introduce the discrete hypothesis. In addition, we combine the two time variables and get an insight into the radix scheme.

In the *Realistic Restriction* part, we add a further constraint to the problem.

Problem 2 There are some bottles of liquid with one of them poisoned. A mouse will die if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. Now we have n mice to check out which bottle contains the poison with only one experiment, where each mouse can take at most r different medicines at a time. What is the maximum number of bottles we are able to deal with this time?

We create a new manipulation called Chart-Filling Method to convert the problem so that a new point of view is worked out. Thus we get the exact expression of the answer. In the process of reaching this goal, we get an important concept called 'status' of a medicine, which is actually a generalization of the binary representation.

In the Two-Poison part, we will try a somewhat different problem as follows.

Problem 3 There are plenty of medicines with two of them poisoned. A mouse will die if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. With n mice and one experiment, we can check out that some propositions of those medicines are nontoxic. What is the maximum ratio of nontoxic proportion we are able to get?

We consider 'Coordinates Scheme' and 'Grouping Method', which we shall combine to get our 'Coordinates-Grouping Scheme'. Since this **Problem 3** is tough to handle, we will consider a restricted problem with respect to the idea of Grouping.

Problem 3* There are some bottles of liquid with two of them poisoned. A mouse will die if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. Now we have *n* mice to check out which bottle contains the poison within one experiment. What is the maximum number of bottles we are able to deal with?

Main content of this part is about this answer, which is donated by f(n). We get an upper bound and several lower bounds. Moreover, lower bounds are studied carefully and coordinates are encountered again. As the exact number of general cases cannot be worked out, we have two computer programs, one of which is precise but slow, the other being faster but estimative.

2 Variations of the Original Problem and Corresponding Researches

2.1 Time Generalization and Radix Scheme

2.1.1 Radix Scheme and Discrete Hypothesis

In this chapter, we consider **problem 1** stated in section 1.3.

Problem 1 There are some bottles of liquid with one of them poisoned. A mouse will die after t week if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. Now we have n mice to check out which bottle contains the poison in m weeks' time, what is the maximum number of bottles we are able to check from?(Notation a(n, m, t) is created to represent the answer)

The website where the original problem comes from has already pointed out a radix 3 solution to a(n, 2, 1): Notice that if we give a radix 3 number to each bottle, from 0 to 3^n , and let *i*th mouse $(1 \le i \le n)$ take all medicines with the *i*th digit '1' in the first week and take all medicines with the *i*th digit '2' in the second week (if it is still alive). If the mouse dies after the first week, dies after the second week or remains alive after all experiments, we can deduce respectively that the *i*th digit of the poison is 1, 2, or 0. As a consequence, the number corresponding to the poison can be worked out digit by digit.

Imitating the manipulation used, we can easily get the general solution when t = 1.

Give a radix m + 1 number to each bottle, from 0 to $(m + 1)^n - 1$, and let the *i*th mouse $(1 \le i \le n)$ take all medicines with the *i*th digit $j(1 \le j \le m)$ in the *j*th week if it is still alive then. If the mouse dies after *j*th week, we can deduce that the *i*th digit of the poison is *j*. Specially, if it remains alive finally, that digit is 0. As a consequence, the number corresponding to the poison can be worked out digit by digit. Therefore $a(n, m, 1) \ge (m + 1)^n$.

When t > 1, it seems that we can take t weeks as one time unit, thus we have $\frac{m}{t}$ units of

experiment time(not necessarily an integer), and we should get $a(n, m, t) = a(n, \frac{m}{t}, 1)$.

However, a closer look gives a better scheme:

Give a radix m - t + 2 number to each bottle, from 0 to $(m - t + 2)^n - 1$, and let *i*th mouse $(1 \le i \le n)$ take all medicines with the *i*th digit $j(1 \le j \le m - t + 1)$ in the *j*th week if it is still alive then. If the mouse dies after (j + t)th week, we can deduce that the *i*th digit of the poison is *j*, or it is 0. Thus we can get the number of the poison as all experiments made by a mouse can only have at most one 'die' answer, so when a mouse dies, the other experiments it takes inevitably give 'alive' answers.

According to the previous paragraph, we get a solution which guarantees $a(n, m, t) \ge (m - t + 2)^n$. Comparing the two methods, we can see that the stronger one does not wait until the end of an experiment to carry out another experiment with the same mouse.

It seems perfect that we have already worked out the best solutions. But this astonishing manipulation not only illustrates that instinct does not always give the right answer, but motivates us to examine the intrinsical structure of the problem as well.

Carrying this idea back to the original t = 1 situation, we find that if we take the one week

of delitescence as seven days and m weeks of experiment time as 7m days, we should get an even better solution! As the time interval gets smaller and smaller, our function a approaches infinity easily! This is a terrible disaster, so we must take measures to stop it.

We examine our convention and add a new restriction that 'time' here should be discrete. To be precise, one week should be the least time interval. Things get consistent again after this hypothesis is added.

So now we can satisfactorily announce our radix scheme gives $a(n, m, t) \ge (m - t + 2)^n$.

2.1.2 Proof of Optimality

Notice that our **problem 1** requests the best solution, and we should prove the optimality of the scheme in order to really solve this problem.

Theorem 1 $a(n, m, t) = (m - t + 2)^n$ Proof:

No matter what scheme we adopt, the only data we can get from it is the death time of every mouse (A mouse can also survive all experiments, which is considered a special case 'die after infinite time'). As the discrete hypothesis guarantees that a mouse can only die after t to m + 1 weeks (m + 1 stands for infinity), there are only m - t + 2 possible states for each mouse. Thus there are $(m - t + 2)^n$ possible data for us.

From another point of view, we have a(n, m, t) possible states of which medicine being poisoned. If this number is bigger than $(m - t + 2)^n$, according to the well-known Pigeon-hole Principle, there must be one experiment data corresponding to two possibilities of the poison, in which case we fail to examine the poisoned medicine precisely. So $a(n, m, t) \le (m - t + 2)^n$.

Combine this inequality with the one we got in the previous section, and we gives proof to **theorem 1**. QED.

2.1.3 Conclusions and Other Variations

According to section 2.1.1 and 2.1.2, **problem 1** is solved completely. Long story short, we generalized the binary solution given by the author of the website, added a new discrete hypothesis to make things consistent, and finally proved the optimality of this solution.

Since m and t appear at the same position in the answer, it is indicated that these two variables are related constitutionally. In fact, m and t do the same job of qualifying how many experiments we can make. As all experiments can be made in an arbitrary order and this does not affect the result, we can replace m and t with one variable, the number of experiments. This replacement also implies the discrete hypothesis, so it gives us a further insight of the problem.

Some similar questions can be easily asked and solved. Adding possibilities such as a mouse has a risk of dying naturally will do no good since the problem relies on certainty. Now we may consider one more similar problem in order to illustrate that mice can be even more powerful.

Let a'(n,p) be the maximum amount of bottles we are able to check from with p experiments (notice that we have already abandon m and t to make it clearer) when all conditions of **problem 1** holds except that a mouse will recover immediately after the poison

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takes effect.

We can at once convert the optimality proof and announce $a'(n,p) \le 2^{np}$ since each mouse now has p chances of choosing to 'die' or not and has 2^p possible situations in all.

The corresponding scheme can be made on purpose to satisfy the proof: number each bottle with an $n \times p$ matrix whose components are either 1 or 0, and use $a_{i,jk}$ to note component (j,k) of the *i*th matrix. Let mouse $j(1 \le j \le n)$ take all medicines *i* with $a_{i,jk} = 1$ at the *k*th $(1 \le k \le p)$ experiment, and the result of experiments gives the poison's matrix.

2.2 Realistic Restriction and Chart-Filling Method

2.2.1 Chart-Filling Method

Notice that in the original problem, each mouse has to be fed with more than 500 different kinds of medicine all at a time according to the radix scheme, which in some way is too ideal. So we add a new restriction that each mouse has a limitation with the amount of medicines it takes at a time (We will consider only one experiment for the time being to make it easier):

Problem 2 There are some bottles of liquid with one of them poisoned. A mouse will die if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. Now we have n mice to check out which bottle contains the poison within only one experiment, where each mouse can take at most r different kinds of medicine at a time. $(1 \le r \le 2^{n-1})$. What is the maximum number of bottles we are able to deal with this time? (The answer is noted b(n,r))

Now that radix scheme can not be used to solve this problem, we must create an entirely new method, which is, Chart-Filling Method. To introduce this method, we shall have some new concepts leading to a new point of view first.

Definition 1 <u>*n*-troop</u>: a group of *n* mice with each of them able to take $r_i(1 \le i \le n)$ more medicines is called an <u>*n*-troop</u>. Specially, a mouse which is already full (cannot take more medicines) is still considered a legal member of a <u>troop</u>.

In addition, when some more medicines are fed to a troop, r_i will decrease and we consider this add-medicine process same as a troop-decline process. By this means, we will study troop-decline process or add-medicine process instead of the original problem. To get a better view, we will illustrate a troop by plotting a chart with n rows and r_i columns.

Definition 2 <u>Space</u>: If a mouse in a troop can take r more medicines, we say it has r <u>spaces</u>. <u>Spaces</u> of all mice add up to the <u>spaces</u> of the troop. If a medicine is planned to be fed to x mice, we say it takes up x <u>spaces</u>.

According to this definition, a scheme cannot take up more spaces than the troop really has, while we are not sure whether or not a scheme is feasible if it takes up less spaces. In addition, a medicine cannot take up more than one space of one mouse, because using the same medicine to feed the same mouse for more than one time is of no use.

Definition 3 <u>m-status</u>: When we choose a scheme for one medicine, we can deduce the result of what will happen if it is poisoned. This 'result' can be noted as a binary number called the <u>status</u> of the medicine. The method used here is similar to the one used in the first part, that is, use n digits to represent the n mice, and a digit is '1' if the medicine is fed to this mouse, otherwise it is '0'. If a <u>status</u> contains m digits '1' (so it takes up m spaces), it is called an

<u>*m*-status</u>.

We notice that if a medicine is poisoned, status of it stands for the result we will get from the experiment, thus status signifies all the information about the corresponding medicine in the scheme. To make it clearer, two kinds of medicine can be told apart if and only if their statuses are different.

Now our problem is converted to how to choose the biggest amount of statuses so that each one is distinct and they do not take up more spaces than the troop provides.

We will show manipulation we used in this Chart-Filling Method by considering the following example of b(5,8).

Since the number of spaces is limited, we tend to choose statuses that take up few spaces first. Thus the 0-status(00000) is considered at the beginning. However, there is only one 0-status, and we then turn to 1-statuses, 10000, 01000, 00100, 00010, 00001. Filling these statuses into the troop, we can get a chart like this:

Mouse 1	2				
Mouse 2	3				
Mouse 3	4				
Mouse 4	5				
Mouse 5	6				

This 5×8 form illustrates the original condition of b(5,8), and the numbers inside stand for the second to the sixth statuses are 10000 to 00001, respectively. (The first is 00000, so it does not appear in the form)

Now think about 2-statuses, it is clear that there are $\binom{5}{2}$ of them (and $\binom{n}{m}$ *m*-statuses for *n*-troop in general) and filling in all of them costs us 20 spaces. We still have 45 spaces now, so probably we can do it. The form looks like this after the previous step:

Mouse 1	2	7	8	9	10		
Mouse 2	3	7	11	12	13		
Mouse 3	4	14	8	11	15		
Mouse 4	5	14	16	9	12		
Mouse 5	6	15	16	13	10		

3-statuses seem the same, but we encounter a problem now. All 3-statuses will take up $3\binom{5}{3} = 30$ spaces while we have only 15 left. Thus at most $\frac{15}{3} = 5$ 3-statuses can be placed. If we do this carefully, we may have a form as follows.

Mouse 1	2	7	8	9	10	17	18	19
Mouse 2	З	7	11	12	13	17	18	20
Mouse 3	4	14	8	11	15	17	19	21
Mouse 4	5	14	16	9	12	18	20	21
Mouse 5	6	15	16	13	10	19	20	21

Before we happily accept the fact that this Char-Filling Method works, let's see what we will

Mouse 1	2	7	8	9	10	17	18	19
Mouse 2	3	7	11	12	13	17	18	20
Mouse 3	4	14	8	11	15	17	19	20
Mouse 4	5	14	16	9	12	18	19	20
Mouse 5	6	15	16	13	10			

get if we are not careful enough and get stuck with less than five 3-statuses:

There are still three spaces but we cannot fill them with a 3-status. As a result, this method gives an upper bound but we are not sure whether we have a scheme to reach it.

The upper bound, in general, is $b(n,r) \leq \left[\frac{nr-S_{i_0-1}}{i_0}\right] + \sum_{j=0}^{i_0-1} \binom{n}{j}$, where $S_i = \sum_{j=0}^i j\binom{n}{j}$ and

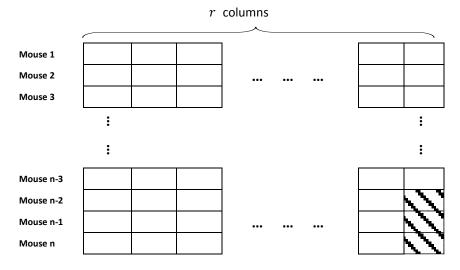
 i_0 is an integer satisfying $S_{i_0-1} < nr \leq S_{i_0}$. This formula is an instant result of our method

since we hope to fill the troop with all 0, 1,..., $(i_0 - 1)$ -statuses and some i_0 -statuses so that there are less than i_0 spaces left(when we just run out of *t*-status, *t* spaces left is also considered acceptable, but in this case, we tend to consider that we have used all *t*-statuses and finish with using zero (t + 1)-status so that t + 1 is the actual i_0). Since for every possible management, we can convert a *p*-status to a *q*-status if we have not used all *q*-statuses and q < p, and when all those adjustments are made, the final management will not contain more statuses than this method does, thus it gives the best solution if this goal is reachable. As a consequence, all we need is to prove the feasibility of Chart-Filling Method.

2.2.2 Proof of Feasibility

We need more concepts in order to describe our situation before actually trying to solve the problem.

Definition 4 (n,r)-party: An (n,r)-party is an n-troop where each mouse has either r spaces or r-1 spaces and at least one of them has r spaces. Specially, when r is omitted, we write it as <u>n-party</u>. Further more, when all mice have r spaces, the troop is called a <u>perfect</u> (n,r)-party.



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We can deduce instantly that an (n, r)-party has more than n(r - 1) and not more than nr spaces. When it has exactly nr spaces, it is a perfect (n, r)-party, in other words, a matrix.

Definition 5 <u>*p*-fill</u>: If we have a scheme to fill an *n*-troop with *p*-statuses so that only less than p spaces are left clear, we say this *n*-troop can be *p*-filled.

Definition 6 $\underline{Z(n,r)}$: For each pair of $(n,r)(1 \le r \le 2^{n-1})$, there exists a number *i* such that $S_{i-1} < nr \le S_i$ $(S_i = \sum_{j=0}^i j\binom{n}{j})$. This number is donated by $\underline{Z(n,r)}$. (That is the i_0 we discussed in the previous section)

Now the problem of feasibility is converted to a problem of whether a perfect (n, r)-party can be filled with all 0, 1,…,(Z(n, r) - 1)-statuses and then be Z(n, r)-filled.

We will give a solution by induction of a stronger proposition. To do so, we need a view of what it looks like when a chart is filled with all *p*-statuses, which will be described in **Lemma 1**. This lemma will give us a well-known equation, **Lemma 2**, containing binominal coefficients which we shall also use. In addition, our proof will rely on a division which will be proved legal in **Lemma 3**. With all three lemma, we shall use induction to prove the reinforced **Theorem 2**, which implies the feasibility of Chart-Filling Method. So let's begin our journey now.

Lemma 1 All *i*-statuses for a big enough *n*-troop will take up $\binom{n-1}{i-1}$ spaces of each mouse.

Proof:

It can be examined that there are $\binom{n-1}{i-1}$ *i*-statuses containing each row, for one component

of them must be this row, and the other i - 1 components can optionally distribute in the other n - 1 rows. Since each of them takes up one space of the mouse, altogether the number (n-1)

is $\binom{n-1}{i-1}$.

This statement is valid for every mouse. QED.

Lemma 2 $x\binom{n}{x} = n\binom{n-1}{x-1}$

Proof: (In fact, proof of this equation need not use the concepts we created)

Consider a big enough n-troop, with all x-statuses filled in. Let's try two ways of calculating the amount of spaces they take up totally.

(1)There are $\binom{n}{x}$ x-statuses, each of which has x components, so these add up to $x\binom{n}{x}$

(2)As it is in Lemma 1, those statuses take up $\binom{n-1}{x-1}$ spaces in each row, thus in total they

take up $n\binom{n-1}{x-1}$ spaces.

Since the two ways must give the same answer, we have $x\binom{n}{x}=n\binom{n-1}{x-1}$. QED.

Lemma 3 For every (n, r)-party and every (n, s)-party such that $s \le r$ and the former party contains not less spaces than the later one, there exists a scheme to divide the former party into two *n*-parties with one of them the later *n*-party. Proof:

Let the former (n, r)-party be party A and let A₁ be the set of all x mice in party A having r

spaces, A₂ be the set of all the other n - x mice in party A having r - 1 spaces. Similarly, donate the amount of mice in the later party having *s* spaces by *y*.

If we have r > s, and $x \ge y$, we can find y mice in A₁. Let these y mice contribute s spaces each, and the other n - y mice contribute s - 1 spaces, and we have a requested (n, s)-party. After this manipulation, there are still x - y mice having r - s + 1 spaces and n - x + y mice having r - s spaces left. Thus party A is divided into a requested party and another n-party as well.

If r > s and x < y, we let y - x mice from A₂ and all x mice from A₁ contribute s spaces each, while the other n - y mice contribute s - 1 spaces, similarly we get the requested party and what left is a n-party also.

If r = s, since party A must be bigger than the requested party, we get $x \ge y$ directly. Thus we can make it using the same manipulation carried out in the situation of r > s, $x \ge y$.

In one word, no matter what situation we encounter, a means of doing the requested job is always guaranteed. QED.

Theorem 2 An (n,r)-party which has x spaces can be i-filled if $1 \le i \le n$, $1 \le x \le i {n \choose i}$.

The following proof is a little complicated, so we will introduce our idea at the beginning of it. The main idea is to use induction. We are to prove n = k + 1 situation under the assumption that n = k is done. Some points are to be made in advance, namely special cases of i, and some inequalities which will be used(Those inequalities seem useless considering their somewhat silly meanings, while they are necessary in the proof since there are so many special cases and we will miss some if we are careless in dealing with those inequalities). Then in the core step, we will try dividing the original party into three parts, X₁, B and C. To make sure it can be divided as we wish, conditions are studied and special cases are worked out independently. Last but not least, we will fill up B and C separately using n = k hypothesis and add X₁ to the scheme of B to finish our proof.

Proof:

Perform induction on n. a)When n = 1, $\therefore 1 \le i \le n = 1$ $\therefore i = 1$ $\therefore 1 \le x \le i \binom{n}{i} = 1$ $\therefore x = 1$

So we have only one space now, and of course it can be 1-filled.

b) Assume this proposition holds when n = k ($k \ge 1$). When n = k + 1, it can be proved by the following six steps:

I. In this step we consider the special cases of i = 1, n. According to **Definition 4**, we have $n(r-1) < x \le nr$ (1)

As a result, when i = 1, $n(r - 1) < x \le i {n \choose i} = n$, so r = 1.

Therefore the only possibility is that there are x mice having one space while the other having nothing. Filling in blanks one by one gives the desired solution.

Similarly, when i = n, the only possibility is that $x \le n$, r = 1. If x < n in this case, filling is not needed. If x = n, filling in the only *i*-statuses solves the problem.

So we assume $2 \le i \le n-1$ in the next five steps.

II. This step is performed to get some important inequalities in order to make it easier when we are trying to work out other inequalities in the following steps.

According to (1) and the conditions of this theorem, we have $n(r-1) < x \le i {n \choose i}$.

Use **Lemma 2** and we get $n(r-1) < i\binom{n}{i} = n\binom{n-1}{i-1}$ $\therefore r-1 < \binom{n-1}{i-1}$

Since each side of the inequality is integer, $r \leq {n-1 \choose i-1}$(2)

From (1), we have $r \ge \frac{x}{n}$(3)

III. This step gives one of the parties which we are going to divide our original party into since we intend to use division to perform induction.

Let $r(i-1) \equiv y \pmod{n-1}$ $(1 \le y \le n-1)$, so n-1|r(i-1)-y.

Take out one row of r spaces, namely X₁, from the original (n, r)-party, we get an (n-1)-party A, which has x - r spaces.

Now think of an
$$\left(n - 1, \frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} + 1\right)$$
-party B, y rows of which has $\frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} + 1$ spaces.
B has $y\left(\frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} + 1\right) + (n-1-y)\frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} = r(i-1)$ spaces in total.
 $\therefore i \le n-1$ $\therefore \frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} < \frac{r(i-1)}{n-1} < r$

Since we have $\frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} \in N_+$, again integers are recognized at both sides,

:
$$\frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} \le r-1$$
, in other words, $\frac{r(i-1)-y}{n-1} + 1 \le r$ (4)

IV. In this step we will consider a special case in which the party to be divided turns out to be even smaller than the desired party we are to get by division.

If the amount of spaces B has, r(i-1), is bigger than that of A, x-r, we have r(i-1) > x-r, which gives us x < ir. While $i \le n-1$, according to (1), i(r-1) < n(r-1) < x < ir

Thus the original (n, r)-party can only accommodate r - 1 *i*-statuses, so the problem is converted to whether we can fill it with r - 1 different *i*-statuses.

Observe that we can fill a perfect (n, r - 1)-party with r - 1 *i*-statuses by adding one *i*-status to each 'column' so that they can be designed freely and separately. According to (2) we have $\binom{n}{i} = \binom{n-1}{i} + \binom{n-1}{i-1} > \binom{n-1}{i-1} - 1 \ge r - 1$, so these r - 1 *i*-statuses can be distinct, which implies an (n, r)-party which contains a perfect (n, r - 1)-party can also be filled with r - 1 distinct *i*-statuses. The proof is already finished in this case.

V. This section will illustrate how we are to use division in proving the theorem.

Else we have $r(i-1) \le x - r$, which, according to (4), indicates A and B satisfy the condition of Lemma 3. As a result, A can be divided to B and another (n-1)-party C. According to (2), $r(i-1) \le (i-1) \binom{n-1}{i-1}$, and $1 \le i \le n-1$, so B satisfies the condition of Theorem 2 when n = k and i' = i - 1. Thus this party can be (i-1)-filled and there will

not be a single space left because the number of spaces in B is divisible by i - 1. Append these (i - 1)-statuses with component X₁ and we have r *i*-statuses now which fill in X₁ and B perfectly. Assuming party C can be *i*-filled, we now have B+X₁ and C filled separately. As no *i*-status filling C has component X₁ while all other *i*-statuses have, these *i*-statuses are distinct, which gives a solution finally to *i*-fill A. So the only thing we are to prove is C can be *i*-filled.

VI. In the final step, we will finish the proof by proving the other part of the division which we did not consider is also conquerable.

Since $1 \le i \le n-1$, and there are x - r - r(i-1) = x - ir spaces in C, perform Lemma 2 and (3) gives $x - ir \le x - i\frac{x}{n} = \left(1 - \frac{i}{n}\right)x \le \left(1 - \frac{i}{n}\right)i\binom{n}{i} = i\binom{n}{i} - i\frac{i}{n}\binom{n}{i} = i\binom{n}{i} - i\frac{i}{n}\binom{n}{i}$

Therefore C satisfies **Theorem 2** when n = k and i' = i, which indicates that it can be *i*-filled. So **Theorem 2** when n = k + 1 is proved.

Combining a) and b) gives the proof of Theorem 2. QED.

Theorem 2 guarantees that perfect $(n, r - \sum_{i=1}^{Z(n,r)-1} {n-1 \choose i-1})$ -party can be Z(n,r)-filled, which implies that perfect (n,r)-party can be filled with all $0,1,\dots,(Z(n,r)-1)$ -statuses (Considering **Lemma 1**) and be Z(n,r)-filled, that is, feasibility of Chart-Filling Method. The proof also indicates a way of constructing such a scheme by recursion.

2.2.3 Conclusions and Other Variations

In this chapter we solved **problem 2** by proving a stronger proposition as to Chart-Filling Method we developed specially for this problem. The concept of status can be seen as a generalization of binary solution to the original problem in chapter 1, which is so important that it is the core concept of this whole chapter. From this concept we get a closer view of how schemes are made and how to examine whether they will work properly. This concept will also be employed in the next few sections.

Now that **problem 2** has been solved, let's consider what will happen if we do more than one experiments. If we try it with the idea of generalizing the concept of status, we will reach a new concept that each digit of the status can have not only 0 and 1 two possible values. However, this does not throw light on the question since it is too complex. So we try to understand it in another way, that is, take each experiment as one chart. Thus the generalized problem becomes a Cube-Filling problem. Generalizing restrictions of the problem as well gives two different versions of it considering whether a mouse will die after taking the poison: In the death version, each status has at most one component in one 'mouse plane'(in contrast to 'mouse row' in **problem 2**) while in the athanasia version each status is allowed to have one component in each 'mouse row' of each experiment.

The previous generalization can be generalized again if we consider the abstract concept of n-dimensional-cube-filling without using concrete concepts such as mouse and poison. However, none of these widen problems can be solved according to skills we developed, as division method used in proof of **Theorem 2** cannot be generalized to more than two dimensions.

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2.3 Two-Poison Replacement and Grouping-Coordinate Scheme

2.3.1 Coordinate Scheme

In this chapter, we will try the 'two-poison' problem:

Problem 3 There are plenty bottles of medicine with two of them poisoned. A mouse will die if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. With n mice and one experiment, we can check out that some proportion of those medicines is nontoxic. What is the maximum ratio of nontoxic proportion we are able to get? (The maximum ratio is noted c(n))

We are to introduce the 'Coordinate Scheme', which was first given by yac using the example of n = 10.

First of all, divide the ten mice into two groups, and all the bottles into 25 groups evenly (This is the reason why we assume there are 'plenty of' bottles, or we will have to examine the number's divisibility by 25). Put these groups of medicines as follow, and let each mouse take all the medicine of its row/column.

	Mouse 6	Mouse 7*	Mouse 8	Mouse 9*	Mouse 10
Mouse 1	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe
Mouse 2*	safe	hazard	safe	hazard	safe
Mouse 3	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe
Mouse 4*	safe	hazard	safe	hazard	safe
Mouse 5	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe

Provide that mouse 2,4,7,9 die, the medicines they took contain poisons. As a result, the poisons are in the four 'hazard' districts, while they are not located exactly.

According to this, we can always find at most four districts containing the poisons, therefore 25-4

the nontoxic proportion is $\frac{25-4}{25} = 84\%$.

This method can be reinforced a little, and then we have:

	Mouse 6	Mouse 7*	Mouse 8	Mouse 9*	Mouse 10	
Mouse 1	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe
Mouse 2*	safe	hazard	safe	hazard	safe	safe
Mouse 3	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe
Mouse 4	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe
Mouse 5	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe	safe
	safe	hazard	safe	hazard	safe	safe

In this scheme, we leave one row and one column untested. Assuming mouse 2 is the only unlucky one among the first five mice, we have row 6 a dangerous row also. So we can, again, always determine at most four districts which are hazarded, therefore the nontoxic proportion is

$$\frac{36-4}{36} \approx 88.9\%.$$

But that is still not the end! If we divide those 10 mice into three groups, namely 3, 3, 4, and adopt the same manipulation (This time it is three dimensional), we will have a nontoxic proportion of $\frac{4 \times 4 \times 5 - 8}{4 \times 4 \times 5} = 90\%$. This is because each group will locate two 'planes', therefore we have eight intersected districts instead of four, and in each group we leave out one 'plane' untested, which is why there are $4 \times 4 \times 5$ districts in total.

It can be seen that the more groups we divide our mice into, the more uncertainty we will have. In general, an *m*-dimensional (Each group can be seen as a dimension, in other words, they are separate coordinates, which is the reason this scheme is named) scheme gives us 2^m hazard districts. So in the case of n = 10, this three dimensional scheme gives the best answer.

Now we can easily conclude a general method out of this, that is to divide n mice into k groups, namely $a_1, a_2, ..., a_k$, and we can determine a nontoxic proportion of $1 - \frac{2^k}{\prod_{i=1}^k (a_i+1)}$. To make it optimal, we should have a_i evenly, which is why we divide 10 mice into 5 and 5 instead of 4 and 6 or other groups. The value of k remains arbitrary, while we can determine it within n try (Let k vary from 1 to n), so obtaining the optimal solution will not be very hard.

2.3.2 Grouping Method and Coordinate-Grouping Scheme

The previous scheme by the website writer is really skillful, while we have a seemingly less graceful but more general idea. The thought involved is quite easy, that is, to divide all medicines into several groups, and use some schemes similar to those we used when examining one poison to determine the exact location of the two poisons. Notice that we said 'some schemes' instead of a definite one, which makes it quite mysterious. This is because, for example, in a simple situation of n = 5, we cannot even work out easily whether there exists a manipulation better than having five mice examine one group each and leave the sixth group untested. This difficulty raises **problem 3***:

Problem 3* There are some bottles of liquid with two of them poisoned. A mouse will die if it takes the poison, otherwise it will remain alive. Now we have n mice to check out which bottle contains the poison within one experiment. What is the maximum number of bottles we are able to deal with? (The answer is noted f(n))

In fact, there is still a difference between Grouping Method and **problem 3***, as two poisons can unfortunately be divided to the same group. In this case, if we insist in finding two groups containing the two poisons, the result can be confusing. The way to mediate this dissension is to accept a solution locating two groups containing the poisoned group, and try to find one group if the result is confusing. Further description and feasibility of this measure will be discussed in the next section.

Perhaps readers of this section will be impatient since Grouping Method has not yet given an answer and probably can never fight against the sophisticated Coordinate Scheme. However, what gives us courage to continue studying the Grouping Method is that this method can be added into the Coordinate Scheme! Notice that in Coordinate Scheme, we use each group as an independent coordinate, and in each of these coordinates, we actually set a scheme to determine the exact two 'planes' the poisons are in. Thus if we employ Grouping Method in

each group, Coordinate-Grouping Scheme is now reached!

In general, this scheme can be written as follows: divide n mice into k groups, namely $a_1, a_2, ..., a_k$, and we can determine a nontoxic proportion of $1 - \frac{2^k}{\prod_{l=1}^k f(a_l)}$. Since attrbutes of f(n) are unknown now, we cannot take for granted that groups should be divided evenly in this scheme.

2.3.3 New Problem and Compatibility

In this section, we will work out a route to develop f(n) as well as to solve the compatibility problem raised in the previous section(two poisons in one group) between f(n) and the original problem.

Attempts of small scale tell us f(n) is quite difficult to find. We can deduce $f(n) \ge n + 1$ easily by letting each mouse tests one group and leave the last group untested. We can also claim that f(n) is monotonically increasing, as one more mouse can test one more group while the other n - 1 mice do the same as checking f(n - 1) groups. A trivial upper bound can as well be reached from $f(n + 1) \le 2f(n)$, since we can divide the statuses into two groups considering whether the last digit is 1 and claim that each group has not more than f(n)statuses. But further study is difficult, which we shall show in the next three sections. Our aim is to (1) try giving a nontrivial upper bound and lower bound for f(n), (2)give some nontrivial examples of small scale probably by computer.

As it is very important, we donate the attribute that f(n) is monotonically increasing by **Lemma 4**.

First of all, we should give some notation in order to describe the problem. It is a good idea to use the same concept we used in the previous chapter, which is 'status'. Each group has a 'status' which describes how it is fed to mice and what the result will be if it is poison. But now we have two poisons, therefore we probably will get an integrated result for two groups. Thus we can define a new calculation between two statuses:

Definition 7 <u>Or/Union</u>: For two status a and b, let 'a <u>or</u> b' be an n-digit binary number whose *i*th digit is 1 as long as digit 1 appears at the same digit in one of the two statuses. This is also called the <u>union</u> of a and b.

'a or b' is actually an informatics concept having the same meaning, besides it is also similar to the concept of 'union' in the theory of set, which leads to a possibility of converting this problem to other problems.

Now we can claim that the statement 'able to determine two poisons' is same to 'for all pairs of status, (a,b), a or b are distinct', since a test works if and only if different cases give distinct results.

Now let's focus again on the compatibility problem which concerns two poisons in one group. If the result differs from every possible answer a two-group union gives, we happily accept the fact that the two poisons are in the same group. Since we already have all the unions different, it is apparent that statuses themselves are distinct. Therefore we can determine which group the two poisons are in. Thus the only problem turns out to be, if we really determine two seemingly

hazard groups, a and b, while the poisons are in fact in one group, c, can we miss it? Since a or b, a or c should be distinct if $b \neq c$, and we have a or b = c as a condition, a or c = a or (a or b)=a or b, contradiction. Thus we cannot miss c. In all, when two poisons are in one group, we can always find at most two groups containing the hazard group, which solves the dissension finally.

2.3.4 Qualitative Analysis of f(n)

We will give an exponential upper bound first by calculating the maximum amount of statuses possible.

Theorem 3
$$f(n) \le 2^{\frac{n+1}{2}}$$

Proof:

Similar to proof of **Theorem 1**, we notice that since unions of all pairs of statuses give distinct answers, there are altogether $\binom{f(n)}{2}$ such answers. The amount must not be more than the amount of all *n*-digit binary numbers, which is 2^n . Therefore we have $\binom{f(n)}{2} \leq 2^n$, thus $f(n) \leq \frac{1+\sqrt{1+2^{n+3}}}{2} < \frac{1+(1+\sqrt{2^{n+3}})}{2} = 1 + 2^{\frac{n+1}{2}}$. As both sides are integer, $f(n) \leq 2^{\frac{n+1}{2}}$. QED.

The experience of attempting to get a nontrivial answer reaching f(n) tells us this upper bound is very high indeed, and the method we used in proving it has nothing to do with how to make an example. So this theorem only gives us a border, saying f(n) cannot raise faster than exponential function.

Though this proof of upper bound seems to be not complicated enough to work out a satisfying answer, we honestly can not improve it significantly since situations can not be easily assorted and structures can not be recognized. Moreover, we conjecture f(n) to grow exponently due to our lower bound and computer generated data (and instinct).

Attempt of giving a lower bound using similar manipulation proved to be too difficult for us, but it is possible that we give a nontrivial lower bound by constructing a new example from a known one, in other words, by recursion.

Theorem 4 $f(n + 2[\log_2(f(n) + 1)]) \ge 2f(n)$

Proof:

Let k be $\lceil \log_2(f(n) + 1) \rceil$. Assuming we have an example in the case of n, which are f(n) statuses satisfying the union-distinct condition. Now we will give 2f(n) (n + 2k)-digit binary numbers, all unions of which are distinct as well.

For the first half, add 2k digits to these f(n) status, and let the first k ones be zero, the (k + 1)th to the 2kth be the binary representations of one till f(n) (the reason why we choose k digits is that this is the least amount to show the binary representation of f(n)). To generate the second half, we simply produce the added part by exchanging the first k digits and the last k ones produced in the first half.

An example is showed as follows.

Group1	Group2
000000 0000 0001	000000 0001 0000
000011 0000 0010	000011 0010 0000
010101 0000 0011	001100 0011 0000
001100 0000 0100	010101 0100 0000
011010 0000 0101	011010 0101 0000
100110 0000 0110	100110 0110 0000
101001 0000 0111	101001 0111 0000
110000 0000 1000	110000 1000 0000

The first six figures are from an example of n = 6, and the following eight ones are new digits we added. Notice that in order to show '8' in binary representation, we need four digits instead of three even though $\log_2 8 = 3$, since zero is not included.

If two statuses are chosen from the same group, we can first use whether the last k digits are zero to determine which group they are in. Then, as we suppose the first n digits come from a proper example of n, distinctness is guaranteed. If these two statuses are from different groups, it is even easier since we can tell which one they are by transferring the last 2k digits to binary numbers and choose the corresponding status in each group directly.

Therefore the recursion holds, QED.

Now let's get a closed form of lower bound from Theorem 4.

Because logarithm and ceiling function are used, we shall first generate a better recursive form to make it easier to deal with. For every $x \in [1, +\infty)$, let

$$f(x) = (\lfloor x \rfloor + 1 - x)f(\lfloor x \rfloor) + (x - \lfloor x \rfloor)f(\lfloor x \rfloor + 1)$$

which is the function we get connecting adjacent discrete points. Observe that
$$log_2(p+1) \le log_2 p + 1 \ (p \ge 1)$$

We can get

 $[2 \log_2(p+1)] \le 2 \log_2(p+1) + 2 \le 2 (\log_2 p+1) + 2 = 2 \log_2 p + 4 \ (p \ge 1)$, Therefore, with the help of **Lemma 4**, which will be cited every now and then without claiming in this chapter, we have

$$f(x + 2\log_2 f(x) + 4) \ge f(x + [2\log_2(f(x) + 1)])$$

$$\ge f(n + [2\log_2(f(n) + 1)])$$

$$\ge 2f(n)$$

$$> 2f(x - 1) \quad (x \ge 2, n = [x])$$

Thus, $2f(x) < f(x + 1 + 2log_2f(x + 1) + 4) \le f(x + 1 + 2(log_2f(x) + 1) + 4) = f(x + 2log_2f(x) + 7)(x \ge 1)$, because $f(x + 1) \le 2f(x)$ considering the last digit separately. The inequality has been adjusted for real number now.

Let $g(x) = \log_2 f(x)$, then we have $2^{g(x)+1} < 2^{g(x+2g(x)+7)}(x \ge 1)$, so g(x) + 1 < g(x + 2g(x) + 7).

We can prove the following theorem, which leads to a lower bound of traditional form with the help of function g.

Theorem 5 $f(x) > 2^{\sqrt{x+3}-4}$

Proof:

- Let $\{a_n\}$: $a_1 = 1$, $a_{n+1} = a_n + 2n + 7$, we will prove by induction that $g(a_n) \ge n$.
- (1) $g(a_1) = g(1) = log_2 f(1) = 1(f(1) = 2$ is quite obvious), so n = 1 holds.

(2) Assuming g(a_n) ≥ n when n = k, when n = k + 1, we have g(a_{k+1}) = g(a_k + 2k + 7) ≥ g(x + 2k + 7) = g(x + 2g(x) + 7) > g(x) + 1 = k + 1, where g⁻¹(k) = x ≤ a_k because Lemma 4 guarantees that g(x) = log₂f(x) has inversion, and g⁻¹(k) exists because f(x) for real number is continuous, which can be easily noticed considering the manipulation used.
Combining (1) and (2) gives g(a_n) ≥ n

 $: a_n = a_{n-1} + 2(n-1) + 7 = a_{n-2} + 2(n-2) + 7 + 2(n-1) + 7 = \dots = a_1 + 7(n-1) + 2(n-1+n-2+\dots+1) = n^2 + 6n + 6,$

 $\therefore f(n^2 + 6n + 6) \ge 2^n.$

Let $n^2 + 6n + 6 \le x < (n+1)^2 + 6(n+1) + 6$,

 $f(x) \ge 2^{[\sqrt{x+3}-3]} > 2^{\sqrt{x+3}-4}$, QED.

In fact, the initialization (where our recursion starts) can be updated with the data we will get from computer programs in section 2.3.5, and this can improve the lower bound somewhat.

2.3.5 Further Study of Lower Bounds

Still, the lower bound we worked out can be improved, since we can do some further refinements on the way we generate new examples from f(n) given statuses of n digits.

Our first thought on it is to use definite amount of digits to label some 'groups'. For instance, '10' and '01' can be added to two groups so that we can easily recognize whether the statuses for an union are from the same group (If not, these two digits will be '11'). And if they are, apparently we can see which group they are from as well.

If two statuses are from the same group, then the problem is already solved due to our heritage, else, as we think it will not be hard to work out what the two statuses (first n digits) are from their union (further study of this will be discussed after several paragraphs), the only problem is to see if these two are A from Group 1 and B from Group 2, or A from Group 2 and B from Group 1. This is not very difficult since the scheme below will help:

Group 1: A0, B1, C0

Group 2: A0, B0, C1

In this scheme (Assuming now we are sure these two statuses are not from the same group), not only A and B can be parted according to groups, but B and C, C and A can be parted as well. Observing that it can also be used to three groups instead of three statuses only, we can add more digits using the same method to distinguish more pairs, for different digits are independent. The example of 9 statuses using 2 digits is showed below:

Group 1: A00, B01, C00, D10, E11, F10, G00, H01, I00

Group 2: A00, B00, C01, D00, E00, F01, G10, H10, I11

In this example, If the two statuses are from different sections of (ABC), (DEF) and (GHI), they

can be distinguished with the first digit considering a group as one thing([Group1 (ABC) or Group2(DEF)] is different from [Group2(ABC) or Group1(DEF)] by the last but one digit, 'or' here means union), else they are from the same group, say, (ABC), and can be parted with the second digit. Consequently, n digits can be used to part 3^n statuses using the same manipulation somewhat similar to radix 3 representation.

Generally, this method can be carried out as follows. 3^n statuses can be numbered by radix 3 representation. Then we write those statuses twice in two groups. In the first group, we add '01' to it and then the radix 3 representation with '2' written '0' to get our Group 1(When n=2, it gives exactly the preceding example. For instance, number for C should be $(02)_3$ but as '2' is written '0', it is '00' actually). Statuses in the other group is produced similarly, we add '10' to it and the radix 3 representation where '1' is written '0' and '2' is written '1'.

Now we are nearly finished with one last problem. Considering there are some situations where a or a = a or b, we can not always tell from their union what the two statuses exactly are since they can be the same status from two groups. Hence our scheme requires statuses' unions being different from statuses themselves. This can also be satisfied by adding another digit. Define a or b=a as a 'includes' b, then we can divide all statuses into two groups, $A=\{x | x \text{ is not contained by any other statuses in our scheme} and <math>B=\{x | \text{there exists at least one status in our statuses that contains <math>x\}$. Inclusion will not exist in B since if a contains b, b contains c and b, c belongs to B, we have a or c = a = a or b, contradiction. As A's definition also forbids inclusion's existence, we can add a digit '0' to all statuses in A and a digit '1' to all statuses in B to make inclusion extinct, for statuses are all distinct, we can tell exactly what two statuses are by looking only at their union. This can also be a solution to the 'two poisons in one group' problem if we want the most precise location and are willing to pay one more mouse for it.

We have altogether used 1 digit to annihilate inclusion, 2 digits to distinguish groups and $[log_3 f(n)]$ digits to recognize status in distinct groups. Thus $f(n + 3 + [log_3 f(n)]) \ge 2f(n)$.

Using the same method in obtaining Theorem 5 from Theorem 4, we have a similar answer

which acts like $3.4^{\sqrt{x}}$ but looks more frightening. The main steps are as follows.

We generalize this inequality to real number and get

 $f(x+4+\log_3 f(x)) \ge 2f(x-1).$

Let t = x - 1 and we have

 $f(t+5+\log_3 2+\log_3 f(t)) \ge 2f(t) \text{ since } f(x+1) \le 2f(x).$

Let $g(t) = log_3 f(t)$ and we can deduce that

 $g(t+5+\log_3 2+g(t)) \ge \log_3 2+g(t).$

Let $\{a_n\}$: $a_1 = 1$, $a_{n+1} = a_n + 5 + (n+1)log_3 2$ and perform induction using the function inequality, we can get $g(a_n) \ge nlog_3 2$.

Convert it back to f(n) gives an answer similar to the one we got in the previous section but much more complex. For convenience, we take it as $f(x) \ge 3^{\sqrt{1.26x+34.1}-5.95}$.

Cite $f(20) \ge 220$ (Computer generated in section 2.3.5) and let $a_1 = 20$ to improve it (this requires x to be big enough, but because we are considering a tendency, a restriction such as

x > 20 is not big deal), we have $f(x) \ge 3^{\sqrt{1.26x+79.25}-5.95}$, which is the strongest answer we

are able to get now. The exact form of it is $f(x) \ge 3^{\sqrt{4ax+b^2-4ac}-5-3a}$, where $a = \frac{\log_{3}2}{2}$, $b = a + 5 + \log_{3}110$, and $c = 15 - 2a - \log_{3}110$.

Further generalization can also be thought of by making more groups than two. If we have m groups, there will be m digits used to distinguish which group or which two groups the statuses are from through their union. To avoid inclusion, we still need only 1 digit. Now we have the group numbers and first n digits of the two statuses, so we only need to tell apart what looks like Aa, Bb and Ab, Ba.

In fact, we have a way of requiring $[log_3f(n)][log_2m]$ more digits to do it. $[log_3f(n)]$ digits are considered a 'squad' as it is in the previous scheme, and different squads are used to compare different pairs of groups. With the first squad, we are to compare Group 1 to $\left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor$ with Group $\left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor + 1$ to m by giving the same squad we used in Group 1 in the previous scheme to the first half and that of Group 2 to the second half so that if the two statuses come from different halves, we can tell what they are exactly. Similarly, 'Group 1 notation' is adopted in the second squad of Group 1 to $\left\lfloor \frac{m}{4} \right\rfloor$ and Group $\left\lfloor \frac{m}{2} \right\rfloor + 1$ to $\left\lfloor \frac{3m}{4} \right\rfloor$ while those of the others are 'Group 2 notation', and the two statuses can be settled if their group numbers are from different groups in this manner, and so forth. The only main difference between this manipulation and the scheme we discussed previously in this section is that it uses radix 2 representation and is more

scheme we discussed previously in this section is that it uses radix 2 representation and is more confusing. Thus $\lceil log_2m \rceil$ squads are needed as they are independent. An example of 4 groups and 3 statuses is showed below.

Group 1:	A*1000 <mark>00</mark> ,	B*1000 <mark>11</mark> ,	C*1000 <mark>0</mark> 0
Group 2:	A*0100 <mark>00</mark> ,	B*0100 <mark>10</mark> ,	C*0100 <mark>01</mark>
Group 3:	A*0010 <mark>00</mark> ,	B*0100 <mark>01</mark> ,	C*0100 <mark>10</mark>
Group 4:	A*0001 <mark>00</mark> ,	B*0001 <mark>00</mark> ,	C*0001 <mark>11</mark>

In this example, '*' means the digit for inclusion and the 4 digits after it is representation of groups. The next digit acts as the first squad with which we can compare Group 1,2 with Group 3,4 and the last digit represents the second squad.

But look at the m digits for groups closely, we find it not necessary. The aim of these digits is only to tell which two groups the two statuses belong to, and we need only m + 1 digits to deal with f(m) groups (The extra '1' is for avoiding inclusion).

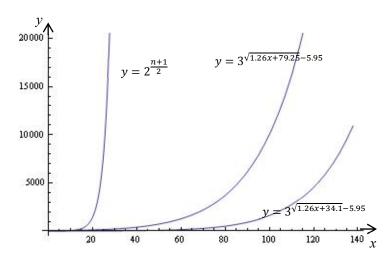
Conclusion for all above is that besides the n digits our original f(n) statuses require, we need 1 more digit to avoid inclusion, m + 1 digits to build f(m) groups (Look out! Not only m groups now!), and $\lceil log_3 f(n) \rceil \lceil log_2 f(m) \rceil$ digits to tell the exact answer. Thus we have $f(m + n + 2 + \lceil log_3 f(n) \rceil \lceil log_2 f(m) \rceil) \ge f(m)f(n)$. Take a step backward and let both logarithms have the same basis 2, and we have m and n of the same status (not 'status' in our concept). Comparing it with Coordinate-Grouping Scheme, we have m and n two independent coordinates. Hence the result can be taken as getting the exact location by refining Coordinate-Grouping Scheme. So now even the scheme with uncertainty is also connected with lower bound of f(n).

Thus still more coordinates can be added. When adding a new coordinate, we take the former

ones as a whole, and similarly we need m_i more digits for group label, 1 more digit for inclusion, and $log_3(\prod_{j=1}^{i-1} f(m_j)) log_2 f(m_i)$ digits more to avoid uncertainty as $log_3 \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} f(m_j)$ digits are considered one squad to compare two groups of 'hyper planes' now. Hence, we have

$$f[\sum_{i=1}^{p} m_i + p + \sum_{1 \le i < j \le p} \log_3 f(m_i) \log_2 f(m_j)] \ge \prod_{i=1}^{p} f(m_i)$$

This is the general situation of our lower bounds. From it, an ocean of stronger lower bounds can be made out in theory. We can also use something like n groups instead of concrete numbers. However, we still cannot break the limitation of the lower bound acting like $a^{\sqrt{x}}$ while the upper bound grows exponently, because there are multiplications of logarithms in this inequality, and a lower bound exists only when degrees of both sides are the same.



This graph shows the upper bound and the two lower bounds we got in this section. Now we have achieved the goal of finding nontrival upper bounds and lower bounds. However, the upper bound still grows much faster as it rises exponently, which means space for improvement is still huge.

2.3.6 Quantitative Computation of f(n)

This section is aimed at finding a method to compute f(n). The problem is so complicated that we can only get the precise value of f(n) for very small n, and have to use an approximate algorithm to achieve a relatively good result. In the programs, we treat statuses as binary numbers and store each status as an integer. Bitwise operation 'or' is used to calculate the union of two statuses.

For small n, we can use a brute-force method, backtracking algorithm. In each step, we start with an existing scheme and try adding statuses to it. The process is as follows: the program enumerates all the n-digit 0-1 strings as the new status, and tests if the scheme remains valid after adding this status. If so, the program adds this status to the scheme and goes on trying to add more. If no status can be added, the program deletes the status that is added last and backtracks. We start from an empty scheme, and when the program terminates, it has traversed all possible schemes. Then we pick the one that contains the most statuses as the result. The complexity would be $O(2^{nl} \times l)$, where l stands for the upper bound of the answer.

After a little bit of thinking, we find an obvious optimization. We can express each scheme as a 0/1 matrix, with each row corresponding to a status, and each column corresponding to a mouse. And the problem changes to, given the number of columns in a matrix, n, and construct as much rows as possible, under the restriction that the 'union' of each pair of rows must be different. Then, it is easy to discover that changing the order of the rows arbitrarily won't affect the validity of the matrix. So each matrix can be represented by it is 'standard form', where the rows in the matrix are sorted according to their lexicographic order, i.e. ascending order if we treat them as binary numbers. Thus, all we have to do is to find all 'standard matrices'. In the program, we guarantee that every time we try to add a status, its lexicographic order must be after all the statuses in the existing scheme. Each standard matrix stands for l! matrices, where

l is the height of the matrix. So, now the complexity would be $O(\frac{2^{nl} \times l}{n})$.

The program did all the work from n = 1 to n = 6 in roughly 1 second, while it used 62 seconds for n = 7. We tried n = 8, but for a whole day the program gave no result. (Those times are observed on a computer whose performance parameters are showed in Appendix III) It still needs optimization.

Apparently, columns in the matrix can also be sorted as rows can. While surprisingly, the rows and columns can be 'co-sorted', that is, we can rearrange the rows and columns of the matrix to obtain a 'uniform matrix', where both the rows and the columns are sorted according to their lexicographic order. In fact, we can accomplish this by performing these two operations alternatively:

a. sort the rows according to their lexicographic order if they are not already sorted

b. sort the columns according to their lexicographic order if they are not already sorted

When the process stops, we achieve our 'uniform matrix': The lexicographic order of the first row and the first column cannot get bigger after each operation, so they can only decrease and then remain unchanged after a certain time. After that time, the lexicographic order of the second row and the second column cannot get bigger, and so forth. After finite operations, the whole matrix is stable, and uniform matrix is obtained.

After introducing this optimization, we reduce the complexity to $O(\frac{2^{nl} \times l}{n! \times l!})$. Things get better, n = 7 is done within a second, and the program worked out f(8) = 13 in 1474 seconds. But for bigger n, it is still too ineffective. Since we have almost reduced the matrices that are needed to concern to minimal amount, n = 8 would be the limit for such algorithms. The results so far are:

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
f (n)	2	3	4	5	6	8	10	13

Another approach is approximate algorithm. Instead of enumerating all possible schemes, now we add statuses randomly under certain rules to construct schemes. The process is as follows: as before, we start with an empty scheme. Now for each step, we choose one status randomly from all valid statuses and add it to the scheme. If there is no status available, choose

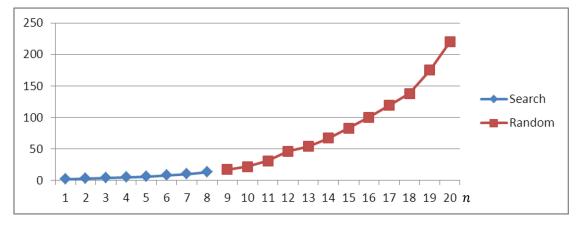
several statuses randomly from the scheme and delete them. To avoid being trapped in a bad solution, there is a counter, if the solution has not been improved for an amount of time, the process will be aborted and the program will restart from empty scheme. Besides, noticing that a status having too many '1' in it is unlikely to be part of the optimal solution, we limit the amount of '1' in a status.

We achieved the following results:

n	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
result	17	22	31	46	54	67	83	100	119	138	175	220

This program works well so far, but we can never be sure whether we have the the optimal answer or how much time we are expected to spend to get a good enough answer.

Some details in the implementation and the source code can be found in the appendix. More data of the programs such as time data of the random program are also available.



2.3.7 Informatics method and upper bound for c(n)

After this long journey of research on f(n), we should come back to c(n) in respect for our original problem. What we did can be seen as schemes of this problem, while we want a limit for such manipulations as well. Therefore in this section, we will focus on the upper bound of c(n).

Due to our using descriptions such as 'big enough', estimation of c(n) becomes quite tough as finite methods can not be performed easily. Thus we employ entropy method in informatics to solve this problem.

Assuming that we know nothing about which bottle contains the poison, which mouse will die or whatever connection between any of these events, all of these pieces of information are considered as independent random variables. Therefore we can assume that each bottle has $p = \frac{2}{x}$ possibility of being poisoned, and the possibility for whether or not a mouse will die after

the experiment is supposed $\frac{1}{2}$. As a consequence, informatic entropy for each bottle is $E_1 = -p \log_2 p - (1-p) \log_2(1-p)$ bit, the same thing for each mouse is 1 bit because mice here are considered typical dichotomous variables.

Assuming there are altogether x bottles, after the experiment x[1-c(n)] bottles of them

are confirmed safe while others are assumed totally unknown, we have x' = [1 - c(n)]x, $p' = \frac{2}{x'}$ and $E'_1 = -p' \log_2 p' - (1 - p') \log_2(1 - p')$. Informatic entropy for all medicines reduces from $E = xE_1$ to $E' = x'E'_1 = 2\log_2\frac{[1-c(n)]x}{2} + \{[1 - c(n)]x - 2\}\log_2\frac{[1-c(n)]x}{[1-c(n)]x-2}$. As the E - E' bit information is given by n mice, $n \ge E - E'$. Since x is very big, we now consider $\frac{x}{x-2}$ and $\frac{[1-c(n)]x}{[1-c(n)]x-2}$ to be 1, and a new inequality is obtained, $2\log_2[1 - c(n)] \le n$. Hence $c(n) \le 1 - 2^{-\frac{n}{2}}$.

If we suppose Grouping Method will reach this upper bound, we can get $f(n) = 2^{\frac{n+2}{2}}$, which is very similar to the upper bound. This indicates if f(n) grows exponently, Grouping Method will be a quite good manipulation in trying to solve this problem.

2.3.8 Summarization

In this chapter, we first raised **problem 3**, and introduced two methods, Grouping Method and Coordinate Scheme. Then we combine these two methods and get the Coordinate-Grouping Scheme. The more concrete **problem3**^{*} is then raised and we tried to estimate an important function f(n) in order to study it. Finally we come back to **problem 3** and gave further estimation to end the research.

The main part of this chapter is about f(n). As we can see easily, there are lots of problems left, such as the true growth rate of f(n). This function can also be generalized to, for instance, f(n, m, k, p), which means the maximum amount of bottles we are able to examine when we have n mice, m experiments, k poisons among all medicines, and will be satisfied with p bottles of them confirmed safe.

Comparing Grouping Method with Coordinate Scheme again will show some surprising facts. If we take the estimated answer by the random program as true value, Grouping Method gives

 $c(10) \ge \frac{f(10)-2}{f(10)} \approx 90.9\%$, which is a little higher in contrast to 90%, the best solution given by

more than one dimensional Coordinate-Grouping Schemes. We can also see that if f(n) grows exponently, Grouping Method divides bottles into f(n) groups and leaves only two of them hazard, while independent coordinates divides the same amount of groups since $p^a \times p^b = p^{a+b}$ (divide a + b mice into a and b two parts and let $f(n) = p^n$), but leaves more hazard groups. Hence surprisingly coordinate thought is of no use then.

Function c(n) is really too arbitrary to have a certain value, and estimation made in the previous section also ignored too much complexity. All of them need improvements somehow.

3. Conclusion

After all those three generalizations, our long journey comes to a temporary end. As a review, we began with the easiest **problem 1** and had an insight into the Radix Scheme by changing one number to variable at a time. This problem was solved completely after proving **Theorem 1**. A restriction was added to reach **problem 2**, and a new solution, Chart-Filling Method was created. This was also settled as a result of **Theorem 2** after a long proving trip, after which we raised some further problems by turning to n dimensions. Moreover, we considered the seemingly easy **problem 3**, compared and combined two schemes, Grouping Method and Coordinate Scheme, to give a not very satisfying answer. The more concrete **problem 3*** was raised accordingly, and different functions were studied. Finally, that series of problems was ended with some nontrivial theorems and arithmetics as well as a lot more conjectures.

Notice that the concept of 'status' is considered a thread of the whole passage, and our study can also be taken as studies of this concept. In the first part, our scheme considered all statuses available as well as developed further notation using radix representation. In the second part, a function of status, namely the amount of digit 1 in a status, was considered and a statistic accordingly was studied to show the structure of a set of statuses instead of all. Finally we introduced a calculation (union) of statuses, which raised other problems discussed in the third part. Therefore the three topics are related by means of 'status'.

Though these problems appear to be only puzzles, they are of importance in some other areas. For instance, if we change the rule of 'or' to 'xor' in our programs of f(n), we will reach something related to linear block codes which can correct two digits.

It is quite amazing that we have thought so much from such a simple 'mice and the poison' problem. In fact, there is a big fortune hidden behind uncomplicated facts waiting to be discovered. We not only obtained knowledge and skills but also experienced the charisma of math and enjoyment in researching after this wonderful peregrinate of mathematics.

Acknowledgement

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We feel grateful as well to our beloved parents who have always been supporting and encouraging us greatly without a word of complaint.

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Appendix I Source Code of Search Algorithm in C++

Input *n* first and this program will give f(n) and one corresponding solution in 'result.txt'.

```
#include <iostream>
#include <fstream>
using namespace std;
ifstream fin;
ofstream fout, flog;
                                             // 'f': flag array, f[i] is true if i is
bool f[1048576];
                                               // the bitwise or of some d[j] and d[k]
int d[1000],n,ans;
                                             // 'd': the current scheme
void print(){
                                             // output the current solution to file
   int i,i;
  fout.open("result.txt");
fout << n << ' ' << ans << endl;
   for (i=0;i<ans;i++){
     for (j=n-1;j>=0;j--)
        fout << (d[i]>>j)%2;
     fout << endl;
  fout.close();
}
int add(int x,int z){
                                          // decides if status x can be added
  int i;
for (i=0;i<z;i++)
                                               // and add it if so
     if (f[x|d[i]])
        return i;
     else
        f[x|d[i]]=true;
  return z;
}
void remove(int x,int p){
                                           // deletes status x
  for (p--;p>=0;p--)
f[x|d[p]]=false;
}
void search(int k,int lim,int mask){
                                                   // 'k' is the current depth
                                                   // 'lim' is for maintaining the lexicographic
                                                  // order of rows and 'mask' for columns
   int i,j,t;
   if (k>ans){
     ans=k;
     print();
  for (i=lim;i<1<<n;i++)
if ((((i | ~ (i >> 1)) | mask) & ((1 << (n-1))-1)) == ((1 << (n-1))-1)){
                                                  // a complex bitwise operation
        t=add(i,k);
                                               // try and add
        if (t==k){
           d[k]=i;
           search(k+1,i+1,mask | i ^ (i >> 1));
                                                  // recursive call
        }
                                               // delete
        remove(i,t);
     }
}
int main(){
  cin >> n;
  ans=0;
  search(0,0,0);
  return 0;
}
```

Appendix II Source Code of Random Construction in Free Pascal

This program should also have been in C++, but we are not quite familiar with the random number generator in it, so we use Free Pascal instead.

Parameters, namely n, tle, dl, bk, and zz, should be inputted in advance in 'config.txt', and the results are given in a file called 'result.txt'.

tle: the standard time which we uses for deciding whether we are in trouble and should give up the existing scheme

dl: the maximum amount of 1's in one status

bk: how many statuses will be deleted at a time

zz: total times the program will run

The names for them are the same with those in our program.

```
var
  f,f2:array[0..4194304]of boolean;
  q:array[1..4194304]of longint;
                                                           // store numbers that contains less '1'
  d:array[1..10000]of longint;
  n,i,j,t,z,h,ans,mt,ct,fc,s,bk,dl,zz,zt,tle:longint;
  fi,fo:text;
function count1(x:longint):longint;
                                          // count the number of '1's in binary representation of x
  begin
     x:=(x and $55555555)+((x shr 1) and $55555555);
     x:=(x and $33333333)+((x shr 2) and $33333333);
     x:=(x and $0F0F0F0F)+((x shr 4) and $0F0F0F0F);
     x:=(x and $00FF00FF)+((x shr 8) and $00FF00FF);
     x:=(x and $0000FFFF)+(x shr 16);
     exit(x);
  end;
function check(m:longint):boolean;
                                                            // decides if status m can be added
  var
    i,j:longint;
  begin
     for i:=1 to z do begin
       if f[m or d[i]] then begin
          for j:=1 to i-1 do
            f[m or d[j]]:=false;
          exit(false);
       end
       else f[m or d[i]]:=true;
     end:
     for i:=1 to z do
       f[m or d[i]]:=false;
     exit(true);
  end:
procedure add(m:longint);
                                                                    // adds m
  var
    i:longint;
  begin
     for i:=1 to z do
       f[m or d[i]]:=true;
     inc(z);
     d[z]:=m;
  end:
procedure delete(p:longint);
                                                                  // deletes m
  var
    i:longint;
  begin
     t:=d[p];
     d[p]:=d[z];
     d[z]:=t;
     for i:=1 to z-1 do
```

```
f[d[z] or d[i]]:=false;
     dec(z);
   end;
begin
   randomize;
assign(fi,'config.txt');
   reset(fi);
   readln(fi,n);
   readIn(fi,tle);
readIn(fi,dl);
                             // tle: the predetermined upper limit for timer
                            // dl: limit of number of '1's
                          // bk: how many statuses will be deleted at a time
// zz: total times the program will run
   readIn(fi,bk);
   readln(fi,zz);
   close(fi);
   ans:=0;
   s:=0;
   for i:=0 to (1 shl n)-1 do
     if count1(i)<=dl then begin
        inc(s);
        q[s]:=i;
     end;
   for zt:=1 to zz do begin
     fillchar(f,1 shl n,0);
     fillchar(f2,1 shl n,0);
     z:=0:
     mt:=0;
     fc:=0;
     while true do begin
        ct:=0;
        for i:=1 to s do
                                                                         // pick a random one to add
           if not f2[q[i]] then if check(q[i]) then begin
              inc(ct);
              if random(ct)=0 then h:=q[i];
           end
           else f2[q[i]]:=true;
        if ct=0 then begin
                                                                          // failed to add, delete
           for j:=1 to bk do
              if z<>0 then delete(1+random(z));
           fillchar(f2,1 shl n,0);
        end
        else add(h);
        if z>mt then begin
                                                                     // solution improved, reset timer
           mt:=z;
           fc:=0;
        end
        else begin
                                                                            // set timer
           inc(fc);
           if fc>=tle then break;
                                                                        // time out!
        end;
     end;
     if z>ans then begin
                                                                          // output
        ans:=z;
        assign(fo,'result.txt');
        rewrite(fo);
        writeln(fo,n,' ',z);
        for i:=1 to z do begin
           for j:=0 to n-1 do
              if odd(d[i] shr j) then write(fo,1)
              else write(fo,0);
           writeln(fo);
        end;
        close(fo);
     end;
   end:
end.
```

Appendix III Time data for Random Program

Computer environment (The same computer is used to achieve results in the search program): AMD Phenom 8750 2.41GHz

1.00GB RAM

Microsoft Windows XP SP3

For this program, the longer you run, the larger chance there is for you to get a better result. Also, the process is random, so it is meaningless to talk about total run time or the answer produced by a specific run. Therefore we'll present the data of the average answer given by the program and average time used for each run in order to show the average ability of our program.

tle: the standard time which we uses for deciding whether we are in trouble and should give up the existing scheme

dl: the maximum amount of 1's in one status bk here is fixed at 3, so it is omitted.

		n=9	
tle	dl	ans	time(s)
	9	11.09	0.00269
100	4	11.48	0.00131
	3	11.98	0.00081
	9	11.18	0.00466
200	4	11.46	0.00235
	3	11.97	0.00148
	9	11.27	0.00995
500	4	11.47	0.00524
	3	12.14	0.00334
	9	11.34	0.01808
1000	4	11.56	0.00983
	3	12.25	0.00622
	9	11.46	0.03451
2000	4	11.67	0.01955
	3	12.32	0.0112

n=10				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
	10	15.09	0.00577	
100	5	15.17	0.00348	
	4	15.96	0.00217	
	10	15.23	0.00993	
200	5	15.27	0.00615	
	4	15.99	0.00372	
	10	15.41	0.02105	
500	5	15.49	0.01372	
	4	16.1	0.00835	
	10	15.59	0.03905	
1000	5	15.6	0.02541	
	4	16.18	0.01597	
2000	10	15.66	0.07362	
	5	15.76	0.04844	
	4	16.22	0.02938	

n=11				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
	11	20.42	0.0135	
100	5	20.62	0.0062	
	4	22.17	0.0038	
	11	20.66	0.0231	
200	5	20.8	0.0109	
	4	22.5	0.0066	
	11	21	0.0495	
500	5	21.04	0.024	
	4	23.21	0.0149	
	11	21.17	0.0908	
1000	5	21.21	0.0459	
	4	23.57	0.0285	
	11	21.2	0.1754	
2000	5	21.18	0.0885	
	4	23.73	0.0543	

n=12				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
	12	26.64	0.0319	
100	6	26.59	0.0183	
	4	30.59	0.0069	
	12	27.3	0.0548	
200	6	27.25	0.0334	
	4	32.6	0.0126	
	12	28.12	0.12	
500	6	28.1	0.0744	
	4	35.55	0.0285	
	12	28.98	0.2265	
1000	6	28.68	0.1375	
	4	37.32	0.0502	
	12	30.05	0.4421	
2000	6	30.01	0.2739	
	4	38.75	0.0872	

n=15				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
200	7	58.41	0.374	
200	4	71.03	0.0584	
500	7	59.98	0.8206	
500	4	73.31	0.1035	
1000	7	60.71	1.4462	
	4	73.98	0.1668	
2000	7	60.86	2.5917	
	4	74.54	0.2725	

		n=13	
tle	dl	ans	time(s)
	13	34.07	0.0739
100	6	34.68	0.0347
	4	41.18	0.0126
	13	35.21	0.1302
200	6	35.3	0.0596
	4	44	0.0227
	13	35.87	0.2762
500	6	35.95	0.1313
	4	46.45	0.0433
	13	36.38	0.4934
1000	6	36.28	0.2349
	4	47.01	0.0703
	13	36.59	0.9179
2000	6	36.5	0.4312
	4	47.29	0.119

n=16			
tle	dl	ans	time(s)
500	8	76.28	2.614
500	4	89.72	0.168
1000	8	77.83	4.545
	4	90.51	0.26
2000	8	78.36	8.196
	4	91.22	0.427

n=14				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
200	7	45.41	0.1884	
200	4	56.72	0.0368	
500	7	46.54	0. 4113	
	4	58.94	0.0685	
1000	7	46.86	0.7305	
	4	59.58	0.1054	
2000	7	46.9	1.302	
	4	59.73	0.1774	

n=17				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
500	8	97.72	5.874	
500	4	108.48	0.261	
1000	8	98.79	9.73	
1000	4	109.88	0.408	
2000	8	100. 59	18.097	
	4	110.59	0.664	

n=18				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
1000	9	125.77	34.95	
	4	131.34	0.65	
2000	9	128.07	62.54	
	4	132	0.955	

n=19			
tle	dl	ans	time(s)
1000	9	158.8	77.45
	6	167.72	9.28
2000	9	161.9	156.73
	6	168.3	15.272

n=20				
tle	dl	ans	time(s)	
1000	10	198.6	250.42	
	7	210.9	39.06	
2000	10	204.6	462.32	
	7	213.4	67.69	

Appendix IV Corresponding Solutions for Quantitative Analysis of $f(n)$	

<i>n</i> =1 2	0	1			
<i>n</i> =2	00	01	10		
3 n=3	00	01	10		
4	000	001	010	100	
n =4 5	0000	0001	0010	0100	1000
n =5 6	00000 10000	00001	00010	00100	01000
<i>n</i> =6 8	000000 000011	001100 010101	011010 100110	101001	110000
n =7 10	0000000 0000011	0000101 0001001	0010010 0100100	0111000 1001000	1010100 1100010
<i>n</i> =8 13	0000000 00000011 00001100	00010101 00100110 00111000	01001001 01010010 01100000	10001010 10010000	11000100 10100001
n =9 17	100000011 011000110 000110011 000101001	101010010 000010101 010010000 000001100	$\begin{array}{c} 100011000\\ 001100000\\ 011011000\end{array}$	010110100 101000100 011000001	$\begin{array}{c} 110100000\\ 000000010\\ 010101010\end{array}$
n =10 22	0001000111 1010010100 0100001110 1101000100	1010000001 0010001101 0000100101 0100100	$\begin{array}{c} 1000000010\\ 0100000001\\ 1001100000\\ 0010100110\end{array}$	0001000100 1001001001 0010110000 0100010000	0101101000 1001010010 1000111000 0111000010
	0010011010	0000001000	10001100010	01001011000	00000111010
n =11 31	11001000001 00001001101 11000110000 01000010110	01100000101 00000110101 00011001010 10110000100	$\begin{array}{c} 00010101001\\ 00100011100\\ 00001010011\\ 01100101000 \end{array}$	10100010010 01110010000 00100001011 1000000	$\begin{array}{c} 00111100000\\ 01001100100\\ 10100100001\\ 00010100110 \end{array}$
	$\begin{array}{c} 10010010001\\ 01101000010 \end{array}$	10000101100	00000100000	01010000011	00011010100
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46	$\begin{array}{c} 100000100110\\ 100110000100\\ 001110001000$	$\begin{array}{c} 100100010010\\ 010110000001\\ 11000000011\\ 000010011100 \end{array}$	100101000001 100000110001 010000011001 000001100011	101100100000 011000100001 000000010000 10101000000	$\begin{array}{c} 100000001101\\ 010000101100\\ 011101000000\\ 010001010010 \end{array}$
	$\begin{array}{c} 000001001110\\ 110100001000\\ 101000011000 \end{array}$	011000001010 111000000100	000010100101 010100100010	001001101000 100001010100	000010010011 010100010100
<i>n</i> =13	$\begin{array}{c} 1000000100011\\ 1000110000001\\ 1000100101000\\ 11100000000$	$\begin{array}{c} 1010100000100\\ 0001000001110\\ 00010000111000\\ 1001101000000\end{array}$	0011000000101 0000100010110 0001010000011 11000000	$\begin{array}{c} 0000101000101\\ 0100000110100\\ 000110001000$	$\begin{array}{c} 0010000100110\\ 0100110000010\\ 0010001010010\\ 0010110010000\\ \end{array}$
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	0000110001100 0010100000011 0000101001010 100001001	01100100011000 0100100001001 0110010000100 001001	$\begin{array}{c} 0000010010101\\ 0001100100010\\ 000000000$	$\begin{array}{c} 1100001000010\\ 0101010010000\\ 1100100010$	100001001010000 1000010000110 0110100100

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