Discrete Mathematic

Chapter 1: Logic and Proof

1.5 Rules of Inference 1.6 Introduction to Proofs

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Agenda

- Rules of Inference
- Rules of Inference for Quantifiers

Recall...

 John is a cop. John knows first aid. Therefore, all cops know first aid





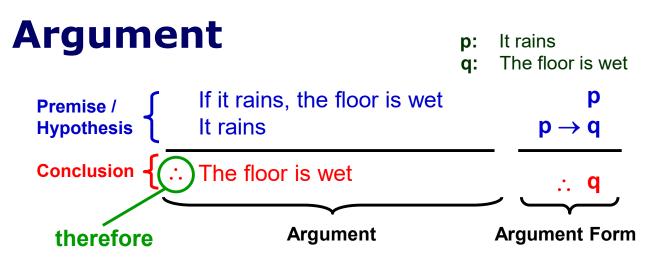


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Recall...

 Some students work hard to study. Some students fail in examination. So, some work hard students fail in examination.



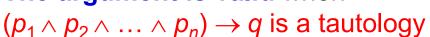


- Argument in propositional logic is a sequence of propositions
 - Premises / Hypothesis: All except the final proposition
 - Conclusion: The final proposition
- Argument form represents the argument by variables

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Argument: Valid?

- Given an argument, where
 - *p*₁, *p*₂, ..., *p*_n be the premises
 - q be the conclusion
- The argument is valid when



- When all premises are true, the conclusion should be true
- When not all premises are true, the conclusion can be either true or false

р	q	$p \rightarrow q$	
Т	Т	Т	
Т	F	F	
F	Т	Т	
F	F	Т	

Focus on this case Check if it happens 5

p₁

 p_2

pn

<u>q</u>

Argument

 Example: p → q p 	$\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{q}$ If it rains, the				nent is valid wet
\mathbf{q} . The floor is wet					
$(p \land (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$			→ q	Tautology	
Need to check if	р	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$p \land (p \rightarrow q)$	$(p \land (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$
the conclusion is	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
true or not	Т	F	F	F	Т
	F	Т	Т	F	Т
Must be true	F	F	Т	F	Т
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Rules of Inference

- How to show an argument is valid?
 - Truth Table
 - May be tedious when the number of variables is large

Rules of Inference

- Firstly establish the validity of some relatively simple argument forms, called rules of inference
- These rules of inference can be used as building blocks to construct more complicated valid argument forms

Rules of Inference

$p \rightarrow q$
$ \begin{array}{c} \ddots q \\ \neg q \\ p \rightarrow q \\ \hline \ddots \neg p \end{array} $

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Rules of Inference

Hypothetical Syllogism	$p \rightarrow q$ $q \rightarrow r$
	$\therefore \boldsymbol{p} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{r}$
Disjunctive Syllogism	ף ∨ q ¬ р
	∴ q

Rules of Inference

Addition	p	
	$\therefore p \lor q$	
Simplification	p ^ q	
	:. p	
Conjunction	p	
	<u>q</u>	
	$\therefore p \land q$	

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Rules of Inference

Resolution

 $\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{p} \lor \boldsymbol{q} \\ \neg \boldsymbol{p} \lor \boldsymbol{r} \end{array}$ $\therefore \boldsymbol{q} \lor \boldsymbol{r}$

- Example
 - I go to swim or I play tennis
 - I do not go to swim or I play football
 - Therefore, I play tennis or I play football

Rules of Inference (\rightarrow)

Modus Ponens	$((p \rightarrow q) \land (p)) \rightarrow q$
Modus Tollens	$((\neg q) \land (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$
Hypothetical Syllogism	$((p\toq)\land(q\tor))\to(\mathbf{p}\to\mathbf{r})$
Disjunctive Syllogism	$((p \lor q) \land (\neg p)) \rightarrow q$
Addition	$(p) \rightarrow p \lor q$
Simplification	$((p) \land (q)) \rightarrow p$
Conjunction	$((p) \land (q)) \to (p \land q)$
Resolution	$((p \lor q) \land (\neg p \lor r)) \rightarrow (q \lor r)$

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Recall...

Identify Laws	$ \begin{array}{l} p \wedge T \equiv p \\ p \vee F \equiv p \end{array} $
Domination Laws	
Idempotent Laws	
Negation Laws	$p \lor \neg p \equiv T$ $p \land \neg p \equiv F$
Double Negation Law	ר) = p (קר) ד
Commutative Laws	$p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$ $p \land q \equiv q \land p$
Associative Laws	$p \lor (q \lor r) \equiv (p \lor q) \lor r$ $p \land (q \land r) \equiv (p \land q) \land r$
Distributive Laws	$p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$ $p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$
Absorption Laws	$b \lor (b \lor d) \equiv b$ $b \lor (b \lor d) \equiv b$
De Morgan's Laws	$p \lor q \vDash q \equiv p \land q q$ $p \lor q = q (p \land q) \equiv q$

Comparison between Inference and Equivalence

- Inference $(p \rightarrow q)$
 - Meaning: If p, then q
 - p → q does not mean
 q → p
 - Either inference or equivalence rules can be used
 - $p \leftrightarrow q$ implies $p \rightarrow q$
 - ⇒ is used in proof

- Equivalence ($p \leftrightarrow q$)
 - Meaning: p is equal to q
 - $p \leftrightarrow q$ mean $q \leftrightarrow p$
 - Only equivalence rules can be used
 - p ↔ q can be proved by showing p → q and q → p
 - ⇔ is used in proof
- Equivalence (↔) is a more restrictive relation than Inference (→)

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Using Rules of Inference

- Example 1:
 - Given:
 - It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder than yesterday.
 - We will go swimming only if it is sunny
 - If we do not go swimming, then we will take a canoe trip
 - If we take a canoe trip, then we will be home by sunset
 - Can these propositions lead to the conclusion "We will be home by sunset" ?

Let	p:	It is sunny this afternoon	
		·····	

- q: It is colder than yesterday
- r: We go swimming
- s: We take a canoe trip
- t: We will be home by sunset

	It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder
p ^ q	than yesterday

- $\mathbf{r} \rightarrow \mathbf{p}$ We will go swimming only if it is sunny
- $\neg r \rightarrow s$ If we do not go swimming, then we will take a canoe trip
- $\mathbf{s} \rightarrow \mathbf{t}$ If we take a canoe trip, then we will be home by sunset
 - t We will be home by sunset

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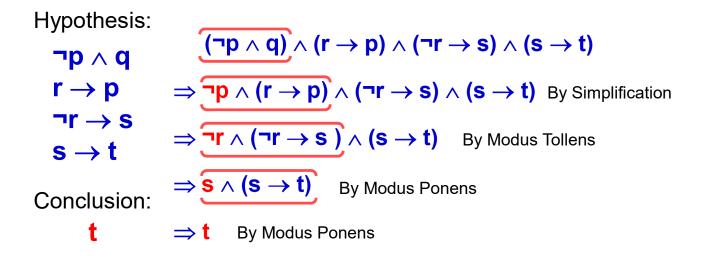
Using Rules of Inference

	Step	Reason	
	1. י p∧q	Premise	
Hypothesis:	2. יף	Simplification using (1)	
ר א ר	3. r → p	Premise	
$r \rightarrow p$	4. ¬r	Modus tollens using (2) and (3)	
r → s	5. ¬r → s	Premise	
s → t	6. s	Modus ponens using (4) and (5)	
	7. $\mathbf{s} \rightarrow \mathbf{t}$	Premise	
Conclusion:	8. t	Modus ponens using (6) and (7)	
t			

Therefore, the propositions can lead to the conclusion We will be home by sunset

Using Rules of Inference

Or, another presentation method:



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Small Exercise

• Given:

- If you send me an e-mail message, then I will finish writing the program
- If you do not send me an e-mail message, then I will go to sleep early
- If I go to sleep early, then I will wake up feeling refreshed
- Can these propositions lead to the conclusion "If I do not finish writing the program, then I will wake up feeling refreshed."

	Let p q r: s	: I will finish writing the program	
p ightarrow q		you send me an e-mail message, nen I will finish writing the program	
ר $p ightarrow r$		you do <mark>not</mark> send me an e-mail mess nen I will go to sleep early	sage,
r → s		I go to sleep early, <mark>then</mark> I will wake u eeling refreshed	dr
ר p¬	•	I do not finish writing the program, nen I will wake up feeling refreshed	

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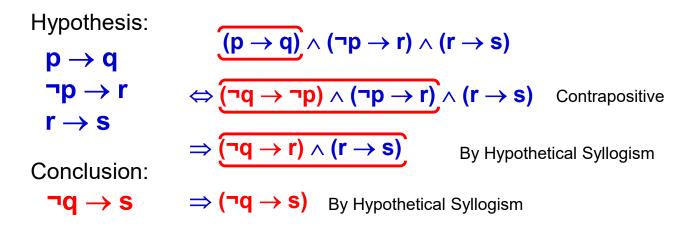
☺ Small Exercise ☺

	Ste	ep	Reason	
	1.	$\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{q}$	Premise	
Hypothesis:	2.	$q \rightarrow pr$	Contrapositive of (1)	
$p \rightarrow q$	3.	ר p → r	Premise	
ר p → r	4.	ק → r	Hypothetical Syllogism using (2) and (3)	
r→s	5.	$r \rightarrow s$	Premise	
Conclusion: □q → s	6.	q → s	Hypothetical Syllogism using (4) and (5)	

Therefore, the propositions can lead to the conclusion If I do not finish writing the program, then I will wake up feeling refreshed

Small Exercise

Or, another presentation method:





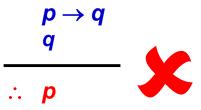
Using Rules of Inference Fallacies

Are the following arguments correct?

- Example 1 (Fallacy of affirming the conclusion) Hypothesis
 - If you success, you work hard
 - You work hard

Conclusion

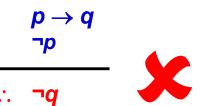
You success



- Example 2 (Fallacy of denying the hypothesis) Hypothesis
 - If you success, you work hard
 - You do not success

Conclusion

You do not work hard



Rules of Inference for Quantifiers

Universal Instantiation	Existential Instantiation
∀ <i>x P</i> (<i>x</i>)	∃ <i>x P</i> (<i>x</i>)
∴ <i>P</i> (a)	∴ <i>P</i> (<i>c</i>) for some element <i>c</i>
<i>where a</i> is a particular member of the domain	
Universal Generalization	Existential Generalization
<i>P</i> (<i>b</i>) for an arbitrary b	P(d) for some element d
∴∀ <i>x P</i> (<i>x</i>)	∴∃ <i>x P</i> (<i>x</i>)
Be noted that b that we select must be	

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Rules of Inference for Quantifiers

- Example 1
 - Given
 - Everyone in this discrete mathematics class has taken a course in computer science
 - Marla is a student in this class
 - These premises imply the conclusion
 "Marla has taken a course in computer science"

	Let	DC(x):	x studies in discrete mathematics					
		CS(x):	x studies in computer science					
		Domain of x:	student					
∀x	(DC	$S(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow \mathbf{CS}(\mathbf{x})$	 Everyone in this discrete mathematics class has taken a course in computer science 	Э				
DC	(Ma	rla)	Marla is a student in this class					
CS	(Ma	rla)	 Marla has taken a course in computer science 					

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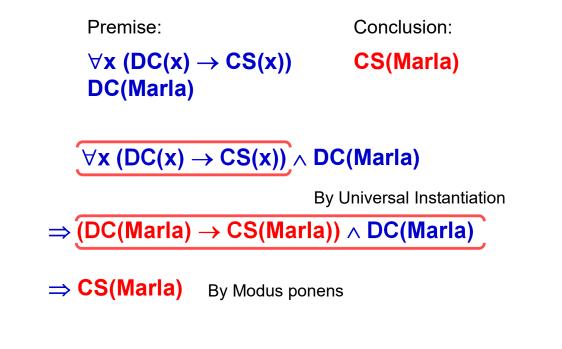
Rules of Inference for Quantifiers

	Premise:	Conclusion:			
	∀x (DC(x) → CS(x)) DC(Marla)	CS(Marla)			
Step		Reason			
1.	$\forall x (DC(x) \rightarrow CS(x))$	Premise			
2.	$DC(Marla) \rightarrow CS(Marla)$	Universal Instantiation from (1)			
3.	DC(Marla)	Premise			
4.	CS(Marla)	Modus ponens using (2) and (3)			

Therefore, the propositions can lead to the conclusion Marla has taken a course in computer science

Using Rules of Inference for Quantifiers

Or, another presentation method:



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Small Exercise

Given

- A student in this class has not read the book
- Everyone in this class passed the first exam
- These premises imply the conclusion
 "Someone who passed the first exam has not read the book"

	Let C(x): RB(x): PE(x): Domain of x:	x in this class x reads the book x passes the first exam any person			
∃ x (C(x) ∧ ¬RB(x))	 A student in this class has not read the book 			
$\forall x (C(x) \rightarrow PE(x))$		 Everyone in this class passed the first exam 			
∃ x (PE(x) ∧ ¬RB(x)	• Someone who passed the first • exam has not read the book			
We cannot define the domain as student in this class since the conclusion means anyone					
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☺ Small Exercise ☺

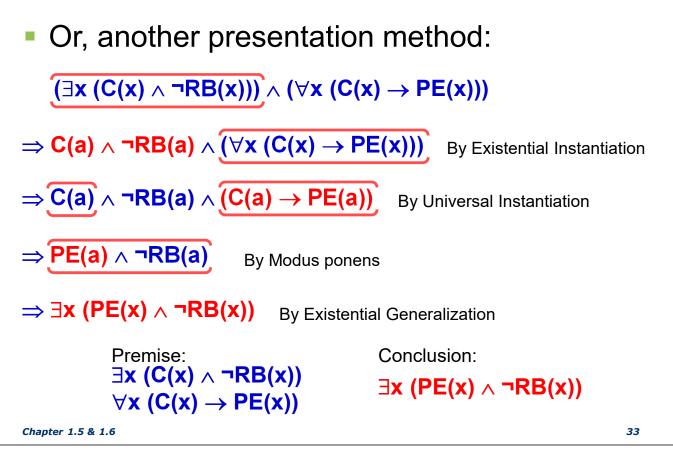
Premise: $\exists x (C(x) \land \neg RB(x))$ $\forall x (C(x) \rightarrow PE(x))$ Conclusion:

 $\exists x (PE(x) \land \neg RB(x))$

Stor	Deecen
Step	Reason
∃x (C(x) ∧ ¬RB(x))	Premise
C(a) ∧ ¬RB(a)	Existential Instantiation from (1)
C(a)	Simplification from (2)
$\forall x (C(x) \rightarrow PE(x))$	Premise
C(a) → PE(a)	Universal Instantiation from (4)
PE(a)	Modus ponens from (3) and (5)
¬RB(a)	Simplification from (2)
PE(a) ∧ ¬RB(a)	Conjunction from (6) and (7)
∃x (PE(x) ∧ ¬RB(x))	Existential Generalization from (8)

Therefore, the propositions can lead to the conclusion Someone who passed the first exam has not read the book

Small Exercise



Combining Rules of Inference

- The rules of inference of Propositions and Quantified Statements can be combined
 - Universal Modus Ponens

$$\forall x \ (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

$$P(a), \text{ where a is a particular}$$
element in the domain

Universal Modus Ponens

 $\forall x \ (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ $\neg Q(a)$, where a is a particular element in the domain

∴ ¬P(a)

 $(\forall x \ (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))) \land (P(a))$

By Universal Instantiation $\Rightarrow (P(a) \rightarrow Q(a)) \land (P(a))$ $\Rightarrow Q(a)$ By Modus Ponens

 $(\forall x \ (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))) \land (\neg Q(a))$ By Universal Instantiation $\Rightarrow (P(a) \rightarrow Q(a)) \land (\neg Q(a))$ $\Rightarrow \neg P(a)$ By Modus Tollens

Combining Rules of Inference

Example:

- Given
 - For all positive integers n,

if n is greater than 4, then n^2 is less than 2^n

is **true**.

■ Show that 100² < 2¹⁰⁰

Combining Rules of Inference

Example:

For all positive integers n, if n is greater than 4, then n² is less than 2ⁿ

> P(n): n > 4Q(n): $n^2 < 2^n$

 $\forall n \ (P(n) \rightarrow Q(n))$

P(100) (since 100 > 4)

 \therefore Q(100) (100² < 2¹⁰⁰) By Universal Modus Ponens

Summary

- What we have learnt in previous lectures?
 - Proposition
 - Operator
 - Predicates
 - Quantifier
 - Truth Table
 - Rules of Equivalence
 - Rules of Inference
- This is called the formal proof
 - very clear and precise
 - extremely long and hard to follow

Show if an argument is valid

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Informal Proofs

- Informal proofs can often explain to humans why theorems are true
 - Proof of mathematical theorems
 - Applications to computer science
- Move from formal proofs toward more informal proofs



Informal Proofs

- In practice, the proofs of theorems designed for human consumption are almost always informal proofs
 - More than one rule of inference may be used in each step
 - Steps may be skipped
 - The axioms being assumed
 - e.g. even number can be written as 2k, where k is integer
 - The rules of inference used are not explicitly stated

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Proof for Theorems

Types of Theorem

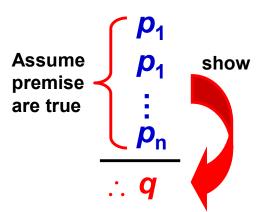
- Implication $(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$
- Equivalence $(P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x))$
- Statement (P(x))
- Type of proof
 - Universal Quantification (For all...)
 - Existential Quantification (For some...)
 - Uniqueness Quantification (Only one...)

Universal Quantification Proof for Theorems: Methods

- Implication $(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$
 - Direct Proof
 Assume P(x) is true, show Q(x) is true
 - Indirect Proof: Proof by Contraposition
 Assume -Q(x) is true and show -P(x) is true
- Equivalence $(P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x))$
 - As $P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x) \equiv (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \land (Q(x) \rightarrow P(x))$
- Statement (P(x))
 - Indirect Proof: Proof by Contradiction

Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication **Direct Proof**

- Direct proofs lead from the hypothesis of a theorem to the conclusion
 - 1. Assume the premises are true
 - 2. Show the conclusion is true



Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication Direct Proof: Example 1

Prove "If n is an odd integer, then n² is odd"

Given,

- The integer n is even if there exists an integer k such that n = 2k
- The integer n is odd
 - if there exists an integer k such that n = 2k+1

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Show If *n* is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd

- 1. Assume the hypothesis is true "n is odd" is true
 - By definition, n = 2k + 1, where k is a integer
- Show the conclusion is correct n² is odd

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

- By definition, as (2k² + 2k) is an integer we can conclude that n² is an odd integer
- Therefore, "if n is an odd integer, then n² is an odd integer" has been proved

Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication Direct Proof: Example 2

- Prove "If m and n are both perfect squares, then nm is also a perfect square"
- Given
 - An integer a is a perfect square if there is an integer b such that a = b²

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Show If m and n are both perfect squares, then nm is also a perfect square

- 1. Assume m and n are both perfect squares
 - By definition, m = a² and n = b², where a and b are integers
- 2. Show that mn is a perfect square
 - $mn = a^2b^2 = (ab)^2$, where ab is an integer
 - By the definition, we can conclude that mn is a perfect square
- Therefore, "An integer a is a perfect square if there is an integer b such that a = b²" has been proved

Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication Direct Proof: Example 3

- Prove "if n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd"
- Assume 3n + 2 is an odd integer
 - 3n + 2 = 2k + 1 for some integer k
- Show that n is odd 3n + 2 = 2k + 1 3n = 2k - 1 $n = \frac{2k - 1}{3}$



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Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication Indirect Proof

- Sometimes, direct proofs may reach dead ends
- Indirect proof may help
 - Prove theorems not directly
 - Do not start with the hypothesis and end with the conclusion

Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication: Indirect Proof **Proof by Contraposition**

Recall, contrapositive:

 $\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{q} \equiv \neg \mathbf{q} \rightarrow \neg \mathbf{p}$

- p → q can be proved by showing ¬q → ¬p is true
 - 1. Assume the conclusion is not true
 - 2. Show either one premise is not true

 $(\mathbf{p}_1 \land \mathbf{p}_2 \land \ldots \land \mathbf{p}_n) \rightarrow \mathbf{q}$

 $\equiv \neg \mathbf{q} \rightarrow \neg (\mathbf{p}_1 \land \mathbf{p}_2 \land \dots \land \mathbf{p}_n)$ $\equiv \neg \mathbf{q} \rightarrow (\neg \mathbf{p}_1 \lor \neg \mathbf{p}_2 \lor \dots \lor \neg \mathbf{p}_n)$

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Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication: Indirect Proof Proof by Contraposition: Example 1

- Prove "if n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd"
- 1. Assume the conclusion is false n is not odd
 - n = 2k, where k is an integer
- 2. Show that the premises are not correct 3n + 2 is not odd
 - 3(2k) + 2 = 6k + 2 = 2(3k + 2)
- As if n is not odd, 3n + 2 is not odd Therefore, if n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd

 $\neg \mathbf{Q} \rightarrow$

Universal Quantification: Proof of Theorems: Implication: Indirect Proof Proof by Contraposition: Example 2

- Prove "if n = ab, where a and b are positive integers, then a ≤√n or b ≤√n "
- 1. Assume a \sqrt{n} and b \sqrt{n} is true
- 2. Show $n \neq ab$
 - ab > (√n)² = n
 - Therefore, ab ≠ n
- Therefore, if n = ab, where a and b are positive integers, then a $\leq \sqrt{n}$ or b $\leq \sqrt{n}$

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☺ Small Exercise ☺

- Prove that "the sum of two rational numbers is rational"
- Given
 - The real number r is rational if there exist integers p and q with q ≠ 0 such that r = p / q
 - A real number that is not rational is called irrational

Small Exercise

Direct Proof

- Suppose that r and s are rational numbers
 r = p / q, s = t / u, where q ≠ 0 and u ≠ 0
- Show that r+s is rational number

$$r + s = \frac{p}{q} + \frac{t}{u} = \frac{pu + qt}{qu}$$

- As q ≠ 0 and u ≠ 0, qu ≠ 0
- Therefore, r + s is rational
- Therefore, direct proof succeeded

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☺ Small Exercise ☺

- Prove "if n is an integer and n² is odd, then n is odd"
- Direct proof
 - Suppose that n is an integer and n² is odd
 - Exists an integer k such that n² = 2k + 1
 - Show n is odd
 - Show (n = $\pm \sqrt{2k + 1}$) is odd
 - May not be useful

Small Exercise

Proof by contraposition

- Suppose n is not odd
 - n = 2k, where k is an integer
- Show n² is not even
 - n² = (2k)² = 4k²
 - n² is even
- Therefore, proof by contraposition succeeded

Universal Quantification **Proof of Theorems: Equivalence**

- Recall, $p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$
- To prove equivalence, we can show p → q and q → p are both true

Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems Equivalence: Example

- Prove "If n is a positive integer, then n is odd if and only if n² is odd"
- Two steps
 - 1. If n is a positive integer, if n is odd, then n² is odd (shown in slides 43)
 - 2. If n is a positive integer, if n² is odd, then n is odd (shown in slides 54)
- Therefore, it is true

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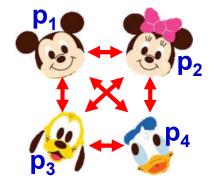
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Universal Quantification Proof of Theorems: Equivalence

- How to show p₁, p₂, p₃ and p₄ are equivalence?
 - $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2$
 - $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_3$
 - $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_4$
 - $p_2 \leftrightarrow p_3$
 - $p_2 \leftrightarrow p_4$
 - $p_3 \leftrightarrow p_4$

Not necessary

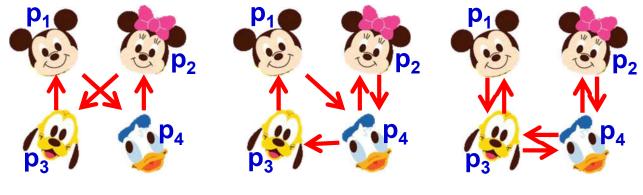
• E.g. if $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2$ and $p_2 \leftrightarrow p_3$, then $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_3$



Universal Quantification Proof of Theorems: Equivalence

 $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2 \leftrightarrow p_3 \leftrightarrow \ldots \leftrightarrow p_n$

When proving a group of statements are equivalent, any chain of conditional statements can established as long as it is possible to work through the chain to go from anyone of these statements to any other statement

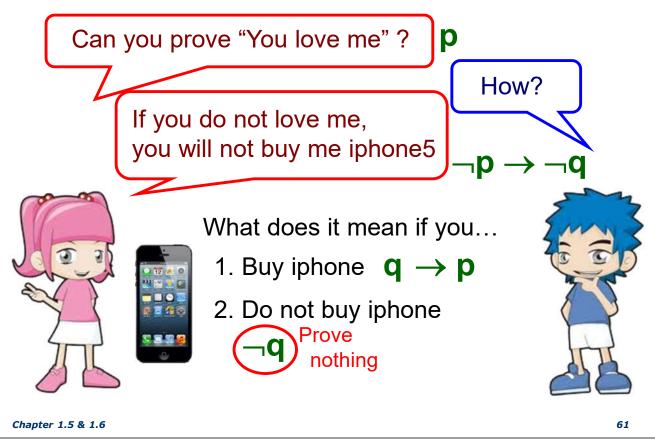


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Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems Statement: Example

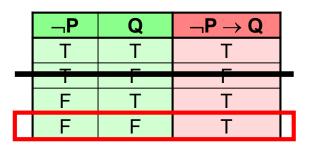


Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems Statement: Example (Correct)



Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement **Proof by Contradiction**

- By using Proof by Contradiction, If you want to show p is true, you need:
 - $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true
 - q is false



• Recall, Proof by Contradiction of $p \rightarrow q$ is $\neg p \rightarrow q$

Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement Proof by Contradiction

- Procedures of Proof by Contradiction to prove p is correct :
 - 1. Understand the meaning of $\neg p$
 - 2. Find out what $\neg p$ implies ($\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true)
 - 3. Show that q is not correct

Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement Proof by Contradiction: Example 1

• Prove $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Not "if... then..." format Only one statement

- **1.** Understand the meaning of $\neg p$
 - $\sqrt{2}$ is rational
- 2. Find out what ¬p implies

If $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, there exist integers p and q with

- $\sqrt{2}$ = p / q, where p and q have no common factors
 - So that the fraction p / q is in lowest terms

3. Show that q is not correct

Show "there exist integers p and q with $\sqrt{2} = p / q$ " is not true

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q

Show "there exist integers p and q with $\sqrt{2} = p / q$ " is not true

$$\sqrt{2} = p / q$$
 , where $q \neq 0$
 $2q^2 = p^2$

- p² is an even number
- If p² is even, so p = 2a, and a is an integer

- q is also even
- As p and q are even, they have a common factor
 2, which leads the contradiction
- Therefore, " $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational" is true

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Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement Proof by Contradiction: Example 2

Show that at least four of any 22 days must fall on the same day of the week.

July								
W	S	F	S					
19						1	2	
20	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
21	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
22	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
24	31							

Let p: "At least four of 22 chosen days fall on the same day of the week."

1. Understand the meaning of $\neg p$

At most three of 22 chosen days fall on the same day of the week

2. Find out what ¬p implies

As at most three day fall on the same week day, therefore a week should have at least 22 / 3 days

3. Show that q is not correct

A week only has 7 days, therefore, q is not correct

Therefore, p is correct

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Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement **Proof by Contradiction**

- Proof by Contradiction can also be used to show $P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ (implication)
- Let S(x) : P(x) → Q(x) and prove S(x) is correct
 - $S(x) : P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$
 - $(\neg S(x)) \rightarrow (P(x) \land \neg Q(x))$ is true
 - $P(x) \land \neg Q(x)$ is false

$$\neg S(x)$$

= $\neg (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$
= $\neg (\neg P(x) \lor Q(x))$
= $P(x) \land \neg Q(x)$

Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement **Proof by Contradiction: Example 3**

- Show "If 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd"
 Be noted that proof by contraposition can be used (shown in slide 50)
- Let P(n): Q(3n+2) → Q(n), where Q(n) : "n is odd"
- $\neg P(n)$ implies:

$$\neg P(n) \equiv \neg(Q(3n+2) \rightarrow Q(n))$$
$$\equiv \neg(\neg Q(3n+2) \lor Q(n))$$
$$\equiv Q(3n+2) \land \neg Q(n)$$

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Universal Quantification: Methods of Proving Theorems: Statement **Proof by Contradiction: Example 3**

- ¬P(n) implies "Q(3n+2) ∧ ¬Q(n)"
 - ¬<mark>Q(n)</mark> imply...
 - n is even, n = 2k, where k is integer
 - 3n+2 = 3(2k)+2 = 2(3k+1)
 - Therefore, 3n+2 is even (¬Q(3n+2))
 - Q(3n+2) ∧ ¬Q(3n+2) is false
 - Therefore, ¬P(n) must be false
 - Therefore,
 - $Q(3n+2) \rightarrow Q(n)$ is true

Universal Quantification Exhaustive Proof and Proof by Cases

- Sometimes, a theorem cannot be proved easily using a single argument that holds for all possible cases
- Rather than considering ($p \rightarrow q$) directly, we can consider different cases separately
- This argument is named Proof by Cases:

$$(p_1 \lor p_2 \lor \ldots \lor p_n) \to q$$

$$\equiv [(p_1 \to q) \land (p_2 \to q) \land \ldots \land (p_n \to q)]$$

• E.g. $x^2 \ge 0$, we can x < 0, x = 0 and x > 0

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Universal Quantification Exhaustive Proof

- Exhaustive Proofs
 - Prove all the possibilities
 - Example
 - Prove that (n + 1)³ > 3ⁿ if n is a positive integer with n ≤ 4
 - Prove all the possibilities: n = 1, 2, 3 and 4

Universal Quantification Exhaustive Proof: Example 1

- Prove that (n + 1)³ ≥ 3ⁿ if n is a positive integer with n ≤ 4
 - When n = 1 LHS: (n + 1)³ = 8 RHS: 3ⁿ = 3 LHS > RHS

When n = 2 LHS: (n + 1)³ = 27 RHS: 3ⁿ = 9 LHS > RHS

When n = 3 LHS: (n + 1)³ = 64 RHS: 3ⁿ = 27 LHS > RHS When n = 4 LHS: (n + 1)³ = 125 RHS: 3ⁿ = 81 LHS > RHS

• Therefore, $(n + 1)^3 > 3^n$ is valid

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Universal Quantification Exhaustive Proof: Example 2

- Given
 - An integer is a perfect power if it equals n^a, where a is an integer greater than 1
- Prove that the only consecutive positive integers not exceeding 100 that are perfect powers are 8 and 9
 - By exhaustive proof, list all the perfect powers not exceeding 100

	n=1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
a=2	1	4	9	16	25	36	49	64	81	100
3	1	8	27	64						
4	1	32	81							
5	1	64								
>5	1									

• Therefore, only 8 and 9 are consecutive

Universal Quantification Proof by Cases

- Drawback of Exhaustive Proofs is to check only a relatively small number of instances of a statement
- Proof by Cases
 - Prove all situations
 - Example
 - Prove that if n is an integer, then $n^2 > n$
 - Prove all the situations: n is positive, equal and negative

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Universal Quantification Proof by Cases: Example 1

• Prove that if n is an integer, then $n^2 \ge n$

```
When n \ge 1

n^2 = n \ge n \ge n \ge 1 = n, therefore n^2 \ge n

When n = 0

n^2 = n = 0, therefore, n^2 = n

When n \le -1
```

 $n^2 > 0$ and n < 0, therefore $n^2 \ge n$

Therefore, this theorem is valid

Universal Quantification Proof by Cases: Example 2

 Use a proof by cases to show that | x y | = |x| |y|, where x and y are real numbers

(Recall $|\mathbf{a}| = \mathbf{a}$, when $\mathbf{a} \ge 0$; $|\mathbf{a}| = -\mathbf{a}$ when $\mathbf{a} < 0$)

When $x \ge 0$ and $y \ge 0$ When x < 0 and $y \ge 0$ |x y| = x y = |x| |y||x y| = -x y = (-x) (y) = |x| |y|

When $x \ge 0$ and y < 0When x < 0 and y < 0

|x y| = -x y = (x) (-y) = |x| |y| |x y| = x y = (-x) (-y) = |x| |y|

Therefore, this theorem is valid

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Existence Proofs

- We will focus on the theorems which are assertions that objects of a particular type exist (∃)
 - A theorem of this type is a proposition of the form ∃x P(x), where P is a predicate
 - The proof of this proposition is Existence Proof

By finding an element a such that P(a) is true

Existence Proofs

- Example:
 - Show that there is a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways

After considerable computation (such as a computer search), we find that

 $1729 = 10^3 + 9^3 = 12^3 + 1^3$

An example is given, the proof is done

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Uniqueness Proof

- The theorems which assert the existence of a unique element with a particular property will be discussed
- The **two parts** of a uniqueness proof are:
 - Existence (An element with the property exists)
 - Show that an element x with the property exists
 - Uniqueness (No other element has this property)
 - Show that if $y \neq x$, y does not have the property.
- Equivalently, we can show that if x and y both have the desired property, then x = y

$$\exists x (P(x) \land \forall y (P(y) \rightarrow (y = x)))$$

Existence Uniqueness

Uniqueness Proof: Example

Show that if a and b are real numbers and a ≠ 0, then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0

Existence Part

- The real number t = -b / a is a solution of ar + b = 0 because a(-b/a) + b = -b + b = 0
- Consequently, a real number t exists for which at + b = 0

Uniqueness Part

Suppose that s is a real number such that as + b = 0

at + b = as + b t is - b / aat = as a is nonzerot = s

• This means that if $s \neq t$, then $as + b \neq 0$

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Tips

DO NOT over simplify the proof

- "Obviously" or "clearly" in proofs indicate that steps have been omitted that the author expects the reader to be able to fill in
- Unfortunately, this assumption is often not warranted
- We will assiduously try to avoid using these words and try not to omit too many steps
- However, if we included all steps in proofs, our proofs would often be too long

