

CS215 DISCRETE MATH

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Important Logical Equivalences

Identity laws

Domination laws

Idempotent laws



Important Logical Equivalences

Double negation laws

$$\Diamond \neg (\neg p) \equiv p$$

Commutative laws

$$\diamond p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$$

$$\diamond p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

Associative laws

$$\diamond (p \lor q) \lor r \equiv p \lor (q \lor r)$$

$$\diamond (p \land q) \land r \equiv p \land (q \land r)$$



Important Logical Equivalences

Distributive laws

$$\diamond p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$$

$$\diamond p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$$

De Morgan's laws

Others



Using Logical Equivalences

Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.



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Example: Show that $\neg(p \oplus q)$ is equivalent to $p \leftrightarrow q$.



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Example: Show that $\neg(p \oplus q)$ is equivalent to $p \leftrightarrow q$.

Proof:
$$\neg(p \oplus q) \equiv \neg((p \land \neg q) \lor (\neg p \land q))$$
 Definition
$$\equiv \neg(p \land \neg q) \land \neg(\neg p \land q)$$
 De Morgan's
$$\equiv (\neg p \lor \neg \neg q) \land (\neg \neg p \lor \neg q)$$
 De Morgan's
$$\equiv (\neg p \lor q) \land (p \lor \neg q)$$
 Double Negation
$$\equiv (p \to q) \land (q \to p)$$
 Useful
$$\equiv p \leftrightarrow q$$
 Definition



Summary of Quantified Statements

■ When $\forall x P(x)$ and $\exists x P(x)$ are true and false?

Statement	When true?	When false?
∀x P(x)	P(x) true for all x	There is an x where P(x) is false.
∃x P(x)	There is some x for which P(x) is true.	P(x) is false for all x.



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• Suppose that the elements in the universe can be enumerated as x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n then:

```
\Diamond \forall x \ P(x) is true whenever P(x_1) \land P(x_2) \land \ldots \land P(x_n) is true \Diamond \exists x \ P(x) is true whenever P(x_1) \lor P(x_2) \lor \ldots \lor P(x_n) is true.
```



Properties of Quantifiers

■ The truth values of $\exists x \ P(x)$ and $\forall x \ P(x)$ depend on both the propositional function P(x) and the universe.



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Example:
$$P(x) - "x < 2"$$

universe: the positive integers

$$\exists x \ P(x) - \mathsf{T}, \ \forall x \ P(x) - \mathsf{F}$$

universe: the negative integers

$$\exists x \ P(x) - \mathsf{T}, \ \forall x \ P(x) - \mathsf{T}$$

 \diamond universe: $\{3, 4, 5\}$ $\exists x P(x) - F, \forall x P(x) - F$



Precedence of Quantifiers

■ The quantifiers \forall and \exists have *higher precedence* than all the logical operators.

$$\diamond \forall x \ P(x) \lor Q(x)$$
 means $(\forall x \ P(x)) \lor Q(x)$ rather than $\forall x \ (P(x) \lor Q(x))$



Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.

universe: SUSTech students

translation: $\forall x \; Smart(x)$



Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.

♦ universe: SUSTech students

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♦ universe: all students

translation: $\forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))$



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Q: What about this? \forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))
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Q: What about this? $\forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$ This means every student is at SUSTech and is smart!

 \diamond universe: people translation: $\forall x \ (Student(x) \land At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))$



Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.

v universe: all SUSTech affiliates

translation: $\exists x \; Smart(x)$



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Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.

♦ universe: all SUSTech affiliates

translation: $\exists x \; Smart(x)$

♦ universe: people

translation: $\exists x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$

Q: What about this?

```
\exists x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))
```

This is even true if there is anyone who is not at SUSTech!



Sentence: Nothing is perfect.

 \diamond translation: $\neg \exists x \ Perfect(x)$



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\diamond translation: \neg \exists x \; Perfect(x)
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```
\diamond translation: \forall x \neg Perfect(x) (Everything is imperfect.)
```



Sentence: Nothing is perfect.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \exists x \; Perfect(x)
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 \diamond translation: $\forall x \neg Perfect(x)$ (Everything is imperfect.)

Conclusion: $\neg \exists x \ P(x)$ is equivalent to $\forall x \ \neg P(x)$



Sentence: Not all horses are white.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \forall x \; (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))
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♦ translation: \exists x \; (Horse(x) \land \neg White(x))
(There is a horse that is not white.)
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Sentence: Not all horses are white.

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- ♦ translation: $\exists x \; (Horse(x) \land \neg White(x))$ (There is a horse that is not white.)
- \diamond logically equivalent to $\exists x \neg (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$



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- ♦ translation: $\exists x \; (Horse(x) \land \neg White(x))$ (There is a horse that is not white.)
- \diamond logically equivalent to $\exists x \neg (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$

Conclusion: $\neg \forall x \ P(x)$ is equivalent to $\exists x \ \neg P(x)$



Negation of Quantified Statements

a.k.a. De Morgan laws for quantifiers

Negation	Equivalent Statement	When Is Negation True?	When False?
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	For every x , $P(x)$ is false.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
$\neg \ \forall x \ P(x)$	$\exists x \ \neg P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.	P(x) is true for every x .



More than one quantifier may be necessary to capture the meaning of a statement in the predicate logic.



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- \diamond a real number is denoted by x and its negative as y
- \diamond a predicate P(x, y) denotes "x + y = 0"



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Example 1: "Every real number has its corresponding negative."

- \diamond a real number is denoted by x and its negative as y
- \diamond a predicate P(x, y) denotes "x + y = 0"

$$\forall x \exists y \ P(x,y)$$



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Example 2: "There is a person who loves everybody."



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- ⋄ variables x and y denote people
- \diamond a predicate L(x, y) denotes "x loves y"



More than one quantifier may be necessary to capture the meaning of a statement in the predicate logic.

Example 2: "There is a person who loves everybody."

- ⋄ variables x and y denote people
- \diamond a predicate L(x, y) denotes "x loves y"

$$\exists x \forall y \ L(x,y)$$



■ The order of nested quantifiers matters if quantifiers are of different type.



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Example: $\forall x \exists y \ L(x,y) \not\equiv \exists y \forall x \ L(x,y)$

 $\diamond L(x, y)$ denotes "x loves y"



The order of nested quantifiers matters if quantifiers are of different type.

Example: $\forall x \exists y \ L(x,y) \not\equiv \exists y \forall x \ L(x,y)$

- $\diamond L(x, y)$ denotes "x loves y"
- $\diamond \forall x \exists y \ L(x,y)$: Everybody loves somebody.
- $\Diamond \exists y \forall x \ L(x,y)$: There is someone who is loved by everyone.



The order of nested quantifiers does no matter if quantifiers are of the same type.



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Example:
$$\forall x \forall y \ (Parent(x, y) \rightarrow Child(y, x))$$

 \diamond For all x and y, if x is a parent of y then y is a child of x



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Suppose that variables x, y denote people, and L(x, y) denotes x loves y.

Translate:

- Everybody loves Raymond.
- Everybody loves somebody.
- There is somebody whom everybody loves.
- There is somebody whom Raymond doesn't love.
- There is somebody whom no one loves.



• Suppose that variables x, y denote people, and L(x, y) denotes x loves y.

Translate:

- \diamond Everybody loves Raymond. $\forall x \ L(x, Raymond)$
- \diamond Everybody loves somebody. $\forall x \exists y \ L(x, y)$
- There is somebody whom everybody loves.

$$\exists y \forall x \ L(x,y)$$

There is somebody whom Raymond doesn't love.

$$\exists y \ \neg L(Raymond, y)$$

There is somebody whom no one loves.

$$\exists y \forall x \neg L(x, y)$$



Suppose that variables x, y denote people, and L(x, y) denotes x loves y.

Translate:

- \diamond Everybody loves Raymond. $\forall x \ L(x, Raymond)$
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There is somebody whom no one loves.

$$\exists y \forall x \neg L(x, y)$$

There is exactly one person whom everybody loves.



• Suppose that variables x, y denote people, and L(x, y) denotes x loves y.

Translate:

- \diamond Everybody loves Raymond. $\forall x \ L(x, Raymond)$
- \diamond Everybody loves somebody. $\forall x \exists y \ L(x, y)$
- ♦ There is somebody whom everybody loves.

$$\exists y \forall x \ L(x,y)$$

There is somebody whom Raymond doesn't love.

$$\exists y \ \neg L(Raymond, y)$$

There is somebody whom no one loves.

$$\exists y \forall x \ \neg L(x,y)$$

There is exactly one person whom everybody loves.

$$\exists y (\forall x L(x, y) \land \forall z (\forall x L(x, z) \rightarrow z = y))$$



Quantifications of Two Variables

Statement	When True?	When False
$\forall x \forall y P(x, y)$ $\forall y \forall x P(x, y)$	P(x,y) is true for every pair x,y .	There is a pair x , y for which $P(x,y)$ is false.
$\forall x \exists y P(x,y)$	For every x there is a y for which $P(x,y)$ is true.	There is an x such that $P(x,y)$ is false for every y.
$\exists x \forall y P(x,y)$	There is an x for which $P(x,y)$ is true for every y .	For every x there is a y for which $P(x,y)$ is false.
$\exists x \exists y P(x, y)$ $\exists y \exists x P(x, y)$	There is a pair x , y for which $P(x,y)$ is true.	P(x,y) is false for every pair x,y



Negating Nested Quantifiers

■ Sentence: for every real number x, there exists a real number y such that xy = 1.



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■ Sentence: for every real number x, there exists a real number y such that xy = 1.

$$\diamond \forall x \exists y \ (xy = 1)$$



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There are infinitely many prime numbers.



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Example:

- A straight line segment can be drawn joining any two points.
- A theorem is a statement that can be proved to be true.

Example:

- There are infinitely many prime numbers.
- A lemma is a statement that can be proved to be true, and is used in proving a theorem or proposition.



Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A 131 (2015) 61-70



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Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A

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Difference balanced functions and their generalized difference sets



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Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A 131 (2015) 61-70



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Lemma 3.1. (See [16].) For q = p prime, every difference balanced function f from $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*$ to \mathbb{F}_p must be balanced, or an affine shift of a balanced function.

Remark 3.2. Without loss of generality, we may always assume that a difference balanced function f from $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*$ to \mathbb{F}_p is balanced (otherwise, replace f by f-b for a suitable $b \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$).

By Lemma 3.1, (1,t) is a multiplier of D implies that $D^{(1,t)} = (a_t,0)D$ for some $a_t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*$ by the balance property. Then the equivalence relation in Theorem 2.2 could be formulated as follows for q = p prime.

Corollary 3.3. Suppose that $D := \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*\} \subseteq G = (\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*, \cdot) \times (\mathbb{F}_p, +), \text{ where } f : \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^* \to \mathbb{F}_p \text{ is difference balanced. Then } (1, t) \text{ is a multiplier of } D \text{ for every } t \in \mathbb{F}_p^* \text{ if and only if } f \text{ is a d-homogeneous function for some } d \text{ with } \gcd(d, p - 1) = 1.$



Journal of Combinatorial Theory, Series A 131 (2015) 61-70

Theorem 3.5. Let $D = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*\}$ be a difference set satisfying (2.1) in the group $G = N_2 \times N_1$, where $N_2 = (\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^*, \cdot)$, $N_1 = (\mathbb{F}_p, +)$ and p is a prime. Then (1, t) is a multiplier of D for every $t \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$.

Proof. We may assume that f is balanced, see Remark 3.2: Note that the difference sets defined by f and by affine shifts f - b admit the same multipliers. Let $w = (p^n - 1)p$, let ζ_p be a complex p-th root of unity, and ζ_{p^n-1} be a complex $(p^n - 1)$ -st root of unity. In the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p, \zeta_{p^n-1}]$, the prime ideal (p) decomposes as $(p) = (\pi_1 \dots \pi_v)^{\phi(p)}$, where the π_i 's are distinct prime ideals and $v = \phi(p^n - 1)/n$ (see [12]). If χ is a character of $N_2 \times N_1$ and $1 \le t \le p - 1$, then

$$\chi((x,y)^{(1,t)}) = \chi(x,ty) \equiv \chi(x,y) \pmod{p},$$

since the ring automorphism induced by $\zeta_p \mapsto \zeta_p^t$ and $\zeta_{p^n-1} \mapsto \zeta_{p^n-1}$ fixes the ideals π_i (see [12], again). Therefore by (2.2), we have

$$\chi(D^{(1,t)})\chi(D^{(-1)}) \equiv \chi(D)\chi(D^{(-1)}) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^n}$$



■ To show the truth value of such a statement following from other statements, we need to provide a correct supporting argument (proof)



To show the truth value of such a statement following from other statements, we need to provide a correct supporting argument (proof)

- Important questions:
 - ♦ Why is the argument correct?
 - ♦ How to construct a correct argument?



Typically, a theorem looks like this:

$$(p_1 \land p_2 \land \ldots \land p_n) \rightarrow q$$
premises conclusion



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$$(p_1 \land p_2 \land \ldots \land p_n) \rightarrow q$$
premises conclusion

Example: (Fermat's little theorem)

 \diamond If p is a prime and a is an integer not divisible by p, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.



Formal Proofs

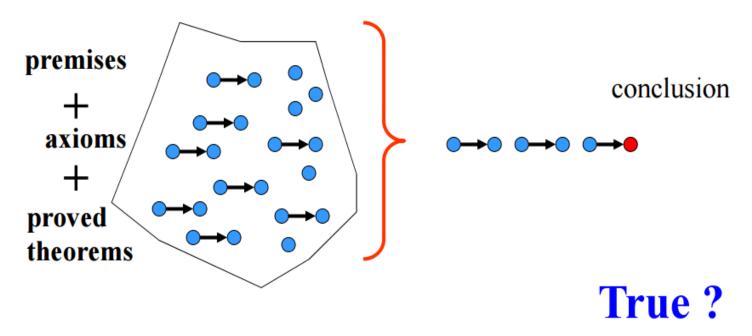
A proof provides an argument supporting the validity of the statement, and may use premises, axioms, lemmas, results of other theorems, etc.

In *formal proofs*, steps follow logically from the set of premises, axioms, lemmas, and other theorems.



Formal Proofs

- A proof provides an argument supporting the validity of the statement, and may use premises, axioms, lemmas, results of other theorems, etc.
- In formal proofs, steps follow logically from the set of premises, axioms, lemmas, and other theorems.





Using Logical Equivalence Rules

Proofs based on logical equivalences): A proposition can be transformed using a sequence of equivalence rewrites until some conclusion can be reached.



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Proofs based on logical equivalences): A proposition can be transformed using a sequence of equivalence rewrites until some conclusion can be reached.

Example: Show that $(p \land q) \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.

Proof:
$$(p \land q) \rightarrow p \equiv \neg(p \land q) \lor p$$
Useful $\equiv (\neg p \lor \neg q) \lor p$ De Morgan's $\equiv (\neg q \lor \neg p) \lor p$ Commutative $\equiv \neg q \lor (\neg p \lor p)$ Associative $\equiv \neg q \lor T$ Negation $\equiv T$ Domination



- Allow us to infer new true statements from existing true statements.
- Represent logically valid inference patterns



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- Represent logically valid inference patterns
- modus ponens (law of detachment) 肯定前件式

$$p o q$$
 corresponding tautology: $p o (p \wedge (p o q)) o q$



- Allow us to infer new true statements from existing true statements.
- Represent logically valid inference patterns
- modus ponens (law of detachment) 肯定前件式

```
p 	o q corresponding tautology: p 	o (p \wedge (p 	o q)) 	o q
```

Example:

```
p – "It is raining." q – "I will study discrete math." p \to q – "If it is raining, then I will study discrete math." q – "It is raining." q – "Therefore, I will study discrete math."
```



■ modus tollens 否定后件式

$$p o q$$
 corresponding tautology: $\neg q$ $(\neg q \land (p o q)) o \neg p$

■ hypothetical syllogism 假言三段论



■ disjunctive syllogism 选言三段论

$$\begin{array}{ccc} p \lor q & \text{corresponding tautology:} \\ \hline \neg p & (\neg p \land (p \lor q)) \to q \\ \hline \vdots & q & \end{array}$$

Addition

Simplication



Conjunction

Resolution



"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."

Show that all these lead to a conclusion:

♦ We will be home by sunset.



"It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder than yesterday."

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```
p – It is sunny this afternoon.
```

q – It is colder than yesterday.

r – We will go swimming.

s – We will take a canoe trip.

 31 ± 7 We will be home by sunset.



"It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder than yesterday."

$$\neg p \land q$$

"We will go swimming only if it is sunny."

$$r \rightarrow p$$

"If we do not go swimming then we will take a canoe trip."

$$\neg r \rightarrow s$$

"If we take a canoe trip, then we will be home by sunset."

$$s \rightarrow t$$

Show that all these lead to a conclusion:

 \diamond We will be home by sunset. t

```
p – It is sunny this afternoon.
```

q – It is colder than yesterday.

r – We will go swimming.

s – We will take a canoe trip.

 31 ± 3 We will be home by sunset.



■ Translation:

- \diamond premises: $\neg p \land q$, $r \rightarrow p$, $\neg r \rightarrow s$, $s \rightarrow t$
- ♦ conclusion: t



■ Translation:

```
\diamond premises: \neg p \land q, r \rightarrow p, \neg r \rightarrow s, s \rightarrow t
```

♦ conclusion: t

Proof:

\mathbf{Step}	Reason
1. $\neg p \land q$	Premise
$2. \neg p$	Simplification using (1)
$3. r \rightarrow p$	Premise
$4. \ \neg r$	Modus tollens using (2) and (3)
5. $\neg r \rightarrow s$	Premise
6. s	Modus ponens using (4) and (5)
7. $s \to t$	Premise
$\frac{8}{2}$	Modus ponens using (6) and (7)
リー フ	



Universal Instantiation (UI)

$$\frac{\forall x P(x)}{\therefore P(c)}$$

Universal Generalization (UG)

$$P(c)$$
 for an arbitrary c
 $\therefore \forall x P(x)$

Existential Instantiation (EI)

$$\exists x P(x)$$

 $\therefore P(c)$ for some element c

Existential Generalization (EG)

$$P(c)$$
 for some element c
 $\therefore \exists x P(x)$



"A student in this class has not read the book."

"Everyone in this class passed the first exam."

Show that all these lead to a conclusion:

Someone who passed the first exam has not read the book.



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Show that all these lead to a conclusion:

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```
C(x) - x is in this class.
```

$$B(x) - x$$
 has read the book.

$$P(x) - x$$
 passed the first exam.



"A student in this class has not read the book."

$$\exists x (C(x) \land \neg B(x))$$

"Everyone in this class passed the first exam."

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

Show that all these lead to a conclusion:

Someone who passed the first exam has not read the book.

$$\exists x (P(x) \land \neg B(x))$$

$$C(x) - x$$
 is in this class.

$$B(x) - x$$
 has read the book.

$$P(x) - x$$
 passed the first exam.



Translation:

```
\diamond premises: \exists x (C(x) \land \neg B(x)), \ \forall x (C(x) \rightarrow P(x))
```

 \diamond conclusion: $\exists x (P(x) \land \neg B(x))$



Translation:

- \diamond premises: $\exists x (C(x) \land \neg B(x)), \forall x (C(x) \rightarrow P(x))$
- \diamond conclusion: $\exists x (P(x) \land \neg B(x))$

Proof:

Step

- 1. $\exists x (C(x) \land \neg B(x))$
- 2. $C(a) \wedge \neg B(a)$
- C(a)
- 4. $\forall x (C(x) \to P(x))$
- 5. $C(a) \rightarrow P(a)$
- 6. P(a)
- 7. $\neg B(a)$
- 9. $\exists x (P(x) \land \neg B(x))$ EG from (8)

Reason

Premise

EI from (1)

Simplification from (2)

Premise

UI from (4)

MP from (3) and (5)

Simplification from (2)

8. $P(a) \wedge \neg B(a)$ Conj from (6) and (7)



Informal Proofs

- Proving theorems in practice:
 - ⋄ The steps of the proofs are not expressed in any formal language of logic.
 - ♦ One must always watch the *consistency* of the argument made, logic and its rules can often help us to decide the soundness of the argument.



Informal Proofs

- Proving theorems in practice:
 - ⋄ The steps of the proofs are not expressed in any formal language of logic.
 - ♦ One must always watch the *consistency* of the argument made, logic and its rules can often help us to decide the soundness of the argument.
- We use (informal) proofs to illustrate different methods of proving theorems.



Methods of Proving Theorems

- Basic methods to prove theorems:
 - ♦ direct proof
 - $-p \rightarrow q$ is proved by showing that if p is true then q follows
 - proof by contrapositive
 - show the contrapositive $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
 - proof by contradiction
 - show that $(p \land \neg q)$ contradicts the assumptions
 - proof by cases
 - give proofs for all possible cases
 - proof of equivalence
 - $-p \leftrightarrow q$ is replaced with $(p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$



Direct Proof

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Example: Prove that "if n is odd, then n^2 is odd"



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Example: Prove that "if n is odd, then n^2 is odd"

Proof:

Assume that (the hypothesis is true, i.e., n is odd) n = 2k + 1 where k is an integer.

Then

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

Therefore, n^2 is odd.



Proof by Contrapositive

ightharpoonup p
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Example: Prove that "if 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd"

Proof:

Assume that n is even, i.e., n=2k, where k is an integer. Then

$$3n + 2 = 3(2k) + 2 = 2(3k + 1).$$

Therefore, 3n + 2 is even.



Proof by Contradiction

Assume that p is true but q is false $(p \land \neg q)$. Then show a contradiction to p, or $\neg q$, or other settled results.



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Example: Prove that "if 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd"

Proof:

Assume that 3n + 2 is odd and n is even, i.e., n = 2k, where k is an integer. Then

$$3n + 2 = 3(2k) + 2 = 2(3k + 1).$$

Thus, 3n + 2 is even. This is a contradiction to the assumption that 3n + 2 is odd. Therefore, n is odd.



■ We want to show $(p_1 \lor p_2 \lor \ldots \lor p_n) \to q$. This is equivalent to $(p_1 \to q) \land (p_2 \to q) \land \ldots \land (p_n \to q)$. Why?



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$$\equiv \neg (p_1 \lor p_2 \lor \dots \lor p_n) \lor q$$

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Example: Prove that "|x||y| = |xy| for real numbers x, y"



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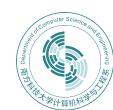
$$\equiv (p_1 \to q) \land (p_2 \to q) \land \dots \land (p_n \to q)$$

Example: Prove that "|x||y| = |xy| for real numbers x, y"

Proof: Four cases:

$$0 < x \ge 0, y \ge 0$$

 $0 < x \ge 0, y < 0$
 $0 < x < 0, y \ge 0$
 $0 < x < 0, y < 0$



Proof of Equivalences

■ To prove " $p \leftrightarrow q$ ", show $(p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$.



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■ To prove " $p \leftrightarrow q$ ", show $(p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$.

Example: Prove that "An integer n is odd if and only if n^2 is odd"

Proof:

- \diamond proof of $p \rightarrow q$: direct proof
- \diamond proof of $q \rightarrow p$: proof by contrapositive



Vacuous Proof

■ To prove $p \rightarrow q$, suppose that p (the hypothesis) is always false, then $p \rightarrow q$ is always true.



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Example: P(n) – "if n > 1 then $n^2 > n$ ". Show that P(0)

Proof: Since the premise 0 > 1 is always false. Thus P(0) is true.



Trivial Proof

■ To prove $p \rightarrow q$, suppose that q (the conclusion) is always true, then $p \rightarrow q$ is always true.



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■ To prove $p \rightarrow q$, suppose that q (the conclusion) is always true, then $p \rightarrow q$ is always true.

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Trivial Proof

■ To prove $p \rightarrow q$, suppose that q (the conclusion) is always true, then $p \rightarrow q$ is always true.

Example: P(n) – "if $a \ge b$ then $a^n \ge b^n$ ". Show that P(0)

Proof: Since the conclusion $a^0 \ge b^0$ is always true. Thus P(0) is true.



Proofs with Quantifiers

Universally quantified statements

- prove the property holds for all examples
 - proof by cases to divide the proof into different parts
- ♦ counterexamples
 - disprove universal statements



Proofs with Quantifiers

Existence proof

- ♦ constructive
 - find a specific example to show the statement holds
- ♦ nonconstructive
 - proof by contradiction



Prove that " $\sqrt{2}$ is *irrational*". (*rational numbers* are those of the form $\frac{m}{n}$, where m, n are integers.)



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Proof:

Suppose that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational. Then there exist two integers m and n such that $\gcd(m,n)=1$ and $\sqrt{2}=m/n$. We have then $m^2=2n^2$. It then follows that m is even. Let m=2k for some integer k. It then follows that $n^2=2k^2$. Hence, n is also even. This means $\gcd(m,n)$ must have a factor 2, which contradicts to the assumption that $\gcd(m,n)=1$.



Prove that "There are infinitely many prime numbers".



Prove that "There are infinitely many prime numbers".

Proof:

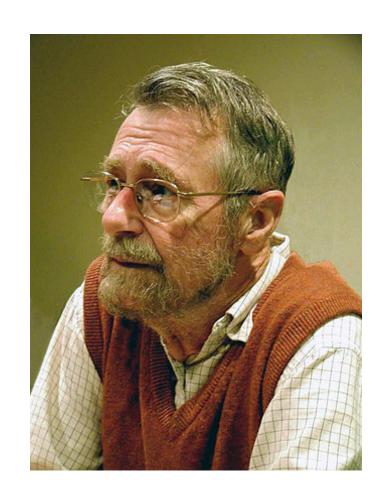
Suppose that there are only a finite number of primes. Then some prime number p is the largest of all the prime numbers, and we can list the prime numbers in ascending order:

$$2, 3, 5, 7, 11, \ldots, p$$
.

Let $n = (2 \times 3 \times 5 \times \cdots \times p) + 1$. Then n > 1, and n cannot be divided by any prime number in the list above. This means that n is also a prime. Clearly, n is larger than all the primes in the list above. This is contrary to the assumption that all primes are in the list



Words from Dijkstra



Edsger W. Dijkstra (1930–2002)

-"... mathematical logic is and must be the basis for software design... mathematical analysis of designs and specifications have become central activities in computer science research."



Next Lecture

sets, functions ...

