

Theorems and Proofs

Discrete Mathematics

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Previous Lecture

- Quantifiers and compound statements
- Definitions, rules, and theorems
- Universe and interpretations
- Equivalent predicates
- Equivalent quantified statements
- Quantifiers and conjunction/disjunction

More Equivalences

● $\forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \Leftrightarrow (\forall x P(x)) \wedge (\forall x Q(x))$

Prove!

● $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$ is not equivalent to $(\forall x P(x)) \vee (\forall x Q(x))$

Find a counter-example!

Much More Equivalences

- If $\Phi \Leftrightarrow \Psi$ is a pair of logically equivalent compound statements, and $\Phi(x)$, $\Psi(x)$ denote the open compound statements obtained from Φ and Ψ by replacing every propositional variable occurring in these statements (p, q, r, \dots) with open statements ($P(x), Q(x), R(x), \dots$). Then

$$\forall x \Phi(x) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \Psi(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \exists x \Phi(x) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \Psi(x)$$

$$p \wedge (q \vee r) \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \quad \text{distributive law}$$

$P(x)$
 $Q(x)$
 $R(x)$

$$\forall x (P(x) \wedge (Q(x) \vee R(x))) \Leftrightarrow \forall x ((P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \vee (P(x) \wedge R(x)))$$

Much More Equivalences (cntd)

- $\exists x \neg(P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x (\neg P(x) \vee \neg Q(x))$

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q$$

DeMorgan's law

- $\exists x (P(x) \vee (Q(x) \vee R(x))) \Leftrightarrow \exists x ((P(x) \vee Q(x)) \vee R(x))$

$$p \vee (q \vee r) \Leftrightarrow (p \vee q) \vee r$$

associativity

- $\forall x (P(x) \vee (P(x) \wedge Q(x))) \Leftrightarrow \forall x P(x)$

$$p \vee (p \wedge q) \Leftrightarrow p$$

absorption law

- $\forall x (P(x) \vee \neg P(x)) \Leftrightarrow T$

Quantifiers and Negation

- As we saw $\forall x P(x)$ is false if and only if there is a such that $P(a)$ is false.

This means that $\neg(\forall x P(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \neg P(x)$

- Similarly, $\neg(\exists x P(x)) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \neg P(x)$

“Not all lions are fierce” \Leftrightarrow “There is a peaceful lion”

“Not all people like coffee” \Leftrightarrow “Some people don’t like coffee”

“There is no number such that $a^2 = -1$ ” \Leftrightarrow “For all numbers $a^2 \neq -1$ ”

Multiple Quantifiers and Equivalences

- Logic equivalences for statements with multiple quantifiers are similar to those with one quantifier.

- $\forall x \forall y (P(x) \wedge (Q(y) \vee R(x,y))) \Leftrightarrow$
 $\forall x \forall y ((P(x) \wedge Q(y)) \vee (P(x) \wedge R(x,y)))$
- $\exists x \forall y \neg(P(x,y) \wedge Q(y,x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \forall y (\neg P(x,y) \vee \neg Q(y,x))$
- $\exists x \exists y \exists z (P(x) \vee (Q(y) \vee R(z))) \Leftrightarrow$
 $\exists x \exists y \exists z ((P(x) \vee Q(y)) \vee R(z))$
- $\neg(\exists x \forall y P(x,y)) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \exists y \neg P(x,y)$
- $\neg(\forall x \exists y \forall z P(x,y,z)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \forall y \exists z \neg P(x,y,z)$

Permutation of Quantifiers

● As is easily seen

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

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

Indeed, $\forall x \forall y P(x,y)$ means that whatever values a,b from the universe are $P(a,b)$ is true. Statement $\forall y \forall x P(x,y)$ means exactly the same.

For $\exists x \exists y P(x,y) \iff \exists y \exists x P(x,y)$ the argument is similar.

Permutation of Quantifiers (cntd)

● However, statements

$$\forall x \exists y P(x,y) \quad \text{and} \quad \exists y \forall x P(x,y)$$

are not equivalent

Let $P(x,y)$ mean “ y is the mother of x ”

Then $\forall x \exists y P(x,y)$ means “Everyone has a mother”

While $\exists y \forall x P(x,y)$ can be translated as

“There is a person who is the mother of everyone”



What is a Theorem?

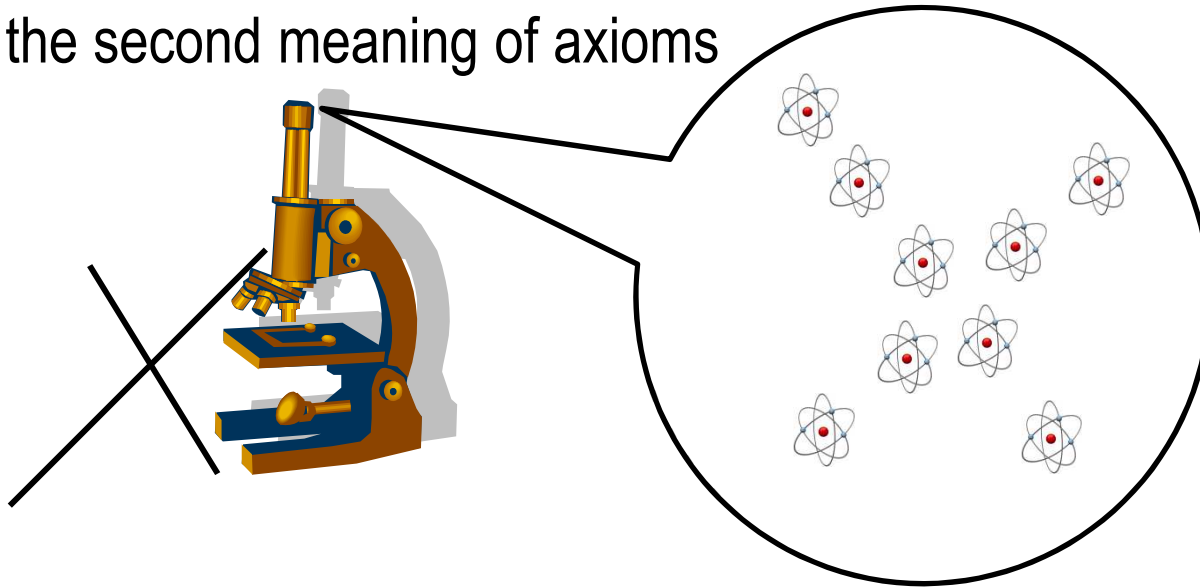
- The word ‘theorem’ is understood in two ways
- First, a theorem is a mathematical statement of certain importance
 - “Every statement is equivalent to a certain CNF”
 - “A quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ has at most 2 solutions”
- Second, a theorem is any statement inferred within an **axiomatic theory**
 - “Prove that the computer chip design is correct”

Axioms

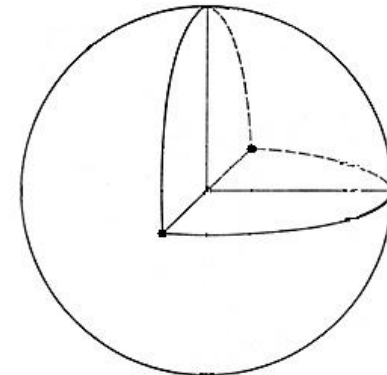
- In both cases, to infer a theorem we need to start with something.
- Such starting point is a collection of **axioms**
- Two understandings of axioms:
 - self evident truth
 - ``Two non-parallel lines intersect''
 - ``There is something outside me''
 - statements we assume as true, facts from experiment or observation, something we suggest and want to see implications

Axioms (cntd)

- Self evident truths are usually not quite truths, so we are left with the second meaning of axioms



- For any two points there is only one line that goes through them



Proving Theorems

- To prove theorems we use rules of inference.
Usually implicitly
- In axiomatic theories it is done explicitly:
 - Specify axioms
 - Specify rules of inference
- Elementary geometry is an axiomatic theory.
- Axioms are Euclid's postulates

Proving Theorems

- We know rules of inference to reason about propositional statements. What about predicates and quantified statements?
- The simplest method is the method of exhaustion:
 - To prove that $\forall x P(x)$, just verify that $P(a)$ is true for all values a from the universe.
 - To prove that $\exists x P(x)$, by checking all the values in the universe find a value a such that $P(a)$ is true

“Every car in lot C is red”

“There is a blue car in lot C”

Rule of Universal Specification

- Reconsider the argument

Every man is mortal.

Socrates is a man.

\therefore Socrates is mortal

- In symbolic form it looks like

$$\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$
$$P(\text{Socrates})$$

$$\therefore Q(\text{Socrates})$$

where

$P(x)$ stands for x is a man, and

$Q(x)$ stands for x is mortal

Rule of Universal Specification (cntd)

- If an open statement becomes true for all values of the universe, then it is true for each specific individual value from that universe

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

- Example

Premises: $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)), \quad P(\text{Socrates})$

Step	Reason
1. $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)),$	premise
2. $P(\text{Socrates}) \rightarrow Q(\text{Socrates}),$	rule of universal specification
3. $P(\text{Socrates})$	premise
4. $Q(\text{Socrates})$	modus ponens

Rule of Universal Generalization

- Let us prove a theorem:

If $2x - 6 = 0$ then $x = 3$.

- Proof

Take any number c such that $2c - 6 = 0$. Then $2c = 6$, and, finally $c = 3$. As c is an arbitrary number this proves the theorem.

Q.E.D

- Look at the first and the last steps.
 - In the first step instead of the variable we start to consider its **generic value**, that is a value that does not have any specific property that may not have any other value in the universe
 - In the last step having proved the statement for the generic value we conclude that the universal statement is also true

Rule of Universal Generalization (cntd)

- If an open statement $P(x)$ is proved to be true when x is assigned by any arbitrary chosen (generic) value from the universe, then the statement $\forall x P(x)$ is also true.
- Example: “If $2x - 6 = 0$ then $x = 3$.”
- Notation: $P(x)$ - “ $2x - 6 = 0$ ”, $Q(x)$ - “ $2x = 6$ ”, $R(x)$ - “ $x = 3$ ”
- Premises: $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)), \forall x (Q(x) \rightarrow R(x))$
- Conclusion: $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow R(x))$,

Step	Reason
1. $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)), \forall x (Q(x) \rightarrow R(x))$	premises
2. $P(c) \rightarrow Q(c), Q(c) \rightarrow R(c),$	rule of univ. specification
3. $P(c) \rightarrow R(c)$	rule of syllogism
4. $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$	rule of univ. generalization

Existential Rules

- Rule of Existential Specification.

If $\exists x P(x)$ is true in a given universe, then there is value a in this universe with $P(a)$ true.

- Rule of Existential Generalization.

If $P(a)$ is true for some value a in a given universe, then $\exists x P(x)$ is true in this universe.

Homework

Exercises from the Book:

No. 5, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17 (page 116-117)