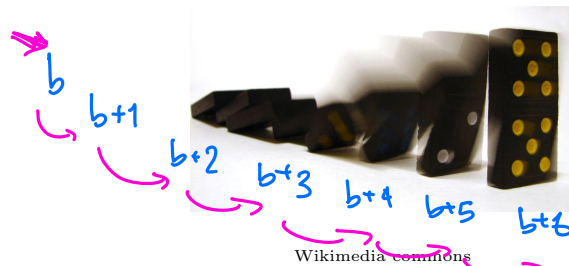


Monday November 8

Visualizing induction



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Proof by Mathematical Induction

To prove a universal quantification over the set of all integers greater than or equal to some base integer b ,

Basis Step: Show the property holds for b . *Tapping the first domino*

Recursive Step: Consider an arbitrary integer n greater than or equal to b , assume (as the **induction hypothesis**) that the property holds for n , and use this and other facts to prove that the property holds for $n + 1$.

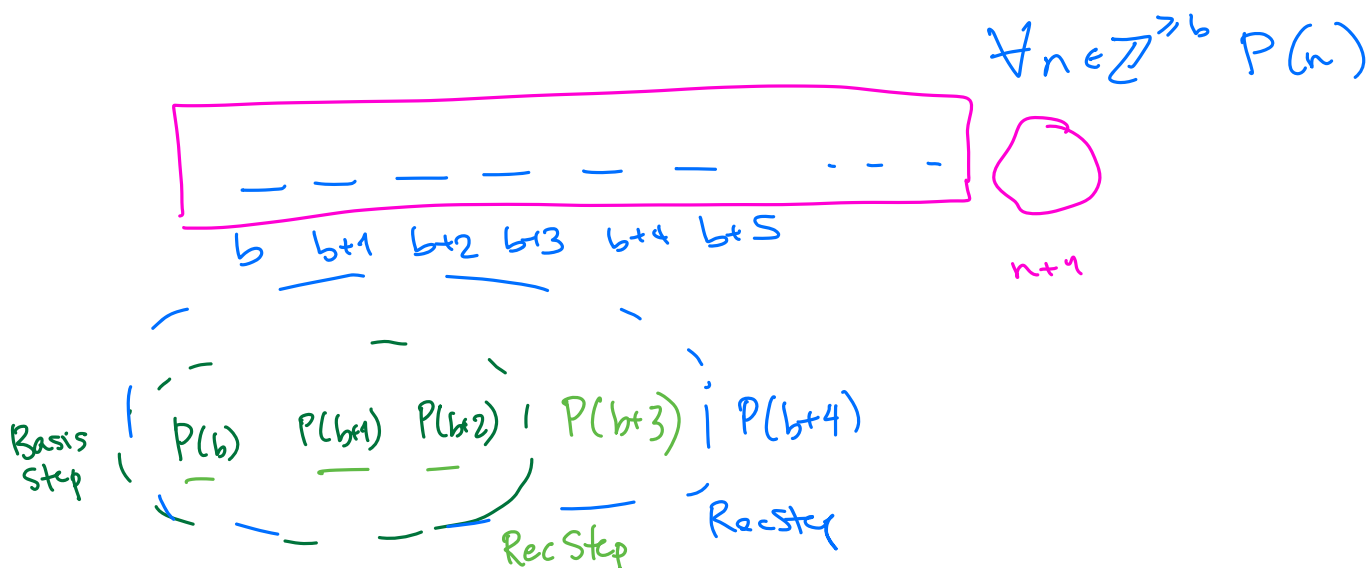
Dominoes are close so that one falling will cause next domino to fall

Proof by Strong Induction

To prove that a universal quantification over the set of all integers greater than or equal to some base integer b holds, pick a fixed nonnegative integer j and then:

Basis Step: Show the statement holds for $b, b + 1, \dots, b + j$.

Recursive Step: Consider an arbitrary integer n greater than or equal to $b + j$, assume (as the **strong induction hypothesis**) that the property holds for each of $b, b + 1, \dots, n$, and use this and other facts to prove that the property holds for $n + 1$.



Theorem: Every positive integer is a sum of (one or more) distinct powers of 2. *Binary expansions exist!*


Recall the definition for binary expansion:

Definition For n a positive integer, the **binary expansion** of n is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} n \text{ div } 2 & \xrightarrow{\quad} & n \text{ mod } 2 \\ & \searrow \quad \swarrow & \\ & (a_{k-1} \cdots a_1 a_0)_b & \end{array}$$

where k is a positive integer, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1} are each 0 or 1, $a_{k-1} \neq 0$, and

$$n = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_i b^i$$


Most significant first: 

The idea in the “Least significant first” algorithm for computing binary expansions is that the binary expansion of half a number becomes part of the binary expansion of the number of itself. We can use this idea in a proof by strong induction that binary expansions exist for all positive integers n .

Proof by strong induction, with $b = 1$ and $j = 0$.

Basis step: WTS property is true about 1.

Need to show is that 1 can be expressed as a sum of distinct powers of 2. *smallest int in domain* *extra basis steps.* *existential*

Since $1 = 2^0$ we have a witness sum (of 1 term) of distinct powers of 2 that equals 1 

Recursive step: Consider an arbitrary integer $n \geq 1$.


$$\left(\cdots \downarrow \cdots n \right) \frac{?}{n+1}$$

Assume (as the strong induction hypothesis, IH) that the property is true about each of $1, \dots, n$.

WTS that the property is true about $n+1$.

Idea: We will apply the IH to $(n+1) \text{ div } 2$.

Why is this ok? Need to check that $(n+1) \text{ div } 2$ is an integer and is between 1 and n inclusive.

- int 
- $(n+1) \text{ div } 2 \geq 1$ because $n \geq 1$. . .
- $(n+1) \text{ div } 2 \leq n$ because . . .

Why is this helpful?

By the IH, we can write $(n+1) \text{ div } 2$ as a sum of powers of 2. In other words, there are values a_{k-1}, \dots, a_0

such that each a_i is 0 or 1, $a_{k-1} = 1$, and

$$(a_{k-1} \dots a_0)_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_i 2^i = (n+1) \text{ div } 2$$

Alg :
 $n+1 = (a_{k-1} \dots a_0 C_0)_2$
 (n+1) div 2
 (n+1) mod 2

Define the collection of coefficients

$$c_j = \begin{cases} a_{j-1} & \text{if } 1 \leq j \leq k \\ (n+1) \text{ mod } 2 & \text{if } j = 0 \end{cases}$$

Calculating:

$$\sum_{j=0}^k c_j 2^j = c_0 + \sum_{j=1}^k c_j 2^j = c_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_{i+1} 2^{i+1}$$

re-indexing the summation

$$= c_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_{i+1} 2^i$$

factoring out a 2 from each term in the sum

$$= c_0 + 2 \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a_i 2^i$$

expressing (n+1) div 2 as sum of distinct powers of 2

by definition of c_{i+1}

$$= c_0 + 2 \cdot ((n+1) \text{ div } 2)$$

by IH

$$= ((n+1) \text{ mod } 2) + 2 \cdot ((n+1) \text{ div } 2)$$

by definition of c_0

$$= n+1$$

by definition of long division

Thus, $n+1$ can be expressed as a sum of powers of 2, as required.

Representing positive integers with primes

primes are integers greater than 1 whose only pos factors are 1 and themselves.

Theorem: Every positive integer greater than 1 is a product of (one or more) primes.

Before we prove, let's try some examples:

$$20 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5$$

$$100 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$$

$$5 = 5$$

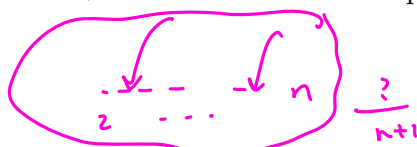
Proof by strong induction, with $b = 2$ and $j = 0$.

$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 2}$ (n is a product of primes.)

Basis step: WTS property is true about 2.

Since 2 is itself prime, it is already written as a product of (one) prime.

Recursive step: Consider an arbitrary integer $n \geq 2$. Assume (as the strong induction hypothesis, IH) that the property is true about each of $2, \dots, n$. WTS that the property is true about $n+1$: We want to show that $n+1$ can be written as a product of primes. Notice that $n+1$ is itself prime or it is composite.



Case 1: assume $n + 1$ is prime and then immediately it is written as a product of (one) prime so we are done.

Case 2: assume that $n + 1$ is composite so there are integers x and y where $n + 1 = xy$ and each of them is between 2 and n (inclusive). Therefore, the induction hypothesis applies to each of x and y so each of these factors of $n + 1$ can be written as a product of primes. Multiplying these products together, we get a product of primes that gives $n + 1$, as required.

$$(p_1 \cdots p_x) \cdot (p_{x+1} \cdots p_n)$$

Since both cases give the necessary conclusion, the proof by cases for the recursive step is complete.

Sending old-fashioned mail with postage stamps

Suppose we had postage stamps worth 5 cents and 3 cents. Which number of cents can we form using these stamps? In other words, which postage can we pay?

11? Yes we use one 5¢ and two 3¢

15? Yes we use three 5¢ stamps.

4? No using zero get 0¢ no good.
use one get 3¢ or 5¢ no good.
use two get 6¢ or 8¢ or 10¢ no good.

$$CanPay(0) \wedge \neg CanPay(1) \wedge \neg CanPay(2) \wedge$$

$$CanPay(3) \wedge \neg CanPay(4) \wedge CanPay(5) \wedge CanPay(6)$$

$$\neg CanPay(7) \wedge \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 8} CanPay(n)$$

need induction

where the predicate $CanPay$ with domain \mathbb{N} is

$$CanPay(n) = \exists x \in \mathbb{N} \exists y \in \mathbb{N} (5x + 3y = n)$$

Proof (idea): First, explicitly give witnesses or general arguments for postages between 0 and 7. To prove the universal claim, we can use mathematical induction or strong induction.

Approach 1, mathematical induction: if we have stamps that add up to n cents, need to use them (and others) to give $n + 1$ cents. How do we get 1 cent with just 3-cent and 5-cent stamps?

Either take away a 5-cent stamps and add two 3-cent stamps,

or take away three 3-cent stamps and add two 5-cent stamps.

The details of this proof by mathematical induction are making sure we have enough stamps to use one of these approaches.

Approach 2, strong induction: assuming we know how to make postage for all smaller values (greater than or equal to 8), when we need to make $n + 1$ cents, add one 3 cent stamp to however we make $(n + 1) - 3$ cents.

The details of this proof by strong induction are making sure we stay in the domain of the universal when applying the induction hypothesis.

extra basis steps.

$$n+1 = 7$$

$$6 = (\quad)$$

$$\underline{7 \text{ div } 2} = 3 \neq 6$$

\nwarrow

$$3 = (\overset{a_1, a_0}{11})_2$$

shift

$$(\overset{a_1, a_0}{11} \text{ — })_2$$

$c_2 \ c_1 \ c_0$

$(n+1) \bmod 2$
 $7 \bmod 2 = 1$

Review

1.

In class, we proved the theorem that: Every positive integer is a sum of (one or more) distinct powers of 2.

What's wrong with the following *attempted* proof of this fact?

Attempted proof by mathematical induction, with $b = 1$.

Basis step: WTS 1 can be written as a sum of (one or more) distinct powers of 2. Since $1 = 2^0$, we are done.

Recursive step: Consider an arbitrary integer $n \geq 1$. By the IH, we can write n as a sum of distinct powers of 2. Since $1 = 2^0$, it is a power of 2 and we can add it as a term to this sum of powers of 2. When we do so, the terms sum to $n + 1$ and we are done.

- (a) The basis step is not sufficient.
- (b) The induction hypothesis is not stated correctly.
- (c) It's wrong to say that 1 is a power of 2.
- (d) Adding the 2^0 to the sum of powers doesn't give the correct value.
- (e) Adding the 2^0 to the sum of powers is problematic for a different reason.

2.

Recall that a prime factorization is a product of primes (potentially with some of the primes occurring more than once). Select all and only the correct prime factorizations of positive integers.

- (a) $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2$
- (b) 3
- (c) $3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5$
- (d) $17 \cdot 21$
- (e) $2 \cdot 11$

3. In this question, we'll consider two possible proofs of the statement

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 8} \exists x \in \mathbb{N} \exists y \in \mathbb{N} (5x + 3y = n)$$

(a) First approach, using mathematical induction ($b = 8$).

Basis step: WTS property is true about 8. Consider the witnesses $x = 1, y = 1$. These are nonnegative integers and $5 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 1 = 8$, as required.

Recursive step: Consider an arbitrary $n \geq 8$. Assume (as the induction hypothesis, IH) that there are nonnegative integers x, y such that $n = 5x + 3y$. WTS that there are nonnegative integers x', y' such that $n + 1 = 5x' + 3y'$. We consider two cases, depending on whether any 5 cent stamps are used for n .

Case 1: Assume $x \geq 1$ (we assume that at least one 5 cent stamp is used for n). Define $x' = x - 1$ and $y' = y + 2$ (both in \mathbb{N} by case assumption).

Calculating:

$$\begin{aligned} 5x' + 3y' &\stackrel{\text{by def}}{=} 5(x - 1) + 3(y + 2) = 5x - 5 + 3y + 6 \\ &\stackrel{\text{rearranging}}{=} (5x + 3y) - 5 + 6 \\ &\stackrel{\text{IH}}{=} n - 5 + 6 = n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Case 2: Assume $x = 0$. Therefore $n = 3y$, so since $n \geq 8$, $y \geq 3$. Define $x' = 2$ and $y' = y - 3$ (both in \mathbb{N} by case assumption). Calculating:

$$\begin{aligned} 5x' + 3y' &\stackrel{\text{by def}}{=} 5(2) + 3(y - 3) = 10 + 3y - 9 \\ &\stackrel{\text{rearranging}}{=} 3y + 10 - 9 \\ &\stackrel{\text{IH and case}}{=} n + 10 - 9 = n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Since the goal has been proved from each case, the proof by cases is complete and we have proved the recursive step. \square

Why was the recursive step split into two cases?

- i. Because there are two variables x and y that need witnesses.
- ii. Because the statement has alternating quantifiers \forall and \exists
- iii. Because the witness values need to be nonnegative and subtraction may lead to negative values.
- iv. Because the domain is all integers greater than or equal to 8.
- v. Because there are two steps in the recursive definition of \mathbb{N}

(b) Second approach, by strong induction ($b = 8$ and $j = 2$)

Basis step: WTS property is true about 8, 9, 10

- Consider the witnesses $x = 1, y = 1$. These are nonnegative integers and $5 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 1 = 8$, as required.
- Consider the witnesses $x = 0, y = 3$. These are nonnegative integers and $5 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 3 = 9$, as required.
- Consider the witnesses $x = 2, y = 0$. These are nonnegative integers and $5 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 0 = 10$, as required.

Recursive step: Consider an arbitrary $n \geq 10$. Assume, as the strong induction hypothesis, that the property is true about each of $8, 9, 10, \dots, n$. WTS that there are nonnegative integers x', y' such that $n + 1 = 5x' + 3y'$.

Since Blank 1, by the strong induction hypothesis, there are nonnegative integers x, y such that $(n + 1) - 3 = 5x + 3y$. Choosing Blank 2 works because

$$5x' + 3y' = 5x + 3y + 3 = (n + 1) - 3 + 3 = n + 1.$$

Choose a true and useful statement to fill in Blank 1.

- i. $n \geq 10$ and hence $(n + 1) - 3 \geq 8$
- ii. $n \geq 8$ and hence $(n + 1) - 3 \geq 8$
- iii. $n \geq 8$ and hence $(n + 1) \geq 9$

Choose the appropriate statement to fill in Blank 2.

- i. $x' = x, y' = y$
- ii. $x' = x + 1, y' = y + 1$
- iii. $x' = x + 1, y' = y$
- iv. $x' = x, y' = y + 1$
- v. $x' = x - 1, y' = y - 1$
- vi. $x' = x - 1, y' = y$
- vii. $x' = x, y' = y - 1$

Wednesday November 10

Finding a winning strategy for a game

Consider the following game: two players start with two (equal) piles of jellybeans in front of them. They take turns removing any positive integer number of jellybeans at a time from one of two piles in front of them in turns.

The player who removes the last jellybean wins the game.

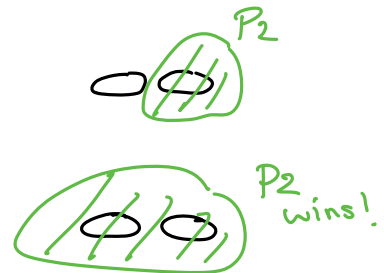
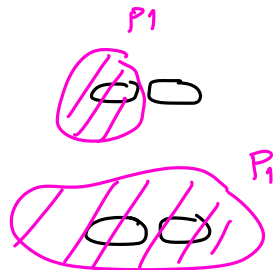
Which player (if any) has a strategy to guarantee to win the game?

Try out some games, starting with 1 jellybean in each pile, then 2 jellybeans in each pile, then 3 jellybeans in each pile. Who wins in each game?

1 jellybean
in each pile
to start



2 jellybeans
in each pile
to start



Notice that reasoning about the strategy for the 1 jellybean game is easier than about the strategy for the 2 jellybean game.

Formulate a winning strategy by working to transform the game to a simpler one we know we can win.

P2 knows they can win
the 1 jellybean game

Player 2's Strategy: Take the same number of jellybeans that Player 1 did, but from the opposite pile.

Why is this a good idea: If Player 2 plays this strategy, at the next turn Player 1 faces a game with the same setup as the original, just with fewer jellybeans in the two piles. Then Player 2 can keep playing this strategy to win.

Claim: Player 2's strategy guarantees they will win the game.

Proof: By strong induction, we will prove that for all positive integers n , Player 2's strategy guarantees a win in the game that starts with n jellybeans in each pile.

Basis step: ^{$n=1$} WTS Player 2's strategy guarantees a win when each pile starts with 1 jellybean.

In this case, Player 1 has to take the jellybean from one of the piles (because they can't take from both piles at once). Following the strategy, Player 2 takes the jellybean from the other pile, and wins because this is the last jellybean.

Recursive step: ^{arbitrary $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$} Let n be a positive integer. As the strong induction hypothesis, ^{$P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n)$} assume that Player 2's strategy guarantees a win in the games where there are $1, 2, \dots, n$ many jellybeans in each pile at the start of the game.

^{$P(n+1)$} WTS that Player 2's strategy guarantees a win in the game where there are $n + 1$ in the jellybeans in each pile at the start of the game.

In this game, the first move has Player 1 take some number, call it c (where $1 \leq c \leq n + 1$), of jellybeans from one of the piles. Playing according to their strategy, Player 2 then takes the same number of jellybeans from the other pile.

Notice that $(c = n + 1) \vee (c \leq n)$.

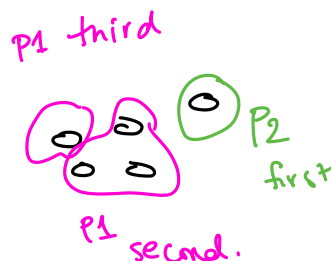
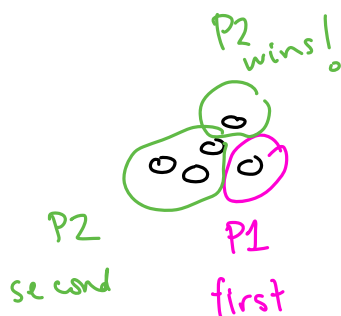
Case 1: Assume $c = n + 1$, then in their first move, Player 2 wins because they take all of the second pile, which includes the last jellybean.

Case 2: Assume $c \leq n$. Then after Player 2's first move, the two piles have an equal number of jellybeans. The number of jellybeans in each pile is

$$(n + 1) - c$$

and, since $1 \leq c \leq n$, this number is between 1 and n . Thus, at this stage of the game, the game appears identical to a new game where the two piles have an equal number of jellybeans between 1 and n . Thus, the strong induction hypothesis applies, and Player 2's strategy guarantees they win.

5 jellybean game (sample)



New! Proof by Contradiction

To prove that a statement p is true, pick another statement r and once we show that $\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r)$ then we can conclude that p is true.

Informally The statement we care about can't possibly be false, so it must be true.

Least and greatest

For a set of numbers X , how do you formalize "there is a greatest X " or "there is a least X "?

$$\exists c \in X \forall x \in X (x \leq c)$$

$$\exists c \in X \forall x \in X (x \geq c)$$

Prove or ~~disprove~~ There is a least prime number.

Consider the witness $c=2$.

It is a prime number because it's an integer greater than 1 whose positive divisors are only 1 and 2.

Let x be arbitrary prime number. By definition of being prime x is an integer and $x > 1$ so $x \geq 2$, as required.

~~Prove or~~ disprove There is a greatest integer.

$$\text{WTS } \neg \exists c \in \mathbb{Z} \forall x \in \mathbb{Z} (x \leq c)$$

Approach 1, De Morgan's and universal generalization:

$$\text{WTS } \forall c \in \mathbb{Z} \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x > c)$$

Let c be arbitrary integer. WTS there is an int x greater than c . Choose witness $x = c+1$

$$x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \checkmark (\text{details}) \quad x > c \quad \checkmark (\text{details})$$

Approach 2, proof by contradiction:

P is the statement "There is no greatest integer"

Assume $\neg P$ i.e. "there is a greatest integer"

So we get witness $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{Z} (c \geq x)$$

c is greatest int

Consider $c+1$, an integer.

By properties of integers and addition, $c+1 > c$.

By choice of c , $c+1 \leq c$ so $\neg (c+1 > c)$

We have $r \wedge \neg r$, a contradiction. So original

assumption is false. Namely, there is no greatest integer.

Extra examples: Prove or disprove that \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Q} each have a least and a greatest element.

Review

1.

Recall the game Nim from class.

- (a) Why did we use strong induction to prove that Player 2's strategy guarantees a win?
 - i. Because there are two players in the game.
 - ii. Because each turn can involve a player taking some positive number of jellybeans from a pile, not just one jellybean.
 - iii. Because the strategy player 2 uses depends on what player 1 does.
 - iv. Because the set of natural numbers is recursively defined.
- (b) If we modify the game so that in each turn, a player could take jellybeans from one or both piles, which player has a winning strategy?
 - i. Player 1.
 - ii. Player 2.
 - iii. Neither in general, the existence of a winning strategy for the players depends on how many jellybeans are in each pile to start.
- (c) If we modify the game so that in each turn, a player must take exactly one jellybean, which player has a winning strategy?
 - i. Player 1.
 - ii. Player 2.
 - iii. Neither in general, the existence of a winning strategy for the players depends on how many jellybeans are in each pile to start.

2.

We will prove that there is no greatest prime number

Proof Assume, towards a BLANK1, that there is a greatest prime number, call it n_{BIG} . In particular, this means that there are finitely many primes. Let's label them in order p_1, \dots, p_n where $p_1 = 2$ and $p_n = n_{BIG}$. Choose $r = \text{BLANK2}$. We proved in class that r is **true**. It remains to show that (under our assumption) r is **false**, because that would complete the contradiction argument. Define the integer

$$C = (p_1 \cdots p_n) + 1$$

This is a positive integer greater than 1. However, we will show that it does not have any prime factors and thus is not a product of primes. By our assumption, the only prime numbers are p_1, \dots, p_n . Thus, to show that C does not have any prime factors means to show that p_i is not a factor of C for each value of i from 1 to n . Towards a universal generalization, let i be an arbitrary between 1 and n (inclusive). We need to prove that p_i is not a factor of C . By definition of C ,

$$C = p_i(p_1 \cdots p_{i-1}p_{i+1} \cdots p_n) + 1$$

so $C \text{ div } p_i = p_1 \cdots p_{i-1}p_{i+1} \cdots p_n$ and $C \text{ mod } p_i = 1$ (because $p_i > 1$ since it is prime). Since $C \text{ mod } p_i \neq 0$, p_i is not a factor of C . Thus C witnesses that the universal claim is false, and we have proved that r is false.

- (a) BLANK1
- i. universal generalization
 - ii. proof of existential by witness
 - iii. direct proof
 - iv. proof by contrapositive
 - v. proof by cases
 - vi. proof by contradiction

- (b) BLANK2
- i. The least prime number is 2.
 - ii. There is a greatest prime number.
 - iii. There is a least prime number.
 - iv. Every positive integer greater than 1 is a product of primes.
 - v. Every positive integer has a base expansion.
 - vi. There is a greatest integer.
 - vii. There is no greatest integer.

3.

Select all and only the situations in which the given proof strategy would be available.

- (a) When might it be appropriate to use induction?
- i. To prove that an existential claim over the set of integers is true.
 - ii. To prove that a universal claim over the real numbers is true.
 - iii. To prove that a conditional claim is true.
 - iv. None of the above.
- (b) When might it be appropriate to use proof by contradiction?
- i. To prove that an existential claim over the set of integers is true.
 - ii. To prove that a universal claim over the real numbers is true.
 - iii. To prove that a conditional claim is true.
 - iv. None of the above.

Friday November 12

Definition: Greatest common divisor Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that d is a factor of a and d is a factor of b is called the greatest common divisor of a and b and is denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.

Why do we restrict to the situation where a and b are not both zero?

Calculate $\gcd(10, 15)$

Calculate $\gcd(10, 20)$

Claim: For any integers a, b (not both zero), $\gcd(a, b) \geq 1$.

Proof: *Show that 1 is a common factor of any two integers, so since the gcd is the greatest common factor it is greater than or equal to any common factor.*

Claim: For any positive integers a, b , $\gcd(a, b) \leq a$ and $\gcd(a, b) \leq b$.

Proof *Using the definition of gcd and the fact that factors of a positive integers are than or equal to that integer.*

Claim: For any positive integers a, b , if a divides b then $\gcd(a, b) = a$.

Proof *Using previous claim and definition of gcd.*

Claim: For any positive integers a, b, c , if there is some integer q such that $a = bq + c$,

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, c)$$

Proof *Prove that any common divisor of a, b divides c and that any common divisor of b, c divides a .*

Lemma: For any integers p, q (not both zero), $\gcd\left(\frac{p}{\gcd(p, q)}, \frac{q}{\gcd(p, q)}\right) = 1$. In other words, can reduce to relatively prime integers by dividing by gcd.

Proof:

Let x be arbitrary positive integer and assume that x is a factor of each of $\frac{p}{\gcd(p, q)}$ and $\frac{q}{\gcd(p, q)}$. This gives integers α, β such that

$$\alpha x = \frac{p}{\gcd(p, q)} \qquad \beta x = \frac{q}{\gcd(p, q)}$$

Multiplying both sides by the denominator in the RHS:

$$\alpha x \cdot \gcd(p, q) = p \qquad \beta x \cdot \gcd(p, q) = q$$

In other words, $x \cdot \gcd(p, q)$ is a common divisor of p, q . By definition of \gcd , this means

$$x \cdot \gcd(p, q) \leq \gcd(p, q)$$

and since $\gcd(p, q)$ is positive, this means, $x \leq 1$.

Sets of numbers

We've seen multiple representations of the set of positive integers (using base expansions and using prime factorization). Now we're going to expand our attention to other sets of numbers as well.

The **set of rational numbers**, \mathbb{Q} is defined as

$$\left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0 \right\} \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exists p \in \mathbb{Z} \exists q \in \mathbb{Z}^+ (p = x \cdot q)\}$$

Extra practice: Use the definition of set equality to prove that the definitions above give the same set.

We have the following subset relationships between sets of numbers:

$$\mathbb{Z}^+ \subsetneq \mathbb{N} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq \mathbb{Q} \subsetneq \mathbb{R}$$

Which of the proper subset inclusions above can you prove?

Goal: The square root of 2 is not a rational number. In other words: $\neg \exists x \in \mathbb{Q} (x^2 - 2 = 0)$

Attempted proof: The definition of the set of rational numbers is the collection of fractions p/q where p is an integer and q is a nonzero integer. Looking for a **witness** p and q , we can write the square root of 2 as the fraction $\sqrt{2}/1$, where 1 is a nonzero integer. Since the numerator is not in the domain, this witness is not allowed, and we have shown that the square root of 2 is not a fraction of integers (with nonzero denominator). Thus, the square root of 2 is not rational.

The problem in the above attempted proof is that _____

Lemma 1: For every two integers a and b , not both zero, with $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, it is not the case that both a is even and b is even.

Lemma 2: For every integer x , x is even if and only if x^2 is even.

Proof: Towards a proof by contradiction, we will define a statement r such that $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r)$.

Assume that $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$. Namely, there are positive integers p, q such that

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$$

Let $a = \frac{p}{\gcd(p, q)}$, $b = \frac{q}{\gcd(p, q)}$, then

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b} \quad \text{and} \quad \gcd(a, b) = 1$$

By Lemma 1, a and b are not both even. We define r to be the statement “ a is even and b is even”, and we have proved $\neg r$.

Squaring both sides and clearing denominator: $2b^2 = a^2$.

By definition of even, since b^2 is an integer, a^2 is even.

By Lemma 2, this guarantees that a is even too. So, by definition of even, there is some integer (call it c), such that $a = 2c$.

Plugging into the equation:

$$2b^2 = a^2 = (2c)^2 = 4c^2$$

and dividing both sides by 2

$$b^2 = 2c^2$$

and since c^2 is an integer, b^2 is even. By Lemma 2, b is even too. Thus, a is even and b is even and we have proved r .

In other words, assuming that $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$ guarantees $r \wedge \neg r$, which is impossible, so $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$. QED

Review

1.

We will consider two ways for calculating the gcd. In each part of the question, you'll calculate $\text{gcd}((306, 120))$.

(a) The first approach uses some of the claims we proved in class to get the following algorithm:

	Euclidean algorithm for calculating greatest common divisor
1	procedure <i>Euclidean</i> (<i>a</i> : a positive integer, <i>b</i> : a positive integer)
2	<i>x</i> := <i>a</i>
3	<i>y</i> := <i>b</i>
4	while <i>y</i> ≠ 0
5	<i>r</i> := <i>x mod y</i>
6	<i>x</i> := <i>y</i>
7	<i>y</i> := <i>r</i>
8	return <i>x</i> {the result of $\text{gcd}((a, b))$ }

Tracing this algorithm, lines 2 and 3 initialize the variables

$$x := 306 \quad y := 120$$

Entering the while loop, the variable r is initialized to

$$r := 66$$

because $306 = 2 \cdot 120 + 66$ so $306 \bmod 120 = 66$. Calculate and fill in the updated value of r in each subsequent iteration of the **while** loop, and then give the value of $\text{gcd}((306, 120))$.

(b) The second approach uses the representation of positive integers greater than 1 as products of primes. To calculate $\text{gcd}((a, b))$ we find the prime factorizations of each of a and b , and then calculate the number that results from multiplying together terms p^c where p is a prime that appears in *both* prime factorizations of a and b and c is the *minimum* number of times p appears in the two factorizations.

Select the prime factorizations for 306 and 120 and express their gcd as a product of powers of primes.

Possible factorizations:

- i. $306 = 2 \cdot 153, 120 = 2 \cdot 60$
- ii. $306 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 17, 120 = 1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 8$
- iii. $306 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 17, 120 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$

Possible gcd choices:

- i. 2
- ii. $2 \cdot 3$
- iii. $5 \cdot 17$
- iv. $2^3 \cdot 3^2$
- v. $2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 8 \cdot 17$

2.

Goals for this question: recognize that we can prove the same statement in different ways. Trace proofs and justify why they are valid.

Below are two proofs of the same statement: fill in the blanks with the expressions below.

Claimed statement: (a)_____

Proof 1: Using De Morgan's law for quantifiers, we can rewrite this statement as a universal of the negation of the body of the statement. Towards a proof by universal generalization, let x be an arbitrary element of \mathbb{Z} . Then we need to show that

(b)_____

We proceed by contradiction to show that

$(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even}) \rightarrow$ (c)_____

We assume by direct proof that $(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$. Then, $(x^2 \text{ is even})$ follows directly from this assumption, so by definition of conjunction, we must show that $(x^2 \text{ is not even})$ to complete the proof. From the assumption, we have that $(x \text{ is odd})$. Applying the definition of odd, $x = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $x^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1$. We can rewrite the right hand side to $2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$. This shows that x^2 is odd by the definition of odd, since choosing $j = 2k^2 + 2k$ gives us $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $x^2 = 2j + 1$. Since a number is either even or odd and not both, and x^2 is odd, then it must not be even. This concludes the proof, as we have assumed the negation of the original statement and deduced a contradiction from this assumption.

Proof 2:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. To Show $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z} \neg(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | Rewriting statement using De Morgan's law for quantifiers |
| 2. Choose arbitrary $x \in \mathbb{Z}$
To Show (d)_____ | By (e)_____ |
| 3. To Show $x \text{ is odd} \rightarrow \neg(x^2 \text{ is even})$ | Rewrite previous To Show using logical equivalence |
| 4. Assume $x \text{ is odd}$
To Show $\neg(x^2 \text{ is even})$ | By (f)_____ |
| 5. To Show $x^2 \text{ is odd}$ | Rewrite previous To Show using definition of even, odd |
| 6. Use the witness k , an integer, where $x = 2k + 1$ | By existential definition of x being odd |
| Choose the witness | |
| 7. $j = 2k^2 + 2k$, an integer
To Show $x^2 = 2j + 1$ | Show this new To Show is true to prove the existential definition of x^2 being odd |
| 8. To Show $(2k + 1)^2 = 2j + 1$ | Rewrite previous To Show using definition of k |
| 9. To Show $(2k + 1)^2 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$ | Rewrite previous To Show using definition of j |
| 10. To Show T | By algebra: multiplying out the LHS; factoring the RHS |
| QED | Because we got to T only by rewriting To Show to equivalent statements, using valid proof techniques and definitions. |

Consider the following expressions as options to fill in the two proofs above. Give your answer as one of the numbers below for each blank a-c. You may use some numbers for more than one blank, but each letter only uses one of the expressions below.

- | | |
|---|--|
| i. $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | x. $(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x \text{ is not odd})$ |
| ii. $\neg \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | xi. $\neg(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x \text{ is not odd})$ |
| iii. $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x \text{ is odd} \wedge x \text{ is even})$ | xii. $x^2 \text{ is even}$ |
| iv. $\neg \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x \text{ is odd} \wedge x \text{ is even})$ | xiii. $x^2 \text{ is odd}$ |
| v. $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x^2 \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | xiv. universal generalization |
| vi. $\neg \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} (x^2 \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | xv. proof by cases |
| vii. $(x^2 \text{ is even} \wedge x^2 \text{ is not even})$ | xvi. direct proof |
| viii. $\neg(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | xvii. proof by contraposition |
| ix. $(x \text{ is odd} \wedge x^2 \text{ is even})$ | xviii. proof by contradiction |