20. Determine whether these are valid arguments.
   a) If x is a positive real number, then x^2 is a positive real number. Therefore, if a^2 is positive, where a is a real number, then a is a positive real number.
   b) If $x^2 \neq 0$, where x is a real number, then $x \neq 0$. Let a be a real number with $a^2 \neq 0$; then $a \neq 0$.

21. Which rules of inference are used to establish the conclusion of Lewis Carroll's argument described in Example 26 of Section 1.4?

22. Which rules of inference are used to establish the conclusion of Lewis Carroll's argument described in Example 27 of Section 1.4?

23. Identify the error or errors in this argument that supposedly shows that if $\exists x P(x) \wedge \exists x Q(x)$ is true then $\exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ is true.

1.	$\exists x P(x) \vee \exists x Q(x)$	Premise
2.	$\exists x P(x)$	Simplification from (1)
3.	$P(c)$	Existential instantiation from (2)
4.	$\exists x Q(x)$	Simplification from (1)
5.	$Q(c)$	Existential instantiation from (4)
6.	$P(c) \wedge Q(c)$	Conjunction from (3) and (5)
7.	$\exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$	Existential generalization

24. Identify the error or errors in this argument that supposedly shows that if $\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$ is true then $\forall x P(x) \vee \forall x Q(x)$ is true.

1.	$\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$	Premise
2.	$P(c) \vee Q(c)$	Universal instantiation from (1)
3.	$P(c)$	Simplification from (2)
4.	$\forall x P(x)$	Universal generalization from (3)
5.	$Q(c)$	Simplification from (2)
6.	$\forall x Q(x)$	Universal generalization from (5)
7.	$\forall x(P(x) \vee \forall x Q(x))$	Conjunction from (4) and (6)

25. Justify the rule of universal modus tollens by showing that the premises $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\neg Q(a)$ for a particular element a in the domain, imply $\neg P(a)$.

26. Justify the rule of **universal transitivity**, which states that if $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\forall x(Q(x) \rightarrow R(x))$ are true, then $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow R(x))$ is true, where the domains of all quantifiers are the same.

27. Use rules of inference to show that if $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow (Q(x) \wedge S(x)))$ and $\forall x(P(x) \wedge R(x))$ are true, then $\forall x(R(x) \wedge S(x))$ is true.

28. Use rules of inference to show that if $\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$ and $\forall x((\neg P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \rightarrow R(x))$ are true, then $\forall x(\neg R(x) \rightarrow P(x))$ is also true, where the domains of all quantifiers are the same.

29. Use rules of inference to show that if $\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$, $\forall x(\neg Q(x) \vee S(x))$, $\forall x(R(x) \rightarrow \neg S(x))$, and $\exists x \neg P(x)$ are true, then $\exists x \neg R(x)$ is true.

30. Use resolution to show the hypotheses "Allen is a bad boy or Hillary is a good girl" and "Allen is a good boy or David is happy" imply the conclusion "Hillary is a good girl or David is happy."

31. Use resolution to show that the hypotheses "It is not raining or Yvette has her umbrella," "Yvette does not have her umbrella or she does not get wet," and "It is raining or Yvette does not get wet" imply that "Yvette does not get wet."

32. Show that the equivalence $p \wedge \neg p \equiv \mathbf{F}$ can be derived using resolution together with the fact that a conditional statement with a false hypothesis is true. [*Hint:* Let $q = r = \mathbf{F}$ in resolution.]

33. Use resolution to show that the compound proposition $(p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee \neg q) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q)$ is not satisfiable.

***34.** The Logic Problem, taken from *WFF'N PROOF, The Game of Logic*, has these two assumptions:
1. "Logic is difficult or not many students like logic."
2. "If mathematics is easy, then logic is not difficult."
By translating these assumptions into statements involving propositional variables and logical connectives, determine whether each of the following are valid conclusions of these assumptions:
   a) That mathematics is not easy, if many students like logic.
   b) That not many students like logic, if mathematics is not easy.
   c) That mathematics is not easy or logic is difficult.
   d) That logic is not difficult or mathematics is not easy.
   e) That if not many students like logic, then either mathematics is not easy or logic is not difficult.

***35.** Determine whether this argument, taken from Kalish and Montague [KaMo64], is valid.

> If Superman were able and willing to prevent evil, he would do so. If Superman were unable to prevent evil, he would be impotent; if he were unwilling to prevent evil, he would be malevolent. Superman does not prevent evil. If Superman exists, he is neither impotent nor malevolent. Therefore, Superman does not exist.

1.7 Introduction to Proofs

Introduction

In this section we introduce the notion of a proof and describe methods for constructing proofs. A proof is a valid argument that establishes the truth of a mathematical statement. A proof can use the hypotheses of the theorem, if any, axioms assumed to be true, and previously proven

theorems. Using these ingredients and rules of inference, the final step of the proof establishes the truth of the statement being proved.

In our discussion we move from formal proofs of theorems toward more informal proofs. The arguments we introduced in Section 1.6 to show that statements involving propositions and quantified statements are true were formal proofs, where all steps were supplied, and the rules for each step in the argument were given. However, formal proofs of useful theorems can be extremely long and hard to follow. In practice, the proofs of theorems designed for human consumption are almost always **informal proofs**, where more than one rule of inference may be used in each step, where steps may be skipped, where the axioms being assumed and the rules of inference used are not explicitly stated. Informal proofs can often explain to humans why theorems are true, while computers are perfectly happy producing formal proofs using automated reasoning systems.

The methods of proof discussed in this chapter are important not only because they are used to prove mathematical theorems, but also for their many applications to computer science. These applications include verifying that computer programs are correct, establishing that operating systems are secure, making inferences in artificial intelligence, showing that system specifications are consistent, and so on. Consequently, understanding the techniques used in proofs is essential both in mathematics and in computer science.

Some Terminology

Links

Formally, a **theorem** is a statement that can be shown to be true. In mathematical writing, the term theorem is usually reserved for a statement that is considered at least somewhat important. Less important theorems sometimes are called **propositions**. (Theorems can also be referred to as **facts** or **results**.) A theorem may be the universal quantification of a conditional statement with one or more premises and a conclusion. However, it may be some other type of logical statement, as the examples later in this chapter will show. We demonstrate that a theorem is true with a **proof**. A proof is a valid argument that establishes the truth of a theorem. The statements used in a proof can include **axioms** (or **postulates**), which are statements we assume to be true (for example, the axioms for the real numbers, given in Appendix 1, and the axioms of plane geometry), the premises, if any, of the theorem, and previously proven theorems. Axioms may be stated using primitive terms that do not require definition, but all other terms used in theorems and their proofs must be defined. Rules of inference, together with definitions of terms, are used to draw conclusions from other assertions, tying together the steps of a proof. In practice, the final step of a proof is usually just the conclusion of the theorem. However, for clarity, we will often recap the statement of the theorem as the final step of a proof.

A less important theorem that is helpful in the proof of other results is called a **lemma** (plural *lemmas* or *lemmata*). Complicated proofs are usually easier to understand when they are proved using a series of lemmas, where each lemma is proved individually. A **corollary** is a theorem that can be established directly from a theorem that has been proved. A **conjecture** is a statement that is being proposed to be a true statement, usually on the basis of some partial evidence, a heuristic argument, or the intuition of an expert. When a proof of a conjecture is found, the conjecture becomes a theorem. Many times conjectures are shown to be false, so they are not theorems.

Understanding How Theorems Are Stated

Extra Examples

Before we introduce methods for proving theorems, we need to understand how many mathematical theorems are stated. Many theorems assert that a property holds for all elements in a domain, such as the integers or the real numbers. Although the precise statement of such

theorems needs to include a universal quantifier, the standard convention in mathematics is to omit it. For example, the statement

"If $x > y$, where x and y are positive real numbers, then $x^2 > y^2$."

really means

"For all positive real numbers x and y, if $x > y$, then $x^2 > y^2$."

Furthermore, when theorems of this type are proved, the first step of the proof usually involves selecting a general element of the domain. Subsequent steps show that this element has the property in question. Finally, universal generalization implies that the theorem holds for all members of the domain.

Methods of Proving Theorems

Assessment

Proving mathematical theorems can be difficult. To construct proofs we need all available ammunition, including a powerful battery of different proof methods. These methods provide the overall approach and strategy of proofs. Understanding these methods is a key component of learning how to read and construct mathematical proofs. One we have chosen a proof method, we use axioms, definitions of terms, previously proved results, and rules of inference to complete the proof. Note that in this book we will always assume the axioms for real numbers found in Appendix 1. We will also assume the usual axioms whenever we prove a result about geometry. When you construct your own proofs, be careful not to use anything but these axioms, definitions, and previously proved results as facts!

To prove a theorem of the form $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$, our goal is to show that $P(c) \rightarrow Q(c)$ is true, where c is an arbitrary element of the domain, and then apply universal generalization. In this proof, we need to show that a conditional statement is true. Because of this, we now focus on methods that show that conditional statements are true. Recall that $p \rightarrow q$ is true unless p is true but q is false. Note that to prove the statement $p \rightarrow q$, we need only show that q is true if p is true. The following discussion will give the most common techniques for proving conditional statements. Later we will discuss methods for proving other types of statements. In this section, and in Section 1.8, we will develop a large arsenal of proof techniques that can be used to prove a wide variety of theorems.

When you read proofs, you will often find the words "obviously" or "clearly." These words 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 and readers are not at all sure how to fill in the gaps. 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 excruciatingly long.

Direct Proofs

A **direct proof** of a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true. A direct proof shows that a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is true by showing that if p is true, then q must also be true, so that the combination p true and q false never occurs. In a direct proof, we assume that p is true and use axioms, definitions, and previously proven theorems, together with rules of inference, to show that q must also be true. You will find that direct proofs of many results are quite straightforward, with a fairly obvious sequence of steps leading from the hypothesis to the conclusion. However, direct proofs sometimes require particular insights and can be quite tricky. The first direct proofs we present here are quite straightforward; later in the text you will see some that are less obvious.

We will provide examples of several different direct proofs. Before we give the first example, we need to define some terminology.

DEFINITION 1 The integer n is *even* if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$, and n is *odd* if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$. (Note that every integer is either even or odd, and no integer is both even and odd.) Two integers have the *same parity* when both are even or both are odd; they have *opposite parity* when one is even and the other is odd.

EXAMPLE 1 Give a direct proof of the theorem "If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd."

Solution: Note that this theorem states $\forall n\, P((n) \rightarrow Q(n))$, where $P(n)$ is "n is an odd integer" and $Q(n)$ is "n^2 is odd." As we have said, we will follow the usual convention in mathematical proofs by showing that $P(n)$ implies $Q(n)$, and not explicitly using universal instantiation. To begin a direct proof of this theorem, we assume that the hypothesis of this conditional statement is true, namely, we assume that n is odd. By the definition of an odd integer, it follows that $n = 2k + 1$, where k is some integer. We want to show that n^2 is also odd. We can square both sides of the equation $n = 2k + 1$ to obtain a new equation that expresses n^2. When we do this, we find that $n^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$. By the definition of an odd integer, we can conclude that n^2 is an odd integer (it is one more than twice an integer). Consequently, we have proved that if n is an odd integer, then n^2 is an odd integer. ◀

Extra Examples

EXAMPLE 2 Give a direct proof that if m and n are both perfect squares, then nm is also a perfect square. (An integer a is a **perfect square** if there is an integer b such that $a = b^2$.)

Solution: To produce a direct proof of this theorem, we assume that the hypothesis of this conditional statement is true, namely, we assume that m and n are both perfect squares. By the definition of a perfect square, it follows that there are integers s and t such that $m = s^2$ and $n = t^2$. The goal of the proof is to show that mn must also be a perfect square when m and n are; looking ahead we see how we can show this by substituting s^2 for m and t^2 for n into mn. This tells us that $mn = s^2t^2$. Hence, $mn = s^2t^2 = (ss)(tt) = (st)(st) = (st)^2$, using commutativity and associativity of multiplication. By the definition of perfect square, it follows that mn is also a perfect square, because it is the square of st, which is an integer. We have proved that if m and n are both perfect squares, then mn is also a perfect square. ◀

Proof by Contraposition

Direct proofs lead from the premises of a theorem to the conclusion. They begin with the premises, continue with a sequence of deductions, and end with the conclusion. However, we will see that attempts at direct proofs often reach dead ends. We need other methods of proving theorems of the form $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$. Proofs of theorems of this type that are not direct proofs, that is, that do not start with the premises and end with the conclusion, are called **indirect proofs**.

An extremely useful type of indirect proof is known as **proof by contraposition**. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$. This means that the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ can be proved by showing that its contrapositive, $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, is true. In a proof by contraposition of $p \rightarrow q$, we take $\neg q$ as a premise, and using axioms, definitions, and previously proven theorems, together with rules of inference, we show that $\neg p$ must follow. We will illustrate proof by contraposition with two examples. These examples show that proof by contraposition can succeed when we cannot easily find a direct proof.

EXAMPLE 3 Prove that if n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

Solution: We first attempt a direct proof. To construct a direct proof, we first assume that $3n + 2$ is an odd integer. This means that $3n + 2 = 2k + 1$ for some integer k. Can we use this fact

to show that n is odd? We see that $3n + 1 = 2k$, but there does not seem to be any direct way to conclude that n is odd. Because our attempt at a direct proof failed, we next try a proof by contraposition.

The first step in a proof by contraposition is to assume that the conclusion of the conditional statement "If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd" is false; namely, assume that n is even. Then, by the definition of an even integer, $n = 2k$ for some integer k. Substituting $2k$ for n, we find that $3n + 2 = 3(2k) + 2 = 6k + 2 = 2(3k + 1)$. This tells us that $3n + 2$ is even (because it is a multiple of 2), and therefore not odd. This is the negation of the premise of the theorem. Because the negation of the conclusion of the conditional statement implies that the hypothesis is false, the original conditional statement is true. Our proof by contraposition succeeded; we have proved the theorem "If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd." ◀

EXAMPLE 4 Prove that if $n = ab$, where a and b are positive integers, then $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.

Solution: Because there is no obvious way of showing that $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$ directly from the equation $n = ab$, where a and b are positive integers, we attempt a proof by contraposition.

The first step in a proof by contraposition is to assume that the conclusion of the conditional statement "If $n = ab$, where a and b are positive integers, then $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$" is false. That is, we assume that the statement $(a \leq \sqrt{n}) \vee (b \leq \sqrt{n})$ is false. Using the meaning of disjunction together with De Morgan's law, we see that this implies that both $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ and $b \leq \sqrt{n}$ are false. This implies that $a > \sqrt{n}$ and $b > \sqrt{n}$. We can multiply these inequalities together (using the fact that if $0 < s < t$ and $0 < u < v$, then $su < tv$) to obtain $ab > \sqrt{n} \cdot \sqrt{n} = n$. This shows that $ab \neq n$, which contradicts the statement $n = ab$.

Because the negation of the conclusion of the conditional statement implies that the hypothesis is false, the original conditional statement is true. Our proof by contraposition succeeded; we have proved that if $n = ab$, where a and b are positive integers, then $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$. ◀

VACUOUS AND TRIVIAL PROOFS We can quickly prove that a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is true when we know that p is false, because $p \rightarrow q$ must be true when p is false. Consequently, if we can show that p is false, then we have a proof, called a **vacuous proof**, of the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$. Vacuous proofs are often used to establish special cases of theorems that state that a conditional statement is true for all positive integers [i.e., a theorem of the kind $\forall n P(n)$, where $P(n)$ is a propositional function]. Proof techniques for theorems of this kind will be discussed in Section 5.1.

EXAMPLE 5 Show that the proposition $P(0)$ is true, where $P(n)$ is "If $n > 1$, then $n^2 > n$" and the domain consists of all integers.

Solution: Note that $P(0)$ is "If $0 > 1$, then $0^2 > 0$." We can show $P(0)$ using a vacuous proof. Indeed, the hypothesis $0 > 1$ is false. This tells us that $P(0)$ is automatically true. ◀

Remark: The fact that the conclusion of this conditional statement, $0^2 > 0$, is false is irrelevant to the truth value of the conditional statement, because a conditional statement with a false hypothesis is guaranteed to be true.

We can also quickly prove a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ if we know that the conclusion q is true. By showing that q is true, it follows that $p \rightarrow q$ must also be true. A proof of $p \rightarrow q$ that uses the fact that q is true is called a **trivial proof**. Trivial proofs are often important when special cases of theorems are proved (see the discussion of proof by cases in Section 1.8) and in mathematical induction, which is a proof technique discussed in Section 5.1.

EXAMPLE 6 Let $P(n)$ be "If a and b are positive integers with $a \geq b$, then $a^n \geq b^n$," where the domain consists of all nonnegative integers. Show that $P(0)$ is true.

Solution: The proposition $P(0)$ is "If $a \geq b$, then $a^0 \geq b^0$." Because $a^0 = b^0 = 1$, the conclusion of the conditional statement "If $a \geq b$, then $a^0 \geq b^0$" is true. Hence, this conditional statement, which is $P(0)$, is true. This is an example of a trivial proof. Note that the hypothesis, which is the statement "$a \geq b$," was not needed in this proof. ◀

A LITTLE PROOF STRATEGY We have described two important approaches for proving theorems of the form $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$: direct proof and proof by contraposition. We have also given examples that show how each is used. However, when you are presented with a theorem of the form $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$, which method should you use to attempt to prove it? We will provide a few rules of thumb here; in Section 1.8 we will discuss proof strategy at greater length. When you want to prove a statement of the form $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$, first evaluate whether a direct proof looks promising. Begin by expanding the definitions in the hypotheses. Start to reason using these hypotheses, together with axioms and available theorems. If a direct proof does not seem to go anywhere, try the same thing with a proof by contraposition. Recall that in a proof by contraposition you assume that the conclusion of the conditional statement is false and use a direct proof to show this implies that the hypothesis must be false. We illustrate this strategy in Examples 7 and 8. Before we present our next example, we need a definition.

DEFINITION 2 The real number r is *rational* if there exist integers p and q with $q \neq 0$ such that $r = p/q$. A real number that is not rational is called *irrational*.

EXAMPLE 7 Prove that the sum of two rational numbers is rational. (Note that if we include the implicit quantifiers here, the theorem we want to prove is "For every real number r and every real number s, if r and s are rational numbers, then $r + s$ is rational.)

Extra Examples

Solution: We first attempt a direct proof. To begin, suppose that r and s are rational numbers. From the definition of a rational number, it follows that there are integers p and q, with $q \neq 0$, such that $r = p/q$, and integers t and u, with $u \neq 0$, such that $s = t/u$. Can we use this information to show that $r + s$ is rational? The obvious next step is to add $r = p/q$ and $s = t/u$, to obtain

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

Because $q \neq 0$ and $u \neq 0$, it follows that $qu \neq 0$. Consequently, we have expressed $r + s$ as the ratio of two integers, $pu + qt$ and qu, where $qu \neq 0$. This means that $r + s$ is rational. We have proved that the sum of two rational numbers is rational; our attempt to find a direct proof succeeded. ◀

EXAMPLE 8 Prove that if n is an integer and n^2 is odd, then n is odd.

Solution: We first attempt a direct proof. Suppose that n is an integer and n^2 is odd. Then, there exists an integer k such that $n^2 = 2k + 1$. Can we use this information to show that n is odd? There seems to be no obvious approach to show that n is odd because solving for n produces the equation $n = \pm\sqrt{2k + 1}$, which is not terribly useful.

Because this attempt to use a direct proof did not bear fruit, we next attempt a proof by contraposition. We take as our hypothesis the statement that n is not odd. Because every integer is odd or even, this means that n is even. This implies that there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$. To prove the theorem, we need to show that this hypothesis implies the conclusion that n^2 is not odd, that is, that n^2 is even. Can we use the equation $n = 2k$ to achieve this? By

squaring both sides of this equation, we obtain $n^2 = 4k^2 = 2(2k^2)$, which implies that n^2 is also even because $n^2 = 2t$, where $t = 2k^2$. We have proved that if n is an integer and n^2 is odd, then n is odd. Our attempt to find a proof by contraposition succeeded. ◀

Proofs by Contradiction

Suppose we want to prove that a statement p is true. Furthermore, suppose that we can find a contradiction q such that $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true. Because q is false, but $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true, we can conclude that $\neg p$ is false, which means that p is true. How can we find a contradiction q that might help us prove that p is true in this way?

Because the statement $r \wedge \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is a proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r)$ is true for some proposition r. Proofs of this type are called **proofs by contradiction**. Because a proof by contradiction does not prove a result directly, it is another type of indirect proof. We provide three examples of proof by contradiction. The first is an example of an application of the pigeonhole principle, a combinatorial technique that we will cover in depth in Section 6.2.

EXAMPLE 9 Show that at least four of any 22 days must fall on the same day of the week.

Extra Examples

Solution: Let p be the proposition "At least four of 22 chosen days fall on the same day of the week." Suppose that $\neg p$ is true. This means that at most three of the 22 days fall on the same day of the week. Because there are seven days of the week, this implies that at most 21 days could have been chosen, as for each of the days of the week, at most three of the chosen days could fall on that day. This contradicts the premise that we have 22 days under consideration. That is, if r is the statement that 22 days are chosen, then we have shown that $\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r)$. Consequently, we know that p is true. We have proved that at least four of 22 chosen days fall on the same day of the week. ◀

EXAMPLE 10 Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational by giving a proof by contradiction.

Solution: Let p be the proposition "$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational." To start a proof by contradiction, we suppose that $\neg p$ is true. Note that $\neg p$ is the statement "It is not the case that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational," which says that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational. We will show that assuming that $\neg p$ is true leads to a contradiction.

If $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, there exist integers a and b with $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, where $b \neq 0$ and a and b have no common factors (so that the fraction a/b is in lowest terms.) (Here, we are using the fact that every rational number can be written in lowest terms.) Because $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, when both sides of this equation are squared, it follows that

$$2 = \frac{a^2}{b^2}.$$

Hence,

$$2b^2 = a^2.$$

By the definition of an even integer it follows that a^2 is even. We next use the fact that if a^2 is even, a must also be even, which follows by Exercise 16. Furthermore, because a is even, by the definition of an even integer, $a = 2c$ for some integer c. Thus,

$$2b^2 = 4c^2.$$

Dividing both sides of this equation by 2 gives

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

By the definition of even, this means that b^2 is even. Again using the fact that if the square of an integer is even, then the integer itself must be even, we conclude that b must be even as well.

We have now shown that the assumption of $\neg p$ leads to the equation $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, where a and b have no common factors, but both a and b are even, that is, 2 divides both a and b. Note that the statement that $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, where a and b have no common factors, means, in particular, that 2 does not divide both a and b. Because our assumption of $\neg p$ leads to the contradiction that 2 divides both a and b and 2 does not divide both a and b, $\neg p$ must be false. That is, the statement p, "$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational," is true. We have proved that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. ◀

Proof by contradiction can be used to prove conditional statements. In such proofs, we first assume the negation of the conclusion. We then use the premises of the theorem and the negation of the conclusion to arrive at a contradiction. (The reason that such proofs are valid rests on the logical equivalence of $p \rightarrow q$ and $(p \wedge \neg q) \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$. To see that these statements are equivalent, simply note that each is false in exactly one case, namely when p is true and q is false.)

Note that we can rewrite a proof by contraposition of a conditional statement as a proof by contradiction. In a proof of $p \rightarrow q$ by contraposition, we assume that $\neg q$ is true. We then show that $\neg p$ must also be true. To rewrite a proof by contraposition of $p \rightarrow q$ as a proof by contradiction, we suppose that both p and $\neg q$ are true. Then, we use the steps from the proof of $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ to show that $\neg p$ is true. This leads to the contradiction $p \wedge \neg p$, completing the proof. Example 11 illustrates how a proof by contraposition of a conditional statement can be rewritten as a proof by contradiction.

EXAMPLE 11 Give a proof by contradiction of the theorem "If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd."

Solution: Let p be "$3n + 2$ is odd" and q be "n is odd." To construct a proof by contradiction, assume that both p and $\neg q$ are true. That is, assume that $3n + 2$ is odd and that n is not odd. Because n is not odd, we know that it is even. Because n is even, there is an integer k such that $n = 2k$. This implies that $3n + 2 = 3(2k) + 2 = 6k + 2 = 2(3k + 1)$. Because $3n + 2$ is $2t$, where $t = 3k + 1$, $3n + 2$ is even. Note that the statement "$3n + 2$ is even" is equivalent to the statement $\neg p$, because an integer is even if and only if it is not odd. Because both p and $\neg p$ are true, we have a contradiction. This completes the proof by contradiction, proving that if $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd. ◀

Note that we can also prove by contradiction that $p \rightarrow q$ is true by assuming that p and $\neg q$ are true, and showing that q must be also be true. This implies that $\neg q$ and q are both true, a contradiction. This observation tells us that we can turn a direct proof into a proof by contradiction.

PROOFS OF EQUIVALENCE To prove a theorem that is a biconditional statement, that is, a statement of the form $p \leftrightarrow q$, we show that $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$ are both true. The validity of this approach is based on the tautology

$$(p \leftrightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p).$$

EXAMPLE 12 Prove the theorem "If n is an integer, then n is odd if and only if n^2 is odd."

Solution: This theorem has the form "p if and only if q," where p is "n is odd" and q is "n^2 is odd." (As usual, we do not explicitly deal with the universal quantification.) To prove this theorem, we need to show that $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$ are true.

Extra Examples

We have already shown (in Example 1) that $p \rightarrow q$ is true and (in Example 8) that $q \rightarrow p$ is true.

Because we have shown that both $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$ are true, we have shown that the theorem is true. ◀

Sometimes a theorem states that several propositions are equivalent. Such a theorem states that propositions $p_1, p_2, p_3, \ldots, p_n$ are equivalent. This can be written as

$$p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2 \leftrightarrow \cdots \leftrightarrow p_n,$$

which states that all n propositions have the same truth values, and consequently, that for all i and j with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$, p_i and p_j are equivalent. One way to prove these mutually equivalent is to use the tautology

$$p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2 \leftrightarrow \cdots \leftrightarrow p_n \leftrightarrow (p_1 \rightarrow p_2) \wedge (p_2 \rightarrow p_3) \wedge \cdots \wedge (p_n \rightarrow p_1).$$

This shows that if the n conditional statements $p_1 \rightarrow p_2, p_2 \rightarrow p_3, \ldots, p_n \rightarrow p_1$ can be shown to be true, then the propositions $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ are all equivalent.

This is much more efficient than proving that $p_i \rightarrow p_j$ for all $i \neq j$ with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. (Note that there are $n^2 - n$ such conditional statements.)

When we prove that a group of statements are equivalent, we can establish any chain of conditional statements we choose as long as it is possible to work through the chain to go from any one of these statements to any other statement. For example, we can show that p_1, p_2, and p_3 are equivalent by showing that $p_1 \rightarrow p_3$, $p_3 \rightarrow p_2$, and $p_2 \rightarrow p_1$.

EXAMPLE 13 Show that these statements about the integer n are equivalent:

p_1: n is even.
p_2: $n - 1$ is odd.
p_3: n^2 is even.

Solution: We will show that these three statements are equivalent by showing that the conditional statements $p_1 \rightarrow p_2$, $p_2 \rightarrow p_3$, and $p_3 \rightarrow p_1$ are true.

We use a direct proof to show that $p_1 \rightarrow p_2$. Suppose that n is even. Then $n = 2k$ for some integer k. Consequently, $n - 1 = 2k - 1 = 2(k - 1) + 1$. This means that $n - 1$ is odd because it is of the form $2m + 1$, where m is the integer $k - 1$.

We also use a direct proof to show that $p_2 \rightarrow p_3$. Now suppose $n - 1$ is odd. Then $n - 1 = 2k + 1$ for some integer k. Hence, $n = 2k + 2$ so that $n^2 = (2k + 2)^2 = 4k^2 + 8k + 4 = 2(2k^2 + 4k + 2)$. This means that n^2 is twice the integer $2k^2 + 4k + 2$, and hence is even.

To prove $p_3 \rightarrow p_1$, we use a proof by contraposition. That is, we prove that if n is not even, then n^2 is not even. This is the same as proving that if n is odd, then n^2 is odd, which we have already done in Example 1. This completes the proof. ◀

COUNTEREXAMPLES In Section 1.4 we stated that to show that a statement of the form $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false, we need only find a **counterexample**, that is, an example x for which $P(x)$ is false. When presented with a statement of the form $\forall x\, P(x)$, which we believe to be false or which has resisted all proof attempts, we look for a counterexample. We illustrate the use of counterexamples in Example 14.

EXAMPLE 14 Show that the statement "Every positive integer is the sum of the squares of two integers" is false.

Solution: To show that this statement is false, we look for a counterexample, which is a particular integer that is not the sum of the squares of two integers. It does not take long to find a counterexample, because 3 cannot be written as the sum of the squares of two integers. To show this is the case, note that the only perfect squares not exceeding 3 are $0^2 = 0$ and $1^2 = 1$. Furthermore, there is no way to get 3 as the sum of two terms each of which is 0 or 1. Consequently, we have shown that "Every positive integer is the sum of the squares of two integers" is false. ◀

Extra Examples

Mistakes in Proofs

There are many common errors made in constructing mathematical proofs. We will briefly describe some of these here. Among the most common errors are mistakes in arithmetic and basic algebra. Even professional mathematicians make such errors, especially when working with complicated formulae. Whenever you use such computations you should check them as carefully as possible. (You should also review any troublesome aspects of basic algebra, especially before you study Section 5.1.)

Links Each step of a mathematical proof needs to be correct and the conclusion needs to follow logically from the steps that precede it. Many mistakes result from the introduction of steps that do not logically follow from those that precede it. This is illustrated in Examples 15–17.

EXAMPLE 15 What is wrong with this famous supposed "proof" that $1 = 2$?

"Proof:" We use these steps, where a and b are two equal positive integers.

Step	**Reason**
1. $a = b$	Given
2. $a^2 = ab$	Multiply both sides of (1) by a
3. $a^2 - b^2 = ab - b^2$	Subtract b^2 from both sides of (2)
4. $(a - b)(a + b) = b(a - b)$	Factor both sides of (3)
5. $a + b = b$	Divide both sides of (4) by $a - b$
6. $2b = b$	Replace a by b in (5) because $a = b$ and simplify
7. $2 = 1$	Divide both sides of (6) by b

Solution: Every step is valid except for one, step 5 where we divided both sides by $a - b$. The error is that $a - b$ equals zero; division of both sides of an equation by the same quantity is valid as long as this quantity is not zero. ◀

EXAMPLE 16 What is wrong with this "proof?"

"Theorem:" If n^2 is positive, then n is positive.

"Proof:" Suppose that n^2 is positive. Because the conditional statement "If n is positive, then n^2 is positive" is true, we can conclude that n is positive.

Solution: Let $P(n)$ be "n is positive" and $Q(n)$ be "n^2 is positive." Then our hypothesis is $Q(n)$. The statement "If n is positive, then n^2 is positive" is the statement $\forall n(P(n) \rightarrow Q(n))$. From the hypothesis $Q(n)$ and the statement $\forall n(P(n) \rightarrow Q(n))$ we cannot conclude $P(n)$, because we are not using a valid rule of inference. Instead, this is an example of the fallacy of affirming the conclusion. A counterexample is supplied by $n = -1$ for which $n^2 = 1$ is positive, but n is negative. ◀

EXAMPLE 17 What is wrong with this "proof?"

"Theorem:" If n is not positive, then n^2 is not positive. (This is the contrapositive of the "theorem" in Example 16.)

"Proof:" Suppose that n is not positive. Because the conditional statement "If n is positive, then n^2 is positive" is true, we can conclude that n^2 is not positive.

Solution: Let $P(n)$ and $Q(n)$ be as in the solution of Example 16. Then our hypothesis is $\neg P(n)$ and the statement "If n is positive, then n^2 is positive" is the statement $\forall n(P(n) \rightarrow Q(n))$. From the hypothesis $\neg P(n)$ and the statement $\forall n(P(n) \rightarrow Q(n))$ we cannot conclude $\neg Q(n)$, because we are not using a valid rule of inference. Instead, this is an example of the fallacy of denying the hypothesis. A counterexample is supplied by $n = -1$, as in Example 16. ◀

Finally, we briefly discuss a particularly nasty type of error. Many incorrect arguments are based on a fallacy called **begging the question**. This fallacy occurs when one or more steps of a proof are based on the truth of the statement being proved. In other words, this fallacy arises when a statement is proved using itself, or a statement equivalent to it. That is why this fallacy is also called **circular reasoning**.

EXAMPLE 18 Is the following argument correct? It supposedly shows that n is an even integer whenever n^2 is an even integer.

> Suppose that n^2 is even. Then $n^2 = 2k$ for some integer k. Let $n = 2l$ for some integer l. This shows that n is even.

Solution: This argument is incorrect. The statement "let $n = 2l$ for some integer l" occurs in the proof. No argument has been given to show that n can be written as $2l$ for some integer l. This is circular reasoning because this statement is equivalent to the statement being proved, namely, "n is even." Of course, the result itself is correct; only the method of proof is wrong. ◀

Making mistakes in proofs is part of the learning process. When you make a mistake that someone else finds, you should carefully analyze where you went wrong and make sure that you do not make the same mistake again. Even professional mathematicians make mistakes in proofs. More than a few incorrect proofs of important results have fooled people for many years before subtle errors in them were found.

Just a Beginning

We have now developed a basic arsenal of proof methods. In the next section we will introduce other important proof methods. We will also introduce several important proof techniques in Chapter 5, including mathematical induction, which can be used to prove results that hold for all positive integers. In Chapter 6 we will introduce the notion of combinatorial proofs.

In this section we introduced several methods for proving theorems of the form $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$, including direct proofs and proofs by contraposition. There are many theorems of this type whose proofs are easy to construct by directly working through the hypotheses and definitions of the terms of the theorem. However, it is often difficult to prove a theorem without resorting to a clever use of a proof by contraposition or a proof by contradiction, or some other proof technique. In Section 1.8 we will address proof strategy. We will describe various approaches that can be used to find proofs when straightforward approaches do not work. Constructing proofs is an art that can be learned only through experience, including writing proofs, having your proofs critiqued, and reading and analyzing other proofs.

Exercises

1. Use a direct proof to show that the sum of two odd integers is even.

2. Use a direct proof to show that the sum of two even integers is even.

3. Show that the square of an even number is an even number using a direct proof.

4. Show that the additive inverse, or negative, of an even number is an even number using a direct proof.

5. Prove that if $m + n$ and $n + p$ are even integers, where m, n, and p are integers, then $m + p$ is even. What kind of proof did you use?

6. Use a direct proof to show that the product of two odd numbers is odd.

7. Use a direct proof to show that every odd integer is the difference of two squares.

8. Prove that if n is a perfect square, then $n + 2$ is not a perfect square.

9. Use a proof by contradiction to prove that the sum of an irrational number and a rational number is irrational.

10. Use a direct proof to show that the product of two rational numbers is rational.

11. Prove or disprove that the product of two irrational numbers is irrational.

12. Prove or disprove that the product of a nonzero rational number and an irrational number is irrational.

13. Prove that if x is irrational, then $1/x$ is irrational.

14. Prove that if x is rational and $x \neq 0$, then $1/x$ is rational.

15. Use a proof by contraposition to show that if $x + y \geq 2$, where x and y are real numbers, then $x \geq 1$ or $y \geq 1$.

☞ **16.** Prove that if m and n are integers and mn is even, then m is even or n is even.

17. Show that if n is an integer and $n^3 + 5$ is odd, then n is even using

a) a proof by contraposition.

b) a proof by contradiction.

18. Prove that if n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is even, then n is even using

a) a proof by contraposition.

b) a proof by contradiction.

19. Prove the proposition $P(0)$, where $P(n)$ is the proposition "If n is a positive integer greater than 1, then $n^2 > n$." What kind of proof did you use?

20. Prove the proposition $P(1)$, where $P(n)$ is the proposition "If n is a positive integer, then $n^2 \geq n$." What kind of proof did you use?

21. Let $P(n)$ be the proposition "If a and b are positive real numbers, then $(a + b)^n \geq a^n + b^n$." Prove that $P(1)$ is true. What kind of proof did you use?

22. Show that if you pick three socks from a drawer containing just blue socks and black socks, you must get either a pair of blue socks or a pair of black socks.

23. Show that at least ten of any 64 days chosen must fall on the same day of the week.

24. Show that at least three of any 25 days chosen must fall in the same month of the year.

25. Use a proof by contradiction to show that there is no rational number r for which $r^3 + r + 1 = 0$. [*Hint:* Assume that $r = a/b$ is a root, where a and b are integers and a/b is in lowest terms. Obtain an equation involving integers by multiplying by b^3. Then look at whether a and b are each odd or even.]

26. Prove that if n is a positive integer, then n is even if and only if $7n + 4$ is even.

27. Prove that if n is a positive integer, then n is odd if and only if $5n + 6$ is odd.

28. Prove that $m^2 = n^2$ if and only if $m = n$ or $m = -n$.

29. Prove or disprove that if m and n are integers such that $mn = 1$, then either $m = 1$ and $n = 1$, or else $m = -1$ and $n = -1$.

30. Show that these three statements are equivalent, where a and b are real numbers: (*i*) a is less than b, (*ii*) the average of a and b is greater than a, and (*iii*) the average of a and b is less than b.

31. Show that these statements about the integer x are equivalent: (*i*) $3x + 2$ is even, (*ii*) $x + 5$ is odd, (*iii*) x^2 is even.

32. Show that these statements about the real number x are equivalent: (*i*) x is rational, (*ii*) $x/2$ is rational, (*iii*) $3x - 1$ is rational.

33. Show that these statements about the real number x are equivalent: (*i*) x is irrational, (*ii*) $3x + 2$ is irrational, (*iii*) $x/2$ is irrational.

34. Is this reasoning for finding the solutions of the equation $\sqrt{2x^2 - 1} = x$ correct? (*1*) $\sqrt{2x^2 - 1} = x$ is given; (*2*) $2x^2 - 1 = x^2$, obtained by squaring both sides of (1); (*3*) $x^2 - 1 = 0$, obtained by subtracting x^2 from both sides of (2); (*4*) $(x - 1)(x + 1) = 0$, obtained by factoring the left-hand side of $x^2 - 1$; (*5*) $x = 1$ or $x = -1$, which follows because $ab = 0$ implies that $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

35. Are these steps for finding the solutions of $\sqrt{x + 3} = 3 - x$ correct? (*1*) $\sqrt{x + 3} = 3 - x$ is given; (*2*) $x + 3 = x^2 - 6x + 9$, obtained by squaring both sides of (1); (*3*) $0 = x^2 - 7x + 6$, obtained by subtracting $x + 3$ from both sides of (2); (*4*) $0 = (x - 1)(x - 6)$, obtained by factoring the right-hand side of (3); (*5*) $x = 1$ or $x = 6$, which follows from (4) because $ab = 0$ implies that $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

36. Show that the propositions p_1, p_2, p_3, and p_4 can be shown to be equivalent by showing that $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_4$, $p_2 \leftrightarrow p_3$, and $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_3$.

37. Show that the propositions p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, and p_5 can be shown to be equivalent by proving that the conditional statements $p_1 \rightarrow p_4$, $p_3 \rightarrow p_1$, $p_4 \rightarrow p_2$, $p_2 \rightarrow p_5$, and $p_5 \rightarrow p_3$ are true.

38. Find a counterexample to the statement that every positive integer can be written as the sum of the squares of three integers.

39. Prove that at least one of the real numbers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ is greater than or equal to the average of these numbers. What kind of proof did you use?

40. Use Exercise 39 to show that if the first 10 positive integers are placed around a circle, in any order, there exist three integers in consecutive locations around the circle that have a sum greater than or equal to 17.

41. Prove that if n is an integer, these four statements are equivalent: (*i*) n is even, (*ii*) $n + 1$ is odd, (*iii*) $3n + 1$ is odd, (*iv*) $3n$ is even.

42. Prove that these four statements about the integer n are equivalent: (*i*) n^2 is odd, (*ii*) $1 - n$ is even, (*iii*) n^3 is odd, (*iv*) $n^2 + 1$ is even.

1.8 Proof Methods and Strategy

Introduction

Assessment

In Section 1.7 we introduced many methods of proof and illustrated how each method can be used. In this section we continue this effort. We will introduce several other commonly used proof methods, including the method of proving a theorem by considering different cases separately. We will also discuss proofs where we prove the existence of objects with desired properties.

In Section 1.7 we briefly discussed the strategy behind constructing proofs. This strategy includes selecting a proof method and then successfully constructing an argument step by step, based on this method. In this section, after we have developed a versatile arsenal of proof methods, we will study some aspects of the art and science of proofs. We will provide advice on how to find a proof of a theorem. We will describe some tricks of the trade, including how proofs can be found by working backward and by adapting existing proofs.

When mathematicians work, they formulate conjectures and attempt to prove or disprove them. We will briefly describe this process here by proving results about tiling checkerboards with dominoes and other types of pieces. Looking at tilings of this kind, we will be able to quickly formulate conjectures and prove theorems without first developing a theory.

We will conclude the section by discussing the role of open questions. In particular, we will discuss some interesting problems either that have been solved after remaining open for hundreds of years or that still remain open.

Exhaustive Proof and Proof by Cases

Sometimes we cannot prove a theorem using a single argument that holds for all possible cases. We now introduce a method that can be used to prove a theorem, by considering different cases separately. This method is based on a rule of inference that we will now introduce. To prove a conditional statement of the form

$$(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \cdots \vee p_n) \rightarrow q$$

the tautology

$$[(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \cdots \vee p_n) \rightarrow q] \leftrightarrow [(p_1 \rightarrow q) \wedge (p_2 \rightarrow q) \wedge \cdots \wedge (p_n \rightarrow q)]$$

can be used as a rule of inference. This shows that the original conditional statement with a hypothesis made up of a disjunction of the propositions $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ can be proved by proving each of the n conditional statements $p_i \rightarrow q$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, individually. Such an argument is called a **proof by cases**. Sometimes to prove that a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is true, it is convenient to use a disjunction $p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \cdots \vee p_n$ instead of p as the hypothesis of the conditional statement, where p and $p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \cdots \vee p_n$ are equivalent.

EXHAUSTIVE PROOF Some theorems can be proved by examining a relatively small number of examples. Such proofs are called **exhaustive proofs**, or **proofs by exhaustion** because these proofs proceed by exhausting all possibilities. An exhaustive proof is a special type of proof by cases where each case involves checking a single example. We now provide some illustrations of exhaustive proofs.

EXAMPLE 1 Prove that $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$ if n is a positive integer with $n \leq 4$.

Solution: We use a proof by exhaustion. We only need verify the inequality $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$ when $n = 1, 2, 3$, and 4. For $n = 1$, we have $(n + 1)^3 = 2^3 = 8$ and $3^n = 3^1 = 3$; for $n = 2$, we have $(n + 1)^3 = 3^3 = 27$ and $3^n = 3^2 = 9$; for $n = 3$, we have $(n + 1)^3 = 4^3 = 64$ and $3^n = 3^3 = 27$; and for $n = 4$, we have $(n + 1)^3 = 5^3 = 125$ and $3^n = 3^4 = 81$. In each of these four cases, we see that $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$. We have used the method of exhaustion to prove that $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$ if n is a positive integer with $n \leq 4$. ◀

Extra Examples

EXAMPLE 2 Prove that the only consecutive positive integers not exceeding 100 that are perfect powers are 8 and 9. (An integer is a **perfect power** if it equals n^a, where a is an integer greater than 1.)

Solution: We use a proof by exhaustion. In particular, we can prove this fact by examining positive integers n not exceeding 100, first checking whether n is a perfect power, and if it is, checking whether $n + 1$ is also a perfect power. A quicker way to do this is simply to look at all perfect powers not exceeding 100 and checking whether the next largest integer is also a perfect power. The squares of positive integers not exceeding 100 are 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, and 100. The cubes of positive integers not exceeding 100 are 1, 8, 27, and 64. The fourth powers of positive integers not exceeding 100 are 1, 16, and 81. The fifth powers of positive integers not exceeding 100 are 1 and 32. The sixth powers of positive integers not exceeding 100 are 1 and 64. There are no powers of positive integers higher than the sixth power not exceeding 100, other than 1. Looking at this list of perfect powers not exceeding 100, we see that $n = 8$ is the only perfect power n for which $n + 1$ is also a perfect power. That is, $2^3 = 8$ and $3^2 = 9$ are the only two consecutive perfect powers not exceeding 100. ◀

Proofs by exhaustion can tire out people and computers when the number of cases challenges the available processing power!

People can carry out exhaustive proofs when it is necessary to check only a relatively small number of instances of a statement. Computers do not complain when they are asked to check a much larger number of instances of a statement, but they still have limitations. Note that not even a computer can check all instances when it is impossible to list all instances to check.

PROOF BY CASES A proof by cases must cover all possible cases that arise in a theorem. We illustrate proof by cases with a couple of examples. In each example, you should check that all possible cases are covered.

EXAMPLE 3 Prove that if n is an integer, then $n^2 \geq n$.

Solution: We can prove that $n^2 \geq n$ for every integer by considering three cases, when $n = 0$, when $n \geq 1$, and when $n \leq -1$. We split the proof into three cases because it is straightforward to prove the result by considering zero, positive integers, and negative integers separately.

Case (i): When $n = 0$, because $0^2 = 0$, we see that $0^2 \geq 0$. It follows that $n^2 \geq n$ is true in this case.

Extra Examples

Case (ii): When $n \geq 1$, when we multiply both sides of the inequality $n \geq 1$ by the positive integer n, we obtain $n \cdot n \geq n \cdot 1$. This implies that $n^2 \geq n$ for $n \geq 1$.

Case (iii): In this case $n \leq -1$. However, $n^2 \geq 0$. It follows that $n^2 \geq n$.

Because the inequality $n^2 \geq n$ holds in all three cases, we can conclude that if n is an integer, then $n^2 \geq n$. ◀

EXAMPLE 4 Use a proof by cases to show that $|xy| = |x||y|$, where x and y are real numbers. (Recall that $|a|$, the absolute value of a, equals a when $a \geq 0$ and equals $-a$ when $a \leq 0$.)

Solution: In our proof of this theorem, we remove absolute values using the fact that $|a| = a$ when $a \geq 0$ and $|a| = -a$ when $a < 0$. Because both $|x|$ and $|y|$ occur in our formula, we will need four cases: *(i)* x and y both nonnegative, *(ii)* x nonnegative and y is negative, *(iii)* x negative and y nonnegative, and *(iv)* x negative and y negative. We denote by p_1, p_2, p_3, and p_4, the proposition stating the assumption for each of these four cases, respectively.

(Note that we can remove the absolute value signs by making the appropriate choice of signs within each case.)

Case (i): We see that $p_1 \rightarrow q$ because $xy \geq 0$ when $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$, so that $|xy| = xy = |x||y|$.

Case (ii): To see that $p_2 \rightarrow q$, note that if $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$, then $xy \leq 0$, so that $|xy| = -xy = x(-y) = |x||y|$. (Here, because $y < 0$, we have $|y| = -y$.)

Case (iii): To see that $p_3 \rightarrow q$, we follow the same reasoning as the previous case with the roles of x and y reversed.

Case (iv): To see that $p_4 \rightarrow q$, note that when $x < 0$ and $y < 0$, it follows that $xy > 0$. Hence, $|xy| = xy = (-x)(-y) = |x||y|$.

Because $|xy| = |x||y|$ holds in each of the four cases and these cases exhaust all possibilities, we can conclude that $|xy| = |x||y|$, whenever x and y are real numbers. ◀

LEVERAGING PROOF BY CASES The examples we have presented illustrating proof by cases provide some insight into when to use this method of proof. In particular, when it is not possible to consider all cases of a proof at the same time, a proof by cases should be considered. When should you use such a proof? Generally, look for a proof by cases when there is no obvious way to begin a proof, but when extra information in each case helps move the proof forward. Example 5 illustrates how the method of proof by cases can be used effectively.

EXAMPLE 5 Formulate a conjecture about the final decimal digit of the square of an integer and prove your result.

Solution: The smallest perfect squares are 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100, 121, 144, 169, 196, 225, and so on. We notice that the digits that occur as the final digit of a square are 0, 1, 4, 5, 6, and 9, with 2, 3, 7, and 8 never appearing as the final digit of a square. We conjecture this theorem: The final decimal digit of a perfect square is 0, 1, 4, 5, 6 or 9. How can we prove this theorem?

We first note that we can express an integer n as $10a + b$, where a and b are positive integers and b is $0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8$, or 9. Here a is the integer obtained by subtracting the final decimal digit of n from n and dividing by 10. Next, note that $(10a + b)^2 = 100a^2 + 20ab + b^2 = 10(10a^2 + 2b) + b^2$, so that the final decimal digit of n^2 is the same as the final decimal digit of b^2. Furthermore, note that the final decimal digit of b^2 is the same as the final decimal digit of $(10 - b)^2 = 100 - 20b + b^2$. Consequently, we can reduce our proof to the consideration of six cases.

Case (i): The final digit of n is 1 or 9. Then the final decimal digit of n^2 is the final decimal digit of $1^2 = 1$ or $9^2 = 81$, namely 1.

Case (ii): The final digit of n is 2 or 8. Then the final decimal digit of n^2 is the final decimal digit of $2^2 = 4$ or $8^2 = 64$, namely 4.

Case (iii): The final digit of n is 3 or 7. Then the final decimal digit of n^2 is the final decimal digit of $3^2 = 9$ or $7^2 = 49$, namely 9.

Case (iv): The final digit of n is 4 or 6. Then the final decimal digit of n^2 is the final decimal digit of $4^2 = 16$ or $6^2 = 36$, namely 6.

Case (v): The final decimal digit of n is 5. Then the final decimal digit of n^2 is the final decimal digit of $5^2 = 25$, namely 5.

Case (vi): The final decimal digit of n is 0. Then the final decimal digit of n^2 is the final decimal digit of $0^2 = 0$, namely 0.

Because we have considered all six cases, we can conclude that the final decimal digit of n^2, where n is an integer is either 0, 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, or 9. ◀

Sometimes we can eliminate all but a few examples in a proof by cases, as Example 6 illustrates.

EXAMPLE 6 Show that there are no solutions in integers x and y of $x^2 + 3y^2 = 8$.

Solution: We can quickly reduce a proof to checking just a few simple cases because $x^2 > 8$ when $|x| \geq 3$ and $3y^2 > 8$ when $|y| \geq 2$. This leaves the cases when x equals $-2, -1, 0, 1,$ or 2 and y equals $-1, 0,$ or 1. We can finish using an exhaustive proof. To dispense with the remaining cases, we note that possible values for x^2 are 0, 1, and 4, and possible values for $3y^2$ are 0 and 3, and the largest sum of possible values for x^2 and $3y^2$ is 7. Consequently, it is impossible for $x^2 + 3y^2 = 8$ to hold when x and y are integers. ◀

WITHOUT LOSS OF GENERALITY In the proof in Example 4, we dismissed case (*iii*), where $x < 0$ and $y \geq 0$, because it is the same as case (*ii*), where $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$, with the roles of x and y reversed. To shorten the proof, we could have proved cases (*ii*) and (*iii*) together by assuming, **without loss of generality**, that $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$. Implicit in this statement is that we can complete the case with $x < 0$ and $y \geq 0$ using the same argument as we used for the case with $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$, but with the obvious changes.

In general, when the phrase "without loss of generality" is used in a proof (often abbreviated as WLOG), we assert that by proving one case of a theorem, no additional argument is required to prove other specified cases. That is, other cases follow by making straightforward changes to the argument, or by filling in some straightforward initial step. Proofs by cases can often be made much more efficient when the notion of without loss of generality is employed. Of course, incorrect use of this principle can lead to unfortunate errors. Sometimes assumptions are made that lead to a loss in generality. Such assumptions can be made that do not take into account that one case may be substantially different from others. This can lead to an incomplete, and possibly unsalvageable, proof. In fact, many incorrect proofs of famous theorems turned out to rely on arguments that used the idea of "without loss of generality" to establish cases that could not be quickly proved from simpler cases.

In a proof by cases be sure not to omit any cases and check that you have proved all cases correctly!

We now illustrate a proof where without loss of generality is used effectively together with other proof techniques.

EXAMPLE 7 Show that if x and y are integers and both xy and $x + y$ are even, then both x and y are even.

Solution: We will use proof by contraposition, the notion of without loss of generality, and proof by cases. First, suppose that x and y are not both even. That is, assume that x is odd or that y is odd (or both). Without loss of generality, we assume that x is odd, so that $x = 2m + 1$ for some integer k.

To complete the proof, we need to show that xy is odd or $x + y$ is odd. Consider two cases: (i) y even, and (ii) y odd. In (i), $y = 2n$ for some integer n, so that $x + y = (2m + 1) + 2n = 2(m + n) + 1$ is odd. In (ii), $y = 2n + 1$ for some integer n, so that $xy = (2m + 1)(2n + 1) = 4mn + 2m + 2n + 1 = 2(2mn + m + n) + 1$ is odd. This completes the proof by contraposition. (Note that our use of without loss of generality within the proof is justified because the proof when y is odd can be obtained by simply interchanging the roles of x and y in the proof we have given.) ◀

COMMON ERRORS WITH EXHAUSTIVE PROOF AND PROOF BY CASES A common error of reasoning is to draw incorrect conclusions from examples. No matter how many separate examples are considered, a theorem is not proved by considering examples unless every possible

case is covered. The problem of proving a theorem is analogous to showing that a computer program always produces the output desired. No matter how many input values are tested, unless all input values are tested, we cannot conclude that the program always produces the correct output.

EXAMPLE 8 Is it true that every positive integer is the sum of 18 fourth powers of integers?

Solution: To determine whether a positive integer n can be written as the sum of 18 fourth powers of integers, we might begin by examining whether n is the sum of 18 fourth powers of integers for the smallest positive integers. Because the fourth powers of integers are 0, 1, 16, 81, . . . , if we can select 18 terms from these numbers that add up to n, then n is the sum of 18 fourth powers. We can show that all positive integers up to 78 can be written as the sum of 18 fourth powers. (The details are left to the reader.) However, if we decided this was enough checking, we would come to the wrong conclusion. It is not true that every positive integer is the sum of 18 fourth powers because 79 is not the sum of 18 fourth powers (as the reader can verify). ◀

Another common error involves making unwarranted assumptions that lead to incorrect proofs by cases where not all cases are considered. This is illustrated in Example 9.

EXAMPLE 9 What is wrong with this "proof?"

"Theorem:" If x is a real number, then x^2 is a positive real number.

"Proof:" Let p_1 be "x is positive," let p_2 be "x is negative," and let q be "x^2 is positive." To show that $p_1 \rightarrow q$ is true, note that when x is positive, x^2 is positive because it is the product of two positive numbers, x and x. To show that $p_2 \rightarrow q$, note that when x is negative, x^2 is positive because it is the product of two negative numbers, x and x. This completes the proof.

Solution: The problem with this "proof" is that we missed the case of $x = 0$. When $x = 0$, $x^2 = 0$ is not positive, so the supposed theorem is false. If p is "x is a real number," then we can prove results where p is the hypothesis with three cases, p_1, p_2, and p_3, where p_1 is "x is positive," p_2 is "x is negative," and p_3 is "$x = 0$" because of the equivalence $p \leftrightarrow p_1 \vee p_2 \vee p_3$. ◀

Existence Proofs

Many theorems are assertions that objects of a particular type exist. A theorem of this type is a proposition of the form $\exists x P(x)$, where P is a predicate. A proof of a proposition of the form $\exists x P(x)$ is called an **existence proof**. There are several ways to prove a theorem of this type. Sometimes an existence proof of $\exists x P(x)$ can be given by finding an element a, called a **witness**, such that $P(a)$ is true. This type of existence proof is called **constructive**. It is also possible to give an existence proof that is **nonconstructive**; that is, we do not find an element a such that $P(a)$ is true, but rather prove that $\exists x P(x)$ is true in some other way. One common method of giving a nonconstructive existence proof is to use proof by contradiction and show that the negation of the existential quantification implies a contradiction. The concept of a constructive existence proof is illustrated by Example 10 and the concept of a nonconstructive existence proof is illustrated by Example 11.

EXAMPLE 10 **A Constructive Existence Proof** Show that there is a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways.

Extra Examples

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

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

Because we have displayed a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes in two different ways, we are done.

There is an interesting story pertaining to this example. The English mathematician G. H. Hardy, when visiting the ailing Indian prodigy Ramanujan in the hospital, remarked that 1729, the number of the cab he took, was rather dull. Ramanujan replied "No, it is a very interesting number; it is the smallest number expressible as the sum of cubes in two different ways." ◀

EXAMPLE 11 **A Nonconstructive Existence Proof** Show that there exist irrational numbers x and y such that x^y is rational.

Solution: By Example 10 in Section 1.7 we know that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. Consider the number $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$. If it is rational, we have two irrational numbers x and y with x^y rational, namely, $x = \sqrt{2}$ and $y = \sqrt{2}$. On the other hand if $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is irrational, then we can let $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ and $y = \sqrt{2}$ so that $x^y = (\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}})^{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}^{(\sqrt{2}\cdot\sqrt{2})} = \sqrt{2}^2 = 2$.

This proof is an example of a nonconstructive existence proof because we have not found irrational numbers x and y such that x^y is rational. Rather, we have shown that either the pair $x = \sqrt{2}$, $y = \sqrt{2}$ or the pair $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$, $y = \sqrt{2}$ have the desired property, but we do not know which of these two pairs works! ◀

Links

GODFREY HAROLD HARDY (1877–1947) Hardy, born in Cranleigh, Surrey, England, was the older of two children of Isaac Hardy and Sophia Hall Hardy. His father was the geography and drawing master at the Cranleigh School and also gave singing lessons and played soccer. His mother gave piano lessons and helped run a boardinghouse for young students. Hardy's parents were devoted to their children's education. Hardy demonstrated his numerical ability at the early age of two when he began writing down numbers into the millions. He had a private mathematics tutor rather than attending regular classes at the Cranleigh School. He moved to Winchester College, a private high school, when he was 13 and was awarded a scholarship. He excelled in his studies and demonstrated a strong interest in mathematics. He entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1896 on a scholarship and won several prizes during his time there, graduating in 1899.

Hardy held the position of lecturer in mathematics at Trinity College at Cambridge University from 1906 to 1919, when he was appointed to the Sullivan chair of geometry at Oxford. He had become unhappy with Cambridge over the dismissal of the famous philosopher and mathematician Bertrand Russell from Trinity for antiwar activities and did not like a heavy load of administrative duties. In 1931 he returned to Cambridge as the Sadleirian professor of pure mathematics, where he remained until his retirement in 1942. He was a pure mathematician and held an elitist view of mathematics, hoping that his research could never be applied. Ironically, he is perhaps best known as one of the developers of the Hardy–Weinberg law, which predicts patterns of inheritance. His work in this area appeared as a letter to the journal *Science* in which he used simple algebraic ideas to demonstrate errors in an article on genetics. Hardy worked primarily in number theory and function theory, exploring such topics as the Riemann zeta function, Fourier series, and the distribution of primes. He made many important contributions to many important problems, such as Waring's problem about representing positive integers as sums of kth powers and the problem of representing odd integers as sums of three primes. Hardy is also remembered for his collaborations with John E. Littlewood, a colleague at Cambridge, with whom he wrote more than 100 papers, and the famous Indian mathematical prodigy Srinivasa Ramanujan. His collaboration with Littlewood led to the joke that there were only three important English mathematicians at that time, Hardy, Littlewood, and Hardy–Littlewood, although some people thought that Hardy had invented a fictitious person, Littlewood, because Littlewood was seldom seen outside Cambridge. Hardy had the wisdom of recognizing Ramanujan's genius from unconventional but extremely creative writings Ramanujan sent him, while other mathematicians failed to see the genius. Hardy brought Ramanujan to Cambridge and collaborated on important joint papers, establishing new results on the number of partitions of an integer. Hardy was interested in mathematics education, and his book *A Course of Pure Mathematics* had a profound effect on undergraduate instruction in mathematics in the first half of the twentieth century. Hardy also wrote *A Mathematician's Apology*, in which he gives his answer to the question of whether it is worthwhile to devote one's life to the study of mathematics. It presents Hardy's view of what mathematics is and what a mathematician does.

Hardy had a strong interest in sports. He was an avid cricket fan and followed scores closely. One peculiar trait he had was that he did not like his picture taken (only five snapshots are known) and disliked mirrors, covering them with towels immediately upon entering a hotel room.

Nonconstructive existence proofs often are quite subtle, as Example 12 illustrates.

EXAMPLE 12 **Chomp** is a game played by two players. In this game, cookies are laid out on a rectangular grid. The cookie in the top left position is poisoned, as shown in Figure 1(a). The two players take turns making moves; at each move, a player is required to eat a remaining cookie, together with all cookies to the right and/or below it (see Figure 1(b), for example). The loser is the player who has no choice but to eat the poisoned cookie. We ask whether one of the two players has a winning strategy. That is, can one of the players always make moves that are guaranteed to lead to a win?

Links

Solution: We will give a nonconstructive existence proof of a winning strategy for the first player. That is, we will show that the first player always has a winning strategy without explicitly describing the moves this player must follow.

First, note that the game ends and cannot finish in a draw because with each move at least one cookie is eaten, so after no more than $m \times n$ moves the game ends, where the initial grid is $m \times n$. Now, suppose that the first player begins the game by eating just the cookie in the bottom right corner. There are two possibilities, this is the first move of a winning strategy for the first player, or the second player can make a move that is the first move of a winning strategy for the second player. In this second case, instead of eating just the cookie in the bottom right corner, the first player could have made the same move that the second player made as the first

Links

SRINIVASA RAMANUJAN (1887–1920) The famous mathematical prodigy Ramanujan was born and raised in southern India near the city of Madras (now called Chennai). His father was a clerk in a cloth shop. His mother contributed to the family income by singing at a local temple. Ramanujan studied at the local English language school, displaying his talent and interest for mathematics. At the age of 13 he mastered a textbook used by college students. When he was 15, a university student lent him a copy of *Synopsis of Pure Mathematics*. Ramanujan decided to work out the over 6000 results in this book, stated without proof or explanation, writing on sheets later collected to form notebooks. He graduated from high school in 1904, winning a scholarship to the University of Madras. Enrolling in a fine arts curriculum, he neglected his subjects other than mathematics and lost his scholarship. He failed to pass examinations at the university four times from 1904 to 1907, doing well only in mathematics. During this time he filled his notebooks with original writings, sometimes rediscovering already published work and at other times making new discoveries.

Without a university degree, it was difficult for Ramanujan to find a decent job. To survive, he had to depend on the goodwill of his friends. He tutored students in mathematics, but his unconventional ways of thinking and failure to stick to the syllabus caused problems. He was married in 1909 in an arranged marriage to a young woman nine years his junior. Needing to support himself and his wife, he moved to Madras and sought a job. He showed his notebooks of mathematical writings to his potential employers, but the books bewildered them. However, a professor at the Presidency College recognized his genius and supported him, and in 1912 he found work as an accounts clerk, earning a small salary.

Ramanujan continued his mathematical work during this time and published his first paper in 1910 in an Indian journal. He realized that his work was beyond that of Indian mathematicians and decided to write to leading English mathematicians. The first mathematicians he wrote to turned down his request for help. But in January 1913 he wrote to G. H. Hardy, who was inclined to turn Ramanujan down, but the mathematical statements in the letter, although stated without proof, puzzled Hardy. He decided to examine them closely with the help of his colleague and collaborator J. E. Littlewood. They decided, after careful study, that Ramanujan was probably a genius, because his statements "could only be written down by a mathematician of the highest class; they must be true, because if they were not true, no one would have the imagination to invent them."

Hardy arranged a scholarship for Ramanujan, bringing him to England in 1914. Hardy personally tutored him in mathematical analysis, and they collaborated for five years, proving significant theorems about the number of partitions of integers. During this time, Ramanujan made important contributions to number theory and also worked on continued fractions, infinite series, and elliptic functions. Ramanujan had amazing insight involving certain types of functions and series, but his purported theorems on prime numbers were often wrong, illustrating his vague idea of what constitutes a correct proof. He was one of the youngest members ever appointed a Fellow of the Royal Society. Unfortunately, in 1917 Ramanujan became extremely ill. At the time, it was thought that he had trouble with the English climate and had contracted tuberculosis. It is now thought that he suffered from a vitamin deficiency, brought on by Ramanujan's strict vegetarianism and shortages in wartime England. He returned to India in 1919, continuing to do mathematics even when confined to his bed. He was religious and thought his mathematical talent came from his family deity, Namagiri. He considered mathematics and religion to be linked. He said that "an equation for me has no meaning unless it expresses a thought of God." His short life came to an end in April 1920, when he was 32 years old. Ramanujan left several notebooks of unpublished results. The writings in these notebooks illustrate Ramanujan's insights but are quite sketchy. Several mathematicians have devoted many years of study to explaining and justifying the results in these notebooks.

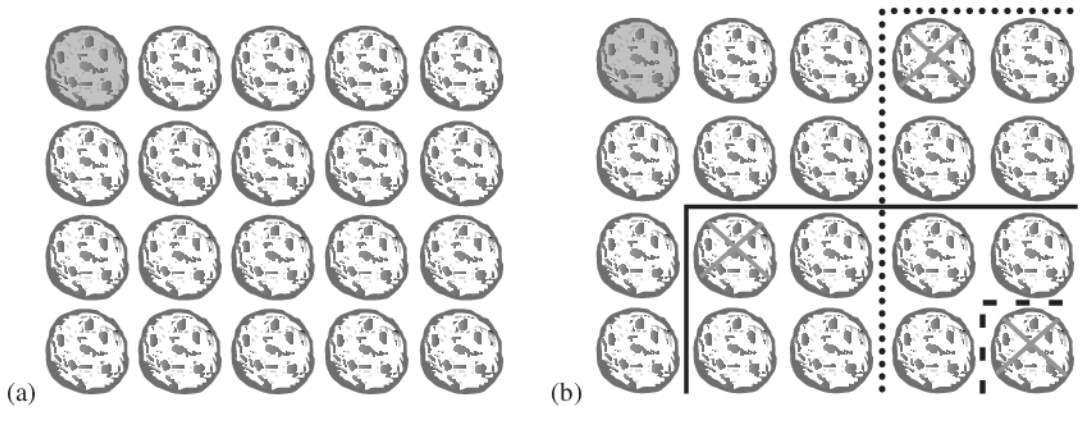


FIGURE 1 **(a) Chomp (Top Left Cookie Poisoned). (b) Three Possible Moves.**

move of a winning strategy (and then continued to follow that winning strategy). This would guarantee a win for the first player.

Note that we showed that a winning strategy exists, but we did not specify an actual winning strategy. Consequently, the proof is a nonconstructive existence proof. In fact, no one has been able to describe a winning strategy for that Chomp that applies for all rectangular grids by describing the moves that the first player should follow. However, winning strategies can be described for certain special cases, such as when the grid is square and when the grid only has two rows of cookies (see Exercises 15 and 16 in Section 5.2). ◀

Uniqueness Proofs

Some theorems assert the existence of a unique element with a particular property. In other words, these theorems assert that there is exactly one element with this property. To prove a statement of this type we need to show that an element with this property exists and that no other element has this property. The two parts of a **uniqueness proof** are:

Existence: We show that an element x with the desired property exists.
Uniqueness: We show that if $y \neq x$, then y does not have the desired property.

Equivalently, we can show that if x and y both have the desired property, then $x = y$.

Remark: Showing that there is a unique element x such that $P(x)$ is the same as proving the statement $\exists x(P(x) \wedge \forall y(y \neq x \rightarrow \neg P(y)))$.

We illustrate the elements of a uniqueness proof in Example 13.

EXAMPLE 13 Show that if a and b are real numbers and $a \neq 0$, then there is a unique real number r such that $ar + b = 0$.

Solution: First, note that the real number $r = -b/a$ is a solution of $ar + b = 0$ because $a(-b/a) + b = -b + b = 0$. Consequently, a real number r exists for which $ar + b = 0$. This is the existence part of the proof.

Second, suppose that s is a real number such that $as + b = 0$. Then $ar + b = as + b$, where $r = -b/a$. Subtracting b from both sides, we find that $ar = as$. Dividing both sides of this last equation by a, which is nonzero, we see that $r = s$. This means that if $s \neq r$, then $as + b \neq 0$. This establishes the uniqueness part of the proof. ◀

Extra Examples

Proof Strategies

Finding proofs can be a challenging business. When you are confronted with a statement to prove, you should first replace terms by their definitions and then carefully analyze what the hypotheses and the conclusion mean. After doing so, you can attempt to prove the result using one of the available methods of proof. Generally, if the statement is a conditional statement, you should first try a direct proof; if this fails, you can try an indirect proof. If neither of these approaches works, you might try a proof by contradiction.

FORWARD AND BACKWARD REASONING Whichever method you choose, you need a starting point for your proof. To begin a direct proof of a conditional statement, you start with the premises. Using these premises, together with axioms and known theorems, you can construct a proof using a sequence of steps that leads to the conclusion. This type of reasoning, called *forward reasoning*, is the most common type of reasoning used to prove relatively simple results. Similarly, with indirect reasoning you can start with the negation of the conclusion and, using a sequence of steps, obtain the negation of the premises.

Unfortunately, forward reasoning is often difficult to use to prove more complicated results, because the reasoning needed to reach the desired conclusion may be far from obvious. In such cases it may be helpful to use *backward reasoning*. To reason backward to prove a statement q, we find a statement p that we can prove with the property that $p \rightarrow q$. (Note that it is not helpful to find a statement r that you can prove such that $q \rightarrow r$, because it is the fallacy of begging the question to conclude from $q \rightarrow r$ and r that q is true.) Backward reasoning is illustrated in Examples 14 and 15.

EXAMPLE 14 Given two positive real numbers x and y, their **arithmetic mean** is $(x + y)/2$ and their **geometric mean** is $\sqrt{xy}$. When we compare the arithmetic and geometric means of pairs of distinct positive real numbers, we find that the arithmetic mean is always greater than the geometric mean. [For example, when $x = 4$ and $y = 6$, we have $5 = (4 + 6)/2 > \sqrt{4 \cdot 6} = \sqrt{24}$.] Can we prove that this inequality is always true?

Solution: To prove that $(x + y)/2 > \sqrt{xy}$ when x and y are distinct positive real numbers, we can work backward. We construct a sequence of equivalent inequalities. The equivalent inequalities are

$$\begin{aligned}
(x + y)/2 &> \sqrt{xy}, \\
(x + y)^2/4 &> xy, \\
(x + y)^2 &> 4xy, \\
x^2 + 2xy + y^2 &> 4xy, \\
x^2 - 2xy + y^2 &> 0, \\
(x - y)^2 &> 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Extra Examples

Because $(x - y)^2 > 0$ when $x \neq y$, it follows that the final inequality is true. Because all these inequalities are equivalent, it follows that $(x + y)/2 > \sqrt{xy}$ when $x \neq y$. Once we have carried out this backward reasoning, we can easily reverse the steps to construct a proof using forward reasoning. We now give this proof.

Suppose that x and y are distinct positive real numbers. Then $(x - y)^2 > 0$ because the square of a nonzero real number is positive (see Appendix 1). Because $(x - y)^2 = x^2 - 2xy + y^2$, this implies that $x^2 - 2xy + y^2 > 0$. Adding $4xy$ to both sides, we obtain $x^2 + 2xy + y^2 > 4xy$. Because $x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = (x + y)^2$, this means that $(x + y)^2 \geq 4xy$. Dividing both sides of this equation by 4, we see that $(x + y)^2/4 > xy$. Finally, taking square roots of both sides (which preserves the inequality because both sides are positive) yields

$(x + y)/2 > \sqrt{xy}$. We conclude that if x and y are distinct positive real numbers, then their arithmetic mean $(x + y)/2$ is greater than their geometric mean $\sqrt{xy}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 15 Suppose that two people play a game taking turns removing one, two, or three stones at a time from a pile that begins with 15 stones. The person who removes the last stone wins the game. Show that the first player can win the game no matter what the second player does.

Solution: To prove that the first player can always win the game, we work backward. At the last step, the first player can win if this player is left with a pile containing one, two, or three stones. The second player will be forced to leave one, two, or three stones if this player has to remove stones from a pile containing four stones. Consequently, one way for the first person to win is to leave four stones for the second player on the next-to-last move. The first person can leave four stones when there are five, six, or seven stones left at the beginning of this player's move, which happens when the second player has to remove stones from a pile with eight stones. Consequently, to force the second player to leave five, six, or seven stones, the first player should leave eight stones for the second player at the second-to-last move for the first player. This means that there are nine, ten, or eleven stones when the first player makes this move. Similarly, the first player should leave twelve stones when this player makes the first move. We can reverse this argument to show that the first player can always make moves so that this player wins the game no matter what the second player does. These moves successively leave twelve, eight, and four stones for the second player. ◀

ADAPTING EXISTING PROOFS An excellent way to look for possible approaches that can be used to prove a statement is to take advantage of existing proofs of similar results. Often an existing proof can be adapted to prove other facts. Even when this is not the case, some of the ideas used in existing proofs may be helpful. Because existing proofs provide clues for new proofs, you should read and understand the proofs you encounter in your studies. This process is illustrated in Example 16.

EXAMPLE 16 In Example 10 of Section 1.7 we proved that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. We now conjecture that $\sqrt{3}$ is irrational. Can we adapt the proof in Example 10 in Section 1.7 to show that $\sqrt{3}$ is irrational?

Extra Examples

Solution: To adapt the proof in Example 10 in Section 1.7, we begin by mimicking the steps in that proof, but with $\sqrt{2}$ replaced with $\sqrt{3}$. First, we suppose that $\sqrt{3} = d/c$ where the fraction c/d is in lowest terms. Squaring both sides tells us that $3 = c^2/d^2$, so that $3d^2 = c^2$. Can we use this equation to show that 3 must be a factor of both c and d, similar to how we used the equation $2b^2 = a^2$ in Example 10 in Section 1.7 to show that 2 must be a factor of both a and b? (Recall that an integer s is a factor of the integer t if t/s is an integer. An integer n is even if and only if 2 is a factor of n.) In turns out that we can, but we need some ammunition from number theory, which we will develop in Chapter 4. We sketch out the remainder of the proof, but leave the justification of these steps until Chapter 4. Because 3 is a factor of c^2, it must also be a factor of c. Furthermore, because 3 is a factor of c, 9 is a factor of c^2, which means that 9 is a factor of $3d^2$. This implies that 3 is a factor of d^2, which means that 3 is a factor of that d. This makes 3 a factor of both c and d, which contradicts the assumption that c/d is in lowest terms. After we have filled in the justification for these steps, we will have shown that $\sqrt{3}$ is irrational by adapting the proof that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. Note that this proof can be extended to show that $\sqrt{n}$ is irrational whenever n is a positive integer that is not a perfect square. We leave the details of this to Chapter 4. ◀

A good tip is to look for existing proofs that you might adapt when you are confronted with proving a new theorem, particularly when the new theorem seems similar to one you have already proved.

Looking for Counterexamples

In Section 1.7 we introduced the use of counterexamples to show that certain statements are false. When confronted with a conjecture, you might first try to prove this conjecture, and if your attempts are unsuccessful, you might try to find a counterexample, first by looking at the simplest, smallest examples. If you cannot find a counterexample, you might again try to prove the statement. In any case, looking for counterexamples is an extremely important pursuit, which often provides insights into problems. We will illustrate the role of counterexamples in Example 17.

EXAMPLE 17 In Example 14 in Section 1.7 we showed that the statement "Every positive integer is the sum of two squares of integers" is false by finding a counterexample. That is, there are positive integers that cannot be written as the sum of the squares of two integers. Although we cannot write every positive integer as the sum of the squares of two integers, maybe we can write every positive integer as the sum of the squares of three integers. That is, is the statement "Every positive integer is the sum of the squares of three integers" true or false?

Extra Examples

Solution: Because we know that not every positive integer can be written as the sum of two squares of integers, we might initially be skeptical that every positive integer can be written as the sum of three squares of integers. So, we first look for a counterexample. That is, we can show that the statement "Every positive integer is the sum of three squares of integers" is false if we can find a particular integer that is not the sum of the squares of three integers. To look for a counterexample, we try to write successive positive integers as a sum of three squares. We find that $1 = 0^2 + 0^2 + 1^2$, $2 = 0^2 + 1^2 + 1^2$, $3 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2$, $4 = 0^2 + 0^2 + 2^2$, $5 = 0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2$, $6 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2$, but we cannot find a way to write 7 as the sum of three squares. To show that there are not three squares that add up to 7, we note that the only possible squares we can use are those not exceeding 7, namely, 0, 1, and 4. Because no three terms where each term is 0, 1, or 4 add up to 7, it follows that 7 is a counterexample. We conclude that the statement "Every positive integer is the sum of the squares of three integers" is false.

We have shown that not every positive integer is the sum of the squares of three integers. The next question to ask is whether every positive integer is the sum of the squares of four positive integers. Some experimentation provides evidence that the answer is yes. For example, $7 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 2^2$, $25 = 4^2 + 2^2 + 2^2 + 1^2$, and $87 = 9^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2$. It turns out the conjecture "Every positive integer is the sum of the squares of four integers" is true. For a proof, see [Ro10]. ◀

Proof Strategy in Action

Mathematics is generally taught as if mathematical facts were carved in stone. Mathematics texts (including the bulk of this book) formally present theorems and their proofs. Such presentations do not convey the discovery process in mathematics. This process begins with exploring concepts and examples, asking questions, formulating conjectures, and attempting to settle these conjectures either by proof or by counterexample. These are the day-to-day activities of mathematicians. Believe it or not, the material taught in textbooks was originally developed in this way.

Extra Examples

People formulate conjectures on the basis of many types of possible evidence. The examination of special cases can lead to a conjecture, as can the identification of possible patterns. Altering the hypotheses and conclusions of known theorems also can lead to plausible conjectures. At other times, conjectures are made based on intuition or a belief that a result holds. No matter how a conjecture was made, once it has been formulated, the goal is to prove or disprove it. When mathematicians believe that a conjecture may be true, they try to find a proof. If they cannot find a proof, they may look for a counterexample. When they cannot find a counterexample, they may switch gears and once again try to prove the conjecture. Although many conjectures are quickly settled, a few conjectures resist attack for hundreds of years and lead to

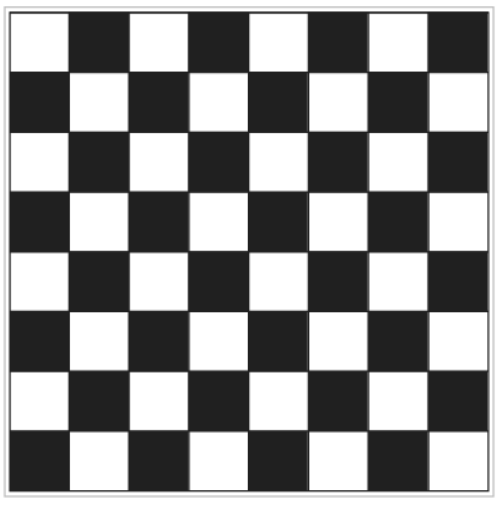


FIGURE 2 **The Standard Checkerboard.**

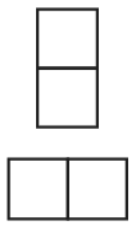


FIGURE 3 **Two Dominoes.**

the development of new parts of mathematics. We will mention a few famous conjectures later in this section.

Tilings

Links

We can illustrate aspects of proof strategy through a brief study of tilings of checkerboards. Looking at tilings of checkerboards is a fruitful way to quickly discover many different results and construct their proofs using a variety of proof methods. There are almost an endless number of conjectures that can be made and studied in this area too. To begin, we need to define some terms. A **checkerboard** is a rectangle divided into squares of the same size by horizontal and vertical lines. The game of checkers is played on a board with 8 rows and 8 columns; this board is called the **standard checkerboard** and is shown in Figure 2. In this section we use the term **board** to refer to a checkerboard of any rectangular size as well as parts of checkerboards obtained by removing one or more squares. A **domino** is a rectangular piece that is one square by two squares, as shown in Figure 3. We say that a board is **tiled** by dominoes when all its squares are covered with no overlapping dominoes and no dominoes overhanging the board. We now develop some results about tiling boards using dominoes.

EXAMPLE 18 Can we tile the standard checkerboard using dominoes?

Solution: We can find many ways to tile the standard checkerboard using dominoes. For example, we can tile it by placing 32 dominoes horizontally, as shown in Figure 4. The existence of one such tiling completes a constructive existence proof. Of course, there are a large number of other ways to do this tiling. We can place 32 dominoes vertically on the board or we can place some tiles vertically and some horizontally. But for a constructive existence proof we needed to find just one such tiling. ◀

EXAMPLE 19 Can we tile a board obtained by removing one of the four corner squares of a standard checkerboard?

Extra Examples

Solution: To answer this question, note that a standard checkerboard has 64 squares, so removing a square produces a board with 63 squares. Now suppose that we could tile a board obtained from the standard checkerboard by removing a corner square. The board has an even number of

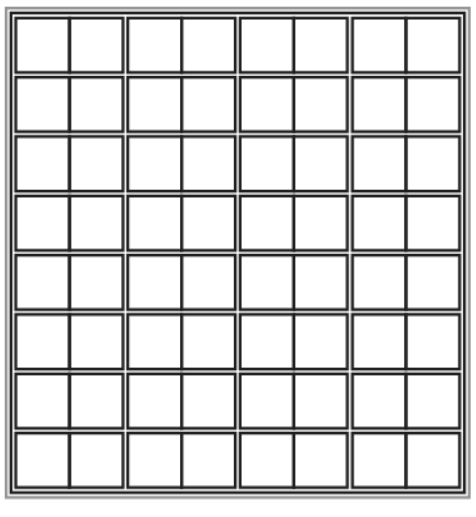


FIGURE 4 **Tiling the Standard Checkerboard.**

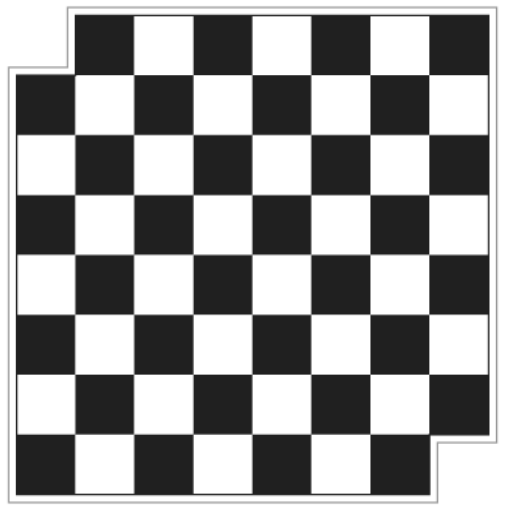


FIGURE 5 **The Standard Checkerboard with the Upper Left and Lower Right Squares Removed.**

squares because each domino covers two squares and no two dominoes overlap and no dominoes overhang the board. Consequently, we can prove by contradiction that a standard checkerboard with one square removed cannot be tiled using dominoes because such a board has an odd number of squares. ◀

We now consider a trickier situation.

EXAMPLE 20 Can we tile the board obtained by deleting the upper left and lower right corner squares of a standard checkerboard, shown in Figure 5?

Solution: A board obtained by deleting two squares of a standard checkerboard contains $64 - 2 = 62$ squares. Because 62 is even, we cannot quickly rule out the existence of a tiling of the standard checkerboard with its upper left and lower right squares removed, unlike Example 19, where we ruled out the existence of a tiling of the standard checkerboard with one corner square removed. Trying to construct a tiling of this board by successively placing dominoes might be a first approach, as the reader should attempt. However, no matter how much we try, we cannot find such a tiling. Because our efforts do not produce a tiling, we are led to conjecture that no tiling exists.

We might try to prove that no tiling exists by showing that we reach a dead end however we successively place dominoes on the board. To construct such a proof, we would have to consider all possible cases that arise as we run through all possible choices of successively placing dominoes. For example, we have two choices for covering the square in the second column of the first row, next to the removed top left corner. We could cover it with a horizontally placed tile or a vertically placed tile. Each of these two choices leads to further choices, and so on. It does not take long to see that this is not a fruitful plan of attack for a person, although a computer could be used to complete such a proof by exhaustion. (Exercise 45 asks you to supply such a proof to show that a 4×4 checkerboard with opposite corners removed cannot be tiled.)

We need another approach. Perhaps there is an easier way to prove there is no tiling of a standard checkerboard with two opposite corners removed. As with many proofs, a key observation can help. We color the squares of this checkerboard using alternating white and black squares, as in Figure 2. Observe that a domino in a tiling of such a board covers one white square and one black square. Next, note that this board has unequal numbers of white square and black

squares. We can use these observations to prove by contradiction that a standard checkerboard with opposite corners removed cannot be tiled using dominoes. We now present such a proof.

Proof: Suppose we can use dominoes to tile a standard checkerboard with opposite corners removed. Note that the standard checkerboard with opposite corners removed contains $64 - 2 = 62$ squares. The tiling would use $62/2 = 31$ dominoes. Note that each domino in this tiling covers one white and one black square. Consequently, the tiling covers 31 white squares and 31 black squares. However, when we remove two opposite corner squares, either 32 of the remaining squares are white and 30 are black or else 30 are white and 32 are black. This contradicts the assumption that we can use dominoes to cover a standard checkerboard with opposite corners removed, completing the proof. ◀

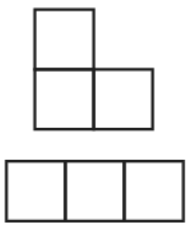


FIGURE 6 A Right Triomino and a Straight Triomino.

We can use other types of pieces besides dominoes in tilings. Instead of dominoes we can study tilings that use identically shaped pieces constructed from congruent squares that are connected along their edges. Such pieces are called **polyominoes**, a term coined in 1953 by the mathematician Solomon Golomb, the author of an entertaining book about them [Go94]. We will consider two polyominoes with the same number of squares the same if we can rotate and/or flip one of the polyominoes to get the other one. For example, there are two types of triominoes (see Figure 6), which are polyominoes made up of three squares connected by their sides. One type of triomino, the **straight triomino**, has three horizontally connected squares; the other type, **right triominoes**, resembles the letter L in shape, flipped and/or rotated, if necessary. We will study the tilings of a checkerboard by straight triominoes here; we will study tilings by right triominoes in Section 5.1.

EXAMPLE 21 Can you use straight triominoes to tile a standard checkerboard?

Solution: The standard checkerboard contains 64 squares and each triomino covers three squares. Consequently, if triominoes tile a board, the number of squares of the board must be a multiple of 3. Because 64 is not a multiple of 3, triominoes cannot be used to cover an 8×8 checkerboard. ◀

In Example 22, we consider the problem of using straight triominoes to tile a standard checkerboard with one corner missing.

EXAMPLE 22 Can we use straight triominoes to tile a standard checkerboard with one of its four corners removed? An 8×8 checkerboard with one corner removed contains $64 - 1 = 63$ squares. Any tiling by straight triominoes of one of these four boards uses $63/3 = 21$ triominoes. However, when we experiment, we cannot find a tiling of one of these boards using straight triominoes. A proof by exhaustion does not appear promising. Can we adapt our proof from Example 20 to prove that no such tiling exists?

Solution: We will color the squares of the checkerboard in an attempt to adapt the proof by contradiction we gave in Example 20 of the impossibility of using dominoes to tile a standard checkerboard with opposite corners removed. Because we are using straight triominoes rather than dominoes, we color the squares using three colors rather than two colors, as shown in Figure 7. Note that there are 21 blue squares, 21 black squares, and 22 white squares in this coloring. Next, we make the crucial observation that when a straight triomino covers three squares of the checkerboard, it covers one blue square, one black square, and one white square. Next, note that each of the three colors appears in a corner square. Thus without loss of generality, we may assume that we have rotated the coloring so that the missing square is colored blue. Therefore, we assume that the remaining board contains 20 blue squares, 21 black squares, and 22 white squares.

If we could tile this board using straight triominoes, then we would use $63/3 = 21$ straight triominoes. These triominoes would cover 21 blue squares, 21 black squares, and 21 white

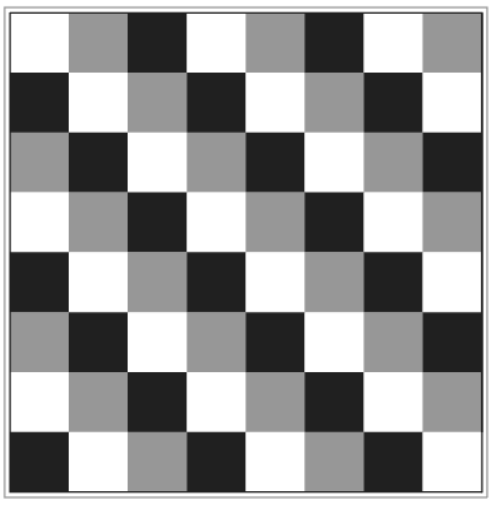


FIGURE 7 Coloring the Squares of the Standard Checkerboard with Three Colors.

squares. This contradicts the fact that this board contains 20 blue squares, 21 black squares, and 22 white squares. Therefore we cannot tile this board using straight triominoes. ◀

The Role of Open Problems

Many advances in mathematics have been made by people trying to solve famous unsolved problems. In the past 20 years, many unsolved problems have finally been resolved, such as the proof of a conjecture in number theory made more than 300 years ago. This conjecture asserts the truth of the statement known as **Fermat's last theorem**.

THEOREM 1

FERMAT'S LAST THEOREM The equation

$$x^n + y^n = z^n$$

has no solutions in integers x, y, and z with $xyz \neq 0$ whenever n is an integer with $n > 2$.

Links

Remark: The equation $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$ has infinitely many solutions in integers x, y, and z; these solutions are called Pythagorean triples and correspond to the lengths of the sides of right triangles with integer lengths. See Exercise 32.

This problem has a fascinating history. In the seventeenth century, Fermat jotted in the margin of his copy of the works of Diophantus that he had a "wondrous proof" that there are no integer solutions of $x^n + y^n = z^n$ when n is an integer greater than 2 with $xyz \neq 0$. However, he never published a proof (Fermat published almost nothing), and no proof could be found in the papers he left when he died. Mathematicians looked for a proof for three centuries without success, although many people were convinced that a relatively simple proof could be found. (Proofs of special cases were found, such as the proof of the case when $n = 3$ by Euler and the proof of the $n = 4$ case by Fermat himself.) Over the years, several established mathematicians thought that they had proved this theorem. In the nineteenth century, one of these failed attempts led to the development of the part of number theory called algebraic number theory. A correct

proof, requiring hundreds of pages of advanced mathematics, was not found until the 1990s, when Andrew Wiles used recently developed ideas from a sophisticated area of number theory called the theory of elliptic curves to prove Fermat's last theorem. Wiles's quest to find a proof of Fermat's last theorem using this powerful theory, described in a program in the *Nova* series on public television, took close to ten years! Moreover, his proof was based on major contributions of many mathematicians. (The interested reader should consult [Ro10] for more information about Fermat's last theorem and for additional references concerning this problem and its resolution.)

We now state an open problem that is simple to describe, but that seems quite difficult to resolve.

EXAMPLE 23 ***The 3x + 1 Conjecture*** Let T be the transformation that sends an even integer x to $x/2$ and an odd integer x to $3x + 1$. A famous conjecture, sometimes known as the **3x + 1 conjecture**, states that for all positive integers x, when we repeatedly apply the transformation T, we will eventually reach the integer 1. For example, starting with $x = 13$, we find $T(13) = 3 \cdot 13 + 1 = 40$, $T(40) = 40/2 = 20$, $T(20) = 20/2 = 10$, $T(10) = 10/2 = 5$, $T(5) = 3 \cdot 5 + 1 = 16$, $T(16) = 8$, $T(8) = 4$, $T(4) = 2$, and $T(2) = 1$. The $3x + 1$ conjecture has been verified using computers for all integers x up to $5.6 \cdot 10^{13}$.

Links

The $3x + 1$ conjecture has an interesting history and has attracted the attention of mathematicians since the 1950s. The conjecture has been raised many times and goes by many other names, including the Collatz problem, Hasse's algorithm, Ulam's problem, the Syracuse problem, and Kakutani's problem. Many mathematicians have been diverted from their work to spend time attacking this conjecture. This led to the joke that this problem was part of a conspiracy to slow down American mathematical research. See the article by Jeffrey Lagarias [La10] for a fascinating discussion of this problem and the results that have been found by mathematicians attacking it. ◀

Watch out! Working on the $3x + 1$ problem can be addictive.

In Chapter 4 we will describe additional open questions about prime numbers. Students already familiar with the basic notions about primes might want to explore Section 4.3, where these open questions are discussed. We will mention other important open questions throughout the book.

Additional Proof Methods

In this chapter we introduced the basic methods used in proofs. We also described how to leverage these methods to prove a variety of results. We will use these proof methods in all subsequent chapters. In particular, we will use them in Chapters 2, 3, and 4 to prove results about sets, functions, algorithms, and number theory and in Chapters 9, 10, and 11 to prove results in graph theory. Among the theorems we will prove is the famous halting theorem which states that there is a problem that cannot be solved using any procedure. However, there are many important proof methods besides those we have covered. We will introduce some of these methods later in this book. In particular, in Section 5.1 we will discuss mathematical induction, which is an extremely useful method for proving statements of the form $\forall n P(n)$, where the domain consists of all positive integers. In Section 5.3 we will introduce structural induction, which can be used to prove results about recursively defined sets. We will use the Cantor diagonalization method, which can be used to prove results about the size of infinite sets, in Section 2.5. In Chapter 6 we will introduce the notion of combinatorial proofs, which can be used to prove results by counting arguments. The reader should note that entire books have been devoted to the activities discussed in this section, including many excellent works by George Pólya ([Po61], [Po71], [Po90]).

Build up your arsenal of proof methods as you work through this book.

Finally, note that we have not given a procedure that can be used for proving theorems in mathematics. It is a deep theorem of mathematical logic that there is no such procedure.

Exercises

1. Prove that $n^2 + 1 \geq 2^n$ when n is a positive integer with $1 \leq n \leq 4$.

2. Prove that there are no positive perfect cubes less than 1000 that are the sum of the cubes of two positive integers.

3. Prove that if x and y are real numbers, then $\max(x, y) + \min(x, y) = x + y$. [*Hint:* Use a proof by cases, with the two cases corresponding to $x \geq y$ and $x < y$, respectively.]

4. Use a proof by cases to show that $\min(a, \min(b, c)) = \min(\min(a, b), c)$ whenever a, b, and c are real numbers.

5. Prove using the notion of without loss of generality that $\min(x, y) = (x + y - |x - y|)/2$ and $\max(x, y) = (x + y + |x - y|)/2$ whenever x and y are real numbers.

6. Prove using the notion of without loss of generality that $5x + 5y$ is an odd integer when x and y are integers of opposite parity.

7. Prove the **triangle inequality**, which states that if x and y are real numbers, then $|x| + |y| \geq |x + y|$ (where $|x|$ represents the absolute value of x, which equals x if $x \geq 0$ and equals $-x$ if $x < 0$).

8. Prove that there is a positive integer that equals the sum of the positive integers not exceeding it. Is your proof constructive or nonconstructive?

9. Prove that there are 100 consecutive positive integers that are not perfect squares. Is your proof constructive or nonconstructive?

10. Prove that either $2 \cdot 10^{500} + 15$ or $2 \cdot 10^{500} + 16$ is not a perfect square. Is your proof constructive or nonconstructive?

11. Prove that there exists a pair of consecutive integers such that one of these integers is a perfect square and the other is a perfect cube.

12. Show that the product of two of the numbers $65^{1000} - 8^{2001} + 3^{177}$, $79^{1212} - 9^{2399} + 2^{2001}$, and $24^{4493} - 5^{8192} + 7^{1777}$ is nonnegative. Is your proof constructive or nonconstructive? [*Hint:* Do not try to evaluate these numbers!]

13. Prove or disprove that there is a rational number x and an irrational number y such that x^y is irrational.

14. Prove or disprove that if a and b are rational numbers, then a^b is also rational.

15. Show that each of these statements can be used to express the fact that there is a unique element x such that $P(x)$ is true. [Note that we can also write this statement as $\exists! x P(x)$.]

a) $\exists x \forall y (P(y) \leftrightarrow x = y)$

b) $\exists x P(x) \wedge \forall x \forall y (P(x) \wedge P(y) \rightarrow x = y)$

c) $\exists x (P(x) \wedge \forall y (P(y) \rightarrow x = y))$

16. Show that if a, b, and c are real numbers and $a \neq 0$, then there is a unique solution of the equation $ax + b = c$.

17. Suppose that a and b are odd integers with $a \neq b$. Show there is a unique integer c such that $|a - c| = |b - c|$.

18. Show that if r is an irrational number, there is a unique integer n such that the distance between r and n is less than $1/2$.

19. Show that if n is an odd integer, then there is a unique integer k such that n is the sum of $k - 2$ and $k + 3$.

20. Prove that given a real number x there exist unique numbers n and ϵ such that $x = n + \epsilon$, n is an integer, and $0 \leq \epsilon < 1$.

21. Prove that given a real number x there exist unique numbers n and ϵ such that $x = n - \epsilon$, n is an integer, and $0 \leq \epsilon < 1$.

22. Use forward reasoning to show that if x is a nonzero real number, then $x^2 + 1/x^2 \geq 2$. [*Hint:* Start with the inequality $(x - 1/x)^2 \geq 0$ which holds for all nonzero real numbers x.]

23. The **harmonic mean** of two real numbers x and y equals $2xy/(x + y)$. By computing the harmonic and geometric means of different pairs of positive real numbers, formulate a conjecture about their relative sizes and prove your conjecture.

24. The **quadratic mean** of two real numbers x and y equals $\sqrt{(x^2 + y^2)/2}$. By computing the arithmetic and quadratic means of different pairs of positive real numbers, formulate a conjecture about their relative sizes and prove your conjecture.

***25.** Write the numbers $1, 2, \ldots, 2n$ on a blackboard, where n is an odd integer. Pick any two of the numbers, j and k, write $|j - k|$ on the board and erase j and k. Continue this process until only one integer is written on the board. Prove that this integer must be odd.

***26.** Suppose that five ones and four zeros are arranged around a circle. Between any two equal bits you insert a 0 and between any two unequal bits you insert a 1 to produce nine new bits. Then you erase the nine original bits. Show that when you iterate this procedure, you can never get nine zeros. [*Hint:* Work backward, assuming that you did end up with nine zeros.]

27. Formulate a conjecture about the decimal digits that appear as the final decimal digit of the fourth power of an integer. Prove your conjecture using a proof by cases.

28. Formulate a conjecture about the final two decimal digits of the square of an integer. Prove your conjecture using a proof by cases.

29. Prove that there is no positive integer n such that $n^2 + n^3 = 100$.

30. Prove that there are no solutions in integers x and y to the equation $2x^2 + 5y^2 = 14$.

31. Prove that there are no solutions in positive integers x and y to the equation $x^4 + y^4 = 625$.

32. Prove that there are infinitely many solutions in positive integers x, y, and z to the equation $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$. [*Hint:* Let $x = m^2 - n^2$, $y = 2mn$, and $z = m^2 + n^2$, where m and n are integers.]

33. Adapt the proof in Example 4 in Section 1.7 to prove that if $n = abc$, where a, b, and c are positive integers, then $a \leq \sqrt[3]{n}$, $b \leq \sqrt[3]{n}$, or $c \leq \sqrt[3]{n}$.

34. Prove that $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is irrational.

35. Prove that between every two rational numbers there is an irrational number.

36. Prove that between every rational number and every irrational number there is an irrational number.

***37.** Let $S = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n$, where $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ and $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ are orderings of two different sequences of positive real numbers, each containing n elements.

a) Show that S takes its maximum value over all orderings of the two sequences when both sequences are sorted (so that the elements in each sequence are in nondecreasing order).

b) Show that S takes its minimum value over all orderings of the two sequences when one sequence is sorted into nondecreasing order and the other is sorted into nonincreasing order.

38. Prove or disprove that if you have an 8-gallon jug of water and two empty jugs with capacities of 5 gallons and 3 gallons, respectively, then you can measure 4 gallons by successively pouring some of or all of the water in a jug into another jug.

39. Verify the $3x + 1$ conjecture for these integers.

a) 6 **b)** 7 **c)** 17 **d)** 21

40. Verify the $3x + 1$ conjecture for these integers.

a) 16 **b)** 11 **c)** 35 **d)** 113

41. Prove or disprove that you can use dominoes to tile the standard checkerboard with two adjacent corners removed (that is, corners that are not opposite).

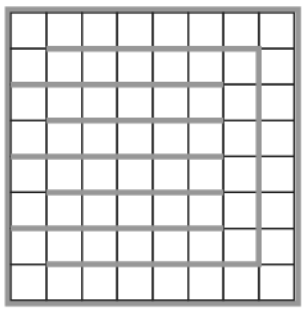
42. Prove or disprove that you can use dominoes to tile a standard checkerboard with all four corners removed.

43. Prove that you can use dominoes to tile a rectangular checkerboard with an even number of squares.

44. Prove or disprove that you can use dominoes to tile a 5×5 checkerboard with three corners removed.

45. Use a proof by exhaustion to show that a tiling using dominoes of a 4×4 checkerboard with opposite corners removed does not exist. [*Hint:* First show that you can assume that the squares in the upper left and lower right corners are removed. Number the squares of the original checkerboard from 1 to 16, starting in the first row, moving right in this row, then starting in the leftmost square in the second row and moving right, and so on. Remove squares 1 and 16. To begin the proof, note that square 2 is covered either by a domino laid horizontally, which covers squares 2 and 3, or vertically, which covers squares 2 and 6. Consider each of these cases separately, and work through all the subcases that arise.]

***46.** Prove that when a white square and a black square are removed from an 8×8 checkerboard (colored as in the text) you can tile the remaining squares of the checkerboard using dominoes. [*Hint:* Show that when one black and one white square are removed, each part of the partition of the remaining cells formed by inserting the barriers shown in the figure can be covered by dominoes.]



47. Show that by removing two white squares and two black squares from an 8×8 checkerboard (colored as in the text) you can make it impossible to tile the remaining squares using dominoes.

***48.** Find all squares, if they exist, on an 8×8 checkerboard such that the board obtained by removing one of these square can be tiled using straight triominoes. [*Hint:* First use arguments based on coloring and rotations to eliminate as many squares as possible from consideration.]

***49.** **a)** Draw each of the five different tetrominoes, where a tetromino is a polyomino consisting of four squares.

b) For each of the five different tetrominoes, prove or disprove that you can tile a standard checkerboard using these tetrominoes.

***50.** Prove or disprove that you can tile a 10×10 checkerboard using straight tetrominoes.

Key Terms and Results

TERMS

proposition: a statement that is true or false

propositional variable: a variable that represents a proposition

truth value: true or false

$\neg p$ (negation of p): the proposition with truth value opposite to the truth value of p

logical operators: operators used to combine propositions

compound proposition: a proposition constructed by combining propositions using logical operators

truth table: a table displaying all possible truth values of propositions

$p \vee q$ (disjunction of p and q): the proposition "p or q," which is true if and only if at least one of p and q is true

$p \wedge q$ (conjunction of p and q): the proposition "p and q," which is true if and only if both p and q are true
$p \oplus q$ (exclusive or of p and q): the proposition "p *XOR* q," which is true when exactly one of p and q is true
$p \rightarrow q$ (p implies q): the proposition "if p, then q," which is false if and only if p is true and q is false
converse of $p \rightarrow q$: the conditional statement $q \rightarrow p$
contrapositive of $p \rightarrow q$: the conditional statement $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

inverse of $p \rightarrow q$: the conditional statement $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$
$p \leftrightarrow q$ (biconditional): the proposition "p if and only if q," which is true if and only if p and q have the same truth value
bit: either a 0 or a 1
Boolean variable: a variable that has a value of 0 or 1
bit operation: an operation on a bit or bits
bit string: a list of bits
bitwise operations: operations on bit strings that operate on each bit in one string and the corresponding bit in the other string
logic gate: a logic element that performs a logical operation on one or more bits to produce an output bit
logic circuit: a switching circuit made up of logic gates that produces one or more output bits
tautology: a compound proposition that is always true
contradiction: a compound proposition that is always false
contingency: a compound proposition that is sometimes true and sometimes false
consistent compound propositions: compound propositions for which there is an assignment of truth values to the variables that makes all these propositions true
satisfiable compound proposition: a compound proposition for which there is an assignment of truth values to its variables that makes it true
logically equivalent compound propositions: compound propositions that always have the same truth values
predicate: part of a sentence that attributes a property to the subject
propositional function: a statement containing one or more variables that becomes a proposition when each of its variables is assigned a value or is bound by a quantifier
domain (or universe) of discourse: the values a variable in a propositional function may take
$\exists x\, P(x)$ (existential quantification of $P(x)$): the proposition that is true if and only if there exists an x in the domain such that $P(x)$ is true
$\forall x P(x)$ (universal quantification of $P(x)$): the proposition that is true if and only if $P(x)$ is true for every x in the domain
logically equivalent expressions: expressions that have the same truth value no matter which propositional functions and domains are used
free variable: a variable not bound in a propositional function
bound variable: a variable that is quantified
scope of a quantifier: portion of a statement where the quantifier binds its variable
argument: a sequence of statements
argument form: a sequence of compound propositions involving propositional variables
premise: a statement, in an argument, or argument form, other than the final one
conclusion: the final statement in an argument or argument form
valid argument form: a sequence of compound propositions involving propositional variables where the truth of all the premises implies the truth of the conclusion
valid argument: an argument with a valid argument form
rule of inference: a valid argument form that can be used in the demonstration that arguments are valid
fallacy: an invalid argument form often used incorrectly as a rule of inference (or sometimes, more generally, an incorrect argument)
circular reasoning or begging the question: reasoning where one or more steps are based on the truth of the statement being proved
theorem: a mathematical assertion that can be shown to be true
conjecture: a mathematical assertion proposed to be true, but that has not been proved
proof: a demonstration that a theorem is true
axiom: a statement that is assumed to be true and that can be used as a basis for proving theorems
lemma: a theorem used to prove other theorems
corollary: a proposition that can be proved as a consequence of a theorem that has just been proved
vacuous proof: a proof that $p \rightarrow q$ is true based on the fact that p is false
trivial proof: a proof that $p \rightarrow q$ is true based on the fact that q is true
direct proof: a proof that $p \rightarrow q$ is true that proceeds by showing that q must be true when p is true
proof by contraposition: a proof that $p \rightarrow q$ is true that proceeds by showing that p must be false when q is false
proof by contradiction: a proof that p is true based on the truth of the conditional statement $\neg p \rightarrow q$, where q is a contradiction
exhaustive proof: a proof that establishes a result by checking a list of all possible cases
proof by cases: a proof broken into separate cases, where these cases cover all possibilities
without loss of generality: an assumption in a proof that makes it possible to prove a theorem by reducing the number of cases to consider in the proof
counterexample: an element x such that $P(x)$ is false
constructive existence proof: a proof that an element with a specified property exists that explicitly finds such an element
nonconstructive existence proof: a proof that an element with a specified property exists that does not explicitly find such an element
rational number: a number that can be expressed as the ratio of two integers p and q such that $q \neq 0$
uniqueness proof: a proof that there is exactly one element satisfying a specified property

RESULTS

The logical equivalences given in Tables 6, 7, and 8 in Section 1.3.

De Morgan's laws for quantifiers.
Rules of inference for propositional calculus.
Rules of inference for quantified statements.

Review Questions

1. **a)** Define the negation of a proposition.
   b) What is the negation of "This is a boring course"?
2. **a)** Define (using truth tables) the disjunction, conjunction, exclusive or, conditional, and biconditional of the propositions p and q.
   b) What are the disjunction, conjunction, exclusive or, conditional, and biconditional of the propositions "I'll go to the movies tonight" and "I'll finish my discrete mathematics homework"?
3. **a)** Describe at least five different ways to write the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ in English.
   b) Define the converse and contrapositive of a conditional statement.
   c) State the converse and the contrapositive of the conditional statement "If it is sunny tomorrow, then I will go for a walk in the woods."
4. **a)** What does it mean for two propositions to be logically equivalent?
   b) Describe the different ways to show that two compound propositions are logically equivalent.
   c) Show in at least two different ways that the compound propositions $\neg p \vee (r \rightarrow \neg q)$ and $\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r$ are equivalent.
5. *(Depends on the Exercise Set in Section 1.3)*
   a) Given a truth table, explain how to use disjunctive normal form to construct a compound proposition with this truth table.
   b) Explain why part (a) shows that the operators $\wedge$, $\vee$, and $\neg$ are functionally complete.
   c) Is there an operator such that the set containing just this operator is functionally complete?
6. What are the universal and existential quantifications of a predicate $P(x)$? What are their negations?
7. **a)** What is the difference between the quantification $\exists x \forall y P(x, y)$ and $\forall y \exists x P(x, y)$, where $P(x, y)$ is a predicate?
   b) Give an example of a predicate $P(x, y)$ such that $\exists x \forall y P(x, y)$ and $\forall y \exists x P(x, y)$ have different truth values.
8. Describe what is meant by a valid argument in propositional logic and show that the argument "If the earth is flat, then you can sail off the edge of the earth," "You cannot sail off the edge of the earth," therefore, "The earth is not flat" is a valid argument.
9. Use rules of inference to show that if the premises "All zebras have stripes" and "Mark is a zebra" are true, then the conclusion "Mark has stripes" is true.
10. **a)** Describe what is meant by a direct proof, a proof by contraposition, and a proof by contradiction of a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$.
    b) Give a direct proof, a proof by contraposition and a proof by contradiction of the statement: "If n is even, then $n + 4$ is even."
11. **a)** Describe a way to prove the biconditional $p \leftrightarrow q$.
    b) Prove the statement: "The integer $3n + 2$ is odd if and only if the integer $9n + 5$ is even, where n is an integer."
12. To prove that the statements p_1, p_2, p_3, and p_4 are equivalent, is it sufficient to show that the conditional statements $p_4 \rightarrow p_2$, $p_3 \rightarrow p_1$, and $p_1 \rightarrow p_2$ are valid? If not, provide another collection of conditional statements that can be used to show that the four statements are equivalent.
13. **a)** Suppose that a statement of the form $\forall x P(x)$ is false. How can this be proved?
    b) Show that the statement "For every positive integer n, $n^2 \geq 2n$" is false.
14. What is the difference between a constructive and nonconstructive existence proof? Give an example of each.
15. What are the elements of a proof that there is a unique element x such that $P(x)$, where $P(x)$ is a propositional function?
16. Explain how a proof by cases can be used to prove a result about absolute values, such as the fact that $|xy| = |x||y|$ for all real numbers x and y.

Supplementary Exercises

1. Let p be the proposition "I will do every exercise in this book" and q be the proposition "I will get an "A" in this course." Express each of these as a combination of p and q.
   a) I will get an "A" in this course only if I do every exercise in this book.
   b) I will get an "A" in this course and I will do every exercise in this book.
   c) Either I will not get an "A" in this course or I will not do every exercise in this book.
   d) For me to get an "A" in this course it is necessary and sufficient that I do every exercise in this book.

2. Find the truth table of the compound proposition $(p \vee q) \rightarrow (p \wedge \neg r)$.

3. Show that these compound propositions are tautologies.
a) $(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$
b) $((p \vee q) \wedge \neg p) \rightarrow q$

4. Give the converse, the contrapositive, and the inverse of these conditional statements.
a) If it rains today, then I will drive to work.
b) If $|x| = x$, then $x \geq 0$.
c) If n is greater than 3, then n^2 is greater than 9.

5. Given a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$, find the converse of its inverse, the converse of its converse, and the converse of its contrapositive.

6. Given a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$, find the inverse of its inverse, the inverse of its converse, and the inverse of its contrapositive.

7. Find a compound proposition involving the propositional variables p, q, r, and s that is true when exactly three of these propositional variables are true and is false otherwise.

8. Show that these statements are inconsistent: "If Sergei takes the job offer then he will get a signing bonus." "If Sergei takes the job offer, then he will receive a higher salary." "If Sergei gets a signing bonus, then he will not receive a higher salary." "Sergei takes the job offer."

9. Show that these statements are inconsistent: "If Miranda does not take a course in discrete mathematics, then she will not graduate." "If Miranda does not graduate, then she is not qualified for the job." "If Miranda reads this book, then she is qualified for the job." "Miranda does not take a course in discrete mathematics but she reads this book."

Teachers in the Middle Ages supposedly tested the realtime propositional logic ability of a student via a technique known as an **obligato game**. In an obligato game, a number of rounds is set and in each round the teacher gives the student successive assertions that the student must either accept or reject as they are given. When the student accepts an assertion, it is added as a commitment; when the student rejects an assertion its negation is added as a commitment. The student passes the test if the consistency of all commitments is maintained throughout the test.

10. Suppose that in a three-round obligato game, the teacher first gives the student the proposition $p \rightarrow q$, then the proposition $\neg(p \vee r) \vee q$, and finally the proposition q. For which of the eight possible sequences of three answers will the student pass the test?

11. Suppose that in a four-round obligato game, the teacher first gives the student the proposition $\neg(p \rightarrow (q \wedge r))$, then the proposition $p \vee \neg q$, then the proposition $\neg r$, and finally, the proposition $(p \wedge r) \vee (q \rightarrow p)$. For which of the 16 possible sequences of four answers will the student pass the test?

12. Explain why every obligato game has a winning strategy.

Exercises 13 and 14 are set on the island of knights and knaves described in Example 7 in Section 1.2.

13. Suppose that you meet three people Aaron, Bohan, and Crystal. Can you determine what Aaron, Bohan, and Crystal are if Aaron says "All of us are knaves" and Bohan says "Exactly one of us is a knave."?

14. Suppose that you meet three people, Anita, Boris, and Carmen. What are Anita, Boris, and Carmen if Anita says "I am a knave and Boris is a knight" and Boris says "Exactly one of the three of us is a knight"?

15. (Adapted from [Sm78]) Suppose that on an island there are three types of people, knights, knaves, and normals (also known as spies). Knights always tell the truth, knaves always lie, and normals sometimes lie and sometimes tell the truth. Detectives questioned three inhabitants of the island—Amy, Brenda, and Claire—as part of the investigation of a crime. The detectives knew that one of the three committed the crime, but not which one. They also knew that the criminal was a knight, and that the other two were not. Additionally, the detectives recorded these statements: Amy: "I am innocent." Brenda: "What Amy says is true." Claire: "Brenda is not a normal." After analyzing their information, the detectives positively identified the guilty party. Who was it?

16. Show that if S is a proposition, where S is the conditional statement "If S is true, then unicorns live," then "Unicorns live" is true. Show that it follows that S cannot be a proposition. (This paradox is known as *Löb's paradox*.)

17. Show that the argument with premises "The tooth fairy is a real person" and "The tooth fairy is not a real person" and conclusion "You can find gold at the end of the rainbow" is a valid argument. Does this show that the conclusion is true?

18. Suppose that the truth value of the proposition p_i is **T** whenever i is an odd positive integer and is **F** whenever i is an even positive integer. Find the truth values of $\bigvee_{i=1}^{100}(p_i \wedge p_{i+1})$ and $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{100}(p_i \vee p_{i+1})$.

***19.** Model 16×16 Sudoku puzzles (with 4×4 blocks) as satisfiability problems.

20. Let $P(x)$ be the statement "Student x knows calculus" and let $Q(y)$ be the statement "Class y contains a student who knows calculus." Express each of these as quantifications of $P(x)$ and $Q(y)$.
a) Some students know calculus.
b) Not every student knows calculus.
c) Every class has a student in it who knows calculus.
d) Every student in every class knows calculus.
e) There is at least one class with no students who know calculus.

21. Let $P(m, n)$ be the statement "m divides n," where the domain for both variables consists of all positive integers. (By "m divides n" we mean that $n = km$ for some integer k.) Determine the truth values of each of these statements.
a) $P(4, 5)$ **b)** $P(2, 4)$
c) $\forall m \forall n\, P(m, n)$ **d)** $\exists m \forall n\, P(m, n)$
e) $\exists n \forall m\, P(m, n)$ **f)** $\forall n\, P(1, n)$

22. Find a domain for the quantifiers in $\exists x \exists y(x \neq y \wedge \forall z((z = x) \vee (z = y)))$ such that this statement is true.

23. Find a domain for the quantifiers in $\exists x \exists y(x \neq y \wedge \forall z((z = x) \vee (z = y)))$ such that this statement is false.

24. Use existential and universal quantifiers to express the statement "No one has more than three grandmothers" using the propositional function $G(x, y)$, which represents "x is the grandmother of y."

25. Use existential and universal quantifiers to express the statement "Everyone has exactly two biological parents" using the propositional function $P(x, y)$, which represents "x is the biological parent of y."

26. The quantifier $\exists_n$ denotes "there exists exactly n," so that $\exists_n x P(x)$ means there exist exactly n values in the domain such that $P(x)$ is true. Determine the true value of these statements where the domain consists of all real numbers.

a) $\exists_0 x(x^2 = -1)$ **b)** $\exists_1 x(|x| = 0)$
c) $\exists_2 x(x^2 = 2)$ **d)** $\exists_3 x(x = |x|)$

27. Express each of these statements using existential and universal quantifiers and propositional logic where $\exists_n$ is defined in Exercise 26.

a) $\exists_0 x P(x)$ **b)** $\exists_1 x P(x)$
c) $\exists_2 x P(x)$ **d)** $\exists_3 x P(x)$

28. Let $P(x, y)$ be a propositional function. Show that $\exists x \forall y P(x, y) \rightarrow \forall y \exists x P(x, y)$ is a tautology.

29. Let $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ be propositional functions. Show that $\exists x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\forall x P(x) \rightarrow \exists x Q(x)$ always have the same truth value.

30. If $\forall y \exists x P(x, y)$ is true, does it necessarily follow that $\exists x \forall y P(x, y)$ is true?

31. If $\forall x \exists y P(x, y)$ is true, does it necessarily follow that $\exists x \forall y P(x, y)$ is true?

32. Find the negations of these statements.

a) If it snows today, then I will go skiing tomorrow.
b) Every person in this class understands mathematical induction.
c) Some students in this class do not like discrete mathematics.
d) In every mathematics class there is some student who falls asleep during lectures.

33. Express this statement using quantifiers: "Every student in this class has taken some course in every department in the school of mathematical sciences."

34. Express this statement using quantifiers: "There is a building on the campus of some college in the United States in which every room is painted white."

35. Express the statement "There is exactly one student in this class who has taken exactly one mathematics class at this school" using the uniqueness quantifier. Then express this statement using quantifiers, without using the uniqueness quantifier.

36. Describe a rule of inference that can be used to prove that there are exactly two elements x and y in a domain such that $P(x)$ and $P(y)$ are true. Express this rule of inference as a statement in English.

37. Use rules of inference to show that if the premises $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$, $\forall x(Q(x) \rightarrow R(x))$, and $\neg R(a)$, where a is in the domain, are true, then the conclusion $\neg P(a)$ is true.

38. Prove that if x^3 is irrational, then x is irrational.

39. Prove that if x is irrational and $x \geq 0$, then $\sqrt{x}$ is irrational.

40. Prove that given a nonnegative integer n, there is a unique nonnegative integer m such that $m^2 \leq n < (m + 1)^2$.

41. Prove that there exists an integer m such that $m^2 > 10^{1000}$. Is your proof constructive or nonconstructive?

42. Prove that there is a positive integer that can be written as the sum of squares of positive integers in two different ways. (Use a computer or calculator to speed up your work.)

43. Disprove the statement that every positive integer is the sum of the cubes of eight nonnegative integers.

44. Disprove the statement that every positive integer is the sum of at most two squares and a cube of nonnegative integers.

45. Disprove the statement that every positive integer is the sum of 36 fifth powers of nonnegative integers.

46. Assuming the truth of the theorem that states that $\sqrt{n}$ is irrational whenever n is a positive integer that is not a perfect square, prove that $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$ is irrational.

Computer Projects

Write programs with the specified input and output.

1. Given the truth values of the propositions p and q, find the truth values of the conjunction, disjunction, exclusive or, conditional statement, and biconditional of these propositions.

2. Given two bit strings of length n, find the bitwise *AND*, bitwise *OR*, and bitwise *XOR* of these strings.

***3.** Give a compound proposition, determine whether it is satisfiable by checking its truth value for all positive assignments of truth values to its propositional variables.

4. Given the truth values of the propositions p and q in fuzzy logic, find the truth value of the disjunction and the conjunction of p and q (see Exercises 46 and 47 of Section 1.1).

***5.** Given positive integers m and n, interactively play the game of Chomp.

***6.** Given a portion of a checkerboard, look for tilings of this checkerboard with various types of polyominoes, including dominoes, the two types of triominoes, and larger polyominoes.

Computations and Explorations

Use a computational program or programs you have written to do these exercises.

1. Look for positive integers that are not the sum of the cubes of nine different positive integers.
2. Look for positive integers greater than 79 that are not the sum of the fourth powers of 18 positive integers.
3. Find as many positive integers as you can that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers, in two different ways, sharing this property with 1729.
*4. Try to find winning strategies for the game of Chomp for different initial configurations of cookies.
5. Construct the 12 different pentominoes, where a pentomino is a polyomino consisting of five squares.
6. Find all the rectangles of 60 squares that can be tiled using every one of the 12 different pentominoes.

Writing Projects

Respond to these with essays using outside sources.

1. Discuss logical paradoxes, including the paradox of Epimenides the Cretan, Jourdain's card paradox, and the barber paradox, and how they are resolved.
2. Describe how fuzzy logic is being applied to practical applications. Consult one or more of the recent books on fuzzy logic written for general audiences.
3. Describe some of the practical problems that can be modeled as satisfiability problems.
4. Describe some of the techniques that have been devised to help people solve Sudoku puzzles without the use of a computer.
5. Describe the basic rules of *WFF'N PROOF*, *The Game of Modern Logic*, developed by Layman Allen. Give examples of some of the games included in *WFF'N PROOF*.
6. Read some of the writings of Lewis Carroll on symbolic logic. Describe in detail some of the models he used to represent logical arguments and the rules of inference he used in these arguments.
7. Extend the discussion of Prolog given in Section 1.4, explaining in more depth how Prolog employs resolution.
8. Discuss some of the techniques used in computational logic, including Skolem's rule.
9. "Automated theorem proving" is the task of using computers to mechanically prove theorems. Discuss the goals and applications of automated theorem proving and the progress made in developing automated theorem provers.
10. Describe how DNA computing has been used to solve instances of the satisfiability problem.
11. Look up some of the incorrect proofs of famous open questions and open questions that were solved since 1970 and describe the type of error made in each proof.
12. Discuss what is known about winning strategies in the game of Chomp.
13. Describe various aspects of proof strategy discussed by George Pólya in his writings on reasoning, including [Po62], [Po71], and [Po90].
14. Describe a few problems and results about tilings with polyominoes, as described in [Go94] and [Ma91], for example.

CHAPTER

2 Basic Structures: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices

Much of discrete mathematics is devoted to the study of discrete structures, used to represent discrete objects. Many important discrete structures are built using sets, which are collections of objects. Among the discrete structures built from sets are combinations, unordered collections of objects used extensively in counting; relations, sets of ordered pairs that represent relationships between objects; graphs, sets of vertices and edges that connect vertices; and finite state machines, used to model computing machines. These are some of the topics we will study in later chapters.

The concept of a function is extremely important in discrete mathematics. A function assigns to each element of a first set exactly one element of a second set, where the two sets are not necessarily distinct. Functions play important roles throughout discrete mathematics. They are used to represent the computational complexity of algorithms, to study the size of sets, to count objects, and in a myriad of other ways. Useful structures such as sequences and strings are special types of functions. In this chapter, we will introduce the notion of a sequence, which represents ordered lists of elements. Furthermore, we will introduce some important types of sequences and we will show how to define the terms of a sequence using earlier terms. We will also address the problem of identifying a sequence from its first few terms.

In our study of discrete mathematics, we will often add consecutive terms of a sequence of numbers. Because adding terms from a sequence, as well as other indexed sets of numbers, is such a common occurrence, a special notation has been developed for adding such terms. In this chapter, we will introduce the notation used to express summations. We will develop formulae for certain types of summations that appear throughout the study of discrete mathematics. For instance, we will encounter such summations in the analysis of the number of steps used by an algorithm to sort a list of numbers so that its terms are in increasing order.

The relative sizes of infinite sets can be studied by introducing the notion of the size, or cardinality, of a set. We say that a set is countable when it is finite or has the same size as the set of positive integers. In this chapter we will establish the surprising result that the set of rational numbers is countable, while the set of real numbers is not. We will also show how the concepts we discuss can be used to show that there are functions that cannot be computed using a computer program in any programming language.

Matrices are used in discrete mathematics to represent a variety of discrete structures. We will review the basic material about matrices and matrix arithmetic needed to represent relations and graphs. The matrix arithmetic we study will be used to solve a variety of problems involving these structures.

2.1 Sets

Introduction

In this section, we study the fundamental discrete structure on which all other discrete structures are built, namely, the set. Sets are used to group objects together. Often, but not always, the objects in a set have similar properties. For instance, all the students who are currently enrolled in your school make up a set. Likewise, all the students currently taking a course in discrete mathematics at any school make up a set. In addition, those students enrolled in your school who are taking a course in discrete mathematics form a set that can be obtained by taking the elements common to the first two collections. The language of sets is a means to study such

collections in an organized fashion. We now provide a definition of a set. This definition is an intuitive definition, which is not part of a formal theory of sets.

DEFINITION 1

A *set* is an unordered collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that a is not an element of the set A.

It is common for sets to be denoted using uppercase letters. Lowercase letters are usually used to denote elements of sets.

There are several ways to describe a set. One way is to list all the members of a set, when this is possible. We use a notation where all members of the set are listed between braces. For example, the notation $\{a, b, c, d\}$ represents the set with the four elements a, b, c, and d. This way of describing a set is known as the **roster method**.

EXAMPLE 1 The set V of all vowels in the English alphabet can be written as $V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 2 The set O of odd positive integers less than 10 can be expressed by $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 3 Although sets are usually used to group together elements with common properties, there is nothing that prevents a set from having seemingly unrelated elements. For instance, {a, 2, Fred, New Jersey} is the set containing the four elements a, 2, Fred, and New Jersey. ◀

Sometimes the roster method is used to describe a set without listing all its members. Some members of the set are listed, and then *ellipses* (. . .) are used when the general pattern of the elements is obvious.

EXAMPLE 4 The set of positive integers less than 100 can be denoted by $\{1, 2, 3, \ldots, 99\}$. ◀

Extra Examples

Another way to describe a set is to use **set builder** notation. We characterize all those elements in the set by stating the property or properties they must have to be members. For instance, the set O of all odd positive integers less than 10 can be written as

$$O = \{x \mid x \text{ is an odd positive integer less than } 10\},$$

or, specifying the universe as the set of positive integers, as

$$O = \{x \in \mathbf{Z}^+ \mid x \text{ is odd and } x < 10\}.$$

We often use this type of notation to describe sets when it is impossible to list all the elements of the set. For instance, the set $\mathbf{Q}^+$ of all positive rational numbers can be written as

$$\mathbf{Q}^+ = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x = \tfrac{p}{q}, \text{ for some positive integers } p \text{ and } q\}.$$

Beware that mathematicians disagree whether 0 is a natural number. We consider it quite natural.

These sets, each denoted using a boldface letter, play an important role in discrete mathematics:

$\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$, the set of **natural numbers**
$\mathbf{Z} = \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$, the set of **integers**
$\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$, the set of **positive integers**
$\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$, the set of **rational numbers**
$\mathbf{R}$, the set of **real numbers**
$\mathbf{R}^+$, the set of **positive real numbers**
$\mathbf{C}$, the set of **complex numbers**.

(Note that some people do not consider 0 a natural number, so be careful to check how the term *natural numbers* is used when you read other books.)

Recall the notation for **intervals** of real numbers. When a and b are real numbers with $a < b$, we write

$$[a, b] = \{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$$
$$[a, b) = \{x \mid a \leq x < b\}$$
$$(a, b] = \{x \mid a < x \leq b\}$$
$$(a, b) = \{x \mid a < x < b\}$$

Note that $[a, b]$ is called the **closed interval** from a to b and (a, b) is called the **open interval** from a to b.

Sets can have other sets as members, as Example 5 illustrates.

EXAMPLE 5 The set $\{\mathbf{N}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R}\}$ is a set containing four elements, each of which is a set. The four elements of this set are $\mathbf{N}$, the set of natural numbers; $\mathbf{Z}$, the set of integers; $\mathbf{Q}$, the set of rational numbers; and $\mathbf{R}$, the set of real numbers. ◀

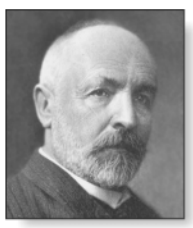
Remark: Note that the concept of a datatype, or type, in computer science is built upon the concept of a set. In particular, a **datatype** or **type** is the name of a set, together with a set of operations that can be performed on objects from that set. For example, *boolean* is the name of the set $\{0, 1\}$ together with operators on one or more elements of this set, such as AND, OR, and NOT.

Because many mathematical statements assert that two differently specified collections of objects are really the same set, we need to understand what it means for two sets to be equal.

DEFINITION 2 Two sets are *equal* if and only if they have the same elements. Therefore, if A and B are sets, then A and B are equal if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$. We write $A = B$ if A and B are equal sets.

EXAMPLE 6 The sets $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{3, 5, 1\}$ are equal, because they have the same elements. Note that the order in which the elements of a set are listed does not matter. Note also that it does not matter if an element of a set is listed more than once, so $\{1, 3, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5, 5\}$ is the same as the set $\{1, 3, 5\}$ because they have the same elements. ◀

Links



GEORG CANTOR (1845–1918) Georg Cantor was born in St. Petersburg, Russia, where his father was a successful merchant. Cantor developed his interest in mathematics in his teens. He began his university studies in Zurich in 1862, but when his father died he left Zurich. He continued his university studies at the University of Berlin in 1863, where he studied under the eminent mathematicians Weierstrass, Kummer, and Kronecker. He received his doctor's degree in 1867, after having written a dissertation on number theory. Cantor assumed a position at the University of Halle in 1869, where he continued working until his death.

Cantor is considered the founder of set theory. His contributions in this area include the discovery that the set of real numbers is uncountable. He is also noted for his many important contributions to analysis. Cantor also was interested in philosophy and wrote papers relating his theory of sets with metaphysics.

Cantor married in 1874 and had five children. His melancholy temperament was balanced by his wife's happy disposition. Although he received a large inheritance from his father, he was poorly paid as a professor. To mitigate this, he tried to obtain a better-paying position at the University of Berlin. His appointment there was blocked by Kronecker, who did not agree with Cantor's views on set theory. Cantor suffered from mental illness throughout the later years of his life. He died in 1918 from a heart attack.

THE EMPTY SET There is a special set that has no elements. This set is called the **empty set**, or **null set**, and is denoted by ∅. The empty set can also be denoted by { } (that is, we represent the empty set with a pair of braces that encloses all the elements in this set). Often, a set of elements with certain properties turns out to be the null set. For instance, the set of all positive integers that are greater than their squares is the null set.

{∅} has one more element than ∅.

A set with one element is called a **singleton set**. A common error is to confuse the empty set ∅ with the set {∅}, which is a singleton set. The single element of the set {∅} is the empty set itself! A useful analogy for remembering this difference is to think of folders in a computer file system. The empty set can be thought of as an empty folder and the set consisting of just the empty set can be thought of as a folder with exactly one folder inside, namely, the empty folder.

Links

NAIVE SET THEORY Note that the term *object* has been used in the definition of a set, Definition 1, without specifying what an object is. This description of a set as a collection of objects, based on the intuitive notion of an object, was first stated in 1895 by the German mathematician Georg Cantor. The theory that results from this intuitive definition of a set, and the use of the intuitive notion that for any property whatever, there is a set consisting of exactly the objects with this property, leads to **paradoxes**, or logical inconsistencies. This was shown by the English philosopher Bertrand Russell in 1902 (see Exercise 46 for a description of one of these paradoxes). These logical inconsistencies can be avoided by building set theory beginning with axioms. However, we will use Cantor's original version of set theory, known as **naive set theory**, in this book because all sets considered in this book can be treated consistently using Cantor's original theory. Students will find familiarity with naive set theory helpful if they go on to learn about axiomatic set theory. They will also find the development of axiomatic set theory much more abstract than the material in this text. We refer the interested reader to [Su72] to learn more about axiomatic set theory.

Venn Diagrams

Sets can be represented graphically using Venn diagrams, named after the English mathematician John Venn, who introduced their use in 1881. In Venn diagrams the **universal set** U, which contains all the objects under consideration, is represented by a rectangle. (Note that the universal set varies depending on which objects are of interest.) Inside this rectangle, circles or other geometrical figures are used to represent sets. Sometimes points are used to represent the particular elements of the set. Venn diagrams are often used to indicate the relationships between sets. We show how a Venn diagram can be used in Example 7.

Assessment

EXAMPLE 7 Draw a Venn diagram that represents V, the set of vowels in the English alphabet.

Solution: We draw a rectangle to indicate the universal set U, which is the set of the 26 letters of the English alphabet. Inside this rectangle we draw a circle to represent V. Inside this circle we indicate the elements of V with points (see Figure 1). ◀

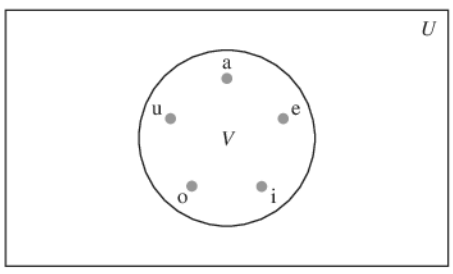


FIGURE 1 Venn Diagram for the Set of Vowels.

Subsets

It is common to encounter situations where the elements of one set are also the elements of a second set. We now introduce some terminology and notation to express such relationships between sets.

DEFINITION 3 The set A is a *subset* of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. We use the notation $A \subseteq B$ to indicate that A is a subset of the set B.

We see that $A \subseteq B$ if and only if the quantification

$$\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$$

is true. Note that to show that A is not a subset of B we need only find one element $x \in A$ with $x \notin B$. Such an x is a counterexample to the claim that $x \in A$ implies $x \in B$.

We have these useful rules for determining whether one set is a subset of another:

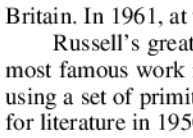
Showing that A is a Subset of B To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A then x also belongs to B.

Showing that A is Not a Subset of B To show that $A \not\subseteq B$, find a single $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.

EXAMPLE 8 The set of all odd positive integers less than 10 is a subset of the set of all positive integers less than 10, the set of rational numbers is a subset of the set of real numbers, the set of all computer science majors at your school is a subset of the set of all students at your school, and the set of all people in China is a subset of the set of all people in China (that is, it is a subset of itself). Each of these facts follows immediately by noting that an element that belongs to the first set in each pair of sets also belongs to the second set in that pair. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 The set of integers with squares less than 100 is not a subset of the set of nonnegative integers because -1 is in the former set [as $(-1)^2 < 100$], but not the later set. The set of people who have taken discrete mathematics at your school is not a subset of the set of all computer science majors at your school if there is at least one student who has taken discrete mathematics who is not a computer science major. ◀

Links



BERTRAND RUSSELL (1872–1970) Bertrand Russell was born into a prominent English family active in the progressive movement and having a strong commitment to liberty. He became an orphan at an early age and was placed in the care of his father's parents, who had him educated at home. He entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1890, where he excelled in mathematics and in moral science. He won a fellowship on the basis of his work on the foundations of geometry. In 1910 Trinity College appointed him to a lectureship in logic and the philosophy of mathematics.

Russell fought for progressive causes throughout his life. He held strong pacifist views, and his protests against World War I led to dismissal from his position at Trinity College. He was imprisoned for 6 months in 1918 because of an article he wrote that was branded as seditious. Russell fought for women's suffrage in Great Britain. In 1961, at the age of 89, he was imprisoned for the second time for his protests advocating nuclear disarmament.

Russell's greatest work was in his development of principles that could be used as a foundation for all of mathematics. His most famous work is *Principia Mathematica,* written with Alfred North Whitehead, which attempts to deduce all of mathematics using a set of primitive axioms. He wrote many books on philosophy, physics, and his political ideas. Russell won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1950.

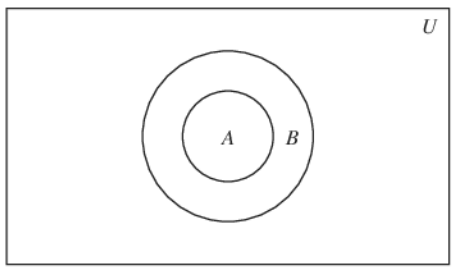


FIGURE 2 **Venn Diagram Showing that A Is a Subset of B.**

Theorem 1 shows that every nonempty set S is guaranteed to have at least two subsets, the empty set and the set S itself, that is, $\emptyset \subseteq S$ and $S \subseteq S$.

THEOREM 1 For every set S, (i) $\emptyset \subseteq S$ and (ii) $S \subseteq S$.

Proof: We will prove (i) and leave the proof of (ii) as an exercise.

Let S be a set. To show that $\emptyset \subseteq S$, we must show that $\forall x(x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$ is true. Because the empty set contains no elements, it follows that $x \in \emptyset$ is always false. It follows that the conditional statement $x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S$ is always true, because its hypothesis is always false and a conditional statement with a false hypothesis is true. Therefore, $\forall x(x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$ is true. This completes the proof of (i). Note that this is an example of a vacuous proof. ◁

When we wish to emphasize that a set A is a subset of a set B but that $A \neq B$, we write $A \subset B$ and say that A is a **proper subset** of B. For $A \subset B$ to be true, it must be the case that $A \subseteq B$ and there must exist an element x of B that is not an element of A. That is, A is a proper subset of B if and only if

$$\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \wedge \exists x(x \in B \wedge x \notin A)$$

is true. Venn diagrams can be used to illustrate that a set A is a subset of a set B. We draw the universal set U as a rectangle. Within this rectangle we draw a circle for B. Because A is a subset of B, we draw the circle for A within the circle for B. This relationship is shown in Figure 2.

A useful way to show that two sets have the same elements is to show that each set is a subset of the other. In other words, we can show that if A and B are sets with $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$. That is, $A = B$ if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$ and $\forall x(x \in B \rightarrow x \in A)$ or equivalently if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$, which is what it means for the A and B to be equal. Because this method of showing two sets are equal is so useful, we highlight it here.

Links

JOHN VENN (1834–1923) John Venn was born into a London suburban family noted for its philanthropy. He attended London schools and got his mathematics degree from Caius College, Cambridge, in 1857. He was elected a fellow of this college and held his fellowship there until his death. He took holy orders in 1859 and, after a brief stint of religious work, returned to Cambridge, where he developed programs in the moral sciences. Besides his mathematical work, Venn had an interest in history and wrote extensively about his college and family.

Venn's book *Symbolic Logic* clarifies ideas originally presented by Boole. In this book, Venn presents a systematic development of a method that uses geometric figures, known now as *Venn diagrams*. Today these diagrams are primarily used to analyze logical arguments and to illustrate relationships between sets. In addition to his work on symbolic logic, Venn made contributions to probability theory described in his widely used textbook on that subject.

Showing Two Sets are Equal To show that two sets A and B are equal, show that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Sets may have other sets as members. For instance, we have the sets

$$A = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\} \qquad \text{and} \qquad B = \{x \mid x \text{ is a subset of the set } \{a, b\}\}.$$

Note that these two sets are equal, that is, $A = B$. Also note that $\{a\} \in A$, but $a \notin A$.

The Size of a Set

Sets are used extensively in counting problems, and for such applications we need to discuss the sizes of sets.

DEFINITION 4 Let S be a set. If there are exactly n distinct elements in S where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that S is a *finite set* and that n is the *cardinality* of S. The cardinality of S is denoted by $|S|$.

Remark: The term *cardinality* comes from the common usage of the term *cardinal number* as the size of a finite set.

EXAMPLE 10 Let A be the set of odd positive integers less than 10. Then $|A| = 5$. ◀

EXAMPLE 11 Let S be the set of letters in the English alphabet. Then $|S| = 26$. ◀

EXAMPLE 12 Because the null set has no elements, it follows that $|\emptyset| = 0$. ◀

We will also be interested in sets that are not finite.

DEFINITION 5 A set is said to be *infinite* if it is not finite.

EXAMPLE 13 The set of positive integers is infinite. ◀

Extra Examples

We will extend the notion of cardinality to infinite sets in Section 2.5, a challenging topic full of surprising results.

Power Sets

Many problems involve testing all combinations of elements of a set to see if they satisfy some property. To consider all such combinations of elements of a set S, we build a new set that has as its members all the subsets of S.

DEFINITION 6 Given a set S, the *power set* of S is the set of all subsets of the set S. The power set of S is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

EXAMPLE 14 What is the power set of the set $\{0, 1, 2\}$?

Extra Examples

Solution: The power set $\mathcal{P}(\{0, 1, 2\})$ is the set of all subsets of $\{0, 1, 2\}$. Hence,

$$\mathcal{P}(\{0, 1, 2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 2\}\}.$$

Note that the empty set and the set itself are members of this set of subsets. ◀

EXAMPLE 15 What is the power set of the empty set? What is the power set of the set $\{\emptyset\}$?

Solution: The empty set has exactly one subset, namely, itself. Consequently,

$$\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}.$$

The set $\{\emptyset\}$ has exactly two subsets, namely, $\emptyset$ and the set $\{\emptyset\}$ itself. Therefore,

$$\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset\}) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}.$$ ◀

If a set has n elements, then its power set has 2^n elements. We will demonstrate this fact in several ways in subsequent sections of the text.

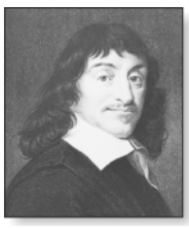
Cartesian Products

The order of elements in a collection is often important. Because sets are unordered, a different structure is needed to represent ordered collections. This is provided by **ordered *n*-tuples**.

DEFINITION 7 The *ordered n-tuple* $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, $\ldots$, and a_n as its nth element.

We say that two ordered n-tuples are equal if and only if each corresponding pair of their elements is equal. In other words, $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n)$ if and only if $a_i = b_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. In particular, ordered 2-tuples are called **ordered pairs**. The ordered pairs (a, b) and (c, d) are equal if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$. Note that (a, b) and (b, a) are not equal unless $a = b$.

Links



RENÉ DESCARTES (1596–1650) René Descartes was born into a noble family near Tours, France, about 200 miles southwest of Paris. He was the third child of his father's first wife; she died several days after his birth. Because of René's poor health, his father, a provincial judge, let his son's formal lessons slide until, at the age of 8, René entered the Jesuit college at La Flèche. The rector of the school took a liking to him and permitted him to stay in bed until late in the morning because of his frail health. From then on, Descartes spent his mornings in bed; he considered these times his most productive hours for thinking.

Descartes left school in 1612, moving to Paris, where he spent 2 years studying mathematics. He earned a law degree in 1616 from the University of Poitiers. At 18 Descartes became disgusted with studying and decided to see the world. He moved to Paris and became a successful gambler. However, he grew tired of bawdy living and moved to the suburb of Saint-Germain, where he devoted himself to mathematical study. When his gambling friends found him, he decided to leave France and undertake a military career. However, he never did any fighting. One day, while escaping the cold in an overheated room at a military encampment, he had several feverish dreams, which revealed his future career as a mathematician and philosopher.

After ending his military career, he traveled throughout Europe. He then spent several years in Paris, where he studied mathematics and philosophy and constructed optical instruments. Descartes decided to move to Holland, where he spent 20 years wandering around the country, accomplishing his most important work. During this time he wrote several books, including the *Discours,* which contains his contributions to analytic geometry, for which he is best known. He also made fundamental contributions to philosophy.

In 1649 Descartes was invited by Queen Christina to visit her court in Sweden to tutor her in philosophy. Although he was reluctant to live in what he called "the land of bears amongst rocks and ice," he finally accepted the invitation and moved to Sweden. Unfortunately, the winter of 1649–1650 was extremely bitter. Descartes caught pneumonia and died in mid-February.

Many of the discrete structures we will study in later chapters are based on the notion of the *Cartesian product* of sets (named after René Descartes). We first define the Cartesian product of two sets.

DEFINITION 8

Let A and B be sets. The *Cartesian product* of A and B, denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Hence,

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in B\}.$$

EXAMPLE 16 Let A represent the set of all students at a university, and let B represent the set of all courses offered at the university. What is the Cartesian product $A \times B$ and how can it be used?

Extra Examples

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B$ consists of all the ordered pairs of the form (a, b), where a is a student at the university and b is a course offered at the university. One way to use the set $A \times B$ is to represent all possible enrollments of students in courses at the university. ◀

EXAMPLE 17 What is the Cartesian product of $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$?

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B$ is

$$A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}.$$ ◀

Note that the Cartesian products $A \times B$ and $B \times A$ are not equal, unless $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$ (so that $A \times B = \emptyset$) or $A = B$ (see Exercises 31 and 38). This is illustrated in Example 18.

EXAMPLE 18 Show that the Cartesian product $B \times A$ is not equal to the Cartesian product $A \times B$, where A and B are as in Example 17.

Solution: The Cartesian product $B \times A$ is

$$B \times A = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (b, 1), (b, 2), (c, 1), (c, 2)\}.$$

This is not equal to $A \times B$, which was found in Example 17. ◀

The Cartesian product of more than two sets can also be defined.

DEFINITION 9

The *Cartesian product* of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$, denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$, is the set of ordered n-tuples $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$, where a_i belongs to A_i for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. In other words,

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, n\}.$$

EXAMPLE 19 What is the Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$, where $A = \{0, 1\}$, $B = \{1, 2\}$, and $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$?

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$ consists of all ordered triples (a, b, c), where $a \in A$, $b \in B$, and $c \in C$. Hence,

$$A \times B \times C = \{(0, 1, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 1, 2), (0, 2, 0), (0, 2, 1), (0, 2, 2), (1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 0), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2)\}.$$ ◀

Remark: Note that when A, B, and C are sets, $(A \times B) \times C$ is not the same as $A \times B \times C$ (see Exercise 39).

We use the notation A^2 to denote $A \times A$, the Cartesian product of the set A with itself. Similarly, $A^3 = A \times A \times A$, $A^4 = A \times A \times A \times A$, and so on. More generally,

$$A^n = \{(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, n\}.$$

EXAMPLE 20 Suppose that $A = \{1, 2\}$. It follows that $A^2 = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2)\}$ and $A^3 = \{(1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 2), (2, 1, 1), (2, 1, 2), (2, 2, 1), (2, 2, 2)\}$. ◀

A subset R of the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is called a **relation** from the set A to the set B. The elements of R are ordered pairs, where the first element belongs to A and the second to B. For example, $R = \{(a, 0), (a, 1), (a, 3), (b, 1), (b, 2), (c, 0), (c, 3)\}$ is a relation from the set $\{a, b, c\}$ to the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. A relation from a set A to itself is called a relation on A.

EXAMPLE 21 What are the ordered pairs in the less than or equal to relation, which contains (a, b) if $a \leq b$, on the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$?

Solution: The ordered pair (a, b) belongs to R if and only if both a and b belong to $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ and $a \leq b$. Consequently, the ordered pairs in R are (0,0), (0,1), (0,2), (0,3), (1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (2,2), (2, 3), and (3, 3). ◀

We will study relations and their properties at length in Chapter 9.

Using Set Notation with Quantifiers

Sometimes we restrict the domain of a quantified statement explicitly by making use of a particular notation. For example, $\forall x \in S(P(x))$ denotes the universal quantification of $P(x)$ over all elements in the set S. In other words, $\forall x \in S(P(x))$ is shorthand for $\forall x(x \in S \rightarrow P(x))$. Similarly, $\exists x \in S(P(x))$ denotes the existential quantification of $P(x)$ over all elements in S. That is, $\exists x \in S(P(x))$ is shorthand for $\exists x(x \in S \wedge P(x))$.

EXAMPLE 22 What do the statements $\forall x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^2 \geq 0)$ and $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 = 1)$ mean?

Solution: The statement $\forall x \in \mathbf{R}(x^2 \geq 0)$ states that for every real number x, $x^2 \geq 0$. This statement can be expressed as "The square of every real number is nonnegative." This is a true statement.

The statement $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}(x^2 = 1)$ states that there exists an integer x such that $x^2 = 1$. This statement can be expressed as "There is an integer whose square is 1." This is also a true statement because $x = 1$ is such an integer (as is -1). ◀

Truth Sets and Quantifiers

We will now tie together concepts from set theory and from predicate logic. Given a predicate P, and a domain D, we define the **truth set** of P to be the set of elements x in D for which $P(x)$ is true. The truth set of $P(x)$ is denoted by $\{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$.

EXAMPLE 23 What are the truth sets of the predicates $P(x)$, $Q(x)$, and $R(x)$, where the domain is the set of integers and $P(x)$ is "$|x| = 1$," $Q(x)$ is "$x^2 = 2$," and $R(x)$ is "$|x| = x$."

Solution: The truth set of P, $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid |x| = 1\}$, is the set of integers for which $|x| = 1$. Because $|x| = 1$ when $x = 1$ or $x = -1$, and for no other integers x, we see that the truth set of P is the set $\{-1, 1\}$.

The truth set of Q, $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid x^2 = 2\}$, is the set of integers for which $x^2 = 2$. This is the empty set because there are no integers x for which $x^2 = 2$.

The truth set of R, $\{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid |x| = x\}$, is the set of integers for which $|x| = x$. Because $|x| = x$ if and only if $x \geq 0$, it follows that the truth set of R is $\mathbf{N}$, the set of nonnegative integers. ◀

Note that $\forall x\, P(x)$ is true over the domain U if and only if the truth set of P is the set U. Likewise, $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true over the domain U if and only if the truth set of P is nonempty.

Exercises

1. List the members of these sets.
- **a)** $\{x \mid x$ is a real number such that $x^2 = 1\}$
- **b)** $\{x \mid x$ is a positive integer less than 12$\}$
- **c)** $\{x \mid x$ is the square of an integer and $x < 100\}$
- **d)** $\{x \mid x$ is an integer such that $x^2 = 2\}$

2. Use set builder notation to give a description of each of these sets.
- **a)** $\{0, 3, 6, 9, 12\}$
- **b)** $\{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$
- **c)** $\{m, n, o, p\}$

3. For each of these pairs of sets, determine whether the first is a subset of the second, the second is a subset of the first, or neither is a subset of the other.
- **a)** the set of airline flights from New York to New Delhi, the set of nonstop airline flights from New York to New Delhi
- **b)** the set of people who speak English, the set of people who speak Chinese
- **c)** the set of flying squirrels, the set of living creatures that can fly

4. For each of these pairs of sets, determine whether the first is a subset of the second, the second is a subset of the first, or neither is a subset of the other.
- **a)** the set of people who speak English, the set of people who speak English with an Australian accent
- **b)** the set of fruits, the set of citrus fruits
- **c)** the set of students studying discrete mathematics, the set of students studying data structures

5. Determine whether each of these pairs of sets are equal.
- **a)** $\{1, 3, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5\}$, $\{5, 3, 1\}$
- **b)** $\{\{1\}\}$, $\{1, \{1\}\}$
- **c)** $\emptyset$, $\{\emptyset\}$

6. Suppose that $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$, $B = \{2, 6\}$, $C = \{4, 6\}$, and $D = \{4, 6, 8\}$. Determine which of these sets are subsets of which other of these sets.

7. For each of the following sets, determine whether 2 is an element of that set.
- **a)** $\{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x$ is an integer greater than 1$\}$
- **b)** $\{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x$ is the square of an integer$\}$
- **c)** $\{2, \{2\}\}$
- **d)** $\{\{2\}, \{\{2\}\}\}$
- **e)** $\{\{2\}, \{2, \{2\}\}\}$
- **f)** $\{\{\{2\}\}\}$

8. For each of the sets in Exercise 7, determine whether $\{2\}$ is an element of that set.

9. Determine whether each of these statements is true or false.
- **a)** $0 \in \emptyset$
- **b)** $\emptyset \in \{0\}$
- **c)** $\{0\} \subset \emptyset$
- **d)** $\emptyset \subset \{0\}$
- **e)** $\{0\} \in \{0\}$
- **f)** $\{0\} \subset \{0\}$
- **g)** $\{\emptyset\} \subseteq \{\emptyset\}$

10. Determine whether these statements are true or false.
- **a)** $\emptyset \in \{\emptyset\}$
- **b)** $\emptyset \in \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$
- **c)** $\{\emptyset\} \in \{\emptyset\}$
- **d)** $\{\emptyset\} \in \{\{\emptyset\}\}$
- **e)** $\{\emptyset\} \subset \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$
- **f)** $\{\{\emptyset\}\} \subset \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$
- **g)** $\{\{\emptyset\}\} \subset \{\{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset\}\}$

11. Determine whether each of these statements is true or false.
- **a)** $x \in \{x\}$
- **b)** $\{x\} \subseteq \{x\}$
- **c)** $\{x\} \in \{x\}$
- **d)** $\{x\} \in \{\{x\}\}$
- **e)** $\emptyset \subseteq \{x\}$
- **f)** $\emptyset \in \{x\}$

12. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the subset of odd integers in the set of all positive integers not exceeding 10.

13. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the set of all months of the year whose names do not contain the letter R in the set of all months of the year.

14. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the relationship $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$.

15. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the relationships $A \subset B$ and $B \subset C$.

16. Use a Venn diagram to illustrate the relationships $A \subset B$ and $A \subset C$.

17. Suppose that A, B, and C are sets such that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$. Show that $A \subseteq C$.

18. Find two sets A and B such that $A \in B$ and $A \subseteq B$.

19. What is the cardinality of each of these sets?

a) $\{a\}$ **b)** $\{\{a\}\}$

c) $\{a, \{a\}\}$ **d)** $\{a, \{a\}, \{a, \{a\}\}\}$

20. What is the cardinality of each of these sets?

a) $\emptyset$ **b)** $\{\emptyset\}$

c) $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$ **d)** $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\}$

21. Find the power set of each of these sets, where a and b are distinct elements.

a) $\{a\}$ **b)** $\{a, b\}$ **c)** $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$

22. Can you conclude that $A = B$ if A and B are two sets with the same power set?

23. How many elements does each of these sets have where a and b are distinct elements?

a) $\mathcal{P}(\{a, b, \{a, b\}\})$

b) $\mathcal{P}(\{\emptyset, a, \{a\}, \{\{a\}\}\})$

c) $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\emptyset))$

24. Determine whether each of these sets is the power set of a set, where a and b are distinct elements.

a) $\emptyset$ **b)** $\{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$

c) $\{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{\emptyset, a\}\}$ **d)** $\{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$

25. Prove that $\mathcal{P}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(B)$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$.

26. Show that if $A \subseteq C$ and $B \subseteq D$, then $A \times B \subseteq C \times D$

27. Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{y, z\}$. Find

a) $A \times B$. **b)** $B \times A$.

28. What is the Cartesian product $A \times B$, where A is the set of courses offered by the mathematics department at a university and B is the set of mathematics professors at this university? Give an example of how this Cartesian product can be used.

29. What is the Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$, where A is the set of all airlines and B and C are both the set of all cities in the United States? Give an example of how this Cartesian product can be used.

30. Suppose that $A \times B = \emptyset$, where A and B are sets. What can you conclude?

31. Let A be a set. Show that $\emptyset \times A = A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$.

32. Let $A = \{a, b, c\}$, $B = \{x, y\}$, and $C = \{0, 1\}$. Find

a) $A \times B \times C$. **b)** $C \times B \times A$.

c) $C \times A \times B$. **d)** $B \times B \times B$.

33. Find A^2 if

a) $A = \{0, 1, 3\}$. **b)** $A = \{1, 2, a, b\}$.

34. Find A^3 if

a) $A = \{a\}$. **b)** $A = \{0, a\}$.

35. How many different elements does $A \times B$ have if A has m elements and B has n elements?

36. How many different elements does $A \times B \times C$ have if A has m elements, B has n elements, and C has p elements?

37. How many different elements does A^n have when A has m elements and n is a positive integer?

38. Show that $A \times B \neq B \times A$, when A and B are nonempty, unless $A = B$.

39. Explain why $A \times B \times C$ and $(A \times B) \times C$ are not the same.

40. Explain why $(A \times B) \times (C \times D)$ and $A \times (B \times C) \times D$ are not the same.

41. Translate each of these quantifications into English and determine its truth value.

a) $\forall x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^2 \neq -1)$ **b)** $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 = 2)$

c) $\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 > 0)$ **d)** $\exists x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^2 = x)$

42. Translate each of these quantifications into English and determine its truth value.

a) $\exists x \in \mathbf{R}\ (x^3 = -1)$ **b)** $\exists x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x + 1 > x)$

c) $\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x - 1 \in \mathbf{Z})$ **d)** $\forall x \in \mathbf{Z}\ (x^2 \in \mathbf{Z})$

43. Find the truth set of each of these predicates where the domain is the set of integers.

a) $P(x)$: $x^2 < 3$ **b)** $Q(x)$: $x^2 > x$

c) $R(x)$: $2x + 1 = 0$

44. Find the truth set of each of these predicates where the domain is the set of integers.

a) $P(x)$: $x^3 \geq 1$ **b)** $Q(x)$: $x^2 = 2$

c) $R(x)$: $x < x^2$

***45.** The defining property of an ordered pair is that two ordered pairs are equal if and only if their first elements are equal and their second elements are equal. Surprisingly, instead of taking the ordered pair as a primitive concept, we can construct ordered pairs using basic notions from set theory. Show that if we define the ordered pair (a, b) to be $\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$, then $(a, b) = (c, d)$ if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$. [*Hint:* First show that $\{\{a\}, \{a, b\}\} = \{\{c\}, \{c, d\}\}$ if and only if $a = c$ and $b = d$.]

***46.** This exercise presents **Russell's paradox**. Let S be the set that contains a set x if the set x does not belong to itself, so that $S = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$.

a) Show the assumption that S is a member of S leads to a contradiction.

b) Show the assumption that S is not a member of S leads to a contradiction.

By parts (a) and (b) it follows that the set S cannot be defined as it was. This paradox can be avoided by restricting the types of elements that sets can have.

***47.** Describe a procedure for listing all the subsets of a finite set.

2.2 Set Operations

Introduction

Two, or more, sets can be combined in many different ways. For instance, starting with the set of mathematics majors at your school and the set of computer science majors at your school, we can form the set of students who are mathematics majors or computer science majors, the set of students who are joint majors in mathematics and computer science, the set of all students not majoring in mathematics, and so on.

Links

DEFINITION 1

Let A and B be sets. The *union* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set that contains those elements that are either in A or in B, or in both.

An element x belongs to the union of the sets A and B if and only if x belongs to A or x belongs to B. This tells us that

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}.$$

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 1 represents the union of two sets A and B. The area that represents $A \cup B$ is the shaded area within either the circle representing A or the circle representing B.

We will give some examples of the union of sets.

EXAMPLE 1 The union of the sets $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set $\{1, 2, 3, 5\}$; that is, $\{1, 3, 5\} \cup \{1, 2, 3\} = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$. ◀

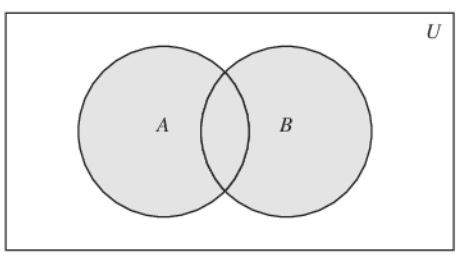
EXAMPLE 2 The union of the set of all computer science majors at your school and the set of all mathematics majors at your school is the set of students at your school who are majoring either in mathematics or in computer science (or in both). ◀

DEFINITION 2

Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set containing those elements in both A and B.

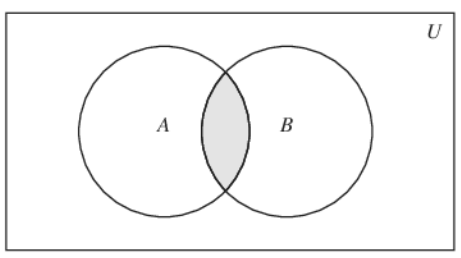
An element x belongs to the intersection of the sets A and B if and only if x belongs to A and x belongs to B. This tells us that

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}.$$



$A \cup B$ is shaded.

FIGURE 1 Venn Diagram of the Union of A and B.



$A \cap B$ is shaded.

FIGURE 2 Venn Diagram of the Intersection of A and B.

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 2 represents the intersection of two sets A and B. The shaded area that is within both the circles representing the sets A and B is the area that represents the intersection of A and B.

We give some examples of the intersection of sets.

EXAMPLE 3 The intersection of the sets $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set $\{1, 3\}$; that is, $\{1, 3, 5\} \cap \{1, 2, 3\} = \{1, 3\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 4 The intersection of the set of all computer science majors at your school and the set of all mathematics majors is the set of all students who are joint majors in mathematics and computer science. ◀

DEFINITION 3 Two sets are called *disjoint* if their intersection is the empty set.

EXAMPLE 5 Let $A = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$. Because $A \cap B = \emptyset$, A and B are disjoint. ◀

Be careful not to overcount!

We are often interested in finding the cardinality of a union of two finite sets A and B. Note that $|A| + |B|$ counts each element that is in A but not in B or in B but not in A exactly once, and each element that is in both A and B exactly twice. Thus, if the number of elements that are in both A and B is subtracted from $|A| + |B|$, elements in $A \cap B$ will be counted only once. Hence,

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|.$$

The generalization of this result to unions of an arbitrary number of sets is called the **principle of inclusion–exclusion**. The principle of inclusion–exclusion is an important technique used in enumeration. We will discuss this principle and other counting techniques in detail in Chapters 6 and 8.

There are other important ways to combine sets.

DEFINITION 4 Let A and B be sets. The *difference* of A and B, denoted by $A - B$, is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B. The difference of A and B is also called the *complement of B with respect to A*.

Remark: The difference of sets A and B is sometimes denoted by $A \setminus B$.

An element x belongs to the difference of A and B if and only if $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$. This tells us that

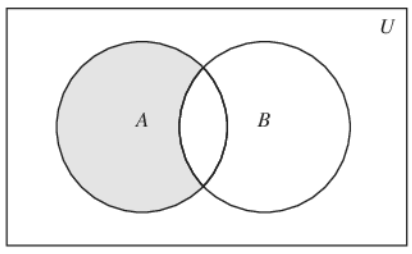
$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}.$$

The Venn diagram shown in Figure 3 represents the difference of the sets A and B. The shaded area inside the circle that represents A and outside the circle that represents B is the area that represents $A - B$.

We give some examples of differences of sets.

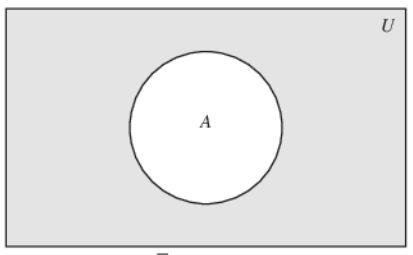
EXAMPLE 6 The difference of $\{1, 3, 5\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set $\{5\}$; that is, $\{1, 3, 5\} - \{1, 2, 3\} = \{5\}$. This is different from the difference of $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{1, 3, 5\}$, which is the set $\{2\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 7 The difference of the set of computer science majors at your school and the set of mathematics majors at your school is the set of all computer science majors at your school who are not also mathematics majors. ◀



$A - B$ is shaded.

FIGURE 3 Venn Diagram for the Difference of A and B.



$\overline{A}$ is shaded.

FIGURE 4 Venn Diagram for the Complement of the Set A.

Once the universal set U has been specified, the **complement** of a set can be defined.

DEFINITION 5 Let U be the universal set. The *complement* of the set A, denoted by $\overline{A}$, is the complement of A with respect to U. Therefore, the complement of the set A is $U - A$.

An element belongs to $\overline{A}$ if and only if $x \notin A$. This tells us that

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}.$$

In Figure 4 the shaded area outside the circle representing A is the area representing $\overline{A}$.

We give some examples of the complement of a set.

EXAMPLE 8 Let $A = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$ (where the universal set is the set of letters of the English alphabet). Then $\overline{A} = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 Let A be the set of positive integers greater than 10 (with universal set the set of all positive integers). Then $\overline{A} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$. ◀

It is left to the reader (Exercise 19) to show that we can express the difference of A and B as the intersection of A and the complement of B. That is,

$$A - B = A \cap \overline{B}.$$

Set Identities

Set identities and propositional equivalences are just special cases of identities for Boolean algebra.

Table 1 lists the most important set identities. We will prove several of these identities here, using three different methods. These methods are presented to illustrate that there are often many different approaches to the solution of a problem. The proofs of the remaining identities will be left as exercises. The reader should note the similarity between these set identities and the logical equivalences discussed in Section 1.3. (Compare Table 6 of Section 1.6 and Table 1.) In fact, the set identities given can be proved directly from the corresponding logical equivalences. Furthermore, both are special cases of identities that hold for Boolean algebra (discussed in Chapter 12).

One way to show that two sets are equal is to show that each is a subset of the other. Recall that to show that one set is a subset of a second set, we can show that if an element belongs to the first set, then it must also belong to the second set. We generally use a direct proof to do this. We illustrate this type of proof by establishing the first of De Morgan's laws.