

Exercises for Module 1: Proofs

1. Prove De Morgan's Laws for propositions: $\neg(P \wedge Q) = \neg P \vee \neg Q$ and $\neg(P \vee Q) = \neg P \wedge \neg Q$ (Hint: use truth tables).

P	Q	$\neg P$	$\neg Q$	$P \wedge Q$	$\neg(P \wedge Q)$	$\neg P \vee \neg Q$
T	T	F	F	T	F	F
T	F	F	T	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	F	T	T

P	Q	$\neg P$	$\neg Q$	$P \vee Q$	$\neg(P \vee Q)$	$\neg P \wedge \neg Q$
T	T	F	F	T	F	F
T	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	T	T	T	T	T

2. Write the following statements and their negations using logical quantifier notation and then prove or disprove them:

(i) Every odd integer is divisible by three.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, (\exists n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } x = 2n+1) \Rightarrow (\exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } x = 3k)$$

negation:

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } (\exists n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } x = 2n+1) \wedge (\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}, x \neq 3k)$$

This statement is false.

Take $x = 11$.

(ii) For any real number, twice its square plus twice itself plus six is greater than or equal to five. (You may assume knowledge of calculus.)

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, 2x^2 + 2x + 6 \geq 5$$

Negation: $\exists x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } 2x^2 + 2x + 6 < 5$

This is true. $f(x) = 2x^2 + 2x + 6$ is an upward-facing parabola that attains its minimum at 5.5.

$$\min_x 2x^2 + 2x + 6 \Rightarrow 0 = 4x + 2 \Rightarrow x = -\frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow f(-\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} - 1 + 6 = 5.5$$

(iii) Every integer can be written as a unique difference of two natural numbers.

$$\forall z \in \mathbb{Z} \exists! n_1, n_2 \text{ s.t. } z = n_1 - n_2$$

$$\exists z \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } (\exists n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4 \text{ s.t. } n_1 \neq n_3, n_2 \neq n_4, z = n_1 - n_2 = n_3 - n_4) \vee (\forall n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}, z \neq n_1 - n_2)$$

This is false. ex. 1 can be written as the difference of natural numbers in infinite ways, ex. $1 = 3 - 2 = 4 - 3$

3. Prove the following statements:

(i) If $a|b$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ (positive integers), then $a \leq b$.

Suppose $a|b$ & $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$.

Then $\exists j \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $b = aj$. ($j > 0$ since $a, b > 0$)

Since $j \geq 1$, $b \geq a$. \blacksquare

(could also use contradiction)

(ii) If $a|b$ and $a|c$, then $a|(xb + yc)$, where $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $a, b, c, x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $a|b$ and $a|c$. By definition, this means that $\exists j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $b = aj$ & $c = ak$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } xb + yc &= xaj + yak \\ &= a(xj + yk) \\ &\quad \underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{\in \mathbb{Z}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $a|(xb + yc)$ by definition. \square

(iii) Let $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If n does not divide the product ab , then n does not divide a and n does not divide b .

We prove the contrapositive, i.e.

$$n|a \vee n|b \Rightarrow n|ab.$$

Let $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Suppose $n \nmid a$. Then $\exists j \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $a = nj$
 $\Rightarrow ab = njb = n(jb)$
 $\therefore n|ab$.

Suppose $n \nmid b$. The proof that $n|ab$ is the same with the roles of a & b interchanged. \square

4. Prove that for all integers $n \geq 1$, $3|(2^{2n} - 1)$.

We proceed by induction on n .

Base case: $n=1$. Then $2^{2n}-1 = 4-1=3$, which is divisible by 3.

Inductive hypothesis: Suppose $3|2^{2k}-1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

We show $3|2^{2(k+1)}-1$.

$3|2^{2k}-1$ means $\exists j \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $2^{2k}-1 = 3j$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We see that } 2^{2(k+1)}-1 &= 2^2 2^{2k}-1 \\ &= 4(2^k)-4+3 \\ &= 4(2^k-1)+3 \\ &= 4(3j)+3 \\ &= 3(4j+1) \end{aligned}$$

Thus $3|2^{2(k+1)}-1$. The claim holds by induction.

5. Prove the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, that every integer $n \geq 2$ has a unique prime factorization (i.e. prove that the prime factorization from the last proof is unique).

We have already shown (in lecture) that each integer $n \geq 2$ has a prime factorization. It remains to show that this factorization is unique.

Suppose in order to derive a contradiction that the prime factorization is not unique. Then there exists a least integer $n \geq 2$ such that

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_\ell \quad \text{where } p_i, q_j, 1 \leq i \leq k, \\ 1 \leq j \leq \ell \\ \text{are prime numbers}$$

This equality gives us that the p_i divide $q_1 q_2 \cdots q_\ell$. Without loss of generality, we focus on p_1 .

$p_1 \mid q_1 q_2 \cdots q_\ell$ implies that p_1 divides one of q_1, q_2, \dots, q_ℓ , since they are prime.

Without loss of generality, $p_1 \mid q_1$. Since both are prime, this means $p_1 = q_1$.

$$\text{Thus } p_1 p_2 \cdots p_k = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_\ell \Rightarrow p_2 \cdots p_k = q_2 \cdots q_\ell$$

This contradicts our assumption that n was the least integer that could be written as the product of two sets of primes.

Therefore there does not exist such a $n \Rightarrow$ prime factorizations are unique.