An Introduction to Writing Proofs

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18 September 2012

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Common Mathematics Terminology

Symbolic logic provides a backdrop for understanding how mathematicians (and related ilk) prove things, as well as the "parts of speech" of the language they use.

Common terms encountered in mathematics include:

- Definition
- Postulate (or axiom)
- Theorem
- Proof
- Proposition
- Lemma
- Corollary
- Claim
- Conjecture
- Counterexample

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Definitions

A definition in mathematics is a statement that stipulates the meaning of a new term, symbol, or object:

- A definition specifies precisely what is meant by the term.
- A definition serves as the **sole authority** as to what that term means.
- Any subsequent statements regarding that term derive their meaning from the definition.

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Examples of Definitions

Consider the following definitions:

Definition: An integer n is even if there exists an integer k such that

n=2k.

Definition: An integer n is odd if there exists an integer k such that

n = 2k + 1.

What sorts of things can we conclude from these definitions?

• 24 is even, because $24 = 2 \cdot 12$ and 12 is an integer.

• 29 is odd, because $29 = 2 \cdot 14 + 1$ and 14 is an integer.

• Note that these definitions alone are **insufficient** for deducing that no

number is both even and odd.

(We would need to make use of additional properties of integers.)

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A Last (?) Comment on Definitions

The standard form of a mathematics definition:

[Object] x is [defined term] if [defining property about x].

Mathematicians tend to write/say if, but they really mean if and only if.

Thus, the above definition really means

$$\forall x \in U, (D(x) \leftrightarrow P(x)),$$

where

$$U = \text{set of objects under consideration}$$

$$D(x) = "x \text{ is [defined term]}"$$

$$P(x) = "x \text{ is [defining property about } x"]$$

Example:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, (even(n) \leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } n = 2k).$$

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Postulates (Axioms)

A **postulate** (also called an **axiom**) is a statement that is assumed true, without proof.

- Axioms are typically very basic, fundamental statements about the objects they describe.
- They serve as starting points from which other statements can be derived.
- A standard axiom about the natural numbers:

If n is a natural number, then n+1 is also a natural number.

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Theorems and Friends

A theorem is a statement that follows logically from axioms or other statements that have already been established.

- To be called a theorem, a statement must have a proof: that is, there must be a valid argument based on axioms, definitions, and proven theorems.
- A lemma is a theorem used to prove another theorem.
- Proposition is sometimes used to refer to a theorem that is considered less significant than other theorems.
- A corollary is a theorem that follows immediately from another theorem via a very short argument.

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Claims, Conjectures, and Counterexamples

- A claim is a statement that we intend to prove.
- A conjecture is a statement that is thought to be true but has not been proved.
- A **counterexample** to a statement is a value that shows that statement to be false.
 - Consider a statement of the form $\forall x \in U$, P(x). A counterexample is a value v such that $\neg P(v)$ is true.
 - Consider a statement of the form $\forall x \in U$, $(P(x) \to Q(x))$. A counterexample is a value v such that $\neg (P(v) \to Q(v))$ is true. Thus, it's a value v such that P(v) is true and Q(v) is false.

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Mathematical Proofs

Mathematical proofs rely on the same underlying principles as formal proofs, with some important differences:

- The results tend to be expressed in paragraph form.
- They may not spell out all the details.
 Which details are included and which are omitted depend on the intended audience.
- Variables tend to be implicitly universally quantified, unless specified otherwise.

The claim "If $A \cup B = \emptyset$, then $A = \emptyset$ " really means:

For all sets A and B, if
$$A \cup B = \emptyset$$
, then $A = \emptyset$.

In this class, we'll lean towards "more detail" rather than "less detail".

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Overview of Proofs

Every proof has certain features:

- A collection of **hypotheses** (or **premises**) H_1, H_2, \ldots, H_k
- The desired **conclusion** *C*
- The need to show that, whenever all of the hypotheses are true, the conclusion is also true:

$$H_1 \wedge H_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge H_k \Rightarrow C$$

For now, we'll stick to direct proofs:

• Assume that $H_1 \wedge H_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge H_k$ is true (i.e., every hypothesis is true), and show that C is also true.

Later on, we'll consider some indirect styles of proofs.

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Proving Existential Statements Directly

To prove a statement of the form

 $\exists x \in U \text{ such that } P(x),$

it suffices to find a specific value $v \in U$ such that P(v) is true.

Claim: There is a set X such that $\{1,2\} \subseteq X$ and $|\mathcal{P}(X)| > 10$.

Proof: Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Clearly $\{1, 2\} \subseteq X$.

Recall that, for any set Y, $|\mathcal{P}(Y)| = 2^{|Y|}$. Because |X| = 4, we can see that

$$|\mathcal{P}(X)| = 2^{|X|} = 2^4 = 16 > 10.$$

Therefore, the claim is true.

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Proving Universal Statements Directly (For Small Sets)

To prove a statement of the form

 $\forall x \in U, P(x)$ (where U is a smallish set)

it sufficies to show explicitly P(v) is true for every value v in U.

Example

Claim: For all $w \in \{1, 2, 5\}$, $2w^2 \ge 2^w$.

Proof: Suppose $w \in \{1, 2, 5\}$. There are three possibilities:

• w = 1: Then $2w^2 = 2 \cdot 1^2 = 2 \ge 2^1 = 2^w$.

• w = 2: Then $2w^2 = 2 \cdot 2^2 = 2 \cdot 4 = 8 \ge 4 = 2^2 = 2^w$.

• w = 5: Then $2w^2 = 2 \cdot 5^2 = 2 \cdot 25 = 50 > 32 = 2^5 = 2^w$.

Therefore, for each $w \in \{1, 2, 5\}$, we have that $2 \cdot w^2 \ge 2^w$.

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Proving Universal Statements Directly (Generalized)

To prove a statement of the form

$$\forall x \in U, P(x)$$

it sufficies to select an arbitrary value $a \in U$ and show that P(a) is true. (This is simply universal generalization!)

Example

Claim: For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x^2 + 1 \ge 0$.

Proof: Let z be an arbitrary element of \mathbb{R} .

Because the square of any real number is nonnegative, we

know $z^2 \ge 0$. Thus,

$$z^2 + 1 \ge 0 + 1 = 1 \ge 0.$$

Because z was arbitrary, the original claim is true.

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Proving If-Then Statements Directly

To prove a statement of the form

$$\forall x \in U, \ (P(x) \to Q(x))$$

it suffices to select arbitrary value $a \in U$ and show $P(a) \to Q(a)$ is true.

How this is done in practice:

- **1** Consider an arbitrary $a \in U$.
- 2 Suppose that P(a) is true.
- **3** Show that Q(a) must also be true.

Sanity check: why does this work?

- If P(a) is actually false, then $P(a) \to Q(a)$ is vacuously true, regardless of value of Q(a).
- If P(a) is actually true and we show Q(a) is true, then $P(a) \to Q(a)$ is also true.

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A Preview: Format of Proofs for CIS 275

We will be using the following format for all proofs in this course:

- **1** Explicitly specify what you're trying to prove. **Proposition:** For all integers n, if n is even, then n + 1 is odd.
- 2 Label the start of the proof, and indicate the method. Proof: (direct)
- Second Explicitly state any initial assumptions.
 Let m be an integer, and suppose that m is even.
- Explicitly state what you need to show, unwrapping the stopping condition as necessary.

Need to show: m+1 is odd. That is, there exists an integer k such that m+1=2k+1.

- 5 Fill in the gaps between steps 3 and 4 with the heart of the proof.
- Explicitly wrap up the proof.Because m was arbitrary, the proposition is true.

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A Basis for Some Sample Proofs

Recall the following two definitions:

Definition: An integer n is even if there exists an integer k such that

n=2k.

Definition: An integer n is odd if there exists an integer k such that

n=2k+1.

We will also allow ourselves to use the following facts¹ about integers:

- If m and n are both integers, then m + k is also an integer.
- If m and n are both integers, then $m \cdot k$ is also an integer.
- Every integer is either even or odd, but not both. That is, for all integers *n*,

$$n$$
 is odd $\equiv \neg (n \text{ is even})$

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 $^{^1\}mbox{We}$ use these as axioms, but a more rigorous treatment could prove them from other axioms.