Basic definitions in number theory Prove and disprove universal statements Prove and disprove existential statements Tips and common mistakes

Math 325K - Lecture 7 Section 4.1 Direct proof and counterexample I

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Outline

- Basic definitions in number theory.
- Prove and disprove universal statements.
- Prove and disprove existential statements.
- Tips and common mistakes.

Application of logic in proofs

Remark

Essentially, proofs are sound arguments whose conclusion is the statement we need to prove. So when writing a proof, we need to make sure that the argument is valid, and all premises are true.

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The main reason that we introduced logic is to write proofs. The theory of logic tells us what are valid argument forms and how to draw new conclusions from the premises we already have, until we reach the final conclusion.

Properties of equality

Definition

An equivalence relation R is a relation defined on $D \times D$ (where D is a set) satisfying the following three properties:

- (reflexive) $\forall x \in D$, we have R(x, x);
- (commutative) $\forall x, y \in D$, if R(x, y), then R(y, x);
- (transitive) $\forall x, y, z \in D$, if R(x, y) and R(y, z), then R(x, z).

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Remark

In mathematics, a lot of relations are equivalence relations. For example, equality =; logical equivalence \equiv ; congruence of integers modulo $m \equiv \pmod{m}$.

Even and odd integers

Definition

An integer n is even if and only if n equals twice some integer. An integer n is **odd** if and only if n equals twice some integer plus 1. In symbols,

$$n$$
 is even $\Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k$.

$$n$$
 is odd $\Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k + 1$.

Prime and composite numbers

Definition

An integer n is prime if and only if n>1 and for all positive integers r and s, if n=rs, then either r or s equals n. An integer n is composite if and only if n>1 and n=rs for some integers r and s with 1< r< n and 1< s< n.

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Remark

Note that 1 is neither prime nor composite. Prime numbers are the central object in the study of number theory and there are still a lot unsolved problems (for example the Twin Prime Conjecture) related to prime numbers.

Example

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- (b) Note that 6a + 4b + 3 = 2(3a + 2b + 1) + 1, by definition it is odd.

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- (b) Note that 6a + 4b + 3 = 2(3a + 2b + 1) + 1, by definition it is odd.
- (c) The only way to write 17 as the product of two unordered positive integers is $17 = 17 \cdot 1$, by definition 17 is a prime number.

Disproof by counterexamples

Suppose we have a universal statement $\forall x \in D, P(x)$, where P is a predicate and D is its domain. In order to disprove (justify that it is false) it, it suffices to find one particular element $y \in D$ such that P(y) is false. Recall that such a y is called a counterexample. And once P(y) is showen to be false, the disproof is done.

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Remark

A disproof by counterexample is usually short. In general, we do not need to write the way how we found the counterexample. We only need to include two things in the disproof: $y \in D$ and P(y) is false.

Example

Find a counterexample for each of the following universal statements:

- The sum of two prime numbers is always a composite number.
- **1** For every even number n, $\frac{n}{2}$ is an odd number.
- **⑤** For all real numbers a and b, if $a^2 = b^2$, then a = b.

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- (b) 4 is even and $\frac{4}{2} = 2$ is still even, so n = 4 is a counterexample.
- (c) Let a=1 and b=-1, the square of both numbers is 1 while $a \neq b$. So (a,b)=(1,-1) is a counterexample.

The method of exhaustion

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Remark

This is the most straightforward method, while even if the domain is finite, if the cardinality is too big, it is still not a good method.

The method of direct proof

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Remark

When the predicate is conditional (like $P(x) \to Q(x)$), we can apply the method of direct proof: first, write the statement as " $\forall x \in D, P(x) \to Q(x)$ "; second, suppose x is particular but arbitrarily chosen element of D for which P(x) is true; finally, show that Q(x) is true.

Proposition

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Remark

We can rewrite the statement as follows: let E be the set of even numbers,

$$\forall x \in E, \forall y \in E, x + y \in E.$$

So we may choose x and y as two particular elements in E, and it suffices to show that x+y is also in E. The last step is essential and requires the use of our premises.

Proof.

Suppose x and y are even numbers. By definition, there exists an integer r such that x=2r and an integer s such that y=2s. Then x+y=2r+2s. So it suffices to show that 2r+2s is even. What do we know about r and s? The only information is that they are integers. Fortunately it is enough:

$$2r + 2s = 2 \cdot (r+s).$$

Since r and s are integers, so is r+s. By definition, $2\cdot(r+s)$ is even, so is x+y. This finishes a direct proof of our proposition.

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Proving existential statements

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Remark

When writing such a proof, we need to demonstrate two things: $y \in D$ and P(y) is true.

Constructive versus nonconstructive proofs

There is a dichotomy between the proofs of existential statements: constructive versus nonconstructive. A **constructive proof** explicitly presents such an element $y \in D$ such that P(y) is true, or presents an algorithm to find such an element.

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Remark

Apparently we prefer constructive proofs, while sometimes it is very hard to find one.

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It suffices to find one such n. We begin with the smallest prime numbers $2,3,5,7,\cdots$. Plus 6, we get $8,9,11,13,\cdots$. Since 11 is a prime number, n=5 is an example, and we are done.

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Remark

It is possible that there are more than one eligible example in the domain, and all these examples lead to correct proofs.

Disprove existential statements

Always keep in mind that showing that a statement is true is the same as showing that its negation is false. The negation of an existential statement is a universal statement. So we can apply the methods introduced above: exhaustion and direct proof.

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Remark

When taking the negation, make sure that all quantifiers and the predicates are all negated.

Example: disprove an existential statement

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Disprove the statement "there is a positive integer n such that n(n+1) is odd".

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Proof.

We justify its negation "for all positive integers $n, \ n(n+1)$ is even". Let n be an arbitrary positive integer. If n is even, then there is an integer k such that n=2k. So $n(n+1)=2k(2k+1)=2\cdot k(2k+1)$ is even. If n is odd, then there is an integer k such that n=2k+1. So $n(n+1)=(2k+1)(2k+2)=2\cdot (2k+1)(k+1)$ is even too. Since the integer n is either even or odd, by division into cases, we draw the conclusion that n(n+1) is even.

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Getting proofs started

Roughly speaking, writing a proof is like building a bridge between the premises and the conclusion. As a result, there are multiple possible approaches. We can start from the side of premises, to draw new conclusions and get closer to the other end; or we can also start from the side of the conclusion, to figure out another statement that implies the conclusion, and regard this statement as a new target conclusion. In fact we usually take both approaches together. Just like building a bridge, as long as both parts do meet somewhere in the middle, the construction is done.

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Remark

No matter which approach you take, always keep in mind the roles of all statements appeared - whether they are new conclusions deduced from premises, or they can imply and conclusion and thus they are new target conclusions.

There are several common mistakes in writing proofs.

Justifying a universal statement from examples.

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- Using the same symbol to mean different things.
- Assuming the conclusion and thus result in circular reasoning.
- Confusion between what is known and what is going to be shown.
- Misuse of "any" (for \forall) and "some" (for \exists).

Example

Find the flaw in the following proof of the statement "any two odd numbers are equal":

- **①** Let a and b be two arbitrary odd numbers.
- ② By definition, there exists an integer k such that a=2k+1.
- **3** By definition, there exists an integer k such that b = 2k + 1.
- **1** Then a = 2k + 1 = b.

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- **1** Then a = 2k + 1 = b.

Solution

The integer k depends on the choice of a and b. Given that k is already used in (2), we cannot use it in (3) again. The flaw is in (3).

Example

Find the flaw in the following proof of the statement "for all positive integers k, $k^2 + 2k + 1$ is a composite number":

- Let k be a positive integer.
- ② If k^2+2k+1 is a composite number, by definition there exist positive integers r and s such that $rs=k^2+2k+1$ and

$$1 < r < k^2 + 2k + 1, 1 < s < k^2 + 2k + 1.$$

③ Since $k^2 + 2k + 1$ is the product of r and s and r, s are strictly between 1 and $k^2 + 2k + 1$, by definition $k^2 + 2k + 1$ is a composite number.

Solution

Here in (2), the existence of r,s implies our conclusion, so we need to demonstrate this new statement. But in (3) we simply reasoned from this statement, so we did not actually prove it.

Example

Find the flaw in the following proof of the same statement in previous example:

- Let k = 3 be a positive integer.
- ② Then $k^2 + 2k + 1 = 3^2 + 2 \cdot 3 + 1 = 16$ is a composite number.
- Since $16 = 4 \cdot 4$ and 1 < 4 < 16, by definition 16 is a composite number.
- Therefore $k^2 + 2k + 1$ is a composite number.

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- Since $16 = 4 \cdot 4$ and 1 < 4 < 16, by definition 16 is a composite number.
- Therefore $k^2 + 2k + 1$ is a composite number.

Solution

Note that the statement is universal, so one (positive) example k=3 is not enough to justify it.

Example: the correct proof

A correct proof of this statement is:

Proof.

Let k be an arbitrary positive integer. Note that $k^2 + 2k + 1 = (k+1) \cdot (k+1)$. Since k is positive, we have

$$k + 1 > 1$$
.

And then

$$k^{2} + 2k + 1 = (k+1) \cdot (k+1) > (k+1) \cdot 1 = k+1.$$

Since k+1 is strictly between 1 and k^2+2k+1 , by definition k^2+2k+1 is a composite number.

HW #3 - this section

Section 4.1 Exercise 8, 13, 18, 28, 41, 58.