Proof Techniques

In this section we will practice some basic proof techniques.

Reading

Section 1.3

Practice Problems

- **1.3 Direct** 1, 5, 6, 11, 12
- **1.3 Indirect** 2, 4, 9, 10, 13
- **1.3 Advanced** 18, 19
- 1.3 Challenge 21, 23, 24

Notes

- Proofs are the bread and butter of a mathematician's work. Every assertion we make needs to be proven.
- All assertions have two parts:
 - hypotheses are the things we assume to be true
 - **conclusions** are the things are trying to deduce as being true *under the assumption* that the hypotheses are true.
- This is paramount: A proof is simply evidence that if the hypotheses were to be true, then the conclusions would also *have* to be true. It does not concern itself at all with the validity of the hypotheses.
- Proofs fall into various categories. We will start with direct proofs.

Direct proofs

- Direct proofs simply start from their hypotheses, and move in a logical progression towards their conclusions.
- Example 1: Let m and n be two integers. If they are both odd, then their product is also odd.
 - To be odd means we can write the number as 2k + 1 where k is an integer (why is it important to say that last part?)
 - We start with the hypothesis: m and n are odd, so we can write them as $m=2k_1+1$ and $n=2k_2+1$ where k_1 and k_2 are integers.
 - Now we compute $mn = ... = 2(2k_1k_2 + k_1 + k_2) + 1$
 - Since the parenthesized part is an integer (why?), we get that mn has the form required to be an odd integer.

- Example 2: Show that for every integer n, the expression $n^2 + n$ is necessarily an even number.
 - Exercise for the students. You have two cases to deal with: If n is odd, and if n is even. Do each separately.
 - Together in class: Every integer can be written as $2n + \epsilon$ where ϵ is either 0 or 1. This can bring the two cases together in this case.
- Food for thought: How do we know that each integer is either even or odd?

Indirect proofs

- There are many kinds of indirect proofs, but some techniques stand out.
- The most standard amongst them is **contradiction**:
 - We want to show that "if P then Q".
 - We instead assume that P is true but Q is false, and derive a contradiction: Something that is impossible.
 - Since we saw that if P is true and Q is not true then we would get something impossible, the only alternative is that if P is true then Q must also be true.
- It is very useful for proving negative statements.
- Contradiction Example 1:

Show that there is no smallest positive rational number.

- By contradiction: We assume there is one and derive an absurd statement from that assumption.
- Say q is this "smallest positive rational number".
- Can we construct a number that is positive and smaller? If we can, that is a contradiction, so q could not have existed in the first place.
- Food for thought:
 - Where does this proof break down if we try to apply it to the integers?
 - Is that fact enough to conclude that for the integers there *is* a smallest positive integer number?
- Contradiction Example 2:

Show that for integers m, n, if mn is odd, then both m and n must be odd.

- By way of contradiction, assume that mn is odd and one of m or n is not odd, hence even. Without loss of generality, assume it is m.
- We know (show separately) that if m is even then mn is also even. This contradicts the assumption that mn was odd.

- This is actually best seen as an example of the **contrapositive**:
 - Showing "if P then Q" is the same as showing "if not Q then not P"
 - In the above example, this would read: If m or n is even, then the product mn is also even.
 - Food for thought: Understand why these two are equivalent (page 25 from the book but think about it first).
- The **converse** of "if P then Q" is "if Q then P". These are in general not equivalent statements, one could be true while the other is false. (Students: come up with examples)