Review.

Theory: If you drink you must be at least 18.

Which cards do you turn over?

Drink $\implies$ "≥ 18"

"< 18" $\implies$ Don't Drink. Contrapositive.

$\wedge, \vee$, $\neg$, $P \implies Q \equiv \neg P \vee Q$.

Truth Table. Putting together identities. (E.g., cases, substitution.)

CS70: Lecture 2. Outline.

Today: Proofs!!!

1. By Example.
2. Direct. (Prove $P \implies Q$.)
3. by Contraposition (Prove $P \implies Q$)
4. by Contradiction (Prove P.)
5. by Cases

If time: discuss induction.

Quick Background and Notation.

Integers closed under addition.

$a, b \in Z \implies a + b \in Z$

$a|b$ means "a divides b".

$2|4$? Yes! Since for $q = 2$, $4 = (2)2$.

$7|23$? No! No q where true.

$4|2$? No!
Poll

Formally: $a|b \iff \exists q \in Z$ where $b = aq$.

$3|15$ since for $q = 5$, $15 = 3(5)$.

A natural number $p > 1$, is **prime** if it is divisible only by 1 and itself.

Direct Proof.

Theorem: For any $a, b, c \in Z$, if $a|b$ and $a|c$ then $a|(b-c)$.

Proof: Assume $a|b$ and $a|c$

$b = aq$ and $c = aq'$ where $q, q' \in Z$

$b - c = aq - aq' = a(q - q')$ Done?

$(b-c) = a(q-q')$ and $(q-q')$ is an integer so by definition of divides

$a|(b-c)$ $\square$

Works for $\forall a, b, c$?

Argument applies to *every* $a, b, c \in Z$.

Used distributive property and definition of divides.

Direct Proof Form:

Goal: $P \implies Q$

Assume P.

$\ldots$

Therefore Q.

Another direct proof.

Let D_3 be the 3 digit natural numbers.

Theorem: For $n \in D_3$, if the alternating sum of digits of n is divisible by 11, than $11|n$.

$$\forall n \in D_3, (11|\text{alt. sum of digits of } n) \implies 11|n$$

Examples:

$n = 121$ Alt Sum: $1 - 2 + 1 = 0$. Divis. by 11. As is 121.

$n = 605$ Alt Sum: $6 - 0 + 5 = 11$ Divis. by 11. As is $605 = 11(55)$

Proof: For $n \in D_3$, $n = 100a + 10b + c$, for some a, b, c.

Assume: Alt. sum: $a - b + c = 11k$ for some integer k.

Add $99a + 11b$ to both sides.

$$100a + 10b + c = 11k + 99a + 11b = 11(k + 9a + b)$$

Left hand side is n, $k + 9a + b$ is integer. $\implies 11|n$. $\square$

Direct proof of $P \implies Q$:
Assumed P: $11|a - b + c$. Proved Q: $11|n$.

The Converse

Thm: $\forall n \in D_3, (11 | \text{alt. sum of digits of } n) \implies 11 | n$

Is converse a theorem?
$\forall n \in D_3, (11 | n) \implies (11 | \text{alt. sum of digits of } n)$

Yes? No?

Poll

Another Direct Proof.

Theorem: $\forall n \in D_3, (11|n) \implies (11|\text{alt. sum of digits of } n)$

Proof: Assume $11|n$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
n = 100a + 10b + c = 11k \implies \\
99a + 11b + (a - b + c) = 11k \implies \\
a - b + c = 11k - 99a - 11b \implies \\
a - b + c = 11(k - 9a - b) \implies \\
a - b + c = 11\ell \text{ where } \ell = (k - 9a - b) \in Z
\end{aligned}
$$

That is $11|$alternating sum of digits. $\square$

Note: similar proof to other. In this case every $\implies$ is $\iff$

Often works with arithmetic properties ...
...not when multiplying by 0.

We have.

Theorem: $\forall n \in N', (11|\text{alt. sum of digits of } n) \iff (11|n)$

Proof by Contraposition

Thm: For $n \in Z^+$ and $d|n$. If n is odd then d is odd.

$n = 2k+1$ what do we know about d?

What to do? Is it even true?
Hey, that rhymes ...and there is a pun ... colored blue.
Anyway, what to do?

Goal: Prove $P \implies Q$.

Assume $\neg Q$
...and prove $\neg P$.

Conclusion: $\neg Q \implies \neg P$ equivalent to $P \implies Q$.

Proof: Assume $\neg Q$: d is even. $d = 2k$.

$d|n$ so we have

$n = qd = q(2k) = 2(kq)$

n is even. $\neg P$ $\square$

Another Contraposition...

Lemma: For every n in N, n^2 is even $\implies$ n is even. ($P \implies Q$)

n^2 is even, $n^2 = 2k$, ...$\sqrt{2k}$ even?

Proof by contraposition: $(P \implies Q) \equiv (\neg Q \implies \neg P)$

$P =$ 'n^2 is even.' .... $\neg P =$ 'n^2 is odd'

$Q =$ 'n is even' .... $\neg Q =$ 'n is odd'

Prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$: n is odd $\implies$ n^2 is odd.

$n = 2k + 1$

$n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1.$

$n^2 = 2l + 1$ where l is a natural number..

... and n^2 is odd!

$\neg Q \implies \neg P$ so $P \implies Q$ and ... $\square$

Proof by contradiction:form

Theorem: $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Must show: For every $a, b \in Z$, $(\frac{a}{b})^2 \neq 2$.

A simple property (equality) should always "not" hold.

Proof by contradiction:

Theorem: P.

$\neg P \implies P_1 \cdots \implies R$

$\neg P \implies Q_1 \cdots \implies \neg R$

$\neg P \implies R \wedge \neg R \equiv$ False

or $\neg P \implies$ *False*

Contrapositive of $\neg P \implies$ *False* is *True* $\implies P$.
Theorem P is true. And proven. $\square$

Contradiction

Theorem: $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Assume $\neg P$: $\sqrt{2} = a/b$ for $a, b \in Z$.

Reduced form: a and b have no common factors.

$$\sqrt{2}b = a$$

$$2b^2 = a^2 = 4k^2$$

a^2 is even $\implies$ a is even.

$a = 2k$ for some integer k

$$b^2 = 2k^2$$

b^2 is even $\implies$ b is even.
a and b have a common factor. Contradiction.

$\square$

Proof by contradiction: example

Theorem: There are infinitely many primes.

Proof:

- Assume finitely many primes: $p_1, \ldots, p_k$.
- Consider number

$$q = (p_1 \times p_2 \times \cdots p_k) + 1.$$

- q cannot be one of the primes as it is larger than any p_i.
- q has prime divisor p ("$p > 1$" = R) which is one of p_i.
- p divides both $x = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_k$ and q, and divides $q - x$,
- $\implies p | q - x \implies p \leq q - x = 1.$
- so $p \leq 1$. (**Contradicts** R**.**)

The original assumption that "the theorem is false" is false, thus the theorem is proven. $\square$

Product of first k primes..

Did we prove?

- "The product of the first k primes plus 1 is prime."
- No.
- The chain of reasoning started with a false statement.

Consider example..

- $2 \times 3 \times 5 \times 7 \times 11 \times 13 + 1 = 30031 = 59 \times 509$
- There is a prime *in between* 13 and $q = 30031$ that divides q.
- Proof assumed no primes *in between* p_k and q.

Proof by cases.

Theorem: $x^5 - x + 1 = 0$ has no solution in the rationals.
Proof: First a lemma...

Lemma: If x is a solution to $x^5 - x + 1 = 0$ and $x = a/b$ for $a, b \in Z$, *then both a and b are even.*

Reduced form $\frac{a}{b}$: a and b can't both be even! + Lemma
$\implies$ no rational solution. $\square$

Proof of lemma: Assume a solution of the form a/b.

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^5 - \frac{a}{b} + 1 = 0$$

Multiply by b^5,

$$a^5 - ab^4 + b^5 = 0$$

Case 1: a odd, b odd: odd - odd +odd = even. Not possible.
Case 2: a even, b odd: even - even +odd = even. Not possible.
Case 3: a odd, b even: odd - even +even = even. Not possible.
Case 4: a even, b even: even - even +even = even. Possible.

The fourth case is the only one possible, so the lemma follows. $\square$

Proof by cases.

Theorem: There exist irrational x and y such that x^y is rational.

Let $x = y = \sqrt{2}$.

Case 1: $x^y = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is rational. Done!

Case 2: $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is irrational.

- New values: $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$, $y = \sqrt{2}$.
-
$$x^y = \left(\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}*\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}^2 = 2.$$

Thus, we have irrational x and y with a rational x^y (i.e., 2).

One of the cases is true so theorem holds. $\square$

Question: Which case holds? Don't know!!!

Be careful.

Theorem: $3 = 4$

Proof: Assume $3 = 4$.

Start with $12 = 12$.

Divide one side by 3 and the other by 4 to get
$4 = 3$.

By commutativity theorem holds. $\square$

Don't assume what you want to prove!

Be really careful!

Theorem: $1 = 2$
Proof: For $x = y$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}(x^2 - xy) &= x^2 - y^2 \\ x(x-y) &= (x+y)(x-y) \\ x &= (x+y) \\ x &= 2x \\ 1 &= 2\end{aligned}$$

$\square$

Dividing by zero is no good.

Also: Multiplying inequalities by a negative.

$P \implies Q$ does not mean $Q \implies P$.

Summary: Note 2.

Direct Proof:
To Prove: $P \implies Q$. Assume P. Prove Q.

By Contraposition:
To Prove: $P \implies Q$ Assume $\neg Q$. Prove $\neg P$.

By Contradiction:
To Prove: P Assume $\neg P$. Prove False .

By Cases: informal.
Universal: show that statement holds in all cases.
Existence: used cases where one is true.
Either $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}$ worked.
or $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ worked.

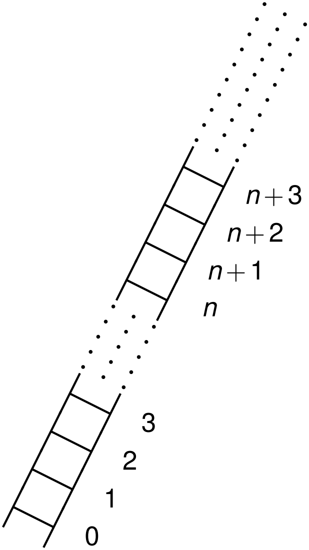
Careful when proving!
Don't assume the theorem. Divide by zero.Watch converse. ...

CS70: Note 3. Induction!

Poll.

1. The natural numbers.
2. 5 year old Gauss.
3. ..and Induction.
4. Simple Proof.

The natural numbers.



$0, 1, 2, 3,$

$\ldots, n, n+1, n+2, n+3, \ \ldots$

A formula.

Teacher: Hello class.
Teacher: Please add the numbers from 1 to 100.

Gauss: It's $\frac{(100)(101)}{2}$ or 5050!

Five year old Gauss Theorem: $\forall (n \in N) : \sum_{i=0}^{n} i = \frac{(n)(n+1)}{2}$.

It is a statement about all natural numbers.

$$\forall (n \in N) : P(n).$$

$P(n)$ is "$\sum_{i=0}^{n} i = \frac{(n)(n+1)}{2}$".

Principle of Induction:

- Prove $P(0)$.
- Assume $P(k)$, "Induction Hypothesis"
- Prove $P(k+1)$. "Induction Step."

Gauss induction proof.

Theorem: For all natural numbers n, $0 + 1 + 2 \cdots n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Base Case: Does 0 = $\frac{0(0+1)}{2}$? Yes.

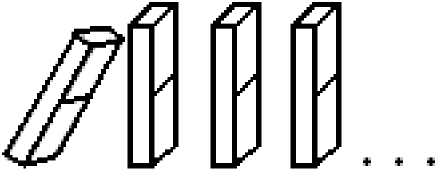
Induction Step: Show $\forall k \geq 0, P(k) \implies P(k+1)$
Induction Hypothesis: $P(k) = 1 + \cdots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 + \cdots + k + (k+1) &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \\
&= \frac{k^2 + k + 2(k+1)}{2} \\
&= \frac{k^2 + 3k + 2}{2} \\
&= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$P(k+1)$! By principle of induction... $\square$

Notes visualization

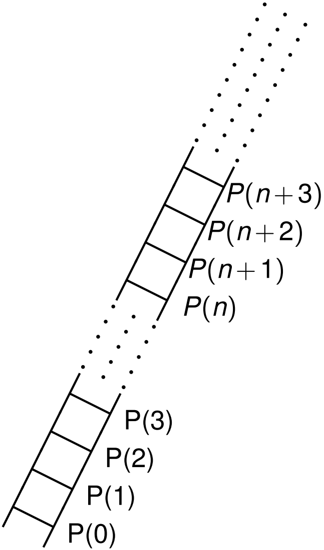
Note's visualization: an infinite sequence of dominos.



Prove they all fall down;

- $P(0)$ = "First domino falls"
- $(\forall k)\ P(k) \implies P(k+1)$:
  "kth domino falls implies that $k+1$st domino falls"

Climb an infinite ladder?



$$P(0)$$
$$\forall k, P(k) \implies P(k+1)$$
$$P(0) \implies P(1) \implies P(2) \implies P(3) \ldots$$
$$(\forall n \in N)P(n)$$

Your favorite example of forever..or the natural numbers...

Gauss and Induction

Child Gauss: $(\forall \mathbf{n} \in \mathbf{N})(\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2})$ Proof?

Idea: assume predicate $P(n)$ for $n = k$. $P(k)$ is $\sum_{i=1}^{k} i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$.

Is predicate, $P(n)$ true for $n = k+1$?

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = (\sum_{i=1}^{k} i) + (k+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + k + 1 = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}.$$

How about $k+2$. Same argument starting at $k+1$ works!

Induction Step. $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$.

Is this a proof? It shows that we can always move to the next step.

Need to start somewhere. $P(0)$ is $\sum_{i=0}^{0} i = 0 = \frac{(0)(0+1)}{2}$ **Base Case.**

Statement is true for $n = 0$ $P(0)$ is true

plus inductive step $\implies$ true for $n = 1$ $(P(0) \wedge (P(0) \implies P(1))) \implies P(1)$

plus inductive step $\implies$ true for $n = 2$ $(P(1) \wedge (P(1) \implies P(2))) \implies P(2)$

...

true for $n = k$ $\implies$ true for $n = k+1$ $(P(k) \wedge (P(k) \implies P(k+1))) \implies P(k+1)$

...

Predicate, $P(n)$, True for all natural numbers! **Proof by Induction.**

Induction

The canonical way of proving statements of the form

$$(\forall k \in N)(P(k))$$

- For all natural numbers n, $1 + 2 \cdots n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.
- For all $n \in N$, $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3.
- The sum of the first n odd integers is a perfect square.

The basic form

- Prove $P(0)$. "Base Case".
- $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$
  - Assume $P(k)$, "Induction Hypothesis"
  - Prove $P(k+1)$. "Induction Step."

$P(n)$ true for all natural numbers n!!!
Get to use $P(k)$ to prove $P(k+1)$! ! ! !

Next Time.

More induction!
See you on Thursday!