

# Ch 1.8: Proof Methods and Strategy

ICS 141: Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science I

Kyle Berney Department of ICS, University of Hawaii at Manoa

Kyle Berney – Ch 1.8: Proof Methods and Strategy

- A proof by cases shows that a proposition is true by considering different cases separately.
- Let *n* be an non-negative integer.
- Aims to prove conditional statement to of the form:

 $(P_1 \vee P_2 \vee \cdots \vee P_n) \Rightarrow Q$ 

By proving each of the cases *n* cases:

 $(P_1 \Rightarrow Q) \land (P_2 \Rightarrow Q) \land \cdots \land (P_n \Rightarrow Q)$ 

• Proposition: If *n* is an integer such that  $n \neq 0$ , then  $n^2 - n$  is even.

- Proposition: If *n* is an integer such that  $n \neq 0$ , then  $n^2 n$  is even.
- Proof:

- Proposition: If *n* is an integer such that  $n \neq 0$ , then  $n^2 n$  is even.
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *n* be an arbitrary integer such that  $n \neq 0$ .

- Proposition: If *n* is an integer such that  $n \neq 0$ , then  $n^2 n$  is even.
- <u>Proof:</u> Let *n* be an arbitrary integer such that  $n \neq 0$ . <u>Case 1:</u> Assume *n* is even so that for some integer *k*, n = 2k.  $n^2 - n = (2k)^2 - 2k$   $= 4k^2 - 2k$   $= 2(2k^2 - k)$ = 2k', for some integer  $k' = 2k^2 - k$ .

By definition of an even integer,  $n^2 - n$  is even.

- Proposition: If *n* is an integer such that  $n \neq 0$ , then  $n^2 n$  is even.
- Proof: Let *n* be an arbitrary integer such that  $n \neq 0$ . Case 2: Assume *n* is odd so that for some integer *k*, n = 2k + 1.  $n^{2} - n = (2k + 1)^{2} - (2k + 1)^{2}$  $=4k^{2}+4k+1-2k-1$  $= 4k^2 + 2k$  $= 2(2k^2 + k)$ = 2k', for some integer  $k' = 2k^2 + k$ . By definition of an even integer,  $n^2 - n$  is even.

- An exhausive proofs are used to prove propositions with a relatively small number of cases.
- Individually prove each case with specific values.

• Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .

• Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .

#### Proof:

- Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *n* be an arbitrary positive integer such that  $n \leq 4$ .

- Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *n* be an arbitrary positive integer such that  $n \le 4$ . <u>Case 1</u>: Let n = 1.

$$(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$$
  
 $\Rightarrow 2^3 \ge 3^1$   
 $\Rightarrow 8 \ge 3$ .

- Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *n* be an arbitrary positive integer such that  $n \le 4$ . <u>Case 2</u>: Let n = 2.

$$(2+1)^3 \ge 3^n$$
  
 $\Rightarrow 3^3 \ge 3^2$   
 $\Rightarrow 27 \ge 9$ .

- Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *n* be an arbitrary positive integer such that  $n \le 4$ . <u>Case 3</u>: Let n = 3.

 $(3+1)^3 \ge 3^n$  $\Rightarrow 4^3 \ge 3^3$  $\Rightarrow 64 \ge 27$ .

- Proposition: If *n* is a positive integer such that  $n \le 4$  then  $(n+1)^3 \ge 3^n$ .
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *n* be an arbitrary positive integer such that  $n \le 4$ . <u>Case 4</u>: Let n = 4.

$$(4 + 1)^3 \ge 4^n$$
  
 $\Rightarrow 5^3 \ge 3^4$   
 $\Rightarrow 125 \ge 81$  .

• Proposition: Show that for all real numbers x and y,

|XY| = |X||Y|

- Proposition: Show that for all real numbers x and y, |xy| = |x||y|
- Proof:

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers x and y, |xy| = |x||y|
- Proof: Let x and y be arbitrary real numbers.

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers x and y, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a.

- Proposition: Show that for all real numbers x and y, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a. We consider 4 cases.

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers *x* and *y*, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a. We consider 4 cases.

Case 1: Assume 
$$x \ge 0$$
 and  $y \ge 0$ .Case 2: Assume  $x \ge 0$  and  $y < 0$ .Case 3: Assume  $x < 0$  and  $y \ge 0$ .Case 4: Assume  $x < 0$  and  $y < 0$ .

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers *x* and *y*, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a. We consider 4 cases.

<u>Case 1:</u> Assume  $x \ge 0$  and  $y \ge 0$ . Since xy is non-negative, |xy| = xy = |x||y|.

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers x and y, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a. We consider 4 cases.

<u>Case 2:</u> Assume  $x \ge 0$  and y < 0. Since xy is negative, |xy| = -xy = x(-y) = |x||y|.

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers *x* and *y*, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a. We consider 4 cases.

<u>Case 3:</u> Assume x < 0 and  $y \ge 0$ . Since xy is negative, |xy| = -xy = (-x)y = |x||y|.

- <u>Proposition</u>: Show that for all real numbers *x* and *y*, |xy| = |x||y|
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary real numbers. Note that for any real number *a*, if  $a \ge 0$  then |a| = a. Similarly, if a < 0 then |a| = -a. We consider 4 cases.

<u>Case 4:</u> Assume x < 0 and y < 0. Since xy is non-negative, |xy| = xy = (-x)(-y) = |x||y|.

## Without Loss of Generality

- In the previous proposition (Slide 6), Case 2 and Case 3 are almost identical
  - Roles of x and y are switched based on which variable is negative.

<u>Case 2:</u> Assume  $x \ge 0$  and y < 0. Since xy is negative, |xy| = -xy = x(-y) = |x||y|.

<u>Case 3:</u> Assume x < 0 and  $y \ge 0$ . Since xy is negative,

$$|xy| = -xy = (-x)y = |x||y|$$
.

# Without Loss of Generality

- The phrase "without loss of generality" is used in proofs to simplify arguments by focusing on one specific case, with the understanding that the remaining case(s) follow the same reasoning
- Used frequently for:
  - Symmetric cases
  - Redundant cases

## Without Loss of Generality

We can combine Case 2 and Case 3

<u>Case 2:</u> Without loss of generality, assume  $x \ge 0$  and y < 0. Since xy is negative,

$$|xy| = -xy = x(-y) = |x||y|$$
.

• Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.

Proof:

• Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.

#### Proof:

Hint #1: Use a proof by contraposition. Recall that

$$(P \Rightarrow Q) \equiv (\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P)$$

• Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.

#### Proof:

*Hint #1:* Use a proof by contraposition. Recall that

$$(P \Rightarrow Q) \equiv (\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P)$$

Hint #2: Use proof by cases and "without loss of generality"

- Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.
- <u>Proof:</u> Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary integers. We proceed with proof by contraposition. Assume *x* and *y* are not both even. That is, either *x* or *y* is odd or both are (but not both even). Without loss of generality, assume *x* is odd such that x = 2a + 1 for some integer *a*.

- Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.
- <u>Proof:</u> Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary integers. We proceed with proof by contraposition. Assume *x* and *y* are not both even. That is, either *x* or *y* is odd or both are (but not both even). Without loss of generality, assume *x* is odd such that x = 2a + 1 for some integer *a*.

<u>Case 1:</u> Assume y is even so that there exists an integer b such y = 2b.

- Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.
- <u>Proof:</u> Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary integers. We proceed with proof by contraposition. Assume *x* and *y* are not both even. That is, either *x* or *y* is odd or both are (but not both even). Without loss of generality, assume *x* is odd such that *x* = 2*a* + 1 for some integer *a*.

<u>Case 1:</u> Assume y is even so that there exists an integer b such y = 2b.

$$x + y = (2a + 1) + (2b)$$
  
= 2a + 2b + 1  
= 2(a + b) + 1.  
By definition, x + y is odd.

Kyle Berney – Ch 1.8: Proof Methods and Strategy

- Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.
- <u>Proof:</u> Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary integers. We proceed with proof by contraposition. Assume *x* and *y* are not both even. That is, either *x* or *y* is odd or both are (but not both even). Without loss of generality, assume *x* is odd such that x = 2a + 1 for some integer *a*.

<u>Case 2</u>: Assume y is odd so that there exists an integer b such y = 2b + 1.

- Proposition: Let x and y be integers. If xy and x + y are both even, then x and y are also both even.
- <u>Proof:</u> Let *x* and *y* be arbitrary integers. We proceed with proof by contraposition. Assume *x* and *y* are not both even. That is, either *x* or *y* is odd or both are (but not both even). Without loss of generality, assume *x* is odd such that x = 2a + 1 for some integer *a*.

<u>Case 2</u>: Assume y is odd so that there exists an integer b such y = 2b + 1.

$$xy = (2a + 1)(2b + 1)$$
  
= 2ab + 2a + 2b + 1  
= 2(ab + a + b) + 1.  
By definition, xy is odd. ■

- An existance proof is used to prove propositions of the form  $\exists x(P(x))$
- A <u>constructive</u> existance proof aims to find an element *a* such that *P(a)* is true
- A <u>nonconstructive</u> existance proof uses indirect proof methods such as proof by contradiction

 Proposition: There exists a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways.

- Proposition: There exists a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways.
- <u>Proof:</u>  $1729 = 1000 + 729 = 10^3 + 9^3$ =  $1728 + 1 = 12^3 + 1^3$ .

We showed that 1729 can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways.

• Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $\overline{x^{y}}$  is rational.

- Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $x^y$  is rational.
- <u>Proof</u>: Recall that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Consider the number  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ .

- Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $x^y$  is rational.
- <u>Proof</u>: Recall that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Consider the number  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ .

<u>Case 1:</u> Assume  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  is rational.

- Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $x^y$  is rational.
- <u>Proof</u>: Recall that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Consider the number  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ .

<u>Case 1:</u> Assume  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  is rational. Then we have shown that for  $x = \sqrt{2}$  and  $y = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $x^y = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  is rational.

- Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $x^y$  is rational.
- <u>Proof</u>: Recall that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Consider the number  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ .

<u>Case 2:</u> Assume  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  is irrational.

- Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $x^y$  is rational.
- <u>Proof</u>: Recall that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Consider the number  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ .

<u>Case 2</u>: Assume  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  is irrational. Let  $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $y = \sqrt{2}$ ,

- Proposition: There exists irrational number x and y such that  $x^y$  is rational.
- <u>Proof</u>: Recall that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Consider the number  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$

<u>Case 2:</u> Assume  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  is irrational. Let  $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $y=\sqrt{2},$  $x^{y} = \left(\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{\sqrt{2}}$  $=\left(\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}\cdot\sqrt{2}}\right)$  $=\sqrt{2}^{2}$ = 2, which is rational.

- A <u>uniqueness proof</u> is used to prove propositions of the form  $\exists ! x(P(x))$
- Need to show
  - Existence: an element x with P(x) exists.
  - Uniqueness: If element x and y with P(x) and P(y) exists,
     then x and y are the same element, i.e.,

$$X = Y$$

• Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Assume *a* and *b* are arbitrary real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ .

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Assume *a* and *b* are arbitrary real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ . Let *r* be a real number such that r = -b/a.

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Assume *a* and *b* are arbitrary real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ . Let *r* be a real number such that r = -b/a. Notice that,

$$ar + b = a(-b/a) + b$$
$$= -b + b$$
$$= 0.$$

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Assume *a* and *b* are arbitrary real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ . Let *r* be a real number such that r = -b/a. Notice that,

$$ar + b = a(-b/a) + b$$
$$= -b + b$$

= 0.

Therefore, an element *r* that satisfies the proposition exists.

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *s* be an arbitrary real number such that as + b = 0.

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *s* be an arbitrary real number such that as + b = 0.

ar + b = as + b $\Rightarrow ar = as$  $\Rightarrow r = s . \blacksquare$ 

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *s* be an arbitrary real number such that as + b = 0.

ar + b = as + b $\Rightarrow ar = as$  $\Rightarrow r = s . \blacksquare$ 

*Question:* Is there another way to show that r = s?

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *s* be an arbitrary real number such that as + b = 0.

```
ar + b = as + b
\Rightarrow ar = as
\Rightarrow r = s . \blacksquare
```

- *Question:* Is there another way to show that r = s?
  - Yes! Using systems of linear equations

- Proposition: If a and b are real numbers such that  $a \neq 0$ , then there is a unique real number r such that ar + b = 0.
- <u>Proof</u>: Let *s* be an arbitrary real number such that as + b = 0.

$$(ar + b = 0)$$
  
-  $(as + b = 0)$   
 $a(r - s) = 0$   
 $r - s = 0$   
 $r = s$ .

#### Exercise

Proposition: Let x and y be real numbers.

 $\max(x, y) + \min(x, y) = x + y$ 

#### Exercise

• Proposition: Let *x* and *y* be real numbers.

$$\min(x, y) = \frac{x + y - |x - y|}{2}$$

and 
$$\max(x, y) = \frac{x + y + |x - y|}{2}$$

#### Exercise

Proposition: Let x and y be real numbers. Prove the triangle inequality

 $|x|+|y|\geq |x+y|$