

The Foundations: Logic and Proofs

Chapter 1, Part III: Proofs

Because learning changes everything.

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Summary

- Valid Arguments and Rules of Inference
- Proof Methods
- Proof Strategies

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Rules of Inference

Section 1.6

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Section Summary¹

- Valid Arguments
- Inference Rules for Propositional Logic
- Using Rules of Inference to Build Arguments
- Rules of Inference for Quantified Statements
- Building Arguments for Quantified Statements

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Revisiting the Socrates Example

- two premises:
 - All men are mortal.
 - Socrates is a man.
- conclusion:
 - Socrates is mortal.
- how do we get the conclusion from the premises?

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The Argument

- express the premises (above the line) and the conclusion (below the line) in predicate logic as an argument:

$$\begin{array}{l} \forall x (\text{Man}(x) \rightarrow \text{Mortal}(x)) \\ \text{Man}(\text{Socrates}) \\ \hline \therefore \text{Mortal}(\text{Socrates}) \end{array}$$

- we will see shortly that this is a valid argument

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Valid Arguments:

- how to construct valid arguments in two stages
 1. propositional logic
inference rules
 2. predicate logic
inference rules for propositional logic and to handle variables and quantifiers

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Arguments in Propositional Logic

- argument: a sequence of propositions.
 - all but the final proposition are called premises
 - the last statement is the conclusion
- argument is valid if the premises imply the conclusion
- with premises p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n and conclusion is q then $(p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n) \rightarrow q$ is a tautology
- inference rules are all simple arguments used to construct more complex argument forms

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Rules of Inference for Propositional Logic: Modus Ponens

$$\begin{array}{l} p \rightarrow q \\ p \\ \hline \therefore q \end{array} \quad \text{Corresponding tautology:} \quad (p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$$

Example:

- p : It is snowing.
- q : I will study discrete math.
- If it is snowing, then I will study discrete math.
- It is snowing.
- Therefore, I will study discrete math.

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Modus Tollens

$$\begin{array}{l} p \rightarrow q \\ \neg q \\ \hline \therefore \neg p \end{array} \quad \text{Corresponding tautology:} \quad (\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$$

Example:

- p : It is snowing.
- q : I will study discrete math.
- If it is snowing, then I will study discrete math.
- I will not study discrete math.
- Therefore, it is not snowing.

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Hypothetical Syllogism

$$\begin{array}{l} p \rightarrow q \\ q \rightarrow r \\ \hline \therefore p \rightarrow r \end{array} \quad \text{Corresponding tautology:} \quad ((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$$

Example:

- p : It snows.
- q : I will study discrete math.
- r : I will get an A.
- If it snows, then I will study discrete math.
- If I study discrete math, I will get an A.
- Therefore, if it snows, I will get an A.

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Disjunctive Syllogism

$$\begin{array}{l} p \vee q \\ \neg p \\ \hline \therefore q \end{array} \quad \text{Corresponding tautology:} \quad (\neg p \wedge (p \vee q)) \rightarrow q$$

Example:

- p : I will study discrete math.
- q : I will study English literature.
- I will study discrete math or I will study English literature.
- I will not study discrete math.
- Therefore, I will study English literature.

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Addition

$$\frac{p}{\therefore p \vee q}$$

Corresponding tautology:
 $p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$

Example:

- p: I will study discrete math.
- q: I will visit Las Vegas.
- I will study discrete math.
- Therefore, I will study discrete math or I will visit Las Vegas.

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Simplification

$$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p}$$

Corresponding tautology:
 $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$

Example:

- p: I will study discrete math.
- q: I will study English literature.
- I will study discrete math and English literature
- Therefore, I will study discrete math.

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Conjunction

$$\frac{p}{\therefore p \wedge q}$$

Corresponding tautology:
 $((p) \wedge (q)) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$

Example:

- p: I will study discrete math.
- q: I will study English literature.
- I will study discrete math.
- I will study English literature.
- Therefore, I will study discrete math and I will study English literature.

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Resolution

$$\neg p \vee r$$

$$\frac{p \vee q}{\therefore q \vee r}$$

Corresponding tautology:
 $((\neg p \vee r) \wedge (p \vee q)) \rightarrow (q \vee r)$
 Resolution plays an important role in AI and is used in Prolog.

Example:

- p: I will study discrete math.
- r: I will study English literature.
- q: I will study databases.
- I will not study discrete math or I will study English literature.
- I will study discrete math or I will study databases.
- Therefore, I will study databases or I will study English literature.

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Using the Rules of Inference to Build Valid Arguments

- valid argument: a sequence of statements
- each statement is either a premise or follows from previous statements by rules of inference
- the last statement is called conclusion
- a valid argument takes the following form:

$$\begin{array}{c} S_1 \\ S_2 \\ \vdots \\ S_n \\ \therefore C \end{array}$$

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Valid Arguments₂

- **Example 1:** From the single proposition

$$p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)$$

Show that q is a conclusion.

- **Solution:**

Step	Reason
1. $p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)$	Premise
2. p	Simplification using (1)
3. $p \rightarrow q$	Simplification using (1)
4. q	Modus Ponens using (2) and (3)

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Valid Arguments₃

Example 2:

- with these hypotheses:
It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder than yesterday.
We will go swimming only if it is sunny.
If we do not go swimming, then we will take a canoe trip.
If we take a canoe trip, then we will be home by sunset.
using the inference rules, construct a valid argument for the conclusion:
We will be home by sunset.

Solution:

- propositional variables:
 p : It is sunny this afternoon. r : We will go swimming.
 q : It is colder than yesterday. s : We will take a canoe trip.
 t : We will be home by sunset.
- Translation into propositional logic:
 Hypotheses: $\neg p \wedge q, r \rightarrow p, \neg r \rightarrow s, s \rightarrow t$
 Conclusion: t

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Valid Arguments₄

3. Construct the Valid Argument

Step	Reason
1. $\neg p \wedge q$	Premise
2. $\neg p$	Simplification using (1)
3. $r \rightarrow p$	Premise
4. $\neg r$	Modus tollens using (2) and (3)
5. $\neg r \rightarrow s$	Premise
6. s	Modus ponens using (4) and (5)
7. $s \rightarrow t$	Premise
8. t	Modus ponens using (6) and (7)

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Handling Quantified Statements

- valid arguments for quantified statements are a sequence of statements
- each statement is either a premise or follows from previous statements using
 - rules of inference for propositional logic
 - rules of inference for quantified statements

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Universal Instantiation (UI)

$$\frac{\forall x P(x)}{\therefore P(c)}$$

Example:

- domain: all dogs
- Fido is a dog
- All dogs are cuddly.
- Therefore, Fido is cuddly.

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Universal Generalization (UG)

$$\frac{P(c) \text{ for an arbitrary } c}{\therefore \forall x P(x)}$$

- often used implicitly in mathematical proofs

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Existential Instantiation (EI)

$$\frac{\exists x P(x)}{\therefore P(c) \text{ for some element } c}$$

Example:

- There is someone who got an A in the course.
- Let's call her s and say that s got an A.

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Existential Generalization (EG)

$$\frac{P(c) \text{ for some element } c}{\therefore \exists x P(x)}$$

Example:

- Michelle got an A in the class.
- Therefore, someone got an A in the class.

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Using Rules of Inference₁

Example 1: Using the rules of inference, construct a valid argument to show that

John Smith has two legs.

is a consequence of the premises:

Every man has two legs. John Smith is a man.

Solution: Let $M(x) = x$ is a man and $L(x) = x$ has two legs and let John Smith be a member of the domain.

Step	Reason
1. $\forall x (M(x) \rightarrow L(x))$	Premise
2. $M(J) \rightarrow L(J)$	UI from (1)
3. $M(J)$	Premise
4. $L(J)$	Modus Ponens using (2) and (3)

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Using Rules of Inference₂

Example 2: Use the rules of inference to construct a valid argument showing that the conclusion

Someone who passed the first exam has not read the book.

follows from the premises

A student in this class has not read the book.

Everyone in this class passed the first exam.

Solution: let $C(x)$: x is in this class, $B(x)$: x has read the book, and $P(x)$: x passed the first exam.

first, translate the premises and conclusion into symbolic form

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \exists x (C(x) \wedge \neg B(x)) \\ \forall x (C(x) \rightarrow P(x)) \end{array}}{\therefore \exists x (P(x) \wedge \neg B(x))}$$

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Using Rules of Inference₃

Valid Argument:

Step	Reason
1. $\exists x (C(x) \wedge \neg B(x))$	Premise
2. $C(a) \wedge \neg B(a)$	EI from (1)
3. $C(a)$	Simplification from (2)
4. $\forall x (C(x) \rightarrow P(x))$	Premise
5. $C(a) \rightarrow P(a)$	UI from (4)
6. $P(a)$	MP from (3) and (5)
7. $\neg B(a)$	Simplification from (2)
8. $P(a) \wedge \neg B(a)$	Conj from (6) and (7)
9. $\exists x (P(x) \wedge \neg B(x))$	EG from (8)

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Returning to the Socrates Example

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \forall x (Man(x) \rightarrow Mortal(x)) \\ Man(Socrates) \end{array}}{\therefore Mortal(Socrates)}$$

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Solution for Socrates Example

• **Valid Argument**

Step	Reason
1. $\forall x (Man(x) \rightarrow Mortal(x))$	Premise
2. $Man(Socrates) \rightarrow Mortal(Socrates)$	UI from (1)
3. $Man(Socrates)$	Premise
4. $Mortal(Socrates)$	MP from (2) and (3)

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Introduction to Proofs

- Section 1.7

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Section Summary²

- Mathematical Proofs
- Forms of Theorems
- Direct Proofs
- Indirect Proofs
 - Proof of the Contrapositive
 - Proof by Contradiction

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Proofs of Mathematical Statements

- proof: a valid argument that establishes the truth of a statement
- in math, CS, and other disciplines, informal proofs which are generally shorter, are generally used
 - more than one rule of inference are often used in a step
 - steps may be skipped
 - rules of inference used are not explicitly stated
 - easier to understand and to explain to people
 - but it is also easier to introduce errors
- proofs have many practical applications
 - verification that computer programs are correct
 - establishing that operating systems are secure
 - enabling programs to make inferences in artificial intelligence
 - showing that system specifications are consistent

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Definitions

- theorem: a statement that can be shown to be true using
 - definitions
 - other theorems
 - axioms (statements which are given as true)
 - rules of inference
- lemma: a helping theorem or a result which is needed to prove a theorem
- corollary: a result which follows directly from a theorem
- propositions: important theorems
- conjecture: a statement being proposed to be true
 - once a proof of a conjecture is found, it becomes a theorem; it may turn out to be false

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Forms of Theorems

- many theorems assert that a property holds for all elements in a domain
 - the integers, the real numbers, or some of the discrete structures that we will study in this class
- often the universal quantifier (needed for a precise statement of a theorem) is omitted by standard mathematical convention
 - example: if $x > y$, where x and y are positive real numbers, then $x^2 > y^2$
 - really means: for all positive real numbers x and y , if $x > y$, then $x^2 > y^2$

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Proving Theorems

- many theorems have the form:

$$\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

- to prove them, we show that where c is an arbitrary element of the domain,

$$P(c) \rightarrow Q(c)$$

- by universal generalization, the truth of the original formula follows
- so, we must prove something of the form

$$p \rightarrow q$$

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Proving Conditional Statements:

$$p \rightarrow q$$

- trivial proof: if q is true, then $p \rightarrow q$ is true also
 - if it is raining then $1=1$.
- vacuous proof: if p is false then $p \rightarrow q$ is true
 - if I am both rich and poor then $2 + 2 = 5$.

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Even and Odd Integers

- n is even if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$
- n is odd if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$
- note that every integer is either even or odd and no integer is both even and odd

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Proving Conditional Statements:

$$p \rightarrow q$$

- Direct Proof: assume p is true and use rules of inference, axioms, and logical equivalences to show that q must also be true
- **Example:** Give a direct proof of the theorem: If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd.
- **Solution:** assume that n is odd, then $n = 2k + 1$ for an integer k ; squaring both sides of the equation

$$n^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1 = 2r + 1,$$
 where $r = 2k^2 + 2k$, an integer
 we have proved that if n is an odd integer, then n^2 is an odd integer QED

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Proving Conditional Statements:

$$p \rightarrow q$$

Definition: real number r is rational if there exist integers p and q where $q \neq 0$ such that $r = p/q$

Example: prove that the sum of two rational numbers is rational

Solution: Assume r and s are two rational numbers. Then there must be integers p, q and also t, u such that

$$r = p/q, \quad s = t/u, \quad u \neq 0, \quad q \neq 0$$

$$r + s = \frac{p}{q} + \frac{t}{u} = \frac{pu + qt}{qu} = \frac{v}{w} \quad \text{where } v = pu + qt \\ w = qu \neq 0$$

thus, the sum is rational

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Proving Conditional Statements:

$$p \rightarrow q$$

Proof by Contraposition: Assume $\neg q$ and show $\neg p$ is true also. This is sometimes called an indirect proof method. If we give a direct proof of $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, then we have a proof of $p \rightarrow q$.

Why does this work?

- **Example:** Prove that if n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

Solution: contrapositive: if n is even, then $3n + 2$ is even
 Assume n is even, so $n = 2k$ for some integer k ; thus,

$$3n + 2 = 3(2k) + 2 = 6k + 2 = 2(3k + 1) = 2j, \text{ which is even for } j = 3k + 1$$

Therefore $3n + 2$ is even. Since we have shown $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, $p \rightarrow q$ must hold as well. If n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

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Proving Conditional Statements:

$$p \rightarrow q$$

- **Example:** Prove that for an integer n , if n^2 is odd, then n is odd.

- **Solution:** Use proof by contraposition. Assume n is even; therefore, there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$. Hence,

$$n^2 = 4k^2 = 2(2k^2)$$

and n^2 is even.

We have shown that if n is an even integer, then n^2 is even; therefore, by contraposition, for an integer n , if n^2 is odd, then n is odd.

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Proving Conditional Statements:

$$p \rightarrow q_5$$

- Proof by Contradiction: (AKA reductio ad absurdum).
- To prove p , assume $\neg p$ and derive a contradiction such as $p \wedge \neg p$ (an indirect form of proof). Since we have shown that $\neg p \rightarrow F$ is true, it follows that the contrapositive, $T \rightarrow p$, also holds.
- **Example:** Prove that if you pick 22 days from the calendar, at least 4 must fall on the same day of the week.

Solution: Assume that no more than 3 of the 22 days fall on the same day of the week. Because there are 7 days of the week, we could only have picked 21 days. This contradicts the assumption that we have picked 22 days.

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Proof by Contradiction:

Example: Use a proof by contradiction to give a proof that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Solution: Suppose $\sqrt{2}$ is rational. Then there exists integers a and b with $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, where $b \neq 0$ and a and b have no common factors:

$$2 = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \qquad 2b^2 = a^2$$

Therefore, a^2 must be even. If a^2 is even, then a must be even (an exercise). Since a is even, $a = 2c$ for some integer c . Thus,

$$2b^2 = 4c^2 \qquad b^2 = 2c^2$$

Therefore, b^2 is even. Again, then b must be even as well.

But then 2 must divide both a and b . This contradicts our assumption that a and b have no common factors. We have proved by contradiction that our initial assumption must be false and therefore $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

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Proof by Contradiction₂

- **Example:** Prove that there is no largest prime number.
- Solution:** Assume that there is a largest prime number. Call it p_n . Hence, we can list all the primes: $2, 3, \dots, p_n$. Now, construct a new variable, r , such that

$$r = p_1 \times p_2 \times \dots \times p_n + 1$$

None of the prime numbers on the list divides r . Therefore, by a theorem in Chapter 4, either r is prime or there is a smaller prime that divides r . This contradicts the assumption that there is a largest prime. Therefore, there is no largest prime.

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Theorems that are Biconditional Statements

- To prove a theorem that is a biconditional statement, that is, a statement of the form $p \leftrightarrow q$, we show that $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$ are both true.
- **Example:** Prove the theorem: If n is an integer, then n is odd if and only if n^2 is odd.

Solution: We have already shown (in previous slides) that both $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$; therefore we can conclude $p \leftrightarrow q$.

- Sometimes iff is used as an abbreviation for "if and only if" as in

If n is an integer, then n is odd iff n^2 is odd.

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What is wrong with this?

- "Proof" that $1 = 2$

Step	Reason
1. $a = b$	Premise
2. $a^2 = a \times b$	Multiply both sides of (1) by a
3. $a^2 - b^2 = a \times b - b^2$	Subtract b^2 from both sides of (2)
4. $(a-b)(a+b) = b(a-b)$	Algebra on (3)
5. $a+b = b$	Divide both sides by $a-b$
6. $2b = b$	Replace a by b in (5) because $a = b$
7. $2 = 1$	Divide both sides of (6) by b

Solution: Step 5. $a - b = 0$ by the premise and division by 0 is undefined.

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Looking Ahead

- if direct methods of proof do not work
- we may need a clever use of a proof by contraposition
- or a proof by contradiction
- in the next section, we will see strategies that can be used when straightforward approaches do not work
- in Chapter 5, we will see mathematical induction and related techniques
- in Chapter 6, we will see combinatorial proofs

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Proof Methods and Strategy

• Section 1.8

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Section Summary₃

- Proof by Cases
- Existence Proofs
 - Constructive
 - Nonconstructive
- Disproof by Counterexample
- Nonexistence Proofs
- Uniqueness Proofs
- Proof Strategies
- Proving Universally Quantified Assertions
- Open Problems

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Proof by Cases₁

To prove a conditional statement of the form:

$$(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n) \rightarrow q$$

Use the tautology

$$\begin{aligned} &[(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n) \rightarrow q] \leftrightarrow \\ &[(p_1 \rightarrow q) \wedge (p_2 \rightarrow q) \wedge \dots \wedge (p_n \rightarrow q)] \end{aligned}$$

Each of the implications $p_i \rightarrow q$ is a case.

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Proof by Cases₂

- **Example:** Let $a @ b = \max\{a, b\} = a$ if $a \geq b$, otherwise $a @ b = \max\{a, b\} = b$.

Show that for all real numbers a, b, c

$$(a @ b) @ c = a @ (b @ c) \quad (\text{associative law})$$

Proof: let a, b , and c be arbitrary real numbers, Then one of the following 6 cases must hold.

1. $a \geq b \geq c$
2. $a \geq c \geq b$
3. $b \geq a \geq c$
4. $b \geq c \geq a$
5. $c \geq a \geq b$
6. $c \geq b \geq a$

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Proof by Cases₃

Case 1: $a \geq b \geq c$

$$(a @ b) = a, a @ c = a, b @ c = b$$

$$\text{Hence } (a @ b) @ c = a = a @ (b @ c)$$

therefore, the equality holds for the first case

- A complete proof requires that the equality be shown to hold for all 6 cases, but the proofs of the remaining cases are similar. Try them.

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Without Loss of Generality

- **Example:** Show that if x and y are integers and both $x \cdot y$ and $x + y$ are even, then both x and y are even.
- **Proof:** proof by contraposition: if both x and y are not even, then both $x \cdot y$ and $x + y$ are not even.

Suppose x and y are not both even. Then, one or both are odd. Without loss of generality, assume that x is odd. Then $x = 2m + 1$ for some integer m .

Case 1: y is even: then $y = 2n$ for some integer n , so $x + y = (2m + 1) + 2n = 2(m + n) + 1$ is odd

Case 2: y is odd: then $y = 2n + 1$ for some integer n , so $x \cdot y = (2m + 1)(2n + 1) = 2(2m \cdot n + m + n) + 1$ is odd.

- We only cover the case where x is odd because the case where y is odd is similar. The use of the phrase without loss of generality (WLOG) indicates this.

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Existence Proofs



Srinivasa
Ramanujan
(1887-1920)

Proof of theorems of the form $\exists x P(x)$

Constructive existence proof:

- Find an explicit value of c , for which $P(c)$ is true.
- Then $\exists x P(x)$ is true by Existential Generalization (EG)

Example: Show that there is a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways:

Proof: 1729 is such a number since

$$1729 = 10^3 + 9^3 = 12^3 + 1^3$$



Godfrey Harold Hardy
(1877-1947)

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Nonconstructive Existence Proofs

- in a nonconstructive existence proof, we assume no c exists which makes $P(c)$ true and derive a contradiction
- Example:** Show that there exist irrational numbers x and y such that x^y is rational.

Proof: We know that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. Consider the number $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$. If it is rational, we have two irrational numbers x and y with x^y rational, namely $x = \sqrt{2}$ and $y = \sqrt{2}$. But if $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is irrational, then we can let $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ and $y = \sqrt{2}$ so that $x^y = (\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}})^{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}^{(\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2})} = \sqrt{2}^2 = 2$.

Therefore, $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is rational and we have found x and y , such that x^y is rational.

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Disproof by Counterexample

Recall $\exists x \neg P(x) \equiv \neg \forall x P(x)$

To establish that $\neg \forall x P(x)$ is true (or $\forall x P(x)$ is false), find a c such that $\neg P(c)$ is true or $P(c)$ is false.

In this case c is called a counterexample to the assertion $\forall x P(x)$

Example: Every positive integer is the sum of the squares of 3 integers.

the integer 7 is a counterexample, so the claim is false

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Uniqueness Proofs

- Some theorems assert the existence of a unique element with a particular property, $\exists! x P(x)$. Two parts of a uniqueness proof:
 - Existence: Show that an element x with the property exists.
 - Uniqueness: Show that if $y \neq x$, then y does not have the property.
- Example:** Show that if a and b are real numbers and $a \neq 0$, then there is a unique real number r such that $ar + b = 0$.

Solution:

- Existence: The real number $r = -b/a$ is a solution of $ar + b = 0$ because $a(-b/a) + b = -b + b = 0$.
- Uniqueness: Suppose that s is a real number such that $as + b = 0$. Then $ar + b = as + b$, where $r = -b/a$. Subtracting b from both sides and dividing by a shows that $r = s$.

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Proof Strategies for Proving $p \rightarrow q$

- choose a method:
 - first try a direct method of proof
 - if this does not work, try an indirect method (e.g., try to prove the contrapositive)
- for whichever method you are trying, choose a strategy
 - First try forward reasoning. Start with the axioms and known theorems and construct a sequence of steps that end in the conclusion. Start with p and prove q , or start with $\neg q$ and prove $\neg p$.
 - If this doesn't work, try backward reasoning. When trying to prove q , find a statement p that we can prove with the property $p \rightarrow q$.

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Backward Reasoning

- Example:** Suppose that two people play a game taking turns removing, 1, 2, or 3 stones at a time from a pile that begins with 15 stones. The person who removes the last stone wins the game. Show that the first player can win the game no matter what the second player does.

Proof: Let n be the last step of the game.

Step n : Player₁ can win if the pile contains 1, 2, or 3 stones.

Step $n-1$: Player₁ will have to leave such a pile if the pile that he/she is faced with has 4 stones.

Step $n-2$: Player₁ can leave 4 stones when there are 5, 6, or 7 stones left at the beginning of his/her turn.

Step $n-3$: Player₂ must leave such a pile, if there are 8 stones.

Step $n-4$: Player₁ has to have a pile with 9, 10, or 11 stones to ensure there are 8 left.

Step $n-5$: Player₂ needs to be faced with 12 stones to be forced to leave 9, 10, or 11.

Step $n-6$: Player₁ can leave 12 stones by removing 3 stones.

Reasoning forward, Player₁ can ensure a win by removing 3 stones and leaving 12.

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Universally Quantified Assertions

- To prove theorems of the form $\forall x P(x)$, assume x is an arbitrary member of the domain and show that $P(x)$ must be true. Using UG it follows that $\forall x P(x)$
- Example:** An integer x is even if and only if x^2 is even.

Solution: The quantified assertion is

$$\forall x [x \text{ is even} \leftrightarrow x^2 \text{ is even}]$$

we assume x is arbitrary

recall that $P \leftrightarrow q$ is equivalent to $(P \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow P)$

so, we have two cases to consider

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Universally Quantified Assertions

Case 1. We show that if x is even then x^2 is even using a direct proof (the only if part or necessity).

if x is even then $x = 2k$ for some integer k

hence, $x^2 = 4k^2 = 2(2k^2)$, which is even since it is an integer divisible by 2

this completes the proof of case 1

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Universally Quantified Assertions

Case 2. We show that if x^2 is even then x must be even (the if part or sufficiency) by using a proof by contraposition.

contrapositive: if x is odd, then x^2 is odd

assume x is odd and then show that x^2 is odd

if x is not even then it must be odd, so $x = 2k + 1$ for some k ; therefore,

$$x^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$$

which is odd. This completes the proof of case 2.

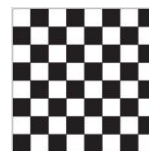
Since x was arbitrary, the result follows by UG. Therefore, x is even if and only if x^2 is even.

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Proof and Disproof: Tilings

Example 1: Can we tile the standard checkerboard using dominoes?

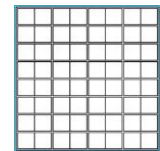
Solution: Yes! One example provides a constructive existence proof



The Standard Checkerboard



Two Dominoes



One Possible Solution

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Tilings₁

- Example 2:** Can we tile a checkerboard obtained by removing one of the four corner squares of a standard checkerboard?

Solution:

Our checkerboard has $64 - 1 = 63$ squares.

Since each domino has two squares, a board with a tiling must have an even number of squares.

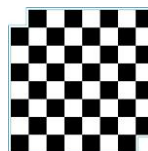
The number 63 is not even.

We have a contradiction.

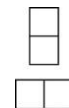
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Tilings₂

Example 3: Can we tile a board obtained by removing both the upper left and the lower right squares of a standard checkerboard?



Nonstandard Checkerboard



Dominoes

[Jump to long description](#)

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Tilings₃

Solution:

There are 62 squares in this board.

To tile it we need 31 dominos.

Key fact: Each domino covers one black and one white square.

Therefore, the tiling covers 31 black squares and 31 white squares.

Our board has either 30 black squares and 32 white squares or 32 black squares and 30 white squares.

Contradiction!

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The Role of Open Problems

- Unsolved problems have motivated much work in mathematics. Fermat's Last Theorem was conjectured more than 300 years ago. It has only relatively recently been solved.
- **Fermat's Last Theorem:** The equation $x^n + y^n = z^n$ has no solutions in integers x , y , and z , with $xyz \neq 0$ whenever n is an integer with $n > 2$.

A proof was found by Andrew Wiles in the 1990s.

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An Open Problem

- **The $3x + 1$ Conjecture:** Let T be the transformation that sends an even integer x to $x/2$ and an odd integer x to $3x + 1$. For all positive integers x , when we repeatedly apply the transformation T , we will eventually reach the integer 1.

for example, starting with $x = 13$:

$$T(13) = 3 \cdot 13 + 1 = 40, T(40) = 40/2 = 20,$$

$$T(20) = 20/2 = 10, T(10) = 10/2 = 5, T(5) = 3 \cdot 5 + 1 = 16,$$

$$T(16) = 16/2 = 8, T(8) = 8/2 = 4, T(4) = 4/2 = 2,$$

$$T(2) = 2/2 = 1$$

the conjecture has been verified using computers up to $5.6 \cdot 10^{13}$

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Additional Proof Methods

- Later we will see many other proof methods:
 - Mathematical induction, which is a useful method for proving statements of the form $\forall n P(n)$, where the domain consists of all positive integers.
 - Structural induction, which can be used to prove such results about recursively defined sets.
 - Cantor diagonalization is used to prove results about the size of infinite sets.
 - Combinatorial proofs use counting arguments.

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