

START

RECORDING

Techniques of proof

Proving *universal / Existential statements true or false*
Direct and indirect proof strategies

Basic definitions: Parity

- An integer n is called **even** if, and only if, there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$.
- An integer n is called **odd** if, and only if, it is not even.
- Corollary: An integer n is called odd if, and only if, there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$
- The property of an integer as being either odd or even is known as its **parity**.
- n is odd if, and only if, $n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ (resp, even, iff $n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$)

Arguing the positive: Universal Statements

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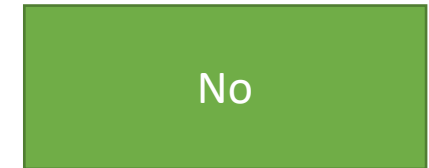
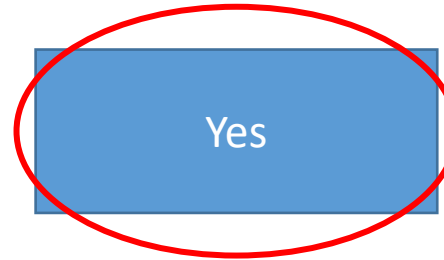
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Arguing the positive: Universal Statements

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- If you believe it, **you have to try to prove** that it's **true** (argue the **positive/affirmative**)

Proof

- Let x be even, then $x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$
- Let y be odd, then $y \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$
- Consequently, $x + y \equiv 0 + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$

Statements of claims / theorems

- Mathematical claims and theorems can be stated in various different ways!

“The sum of an odd and an even integer is odd.”



*“Any two integers of **opposite parity** sum to an **odd** number”*



*“Every pair of integers of **opposite parity** sums to an **odd** number”*



$$(\forall n_1 \in \mathbb{Z}^{2k+1})(\forall n_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^{2k})[n_1 + n_2 \in \mathbb{Z}^{2k+1}]$$

Here's some more!

- Let's prove the following claims **true**:

1. The square of an odd integer is also odd.

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 2. If a is an integer, then $a^2 + a$ is even.

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 3. *If m is an even integer and n is an odd integer, $m^2 + 3n$ is odd.*

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 4. *If n is odd, $n^2 = 8m + 1$ for some integer m .*

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 3. If m is an even integer and n is an odd integer, $m^2 + 3n$ is odd.
 4. If n is odd, $n^2 = 8m + 1$ for some integer m .
 5. If a, b are rationals, $\frac{(a+b)}{2}$ is also rational

Arguing the negative: counter-example

- Since

$$(\sim \forall x \in D)[P(x)] \equiv (\exists x \in D)[\sim P(x)]$$

- x is referred to as a *counter-example*.
- Examples:
 - a) *All primes are odd.*

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- Examples:

a) *All primes are odd.* **Disproof by counter-example:**

1. All primes are odd.
Counter-example: 2 is prime but also even.

Arguing the negative: counter-example

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$$\sim (\forall x \in D)[P(x)] \equiv (\exists x \in D)[\sim P(x)]$$

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- Examples:

b) *The tenths and units digits of all perfect squares 16 and above have an absolute difference bigger than 1.*

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- Examples:

b) *The tens and ones digits of all perfect squares 16 and above have an absolute difference bigger than 1. Disproof by counterexample:*

1. 100 is a perfect square ≥ 16 , since $\sqrt{100} = 10 \in \mathbb{Z}$.
2. The ones **and** tenths digits of 100 are 0.
3. $0 - 0 = 0 < 1$.
4. By (1), (2), (3), we have that 100 is a counter-example.
5. Therefore, the statement is **false**. Done.

Perfect Squares

- Consider perfect square **16 or greater** whose *units* and *tenths* digits have an absolute difference of less than **4**.

n	n^2	Ten - Unit
4	16	5
5	25	3
6	36	3

Perfect Squares

- $\forall x \geq 4$ [x^2 has a difference of tens and units be < 4]

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Perfect Squares

- $\forall x \geq 5$ [x^2 has diff of tens and units be < 4]

n	n^2	Ten - Unit
20	400	0
21	441	3
22	484	4
23	529	7
24	576	1
25	625	3

n	n^2	Ten - Unit
26	676	1
27	729	7
28	784	4
29	841	3
30	900	0

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- **False!**
- Counterexample: 22^2
- $\forall x \geq 29$ [x^2 has diff of tens and units be < 4]
 - Don't know. On a HW will ask you to write a program to see what happens up to 1000.

Arguing the affirmative of **existential** statements

- Two methods:
 1. **Constructive**
 2. **Non-Constructive**
- In “constructive” proofs we either **explicitly show** or **construct** an element of the domain that answers our query.
- In **non-constructive** proofs (very rare in this class) we prove that **it is a logical necessity** for such an element to exist!
 - But we neither explicitly, nor implicitly, show or construct such an element!

Constructive proofs in Number Theory (and one non- constructive one)

Our first constructive proof

- **Claim:** There exists a natural number that you *cannot* write as a sum of three squares of natural numbers.
 - Examples of numbers you *can* write as a sum of three squares:
 - $0 = 0^2 + 0^2 + 0^2$
 - $1 = 1^2 + 0^2 + 0^2$
 - $2 = 1^2 + 1^2 + 0^2$
- Try to find a number that *cannot* be written as such.

Proof

- The natural number 7 **cannot** be written as the sum of three squares.
- This we can prove **by case analysis**:
 1. Can't use 3, since $3^2 = 9 > 7$
 2. Can't use 2 more than once, since $2^2 + 2^2 = 8 > 7$
 3. So, we can use 2, one or zero times.
 - a) If we use 2 once, we have $7 = 2^2 + a^2 + b^2 \leq 2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 = 6 < 7$
 - b) If we use 2 zero times, the maximum value is $1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 = 3 < 7$
 4. Done!

Sum of Three Squares

- In Breakout Rooms, Find:
 - Other numbers that are NOT the sum of 3 squares
 - Try to prove there are an INFINITE number of numbers that are NOT the sum of 3 squares

Sum of Three Squares

- If $n \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, then n CANNOT be written as the sum of 3 squares

Mod 8	
$0^2 \equiv 0$	$4^2 \equiv 0$
$1^2 \equiv 1$	$5^2 \equiv 1$
$2^2 \equiv 4$	$6^2 \equiv 4$
$3^2 \equiv 1$	$7^2 \equiv 1$

Sum of Three Squares

So, is there some way for three numbers from 0, 1, 4 to add up to $7 \pmod{8}$?

Case 1: Use *zero* 4's. Then max is $1+1+1 \equiv 3 < 7$.

Case 2: Use exactly *one* 4. Then we have to get 3 with two of $\{0,1\}$, but the max is $1+1 \equiv 2 < 4$.

Case 3: Use *two* 4's $4+4+0 \equiv 1, 4+4+1 \equiv 2$.

Case 4: Use *three* 4's $4+4+4 \equiv 4$.

Your turn, class!

- Let's break into breakout rooms and prove the following theorems:
 1. There exists an integer n that can be written in *two ways* (i.e. *at least one* of the two summands is *different*) as a sum of two prime numbers.
 2. There is a **perfect square** that can be written as a sum of two other **perfect squares**.
 3. Suppose $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $(\exists k \in \mathbb{Z})[22r + 18s = 2k]$

Your turn, class!

- Let's split in teams and prove the following theorems:
 1. There exists an integer n that can be written in *two ways* (i.e. *at least one* of the two summands is *different*) as a sum of two prime numbers.
 2. There is a **perfect square** that can be written as a sum of two other **perfect squares**.
 3. Suppose $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $(\exists k \in \mathbb{Z})[22r + 18s = 2k]$

How is the 3rd proof different from the others?



Our first non-constructive proof

- **Theorem:** There exists a pair of **irrational** numbers a and b such that a^b is a **rational** number.

Our first non-constructive proof

- For the following proof, we will assume *known* that $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.
- This is a *fact*, which we will prove later on in this section.
- Now, on to the proof!

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 1. If $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is **rational**, then we have proven the result. Done.
 2. If $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is **irrational**, then we will name it c . Then, observe that $c^{\sqrt{2}}$ is rational, since $c^{\sqrt{2}} = \left((\sqrt{2})^{\sqrt{2}} \right)^{\sqrt{2}} = (\sqrt{2})^2 = 2 \in \mathbb{Q}$. Since both c and $\sqrt{2}$ are **irrationals**, but $c^{\sqrt{2}}$ is **rational**, we are done.

Analysis of proof

- Suppose $x = \sqrt{2}$, an irrational. From the previous theorem, we know:
 - a) Either that $a = x, b = x$ are two irrationals that satisfy the condition, OR
 - b) That $a = x^x, b = x$ are the two irrationals.
- But we **don't care which pair it is!** As long as one exists!

Indirect Proofs of Number Theory

- Sometimes, proving a fact *directly* is **tough**.
- In such cases, we can attempt an *indirect proof*
- Those are split in two categories:
 1. Proofs by **contraposition**
 2. Proofs by **contradiction**
- We will see examples of both.

Proof by contraposition

- Applicable to all kinds of statements of type:

$$(\forall x \in D)[P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)]$$

- Sometimes, proving the implication in this way can be **hard**.
- On the other hand, proving its ***contrapositive***:

$$(\forall x \in D)[\sim Q(x) \Rightarrow \sim P(x)]$$

might be easier! 😊

Examples

- $(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z})[(a^2 \text{ even}) \Rightarrow (a \text{ even})]$

Examples

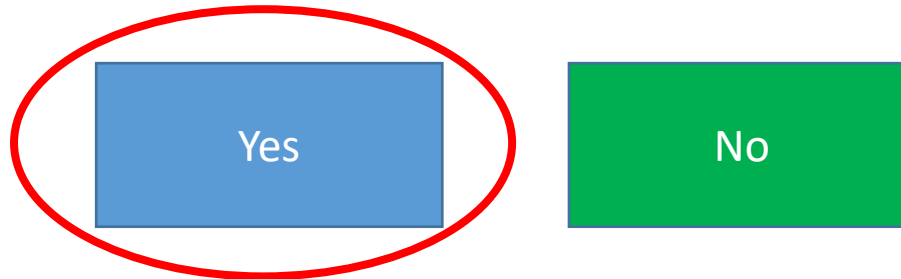
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- Do we believe this to be true?

Yes

No

Examples

- $(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z})[(a^2 \text{ even}) \Rightarrow (a \text{ even})]$
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- So we should aim for a proof of the **affirmative!**

Examples

- $(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z})[(a^2 \text{ even}) \Rightarrow (a \text{ even})]$
- Proving this **directly** is somewhat **hard**
- On the other hand, the **contrapositive**:

$$(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z})[(a \text{ odd}) \Rightarrow (a^2 \text{ odd })]$$

is much easier!

Proof that $(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}) [(a \text{ odd}) \Rightarrow (a^2 \text{ odd})]$

1. Suppose a is an **odd** integer.
2. Then, $a \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.
3. By algebra, $a^2 \equiv 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.
4. Done.

Another example

If $3n + 2$ is odd, where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then n is odd.

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Let's try this one together.

Another example

If $n = a \cdot b$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{N}^{\geq 1}$, then $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ OR $b \leq \sqrt{n}$

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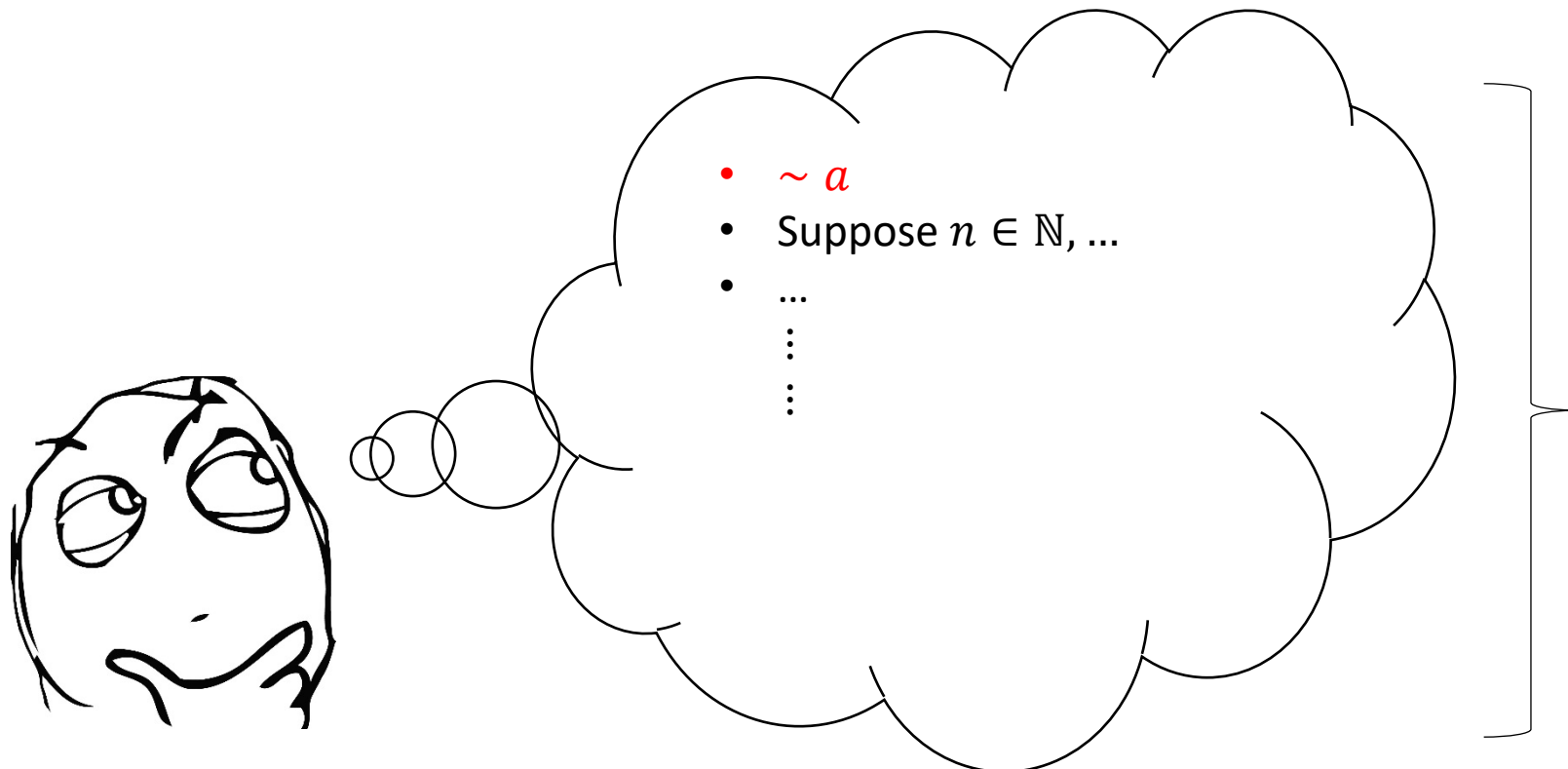


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- Briefly: We want to prove a fact a , so **we assume $\sim a$** and **hope that we reach a contradiction** (a falsehood).

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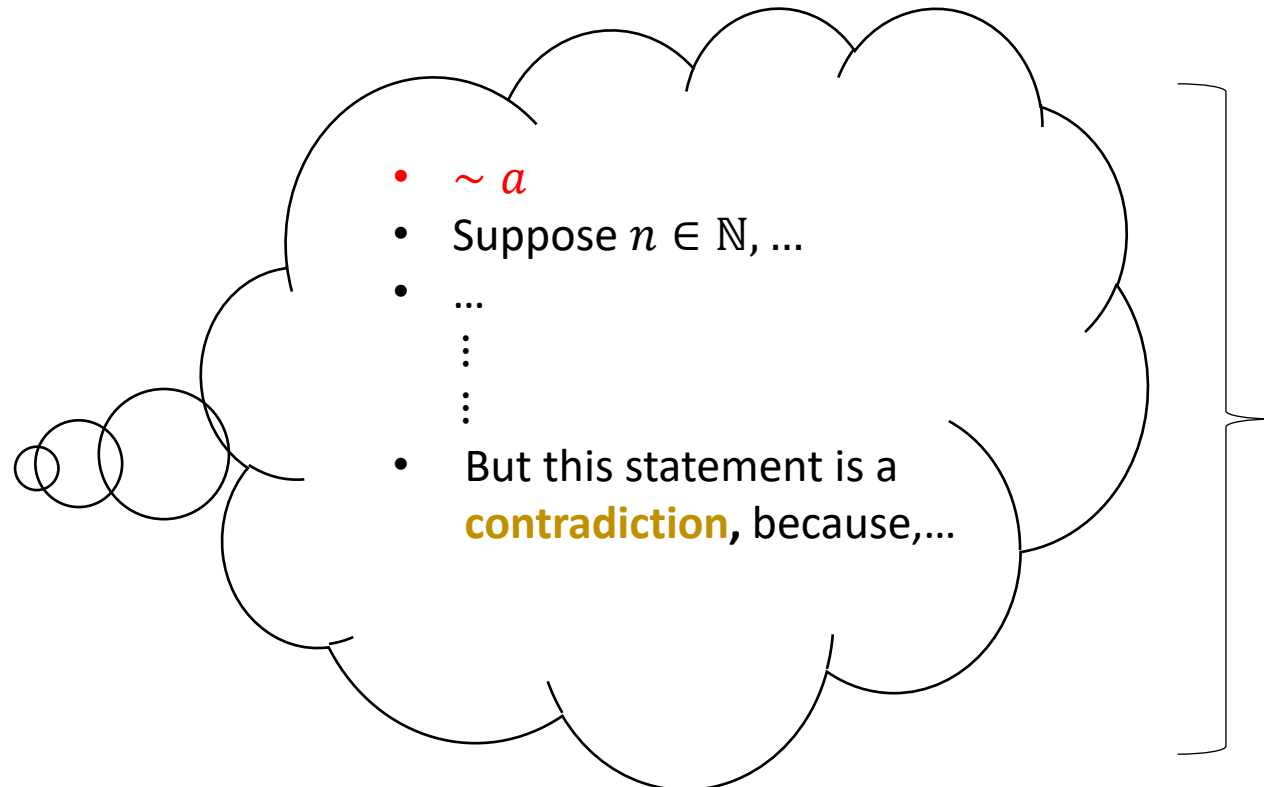
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This is a so-called
“conditional world”: It’s a
“version” of our
world **where we
assume $\sim a$** .

Proof by contradiction

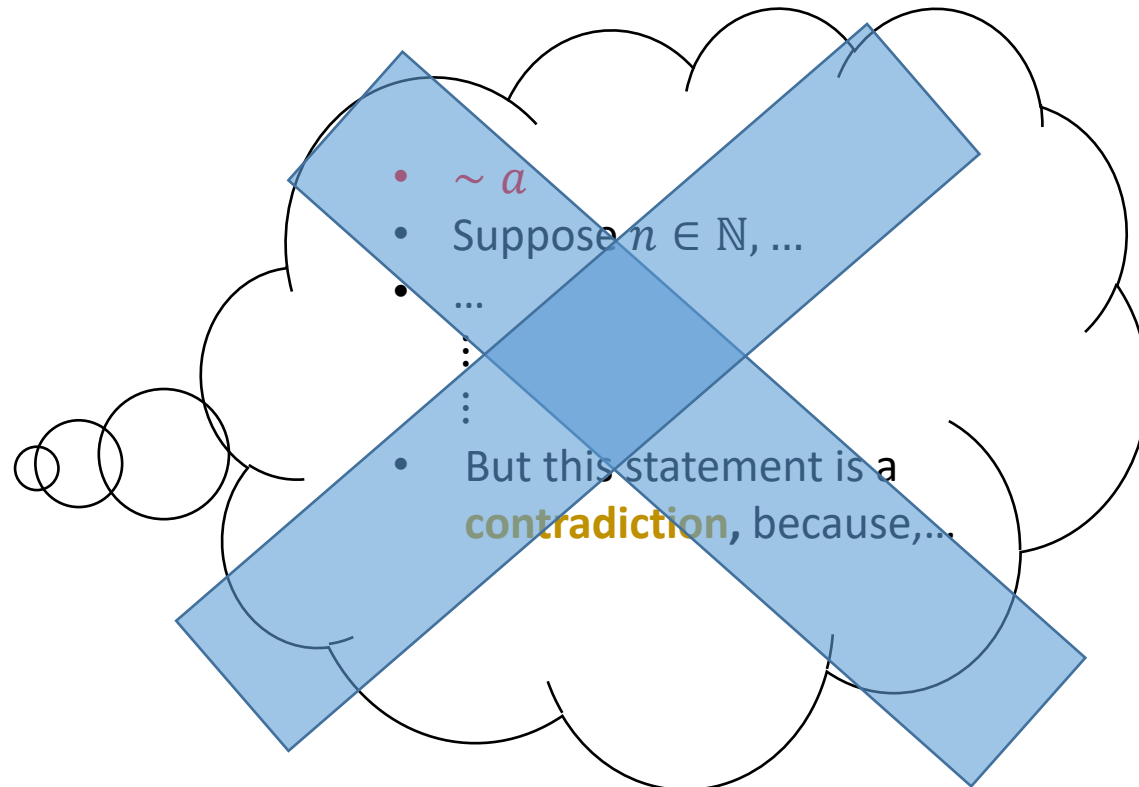
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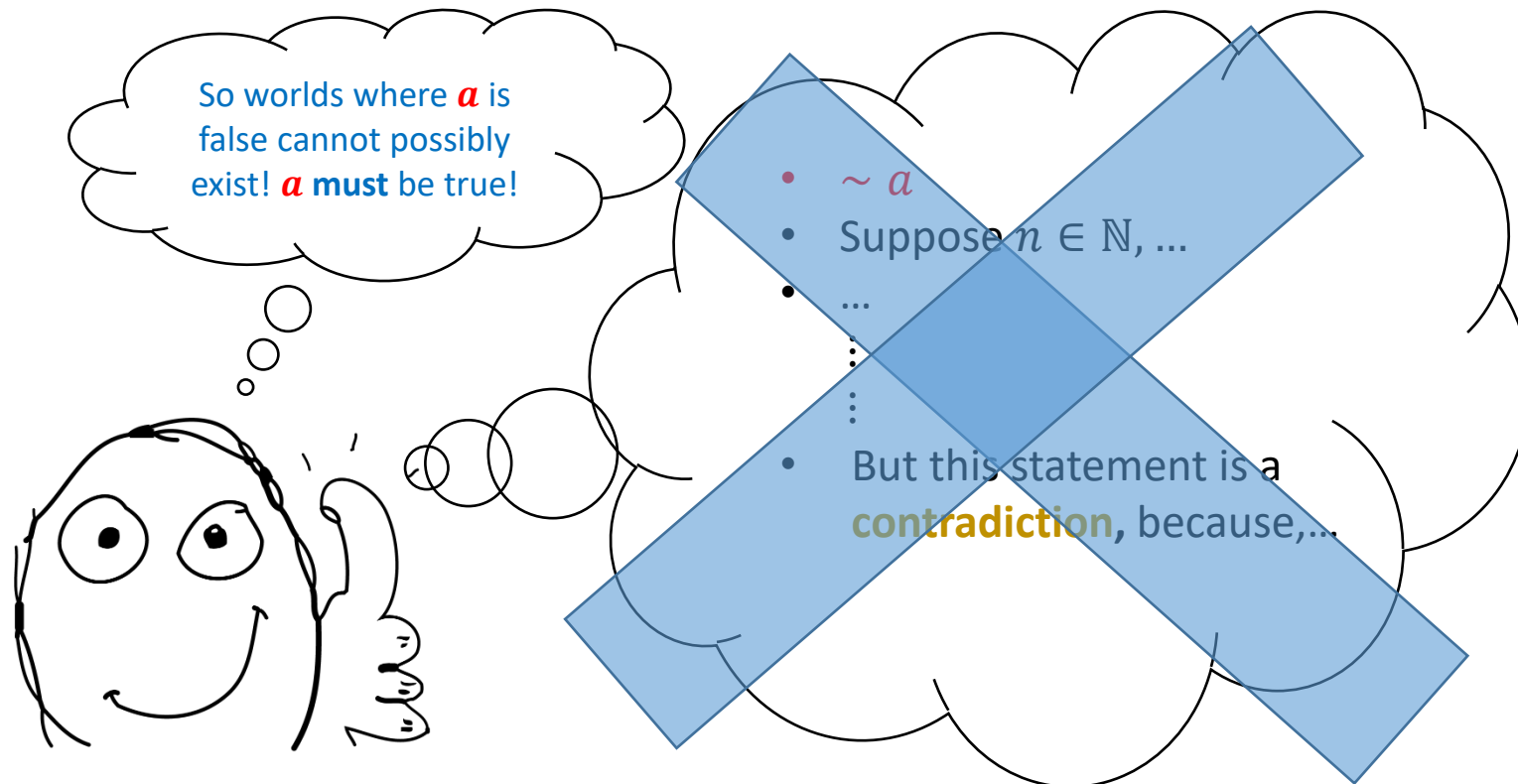


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- Example: **We will prove that there is no greatest integer.**
- Proof:
 1. **Assume that the statement is false.** Then, there is a greatest integer.
 2. Call the integer assumed in step 1 N .
 3. By **closure of \mathbb{Z} over addition**, we have that $N + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$.
 4. But $N + 1 > N$.
 5. **Steps 4 and 1 are a contradiction.** Therefore, there does **not** exist a greatest integer.

Your turn!

- Prove that the square root of any **irrational** is **also** irrational



A historical proof by contradiction:

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational



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3. So $a = \sqrt{2} \cdot b \Rightarrow a^2 = 2b^2$ so a^2 is even **(1)**

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5. So $a = 2k$ for some integer k . **(2)**

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8. So both a and b are both even, which means that they have common factor of 2.
9. Contradiction.

Proof of a lemma

- Proof (via **contraposition**): We prove the **contrapositive**, i.e

If a^2 is a multiple of 5, then so is a



If a is not a multiple of 5, then a^2 isn't one either.

Proof of lemma

- Proof (by contraposition): We prove that:

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1. Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is **not** a multiple of 5.

Proof of lemma

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1. Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is **not** a multiple of 5.
2. Then, one of the following has to be the case (all \equiv are mod 5):
 - $a \equiv 1 \Rightarrow a^2 \equiv 1^2 \equiv 1 \not\equiv 0$
 - $a \equiv 2 \Rightarrow a^2 \equiv 4 \equiv 4 \not\equiv 0$
 - $a \equiv 3 \Rightarrow a^2 \equiv 1^2 \equiv 1 \not\equiv 0$
 - $a \equiv 4 \Rightarrow a^2 \equiv 16 \equiv 1 \not\equiv 0$

Adjustment: Proof that $\sqrt{5}$ is irrational

- Let's assume BY WAY OF CONTRADICTION that $\sqrt{5}$ is rational.
- So $\sqrt{5} = \frac{a}{b}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$ and a, b do not have common factors.
- So $a = \sqrt{5} \cdot b \Rightarrow a^2 = 5b^2$ so a^2 is a multiple of 5 **(1)**
- **By the previous theorem**, this means that a is a multiple of 5.
- So $a = 5k$ for some integer k . **(2)**
- Substituting (2) into (1) yields: $(5k)^2 = 5b^2 \Rightarrow b^2 = 5k^2 \Rightarrow$
 b^2 is a multiple of 5 $\Rightarrow b$ is a multiple of 5 by same theorem
- **Since a and b are both multiples of 5, they have a common factor of 5.**
- Contradiction.

Proof of $\sqrt{7} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ with Euclidean Argument



Proof that $\sqrt{4}$ is irrational (???)

- Why can we **not** use this machinery to prove that $\sqrt{4}$ is irrational (which is wrong anyway)?

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- To prove $\sqrt{4}$ irrational, we would need lemma: x^2 mult 4 $\Rightarrow x$ mult 4.

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- Observe that to prove $\sqrt{2}$ irrational, we needed lemma: x^2 even $\Rightarrow x$ even.
- To prove $\sqrt{3}$ irrational, we need lemma: x^2 mult 3 $\Rightarrow x$ mult 3
- To prove $\sqrt{4}$ irrational, we would need lemma: x^2 mult 4 $\Rightarrow x$ mult 4.
- But this is **not** actually true! Counter-example: $x = 2$

Exercise

- Please go ahead and find **the smallest possible positive factors** for the following numbers (excluding the trivial factor 1):
 - 15
 - 22
 - 29
 - 121
 - 1024
 - 1027

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They are all primes!



A result

- Every positive integer $n \geq 2$ can be factored into a product of **exclusively** prime numbers

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- Every positive integer $n \geq 2$ can be factored into a product of **exclusively** prime numbers
- Moreover, this representation is **unique**, up to re-ordering of the individual factors in the product! For example:
 - $15 = 3^1 \times 5^1 = 5^1 \times 3^1$
 - $1400 = 2^3 \times 5^2 \times 7^1 = 2^3 \times 7^1 \times 5^2 =$
 $= 5^2 \times 2^3 \times 7^1 = 5^2 \times 7^1 \times 2^3 =$
 $= 7^1 \times 2^3 \times 5^2 = 7^1 \times 5^2 \times 2^3$

Unique Prime Factorization Theorem

- Every number $n \in \mathbb{N}^{\geq 2}$ can be **uniquely** factored into a product of prime numbers p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k like so:

$$n = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{e_k}, \quad e_i \in \mathbb{N}^{>0}$$

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- Proving **existence** is **easy**
- Proving **uniqueness** is **harder**

Examples of “uniqueness”

- By “uniqueness” we mean that the product is unique **up to reordering of the factors $p_i^{e_i}$** .
- Examples:
 - $30 = 3^1 \times 2^1 \times 5^1 = 5^1 \times 2^1 \times 3^1$
 - $88 = 2^3 \times 11^1 = 11^1 \times 2^3$
 - $1026 = 2^1 \times 3^3 \times 19^1 = 2^1 \times 19^1 \times 3^3 = 19^1 \times 2^1 \times 3^3 = 3^3 \times 19^1 \times 2^1$

A necessary lemma

- Claim: Let $p \in \mathbf{P}$, $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, if $p \mid a$, then $p \nmid (a + 1)$.

A necessary lemma

Set of primes

- Claim: Let $p \in \mathbf{P}$, $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, if $p \mid a$, then $p \nmid (a + 1)$.
- Proof:
 - Assume that $p \mid (a + 1)$. Then, this means that $(\exists r_1 \in \mathbb{Z})[a + 1 = p \cdot r_1]$ (I)
 - We already know that $p \mid a \Rightarrow (\exists r_2 \in \mathbb{Z})[a = p \cdot r_2]$ (II)
 - Substituting (II) into (I) yields: $p \cdot r_2 + 1 = p \cdot r_1 \Rightarrow p(r_1 - r_2) = 1 \Rightarrow p \mid 1$ which is a **contradiction**. Therefore, $p \nmid (a + 1)$.

Infinity of primes



- Assume that the primes are finite. Then, we can list them in ascending order:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$$

Infinity of primes



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Let's consider the number

$$N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$$

Infinity of primes



$$N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$$

Clearly, N is bigger than any p_i . We have **two cases**:

- i.* N is **prime**. Contradiction, since N is bigger than any prime.
- ii.* N is **composite**. This means that N has **at least one factor f** . Let's take the smallest factor of N , and call it f_{min} . **Then, this number is prime (why?)**
Since f_{min} is prime, it divides $p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n$. **By the previous theorem**, this means that it cannot possibly divide $p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1 = N$.
Contradiction, since we assumed that f_{min} is a factor of N .

Therefore, the primes are **not finite**.

STOP

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