

## Logic and types of proofs

### Theory

- A **proposition** is a statement that is either true or false.

Let  $p$  and  $q$  be propositions. Then:

- The **negation** of  $p$ , denoted by  $\neg p$ , is the proposition “not  $p$ ”.
- The **conjunction** of  $p$  and  $q$ , denoted by  $p \wedge q$ , is the proposition “ $p$  and  $q$ ”.
- The **disjunction** of  $p$  and  $q$ , denoted by  $p \vee q$ , is the proposition “ $p$  or  $q$ ”.
- The **exclusive or** of  $p$  and  $q$ , denoted by  $p \oplus q$ , is the proposition “either  $p$  or  $q$  but not both”.
- The **implication** of  $p$  and  $q$ , denoted by  $p \rightarrow q$ , is the proposition that is false when  $p$  is true and  $q$  is false and true otherwise.
- The **biconditional** of  $p$  and  $q$ , denoted by  $p \leftrightarrow q$ , is the proposition that is true when  $p$  and  $q$  have the same truth values and is false otherwise.

The truth table

$p$	$q$	$\neg p$	$p \wedge q$	$p \vee q$	$p \oplus q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
T	T	F	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T	T	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	T	T

- A compound proposition that is always true, no matter what the truth values of the propositions that occur in it, is called a **tautology**.  
**Example.**  $p \vee \neg p$  is a tautology.
- A compound proposition that is always false is called a **contradiction**.  
**Example.**  $p \wedge \neg p$  is a contradiction.
- The propositions  $p$  and  $q$  are called **logically equivalent** if  $p \leftrightarrow q$  is a tautology. The notation  $p \Leftrightarrow q$  denotes that  $p$  and  $q$  are logically equivalent.

**Example.** Show that  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $(\neg p) \wedge (\neg q)$  are logically equivalent, i.e. “not ( $p$  or  $q$ ) ” is the same as “(not  $p$ ) and (not  $q$ )”.

**Solution.** Construct the truth table:

$p$	$q$	$p \vee q$	$\neg(p \vee q)$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$(\neg p) \wedge (\neg q)$
T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	T	T

- A statement  $P(x)$  that depends on the value of a variable ( $x$  in this case) is called a **propositional function**. Once a value has been assigned to the variable  $x$ , the statement  $P(x)$  becomes a proposition and has a truth value. For example, if  $P(x)$  is the statement “ $x > 3$ ”, then  $P(4)$  is true and  $P(2)$  is false.
- $\forall xP(x)$  means “for every  $x$ ,  $P(x)$  is true”.
- $\exists xP(x)$  means “there exists  $x$  such that  $P(x)$  is true”.
- $\exists!xP(x)$  means “there exists a unique  $x$  such that  $P(x)$  is true”.

## Types of proofs.

Suppose we want to prove an implication “if  $p$  then  $q$ ”.

- a **direct** proof just shows how  $q$  follows from  $p$ .
- a proof **by contradiction** assumes that  $p$  and  $\neg q$  are true, and derives a contradiction.
- a proof **by contrapositive** shows that  $\neg q$  implies  $\neg p$ .

A proof of a statement of the form “ $\exists xP(x)$ ” can be

- **constructive** - when you construct such an  $x$  explicitly, or
- **existential**, or **nonconstructive** - when you show the existence of such an  $x$  without actually constructing it.

To prove a statement of the form “ $\forall xP(x)$ ” where the domain of  $x$  is a subset of integer numbers, it is often (but not always!) a good idea to use Mathematical Induction.

To prove a statement of the form “ $p \leftrightarrow q$ ”, you can either

- prove  $p \rightarrow q$  and  $q \rightarrow p$  separately, or
- have each step of your proof of the form “if and only if”.

To disprove a statement (that is, to show that it is false), it is sufficient to show that there exists at least one **counterexample** (that is, there exists at least one case when the statement does not hold).

## Examples

1. Prove that every odd integer is the difference of two perfect squares.

**direct proof:** An odd integer has the form  $2n + 1$ .

$$2n + 1 = (n + 1)^2 - n^2.$$

2. Prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

**proof by contradiction:** Suppose  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational. Then there exists an irreducible fraction  $\frac{p}{q} = \sqrt{2}$ . (Irreducible means that the greatest common divisor of  $p$  and  $q$  is 1.)

Then

$$\frac{p^2}{q^2} = 2$$

$$p^2 = 2q^2$$

Then  $p^2$  is even, so  $p$  is even. Let  $p = 2m$ , then  $p^2 = 4m^2$ .

$$\text{We have } 4m^2 = 2q^2$$

$$2m^2 = q^2$$

Now  $q$  is even. We get a contradiction because we have that on the one hand,  $p$  and  $q$  have the greatest common divisor 1, but on the other hand  $p$  and  $q$  are both even.

3. Prove that if  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and  $ab$  is even, then either  $a$  or  $b$  is even (or both).

**proof by contrapositive:** Suppose that neither  $a$  nor  $b$  is even, and we will prove that  $ab$  is not even. I.e. we suppose that both  $a$  and  $b$  are odd, and we will prove that  $ab$  is odd.

$$ab = (2n + 1)(2m + 1) = 4nm + 2n + 2m + 1 = 2(2nm + n + m) + 1 \text{ is an odd number.}$$

4. Prove that for every positive integer  $n$  there exist  $n$  consecutive composite numbers.

**constructive proof:** We claim that  $(n + 1)! + 2, (n + 1)! + 3, \dots, (n + 1)! + (n + 1)$  are all composite.  $(n + 1)!$  is divisible by 2, by 3,  $\dots$ , and by  $n + 1$ . Therefore  $(n + 1)! + 2$  is divisible by 2,  $(n + 1)! + 3$  is divisible by 3,  $\dots$ ,  $(n + 1)! + (n + 1)$  is divisible by  $n + 1$ .

5. Prove that  $x^3 + x - 1 = 0$  has a real root.

**nonconstructive proof:** Let  $f(x) = x^3 + x - 1$ . Then  $f(-1) = -3 < 0$  and  $f(1) = 1 > 0$ . By the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists  $c$  between  $-1$  and  $1$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ .

6. Prove or disprove that every odd integer is prime.

**counterexample:** 9 is odd but not prime. Thus the statement is false.