

# The contrapositive proof method

The following two statements are equivalent:

- 1) " $P \Rightarrow Q$ "
- 2) " $\text{Not } Q \Rightarrow \text{Not } P$ "

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$\text{Not } Q$	$\text{Not } P$	$\text{Not } Q \Rightarrow \text{Not } P$
T	T	T	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T

Example: Let  $R, S$ , and  $T$  be sets.

Prove that

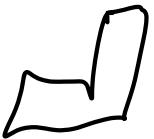
$$1) R \cap S = \emptyset \Rightarrow (R \cup T) \cap (S \cup T) \subset T.$$

The statement is equivalent to

2)  $(R \cup T) \cap (S \cup T) \neq T \Rightarrow R \cap S \neq \emptyset$ .

Assume that there exists an element  $x \in (R \cup T) \cap (S \cup T)$  such that  $x \notin T$ . We need to show that  $R \cap S \neq \emptyset$ .

Now  $(x \in R \cup T)$  AND  $(x \in S \cup T)$   
AND  $(x \notin T)$ . So  $x \in R$  and  
 $x \in S$ . So  $x \in R \cap S$ . So  
 $R \cap S \neq \emptyset$ .



## Proof by Contradiction

We assume that a statement we wish to prove is false, and derive from the assumption a contradiction.

Recall: An integer  $P \neq 1$  is PRIME, if the only positive integers dividing it are 1 and  $P$ .

Fact: Every integer  $n > 1$  is divisible by some prime  $> 1$ .

Proposition: (Euclid) There are infinitely many positive primes.  
Proof by contradiction:

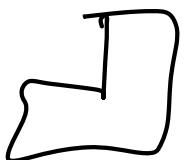
Assume that there are only finitely many positive primes.  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_N$ .  
all the primes

Let  $n = (P_1 \cdot P_2 \cdots P_N) + 1$ .

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product of all  $n$  primes

Then  $n > 1$ . So there exists a positive prime  $p > 1$ , such that  $\boxed{p | n}$ . The prime  $p$  is equal to  $p_i$ , for some  $1 \leq i \leq N$ , by assumption.  
So  $\boxed{p | n-1}$ . So  $p | (n - (n-1))$ .

This is a contradiction since  $p > 1$ . Hence, there are infinitely many primes.



Next proof method:  
Proving  $\therefore P \Rightarrow (Q \text{ OR } R)$ .

If  $Q$  is true, then the statement is true. If  $Q$  is false, then the statement is equivalent to " $P \Rightarrow R$ ". So the above statement is equivalent to

" $P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } Q) \Rightarrow R$ "

Example: Let  $a, b$  be integers.

"If  $a^3 + b$  is odd, then  $a$  is odd OR  $b$  is odd."

Assume that  $a^3 + b$  is odd and  $a$  is even. Then  $a^3$  is even.  
So  $(a^3 + b) - a^3$  is odd. So  $b$  is odd.

$b =$

$\underbrace{\text{odd}}$   
 $\underbrace{\text{even}}$



## Proof by Counter Example:

Consider a statement of the form

$$\forall x, P(x)$$

Suppose that we want to show that it is NOT true.

$$\text{"Not } (\forall x, P(x))\text{"}$$



$$\text{"} \exists x, \text{ Not } P(x) \text{"}$$

It suffices to find ONE  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is false".

Example: Disprove the following:

"Every positive integer can be written as a sum of three squares (of integers)".

$$\begin{aligned}1 &= 0^2 + 0^2 + 1^2 \\2 &= 0^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 \\3 &= 1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 \\4 &= 2^2 + 0^2 + 0^2 \\5 &= 2^2 + 1^2 + 0^2 \\6 &= 2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2\end{aligned}$$

7 =

Proof that 7 is a counterexample: Suppose that  $a, b, c$  are integers (we may assume non-negative as we square them) such that  $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 < 8$ .

Then  $a, b, c \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ .

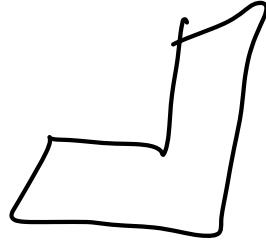
Furthermore, at most one of them is equal to 2. So we may assume that

$$a, b \in \{0, 1\} \text{ and } c \in \{0, 1, 2\}.$$

Then  $\overset{\wedge}{a^2} + \overset{\wedge}{b^2} + \overset{\wedge}{c^2} \leq 6 \neq 7$ .

$$\begin{matrix}\overset{\wedge}{1} & \overset{\wedge}{1} & \overset{\wedge}{4}\end{matrix}$$

so 7 can not be written as  
the sum of 3 squares.



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## Ch. 2 Integers and Diophantine Equations.

### Sec 2.1: The Division Algorithm

Def: Let  $a, b$  be integers.  
Then " $a$  divides  $b$ ", denoted by  
 $a \mid b$ "  
if there exists an integer  $q$ ,  
such that  $b = aq$ .

Ex:  $3 \mid 12$  because  $12 = \underbrace{3 \cdot 4}_{b} \quad \underbrace{\text{because}}_{a} \quad \underbrace{4}_{q}$

$$\begin{array}{r} -3 \mid 12 \\ 2 \nmid 5 \end{array} \quad \dots \quad 12 = (-3) \underbrace{(-4)}_2$$

$0 \nmid 2$  because

$$0 \cdot g = 0 \neq 2.$$

Prop 2.11: Let  $a, b, c$  be integers.

- (i) If  $a|b$  and  $b|c$ , then  $a|c$ .
- (ii) If  $a|b$  and  $a|c$ , then  
for every integers  $x, y$ ,  
 $a|(xb + yc)$ .

In particular,  $a|b+c$  and

- (iii) If  $a|b$  and  $b|a$ , then  $a|b-c$ .  
 $a=b$  or  $a=-b$ .

- (iv) If  $a|b$  and  $b \neq 0$ , then  
 $|a| \leq |b|$ .

Proof: (i) Assume that  $a|b$  and  $b|c$ . Then there exist integers  $g_1, g_2$  such that  $b = ag_1$ ,  $c = bg_2$ .

$c = bg_2 = (ag_1)g_2 = a \underbrace{(g_1 g_2)}_g$ , so  
 $a | c$ .

(ii) Assume that  $a | b$  and  $a | c$ . Then  
there exist integers  $g_1, g_2$  such  
that  $b = ag_1$ ,  $c = ag_2$ . Then  
for every integers  $x, y$ , we have  
$$xb + yc = x(ag_1) + y(ag_2) =$$
  
$$= a(xg_1 + yg_2).$$

Hence, there exist an integer  $g$   
such that  $xb + yc = ag$ . Thus  
 $a | xb + yc.$

(iii) Assume that  $a | b$  and  $b | a$ .  
Then there exist integers  $g_1, g_2$   
such that  $b = ag_1$  and  $a = bg_2$ .  
So  $b = ag_1 = (bg_2)g_1 = b(g_2 g_1)$ .

If  $b = 0$ , then  $a = b\mathfrak{g}_2 = 0\mathfrak{g}_2 = 0$ .

So  $a = b$ .

If  $b \neq 0$ , then  $b = b(\mathfrak{g}_2\mathfrak{g}_1)$  means

that  $\mathfrak{g}_2\mathfrak{g}_1 = \underline{1}$ . So

either  $\mathfrak{g}_1 = \mathfrak{g}_2 = 1$  or  $\mathfrak{g}_1 = \mathfrak{g}_2 = -1$ .

So Either  $b = a \cdot 1 = a$  or

$b = a \cdot (-1) = -a$ .

(iv) Assume  $a|b$  and  $b \neq 0$ .

Then there exists an integer  $g$ ,  
such that  $b = ag$ ,

so  $|b| = |a||g|$  and  $|g| \neq 0$  (because  
otherwise  $b=0$ ). So  $|g| \geq 1$ .

So  $|b| \geq |a| \cdot 1 = |a|$ .

