

Math 109: Mathematical Reasoning

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Book: An Intro. to Mathematical Reasoning, Peter J. Eccles

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→ teaching → math 109
(Check Frequently)

Grading: Higher of two formulas:

(1) 20/20/20/40 (HW/MT1/MT2/Final)

(2) 20/20/60 (HW/max(MT1, MT2)/Final)

Course objectives:

* Intro to rigorous mathematics, i.e., to methods of reasoning where all assumptions are clear and conclusions follow "logically" from them.

* Emphasis on clear proof writing

Some Topics we will cover :

- Propositions, truth tables, Logical implications
- Proof techniques :
 - direct proof
 - proof by cases
 - proof by contradiction
 - proof by contrapositive
 - proof by induction
- Set theory
- Functions , injections, surjections, bijections
- Binomial coefficients / theorem
- Countability of sets
- ...

Chapter 1 : The Language of Mathematics

Proposition : A sentence that is either true or false
(but not both)

Examples :

Propositions

- $2 \times 5 = 10$ (true)
- $\pi = 3$ (false)
- Every even integer greater than two is the sum of two prime numbers

(Goldbach conjecture from 1742, unknown if true or false)

Not

Propositions

- $n^2 + 3n > 7$
- $m < n$
- $12 - 5$

These two are predicates
They become propositions
when values are assigned
to n (and m for the 2nd one)

Statement : a proposition or predicate

(For example " $12 - 5$ " is not a statement)

Logical Connectives : (or/and/not)

These are "tools" to put together simple statements and form complicated ones

The connective "or" :

Consider two statements P & Q each of which may be either true (T) or false (F).

The statement " P or Q " is also either true or false depending on the truth value of each of P , Q .

In fact, we define the logical connective "or" by means of a truth table :

P	Q	P or Q
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

Examples: • $a=0$ or $b=0$

• $a \geq 0$ ($a > 0$ or $a = 0$)

• $a = \pm b$ ($a = b$ or $a = -b$)

Caution: The 'connective or' is an "inclusive or"
 i.e. for the statement 'P or Q' to
 be true, it is enough for one of the two
 statements P, Q to be true (if both
 are true, 'P or Q' is still true - see the truth table)

Example $I = \pm I$ is true because $I = I$ is true

The connective 'and'

P	Q	P and Q
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Example $3 < \pi < 4$ ($3 < \pi$ and $\pi < 4$)

The connective 'not' (negation of a statement)

P	not P
T	F
F	T

Example: Let P be the statement

'For real numbers a, if $f(a) = 0$, then $a > 0$ '

Write down the statement (not P)

Solution: There exists some real number a
where $a \leq 0$ such that $f(a) = 0$

We will deal with such statements formally next.

Chapter 2: Implications

Proof: A sequence of statements starting with true statements and finishing with the statement to be proved

Informally, the way we move from statement to statement is via 'implications'

Example: Suppose $P(n)$ is the statement ' $n > 2$ ' and $Q(n)$ is the statement ' $n > 0$ '. Now, we can define a new statement ' $P(n) \Rightarrow Q(n)$ '

$n > 2 \Rightarrow n > 0$
hypothesis conclusion

this is obviously a true statement for each n
(while $P(n)$ & $Q(n)$ are not)

	$P(n)$	$Q(n)$
$n \leq 0$	F	F
$n = 1$	F	T
$n = 2$	F	T
$n > 2$	T	T

Notice ^{above}: when P was true, so was Q

- when P was false, Q could be anything
- Q was never false, while P was true

Definition:

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

'Funny' examples:

- The statement $(\pi < 4) \Rightarrow (1+1=2)$ is true

- The statement $(\pi < 4) \Rightarrow (1+1=3)$ is false (why?)

Note the absence of a cause/effect relationship in our mathematical use of ' $P \Rightarrow Q$ '

Universal Implication: An implication where the

predicate leads to a true proposition whatever value is assigned to the free variable.

Example: $n > 3 \Rightarrow n > 0$

Example (not a universal statement):

$n \geq 4 \Rightarrow n \geq 6$ is not universally true

	$n \geq 4$	$n \geq 6$	$n \geq 4 \Rightarrow n \geq 6$
$n < 4$	F	F	T
$4 \leq n < 6$	T	F	F
$n \geq 6$	T	T	T

this is where the issue is

There exist values of n for which the hypothesis is true and the conclusion is false.

How to read the statement $P \Rightarrow Q$:

- (i) If P then Q
- (ii) P implies Q
- (iii) Q if P
- (iv) P only if Q
- (v) Q whenever P
- (vi) P is sufficient for Q
- (vii) Q is necessary for P

Definition :

$(P \Leftrightarrow Q)$ means $(P \Rightarrow Q)$ and $(Q \Rightarrow P)$

- (i) P is equivalent to Q
- (ii) P is nec. & suff for Q
- (iii) P if & only if Q (P iff Q)
- (iv) P precisely when Q

↪ (don't like)

Arithmetic

Some definitions:

Given two integers a and b , we say that b divides a or that a is a multiple of b to mean that there is an integer q with $a = bq$

Examples: 3 divides 6

-4 divides 8

n divides 0 whatever integer n
is

(why?)

Given an integer n , we say n is even to mean 2 divides n

Given an integer n , we say n is odd to mean n is not even.

Notice how we used the definition of 'even' to define 'odd', and the definition of 'divides' to define even.

Such chains of definitions are common.

Example: Prove the proposition (1023 is odd)

Proof: We need to show that 1023 is odd, i.e., that it is not even, i.e., that there is no integer q such that $1023 = 2q$.

The issue is we can't go through all integers q and check them one by one.

Instead, we note that there are two cases $q \leq 511$ or $q \geq 512$, so either $2q \leq 1022$ or $2q \geq 1024$. So $2q \neq 1023$. So 1023 is odd.



end of proof symbol 

In the remainder of the course we will assume the following algebraic properties of \downarrow numbers, and of the $+$ and \times operations.
real

For two real numbers a & b

(i) Commutativity: $a + b = b + a$

$$ab = ba$$

(ii) Associativity: $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$
 $(ab)c = a(bc)$

(iii) Distributivity: $a(b + c) = ab + ac$
 $(a + b)c = ac + bc$

(iv) $a + 0 = a = 0 + a$
 $a \times 1 = a = 1 \times a$

(v) Subtraction: $a + x = 0$ has the unique solution
 $x = -a$ so
 $a + x = b \Leftrightarrow x = b + (-a) = b - a$

(vi) Division: If $a \neq 0$, $ax = 1$ has the unique
solution $x = \frac{1}{a}$ so
 $ax = b \Leftrightarrow x = b \cdot \left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = b a^{-1}$.

All algebraic properties of numbers can be deduced from the above properties.

Chapter 3: Proofs

Many theorems are of the form $(P \Rightarrow Q)$

Recall:

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

$P \Rightarrow Q$ is true
when P is False (regardless
of Q)

So to prove $(P \Rightarrow Q)$ is true it is
enough to assume that P is true and deduce
Q

Direct proof

Example

For positive real numbers
a & b, we have $a < b \Rightarrow a^2 < b^2$

Proof: (By the above reasoning) we may assume
that $a < b$. Now,

$$\text{and } (a < b) \stackrel{\textcircled{1}}{\Rightarrow} (a^2 < ab)$$

$$(a < b) \stackrel{\textcircled{2}}{\Rightarrow} (ab < b^2)$$

$$\text{so } (a < b) \stackrel{\textcircled{3}}{\Rightarrow} (a^2 < ab) \text{ and } (ab < b^2) \Rightarrow a^2 < b^2.$$

$$\text{Hence } (a < b) \Rightarrow (a^2 < b^2).$$

$\textcircled{1}$, $\textcircled{2}$, $\textcircled{3}$ are justified by the inequality axioms (also known as order axioms) of real numbers 

Axioms: For real numbers a, b, c

(i) Trichotomy: One and only one of the three possibilities $a < b$, $a = b$, $a > b$ is true.

$$(ii) a < b \Leftrightarrow a + c < b + c$$

$$(iii) a < b \Leftrightarrow ac < bc \text{ if } c > 0$$
$$a < b \Leftrightarrow ac > bc \text{ if } c < 0$$

$$(iv) a < b \text{ and } b < c \Rightarrow a < c.$$

Q: Which of the axioms was used to justify each of $\textcircled{1}$, $\textcircled{2}$, $\textcircled{3}$?

Remark: We could have written the proof with, e.g., more words and fewer symbols, provided we are careful. See book.

Proof by Cases

Example If $x=2$ or $x=7$
then $x^2-9x+14=0$

Proof: If $x=2$ then $x^2-9x+14=4-18+14=0$
If $x=7$ then $x^2-9x+14=49-63+14=0$.
Hence if $x=2$ or $x=7$ then $x^2-9x+14=0$.

Note: we used the observation that $(P \text{ or } Q) \Rightarrow R$
is equivalent to $(P \Rightarrow R)$ and $(Q \Rightarrow R)$

(check using truth tables)

Example: For real numbers x , $x^2 \geq 0$

Idea (scratch): $x^2 = x \cdot x$
 \downarrow
 $x=0, x>0, \text{ or } x<0$ (trichotomy)

Proof: For a real number x , either $x=0$, $x>0$,
or $x<0$ (three cases).

If $x=0$ then $x^2=0$

If $x>0$ then $x^2>0$ (multiplication laws)

If $x<0$ then $x^2>0$.

Hence, $x^2 \geq 0$ as required.

Useful tip: Often, to construct a proof,
a good approach is to work backwards

Proposition: For real numbers a & b
 $(a < b) \Rightarrow 4ab < (a+b)^2$

Thought process for constructing proof (scratch)

$$4ab < (a+b)^2 \Leftarrow 4ab < a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

actually these are \Leftrightarrow , but \Leftarrow is enough
for us to work backward

$$\Leftarrow 0 < a^2 - 2ab + b^2$$

$$\Leftarrow 0 < (a-b)^2$$

$$\Leftarrow a \neq b \text{ (why?)}$$

$$\Leftarrow a < b$$

$$\text{so that } a < b \Rightarrow 4ab < (a+b)^2$$

Now, we may write a direct proof:

$$\text{Proof: } a < b \Rightarrow a \neq b \Rightarrow (a-b) \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 < (a-b)^2 \Rightarrow 0 < a^2 - 2ab + b^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 4ab < a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 4ab < (a+b)^2$$

$$\text{Thus, } a < b \Rightarrow 4ab < (a+b)^2.$$