# Introduction to Proof Methods Part 1: <br> Direct Proof and Indirect Proof Using Contrapositive Mathematical Logic - First Term 2023-2024 

## MZI

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## Acknowledgements

This slide is compiled using the materials in the following sources:
(1) Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications (Chapter 1), 8th Edition, 2019, by K. H. Rosen (primary reference).
(2) Discrete Mathematics with Applications (Chapter 4), 5th Edition, 2018, by S. S. Epp.

- Discrete Mathematics 1 (2012) slides at Fasilkom UI by B. H. Widjaja.
- Discrete Mathematics 1 (2010) slides at Fasilkom UI by A. A. Krisnadhi.

Some figures are excerpted from those sources. This slide is intended for internal academic purpose in SoC Telkom University. No slides are ever free from error nor incapable of being improved. Please convey your comments and corrections (if any) to <pleasedontspam>@telkomuniversity.ac.id.

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(1) Introduction: Terminology and Motivation
(2) Assumption and Prerequisite
(3) Sentence and Language in Theorem and Proofs
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(5) Indirect Proofs By Contraposition

## Contents

(1) Introduction: Terminology and Motivation
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## Terminology: Theorem, Lemma, Proposition, and Proof

## Theorem, Lemma, and Proposition

## Theorem

A theorem usually denotes a (mathematical) statement that can be shown to be true and somewhat important or (very) useful. Theorems can also be referred to as mathematical facts or results.

Lemma
A lemma ("little theorem") usually denotes a less important theorem/ mathematical fact/result that is important in the proof of other results/ more important fact (lemma is rarely stand-alone). Complicated proofs are usually easier to understand when they are proved using series of "lemma".

## Proposition

A proposition usually denotes a statement that is less important than theorems. Sometimes propositions is stand-alone. However, propositions are also used in the inference of more complicated proofs.

## Mathematical Proofs

Proof: a valid argument that establish the truth of particular theorems, lemmas, or proposition. The statements used in proof can include axioms or postulates (the statements that are assumed to be true). A proof is obtained from a valid inference from a collection of premises. We usually mark the end of a proof with following symbol: $\square$, $\mathbf{\square}$, or Q.E.D.

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$1=2$
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| $(6)$ | $2 b=b$ | By substituting $a$ with $b$ in (5). |
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| $(7)$ | $2=1$ | By dividing each sides of (6) with $b$. |

Reason 2: to guarantee that our arguments apply in general setting.

## Theorem

The sum of two odd integers is an even integer.

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## "Proof"

Take two arbitrary odd integers, suppose these integers are $a$ and $b$. Assume that $a=1$ and $b=3$. It is obvious that $a$ and $b$ are odd integers. We have $a+b=1+3=4$, hence $a+b$ is an even integer. Based on this argument, the sum of two odd integers is an even integer.

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- proving the correctness of an algorithm - which will be learned in Complexity Analysis of Algorithm class (a compulsory course for undergraduate informatics major)
- providing undeniable facts in particular systems - which is used extensively in several elective course such as Cryptography and Formal Methods.

Mathematical proving in computer science. . .


## Benefits for Computer Science Major

The methods of proof are important not only because they are used to prove mathematical theorems, but also for their many applications to computer science. These applications include:
(1) verifying that computer programs are correct,
(2) establishing that operating systems are secure,

- making inferences in artificial intelligence, and
(0) showing that system specifications are consistent.


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## Assumption and Prerequisite

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- Familiarity with algebraic manipulations taught in high school.
- Properties of equality (=), i.e.: (1) $A=A$, (2) if $A=B$ then $B=A$, and (3) if $A=B$ and $B=C$, then $A=C$.
- There is no integer between 0 and 1 .
- The set of integers is closed under addition, subtraction, and multiplication. This means that for all integers $a$ and $b$, the numbers $a+b, a-b$, and $a b$ are also integers.


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## Sentence and Language in Theorem and Proofs

Theorems and mathematical proofs can be expressed formally using predicate logic (as we learned in the inference system for predicate logic). However, formal proofs of useful theorems can be extremely long and hard to follow. In practice, proofs of theorems designed for human consumption are almost always informal proofs, which usually described in natural language sentences (e.g.: English, Bahasa Indonesia, etc.).

Many theorems assert that particular property holds for all elements in a domain (such as integers or real numbers). In these theorem, a universal quantification is usually not explicitly mentioned (although sometimes we need to use universal quantification for precisely explaining a statement). In the proofs of such theorems, universal instantiation (taking an arbitrary element $c$ of a particular domain) is used implicitly.

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For example, the following theorem:

## Theorem

If $x>y$, where $x$ and $y$ are positive real numbers greater than 1 , then $x^{2}>y^{2}$.
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For all positive real numbers $x$ and $y$ that are greater than 1 , if $x>y$, then $x^{2}>y^{2}$.

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## Direct Proofs

## Simple Direct Proof

Suppose we have a theorem (or lemma/ proposition) in a conditional statement:
"if $p$ then $q$ ", or $p \rightarrow q$.
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## Quantified Direct Proof

Suppose we have a theorem (or lemma/ proposition) of the form: "for all $x \in D$, if $P(x)$ then $Q(x)^{\prime \prime}$, or $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$.
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An integer $n$ is even if there is an integer $k$ such that $n=2 k$; and $n$ is odd if there is an integer $k$ such that $n=2 k+1$.

## Example

The numbers $-2,-4,0$, and 2020 are even.

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An integer $n$ is called a perfect square if there exists an integer $b$ such that $n=b^{2}$.

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The numbers 4,9 , and 49 are perfect squares, because $4=$

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## Example

The numbers 4,9 , and 49 are perfect squares, because $4=2^{2}, 9=3^{2}$, and $49=7^{2}$. The numbers 7,8 , and 11 are not perfect squares, because there are no integers $a, b$, and $c$ such that $7=a^{2}, 8=b^{2}$, and $11=c^{2}$.

## Examples of Direct Proofs

Now we are going to prove following theorems.

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If $n$ is an odd integer, then $n^{2}$ is odd.

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(c) Let $n$ be an integer.
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(3) We have $n^{2}=(2 k+1)^{2}=4 k^{2}+4 k+1=2\left(2 k^{2}+2 k\right)+1=2 \ell+1$, for some integer $\ell=2 k^{2}+2 k$.

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(0) We have $n^{2}=(2 k+1)^{2}=4 k^{2}+4 k+1=2\left(2 k^{2}+2 k\right)+1=2 \ell+1$, for some integer $\ell=2 k^{2}+2 k$.
(9) Therefore $n^{2}$ is odd.
(Because $n^{2}$ can be expressed as $2(\cdots)+1$.)

## Theorem

Suppose $m$ and $n$ are integers. If $m$ and $n$ are both perfect squares, then $m n$ is also a perfect square.

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(3) We have $m n=b^{2} c^{2}=(b c)^{2}$, for some integer $b c$.
(0) Therefore $m n$ is also a perfect square.
(Because $m n$ can be expressed as $(\cdots)^{2}$.)

## Writing a neat and correct proof

Some mathematical proofs are not usually written in separate step-by-step arguments as in our previous example. In many occasions, mathematical proofs are written as narrative arguments that consist of several sentences or paragraphs. Each of these sentences is started with capital letters and ended by a period (.), unless if the beginning of the sentence is a mathematical symbol/notation.

The proofs of our previous theorem can be conveyed as follows:

## Proof (If $n$ is odd, then $n^{2}$ is also odd.)

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Let $n$ be an integer. If $n$ is odd, then according to the definition $n=2 k+1$, for some integer $k$. We have $n^{2}=(2 k+1)^{2}=4 k^{2}+4 k+1=2\left(2 k^{2}+2 k\right)+1=2 \ell+1$, for some integer $\ell=2 k^{2}+2 k$. Therefore, $n$ is odd.

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Proof (If $m$ and $n$ are perfect squares, then $m n$ is also a perfect square.)
Let $m$ and $n$ be integers. Suppose $m$ and $n$ are perfect squares, then $m=b^{2}$, for some integer $b$; and $n=c^{2}$, for some integer $c$. We have $m n=b^{2} c^{2}=(b c)^{2}$, for some integer $b c$. Therefore, $m n$ is also a perfect square.

## Exercise 1

## Theorem (Theorem 1.1)

The sum of two odd integers is even.

## Theorem (Theorem 1.2)

If $a, b, c$ are integers such that: $a+b$ and $b+c$ are both even, then $a+c$ is also even.

## Proof (Proof of Theorem 1.1)

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Let $a$ and $b$ be integers. If $a$ and $b$ are odd, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a=2 k+1$ and $b=2 \ell+1$.

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Let $a$ and $b$ be integers. If $a$ and $b$ are odd, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a=2 k+1$ and $b=2 \ell+1$. We have $a+b=2(k+\ell)+2=2(k+\ell+1)$.

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Let $a$ and $b$ be integers. If $a$ and $b$ are odd, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a=2 k+1$ and $b=2 \ell+1$. We have $a+b=2(k+\ell)+2=2(k+\ell+1)$. Therefore, $a+b$ is even.

## Proof (Proof of Theorem 1.2)

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## Theorem (Theorem 1.1)

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Let $a$ and $b$ be integers. If $a$ and $b$ are odd, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a=2 k+1$ and $b=2 \ell+1$. We have $a+b=2(k+\ell)+2=2(k+\ell+1)$. Therefore, $a+b$ is even.

## Proof (Proof of Theorem 1.2)

Let $a, b$, and $c$ be integers.

## Exercise 1

## Theorem (Theorem 1.1)

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If $a, b, c$ are integers such that: $a+b$ and $b+c$ are both even, then $a+c$ is also even.

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Let $a$ and $b$ be integers. If $a$ and $b$ are odd, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a=2 k+1$ and $b=2 \ell+1$. We have $a+b=2(k+\ell)+2=2(k+\ell+1)$. Therefore, $a+b$ is even.

## Proof (Proof of Theorem 1.2)

Let $a, b$, and $c$ be integers. If $a+b$ and $b+c$ are even, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a+b=2 k$ and $b+c=2 \ell$.

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Let $a$ and $b$ be integers. If $a$ and $b$ are odd, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a=2 k+1$ and $b=2 \ell+1$. We have $a+b=2(k+\ell)+2=2(k+\ell+1)$. Therefore, $a+b$ is even.

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Let $a, b$, and $c$ be integers. If $a+b$ and $b+c$ are even, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a+b=2 k$ and $b+c=2 \ell$. Observe that $a=2 k-b$ and $c=2 \ell-b$.

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The sum of two odd integers is even.

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If $a, b, c$ are integers such that: $a+b$ and $b+c$ are both even, then $a+c$ is also even.

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Let $a, b$, and $c$ be integers. If $a+b$ and $b+c$ are even, then there are integers $k$ and $\ell$ such that $a+b=2 k$ and $b+c=2 \ell$. Observe that $a=2 k-b$ and $c=2 \ell-b$. As a result, $a+c=2 k+2 \ell-2 b=2(k+\ell-b)$.

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## Exercise 2

## Definition

A real number $r$ is rational if there exists integers $a$ and $b$ with $b \neq 0$ such that $r=\frac{a}{b}$. A real number that is not rational is called irrational.

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The sum of two rational numbers is rational.

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Let $q$ and $r$ be two rational numbers, then $q=\frac{a}{b}$ and $r=\frac{c}{d}$ where $a, b, c, d$ are integers, $b$ and $d$ are nonzero.

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## Contents

(1) Introduction: Terminology and Motivation
(2) Assumption and Prerequisite
(3) Sentence and Language in Theorem and Proofs
(4) Direct Proofs
(5) Indirect Proofs By Contraposition

## Indirect Proofs by Contraposition

## Theorem

Let $n$ be an integer. If $n^{2}$ is odd, then $n$ is odd.

## Proof (?)

## Indirect Proofs by Contraposition

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Since $n^{2}$ is odd, then $n^{2}=2 k+1$, for some integer $k$.

## Indirect Proofs by Contraposition

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Let $n$ be an integer. If $n^{2}$ is odd, then $n$ is odd.

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Since $n^{2}$ is odd, then $n^{2}=2 k+1$, for some integer $k$. We obtain $n= \pm \sqrt{2 k+1}$.

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Direct proof method cannot be used to prove the above theorem.

## Indirect Proof by Contraposition

- Suppose we have a theorem (or lemma/proposition) in a conditional statement: "if $p$ then $q$ ", or $p \rightarrow q$.


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An indirect proof by contraposition of $p \rightarrow q$ is equivalent to the direct proof of $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, which is constructed as follows:

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An indirect proof by contraposition of $p \rightarrow q$ is equivalent to the direct proof of $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, which is constructed as follows:

- first, assume that $\neg q$ is true;
- construct subsequent statements using rules of inference until $\ldots \neg p$ is true.


## Examples of Indirect Proofs by Contraposition

## Theorem

Let $n$ be an integer. If $n^{2}$ is odd, then $n$ is odd.

## Proof

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## Exercise 3

## Theorem (Theorem 3.1)

If $n$ is an integer and $3 n+2$ is odd, then $n$ is odd.

## Theorem (Theorem 3.2)

If $a, b$, and $n$ are positive numbers such that $n=a b$, then $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.

## Proof (Proof of Theorem 3.1)

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## Proof (Proof of Theorem 3.1)

The contrapositive of Theorem 3.1 is: if $n$ is even, then $3 n+2$ is even. Suppose $n$ is even, then $n=2 k$, for some integer $k$. Consequently, $3 n+2=3(2 k)+2=2(3 k+1)$.

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## Proof (Proof of Theorem 3.2)

The contrapositive of Theorem 3.2 is: if $a, b, n$ are integers such that $a>\sqrt{n}$ and $b>\sqrt{n}$, then $n \neq a b$.

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The contrapositive of Theorem 3.2 is: if $a, b, n$ are integers such that $a>\sqrt{n}$ and $b>\sqrt{n}$, then $n \neq a b$. Suppose $a$ and $b$ are integers such that $a>\sqrt{n}$ and $b>\sqrt{n}$, then $a b>(\sqrt{n})^{2}=n$, which means $a b>n$.

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