

CSL202: Discrete Mathematical Structures

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Rules of Inference for Quantified Statements

Logic

Rules of inference for quantified statements

Rule of inference	Name
$\frac{\forall x P(x)}{\therefore ?}$	Universal instantiation
$\frac{P(c) \text{ for an arbitrary } c}{\therefore ?}$	Universal generalization
$\frac{\exists x P(x)}{\therefore ?}$	Existential instantiation
$\frac{P(c) \text{ for some element } c}{\therefore ?}$	Existential generalization
$\frac{\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))}{P(a) \text{ where } a \text{ is a particular element in the domain}}{\therefore ?}$	Universal modus ponens
$\frac{\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))}{\neg Q(a) \text{ where } a \text{ is a particular element in the domain}}{\therefore ?}$	Universal modus tollens

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Table: Rules of inference for quantified statements

- Use rules of inference for quantified statements to show the premises “*A student in this class has not read the book,*” and “*Everyone in this class passed the first exam*” imply the conclusion “*Someone who has passed the first exam has not read the book.*”

Proofs

- Theorem: A mathematical statement that can be shown to be true.
 - Theorem is usually reserved for a statement that is considered at least somewhat important.
 - Less important theorems sometimes are called *propositions*.
- Axiom (or postulate): A statement that is assumed to be true.
- Lemma: A less important theorem that is helpful in the proof of other results.
- Corollary: A theorem that can be established directly from a theorem that has been proved.
- Conjecture: A statement that is being proposed to be a true statement, usually on the basis of some partial evidence.

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- Corollary: A theorem that can be established directly from a theorem that has been proved.
- Conjecture: A statement that is being proposed to be a true statement, usually on the basis of some partial evidence.
- Proof: A valid argument that establishes the truth of a Theorem.
 - The statements used in a proof can include axioms, definitions, the premises, if any, of the theorem, and previously proven theorems and uses rules of inference to draw conclusions.

- Direct proof: Used for showing statements of the form $p \rightarrow q$. We assume that p is true and use axioms, definitions, and previously proven theorems, together with rules of inference, to show that q must also be true.
- Example: Give a direct proof of the theorem "*if n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd.*"

Definition (Even and odd)

The integer n is even if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$, and n is odd if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$.

- Proof by contraposition: Used for proving statements of the form $p \rightarrow q$. We take $\neg q$ as a premise, and using axioms, definitions, and previously proven theorems, together with rules of inference, we show that $\neg p$ must follow.
- Examples:
 - Prove that if n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.
 - Prove that if n is an integer and n^2 is odd, then n is odd.
 - Prove that if $n = ab$, where a and b are positive integers, then $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.

- Vacuous proof: When proving $p \rightarrow q$, a proof showing p to be false is called a vacuous proof.
 - Example: Show that the proposition $P(0)$ is true, where $P(n)$ is “if $n > 1$, then $n^2 > n$ ” and the domain consists of all integers.
- Trivial proof: When proving $p \rightarrow q$, a proof showing q to be true is called a trivial proof.
 - Example: Let $P(n)$ be “If a and b are positive integers with $a \geq b$, then $a^n \geq b^n$,” where the domain consists of all nonnegative integers. Show that $P(0)$ is true.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction: Suppose we want to prove that a statement p is true and suppose we can find a contradiction q such that $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true. Since q is false, but $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true, we can conclude that $\neg p$ is false, which means that p is true. The contradiction q is usually of the form $r \wedge \neg r$ for some proposition r .
- Examples:
 - Show that at least four of any 22 days must fall on the same day of the week.

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- Examples:
 - Show that at least four of any 22 days must fall on the same day of the week.
 - Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational by giving proof by contradiction.

Definition (Rational and irrational)

The real number r is rational if there exists integers p and q with $q \neq 0$ such that $r = p/q$. A real number that is not rational is called irrational.

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- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction: Suppose we want to prove that a statement q is true and suppose we can find a contradiction t such that $\neg q \rightarrow t$ is true. Since t is false, but $\neg q \rightarrow t$ is true, we can conclude that $\neg q$ is false, which means that q is true. The contradiction t is usually of the form $r \wedge \neg r$ for some proposition r .
- Proof by contraposition is a special case of proof by contradiction.
 - We assume that the premise p is true. Then we show that $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$. Now since $[(\neg q \rightarrow \neg p) \wedge p] \rightarrow [\neg q \rightarrow (p \wedge \neg p)]$ is a tautology, we conclude $\neg q \rightarrow (p \wedge \neg p)$ which implies that q is true.

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- Proof by contradiction: Suppose we want to prove that a statement q is true and suppose we can find a contradiction t such that $\neg q \rightarrow t$ is true. Since t is false, but $\neg q \rightarrow t$ is true, we can conclude that $\neg q$ is false, which means that q is true. The contradiction t is usually of the form $r \wedge \neg r$ for some proposition r .
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- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Other ideas:
 - Proofs of equivalence:
 - To show statements of the form $p \leftrightarrow q$ we have to show $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$.
 - How do we show $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2 \leftrightarrow \dots \leftrightarrow p_n$?

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Other ideas:
 - Proofs of equivalence:
 - To show statements of the form $p \leftrightarrow q$ we have to show $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$.
 - To show $p_1 \leftrightarrow p_2 \leftrightarrow \dots \leftrightarrow p_n$, it is sufficient to show that $p_1 \rightarrow p_2, p_2 \rightarrow p_3, \dots, p_{n-1} \rightarrow p_n, p_n \rightarrow p_1$
 - Example: Show that the following statements are equivalent:
(p_1) n is even, (p_2) $n - 1$ is odd, (p_3) n^2 is even.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Other ideas:
 - Proofs of equivalence
 - Proof by counterexample: Suppose we want to show that the statement $\forall x P(x)$ is false then we only need to find a counterexample, that is, an example x for which $P(x)$ is false.
 - Example: Show that the statement “Every positive integer is the sum of squares of two integers” is false.

- What is wrong with the following proofs?
 - “Theorem”: If n^2 is positive, then n is positive.
 - “Proof”: Suppose that n^2 is positive. Because the conditional statement “If n is positive, then n^2 is positive” is true, we can conclude that n is positive.
 - “Theorem”: If n is not positive, then n^2 is not positive.
 - “Proof”: Suppose that n is not positive. Because the conditional statement “If n is positive, then n^2 is positive” is true, we can conclude that n^2 is not positive.
 - “Theorem”: If n^2 is even, then n is even.
 - “Proof”: Suppose that n^2 is even. Then $n^2 = 2k$ for some integer k . Let $n = 2l$ for some integer l . This shows that n is even.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Proof by cases: Suppose we want to show a statement of the form $(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n) \rightarrow q$. That is, a statement where the hypothesis is made of a disjunction of propositions. Then such a statement can be proven by proving each of the n conditional statements $p_i \rightarrow q, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.
 - This follows from the tautology
$$[(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n) \rightarrow q] \leftrightarrow [(p_1 \rightarrow q) \wedge (p_2 \rightarrow q) \wedge \dots \wedge (p_n \rightarrow q)].$$

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Proof by cases
- Exhaustive proofs (proofs by exhaustion): This is a special case of proof by cases where each case involves checking a single example.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
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- Exhaustive proof (proof by exhaustion): This is a special case of proof by cases where each case involves checking a single example.
 - Prove that $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$, if n is a positive integer with $n \leq 4$.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases:
 - Prove that if n is an integer, then $n^2 \geq n$.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases:
 - Without loss of generality (WLOG): When the phrase “without loss of generality” is used in a proof, we assert that by proving one case of a theorem, no additional argument is required to prove other specified cases. That is, other cases follow by making straightforward changes to the argument, or by filling in some straightforward initial step.
 - Example: Show that if x and y are integers and both xy and $x + y$ are even, then both x and y are even.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases:
 - What is wrong with this “proof”?

“Theorem:” If x is a real number, then x^2 is a positive real number.
“Proof:” Let p_1 be “ x is positive,” let p_2 be “ x is negative,” and let q be “ x^2 is positive.” To show that $p_1 \rightarrow q$ is true, note that when x is positive, x^2 is positive because it is the product of two positive numbers, x and x . To show that $p_2 \rightarrow q$, note that when x is negative, x^2 is positive because it is the product of two negative numbers, x and x . This completes the proof.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases
- Existence proofs: Used for propositions of the form $\exists x P(x)$.
 - Constructive proof: Find an element a (called a *witness*) such that $P(a)$ is true.
 - Nonconstructive proof: Proof without finding a witness. (Usually by contradiction.)

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases
- Existence proofs
 - Examples:
 - Show that there is a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
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- Existence proofs
 - Examples:
 - Show that there is a positive integer that can be written as the sum of cubes of positive integers in two different ways.
 - Show that there exist irrational numbers x and y such that x^y is rational.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases
- Existence proofs
- Uniqueness proofs: Statements that assert the existence of a unique elements with a particular property. The two parts of a uniqueness proof are:
 - Existence: Show that an element x with desired property exists.
 - Uniqueness: Show that $y \neq x$, then y does not have the desired property.

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proofs of equivalence
- Proof by counterexample
- Exhaustive proof
- Proof by cases
- Existence proofs
- Uniqueness proofs
 - Example:
 - Show that if a and b are real numbers and $a \neq 0$, then there is a unique real number r such that $ar + b = 0$.

End