

Wed Sept 11

HW 1 due Friday

OH: Mon 2-3

Today 3-4

Descartes (1637) said:

a point \equiv an ordered list of numbers.

OK, fine. But what is a number?

The Pythagoreans (~ 500 BC) believed that the universe can be expressed in terms of ratios of whole numbers.

But then they discovered a problem.

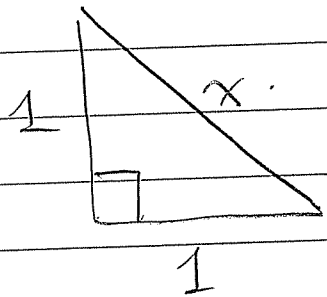
Theorem:

$\sqrt{2}$ can NOT be expressed as a ratio of whole numbers!

Proof: Postponed.

Let's just think about it.

Given a square of side length 1, the diagonal has length $\sqrt{2}$ by Pyth. Thm.



$$x^2 = 1^2 + 1^2 = 2.$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \sqrt{2}.$$

Let's pretend that $\sqrt{2} = a/b$ for some whole numbers a and b .

Then what?

$$a = b\sqrt{2} \implies a^2 = 2b^2$$

So what? We see a^2 is an even number.

What about a ? It is also even.
(Could "a" be odd?)

So we could say $a = 2a'$ for some whole number k .

(Such an a' exists.)

$$\text{Then } 2b^2 = a^2 = (2a')^2 = 4(a')^2$$

$$\implies b^2 = 2(a')^2, \text{ so } b^2 \text{ is } \underline{\text{even}}.$$

So what? Then b is even.

$$\implies b = 2b' \text{ for some whole number } b'$$

So what? We have

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{2a'}{2b'} = \frac{a'}{b'}$$

Think.....

We could repeat the process to show that a' and b' are even,

$$\text{say } \begin{aligned} a' &= 2a'' \\ b' &= 2b'' \end{aligned}$$

$$\implies \sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{a'}{b'} = \frac{2a''}{2b''} = \frac{a''}{b''}$$

So what?

And we could go on FOREVER.

So what?

Key Observation:

If $a = 2a'$ with a and a' positive whole numbers, then

$$a > a' \geq 1$$

Similarly, $a > a' > a'' \geq 1$.

See the Problem?

This CAN'T go on forever!
(Why not?)

We observed the following:

If we can write $\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b}$

for positive whole numbers a and b

then there exist two infinite sequences
of whole numbers

$$a > a' > a'' > a''' > \dots \geq 1$$

$$b > b' > b'' > b''' > \dots \geq 1.$$

But this is NONSENSE (Why?)

Therefore :

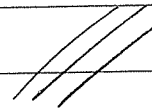
It is NOT possible to express $\sqrt{2}$
as a ratio of whole numbers.

Is that a proof?

Yes, but we should clean it up.

We need a better understanding of

LOGIC.



Topic: Informal Logic.

In this class we only have 2 rules:

Rule 1 ("excluded middle")

Every mathematical statement is
either T or F.
(NOT both, NOT neither).

Any statement without this property is
not a "mathematical statement"

Rule 2 ("material implication").

T flows along arrows \implies .

i.e.

$T \implies T$	$F \implies T$	$F \implies F$	$T \implies F$
✓	✓	✓	✗

That's it.

Fri Sept 13

HW 1 due Now

Today: $\sqrt{2}$

But first, some LOGIC.

We only have two rules:

Rule 1 ("excluded middle")

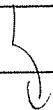
Any mathematical statement is either T or F (not both, not neither).

Any statement without this property is not a "mathematical statement".

e.g. " $0=1$ " is a math. statement

"math is beautiful" is not.

Furthermore, any math. statement P has an opposite statement NOT P with the opposite value



P	NOT P
T	F
F	T

"a truth table"

Rule 2 ("material implication")

T flows along arrows \Rightarrow

i.e.

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

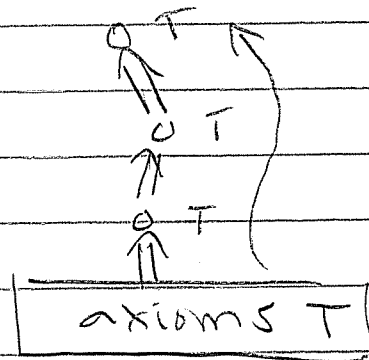
Only $T \Rightarrow F$ is bad because the T isn't flowing.

That's All

The idea is that truth flows from the axioms

o?

axioms = T



Logical Principle ("the contrapositive")

F flows backwards. In other words,

$$P \Rightarrow Q \quad \text{and} \quad \text{NOT } Q \Rightarrow \text{NOT } P$$

are logically equivalent

Proof: We use a truth table

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

They are the same.



Example: Let n be a whole number.

Prove that

$$\text{" } n^2 \text{ is even " } \Rightarrow \text{" } n \text{ is even "}$$

Definition: We say n is even if \exists whole number m with $n = 2m$.

We say n is odd if \exists whole number m with $n = 2m + 1$.

Exercise: verify that

$$\text{NOT "n is even"} = \text{"n is odd"}$$

Now the Proof:

Let $P = \text{"n}^2 \text{ is even"}$

$Q = \text{"n is even"}$.

Instead of proving $P \Rightarrow Q$ we will prove the (equivalent) contrapositive

$$\text{NOT } Q \Rightarrow \text{NOT } P$$

i.e. "n is odd" \Rightarrow "n² is odd".

So, assume that n is odd. i.e.

$\exists m$ with $n = 2m + 1$.

But then

$$\begin{aligned}n^2 &= (2m+1)^2 = 4m^2 + 4m + 1 \\ &= 2(2m+2) + 1.\end{aligned}$$

Since $2m+2$ is a whole number (it exists) we conclude that n^2 is odd.



Q: How would you prove

" n^2 is even" \Rightarrow " n is even"

directly?

Assume $n^2 = 2m$ then

Hmm . . . this is hard!

Good thing we don't have to.



Finally, we will write a clean proof that

$\sqrt{2}$ is NOT a ratio of whole numbers
i.e. " $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational"

First we state a

Lemma (little helper theorem):

For any whole number,

" n^2 is even" \Rightarrow " n is even" ///

Proof of Main Theorem:

We will use proof by contradiction.

Assume (for contradiction) that

$\sqrt{2}$ is rational. Then we can write $\sqrt{2} = a/b$ where a and b are whole numbers with no common divisor (why? postponed.).

Then $a = b\sqrt{2}$ and squaring gives $a^2 = 2b^2$. Hence a^2 is even and the Lemma implies that a is even.

i.e. \exists whole number a' with $a = 2a'$.

But then

$$2b^2 = a^2 = (2a')^2 = 4(a')^2$$

$$\implies b^2 = 2(a')^2$$

Hence b^2 is even and the Lemma says b is even, say $b = 2b'$.

It follows that a and b are both even which contradicts the fact that they have no common divisor.

We conclude that our original assumption was false,

i.e. $\sqrt{2}$ is NOT rational



What did we do?

" $\sqrt{2}$ is rational"

① T?

⇓

" $\sqrt{2} = a/b$ for a, b
with no common divisor"

② T

⇓

⇓

" a and b are both
divisible by 2"

③ T

What could the truth values of
①, ②, ③ be?

If ① = T then ② = ③ = T by Rule 2.

But ② and ③ can't both be true
by Rule 1, hence ① can't be true.

By Rule 1, ① is False.

///

Mon Sept 16

HW 2 due Fri Sept 27

Exam 1 Fri Oct 4.

OH: Mon 2-3

Wed 3-4

Today: Boolean Logic

Our standard logic is called "Boolean logic" after George Boole (1815-1864).

It is based on three functions

AND, OR, NOT.

But first, what is a "function"?

Def:

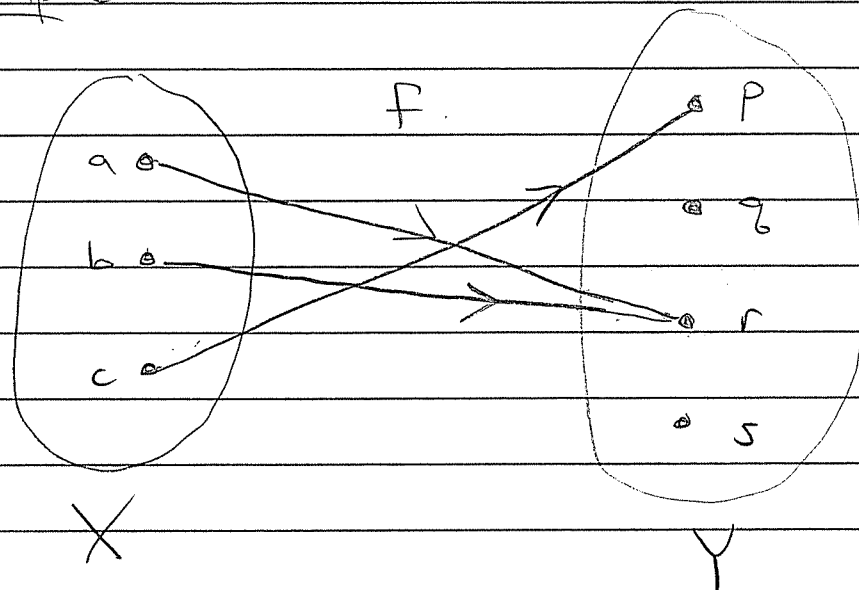
Let X and Y be sets (collections of things). A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a set of arrows satisfying two rules:



(F1) Every arrow points from an element of X to an element of Y .

(F2) Every element of X has exactly one arrow pointing from it.

Example:



We use the notation

$f(a) = r$ " a points to r "

$f(b) = r$ " b points to r "

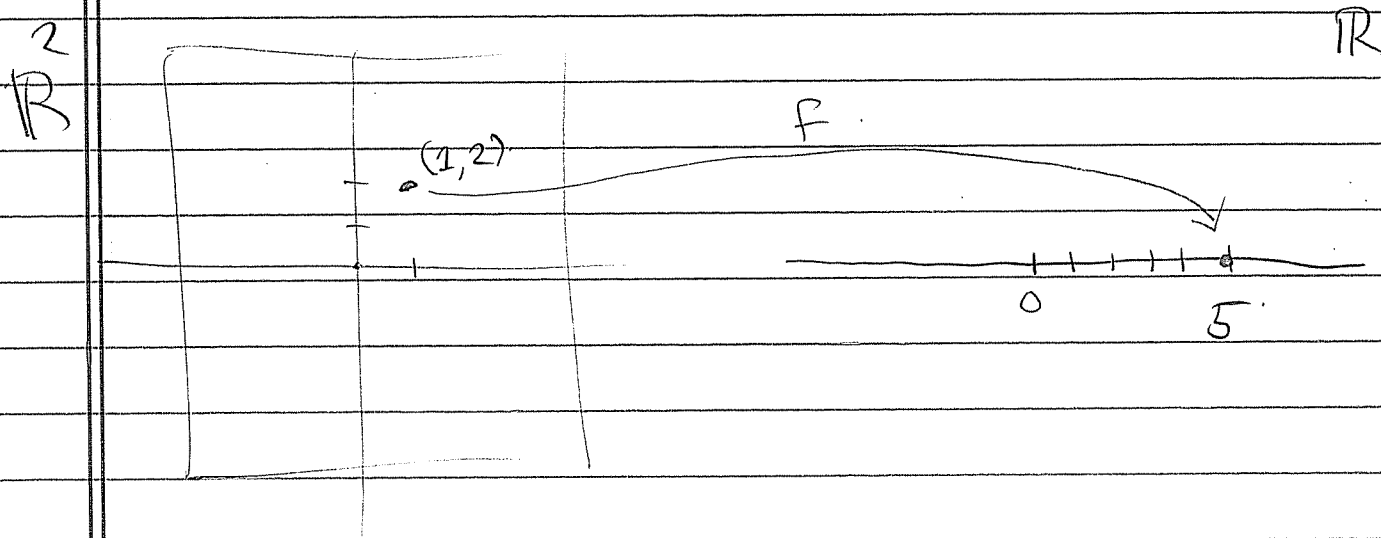
$f(c) = p$ " c points to p "

Example: Sometimes we define a function by a formula. For example, define a function

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

by the formula $f(x, y) := x^2 + y^2$.

To each point (x, y) in the plane \mathbb{R}^2 we assign the number $x^2 + y^2$.

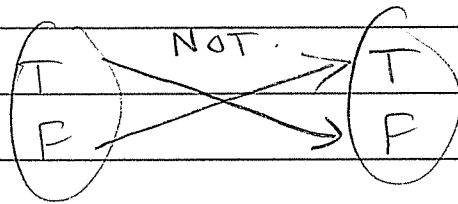


Example: Consider the set $\{T, F\}$ and the set of ordered pairs

$$\{T, F\}^2 := \{(T, T), (T, F), (F, T), (F, F)\}$$

We define 3 important functions.

① NOT : $\{T, F\} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$

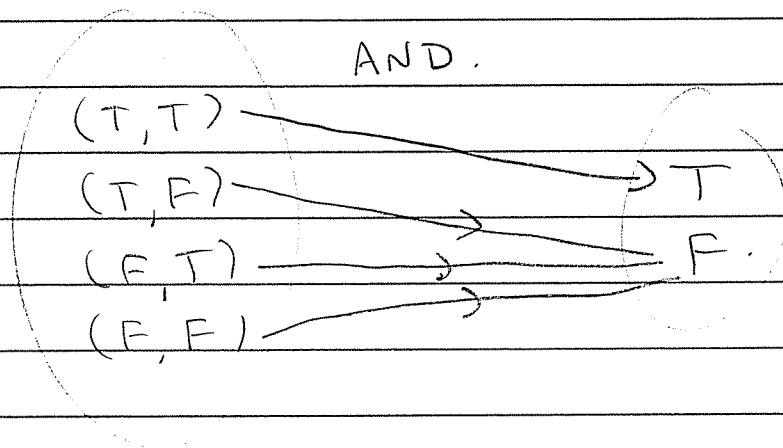


We could write this as a "formula".

$$f(P) = \text{NOT } P.$$

where $P \in \{T, F\}$ is a "Boolean variable".

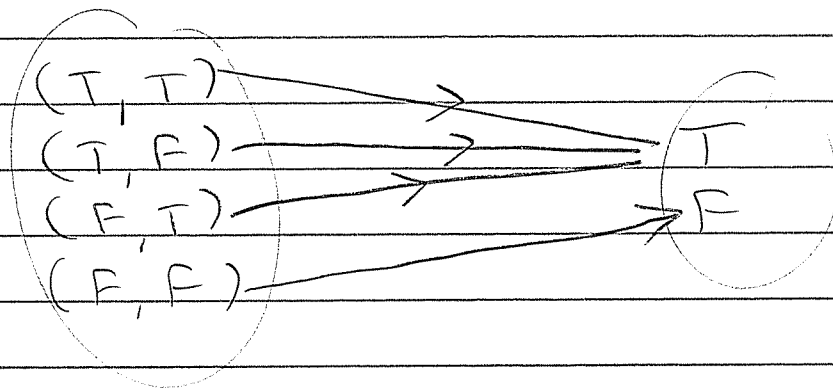
② AND : $\{T, F\}^2 \rightarrow \{T, F\}$



As a formula:

$$f(P, Q) = P \text{ AND } Q.$$

③ OR : $\{T, F\}^2 \rightarrow \{T, F\}$.



As a formula: $f(P, Q) := P \text{ OR } Q$.

We can combine AND, OR, NOT to form more complicated Boolean functions.

For example,

$$f(P, Q, R) = \text{NOT} (P \text{ OR} (Q \text{ AND} (P \text{ OR} R)))$$

These are called

"Boolean functions"

or

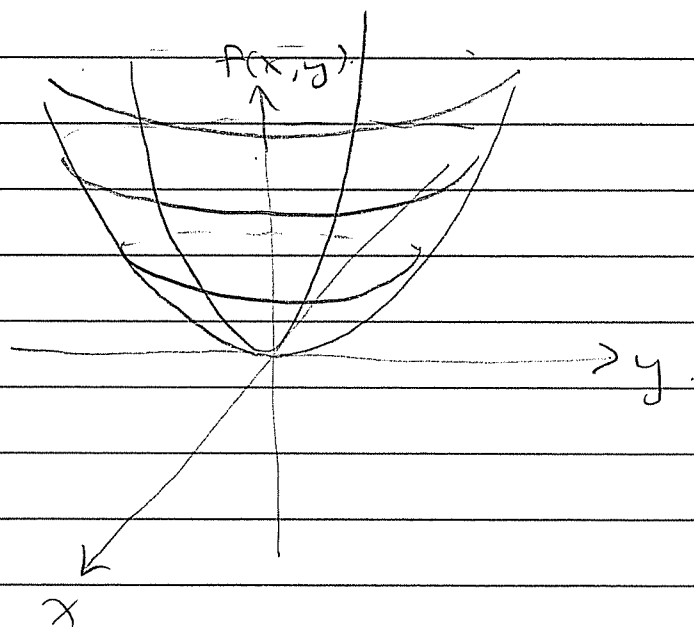
"Boolean polynomials"

Sometimes we visualize a function by drawing its graph (some picture of the set of arrows).

Example: Consider $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$.

If we visualize the arrow $(x, y) \rightarrow x^2 + y^2$ as the point $(x, y, x^2 + y^2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$

then the function looks like



a "paraboloid"

Q: What is the graph of a Boolean function ?

Answer: A "truth table".

The graph of $f(P, Q) = P \text{ OR } Q$ looks like

P	Q	P OR Q
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

Application: Prove that $f(P, Q) = \text{NOT}(P \text{ OR } Q)$
and $g(P, Q) = (\text{NOT } P) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } Q)$
are the same function.

P	Q	P OR Q	NOT(P OR Q)	NOT P	NOT Q	(NOT P) AND (NOT 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

This is called "de Morgan's Law".

$$\text{NOT}(P \text{ OR } Q) = (\text{NOT } P) \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } Q)$$

$$\text{NOT}(P \text{ AND } Q) = (\text{NOT } P) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } Q)$$

Terminology:

If two boolean functions are equal,
we say they are

logically equivalent

Example:

$P \Rightarrow Q$ and $(\text{NOT } Q) \Rightarrow (\text{NOT } P)$

are logically equivalent.

Wed Sept 18

HW 2 due Fri Sept 27

OH: Mon 2-3

Wed 3-4

Topic: What is a "number"?

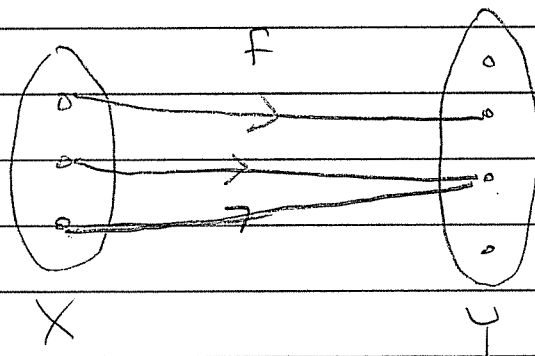
Recall: A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a set of arrows from X to Y satisfying

(F1) Every $x \in X$ has ≥ 1 arrows

(F2) Every $x \in X$ has ≤ 1 arrows.

(Together F1 & F2 say: Every $x \in X$ has exactly 1 arrow)

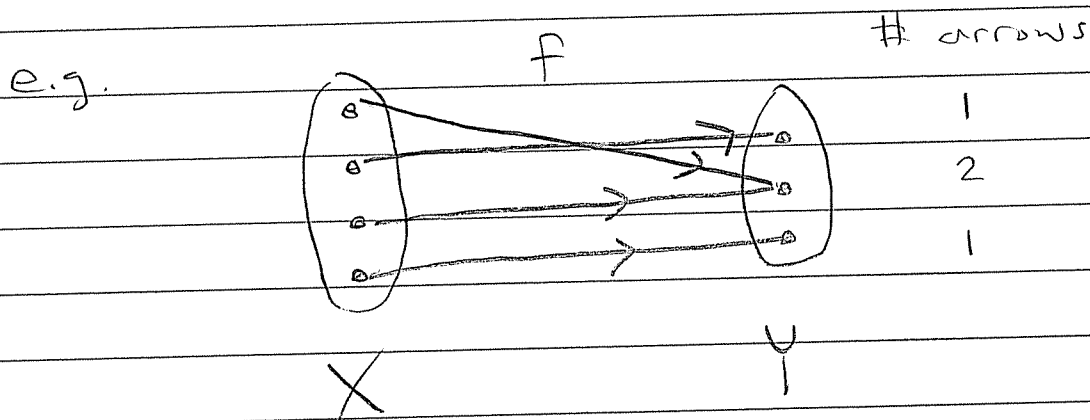
e.g.



Special kinds of Functions:

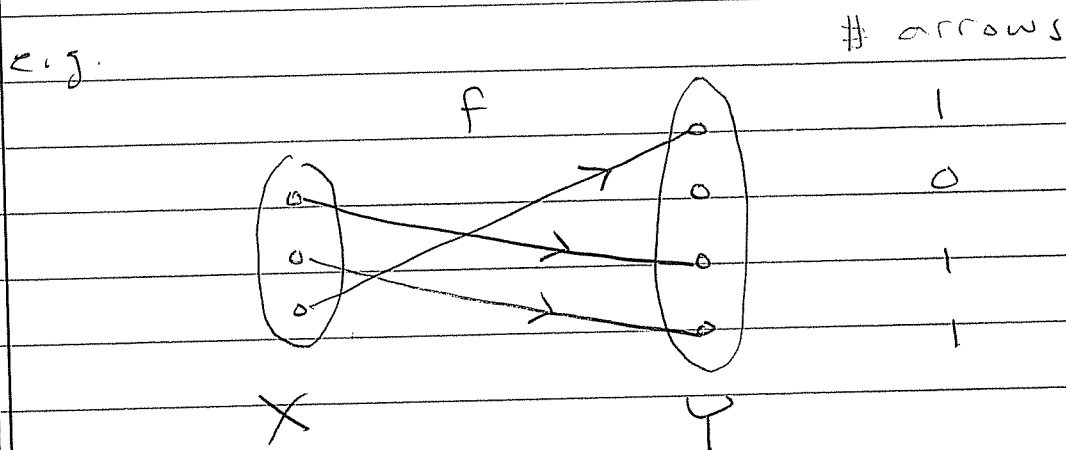
We say the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is surjective (or "onto") if it satisfies

(F3) Every $y \in Y$ has ≥ 1 arrows.



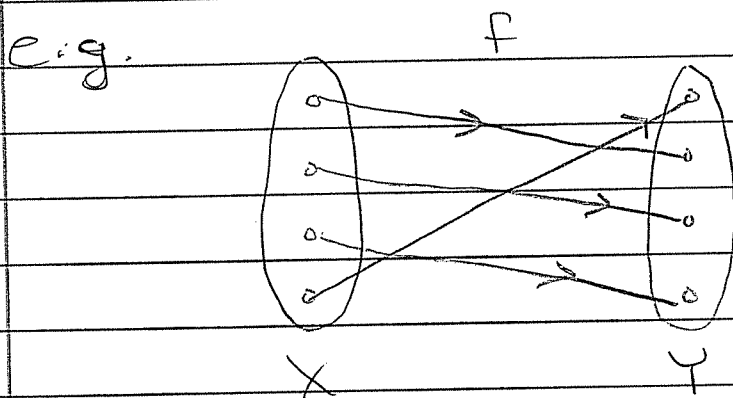
We say function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is injective (or "1-to-1") if it satisfies

(F4) Every $y \in Y$ has ≤ 1 arrows.

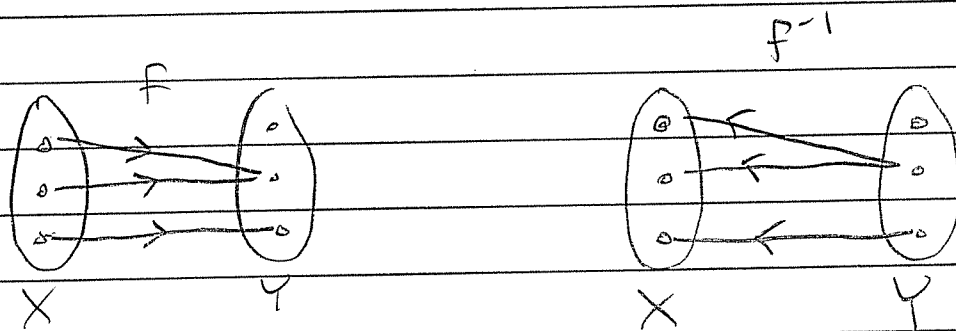


We say the function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is bijjective (or a "1-to-1 correspondence") if it satisfies both $P3$ & $P4$

i.e. Every $y \in Y$ has exactly 1 arrow.



If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a function, let $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ stand for the set of arrows with direction reversed.



a function

NOT a function
(Why?)


Q: When is $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ also a function?

Theorem:

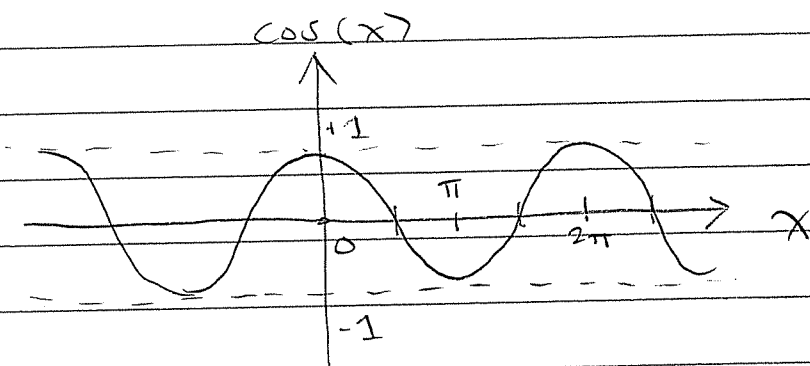
Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a function and let $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ be the set of reversed arrows.
Then

$f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ is \iff f is bijective,
a function

(In this case we say f is invertible).

Proof: $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$ satisfies the definition of "function" if and only if F3 & F4 are satisfied. 

Example: The "cosine" function $\cos: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.



Is cosine invertible? NO.

It is not surjective:

$2 \in \mathbb{R}$ has no arrow pointing to it
($\nexists x \in \mathbb{R}$ with $\cos(x) = 2$)

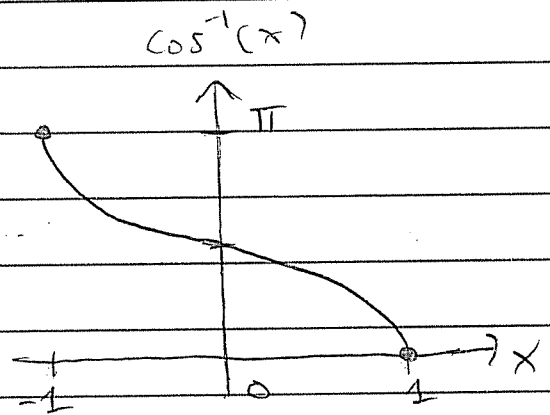
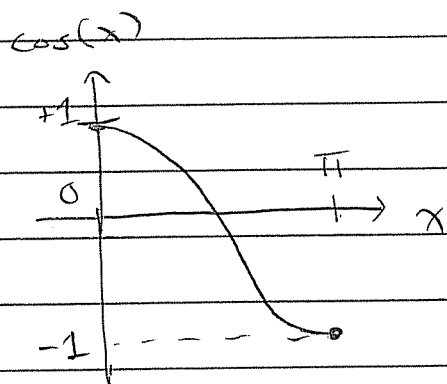
It is not injective:

$1 \in \mathbb{R}$ has ∞ many arrows pointing to it.
($\cos(2\pi k) = 1$ for all whole numbers k).

Can we fix it? Yes.

Restrict the domain and range.

$$\cos : [0, \pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$$



Now $\cos^{-1} : [-1, 1] \rightarrow [0, \pi]$ is a function.

(Is this what your calculator does?)

Let X and Y be finite sets

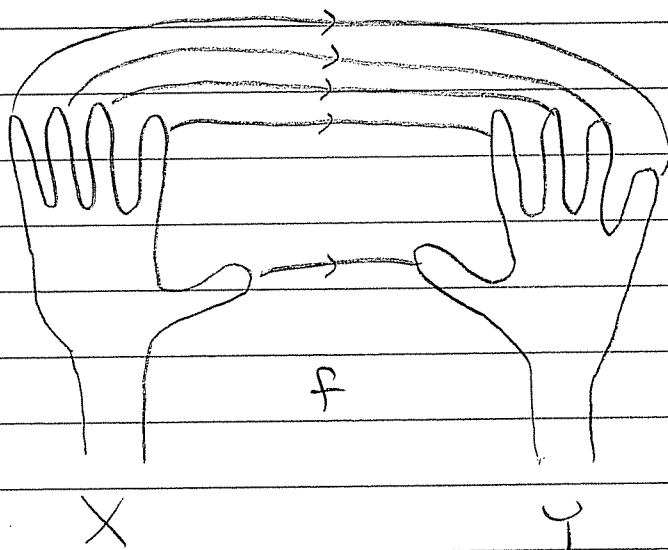
Q: When do X and Y have the same "number" of elements?

A: We say that $|X| = |Y|$ if

\exists a bijection $f: X \rightarrow Y$.

Q: How do I know my hands have the same "number" of fingers?

A: \exists a bijection



Thinking: So what is a "number"?

Fri Sept 20

HW 2 due Fri Sept 27

Recall: Descartes (1637) says

a point \equiv an ordered list of numbers.

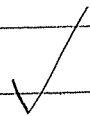
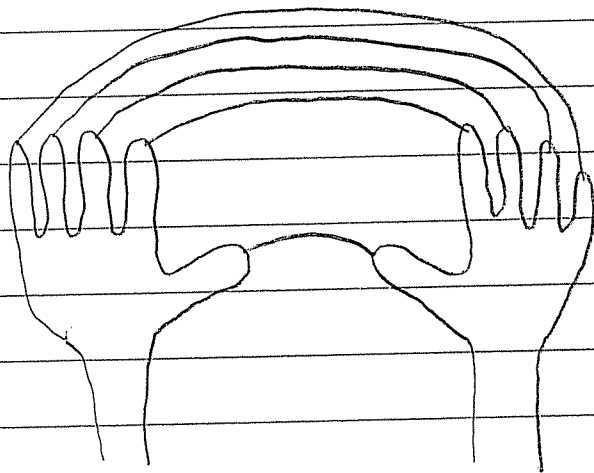
OK, Fine. But what is a "number"?

Today we will define the set \mathbb{Z}
of "integers" (whole numbers)

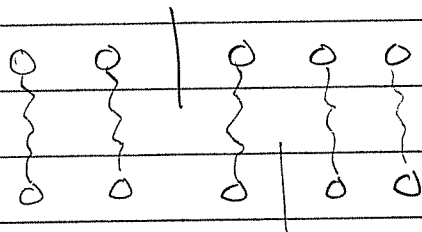
Step 1: A "number" is a quantity of discrete things (e.g. pebbles on a beach).

Two collections of things have the same "number" if \exists a bijection between them.

e.g.



"Numbers" can be added and multiplied



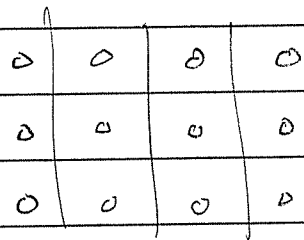
$$2 + 3 = 5$$

$$3 + 2 = 5$$

Theorem: Addition is commutative.

Proof: \exists a bijection. ▣

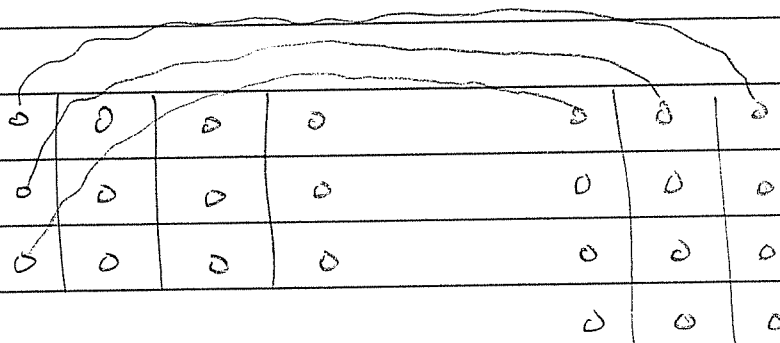
To multiply we arrange pebbles in a rectangle:



$$4 \times 3 = 12$$

Q: Is mult commutative? Yes!

Proof: \exists a bijection. (rotate 90°)



$$4 \times 3$$

=

$$3 \times 4$$

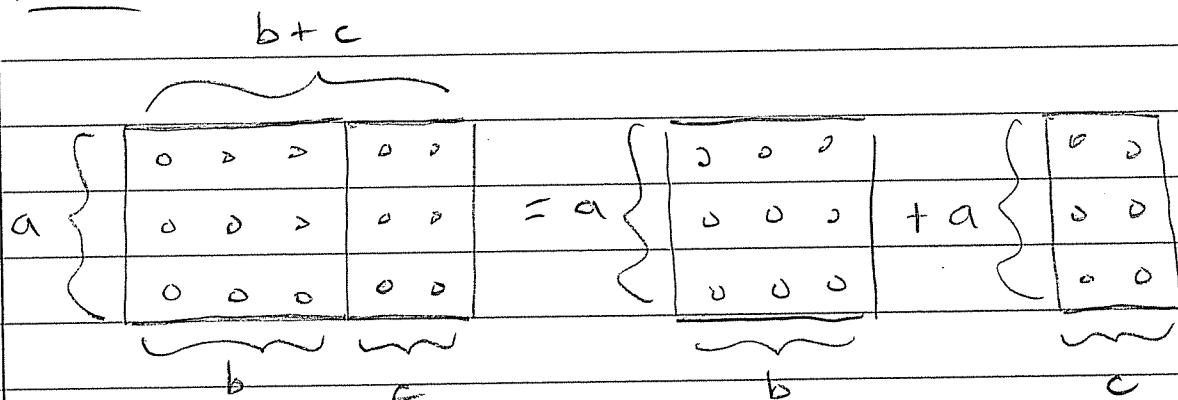


Q: How do $+$ and \times interact?

A: \times distributes over $+$

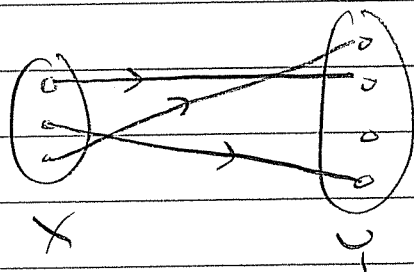
$$a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

Proof:



What about order? What does $a < b$ mean?

Given sets X and Y we say $|X| \leq |Y|$ if \exists an injection $f: X \rightarrow Y$.



We say $|X| < |Y|$ if $|X| \leq |Y|$ and $|X| \neq |Y|$

(\exists injection but \nexists bijection $X \rightarrow Y$)

Thus we can define the "natural numbers"
(i.e. the "counting numbers").

$$\mathbb{N} := \{ 1 < 2 < 3 < \dots \}$$

Q: Would a Martian know about \mathbb{N} ?

Leopold Kronecker (1823-1891) thought so.

Quote: "God made \mathbb{N} ; all else
is the work of man."

Over time the natural numbers \mathbb{N}
evolved into THE INTEGERS:

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{ \dots < -2 < -1 < 0 < 1 < 2 < \dots \}$$

\mathbb{Z} is for "Zahlen"
(to count)

See the handout.

- There are 12 axioms!
- The first 11 are "obvious", but they can't distinguish \mathbb{Z} from \mathbb{R} .

Q: What is the difference between \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{R} .

- This is a subtle question and it leads to the final axiom.

★ The Well-ordering Axiom ★

Every non-empty subset of \mathbb{N} has a smallest element.

[Formally:

" $\forall S \subseteq \mathbb{N}, S \neq \emptyset, \exists a \in S, \forall b \in S, a \leq b$ "

\forall = for all

\exists = there exists

\subseteq = is a subset of

\in = is an element of

\emptyset = the empty set

i.e. a is the smallest element of S

Application of Well-Ordering.

Theorem: There are no uninteresting natural numbers

Proof: Assume for contradiction that there is an uninteresting natural number and let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ be the set of such. Since $S \neq \emptyset$ (by assumption) the Well-Ordering Axiom says that S has a smallest element, say $a \in S$. But then a is "the smallest uninteresting number", which is interesting, contradicting the fact that $a \in S$. □

(I learned this theorem and proof from the audio commentary on a "Futurama" DVD.)

Mon Sept 23

HW 2 due this Friday

Exam 1 next Fri Oct 4

OH: Today 2-3

Wed 3-4

Last time we saw the definition of
the set of integers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{ \dots < -2 < -1 < 0 < 1 < 2 < \dots \}$$

It has 12 axioms. Recall the

Axioms of Addition:

(A1) $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, a + b = b + a$

addition is "commutative"

(A2) $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$

addition is "associative"

(A3) $\exists 0 \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 + a = a$

there is a special element called 0.
it is the "additive identity element"

$$(A4) \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists b \in \mathbb{Z}, a + b = 0$$

every integer has at least one
"additive inverse"

Wait a minute! Could $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ have
more than one additive inverse?

Theorem: Additive inverses are unique.

i.e. if $a + b_1 = 0 = a + b_2$ then $b_1 = b_2$.

Proof: Suppose that a has two additive
inverses, say $a + b_1 = 0 = a + b_2$.

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} b_1 &= 0 + b_1 && (A3) \\ &= b_1 + 0 && (A1) \\ &= b_1 + (a + b_2) && \text{assumption} \\ &= (b_1 + a) + b_2 && (A2) \\ &= (a + b_1) + b_2 && (A1) \\ &= 0 + b_2 && \text{assumption} \\ &= b_2 && (A3) \end{aligned}$$



Definition: Given $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, let " $-a$ " denote the unique additive inverse.

$$a + x = 0 \iff x = -a$$

This allows us to define the operation of subtraction. For all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ let

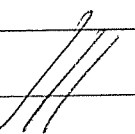
$$\begin{aligned} \text{"} a - b \text{"} &:= a + (-b) \\ & \text{(} a + \text{the additive inverse of } b \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

The axioms didn't tell us about subtraction... so what are its properties?

Theorem: $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have

- $a(b - c) = ab - ac$
- $-ab = (-a)b = a(-b)$
- $ab = (-a)(-b)$

Proof: You will prove this on HW 3



So we can add, subtract and multiply.

Q: what about division?

Claim: $\nexists n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $2n = 1$.

Hence 1 cannot be divided by 2.

Proof: This is harder than it looks.
It requires the Well-Ordering Axiom.

(Postponed)

Definition: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We say that "a divides b" and we write $a \mid b$ if

$\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $b = qa$.

Example:

$2 \mid 4$	$(4 = \textcircled{2} \cdot 2)$
$2 \mid 2$	$(2 = \textcircled{1} \cdot 2)$
$2 \nmid 1$	$(\text{by the above claim})$

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 1|a \quad (a = \underbrace{a}_{q} \cdot 1)$$

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a|0 \quad (0 = \underbrace{0}_{q} \cdot a)$$

$\forall 0 \neq a \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \nmid a$ because

$$a = q \cdot 0 \implies a = 0.$$

Q: How can we prove that $2 \nmid 1$?

We use "Division with Remainder".

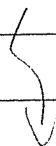
Theorem (2.12 in the text):

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$ we have

① $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = qb + r \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq r < b$$

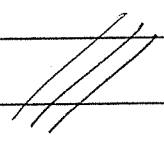
↑ ↑
"quotient" "remainder"



(2) The quotient and remainder are UNIQUE,
That is, if we have

$$a = q_1 b + r_1 \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b$$

and $a = q_2 b + r_2 \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq r_2 < b,$

it follows that $q_1 = q_2$ and $r_1 = r_2$ 

Proof Postponed.

Application: $2 \nmid 1$.

Proof: Suppose for contradiction that
 $2 \mid 1$, i.e., $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $1 = 2q$.

But then we have

$$1 = q \cdot 2 + 0 \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq 0 < 2$$

and $1 = 0 \cdot 2 + 1 \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq 1 < 2$

So Theorem 2.12 implies $0 = 1$.

Contradiction 

Theorem 2.12 is called the

"Division Algorithm"

Example: Divide 15 by 6.

$$15 = 2 \cdot 6 + 3 \quad \checkmark$$

$$15 = 3 \cdot 6 - 3 \quad \times$$

We require the remainder to satisfy

$$0 \leq r < 6$$

otherwise we don't call it the remainder

If the remainder satisfies $0 \leq r < 6$
then it exists and is unique

How to prove it?

wed Sept 25

Hw 2 due Fri (Fix Hint.)

Exam 1 next Fri Oct 4

O.H. Mon 2-3

Today 3-4

Today: The Division Algorithm.

Theorem (2.12 in the text):

Given integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$,

① $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = qb + r \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq r < |b|$$

② This q, r are UNIQUE, called "the" quotient and "the" remainder of a by b .

Before we prove this, what does it say?

Divide 14 by 6. ($q=2, r=2$)

$$14 = 3 \cdot 6 - 4 \times$$

$$= 2 \cdot 6 + 2 \checkmark \quad 0 \leq 2 < |6|$$

$$= 1 \cdot 6 + 8 \times$$

Divide -14 by 6 ($q = -3, r = 4$)

$$\begin{aligned} -14 &= -4 \cdot 6 + 10 \times \\ &= -3 \cdot 6 + 4 \checkmark & 0 \leq 4 < |6| \\ &= -2 \cdot 6 - 2 \times \\ &= -1 \cdot 6 - 8 \times \end{aligned}$$

Divide 14 by -6 ($q = -2, r = 2$)

$$\begin{aligned} 14 &= (-4)(-6) - 10 \times \\ &= (-3)(-6) - 4 \times \\ &= (-2)(-6) + 2 \checkmark & 0 \leq 2 < |-6| \\ &= (-1)(-6) + 8 \times \end{aligned}$$

Application of the Division Algorithm:

Every number is either even or odd,
not both. (even XOR odd).

Proof: Given $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, divide it by 2
to get

$$n = q \cdot 2 + r \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq r < 2$$

↓

IF $r = 0$ we say n is even.

IF $r = 1$ we say n is odd. □

Corollary: $2 \nmid 1$ (i.e. 1 is not even).

Proof: $1 = 0 \cdot 2 + 1$

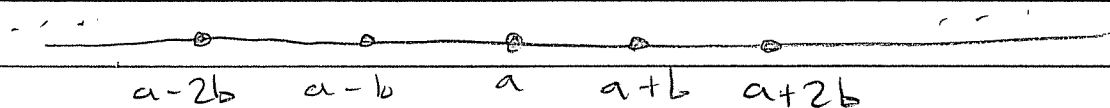
The remainder is not zero! □

Now let's prove the Division Theorem:

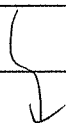
Consider $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$.

Easy to find $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a = qb + r$,
but can we do it with $0 \leq r < |b|$?

Let $S = \{a - qb : q \in \mathbb{Z}\}$



Let $S^+ = \{n \in S : n \geq 0\}$ be the
non-negative elements of S



Since $S^+ \in \mathbb{N}$ and $S^+ \neq \emptyset$ (why?)
The Well-ordering Axiom says S^+
has a smallest element.

Call it $r \in S^+$.

By definition of S , $r = a - qb$ for some q .

$$a = qb + r.$$

Check that $0 \leq r < |b|$. Suppose not,
i.e. suppose $r \geq |b|$. Then we have

$$r - |b| \geq |b| - |b| = 0$$

$$\text{and } r - |b| = a - qb - |b| = a - (q \pm 1)b$$

hence $r - |b| \in S^+$. But $r - |b| < r$
contradicts the fact that r is the
smallest element of S^+ .

We conclude that $a = qb + r$
with $0 \leq r < |b|$.



" q, r EXIST."

But are they UNIQUE?

Suppose that

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a = q_1 b + r_1 \\ 0 \leq r_1 < |b| \end{array} \right\} \text{ and } \left. \begin{array}{l} a = q_2 b + r_2 \\ 0 \leq r_2 < |b| \end{array} \right\}$$

We claim that $q_1 = q_2$ and $r_1 = r_2$.

Suppose NOT, i.e. suppose that $r_1 \neq r_2$,
say $r_1 < r_2$. Then we have

$$(*) \quad 0 = r_2 - r_1 < r_2 - r_1 \leq r_2 < |b|$$

$$\text{But } q_1 b + r_1 = a = q_2 b + r_2.$$

$$\implies q_1 b - q_2 b = r_2 - r_1$$

$$\implies (q_1 - q_2) b = (r_2 - r_1)$$

$$\implies b \mid (r_2 - r_1).$$

By HW 2.2(b) this implies

$$|b| \leq |r_2 - r_1| = r_2 - r_1.$$

contradicting (*).

Hence $r_1 = r_2$ and.

$$(q_1 - q_2)b = r_2 - r_1 = 0.$$

Since $b \neq 0$ we get $q_1 - q_2 = 0$
 $q_1 = q_2$



That's a real theorem!

Fri Sept 27

HW 2 due Now

Exam 1 next Fri Oct 4.

- closed book

- no cheating.

(Look at last year's exam)

Today: Discuss HW 2.

Important Fact:

Let n be a positive integer. Then the set \mathbb{Z} breaks up into n disjoint pieces.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } [a]_n &:= \{ nk + a : \text{for some } k \in \mathbb{Z} \} \\ &= \{ \dots, a-2n, a-n, a, a+n, a+2n, \dots \} \end{aligned}$$

Then we have

$$\mathbb{Z} = [0]_n \cup [1]_n \cup \dots \cup [n-1]_n$$

disjoint union
"partition"

Example

$$\mathbb{Z} = [0]_3 \cup [1]_3 \cup [2]_3$$

"Every integer has the form

$$3k+0, \text{ or } 3k+1, \text{ or } 3k+2$$

for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$."

Proof?

Given $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, divide n by 3.
The Division Algorithm says the remainder is UNIQUE.

$$\mathbb{Z} = [0]_3 \cup [1]_3 \cup [2]_3$$

↑ ↑ ↑

numbers that	rem. 1	rem. 2
have rem. 0	"	"
when divided		
by 3		

Application: Prove that for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$"3 \mid n^2" \implies "3 \mid n"$$

Proof: We will show the contrapositive,

$$"3 \nmid n" \implies "3 \nmid n^2",$$

which is equivalent. So, assume that $3 \nmid n$ (i.e. n is not of the form $3k + 0$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$).

There are two cases:

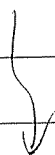
Case 1: $n = 3k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} n^2 &= (3k+1)^2 = 9k^2 + 6k + 1 \\ &= 3(3k^2 + 2k) + 1, \end{aligned}$$

which is not of the form $3(\text{something}) + 0$.

Hence $3 \nmid n^2$.



Case 2: $n = 3k + 2$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}n^2 &= (3k+2)^2 = 9k^2 + 12k + 4 \\&= 9k^2 + 12k + 3 + 1 \\&= 3(3k^2 + 4k + 1) + 1.\end{aligned}$$

which is not $3(\text{something}) + 0$.

Hence $3 \nmid n^2$.



Recall that " $a|b$ " is really an existence statement

$$"a|b" = "\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}, b = qa"$$

Q: What does " $a \nmid b$ " mean formally?

$$"a \nmid b" = \text{NOT } "a|b"$$

$$= "\forall q \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq qa"$$

This is a universal statement.

Logical Principle :

NOT " $\exists x \in S$, property $P(x)$ holds "

||

" $\forall x \in S$, property NOT $P(x)$ holds "

(NOT exchanges $\exists \leftrightarrow \forall$)

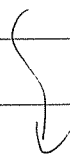
Exercise : Prove that $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

" $5 \nmid n$ " \implies " $5 \nmid n^2$ "

Use this to prove that $\sqrt{5}$ is not a fraction of integers.

Q : Is the following true ?

$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$, " $12 \nmid n$ " \implies " $12 \nmid n^2$ "



A: NO!

Because if $n = 12k + 6$ then $12 \nmid n$.

But

$$n^2 = (12k + 6)^2 = 144k^2 + 144k + 36$$

$$= 12(12k^2 + 12k + 3) + 0,$$

hence $12 \mid n^2$, which is bad.

" $12 \nmid n$ " \Rightarrow " $12 \nmid n^2$ " for some n .

T

F

oops!

We showed that

$\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}, "12 \nmid n" \not\Rightarrow "12 \nmid n^2"$

which is the opposite of

$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, "12 \nmid n" \Rightarrow "12 \nmid n^2"$

Nevertheless:

It is still true that $\sqrt{12}$ is not a fraction,
but our favorite proof fails.

Problem: Find new proof.

Idea: $\sqrt{12} = \sqrt{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} = 2\sqrt{3}$

Mon Sept 30

Exam 1 this Friday.

Today: Discussion & Review

Problem: Prove that $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have.

" $(m \text{ is even OR } n \text{ is even}) \Leftrightarrow mn \text{ is even}$ "

How?

Let $P = "m \text{ is even}"$

$Q = "n \text{ is even}"$

$R = "mn \text{ is even}"$

Want to show $(P \text{ OR } Q) \Rightarrow R$

i.e. $(P \text{ OR } Q) \Rightarrow R$ ①

and $R \Rightarrow (P \text{ OR } Q)$. ②

Must prove ① & ② separately.

Proof of ①: $(P \text{ OR } Q) \Rightarrow R$.

Assume that $P \text{ OR } Q$ i.e. assume m is even or n is even.

There are three cases:

- m even, n odd $\Rightarrow mn$ even
- m odd, n even $\Rightarrow mn$ even
- m even, n even $\Rightarrow mn$ even.

Can we do it without cases? Yes.

Use a truth table to show.

$$"(P \vee Q) \Rightarrow R" \equiv "(P \Rightarrow R) \wedge (Q \Rightarrow R)"$$

To prove (1) we will prove.

$$P \Rightarrow R \quad \text{i.e.} \quad m \text{ even} \Rightarrow mn \text{ even} \quad \checkmark$$

and

$$Q \Rightarrow R \quad \text{i.e.} \quad n \text{ even} \Rightarrow mn \text{ even} \quad \checkmark$$

Easy.

Next try to prove (2)

$$R \Rightarrow (P \text{ OR } Q)$$

$$mn \text{ even} \Rightarrow (m \text{ even or } n \text{ even})$$

So assume that mn is even.

Now what?

Try the contrapositive

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

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

$$[m \text{ odd and } n \text{ odd}] \Rightarrow mn \text{ odd.}$$

So assume m, n both odd. i.e.

$\exists k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$m = 2k + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad n = 2l + 1. \quad \text{Then}$$

$$\begin{aligned} mn &= (2k+1)(2l+1) = 4kl + 2k + 2l + 1 \\ &= 2(2kl + k + l) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

is odd. \checkmark Done.

Another proof of (2):

Use a truth table to show that

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

i.e. $(mn \text{ even and } m \text{ odd}) \Rightarrow n \text{ even.}$

Proof: Assume mn is even and m is odd.

Assume (for contradiction) that n is odd. Then we have

$m \text{ odd AND } n \text{ odd} \Rightarrow mn \text{ odd,}$

which contradicts the fact that mn is even.



Problem: Prove that 3^n is odd for all integers $n \geq 1$.

How?

$$3 = 2 \cdot 1 + 1 \text{ is odd.}$$

$$3^2 = 9 = 2 \cdot 4 + 1 \text{ is odd.}$$

$$3^3 = 27 = 2 \cdot 13 + 1 \text{ is odd.}$$

$$3^4 = ? = 3 \cdot 3^3$$

$$= (\text{odd})(\text{odd}) = \text{odd} \quad \checkmark$$

I can't go on forever.

Try an indirect proof:

Assume for contradiction that 3^n is even for some $n \geq 1$

" $\exists n \geq 1, 3^n$ is even"

\downarrow

[Recall

"NOT ($\forall n \geq 1, 3^n$ is odd)"

= " $\exists n \geq 1, 3^n$ is even"]

Let $S = \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \geq 1, 3^n \text{ even} \}$.

By assumption $S \neq \emptyset$ so by well-ordering, S has a smallest element. Call it $m \in S$

i.e. 3^m is even
 3^{m-1} is odd.

But then

$$\begin{aligned} 3^m &= 3 \cdot 3^{m-1} \\ &= (\text{odd})(\text{odd}) = \text{odd}. \end{aligned}$$

Contradiction!

$\Rightarrow 3^n$ is odd $\forall n \geq 1$



Wed Oct 2

Exam 1 Friday In Class

- closed book / phone / etc.
- no cheating

==

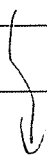
Today: Review.

- We are interested in proving theorems.
- To prove anything one must first have

Definitions & Axioms

to work with

- we use tools of logic to deduce theorems from the definitions and axioms.
- The original axioms (Euclid, ~300 BC) talked about points, lines & circles.
- Modern axioms talk about sets and numbers (\mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , etc.)



- In practice, we don't reduce theorems all the way to the axioms;

we just try to convince the audience (and ourselves) that we could if we wanted to (and had enough time).

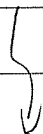
Topics:

- ① Geometry
- ② Logic
- ③ Numbers

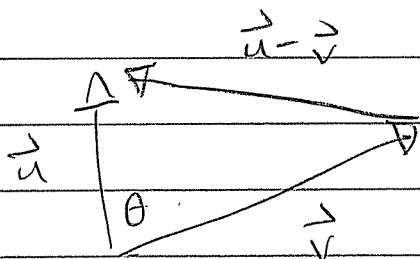
① Modern geometry is based on Cartesian coordinates and the dot product

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \cdot (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$$

$$:= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$



Given two vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ consider the triangle:



Theorem:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$

Proof: Use algebra to show

$$(*) \quad \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2 - 2(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})$$

Now use the Law of Cosines

Corollary: We have

$$\vec{u} \perp \vec{v} \iff \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

(i.e. $\theta = 90^\circ$)

[The Corollary is equivalent to the Pythagorean Theorem and its converse.]

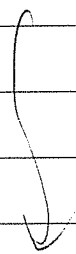
Proof of Corollary:

First we show $\vec{u} \perp \vec{v} \Rightarrow \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$.

So assume $\vec{u} \perp \vec{v}$, i.e. $\theta = 90^\circ$. Then Pythagoras says $\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2$. Then (*) implies $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$.

Next we show $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{u} \perp \vec{v}$.

So assume $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$. Then (*) says $\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2$. Then the converse of Pythagoras says $\vec{u} \perp \vec{v}$.



(2) Logic.

Basic Operations

AND, OR, NOT, \Rightarrow

Let's show that

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

Proof:

P	Q	NOT Q	P AND NOT Q	P \Rightarrow Q	NOT(P \Rightarrow Q)
T	T	F	F	T	F
T	F	T	T	F	T
F	T	F	F	T	F
F	F	T	F	T	F

///

Useful Facts.

• "P \Leftrightarrow Q" \equiv "(P \Rightarrow Q) AND (Q \Rightarrow P)"

• "NOT (P OR Q)" \equiv "NOT P AND NOT Q"

"NOT (P AND Q)" \equiv "NOT P OR NOT Q".

• "P \Rightarrow Q" \equiv "NOT Q \Rightarrow NOT P".

Disprove the statement

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 > 0 \Rightarrow x > 0.$$

i.e. Prove the statement

$$\text{NOT} \left(\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 > 0 \Rightarrow x > 0 \right)$$

$$\equiv \exists x \in \mathbb{R}, \text{NOT} (x^2 > 0 \Rightarrow x > 0).$$

$$\equiv \exists x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 > 0 \text{ AND } x \leq 0.$$

To prove \exists it is sufficient to give one example.

Let $x = -1$. Then

$$(-1)^2 = +1 > 0 \text{ AND } -1 \leq 0$$



③ Numbers.

Theorem (The Division Algorithm):

$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$.

• $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with

– $a = qb + r$

– $0 \leq r < |b|$.

• These q, r are unique, i.e. if

$a = q_1 b + r_1$ and $a = q_2 b + r_2$

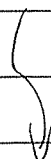
$0 \leq r_1 < |b|$

$0 \leq r_2 < |b|$

Then $q_1 = q_2$ and $r_1 = r_2$

==
Know what it says.

Know how to use it.



Example: Prove that $2 \nmid 1$. i.e.

$$\forall q \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \neq 2q.$$

Proof: Assume for contradiction that $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 = 2q$.

Then we have

$$\begin{array}{l} 1 = 2q + 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 1 = 2 \cdot 0 + 1 \\ 0 \leq 0 < |2| \quad \quad \quad 0 \leq 1 < |2| \end{array}$$

So the Division Algo. $\implies 0 = 1$.
Contradiction



Warning:

Avoid the notation $\frac{a}{b}$
when you are trying to talk
about integers \mathbb{Z} .

Good Reason: We never defined $\frac{a}{b}$.