

**Economics 204 Summer/Fall 2018**  
**Lecture 1—Monday July 23, 2018**

**Section 1.2. Methods of Proof**

We begin by looking at the notion of proof. What is a proof? “Proof” has a formal definition in mathematical logic, and a formal proof is long and unreadable. In practice, you need to learn to recognize a proof when you see one.

We will begin by discussing four main methods of proof that you will encounter frequently:

- deduction
- contraposition
- induction
- contradiction

We look at each in turn.

**Proof by Deduction:**

A proof by deduction is composed of a list of statements, the last of which is the statement to be proven. Each statement in the list is either

- an axiom: a fundamental assumption about mathematics, or part of definition of the object under study; or
- a previously established theorem; or
- follows from previous statements in the list by a valid rule of inference

**Example:** Prove that the function  $f(x) = x^2$  is continuous at  $x = 5$ .

Recall from one-variable calculus that  $f(x) = x^2$  is continuous at  $x = 5$  means

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x - 5| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(5)| < \varepsilon$$

That is, “for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that whenever  $x$  is within  $\delta$  of 5,  $f(x)$  is within  $\varepsilon$  of  $f(5)$ .”

To prove the claim, we must systematically verify that this definition is satisfied.

**Proof:** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Let

$$\delta = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\varepsilon}{11} \right\} > 0$$

Why??

Suppose  $|x - 5| < \delta$ . Since  $\delta \leq 1$ ,  $4 < x < 6$ , so  $9 < x + 5 < 11$  and  $|x + 5| < 11$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(5)| &= |x^2 - 25| \\ &= |(x + 5)(x - 5)| \\ &= |x + 5||x - 5| \\ &< 11 \cdot \delta \\ &\leq 11 \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{11} \\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have shown that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - 5| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(5)| < \varepsilon$ , so  $f(x) = x^2$  is continuous at  $x = 5$ . ■

### Proof by Contraposition:

First recall some basics of logic.

$\neg P$  means “ $P$  is false.”

$P \wedge Q$  means “ $P$  is true *and*  $Q$  is true.”

$P \vee Q$  means “ $P$  is true *or*  $Q$  is true (or possibly both).”

$\neg P \wedge Q$  means  $(\neg P) \wedge Q$ ;  $\neg P \vee Q$  means  $(\neg P) \vee Q$ .

$P \Rightarrow Q$  means “whenever  $P$  is satisfied,  $Q$  is also satisfied.”

Formally,  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is equivalent to  $\neg P \vee Q$ .

The *contrapositive* of the statement  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is the statement

$$\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$$

These are logically equivalent, as we prove below.

**Theorem 1**  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is true if and only if  $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$  is true.

**Proof:** Suppose  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is true. Then either  $P$  is false, or  $Q$  is true (or possibly both). Therefore, either  $\neg P$  is true, or  $\neg Q$  is false (or possibly both), so  $\neg(\neg Q) \vee (\neg P)$  is true,  $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$  is true.

Conversely, suppose  $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$  is true. Then either  $\neg Q$  is false, or  $\neg P$  is true (or possibly both), so either  $Q$  is true, or  $P$  is false (or possibly both), so  $\neg P \vee Q$  is true, so  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is true. ■

So to prove a statement  $P \Rightarrow Q$ , it is equivalent to prove the contrapositive  $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$ . See de la Fuente for an example of the use of proof by contraposition.

### Proof by Induction:

We illustrate with an example.

**Theorem 2** For every  $n \in \mathbf{N}_0 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

i.e.  $1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .

#### Proof:

**Base step**  $n = 0$ : The left hand side (LHS) above  $= \sum_{k=1}^0 k =$  the empty sum  $= 0$ . The right hand side (RHS)  $= \frac{0 \cdot 1}{2} = 0$  so the claim is true for  $n = 0$ .

**Induction step:** Suppose

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \text{ for some } n \geq 0$$

We must show that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k = \frac{(n+1)((n+1)+1)}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n k + (n+1) \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (n+1) \text{ by the Induction hypothesis} \\ &= (n+1) \left( \frac{n}{2} + 1 \right) \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} \\ \text{RHS} &= \frac{(n+1)((n+1)+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} \\ &= \text{LHS} \end{aligned}$$

so by mathematical induction,  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}_0$ . ■

### Proof by Contradiction:

A proof by contradiction proves a statement by assuming its negation is true and working until reaching a contradiction. Again we illustrate with an example.

**Theorem 3** *There is no rational number  $q$  such that  $q^2 = 2$ .*

**Proof:** Suppose  $q^2 = 2$ ,  $q \in \mathbf{Q}$ . We can write  $q = \frac{m}{n}$  for some integers  $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Moreover, we can assume that  $m$  and  $n$  have no common factor; if they did, we could divide it out.<sup>1</sup>

$$2 = q^2 = \frac{m^2}{n^2}$$

Therefore,  $m^2 = 2n^2$ , so  $m^2$  is even.

We claim that  $m$  is even. If not<sup>2</sup>, then  $m$  is odd, so  $m = 2p + 1$  for some  $p \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Then

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

which is odd, contradiction. Therefore,  $m$  is even, so  $m = 2r$  for some  $r \in \mathbf{Z}$ .

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

so  $n^2$  is even, which implies (by the argument given above) that  $n$  is even. Therefore,  $n = 2s$  for some  $s \in \mathbf{Z}$ , so  $m$  and  $n$  have a common factor, namely 2, contradiction. Therefore, there is no rational number  $q$  such that  $q^2 = 2$ . ■

### Section 1.3 Equivalence Relations

**Definition 4** A *binary relation*  $R$  from  $X$  to  $Y$  is a subset  $R \subseteq X \times Y$ . We write  $xRy$  if  $(x, y) \in R$  and “not  $xRy$ ” if  $(x, y) \notin R$ .  $R \subseteq X \times X$  is a *binary relation on  $X$* .

**Example:** Suppose  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is a function from  $X$  to  $Y$ . The binary relation  $R \subseteq X \times Y$  defined by

$$xRy \iff f(x) = y$$

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<sup>1</sup>This is actually a subtle point. We are using the fact that the expression of a natural number as a product of primes is unique.

<sup>2</sup>This is a proof by contradiction within a proof by contradiction!

is exactly the graph of the function  $f$ . A function can be considered a binary relation  $R$  from  $X$  to  $Y$  such that for each  $x \in X$  there exists exactly one  $y \in Y$  such that  $(x, y) \in R$ .

**Example:** Suppose  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $R$  is the binary relation on  $X$  given by  $R = \{(1, 1), (2, 1), (2, 2), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3)\}$ . This is the binary relation “is weakly greater than,” or  $\geq$ .

**Definition 5** A binary relation  $R$  on  $X$  is

- (i) *reflexive* if  $\forall x \in X, xRx$
- (ii) *symmetric* if  $\forall x, y \in X, xRy \Leftrightarrow yRx$
- (iii) *transitive* if  $\forall x, y, z \in X, (xRy \wedge yRz) \Rightarrow xRz$

**Definition 6** A binary relation  $R$  on  $X$  is an *equivalence relation* if it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

**Definition 7** Given an equivalence relation  $R$  on  $X$ , write

$$[x] = \{y \in X : xRy\}$$

$[x]$  is called the *equivalence class containing  $x$* .

The set of equivalence classes is the *quotient* of  $X$  with respect to  $R$ , denoted  $X/R$ .

**Example:** The binary relation  $\geq$  on  $\mathbf{R}$  is not an equivalence relation because it is not symmetric.

**Example:** Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$  and  $R = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c), (c, d), (d, c), (d, d)\}$ .  $R$  is an equivalence relation (why?) and the equivalence classes of  $R$  are  $\{a, b\}$  and  $\{c, d\}$ .  $X/R = \{\{a, b\}, \{c, d\}\}$

The following theorem shows that the equivalence classes of an equivalence relation form a *partition* of  $X$ : every element of  $X$  belongs to exactly one equivalence class.

**Theorem 8** Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on  $X$ . Then  $\forall x \in X, x \in [x]$ .

Given  $x, y \in X$ , either  $[x] = [y]$  or  $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ .

**Proof:** If  $x \in X$ , then  $xRx$  because  $R$  is reflexive, so  $x \in [x]$ .

Suppose  $x, y \in X$ . If  $[x] \cap [y] = \emptyset$ , we’re done. So suppose  $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$ . We must show that  $[x] = [y]$ , i.e. that the elements of  $[x]$  are exactly the same as the elements of  $[y]$ .

Choose  $z \in [x] \cap [y]$ . Then  $z \in [x]$ , so  $xRz$ . By symmetry,  $zRx$ . Also  $z \in [y]$ , so  $yRz$ . By symmetry again,  $zRy$ . Now choose  $w \in [x]$ . By definition,  $xRw$ . Since  $zRx$  and  $R$  is transitive,  $zRw$ . By symmetry,  $wRz$ . Since  $zRy$ ,  $wRy$  by transitivity again. By symmetry,  $yRw$ , so  $w \in [y]$ , which shows that  $[x] \subseteq [y]$ . Similarly,  $[y] \subseteq [x]$ , so  $[x] = [y]$ . ■

## Section 1.4 Cardinality

**Definition 9** Two sets  $A, B$  are *numerically equivalent* (or *have the same cardinality*) if there is a bijection  $f : A \rightarrow B$ , that is, a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  that is 1-1 ( $a \neq a' \Rightarrow f(a) \neq f(a')$ ), and onto ( $\forall b \in B \exists a \in A$  s.t.  $f(a) = b$ ).

Roughly speaking, if two sets have the same cardinality then elements of the sets can be uniquely matched up and paired off.

A set is either finite or infinite. A set is *finite* if it is numerically equivalent to  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  for some  $n$ . A set that is not finite is *infinite*.

For example, the set  $A = \{2, 4, 6, \dots, 50\}$  is numerically equivalent to the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, 25\}$  under the function  $f(n) = 2n$ . In particular, this shows that  $A$  is finite. The set  $B = \{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, \dots\} = \{n^2 : n \in \mathbf{N}\}$  is numerically equivalent to  $\mathbf{N}$  and is infinite.

An infinite set is either countable or uncountable. A set is *countable* if it is numerically equivalent to the set of natural numbers  $\mathbf{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ . An infinite set that is not countable is called *uncountable*.

**Example:** The set of integers  $\mathbf{Z}$  is countable.

$$\mathbf{Z} = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, \dots\}$$

Define  $f : \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} f(1) &= 0 \\ f(2) &= 1 \\ f(3) &= -1 \\ &\vdots \\ f(n) &= (-1)^n \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor \end{aligned}$$

where  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  is the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$ . It is straightforward to verify that  $f$  is one-to-one and onto.

Notice  $\mathbf{Z} \supset \mathbf{N}$  but  $\mathbf{Z} \neq \mathbf{N}$ ; indeed,  $\mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{N}$  is infinite! So statements like “One half of the elements of  $\mathbf{Z}$  are in  $\mathbf{N}$ ” are not meaningful.

**Theorem 10** *The set of rational numbers  $\mathbf{Q}$  is countable.*

“Picture Proof”:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Q} &= \left\{ \frac{m}{n} : m, n \in \mathbf{Z}, n \neq 0 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \frac{m}{n} : m \in \mathbf{Z}, n \in \mathbf{N} \right\}\end{aligned}$$

		$m$				
		0	1	-1	2	-2
1		0	→ 1	-1	→ 2	-2
			↙		↘	
2		0	↘ ½	-½	↘ 1	-1
			↓		↗	
$n$ 3		0	↘ ⅓	-⅓	↘ ⅔	-⅔
			↙		↘	
4		0	↘ ¼	-¼	↘ ½	-½
			↓		↗	
5		0	↘ ⅕	-⅕	↘ ⅔	-⅔

Go back and forth on upward-sloping diagonals, omitting the repeats:

$$\begin{aligned}f(1) &= 0 \\ f(2) &= 1 \\ f(3) &= \frac{1}{2} \\ f(4) &= -1 \\ &\vdots\end{aligned}$$

$f : \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}$ ,  $f$  is one-to-one and onto.

Notice that although  $\mathbf{Q}$  appears to be much larger than  $\mathbf{N}$ , in fact they are the same size.