

Lecture 5

Proof techniques

▷ Proofs

Basic schemes of proof

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

AM-GM inequality

Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality

Differentiability implies continuity

Differentiability implies continuity

Differentiability implies continuity

Proof by contraposition

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

Parity

Divisibility

Non-zero integral

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Euclid's theorem

Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

The triangle inequality

Proofs

In this lecture we will discuss basic proof techniques:

In this lecture we will discuss basic proof techniques:

- Direct proof

In this lecture we will discuss basic proof techniques:

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition

In this lecture we will discuss basic proof techniques:

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction

Basic schemes of proof

In this lecture we will discuss basic proof techniques:

- Direct proof
- Proof by contraposition
- Proof by contradiction
- Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

The rule of logical deduction

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

is called **modus ponens**.

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

The rule of logical deduction

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

is called **modus ponens**.

Method: Assume (let) P .

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

The rule of logical deduction

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

is called **modus ponens**.

Method: Assume (let) P . Then ...

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

The rule of logical deduction

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

is called **modus ponens**.

Method: Assume (let) P . Then ... Then ...

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

The rule of logical deduction

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

is called **modus ponens**.

Method: Assume (let) P . Then ... Then ... Therefore, Q .

Direct proof (modus ponens)

Idea: If P is true and $P \implies Q$, then Q is also true.

Logical justification: $(P \wedge (P \implies Q)) \implies Q$ is a tautology.

The rule of logical deduction

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

is called **modus ponens**.

Method: Assume (let) P . Then ... Then ... Therefore, Q .

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work “backwards”:

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work “backwards”:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$$

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work “backwards”:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab}$$

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work "backwards":

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work "backwards":

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$

$$\implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work "backwards":

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$

$$\implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Is this a proof?

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work "backwards":

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$

$$\implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Is this a proof? NO !

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work "backwards":

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$

$$\implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Is this a proof? NO ! Can we reverse the implications?

Arithmetic mean and geometric mean

Example 1. Show that $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ for any non-negative real numbers a, b .

Remark. $\frac{a+b}{2}$ is called the **arithmetic mean** (AM) of numbers a, b .

\sqrt{ab} is called the **geometric mean** (GM) of numbers a, b .

Discussion. We have to prove that $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R} \left(a, b \geq 0 \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \right)$.

It's difficult to get $\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$ directly from $a, b \geq 0$, though.

Let us work "backwards":

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Is this a proof? NO ! Can we reverse the implications? Yes!

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$
$$\implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0$$

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0$$

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab}$$

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab}$$

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

Proof.

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

Proof. Let $a, b \geq 0$.

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a,b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0$$

$$\implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

Proof. Let $a, b \geq 0$. Then $a = b \iff (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 = 0 \iff a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b = 0$

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{\substack{\uparrow \\ a, b \geq 0}} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

Proof. Let $a, b \geq 0$. Then $a = b \iff (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 = 0 \iff a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b = 0$
 $\iff \frac{a+b}{2} = \sqrt{ab}$

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

Proof. Let $a, b \geq 0$. Then $a = b \iff (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 = 0 \iff a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b = 0$

$$\iff \frac{a+b}{2} = \sqrt{ab} \iff AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$$

AM-GM inequality

Recall backwards arguments:

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \implies a+b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \xRightarrow{a, b \geq 0} (\sqrt{a})^2 + (\sqrt{b})^2 - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} \geq 0 \implies (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0.$$

Theorem. *The arithmetic mean of two non-negative numbers is greater than or equal to their geometric mean.*

Proof. Take any non-negative real numbers a and b . Then

$$(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \geq 0 \implies a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b \geq 0 \implies a + b \geq 2\sqrt{ab} \implies \frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab},$$

as required. \square

Corollary. $AM(a, b) = GM(a, b)$ iff $a = b$.

This is the **Extremal Property** of the inequality $AM \geq GM$.

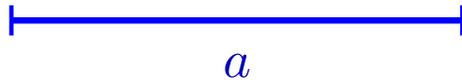
Proof. Let $a, b \geq 0$. Then $a = b \iff (\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 = 0 \iff a - 2\sqrt{a}\sqrt{b} + b = 0$

$$\iff \frac{a+b}{2} = \sqrt{ab} \iff AM(a, b) = GM(a, b),$$

as required. \square

Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality

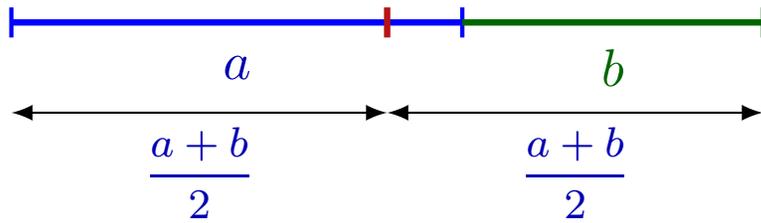
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



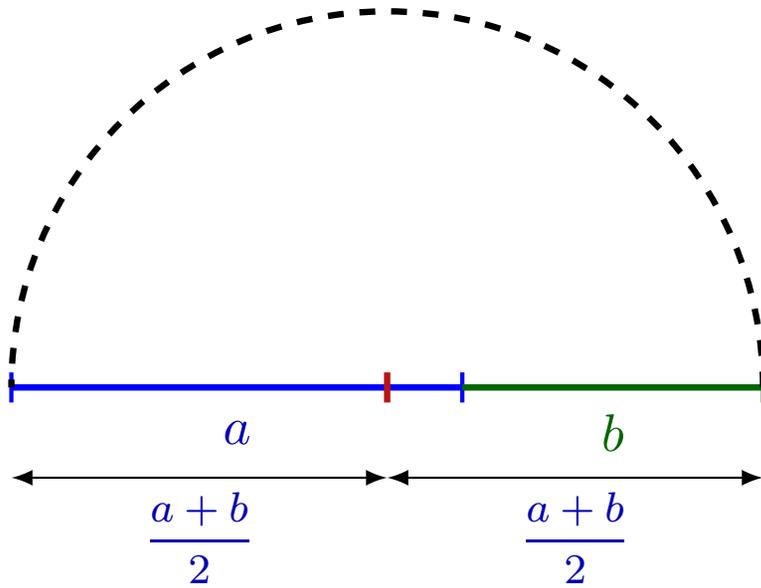
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



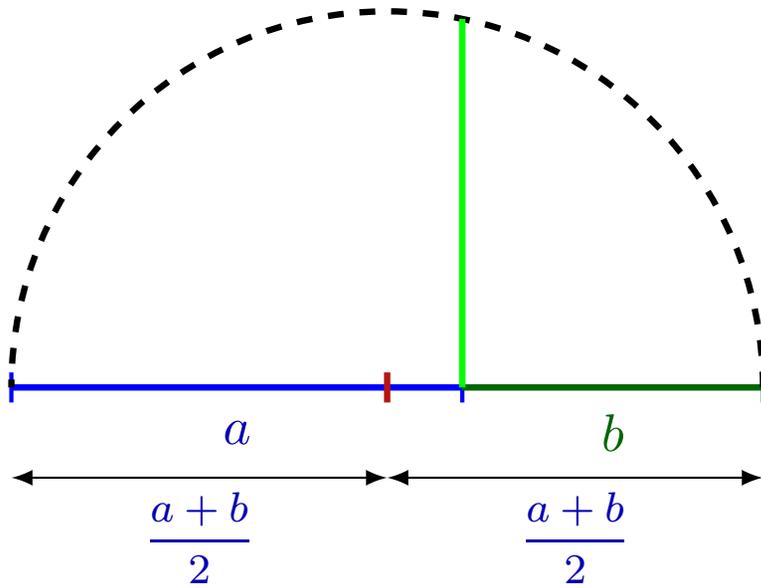
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



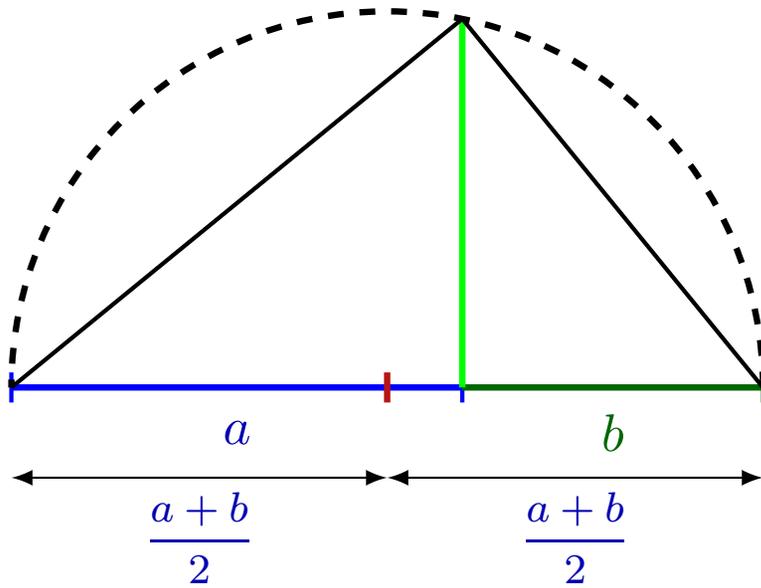
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



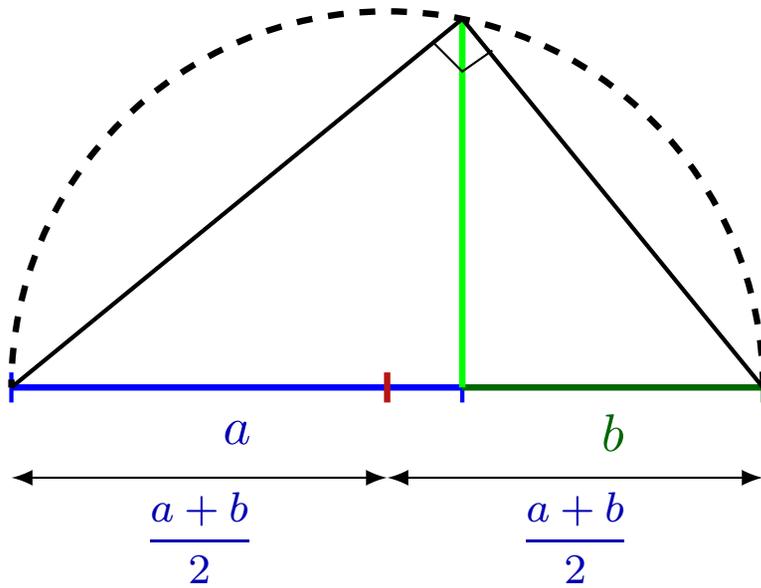
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



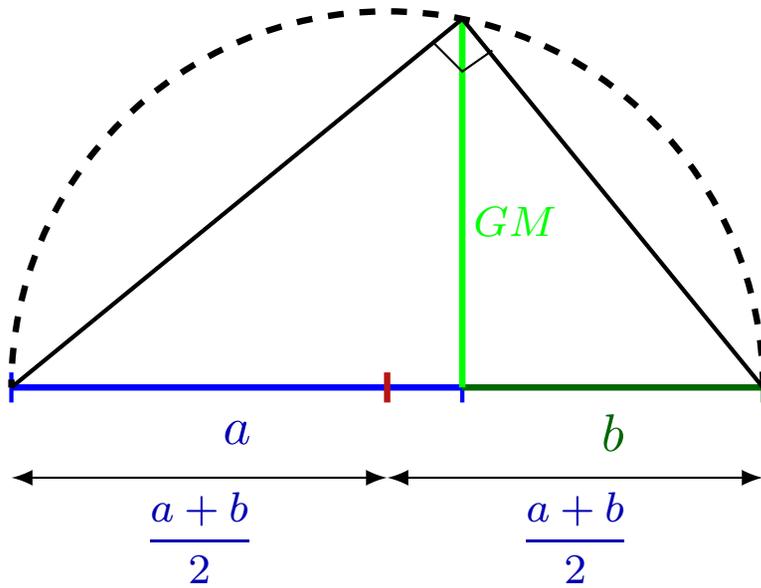
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



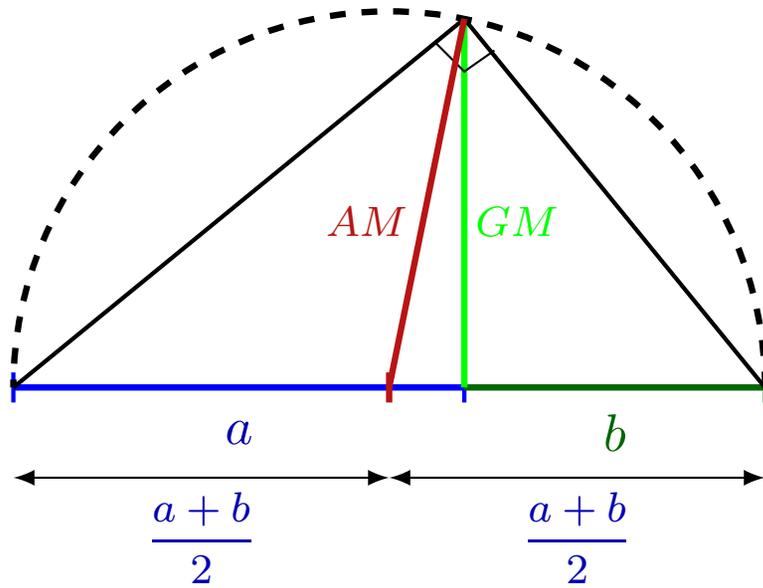
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



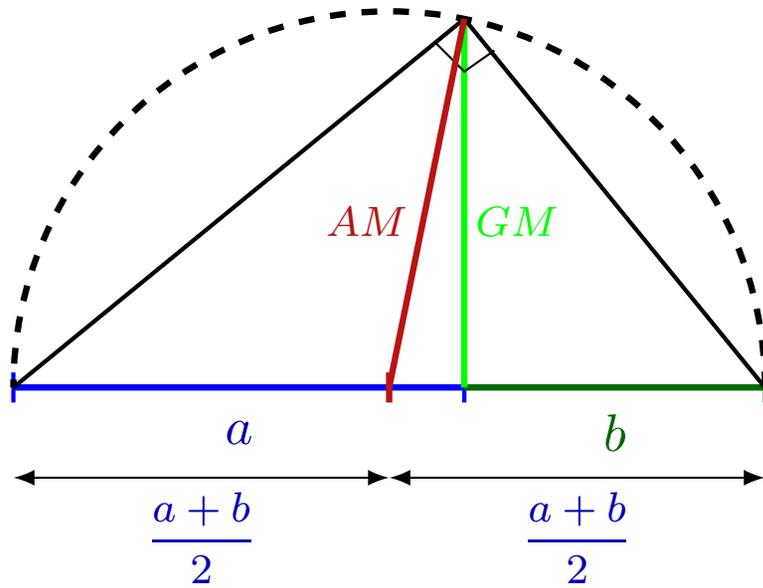
Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality

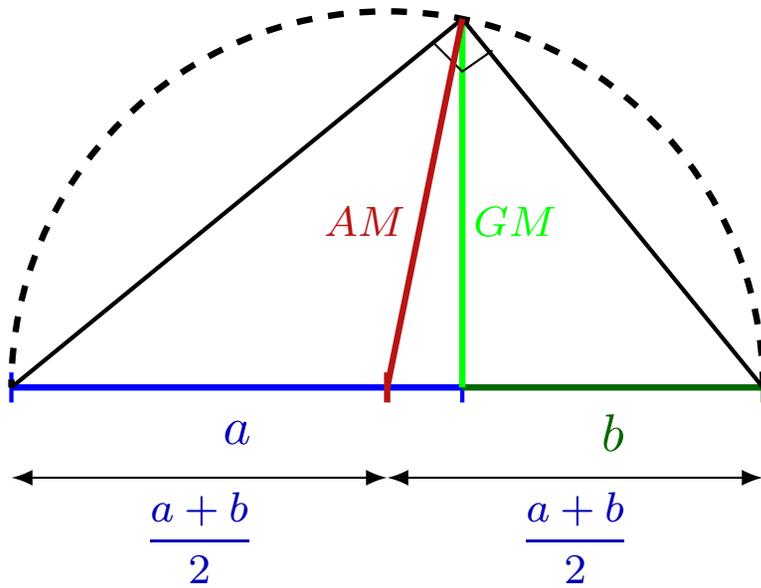


$$AM = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$$GM = \sqrt{ab}$$

$$AM \geq GM$$

Geometric interpretation of AM-GM inequality



$$AM = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$$GM = \sqrt{ab}$$

$$AM \geq GM$$

$$AM = GM \iff a = b$$

Differentiability implies continuity

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion.

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given:

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,
differentiability of f at a .

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,
differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,
differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition.

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,
differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,
differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point,
then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
point a in its domain,
differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove:

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a .

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition.

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **continuous** at point a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **continuous** at point a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

What does the phrase $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ say exactly?

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **continuous** at point a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

What does the phrase $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ say exactly?

1. $\exists \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **continuous** at point a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

What does the phrase $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ say exactly?

1. $\exists \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$
2. $f(x)$ is defined at $x = a$

Differentiability implies continuity

Example 2. Prove that if a function is differentiable at a point, then it is continuous at this point.

Discussion. Given: function f ,
 point a in its domain,
 differentiability of f at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **differentiable** at point a if there exists $f'(a)$,

that is, there exists the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

Have to prove: f is continuous at a . What does it mean exactly?

Definition. A function f is **continuous** at point a if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

What does the phrase $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ say exactly?

1. $\exists \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$
2. $f(x)$ is defined at $x = a$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\exists \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\exists \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\exists \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\exists \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) =$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} =$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a))$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \quad \underbrace{=}_{\substack{x \neq a \\ \text{by def. of lim}}} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right)$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \quad \underbrace{=}_{\substack{x \neq a \\ \text{by def. of lim}}} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right)$$

$$\underbrace{=}_{\text{let } h=x-a}$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \quad \underbrace{=}_{x \neq a} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right)$$

by def. of lim

$$\underbrace{=}_{\text{let } h=x-a} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right)$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ x \neq a \\ \text{by def. of lim}}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) \\ &\stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{let } h=x-a}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{since both} \\ \text{lims exist}}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \end{aligned}$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ x \neq a \\ \text{by def. of lim}}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) \\ &\stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{let } h=x-a}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{since both} \\ \text{lims exist}}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \\ &= f'(a) \cdot 0 \end{aligned}$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\exists \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ x \neq a \\ \text{by def. of lim}}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) \\ &\stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{let } h=x-a}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{since both} \\ \text{lims exist}}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \\ &= f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Differentiability implies continuity

We have to prove the implication

$$\underbrace{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}}_{\text{given}} \implies \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)}_{\text{to prove}}$$

Let us prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \underbrace{f(a)}_{\text{constant}} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ x \neq a \\ \text{by def. of lim}}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) \\ &\stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{let } h=x-a}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) \stackrel{\substack{= \\ \text{since both} \\ \text{lims exist}}}{=} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \\ &= f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0, \text{ as required.} \end{aligned}$$

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Theorem. *Let f be a function defined in a neighborhood of a point a .*

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Theorem. *Let f be a function defined in a neighborhood of a point a .*

If f is differentiable at a , then f is continuous at a .

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Theorem. *Let f be a function defined in a neighborhood of a point a .*

If f is differentiable at a , then f is continuous at a .

Proof.
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) =$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h = f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Theorem. *Let f be a function defined in a neighborhood of a point a .*

If f is differentiable at a , then f is continuous at a .

Proof.
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) =$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h = f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$,

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Theorem. *Let f be a function defined in a neighborhood of a point a .*

If f is differentiable at a , then f is continuous at a .

Proof.
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) =$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h = f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$, and, by this, f is continuous at a ,

Differentiability implies continuity

Let us clear our work off unnecessary "educational" bells and whistles:

Theorem. *Let f be a function defined in a neighborhood of a point a .*

If f is differentiable at a , then f is continuous at a .

Proof.
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - f(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - f(a)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \cdot (x - a) \right) =$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot h \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h = f'(a) \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$, and, by this, f is continuous at a , as required.

Proof by contraposition

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ...

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ...

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion.

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion. We have to prove that

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion. We have to prove that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion. We have to prove that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion. We have to prove that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion. We have to prove that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

Why not to prove like this:

Proof by contraposition

Idea: To prove $P \implies Q$, we prove $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

Logical justification: $P \implies Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \implies \neg P$.

This rule of logical deduction

$((P \implies Q) \wedge \neg Q) \implies \neg P$ is called

modus tollens.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg Q$. Then ... Then ... Therefore, $\neg P$.

So $\neg Q \implies \neg P$. By contraposition, $P \implies Q$.

Example 1. Let n be an integer. Prove that if n^2 is odd then n is odd.

Discussion. We have to prove that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

Why not to prove like this: n^2 is odd $\implies \sqrt{n^2} = n$ is odd?

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P .

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$,

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is,

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then n^2

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$,

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even ($\neg P$).

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even ($\neg P$).

Therefore, $\neg Q \implies \neg P$,

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even ($\neg P$).

Therefore, $\neg Q \implies \neg P$, or, equivalently, $P \implies Q$.

Cast off crutches:

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even ($\neg P$).

Therefore, $\neg Q \implies \neg P$, or, equivalently, $P \implies Q$.

Cast off crutches:

Proposition. *For any integer n , if n^2 is odd then n is odd.*

What to choose: direct proof or proof by contraposition?

For a **direct** proof of

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \boxed{n^2 \text{ is odd}} \implies \boxed{n \text{ is odd}}$$

P Q

we have to start with P . But Q seems to be simpler than P .

This suggests a proof by **contraposition**:

Let $\neg Q$, that is, let n be even, that is, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

Then $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even ($\neg P$).

Therefore, $\neg Q \implies \neg P$, or, equivalently, $P \implies Q$.

Cast off crutches:

Proposition. *For any integer n , if n^2 is odd then n is odd.*

Proof. Let n be even. Then $n = 2k$ for some integer k . So $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. Therefore, by contraposition, if n^2 is odd then n is odd, as required. \square

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity,

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed,

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even,

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even),

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let n be odd,

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let n be odd, that is $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let n be odd, that is $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1$,

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let n be odd, that is $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1$, which is odd.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let n be odd, that is $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1$, which is odd. By contraposition, if n^2 is even, then n is even.

Let us collect our results about the parity.

Theorem. *Any integer has the same parity as its square.*

Proof. We have to prove that n and n^2 have the same parity, that is, both are even or both are odd. For this, it's enough to prove that

$$n \text{ is even} \iff n^2 \text{ is even.}$$

Indeed, if n is even, then $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $n^2 = 4k^2$, which is even. So if n is even, then n^2 is also even.

To prove the converse (if n^2 is even, then n is even), we use contraposition.

Let n be odd, that is $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1$, which is odd. By contraposition, if n^2 is even, then n is even.

qed

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof.

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove:

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $8 \nmid (n^2 - 1) \implies 2 \mid n$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ?

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler,

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$).

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1$$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1$$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k$$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k = 4k(k + 1)$$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k = 4 \underbrace{k(k + 1)}_{\text{divisible by 2}}$$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k = 4 \underbrace{k(k + 1)}_{\text{divisible by 2}} \text{ is divisible by 8 } (\neg P).$$

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k = 4 \underbrace{k(k + 1)}_{\text{divisible by 2}} \text{ is divisible by 8 } (\neg P).$$

We have proved that $2 \nmid n \implies 8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$.

Divisibility

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k = 4 \underbrace{k(k + 1)}_{\text{divisible by 2}} \text{ is divisible by } 8 \text{ (} \neg P \text{)}.$$

We have proved that $2 \nmid n \implies 8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$.

By contraposition, $8 \nmid (n^2 - 1) \implies 2 \mid n$,

Divisibility

Example 2. Prove that if $n^2 - 1$ is not divisible by 8, then n is even.

Proof. Have to prove: $\underbrace{8 \nmid (n^2 - 1)}_P \implies \underbrace{2 \mid n}_Q$

Which one is simpler, P or Q ? Q is simpler, so we'll do contraposition:

Assume that $2 \nmid n$ ($\neg Q$). Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Calculate $n^2 - 1$:

$$n^2 - 1 = (2k + 1)^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k = 4 \underbrace{k(k + 1)}_{\text{divisible by 2}} \text{ is divisible by 8 } (\neg P).$$

We have proved that $2 \nmid n \implies 8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$.

By contraposition, $8 \nmid (n^2 - 1) \implies 2 \mid n$, as required.

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$.

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof.

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0 \implies \exists x \in [0, 1] \quad f(x) \neq 0.$$

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0 \implies \exists x \in [0, 1] \quad f(x) \neq 0.$$

Assume that $f(x) = 0$ for **all** $x \in [0, 1]$.

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0 \implies \exists x \in [0, 1] \quad f(x) \neq 0.$$

Assume that $f(x) = 0$ for **all** $x \in [0, 1]$. Then $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$.

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0 \implies \exists x \in [0, 1] \quad f(x) \neq 0.$$

Assume that $f(x) = 0$ for **all** $x \in [0, 1]$. Then $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$.

Therefore, by contraposition,

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0 \implies \exists x \in [0, 1] \quad f(x) \neq 0.$$

Assume that $f(x) = 0$ for **all** $x \in [0, 1]$. Then $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$.

Therefore, by contraposition,

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$,

Non-zero integral

Example 3. Let f be integrable on $[0, 1]$. Prove that

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$.

Proof. Have to prove:

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0 \implies \exists x \in [0, 1] \quad f(x) \neq 0.$$

Assume that $f(x) = 0$ for **all** $x \in [0, 1]$. Then $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$.

Therefore, by contraposition,

if $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq 0$, then $f(x) \neq 0$ for some $x \in [0, 1]$, as required.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P ,

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements,

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements,
 Q and $\neg Q$.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements,
 Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q .

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements,
 Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements,
 Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove:

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove: $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove: $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is irrational}}$.
 P

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove: $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is irrational}}$.
 P

Assume, to the contrary, that

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove: $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is irrational}}$.
 P

Assume, to the contrary, that $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is rational}}$.

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove: $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is irrational}}$.
 P

Assume, to the contrary, that $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is rational}}$.
 $\neg P$

Proof by contradiction (indirect proof)

Idea: To prove P , we assume $\neg P$ and get two mutually exclusive statements, Q and $\neg Q$.

Logical justification: $(\neg P \implies Q) \wedge (\neg P \implies \neg Q) \implies P$ is a tautology.

This rule of logical deduction is called **reductio ad absurdum**.

It is based on the **law of excluded middle**: $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.

Method: Assume (let) $\neg P$. Then ... Q . Then ... $\neg Q$. Therefore, P .

Example 1. Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

Proof. The statement to prove: $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is irrational}}$.
 P

Assume, to the contrary, that $\boxed{\sqrt{2} \text{ is rational}}$.
 $\neg P$

Then $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$ for some $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, $q \neq 0$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,
we may assume, without loss of generality,

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$,

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even.

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
we conclude that p should be even,

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2

(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square), we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$,

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2

(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square), we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even,

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2

(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square), we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too:

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2

(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square), we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
(see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even,

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore, $\gcd(p, q) \neq 1$

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) \neq 1}$,

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.
 $\neg Q$

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) \neq 1}$,
 $\neg Q$

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.
 Q

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) \neq 1}$, which contradicts to the fact that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.
 $\neg Q$

This contradiction shows that the original assumption ($\sqrt{2}$ is rational)

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.
 Q

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) \neq 1}$, which contradicts to the fact that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.
 $\neg Q$

This contradiction shows that the original assumption ($\sqrt{2}$ is rational) was erroneous,

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.
 Q

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) \neq 1}$, which contradicts to the fact that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.
 $\neg Q$

This contradiction shows that the original assumption ($\sqrt{2}$ is rational) was erroneous, and $\sqrt{2}$ is actually irrational,

$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Since any fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ can be reduced to lowest terms,

we may assume, without loss of generality, that $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) = 1}$.

According to our assumption, $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$. By squaring, we get $2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $2q^2 = p^2$.

It means that p^2 is even. Since p has the same parity as p^2
 (see Theorem about the same parity of an integer and its square),
 we conclude that p should be even, that is, $p = 2k$ for some integer k .

In this case, the identity $2q^2 = p^2$ is equivalent to $2q^2 = (2k)^2$, or $q^2 = 2k^2$.

By this, q^2 is even, and, therefore, q is even too: $2 \mid q$.

But p is also even, that is $2 \mid p$. We have got that $2 \mid p$ and $2 \mid q$.

Therefore $\boxed{\gcd(p, q) \neq 1}$, which contradicts to the fact that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$.

This contradiction shows that the original assumption ($\sqrt{2}$ is rational) was erroneous, and $\sqrt{2}$ is actually irrational, as required.

Euclid's theorem

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof.

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n.$$

Construct a number N

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1 ,

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of $p_1, p_2,$

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed,

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n.$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n.$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n.$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

By this, N should be divisible by one of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Euclid's theorem

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

By this, N should be divisible by one of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

This contradiction shows that

Euclid's theorem

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

By this, N should be divisible by one of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

This contradiction shows that

the assumption (there are only finitely many prime numbers) was erroneous,

Euclid's theorem

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

By this, N should be divisible by one of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

This contradiction shows that

the assumption (there are only finitely many prime numbers) was erroneous,
and there are infinitely many primes,

Euclid's theorem

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

By this, N should be divisible by one of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

This contradiction shows that

the assumption (there are only finitely many prime numbers) was erroneous, and there are infinitely many primes, as required.

Euclid's theorem

Theorem (Euclid). *There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

Proof. Assume, to the contrary, that there are only finitely many prime numbers:

$$p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .$$

Construct a number $N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1$.

N is not divisible by any of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Indeed, N has a remainder of 1 when divided by any of them.

As any natural number greater than 1, N is divisible by some prime number.

By this, N should be divisible by one of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

This contradiction shows that

the assumption (there are only finitely many prime numbers) was erroneous, and there are infinitely many primes, as required.

For source and comments see

Euclid's Elements, Book IX, Proposition 20.

<http://aleph0.clarku.edu/~djoyce/java/elements/bookIX/propIX20.html>

Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

A proof by exhaustion consists of examination of every possible case.

Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

A proof by exhaustion consists of examination of every possible case.

Inscribed Angle Theorem. *An angle inscribed in a circle is half of the central angle subtending the same arc.*

A proof by exhaustion consists of examination of every possible case.

Inscribed Angle Theorem. *An angle inscribed in a circle is half of the central angle subtending the same arc.*

Proof.

Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

A proof by exhaustion consists of examination of every possible case.

Inscribed Angle Theorem. *An angle inscribed in a circle is half of the central angle subtending the same arc.*

Proof. How an inscribed angle may be positioned with respect to the center of the circle?

Proof by exhaustion (proof by cases)

A proof by exhaustion consists of examination of every possible case.

Inscribed Angle Theorem. *An angle inscribed in a circle is half of the central angle subtending the same arc.*

Proof. How an inscribed angle may be positioned with respect to the center of the circle?

Listen to the proof and try to write it down...

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .
- Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .
- Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = -a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = -a - b$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .
- Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = -a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = -a - b$, so $|a + b| = -a - b = |a| + |b|$,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .
- Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = -a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = -a - b$, so $|a + b| = -a - b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .
- Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = -a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = -a - b$, so $|a + b| = -a - b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

Therefore, $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all real numbers a and b ,

The triangle inequality

Theorem (triangle inequality). $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for any real numbers a, b .

Proof (by cases).

- Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = b$, $|a + b| = a + b$, so $|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = ?$
 - Case 2a) $a + b \geq 0$. Then $|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
 - Case 2b) $a + b < 0$. Then $|a + b| = -a - b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$, so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.
- Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$ is similar to Case 2, just swap a and b .
- Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $|a| = -a$, $|b| = -b$, $|a + b| = -a - b$, so $|a + b| = -a - b = |a| + |b|$, and, by this $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

Therefore, $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all real numbers a and b , as required.

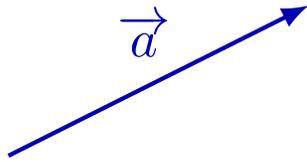
The triangle inequality

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?

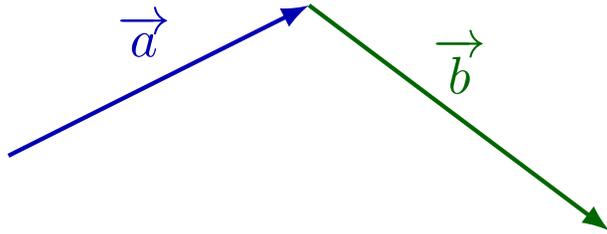
The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



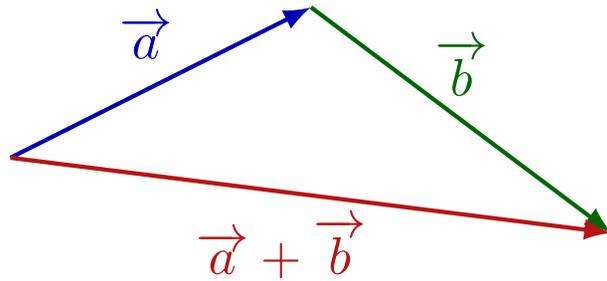
The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



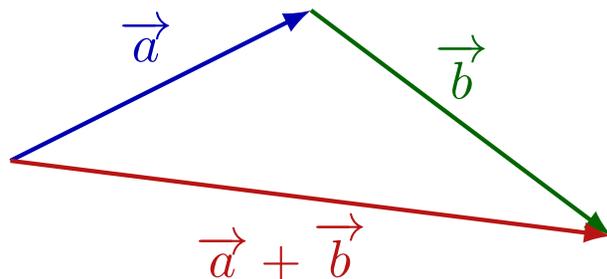
The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



The triangle inequality

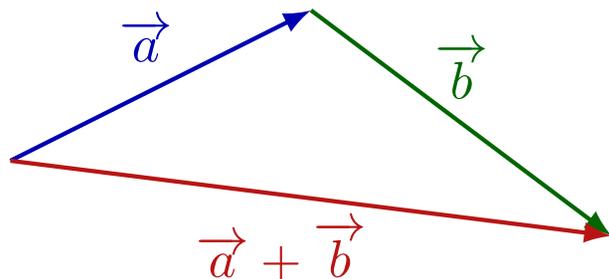
Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?

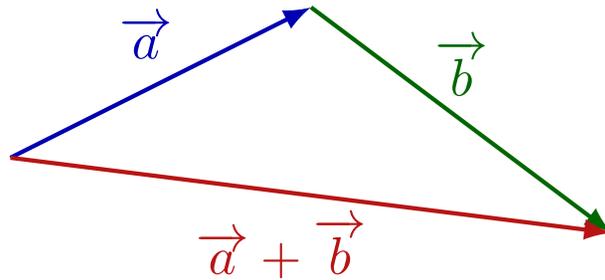


$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



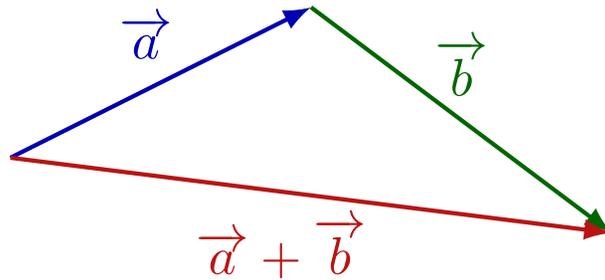
$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

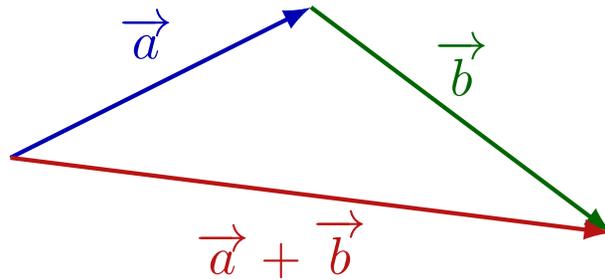
Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

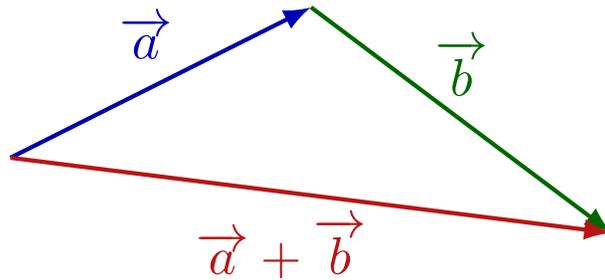
Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

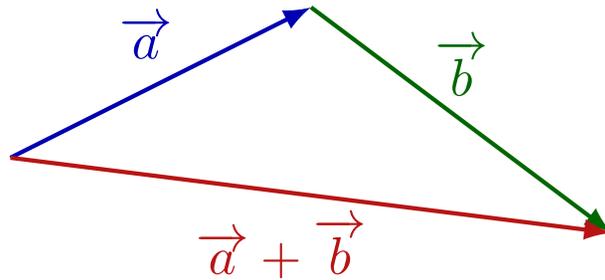
Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
 we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

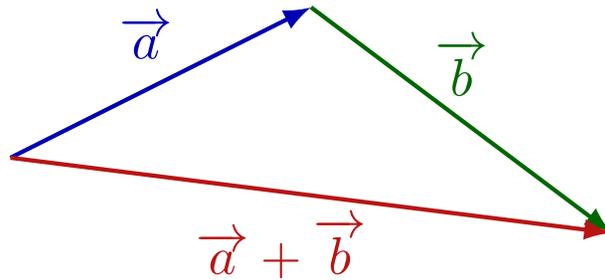
$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
 we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

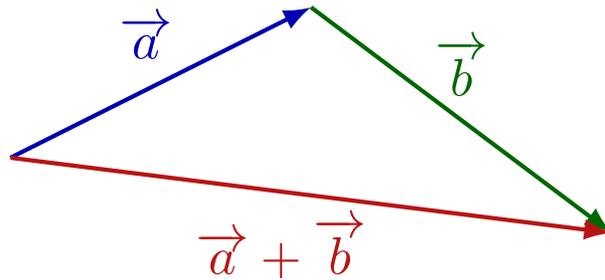
Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$, we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. $|a| = |(a - b) + b|$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

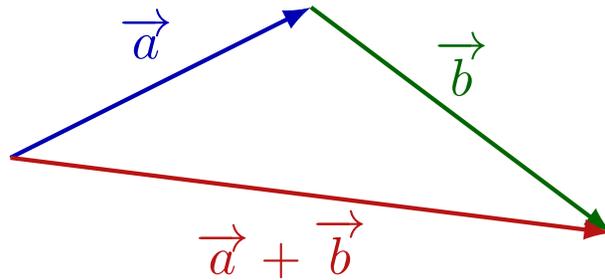
Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
 we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. $|a| = |(a - b) + b| \leq |a - b| + |b|$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

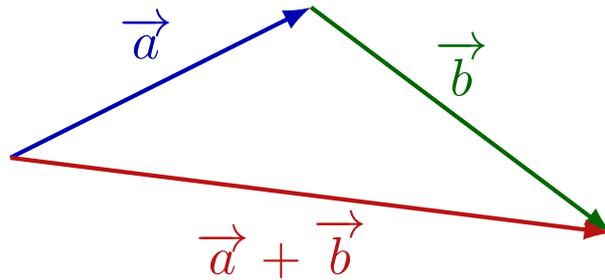
Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
 we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. $|a| = |(a - b) + b| \leq |a - b| + |b| \implies |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|.$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

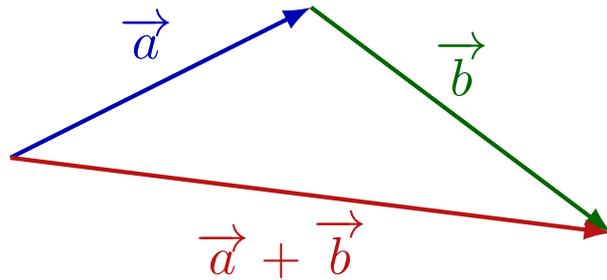
Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
 we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. $|a| = |(a - b) + b| \leq |a - b| + |b| \implies |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|.$
 $|b| = |(b - a) + a| \leq |b - a| + |a| \implies |a| - |b| \geq -|a - b|.$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

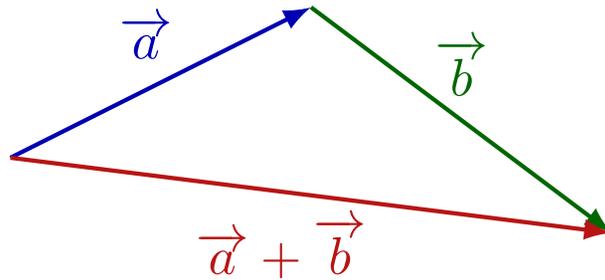
Proof. $|a| = |(a - b) + b| \leq |a - b| + |b| \implies |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|.$

$$|b| = |(b - a) + a| \leq |b - a| + |a| \implies |a| - |b| \geq -|a - b|.$$

Therefore, $-|a - b| \leq |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|.$

The triangle inequality

Why the inequality $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ is called the **triangle inequality**?



$$|\vec{a} + \vec{b}| < |\vec{a}| + |\vec{b}|$$

Corollary 1. $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Apply the triangle inequality to a and $-b$:

$$|a + (-b)| \leq |a| + |-b|.$$

Since $a + (-b) = a - b$ and $|-b| = |b|$,
 we have got $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$, as required.

Corollary 2. $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. $|a| = |(a - b) + b| \leq |a - b| + |b| \implies |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|.$

$$|b| = |(b - a) + a| \leq |b - a| + |a| \implies |a| - |b| \geq -|a - b|.$$

Therefore, $-|a - b| \leq |a| - |b| \leq |a - b|$. Hence $||a| - |b|| \leq |a - b|$, as required.

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab$$

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \leq a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab|$$

$\underbrace{\leq}_{ab \leq |ab|}$

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \leq_{\substack{ab \leq |ab|}} a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab| = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b|$$

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \leq_{\substack{ab \leq |ab|}} a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab| = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \underbrace{\leq}_{ab \leq |ab|} a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab| = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

Therefore, $(a + b)^2 \leq (|a| + |b|)^2$.

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \leq \underbrace{a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab|}_{ab \leq |ab|} = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

Therefore, $(a + b)^2 \leq (|a| + |b|)^2$. From this we get

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \leq \underbrace{a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab|}_{ab \leq |ab|} = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

Therefore, $(a + b)^2 \leq (|a| + |b|)^2$. From this we get

$$\sqrt{(a + b)^2} \leq \sqrt{(|a| + |b|)^2},$$

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \underbrace{\leq}_{ab \leq |ab|} a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab| = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

Therefore, $(a + b)^2 \leq (|a| + |b|)^2$. From this we get

$$\sqrt{(a + b)^2} \leq \sqrt{(|a| + |b|)^2}, \text{ which implies}$$

$$|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|.$$

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \underbrace{\leq}_{ab \leq |ab|} a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab| = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

Therefore, $(a + b)^2 \leq (|a| + |b|)^2$. From this we get

$$\sqrt{(a + b)^2} \leq \sqrt{(|a| + |b|)^2}, \text{ which implies}$$

$$|a + b| \leq ||a| + |b||.$$

Since $||a| + |b|| = |a| + |b|$,

The triangle inequality, another proof

Let us give another proof of the triangle inequality.

For any real numbers a and b , we have

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab \underbrace{\leq}_{ab \leq |ab|} a^2 + b^2 + 2|ab| = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2|a||b| = (|a| + |b|)^2.$$

Therefore, $(a + b)^2 \leq (|a| + |b|)^2$. From this we get

$$\sqrt{(a + b)^2} \leq \sqrt{(|a| + |b|)^2}, \text{ which implies}$$

$$|a + b| \leq ||a| + |b||.$$

Since $||a| + |b|| = |a| + |b|$, we get $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

How to prove an equivalence

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$,

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: P

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R$

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S$

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1.

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$.

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

How to prove an equivalence

To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?

How to prove an equivalence

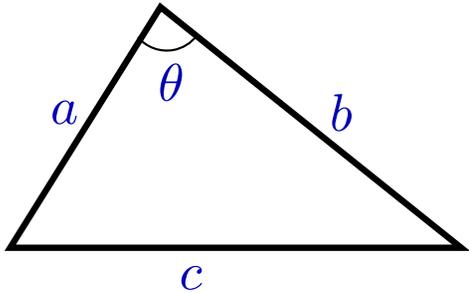
To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?



How to prove an equivalence

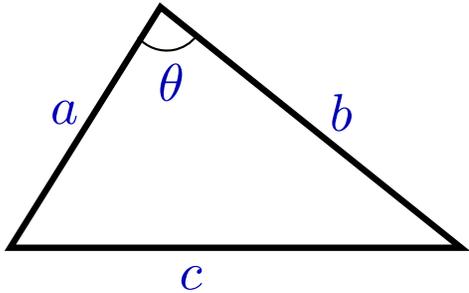
To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

How to prove an equivalence

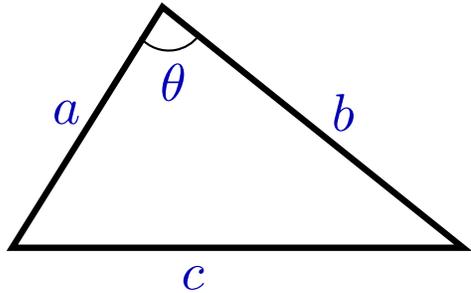
To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

A triangle with the sides a, b, c is right

How to prove an equivalence

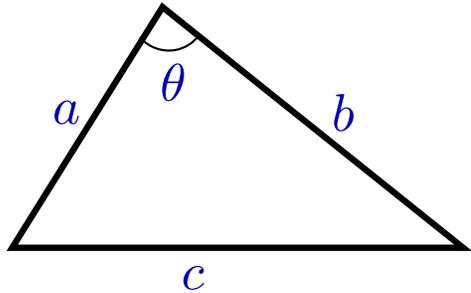
To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

A triangle with the sides a, b, c is right $\iff \theta = 90^\circ$

How to prove an equivalence

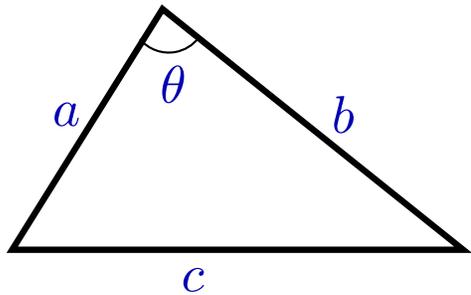
To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

A triangle with the sides a, b, c is right $\stackrel{?}{\iff} \theta = 90^\circ \stackrel{?}{\iff} \cos \theta = 0$

How to prove an equivalence

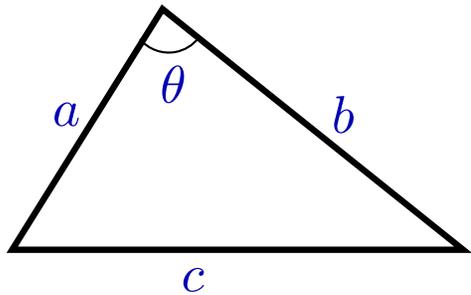
To prove a statement of type $P \iff Q$, we may use one of two alternatives:

Alternative 1: $P \iff R \iff S \iff \dots \iff Q$

Alternative 2: $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Example 1. Let a, b, c be the lengths of the sides of a triangle and $a \leq b \leq c$. Using the law of cosines, prove that the triangle is right if and only if $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

Proof. What is the law of cosines?



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta$$

A triangle with the sides a, b, c is right $\stackrel{?}{\iff} \theta = 90^\circ \stackrel{?}{\iff} \cos \theta = 0 \stackrel{?}{\iff} c^2 = a^2 + b^2$.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even,

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$,

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,

$$n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 =$$

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1$

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1,$

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$, which is odd.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$, which is odd.

We have got that n is odd $\implies n^3$ is odd.

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$, which is odd.

We have got that n is odd $\implies n^3$ is odd. Therefore, by contraposition,

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$, which is odd.

We have got that n is odd $\implies n^3$ is odd. Therefore, by contraposition,

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

An integer and its cube have the same parity

Example 2. Let n be an integer. Prove that n is even iff n^3 is even.

Proof. Let us prove first that

$$n \text{ is even} \implies n^3 \text{ is even.}$$

Let n be even, so $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n^3 = 8k^3$, which is even.

Let us prove now that

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

Assume that n is odd. Then $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case,
 $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$, which is odd.

We have got that n is odd $\implies n^3$ is odd. Therefore, by contraposition,

$$n^3 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even.}$$

qed

How to prove uniqueness

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique,

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique,
one assumes that there are two such objects

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique,
one assumes that there are two such objects
and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example.

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof.

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities,

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$.

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$0' = 0' + 0$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$0' = 0' + 0 \quad \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring}$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\ &= 0 + 0' \end{aligned}$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\
 &= 0 + 0' && \text{by commutativity of addition in the ring}
 \end{aligned}$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\
 &= 0 + 0' && \text{by commutativity of addition in the ring} \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\
 &= 0 + 0' && \text{by commutativity of addition in the ring} \\
 &= 0 && \text{since } 0' \text{ is an additive identity:}
 \end{aligned}$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\
 &= 0 + 0' && \text{by commutativity of addition in the ring} \\
 &= 0 && \text{since } 0' \text{ is an additive identity: } a + 0' = a \text{ for any } a \text{ in the ring.}
 \end{aligned}$$

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\
 &= 0 + 0' && \text{by commutativity of addition in the ring} \\
 &= 0 && \text{since } 0' \text{ is an additive identity: } a + 0' = a \text{ for any } a \text{ in the ring.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $0' = 0$.

How to prove uniqueness

In order to prove that an object is unique, one assumes that there are two such objects and come to a conclusion that they have to be equal.

Example. Prove that in any ring, the additive identity is unique.

Proof. Assume that there are two additive identities, 0 and $0'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 0' &= 0' + 0 && \text{since } a = a + 0 \text{ for any element } a \text{ in the ring} \\
 &= 0 + 0' && \text{by commutativity of addition in the ring} \\
 &= 0 && \text{since } 0' \text{ is an additive identity: } a + 0' = a \text{ for any } a \text{ in the ring.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $0' = 0$.

qed

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication,

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given)

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given)
and conclusion (what should be proven).

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math.

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
"Proof." Let $Q \dots$

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
"Proof." Let $Q \dots$
 2. **Denying the antecedent**

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $Q \dots$
 2. **Denying the antecedent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $Q \dots$
 2. **Denying the antecedent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $\neg P \dots$

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $Q \dots$
 2. **Denying the antecedent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $\neg P \dots$
 3. **Guilt by assumption** (proof by example)

Strategies for constructing proofs

- Understand what is given and what is to be proven.
If you prove an implication, identify the assumption (what is given) and conclusion (what should be proven).
- Recall all relevant definitions and theorems in their **precise** form.
- Do math. Logic can't replace missing mathematics.
- Put math in a correct logical form.
- Avoid **typical logical mistakes**:
 1. **Affirming the consequent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $Q \dots$
 2. **Denying the antecedent**
Prove $P \implies Q$.
“Proof.” Let $\neg P \dots$
 3. **Guilt by assumption** (proof by example)
 $\exists x P(x) \implies \forall x P(x)$