COMP 233 Discrete Mathematics



4.4 Direct Proof and Counterexample IV: Division into Cases and the Quotient-Remainder Theorem



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Examples:

54 = 4 · 13 + <mark>2</mark>	<i>q</i> = 13	<i>r</i> = 2
-54 = 4 · (-14) + <mark>2</mark>	<i>q</i> =-14	<i>r</i> = 2
54 = 70 · 0 + 54	q = 0	<i>r</i> = 54



Theorem 4.4.1 The Quotient-Remainder Theorem

Given any integer n and positive integer d, there exist unique integers q and r such that

n = dq + r and $0 \le r < d$.

The quotient-remainder theorem says that when any integer **n** is divided by any positive integer **d** (group size), the result is a quotient **q** and a <u>nonnegative</u> remainder **r** that is smaller than **d**

The proof that there exist integers q and r with the given properties is in Section 5.4.

The proof that q and r are **unique** is outlined in exercise 18 in Section 4.7.

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Consequences

1. Apply the quotient-remainder theorem with d = 2. The result is that there exist unique integers q and r such that

n = 2q + r and $0 \le r < 2$.

What are possible values for r?

Answer: *r* = **0** or *r* = **1**

Consequence: No matter what integer you start with, it either equals

2q + 0 (= 2q) or 2q + 1 for some integer q. even odd

So: Every integer is either even or odd.

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Answer: q = 3 and r = 5

If n is positive, the quotient-remainder theorem can be illustrated on the number line as follows:







- Quotient-remainder theorem
 - Powerful tool for method of proof by division into cases
 - Ex. Prove that: given any integer *n*, there is an integer *k* so that $n^2 = 3k$ or $n^2 = 3k + 1$.
 - Any integer can be written as
 - n=4q or n=4q+1 or n=4q+2 or n=4q+3
 - Ex. Prove that the square of any odd integer has the form 8m+1 for some integer m
 - Any odd integer can be
 - 4q+1 or 4q+3.

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div and mod

div and mod

Given an integer n and a positive integer d,

 $n \, div \, d$ = the integer quotient obtained when n is divided by d, and

 $n \mod d$ = the nonnegative integer remainder obtained when n is divided by d.

Symbolically, if n and d are integers and d > 0, then

 $n \operatorname{div} d = q$ and $n \operatorname{mod} d = r \Leftrightarrow n = dq + r$

where q and r are integers and $0 \le r < d$.

 $n = d(n \operatorname{div} d) + n \operatorname{mod} d$

Examples:

32 div 9 = 3 32 mod 9 = 5

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"For all integers a, b, and c, if b|a & c|a then (b+c)|a

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Application2Computing the Day of the WeekIf today is Wednesday and it is 2/11/2016, which day it will
be the valentine's day in 2017?Valentine's day = 14/2/2017The number of days from today to 14/2/2017 = 28 in November + 31 in
December + 31 in January + 14 in February = 104 days104 div 7 = 14104 mod 7 = 6That is, after 14 weeks the day will be Wednesday and 6 days after, it will
be Tuesday

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Suppose *m* is an integer. If $m \mod 11 = 6$, what is $4m \mod 11$?

m = 11q + 6.

4m = 44q + 24 = 44q + 22 + 2 = 11(4q + 2) + 2.

 $4m \mod 11 = 2.$

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Representing Integers using the quotient-remainder theorem Parity Property

We represent any number as:

n = 2q + r and $0 \le r < 2$

Because we have only r = 0 and r = 1, then:

 $n = 2q + 0 \quad \text{or} \quad n = 2q + 1$ Even Odd

Therefore, *n* is either <u>even or odd</u> (parity)

The *parity* of an integer refers to whether the integer is even or odd

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Representing Integers using the quotient-remainder theorem Parity Property

Theorem 4.4.2 The Parity Property

Any two consecutive integers have opposite parity.

Proof:

Given m and m+1 are consecutive integers Then, one is odd and the other is even (by parity property)

Case1 (m is even): m = 2k, so m+1 = 2k+1, which is odd

Case2 (m is odd): m = 2k + 1 and so m+1 = (2k+1) + 1 = 2k + 2 = 2(k+1). thus m + 1 is even.

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Method of Proof by Division into Cases



How do you prove? If A or B is true then C is also true.

Technique: Prove

If A is true then C is true and if B is true then C is true.

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Method of Proof by Division into Cases To prove a statement of the form "If A1 or A2 or ... or An, then C" prove all of the following: If A_1 , then C, If A_2 , then C, If A_1 , then C, If A_2 , then C, ..., A_happens to be the case.

Example: Representations of Integers Modulo 4 Show that any integer can be written in one of the four forms: n=4q or n=4q+1 or n=4q+2 or n=4q+3for some integer q. Solution: apply the quotient-remainder theorem to n with d = 4There exist an integer quotient q and a remainder r such that n = 4q + r and $0 \le r < 4$. But the only nonnegative remainders that are less than 4 are 0, 1, 2, and 3.

Thus, any integer can be represented as: n=4q or n=4q+1 or n=4q+2 or n=4q+3

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Example: The Square of an Odd Integer

Proof: The square of any odd integer has the form 8m+1 for some integer m *Formal Restatement:* \forall odd integers n, \exists an integer m such that $n^2 = 8m + 1$. *Starting Point:* Suppose n is a particular but arbitrarily chosen odd integer. *To Show:* \exists an integer m such that $n^2 = 8m + 1$.

Hint: any odd integer can be 4q+1 or 4q+3.

Case 1 (n=4q+1):

 $n^2 = (4q+1)^2 = 16q^2 + 8q + 1 = 8(2q^2 + q) + 1$ Let $(2q^2 + q)$ be an integer *m*, thus $n^2 = 8m + 1$

Case 2 (n=4q+3):

 $n^2 = (4q+3)^2 = 16q^2 + 24q + 8 + 1$ = $8(2q^2 + 3q+1) + 1$ Let $(2q^2 + 3q+1)$ be an integer *m*, thus $n^2 = 8m + 1$

In details on page 186 - Theorem 4.4.3

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Example

Theorem: Prove that given any integer *n*, there is an integer *k* s.t. $n^2 = 3k$ or $n^2 = 3k + 1$.

Outline of Proof: Suppose *n* is **any** integer. By <u>the quotient-</u> remainder theorem with d = 3, there is an integer *q* so that

n = 3q, n = 3q + 1, n = 3q + 2.

We will show that regardless of which of these happens to be the case, the conclusion of the theorem follows.

Case 1, n = 3q for some integer q: (fill in) Case 2, n = 3q + 1 for some integer q: (fill in) Case 3, n = 3q + 2 for some integer q: (fill in) Hence, in every case there exists an integer k so that $n^2 = 3k$ or $n^2 = 3k + 1$, as was to be shown.

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How would we fill in Case 2, for example? Case 2, n = 3q + 1 for some integer q: In this case, $n^2 = (3q + 1)^2$ by substitution = (3q + 1)(3q + 1) $= 9q^2 + 6q + 1$ $= 3(3q^2 + 2q) + 1$ by algebra. Let $k = 3q^2 + 2q$. Then k is an integer because it is a sum of products of integers. Thus there is an integer k such that $n^2 = 3k + 1$.



Method of Proof by Contradiction

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Method of Proof by Contradiction

Definition: A **contradiction** is a form of statement that is "always" false.

Ex: *p*∧~*p*

Claim: Suppose **c** is a contradiction. Then the following is a valid form of argument: $p \rightarrow c$

premise conclusion

p

Т

F

Proof:

p

Т

FİF

С

F

~p

F

Т

:. p

In the only case where the premise is true, the conclusion is also true. So this form of argument is valid.

 $\sim p \rightarrow c$

Т

F

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Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational. (A rational number is one which can be written in the form p/q where $q \neq 0$ and p and q are integers.)

Proof

The proof of this theorem is a well known example of proof by contradiction. We assume that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational and show that this leads to a contradiction.

Suppose that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, i.e. $\sqrt{2} = m/n$ where m and n are integers and $n \neq 0$. We may assume that the fraction m/n is in its 'lowest terms', i.e. that m and n have no common factors. If they do have common factors we simply cancel them.

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Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational. (A rational number is one which can be written in the form p/q where $q \neq 0$ and p and q are integers.)

 $\sqrt{2} = m/n$ $\Rightarrow \qquad 2 = m^2/n^2$ $\Rightarrow \qquad 2n^2 = m^2$ $\Rightarrow \qquad m^2 \text{ is even}$ $\Rightarrow \qquad m \text{ is even} \text{ (see example 2.3.1)}$ $\Rightarrow \qquad m^2 = 4p^2.$

Substituting this result into the equation $2n^2 = m^2$ gives

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 2n^2 = 4p^2 \\ \Rightarrow & n^2 = 2p^2 \\ \Rightarrow & n^2 \text{ is even} \\ \Rightarrow & n \text{ is even.} \end{array}$$

We have now shown that both m and n are even, i.e. that they have a common factor 2. But m and n have no common factors because any such factors were cancelled at the beginning. Hence we have deduced the conjunction of a proposition and its negation, i.e. a contradiction, and this proves the theorem. \Box © Susana S. Epp, Kennett H. Rosen, Ahmad Hamo 2005-2016, All rights reserved



Use a Proof by Contradiction to prove: If 3n + 2 is odd, then *n* is odd.

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Example Use a Proof by Contradiction to prove: \rightarrow If 3n + 2 is odd, then *n* is odd. 3n+2=2(3k+1) ... Sn+d= d(sk+1) Let q= 3k+1. Notice that q et due to integer closure properties. Then 3n+2=2q where q et which is even But we said 3n+2 was odd. Contradiction! . The negation is false, meaning the original statement is true.

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Lemma: If the square of an integer is even, then the integer is even.

Formal restatement: \forall integers *n*, if n^2 is even then *n* is even. Negation: \exists an integer *n* such that n^2 is even and *n* is not even.

Think the negation to get a proof by contradiction started.

Proof of Lemma

Lemma: If the square of an integer is even, then the integer is even.

Proof by contradiction: Suppose not. That is, suppose there exists an integer *n* such that n^2 is even and *n* is not even. Then *n* is odd (why?) and so, by definition of odd, n = 2s + 1 for some integer *s*. Then $n^2 = (2s + 1)^2$ by substitution $= 4s^2 + 4s + 1$ $= 2(2s^2 + 2s) + 1$ by algebra.

But $2s^2 + 2s$ is an integer b/c it is a sum of products of integers. Hence n^2 equals twice an integer plus 1 and thus is odd by definition of odd. But this contradicts the fact that n^2 is even. [Hence the supposition is false and the lemma is true.]

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Exercises

Task: Solve the equation 2(x-7) + 5(3-x) = 3(2-x). Solution: *Suppose* x is a number for which the equation is true: 2(x-7) + 5(3-x) = 3(2-x)

Then

2 <i>x</i> -	-14 + 15 - 5x = 6 - 3x	by multiplying out.		
So	-3x + 1 = 6 - 3x	by combining like terms		
and thus	1 = 6	by adding $3x$ to both sides		
But 1 is not equal to 6. Therefore the supposition that there is a				
solution for the equation is false, and this equation has no solution.				



Complete the following sentences:

An integer *n* is even if, and only if *n* is equal to twice some integer. An integer *n* is odd if, and only if *n* is equal to twice some integer plus 1. An integer *n* is prime if, and only if,

n > 1 and the only positive integer divisors of n are 1 and n. A real number r is rational if, and only if

it is equal to a quotient of integers with a nonzero denominator. Given integers *n* and *d*, *d* divides *n* if, and only if, *n* equals *d* times some integer.



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Summary.
What is the quotient-remainder theorem?
For all integers *n* and positive integers *d*, there exist unique integers *q* and *r* such that *n* = *dq* + *r* and 0 ≤ *r* < *d*.

What is the "transitivity of divisibility" theorem?
∀ integers *a*, *b*, and *c*, if *a* | *b* and *b* | *c*, then *a* | *c*.
What does it mean for an integer >1 to not be prime? *n* is a product of positive integers, neither of which is 1.
What is the unique factorization theorem?
Given any integer *n* > 1, either *n* is prime or *n* can be written as a product of prime numbers in a way that is unique, except, possibly, for the order in which the numbers are written.

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Absolute Value

Lemma 4.4.4

For all real numbers $r, -|r| \le r \le |r|$.

Proof:

Suppose r is any real number. We divide into cases according to whether $r \ge 0$ or r < 0.

Case 1 (r \geq 0): In this case, by definition of absolute value, |r| = r. Also, since r is positive and -|r| is negative, -|r| < r. Thus it is true that

$$-|r| \le r \le |r|.$$

Case 2 (r < 0): In this case, by definition of absolute value, |r| = -r. Multiplying both sides by -1 gives that -|r| = r. Also, since r is negative and |r| is positive, r < |r|. Thus it is also true in this case that

 $-|r| \le r \le |r|$. Hence, in either case,

 $-|r| \le r \le |r|$

[as was to be shown].

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Absolute Value

Lemma 4.4.5

For all real numbers r, |-r| = |r|

Proof:

Suppose r is any real number. By Theorem T23 in Appendix A, if r > 0, then -r < 0, and if r < 0, then -r > 0. Thus

$$|-r| = \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } -r > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } -r = 0 \\ -(-r) & \text{if } -r < 0 \end{cases} \text{ by definition of absolute value}$$

$$= \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } -r > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } -r = 0 \\ r & \text{if } -r < 0 \end{cases} \text{ because } -(-r) = r \text{ by Theorem T4}$$
in Appendix A
$$= \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } r < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } -r = 0 \\ r & \text{if } -r = 0 \\ r & \text{if } r > 0 \end{cases} \text{ because, by Theorem T24 in Appendix A, when}$$

$$= \begin{cases} -r & \text{if } r < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } -r = 0 \\ -r & \text{if } r > 0 \end{cases} \text{ and when } -r = 0, \text{ then } r < 0, \text{ then } r > 0,$$

$$= \begin{cases} r & \text{if } r \ge 0 \\ -r & \text{if } r < 0 \\ -r & \text{if } r < 0 \end{cases} \text{ by reformatting the previous result}$$

$$= |r| \qquad \text{by definition of absolute value.}$$

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Absolute Value and Triangle Inequality

Theorem 4.4.6 The Triangle Inequality

For all real numbers x and y, $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$.

Proof:

Suppose *x* and *y*, are any real numbers.

T26. If a < c and b < d, then a + b < c + d.

Case 1 $(x + y \ge 0)$: In this case, |x + y| = x + y, and so, by Lemma 4.4.4,

 $x \le |x|$ and $y \le |y|$.

Hence, by Theorem T26 of Appendix A,

 $|x + y| = x + y \le |x| + |y|.$

Case 2 (x + y < 0): In this case, |x + y| = -(x + y) = (-x) + (-y), and so, by Lemmas 4.4.4 and 4.4.5,

$$-x \le |-x| = |x|$$
 and $-y \le |-y| = |y|$.

It follows, by Theorem T26 of Appendix A, that

$$|x + y| = (-x) + (-y) \le |x| + |y|.$$

Hence in both cases $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$ [as was to be shown].

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