

A THE LANGUAGE OF MATHEMATICS

One of the challenges in learning calculus is growing accustomed to its precise language and terminology, especially in the statements of theorems. In this section, we analyze a few details of logic that are helpful, and indeed essential, in understanding and applying theorems properly.

Many theorems in mathematics involve an **implication**. If A and B are statements, then the implication $A \implies B$ is the assertion that A implies B :

$$A \implies B : \quad \text{If } A \text{ is true, then } B \text{ is true.}$$

Statement A is called the **hypothesis** (or premise) and statement B the **conclusion** of the implication. Here is an example: *If m and n are even integers, then $m + n$ is an even integer.* This statement may be divided into a hypothesis and conclusion:

$$\underbrace{m \text{ and } n \text{ are even integers}}_A \implies \underbrace{m + n \text{ is an even integer}}_B$$

In everyday speech, implications are often used in a less precise way. An example is: *If you work hard, then you will succeed.* Furthermore, some statements that do not initially have the form $A \implies B$ may be restated as implications. For example, the statement "Cats are mammals" can be rephrased as follows:

$$\text{Let } X \text{ be an animal. } \underbrace{X \text{ is a cat}}_A \implies \underbrace{X \text{ is a mammal}}_B$$

When we say that an implication $A \implies B$ is true, we do not claim that A or B is necessarily true. Rather, we are making the conditional statement that *if* A happens to be true, *then* B is also true. In the above, if X does not happen to be a cat, the implication tells us nothing.

The **negation** of a statement A is the assertion that A is false and is denoted $\neg A$.

Statement A	Negation $\neg A$
X lives in California.	X does not live in California.
$\triangle ABC$ is a right triangle.	$\triangle ABC$ is not a right triangle.

The negation of the negation is the original statement: $\neg(\neg A) = A$. To say that X does *not not live in California* is the same as saying that X *lives in California*.

■ **EXAMPLE 1** State the negation of each statement.

- (a) The door is open and the dog is barking.
- (b) The door is open or the dog is barking (or both).

Solution

- (a) The first statement is true if two conditions are satisfied (door open and dog barking), and it is false if at least one of these conditions is not satisfied. So the negation is

Either the door is not open *OR* the dog is not barking (*or both*).

(b) The second statement is true if at least one of the conditions (door open or dog barking) is satisfied, and it is false if neither condition is satisfied. So the negation is

The door is not open AND the dog is not barking.

Contrapositive and Converse

Two important operations are the formation of the contrapositive and the formation of the converse of a statement. The **contrapositive** of $A \implies B$ is the statement "If B is false, then A is false":

The contrapositive of $A \implies B$ is $\neg B \implies \neg A$.

Keep in mind that when we form the contrapositive, we reverse the order of A and B . The contrapositive of $A \implies B$ is NOT $\neg A \implies \neg B$.

Here are some examples:

Statement	Contrapositive
If X is a cat, then X is a mammal.	If X is not a mammal, then X is not a cat.
If you work hard, then you will succeed.	If you did not succeed, then you did not work hard.
If m and n are both even, then $m + n$ is even.	If $m + n$ is not even, then m and n are not both even.

A key observation is this:

The contrapositive and the original implication are equivalent.

The fact that $A \implies B$ is equivalent to its contrapositive $\neg B \implies \neg A$ is a general rule of logic that does not depend on what A and B happen to mean. This rule belongs to the subject of "formal logic," which deals with logical relations between statements without concern for the actual content of these statements.

In other words, if an implication is true, then its contrapositive is automatically true, and vice versa. In essence, an implication and its contrapositive are two ways of saying the same thing. For example, the contrapositive "If X is not a mammal, then X is not a cat" is a roundabout way of saying that cats are mammals.

The **converse** of $A \implies B$ is the *reverse* implication $B \implies A$:

Implication: $A \implies B$	Converse $B \implies A$
If A is true, then B is true.	If B is true, then A is true.

The converse plays a very different role than the contrapositive because *the converse is NOT equivalent to the original implication*. The converse may be true or false, even if the original implication is true. Here are some examples:

True Statement	Converse	Converse True or False?
If X is a cat, then X is a mammal.	If X is a mammal, then X is a cat.	False
If m is even, then m^2 is even.	If m^2 is even, then m is even.	True

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FIGURE

■ **EXAMPLE 2** An Example Where the Converse Is False Show that the converse of “If m and n are even, then $m + n$ is even” is false.

Solution The converse is “If $m + n$ is even, then m and n are even.” To show that the converse is false, we display a counterexample. Take $m = 1$ and $n = 3$ (or any other pair of odd numbers). The sum is even (since $1 + 3 = 4$) but neither 1 nor 3 is even. Therefore, the converse is false. ■

■ **EXAMPLE 3** An Example Where the Converse Is True State the contrapositive and converse of the Pythagorean Theorem. Are either or both of these true?

Solution Consider a triangle with sides a , b , and c , and let θ be the angle opposite the side of length c as in Figure 1. The Pythagorean Theorem states that if $\theta = 90^\circ$, then $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$. Here are the contrapositive and converse:

Pythagorean Theorem	$\theta = 90^\circ \implies a^2 + b^2 = c^2$	True
Contrapositive	$a^2 + b^2 \neq c^2 \implies \theta \neq 90^\circ$	Automatically true
Converse	$a^2 + b^2 = c^2 \implies \theta = 90^\circ$	True (but not automatic)

The contrapositive is automatically true because it is just another way of stating the original theorem. The converse is not automatically true since there could conceivably exist a nonright triangle that satisfies $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$. However, the converse of the Pythagorean Theorem is, in fact, true. This follows from the Law of Cosines (see Exercise 38). ■

When both a statement $A \implies B$ and its converse $B \implies A$ are true, we write $A \iff B$. In this case, A and B are **equivalent**. We often express this with the phrase

$$A \iff B \quad A \text{ is true if and only if } B \text{ is true.}$$

For example,

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \theta = 90^\circ$$

$$\text{It is morning} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \text{the sun is rising.}$$

We mention the following variations of terminology involving implications that you may come across:

Statement	Is Another Way of Saying
A is true <u>if</u> B is true.	$B \implies A$
A is true <u>only if</u> B is true.	$A \implies B$ (A cannot be true unless B is also true.)
For A to be true, <u>it is necessary</u> that B be true.	$A \implies B$ (A cannot be true unless B is also true.)
For A to be true, <u>it is sufficient</u> that B be true.	$B \implies A$
For A to be true, <u>it is necessary and sufficient</u> that B be true.	$B \iff A$

A counterexample is an example that satisfies the hypothesis but not the conclusion of a statement. If a single counterexample exists, then the statement is false. However, we cannot prove that a statement is true merely by giving an example.

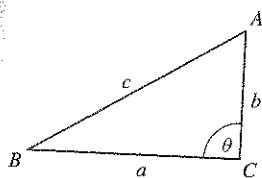


FIGURE 1

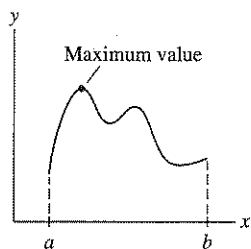


FIGURE 2 A continuous function on a closed interval $I = [a, b]$ has a maximum value.

Analyzing a Theorem

To see how these rules of logic arise in calculus, consider the following result from Section 4.2:

THEOREM 1 Existence of a Maximum on a Closed Interval If $f(x)$ is a continuous function on a closed (bounded) interval $I = [a, b]$, then $f(x)$ takes on a maximum value on I (Figure 2).

To analyze this theorem, let's write out the hypotheses and conclusion separately:

Hypotheses A : $f(x)$ is continuous and I is closed.

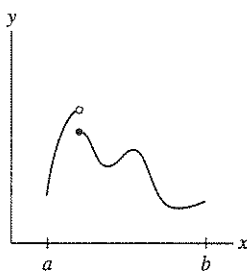
Conclusion B : $f(x)$ takes on a maximum value on I .

A first question to ask is: "Are the hypotheses necessary?" Is the conclusion still true if we drop one or both assumptions? To show that both hypotheses are necessary, we provide counterexamples:

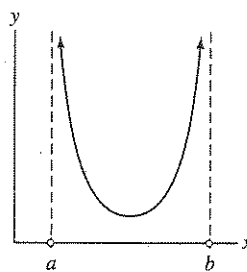
- **The continuity of $f(x)$ is a necessary hypothesis.** Figure 3(A) shows the graph of a function on a closed interval $[a, b]$ that is not continuous. This function has no maximum value on $[a, b]$, which shows that the conclusion may fail if the continuity hypothesis is not satisfied.
- **The hypothesis that I is closed is necessary.** Figure 3(B) shows the graph of a continuous function on an *open* interval (a, b) . This function has no maximum value, which shows that the conclusion may fail if the interval is not closed.

We see that both hypotheses in Theorem 1 are necessary. In stating this, we do not claim that the conclusion *always* fails when one or both of the hypotheses are not satisfied. We claim only that the conclusion *may* fail when the hypotheses are not satisfied. Next, let's analyze the contrapositive and converse:

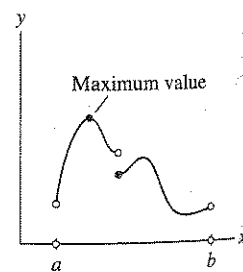
- **Contrapositive $\neg B \implies \neg A$ (automatically true):** If $f(x)$ does not have a maximum value on I , then either $f(x)$ is not continuous or I is not closed (or both).
- **Converse $B \implies A$ (in this case, false):** If $f(x)$ has a maximum value on I , then $f(x)$ is continuous and I is closed. We prove this statement false with a counterexample [Figure 3(C)].



(A) The interval is closed but the function is not continuous. The function has no maximum value.



(B) The function is continuous but the interval is open. The function has no maximum value.



(C) This function is not continuous and the interval is not closed, but the function does have a maximum value.

FIGURE 3

The technique of proof by contradiction is also known by its Latin name *reductio ad absurdum* or “reduction to the absurd.” The ancient Greek mathematicians used proof by contradiction as early as the fifth century BC, and Euclid (325–265 BC) employed it in his classic treatise on geometry entitled *The Elements*. A famous example is the proof that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational in Example 4. The philosopher Plato (427–347 BC) wrote: “He is unworthy of the name of man who is ignorant of the fact that the diagonal of a square is incommensurable with its side.”

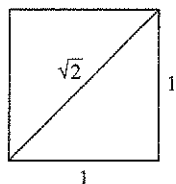


FIGURE 4 The diagonal of the unit square has length $\sqrt{2}$.

One of the most famous problems in mathematics is known as “Fermat’s Last Theorem.” It states that the equation

$$x^n + y^n = z^n$$

has no solutions in positive integers if $n \geq 3$. In a marginal note written around 1630, Fermat claimed to have a proof, and over the centuries, that assertion was verified for many values of the exponent n . However, only in 1994 did the British-American mathematician Andrew Wiles, working at Princeton University, find a complete proof.

As we know, the contrapositive is merely a way of restating the theorem, so it is automatically true. The converse is not automatically true, and in fact, in this case it is false. The function in Figure 3(C) provides a counterexample to the converse: $f(x)$ has a maximum value on $I = (a, b)$, but $f(x)$ is not continuous and I is not closed.

Mathematicians have devised various general strategies and methods for proving theorems. The method of proof by induction is discussed in Appendix C. Another important method is **proof by contradiction**, also called **indirect proof**. Suppose our goal is to prove statement A . In a proof by contradiction, we start by assuming that A is false, and then show that this leads to a contradiction. Therefore, A must be true (to avoid the contradiction).

■ **EXAMPLE 4 Proof by Contradiction** The number $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational (Figure 4).

Solution Assume that the theorem is false, namely that $\sqrt{2} = p/q$, where p and q are whole numbers. We may assume that p/q is in lowest terms, and therefore, at most one of p and q is even. Note that if the square m^2 of a whole number is even, then m itself must be even.

The relation $\sqrt{2} = p/q$ implies that $2 = p^2/q^2$ or $p^2 = 2q^2$. This shows that p must be even. But if p is even, then $p = 2m$ for some whole number m , and $p^2 = 4m^2$. Because $p^2 = 2q^2$, we obtain $4m^2 = 2q^2$, or $q^2 = 2m^2$. This shows that q is also even. But we chose p and q so that at most one of them is even. This contradiction shows that our original assumption, that $\sqrt{2} = p/q$, must be false. Therefore, $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. ■

CONCEPTUAL INSIGHT The hallmark of mathematics is precision and rigor. A theorem is established, not through observation or experimentation, but by a proof that consists of a chain of reasoning with no gaps.

This approach to mathematics comes down to us from the ancient Greek mathematicians, especially Euclid, and it remains the standard in contemporary research. In recent decades, the computer has become a powerful tool for mathematical experimentation and data analysis. Researchers may use experimental data to discover potential new mathematical facts, but the title “theorem” is not bestowed until someone writes down a proof.

This insistence on theorems and proofs distinguishes mathematics from the other sciences. In the natural sciences, facts are established through experiment and are subject to change or modification as more knowledge is acquired. In mathematics, theories are also developed and expanded, but previous results are not invalidated. The Pythagorean Theorem was discovered in antiquity and is a cornerstone of plane geometry. In the nineteenth century, mathematicians began to study more general types of geometry (of the type that eventually led to Einstein’s four-dimensional space-time geometry in the Theory of Relativity). The Pythagorean Theorem does not hold in these more general geometries, but its status in plane geometry is unchanged.

A. SUMMARY

- The implication $A \implies B$ is the assertion “If A is true, then B is true.”
- The *contrapositive* of $A \implies B$ is the implication $\neg B \implies \neg A$, which says “If B is false, then A is false.” An implication and its contrapositive are equivalent (one is true if and only if the other is true).
- The *converse* of $A \implies B$ is $B \implies A$. An implication and its converse are not necessarily equivalent. One may be true and the other false.
- A and B are *equivalent* if $A \implies B$ and $B \implies A$ are both true.

◦ In a proof by contradiction (in which the goal is to prove statement A), we start by assuming that A is false and show that this assumption leads to a contradiction.

A. EXERCISES

Preliminary Questions

- Which is the contrapositive of $A \implies B$?
 (a) $B \implies A$ (b) $\neg B \implies A$
 (c) $\neg B \implies \neg A$ (d) $\neg A \implies \neg B$
- Which of the choices in Question 1 is the converse of $A \implies B$?
- Suppose that $A \implies B$ is true. Which is then automatically true, the converse or the contrapositive?
- Restate as an implication: "A triangle is a polygon."

Exercises

- Which is the negation of the statement "The car and the shirt are both blue"?
 (a) Neither the car nor the shirt is blue.
 (b) The car is not blue and/or the shirt is not blue.
- Which is the contrapositive of the implication "If the car has gas, then it will run"?
 (a) If the car has no gas, then it will not run.
 (b) If the car will not run, then it has no gas.

In Exercises 3–8, state the negation.

- The time is 4 o'clock.
- $\triangle ABC$ is an isosceles triangle.
- m and n are odd integers.
- Either m is odd or n is odd.
- x is a real number and y is an integer.
- $f(x)$ is a linear function.

In Exercises 9–14, state the contrapositive and converse.

- If m and n are odd integers, then mn is odd.
- If today is Tuesday, then we are in Belgium.
- If today is Tuesday, then we are not in Belgium.
- If $x > 4$, then $x^2 > 16$.
- If m^2 is divisible by 3, then m is divisible by 3.
- If $x^2 = 2$, then x is irrational.

In Exercise 15–18, give a counterexample to show that the converse of the statement is false.

- If m is odd, then $2m + 1$ is also odd.
- If $\triangle ABC$ is equilateral, then it is an isosceles triangle.
- If m is divisible by 9 and 4, then m is divisible by 12.
- If m is odd, then $m^3 - m$ is divisible by 3.

In Exercise 19–22, determine whether the converse of the statement is false.

- If $x > 4$ and $y > 4$, then $x + y > 8$.
- If $x > 4$, then $x^2 > 16$.
- If $|x| > 4$, then $x^2 > 16$.


- If m and n are even, then mn is even.


In Exercises 23 and 24, state the contrapositive and converse (it is not necessary to know what these statements mean).

- If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are differentiable, then $f(x)g(x)$ is differentiable.
- If the force field is radial and decreases as the inverse square of the distance, then all closed orbits are ellipses.

In Exercises 25–28, the inverse of $A \implies B$ is the implication $\neg A \implies \neg B$.

- Which of the following is the inverse of the implication "If she jumped in the lake, then she got wet"?
 (a) If she did not get wet, then she did not jump in the lake.
 (b) If she did not jump in the lake, then she did not get wet.
 Is the inverse true?
- State the inverses of these implications:
 (a) If X is a mouse, then X is a rodent.
 (b) If you sleep late, you will miss class.
 (c) If a star revolves around the sun, then it's a planet.

-  Explain why the inverse is equivalent to the converse.

-  State the inverse of the Pythagorean Theorem. Is it true?

29. Theorem 1 in Section 2.4 states the following: "If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous functions, then $f(x) + g(x)$ is continuous." Does it follow logically that if $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are not continuous, then $f(x) + g(x)$ is not continuous?

30. Write out a proof by contradiction for this fact: There is no smallest positive rational number. Base your proof on the fact that if $r > 0$, then $0 < r/2 < r$.

31. Use proof by contradiction to prove that if $x + y > 2$, then $x > 1$ or $y > 1$ (or both).

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In Exercises 32–35, use proof by contradiction to show that the number is irrational.

32. $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$ 33. $\sqrt{3}$ 34. $\sqrt[3]{2}$ 35. $\sqrt[4]{11}$

36. An isosceles triangle is a triangle with two equal sides. The following theorem holds: If Δ is a triangle with two equal angles, then Δ is an isosceles triangle.

- (a) What is the hypothesis?
 (b) Show by providing a counterexample that the hypothesis is necessary.

Further Insights and Challenges

38. Let a , b , and c be the sides of a triangle and let θ be the angle opposite c . Use the Law of Cosines (Theorem 1 in Section 1.4) to prove the converse of the Pythagorean Theorem.

39. Carry out the details of the following proof by contradiction that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational (This proof is due to R. Palais). If $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, then $\sqrt{2}$ is a whole number for some whole number n . Let n be the smallest such whole number and let $m = n\sqrt{2} - n$.

- (a) Prove that $m < n$.
 (b) Prove that $m\sqrt{2}$ is a whole number.
 Explain why (a) and (b) imply that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

40. Generalize the argument of Exercise 39 to prove that \sqrt{A} is irrational if A is a whole number but not a perfect square. *Hint:* Choose n


- (c) What is the contrapositive?
 (d) What is the converse? Is it true?

37. Consider the following theorem: Let $f(x)$ be a quadratic polynomial with a positive leading coefficient. Then $f(x)$ has a minimum value.

- (a) What are the hypotheses?
 (b) What is the contrapositive?
 (c) What is the converse? Is it true?

as before and let $m = n\sqrt{A} - n[\sqrt{A}]$, where $[x]$ is the greatest integer function.

41. Generalize further and show that for any whole number r , the r th root $\sqrt[r]{A}$ is irrational unless A is an r th power. *Hint:* Let $x = \sqrt[r]{A}$. Show that if x is rational, then we may choose a smallest whole number n such that nx^j is a whole number for $j = 1, \dots, r - 1$. Then consider $m = nx - n[x]$ as before.

42.  Given a finite list of prime numbers p_1, \dots, p_N , let $M = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_N + 1$. Show that M is not divisible by any of the primes p_1, \dots, p_N . Use this and the fact that every number has a prime factorization to prove that there exist infinitely many prime numbers. This argument was advanced by Euclid in *The Elements*.