Day - 8 : Negation and Proof by Contradiction

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Study Mathematics In Lean(MIL) Section 3.3

Negation \neg :

Logically $\neg P$ (read as "not P") means that the proposition P is false. In Lean4, $\neg P$ is often defined as implication $\neg P := P \rightarrow false$. Where false is a proposition that is inherently false (it has no proofs). So, $\neg P$ means "if P is true, it would lead to a Contradiction (false)". This definition is very powerful because it allows us to use the tactics we already know for implications (like intro) to prove negations.

Proving $\neg P$:

If you want to prove \neg P, given that \neg P is P \rightarrow false, you would typically use the intro tactic:

- Assume P is true (e.g., intro hP where hP : P).
- Your goal becomes False.
- You then need to derive a contradiction (False) from hP and any other available hypotheses.

Using \neg P (i.e., h : P \rightarrow False):

If you have a hypothesis $h : \neg P$ (which means $h : P \rightarrow False$), and you also manage to derive a proof of P (say, hP_proof : P), then you can obtain a proof of False by applying h to hP_proof : h hP_proof would be a proof of False.

This $P \rightarrow False$ definition of negation is quite elegant.

A proof by contradiction works like this:

- To prove a proposition P : Assume ¬ P is true. If this assumption leads to logical impossibility (a contradiction, or False), then the original assumption ¬ P must be false, which means P must be true.
- To prove \neg P: Assume P is true. If this leads to False, then P must be false, so \neg P is true.

Lean's core logic is constructive. In constructive logic, proving P by assuming \neg P and deriving False is how $\neg \neg$ P is proven. To get from $\neg \neg$ P to P (which is what "proof by contraction for P" often implies) typically requires an appeal to classical logic, specifically the Law of Excluded Middle ($P \lor \neg P$). Lean4 allows you to use classical reasoning.

- 1. The by_contra Tactic : When you want to prove a proposition P using classical proof by contradiction, you can use the by_contra tactic. If your goal is P, and you use by_contra h_np (where h_np is a name you choose for the new hypothesis). This tactic will:
 - Add h_np : \neg P (i.e., h_np : P \rightarrow False) to your hypotheses.
 - Change your goal to False.

You then need to use h_np and other available facts to derive a contradiction.

```
1 example (P : Prop) -- ... other hypotheses ... : P := by
2 by_contra h_not_P -- Assume h_not_P : ¬P, goal becomes False
3 -- ... proof steps to derive False ...
4 -- For instance, if you can show P from other means (call it h_P_somehow):
5 -- exact (h_not_P h_P_somehow) -- This would be h_not_P (P → False) applied to P,
yielding False
```

- 2. The absurd Tactic: The absurd tactic is useful when you have already derived both a proposition P and its negation ¬ P in your context, and you want to conclude False (or even close any goal, because from False, anything follows by False.elim). If you have
 - hP : P
 - hnP : \neg P (which is P \rightarrow False

Then absurd hP hnP will prove False. Since anything follows from False (this is known as the principle of explosion, or False.elim in Lean), if your goal is , say , Q, and you can show False by absurd hP hnPP, then absurd hP hnP can close the goal Q.

```
1 example (P Q : Prop) (hP : P) (hnP : ¬P) : Q := by

2 -- We have P and ¬P, which is a contradiction.

3 -- From a contradiction, any goal Q can be proven.

4 exact absurd hP hnP -- The type of 'absurd hP hnP' is False.

5 -- 'exact' uses False.elim to make it match goal Q.

6 -- Or more explicitly:

7 example (P Q : Prop) (hP : P) (hnP : ¬P) : Q := by

1 have h_false : False := absurd hP hnP

9 exact False.elim h_false
```

Often, if your goal is False directly, you might use exact (hnP hP). The absurd tactic can be a bit more expressive or useful if the goal isn't immediately False but you have reached a contradiction.

A note on classical logic:

The by_contra tactic effectively assumes the law of exluded middle $(P \lor \neg P)$ for the proposition P. If you are working within purely constructive mathematics, you would avoid by_contra for proving positive (non-negated) statements unless $\neg \neg P \rightarrow P$ is constructively provable for that specific P. However, for much of standard mathematics formalized in Lean, classical logic (and thus by_contra) is commonly used.

Example - 1

```
A common classical result is that if the contrapositive (\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P) holds, then (P \rightarrow Q) also holds.
  Remembering that \neg X is X \rightarrow False, the statement is :
      ((Q \rightarrow False) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow False)) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow Q).
      We will prove this using by_contra.
      Theorem : \forall (P Q : Prop), ((Q \rightarrow False) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow False)) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow Q).
  example (P Q : Prop) (h_contrapositive : (Q \rightarrow False) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow False)) : P \rightarrow Q := by
     -- Our goal is P \rightarrow Q.
     -- To prove an implication, we introduce the hypothesis.
3
     intro hP
     -- Now, hP : P is a hypothesis.
     -- Our goal is Q.
6
     -- At this point, proving Q directly might be tricky.
8
9
     -- Let's try to prove Q by contradiction.
10
     -- We assume \neg Q (not Q) and aim to derive False.
     by_contra hnQ
     -- Now, hnQ : 
eg Q (which means hnQ : Q 
ightarrow False) is a hypothesis.
12
     -- Our goal has changed to False.
13
14
15
     -- We have h_contrapositive : (Q 
ightarrow False) 
ightarrow (P 
ightarrow False).
     -- We also have hnQ : Q 
ightarrow False.
16
     -- We can apply h_contrapositive to hnQ.
     let hnP := h_contrapositive hnQ
18
     -- Now, hnP : P \rightarrow False (which means hnP : \negP).
19
20
21
     -- We have hP : P (from the 'intro hP' earlier).
     -- And we just derived hnP : \neg P.
22
     -- So, we have P and \neg P\,, which is a contradiction.
23
     -- Applying hnP (which is P \rightarrow False) to hP (which is P) gives False.
24
```

```
25 exact (hnP hP)
26 -- This proves False, which was our goal after 'by_contra'.
```

- 1. intro hP:
 - Our initial goal is $P \rightarrow Q$. The standard way to prove this is to assume P and then prove Q.
 - intro hP adds hP : P to our hypotheses, and the goal becomes Q.
- 2. by_contra hnQ:
 - We are now trying to prove Q. We decide to use proof by contradiction. by_contra hnQ does two things. First, it adds hnQ : $\neg Q$ (which is $Q \rightarrow False$) to our hypotheses. We are assuming Q is flase. Second, it changes our goal to False. The staretgy is now to show that assuming $\neg Q$ (along with P) leads to a contradiction.
- 3. let hnP := h_contrapositive hnQ:
 - We have our main hypothesis h_contrapositive : (Q \rightarrow False) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow False).
 - We also have $hnQ : Q \rightarrow False$ from our by_contra step.
 - We can apply h_contrapositive to hnQ. Since h_contrapositive is a function expecting an argument of type (Q \rightarrow False), and (P \rightarrow False).
 - We name this hnP. So, hnP : $P \rightarrow False$ (which means hnP : $\neg P$).

4. exact (hnP hP):

- At this point, our goal is False.
- We have hP : P.
- We have $hnP : P \rightarrow False$.
- Applying hnP to hP gives us a proof of False.
- exact uses this proof of False to satisfy the goal.

This successfully shows that if $\neg Q$ leads to False, then our initial setup implies a contradiction, thus proving Q.

Example - 2

In the example above, the last step was exact (hbP hP). Since hnP is \neg P and hP is P, this directly yields False. We could also have written:

```
1 -- ..
2 -- let hnP := h_contrapositive hnQ -- hnP : ¬ P
3 -- We have hP : P
4 exact (absurd hP hnP)
```

Here, absurd hP hnP recognizes that hP and hnP are contradictory and itself evaluates to a proof of False. So exact (absurd hP hnP) also closes the goal. The absurd tactic can be more explicit when you want to highlight that you are using a direct contradiction between two existing hypotheses.

Asymmetry of Less Than a < b \rightarrow \neg b < a

```
variable (a b : ℝ)
variable (a b : ℝ)
variable (h : a < b) : ¬ b < a := by
-- ¬ P mean P → False. So we assume b < a and try to prove False.
intro h' -- Assume h' : b < a
-- We have h : a < b and h' : b < a
-- lt_trans is the transitivity rule: x < y → y < z → x < z.
-- If we apply it to h and h' we get a < a</pre>
```

```
9 have : a < a := lt_trans h h'
10 -- Now we have a < a
11 -- lt_irrefl a is the irreflexivity rule : a < a \rightarrow False.
12 apply lt_irrefl a this
13 -- This gives us 'False', which was our goal after intro h'.
```

Standard Negation Lemmas for Inequalities

These #check commands show the type of important lemmas from mathlib. They are often based on the law of trichotomy (for any a, b, exactly one of a<b , a=b or a >b holds) and require classical logic.

1 #check (not_le_of_gt : $a > b \rightarrow \neg a \le b$) 2 #check (not_lt_of_ge : $a \ge b \rightarrow \neg a < b$) 3 #check (lt_of_not_ge : $\neg a \ge b \rightarrow a < b$) 4 #check (le_of_not_gt : $\neg a > b \rightarrow a \le b$)

Negating a Universal Statement about Monotonicity

```
1 -- Goal : Prove that it is not true that every monotone function f has the property that f a
         \leq f b \rightarrow a \leq b.
2 example : \neg \forall \{f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}\}, Monotone f \to \forall \{a b\}, f a \leq f b \to a \leq b := by
3 -- We need to prove \neg P. So we assume P and aim for False.
     intro h -- Assume : \forall {f : \mathbb R \rightarrow \mathbb R }, Monotone f \rightarrow \forall {a b : \mathbb R }, f a \leq f b \rightarrow a \leq b
 4
     -- To show a universal statement is false, we need a counterexample.
     -- Our counterexample is the constant function f(x)=0
6
     let f := fun x : \mathbb{R} \mapsto (0 : \mathbb{R})
7
9 -- First, we need to prove our counterexample function IS monotone
10
     have monof : Monotone f := by
     -- To prove Monotone f, we need to show x \leq y \rightarrow f x \leq f y
11
       intros x y h__xy -- Assume x \leq y . Goal is f x \leq f y.
12
13
        -- Since f x = 0 and f y = 0, the goal is 0 \leq \leq 0
        -- le_refl 0 proves 0 \leq 0
14
        rfl
15
16
17
   -- Now let's pick a specific a and b to make the implication fail.
_{18} -- We want f a \leq f b to be true, but a \leq b to be false.
_{19} -- Let a =1 and b=0. Then a \leq b is 1 \leq 0 , which is false.
_{20} -- f 1 \leq f 0 is 0 \leq 0 which is true.
     have h': f 1 \leq f 0 := le_refl _
21
22
     -- Now, let's use our assumption monof
23
     -- It claims that For our f (since it is monotone), f a \leq f b 
ightarrow a \leq b must hold for all
24
      a and b
     -- Let's apply it to our f and monof
25
     have : (1 : \mathbb{R}) \leq 0 := h monof h,
26
27
28 linarith
```

Proving $x \leq 0$ using le_of_not_gt

```
_1 -- Goal : If x is less than every positive \epsilon , then x \leq 0.
2 example (x : \mathbb{R}) (h : \forall \epsilon > 0, x < \epsilon) : x \leq 0 := by
3
    -- We want to use le_of_not_gt. This lemma states : \neg x > 0 \rightarrow x \leq 0.
     -- So if we can prove \neg x > 0, we are done.
4
     apply le_of_not_gt
     -- Our new goal is \neg x > 0, which mean x > 0 \rightarrow False.
6
    intro hx -- Assume x > 0. Goal is False.
    -- Take \epsilon = x, which is > 0 since hx : x > 0
8
    specialize h x hx
9
    -- But then x < x, which is impossible
10
11 exact lt_irrefl x h
```

Principle of Explosion

variable (a : N)
-- Goal : If 0 < 0 (a false statement), then a > 37 (an arbitrary statement)
example (h : 0 < 0) : a > 37 := by
-- From a false statement, anything follows.
-- exfalso changes the current goal to False.
-- We are now saying I can prove False, therefore I can prove anything.
exfalso
-- Our goal is now False.
-- We can prove False because we know 0 < 0 is impossible.
-- It_irrefl 0 is $0 < 0 \rightarrow$ False.
apply lt_irrefl 0 h