

COMP S264F Unit 2: Methods of Proof

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Overview

- Proof by inference rules
- Direct proof
- Indirect proof / Proof by contraposition
- Non-proof
- Proof by cases
 - Exhaustive proof / Proof by exhaustion
- Proof by contradiction
- Mathematical induction

Theroem

- A *theorem (lemma)* is a statement that can be shown to be true.
- A theorem often takes the following form:
 - ~~p is true.~~
 - e.g., $\sqrt{2}$ is an irrational number.
 - ~~p \rightarrow q is true.~~
 - e.g., For any integer x, if x is a prime number and $x > 3$, then $\exists n (x = 6n - 1 \text{ or } 6n + 1)$.
 - ~~p \leftrightarrow q is true.~~
 - e.g., $\forall x (x \text{ is a prime number and } x > 3 \text{ if and only if } \exists n (x = 6n - 1 \text{ or } 6n + 1))$.
- A *lemma* is a theorem for helping prove another theorem. It is a step in the direction of proof of another theorem.

Proof

- A *proof* is a sequence of statements demonstrating a theorem is true.
 - We want to a proof to be **correct, precise, concise**.
- Some of these statements are assumed to be true (*axioms, known fact, definitions*), while the truth of other statements is established based on logical deduction.

Proof: Example

Prove: If $\exists x \forall y P(x, y)$, then $\forall y \exists x P(x, y)$.

1. Assume $\exists x \forall y P(x, y)$.
2. $\forall y P(x_0, y)$, for some x_0 .
3. $\forall y \exists x P(x, y)$.

Prove: If $\forall x \exists y P(x, y)$, then $\exists y \forall x P(x, y)$.

- Counterexample: Consider $P(x, y)$ as $x = y$.

Deduction / Inference Rules

Given: $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $\neg P \Rightarrow Q$
 Conclude: Q

Given: $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $Q \Rightarrow R$
 Conclude: $P \Rightarrow R$

Modus ponens

Given: P and $P \Rightarrow Q$
 Conclude: Q

Modus tollens

Given: $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $\neg Q$
 Conclude: $\neg P$

Why?

$[(P \Rightarrow Q) \wedge (\neg P \Rightarrow Q)] \Rightarrow Q$ is a tautology.

Quiz:

Given: $\neg P \Rightarrow \text{false}$
 Conclude: _____

Given: $\neg P \Rightarrow P$
 Conclude: _____

Given: $P \Rightarrow \neg P$
 Conclude: _____

Recall that $p \Rightarrow q$ **is false** only when p is true but q is false.

More Inference Rules

Given: $\forall x P(x)$.

Conclude: $\exists x P(x)$.

Given: $\exists x P(x)$.

Conclude: $P(x_0)$, where x_0 is a particular element (an element, some element) in the domain.

Given: Let x_0 be a particular element in the domain. $P(x_0)$.

Conclude: $\exists x P(x)$.

Proof by Inference Rules: Example 1

To prove a proposition p (to be true),
we can start with some proposition p' that is
known to be true and show that $p' \Rightarrow p$ (is true).
Then it follows that p is true. (*Modus ponens*)

This is equivalent to the tautology

$$[p' \wedge (p' \Rightarrow p)] \Rightarrow p$$

Given:

- If you study in OUHK, you have a student card.
- You study in OUHK.

Conclude: You have a student card.

Proof by Inference Rules: Example 2

Modus tollens

Given: $p \Rightarrow q$ and $\neg q$

Conclude: $\neg p$

This is equivalent to the tautology

$$[(p \Rightarrow q) \wedge \neg q] \Rightarrow \neg p$$

Given:

- If Tom studies in OUHK, Tom has a student card.
- Tom does not have a student card.

Conclude: Tom does not study in OUHK.

Proof by Inference Rules: Example 3

Hypothetical Syllogism

Given: $p \Rightarrow q$ and $q \Rightarrow r$

Conclude: $p \Rightarrow r$

This is equivalent to the tautology

$$[(p \Rightarrow q) \wedge (q \Rightarrow r)] \Rightarrow (p \Rightarrow r)$$

Given:

- If you pass the course, then you pass the exam.
- If you pass the exam, then you have attended the exam.

Conclude: If you pass the course, then you have attended the exam.

Proof by Inference Rules: Example 4

Disjunctive Syllogism

Given: $p \vee q$ and $\neg p$

Conclude: q

This is equivalent to the tautology

$$[(p \vee q) \wedge \neg p] \Rightarrow q$$

Given:

- I study before exam **or** I fail the course.
- I do not study before exam.

Conclude: I fail the course.

Proving a theorem in the form of $p \Rightarrow q$

Direct proof: To prove $p \Rightarrow q$, we assume that p is true, then show that q is true.

Example: For any integer n , if n is odd, then n^2 is odd.

Proof.

- Suppose that n is odd.
- Then, $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .
- It follows that

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

- Therefore, n^2 is odd.

Indirect Proof / Proof by Contraposition

- Note that $p \Rightarrow q$ is equivalent to $\neg q \Rightarrow \neg p$ (*contrapositive*).
- To prove “ $p \Rightarrow q$ ”, we can prove “ $\neg q \Rightarrow \neg p$ ”.

Example 1: For any integer n , if $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

Proof. Assume that n is even (i.e., not odd).

Then $3n$, as well as $3n+2$, is even (i.e., not odd).

Therefore, $3n + 2$ is odd $\Rightarrow n$ is odd.

Example 2: For any integer n , if n^2 is even, then n is even.

Proof. We proved its contrapositive in the previous slide:

If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.

Therefore, if n^2 is even, then n is even.

Non-proof

- Failure to note the justification for each step can lead easily to non-proofs.

Theorem. (not!) $1 = -1$

Proof. $1 = \sqrt{1} = \sqrt{(-1)(-1)} = \sqrt{-1}\sqrt{-1} = \sqrt{-1}^2 = -1.$

- At least one of the above steps is false, but each looks reasonable to the author of the proof.
- Writing out the full justifying axioms for each step reveals: it is not incorrect that for any x and y , $\sqrt{xy} = \sqrt{x}\sqrt{y}.$

Proof by Cases

- To prove “ $p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n \Rightarrow q$ ” is true, we note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n \Rightarrow q \\
 \equiv & \neg (p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n) \vee q \\
 \equiv & (\neg p_1 \wedge \neg p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \neg p_n) \vee q \quad [\text{by De Morgan's law}] \\
 \equiv & (\neg p_1 \vee q) \wedge (\neg p_2 \vee q) \wedge \dots \wedge (\neg p_n \vee q) \quad [\text{by distributive law}] \\
 \equiv & (p_1 \Rightarrow q) \wedge (p_2 \Rightarrow q) \wedge \dots \wedge (p_n \Rightarrow q)
 \end{aligned}$$

- That means, we should prove each $(p_i \Rightarrow q)$ one by one.

Proof by Cases: Example

(more commonly written as " $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ").



If n is an integer not divisible by 3, then $n^2 \pmod{3} = 1$.

\equiv If $(n \pmod{3} = 1$ **or** $n \pmod{3} = 2)$, then $n^2 \pmod{3} = 1$.

\equiv If $(n \pmod{3} = 1)$, then $n^2 \pmod{3} = 1$, **and** if $(n \pmod{3} = 2)$, then $n^2 \pmod{3} = 1$.

Case 1: If $n \pmod{3} = 1$, $n = 3k + 1$ for some integer k .

It follows that $n^2 = (3k+1)^2 = 9k^2 + 6k + 1 = 3(3k^2 + 2k) + 1$.

Therefore, $n^2 \pmod{3} = 1$.

Case 2: If $n \pmod{3} = 2$, $n = 3k + 2$ for some integer k .

It follows that $n^2 = (3k+2)^2 = 9k^2 + 12k + 4 = 3(3k^2 + 4k + 1) + 1$.

Therefore, $n^2 \pmod{3} = 1$.

Exhaustive proof / Proof by Exhaustion

- Exhaustive proof is a special type of proof by cases, where each case involves checking a single example.

Example: All integers between 10 and 15 exclusive are not square of another integer.

Proof.

- The numbers between 10 and 15 exclusive 11, 12, 13, 14.
- We can check each of these numbers and show that
-

$$\sqrt{11} \approx 3.316$$

$$\sqrt{12} \approx 3.464$$

$$\sqrt{13} \approx 3.605$$

$$\sqrt{14} \approx 3.741$$

Proof by contradiction

- A popular way to prove a proposition.

To prove p , we show that “ $\neg p \Rightarrow \text{false}$ ” is true.
 Note that “ $\neg p \Rightarrow \text{false}$ ” is equivalent to p .
 Thus, it follows that p is true.

- More specifically, we show that for some proposition r ,

$$\neg p \Rightarrow (r \text{ and } \neg r) \quad (\text{is true}).$$
- Note that $(r \text{ and } \neg r) \Leftrightarrow \text{false}$.
- Therefore, $\neg p \Rightarrow \text{false}$ (is true).
- NB. We say that a contradiction occurs when both r and $\neg r$ can be deduced.

Proof by contradiction: Example

Definition. A real number is **rational** if and only if it can be expressed as a quotient of two integers with a non-zero denominator. More formally, if r is a real number, then

$$r \text{ is rational} \Leftrightarrow \exists \text{ integers } a, b \text{ such that } r = \frac{a}{b} \text{ and } b > 0$$

Theorem. $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational (i.e., not a rational number).

Proof plan:

Assume $\sqrt{2}$ is rational.

$\sqrt{2} = a/b$ for some integers $a, b > 0$
such that

- a, b are *relatively prime* (i.e., don't have a common factor except 1).
- a, b are **not** *relatively prime*.

} false

Proof by contradiction: Example (cont')

Theorem. $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational (i.e., not a rational number).

Proof.

Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, $\sqrt{2}$ is rational.

\exists integers $a, b > 0$ such that $\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b}$ and a, b are relatively prime.

Thus, $\sqrt{2}b = a \Rightarrow 2b^2 = a^2 \Rightarrow a^2$ is even.

In slide 12, we have shown that: If a^2 is even, then a is even.

Therefore, a is even. (*modus ponens*)

$\Rightarrow a = 2c$ for some integer c .

$\Rightarrow b^2 = a^2/2 = (4c^2)/2 = 2c^2$

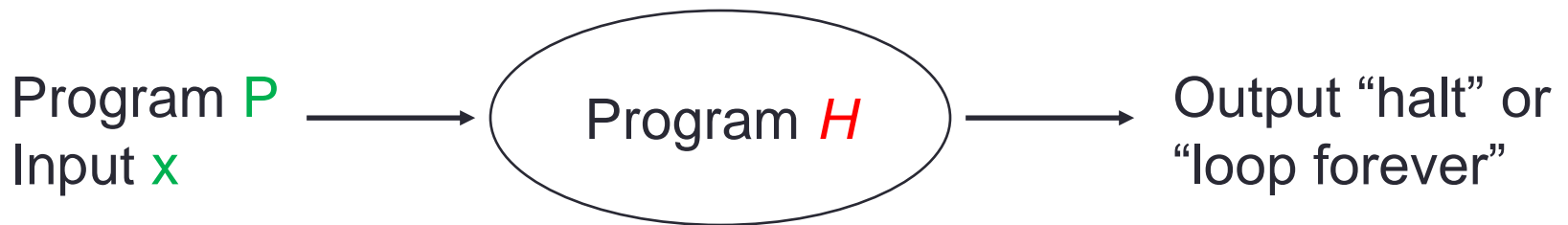
$\Rightarrow b$ is also even.

As both a and b are even, they have a common factor of 2 and are not relatively prime. A contradiction occurs.

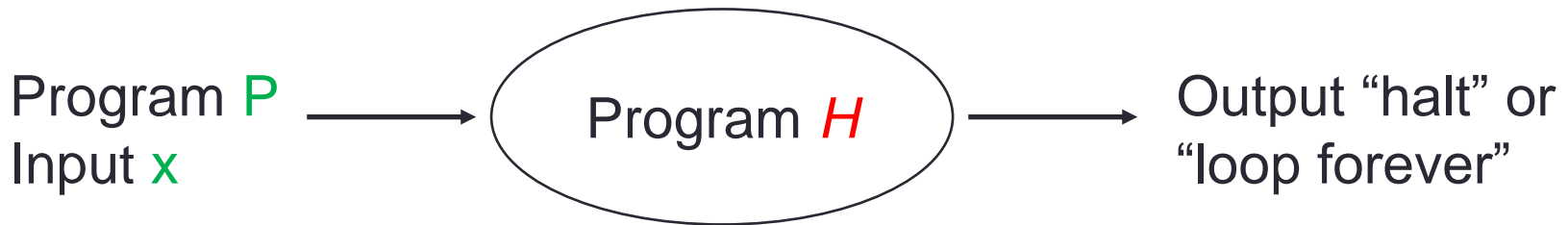
Puzzle: Halting problem

Is it possible to write a Python function H that

- takes two inputs (arguments): a Python function (binary string) P and an input (binary string) x ;
- and **reports** “loop forever” if P loops forever with input x , and “halt” if P halts eventually ?



Theorem. There **doesn't** exist such a function H .

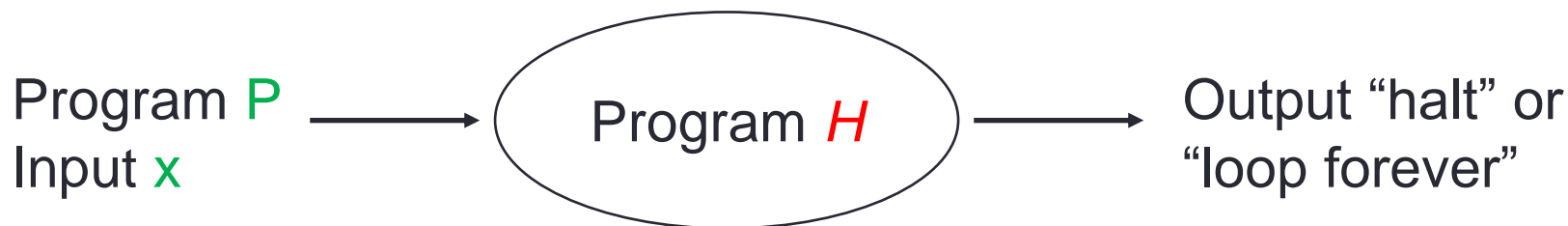


Proof. Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that H exists.

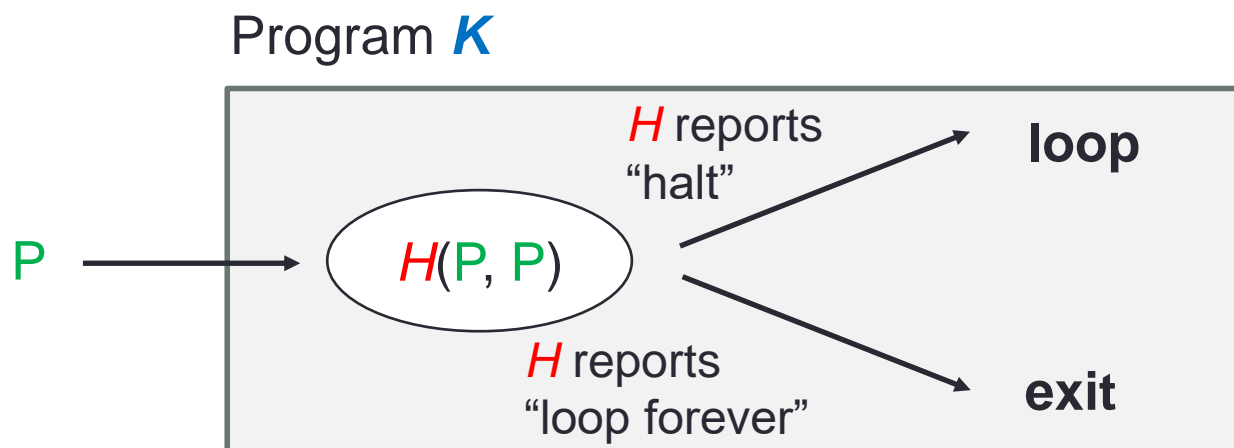
We construct another function K that takes only one input, which is a Python function P , and works as follows:

1. Call $H(P, P)$
2. Then, do the following based on the output of $H(P, P)$:
 - if $H(P, P)$ returns “halt”, K executes a simple loop forever; (e.g., `b = 2`
 `while b <= 2:`
 `a = 1`)
 - if $H(P, P)$ returns “loop forever”, K halts immediately.

PS. H takes two inputs, and K takes one input only.



Proof. Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that H exists.



Fact. $K(P)$ does not loop forever.

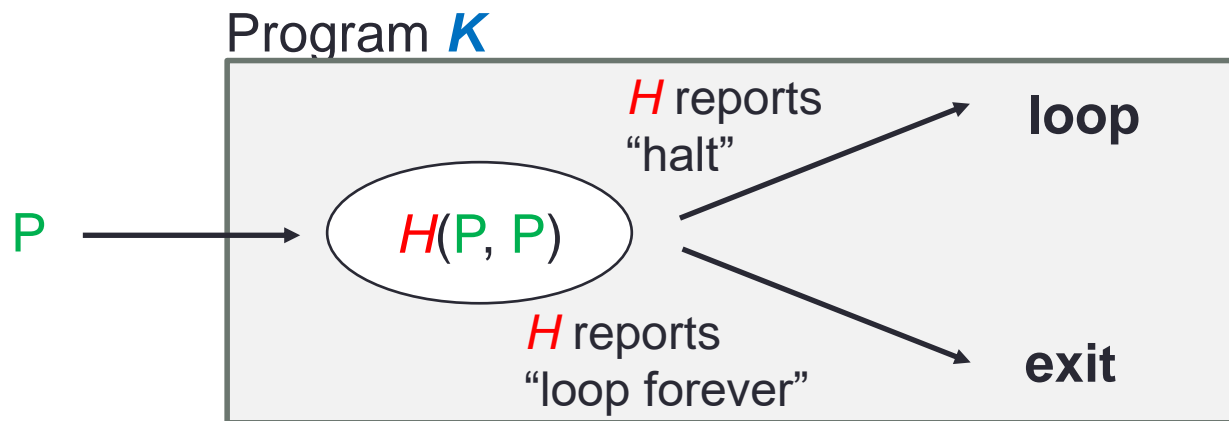
if and only if

$H(P, P)$ reports “loop forever” (by definition of K)

if and only if

P , when given P as input, loops forever (by definition of H)

Puzzle: Halting problem - Contradiction



Consider running the function K with K as input.
 $K(K)$ either loops forever or halts.

- $K(K)$ loops forever: This happens only when $H(K, K)$ reports "halt"; i.e., $K(K)$ does not loop forever.
- $K(K)$ halts: This happens only when $H(K, K)$ reports "loop forever", i.e., $K(K)$ does not halt.

In both cases, contradiction occurs. Therefore, H cannot exist.

Example: Barber paradox

A town has only 1 male barber. A man in the town is shaved by the barber if and only if he does not shave himself.

Theorem. Such a barber does not exist.

Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that such a barber exists. Denote this barber by *B*.

Does *B* shave himself?

- Yes: *B* doesn't shave himself.
- No: *B* shaves himself.

Proving a theorem in the form of $p \Rightarrow q$ (revisited)

- We can also use proof by contradiction.
- $p \Rightarrow q$ is false \Leftrightarrow p is true and q is false.
- We can show that

$$(p \wedge \neg q) \Rightarrow (r \text{ and } \neg r) \text{ for some } r.$$

- N.B. “ r and $\neg r$ ” is a contradiction (i.e., always false).

Example 2: For any integer n , if n^2 is even, then n is even.

Proof. Assume that n^2 is even and n is odd.

Thus, $n = 2k + 1$ for some k .

Then, $n^2 = (2k+1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$.

Thus, n^2 is odd, which contradicts that n^2 is even.

Proving a theorem in the form of $p \Rightarrow q$

(Summary)

In summary, three possible ways to prove $p \Rightarrow q$:

- Assume p q .
- Assume $\neg q$ $\neg p$.
- Assume p and $\neg q$ r and $\neg r$. A contradiction occurs.

Proving a theorem in the form of $p \Leftrightarrow q$

To prove $p \Leftrightarrow q$, there are many possible ways.

- First assume p q . That is, $p \Rightarrow q$.
 And then assume q p . That is, $q \Rightarrow p$.
- First assume p q . That is, $p \Rightarrow q$.
 And then assume $\neg p$ $\neg q$. That is, $\neg p \Rightarrow \neg q$.
- $p \Leftrightarrow r_1 \Leftrightarrow r_2 \Leftrightarrow \dots \Leftrightarrow q$.
- ...

Recap: Negation

Is $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ equivalent to $\exists x \neg P(x)$?

I.e., $\neg(\forall x P(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \neg P(x)$ is true or false?

- YES.
- Suppose “ $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ ” is true.
 $\forall x P(x)$ is false.
 There exists x such that $P(x)$ is false.
 “ $\exists x \neg P(x)$ ” is true.
- Suppose “ $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ ” is false.
 $\forall x P(x)$ is true.
 “ $\exists x \neg P(x)$ ” is false.

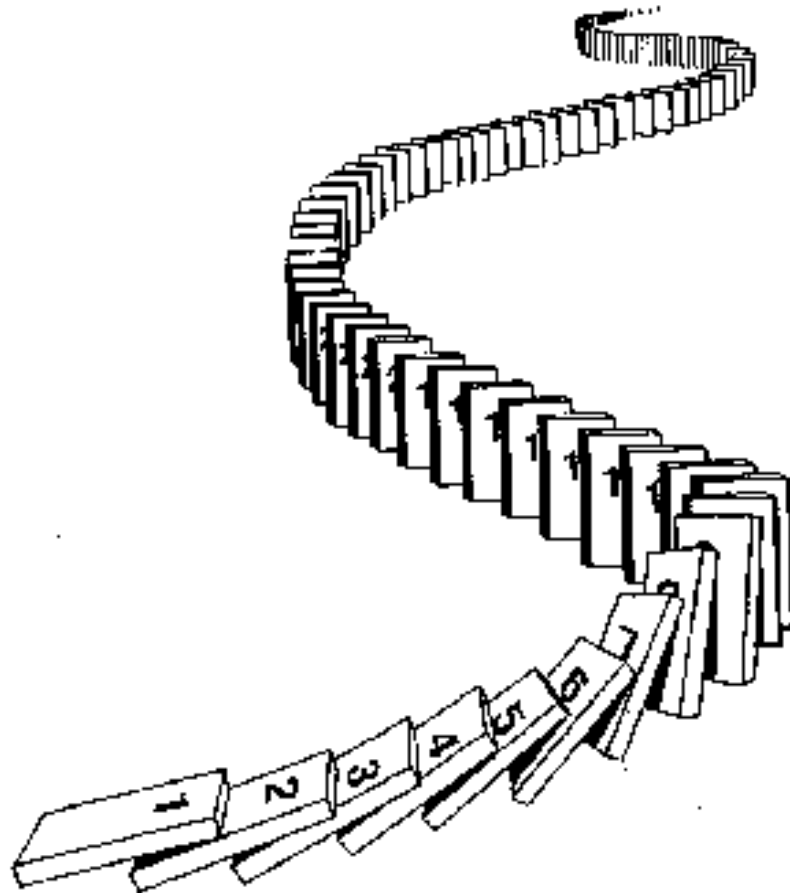
Mathematical Induction

- Many theorems have the form $P(n)$ for all positive integers.
 - A proof by mathematical induction consists of two steps:
 - Basis step (base case): $P(1)$ is true.
 - Induction step: for any positive integer i , if $P(i)$ is true, then $P(i+1)$ is true.
- Induction hypothesis
- When we complete both steps, we have proved that $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers n .
 - Why?

Why Mathematical Induction works?

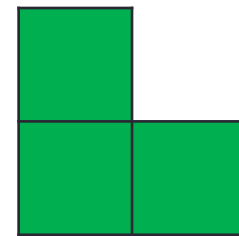
Let k be any integer. Is $P(k)$ true?

- $P(1)$ (is true).
- $P(1) \Rightarrow P(2)$.
- Thus, $P(2)$.
- $P(2) \Rightarrow P(3)$.
- Thus, $P(3)$.
- $P(3) \Rightarrow P(4)$.
- Thus, $P(4)$.
- ...
- Thus, $P(k)$.

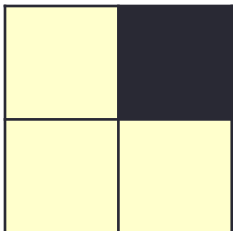


Mathematical Induction: Example

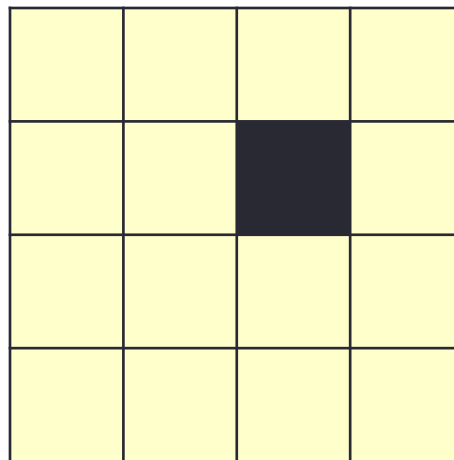
Show that any $2^n \times 2^n$ chessboard with one square removed can be covered using L-shaped pieces (each occupying 3 squares) only.



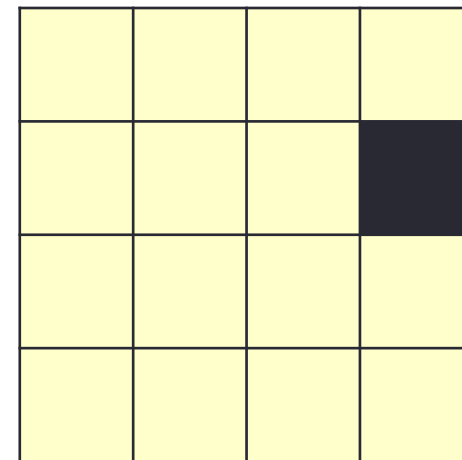
$n = 1$



$n = 2$

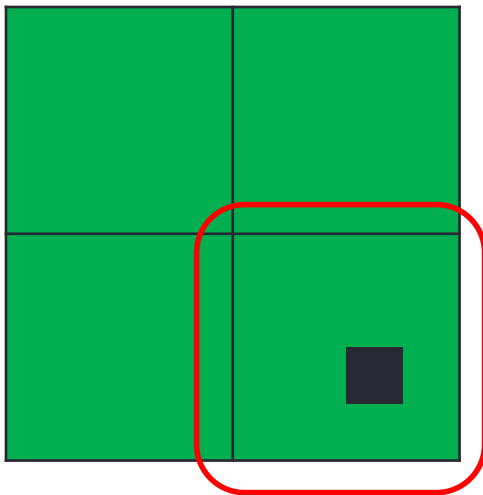


$n = 2$



Mathematical Induction: Proof

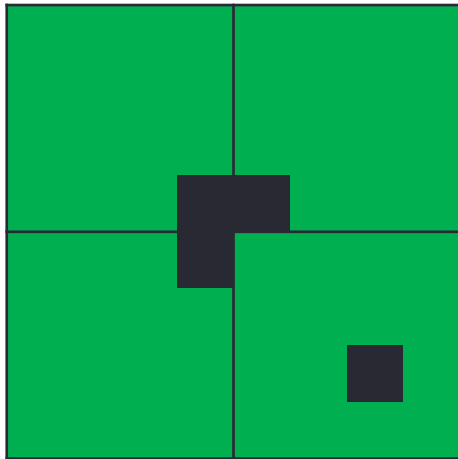
- **Basis step, $n = 1$:** No matter where the missing square is, the remaining three squares can be covered by one L-shaped piece.
- **Inductive step:** Assume the claim is true for some $n \geq 1$.
Consider a chessboard of size $2^{n+1} \times 2^{n+1}$.
 - Divide the board into 4 quadrants, each containing $2^n \times 2^n$ squares.



By the induction hypothesis, the quadrant containing the missing square can be covered using L-shaped pieces.

What about the remaining three?

Mathematical Induction: Proof (cont')



Cover the center using one L-shaped piece.

Then apply the **induction hypothesis** to cover each individual quadrant using L-shaped pieces.

Inductive Step

Inductive step: for any positive integer i , if $P(i)$ is true, then $P(i+1)$ is true.

Another form of inductive step: for any positive integer i , if $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(i)$ is true, then $P(i+1)$ is true.

Both forms of inductive step can lead to the same conclusion (i.e., $P(n)$ is true for all n). However in some cases, the second form is easier to prove.

Example: Big O Notation

- Consider an algorithm A.
- Let $f(n)$ be the number of steps required by an algorithm A when the input is of size n .
- When we say $f(n) = O(n)$, what does it mean?
- What is $O(n)$? E.g., $66n$, $23n+1234$, $100n$, $\log n$, ...
- Roughly speaking, $f(n) = O(n)$ if $f(n)$ is at most n multiplied by a constant.
- Example: MergeSort takes $O(n \log n)$ steps to sort n numbers.

Induction

- The following mathematical induction shows that $n^2 = O(n)$
- Basis step: $n = 1, 1 = O(1)$
- Induction step:
If $n^2 = O(n)$, then
$$(n+1)^2 = n^2 + 2n + 1 = O(n) + 2n + 1 = O(n)$$

Big O Notation: Definition

In general, if a function $f(n) = O(n \log n)$, what does it mean?

- Asymptotically, $f(n)$ is at most $n \log n$ multiplied by a constant.
(E.g., $f(n) = 3 n \log n + 1000$).
- There exists a constant c such that for all n , $f(n) \leq c n \log n$.
 $\exists c \quad \forall n \quad f(n) \leq c n \log n.$ (Too restricted!)

- There exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n , $f(n) \leq c n \log n$.
 $\exists c \quad \exists n_0 \quad \forall n \quad \text{if } n > n_0 \text{ then } f(n) \leq c n \log n.$