

# Proofs: Logic in Action

## Using Logic

- Logic is used to deduce results in any (mathematically defined) system
  - Typically a human endeavour (but can be automated if the system is relatively simple)
- Proof is a means to convince others (and oneself) that a deduced result is correct
  - Verifying a proof is meant to be easy (automatable)
  - © Coming up with a proof is typically a lot harder (not easy to fully automate, but sometimes computers can help)

# What are we proving?

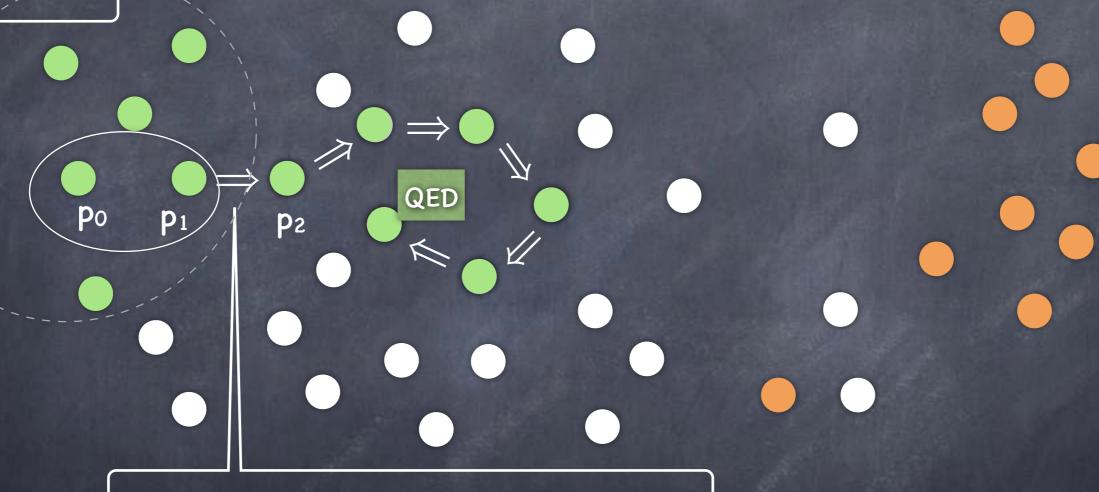
- We are proving propositions
  - Often called Theorems, Lemmas, Claims, ...
- Propositions may employ various <u>predicates</u> already specified as Definitions
  - e.g. All positive even numbers are larger than 1
    - ∀x∈I ( Positive(x) ∧ Even(x) ) → Greater(x,1)
- These predicates are specific to the system (here arithmetic).
  The system will have its own "axioms" too (e.g., ∀x x+0=x)
  - For us, numbers (integers, rationals, reals) and other systems like sets, graphs, functions, ...

## Anatomy of a Proof

- Clearly state the proposition p to prove (esp'ly, if rephrased)
- Derive propositions  $p_0$ , ...,  $p_n$  where for each k, either  $p_k$  is an axiom or an already proven proposition in the system, or  $(p_0 \land p_1 \land ... \land p_{k-1}) \rightarrow p_k$  holds (i.e., is True)
  - Usually one or two propositions  $\{ [verify!] \text{ if } (p_i \land p_j) \rightarrow p_k, \text{ then so far would imply the next} \}$
  - An explanation should make it easy to verify the implication (e.g., "By  $p_j$  and  $p_{k-1}$ , we obtain  $p_k$ ")
- pn should be the proposition to be proven
- May use "sub-routines" (lemmas)
  - @ e.g., Derive  $p_0$ , ...,  $p_{k-1}$ . Let  $p_k$  be a lemma proven separately. Say,  $p_k = p_{k-1} \rightarrow p$ . Now, let  $p_{k+1}$  be p, as  $(p_{k-1} \land p_k) \rightarrow p$  holds.

Axioms,
definitions,
already proven
propositions - -

## A Mental Picture



⇒ indicates derivation from all statements proven so far

## Example

- Our system here is that of integers (comes with the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  and operations like +, -, \*, /, exponentiation...)
  - We will not attempt to formally define this system!
- Definition: An integer x is said to be odd if there is an integer y s.t. x=2y+1

"if" used by convention; actually means "iff"

- Proposition: If x is an odd integer, so is x²

## Example

- Def:  $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$  Odd(x)  $\leftrightarrow \exists y \in \mathbb{Z}$  (x = 2y+1)
- Proposition:  $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$  Odd(x) → Odd(x²)
- Proof: (should be written in more readable English)
  - $\circ$  Let x be an arbitrary element of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Variable x introduced.

  - By def.,  $\exists y \in \mathbb{Z}$  x=2y+1. So let x=2a+1 where a∈\(\mathbb{Z}\). Variable a.
  - Then,  $x^2 = (2a+1)^2 = 4a^2 + 4a + 1$ =  $2(2a^2+2a) + 1$ . From arithmetic.

  - So let  $2a^2+2a=b$ , where  $b\in\mathbb{Z}$  Variable b.
  - $\odot$  Hence,  $x^2 = 2b+1$
  - $\odot$  Then, by definition, Odd( $x^2$ ).
  - $\circ$  Hence for every x, Odd(x)  $\rightarrow$  Odd(x<sup>2</sup>). QED.

# Proving vs. Verifying

Proofs should be easy to verify. All the cleverness goes into finding/writing the proof, not reading/verifying it!

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"P vs. NP" (informally):
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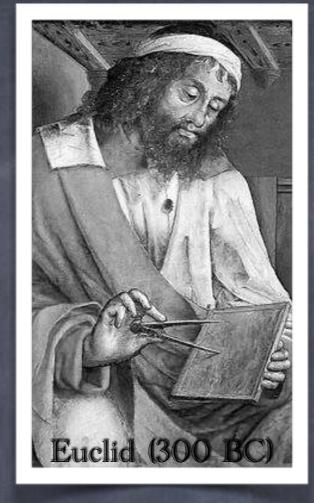
P = class of problems for which <u>finding</u> a proof is computationally easy.

NP = class of problems for which <u>verifying</u> a proof is computationally easy.

We believe that many problems in NP are not in P

(but we haven't been able to prove it yet!)

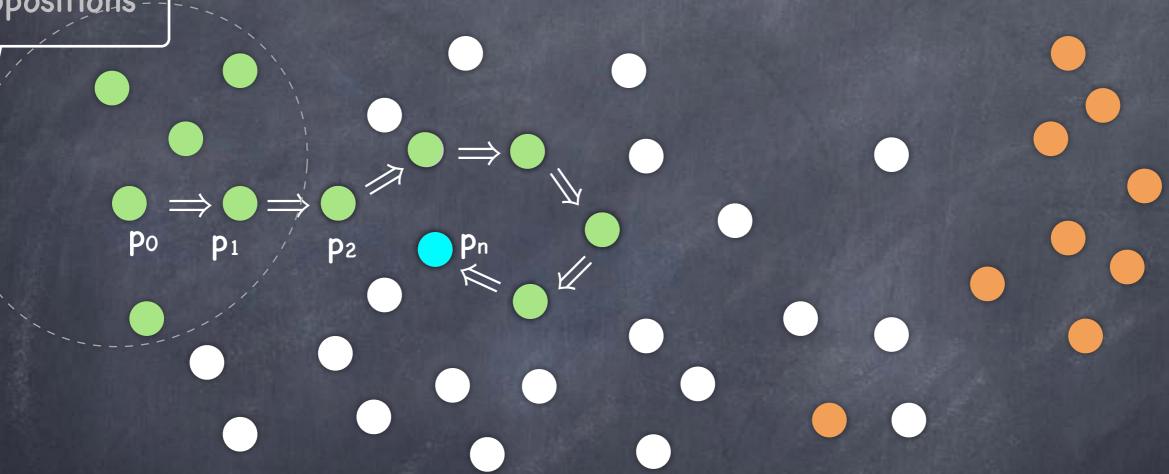
- Multiple approaches:
  - Direct deduction; Rewriting the proposition, e.g., as contrapositive; Proof by contradiction; Proof by giving a (counter) example, when applicable; Mathematical Induction.



# Some Proof Templates

Axioms, definitions, already proven propositions --

# A Mental Picture



# Template for p -> q

- $\odot$  To prove  $p \rightarrow q$ :
  - May set  $p_0$  as p (even though we don't know if p is True), and proceed to prove q
    - Proof starts with "Suppose p."
  - $\bullet$  Why is this a proof of  $p \rightarrow q$ ?
    - If p is True, the above is a valid proof that q holds. And if q holds,  $p \rightarrow q$  holds.
    - If p is False, the above proof is not valid. But we already have that p → q is vacuously true.
  - Or, could rewrite the proof as  $(p → p_1) ⇒ (p → p_2) ⇒ ... ⇒ (p → q)$

# Rephrasing

- Often it is helpful to first rewrite the proposition into an
  - equivalent proposition and prove that.  $\begin{cases} p_{orig} \leftrightarrow p_{equiv} \\ p_0 \Rightarrow p_1 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow p_{equiv} \Rightarrow p_{orig} \end{cases}$
- Should clearly state this if you are doing this.
- An important example: contrapositive
  - - Both equivalent to ¬p ∨ q

# Contrapositive

- An example:

Positive integers

- Proposition:  $\forall x,y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   $x \cdot y > 25$  →  $(x \ge 6)$  ∨  $(y \ge 6)$
- Another example:
  - If function f is "hard" then crypto scheme S is "secure"
    If crypto scheme S is not "secure," then function f is not "hard"
  - To prove the former, we can instead show how to transform any attack on S into an efficient algorithm for f

# Rephrasing

- Often it is helpful to first rewrite the proposition into an equivalent proposition and prove that.  $\sqrt{p_{\text{orig}} \leftrightarrow p_{\text{equiv}} \atop p_0 \Rightarrow p_1 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow p_{\text{equiv}} \Rightarrow p_{\text{orig}} }$
- Should clearly state this if you are doing this.
- An important example: <u>contrapositive</u>
- Another instance: proof by contradiction
  - $p = \neg p \rightarrow False$
  - $\odot$  So, to prove p, enough to show that  $\neg p \rightarrow False$ .

#### Contradiction

- $\bullet$  To prove p, enough to show that  $\neg p \rightarrow False$ .
- Recall: To prove ¬p → False, we can start by assuming ¬p
  - © Can start the proof directly by saying "Suppose for the sake of contradiction,  $\neg p$ " (instead of saying we shall prove  $\neg p \rightarrow False$ )
  - p<sub>n</sub> is simply "False"
    - **3** E.g., we may have  $\neg p \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow q ... \Rightarrow \neg q \Rightarrow False$ 
      - \*But that is a contradiction! Hence p holds."

## Example

- © Claim: There's a village barber who gives haircuts to exactly those in the village who don't cut their own hair
- Proposition: The claim is false
- @ Proposition, formally:  $\neg(\exists B \forall x \neg cut-hair(x,x) \longleftrightarrow cut-hair(B,x))$ 
  - Suppose for the sake of contradiction,  $\exists B \ \forall x \ \neg cut-hair(x,x) \longleftrightarrow cut-hair(B,x)$
  - - $\Rightarrow$  ( $\exists B \neg cut-hair(B,B) \longleftrightarrow cut-hair(B,B))$
    - ⇒ ∃B False
    - ⇒ False, which is a contradiction!

## Example

- $\circ$  For every pair of distinct primes p,q,  $log_p(q)$  is irrational
- (Will use basic facts about log and primes from arithmetic.)
- Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists a pair of distinct primes (p,q), s.t.  $log_p(q)$  is rational.
- $\Rightarrow \log_P(q) = a/b$  for positive integers a,b. (Note, since q>1,  $\log_P(q)>0$ .)
- But p, q are distinct primes. Thus pa and qb are two distinct prime factorisations of the same integer!
- Contradicts the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic!

#### Reduction

- Often it is helpful to break up the proof into two parts
- $\bullet$  To prove p, show  $r \rightarrow p$  and separately show r
  - The proof  $r \to p$  is said to "reduce" the task of proving p to the task of proving r
  - Many sophisticated proofs are carried out over several works, each one reducing it to a simpler problem

$$p_0 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow r' \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow r \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow p$$

@ Proving  $r \to p$  leaves open the possibility that  $\neg p$  will be proven later, which will yield a proof for  $\neg r$  instead

# Template for $\exists x P(x)$

- To prove  $\exists x P(x)$ 
  - Demonstrate a particular value of x s.t. P(x) holds
- $\odot$  e.g. to prove  $\exists x P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$ 
  - - if you can find an x s.t. P(x) is false, done!
    - or, you can find an x s.t. Q(x) is true, done!
  - (May not be able to find one, but still show one exists!)

# Template for $\neg(\forall x P(x))$

- To prove  $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ 

  - Demonstrate a particular value of x s.t. P(x) doesn't hold
  - Proof by counterexample
- @ e.g. to disprove the claim that all odd numbers > 1 are prime
  - i.e., to prove ¬(∀x∈S, Prime(x)) where S is the set of all odd numbers > 1
  - $\odot$  Enough to show that  $\exists x \in S \neg Prime(x)$

## Template for $\forall x P(x)$

- $\odot$  To prove  $\forall x P(x)$ 
  - Let x be an arbitrary element (in the domain of the predicate P)
  - Now prove P(x) holds
- $\odot$  e.g., To prove  $\forall x \ Q(x) \rightarrow R(x)$
- To prove  $Q(x) \rightarrow R(x)$  for an arbitrary x
  - Assume Q(x) holds, i.e., set  $p_0$  to be Q(x). Then prove R(x) using a sequence,  $p_0 \Rightarrow p_1 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow p_n$ , where  $p_n$  is R(x)
  - © Caution: You are not proving  $(\forall x \ Q(x)) \rightarrow (\forall x \ R(x))$ . So to prove R(x), may only assume Q(x), and not Q(x') for  $x' \neq x$ .

#### Cases

- Often it is helpful to break a proposition into various "cases" and prove them one by one
- @ e.g., To prove q, prove the following

$$\odot$$
 C<sub>1</sub>  $\vee$  C<sub>2</sub>  $\vee$  C<sub>3</sub>

$$oldsymbol{o}$$
  $c_1 \rightarrow q$ 

$$oldsymbol{0}$$
  $c_2 \rightarrow q$ 

$$\Rightarrow (c_1 \lor c_2 \lor c_3) \rightarrow q$$

$$oldsymbol{0} \Rightarrow q$$

$$(c_1 \rightarrow q) \land (c_2 \rightarrow q) \land (c_3 \rightarrow q)$$

$$\equiv$$
 $(c_1 \lor c_2 \lor c_3) \rightarrow q$ 

$$c \wedge (c \rightarrow q) \Rightarrow q$$

#### Cases

- Often it is helpful to break a proposition into various "cases" and prove them one by one
- $\odot$  e.g., To prove  $p \rightarrow q$ , prove the following

$$oldsymbol{o}$$
  $c_1 \rightarrow q$ 

$$c_2 \rightarrow q$$

$$(c_1 \rightarrow q) \land (c_2 \rightarrow q) \land (c_3 \rightarrow q)$$

$$\equiv$$
 $(c_1 \lor c_2 \lor c_3) \rightarrow q$ 

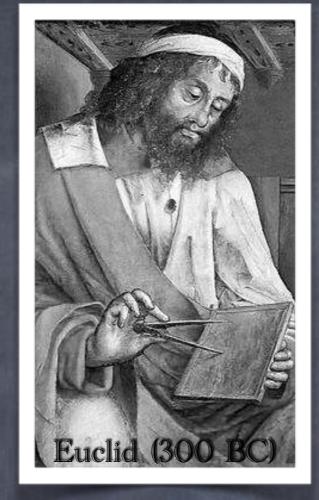
( 
$$(p\rightarrow c) \land (c\rightarrow q) ) \Rightarrow (p\rightarrow q)$$

## Cases: Example

- Proving equivalences of logical formulas
- To prove:  $p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$
- Case p:  $p \lor (q \land r) \equiv T$  $(p \lor q) \land (p \lor r) \equiv T$
- Case  $\neg p$ :  $p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (q \land r)$  $(p \lor q) \land (p \lor r) \equiv (q \land r)$

## Cases: Example

- $\lozenge$   $\forall$  a,b,c,d  $\in \mathbb{Z}^+$  If  $a^2+b^2+c^2=d^2$ , then d is even iff a,b,c are all even.
- Suppose a,b,c,d  $\in \mathbb{Z}^+$  s.t.  $a^2+b^2+c^2=d^2$ . Will show d is even iff a,b,c are all even.
- 4 cases based on number of a,b,c which are even.
- Tase 1: a,b,c all even  $\Rightarrow$  d<sup>2</sup> = a<sup>2</sup>+b<sup>2</sup>+c<sup>2</sup> even  $\Rightarrow$  d even.
- © Case 2: Of a,b,c, 2 even, 1 odd. Without loss of generality, let a be odd and b, c even. i.e., a=2x+1, b=2y, c=2z for some x,y,z. Then,  $d^2 = a^2+b^2+c^2 = 2(2x^2+2x+2y^2+2z^2) + 1 \Rightarrow d^2$  odd  $\Rightarrow$  d odd.
- © Case 3: Of a,b,c, 1 even, 2 odd. W.l.o.g, a=2x+1,b=2y+1,c=2z. Then,  $d^2=a^2+b^2+c^2=4(x^2+x+y^2+y+4z^2)+2$ . Contradiction! (why?)
- Tase 4: a,b,c all odd  $\Rightarrow$  d<sup>2</sup> = a<sup>2</sup>+b<sup>2</sup>+c<sup>2</sup> = 4w+3  $\Rightarrow$  d odd.



#### Mathematical Induction

Proof by Programming

### The Fable of the Proof Deity!

(OK, I made it up:))

- You have been imprisoned in a dungeon. The guard gives you a predicate P and tells you that the next day you will be asked to produce the proof for P(n) for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . If you can, you'll be let free!
- You pray to Seshat, the deity of wisdom.
- **⋄** You tell her what P is. She thinks for a bit and says, indeed,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n). But she wouldn't give you a proof.
- You plead with her. She relents a bit and tells you: If you give me the proof for P(k) for a k, and give me a gold coin, I will give you the proof for P(k+1).
- You are hopeful, because you have worked out the proof for P(1) (and you're very rich) ...



#### The Fable of the Proof Deity!

(OK, I made it up:))

- The next morning, the guard asks you for a proof of P(207)
- You invoke Seshat, and submit to her an envelope with your proof for P(1) and a gold coin
  - She returns an envelope with the proof for P(2)
  - You give that envelope back to her, with another gold coin
  - She gives you an envelope with the proof for P(3)
  - ... and after spending 206 coins, you get an envelope with the proof of P(207), which you submit to the guard
- After a while the guard returns with the envelope and announces: Congratulations! The court mathematicians have verified your proof! You are free to leave! (Yay!)

## The Fable of the Proof Deity!

(OK, I made it up:))

- After getting out of the dungeon, you have the envelope with the proof of P(207) with you. You open it.
- ▶ The first page is the proof of P(1) you gave.
- The second page has a beautiful proof for a Lemma:  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+ P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ .
- The third page has:

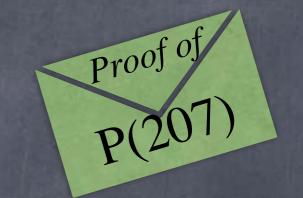
Since P(1) and, by Lemma, P(1)  $\rightarrow$  P(2), we have P(2).

Since P(2) and, by Lemma, P(2)  $\rightarrow$  P(3), we have P(3).

Since P(206) and, by Lemma, P(206)  $\rightarrow$  P(207), we have P(207).

QED

You feel a bit silly for having paid 206 gold coins. But at least, you learned something...





To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n):

An axiom in our system for  $\mathbb{Z}^+$ 

The First, we prove P(1) and  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ 

# Weak The Principle of Mathematical Induction

For any n, we can run this procedure to generate a proof for P(n), and hence for any n, P(n) holds.

$$P(1)$$
  $P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$   $P(2) \rightarrow P(3)$   $P(3)$   $P(3) \rightarrow P(4)$   $P(4) \rightarrow P(5)$   $P(5)$   $P(5) \rightarrow P(6)$   $P(5)$ 

"Proof by programming": This is

a program that takes n as input

and produces a proof for P(n)

 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ P(n)$ 

To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n):

Base case

Induction step

Induction hypothesis

- First, we prove P(1) and  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$
- Then by (weak) mathematical induction,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n)

Induction step

To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n):

Base case

Induction hypothesis

**P(k)** 

- First, we prove P(1) and  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$
- Then by (weak) mathematical induction,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n)
- Conventional phrasing while proving a claim written using a variable n
  - We prove the claim by induction on n.
  - Base case: First we prove that the claim holds for n = 1.  $\longrightarrow P(1)$
  - We shall prove that for any k≥1, if the claim holds for n=k
    then it holds for n=k+1.
    P(k+1)
  - Fix a k≥1. Suppose the claim holds for n=k. ...

Induction step

To prove  $\forall$  n∈Z+ P(n):

Base case

Induction hypothesis

- $\odot$  First, we prove P(1) and  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$
- Then by (weak) mathematical induction,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n)
- Base case may cover several values of the induction variable
  - e.g., Base cases: P(1), P(2), P(3),
    and induction step: For all k≥3, P(k) → P(k+1)
- Claim may use a different range for n
  - @ e.g., to prove  $\forall n \geq 0$  P(n) we may use Base case: P(0), and induction step: For all  $k \geq 0$ , we prove that P(k)  $\rightarrow$  P(k+1)

plq : p divides q i.e., ∃r s.t. q=pr

#### Example

- ∀n∈N, 3 | n³ n
  - Base case: n=0. 3|0.
  - Induction step: For all integers k≥0
    Induction hypothesis: Suppose true for n=k. i.e., k³-k = 3m
    To prove: Then, true for n=k+1. i.e., 3 | (k+1)³-(k+1)

The non-inductive proof:  $n^3-n = n(n^2-1) = (n-1)n(n+1)$ .  $3 \mid (n-1)n(n+1)$  since one of 3 consecutive integers is a multiple of 3

- To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n):
  - First, we prove P(1) and  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(k)→P(k+1)
  - Then by (weak) mathematical induction,  $\forall$ n∈Z+ P(n)

#### In disguise

#### Well Ordering Principle

Every non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  has a minimum element. (Can be used instead of Principle of Mathematical Induction)

- To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n):

  - For the sake of contradiction, suppose ¬ (∀n∈ $\mathbb{Z}$ + P(n)).
  - Let k' be the smallest n∈Z+ s.t. ¬P(n). k' ≠ 1 (since P(1)).
  - Let k = k'-1. Then, k ∈  $\mathbb{Z}$ <sup>+</sup> and ¬P(k+1). Then, ¬P(k).
  - © Contradicts the fact that k' is the smallest  $n ∈ \mathbb{Z}^+$  s.t. ¬P(n).

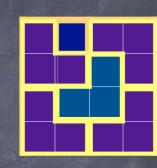
## Tromino Tiling



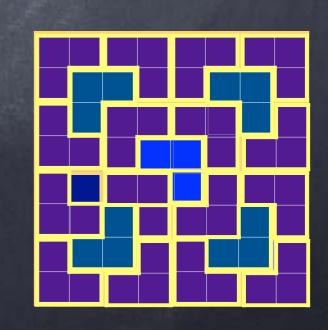
Base case: n=1



Inductive step: For all integers k≥1:
Hypothesis: suppose, true for n=k
To prove: then, true for n=k+1



Idea: can partition the 2<sup>k+1</sup>×2<sup>k+1</sup> punctured grid into four 2<sup>k</sup>×2<sup>k</sup> punctured grids, plus a tromino. Each of these can be tiled using trominoes (by inductive hypothesis).



Actually gives a (recursive) algorithm for tiling

#### Structured Problems

- $\ensuremath{\mathfrak{O}}$  P(n) may refer to an object or structure of "size" n (e.g., a punctured grid of size  $2^n \times 2^n$ )
- To prove  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ 
  - Take the object of size k+1
  - Derive (one or more) objects of size k
  - Appeal to the induction hypothesis P(k), to draw conclusions about the smaller objects
  - Put them back together into the original object, and draw a conclusion about the original object, namely, P(k+1)

Common mistake:

Going in the opposite direction!

Not enough to reason about

(k+1)-sized objects derived

from k-sized objects

#### Strong Induction

Induction hypothesis: ∀n≤k P(n)

To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n): we prove P(1) (as before) and that

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+ (P(1) \land P(2) \land ... \land P(k)) \rightarrow P(k+1)$$

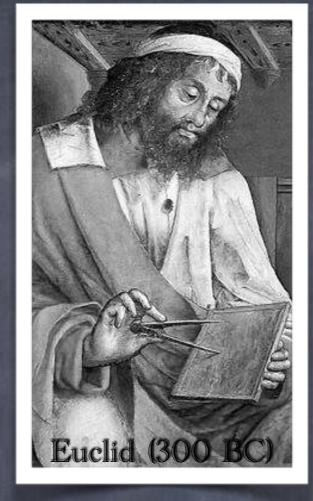
#### Mathematical Induction

The fact that for any n, we can run this procedure to generate a proof for P(n), and hence for any n, P(n) holds.

$$P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$$
 $P(2) \rightarrow P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$ 
 $P(1) \land P(2) \rightarrow P(3)$ 
 $P(3) \rightarrow P(1) \land ... \land P(3) \rightarrow P(4)$ 
 $P(4) \rightarrow P(5) \rightarrow P(5)$ 
 $P(5) \rightarrow P(1) \land ... \land P(5) \rightarrow P(6)$ 
 $P(1) \land ... \land P(5) \rightarrow P(6)$ 

 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ P(n)$ 

Same as weak induction for  $\forall n \ Q(n)$ , where  $Q(n) \triangleq \forall m \in [1,n] \ P(m)$ 



## Mathematical Induction

Examples

### Strong Induction

Induction hypothesis: ∀n≤k P(n)

To prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  P(n): we prove P(1) (as before) and that

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$
 (P(1)  $\land$  P(2)  $\land$  ...  $\land$  P(k)) $\rightarrow$ P(k+1)

#### Mathematical Induction

The fact that for any n, we can run this procedure to generate a proof for P(n), and hence for any n, P(n) holds.

$$P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$$
 $P(2) \rightarrow P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$ 
 $P(1) \wedge P(2) \rightarrow P(3)$ 
 $P(3) \rightarrow P(1) \wedge ... \wedge P(3) \rightarrow P(4)$ 
 $P(4) \rightarrow P(5) \rightarrow P(5)$ 
 $P(5) \rightarrow P(6)$ 
 $P(1) \wedge ... \wedge P(5) \rightarrow P(6)$ 

 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ P(n)$ 

## Postage Stamps

- © Claim: Every amount of postage that is at least ₹12 can be made from ₹4 and ₹5 stamps
- Base cases: n=1,..,11 (vacuously true) and n = 12 = 4⋅3 + 5⋅0, n = 13 = 4⋅2 + 5⋅1, n = 14 = 4⋅1 + 5⋅2, n = 15 = 4⋅0 + 5⋅3.
- Induction step: For all integers k≥16:
  Strong induction hypothesis: Claim holds for all n s.t. 1 ≤ n < k</p>
  To prove: Holds for n=k
  - ø k≥16 → k-4 ≥ 12.
  - **⊘** So by induction hypothesis, k-4=4a+5b for some  $a,b \in \mathbb{N}$ .
  - $\circ$  So k = 4(a+1) + 5b.

#### Prime Factorization

- The Every positive integer  $n \ge 2$  has a prime factorization i.e,  $n = p_1 \cdot ... \cdot p_t$  (for some  $t \ge 1$ ) where all  $p_i$  are prime
- Base case: n=2. (t=1,  $p_1$ =2).
- Induction step:

(Strong) induction hypothesis: for all  $n \le k$ ,  $\exists p_1,...,p_t$ , s.t.  $n = p_1 \cdot ... \cdot p_t$ To prove:  $\exists q_1,...,q_u$  (also primes) s.t.  $k+1 = q_1 \cdot ... \cdot q_u$ 

- Case k+1 is prime: then k+1=q1 for prime q1
- $\circ i.e., \exists a,b \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ s.t. } 2 \le a,b \le k \text{ and } k+1=a.b \text{ (def. divides; } a \ge 2 \rightarrow a.b > b )$
- Now, by (strong) induction hypothesis, both a & b have prime factorizations:  $a=p_1...p_s$ ,  $b=r_1...r_t$ .
- Then  $k+1=q_1...q_u$ , where u=s+t,  $q_i=p_i$  for i=1 to s and  $q_i=r_{i-s}$ , for i=s+1 to s+t.

Need some more work to show unique factorization.

<u>p prime ∧ plab</u> → <u>pla ∨ plb</u>

## Be careful about ranges!

- Claim: Every non-empty set of integers has either all elements even or all elements odd. (Of course, false!)
- "Proof" (bogus): By induction on the size of the set.
- Induction step: For all k > 1,

  Bug: Induction hypothesis cannot be bootstrapped from the base case

  Induction hypothesis: suppose all non-empty S with |S| = k, has either all elements even or all elements odd.

  To prove: then, it holds for all S with |S|=k+1.

  - By IH, S'∪{a} has all even or all odd. Say, all even. Then S' is all even. Now, S'∪{b} is also all even or all odd. Since S' not empty, it is all even. Thus S = S' ∪ {a,b} is all even. QED.

## Be careful about ranges!

- Claim: Every non-empty set of integers has either all elements even or all elements odd. (Of course, false!)
- "Proof" (bogus): By induction on the size of the set.
  - We proved P(1) and  $\forall k>1$   $P(k)\rightarrow P(k+1)$

→ P(1)	
	P(2) → P(3)
	P(3) -> P(4)
	P(4) -> P(5)
OME THE SE	P(5) → P(6)

#### Nim



- Alice and Bob take turns removing matchsticks from two piles
- Initially both piles have equal number of matchsticks
- At every turn, a player must choose one pile and remove one or more matchsticks from that pile
- Goal: be the person to remove the last matchstick
- Claim: In Nim, the second player has a winning strategy
  - (Aside: in <u>every</u> finitely-terminating two player game without draws, one of the players has a winning strategy)
- Claim: The following is a winning strategy for the second player: keep the piles matched at the end of your turn





- Claim: The following is a winning strategy for the second player: keep the piles matched at the end of your turn
- Induction variable: n = number of matchsticks on each pile at the beginning of the game.
- Base case: n=1. Alice must remove one. Next, Bob wins. 

  ✓

strong

- Induction step: for all integers k≥1
  Induction hypothesis: when starting with n≤k, Bob always wins
  To prove: when starting with n=k+1, Bob always wins
  - © Case 1: Alice removes all k+1 from one pile. Next, Bob wins.
  - © Case 2: Alice removes j, 1≤j≤k from one pile. After Bob's move k+1-j left in each pile. By induction hypothesis, Bob will win from here.