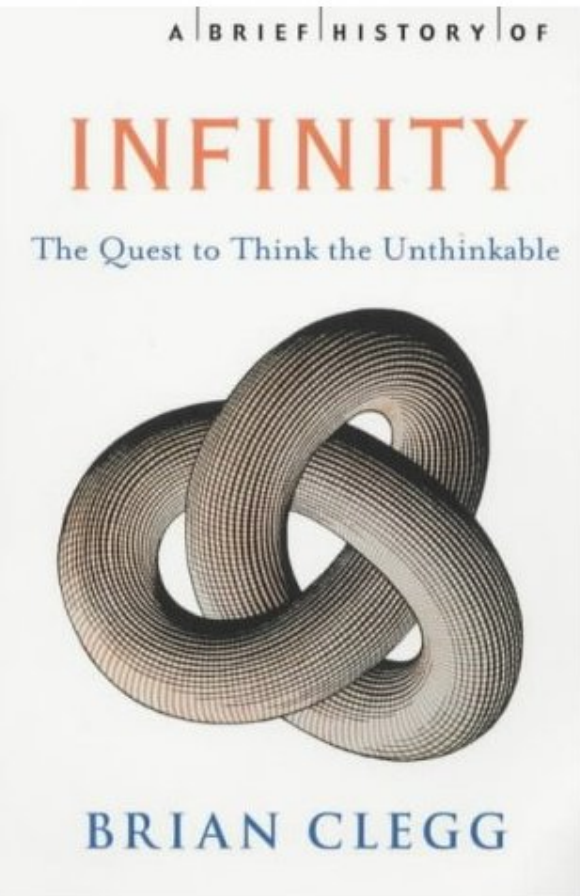
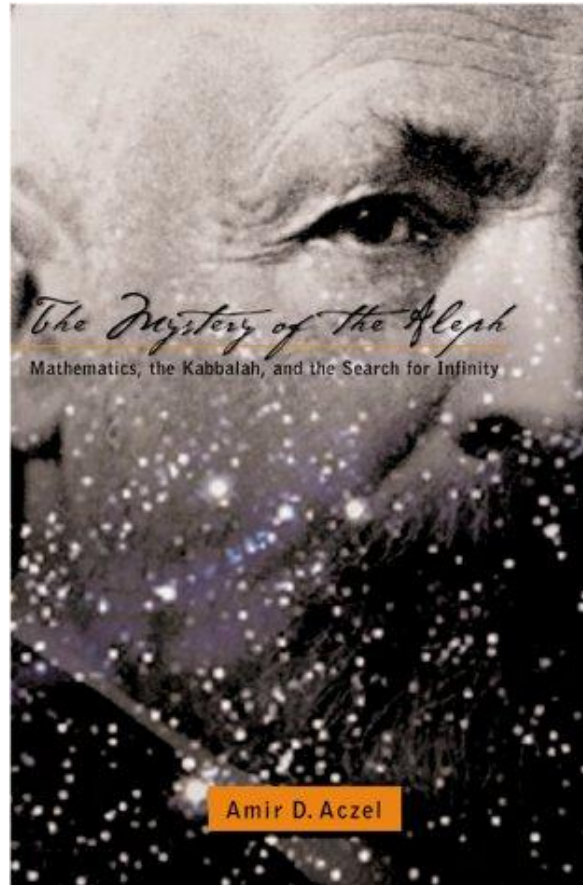


Direct Proofs

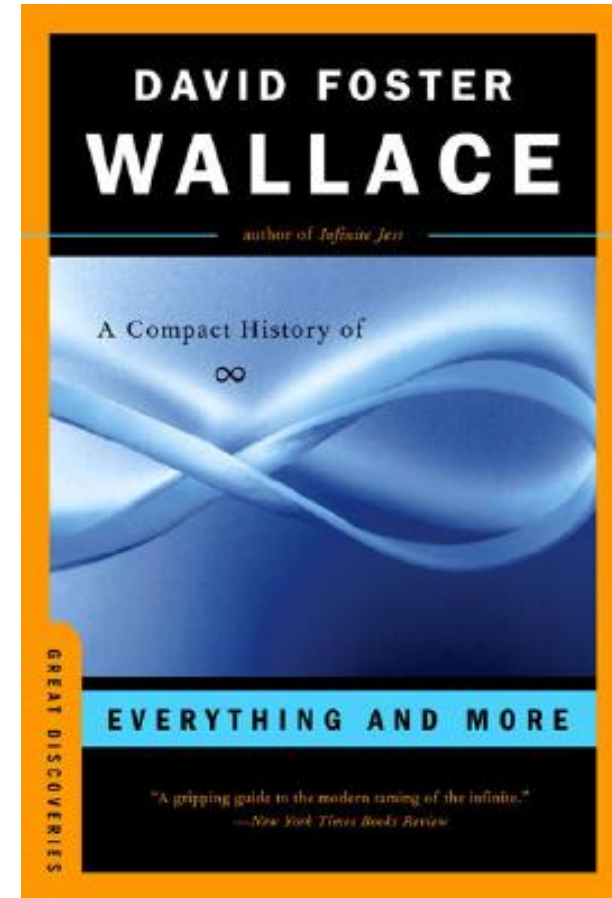
Recommended Reading



*A Brief History of
Infinity*



*The Mystery of the
Aleph*



Everything and More

Recommended Courses

Math 161: Set Theory

Outline for Today

- What is a Mathematical Proof?
- Direct Proofs
- Universal and Existential Statements
- Extended Example: XOR

What is a Proof?

A ***proof*** is an argument that demonstrates why a conclusion is true.

A ***mathematical proof*** is an argument that demonstrates why a mathematical statement is true.

***54·43.** $\vdash :: \alpha, \beta \in 1 . \supset : \alpha \cap \beta = \Lambda . \equiv . \alpha \cup \beta \in 2$

Dem.

$\vdash . *54·26 . \supset \vdash :: \alpha = \iota'x . \beta = \iota'y . \supset : \alpha \cup \beta \in 2 . \equiv . x \neq y .$

$[*51·231] \qquad \qquad \qquad \equiv . \iota'x \cap \iota'y = \Lambda .$

$[*13·12] \qquad \qquad \qquad \equiv . \alpha \cap \beta = \Lambda \qquad (1)$

$\vdash . (1) . *11·11·35 . \supset$

$\vdash :: (\exists x, y) . \alpha = \iota'x . \beta = \iota'y . \supset : \alpha \cup \beta \in 2 . \equiv . \alpha \cap \beta = \Lambda \qquad (2)$

$\vdash . (2) . *11·54 . *52·1 . \supset \vdash . \text{Prop}$

From this proposition it will follow, when arithmetical addition has been defined, that $1 + 1 = 2$.

*54·43. $\vdash :: \alpha, \beta \in 2 = \Lambda . \equiv . \alpha \cup \beta \in 2$

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 $[*51 \cdot 2 \vdash . x \cup \beta \in 2 . \equiv . \iota'x \cup \beta \in 2 = \Lambda .$
 $[*13 \cdot 1 \vdash . \iota'x \cup \beta \in 2 . \equiv . \alpha \cap \beta \in 2 \quad (1)$

$\vdash . (1) \vdash . *11 \cdot 35 . \supset$
 $\vdash . (y) . \alpha = \iota'x . \beta = \iota'y . \supset : \alpha \cup \beta \in 2 . \equiv . \alpha \cap \beta \in 2 \quad (2)$

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From this proposition it will follow, when a relation has been defined, that 1 +

Two Quick Definitions

- An integer n is **even** if there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.
 - This means that 0 is even.
- An integer n is **odd** if there is some integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$.
- We'll assume the following for now:
 - Every integer is either even or odd.
 - No integer is both even and odd.

Our First Direct Proof

Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

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Proof: Let n be an even integer.

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Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

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Since n is even, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

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This means that $n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2 = 2(2k^2)$.

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From this, we see that there is an integer m (namely, $2k^2$) where $n^2 = 2m$.

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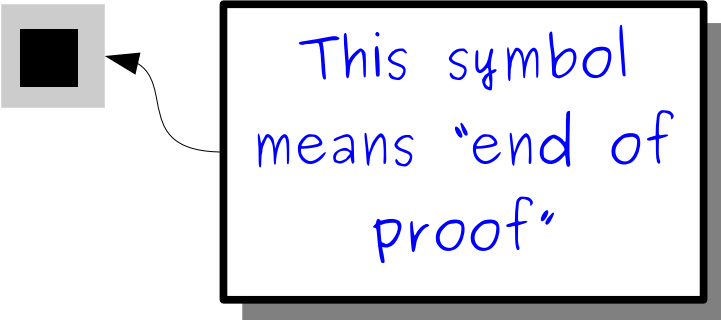
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Therefore, n^2 is even. 



This symbol
means "end of
proof"

Our First Direct Proof

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Therefore, n^2 is even. ■

Our First Direct Proof

Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

Proof: Let n be an even integer.

Since n is an even integer, there is an integer k such that $n = 2k$.

This means that $n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2$.

From this we see that n^2 is a multiple of 4, and hence a multiple of 2, so n^2 is even.

Therefore, if n is an even integer, then n^2 is even. \square

To prove a statement of the form

“If P , then Q ”

Assume that P is true, then show that Q must be true as well.

Our First Direct Proof

Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

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Since n is even, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

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Therefore, n^2 is even. ■

Our First Direct Proof

Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

Proof: Let n be an even integer.

Since n is even, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

This means that

From this, we can write n^2 as m (namely, $2k$).

Therefore, n^2

This is the definition of an even integer. When writing a mathematical proof, it's common to call back to the definitions.

Our First Direct Proof

Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

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Since n is even, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

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From m Th Notice how we use the value of k that we obtained above. Giving names to quantities, even if we aren't fully sure what they are, allows us to manipulate them. This is similar to variables in programs.

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Theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.

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Our First Direct Proof

Theorem: If n is even, then n^2 is even.

Proof: Let n be an even integer.

Since n is even,
such that

This means that $n = 2k$ for some integer k .
($n = 2k \implies n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2 = 2(2k^2)$).

Our ultimate goal is to prove that n^2 is even. This means that we need to find some m such that $n^2 = 2m$. Here, we're explicitly showing how we can do that.

From this, we see that there is an integer m (namely, $2k^2$) where $n^2 = 2m$.

Therefore, n^2 is even. ■

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Since n is even, there is some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

This means

From this we can find an integer m (named

Hey, that's what we were trying to show! We're done now.

Therefore, n^2 is even. ■

That wasn't so bad! Let's do another one.

Some Helpful Set Theory

- Set equality is defined as follows:

If A and B are sets, then $A = B$ precisely when every element of A is an element of B and vice-versa.

- In practice, this definition is a bit tricky to work with.
- It's often easier to use the following result to show that two sets are equal:

**For any sets A and B ,
if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.**

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How do we prove
that this is true for
any choice of sets?

Proving Something Always Holds

- Many statements have the form

For any x , [some-property] holds of x .

- Examples:

For all integers n , if n is even, n^2 is even.

For any sets A and B , if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.

For all sets S , $|S| < |\wp(S)|$.

Everything that drowns me makes me wanna fly.

- How do we prove these statements when there are (potentially) infinitely many cases to check?

Arbitrary Choices

- To prove that some property holds true for all possible x , show that no matter what choice of x you make, that property must be true.
- Start the proof by making an *arbitrary choice* of x :
 - “Let x be chosen arbitrarily.”
 - “Let x be an arbitrary even integer.”
 - “Let x be an arbitrary set containing 137.”
 - “Consider any x .”
- Demonstrate that the property holds true for this choice of x .

Theorem: For any sets A and B , if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.

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Proof: Let A and B be arbitrary sets where $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

We're showing here that regardless of what A and B you pick, the result will still be true.

Theorem: For any sets A and B , if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.

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To prove a statement of the
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“If P , then Q ”

Assume that **P** is true, then show
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Theorem: For any sets A and B , if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.

Proof: Let A and B be arbitrary sets where $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Because $A \subseteq B$, if we take an arbitrary $x \in A$, we know that $x \in B$.

Theorem: For any sets A and B , if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.

Proof: Let A and B be arbitrary sets where $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

Because $A \subseteq B$, if we take an arbitrary $x \in A$, we know that $x \in B$. Similarly, since $B \subseteq A$, if we take an arbitrary $x \in B$, we'll see that $x \in A$ as well.

Theorem: For any sets A and B , if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, then $A = B$.

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Therefore, every element of A is an element of B and every element of B is an element of A .

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Therefore, every element of A is an element of B and every element of B is an element of A . Therefore, by definition of set equality, we see that $A = B$. ■

An Incorrect Proof

Theorem: For all sets A and B , we have $A \subseteq A \cap B$.

Proof: Consider two arbitrary sets, say, $A = \emptyset$ and $B = \mathbb{N}$. Since \emptyset is a subset of every set and $A = \emptyset$, we see that $A \subseteq A \cap B$. Since our choices of A and B were arbitrary, we conclude that if A and B are any sets, then $A \subseteq A \cap B$. ■

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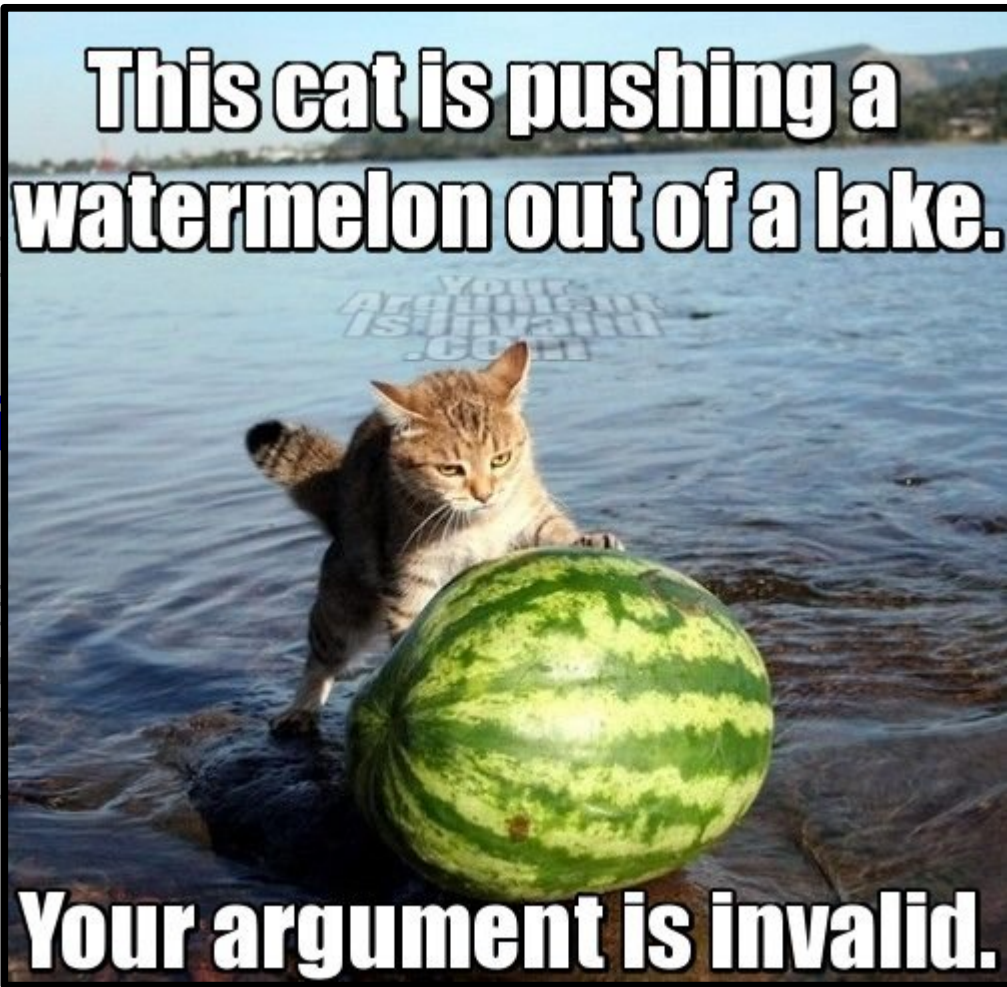
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ar·bi·trar·y

adjective /'ärbi,trerē/

1. Based on random choice or personal whim, rather than any reason or system - *“his mealtimes were entirely arbitrary”*
2. (of power or a ruling body) Unrestrained and autocratic in the use of authority - *“arbitrary rule by King and bishops has been made impossible”*
3. (of a constant or other quantity) Of unspecified value

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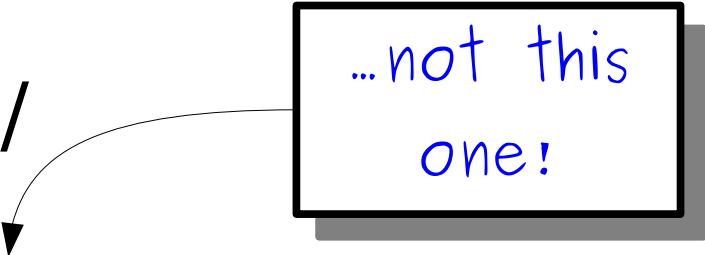
Use this
definition...



ar·bi·trar·y

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...not this
one!



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Use this
definition...



To prove something is true for all x ,
don't choose an x and base the proof
off of your choice.

Instead, leave x unspecified
and show that no matter what x is,
the specified property must hold.

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Consider any arbitrary $x \in A \cap B$. We will prove that $x \in A$. To do so, notice that since $x \in A \cap B$, we know that $x \in A$ and that $x \in B$.

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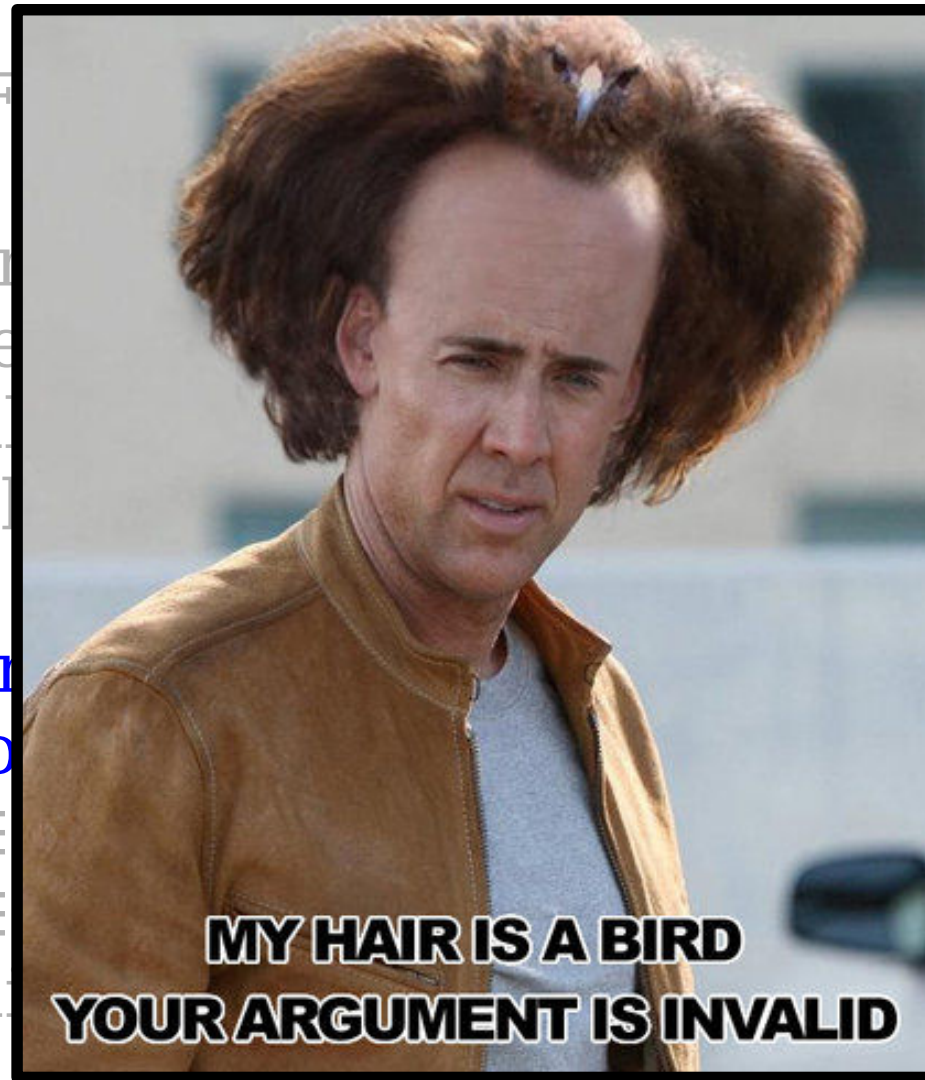
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Another Incorrect Proof

Theorem: For any sets A and B , we have $A \subseteq A \cap B$.

Proof: Consider any element x in A and B . We need to show that x is in $A \cap B$. To do so, we will show that $x \in A$ and $x \in B$ as well.

Consider $x \in A$. We will prove that $x \in B$. We will choose that since $x \in A$ and that $x \in B$, it follows that $x \in A$, which is true. ■



If you want to prove that P implies Q ,
assume P and prove Q .

Don't assume Q and then prove P !

An Entirely Different Proof

Theorem: There exists a natural number $n > 0$ such that the sum of all natural numbers less than n is equal to n .

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An Entirely Different Proof

Theorem: **There exists** a natural number $n > 0$
such that the sum of all natural
numbers less than n is equal to n .

This is a fundamentally different
type of proof that what we've
done before. Instead of showing
that every object has some
property, we want to show that
some object has a given property.

Universal vs. Existential Statements

- A ***universal statement*** is a statement of the form

For all x , [some-property] holds for x .

- We've seen how to prove these statements.
- An ***existential statement*** is a statement of the form

There is some x where [some-property] holds for x .

- How do you prove an existential statement?

Proving an Existential Statement

- We will see several different ways to prove an existential statement.
- Simple approach: Just go and find some x where the property is true.
 - In our case, we need to find a positive natural number n such that the sum of all smaller natural numbers is equal to n .
 - Can we find one?

An Entirely Different Proof

Theorem: There exists a natural number $n > 0$ such that the sum of all natural numbers less than n is equal to n .

An Entirely Different Proof

Theorem: There exists a natural number $n > 0$ such that the sum of all natural numbers less than n is equal to n .

Proof: Take $n = 3$.

The three natural numbers smaller than three are 0, 1, and 2.

Notice that $0 + 1 + 2 = 3$.

Therefore, three is a natural number greater than zero equal to the sum of all smaller natural numbers. ■

Time-Out for Announcements!

Piazza

- We now have a Piazza site for CS103.
- Sign in to www.piazza.com and search for the course CS103 to sign in.
- Feel free to ask us questions!
- ***Use the site to find partners for the problem sets!***
- You can also email the staff list with questions: cs103-aut1516-staff@lists.stanford.edu.

Back to CS103!

Extended Example: **XOR**

Logical Operators

- A **bit** is a value that is either 0 or 1.
- The set $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ is the set of all bits.
- A **logical operator** is an operator that takes in some number of bits and produces a new bit as output.
- Example: the **logical not** operator, denoted $\neg x$, flips 0s to 1s and vice-versa:

$$\neg 0 = 1$$

$$\neg 1 = 0$$

Logical XOR

- The **exclusive OR** operator (called **XOR** for short) operates on two bits and produces 0 if the bits are the same and 1 if they are different.
 - Since XOR operates on two values, it is called a **binary operator**.
- We denote the XOR of a and b by $a \oplus b$.
- Formally, XOR is defined as follows:

$$0 \oplus 0 = 0$$

$$0 \oplus 1 = 1$$

$$1 \oplus 0 = 1$$

$$1 \oplus 1 = 0$$

Fun with XOR

- The XOR operator has numerous uses throughout computer science.
 - Applications in cryptography, data structures, error-correcting codes, networking, machine learning, etc.
- XOR is useful because of four key properties:
 - XOR has an *identity element*.
 - XOR is *self-inverting*.
 - XOR is *associative*.
 - XOR is *commutative*.

Identity Elements

- An ***identity element*** for a binary operator \star is some value z such that for any a :

$$a \star z = z \star a = a$$

Identity Elements

An *identity element* for a binary operator \star is some value z such that **for any a :**

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Identity Elements

An *identity element* for a binary operator \star is some value z such that **for any a :**

$$a \star z = z \star a = a$$

In math-speak, the term
“**for any a** ” is synonymous
with “for every a ” or
“**for every possibly choice of a .**”
It does not mean
“**for some specific choice of a .**”

Identity Elements

- An ***identity element*** for a binary operator \star is some value z such that for any a :

$$a \star z = z \star a = a$$

- Example: 0 is an identity element for +:

$$a + 0 = 0 + a = a$$

- Example: 1 is an identity element for \times :

$$a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a$$

Theorem: 0 is an identity element for \oplus .

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This is called a **proof by cases** (alternatively, a **proof by exhaustion**) and works by showing that the theorem is true regardless of what specific outcome arises.

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$$b \oplus 0 = 0 \oplus 0 \quad 0 \oplus b = 0 \oplus 0$$

In a proof by cases, after demonstrating each case, you should summarize the cases afterwards to make your point clearer.

Case 2:

$$b \oplus$$

$$= b$$

$$= b$$

In both cases, we find $b \oplus 0 = 0 \oplus b = b$.

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In both cases, we find $b \oplus 0 = 0 \oplus b = b$. Thus 0 is an identity element for \oplus . ■

Self-Inverting Operators

- A binary operator \star with identity element z is called ***self-inverting*** when for any a , we have

$$a \star a = z$$

- Is $+$ self-inverting?
- Is $-$ self-inverting?
 - Tricky tricky: minus doesn't have an identity element, so it can't be self-inverting.

XOR is Self-Inverting

Theorem: \oplus is self-inverting.

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Proof: Since \oplus has identity element 0, we will prove for any $b \in \mathbb{B}$ that $b \oplus b = 0$.

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Case 2: $b = 1$.

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Case 1: $b = 0$. Then $b \oplus b = 0 \oplus 0$

Case 2: $b = 1$.

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Case 1: $b = 0$. Then $b \oplus b = 0 \oplus 0 = 0$.

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In both cases we have $b \oplus b = 0$, so \oplus is self-inverting. ■

Associative Operators

- A binary operator \star is called ***associative*** when for any a , b and c , we have

$$a \star (b \star c) = (a \star b) \star c$$

- Is $+$ associative?
- Is $-$ associative?
- Is \times associative?

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Proof: Consider any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$. We will prove that $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$. To do this, we consider two cases:

Case 1: $c = 0$.

Case 2: $c = 1$.

Theorem: \oplus is associative.

Proof: Consider any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$. We will prove that $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$. To do this, we consider two cases:

Case 1: $c = 0$. Then we have that

$$a \oplus (b \oplus c) = a \oplus (b \oplus 0)$$

Case 2: $c = 1$.

Theorem: \oplus is associative.

Proof: Consider any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$. We will prove that $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$. To do this, we consider two cases:

Case 1: $c = 0$. Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus (b \oplus c) &= a \oplus (b \oplus 0) \\ &= a \oplus b \end{aligned} \quad (\text{since } 0 \text{ is an identity})$$

Case 2: $c = 1$.

Theorem: \oplus is associative.

Proof: Consider any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$. We will prove that $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$. To do this, we consider two cases:

Case 1: $c = 0$. Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus (b \oplus c) &= a \oplus (b \oplus 0) \\ &= a \oplus b && \text{(since 0 is an identity)} \\ &= (a \oplus b) \oplus 0 && \text{(since 0 is an identity)} \end{aligned}$$

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Theorem: \oplus is associative.

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Case 2: $c = 1$. Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus (b \oplus c) &= a \oplus (b \oplus 1) \\ &= ? \end{aligned}$$

When You Get Stuck

- When writing proofs, you are bound to get stuck at some point. *This is normal! It happens to everyone!*
- When this happens, it can mean multiple things:
 - What you're proving is incorrect.
 - You are on the wrong track.
 - You're on the right track, but you need to prove an additional result to get to your goal.
- Unfortunately, there is no general way to determine which case you are in.
- You'll build this intuition through experience.

Where We're Stuck

- Right now, we have the expression

$$a \oplus (b \oplus 1)$$

and we don't know how to simplify it.

- Let's focus on the $(b \oplus 1)$ part and see what we find:
 - $0 \oplus 1 = 1$
 - $1 \oplus 1 = 0$
- It seems like $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$. Could we prove it?

Relations Between Proofs

- Proofs often build off of one another: large results are almost often accomplished by building off of previous work.
 - Like writing a large program – split the work into smaller methods, across different classes, etc. instead of putting the whole thing into `main`.
- A result that is proven specifically as a stepping stone toward a larger result is called a *lemma*.
- Our result that $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$ serves as a lemma in our larger proof that \oplus is associative.

Lemma 1: For any $b \in \mathbb{B}$, we have $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$.

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Lemma 1: For any $b \in \mathbb{B}$, we have $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$.

Proof: Consider any $b \in \mathbb{B}$. We consider two cases:

Case 1: $b = 0$. Then

$$b \oplus 1 = 0 \oplus 1$$

Case 2: $b = 1$.

Lemma 1: For any $b \in \mathbb{B}$, we have $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$.

Proof: Consider any $b \in \mathbb{B}$. We consider two cases:

Case 1: $b = 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} b \oplus 1 &= 0 \oplus 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Case 2: $b = 1$.

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Proof: Consider any $b \in \mathbb{B}$. We consider two cases:

Case 1: $b = 0$. Then

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In both cases, we find that $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$, which is what we needed to show.

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In both cases, we find that $b \oplus 1 = \neg b$, which is what we needed to show. ■

Theorem: \oplus is associative.

Proof: Consider any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$. We will prove that $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$. To do this, we consider two cases:

Case 1: $c = 0$. Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus (b \oplus c) &= a \oplus (b \oplus 0) \\ &= a \oplus b && \text{(since 0 is an identity)} \\ &= (a \oplus b) \oplus 0 && \text{(since 0 is an identity)} \\ &= (a \oplus b) \oplus c \end{aligned}$$

Case 2: $c = 1$. Then we have that

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Case 2: $c = 1$. Then we have that

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Proof: Consider any $a, b \in \mathbb{B}$. We consider two cases:

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$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus \neg b &= a \oplus \neg 0 \\ &= a \oplus 1 \\ &= \neg a && \text{(using lemma 1)} \\ &= \neg(a \oplus 0) && \text{(since 0 is an identity)} \\ &= \neg(a \oplus b) \end{aligned}$$

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In both cases, we find that $a \oplus \neg b = \neg(a \oplus b)$, as required. ■

Theorem: \oplus is associative.

Proof: Consider any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$. We will prove that $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c$. We consider two cases:

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Commutative Operators

- A binary operator \star is called ***commutative*** when the following is always true:

$$a \star b = b \star a$$

- Is $+$ commutative?
- Is $-$ commutative?

Theorem: \oplus is commutative.

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$$x = a \oplus b$$

$$x \oplus b = (a \oplus b) \oplus b$$

$$x \oplus b = a \oplus (b \oplus b) \quad (\text{since } \oplus \text{ is associative})$$

$$x \oplus b = a \oplus 0 \quad (\text{since } \oplus \text{ is self-inverting})$$

$$x \oplus b = a \quad (\text{since } 0 \text{ is an identity of } \oplus)$$

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The only properties of \oplus that we used here are that it is associative, has an identity, and is self-inverting. This same proof works for any operator with these three properties!

Binary operators that have this property give rise to **boolean groups** (but you don't need to know that for this class).

This means that $a \oplus b = x = b \oplus a$. Therefore, \oplus is commutative. ■

Application: ***Encryption***

Bitstrings

- A *bitstring* is a finite sequence of zero or more 0s and 1s.
- Internally, computers represent all data as bitstrings.
 - For details on how, take CS107 or CS143.

Bitstrings and \oplus

- We can generalize the \oplus operator from working on individual bits to working on bitstrings.
- If A and B are bitstrings of length n , then we'll define $A \oplus B$ to be the bitstring of length n formed by applying \oplus to the corresponding bits of A and B .
- For example:

$$\begin{array}{r} 110110 \\ \oplus 011010 \\ \hline 101100 \end{array}$$

Encryption

- Suppose that you want to send me a secret bitstring M of length n .
- You should be able to read the message, but anyone who intercepts the secret message should not be able to read it.
- How might we accomplish this?

\oplus and Encryption

- In advance, you and I share a randomly-chosen bitstring K of length n (called the **key**) and keep it secret.
- To send me message M secretly, you send me the string $C = M \oplus K$.
 - C is called the **ciphertext**.
- To decrypt the ciphertext C , I compute the string $C \oplus K$. This is

$$\begin{aligned} C \oplus K &= (M \oplus K) \oplus K \\ &= M \oplus (K \oplus K) \\ &= M \end{aligned}$$

An Example

PUPPIES

| | |
|---|--|
| M | 01010000010101010101000001010000010010010100010101010011 |
| K | 11011100101110111100010011010101111001101111011111000010 |
| C | 10001100111011101001010010000101101011111011001010010001 |

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An Example

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| | |
|---|--|
| C | 10001100111011101001010010000101101011111011001010010001 |
| K | 11011100101110111100010011010101111001101111011111000010 |
| M | 01010000010101010101000001010000010010010100010101010011 |

PUPPIES

An Example

€î”...©² ‘

| | |
|----|--|
| C | 10001100111011101001010010000101101011111011001010010001 |
| K? | 11000000101000011101100011000011111011101111101111011101 |
| M? | 01001100010011110100110001000110010000010100100101001100 |

LOLFAIL

Some Caveats

- This scheme is insecure if you encrypt multiple messages using the same key.
 - Good exercise: Figure out why this is!
- This scheme guarantees security if the key is random, but it isn't tamperproof.
 - Good exercise: Figure out why this is!
- General good advice: ***never implement your own cryptography!***
- Take CS255 for more details!

Next Time

- **Indirect Proofs**
 - Proof by contradiction.
 - Proof by contrapositive.