Review

COMPSCI 3331

Outline

Mathematical Necessities:

- Set Theory.
- ► Induction.
- Logic.

- A set is a collection of objects.
- We can specify sets by listing the elements or describing them all:
 - Finite sets: $S = \{a, 1, y\}$.
 - ▶ Infinite sets: $S = \{x \in \mathbb{N} : x \ge 2\}$.
- Descriptions of sets:

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\{x \in S : x < \text{satisfies some condition} \}.
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▶ "All x in the set S such that <some condition> holds".

- Ø is the set consisting of no elements.
- ▶ Membership: $x \in S$ means x is an element of the set S.
- ▶ Inclusion: $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ means every element of S_1 is an element of S_2 .
 - ▶ Note $\emptyset \subseteq S$ for all sets S.
- ▶ Equality $S_1 = S_2$: Two sets S_1, S_2 are equal if everything in S_1 is in S_2 and vice versa.
 - ▶ i.e., $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ and $S_2 \subseteq S_1$.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} S_1 & = & \{1,2,3\}, \\ S_2 & = & \{1,3\}, \\ S_3 & = & \{1,3,2\}. \end{array}$$

Then

Operations on sets:

- ▶ Union: $S_1 \cup S_2 = \{x : x \in S_1 \text{ or } x \in S_2\}.$
- ▶ Intersection: $S_1 \cap S_2 = \{x : x \in S_1 \text{ and } x \in S_2\}.$
- ▶ Difference: $S_1 S_2 = \{x : x \in S_1 \text{ and } x \notin S_2\}.$
- ► Cross product: $S_1 \times S_2 = \{(x,y) : x \in S_1 \text{ and } y \in S_2\}$ (aka Cartesian product).
- ▶ Complement: every set S has a universe $S \subseteq U$. The complement of S (relative to U) is $\overline{S} = U S$.

Complement example:

- ▶ Let $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.
- ▶ $S = \{x \in \mathbb{N} : x \text{ is a multiple of 4}\} = \{0,4,8,12,\dots\}, (S \text{ has universe } \mathbb{N})$
- ▶ then $\overline{S} = \{1,2,3,5,6,7,9,10,11,13,...\} = \{x \in \mathbb{N} : x \text{ is not a multiple of 4}\}.$
- In this course, the universe will always be either explicitly stated or clear from the context.

▶ if *I* is a set (finite or infinite) and S_i are sets for all $i \in I$, then

$$\bigcup_{i\in I} S_i = \{x : \exists i \in I \text{ such that } x \in S_i\}.$$

the same applies for intersection.

Power sets:

- ▶ if S is a set, then $2^S = \{S' : S' \subseteq S\}$ is the set of all subsets of S.
- ► For example, if $S = \{a, b\}$, then

$$2^{S} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}.$$

▶ If S has n elements, 2^S has 2^n elements.

De Morgan's Laws:

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}
\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

Other laws:

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$
 $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$

Functions

- Given a function f which takes elements from S and converts them to elements from T, we denote this by f: S → T.
- ► e.g., *g*

$$g: \mathbb{N} \to 2^{\mathbb{N}}$$

defined by $g(n) = \{1, 2, 3, ..., n\}.$

- Functions which take two or more arguments can be denoted using cross product.
- ► e.g.,

$$f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$$

defined by f(a,b) = ab. (multiplication).

Induction

Induction is a method of proving a certain proposition (involving *n*) holds for all values of *n*:

$$1+2+\cdots+n=n(n+1)/2$$

- Induction works on more complicated structures:
 - **Binary Trees**: Prove that every binary tree of height n has at most $2^n 1$ nodes.
 - ▶ **Graphs**: Euler's Formula: V E + F = 2.

Induction

Formally: let P(n) be a statement involving the natural number n, Then P(n) holds for all $n \ge 0$ if the following hold:

- base case: P(0) holds. That is, the statement holds for n = 0.
- ▶ inductive step: For any $k \ge 0$, if P(k) holds, P(k+1) holds also.

Examples of statements involving *n*:

- 1. $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$.
- 2. $(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$.

Induction

Example: Prove that for all n, $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$.

- Also have "strong" induction: Assume P(i) is true for all $i \le n$, prove P(n+1) is true.
- Example: prove that every integer $n \ge 2$ is either a prime number of a product of two or more primes.

Recursive Definitions

Recursive definitions:

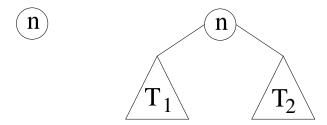
$$n! = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} n(n-1)! & \text{if } n \geq 2 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1. \end{array} \right.$$

Binary Trees:

- a node is a binary tree.
- ▶ if T_1 , T_2 are binary trees (possibly empty), and n is a node, then the structure with root n, left subtree T_1 and right subtree T_2 , is also a binary tree.

Recursive Definitions

Binary Trees:



Some structures with recursive definitions are suited to proof by induction: e.g., prove $n! > 2^n$ for all $n \ge 4$.

However, we usually need to use **structural induction**.

NOT REVIEW

Let S be a set (finite or infinite) of structures defined recursively in the following way:

- 1. For some finite (easy) set I, $I \subseteq S$ (i.e., each element of I is an element of S, I is the **base set**).
- 2. For some set of operations op_i $(1 \le i \le n)$, if $x_1, ..., x_n \in S$ then $op_i(x_1, ..., x_n) \in S$ for all $1 \le i \le n$. (the ops represent how we **build up** structures in S).

Implicitly, we agree that anything formed in any way not defined by 1 or 2 is not an element of S.

Example: *S* is the set of binary trees.

Example: *S* is the set of arithmetic expressions:

- ▶ (base set) n is an arithmetic expression for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
- \blacktriangleright (building rules) if x, y are arithmetic expressions, so are

$$(x+y), (xy), (x-y), (x^y), \text{ and } (x/y).$$

Structural induction on a set S defined by I and O works as follows: Let P be a statement involving members of S.

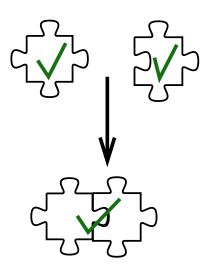
e.g., P = "every binary tree with height n has at most 2ⁿ nodes."

IF

- ▶ P(x) holds for all $x \in I$ (prove for base set) and
- ▶ If whenever $x_1, ..., x_n \in S$ and $P(x_i)$ holds for all $1 \le i \le n$, then $P(op(x_1, ..., x_n))$ holds for all $op \in O$. (prove for building rules)

THEN

▶ Every element of $x \in S$ satisfies P(x).



Example: every non-empty binary tree has one more node than edges.

Proof:

- (prove for base set) if T is a node, then it has one node and zero edges.
- ▶ (**prove for building rules**) if T is a tree with root n and subtrees T_1, T_2 with $edges(T_i) = nodes(T_i) 1$, then the tree T has $edges(T_1) + edges(T_2) + 2$ and $nodes(T_1) + nodes(T_2) + 1$.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 edges(T) = nodes(T) – 1.

Thus, by structural induction, every binary tree has one more node than edges.

Why/When Structural Induction?

- When there is no easy relationship between a recursively defined structure and natural numbers.
- ► In this course, **regular expressions** and **grammars** will be natural targets for structural induction proofs.

- ► In this course, we use proofs to establish statements rigorously.
- We will see proofs in class and you will write proofs on assignments.
- Let's review some proof techniques, tricks and common pitfalls.

Given a statement if A then B, what can we show using this statement?

- If A is true, then we can conclude B.
- contrapositive: If B is not true, then A is not true. (not B implies not A)

Contrapositive Example:

- ▶ Statement: If a student cheats, then they fail the assignment.
- Contrapositive: If a student didn't fail, that means they didn't cheat.

De Morgan's law is used to negate and and or:

- ▶ not (A and B) \equiv (not A) or (not B).
- ▶ not (A or B) \equiv (not A) and (not B).

Example:

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not (cloudy and chance of rain) \equiv (not cloudy) or (not chance of rain).
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There are two quantifiers:

- ∀: For all.
- → ∃: There exists.

Use a quantifier in relation with some variable:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{N}, x \geq 0$$

General form:

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

where P(x) is an expression (using and,not,or,exists) involving x ($P(x) = x \ge 0$)

Negating quantifiers (in stating contrapositives):

- ▶ not $\forall x.P(x) = \exists x.not P(x)$.
- ▶ not $\exists x.P(x) = \forall x.\text{not}P(x)$.

Example: if a course is hard then all students get a bad grade.

- "all students get a bad grade" ∀ student, student.grade = bad.
- ▶ negation: ∃ student, not (student.grade = bad).

Contrapositive: **If** there is a student who got a good grade **then** the course is not hard.

Types of proofs

In this course, remember the following proof techniques:

- Induction and Structural Induction.
- Using the contrapositive: To prove if A then B we instead prove if not B then not A.
- Proof by contradiction: To prove if A then B we assume A holds then show if not B holds as well, a contradiction arises.

Proofs

- "Iff" (if and only if):
 - make sure you prove both directions.
 - \triangleright A iff B = if A then B **AND** if B then A
- "Disprove":
 - ▶ to disprove $\forall x.P(x)$, need to find one x such that P(x) does not hold a **counter-example**.
 - Example: Every prime number is odd.