

Module #2:  
**Basic Proof Methods**

Rosen 5<sup>th</sup> ed., §§1.5 & 3.1  
29 slides, ~2 lectures

# Nature & Importance of Proofs

- In mathematics, a *proof* is:
  - a *correct* (well-reasoned, logically valid) and *complete* (clear, detailed) argument that rigorously & undeniably establishes the truth of a mathematical statement.
- Why must the argument be correct & complete?
  - *Correctness* prevents us from fooling ourselves.
  - *Completeness* allows anyone to verify the result.
- In this course (& throughout mathematics), a very high standard for correctness and completeness of proofs is demanded!!

## Overview of §§1.5 & 3.1

- Methods of mathematical argument (*i.e.*, proof methods) can be formalized in terms of *rules of logical inference*.
- Mathematical *proofs* can themselves be represented formally as discrete structures.
- We will review both correct & fallacious inference rules, & several proof methods.

# Applications of Proofs

- An exercise in clear communication of logical arguments in any area of study.
- The fundamental activity of mathematics is the discovery and elucidation, through proofs, of interesting new theorems.
- Theorem-proving has applications in program verification, computer security, automated reasoning systems, *etc.*
- Proving a theorem allows us to rely upon on its correctness even in the most critical scenarios.

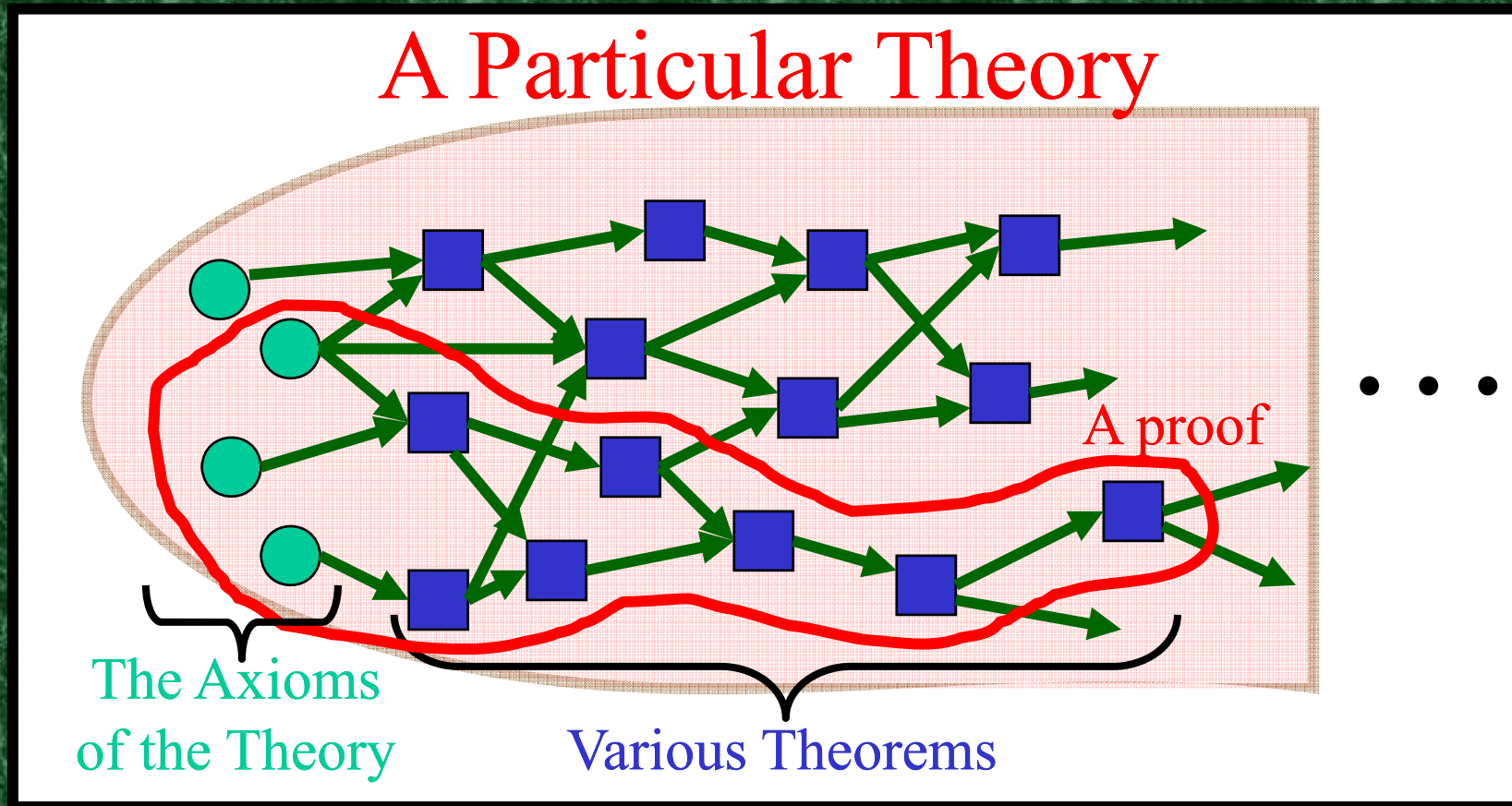
# Proof Terminology

- *Theorem*
  - A statement that has been proven to be true.
- *Axioms, postulates, hypotheses, premises*
  - Assumptions (often unproven) defining the structures about which we are reasoning.
- *Rules of inference*
  - Patterns of logically valid deductions from hypotheses to conclusions.

# More Proof Terminology

- *Lemma* - A minor theorem used as a stepping-stone to proving a major theorem.
- *Corollary* - A minor theorem proved as an easy consequence of a major theorem.
- *Conjecture* - A statement whose truth value has not been proven. (A conjecture may be widely believed to be true, regardless.)
- *Theory* – The set of all theorems that can be proven from a given set of axioms.

# Graphical Visualization



# Inference Rules - General Form

- *Inference Rule* –
  - Pattern establishing that if we know that a set of *antecedent* statements of certain forms are all true, then a certain related *consequent* statement is true.

- $$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \textit{antecedent 1} \\ \textit{antecedent 2} \dots \end{array}}{\therefore \textit{consequent}}$$

“ $\therefore$ ” means “therefore”



# Inference Rules & Implications

- Each logical inference rule corresponds to an implication that is a tautology.

- |  |
|--|
| $\frac{\textit{antecedent 1} \quad \textit{antecedent 2} \dots}{\therefore \textit{consequent}}$ |
|--|

 Inference rule

- Corresponding tautology:  
$$((\textit{ante. 1}) \wedge (\textit{ante. 2}) \wedge \dots) \rightarrow \textit{consequent}$$

## Some Inference Rules

- $$\frac{p}{\therefore p \vee q}$$

Rule of Addition

- $$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p}$$

Rule of Simplification

- $$\frac{p \quad q}{\therefore p \wedge q}$$

Rule of Conjunction

# Modus Ponens & Tollens

- $$\begin{array}{l} p \\ p \rightarrow q \\ \hline \therefore q \end{array}$$

Rule of *modus ponens*  
(a.k.a. *law of detachment*)

“the mode of affirming”

- $$\begin{array}{l} \neg q \\ p \rightarrow q \\ \hline \therefore \neg p \end{array}$$

Rule of *modus tollens*

“the mode of denying”

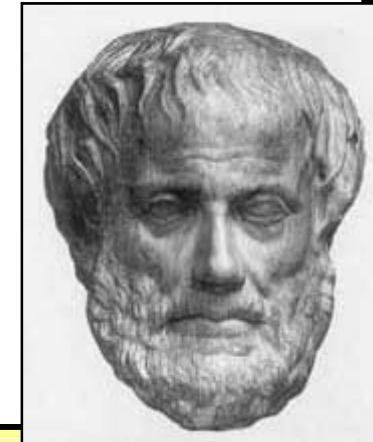
# Syllogism Inference Rules

- $$\frac{p \rightarrow q}{q \rightarrow r} \therefore p \rightarrow r$$

Rule of hypothetical syllogism

- $$\frac{p \vee q}{\neg p} \therefore q$$

Rule of disjunctive syllogism



Aristotle  
(ca. 384-322 B.C.)

# Formal Proofs

- A formal proof of a conclusion  $C$ , given premises  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  consists of a sequence of *steps*, each of which applies some inference rule to premises or to previously-proven statements (as antecedents) to yield a new true statement (the consequent).
- A proof demonstrates that *if* the premises are true, *then* the conclusion is true.

# Formal Proof Example

- Suppose we have the following premises:
  - “**It is not sunny and it is cold.**”
  - “**We will swim only if it is sunny.**”
  - “**If we do not swim, then we will canoe.**”
  - “**If we canoe, then we will be home early.**”
- Given these premises, prove the theorem  
“**We will be home early**” using inference rules.

## Proof Example *cont.*

- Let us adopt the following abbreviations:
  - *sunny* = “**It is sunny**”; *cold* = “**It is cold**”;
  - swim* = “**We will swim**”; *canoe* = “**We will canoe**”;
  - early* = “**We will be home early**”.
- Then, the premises can be written as:
  - (1)  $\neg \textit{sunny} \wedge \textit{cold}$  (2)  $\textit{swim} \rightarrow \textit{sunny}$
  - (3)  $\neg \textit{swim} \rightarrow \textit{canoe}$  (4)  $\textit{canoe} \rightarrow \textit{early}$

## Proof Example *cont.*

<u>Step</u>	<u>Proved by</u>
1. $\neg \textit{sunny} \wedge \textit{cold}$	Premise #1.
2. $\neg \textit{sunny}$	Simplification of 1.
3. $\textit{swim} \rightarrow \textit{sunny}$	Premise #2.
4. $\neg \textit{swim}$	Modus tollens on 2,3.
5. $\neg \textit{swim} \rightarrow \textit{canoe}$	Premise #3.
6. $\textit{canoe}$	Modus ponens on 4,5.
7. $\textit{canoe} \rightarrow \textit{early}$	Premise #4.
8. $\textit{early}$	Modus ponens on 6,7.



# Inference Rules for Quantifiers

- $\frac{\forall x P(x)}{\therefore P(o)}$  **Universal instantiation**  
(substitute *any* object  $o$ )
- $\frac{P(g)}{\therefore \forall x P(x)}$  (for  $g$  a *general* element of u.d.) **Universal generalization**
- $\frac{\exists x P(x)}{\therefore P(c)}$  **Existential instantiation**  
(substitute a *new constant*  $c$ )
- $\frac{P(o)}{\therefore \exists x P(x)}$  (substitute any extant object  $o$ ) **Existential generalization**

## Common Fallacies

- A *fallacy* is an inference rule or other proof method that is not logically valid.
  - May yield a false conclusion!
- Fallacy of *affirming the conclusion*:
  - “ $p \rightarrow q$  is true, and  $q$  is true, so  $p$  must be true.”  
(No, because  $F \rightarrow T$  is true.)
- Fallacy of *denying the hypothesis*:
  - “ $p \rightarrow q$  is true, and  $p$  is false, so  $q$  must be false.”  
(No, again because  $F \rightarrow T$  is true.)

# Circular Reasoning

- The fallacy of (explicitly or implicitly) assuming the very statement you are trying to prove in the course of its proof. Example:
- Prove that an integer  $n$  is even, if  $n^2$  is even.
- Attempted proof: “Assume  $n^2$  is even. Then  $n^2=2k$  for some integer  $k$ . Dividing both sides by  $n$  gives  $n = (2k)/n = 2(k/n)$ . So there is an integer  $j$  (namely  $k/n$ ) such that  $n=2j$ . Therefore  $n$  is even.”

*Begs the question: How do you show that  $j=k/n=n/2$  is an integer, without first assuming  $n$  is even?*

## Removing the Circularity

Suppose  $n^2$  is even  $\therefore 2|n^2 \therefore n^2 \bmod 2 = 0$ . Of course  $n \bmod 2$  is either 0 or 1. If it's 1, then  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ , so  $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ , **using the theorem that if  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$  then  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$ , with  $a=c=n$  and  $b=d=1$** . Now  $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$  implies that  $n^2 \bmod 2 = 1$ . So **by the hypothetical syllogism rule**,  $(n \bmod 2 = 1)$  implies  $(n^2 \bmod 2 = 1)$ . Since we know  $n^2 \bmod 2 = 0 \neq 1$ , **by *modus tollens*** we know that  $n \bmod 2 \neq 1$ . So **by disjunctive syllogism** we have that  $n \bmod 2 = 0 \therefore 2|n \therefore n$  is even.

## Proof Methods for Implications

For proving implications  $p \rightarrow q$ , we have:

- *Direct* proof: Assume  $p$  is true, and prove  $q$ .
- *Indirect* proof: Assume  $\neg q$ , and prove  $\neg p$ .
- *Vacuous* proof: Prove  $\neg p$  by itself.
- *Trivial* proof: Prove  $q$  by itself.
- Proof by cases:  
Show  $p \rightarrow (a \vee b)$ , and  $(a \rightarrow q)$  and  $(b \rightarrow q)$ .

# Direct Proof Example

- **Definition:** An integer  $n$  is called *odd* iff  $n=2k+1$  for some integer  $k$ ;  $n$  is *even* iff  $n=2k$  for some  $k$ .
- **Axiom:** Every integer is either odd or even.
- **Theorem:** (For all numbers  $n$ ) If  $n$  is an odd integer, then  $n^2$  is an odd integer.
- **Proof:** If  $n$  is odd, then  $n = 2k+1$  for some integer  $k$ . Thus,  $n^2 = (2k+1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$ . Therefore  $n^2$  is of the form  $2j + 1$  (with  $j$  the integer  $2k^2 + 2k$ ), thus  $n^2$  is odd.  $\square$

# Indirect Proof Example

- **Theorem:** (For all integers  $n$ )  
If  $3n+2$  is odd, then  $n$  is odd.
- **Proof:** Suppose that the conclusion is false, *i.e.*, that  $n$  is even. Then  $n=2k$  for some integer  $k$ . Then  $3n+2 = 3(2k)+2 = 6k+2 = 2(3k+1)$ . Thus  $3n+2$  is even, because it equals  $2j$  for integer  $j = 3k+1$ . So  $3n+2$  is not odd. We have shown that  $\neg(n \text{ is odd}) \rightarrow \neg(3n+2 \text{ is odd})$ , thus its contrapositive  $(3n+2 \text{ is odd}) \rightarrow (n \text{ is odd})$  is also true.  $\square$

## Vacuous Proof Example

- **Theorem:** (For all  $n$ ) If  $n$  is both odd and even, then  $n^2 = n + n$ .
- **Proof:** The statement “ $n$  is both odd and even” is necessarily false, since no number can be both odd and even. So, the theorem is vacuously true.  $\square$



## Trivial Proof Example

- **Theorem:** (For integers  $n$ ) If  $n$  is the sum of two prime numbers, then either  $n$  is odd or  $n$  is even.
- **Proof:** *Any* integer  $n$  is either odd or even. So the conclusion of the implication is true regardless of the truth of the antecedent. Thus the implication is true trivially.  $\square$

# Proof by Contradiction

- A method for proving  $p$ .
- Assume  $\neg p$ , and prove both  $q$  and  $\neg q$  for some proposition  $q$ .
- Thus  $\neg p \rightarrow (q \wedge \neg q)$
- $(q \wedge \neg q)$  is a trivial contradiction, equal to **F**
- Thus  $\neg p \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ , which is only true if  $\neg p = \mathbf{F}$
- Thus  $p$  is true.

## Review: Proof Methods So Far

- *Direct, indirect, vacuous, and trivial* proofs of statements of the form  $p \rightarrow q$ .
- *Proof by contradiction* of any statements.
- Next: *Constructive and nonconstructive existence proofs.*

# Proving Existentials

- A proof of a statement of the form  $\exists x P(x)$  is called an *existence proof*.
- If the proof demonstrates how to actually find or construct a specific element  $a$  such that  $P(a)$  is true, then it is a *constructive proof*.
- Otherwise, it is *nonconstructive*.

# Constructive Existence Proof

- **Theorem:** There exists a positive integer  $n$  that is the sum of two perfect cubes in two different ways:
  - equal to  $j^3 + k^3$  and  $l^3 + m^3$  where  $j, k, l, m$  are positive integers, and  $\{j, k\} \neq \{l, m\}$
- **Proof:** Consider  $n = 1729$ ,  $j = 9$ ,  $k = 10$ ,  $l = 1$ ,  $m = 12$ . Now just check that the equalities hold.

## Another Constructive Existence Proof

- **Theorem:** For any integer  $n > 0$ , there exists a sequence of  $n$  consecutive composite integers.
- Same statement in predicate logic:  
$$\forall n > 0 \exists x \forall i (1 \leq i \leq n) \rightarrow (x+i \text{ is composite})$$
- Proof follows on next slide...

## The proof...

- Given  $n > 0$ , let  $x = (n + 1)! + 1$ .
- Let  $i \geq 1$  and  $i \leq n$ , and consider  $x+i$ .
- Note  $x+i = (n + 1)! + (i + 1)$ .
- Note  $(i+1)|(n+1)!$ , since  $2 \leq i+1 \leq n+1$ .
- Also  $(i+1)|(i+1)$ . So,  $(i+1)|(x+i)$ .
- $\therefore x+i$  is composite.
- $\therefore \forall n \exists x \forall 1 \leq i \leq n : x+i$  is composite. Q.E.D.

# Nonconstructive Existence Proof

- **Theorem:**  
“There are infinitely many prime numbers.”
- Any finite set of numbers must contain a maximal element, so we can prove the theorem if we can just show that there is *no* largest prime number.
- *I.e.*, show that for any prime number, there is a larger number that is *also* prime.
- More generally: For *any* number,  $\exists$  a larger prime.
- Formally: Show  $\forall n \exists p > n : p$  is prime.

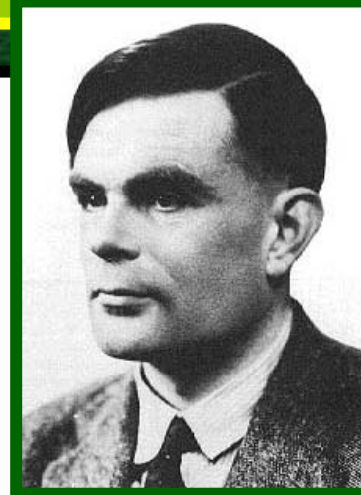


## The proof, using *proof by cases*...

- Given  $n > 0$ , prove there is a prime  $p > n$ .
- Consider  $x = n! + 1$ . Since  $x > 1$ , we know  $(x \text{ is prime}) \vee (x \text{ is composite})$ .
- **Case 1:**  $x$  is prime. Obviously  $x > n$ , so let  $p = x$  and we're done.
- **Case 2:**  $x$  has a prime factor  $p$ . But if  $p \leq n$ , then  $p \text{ mod } x = 1$ . So  $p > n$ , and we're done.

# The Halting Problem (Turing '36)

- The *halting problem* was the first mathematical function proven to have *no* algorithm that computes it!
  - We say, it is *uncomputable*.
- The desired function is  $Halts(P,I) \equiv$  the truth value of this statement:
  - “*Program P, given input I, eventually terminates.*”
- **Theorem:** *Halts* is uncomputable!
  - I.e., There does *not* exist *any* algorithm *A* that computes *Halts* correctly for *all* possible inputs.
- Its proof is thus a *non-existence* proof.
- Corollary: General impossibility of predictive analysis of arbitrary computer programs.



Alan Turing  
1912-1954

# The Proof

- Given any *arbitrary* program  $H(P,I)$ ,
- Consider algorithm *Breaker*, defined as:  
**procedure** *Breaker*( $P$ : a program)  
    *halts* :=  $H(P,P)$   
    **if** *halts* **then while T begin end**
- Note that *Breaker*(*Breaker*) halts iff  $H(\textit{Breaker},\textit{Breaker}) = \mathbf{F}$ .
- So  $H$  does **not** compute the function *Halts*!

Breaker makes a liar out of  $H$ , by doing the opposite of whatever  $H$  predicts.

# Limits on Proofs

- Some very simple statements of number theory haven't been proved or disproved!
  - *E.g. Goldbach's conjecture*: Every integer  $n \geq 2$  is exactly the average of some two primes.
  - $\forall n \geq 2 \exists$  primes  $p, q: n = (p+q)/2$ .
- There are true statements of number theory (or any sufficiently powerful system) that can *never* be proved (or disproved) (Gödel).

# More Proof Examples

- Quiz question 1a: Is this argument correct or incorrect?
  - “All TAs compose easy quizzes. Ramesh is a TA. Therefore, Ramesh composes easy quizzes.”
- First, separate the premises from conclusions:
  - Premise #1: All TAs compose easy quizzes.
  - Premise #2: Ramesh is a TA.
  - Conclusion: Ramesh composes easy quizzes.

# Answer

Next, re-render the example in logic notation.

- Premise #1: All TAs compose easy quizzes.
  - Let U.D. = all people
  - Let  $T(x) \equiv$  “ $x$  is a TA”
  - Let  $E(x) \equiv$  “ $x$  composes easy quizzes”
  - Then Premise #1 says:  $\forall x, T(x) \rightarrow E(x)$

## Answer cont...

- Premise #2: Ramesh is a TA.
  - Let  $R \equiv \text{Ramesh}$
  - Then Premise #2 says:  $T(R)$
  - And the Conclusion says:  $E(R)$
- The argument is correct, because it can be reduced to a sequence of applications of valid inference rules, as follows:

# The Proof in Gory Detail

<u>Statement</u>	<u>How obtained</u>
1. $\forall x, T(x) \rightarrow E(x)$	<b>(Premise #1)</b>
2. $T(\text{Ramesh}) \rightarrow E(\text{Ramesh})$	<b>(Universal instantiation)</b>
3. $T(\text{Ramesh})$	<b>(Premise #2)</b>
4. $E(\text{Ramesh})$	<b>(<i>Modus Ponens</i> from statements #2 and #3)</b>



## Another example

- Quiz question 2b: Correct or incorrect: At least one of the 280 students in the class is intelligent. Y is a student of this class. Therefore, Y is intelligent.
- First: Separate premises/conclusion, & translate to logic:
  - Premises: (1)  $\exists x \text{ InClass}(x) \wedge \text{Intelligent}(x)$   
(2)  $\text{InClass}(Y)$
  - Conclusion:  $\text{Intelligent}(Y)$

# Answer

- No, the argument is invalid; we can disprove it with a counter-example, as follows:
- Consider a case where there is only one intelligent student  $X$  in the class, and  $X \neq Y$ .
  - Then the premise  $\exists x \text{ InClass}(x) \wedge \text{Intelligent}(x)$  is true, by existential generalization of  $\text{InClass}(X) \wedge \text{Intelligent}(X)$
  - But the conclusion  $\text{Intelligent}(Y)$  is false, since  $X$  is the only intelligent student in the class, and  $Y \neq X$ .
- Therefore, the premises *do not* imply the conclusion.

## Another Example

- Quiz question #2: Prove that the sum of a rational number and an irrational number is always irrational.
- First, you have to understand exactly what the question is asking you to prove:
  - “For all real numbers  $x, y$ , if  $x$  is rational and  $y$  is irrational, then  $x+y$  is irrational.”
  - $\forall x, y: \text{Rational}(x) \wedge \text{Irrational}(y) \rightarrow \text{Irrational}(x+y)$

# Answer

- Next, think back to the definitions of the terms used in the statement of the theorem:
  - $\forall$  reals  $r$ :  $\text{Rational}(r) \leftrightarrow \exists \text{ Integer}(i) \wedge \text{ Integer}(j): r = i/j.$
  - $\forall$  reals  $r$ :  $\text{Irrational}(r) \leftrightarrow \neg \text{Rational}(r)$
- You almost always need the definitions of the terms in order to prove the theorem!
- Next, let's go through one valid proof:

## What you might write

- **Theorem:**  
 $\forall x, y. \text{Rational}(x) \wedge \text{Irrational}(y) \rightarrow \text{Irrational}(x+y)$
- **Proof:** Let  $x, y$  be any rational and irrational numbers, respectively. ... (universal generalization)
- Now, just from this, what do we know about  $x$  and  $y$ ? You should think back to the definition of rational:
- ... Since  $x$  is rational, we know (from the very definition of rational) that there must be some integers  $i$  and  $j$  such that  $x = i/j$ . So, let  $i_x, j_x$  be such integers ...
- We give them unique names so we can refer to them later.

## What next?

- What do we know about  $y$ ? Only that  $y$  is irrational:  $\neg\exists$  integers  $i,j: y = i/j$ .
- But, it's difficult to see how to use a direct proof in this case. We could try indirect proof also, but in this case, it is a little simpler to just use proof by contradiction (very similar to indirect).
- So, what are we trying to show? Just that  $x+y$  is irrational. That is,  $\neg\exists i,j: (x + y) = i/j$ .
- What happens if we hypothesize the negation of this statement?

## More writing...

- Suppose that  $x+y$  were not irrational. Then  $x+y$  would be rational, so  $\exists$  integers  $i, j$ :  $x+y = i/j$ . So, let  $i_s$  and  $j_s$  be any such integers where  $x+y = i_s/j_s$ .
- Now, with all these things named, we can start seeing what happens when we put them together.
- So, we have that  $(i_x/j_x) + y = (i_s/j_s)$ .
- Observe! We have enough information now that we can conclude something useful about  $y$ , by solving this equation for it.

## Finishing the proof.

- Solving that equation for  $y$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (i_s/j_s) - (i_x/j_x) \\ &= (i_s j_x - i_x j_s) / (j_s j_x) \end{aligned}$$

Now, since the numerator and denominator of this expression are both integers,  $y$  is (by definition) rational. This contradicts the assumption that  $y$  was irrational.

Therefore, our hypothesis that  $x+y$  is rational must be false, and so the theorem is proved.



## Example wrong answer

- 1 is rational.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.  $1+\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. Therefore, the sum of a rational number and an irrational number is irrational. (Direct proof.)
- Why does this answer merit no credit?
  - The student attempted to use an example to prove a universal statement. **This is always wrong!**
  - Even as an example, it's incomplete, because the student never even proved that  $1+\sqrt{2}$  is irrational!