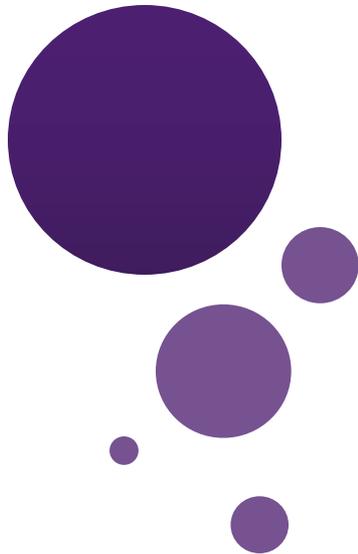




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Lecture 5: Proofs

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Recap Previous Lecture

1. Binding variable, free variable, scope, well-formula.
2. Truth table for nested quantifiers.
3. Theorem, proof, corollary.
4. Rules of Inferences.
 - Modus Ponens $(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$
 - Addition $p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$
 - Simplification $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$
 - Conjunction $((p) \wedge (q)) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$
 - Modus Tollens $(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$
 - Contrapositive $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$
 - Hypothetical Syllogism $((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$
 - Disjunctive Syllogism $((p \vee q) \wedge \neg p) \rightarrow q$
 - Resolution $((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)) \rightarrow (q \vee r)$

| Statement | True when... | False when... |
|--|---|--|
| $\neg \exists x P(x) \equiv \forall x \neg P(x)$ | $P(x)$ is false for every x | There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true |
| $\neg \forall x P(x) \equiv \exists x \neg P(x)$ | There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false | $P(x)$ is true for every x |

Outline

- Fallacies
- Proofs with quantifiers
- Types of proofs
- Proof strategies

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- **Fallacies**
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Fallacies (1)

- Even a bad example is worth something: it teaches us what not to do
- There are three common mistakes (at least..).
- These are known as fallacies
 1. Fallacy of affirming the conclusion
$$(q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow p$$
 2. Fallacy of denying the hypothesis
$$(\neg p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg q$$
 3. Circular reasoning. Here you use the conclusion as an assumption, avoiding an actual proof

Little Reminder

- Affirming the antecedent: Modus ponens

$$(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$$

- Denying the consequent: Modus Tollens

$$(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$$

- Affirming the conclusion: **Fallacy**

$$(q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow p$$

- Denying the hypothesis: **Fallacy**

$$(\neg p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg q$$

Fallacies

- Sometimes, bad proofs arise from illegal operations rather than poor logic.

- Consider the bad proof $2=1$

- Let: $a = b$

$$a^2 = ab$$

$$a^2 + a^2 - 2ab = ab + a^2 - 2ab$$

$$2(a^2 - ab) = (a^2 - ab)$$

$$2 = 1$$

Multiply both sides by a

Add $a^2 - 2ab$ to both sides

Factor, collect terms

Divide both sides by $(a^2 - ab)$

So, what is wrong with the proof?

Outline

- Fallacies
- **Proofs with quantifiers**
- Types of proofs
- Proof strategies

Proofs with Quantifiers

- Rules of inference can be extended in a straightforward manner to quantified statements
- **Universal Instantiation:** Given the premise that $\forall xP(x)$ and $c \in \text{UoD}$ (where UoD is the universe of discourse), we conclude that $P(c)$ holds
- **Universal Generalization:** Here, we select an arbitrary element in the universe of discourse $c \in \text{UoD}$ and show that $P(c)$ holds. We can therefore conclude that $\forall xP(x)$ holds
- **Existential Instantiation:** Given the premise that $\exists xP(x)$ holds, we simply give it a name, c , and conclude that $P(c)$ holds
- **Existential Generalization:** Conversely, we establish that $P(c)$ holds for a specific $c \in \text{UoD}$, then we can conclude that $\exists xP(x)$

Proofs with Quantifiers: Example (1)

- Show that “A car in the garage has an engine problem” and “Every car in the garage has been sold” imply the conclusion “A car that has been sold has an engine problem”
- Let
 - $G(x)$: “x is in the garage”
 - $E(x)$: “x has an engine problem”
 - $S(x)$: “x has been sold”
- Let UoD be the set of all cars
- The premises are as follows:
 - $\exists x (G(x) \wedge E(x))$
 - $\forall x (G(x) \rightarrow S(x))$
- The conclusion we want to show is: $\exists x (S(x) \wedge E(x))$

Proofs with Quantifiers: Example (2)

1. $\exists x (G(x) \wedge E(x))$ *1st premise*
2. $(G(c) \wedge E(c))$ *Existential instantiation of (1)*
3. $G(c)$ *Simplification of (2)*
4. $\forall x (G(x) \rightarrow S(x))$ *2nd premise*
5. $G(c) \rightarrow S(c)$ *Universal instantiation of (4)*
6. $S(c)$ *Modus ponens on (3) and (5)*
7. $E(c)$ *Simplification from (2)*
8. $S(c) \wedge E(c)$ *Conjunction of (6) and (7)*
9. $\exists x (S(x) \wedge E(x))$ *Existential generalization of (8)*

QED

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Trivial Proofs (1)

- Conclusion holds **without using the premise**
- A trivial proof can be given when the conclusion is shown to be (always) true.
- That is, if q is true, then $p \rightarrow q$ is true
- Examples
 - 'If CSE235 is easy implies that the Earth is round'
 - Prove 'If $x > 0$ then $(x+1)^2 - 2x \geq x^2$ '

Trivial Proofs (2)

- Proof. It is easy to see:

$$(x+1)^2 - 2x$$

$$= (x^2 + 2x + 1) - 2x$$

$$= x^2 + 1$$

$$\geq x^2$$

- Note that the conclusion holds without using the hypothesis.

Vacuous Proofs

- If the premise p is false
- Then the implication $p \rightarrow q$ is always true
- A vacuous proof is a proof that relies on the fact that no element in the universe of discourse satisfies the premise (thus **the statement exists in vacuum** in the UoD).
- Example:
 - If x is a prime number divisible by 16, then $x^2 < 0$
- No prime number is divisible by 16, thus this statement is true (counter-intuitive as it may be)

Direct Proofs

- Most of the proofs we have seen so far are direct proofs
- In a direct proof
 - You assume the hypothesis p , and
 - Give a direct series (sequence) of implications
 - Using the rules of inference
 - As well as other results (proved independently)
 - To show that the conclusion q holds.

Proof by Contrapositive (indirect proof)

- Recall that $(p \rightarrow q) \equiv (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$
- This is the basis for the proof by contraposition
 - You assume that the conclusion is false, then
 - Give a series of implications to show that
 - Such an assumption implies that the premise is false
- Example
 - Prove that if $x^3 < 0$ then $x < 0$

Proof by Contrapositive: Example

- The contrapositive is “if $x \geq 0$ then $x^3 \geq 0$ ”
- Proof:
 1. If $x=0 \rightarrow x^3=0 \geq 0$
 2. If $x>0 \rightarrow x^2>0 \rightarrow x^3>0$

QED

Proof by Contradiction

- To prove a statement p is true
 - you may assume that it is false
 - And then proceed to show that such an assumption leads a contradiction with a known result
- In terms of logic, you show that
 - for a known result r ,
 - $(\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r))$ is true
 - Which yields a contradiction $c = (r \wedge \neg r)$ cannot hold
- Example: $\sqrt{2}$ is an irrational number

Proof by Contradiction: Example

- Let p be the proposition ‘ $\sqrt{2}$ is an irrational number’
- Assume $\neg p$ holds, and show that it yields a contradiction
- $\sqrt{2}$ is rational

→ $\sqrt{2} = a/b$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and a, b have no common factor
(proposition r)

Definition of rational numbers

→ $2 = a^2/b^2$

Squaring the equation

→ $(2b^2 = a^2) \rightarrow (a^2 \text{ is even}) \rightarrow (a = 2c)$

Algebra

→ $(2b^2 = 4c^2) \rightarrow (b^2 = 2c^2) \rightarrow (b^2 \text{ is even}) \rightarrow (b \text{ is even})$

Algebra

→ $(a, b \text{ are even}) \rightarrow (a, b \text{ have a common factor } 2) \rightarrow \neg r$

→ $(\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r))$, which is a contradiction

So, $(\neg p \text{ is false}) \rightarrow (p \text{ is true})$, which means $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Proof by Cases

- Sometimes it is easier to prove a theorem by
 - Breaking it down into cases and
 - Proving each one separately
- Example:
 - Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove that $9n^2+3n-2$ is even

Proof by Cases: Example

- Observe that $9n^2+3n-2=(3n+2)(3n-1)$
- n is an integer $\rightarrow (3n+2)(3n-1)$ is the product of two integers
- **Case 1:** Assume $3n+2$ is even
 $\rightarrow 9n^2+3n-2$ is trivially even because it is the product of two integers, one of which is even
- **Case 2:** Assume $3n+2$ is odd
 $\rightarrow 3n+2-3$ is even $\rightarrow 3n-1$ is even $\rightarrow 9n^2+3n-2$ is even because one of its factors is even \square

Existence Proofs

- A **constructive existence proof** asserts a theorem by providing a **specific, concrete example** of a statement
 - Such a proof only proves a statement of the form $\exists xP(x)$ for some predicate P .
 - It does not prove the statement for all such x
- A **nonconstructive existence proof** also shows a statement of the form $\exists xP(x)$, but it does not necessarily need to give a specific example x .
 - Such a proof usually proceeds by contradiction:
 - Assume that $\neg\exists xP(x) \equiv \forall x\neg P(x)$ holds
 - Then get a contradiction

Uniqueness Proofs

- A **uniqueness proof** is used to show that a certain element (specific or not) has a certain property.
- Such a proof usually has two parts
 1. A proof of existence: $\exists xP(x)$
 2. A proof of uniqueness: if $x \neq y$ then $\neg P(y)$
- Together we have the following:

$$\exists x (P(x) \wedge (\forall y (x \neq y \rightarrow \neg P(y))))$$

Counter Examples

- Sometimes you are asked to disprove a statement
- In such a situation you are actually trying to prove the negation of the statement
- With statements of the form $\forall x P(x)$, it suffices to give a counter example
 - because the existence of an element x for which $\neg P(x)$ holds proves that $\exists x \neg P(x)$
 - which is the negation of $\forall x P(x)$

Counter Examples: Example

- Example: Disprove n^2+n+1 is a prime number for all $n \geq 1$
- A simple counterexample is $n=4$.
- In fact: for $n=4$, we have

$$n^2+n+1 = 4^2+4+1$$

$$= 16+4+1$$

$$= 21 = 3 \times 7, \text{ which is clearly not prime}$$

QED

Counter Examples: A Word of Caution

- No matter how many examples you give, you can never prove a theorem by giving examples (unless the universe of discourse is finite—why?—which is in called an exhaustive proof)
- Counter examples can only be used to disprove universally quantified statements
- Do not give a proof by simply giving an example

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Proof Strategies

- Example: Forward and backward reasoning
- If there were a single strategy that always worked for proofs, mathematics would be easy
- The best advice we can give you:
 - Beware of fallacies and circular arguments (i.e., begging the question)
 - Don't take things for granted. Try proving assertions first before you can take/use them as facts
 - Don't peek at proofs. Try proving something for yourself before looking at the proof
 - If you peeked, challenge yourself to reproduce the proof later on.. **w/o peeking again**
 - The best way to improve your proof skills is **PRACTICE**.

Next class

- Topic: Introduction to Sets
- Pre-class reading: Chap 2.1

