

# Introduction to Formal Proofs

# Announcements

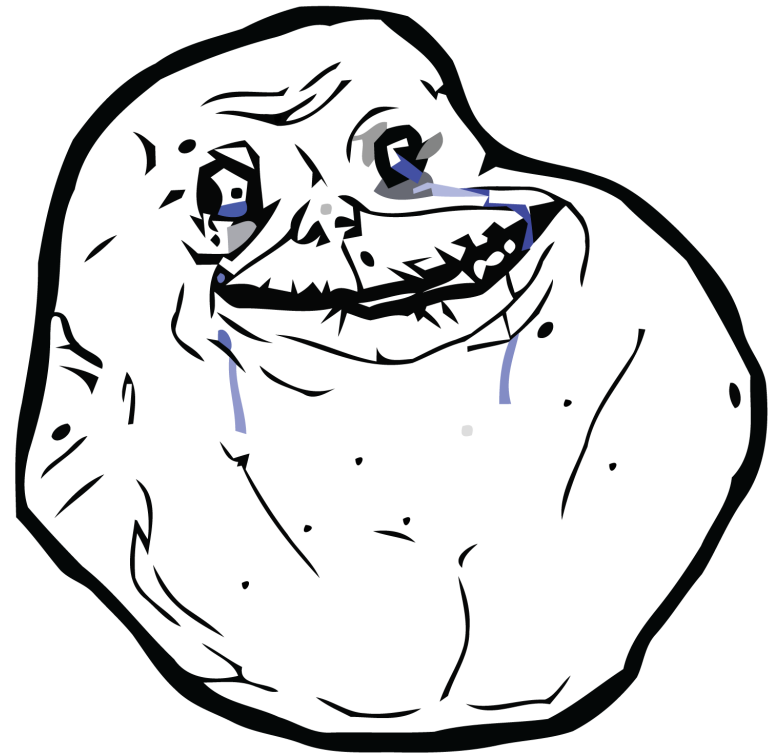
- Problem Set 1 out, due Friday, October 7 at 2:15PM (right before class).
  - **Start early!**
  - Later problems are harder than earlier ones; don't extrapolate from the first few problems.
  - Email us at [cs103@cs.stanford.edu](mailto:cs103@cs.stanford.edu) or stop by OH with questions.
- Office hours schedule is posted on the course website; Patrick is holding OH after class today (4:30PM – 6:30PM) in Gates B24A.

# Office Hours

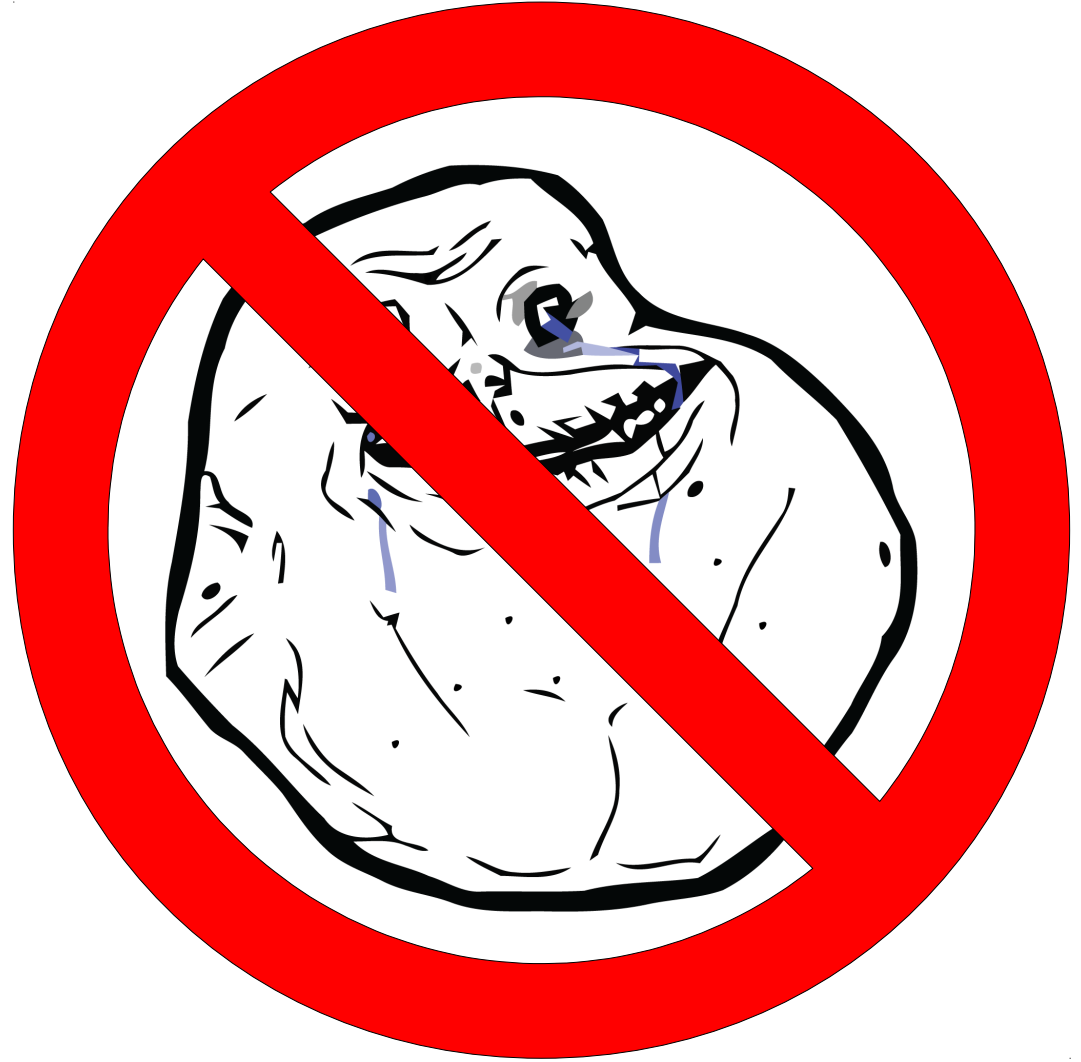
# Office Hours



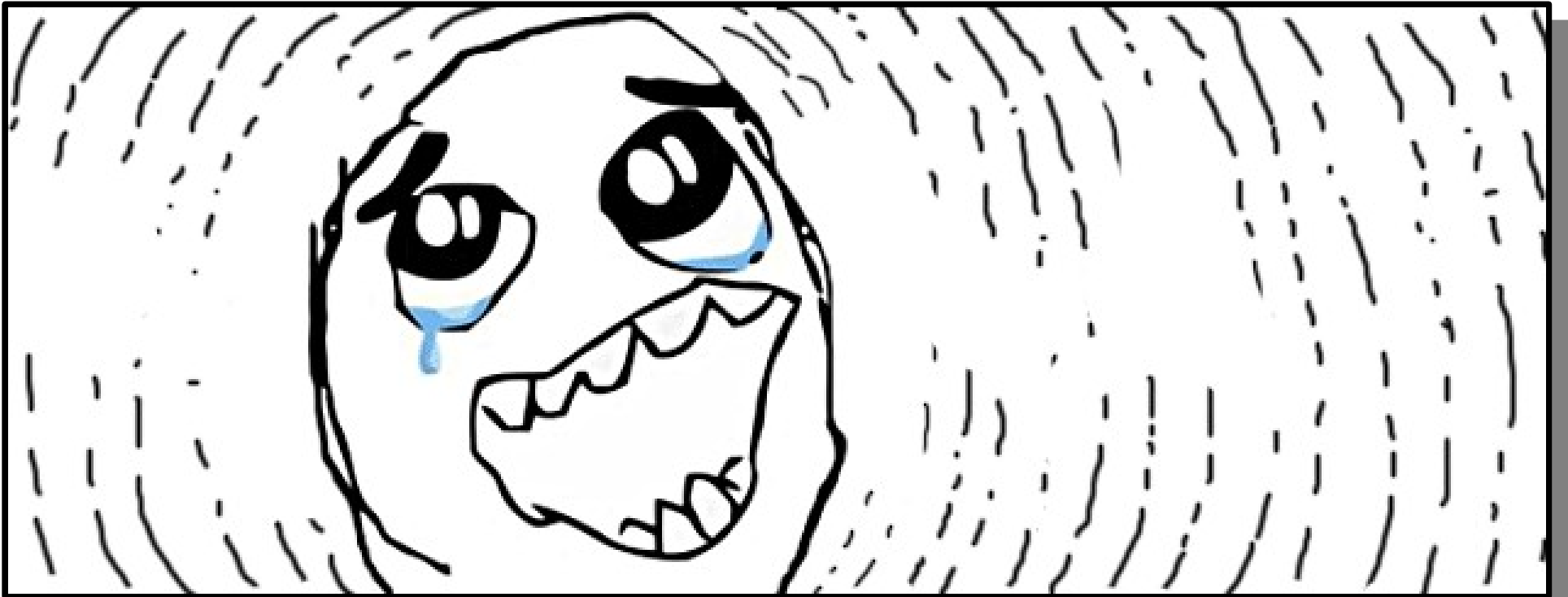
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# Office Hours



# Friday Four Square



- Good snacks!
- Good company!
- Good game!
- Good fun!
- **Today at 4:15 in front of Gates.**



# Friday Four Square



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Don't be this guy!

# Mathematical Proofs

# Structure of a Proof

- Begin with a set of initial assumptions (**hypotheses**).
- Through creativity, use logical reasoning to derive the final result (the **conclusion**) from the hypotheses.
- Assuming that all intermediary steps are sound logical reasoning, the conclusion **follows** from the hypotheses.

# Proofs are Wonderful

- End up with **incontrovertible evidence** that your claim is correct.
- Develop a **better understanding** of the underlying structure of the problem.
  - Exploit interesting properties of the hypotheses to derive a final result.
  - See the connection between your proof and other similar proofs to arrive at a more general result.

# Proofs are Hard

- A **single incorrect step** can render an entire proof invalid.
- Can't “**debug**” a proof as you would a program.
- Proofs are much harder to **synthesize** than to **follow**.

# Looking Forward

- **Basic Proof Techniques** (Today/Monday)
  - What do proofs look like?
  - What strategies can be used to prove a result?
- **Proof by Induction** (Monday/Wednesday)
  - How do you prove properties of complex structures?
- **Application: Dijkstra's Algorithm** (Wednesday)
  - How do proofs help you better understand something?
- **Formal Logic** (Friday/Monday)
  - What are the formal laws governing proofs?

# Direct Proofs

# Direct Proofs

- A **direct proof** is the simplest type of proof.
- Starting with an initial set of hypotheses, apply simple logical steps to prove the conclusion.



# Two Quick Definitions

- An integer is **even** if it can be written as  $2k$  for some integer  $k$ .
- An integer is **odd** if it can be written as  $2k + 1$  for some integer  $k$ .
- Every integer is either even or odd.
- No integer is both even and odd.

# A Simple Direct Proof

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This symbol means "end  
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So, by definition,  $n^2$  is even. ■

# Proofs with Implications

- To prove a statement of the form “if  $P$  is true,  $Q$  is true:”
  - Assume that  $P$  is true.
  - Using  $P$  and other hypotheses, show that  $Q$  is true as well.
- In the previous proof, we **assumed** that  $n$  was even, then used that to prove that  $n^2$  is even.

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

**Don't** assume  $Q$  and then prove  $P$ !

# A More Elaborate Direct Proof

- Suppose that we have two equivalence relations  $(A, =_A)$  and  $(B, =_B)$ .
- Define a new relation  $(A \times B, =_{A \times B})$  as
  - $(a_1, b_1) =_{A \times B} (a_2, b_2)$  if  $a_1 =_A a_2$  and  $b_1 =_B b_2$ .
- Examples:
  - Are two shapes the same color and size?
  - Did two Olympic teams earn the same number of gold and silver medals?
- **Prove:**  $(A \times B, =_{A \times B})$  is an equivalence relation.

# Recall

- An equivalence relation is a relation that is
  - **Reflexive**: For any  $a$ ,  $aRa$
  - **Symmetric**: If  $aRb$ ,  $bRa$ .
  - **Transitive**: If  $aRb$  and  $bRc$ ,  $aRc$ .
- Using the definition, let's prove that  $=_{A \times B}$  is an equivalence relation.

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To see that it is reflexive, note that for any  $(a, b) \in A \times B$ ,  $a =_A a$  and  $b =_B b$  because  $=_A$  and  $=_B$  are reflexive. Thus  $(a, b) =_{A \times B} (a, b)$ .



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To see that it is symmetric, note that if  $(a_1, b_1) =_{A \times B} (a_2, b_2)$ , then  $a_1 =_A a_2$  and  $b_1 =_B b_2$ . Since  $=_A$  and  $=_B$  are symmetric,  $a_2 =_A a_1$  and  $b_2 =_B b_1$ , so  $(a_2, b_2) =_{A \times B} (a_1, b_1)$ .

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To see that it is transitive, suppose that  $(a_1, b_1) =_{A \times B} (a_2, b_2)$  and that  $(a_2, b_2) =_{A \times B} (a_3, b_3)$ . Thus  $a_1 =_A a_2$  and  $a_2 =_A a_3$ , and because  $=_A$  is transitive,  $a_1 =_A a_3$ . Similarly,  $b_1 =_B b_2$  and  $b_2 =_B b_3$ , and because  $=_B$  is transitive,  $b_1 =_B b_3$ . Consequently,  $(a_1, b_1) =_{A \times B} (a_3, b_3)$  as required.

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To see that it is transitive, **suppose that  $(a_1, b_1) =_{A \times B} (a_2, b_2)$  and that  $(a_2, b_2) =_{A \times B} (a_3, b_3)$** . Thus  $a_1 =_A a_2$  and  $a_2 =_A a_3$ , and because  $=_A$  is transitive,  $a_1 =_A a_3$ . Similarly,  $b_1 =_B b_2$  and  $b_2 =_B b_3$ , and because  $=_B$  is transitive,  $b_1 =_B b_3$ . Consequently,  **$(a_1, b_1) =_{A \times B} (a_3, b_3)$**  as required. ■

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# Proofs with Quantifiers

- To prove a statement of the form “for any  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ”:
  - Assign a name to some object representing an arbitrary choice of  $x$ .
  - This does **not** mean “choose an arbitrary  $x$ ;” rather, the symbol  $x$  stands in for any choice of  $x$  that we could ever make.
  - Prove that  $P(x)$  is true under the assumption that  $x$  could be anything and the choice is out of your control.

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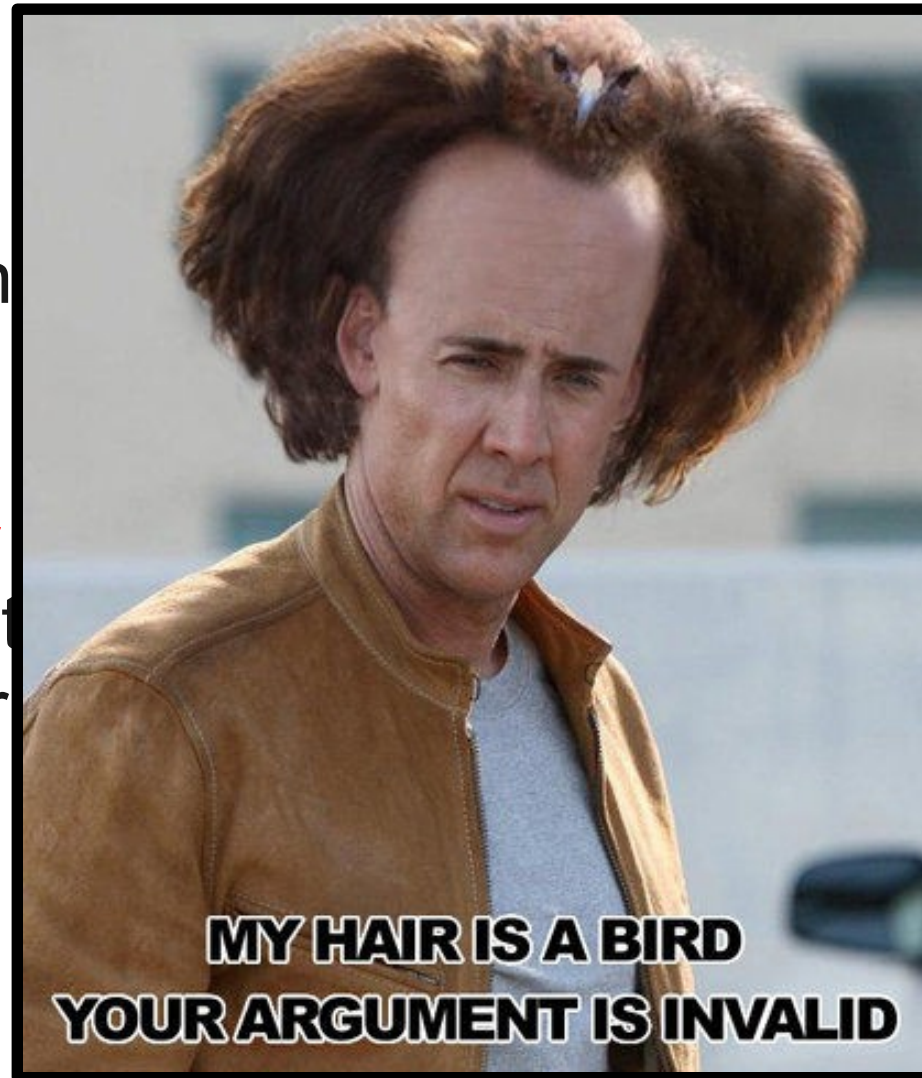
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*Proof:* **Consider**  $n=16$ . 16 is even, and it was arbitrary, for any  $n$  has no odd divisors. ■

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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”*
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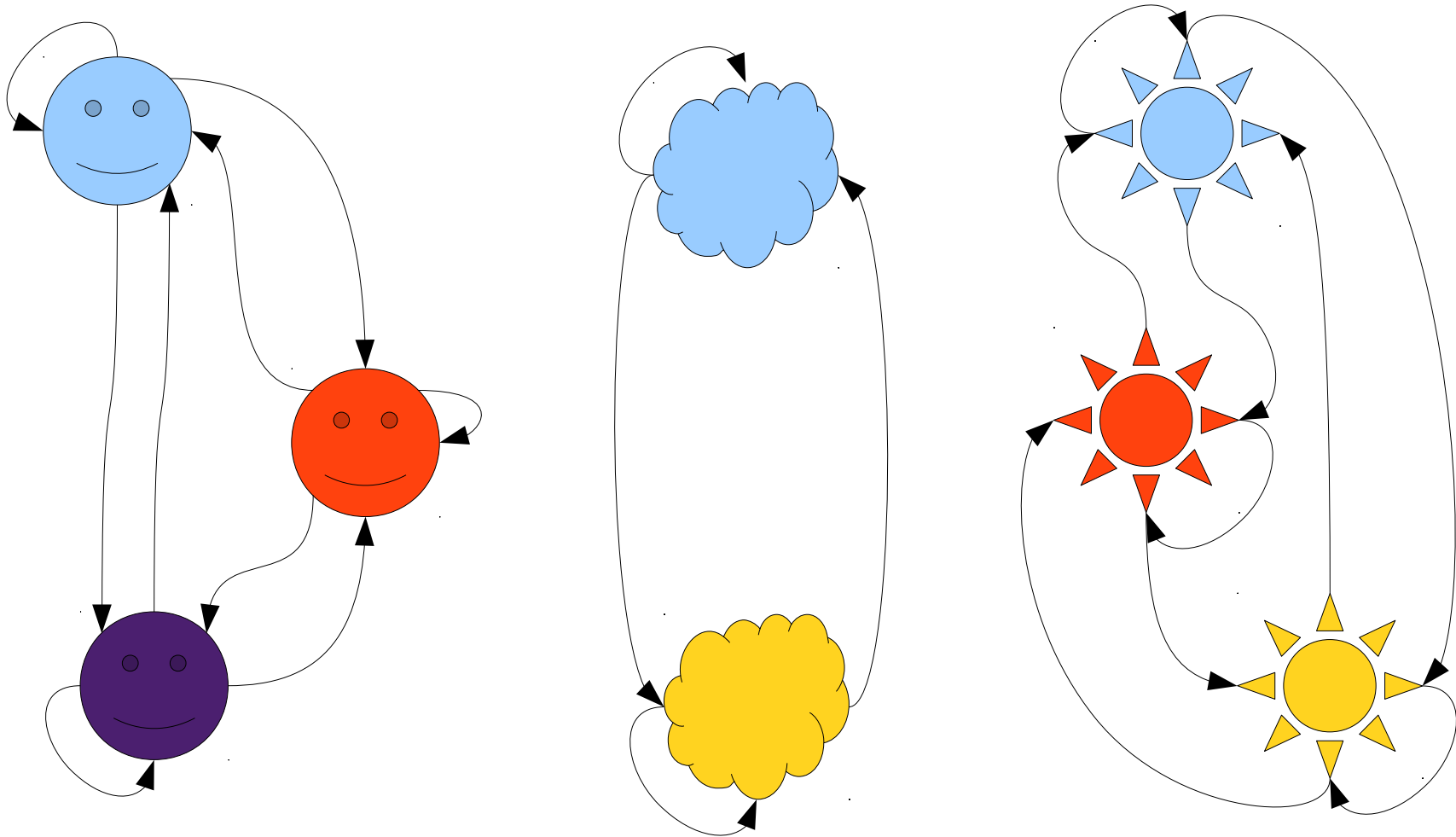
To prove something is true for all  $x$ , **do not** choose an  $x$  and base the proof off of your choice!

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

# Making Arguments Readable

- Often, to prove some result, you must prove a weaker result first.
- From the weaker result, you then prove the final result.
- The weaker result is often called a **lemma**.
- Most lemmas are specific to a particular proof, though some lemmas are quite famous.
  - The **pumping lemma**.
  - **Schwarz's lemma** (no relation).

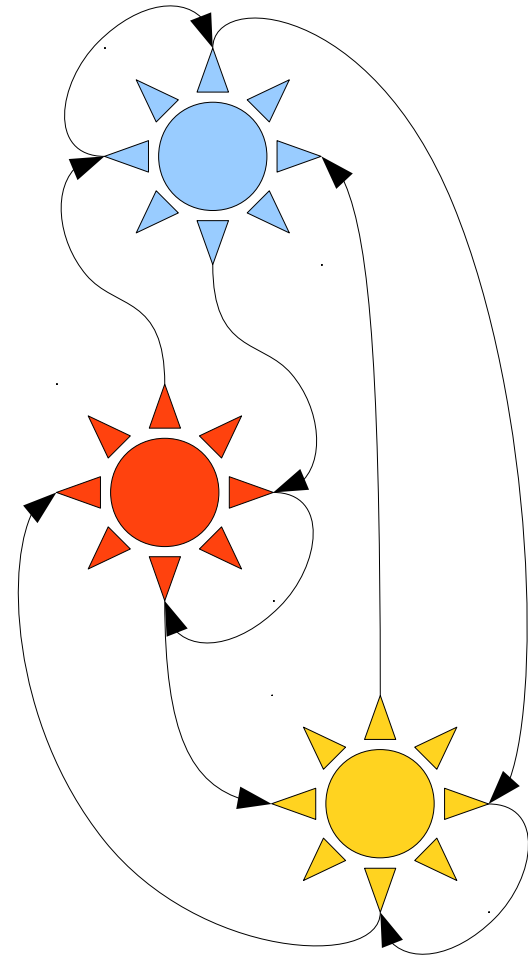
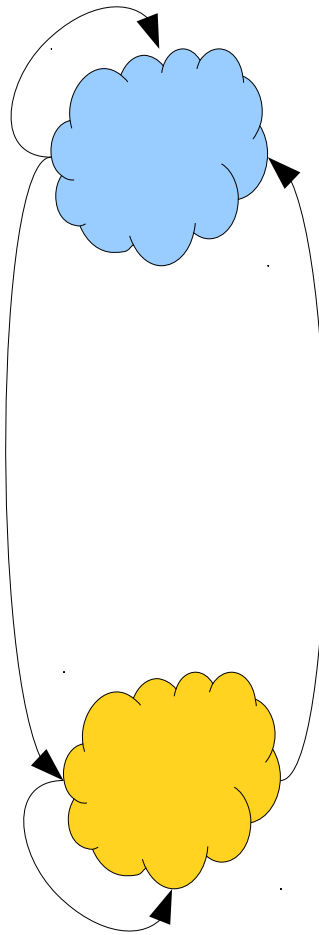
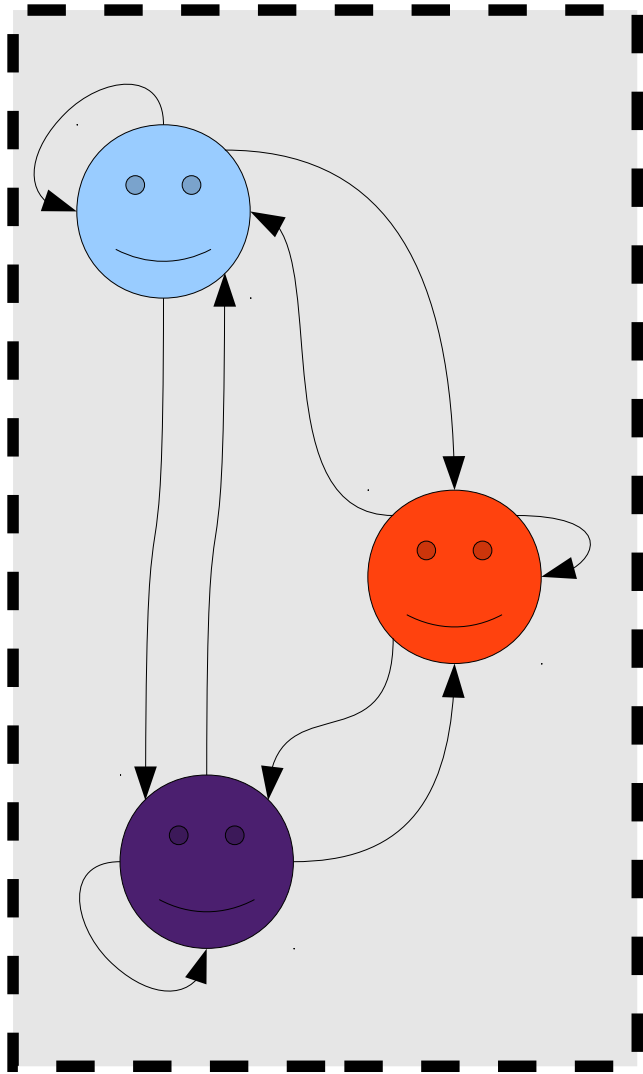
# Equivalence Classes



$xRy \equiv x$  and  $y$  are the same shape.

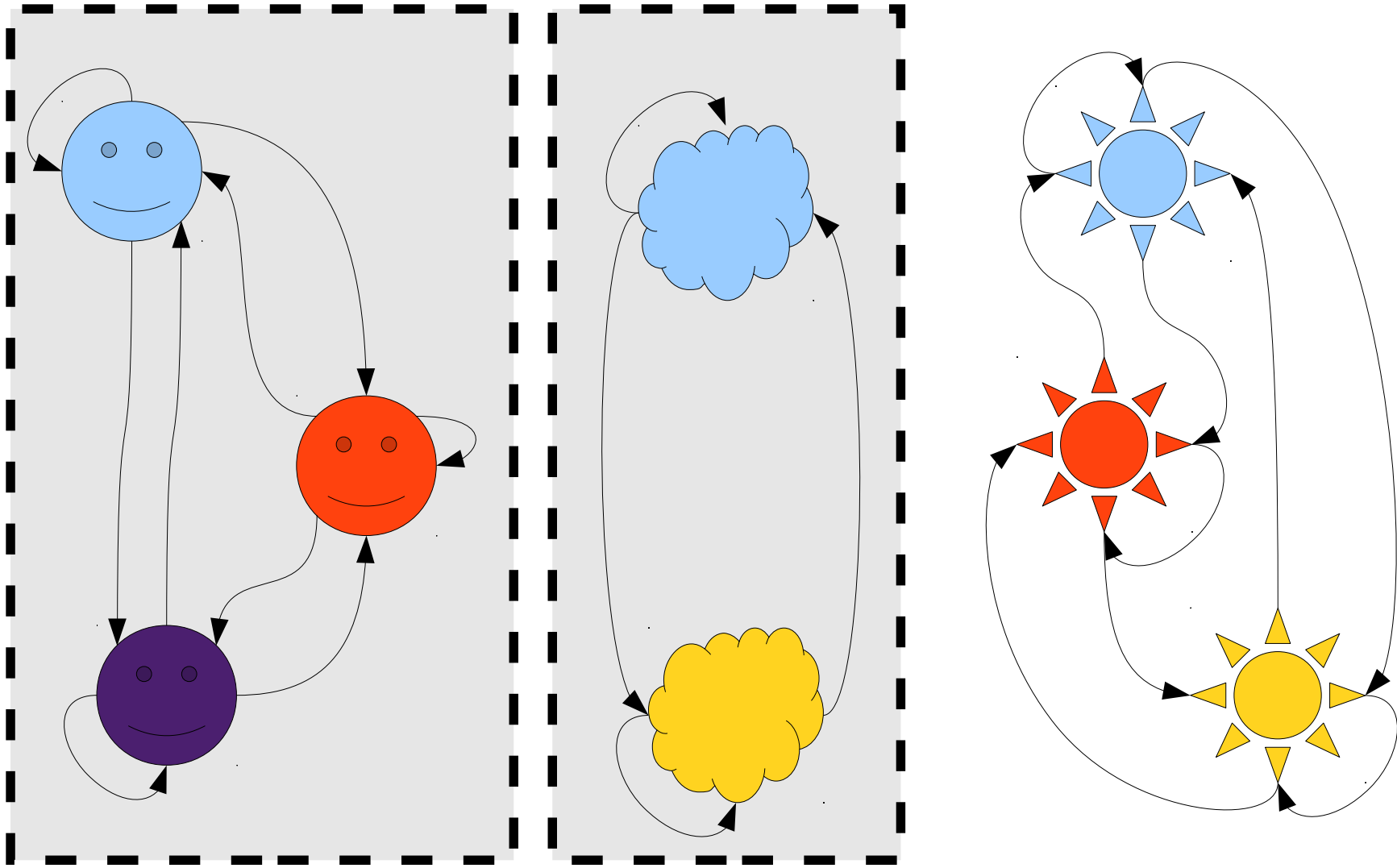


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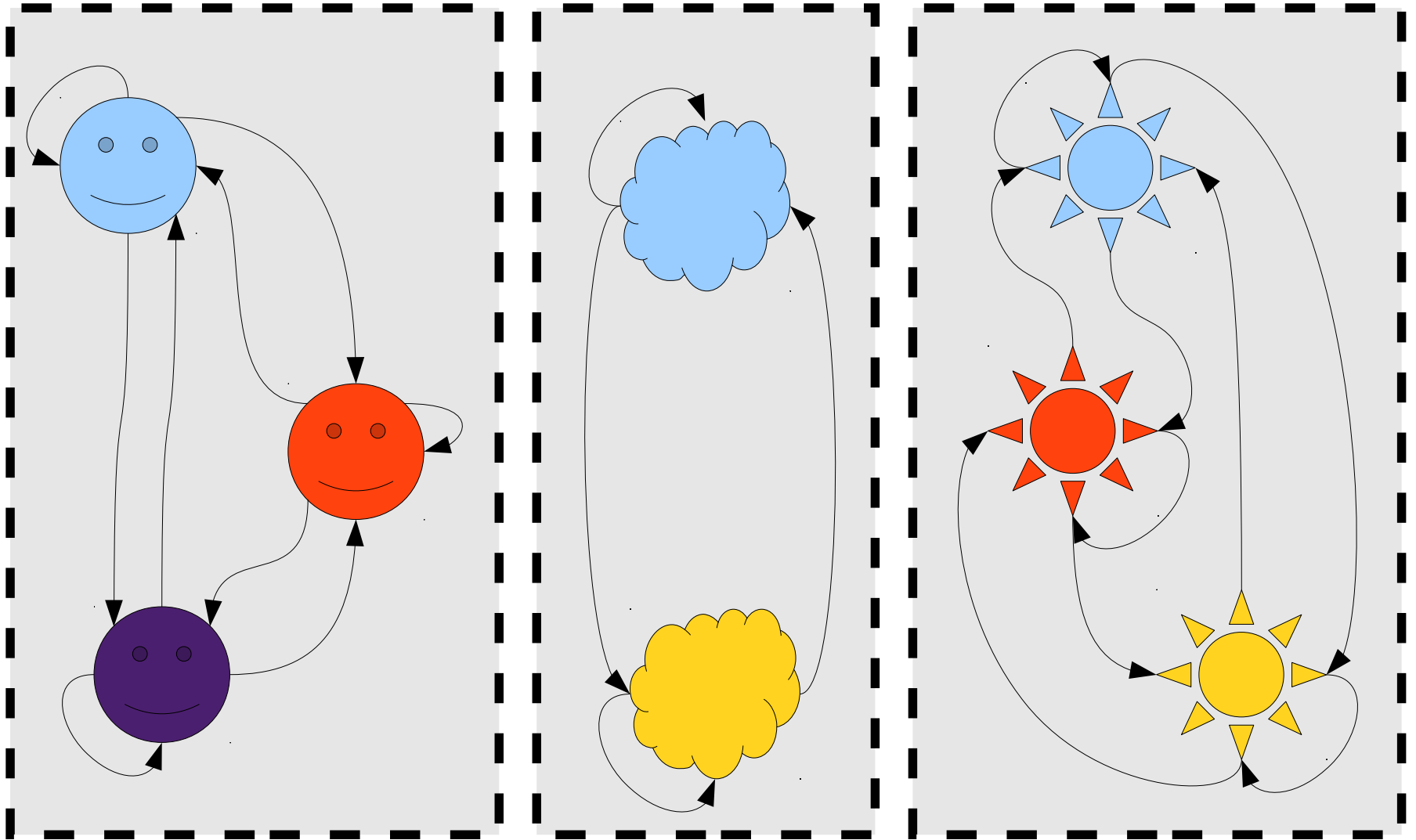
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# Proofs With Lemmas

*Theorem:* Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation over  $A$ . Then if  $x \in [a]_R$  and  $x \in [b]_R$ , then  $[a]_R = [b]_R$ .

(Recall:

$$[a]_R = \{ x \mid aRx \}$$

that is, the set of elements equal to  $a$ )

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Pro tip: This is a standard technique for proving two sets are equal. You can use this result without having to prove it yourself.

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# Proof by Contradiction



“When you have eliminated all which is impossible, then whatever remains, however improbable, must be the truth.”

- Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, *The Adventure of the Blanched Soldier*

# Proof by Contradiction

- A **proof by contradiction** is a proof that works as follows:
  - To prove that  $P$  is true, assume that  $P$  is not true.
  - Based on the assumption that  $P$  is not true, conclude something impossible.
  - Assuming the logic is sound, the only option is that the assumption that  $P$  is not true is incorrect.
  - Conclude, therefore, that  $P$  is true.

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