

# EECS 2001A : Introduction to the Theory of Computation

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Course page: <http://www.eecs.yorku.ca/course/2001>  
Also on Moodle

# Proofs

- What is a proof?
- Does a proof need mathematical symbols?
- What makes a proof incorrect?
- How does one come up with a proof?

# Proof techniques

- Direct Proofs
- Proof by cases
- Proof by contrapositive
- Proof by contradiction
- Proof by induction
- Others ...

# Direct Proofs: Example

**Proposition:** Every prime number greater than 2 can be written as the difference of two squares, i.e.  $a^2 - b^2$ .

- Question: where do we start?
- We know how  $a^2 - b^2$  factors. Let us start there.
- $a^2 - b^2 = (a + b)(a - b)$ . We have to assume  $a > b$  because  $a^2 - b^2$  must be positive. A prime  $p > 2$  only factors as  $p * 1$ .
- Equating factors,  $a - b = 1$ ,  $a + b = p$ . Solving,  $a = \frac{p+1}{2}$ ,  $b = \frac{p-1}{2}$ . Since all primes  $p > 2$  are odd,  $a, b$  are integers.

# Proof by Cases

Prove: If  $n$  is an integer, then  $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  is an integer

**Case 1:**  $n$  is even. or  $n = 2a$ , for some integer  $a$

So  $n(n+1)/2 = 2a * (n+1)/2 = a * (n+1)$ , which is an integer.

**Case 2:**  $n$  is odd. So  $n+1$  is even, or  $n+1 = 2a$ , for an integer  $a$   
So  $n(n+1)/2 = n * 2a/2 = n * a$ , which is an integer.

Alternative argument:  $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ . The sum of the first  $n$  integers must be an integer itself.

# Proof by Cases: Caution

What is being proved must be true in ALL cases, not some!

# Proof by contrapositive

Logical Basis: Any implication  $p \rightarrow q$  is logically equivalent to its contrapositive  $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

Claim: If  $\sqrt{pq} \neq (p + q)/2$ , then  $p \neq q$

- Direct proof involves some algebraic manipulation

- Contrapositive: If  $p = q$ , then  $\sqrt{pq} = (p + q)/2$ .

Easy: Assuming  $p = q$ , we see that

$$\sqrt{pq} = \sqrt{pp} = \sqrt{p^2} = p = (p + p)/2 = (p + q)/2.$$

**Exercise:** prove that for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $a^2$  is even, then  $a$  is even

# Proof by contradiction

Claim:  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational

Proof: Suppose  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational. Then  $\sqrt{2} = p/q$ ,  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $q \neq 0$ , such that  $p, q$  have no common factors.

Squaring and transposing,

$$p^2 = 2q^2 \text{ (so } p^2 \text{ is an even number)}$$

So,  $p$  is even (previous slide)

Or  $p = 2x$  for some integer  $x$

$$\text{So } 4x^2 = 2q^2 \text{ or } q^2 = 2x^2$$

So,  $q$  is even (a previous slide)

So,  $p, q$  are both even i.e., they have a common factor of 2.

CONTRADICTION.

So  $\sqrt{2}$  is NOT rational.

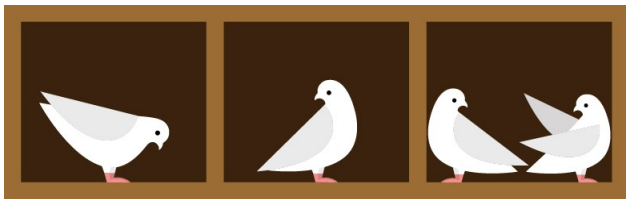


# Proofs by Contradiction: Rationale

- In general, start with an assumption that statement  $A$  is true. Then, using standard inference procedures infer that  $A$  is false. This is the contradiction.
- This  $A$  may or not be what you are trying to prove (e.g. in the example, the contradiction was on the fact that the numerator and denominator had no common factors)
- Recall: for any proposition  $p$ ,  $p \wedge \neg p$  must be false.



# Pigeonhole Principle



<https://www.ethz.ch/en/news-and-events/eth-news/news/2016/05/creative-proofs-with-pigeons-and-boxes.html>

Two statements:

- Pigeonhole Principle: If  $n + 1$  balls are distributed among  $n$  bins then at least one bin has more than 1 ball
- Generalized Pigeonhole Principle: If  $n$  balls are distributed among  $k$  bins then at least one bin has at least  $\lceil n/k \rceil$  balls

Lots of interesting (and difficult) problems!

# Examples

## Pigeonhole Principle

- In any group of 367 people, at least 2 people must share a birthday
- In any group of 27 English words, at least 2 must start with the same letter
- In a class of 22 people, at least 2 must get the same score on a test out of 20, assuming all scores are integers

## Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

- If there are 16 people and 5 possible grades, 4 people must have the same grade.
- There are 50 baskets of apples. Each basket contains no more than 24 apples. So there are at least 3 baskets containing the same number of apples.

# Proofs by Induction

Mathematical Induction:

- Very simple
- Very powerful proof technique
- “Guess and verify” strategy

# Induction: Steps

Hypothesis:  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

- Base case/basis step (starting value):  
Show  $P(1)$  is true.
  
- Inductive step:  
Show that  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}(P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1))$  is true.

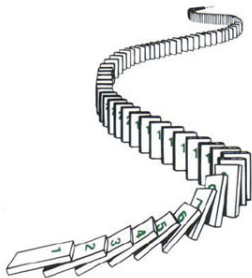
# Induction: Rationale

Formally:  $(P(1) \wedge \forall k \in \mathbb{N} P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n)$

- Intuition: Iterative modus ponens:

$$P(k) \wedge (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \rightarrow P(k+1)$$

Need a starting point (Base case)



# Induction: Example 1

$$P(n) : 1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n + 1)/2$$

- Base case:  $P(1)$ .

$$\text{LHS} = 1. \text{ RHS} = 1(1 + 1)/2 = \text{LHS}$$

- Inductive step:

Assume  $P(n)$  is true. Show  $P(n + 1)$  is true.

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + 2 + \dots + n + (n + 1) &= n(n + 1)/2 + (n + 1) \\ &= (n + 1)(n + 2)/2 \end{aligned}$$

So, by the principle of mathematical induction,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ .



## Induction: Example 2

$$P(n) : 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$$

- Base case:  $P(1)$ .

$$\text{LHS} = 1. \text{ RHS} = 1(1+1)(2+1)/6 = 1 = \text{LHS}$$

- Inductive step:

Assume  $P(n)$  is true. Show  $P(n+1)$  is true.

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 + (n+1)^2 &= n(n+1)(2n+1)/6 + (n+1)^2 \\ &= (n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)/6 \end{aligned}$$

So, by the principle of mathematical induction,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ .

# Induction: Proving Inequalities

$$P(n) : n < 4^n$$

- Base case:  $P(1)$ .

$P(1)$  holds since  $1 < 4$ .

- Inductive step:

Assume  $P(n)$  is true, show  $P(n+1)$  is true, i.e.,  
show that  $n+1 < 4^{n+1}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}n+1 &< 4^n + 1 \\ &< 4^n + 4^n \\ &< 4 \cdot 4^n \\ &= 4^{n+1}\end{aligned}$$

So, by the principle of mathematical induction,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ .

# Induction: More Examples

- Sum of odd integers
- $n^3 - n$  is divisible by 3
- Number of subsets of a finite set

# Induction: Facts to Remember

- Base case does not have to be  $n = 1$
- Most common mistakes are in not verifying that the base case holds
- Usually guessing the solution is done first

# How can you guess a solution?

Depends on the problem.

- Try simple tricks: e.g. for sums with similar terms:  $n$  times the average or  $n$  times the maximum; for sums with fast increasing/decreasing terms, some multiple of the maximum term
- Often proving upper and lower bounds separately helps
- If nothing else works, make educated guesses

# Strong Induction

Sometimes we need more than  $P(n)$  to prove  $P(n + 1)$ ; in these cases STRONG induction is used.

Formally:

$$[P(1) \wedge \forall k(P(1) \wedge \dots \wedge P(k-1) \wedge P(k)) \rightarrow P(k+1)] \rightarrow \forall nP(n)$$

Note: Strong Induction is:

- Equivalent to induction – use whichever is convenient
- Often useful for proving facts about algorithms

## Strong Induction: Examples

- Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: every positive integer  $n$ ,  $n > 1$ , can be expressed as the product of one or more prime numbers.
- every amount of postage of 12 cents or more can be formed using just 4-cent and 5-cent stamps.

Fallacies/caveats: “Proof” that all Canadians are of the same age!

http:

[//www.math.toronto.edu/mathnet/falseProofs/sameAge.html](http://www.math.toronto.edu/mathnet/falseProofs/sameAge.html)

# A Graph Example

Claim: A tree with  $n$  nodes has exactly  $n - 1$  edges

- Consider any node  $a$  in the tree, connected by edges to  $k \geq 1$  nodes, each of which is part of a tree. Remove the node and these  $k$  edges
- Let the size of the  $k$  trees be  $n_1, \dots, n_k$
- By the inductive hypothesis the total number of edges in these trees are  $n_1 - 1 + \dots + n_k - 1 = n_1 + \dots + n_k - k$
- Now add the removed node and the  $k$  edges. So the number of nodes  $n = n_1 + \dots + n_k + 1$  and the number of edges is  $n_1 + \dots + n_k - k + k = n - 1$



# Proofs vs Counterexamples

To prove quantified statements of the form

- $\forall xP(x)$ : an example (or 10)  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is true is/are NOT enough; a proof is needed
- $\exists xP(x)$ : an example  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is true is enough.

To DISPROVE quantified statements of the form

- $\forall xP(x)$ : a COUNTERexample  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is false is enough
- $\exists xP(x)$ : an example  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is false is NOT enough; a proof is needed

Intuition:

Disproving  $(\forall x)P(x)$  means proving  $\neg(\forall x)P(x) \equiv (\exists x)\neg P(x)$

## Proofs vs Counterexamples - 2

If you try to prove universally quantified statements of the form  $\forall xP(x)$  with an example

- You will likely see a comment “proof by example!” on your answer, and
  
- get little or no credit