

Theory of Computer Science

A3. Proof Techniques

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Proofs & Proof Strategies

What is a Proof?

A **mathematical proof** is

- a sequence of logical steps
- starting with one set of statements
- that comes to the conclusion
that some statement must be true.

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What is a **statement**?

Mathematical Statements

Mathematical Statement

A **mathematical statement** consists of a set of **preconditions** and a set of **conclusions**.

The statement is **true** if the conclusions are true whenever the preconditions are true.

The set of preconditions is sometimes empty.

German: Mathematische Aussage

Examples of Mathematical Statements

Examples (some true, some false):

- “Let $p \in \mathbb{N}_0$ be a prime number. Then p is odd.”
- “There exists an even prime number.”
- “Let $p \in \mathbb{N}_0$ be a prime number with $p \geq 3$. Then p is odd.”
- “All prime numbers $p \geq 3$ are odd.”
- “If 4 is a prime number then $2 \cdot 3 = 4$.”

What are the preconditions, what are the conclusions?

On what Statements can we Build the Proof?

A mathematical proof is

- a sequence of logical steps
- **starting with one set of statements**
- that comes to the conclusion
that some statement must be true.

We can use:

- **axioms**: statements that are assumed to always be true in the current context
- **theorems** and **lemmas**: statements that were already proven
 - lemma: an intermediate tool
 - theorem: itself a relevant result
- **premises**: assumptions we make to see what consequences they have

German: Axiom, Theorem/Satz, Lemma, Prämisse/Annahme

What is a Logical Step?

A mathematical proof is

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 that some statement must be true.

Each step **directly follows**

- from the axioms,
- premises,
- previously proven statements and
- the preconditions of the statement we want to prove.

What is a Logical Step?

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For a formal definition, we would need formal logics.

The Role of Definitions

Definition

A **set** is an unordered collection of distinct objects.

The objects in a set are called the **elements** of the set. A set is said to **contain** its elements.

We write $x \in S$ to indicate that x is an element of set S , and $x \notin S$ to indicate that S does not contain x .

The set that does not contain any objects is the **empty set** \emptyset .

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- A definition introduces an abbreviation.
- Whenever we say “set”, we could instead say “an unordered collection of distinct objects” and vice versa.
- Definitions can also introduce notation.

German: Definition

Disproofs

- A **disproof** (**refutation**) shows that a given mathematical statement is **false** by giving an example where the preconditions are true, but the conclusion is false.
- This requires deriving, in a sequence of proof steps, the opposite (negation) of the conclusion.

German: Widerlegung

Disproofs

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Example (False statement)

“If $p \in \mathbb{N}_0$ is a prime number then p is odd.”

Refutation.

Consider natural number 2 as a counter example. It is prime because it has exactly 2 divisors, 1 and itself. It is not odd, because it is divisible by 2. □

German: Widerlegung

Exercise

You want to disprove the following statement with a counterexample:

If the sun is shining then all kids eat ice cream.

What properties must your counterexample have?

[Discuss with your neighbour; 2 minutes]



A Word on Style

A proof should help the reader to see why the result must be true.

- A proof should be easy to follow.
- Omit unnecessary information.
- Move self-contained parts into separate lemmas.
- In complicated proofs, reveal the overall structure in advance.
- Have a clear line of argument.

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- Omit unnecessary information.
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- In complicated proofs, reveal the overall structure in advance.
- Have a clear line of argument.

→ Writing a proof is like writing an essay.

Proof Strategies

typical proof/disproof strategies:

- ① “All $x \in S$ with the property P also have the property Q .”
 “For all $x \in S$: if x has property P , then x has property Q .”
 - To prove, assume you are given an arbitrary $x \in S$ that has the property P .
 Give a sequence of proof steps showing that x must have the property Q .
 - To disprove, find a **counterexample**, i. e., find an $x \in S$ that has property P but not Q and prove this.

Proof Strategies

typical proof/disproof strategies:

- ② “ A is a subset of B .”
 - To prove, assume you have an arbitrary element $x \in A$ and prove that $x \in B$.
 - To disprove, find an element in $x \in A \setminus B$ and prove that $x \in A \setminus B$.

Proof Strategies

typical proof/disproof strategies:

- ③ “For all $x \in S$: x has property P iff x has property Q .”
(“iff”: “if and only if”)
 - To prove, separately prove “if P then Q ” and “if Q then P ”.
 - To disprove, disprove “if P then Q ” or disprove “if Q then P ”.

Proof Strategies

typical proof/disproof strategies:

- ④ “ $A = B$ ”, where A and B are sets.
 - To prove, separately prove “ $A \subseteq B$ ” and “ $B \subseteq A$ ”.
 - To disprove, disprove “ $A \subseteq B$ ” or disprove “ $B \subseteq A$ ”.

Proof Techniques

proof techniques we use in this course:

- direct proof
- indirect proof (proof by contradiction)
- structural induction

Direct Proof

Direct Proof

Direct Proof

Direct derivation of the statement by deducing or rewriting.

German: Direkter Beweis

Direct Proof: Example

Theorem (distributivity)

For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Direct Proof: Example

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For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Proof.

We first show that $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$ implies
 $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ (\subseteq part):

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Let $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Then by the definition of \cap it holds that
 $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$.

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Let $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Then by the definition of \cap it holds that
 $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$.

We make a case distinction between $x \in B$ and $x \notin B$:

If $x \in B$ then, because $x \in A$ is true, $x \in A \cap B$ must be true.

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We make a case distinction between $x \in B$ and $x \notin B$:

If $x \in B$ then, because $x \in A$ is true, $x \in A \cap B$ must be true.

Otherwise, because $x \in B \cup C$ we know that $x \in C$ and thus with
 $x \in A$, that $x \in A \cap C$.

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Theorem (distributivity)

For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

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We first show that $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$ implies
 $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ (\subseteq part):

Let $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Then by the definition of \cap it holds that
 $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$.

We make a case distinction between $x \in B$ and $x \notin B$:

If $x \in B$ then, because $x \in A$ is true, $x \in A \cap B$ must be true.

Otherwise, because $x \in B \cup C$ we know that $x \in C$ and thus with
 $x \in A$, that $x \in A \cap C$.

In both cases $x \in A \cap B$ or $x \in A \cap C$,
and we conclude $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$

Direct Proof: Example

Theorem (distributivity)

For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Proof (continued).

\supseteq part: we must show that $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ implies $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

Let $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Direct Proof: Example

Theorem (distributivity)

For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Proof (continued).

\supseteq part: we must show that $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ implies $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

Let $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

We make a case distinction between $x \in A \cap B$ and $x \notin A \cap B$:

If $x \in A \cap B$ then $x \in A$ and $x \in B$.

The latter implies $x \in B \cup C$ and hence $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

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For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

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Let $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

We make a case distinction between $x \in A \cap B$ and $x \notin A \cap B$:

If $x \in A \cap B$ then $x \in A$ and $x \in B$.

The latter implies $x \in B \cup C$ and hence $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

If $x \notin A \cap B$ we know $x \in A \cap C$ due to $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

This (analogously) implies $x \in A$ and $x \in C$, and hence $x \in B \cup C$ and thus $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

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Let $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

We make a case distinction between $x \in A \cap B$ and $x \notin A \cap B$:

If $x \in A \cap B$ then $x \in A$ and $x \in B$.

The latter implies $x \in B \cup C$ and hence $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

If $x \notin A \cap B$ we know $x \in A \cap C$ due to $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

This (analogously) implies $x \in A$ and $x \in C$, and hence $x \in B \cup C$ and thus $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

In both cases we conclude $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$.

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Direct Proof: Example

Theorem (distributivity)

For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

Proof (continued).

We have shown that every element of $A \cap (B \cup C)$ is an element of $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ and vice versa.

Thus, both sets are equal. □

Direct Proof: Example

Theorem (distributivity)

For all sets A, B, C : $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$.

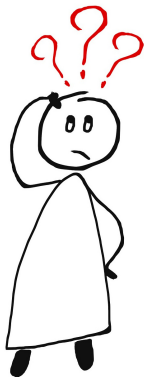
Proof.

Alternative:

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap (B \cup C) &= \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \cup C\} \\ &= \{x \mid x \in A \text{ and } (x \in B \text{ or } x \in C)\} \\ &= \{x \mid (x \in A \text{ and } x \in B) \text{ or } (x \in A \text{ and } x \in C)\} \\ &= \{x \mid x \in A \cap B \text{ or } x \in A \cap C\} \\ &= (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \end{aligned}$$



Questions



Questions?

Indirect Proof

Indirect Proof

Indirect Proof (Proof by Contradiction)

- Make an **assumption** that the statement is false.
- Use the assumption to derive a **contradiction**.
- This shows that the assumption must be false and hence the original statement must be true.

German: Indirekter Beweis, Beweis durch Widerspruch

Indirect Proof: Example

Theorem

Let A and B be sets. If $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ then $A \subseteq B$.

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Proof.

We prove the theorem by contradiction.

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Let A and B be sets. If $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ then $A \subseteq B$.

Proof.

We prove the theorem by contradiction.

Assume that there are sets A and B with $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ and $A \not\subseteq B$.

Indirect Proof: Example

Theorem

Let A and B be sets. If $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ then $A \subseteq B$.

Proof.

We prove the theorem by contradiction.

Assume that there are sets A and B with $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ and $A \not\subseteq B$.

Let A and B be such sets.

Indirect Proof: Example

Theorem

Let A and B be sets. If $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ then $A \subseteq B$.

Proof.

We prove the theorem by contradiction.

Assume that there are sets A and B with $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ and $A \not\subseteq B$.

Let A and B be such sets.

Since $A \not\subseteq B$ there is some $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.

Indirect Proof: Example

Theorem

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Proof.

We prove the theorem by contradiction.

Assume that there are sets A and B with $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ and $A \not\subseteq B$.

Let A and B be such sets.

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For this x it holds that $x \in A \setminus B$.

Indirect Proof: Example

Theorem

Let A and B be sets. If $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ then $A \subseteq B$.

Proof.

We prove the theorem by contradiction.

Assume that there are sets A and B with $A \setminus B = \emptyset$ and $A \not\subseteq B$.

Let A and B be such sets.

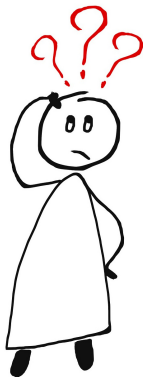
Since $A \not\subseteq B$ there is some $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.

For this x it holds that $x \in A \setminus B$.

This is a contradiction to $A \setminus B = \emptyset$.

We conclude that the assumption was false and thus the theorem is true. □

Questions



Questions?

Structural Induction

Inductively Defined Sets: Examples

Example (Natural Numbers)

The set \mathbb{N}_0 of natural numbers is inductively defined as follows:

- 0 is a natural number.
- If n is a natural number, then $n + 1$ is a natural number.

Inductively Defined Sets: Examples

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Example (Binary Tree)

The set \mathcal{B} of binary trees is inductively defined as follows:

- \square is a binary tree (a **leaf**)
- If L and R are binary trees, then $\langle L, \bigcirc, R \rangle$ is a binary tree (with **inner node** \bigcirc).

Inductively Defined Sets: Examples

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Example (Binary Tree)

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- \square is a binary tree (a **leaf**)
- If L and R are binary trees, then $\langle L, \bigcirc, R \rangle$ is a binary tree (with **inner node** \bigcirc).

Implicit statement: all elements of the set can be constructed by finite application of these rules

Inductive Definition of a Set

Inductive Definition

A set M can be defined **inductively** by specifying

- **basic elements** that are contained in M
- **construction rules** of the form
“Given some elements of M , another element of M can be constructed like this.”

German: Induktive Definition, Basiselemente, Konstruktionsregeln

Structural Induction

Structural Induction

Proof of statement for all elements of an inductively defined set

- **basis**: proof of the statement for the basic elements
- **induction hypothesis (IH)**:
 suppose that the statement is true for some elements M
- **inductive step**: proof of the statement for elements constructed by applying a construction rule to M
 (one inductive step for each construction rule)

German: Strukturelle Induktion, Induktionsanfang, Induktionsvoraussetzung, Induktionsschritt

Structural Induction: Example (1)

Definition (Leaves of a Binary Tree)

The number of **leaves** of a binary tree B , written $leaves(B)$, is defined as follows:

$$leaves(\square) = 1$$

$$leaves(\langle L, \circ, R \rangle) = leaves(L) + leaves(R)$$

Definition (Inner Nodes of a Binary Tree)

The number of **inner nodes** of a binary tree B , written $inner(B)$, is defined as follows:

$$inner(\square) = 0$$

$$inner(\langle L, \circ, R \rangle) = inner(L) + inner(R) + 1$$

Structural Induction: Example (2)

Theorem

For all binary trees B : $inner(B) = leaves(B) - 1$.

Structural Induction: Example (2)

Theorem

For all binary trees B : $inner(B) = leaves(B) - 1$.

Proof.

induction basis:

$$inner(\square) = 0 = 1 - 1 = leaves(\square) - 1$$

\rightsquigarrow statement is true for base case

...

Structural Induction: Example (3)

Proof (continued).

induction hypothesis:

to prove that the statement is true for a composite tree $\langle L, \circ, R \rangle$, we may use that it is true for the subtrees L and R .



Structural Induction: Example (3)

Proof (continued).

induction hypothesis:

to prove that the statement is true for a composite tree $\langle L, \circlearrowleft, R \rangle$, we may use that it is true for the subtrees L and R .

inductive step for $B = \langle L, \circlearrowleft, R \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathit{inner}(B) &= \mathit{inner}(L) + \mathit{inner}(R) + 1 \\ &\stackrel{\text{IH}}{=} (\mathit{leaves}(L) - 1) + (\mathit{leaves}(R) - 1) + 1 \\ &= \mathit{leaves}(L) + \mathit{leaves}(R) - 1 = \mathit{leaves}(B) - 1 \end{aligned}$$



Structural Induction: Exercise (if time)

Definition (Height of a Binary Tree)

The **height** of a binary tree B , written $height(B)$, is defined as follows:

$$height(\square) = 0$$

$$height(\langle L, \circlearrowleft, R \rangle) = \max\{height(L), height(R)\} + 1$$

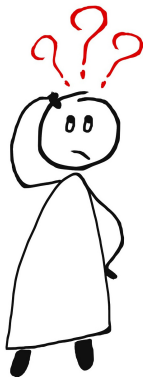
Prove by structural induction:

Theorem

For all binary trees B : $leaves(B) \leq 2^{height(B)}$.



Questions



Questions?

Summary

Summary

- A **proof** is based on axioms and previously proven statements.
- Individual **proof steps** must be obvious derivations.
- **direct proof**: sequence of derivations or rewriting
- **indirect proof**: refute the negated statement
- **structural induction**: generalization of mathematical induction to arbitrary recursive structures