

03b—Inductive Definitions

CS 5209: Foundation in Logic and AI

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Inductive definitions

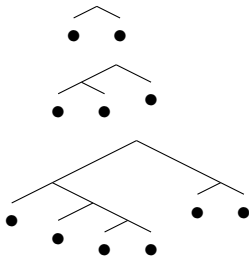
- Often one wishes to define a set with a collection of rules that determine the elements of that set. Simple examples:
 - Binary trees
 - Natural numbers
- What does it mean to define a set by a collection of rules?

Example 1: Binary trees (w/o data at nodes)

- is a binary tree;
- if l and r are binary trees, then so is



Examples of binary trees:



Example 2: Natural numbers in unary (base-1) notation

- Z is a natural;
- if n is a natural, then so is $S(n)$.

We pronounce Z as “zed” and “S” as successor. We can now define the natural numbers as follows:

zero	\equiv	Z
one	\equiv	$S(Z)$
two	\equiv	$S(S(Z))$
...		

It's possible to view naturals as trees, too:

zero	\equiv	Z	Z
<hr/>			
one	\equiv	$S(Z)$	S Z
<hr/>			
two	\equiv	$S(S(Z))$	S S Z
<hr/>			

...

Examples (more formally)

- Binary trees: The set $Tree$ is defined by the rules

$$\frac{}{\bullet} \qquad \frac{t_l \quad t_r}{\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ t_l \quad t_r \end{array}}$$

- Naturals: The set Nat is defined by the rules

$$\frac{}{Z} \qquad \frac{n}{S(n)}$$

Given a collection of rules, what set does it define?

- What is the set of trees?
- What is the set of naturals?

Do the rules pick out a unique set?

There can be many sets that satisfy a given collection of rules

- $MyNum = \{Z, S(Z), \dots\}$
- $YourNum = MyNum \cup \{\infty, S(\infty), \dots\}$, where ∞ is an arbitrary symbol.

Both $MyNum$ and $YourNum$ satisfy the rules defining numerals (i.e., the rules are true for these sets).

Really?

MyNum Satisfies the Rules

$$\frac{}{Z} \qquad \frac{n}{S(n)}$$

$$\text{MyNum} = \{Z, \text{Succ}(Z), S(S(Z)), \dots\}$$

Does *MyNum* satisfy the rules?

- $Z \in \text{MyNum}$. ✓
- If $n \in \text{MyNum}$, then $S(n) \in \text{MyNum}$. ✓

YourNum Satisfies the Rules

$$\frac{}{Z} \qquad \frac{n}{S(n)}$$

$$YourNum = \{Z, S(Z), S(S(Z)), \dots\} \cup \{\infty, S(\infty), \dots\}$$

Does *YourNum* satisfy the rules?

- $Z \in YourNum$. ✓
- If $n \in YourNum$, then $S(n) \in YourNum$. ✓

... “And That’s All!”

- Both *MyNum* and *YourNum* satisfy all rules.
- It is not enough that a set satisfies all rules.
- Something more is needed: an *extremal* clause.
 - “and nothing else”
 - “the least set that satisfies these rules”

An inductively defined set is the **least set** for the given rules.

Example: $MyNum = \{Z, S(Z), S(S(Z)), \dots\}$ is the least set that satisfies these rules:

- $Z \in Num$
- if $n \in Num$, then $S(n) \in Num$.

What do we mean by “least”?

Answer: The smallest with respect to the subset ordering on sets.

- Contains no “junk”, only what is required by the rules.
- Since $YourNum \not\supseteq MyNum$, $YourNum$ is ruled out by the extremal clause.
- $MyNum$ is “ruled in” because it has no “junk”. That is, for any set S satisfying the rules, $S \supseteq MyNum$

We almost always want to define sets with inductive definitions, and so have some simple notation to do so quickly:

$$S = \text{Constructor}_1(\dots) \mid \text{Constructor}_2(\dots) \mid \dots$$

where S can appear in the \dots on the right hand side (along with other things). The Constructor_i are the names of the different rules (sometimes text, sometimes symbols). This is called a *recursive definition*.

Examples:

- Binary trees: $\tau = \bullet \mid \begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \tau \quad \tau \end{array}$
- Naturals: $\mathbb{N} = Z \mid S(\mathbb{N})$

There is a close connection between a recursive definition and a definition by rules:

- Binary trees: $\tau = \bullet \mid \begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \tau \quad \tau \end{array}$

$$\frac{}{\bullet} \qquad \frac{t_l \quad t_r}{\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ t_l \quad t_r \end{array}}$$

- Naturals: $\mathbb{N} = Z \mid S(\mathbb{N})$

$$\frac{}{Z} \qquad \frac{n}{S(n)}$$

“recursive definition style” means that the extremal clause holds.

What's the Big Deal?

Inductively defined sets “come with” an *induction principle*.
Suppose I is inductively defined by rules R .

- To show that every $x \in I$ has property P , it is enough to show that regardless of which rule is used to “build” x , P holds; this is called *taking cases* or *inversion*.
- Sometimes, taking cases is not enough; in that case we can attempt a more complicated proof where we show that P is preserved by each of the rules of R ; this is called *structural induction* or *rule induction*.

Example: Sign of a Natural

Consider the following definition:

- The natural Z has sign **0**.
- For any natural n , the natural $S(n)$ has sign **1**.

Let P be the following property: Every natural has sign **0** or **1**.

Does P satisfy the rules $\frac{\quad}{Z}$ $\frac{n}{S(n)}$?

How to take cases

To show that every $n \in \text{Nat}$ has property P , it is enough to show:

- Z has property P .
- For any n , $S(n)$ has property P .

Recall:

- The natural Z has sign **0**.
- For any natural n , the natural $S(n)$ has sign **1**.

Let $P =$ “Every natural has sign **0** or **1**.”. Does P hold for all \mathbb{N} ?

Proof. We take cases **on the structure of n** as follows:

- Z has sign **0**, so P holds for Z . ✓
- For any n , $S(n)$ has sign **1**, so P holds for any $S(n)$. ✓

Thus, P holds for all naturals.

Example: Even and Odd Naturals

- The natural Z has parity **0**.
- If n is a natural with parity **0**, then $S(n)$ has parity **1**.
- If n is a natural with parity **1**, then $S(n)$ has parity **0**.

Let P be: Every natural has parity **0** or parity **1**.

Can we prove this by taking cases?

Taking cases

We need to show $P =$ “Every natural has parity **0** or parity **1**.”,

- Z has property P .
- For any n , $S(n)$ has property P .

Where parity is defined by

- The natural Z has parity **0**.
- If n is a natural with parity **0**, then $S(n)$ has parity **1**.
- If n is a natural with parity **1**, then $S(n)$ has parity **0**.

Proof. We take cases **on the structure of n** as follows:

- Z has parity **0**, so P holds for Z . ✓
- For any n , $S(n)$ has parity well... hmmm... it is unclear; it depends on the parity of n . **X**

We are stuck! We need an extra fact about n 's parity...

Induction hypothesis

This fact is called an *induction hypothesis*. To get such an induction hypothesis we do *induction*, which is a more powerful way to take cases. To show that every $n \in \text{Num}$ has property P , we must show that every rule preserves P ; that is:

- Z has property P .
- if n has property P , then $S(n)$ has property P .

The new part is “if n has property P , then ...”; this is the induction hypothesis.

Note that for the naturals, structural induction is just ordinary mathematical induction!

Using induction to fix our proof

Every natural has parity **0** or parity **1**.

Proof. We take cases **on the structure of n** as follows:

- Z has parity **0**, so P holds for Z . ✓
- For any n , we can't determine the parity of $S(n)$ until we know something about the parity of n . ✗


Proof. We **do induction on the structure of n** as follows:

- Z has parity **0**, so P holds for Z . ✓
- Given an n such that P holds on n , show that P holds on $S(n)$. Since P holds on n , the parity of n is **0** or **1**. If the parity of n is **0**, then the parity of $S(n)$ is **1**. If the parity of n is **1**, then the parity of $S(n)$ is **0**. In either case, the parity of $S(n)$ is **0** or **1**, so if P holds on n then P holds on $S(n)$. ✓


Thus, P holds for an natural n .

Extending case analysis and structural induction to trees

Case analysis: to show that every tree has property P , prove that

- has property P .
- for all τ_1 and τ_2 ,  has property P .

Structural induction: to show that every tree has property P , prove

- has property P .
- if τ_1 and τ_2 have property P , then  has property P .

Note that we do not require that τ_1 and τ_2 be the same height!

How can we justify case analysis and induction?

Let I be a set inductively defined by rules R .

- Case analysis is really a lightweight “special case” of structural induction where we do not use the induction hypothesis. If structural induction is sound, then case analysis will be as well.
- One way to think of a property P is that it is exactly the set of items that have property P . We would like to show that if you are in the set I then you have property P , that is, $P \supseteq I$.
- Remember that I is (by definition) the smallest set satisfying the rules in R .
- Hence if P satisfies (is preserved by) the rules of R , then $P \supseteq I$.
- This is why the extremal clause matters so much!

Example: Height of a Tree

- To show: Every tree has a height, defined as follows:
 - The height of \bullet is 0.
 - If the tree l has height h_l and the tree r has height h_r , then the tree $\widehat{l \ r}$ has height $1 + \max(h_l, h_r)$.
- Clearly, every tree has at most one height, but does it have any height at all?
- It may seem obvious that every tree has a height, but notice that the justification relies on structural induction!
 - An “infinite tree” does not have a height!
 - But the extremal clause rules out the infinite tree!

Example: height

- Formally, we prove that for every tree t , there exists a number h satisfying the specification of height.
- Proceed by induction **on the structure of trees**, showing that the property “there exists a height h for t ” satisfies (is preserved by) these rules.

Example: height

- Rule 1: \bullet is a tree.

Does there exist h such that h is the height of *Empty*?

Yes! Take $h=0$.

- Rule 2: $\widehat{l \ r}$ is a tree if l and r are trees.

Suppose that there exists h_l and h_r , the heights of l and r , respectively (*the induction hypothesis*).

Does there exist h such that h is the height of *Node*(l, r)?

Yes! Take $h = 1 + \max(h_l, h_r)$.

Thus, we have proved that all trees have a height.