# COMPSCI/SFWRENG 2FA3 Discrete Mathematics with Applications II Winter 2018

#### 1 Recursion and Induction

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## Admin — January 8

- Tutorials and M&Ms start this week.
- Continuity with CS/SE 2DM3.
  - Same notation when possible.
  - ► Some exercises and assignments will use CalcCheck.
  - Some topics will be re-examined from a more abstract vantage point.
- We will start by re-examining recursion and induction.
- Office hours: To see me please send me a note with times.
- Are there any questions?

#### What is Recursion?

- Recursion is a method of defining a function or structure in terms of itself.
  - One of the most fundamental ideas of computing.
  - ► Can make specifications, descriptions, and programs easier to express, understand, and prove correct.
- A problem is solved by recursion as follows:
  - 1. The simplest instances of the problem are solved directly.
  - 2. Each other instance of the problem is solved by reducing the instance to simpler instances of the problem.
  - 3. As a result of 1 and 2, each instance can be solved by reducing the instance to simpler instances and then reducing these instances to simpler instances and continuing in this fashion until a simplest instance is reached, which has already been solved.
- Recursion employs a divide and conquer strategy.

#### How does Recursion Work with Functions?

- In the typical recursive definition of a function:
  - An instance of the function is a tuple of inputs for the function.
  - **Each** instance I is assigned a natural number n(I).
  - An instance I is a "simplest instance" if n(I) = 0.
  - An instance I' is "simpler than an instance I if n(I') < n(I).
- A recursive definition of a function is nonsensical if some instance I is reduced to an instance I' such that I' is not simpler than I, i.e.,  $n(I') \ge n(I)$ .

#### What is Induction?

- Induction is a method of proof based on a recursively defined structure or a well-founded relation.
  - Most important proof technique used in computing.
  - ▶ The proof method is specified by an induction principle.
  - Induction is especially useful for proving properties about recursively defined functions.
- Note: The terms "recursion" and "induction" are often used interchangeably.

## Two Styles of Recursion and Induction

- Structural recursion and induction
  - Based on an inductive type.
  - Statements are proved by a structural induction principle.
  - Functions can be defined by pattern matching.
- Well-founded recursion and induction
  - Based on a well-founded relation.
  - Statements are proved by a well-founded induction principle.
  - Functions can be defined by well-founded recursion.

# Structural Recursion and Induction [1/2]

• An inductive type is a type t defined by a finite set of constructors (where  $m_1, \ldots, m_n \ge 0$ )

$$C_1: t_1^1 \times \cdots \times t_{m_1}^1 \to t.$$
  
 $\vdots$   
 $C_n: t_1^n \times \cdots \times t_{m_n}^n \to t.$ 

such that each value of a of type t can be constructed from the constructors in exactly one way.

- ► That is, "no junk and no confusion".
- Some of the types  $t_1^1, \ldots, t_{m_n}^n$  may be t itself.
  - ▶ In this case, t is said to be recursive.
- The constructors  $C_1, \ldots, C_n$  define a language whose expressions serve as literals for the members of t.

# Structure Recursion and Induction [2/2]

 The definition of t induces a structural induction principle: A property P holds for all members of t provided for every constructor C<sub>i</sub>

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if P holds for every x_j of type t in C_i(x_1, \ldots, x_{m_i}), then P holds for C_i(x_1, \ldots, x_{m_i}).
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Less formally, a property P holds for all members of t provided:

- 1. P holds for all members of S having minimal structure.
- 2. P holds for a structural combination of members of t whenever it holds for the members themselves.
- A function f on t can be defined by pattern matching.
  - ► Each recursive application of *f* must be applied to at least one argument with reduced structure.

## Natural Numbers (iClicker)

How many constructors are needed to define the natural numbers as an inductive type?

- A. 1.
- B. 2.
- C. 3.
- D. 4.

# Example 1: Natural Numbers as an Inductive Type

- Nat is the inductive type representing the natural numbers defined by the following constructors:
  - 1.  $0 : Nat (i.e., 0 : \rightarrow Nat).$
  - 2.  $S: Nat \rightarrow Nat$ .
- Nat is recursive.
- The members of Nat correspond to the expressions

$$0, S0, S(S0), \dots$$

which denote the natural numbers

• The structural induction principle for Nat is:

$$(P \cap (\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet P x) \Rightarrow P(S x))) \Rightarrow (\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet P x)$$

holds for every property *P* of Nat. This principle is called mathematical induction or weak induction.

# Example 1: Functions Defined by Pattern Matching

 Addition (+ : Nat × Nat → Nat) is defined by pattern matching as:

- 1. x + 0 = x.
- 2. x + 5y = 5(x + y).
- Multiplication (\* : Nat × Nat → Nat) is defined by pattern matching as:
  - 1. x \* 0 = 0.
  - 2. x \* 5 y = (x \* y) + x.
- The function fib : Nat → Nat that maps n to the nth Fibonacci number is defined by pattern matching as:
  - 1.  $fib_0 = 0$ .
  - 2. fib S 0 = S 0.
  - 3.  $\operatorname{fib} S(Sx) = \operatorname{fib}(Sx) + \operatorname{fib} x$ .

#### Example 1: Proof of $\forall x$ : Nat $\bullet$ 0 + x = x

- 1. Let  $P x \equiv 0 + x = x$ .
- 2. Base case: Show P 0.
  - 2.1 P = 0 = 0 + 0 = 0 by the definition of P.
  - 2.2 0 + 0 = 0 is an instance of x + 0 = x.
  - 2.3 Hence P0 holds.
- 3. Induction step: Assume Px holds. Show P(Sx).
  - 3.1  $P(Sx) \equiv 0 + Sx = Sx$  by the definition of P.
  - 3.2 0 + Sx = S(0 + x) is an instance of x + Sy = S(x + y).
  - 3.3 0 + x = x by the induction hypothesis Px.
  - 3.4 Hence P(Sx) holds.
- 4. Therefore,  $\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet Px$  holds by mathematical induction.

# Base Cases (iClicker)

A constructor  $C: t_1 \times \cdots \times t_m \to t$  in the definition of an inductive definition produces a base case if

- A. There are no  $t_i$  (i.e., C is 0-ary).
- B. None of the  $t_i$  are t.
- C. Some of the  $t_i$  are t.
- D. All of the  $t_i$  are t.

### Admin — January 10

- Discussion session on Friday.
- Assignment 1 will be posted at the end of the week.
  - You will submit two files: a LaTeX source file and a PDF output file.
  - How to write documents with LaTeX will be discussed in next week's tutorial. Bring your laptop!
- Office hours: To see me please send me a note with times.
- Are there any questions?

### Review — January 10

- Recursion and induction.
- Inductive types.
- Structural induction.
- Natural numbers example.

## **Example 2: Binary Trees of Natural Numbers**

- BinTree is the inductive type representing binary trees of natural numbers defined by the following constructors:
  - 1. Leaf : Nat  $\rightarrow$  BinTree.
  - 2. Branch : BinTree  $\times$  Nat  $\times$  BinTree  $\rightarrow$  BinTree.
- BinTree is recursive.
- The structural induction principle for BinTree is:

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(\forall n : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet P(\mathsf{Leaf}\,n) \land \\ (\forall n : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet \forall t_1 : \mathsf{BinTree} \bullet \forall t_2 : \mathsf{BinTree} \bullet \\ P t_1 \land P t_2 \Rightarrow P(\mathsf{Branch}\,t_1, n, t_2))) \\ \Rightarrow (\forall t : \mathsf{BinTree} \bullet P t)
```

holds for every property P of BinTree.

# Example 2: Functions Defined by Pattern Matching

- The function nodes: BinTree → Nat that maps a binary tree to the number of nodes in it is defined by pattern matching as:
  - 1. nodes (Leaf n) = 1.
  - 2.  $nodes(Branch t_1 n t_2) = (nodes t_1) + 1 + (nodes t_2).$
- The function sum: BinTree → Nat that maps a binary tree to the sum of the natural numbers attached to its nodes is defined by pattern matching as:
  - 1. sum(Leafn) = n.
  - 2.  $sum(Branch t_1 n t_2) = (sum t_1) + n + (sum t_2).$
- The function height: BinTree → Nat that maps a binary tree to its height is defined by pattern matching as:
  - 1. height (Leaf n) = 0.
  - 2. height (Branch  $t_1$  n  $t_2$ ) = 1 + max(height  $t_1$ , height  $t_2$ ).

# Binary Trees (iClicker)

Let t be a member of BinTree. Which of the following formulas is not true?

- A. nodes  $t = 2^{\text{height } t}$ .
- B.  $nodes t \leq 2^{height t}$ .
- C.  $| \text{nodes } t = 2^{(\text{height } t)+1} 1.$
- D. nodes  $t \leq 2^{(\text{height } t)+1} 1$ .

#### Well-Founded Relations

- Let R be a binary relation on U and  $S \subseteq U$ .
- y is an R-minimal element of S if  $y \in S$  and  $\forall x \bullet x \in S \Rightarrow \neg(x R y)$ .
- (*U*, *R*) is well founded if every nonempty subset of *U* has an *R*-minimal element.
  - **Examples**:  $(\mathbb{N}, <)$ ,  $(U \times U, <_{\text{lex}})$ .
- A sequence  $\langle x_0, x_1, x_2, ... \rangle$  of members of U is a descending R-sequence if

$$\cdots x_2 R x_1 R x_0$$
.

- (U, R) is noetherian if every descending R-sequence of members of U is finite.
- Theorem. (U, R) is well founded iff (U, R) is noetherian.

# Well-Founded Relations (iClicker)

Let H be the set of humans that have lived on earth during the last 100,000 years. Which of the following binary relations on H is well founded?

- A.  $h R_1 h'$  iff h is an ancestor of h'.
- B.  $h R_2 h'$  iff h is a parent of h'.
- C.  $h R_3 h'$  iff h is a child of h'.
- D.  $h R_4 h'$  iff h was born before h'.

#### Well-Founded Recursion and Induction

- Let U be a type and (U, R) be well founded.
- The well-founded induction principle for (U, R) is:

$$(\forall x : U \bullet (\forall y : U \bullet y R x) \Rightarrow P y) \Rightarrow P x)$$
$$\Rightarrow (\forall x : U \bullet P x)$$

holds for every property P of U.

- Two important special cases of well-founded induction:
  - Structural induction
  - Transfinite induction.
- A function f can be defined by well-founded recursion.
  - ► Each recursive application of *f* must be applied to at least one argument that is smaller with respect to *R*.

## Example 1: Nat as a Well-Founded Structure

• (Nat, <) is well-founded where m < n means

$$\exists k : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet k \neq 0 \land m + k = n.$$

• The well-founded induction principle for Nat is:

$$(\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet (\forall y : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet y < x \Rightarrow Py) \Rightarrow Px)$$
$$\Rightarrow (\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet Px)$$

holds for every property P of Nat. This principle is called strong induction, complete induction, or course-of-values induction.

- Theorem. The following are equivalent:
  - 1. Structural induction for Nat (weak induction).
  - 2. Well-founded induction for Nat (strong induction).

## Example 1: Functions Defined by WFR

 Addition (+ : Nat × Nat → Nat) is defined by well-founded recursion as:

- 1. x + 0 = x.
- 2. x + Sy = S(x + y).

Note that y < S y holds.

- Multiplication (\* : Nat × Nat → Nat) is defined by well-founded recursion as:
  - 1. x \* 0 = 0.
  - 2. x \* S y = (x \* y) + x.

Note that y < S y holds.

- The function fib : Nat → Nat that maps n to the nth Fibonacci number is defined by pattern matching as:
  - 1. fib 0 = 0.
  - 2. fib S 0 = S 0.
  - 3.  $\operatorname{fib} S(Sx) = \operatorname{fib}(Sx) + \operatorname{fib}x$ .

Note that x, Sx < S(Sx).

## Example 2: BinTree as a Well-Founded Structure

- (BinTree, <) is well-founded where  $t_1 < t_2$  means  $t_1$  is a proper subtree of  $t_2$ .
- The well-founded induction principle for BinTree is:

$$(\forall x : \mathsf{BinTree} \bullet (\forall y : \mathsf{BinTree} \bullet y < x \Rightarrow Py) \Rightarrow Px)$$
$$\Rightarrow (\forall x : \mathsf{BinTree} \bullet Px)$$

holds for every property P of BinTree.

- Theorem. The following are equivalent:
  - 1. Structural induction for BinTree.
  - 2. Well-founded induction for BinTree.

#### Weak Induction vs. Strong Induction

• Weak induction:

$$(P \ 0 \land (\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet Px \Rightarrow P(Sx))) \Rightarrow (\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet Px).$$

#### Form of Proof:

- 1. Base case: Show P 0.
- 2. Induction step: Assume Px. Show P(Sx).
- Strong induction:

$$(\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet (\forall y : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet y < x \Rightarrow Py) \Rightarrow Px)$$
$$\Rightarrow (\forall x : \mathsf{Nat} \bullet Px).$$

#### Form of Proof:



- 1. Base case: Let x = 0. (Assume nothing.) Show Px.
- 2. Induction step: Let x > 0. Assume P y for all y < x. Show P x.
- Strong induction provides a stronger induction hypothesis than weak induction.