

Abstract data type: Numbers

# Abstract data type

- Set of possible values of a variable of that type.
- Operations that can be performed on the values.
- Assumptions about the operations and values.
- Nothing to do with a computer or application.
- Essentially a mathematical object.

# Numbers

- The most basic type, values are  $0, 1, 2, \dots$
- How to define numbers formally?
- What operations to assume?
- Assume as little as possible, and derive as much as possible from the assumptions.

# Peano Axioms

- One possible way of defining numbers.
- There can be alternative definitions.
- These are one of the simplest.
- The whole subject of Number Theory can be built using just these.

# Peano Axioms

- 1) There exists a number called *zero* denoted  $0$ .
- 2) There is an operation called *next* such that for any number  $n$ ,  $next(n)$  is also a number.
- 3) If  $S$  is a set of values such that
  - a)  $0$  belongs to  $S$ .
  - b) If  $n$  belongs to  $S$  then so does  $next(n)$ , for all  $n$ .then  $S$  contains all natural numbers.

# Recursive definition

- Base case: assume an initial value ( $0$ ).
- An operation to generate new values ( $next$ )
  - For numbers, this is just adding one.
- There are no other possible values.
- Many data types follow the same pattern.
- Implicit assumption that the operation generates 'new' values and  $next(n) \neq 0$  for all  $n$ .
- $n = m$  if and only if  $next(n) = next(m)$ .

# Induction

- The third assumption is essentially induction.
- To prove a property  $P(n)$  holds for all numbers  $n$ .
  - Show that  $P(0)$  is true.
  - Assuming  $P(n)$  is true for some  $n$ , show that  $P(\text{next}(n))$  is true.
- Let  $S$  be the set of values of  $n$  for which  $P(n)$  is true.
  - $0$  belongs to  $S$  by the base case.
  - If  $n$  belongs to  $S$  then so does  $\text{next}(n)$ , by induction step.
- $S$  contains all numbers by the third axiom.

# Defining operations

- All other operations defined using induction.
- Addition:
  - $add(n,0) := n$  for all numbers  $n$ .
  - $add(n,next(m)) := next(add(n,m))$  for all  $n, m$ .
- Defines addition for all numbers  $n$  and  $m$ .
- Prove that  $add(n,m) = add(m,n)$  for all  $n, m$ .
  - Not obvious from the definition.



# More operations

- Use already defined operations to define others.
- Multiplication.
  - $mult(n, 0) := 0$  for all  $n$ .
  - $mult(n, next(m)) := add(mult(n, m), n)$  for all  $n, m$ .
- Again, not obvious that  $mult(n, m) = mult(m, n)$ .
- Prove:  $mult(x, add(y, z)) = add(mult(x, y), mult(x, z))$ .

# Ordering

- Define a relation  $\leq$  between numbers.
- $0 \leq m := \text{true}$  for all  $m$ .
- $\text{next}(n) \leq 0 := \text{false}$  for all  $n$ .
- $\text{next}(n) \leq \text{next}(m) := n \leq m$  for all  $n, m$ .
- Double induction.
  - First  $0 \leq m$  is defined for all  $m$ .
  - Then  $\text{next}(n) \leq m$  is defined, by induction on  $m$ .
  - By induction on  $n$ ,  $n \leq m$  is defined for all  $n, m$ .

# Ordering properties

- Prove these properties of the  $\leq$  relation.
- For all  $x$ ,  $x \leq x$ .
- If  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq z$  then  $x \leq z$ .
- If  $x \leq y$  and  $y \leq x$  then  $x = y$ .
- For all  $x, y$  either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ .
- If  $x \leq \text{next}(y)$  then either  $x \leq y$  or  $x = \text{next}(y)$  for all  $x, y$ .
- Such a relation is called a **total order**.

# Minimum Example

- Another way of stating the induction axiom.
- More convenient to use.
- If a set  $S$  contains at least one number  $n$ , then it contains a number  $m$  with the property that  $m \leq x$  for any number  $x$  in  $S$ .
- Every non-empty subset of numbers has a **smallest element**.
- This property is called **well-ordering**.

# Strong Induction

- define an operation for a number  $n$ , assuming it is defined for all numbers  $x < n$ .
  - $x < n$  means  $x \leq n$  and  $x \neq n$ .
- The set of numbers for which it is not defined must be empty.
- If it had a number  $n$ , it must have a smallest number  $m$ , but it is defined for  $m$ , since it is defined for all  $x < m$ , a contradiction.

# Examples

- $even(0) := true; even(next(n)) := !even(n).$
- $half(0) := 0,$
- $half(next(n)) := next(half(n))$  if  $even(next(n))$   
 $:= half(n)$  otherwise.
- $log(n) := \text{undefined}$  if  $n = 0,$   
 $:= 0,$  if  $n = next(0)$  (1),  
 $:= next(log(half(n)))$  otherwise.

# Examples

- $f(0) = f(1) = 1$ .
- $f(n) = f(999*n/2)$  if  $\text{even}(n)$  else  $n$ .
- When  $n$  is even,  $f(n)$  defined in terms of  $f$  value of a larger number.
- Function is still well-defined. Why?
- The largest power of 2 that divides  $999*n/2$  is smaller than the largest power that divides  $n$ .

# Examples

- $f(0) = f(1) = 1$
- $f(n) = f(n/2)$  if  $n$  is even else  $f((3n+1)/2)$ .
- Is this function well-defined?
- Don't know, conjectured that  $f(n) = 1$  for all  $n$  is the only function that satisfies this.
- Collatz problem, unsolved for nearly 300 years.



# Recursion

- Recursion is essentially the only way of defining operations on numbers, or in general, other recursively defined data types.
- Define the operation for the base case.
- Assuming the operation is defined for 'smaller' numbers, define for a number  $n$ .
- Guarantees operation is well-defined for all  $n$ .
- Same method used to prove properties.

# Summary

- Recursively defined abstract data types.
- Operations also defined recursively.
- Induction used to prove properties.
- A clear precise way of defining.
- May not be the best way of implementing the type.
- Mainly useful for understanding properties.