## Proofs by Induction

Proposition: If $f(0)=0$ and $f(n+1)=f(n)+n+1$ then, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $f(n)=n(n+1) / 2$

Let $S(n)$ be $f(n)=n(n+1) / 2$
We prove $S(0)$ holds
We prove that $S(n)$ implies $S(n+1)$
We deduce that $S(1), S(2), S(3), \ldots$ hold and more generally $S(n)$ holds for all $n$

## Proofs by Induction

Proposition: If $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and $A$ does not have a least element then $A=\emptyset$
Assume that $A$ has no least element
Let $S(n)$ be that, forall $a \in A$ we have $n<a$
We prove $S(0)$ holds: if $0 \in A$ then 0 is the least element of $A$
We prove that $S(n)$ implies $S(n+1)$. We assume $S(n)$. If $n+1 \in A$ then $n+1$ is the least element of $A$

We deduce that $S(1), S(2), S(3), \ldots$ hold and more generally $S(n)$ holds for all $n$. This implies $A=\emptyset$

Any nonempty subset of $\mathbb{N}$ has a least element

## Proofs by Induction

Proposition: If $n \geq 8$ then $n$ can be written as a sum of 3 's and 5 's
Let $S(n)$ be " $n$ can be written as a sum of 3's and 5's".
$S(7)$ does not hold. But $S(8), S(9), S(10)$ hold.
Let $T(n)$ be " $S(k)$ hold for $k=8,9, \ldots, n$ "
We prove $T(n) \Rightarrow T(n+1)$ for $n \geq 10$
If $T(n)$ holds then $S(n-2)$ holds and so does $S(n+1)$.

## Proofs by Induction

All horses have the same color
$P(n)$ : for any set of $n$ horses they are all of the same color
$P(1)$ is clearly true
We claim that $P(n)$ implies $P(n+1)$
Take $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}$ they are all of the same color
Also $h_{2}, \ldots, h_{n+1}$. Hence $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n+1}$ all have the same color!

## Proof by Mutual Induction

One can represent a circuit as a set of functions from natural numbers to $\{0,1\}$ defined recursively

For instance

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(0)=0, g(0)=1, h(0)=0 \\
& f(n+1)=g(n), g(n+1)=f(n), h(n+1)=1-h(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition: We have $h(n)=f(n)$ for all $n$
If $S(n)$ is $h(n)=f(n)$ it does not seem possible to prove $S(n) \Rightarrow S(n+1)$ directly

## Proof by Mutual Induction

We prove, by induction on $n$ the statement $T(n)$
$h(n)=f(n) \wedge h(n)=1-g(n)$
BASIS: $h(0)=f(0) \wedge h(0)=1-g(0)$
STEP: $T(n) \Rightarrow T(n+1)$
One needs to strengthen the statement $S(n)$ to the statement $T(n)$

## Proof by Mutual Induction

This can be represented as a state machine
The states are the possible values of $s(n)=(f(n), g(n), h(n))$
The transitions are from the states $s(n)$ to the state $s(n+1)$
One can check the invariant $f(n)=h(n)$ on all the states accessible from the initial state $(0,1,0)$.

## Proofs by Induction

In mathematics, this is almost the only form of induction that is used In computer science, proofs by induction play a more important rôle

Other data types than natural numbers: lists, trees, ...
Notion of inductively defined sets (that we shall see later in the course)

## Other data types

Finitely branching trees
Basis: the empty tree () is a tree
Inductive step: if we have a finite list of trees $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}$ we can form a new tree $\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right)$

We can then define functions on the set of trees by induction, and prove properties of these functions by induction

## Other data types

We can represent graphically the trees like in 1.4.3 and define the functions $n e(t)$ (number of edges) and $n n(t)$ (number of nodes)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n e()=0, \quad n e\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right)=k+n e\left(t_{1}\right)+\cdots+n e\left(t_{k}\right) \\
& n n()=1, \quad n n\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right)=1+n n\left(t_{1}\right)+\cdots+n n\left(t_{k}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition: for all tree $t$ we have $n n(t)=1+n e(t)$
Proof by induction with Basis case and Inductive step case

## Other example

We define the function
$\operatorname{rev}()=(), \operatorname{rev}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right)=\left(\operatorname{rev}\left(t_{k}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{rev}\left(t_{1}\right)\right)$
Proposition: for all tree $t$ we have $\operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{rev}(t))=t$
We prove
Basis: $P()$
Inductive step: $P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k}\right)$ follow from $P\left(t_{1}\right), \ldots, P\left(t_{k}\right)$

## Other data types

Abstract syntax of a language
Arithmetical expression $E$
Basis: if $n$ natural number then $n \in E$
Inductive step: if $e_{1}, e_{2} \in E$ then $\operatorname{minus}\left(e_{1}\right), \operatorname{plus}\left(e_{1}, e_{2}\right), \operatorname{times}\left(e_{1}, e_{2}\right) \in E$
We can then define the semantics of an arithmetical expression by induction
$s(n)=n, s(\operatorname{minus}(e))=-s(e), \quad s\left(p l u s\left(e_{1}, e_{2}\right)\right)=s\left(e_{1}\right)+$ $s\left(e_{2}\right), s\left(\operatorname{times}\left(e_{1}, e_{2}\right)\right)=s\left(e_{1}\right) \times s\left(e_{2}\right)$

## Central concepts: alphabet and words

$\Sigma$ given finite set
Alphabet finite set of symbols (events) $\Sigma$
String (or word, or trace: finite sequence of symbols (behaviour)
type convention: $a, b, c, \ldots$ for symbols (events) and $x, y, z, \ldots$ for strings (words)

## Words

$\Sigma^{*}$ is the set of all words for a given alphabet $\Sigma$
This can be described inductively in at least two different ways
Basis: the empty word $\epsilon$ is in $\Sigma^{*}$
Inductive step: if $a \in \Sigma$ and $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ then $a x \in \Sigma^{*}$

## Words

The other description is
Basis: the empty word $\epsilon$ is in $\Sigma^{*}$
Inductive step: if $a \in \Sigma$ and $x \in \Sigma^{*}$ then $x a \in \Sigma^{*}$
We can define functions and prove properties of these functions by induction

## Length

The length function is defined by
Basis: $|\epsilon|=0$
Inductive step $|a x|=1+|x|$
$\left|p_{0} p_{1} p_{0} p_{0} p_{1}\right|=5$

## Concatenation

The concatenation function $x y$ is defined by
Basis: $\epsilon y=y$
Inductive step: $(a x) y=a(x y)$
Proposition: for all $x$, $y$ we have $|x y|=|x|+|y|$
Example: if $x=p_{0} p_{1}$ and $y=p_{0} p_{0} p_{1}$ then
$x y=p_{0} p_{1} p_{0} p_{0} p_{1}$ and $y x=p_{0} p_{0} p_{1} p_{0} p_{1}$
In general $x y \neq y x$ : concatenation is not commutative

## Concatenation

Proposition: for all $x$ we have $x \epsilon=\epsilon x=x$
Proposition: for all $x, y, z$ we have $x(y z)=(x y) z$
We write it simply $x y z$

## Power

We define $x^{n}$ by
$x^{0}=\epsilon$ and $x^{n+1}=x^{n} x$
We define it by induction on $n$
For instance $\left(p_{0} p_{1}\right)^{3}=p_{0} p_{1} p_{0} p_{1} p_{0} p_{1}$

## Languages

Given an alphabet $\Sigma$
A language is simply a subset of $\Sigma^{*}$
Common languages, programming languages, can be seen as sets of words
A language can be finite or infinite

## Reverse functions

Intuitively $\operatorname{rev}\left(a_{1} \ldots a_{n}\right)=a_{n} \ldots a_{1}$
We can define $\operatorname{rev}(x)$ by induction
$\operatorname{rev}(\epsilon)=\epsilon$
$\operatorname{rev}(a x)=\operatorname{rev}(x) a$
Lemma: $\operatorname{rev}(x y)=\operatorname{rev}(y) \operatorname{rev}(x)$

## Some terminology

$x$ is a prefix of $y$ iff there exists $z$ such that $y=x z$
$x$ is a suffix of $y$ iff there exists $z$ such that $y=z x$
$x$ is a palindrome iff $x=\operatorname{rev}(x)$

## A proof by induction

Proposition: If $x=z^{k}$ and $y=z^{l}$ then $x y=y x=z^{k+l}$
Theorem: We have $x y=y x$ iff there exists $z, k, l$ such that $x=z^{k}$ and $y=z^{l}$

Exercice: What are the words $x$ such that there exists $y$ such that $x^{3}=y^{2}$

## Function bewteen languages

We consider functions $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Theta^{*}$ such that
$f(\epsilon)=\epsilon$
$f(x y)=f(x) f(y)$
If $x=a_{1} \ldots a_{k}$ we have $f(x)=f\left(a_{1}\right) \ldots f\left(a_{k}\right)$
Such a function $f$ is a coding iff $f$ is injective
Example: file compression

