2. Inductive Predicates

Some Informal Examples of Inductive Definitions

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- if P n holds, then P(n+2) holds.

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But why does this capture the notion of even number?

For example, why does even 4 hold, but even 3 not?

Given a set A, let List(A) be the set of lists $[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$ with elements in A. We write [] for the empty list and a # as for the list obtained by consing a to as.

The binary relation R on List(A) is defined inductively by the rules:

- *R* [] *as* holds;
- if R as as' holds, then R as (a # as') holds;
- if R as as' holds, then R(a#as)(a#as') holds.

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subl as as' holds if and only if as is a sublist (subsequence) of as' in that, if as' has the form $[a'_0, \ldots, a'_{n-1}]$, then there exist $k \ge 0$ and $0 \le j_0 < \ldots < j_{k-1} \le n-1$ such that $as = [a'_{j_0}, \ldots, a'_{j_{k-1}}]$.

Informal example 2: the subl relation

Given a set A, let List(A) be the set of lists $[a_1, \ldots, a_n]$ with elements in A. We write [] for the empty list and a # as for the list obtained by consing a to as.

The binary relation subl on List(A) is defined inductively by the rules:

- *subl* [] *as* holds;
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- if subl as as' holds, then subl (a#as) (a#as') holds.

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Can we prove, e.g., subl [a] [a, b], but $\neg subl [a, b] [a]$?

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Can we prove the equivalence with the above alternative description?

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Another way to write this inductive definition (where the labels "Nil", "ConsR" and "Cons" are names we give to the rules for convenience):

$$\frac{\cdot}{subl[] as} \text{ (Nil)} \qquad \frac{subl as as'}{subl as (a\#as')} \text{ (ConsR)}$$
$$\frac{subl as as'}{subl (a\#as) (a\#as')} \text{ (Cons)}$$

Given a set A, let LazyList(A) be the set of "lazy lists" (finite or infinite lists) with elements in A – they have the form $[a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n]$ or $[a_1, a_2, \ldots]$. We write a # as for the lazy list obtained by consing a to as.

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The binary relation R on LazyList(A), is defined inductively by the following rules:

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What we need here is a coinductive definition...

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Next, we'll make the notions of inductive and coinductive definition rigorous.

Foundation of (Co)Induction

Partially ordered sets

 (A, \leq) is said to be a partially ordered set when

- A is a set
- \leq is a binary relation on A that is

reflexive: $x \le x$ transitive: $x \le y$ and $y \le z$ imply $x \le z$ anti-symmetric: $x \le y$ and $y \le x$ imply x = z

Let (A, \leq) be a partially ordered set, let $X \subseteq A$ and $a \in A$. We say that:

- *a* is the greatest element of *X* if $a \in X$ and $\forall x \in X$. $x \leq a$;
- a is the least element of X if $a \in X$ and $\forall x \in X$. $a \leq x$.

Let (A, \leq) be a partially ordered set.

Given $X \subseteq A$, we define:

• Lower(X), the set of lower bounds of X, to be $\{a \in A \mid \forall x \in X. a \le x\}$.

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- Upper(X), the set of <u>upper bounds</u> of X, to be $\{a \in A \mid \forall x \in X. x \le a\}$.

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- Upper(X), the set of <u>upper bounds</u> of X, to be $\{a \in A \mid \forall x \in X. x \le a\}$. If it exists, the least element of Upper(X) is called the <u>supremum</u> of X and is denoted by $\forall X$.

 (A, \leq) is said to be a <u>complete lattice</u> if infima $\wedge X$ and suprema $\vee X$ exist for all $X \subseteq A$.

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Exercise. 1. Prove that, if they exist, $\bigvee \emptyset$ and $\bigwedge \emptyset$ are the least and greatest elements of A.

2. Prove that, if $\bigvee X$ exists and is in X, then it is the greatest element of X. Dually, if $\bigwedge X$ exists and is in X, then it is the least element of X.

Fix a partially ordered set (A, \leq) and a function $F : A \rightarrow A$.

An element $a \in A$ is called:

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The function F is said to be <u>monotonic</u> if it preserves the order: $a \le b$ implies $F \ a \le F \ b$ for all $a, b \in A$.

The fixpoint theorem of Knaster and Tarski

Theorem (Knaster-Tarski, short version). Any monotonic function on a complete lattice has a least and a greatest fixpoint.

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Theorem (Knaster-Tarski, full version). Let (A, \leq) be a complete lattice and $F : A \rightarrow A$ a monotonic function.

- 1. Let $I_F = \bigwedge \{a \mid F \mid a \leq a\}$ (the infimum of the set of pre-fixpoints). Then I_F is the least fixpoint of F and the least pre-fixpoint of F.
- 2. Let $J_F = \bigvee \{a \mid a \le F a\}$ (the supremum of the set of post-fixpoints). Then J_F is the greatest fixpoint and the greatest post-fixpoint of F.

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- 2. Let $J_F = \bigvee \{a \mid a \le F a\}$ (the supremum of the set of post-fixpoints). Then J_F is the greatest fixpoint and the greatest post-fixpoint of F.

Proof. Let $X = \{a \mid F a \leq a\}$. We have $F I_F \in Lower(X)$. Indeed, given $a \in X$: - on the one hand, we have $I_F \leq a$, which implies $F I_F \leq F a$; - on the other hand, we have $F a \leq a$; - the last two give us $F I_F \leq a$. Hence $F |_F \leq I_F$, which means $I_F \in X$. Hence I_F is the least pre-fixpoint of F. But we also have $F(F|_F) \leq F|_F$, i.e., $F|_F \in X$, hence $|_F \leq F|_F$. Hence $F I_F = I_F$, making I_F a fixpoint, and also the least fixpoint of F. ... and the fact about greatest (post-)fixpoints is dual.

 $(\mathcal{P}(A),\leq)$

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Exercise. Show that this forms a complete lattice, where infima are intersections and suprema are unions.

 $(A \rightarrow \mathsf{Bool}, \leq)$ – the complete lattice of predicates on A.

- The order \leq is defined by $P \leq Q$ iff $\forall a \in A. \ P \ a \longrightarrow Q \ a$
- Infima and suprema are given by \forall and \exists . Namely, for $X \subseteq (A \rightarrow \text{Bool})$: $\land X = \lambda a. \forall P \in X. P a$ $\lor X = \lambda a. \exists P \in X. P a$
- The least and greatest elements are $\lambda a. \perp$ and $\lambda a. \top$

Exercise. Show that this is isomorphic to $(\mathcal{P}(A), \subseteq)$.

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And similarly for relations of any arity, for example:

 $(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow \text{Bool}, \leq)$ – the complete lattice of relations between A and B.

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Exercise. Show that this is isomorphic to $(\mathcal{P}(A \times B), \subseteq)$.

Back to Our Examples of (Co)Inductive Definitions

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F is monotonic, so I_F exists by Knaster-Tarski.

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This means $\forall m. m = 0 \lor (\exists n. m = n + 2 \land even n) \longrightarrow even m$ i.e., even 0 and $\forall n. even n \longrightarrow even (n + 2)$

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 $\frac{\cdot}{even \ 0}$ (Zero) $\frac{even \ n}{even \ (n+2)}$ (Suc)

"Inductively" means: smallest predicate closed under the given rules. More precisely: We define *even* = I_F , where $F: (\mathbb{N} \to \text{Bool}) \to (\mathbb{N} \to \text{Bool})$ is defined as follows, for all $P: \mathbb{N} \to \text{Bool}$: $F P = \lambda m. m = 0 \lor (\exists n. m = n + 2 \land P n)$

Thus, F P essentially applies the rules to P, i.e., F P holds for exactly those items m that are produced by applying the rules to items for which P holds.

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(Zero) and (Suc) are called introduction rules for *even*, because they allow to prove that *even* holds (for certain items).

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 $\begin{array}{l} even \text{ is a fixpoint of } F, \text{ in particular a } \underbrace{\text{post-fixpoint,}}_{\text{i.e., } even \leq F \ even.} \end{array}$

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This means $\forall m. even \ m \longrightarrow m = 0 \lor (\exists n. m = n + 2 \land even n)$

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This means $\forall m. even \ m \longrightarrow m = 0 \lor (\exists n. m = n + 2 \land even \ n)$ i.e., whenever $even \ m$ holds, it must have been obtained by one of the rules (Zero) and (Suc)

The predicate $even : \mathbb{N} \to \text{Bool specified inductively by the following rules:}$

 $\frac{1}{even 0}$ (Zero) $\frac{even n}{even (n+2)}$ (Suc)

"Inductively" means: smallest predicate closed under the given rules. More precisely: We define $even = I_F$, where $F: (\mathbb{N} \to \mathsf{Bool}) \to (\mathbb{N} \to \mathsf{Bool})$ is defined as follows, for all $P: \mathbb{N} \to \mathsf{Bool}$: $FP = \lambda m. m = 0 \lor (\exists n. m = n + 2 \land Pn)$

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i.e., whenever even m holds, it must have been obtained by one of the rules (Zero) and (Suc)

... leading to the following case distinction (elimination) rule for *even*:

 $\underbrace{even \ m}_{m = 0 \longrightarrow P} \quad \forall n. \ m = n + 2 \land even \ n \longrightarrow P}$ (Cases) P

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even is the least among the pre-fixpoints of F, i.e., for all $P : \mathbb{N} \to \text{Bool}, F P \le P$ implies $even \le P$

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Thus, F P essentially applies the rules to P, i.e., F P holds for exactly those items m that are produced by applying the rules to items for which P holds.

even is the least among the pre-fixpoints of F, i.e., for all $P : \mathbb{N} \to \text{Bool}$, $F P \le P$ implies $even \le P$

This means that $even \le P$ for all predicates P that are closed under the rules (Zero), (Suc) (i.e., $P \ 0$ holds, and $P \ n$ implies P(n+2) for all n)

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This means that $even \le P$ for all predicates P that are closed under the rules (Zero), (Suc) (i.e., $P \ 0$ holds, and $P \ n$ implies P(n+2) for all n) ... leading to the following induction rule for even:

$$\frac{even \ m \qquad P \ 0 \qquad \forall n. \ P \ n \longrightarrow P \ (n+2)}{P \ m}$$
 (Induct)

We make sense of an inductive specification of a predicate such as

 $\frac{\cdot}{even \ 0}$ (Zero) $\frac{even \ n}{even \ (n+2)}$ (Suc)

We make sense of an inductive specification of a predicate such as

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... by defining *even* as the least (pre-)fixpoint I_F of a monotonic operator F on predicates, where F is defined from the rules (F P is the predicate obtained from applying the rules to the items satisfying P)

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... by defining *even* as the least (pre-)fixpoint I_F of a monotonic operator F on predicates, where F is defined from the rules (F P is the predicate obtained from applying the rules to the items satisfying P) ... and inferring various rules from this definition

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Thanks to	we obtain
even being a pre-fixpoint of F	the introduction rules (Zero), (Suc)

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$even \text{ being } \leq \text{ all pre-fixpoints of } F$	the induction rule (Induct)

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even $m = 0 \longrightarrow P$ \forall	$m, m = n + 2 \land even n \longrightarrow P$	

$$\frac{even \ m \ m = 0 \longrightarrow P \qquad \forall n. \ m = n + 2 \land even \ n \longrightarrow P}{P}$$
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even being a post-fixpoint of F	the case distinction rule (Cases)	
$even$ being \leq all pre-fixpoints of F	the induction rule (Induct)	
$\frac{even \ m \qquad m = 0 \longrightarrow P \qquad \forall n. \ m = n + 2 \land even \ n \longrightarrow P}{P} $ (Cases)		
$even m$ $P 0$ $\forall n. even$	$en \ n \land P \ n \longrightarrow P \ (n+2) $ (Induct)	
P m (Mddct)		
even is also the least (pre-)fixpoint of		
$G = \lambda P. F(even \wedge P) = \lambda P. F(\lambda n. even n \wedge P n)$		

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It is trivially monotonic!

 $\begin{array}{l} P \leq Q \\ \text{immediately implies} \\ \mathsf{F} \ P \leq F \ Q \end{array}$

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 $\frac{\cdot}{even \ 0}$ (Zero) How about... $\frac{even \ n}{even \ (n+2)}$ (Suc)

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 $\frac{1}{even \ 0}$ (Zero) How about... $\frac{even \ (n+2)}{even \ n}$ (Suc)

We make sense of an inductive specification of a predicate such as

 $\frac{\cdot}{even \ 0} \text{ (Zero) How about...} \qquad \frac{even \ (n+2)}{even \ n} \text{ (Suc) } \checkmark$

We make sense of an inductive specification of a predicate such as

 $\frac{\cdot}{even \ 0} \ ({\sf Zero}) \quad {\sf How \ about...} \qquad \frac{\forall m < n-2. \ even \ m}{even \ n} \ ({\sf Suc})$

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If the rule hypotheses follow a "positive logic" $(\exists, \forall, \land, \lor)$, then F is monotonic.

We make sense of an inductive specification of a predicate such as

 $\frac{1}{even \ 0}$ (Zero) How about... $\frac{\neg \ even \ n}{even \ (n+2)}$ (Suc) **x**

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 $\frac{\cdot}{even \ 0} \text{ (Zero) How about...} \quad \frac{even \ n \longrightarrow even \ (n+1)}{even \ (n+2)} \text{ (Suc) } \mathbf{x}$

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The relation $subl : List(A) \rightarrow List(A) \rightarrow Bool$ specified inductively by the rules:

$$\frac{\cdot}{subl[] as} \text{ (Nil)} \qquad \frac{subl as as'}{subl as (a\#as')} \text{ (ConsR)}$$
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$$F R = \lambda bs, bs'. \exists as. bs = [] \land bs' = as$$

$$\forall \\ \exists as, a, as'. bs = as \land bs' = a\#as' \land R as as'$$

$$\forall \\ \exists a, as, as'. bs = a\#as \land bs' = a\#as' \land R as as'$$

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$$\forall \exists as, a, as'. bs = as \land bs' = a\#as' \land R as as'$$

$$\forall \exists a, as, as'. bs = a\#as \land bs' = a\#as' \land R as as'$$

Again, F is monotonic, so I_F exists by Knaster-Tarski.

Thanks to	we obtain
subl being a pre-fixpoint of F	the introduction rules (Nil), (ConsR), (Cons)
subl being a post-fixpoint of F	the case distinction rule (Cases)
$subl$ being \leq all pre-fixpoints of F	the induction rule (Induct)

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$$subl bs bs' \qquad \forall as. bs = [] \land bs' = as \longrightarrow P$$

$$\forall as, as', a. bs = as \land bs' = a\#as' \land subl as as' \longrightarrow P bs bs'$$

$$\forall as, as', a. bs = a\#as \land bs' = a\#as' \land subl as as' \longrightarrow P bs bs'$$

$$P bs bs'$$
 (Cases)

Thanks to	we obtain
subl being a pre-fixpoint of F	the introduction rules (Nil), (ConsR), (Cons)
subl being a post-fixpoint of F	the case distinction rule (Cases)
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 $\begin{array}{c} subl \ bs \ bs' & \forall as. \ P \ [] \ as \\ \forall as, \ as', \ a. \ subl \ as \ as' \ \land \ P \ as \ as' \longrightarrow P \ as \ (a \# as') \\ \forall as, \ as', \ a. \ subl \ as \ as' \ \land \ P \ as \ as' \longrightarrow P \ (a \# as) \ (a \# as') \\ \hline P \ bs \ bs' \end{array}$ (Induct)

Thanks to	we obtain
subl being a pre-fixpoint of F	the introduction rules (Nil), (ConsR), (Cons)
subl being a post-fixpoint of F	the case distinction rule (Cases)
$subl$ being \leq all pre-fixpoints of F	the induction rule (Induct)

$$\frac{\cdot}{subl[] as} \text{ (Nil)} \qquad \frac{subl as as'}{subl as (a\#as')} \text{ (ConsR)}$$
$$\frac{subl as as'}{subl (a\#as) (a\#as')} \text{ (Cons)}$$

 $subl bs bs' \qquad \forall as. P [] as$ $\forall as, as', a. subl as as' \land P as as' \longrightarrow P as (a \# as')$ $\forall as, as', a. subl as as' \land P as as' \longrightarrow P (a \# as) (a \# as')$ P bs bs'(Induct)

subl is also the least (pre-)fixpoint of $G = \lambda P. F(subl \land P) = \lambda P. F(\lambda as, as'. subl as as' \land P as as').$

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- extracting an operator F on predicates/relations from these rules
- showing that F is monotonic which is trivial if the rules' premises have a "positive logic" format
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- introduction rules which coincide with the originally specified rules
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Isabelle automates this approach.

The Isabelle/HOL implementation of the approach

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She turns the specification into an actual (non-inductive!) definition by:

- extracting an operator F on predicates/relations from these rules
- showing that F is monotonic which is trivial if the rules' premises have a "positive logic" format; if F is not obviously monotonic and lsabelle fails to prove this, users can help by providing "hints"
- defining P as I_F , the least (pre-)fixpoint of F

Finally, from the definition of P as least (pre-)fixpoint, she infers:

- introduction rules which coincide with the originally specified rules
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Isabelle automates this approach.

Exercises

- 1. For the predicate *even*:
 - (i) Infer the case distinction rule for the predicate from the introduction rules and the induction rule.
- (ii) Show that the introduction and induction rules determine the predicate uniquely, i.e., there is only one predicate satisfying them.

2. Let (A, \leq) be a partially ordered set and $F : A \rightarrow A$ a monotonic function. Show that, if it exists, then the least pre-fixpoint of F is also a post-fixpoint of F.

3. What is the connection between points 1(i) and 2 above?

4. Show that the previously mentioned "optimization" of induction is correct: If (A, \leq) is a complete lattice and $F : A \rightarrow A$ a monotonic function, then I_F (the smallest (pre-)fixpoint of F) is also the smallest pre-fixpoint of the operator $G = \lambda a$. $F(I_F \land a)$.

5. Dualize points (2)-(4) above into statements about greatest (post-)fixpoints.

Reasoning about inductive predicates

Reasoning about inductive predicates

We'll use the inductive predicate $even : \mathbb{N} \to Bool$ as running example, but the ideas apply generally.



Why does even 4 hold?



Why does even 4 hold? Reason "backwards" using the introduction rules:



Why does *even* 4 hold? Reason "backwards" using the introduction rules: - We must prove *even* 4.



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- We must prove even 4.
- Applying rule (Suc), suffices to prove even 2.


Why does even 4 hold? Reason "backwards" using the introduction rules:

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- Applying again rule (Suc), suffices to prove even 0.



Why does even 4 hold? Reason "backwards" using the introduction rules:

- We must prove even 4.
- Applying rule (Suc), suffices to prove even 2.
- Applying again rule (Suc), suffices to prove even 0.
- And the last holds by rule (Zero).



Why does \neg even 3 hold?





Why does \neg *even* 3 hold? Rephrase the statement as *even* $3 \rightarrow \bot$ and again reason backwards.

- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:



Why does \neg *even* 3 hold? Rephrase the statement as *even* $3 \rightarrow \bot$ and again reason backwards.

- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:

 $-3 = 0 \rightarrow \bot$, which is trivially true;



- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:
- $-3 = 0 \longrightarrow \bot$, which is trivially true;
- $\forall n. 3 = n + 2 \land even n \longrightarrow \bot,$ which means $even 1 \longrightarrow \bot.$



- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:
- $-3 = 0 \longrightarrow \bot$, which is trivially true;
- $\forall n. 3 = n + 2 \land even n \longrightarrow \bot,$ which means $even 1 \longrightarrow \bot.$
- Apply the case rule for m = 1 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:

Introduction rules:

$$\frac{1}{even 0} (Zero) = \frac{even n}{even (n+2)} (Suc)$$
Case distinction rule:

$$\frac{even m \qquad m = 0 \longrightarrow P \qquad \forall n. m = n+2 \land even n \longrightarrow P}{P} (Cases)$$
Induction rule:

$$\frac{even m \qquad P 0 \qquad \forall n. even n \land P n \longrightarrow P (n+2)}{P m} (Induct)$$

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- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:
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- $---1 = 0 \longrightarrow \bot$, which is trivially true;
- $--- \forall n. 1 = n + 2 \land even n \longrightarrow \bot$, which is trivially true.

$$\frac{even \ m \qquad m = 0 \longrightarrow P \qquad \forall n. \ m = n + 2 \land even \ n \longrightarrow P}{P}$$
 (Cases)

- What to prove $even \ 3 \longrightarrow \bot$.
- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:
- $-3 = 0 \longrightarrow \bot$

$$-\forall n. 3 = n + 2 \land even n \longrightarrow \bot$$

$$\frac{even \ m}{P} \qquad m = 0 \longrightarrow P \qquad \forall n. \ m = n + 2 \land even \ n \longrightarrow P$$
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We match major premise and conclusion against what we need to prove

$$\frac{even \ m}{P} \qquad m = 0 \longrightarrow P \qquad \forall n. \ m = n + 2 \land even \ n \longrightarrow P$$
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- What to prove *even* $3 \longrightarrow \bot$.
- Apply the case rule for m = 3 and $P = \bot$, reducing our goal to:
- $-3 = 0 \longrightarrow \bot$

$$- \forall n. 3 = n + 2 \land even n \longrightarrow \bot$$

We match major premise and conclusion against what we need to prove ... which gives us the instantiation

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We match major premise and conclusion against what we need to prove ... which gives us the instantiation

... and we are left to prove the instances of the other premises

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We match major premise and conclusion against what we need to prove ... which gives us the instantiation

... and we are left to prove the instances of the other premises

This is the elimination reasoning pattern.



Why does even capture the notion of even number?



Why does *even* capture the notion of even number?



Why does even capture the notion of even number?

Let's prove that $even \ m \longrightarrow \exists k. \ m = 2 * k$, reasoning backwards.

- Apply the induction rule for $P = \lambda m$. $\exists k. m = 2 * k$, reducing our goal to:



Why does even capture the notion of even number?

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Why does even capture the notion of even number?

- Apply the induction rule for $P = \lambda m$. $\exists k. m = 2 * k$, reducing our goal to:
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Why does *even* capture the notion of even number?

- Apply the induction rule for $P = \lambda m$. $\exists k. m = 2 * k$, reducing our goal to:
- $\exists k. \ 0 = 2 * k$, which is true, taking k = 0;
- $\begin{array}{l} \longrightarrow \forall n. \ even \ n \land (\exists k. \ n = 2 * k) \longrightarrow (\exists k. \ n + 2 = 2 * k), \\ \text{which means } \forall n, k. \ even \ n \land n = 2 * k \longrightarrow (\exists k'. \ n + 2 = 2 * k'), \\ \text{which is true, taking } k' = k + 1. \end{array}$



Why does even capture the notion of even number?

Let's prove that $even m \rightarrow \exists k. m = 2 * k$, reasoning backwards.

- Apply the induction rule for $P = \lambda m$. $\exists k. m = 2 * k$, reducing our goal to:

-
$$\exists k. \ 0 = 2 * k$$
, which is true, taking $k = 0$

 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \forall n. \ even \ n \land (\exists k. \ n = 2 \ast k) \longrightarrow (\exists k. \ n + 2 = 2 \ast k), \\ & \text{which means } \forall n, k. \ even \ n \land n = 2 \ast k \longrightarrow (\exists k'. \ n + 2 = 2 \ast k') \\ & \text{which is true, taking } k' = k + 1. \end{array}$

Again, the elimination reasoning pattern.



Why does even capture the notion of even number?

Let's now prove the converse implication, $(\exists k. m = 2 * k) \longrightarrow even m$. which means $\forall k. m = 2 * k \longrightarrow even m$.



Why does even capture the notion of even number?



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Why does even capture the notion of even number?
Summary on reasoning about inductive predicates

An inductive predicate has introduction rules, a case distinction rule and an induction rule.

We use the introduction rules to prove that an inductive predicate holds. Examples:

 $\bullet \ even \ 4$

•
$$(\exists k. m = 2 * k) \longrightarrow even m$$

We use the case distinction rule and the induction rule following the <u>elimination reasoning pattern</u> to prove something under the assumption that an inductive predicate holds. Examples:

• \neg even 3, i.e., even $3 \longrightarrow \bot$

• even
$$m \longrightarrow (\exists k. \ m = 2 * k)$$

1. Consider the inductive predicate ${\it subl}$ we defined before. Show the following:

- subl[a,c][a,b,c]
- \neg subl [a, b, c] [a, c]
- subl as as' → set as ⊆ set as', where the operator set : List(A) → P(A) gives all the elements appearing in a list.

2. Assume that, in our informal example 3, we define $subll : \text{List}(A) \rightarrow \text{List}(A) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ inductively by the rules indicated there. Show that $subll \ as \ as'$ implies that as is a finite lazylist.