Lecture 7: Trees and Structural Induction

Natural numbers, positive numbers, rational numbers, pairs, tuples etc. are the objects that we usually study in discrete math. But when we consider discrete math in terms of information technology, we find many more structure in information then just numbers. For example, we can find information that is captured in lists. Or trees, for this matter. In an object oriented language, classes are organized in form of inheritance trees, there are decisions trees, or game trees. HTML, XML, and the like are trees that describe documents. Trees are therefore interesting and important. We will need to learn more about them.

Let's spend some time understanding lists. Lists are different form sets. They are ordered. Elements can appear several times in a list, but they only appear one time in a list. We use the :: notation for lists. For example 2::3::5::7::11::nil is a list. We can think of a list as being constructed from a head 2, and the rest of the list 5::7::11::nil. Sometimes, I will just write [2,3,5,7,11] as an abbreviation. Recall that we introduced the principle of induction for natural number: During a previous lecture, we convinced ourselves that if

P(0)

and

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. P(n) \to P(n+1)$$

then we may conclude that

$$\forall n \in N.P(n)$$

Lists are constructed just like natural numbers. Natural numbers are constructed by 0 and the successor operation, lists are constructed by nil and the :: (over elements from some set S). By analogy we can come up with an induction principle for lists.

If

and

$$\forall x \in S. \forall l \in \mathbb{I}. P(l) \to P(x :: l)$$

P(nil)

then we may conclude that

$$\forall l \in \mathbb{L}.P(l)$$

Let's demonstrate how to use this by the means of an example. From last lecture, we had some examples already, lists of coins, like nickels, dimes, and quarters. Or bits, such as 0s and 1s.

Definition 34 Let $I\!B$ be the set of all finite binary strings, which are lists of the set 0, 1.

For example $0 :: 0 :: 1 :: 0 :: 1 :: 0 :: nil \in \mathbb{B}$, $1 :: 1 :: 0 :: 1 :: 0 :: nil \in \mathbb{B}$, and $1 :: 0 :: 0 :: 1 :: nil \in \mathbb{B}$. Of course, we prefer the less verbose form $001010 \in \mathbb{B}$, $11010 \in \mathbb{B}$, and $1001 \in \mathbb{B}$, which we will use hence force.

We can define a simple functions on lists, for example:

$$l_1 @l_2 = \begin{cases} l_2 & \text{if } l_1 = \text{nil} \\ x :: (l'_1 @l_2) & \text{if } l_1 = x :: l'_1 \end{cases}$$

And we may now apply the induction principle to show properties about lists.

Lemma 35 (Appending an empty list from the right) For all list $l \in \mathbb{L}$, the following holds: l@nil = l

Proof: by induction on the structure of l.

Case: l = nil. The claim follows directly from the definition of @.

Case: l = x::l'.

Let l' be arbitrary and fixed.	
Assume $l'@nil = l'$	the induction hypothesis
(x::l')@nil	
= x::(l'@nil)	by definition of @
=x::l'	by induction hypothesis

Theorem 36 (Append is associative) $l_1@(l_2@l_3) = (l_1@l_2)@l_3$

Proof: $l_1 = nil$.

 $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{nil}@l_2 = l_2 \\ \operatorname{nil}@(l_2@l_3) = l_2@l_3 \\ \operatorname{nil}@(l_2@l_3) = l_2@l_3 = (\operatorname{nil}@l_2)@l_3 \end{array}$

by definition of append by definition of append by equality reasoning

Case

Let l'_1 be arbitrary but fixed Assume $l_1 = X :: l'_1$ Assume $l'_1@(l_2@l_3) = (l'_1@l_2)@l_3$ $(X :: l'_1)@(l_2@l_3)$ $= X :: (l'_1@(l_2@l_3))$ $= X :: ((l'_1@l_2)@l_3)$ $= ((X :: l'_1)@l_2)@l_3$

Here is another common operation on lists: list reversal.

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{rev}(l) &= \operatorname{rev}'(l, \operatorname{nil}) \\ \text{where} \\ \operatorname{rev}'(l_1, l_2) &= \begin{cases} l_2 & \text{if } l_1 = \operatorname{nil} \\ \operatorname{rev}'(l_1', x :: l_2))) & \text{if } l_1 = x :: l_2' \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Can we prove mathematically, that the reverse of the reverse of a list is the list itself?

Conjecture 37 For all $l \in \mathbb{L}$, it holds that rev(rev(l)) = l.

This however, we cannot prove directly. We need to first develop a lemma, stating a useful property about rev', which is on the one hand true, and on the other necessary to prove the conjecture above.

Lemma 38 For all $l_1, l_2, l_3 \in \mathbb{L}$, it holds that rev'(rev' $(l_1, l_2), l_3) = rev'(l_2, l_1@l_3)$.

Proof: by structure induction on l_1

Case: $l_1 = \text{nil.}$

 $rev'(rev'(nil, l_2), l_3) = rev'(l_2, l_3) = rev'(l_2, nil@l_3)$

by definition of rev' by definition of @

Case: $l_1 = x::l'_1$.

Assume for all $l_2 \in \mathbb{I}$ it holds that rev'(rev' $(l'_1, l_2), l_3) = rev'(l_2, l'_1@l_3)$ by induction hypothesis

Now we can finish the proof the conjecture:

Proof:

rev(rev(l))	
$= \operatorname{rev}(\operatorname{rev}'(l, \operatorname{nil}))$	by definition of rev
= rev'(rev'(l, nil), nil)	by definition of rev
= rev'(nil, l@nil)	by the above lemma
= l@nil	by definition of rev'
=l	by Lemma 35

No information	TT_0
Information on in the leaves	TT_1
Information on in the nodes	TT_2
Information on in the leaves and nodes	TT_3

Figure 2: Sets of trees

Let's look at another example of structures, which are a little bit more complicated than lists: Trees. Trees are constructed very similar to lists, except that the :: symbol plays now the role of an internal node that can have one or more children. If all nodes in a tree have the same number of children, let's say m, then we call the tree an m-ary tree.

In this sense, a list is simply a *unary* tree, where each node has only one child, namely the tail of the list. The leaf of a tree corresponds to the nil. A tree is a *binary* tree, if every node has exactly two children. For the purpose of this lecture, we consider only binary trees, but all results generalize directly to more general trees.

Trees exhibit more structure than lists which allows us to represent and store information in various places in a tree. For example, considering a tree of natural numbers, we can choose to store numbers as part of the nodes, within the leaves, or both, or none. We introduce the abbreviations for the sets of trees depicted in Figure 2.

Trees also give raise to induction principles. Here is the induction principle for trees in T_3 : If

$$\forall x \in S.P(\operatorname{leaf}(x))$$

and

 $\forall x \in S. \forall t_1 \in TT_3. \forall t_2 \in TT_3. P(t_1) \land P(t_2) \to P(\text{node}(x, t_1, t_2))$

then we may conclude that

 $\forall t \in TT_3.P(t)$

If we consider only trees with information at the leaves, we obtain the following principles for T_{1} . If

$$\forall x \in S.P(\operatorname{leaf}(x))$$

and

$$\forall t_1 \in TT_1. \forall t_2 \in TT_1. P(t_1) \land P(t_2) \to P(\text{node}(t_1, t_2))$$

 $\forall t_1 \in T\!\!T_1. \forall t_2 \in$ then we may conclude that

$$\forall t \in TT_1.P(t)$$

Exercise 3 Write out the induction principles for T_0 and T_2 .

With these induction principles, we can prove many interesting things. Actually, the induction principles on trees will For example, consider the mirror operation:

 $\operatorname{mirror}(t) = \begin{cases} \operatorname{leaf}(x) & \text{if } t = \operatorname{leaf}(x) \\ \operatorname{node}(\operatorname{mirror}(t_1), \operatorname{mirror}(t_2)) & \text{if } t = \operatorname{node}(t_1, t_2) \end{cases}$

Now we can prove

Theorem 39 For all trees $t \in TT_1$: mirror(mirror(t)) = t.

Proof: by induction on t, which means it is a TT_1 induction.

Case: t = leaf(x)

 $\operatorname{mirror}(\operatorname{mirror}(\operatorname{leaf}(x))) = \operatorname{leaf}(x)$ by definition of mirror, apply twice.

Case: $t = \text{node}(t_1, t_2)$

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Assume } t_1,t_2 \mbox{ arbitrary but fixed trees} \\ \mbox{Assume mirror}(mirror(t_1)) = t_1 & \mbox{ as induction hypothesis} \\ \mbox{Assume mirror}(mirror(t_2)) = t_2 & \mbox{ as induction hypothesis} \\ \mbox{mirror}(mirror(node(t_1,t_2))) & \mbox{ as induction hypothesis} \\ \mbox{mirror}(node(mirror(t_2),mirror(t_1))) & \mbox{ as induction hypothesis} \\ \mbox{ node}(mirror(mirror(t_1)),mirror(mirror(t_2))) & \mbox{ as induction hypothesis} \\ \mbox{ node}(t_1,t_2) & \mbox{ by equality reasoning} \\ \end{array}$

Besides mirroring, there are some other very useful operations on trees for example, converting a tree into a list by traversing the tree in preorder, i.e. depth first left to right manner. Let's consider T_3 trees for this:

 $\operatorname{preorder}(t) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} x:: \operatorname{nil} & \operatorname{if} \ t = \operatorname{leaf}(x) \\ x:: (\operatorname{preorder}(t_1) @\operatorname{preorder}(t_2)) & \operatorname{if} \ t = \operatorname{node}(t_1, t_2) \end{array} \right.$

$$\operatorname{inorder}(t) = \begin{cases} x:: \operatorname{nil} & \text{if } t = \operatorname{leaf}(x) \\ \operatorname{inorder}(t_1)@(x::\operatorname{inorder}(t_2)) & \text{if } t = \operatorname{node}(t_1, t_2) \end{cases}$$

$$postorder(t) = \begin{cases} x::nil & \text{if } t = leaf(x) \\ postorder(t_1)@(postorder(t_2)) & \text{if } t = node(t_1, t_2)@(x::nil) \end{cases}$$

Exercise 4 Show, using the definition or list reversal that preorder(t) = rev(postorder(t)).