### 14.1 Inductive Definitions

Previously, we saw that there is no first order formula $\varphi$ that expresses the property of graphconnectedness: "connected" and "path" cannot be expressed in $\mathcal{L}\left(\Sigma_{\text {st graph }}\right)$ where $\Sigma_{\text {st graph }}=\left(E^{2} ; s, t\right)$ - the vocabulary of graphs with two constants symbols, $s$ and $t$.

Define the problem REACH to be the set of directed graphs having a path from $s$ to $t$,

$$
\operatorname{REACH}=\left\{G \in \operatorname{STRUC}\left[\Sigma_{\text {st graph }}\right] \mid s \underset{\mathrm{G}}{\stackrel{*}{\rightarrow}} t\right\} .
$$

We know from the handout on Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé games that expressing dist ${ }_{\leq n}(x, y)$, i.e., that there is a path from $x$ to $y$ of length $\leq n$, requires quantifier depth exactly $\lceil\log (\bar{n})\rceil$.

We want to express the path relation, $E^{*}$, the reflexive, transitive closure of $E$. That is $E^{*}$ is the smallest binary relation that is relexive and transitive and contains $E$. We can define $E^{*}$ with the following inductive definition:

$$
\begin{equation*}
E^{*}(x, y) \quad \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \quad\left(x=y \vee E(x, y) \vee \exists z\left(E^{*}(x, z) \wedge E^{*}(z, y)\right)\right) \tag{14.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, we have defined $E^{*}$ in terms of itself. We now show how to make sense of such definitions, assuming that the relation being defined appears only positively: when the formula is in negation normal form, no " $\neg$ "s are applied to the relation being defined.
We can understand Eqn. 14.1 better with the following first-order operator on binary relations:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}(R, x, y) \quad \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(x=y \vee E(x, y) \vee \exists z(R(x, z) \wedge R(z, y))) \tag{14.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Given a graph, $G$, Eqn. 14.2 defines an operation, $\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}$, mapping binary relations on $|G|$ to binary relations on $|G|$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}(R) \quad \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \quad\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid G[a / x, b / y] \models \varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}(R, x, y)\right\} \tag{14.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 14.4 (Positive implies Monotone) If $R$ appears only positively in $\varphi\left(R^{k}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ then for any appropriate structure, $\mathcal{A}, \varphi^{\mathcal{A}}$ is a monotone operator on $k$-ary relations on $|\mathcal{A}|$, that is, for all such relations $R, R^{\prime}$ on $\mathcal{A}$,

$$
R \subseteq R^{\prime} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \varphi^{\mathcal{A}}(R) \subseteq \varphi^{\mathcal{A}}\left(R^{\prime}\right)
$$

Example 14.5 Let us see the effect of the operator $\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}$ from Eqn. 14.3 as we repeatedly apply it, starting with the empty relation, $\emptyset$, i.e., the relation that is false on every pair of vertices from $G$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi_{\mathrm{cc}}^{G}(\emptyset) & =\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid G, a / x, b / y \models=x=y \vee E(x, y)\right\}=\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid \operatorname{dist}_{\leq 1}(a, b)\right\} \\
\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}\left(\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}(\emptyset)\right) & =\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid \operatorname{dist}_{\leq 2}(a, b)\right\} \\
\left(\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}\right)^{3}(\emptyset) & =\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid \operatorname{dist}_{\leq 4}(a, b)\right\} \\
\left(\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}\right)^{4}(\emptyset) & =\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid \operatorname{dist}_{\leq 8}(a, b)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that each time we apply $\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}$ we double the length of possible paths.
Thus, $\left(\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}\right)^{k}(\emptyset)=\left\{(a, b) \in|G|^{2} \mid \operatorname{dist}_{\leq 2^{k-1}}(a, b)\right\}$. In particular, since paths in an $n$-vertex graph can have length at most $n-1$, we have that

$$
\left(E^{G}\right)^{*}=\left(\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}\right)^{\lceil 1+\log (\|G\|)\rceil}(\emptyset)=\operatorname{LFP}\left(\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}\right) .
$$

$\left(E^{G}\right)^{*}$ is the least fixed point of $\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}$, i.e., the smallest binary relation, $R \subseteq|G|^{2}$ such that $\varphi_{\mathrm{tc}}^{G}(R)=$ $R$. We take that as the meaning of the inductive defintion Eqn. 14.1, i.e, $E^{*} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{LFP}\left(\varphi_{\text {tc }}\right)$.

Definition 14.6 [Least Fixed Point] If $\varphi\left(R^{k}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ is $R$-positive then the meaning of the inductive definition $R \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \varphi(R)$ is the least fixed point of $\varphi, \operatorname{LFP}(\varphi)$.

We now show that when $\varphi$ is $R$-positive, and thus monotone by Prop. 14.4, the least fixed point always exists.

Theorem 14.7 (Tarski-Knaster Theorem) If $\varphi\left(R^{k}, x_{1}, \ldots \ldots x_{k}\right)$ is $R$ positive then LFP $(\varphi)$ exists and can be computed in polynomial time.

Proof: We first show that the process of starting with the emptyset and repeatedly applying $\varphi$, as we did in Example 14.5, always gives us a fixed point of $\varphi$.

Note that $\emptyset \subseteq \varphi(\emptyset)$. If $\emptyset=\varphi(\emptyset)$ then we are done and $\emptyset=\operatorname{LFP}(\varphi)$. Otherwise, by monotonicity of $\varphi, \varphi(\emptyset) \subseteq \varphi^{2}(\emptyset)$. If $\varphi(\emptyset)=\varphi^{2}(\emptyset)$ then we have reached a fixed point. Otherwise, continue the process:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\emptyset \subseteq \varphi(\emptyset) \subseteq \varphi^{2}(\emptyset) \subseteq \varphi^{3}(\emptyset) \subseteq \cdots \varphi^{n^{k}}(\emptyset)=\varphi^{n^{k}+1}(\emptyset) \tag{14.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

In every step, either a fixed point is reached or a new $k$-tuple is added to the relation. A structure $\mathcal{A}$ with an $n$-element universe has $n^{k}$ possible $k$-tuples. Therefore, after at most $n^{k}$ iterations, a fixed point is reached. Let the fixed point be $\varphi^{t}(\emptyset)$ where $t \leq n^{k}$ is minimum such that $\varphi^{t}=\varphi^{t+1}$.

Now we want to show that $\varphi^{t}(\emptyset)$ is in fact the least fixed point. Let $S$ be a fixed point of $\varphi$, i.e., $\varphi(S)=S$
Claim: $\quad \varphi^{t}(\emptyset) \subseteq S$.

We prove by induction that for all $i, \varphi^{i}(\emptyset) \subseteq S$.
base case: $\varphi^{0}(\emptyset)=\emptyset \subseteq S$.
inductive case: assume that $\varphi^{k}(\emptyset) \subseteq S$.
By monotonicity of $\varphi$, it follows that $\varphi\left(\varphi^{k}(\emptyset)\right) \subseteq \varphi(S)$, i.e., $\varphi^{k+1}(\emptyset) \subseteq S$.
Thus, $\varphi^{t}(\emptyset) \subseteq S$ and as desired, $\varphi^{t}(\emptyset)=\operatorname{LFP}(\varphi)$.

### 14.2 Datalog

Datalog is a database query language that makes use of positive recursions. The following is an example of a recursive definition in Datalog.

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(x, y) & :-\quad x=y \\
P(x, y) & :-E(x, y) \\
P(x, y) & :-\quad P(x, z), P(z, y)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that this Datalog code is equivalent to the inductive definition,

$$
(P(x, y) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} x=y \vee E(x, y) \vee \exists z(P(x, z) \wedge P(z, y)))
$$

In particular, the separate lines are "or"-ed together; the comma in a single line is treated as " $\wedge$ ". Free variables occuring only on the right-hand side are considered existentially quantified, whereas free variables that occur on the left side are universally quantified.

Here is another Datalog example. Given the database relation Parent $(x, y)$, we can make the nonrecursive Datalog definition:

$$
\operatorname{Sib}(x, y):-\operatorname{Parent}(z, x), \operatorname{Parent}(z, y), x \neq y
$$

Here is another recursive definition:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\operatorname{Ancestor}(x, y) & :-\quad x=y \\
\text { Ancestor }(x, y) & :- & \operatorname{Parent}(x, y)  \tag{14.8}\\
\text { Ancestor }(x, y) & :- & \text { Ancestor }(x, z), \text { Ancestor }(z, y)
\end{array}
$$

In Datalog, recursive definitions are implemented exactly as they would be in logic using a Breadthfirst search matching algorithm.

### 14.3 Prolog

Prolog is a programming language older and more complicated than Datalog. In trying to make Prolog a general-purpose programming language, the designers made some choices which take the meanings of programs away from what the meaning would be in logic.

In particular, consider the Ancestor query, Ancestor $(x, y):-$ ?, in Prolog, using the definition of Ancestor from Eqn. 14.8 .

This is meant to return all pairs $(a, b)$ such that $a$ is an ancestor of $b$. Unfortunately, Prolog uses a depth-first search matching algorithm. Thus to match Ancestor $(x, y)$ it would first try to match Ancestor $(x, z)$. To do this, it would first try to match $\operatorname{Ancestor}\left(x, z_{1}\right)$ and so on, thus going into an infinite loop and never answering.

On the other hand, Prolog would do the right thing with the alternate definition:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Ancestor }(x, y) & :-\quad x=y  \tag{14.8}\\
\text { Ancestor }(x, y) & :- & \operatorname{Parent}(x, z), \text { Ancestor }(z, y)
\end{array}
$$

