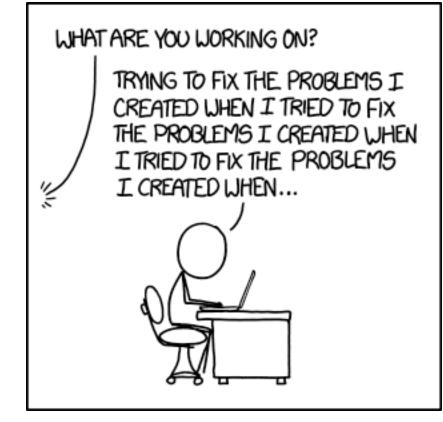
# CSE 331 Spring 2025

## Software Development & Reasoning



xkcd #1739

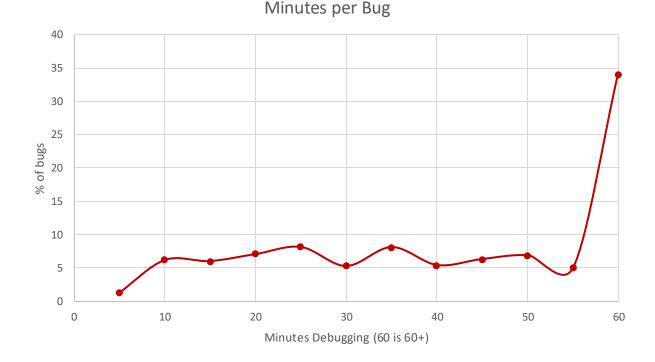
#### Matt Wang

& Ali, Alice, Andrew, Anmol, Antonio, Connor, Edison, Helena, Jonathan, Katherine, Lauren, Lawrence, Mayee, Omar, Riva, Saan, and Yusong

- HW4 is out!
  - it is longer & contains math and programming
  - we are grading on correctness now!
  - (it is also worth more of your grade)
- Matt has added another office hour: 11:30-12:20 on Mondays (after A lecture)

### HW3 Summary: Bugs & Time per Bug

Average solution was ~ 120 lines of code;
 ~ 1 bug per 40 lines of code



- Avg of 57 minutes per bug
- 34% more than 1 hour! Increasing "long tail" trend

### HW3 Summary: Search Space of Bugs

- How many functions were searched
  - 62% of bugs searched more than one function
  - time require for debugging

1-2 functions	47 mins
3-4 functions	67 mins
5-6 functions	85 min
7+ functions	114 min

- on average, every extra function meant ~10 more mins
- Shrinking the search space helps a lot
  - unit tests!

#### – defensive programming!

double check that preconditions are satisfied run-time type checking of request/responses

- HW1: type checking is important
  - found almost 50% of the bugs
- HW2: mutation is dangerous
  - cause of the most horrible kinds of debugging
- HW3: unit testing is important

– debugging a small space for  $\sim 1/3^{rd}$  of bugs

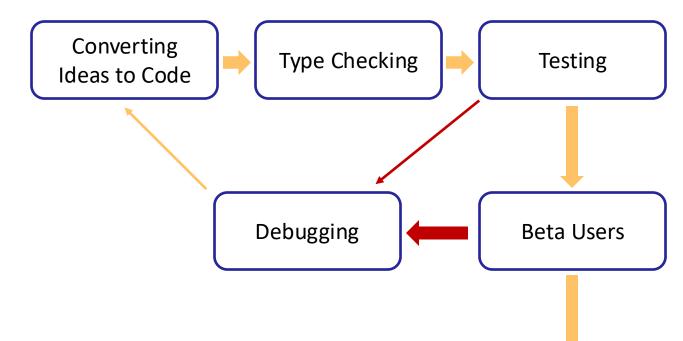
• Debugging will still happen...

need to get better at quickly narrowing in on the bug

## **Software Development Process**

### **Software Development Process (right now)**

Given: a problem description (in English)



Beta users are understanding about failures,

**Regular users** are completely <u>unforgiving</u>! (Regular users do not give credit for effort.)

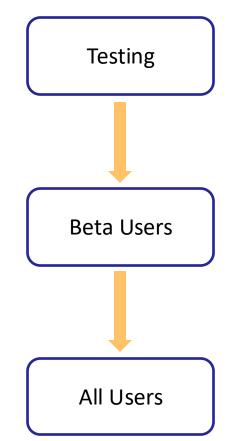
All Users

### How Much Debugging? (1/2)

- Bugs typed in... 1 per 20 lines
  - the norm for pretty much everyone
- Bugs after type checking... 1 per 40 lines
  - assume 50% caught by type checker (saw 39% in HW1)
- Bugs after unit testing... 1 per 133 lines
  - assume 70% caught by unit testing optimistic: studies find about <70% are caught by unit testing</li>
  - remaining bugs are sent to beta testers

### How Much Debugging? (2/2)

- Bugs after testing... 1 per 133 lines
  - assume 70% caught by testing
  - studies find about 65% are caught by testing
- Are rest are caught by beta users?
  - not enough of them
  - millions of users will find all bugs
- Bugs after beta users... 1 per 2000 lines
  - number from Microsoft
  - anything created by humans has mistakes only a small number of users give 0 stars



#### How Many Bugs Sent to Beta Users?

#### • Every 2000 lines of code

100 bugs typed in 1 per 20 lines
- 50 bugs caught by type checker (50%)
= 50 bugs
- 35 bugs caught by unit testing (70%)
= 15 bugs

Need to debug 14 bugs from beta users
 – will still send 1 bug to regular users

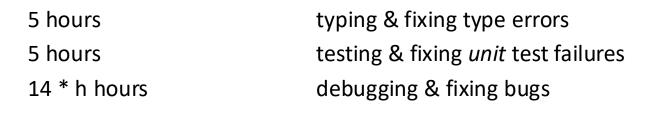
### What Kind of Bugs Sent to Beta Users?

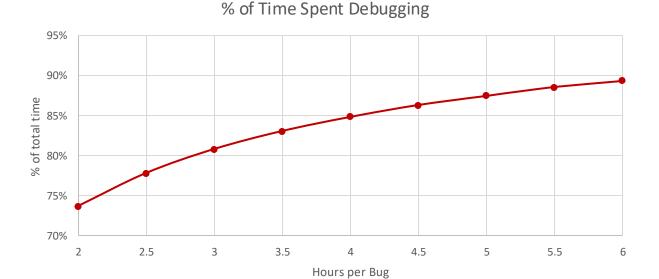
- Comes back without steps to reproduce the failure
  - only comes back with a description of the failure

maybe a vague (possibly incorrect) description of steps

- Only sent to beta users if it...
  - type checks
  - gets past unit tests
- Most such bugs often at the seams between functions
  - multiple functions need to be debugged
  - will take a long time to track down (many hours)
     we saw an extra 10 minutes for every additional function in HW3
     HW3 had 700 lines... industry programs will be 100,000 minimum

- 2000 lines of code
  - assume a familiar setting (know how to solve problems)
  - let "h" be the number of hours to debug one such bug





#### What Else Can We Do?

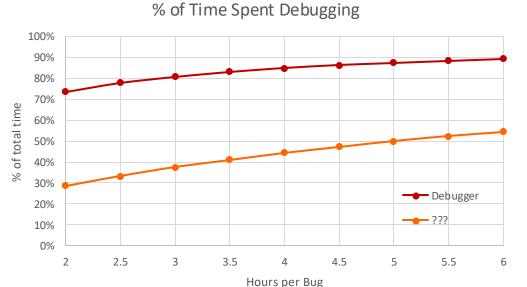
- 2000 lines of code
  - assume a familiar setting (know how to solve problems)
  - let  $\ensuremath{"h}\xspace$  be the number of hours to debug one such bug
    - 5 hours
    - 5 hours
    - 5 hours
    - 3 \* h hours

typing & fixing type errors

?? removes 11 bugs ??

testing & fixing unit test failures

debugging & fixing bugs



even at h=5, debugging not the majority of time bottom programmer is 2 times more productive

#### **How Much Room For Improvement?**

- Suppose we could...
  - remove all 14 bugs by the end of unit testing

#### in the same amount of time

plausible since fixing unit test failures involves debugging

5 hours

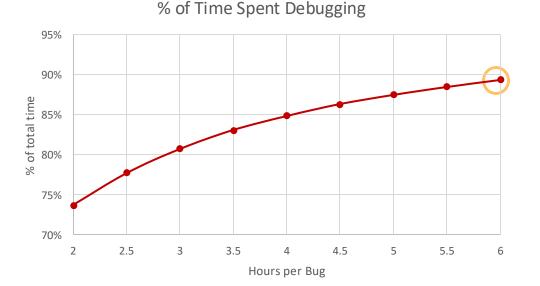
typing & fixing type errors

?? removes 14 bugs ??

2 hours

3 hours

testing & fixing unit test failures



would cut 90% of time spent

would be 10x more productive

"10x developer" possible in a setting where debugging is hard but can be avoided with extra effort **Standard practice (60+ years) uses three techniques:** 

- **Tools:** type checker, libraries, etc.
- **Testing:** try it on a well-chosen set of examples
- **Reasoning**: <u>think</u> through your code <u>carefully</u>
  - convince yourself it works correctly on all inputs
  - have another person do the same ("<u>code review</u>")

### **Comparing These Techniques**

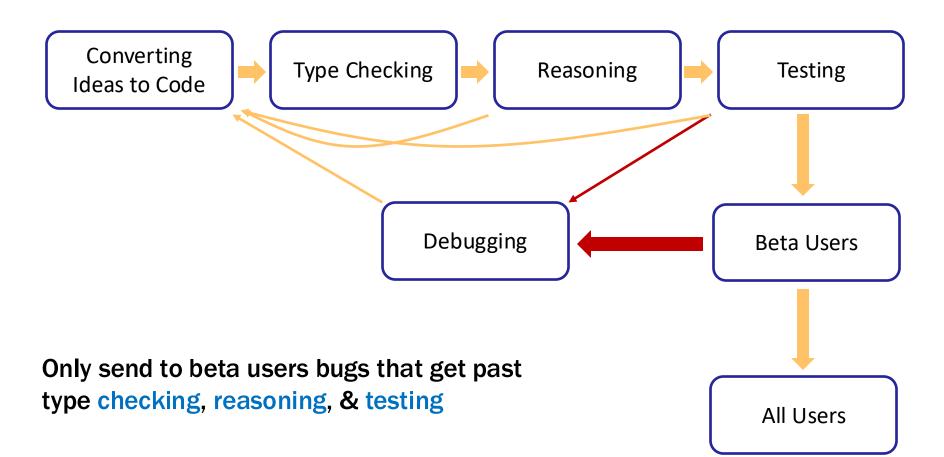
- Differ along some key dimensions
  - does it consider all allowed inputs
  - does it make sure the answer is fully correct ("=")

Technique	All Inputs	Fully Correct	Machine-Checkable
Type Checker	Yes	Νο	Yes
Testing	No	Yes	Yes
Reasoning	Yes	Yes	No (*mostly)

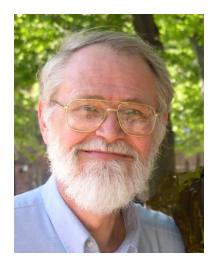
- Combination removes >97% of bugs
  - each tends to find different kinds of errors
  - e.g., type checker is good at typos & reasoning is not humans often skip right over typos when reading

### **Avoiding Debugging in Software Development**

Given: a problem description (in English)



"Debugging is twice as hard as writing the code in the first place."



Brian Kernighan

- In industry: you will be expected to think through your code
  - standard practice is to do this *twice* ("code review")

you think through your code then ask someone else to also

- Professionals spend most of their coding time reasoning
  - reasoning is the core skill of programming
- Interviews are tests of reasoning
  - take the computer away so you only have reasoning
  - typical coding problem has lots of cases that are easy to miss if you don't think through carefully
  - (not about knowing "the answer" to the question interviewers will throw out interviews that went too well!)

### "Automating" Reasoning & LLMs

- Reasoning & debugging are provably impossible for a computer to solve in all cases
- Current LLM error rates are much higher than humans
  - requires an (expert) human to do a lot of debugging starts with reading and understanding all the generated code... probably easier to rewrite it yourself
  - studies (so far) show little productivity improvement

if it reads your mind, it saves you typing, but that's not the limiting factor if it doesn't read your mind, you must still spend time understanding it

- LLMs are especially bad at reasoning
  - e.g., bad at learning formal properties
  - e.g., bad at catching rare cases

### **Actually Correct Automated Reasoning**

- There are non-LLM (and crucially, deterministic) approaches to automated reasoning
  - "formal methods" & "formal verification"
  - SAT & SMT-based solvers (incl. model checking)
  - program synthesis
  - automated theorem proving & proof assistants
- Very promising area of research, but...
  - many require graduate-level study to use
  - many current open problems (modularity, scalability)
  - thus, not common in most software engineering fields (yet!)

- "Thinking through" what the code does on <u>all</u> inputs
  - neither testing nor type checking can do this
- Can be done formally or informally
  - most professionals reason informally
  - we will start with formal reasoning and move to informal formal reasoning is a stepping stone to informal reasoning (same core ideas) formal reasoning still needed for the hardest problems
- Definition of correctness comes from the specification...

#### **Correct Requires a Specification**

#### Specification contains two sets of facts

#### **Precondition:**

facts we are *promised* about the inputs

#### **Postcondition**:

facts we are required to ensure for the output

#### **Correctness** (satisfying the spec):

for every input satisfying the precondition, the output will satisfy the postcondition

### **Specifications in TypeScript: JSDoc**

TypeScript, like Java, writes specs in /\*\* ... \*/

```
/**
 * High level description of what function does
 * @param a What "a" represents + any conditions
 * @param b What "b" represents + any conditions
 * @returns Detailed description of return value
 */
const f = (a: bigint, b: bigint): bigint => {..};
```

- these are formatted as "JSDoc" comments
- (in Java, they are JavaDoc comments)

### **Preconditions & Postconditions in JSDoc**

• Specifications are written in the comments

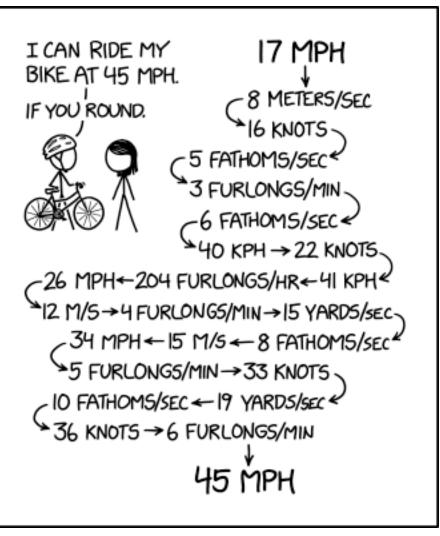
```
/**
 * Returns the first n elements from the list L
 * @param n non-negative length of the prefix
 * @param L the list whose prefix should be returned
 * @requires n <= len(L)
 * @returns list S such that L = S ++ T for some T
 */
const prefix = (n: bigint, L: List): List => {..};
```

- precondition written in <code>@param</code> and <code>@requires</code>
- postcondition written in @returns

CSE 331 Spring 2025 Proof by Calculation (& Cases)

#### Matt Wang

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xkcd #2585

#### Specification contains two sets of facts

#### **Precondition:**

facts we are *promised* about the inputs

#### **Postcondition**:

facts we are required to ensure for the output

#### **Correctness** (satisfying the spec):

for every input satisfying the precondition, the output will satisfy the postcondition

### Facts (1/2)

- Basic inputs to reasoning are "facts"
  - things we know to be true about the variables

these hold for all inputs (no matter what value the variable has)

```
- typically, "=" or "≤"
```

```
// @param n a natural number
const f = (n: bigint): bigint => {
    const m = 2n * n; find facts by reading along path
    return (m + 1n) * (m - 1n); from top to return statement
};
```

- At the return statement, we know these facts:
  - $-n \in \mathbb{N} \qquad (or n \in \mathbb{Z} and n \ge 0)$
  - m = 2n

### Facts (2/2)

- Basic inputs to reasoning are "facts"
  - things we know to be true about the variables

these hold for all inputs (no matter what value the variable has)

```
- typically, "=" or "≤"
```

```
// @param n a natural number
const f = (n: bigint): bigint => {
    const m = 2n * n;
    return (m + 1n) * (m - 1n);
};
```

- No need to include the fact that n is an integer ( $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ )
  - that is true, but the type checker takes care of that
  - no need to repeat reasoning done by the type checker

#### Finding Facts at a Return Statement

Consider this code

```
// Returns a non-negative integer.
const f = (a: bigint, b: bigint): bigint => {
  const L: List = cons(a, cons(b, nil));
  if (a >= 0n && b >= 0n)
     return sum(L);
     ...
     ...
     find facts by reading along path
     from top to return statement
```

facts are math statements about the code

- Known facts include " $a \ge 0$ ", " $b \ge 0$ ", and "L = cons(...)"
- Remains to prove that "sum(L)  $\ge 0$ "

- We can use the facts we know to prove more facts
  - if we can prove R using facts P and Q,
     we say that R "follows from" or "is implied by" P and Q
  - proving this fact is proving an "implication"
- Checking correctness requires proving implications
  - need to prove facts about the return values
  - return values must satisfy the facts of the postcondition

- Saw how to collect facts in code consisting of
  - "const" variable declarations
  - "if" statements
  - collect facts by reading along <u>path</u> from top to return
- Those elements cover <u>all</u> code without mutation
  - covers everything describable by our math notation
  - we can calculate interesting values with recursion
- Will need more tools to handle code with mutation...

Description	Testing	Tools	Reasoning	
no mutation	full coverage	type checker	calculation induction	HW5
local variable mutation	un	un	Floyd logic	HW6
array mutation	""	""	for-any facts	HW8
heap state mutation	un	un	rep invariants	HW9

### **Correctness with No Mutation**

- Proving implications is the **core step** of reasoning
  - other techniques output implications for us to prove
- Facts are written in our math notation
  - we will use math tools to prove implications
- Core technique is "proof by calculation"
- Other techniques we will need:
  - proof by cases (today)
  - structural induction (Wednesday)

## **Proof by Calculation**

- Proves an implication
  - fact to be shown is an equation or inequality
- Uses known facts and definitions
  - latter includes, e.g., the fact that len(nil) = 0

#### **Example Proof by Calculation**

- Given x = y and  $z \le 10$ , prove that  $x + z \le y + 10$ 
  - show the third fact follows from the first two
- Start from the left side of the inequality to be proved

$$x + z = y + z \le y + 10$$
  
since  $x = y$  since  $z \le 10$ 

<u>All together</u>, this tells us that  $x + z \le y + 10$ 

#### **Example Proof by Calculation (across lines)**

- Given x = y and  $z \le 10$ , prove that  $x + z \le y + 10$ 
  - show the third fact follows from the first two
- Start from the left side of the inequality to be proved

x + z= y + zsince x = y $\leq y + 10$ since  $z \leq 10$ 

- easier to read when split across lines
- "calculation block", includes explanations in right column proof by calculation means using a calculation block
- "=" or " $\leq$ " relates that line to the <u>previous</u> line

#### **Calculation Blocks: Equalities**

• Chain of "=" shows first = last

$$a = b$$
$$= c$$
$$= d$$

- proves that a = d
- all 4 of these are the same number

#### **Calculation Blocks: Inequalities**

- Chain of "=" and " $\leq$ " shows <u>first</u>  $\leq$  <u>last</u>
  - $\begin{array}{ll} x+z &= y+z & \mbox{since } x=y \\ &\leq y+10 & \mbox{since } z\leq 10 \\ &= y+3+7 & \\ &\leq w+7 & \mbox{since } y+3\leq w \end{array}$
  - each number is equal or strictly larger that previous

last number is strictly larger than the first number

– analogous for " $\geq$ "

# **Calculation Blocks: Mixing Inequalities Gotcha**

- Consider:
  - $\begin{array}{rcl}
    1+1 &= 2 \\
    \geq 2 * 1 \\
    &= 1 * 2 \\
    \leq 1 * 3 \\
    \geq 3
    \end{array}$
  - cannot derive meaningful conclusion from "proof"
     each step is still true, but cannot make final conclusion
  - rule of thumb: inequalities should only go in one direction

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 1(1/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are positive integers
// Returns a positive integer.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
   return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts " $x \ge 1$ " and " $y \ge 1$ "
- Correct if the return value is a positive integer

x + y

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 1(2/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are positive integers
// Returns a positive integer.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
   return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts " $x \ge 1$ " and " $y \ge 1$ "
- Correct if the return value is a positive integer

```
x + y\geq x + 1since y \geq 1\geq 1 + 1since x \geq 1= 2\geq 1
```

– calculation shows that  $x + y \ge 1$ 

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 2(1/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are integers with x > 8 and y > -9
// Returns a positive integer.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
  return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts " $x \ge 9$ " and " $y \ge -8$ "
- Correct if the return value is a positive integer

x + y

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 2(2/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are integers with x > 8 and y > -9
// Returns a positive integer.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
  return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts " $x \ge 9$ " and " $y \ge -8$ "
- Correct if the return value is a positive integer

```
x + y\geq x + -8since y \geq -8\geq 9 - 8since x \geq 9= 1
```

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 3(1/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are integers with x > 8 and y > -9
// Returns a positive integer.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
  return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts "x > 8" and "y > -9"
- Correct if the return value is a positive integer

x + y

### Proving Code by Calculation: Example 3 (2/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are integers with x > 8 and y > -9
// Returns a positive integer.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
  return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts "x > 8" and "y > -9"
- Correct if the return value is a positive integer

 x + y > x + -9 since y > -9 

 > 8 - 9 since x > 8 

 = -1 

warning: avoid using ">" (or "<") multiple times in a calculation block

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 4 (1/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are integers with x > 3 and y > 4
// Returns an integer that is 10 or larger.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
  return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts " $x \ge 4$ " and " $y \ge 5$ "
- Correct if the return value is 10 or larger

x + y

# Proving Code by Calculation: Example 4 (2/2)

```
// Inputs x and y are integers with x > 3 and y > 4
// Returns an integer that is 10 or larger.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
  return x + y;
};
```

- Known facts " $x \ge 4$ " and " $y \ge 5$ "
- Correct if the return value is 10 or larger

x + y $\geq x + 5$ since  $y \geq 5$  $\geq 4 + 5$ since  $x \geq 4$ = 9

proof doesn't work because the code is wrong!

# **Using Definitions in Calculations**

- Most useful with function calls
  - cite the definition of the function to get the return value
- For example:

sum(nil) := 0sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)

- Can cite facts such as
  - $\operatorname{sum}(\operatorname{nil}) = 0$
  - $\operatorname{sum}(a :: b :: nil) = a + \operatorname{sum}(b :: nil)$

second case of definition with x = a and L = b :: nil

#### **Recall: Finding Facts at a Return Statement**

Consider this code

```
// Inputs a and b must be integers.
// Returns a non-negative integer.
const f = (a: bigint, b: bigint): bigint => {
  const L: List = cons(a, cons(b, nil));
  if (a >= 0n && b >= 0n)
    return sum(L);
...
```

find facts by reading along <u>path</u> from top to return statement

- Known facts include " $a \ge 0$ ", " $b \ge 0$ ", and "L = cons(...)"
- Must prove that  $sum(L) \ge 0$

# Using Definitions in Calculations (1/2)

sum(nil) := 0sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)

- Know "a  $\geq 0$ ", "b  $\geq 0$ ", and "L = a :: b :: nil"
- **Prove the** "sum(L)" is non-negative

sum(L)

sum(nil) := 0sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)

- Know "a  $\geq 0$ ", "b  $\geq 0$ ", and "L = a :: b :: nil"
- **Prove the** "sum(L)" **is non-negative**

sum(L)= sum(a :: b :: nil)since L = a :: b :: nil
$$= a + sum(b :: nil)$$
def of sum $= a + b + sum(nil)$ def of sum $= a + b$ def of sum $\geq 0 + b$ since  $a \ge 0$  $\geq 0$ since  $b \ge 0$ 

#### **Proving Correctness with Conditionals (Top)**

```
// Inputs x and y are integers.
// Returns a number less than x.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
    if (y < 0n) {
        return x + y;
    } else {
        return x - 1n;
    }
};</pre>
```

• Known fact in "then" (top) branch: " $y \le -1$ "

```
\begin{array}{ll} x+y & \leq x+-1 & \text{since } y \leq -1 \\ & < x+0 & \text{since } -1 < 0 \\ & = x \end{array}
```

#### **Proving Correctness with Conditionals (Bottom)**

```
// Inputs x and y are integers.
// Returns a number less than x.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => {
    if (y < 0n) {
        return x + y;
    } else {
        return x - 1n;
    }
};</pre>
```

• Known fact in else (bottom) branch: " $y \ge 0$ "

$$x - 1 < x + 0$$
 since  $-1 < 0$   
= x

#### **Proving Correctness with Multiple Claims**

- Need to check the claim from the spec at each return
- If spec claims multiple facts, then we must prove that <u>each</u> of them holds

// Inputs x and y are integers with x < y - 1
// Returns a number less than y and greater than x.
const f = (x: bigint, y, bigint): bigint => { ... };

- multiple known facts:  $x : \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $y : \mathbb{Z}$ , and x < y 1
- multiple claims to prove: x < r and r < y</li>
   where "r" is the return value
- requires two calculation blocks

#### **Example Correctness with Conditionals**

```
// Returns r with (r=a or r=b) and r >= a and r >= b
const max = (a: bigint, b, bigint): bigint => {
    if (a >= b) {
        return a;
    } else {
        return b;
    }
};
```

- Three different facts to prove at each return
- Two known facts in each branch (return value is "r"):
  - then branch:  $a \ge b$  and r = a
  - else branch: a < b and r = b

- Sometimes necessary split a proof into cases
  - fact may be hard to prove for all values at once
- Example: can't prove it for all x at once, but can prove it for  $x \ge 0$  and x < 0
  - will see an example next
- If we can prove it in those two cases, it holds for all  $\boldsymbol{x}$ 
  - follows since the cases are exhaustive

(don't need to be exclusive in this case)

$$\begin{split} f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z} \\ f(m) &:= 2m + 1 & \text{if } m \geq 0 \\ f(m) &:= 0 & \text{if } m < 0 \end{split}$$

- Want to prove that f(m) > m
- Doesn't seem possible as is
  - can't even apply the definition of  $\boldsymbol{f}$
  - need to know if m < 0 or  $m \ge 0$
- Split our analysis into these two separate cases...

f(m) := 2m + 1	if $m \ge 0$
f(m) := 0	<b>if</b> m < 0

• Prove that f(m) > m

Case  $m \ge 0$ : f(m) =

> m

f(m) := 2m + 1	if $m \ge 0$
f(m) := 0	<b>if</b> m < 0

• Prove that f(m) > m

Case  $m \ge 0$ :

f(m) = 2m + 1def of f (since  $m \ge 0$ ) $\ge m + 1$ since  $m \ge 0$ > msince 1 > 0

f(m) := 2m + 1	if $m \ge 0$
f(m) := 0	<b>if</b> m < 0

• Prove that f(m) > m

 $\label{eq:case m} \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Case m} \geq 0 \\ f(m) = ... > m \end{array}$   $\label{eq:case m} \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Case m} < 0 \\ f(m) = 0 \\ & \mbox{ m } \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{def of f (since m < 0)} \\ \mbox{since m} < 0 \end{array}$ 

Since these two cases are exhaustive, f(m) > m holds in general.

- Lecture (mostly) focuses on toy examples
  - Goal is to explain syntax & intuition (and build skill)
  - Thus, pick simple problems (that may feel "obvious")
  - Because I prep, I don't get "stuck"
- Section & HW will (mostly) focus on proving that correct code is correct
  - Seems mean to give you incorrect code :')
  - But, problems will be <u>new</u> and <u>more challenging</u>
- In real world, likely even harder examples and will not know correctness ahead of time

CSE 331 Spring 2025 Reasoning with Structural

# Matt Wang

Induction

& Ali, Alice, Andrew, Anmol, Antonio, Connor, Edison, Helena, Jonathan, Katherine, Lauren, Lawrence, Mayee, Omar, Riva, Saan, and Yusong

#### JS Wacky Weekly Wednesday

// setTimeout: call function after n
milliseconds

// prints 0 1 2
for (let i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
 setTimeout(() => {
 console.log(i);
 }, 1000);
}

```
// prints 3 3 3 ????
let i;
for (i = 0; i < 3; i++) {
   setTimeout(() => {
      console.log(i);
   }, 1000);
}
```

# **Structural Induction**

### **Proof by Calculation on Lists**

- Our proofs so far have used fixed-length lists
  - **e.g.**, sum(a :: b :: nil) ≥ 0
- Would like to prove facts about <u>any length</u> list L
- For example...

• Consider the following function:

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

Produces a list where every element is repeated twice

$$echo(1 :: 2 :: nil)$$
 $def of echo$  $= 1 :: 1 :: echo(2 :: nil)$  $def of echo$  $= 1 :: 1 :: 2 :: 2 :: echo(nil)$  $def of echo$  $= 1 :: 1 :: 2 :: 2 :: nil$  $def of echo$ 

#### **Example: Proving Len & Echo Correct**

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• Suppose we have the following code:

```
const m = len(S); // S is some List
const R = echo(S);
...
return 2*m; // = len(echo(S))
```

- spec says to return len(echo(S)) but code returns 2 len(S)
- Need to prove that len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S)

- Stuck on a proof?
  - Try splitting into cases!

# Trying Proof by Cases on Len & Echo (1/2)

len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S)Case S = nil:  $len(echo(S)) = len(nil) \qquad def of echo (since S = nil)$   $= 0 \qquad def of len$   $= 2 len(nil) \qquad def of len$  = 2 len(S)

# Trying Proof by Cases on Len & Echo (2/2)

```
len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S)
Case S = x :: L :

len(echo(x :: L)) = len(x :: x :: echo(L))
= 1 + len(x :: echo(L))
= 2 + len(echo(L))
def of len
def of len
```

Now need to prove: len(echo(L)) = 2 len(L)

Case L = nil: see previous slide Case L = x :: M: len(echo(x :: M)) = len(x :: x :: echo(M)) def of echo = 1 + len(x :: echo(M)) def of len = 2 + len(echo(M)) def of len

Now need to prove: len(echo(M)) = 2 len(M)

#### **Proof by Cases Breaks on Inductive Data**

- Our proofs so far have used fixed-length lists
  - **e.g.**, sum(a :: b :: nil) ≥ 0
- Would like to prove facts about <u>any length</u> list L
- Need more tools for this...
  - structural recursion *calculates* on inductive types
  - structural induction reasons about structural recursion
     or more generally, to prove facts containing variables of an inductive type
  - both tools are specific to inductive types

## **Structural Induction is Two Implications**

Let P(S) be the claim "len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S)"

To prove P(S) holds for <u>any</u> list S, prove two implications

**Base Case:** prove P(nil)

use any known facts and definitions

**Inductive Step:** prove P(x :: L)

- $\boldsymbol{x}$  and  $\boldsymbol{L}$  are variables
- use any known facts and definitions plus <u>one more fact...</u>
- make use of the fact that L is also a List

To prove P(S) holds for any list S, prove two implications

**Base Case:** prove P(nil)

use any known facts and definitions

**Inductive Hypothesis:** assume P(L) is true

use this in the inductive step, but not anywhere else

**Inductive Step:** prove P(x :: L)

use known facts and definitions and <u>Inductive Hypothesis</u>

# **Why Structural Induction Works**

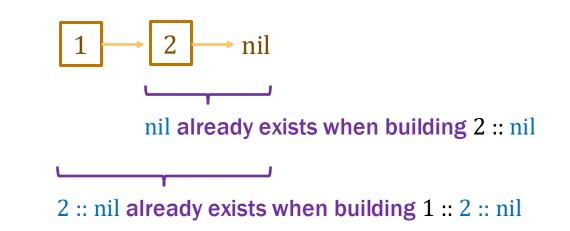
#### With Structural Induction, we prove two facts

P(nil)len(echo(nil)) = 2 len(nil)P(x :: L)len(echo(x :: L)) = 2 len(x :: L)(second assuming len(echo(L)) = 2 len(L))

Why is this enough to prove P(S) for any S : List?

#### **Build up an object using constructors:**

nil	first constructor (nil)
2 :: nil	second constructor (cons)
1 :: 2 :: nil	second constructor (cons)

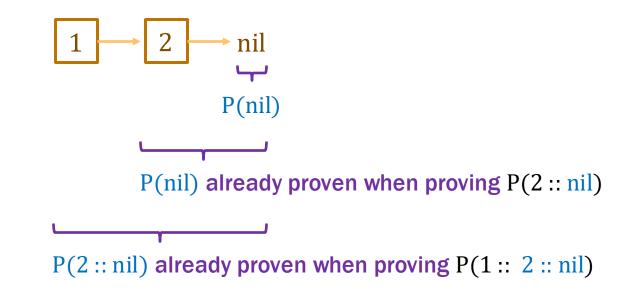


# Inductive Proofs are "Built Up" in Steps

#### Build up a proof the same way we built up the object

P(nil)len(echo(nil)) = 2 len(nil)P(x :: L)len(echo(x :: L)) = 2 len(x :: L)

(second assuming len(echo(L)) = 2 len(L))



#### Example: Echo & Len Base Case (1/2)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S) **for any** S : List

Base Case (nil):

Need to prove that len(echo(nil)) = 2 len(nil)

len(echo(nil)) =

len(nil) := 0len(x :: L) := 1 + len(L)

#### Example: Echo & Len Base Case (2/2)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S) **for any** S : List

Base Case (nil):

len(echo(nil))	= len(nil)	def of echo
	= 0	def of len
	$= 2 \cdot 0$	
	$= 2 \operatorname{len}(\operatorname{nil})$	def of len

### Example: Echo & Len Inductive Step (1/3)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S) **for any** S : List

**Inductive Step (**x :: L**)**:

Need to prove that len(echo(x :: L)) = 2 len(x :: L)

Get to assume claim holds for L, i.e., that len(echo(L)) = 2 len(L)

## Example: Echo & Len Inductive Step (2/3)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S) **for any** S : List

Inductive Hypothesis: assume that len(echo(L)) = 2 len(L)

```
Inductive Step (x :: L):
len(echo(x :: L))
```

## Example: Echo & Len Inductive Step (3/3)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** len(echo(S)) = 2 len(S) **for any** S : List

Inductive Hypothesis: assume that len(echo(L)) = 2 len(L)

```
Inductive Step (x :: L):

len(echo(x :: L)) = len(x :: x :: echo(L)) 	def of echo

= 1 + len(x :: echo(L)) 	def of len

= 2 + len(echo(L)) 	def of len

= 2 + 2 len(L) 	lnd. Hyp.

= 2(1 + len(L))

= 2 len(x :: L) 	def of len
```

- Stuck on a proof and...
  - the data type is *not* inductive? Try splitting into cases!
  - the data type *is* inductive? Try structural induction!

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• Suppose we have the following code:

```
const y = sum(S); // S is some List
const R = echo(S);
...
return 2*y; // = sum(echo(S))
```

- spec says to return sum(echo(S)) but code returns 2 sum(S)
- Need to prove that sum(echo(S)) = 2 sum(S)

#### Example 2: Echo & Sum Base Case (1/2)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** sum(echo(S)) = 2 sum(S) **for any** S : List

Base Case (nil):

sum(echo(nil)) =

= 2 sum(nil)

sum(nil) := 0sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)

#### Example 2: Echo & Sum Base Case (2/2)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** sum(echo(S)) = 2 sum(S) **for any** S : List

Base Case (nil):

<pre>sum(echo(nil))</pre>	= sum(nil)	def of echo
	= 0	def of sum
	$= 2 \cdot 0$	
	= 2 sum(nil)	def of sum

Inductive Step (x :: L):

Need to prove that sum(echo(x :: L)) = 2 sum(x :: L)Get to assume claim holds for L, i.e., that sum(echo(L)) = 2 sum(L)

# Example 2: Echo & Sum Inductive Step (1/2)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** sum(echo(S)) = 2 sum(S) **for any** S : List

**Inductive Hypothesis: assume that** sum(echo(L)) = 2 sum(L)

**Inductive Step (**x :: L):

sum(echo(x :: L)) =

= 2 sum(x :: L)

sum(nil) := 0sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)

# Example 2: Echo & Sum Inductive Step (2/2)

echo(nil) := nil echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)

• **Prove that** sum(echo(S)) = 2 sum(S) **for any** S : List

**Inductive Hypothesis**: assume that sum(echo(L)) = 2 sum(L)

```
Inductive Step (x :: L):sum(echo(x :: L)) = sum(x :: x :: echo(L))def of echo= x + sum(x :: echo(L))def of sum= 2x + sum(echo(L))def of sum= 2x + 2 sum(L)Ind. Hyp.= 2(x + sum(L))= 2 sum(x :: L)= 2 sum(x :: L)def of sum
```

sum(nil) := 0sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)

## **Recall: Concatenating Two Lists**

• Mathematical definition of concat(S, R)

concat(nil, R) := R concat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R)

important operation abbreviated as "#"

• Puts all the elements of L before those of R

def of concat def of concat def of concat

## **Example 3: Length of Concatenated Lists**

concat(nil, R) := R concat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R)) important operation abbreviated as "#"

• Suppose we have the following code:

const m = len(S); // S is some List
const n = len(R); // R is some List
...
return m + n; // = len(concat(S, R))

- spec returns len(concat(S, R)) but code returns len(S) + len(R)
- Need to prove that len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)

concat(nil, R) := Rconcat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R))

- **Prove that** len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)
  - prove by induction on  $\boldsymbol{S}$
  - prove the claim for any choice of R (i.e., R is a variable)

Base Case (nil):

len(concat(nil, R)) =

= len(nil) + len(R)

concat(nil, R) := Rconcat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R))

- **Prove that** len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)
  - prove by induction on  $\boldsymbol{S}$
  - prove the claim for any choice of R (i.e., R is a variable)

```
Base Case (nil):
```

len(concat(nil, R)) = len(R) def of concat= 0 + len(R)= len(nil) + len(R) def of len

## Example 3: Len & Concat Inductive Step (1/3)

concat(nil, R) := R concat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R))

• **Prove that** len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)

**Inductive Step** (x :: L):

Need to prove that

len(concat(x :: L, R)) = len(x :: L) + len(R)

Get to assume claim holds for L, i.e., that

len(concat(L, R)) = len(L) + len(R)

concat(nil, R) := Rconcat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R))

• **Prove that** len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)

Inductive Hypothesis: assume that len(concat(L, R)) = len(L) + len(R)

Inductive Step (x :: L):

len(concat(x :: L, R)) =

= len(x :: L) + len(R)

## Example 3: Len & Concat Inductive Step (3/3)

concat(nil, R) := Rconcat(x :: L, R) := x :: concat(L, R))

• **Prove that** len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)

**Inductive Hypothesis: assume that** len(concat(L, R)) = len(L) + len(R)

```
Inductive Step (x :: L):= len(x :: concat(L, R))def of concat= 1 + len(concat(L, R))= 1 + len(concat(L, R))def of len= 1 + len(L) + len(R)Ind. Hyp.= len(x :: L) + len(R)def of len
```

- Stuck on a proof and...
  - the data type is *not* inductive? Try splitting into cases!
  - the data type *is* inductive? Try structural induction!
- When using structural induction, consider
  - where can the inductive step be used?
    - the power of structural induction!
  - which variable should be inducted on?
  - definitions can be applied in *both* directions

# **Comparing Reasoning vs Testing**

```
const concat = (S: List, R: List): List => {
    if (S.kind === "nil") {
        return R;
    } else {
        return cons(S.hd, concat(S.tl, R));
    }
};
```

Testing: 3 cases

- loop coverage requires 0, 1, and many recursive calls

• Reasoning: 2 calculations

# Structural Induction ... Gone Wrong? (1/3)

allEqual(nil) := true allEqual(x :: nil) := true allEqual(x :: y :: L) := x = y and allEqual(y :: L)

• Claim: this function satisfies the above spec

```
const allEqual(S: List): boolean => {
   return true;
};
```

• **Need to prove that** allEqual(S) = true

# Structural Induction ... Gone Wrong? (2/3)

allEqual(nil) := true allEqual(x :: nil) := true allEqual(x :: y :: L) := x = y and allEqual(y :: L)

Base Case (nil):allEqual(nil) = truedef of allEqualBase Case (x :: nil):allEqual(x:: nil) = truedef of allEqual

Now, what if we got a bit sloppy? Inductive Hypothesis: assume that allEqual(S) = true for lists S

Inductive Step (x :: y :: L):inductive Step (x :: y :: L):y :: L is a list - so, allEqual(y :: L) = trueinductive hypothesisx :: y :: nil is a list - so allEqual(x :: y :: nil) = trueinductive hypothesisthus, x = ydefinition of allEqualallEqual(x :: y :: L) = truedefinition of allEqual

# Structural Induction ... Gone Wrong? (3/3)

allEqual(nil) := true allEqual(x :: nil) := true allEqual(x :: y :: L) := x = y and allEqual(y :: L)

Base Case (nil):	allEqual(nil) = true	def of allEqual
Base Case (x :: nil):	allEqual(x:: nil) = true	def of allEqual

Inductive Hypothesis: assume that allEqual(L) = true only applies to L

```
Inductive Step (x :: y :: L):
```

y :: L is a list – so, allEqual(y :: L) = true	not true!
x :: y :: nil is a list – so allEqual(x :: y :: nil) = true	not true!
thus, $x = y$	not true!
allEqual(x :: y :: L) = true	not true!

sum-acc(nil, r) := r sum-acc(x :: L, r) := sum-acc(L, x + r)

linear time

• Suppose we have the following code:

const s = sum\_acc(S, 0); // S is some List
...
return s; // = sum(S)

- spec says to return sum(S) but code returns sum-acc(S, 0)
- Need to prove that sum-acc(S, 0) = sum(S)
   will prove, more generally, that sum-acc(S, r) = sum(S) + r

## Example 4: Faster Sum Base Case (1/2)

sum-acc(nil, r) := r sum-acc(x :: L, r) := sum-acc(L, x + r)

- **Prove that** sum-acc(S, r) = sum(S) + r
  - prove by induction on  $\boldsymbol{S}$
  - prove the claim for any choice of r (i.e., r is a variable)

```
Base Case (nil):
```

sum-acc(nil, r) =

= sum(nil) + r

### Example 4: Faster Sum Base Case (2/2)

sum-acc(nil, r) := r sum-acc(x :: L, r) := sum-acc(L, x + r)

- **Prove that** sum-acc(S, r) = sum(S) + r
  - prove by induction on  $\boldsymbol{S}$
  - prove the claim for any choice of r (i.e., r is a variable)

```
Base Case (nil):
```

sum-acc(nil, r) = r def of sum-acc = 0 + r= sum(nil) + r def of sum

# Example 4: Faster Sum Inductive Step (1/3)

sum-acc(nil, r) := r sum-acc(x :: L, r) := sum-acc(L, x + r)

• **Prove that** sum-acc(S, r) = sum(S) + r

Inductive Step (x :: L):

Need to prove that

sum-acc(x :: L, r) = sum(x :: L) + r

Get to assume claim holds for L, i.e., that

sum-acc(L, r) = sum(L) + r holds for any r

# Example 4: Faster Sum Inductive Step (2/3)

sum-acc(nil, r) := r sum-acc(x :: L, r) := sum-acc(L, x + r)

• **Prove that** sum-acc(S, r) = sum(S) + r

**Inductive Hypothesis: assume that** sum-acc(L, r) = sum(L) + r

**Inductive Step (**x :: L**)**:

sum-acc(x :: L, r) =

= sum(x :: L) +r

## Example 4: Faster Sum Inductive Step (3/3)

sum-acc(nil, r) := r sum-acc(x :: L, r) := sum-acc(L, x + r)

• **Prove that** sum-acc(S, r) = sum(S) + r

**Inductive Hypothesis: assume that** sum-acc(L, r) = sum(L) + r

```
Inductive Step (x :: L):
```

```
sum-acc(x ::: L, r) = sum-acc(L, x + r) def of sum-acc

= sum(L) + x + r Ind. Hyp.

= x + sum(L) + r

= sum(x :: L) + r def of sum
```