

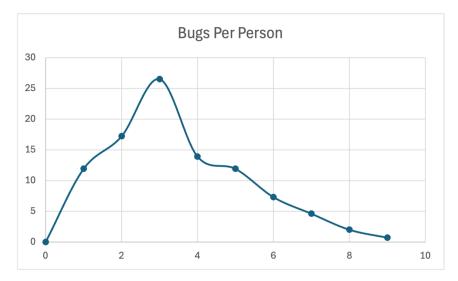
CSE 331

Reasoning

James Wilcox and Kevin Zatloukal

Summary of HW3

- Number of bugs logged:
 - average of 3.9 bugs per person



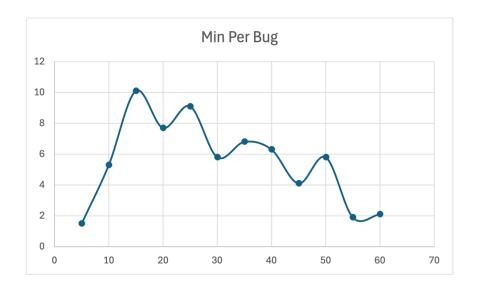
Average solution was 136 lines of code

(over-estimate)

- 1 bug every 35 lines of code
- 1 bug per 20–70 is normal even for professionals

Summary of HW3

- Time spent per bug:
 - average of 65 minutes per bug
 - 34% more than 1 hour



clearly a long tail to this distribution

some bugs take a very long time to find

Summary of HW3

- How many functions were searched
 - 60% of bugs searched more than one function
 - time require for debugging

1-2 functions 48 mins

3-4 functions 96 mins

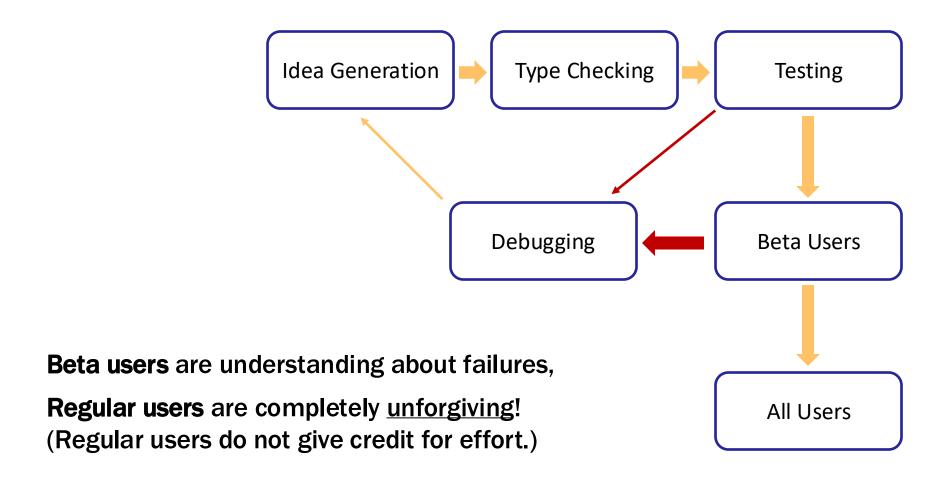
5-6 functions 151 min

- on average, every extra function meant 30 more mins
- Shrinking the search space helps a lot
 - defensive programming
 - unit tests
 - run-time type checking of request/responses
 wrong types guarantees the failure is in a different function

Software Development Process

Software Development Process

Given: a problem description (in English)

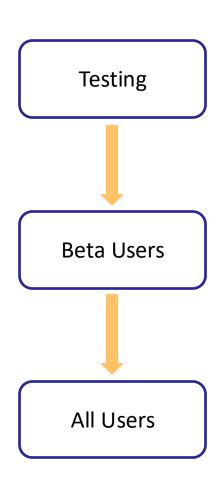


How Much Debugging?

- Bugs typed in... 1 per 20 lines
 - we saw 11 lines in HW1
 - should get to 20 lines when more familiar with setting
- Bugs after type checking... 1 per 40 lines
 - assume 50% caught by type checker (saw 41% in HW1)
 - matches industry estimates of 20-70 lines per bug
- Bugs after unit testing... 1 per 133 lines
 - assume 70% caught by unit testing
 optimistic: studies find about <70% are caught by unit testing
 - remaining bugs are sent to beta testers

How Much Debugging?

- 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 are 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 30 minutes for every additional function in HW3
 HW3 had 700 lines... industry programs will be 100,000 minimum

Productivity Estimate

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

5 hours

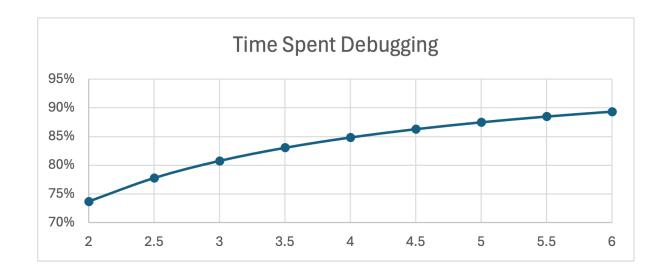
5 hours

14h hours

typing & fixing type errors

testing & fixing *unit* test failures

debugging & fixing bugs



What Else Can We Do?

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

5 hours

5 hours

5 hours

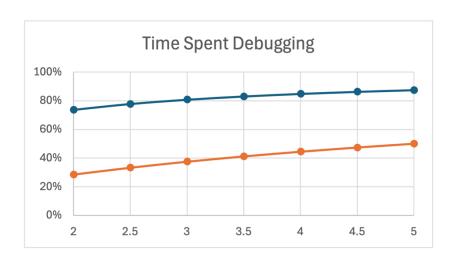
3h hours

typing & fixing type errors

?? **removes 11 bugs** ??

testing & fixing *unit* test failures

debugging & fixing bugs



even at h=5, debuggingnot the majority of timebottom programmer is2-3 times more productive

How Much Room For Improvement?

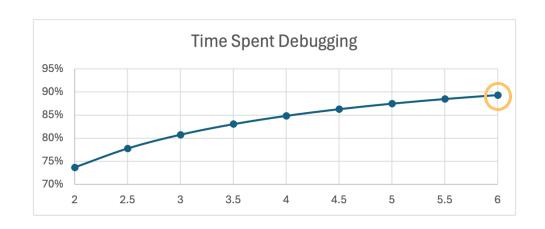
- Suppose we could...
 - remove all 14 bugs by the end of unit testing
 - in the same amount of time

plausible since fixing unit test failures involves debugging

5 hours typing & fixing type errors

3 hours ?? **removes 14 bugs** ??

2 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

"Engineers are paid to think and understand."

- Class slogan #1

Standard Techniques for Correctness

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 ("code review")

Comparing These Techniques

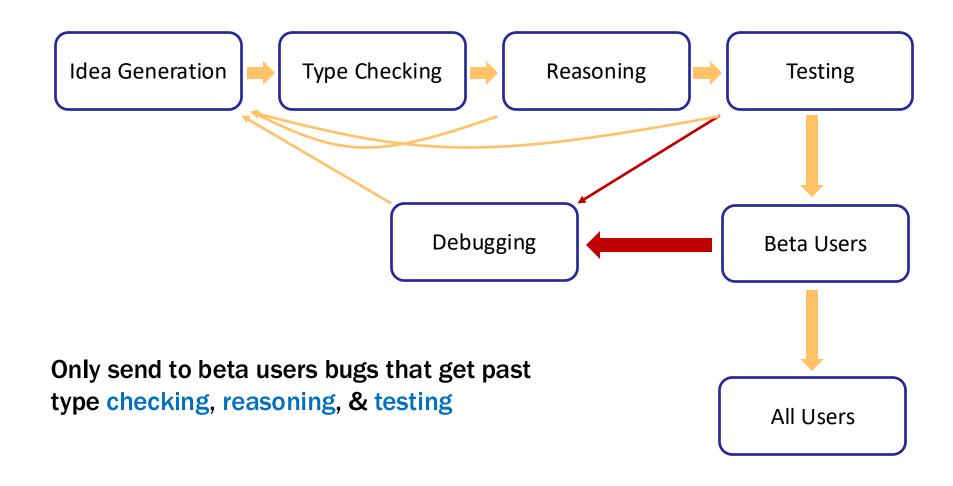
- Differ along some key dimensions
 - does it consider all allowed inputs
 - does it make sure the answer is fully correct ("=")

Technique	All Inputs	Fully Correct
Type Checker	✓	×
Testing	×	√
Reasoning	✓	✓

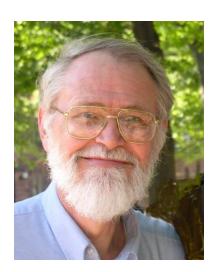
- Combination removes >97% of bugs
 - each tends to find different kinds of errors
 - e.g., type checker is good at typos & reasoning is not humans often skip right over typos when reading

Review: Software Development Process

Given: a problem description (in English)



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



Brian Kernighan

Reasoning is Expected

- 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!)

Unlikely to be Automated

- Reasoning & debugging are provably impossible for a computer to solve in all cases
- Current LLM error rates are much higher than humans
 - requires a human to do a lot of debugging starts with reading and understanding all the generated code... probably easier to rewrite it yourself
 - studies show far show little / no productivity improvement so far
 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
- Al is especially bad at reasoning
 - e.g., bad at learning formal properties
 - e.g., bad at catching rare cases

"These models have read every piece of code on Github, every StackOverflow question answer, every programming book, every tweet about coding, transcripts of every YouTube walkthrough and they still can't code as well as I can in every situation."

— Nat Friedman (former GitHub CEO)

Reasoning

- "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 steppingstone to informal reasoning (same core ideas) formal reasoning still needed for the hardest problems

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

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)

Specifications in TypeScript

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 @param and @requires
- postcondition written in @returns

Reasoning

Reasoning

- "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 steppingstone to informal reasoning (same core ideas) formal reasoning still needed for the hardest problems
- Definition of correctness comes from the specification...

Recall: 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

Facts

- 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 "≤"

At the return statement, we know these facts:

```
- n \in \mathbb{N} (or n \in \mathbb{Z} and n \ge 0)

- m = 2n
```

Facts

- 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

```
// 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 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) ≥ 0 "

Implications

- 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

Collecting Facts

- 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...

Mutation Makes Reasoning Harder

Description	Testing	Tools	Reasoning	
no mutation	full coverage	type checker	calculation induction	HW5
local variable mutation	u	u	Floyd logic	HW6
array mutation	u	u	for-any facts	HW8
heap state mutation	u	u	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
 - structural induction

Proof by Calculation

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 $z \le 10$

All together, this tells us that $x + z \le y + 10$

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

$$x + z = y + z$$
 since $x = y$
 $\leq y + 10$ 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 "≤" relates that line to the <u>previous</u> line

Calculation Blocks

Chain of "=" shows first = last

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

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

Calculation Blocks

Chain of "=" and "≤" shows <u>first</u> ≤ <u>last</u>

$$x + z = y + z$$
 since $x = y$
 $\leq y + 10$ since $z \leq 10$
 $= y + 3 + 7$
 $\leq w + 7$ since $y + 3 \leq w$

- each number is equal or strictly larger that previous
 last number is strictly larger than the first number
- analogous for "≥"

```
// 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
```

```
// 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 \ge x + 1 since y \ge 1

\ge 1 + 1 since x \ge 1

= 2

\ge 1
```

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

```
// 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
```

```
// 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

$$x + y \ge x + -8$$
 since $y \ge -8$
 $\ge 9 - 8$ since $x \ge 9$
 $= 1$

```
// 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

```
// 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
```

```
// 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 \ge x + 5 since y \ge 5

\ge 4 + 5 since x \ge 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) := 0
sum(x :: L) := x + sum(L)
```

- Can cite facts such as
 - sum(nil) = 0
 - sum(a :: b :: nil) = a + sum(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

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

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

```
sum(L)
```

Using Definitions in Calculations

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

- Know " $a \ge 0$ ", " $b \ge 0$ ", 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 + bdef of sum\geq 0 + bsince a \geq 0\geq 0since b \geq 0
```

```
// 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: " $y \le -1$ "

```
x + y
```

```
// 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: " $y \le -1$ "

```
x + y \le x + -1 since y \le -1

< x + 0 since -1 < 0

= x
```

```
// 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

```
// 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
 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 x
 - follows since the cases are exhaustive

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

Example Proof By Cases

$$f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$$

$$f(m) := 2m + 1 \qquad \text{if } m \ge 0$$

$$f(m) := 0 \qquad \text{if } m < 0$$

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

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

• Prove that f(m) > m

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

> m

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

• Prove that f(m) > m

Case $m \ge 0$:

$$f(m) = 2m + 1 \qquad \qquad \text{def of } f \text{ (since } m \ge 0)$$

$$\ge m + 1 \qquad \qquad \text{since } m \ge 0$$

$$> m \qquad \qquad \text{since } 1 > 0$$

$$f(m) := 2m + 1 \qquad \qquad \text{if } m \ge 0$$

$$f(m) := 0 \qquad \qquad \text{if } m < 0$$

• Prove that f(m) > m

Case $m \ge 0$:

$$f(m) = ... > m$$

Case m < 0:

$$f(m) = 0 \qquad \qquad \text{def of } f \text{ (since } m < 0)$$

$$> m \qquad \qquad \text{since } m < 0$$

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

HW4-6

In HW1–3, you

- learned the structure of modern applications (UIs & servers)
 will be useful to know for just about any programming job
- experience what happens when bugs appear as failures
 lots of debugging

In HW4–6, you

- will learn how to ensure code is correct before you run it
- experience what it is like not allow bugs to become failures
- each HW is split into written and coding
 goal is to do the thinking to ensure it works the first time
 (give you the opportunity to fix it up if you do make mistakes)

Recall Correctness with No Mutation

- Proving implications is the core step of reasoning
 - other techniques output implications for us to prove
- Core technique is "proof by calculation"
- Other techniques we will need:
 - proof by cases
 - structural induction

Structural Induction

Proof by Calculation

- 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...

Example: Repeating List Elements

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)
= 1 :: 1 :: echo(2 :: nil)
= 1 :: 1 :: 2 :: 2 :: echo(nil)
= 1 :: 1 :: 2 :: 2 :: nil

def of echo
def of echo
```

Example: Repeating List Elements

```
echo(nil) := nil

echo(x :: L) := x :: x :: echo(L)
```

Suppose we have the following code:

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

Proof by Calculation

- Our proofs so far have used fixed-length lists
 - **e.g.**, sum(a :: b :: nil) \ge 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

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)

- x and L are variables
- use any known facts and definitions plus one more fact...
- make use of the fact that L is also a List

Structural Induction

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 This Works

With Structural Induction, we prove two facts

```
P(nil) \qquad len(echo(nil)) = 2 len(nil) \\ P(x :: L) \qquad 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?

Why This Works

Build up an object using constructors:

nil

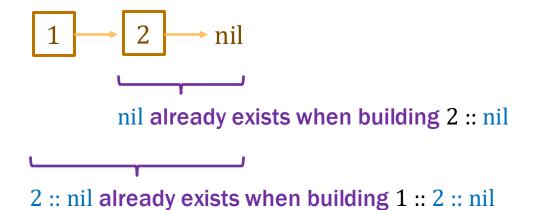
2 :: nil

1 :: 2 :: nil

first constructor

second constructor

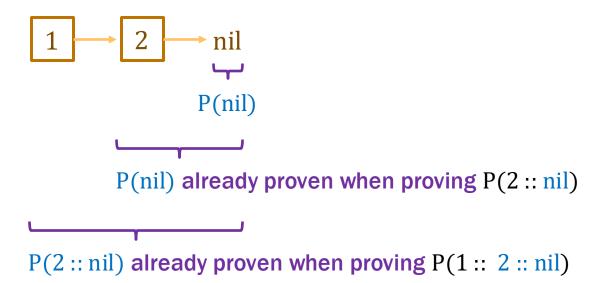
second constructor



Why This Works

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

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



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

```
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 len(nil) def of len
```

```
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)

```
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(nil) := 0
len(x :: L) := 1 + len(L) = 2 len(x :: L)
```

```
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)
```

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

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

Suppose we have the following code:

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

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

```
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)) = sum(nil) def of echo
= 0 def of sum
= 2 \cdot 0
= 2 sum(nil) def of sum
```

```
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)
```

```
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 \operatorname{sum}(x :: L)
```

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

```
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)
```

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

Recall: Concatenating Two Lists

Mathematical definition of concat(S, R)

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

Puts all the elements of L before those of R

```
concat(1 :: 2 :: nil, 3 :: 4 :: nil)
= 1 :: concat(2 :: nil, 3 :: 4 :: nil)
= 1 :: 2 :: concat(nil, 3 :: 4 :: nil)
= 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: 4 :: nil

def of concat

def of concat
```

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

Suppose we have the following code:

- 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) := R

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

- Prove that len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)
 - prove by induction on 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) := R

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

- Prove that len(concat(S, R)) = len(S) + len(R)
 - prove by induction on 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
```

$$concat(nil, R) := R$$

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

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) := R

concat(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)
```

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

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

```
concat(nil, R) := R

concat(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)
```

```
len(concat(x :: L, R)) = len(x :: concat(L, R)) 
= 1 + len(concat(L, R)) 
= 1 + len(L) + len(R) 
= len(x :: L) + len(R) 
= def of concat 
= 1 + len(L) + len(R) 
= len(x :: L) + len(R) 
= def of len
```

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

```
sum-acc(nil, r) := r

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

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

```
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 S
 - prove the claim for any choice of r (i.e., r is a variable)

```
Base Case (nil):

sum-acc(nil, r) =
```

$$= sum(nil) + r$$

```
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 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
```

$$sum-acc(nil, r) := r$$

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

• 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

```
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) =
```

$$= sum(x :: L) + r$$

```
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
```

```
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
```