

Equational Reasoning about Functional Programs

Lecture 12 of CSE 3100
Functional Programming

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*“Beware of bugs in the
above code; I have only
proved it correct, not tried
it.”*

– Donald Knuth

Lecture plan

- The identity type
- Equational reasoning in Agda
- Applications of equational reasoning:
 - Proving type class laws
 - Verifying optimizations
 - Verifying compiler correctness

Recap: the Curry-Howard correspondence



Haskell B. Curry

*We can interpret logical propositions ($A \wedge B$, $\neg A$, $A \Rightarrow B$, ...) as the **types** of all their possible proofs.*

In particular: A false proposition has no proofs, so it corresponds to an **empty type**.

Recap: the Curry-Howard correspondence

We interpret propositions as the **types** of their proofs:

Propositional logic		Type system
proposition	P	type
proof of a proposition	$p : P$	program of a type
conjunction	$P \times Q$	pair type
disjunction	Either $P\ Q$	either type
implication	$P \rightarrow Q$	function type
truth	\top	unit type
falsity	\perp	empty type
universal quantification	$(x : A) \rightarrow P\ x$	dependent function type
existential quantification	Σ $A\ (\lambda x \rightarrow P\ x)$	dependent pair type

The identity type

The identity type

The type `IsTrue` encodes the property of being equal to `true` : `Bool`:

```
data IsTrue : Bool → Set where  
  is-true : IsTrue true
```

We can generalize this to the property of two elements of some type `A` being equal:

```
data _≡_ {A : Set} : A → A → Set where  
  refl : {x : A} → x ≡ x
```

Using the identity type

If x and y are equal, $x \equiv y$ has one constructor
`refl`:

`one-plus-one` : $1 + 1 \equiv 2$

`one-plus-one` = `refl`

If x and y are not equal, $x \equiv y$ is an empty type:

`zero-not-one` : $0 \equiv 1 \rightarrow \perp$

`zero-not-one` ()

Application of the identity type:

Writing test cases

One use case of the identity type is for writing test cases:

$\text{test}_1 : \text{length } (42 :: []) \equiv 1$

$\text{test}_1 = \text{refl}$

$\text{test}_2 : \text{length } (\text{map } (1 + _) (0 :: 1 :: 2 :: [])) \equiv 3$

$\text{test}_2 = \text{refl}$

The test cases are run **each time the file is loaded!**

Proving correctness of functions

We can use the identity type to prove the correctness of functional programs.

Example. Prove that $\text{not} (\text{not } b) \equiv b$ for all $b : \text{Bool}$:

$\text{not-not} : (b : \text{Bool}) \rightarrow \text{not} (\text{not } b) \equiv b$

$\text{not-not } \text{true} = \text{refl}$

$\text{not-not } \text{false} = \text{refl}$

Quiz question

Question. What is the type of the Agda expression $\lambda b \rightarrow (b \equiv \text{true})$?

1. $\text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
2. $\text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}$
3. $(b : \text{Bool}) \rightarrow \text{IsTrue } b$
4. $(b : \text{Bool}) \rightarrow b \equiv \text{true}$

Pattern matching on `refl`

If we have a proof of $x \equiv y$ as input, we can **pattern match** on the constructor `refl` to show Agda that x and y are equal:

```
castVec : {A : Set} {m n : Nat} →  
  m ≡ n → Vec A m → Vec A n  
castVec refl xs = xs
```

When you pattern match on `refl`, Agda applies **unification** to the two sides of the equality.

Symmetry of equality

Symmetry states that if x is equal to y , then y is equal to x :

```
sym : {A : Set} {x y : A} → x ≡ y → y ≡ x  
sym refl = refl
```

Congruence

Congruence states that if $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a function and x is equal to y , then $f x$ is equal to $f y$:

```
cong : {A B : Set} {x y : A} →  
      (f : A → B) → x ≡ y → f x ≡ f y  
cong f refl = refl
```

Equational reasoning

Equational reasoning

In school, we learned how to prove equations by chaining basic equalities:

$$\begin{aligned} & (a + b) (a + b) \\ = & a (a + b) + b (a + b) \\ = & a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 \\ = & a^2 + ab + ab + b^2 \\ = & a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \end{aligned}$$

This style of proving is called **equational reasoning**.

Equational reasoning about functional programs

Equational reasoning is well suited for proving things about **pure** functions:

```
head (replicate 100 "spam")  
= head ("spam" : replicate 99 "spam")  
= "spam"
```

Because there are no side effects, everything is explicit in the program itself.

Equational reasoning in Agda

Consider the following definitions:

$[_] : \{A : \text{Set}\} \rightarrow A \rightarrow \text{List } A$

$[x] = x :: []$

$\text{reverse} : \{A : \text{Set}\} \rightarrow \text{List } A \rightarrow \text{List } A$

$\text{reverse } [] = []$

$\text{reverse } (x :: xs) = \text{reverse } xs ++ [x]$

Goal. Prove that $\text{reverse } [x] = [x]$.

Example 'on paper'

```
reverse [ x ]  
=      { definition of [_] }  
reverse (x :: [])  
=      { applying reverse (second clause) }  
reverse [] ++ [ x ]  
=      { applying reverse (first clause) }  
[] ++ [ x ]  
=      { applying _++_ }  
[ x ]
```

Example in Agda

```
reverse-singleton : {A : Set} (x : A) → reverse [ x ] ≡ [ x ]
reverse-singleton x =
  begin
    reverse [ x ]
  =⟨⟩ - definition of [_]
    reverse (x :: [])
  =⟨⟩ - applying reverse (second clause)
    reverse [] ++ [ x ]
  =⟨⟩ - applying reverse (first clause)
    [] ++ [ x ]
  =⟨⟩ - applying _++_
    [ x ]
  end
```

Equational reasoning in Agda

We can write down an equality proof in **equational reasoning style** in Agda:

- The proof starts with **begin** and ends with **end**.
- In between is a sequence of expressions separated by **=⟨⟩**, where each expression is equal to the previous one.

Unlike the proof on paper, here the typechecker of Agda **guarantees** that each step of the proof is correct!

Behind the scenes

Each proof by equational reasoning can be desugared to **refl** (and **trans**).

Example.

```
reverse-singleton : {A : Set} (x : A) →  
  reverse [ x ] ≡ [ x ]  
reverse-singleton x = refl
```

However, proofs by equational reasoning are much easier to read and debug.

Proof by case analysis and induction

Equational reasoning + case analysis

We can use equational reasoning in a proof by **case analysis** (i.e. pattern matching):

`not-not : (b : Bool) → not (not b) ≡ b`

`not-not false =`

`begin`

`not (not false)`

`=⟨⟩` - applying the inner not

`not true`

`=⟨⟩` - applying not

`false`

`end`

`not-not true = {!!}` - similar to above

Equational reasoning + induction

We can use equational reasoning in a proof by **induction**:

`add-n-zero : (n : Nat) → n + zero ≡ n`

`add-n-zero zero = {!!}` - easy exercise

`add-n-zero (suc n) =`

`begin`

`(suc n) + zero`

`=⟨⟩` - applying +

`suc (n + zero)`

`=⟨ cong suc (add-n-zero n) ⟩` - using IH

`suc n`

`end`

Here we have to provide an **explicit proof** that `suc (n + zero) = suc n` (between the `=⟨` and `⟩`).

Live coding (live proving?)

Exercise. State and prove associativity of addition on natural numbers:

$$x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$$

Hint. If you get stuck, try to work instead backwards from the goal you want to reach!

Application 1: Proving type class laws

Reminder: functor laws

Remember the two **functor laws** from Haskell:

- $\text{fmap id} = \text{id}$
- $\text{fmap } (f \cdot g) = \text{fmap } f \cdot \text{fmap } g$

In Haskell we could only verify these laws by hand for each instance, but in Agda we can **prove** that they hold.

First functor law for **List** (base case)

$\text{map-id} : \{A : \text{Set}\} (xs : \text{List } A) \rightarrow \text{map id } xs \equiv xs$

$\text{map-id } [] =$

begin

map id []

= $\langle \rangle$ - applying map

[]

end

First functor law for **List** (inductive case)

```
map-id (x :: xs) =  
  begin  
    map id (x :: xs)  
  =⟨⟩                                - applying map  
    id x :: map id xs  
  =⟨⟩                                - applying id  
    x :: map id xs  
  =⟨ cong (x ::_) (map-id xs) ⟩ - using IH  
    x :: xs  
end
```

More live proving

Exercise. Prove the second functor law for `List`.

First, we need to define function composition:¹

$$\begin{aligned} _ \circ _ &: \{A\ B\ C : \text{Set}\} \rightarrow \\ &\quad (B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C) \\ f \circ g &= \lambda x \rightarrow f(g\ x) \end{aligned}$$

Now we can prove that

$$\text{map } (f \circ g) \ x = (\text{map } f \circ \text{map } g) \ x.$$

¹Unicode input for `o`: `\circ`

Application 2: Verifying optimizations

Reminder: working with accumulators

A slow version of `reverse` in $O(n^2)$:

```
reverse : {A : Set} → List A → List A
reverse [] = []
reverse (x :: xs) = reverse xs ++ [ x ]
```

A faster version of `reverse` in $O(n)$:

```
reverse-acc : {A : Set} → List A → List A → List A
reverse-acc [] ys = ys
reverse-acc (x :: xs) ys = reverse-acc xs (x :: ys)

reverse' : {A : Set} → List A → List A
reverse' xs = reverse-acc xs []
```

How can we be sure they are equivalent? **By proving it!**

Equivalence of `reverse` and `reverse'`

```
reverse'-reverse : {A : Set} →  
  (xs : List A) → reverse' xs ≡ reverse xs  
reverse'-reverse xs =  
  begin  
    reverse' xs  
=⟨  
  reverse-acc xs []  
=⟨ reverse-acc-lemma xs [] ⟩ - (see next slide)  
  reverse xs ++ []  
=⟨ append-[] (reverse xs) ⟩ - using append-[]  
  reverse xs  
end
```

Proving the lemma (base case)

```
reverse-acc-lemma : {A : Set} → (xs ys : List A)
  → reverse-acc xs ys ≡ reverse xs ++ ys
reverse-acc-lemma [] ys =
  begin
    reverse-acc [] ys
  =⟨⟩ - definition of reverse-acc
    ys
  =⟨⟩ - unapplying ++
    [] ++ ys
  =⟨⟩ - unapplying reverse
    reverse [] ++ ys
  end
```

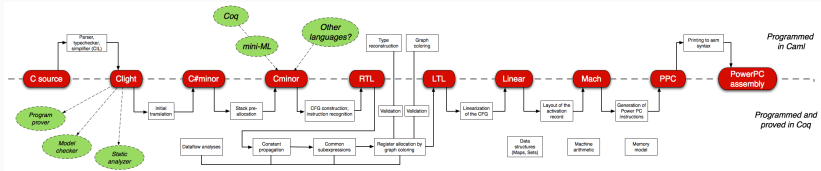
Proving the lemma (inductive case)

```
reverse-acc-lemma (x :: xs) ys =  
  begin  
    reverse-acc (x :: xs) ys  
  =⟨⟩                                - def of reverse-acc  
    reverse-acc xs (x :: ys)  
  =⟨ reverse-acc-lemma xs (x :: ys) ⟩  
    reverse xs ++ (x :: ys)          - ^ using IH  
  =⟨⟩                                - unapplying ++  
    reverse xs ++ ([ x ] ++ ys)  
  =⟨ sym (append-assoc (reverse xs) [ x ] ys) ⟩  
    (reverse xs ++ [ x ]) ++ ys      - ^ associativity of ++  
  =⟨⟩                                - unapplying reverse  
    reverse (x :: xs) ++ ys  
  end
```

Application 3: Proving compiler correctness

Real-world application: The CompCert C compiler

CompCert is an optimizing compiler for C code, which is **formally proven to be correct** according to the semantics of the C language, using the dependently typed language Coq.



To learn more: <https://compcert.org/>

A simple expression language

data Expr : Set **where**

valE : Nat \rightarrow Expr

addE : Expr \rightarrow Expr \rightarrow Expr

– Example expr: (2 + 3) + 4

expr : Expr

expr = addE (addE (valE 2) (valE 3)) (valE 4)

eval : Expr \rightarrow Nat

eval (valE x) = x

eval (addE e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2

Evaluating expressions using a stack

```
data Op : Set where  
  PUSH : Nat → Op  
  ADD   : Op
```

```
Stack = List Nat  
Code  = List Op
```

```
- Example code for (2 + 3) + 4  
code : Code  
code = PUSH 2 :: PUSH 3 :: ADD  
      :: PUSH 4 :: ADD :: []
```


Executing compiled code

Given a list of instructions and an initial stack, we can execute the code:

$\text{exec} : \text{Code} \rightarrow \text{Stack} \rightarrow \text{Stack}$

$\text{exec } [] \quad s \quad = s$

$\text{exec } (\text{PUSH } x :: c) \quad s \quad = \text{exec } c \quad (x :: s)$

$\text{exec } (\text{ADD} :: c) \quad (m :: n :: s) = \text{exec } c \quad (n + m :: s)$

$\text{exec } (\text{ADD} :: c) \quad _ \quad = []$

Compiling expressions

Goal. Compile an expression to a list of stack instructions.

A first attempt.

```
comp : Expr → Code  
comp (valE x)      = [ PUSH x ]  
comp (addE e1 e2) =  
    comp e1 ++ comp e2 ++ [ ADD ]
```

Problem. This is very inefficient ($O(n^2)$) due to the repeated use of `_++_`!

Compiling with an accumulator

Problem. This is very inefficient ($O(n^2)$) due to the repeated use of `_++_`!

Instead, we can use an **accumulator** for the already generated code:

```
comp' : Expr → Code → Code
comp' (valE x)      c = PUSH x :: c
comp' (addE e1 e2) c =
  comp' e1 (comp' e2 (ADD :: c))

comp : Expr → Code
comp e = comp' e []
```

Proving correctness of `comp`

We want to prove that executing the compiled code has the same result as evaluating the expression directly:

```
comp-exec-eval : (e : Expr) → exec (comp e) [] ≡ [ eval e ]
comp-exec-eval e =
  begin
    exec (comp e) []
  =⟨ comp'-exec-eval e [] [] ⟩ - (see next slide)
    exec [] (eval e :: [])
  =⟨                                     - applying exec for []
    eval e :: []
  =⟨                                     - unapplying [_]
    [ eval e ]
  end
```

Proving correctness of `comp'` (`valE` case)

```
comp'-exec-eval : (e : Expr) (s : Stack) (c : Code)
  → exec (comp' e c) s ≡ exec c (eval e :: s)
comp'-exec-eval (valE x) s c =
  begin
    exec (comp' (valE x) c) s
  =⟨⟩ - applying comp'
    exec (PUSH x :: c) s
  =⟨⟩ - applying exec for PUSH
    exec c (x :: s)
  =⟨⟩ - unapplying eval for valE
    exec c (eval (valE x) :: s)
  end
```

Proving correctness of `comp'` (`addE` case)

```
comp'-exec-eval (addE e1 e2) s c =  
  begin  
    exec (comp' (addE e1 e2) c) s  
  =⟨ - def of comp'   
    exec (comp' e1 (comp' e2 (ADD :: c))) s  
  =⟨ comp'-exec-eval e1 s (comp' e2 (ADD :: c)) ⟩ - IH  
    exec (comp' e2 (ADD :: c)) (eval e1 :: s)  
  =⟨ comp'-exec-eval e2 (eval e1 :: s) (ADD :: c) ⟩ - IH  
    exec (ADD :: c) (eval e2 :: eval e1 :: s)  
  =⟨ - applying exec for ADD  
    exec c (eval e1 + eval e2 :: s)  
  =⟨ - unapplying eval for addE  
    exec c (eval (addE e1 e2) :: s)  
  end
```

Equational reasoning: summary

Equational reasoning is a simple but powerful technique to reason about pure functional programs.

We can write Agda proofs in equational reasoning style by using the combinators **begin**, **end**, $_=\langle \rangle_$, and $_=\langle _ \rangle_$.

Equational reasoning combines well with **case analysis** (= pattern matching) and **induction** (= recursion).

What's next?

Final lecture: Course recap + preparation for exam

To do:

- Read the lecture notes:
 - This lecture: section 4 of Agda lecture notes
- Do exercises on equational reasoning in Weblab
- Send me topics or questions for the final lecture!