PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES: FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING 5. PROGRAM CALCULATION: WORK LESS BY PROMISING MORE

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CORRECT BY CONSTRUCTION

Dijkstra: "The only effective way to raise the confidence level of a program significantly is to give a convincing proof of its correctness. But one should not first make the program and then prove its correctness, because then the requirement of providing the proof would only increase the poor programmer's burden. On the contrary: the programmer should ..."

"...[let] correctness proof and program grow hand in hand: with the choice of the structure of the correctness proof one designs a program for which this proof is applicable."

DERIVING PROGRAMS FROM SPECIFICATIONS

- In functional program derivation, the specification itself is a function, albeit probably not an efficient one.
- From the specification we construct a function that equals the specification.
- · The calculation is the proof.
- In the previous class to proceed by expanding and reducing the definitions, until we obtain an inductive definition of the specification.
- · But that does not work all the time.
- In this lecture we review some techniques that might work for more cases.

TUPLING

STEEP LISTS

• A steep list is a list in which every element is larger than the sum of those to its right:

```
steep :: List Int \rightarrow Bool
steep [] = True
steep (x : xs) = steep xs \land x > sum xs.
```

- The definition above, if executed directly, is an $O(n^2)$ program. Can we do better?
- Just now we learned to construct a generalised function which takes more input. This time, we try the dual technique: to construct a function returning more results.

GENERALISE BY RETURNING MORE

- Recall that fst(a,b) = a and snd(a,b) = b.
- It is hard to quickly compute steep alone. But if we define steepsum xs = (steep xs, sum xs),
- and manage to synthesise a quick definition of steepsum, we can implement steep by steep = fst · steepsum.
- We again proceed by case analysis. Trivially,
 steepsum [] = (True, 0).

For the case for non-empty inputs: steepsum(x:xs)

```
steepsum (x : xs)
= { definition of steepsum }
  (steep (x : xs), sum (x : xs))
```

```
steepsum (x : xs)
= { definition of steepsum }
  (steep (x : xs), sum (x : xs))
= { definitions of steep and sum }
  (steep xs \lambda x > sum xs, x + sum xs)
```

```
steepsum (x : xs)
= { definition of steepsum }
  (steep (x : xs), sum (x : xs))
= { definitions of steep and sum }
  (steep xs \wedge x > sum xs, x + sum xs)
= { extracting sub-expressions involving xs }
let (b,y) = (steep xs, sum xs)
in (b \wedge x > y, x + y)
```

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    let (b, y) = (steep xs, sum xs)
    in (b \land x > y, x + y)
= { definition of steepsum }
    let (b, y) = steepsum xs
    in (b \land x > y, x + y).
```

SYNTHESISED PROGRAM

• We have thus come up with a O(n) time program:

```
steep = fst \cdot steepsum

steepsum [] = (True, 0)

steepsum (x : xs) = let (b, y) = steepsum xs

in (b \land x > y, x + y),
```

 Again we observe the phenomena that a more general function is easier to implement.

ACCUMULATING PARAMETERS

REVERSING A LIST

· The function reverse is defined by:

```
reverse [] = [],
reverse (x : xs) = reverse xs ++[x].
```

- E.g. reverse [1,2,3,4] = ((([] ++[4]) ++[3]) ++[2]) ++[1] = [4,3,2,1].
- But how about its time complexity? Since (++) is O(n), it takes $O(n^2)$ time to revert a list this way.
- · Can we make it faster?

INTRODUCING AN ACCUMULATING PARAMETER

• Let us consider a generalisation of reverse. Define:

revcat ::
$$[a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

revcat xs ys = reverse xs ++ ys.

• If we can construct a fast implementation of *revcat*, we can implement *reverse* by:

$$reverse xs = revcat xs [].$$

Let us use our old trick. Consider the case when xs is []: revcat [] ys

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[] ++ ys
```

Let us use our old trick. Consider the case when xs is []:

```
revcat [] ys
= { definition of revcat }
reverse [] ++ ys
= { definition of reverse }
[] ++ ys
= { definition of (++) }
ys.
```

```
Case x : xs:

revcat(x : xs) ys
```

```
Case x : xs:
    revcat (x : xs) ys
= { definition of revcat }
    reverse (x : xs) ++ ys
= { definition of reverse }
    (reverse xs ++[x]) ++ ys
```

```
Case x : xs:
         revcat (x : xs) ys
     = { definition of revcat }
         reverse (x : xs) + ys
     = { definition of reverse }
         (reverse xs ++[x]) ++ ys
     = \{ since (xs ++ ys) ++ zs = xs ++ (ys ++ zs) \}
         reverse xs ++([x] ++ ys)
     = { definition of revcat }
         revcat xs(x:ys).
```

LINEAR-TIME LIST REVERSAL

 We have therefore constructed an implementation of revcat which runs in linear time!

```
revcat[] ys = ys

revcat(x:xs) ys = revcat xs(x:ys).
```

- A generalisation of reverse is easier to implement than reverse itself? How come?
- If you try to understand revcat operationally, it is not difficult to see how it works.
 - The partially reverted list is accumulated in ys.
 - The initial value of ys is set by reverse xs = revcat xs [].
 - · Hmm... it is like a loop, isn't it?

TRACING REVERSE

```
reverse [1, 2, 3, 4]

= revcat [1, 2, 3, 4] []

= revcat [2, 3, 4] [1]

= revcat [3, 4] [2, 1]

= revcat [4] [3, 2, 1]

= revcat [] [4, 3, 2, 1]

= [4, 3, 2, 1]

reverse xs = revcat xs []

reverse xs = revcat xs []

revcat (x : xs) ys = revcat xs (x : ys)

revcat (x : xs) ys = revcat xs (x : ys)

revcat (x : xs) ys = revcat xs (x : ys)

revcat (x : xs) ys = revcat xs []

xs, ys \leftarrow xs, [];

while xs \neq [] do

xs, ys \leftarrow (tail xs), (head xs : ys);

return ys
```

TAIL RECURSION

• Tail recursion: a special case of recursion in which the last operation is the recursive call.

$$f x_1 \dots x_n = \{ \text{base case} \}$$

 $f x_1 \dots x_n = f x'_1 \dots x'_n$

- To implement general recursion, we need to keep a stack of return addresses. For tail recursion, we do not need such a stack.
- Tail recursive definitions are like loops. Each x_i is updated to x_i' in the next iteration of the loop.
- The first call to f sets up the initial values of each x_i .

ACCUMULATING PARAMETERS

• To efficiently perform a computation (e.g. *reverse xs*), we introduce a generalisation with an extra parameter, e.g.:

```
revcat xs ys = reverse xs ++ ys.
```

- Try to derive an efficient implementation of the generalised function. The extra parameter is usually used to "accumulate" some results, hence the name.
 - To make the accumulation work, we usually need some kind of associativity.
- A technique useful for, but not limited to, constructing tail-recursive definition of functions.

• Recall the "sum of squares" problem:

```
sumsq[] = 0

sumsq(x:xs) = square x + sumsq xs.
```

 The program still takes linear space (for the stack of return addresses). Let us construct a tail recursive auxiliary function.

```
• Introduce ssp xs n = .
```

- Initialisation: sumsq xs =
- Construct ssp:

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- Introduce ssp xs n = sumsq xs + n.
- Initialisation: sumsq xs = ssp xs 0.
- · Construct ssp:

$$ssp[] n = 0 + n = n$$

 $ssp(x:xs) n = (square x + sumsq xs) + n$
 $= sumsq xs + (square x + n)$
 $= ssp xs (square x + n).$

BEING QUICKER BY DOING MORE?

- A more generalised program can be implemented more efficiently?
 - A common phenomena! Sometimes the less general function cannot be implemented inductively at all!
 - It also often happens that a theorem needs to be generalised to be proved. We will see that later.
- An obvious question: how do we know what generalisation to pick?
- There is no easy answer finding the right generalisation one of the most difficulty act in programming!
- For the past few examples, we choose the generalisation to exploit associativity.
- Sometimes we simply generalise by examining the form of the formula.

LABELLING A LIST

 Consider the task of labelling elements in a list with its index.

```
index :: List a \rightarrow List (Int, a)
index = zip [0..]
```

• To construct an inductive definition, the case for [] is easy. For the x : xs case:

```
index (x : xs)
= zip [0..] (x : xs)
= (0,x) : zip [1..] xs
```

- · Alas, zip [1..] cannot be fold back to index!
- What if we turn the varying part into...a variable?

LABELLING A LIST, SECOND ATTEMPT

• Introduce $idxFrom :: List \ a \rightarrow Int \rightarrow List \ (Int, a):$ $idxFrom \ xs \ n = zip \ [n..] \ xs$

Initialisation: index xs =

LABELLING A LIST, SECOND ATTEMPT

• Introduce $idxFrom :: List \ a \rightarrow Int \rightarrow List \ (Int, a):$ $idxFrom \ xs \ n = zip \ [n..] \ xs$

• Initialisation: index xs = idxFrom xs 0.

LABELLING A LIST, SECOND ATTEMPT

• Introduce $idxFrom :: List \ a \rightarrow Int \rightarrow List \ (Int, a):$ $idxFrom \ xs \ n = zip \ [n..] \ xs$

- Initialisation: index xs = idxFrom xs 0.
- · We reason:

```
idxFrom (x : xs) n
= zip [n..] (x : xs)
= (n,x) : zip [n + 1..] xs
= (n,x) : idxFrom xs (n + 1)
```

PROOF BY STRENGTHENING

SUMMING UP A LIST IN REVERSE

- Prove: sum · reverse = sum, using the definition reverse xs = revcat xs []. That is, proving sum (revcat xs []) = sum xs.
- Base case trivial. For the case x : xs:

```
sum (reverse (x : xs))
= sum (revcat (x : xs) [])
= sum (revcat xs [x])
```

- Then we are stuck, since we cannot use the induction hypothesis sum (revcat xs []) = sum xs.
- · Again, generalise [x] to a variable.

· Second attempt: prove a lemma:

$$sum(revcat xs ys) =$$

• By letting ys = [] we get the previous property.

· Second attempt: prove a lemma:

$$sum(revcat xs ys) = sum xs + sum ys$$

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$$sum(revcat xs ys) = sum xs + sum ys$$

- By letting ys = [] we get the previous property.
- For the case x : xs we reason:

```
sum (revcat (x : xs) ys)
```

$$sum(revcat xs ys) = sum xs + sum ys$$

- By letting ys = [] we get the previous property.
- For the case x : xs we reason:

```
sum (revcat (x : xs) ys)
= sum (revcat xs (x : ys))
```

```
sum(revcat xs ys) = sum xs + sum ys
```

- By letting ys = [] we get the previous property.
- For the case x : xs we reason:

```
sum (revcat (x : xs) ys)
= sum (revcat xs (x : ys))
= { induction hypothesis }
sum xs + sum (x : ys)
```

```
sum(revcat xs ys) = sum xs + sum ys
```

- By letting ys = [] we get the previous property.
- For the case x : xs we reason:

```
sum (revcat (x : xs) ys)
= sum (revcat xs (x : ys))
= { induction hypothesis }
sum xs + sum (x : ys)
= sum xs + x + sum ys
= sum (x : xs) + sum ys
```

WORK LESS BY PROVING MORE

- · A stronger theorem is easier to prove! Why is that?
- By strengthening the theorem, we also have a stronger induction hypothesis, which makes an inductive proof possible.
 - Finding the right generalisation is an art it's got to be strong enough to help the proof, yet not too strong to be provable.
- The same with programming. By generalising a function with additional arguments, it is passed more information it may use, thus making an inductive definition possible.
 - The speeding up of revcat, in retrospect, is an accidental "side effect" — revcat, being inductive, goes through the list only once, and is therefore quicker.

A REAL CASE

· A property I actually had to prove for a paper:

```
smsp (trim (x : xs)) = smsp (trim (x : win xs))

\Leftarrow smsp (trim (x : xs)) >_d mds xs
```

• It took me a week to construct the right generalisation:

```
smsp (trim (zs ++ xs)) = smsp (trim (zs ++ win xs))

\Leftarrow smsp (trim (zs ++ xs)) >_d mds xs
```

- Once the right property is found, the actual proof was done in about 20 minutes.
- "Someone once described research as 'finding out something to find out, then finding it out'; the first part is often harder than the second."

REMARK

- The sum · reverse example is superficial the same property is much easier to prove using the $O(n^2)$ -time definition of reverse.
- That's one of the reason we defer the discussion about efficiency — to prove properties of a function we sometimes prefer to roll back to a slower version.
- In our exercises there is an example where you need revcat to prove a property about reverse.
 - Show that $reverse \cdot reverse = id$