Program Construction and Reasoning

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- "So, you study about computers? What programs have you written?"
- I had to explain that my research is more about how to construct correct programs.
- Correctness: that a program does what it is supposed to do.
- "What do you mean? Doesn't a program always does what it is told to do?"

Maximum Segment Sum

 Given a list of numbers, find the maximum sum of a consecutive segment.

▶
$$[-1,3,3,-4,-1,4,2,-1] \Rightarrow 7$$

▶
$$[-1,3,1,-4,-1,4,2,-1] \Rightarrow 6$$

▶
$$[-1, 3, 1, -4, -1, 1, 2, -1] \Rightarrow 4$$

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$$\blacktriangleright \quad [-1,3,1,-4,-1,\mathbf{4},\mathbf{2},-1] \ \Rightarrow \ \mathbf{6}$$

▶
$$[-1, 3, 1, -4, -1, 1, 2, -1] \Rightarrow 4$$

▶ Not trivial. However, there is a linear time algorithm.

Maximum Segment Sum

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▶
$$[-1,3,3,-4,-1,4,2,-1] \Rightarrow 7$$

▶ $[-1,3,1,-4,-1,4,2,-1] \Rightarrow 6$
▶ $[-1,3,1,-4,-1,1,2,-1] \Rightarrow 4$

$$-1 \quad 3 \quad 1 \quad -4 \quad -1 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad -1 \\ \bullet \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 2 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad (up + right) \uparrow 0 \\ 4 \quad 4 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 2 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad up \uparrow right$$

A Simple Program Whose Proof is Not

- ► The specification: max { sum (i, j) | 0 ≤ i ≤ j ≤ N }, where sum (i, j) = a[i] + a[i + 1] + ... + a[j].
- The program:

```
s = 0; m = 0;
for (i=0; i<=N; i++) {
    s = max(0, a[j]+s);
    m = max(m, s);
}
```

- They do not look like each other at all!
 - Moral: programs that appear "simple" might not be really that simple!

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- They do not look like each other at all!
 - Moral: programs that appear "simple" might not be really that simple!
- When we are given only the specification, can we construct the program?

Verification v.s. Derivation

How do we know a program is correct with respect to a specification?

- Verification: given a program, prove that it is correct with respect to some specification.
- Derivation: start from the specification, and attempt to construct *only* correct programs!

Theoretical development of one side benefits the other.

Program Derivation

- Wikipedia: program derivation is the derivation of a program from its specification, by mathematical means.
- To write a formal specification (which could be non-executable), and then apply mathematically correct rules in order to obtain an executable program.
- The program thus obtained is correct by construction.

A Typical Derivation

 $max \{ sum (i,j) \mid 0 \le i \le j \le N \}$

= {Premise 1}

max · *map sum* · *concat* · *map inits* · *tails*

= {Premise 2}

. . .

= {...} The final program!

It's How We Get There That Matters!



The answer may be simple. It is how we get there that matters.



Functional Programming

- In program derivation, programs are entities we manipulate. Procedural programs (e.g. C programs), however, are difficult to manipulate because they lack nice properties.
- ▶ In C, we do not even have $f(3) + f(3) = 2 \times f(3)$.
- In functional programming, programs are viewed as mathematical functions that can be reasoned algebraically, thus more suitable for program derivation.
- However, we will talk about procedural program derivation in the latter part of this course.

Prelude

Preliminaries

Functions Data Structures

The Expand/Reduce Transformation

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Functions

- For the purpose of this lecture, it suffices to assume that functional programs actually denote functions from sets to sets.
 - The reality is more complicated. But that is out of the scope of this course.
- Functions can be viewed as sets of pairs, each specifies an input-output mapping.
 - E.g. the function square is specified by $\{(1,1), (2,4), (3,9) \dots\}.$
 - ► Function application is denoted by juxtaposition, e.g. square 3.
- Given $f :: \alpha \to \beta$ and $g :: \beta \to \gamma$, their composition $g \cdot f :: \alpha \to \gamma$ is defined by $(g \cdot f) a = g(f a)$.

Recursively Defined Functions

Functions (or total functions) can be recursively defined:

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{fact 0} & = & 1, \\ \mbox{fact } (n+1) & = & (n+1) \times \mbox{fact } n. \end{array}$

As a simplified view, we take *fact* as the *least* set satisfying the equations above.

As a result, any total function satisfying the equations above is fact. This is a long story cut short, however!

Applying *fact* to a value:

fact 3 $= 3 \times fact 2$ $= 3 \times 2 \times fact 1$ $= 3 \times 2 \times fact 1$ $= 3 \times 2 \times 1 \times 1$

Functions Data Structures

Natural Numbers and Lists

• Natural numbers: $data N = 0 \mid 1 + N$.

• E.g. 3 can be seen as being composed out of 1 + (1 + (1 + 0)).

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- Lists: data[a] = [] | a: [a].
 - ► A list with three items 1, 2, and 3 is constructed by 1: (2: (3: [])), abbreviated as [1, 2, 3].
 - hd(x:xs) = x.
 - tl(x:xs) = xs.
- Noticed some similarities?

Binary Trees

For this course, we will use two kinds of binary trees: internally labelled trees, and externally labelled ones:

- data iTree α = Null | Node α (iTree α) (iTree α).
 - E.g. Node 3 (Node 2 Null Null) (Node 1 Null (Node 4 Null Null)).
- data eTree α = Tip a | Bin (eTree α) (eTree α).
 - E.g. Bin(Bin(Tip 1)(Tip 2))(Tip 3).

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

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Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Sum and Map

• The function *sum* adds up the numbers in a list:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} sum & :: & [Int] \rightarrow Int \\ sum[] & = & 0 \\ sum(x:xs) & = & x + sum xs. \end{array}$

- ▶ E.g. *sum* [7,9,11] = 27.
- The function map f takes a list and builds a new list by applying f to every item in the input:

 $\begin{array}{ll} map & :: & (\alpha \to \beta) \to [\alpha] \to [\beta] \\ map f [] & = & [] \\ map f (x : xs) & = & f x : map f xs. \end{array}$

• E.g. *map square* [3, 4, 6] = [9, 16, 36].

Prelude Preliminaries The Expand/Reduce Transformation Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

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Example: Sum of Squares

Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Sum of Squares

- ► Given a sequence a₁, a₂,..., a_n, compute a₁² + a₂² + ... + a_n². Specification: sumsq = sum · map square.
- > The spec. builds an intermediate list. Can we eliminate it?
- ► The input is either empty or not. When it is empty:

sumsq []

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sumsq []

= { definition of *sumsq* }

 $(sum \cdot map \ square)[]$

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Sum of Squares

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- = { function composition }

 $\textit{sum}\,(\textit{map square}\,[\,])$

Sum of Squares

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- = { definition of *sumsq* }
 - $(sum \cdot map \ square)[]$
- = { function composition }
 - sum(map square[])
- = { definition of map }
 sum[]

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- = { definition of *sumsq* }
 - $(sum \cdot map \ square)[]$
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 - sum(map square[])
- = { definition of map }
 sum[]
- $= \quad \{ \text{ definition of } sum \}$
 - 0.

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Sum of Squares, the Inductive Case

Consider the case when the input is not empty:

sumsq(x:xs)

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sumsq(x:xs)

= { definition of sumsq }
sum(map square(x : xs))

• Consider the case when the input is not empty:

sumsq(x:xs)

- = { definition of *sumsq* }
 - sum(map square(x : xs))
- = { definition of map }

sum(square x : map square xs)

Consider the case when the input is not empty:

sumsq(x:xs)

- = { definition of *sumsq* }
 - sum(map square(x : xs))
- = { definition of *map* }
 - sum(square x : map square xs)
- = { definition of sum } square x + sum (map square xs)

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sumsq(x:xs)

- = { definition of *sumsq* }
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 - sum(square x : map square xs)
- $= \{ \text{ definition of } sum \}$
 - square x + sum (map square xs)
- = { definition of *sumsq* }

square x + sumsq xs.

We have therefore constructed a recursive definition of sumsq: sumsq[] = 0sumsq(x : xs) = square x + sumsq xs.

Unfold/Fold Transformation

- Perhaps the most intuitive, yet still handy, style of functional program derivation.
- Keep unfolding the definition of functions, apply necessary rules, and finally fold the definition back.
- It works under the assumption that a function satisfying the derived equations is the function defined by the equations.
- In this course, we use the terms "fold" and "unfold" for another purpose. Therefore we refer to this technique as the expand/reduce transformation.

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Prelude

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Example: Sum of Squares **Proof by Induction** Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Proving Auxiliary Properties

Our style of program derivation:

. . . .

- expression
- = {some property}

- Some of the properties are rather obvious. Some needs to be proved separately.
- In this section we will practice perhaps the most fundamental proof technique, which is still very useful.
The Induction Principle

- Recall the so called "mathematical induction". To prove that a property p holds for all natural numbers, we need to show:
 - that p holds for 0, and
 - if *p* holds for *n*, it holds for n + 1 as well.
- We can do so because the set of natural numbers is an inductive type.
- The type of *finite* lists is an inductive types too. Therefore the property p holds for all finite lists if
 - property p holds for [], and
 - if p holds for xs, it holds for x: xs as well.

Appending Two Lists

▶ The function (++) appends two lists into one:

E.g.

- [1,2] + [3,4] = 1: ([2] + [3,4]) = 1: (2: ([] + [3,4])) = 1: (2: [3,4]) = 1: (2: [3,4]) = [1,2,3,4].
- The time it takes to compute xs ++ ys is proportional to the length of x.

Example: let us show that sum(xs + ys) = sum xs + sum ys, for finite lists xs and ys. Case []:

sum[] + sum ys

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- $= \{ \text{ definition of } sum \}$
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- = { arithmetic }
 - sum ys

Example: let us show that sum(xs + ys) = sumxs + sumys, for finite lists xs and ys. Case []:

sum[] + sum ys

- $= \{ \text{ definition of } sum \}$
 - $0 + \mathit{sum ys}$
- $= \{ arithmetic \}$
 - sum ys
- = { by definition of (++), [] ++ ys = ys }
 sum([] ++ ys).

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Sum Distributes into Append, the Inductive Case Case x: xs:

sum(x: xs) + sum ys

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Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Sum Distributes into Append, the Inductive Case Case x: xs:

sum(x: xs) + sum ys= { definition of sum} (x + sum xs) + sum ys

Sum Distributes into Append, the Inductive Case Case x: xs:

sum(x: xs) + sum ys

- = { definition of sum}
 - (x + sum xs) + sum ys
- $= \{ (+) \text{ is associative: } (a+b) + c = a + (b+c) \}$ x + (sum xs + sum ys)

Sum Distributes into Append, the Inductive Case Case x: xs:

sum(x: xs) + sum ys

- = { definition of sum}
 - (x + sum xs) + sum ys
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- = { induction hypothesis }

x + sum(xs + ys)

Sum Distributes into Append, the Inductive Case Case x: xs:

sum(x: xs) + sum ys

- = { definition of sum}
 - (x + sum xs) + sum ys
- = { (+) is associative: (a + b) + c = a + (b + c) }
 - x + (sum xs + sum ys)
- = { induction hypothesis }
 - x + sum(xs + ys)
- = { definition of sum } sum(x: (xs ++ ys))

Sum Distributes into Append, the Inductive Case Case x: xs:

sum(x: xs) + sum ys

- = { definition of *sum*}
 - (x + sum xs) + sum ys
- $= \{ (+) \text{ is associative: } (a+b) + c = a + (b+c) \}$
 - x + (sum xs + sum ys)
- = { induction hypothesis }

x + sum(xs + ys)

- = { definition of sum }
 sum(x: (xs + ys))
- $= \{ \text{ definition of } (\#) \}$ sum((x: xs) + ys).

Some Properties to be Proved

The following properties are left as exercises for you to prove. We will make use of some of them in the lecture.

Concatenation is associative:

(xs + ys) + zs = xs + (ys + zs).

(Note that the right-hand side is in general faster than the left-hand side.)

The function concat concatenates a list of lists: concat [] = [], concat (xs : xss) = xs ++ concat xss.

E.g. concat [[1,2], [3,4], [5]] = [1,2,3,4,5]. We have $sum \cdot concat = sum \cdot map sum$.

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Inductive Proofs on Trees

Recall the datatype:

data iTree α = Null | Node α (iTree α) (iTree α).

What is the induction principle for *iTree*? A property *p* holds for all finite *iTrees* if

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Inductive Proofs on Trees

```
Recall the datatype:
```

```
data iTree \alpha = Null | Node \alpha (iTree \alpha) (iTree \alpha).
```

What is the induction principle for *iTree*?

A property *p* holds for all finite *iTrees* if ...

- the property p holds for Null, and
- ▶ for all a,t,and u, if p holds for t and u, then p holds for Node a t u.

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

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Example: Reversing a List

The function reverse is defined by: reverse [] = [], reverse (x: xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]. E.g.

 $\textit{reverse} \ [1,2,3,4] = ((([\,] + [4]) + [3]) + [2]) + [1] = [4,3,2,1].$

- But how about its time complexity? Since (++) is O(n), it takes O(n²) time to revert a list this way.
- Can we make it faster?

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Introducing an Accumulating Parameter

• Let us consider a generalisation of *reverse*. Define:

```
rcat xs ys = reverse xs + ys.
```

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

reverse xs = rcat xs [].

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Reversing a List, Base Case

Let us use our old trick of Expand/Reduce transformation. Consider the case when *xs* is []:

rcat [] ys

Reversing a List, Base Case

Let us use our old trick of Expand/Reduce transformation. Consider the case when xs is []:

rcat [] ys
= { definition of rcat }
reverse [] ++ ys

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Let us use our old trick of Expand/Reduce transformation. Consider the case when xs is []:

rcat [] ys
= { definition of rcat }
reverse [] ++ ys
= { definition of reverse }
[] ++ ys

Reversing a List, Base Case

Let us use our old trick of Expand/Reduce transformation. Consider the case when xs is []:

rcat [] ys

 $= \{ \text{ definition of } rcat \}$

reverse [] ++ *ys*

[] ++ ys

$$= \{ \text{ definition of } (\#) \}$$

ys.

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Supling

Reversing a List, Inductive Case

Case x: xs:

rcat(x: xs) ys

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Reversing a List, Inductive Case

Case x: xs:

rcat (x: xs) ys
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Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Reversing a List, Inductive Case

Case x: xs:

 $\mathit{rcat}(x: \mathit{xs}) \mathit{ys}$

- = { definition of *rcat* } *reverse* (x: xs) ++ ys
- $= \{ \text{ definition of } reverse \} \\ (reverse xs + [x]) + ys \}$

Reversing a List, Inductive Case

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- = { since (xs + ys) + zs = xs + (ys + zs) } reverse xs + ([x] + ys)

Reversing a List, Inductive Case

Case x: xs:

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- = { definition of *rcat* } *reverse* (*x* : *xs*) ++ *ys*
- $= \{ \text{ definition of } reverse \} \\ (reverse xs + [x]) + ys \}$
- = { since (xs + ys) + zs = xs + (ys + zs) } reverse xs + ([x] + ys)
- = { definition of *rcat* } *rcat xs* (*x*: *ys*).

Linear-Time List Reversal

We have therefore constructed an implementation of *rcat*:

rcat[]ys = ysrcat(x:xs)ys = rcatxs(x:ys),

which runs in linear time!

- A generalisation of *reverse* is easier to implement than *reverse* itself? How come?
- If you try to understand *rcat* 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 = rcat xs [].
 - Hmm... it is like a loop, isn't it?

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Tracing Reverse

reverse [1, 2, 3, 4]

- = *rcat* [1, 2, 3, 4] []
- = *rcat* [2, 3, 4] [1]
- = rcat [3, 4] [2, 1]
- = *rcat* [4] [3, 2, 1]
- = *rcat* [] [4, 3, 2, 1]

= [4, 3, 2, 1]

reverse xs = rcat xs[]
rcat[]ys = ys
rcat (x: xs) ys = rcat xs (x: 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.:

rcat 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.

Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Tupling

Loop Invariants

To implement *reverse*, we introduce *rcat* such that:

```
rcat xs ys = reverse xs + ys.
```

```
Functional:
```

We initialise *rcat* by:

```
reverse xs = rcat xs[],
```

and try to derive a faster version of rcat satisfying (1):

rcat[]ys = ysrcat(x: xs)ys = rcat xs(y: ys).

Procedural:

We initialise the loop, and try to derive a loop body maintaining a *loop invariant* related to (1).

 $\begin{array}{l} xs, ys \leftarrow XS, [];\\ \{reverse \ XS = reverse \ xs \ +ys\}\\ while \ xs \ \neq [] \ do\\ xs, ys \ \leftarrow \ tl \ xs, hd \ xs \ :ys;\\ return \ ys; \end{array}$

(1)

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Accumulating Parameter: Another Example

Recall the "sum of squares" problem:

sumsq[] = 0sumsq(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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- lntroduce ssp xs n = sumsq xs + n.
- Initialisation: sumsq xs = ssp xs 0.
- Construct ssp:

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

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

$$= sumsq xs + (square x + n)$$

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

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Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter **Fupling**

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Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter **Tupling**

Steep Lists

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

> steep[] = true $steep(x: xs) = steep xs \land x > sum xs.$

- The definition above, if executed directly, is an O(n²) 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* = $fst \cdot steepsum$.

We again proceed by case analysis. Trivially,

steepsum[] = (true, 0).

Prelude Preliminaries The Expand/Reduce Transformation Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter Fupling

Deriving for the Non-Empty Case For the case for non-empty inputs:

steepsum(x: xs)

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Example: Sum of Squares Proof by Induction Accumulating Parameter **Tupling**

Deriving for the Non-Empty Case For the case for non-empty inputs:

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

Deriving for the Non-Empty Case For the case for non-empty inputs:

steepsum(x: xs)

- = { definition of *steepsum* } (*steep* (x: xs), *sum* (x: xs))
- $= \{ \text{ definitions of steep and sum } \} \\ (steep xs \land x > sum xs, x + sum xs)$

Deriving for the Non-Empty Case For the case for non-empty inputs:

steepsum(x: xs)

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

Deriving for the Non-Empty Case For the case for non-empty inputs:

steepsum(x: xs)

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- $= \{ \text{ definitions of steep and sum } \}$ $(steep xs \land x > sum xs, x + sum xs)$
- = { extracting sub-expressions involving xs } let (b, y) = (steep xs, sum xs)in $(b \land x > y, x + y)$
- $= \{ \text{ definition of steepsum } \}$ let (b, y) = steepsum xs $in (b \land x > y, x + y).$

Synthesised Program

We have thus come up with:

steep	=	fst · steepsum
steepsum []	=	(<i>true</i> , 0)
<pre>steepsum(x: xs)</pre>	=	let (b, y) = steepsum xs
		in $(b \land x > y, x + y)$,

which runs in O(n) time.

- Again we observe the phenomena that a more general function is easier to implement.
- It is actually common in indutive proofs, too. To prove a theorem, we sometimes have to generalise it so that we have a stronger inductive hypothesis.
- Talking about inductive proofs again, in the next lecture let us see a general pattern for induction.

Summary for the First Day

- Program derivation: constructing programs from their specifications, through formal reasoning.
- Expand/reduce transformation: the most fundamental kind of program derivation — expand the definitions of functions, and reduce them back when necessary.
- Most of the properties we need during the reasoning, for this course, can be proved by induction.
- Accumulating parameters: sometimes a more general program is easier to construct.
 - Sometimes used to construct loops. Closely related to loop invariants in procedural program derivation.
 - Usually relies on some associtivity property to work.
- Tupling: a dual technique often used to generalise a function so that we can derive a quicker recursive definition.
- Like it so far? More fun tomorrow!

Part II

Fold, Unfold, and Hylomorphism

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From Yesterday...

- Expand/reduce transformation: the most basic kind of program derivation. Expand the definitions of functions, and reduce them back when necessary.
- Proof by induction.
- Accumulating parameter: a handy technique for, among other purposes, deriving tail recursive functions.
- Tupling: a dual technique often used to generalise a function so that we can derive a quicker recursive definition.
- Today we will be dealing with slightly abstract concepts.

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A Common Pattern We've Seen Many Times...

sum[] = 0 sum(x: xs) = x + sum xs length[] = 0 length(x: xs) = 1 + length xs map f[] = [] map f (x: xs) = f x: map f xsThis pattern is extracted and called foldr:

foldr f e[] = e,

foldr f e (x: xs) = f x (foldr f e xs).

Replacing Constructors

- $\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{foldr f e}[] &= e \\ \textit{foldr f e}(x:xs) &= f x (\textit{foldr f e} xs) \end{array}$
- One way to look at *foldr* (⊕) *e* is that it replaces [] with *e* and (:) with (⊕):
 - $\begin{array}{rl} \textit{foldr} (\oplus) \ e \ [1,2,3,4] \\ = & \textit{foldr} \ (\oplus) \ e \ (1:(2:(3:(4:[])))) \\ = & 1 \oplus (2 \oplus (3 \oplus (4 \oplus e))). \end{array}$
- sum = foldr(+)0.
- length = foldr $(\lambda x n.1 + n) 0.$
- map $f = foldr (\lambda x xs.f x : xs) [].$
- One can see that id = foldr(:)[].

Folds Unfolds Hytomorphing Up Some Trivial Folds on Lists Function max returns the maximum element in a list: $\begin{array}{rcl}max\left[\right] &=& -\infty,\\max\left[x:xs\right] &=& x\uparrow max\,xs.\end{array}$ Function prod returns the product of a list:

> prod [] = 1, $prod (x: xs) = x \times prod xs.$

► Function *and* returns the conjunction of a list:

and[] = true, $and(x:xs) = x \land and xs.$

Lets emphasise again that *id* on lists is a fold:

$$id [] = [],id (x: xs) = x: id xs$$

Some Trivial Folds on Lists

- Function max returns the maximum element in a list:
 - $max[] = -\infty,$ $max(x:xs) = x \uparrow max xs.$
 - $max = foldr(\uparrow) \infty$.
- Function prod returns the product of a list:
 - prod [] = 1, $prod (x: xs) = x \times prod xs.$
- Function and returns the conjunction of a list:

and [] = true, and $(x: xs) = x \land and xs$.

Lets emphasise again that *id* on lists is a fold:

$$id [] = [],$$

$$id (x: xs) = x: id xs$$

Some Trivial Folds on Lists

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 - $max = foldr(\uparrow) \infty$.
- Function prod returns the product of a list:
 - prod [] = 1, prod (x: xs) = x × prod xs.
 prod = foldr (×) 1.
- ► Function *and* returns the conjunction of a list:

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Some Trivial Folds on Lists

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•
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.

▶ Function *and* returns the conjunction of a list:

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and = foldr (∧) true.
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$$id [] = [],$$

 $id (x: xs) = x: id xs$

Some Trivial Folds on Lists

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and = foldr (∧) true.
Lets emphasise again that *id* on lists is a fold: *id* [] = []

$$ia [] = [],$$

$$id (x: xs) = x: id xs.$$

• id = foldr(:)[].

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Why Folds?

- The same reason we kept talking about *patterns* in design.
- Control abstraction, procedure abstraction, data abstraction,...can programming patterns be abstracted too?
- Program structure becomes an entity we can talk about, reason about, and reuse.
 - We can describe algorithms in terms of fold, unfold, and other recognised patterns.
 - We can prove properties about folds,
 - and apply the proved theorems to all programs that are folds, either for compiler optimisation, or for mathematical reasoning.
- Among the theorems about folds, the most important is probably the *fold-fusion* theorem.

The Fold-Fusion Theorem

The theorem is about when the composition of a function and a fold can be expressed as a fold.

Theorem (Fold-Fusion)

Given $f :: \alpha \to \beta \to \beta$, $e :: \beta$, $h :: \beta \to \gamma$, and $g :: \alpha \to \gamma \to \gamma$, we have:

 $h \cdot foldr f e = foldr g (h e),$

if $h(f \times y) = g \times (h y)$ for all x and y.

For program derivation, we are usually given h, f, and e, from which we have to construct g.

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Tracing an Example

Let us try to get an intuitive understand of the theorem:

 $= \begin{array}{l} h\left(foldr \ f \ e \ [a, b, c]\right) \\ = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{definition of } foldr \end{array} \right\} \\ h\left(f \ a \ (f \ b \ (f \ c \ e))\right) \end{array}$

Tracing an Example

Let us try to get an intuitive understand of the theorem:

- h(foldr f e[a, b, c])
- = { definition of *foldr* }
 - h(fa(fb(fce)))
- = { since h(f x y) = g x (h y) } g a (h (f b (f c e)))

Tracing an Example

Let us try to get an intuitive understand of the theorem:

h(foldr f e[a, b, c])

- $= \{ \text{ definition of } foldr \}$
 - h(fa(fb(fce)))
- = { since h(f x y) = g x (h y) } g a (h (f b (f c e)))

= { since
$$h(f x y) = g x (h y)$$
 }
g a (g b (h (f c e)))

Tracing an Example

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- $= \{ \text{ definition of } foldr \}$
 - h(fa(fb(fce)))
- = { since h(f x y) = g x (h y) } g a (h (f b (f c e)))

$$= \{ \text{ since } h(f \times y) = g \times (hy) \}$$

ga(gb(h(fce)))

= { since h(f x y) = g x (h y) } g a (g b (g c (h e)))

Tracing an Example

Let us try to get an intuitive understand of the theorem:

h(foldr f e [a, b, c])

- $= \{ \text{ definition of } foldr \}$
 - h(fa(fb(fce)))
- = { since h(f x y) = g x (h y) } g a (h (f b (f c e)))

$$= \{ \text{ since } h(f \times y) = g \times (hy) \}$$
$$g a (g b (h(f c e)))$$

- $= \{ \text{ since } h(f x y) = g x (h y) \}$ g a (g b (g c (h e)))
- $= \{ \text{ definition of } foldr \}$ foldr g (h e) [a, b, c].

Sum of Squares, Again

- ► Consider sum · map square again. This time we use the fact that map f = foldr (mf f) [], where mf f x xs = f x: xs.
- sum · map square is a fold, if we can find a ssq such that sum (mf square x xs) = ssq x (sum xs). Let us try:

sum (mf square x xs)

= { definition of *mf* }

sum(square x: xs)

= { definition of sum }

square x + sum xs

 $= \{ \text{ let } ssq x y = square x + y \}$ ssq x (sum xs).

Therefore, $sum \cdot map \ square = foldr \ ssq 0$.

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More on Folds and Fold-fusion

- Compare the proof with the one yesterday. They are essentially the same proof.
- Fold-fusion theorem abstracts away the common parts in this kind of inductive proofs, so that we need to supply only the "important" parts.
- Tupling can be seen as a kind of fold-fusion. The derivation of steepsum, for example, can be seen as fusing:

 $steepsum \cdot id = steepsum \cdot foldr(:)[].$

Not every function can be expressed as a fold. For example, tl is not a fold!

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Longest Prefix

The function call takeWhile p xs returns the longest prefix of xs that satisfies p:

> takeWhile p[] = [],takeWhile p (x: xs) = if p x then x: takeWhile p xselse [].

- E.g. *takeWhile* (≤ 3) [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] = [1, 2, 3].
- It can be defined by a fold:

takeWhile p = foldr (tke p) [],tke p x xs = if p x then x : xs else [].

► Its dual, *dropWhile* (≤ 3) [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] = [4, 5], is not a fold.

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All Prefixes

- The function *inits* returns the list of all prefixes of the input list:
 - inits [] = [[]],inits (x: xs) = []: map(x:) (inits xs).
- E.g. *inits* [1,2,3] = [[],[1],[1,2],[1,2,3]].
- It can be defined by a fold:

inits = foldr ini [[]],ini x xss = [] : map(x:) xss.
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All Suffixes

The function *tails* returns the list of all suffixes of the input list:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} tails\,[] & = & [],\\ tails\,(x:\,xs) & = & \operatorname{let}\,(ys:\,yss) \, = \, tails\,xs\\ & & \operatorname{in}\,(x:\,ys):\,ys:\,yss. \end{array}$$

- E.g. tails [1,2,3] = [[1,2,3], [2,3], [3], []].
- It can be defined by a fold:

Scan

• scanr $f e = map(foldr f e) \cdot tails.$

► E.g.

- $\textit{scanr}\left(+\right)0\left[1,2,3\right]$
- = map sum (tails [1, 2, 3])
- $= map\,sum\,[[1,2,3],[2,3],[3],[\,]]$
- = [6, 5, 3, 0].
- Of course, it is slow to actually perform map (foldr f e) separately. By fold-fusion, we get a faster implementation:

scanr f e = foldr (sc f) [e],sc f x (y: ys) = f x y : y : ys.

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Specifying Maximum Segment Sum

- Finally we have introduced enough concepts to tackle the maximum segment sum problem!
- A segment can be seen as a prefix of a suffix.
- ▶ The function *segs* computes the list of all the segments.

 $segs = concat \cdot map inits \cdot tails.$

► Therefore, *mss* is specified by:

 $mss = max \cdot map sum \cdot segs.$

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The Derivation!

We reason:

max · *map sum* · *concat* · *map inits* · *tails*

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The Derivation!

We reason:

max · map sum · concat · map inits · tails
= { since map f · concat = concat · map (map f) }
max · concat · map (map sum) · map inits · tails

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The Derivation!

We reason:

max · map sum · concat · map inits · tails
= { since map f · concat = concat · map (map f) }
max · concat · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since max · concat = max · map max }
max · map max · map (map sum) · map inits · tails

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The Derivation!

We reason:

max · map sum · concat · map inits · tails
= { since map f · concat = concat · map (map f) }
max · concat · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since max · concat = max · map max }
max · map max · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since map f · map g = map (f · g) }
max · map (max · map sum · inits) · tails.

Recall the definition scanr $f e = map (foldr f e) \cdot tails$. If we can transform $max \cdot map sum \cdot inits$ into a fold, we can turn the algorithm into a scan, which has a faster implementation.

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Maximum Prefix Sum

Concentrate on *max* · *map* sum · *inits*:

max · map sum · inits

 $= \{ \text{ definition of init, ini } x \text{ sss} = [] : map(x:) \text{ sss} \} \\ max \cdot map \text{ sum} \cdot \text{ foldr ini} [[]] \}$

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Maximum Prefix Sum

Concentrate on *max* · *map sum* · *inits*:

max · map sum · inits

 $= \{ \text{ definition of init, ini } x \text{ sss} = [] : map(x:) \text{ sss} \} \\ max \cdot map \text{ sum} \cdot \text{ foldr ini} [[]]$

 $= \{ \text{ fold fusion, see below } \}$ $max \cdot foldr zplus [0].$

The fold fusion works because:

map sum (*ini x xss*)

- = map sum ([] : map (x:) xss)
- $= 0: map(sum \cdot (x:)) xss$
- = 0: map(x+) (map sum xss).

Define zplus x xss = 0 : map(x+) xss.

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Maximum Prefix Sum, 2nd Fold Fusion

Concentrate on *max* · *map sum* · *inits*:

max · map sum · inits

- $= \{ \text{ definition of } init, ini \times xss = [] : map(x:) \times ss \} \\ max \cdot map sum \cdot foldr ini [[]] \}$
- $= \{ \text{ fold fusion, } zplus \times xss = 0 : map(x+) \times ss \} \\ max \cdot foldr zplus [0] \}$
- $= \{ \text{ fold fusion, let } zmax x y = 0 \uparrow (x + y) \}$ foldr zmax 0.

The fold fusion works because \uparrow distributes into (+):

max (0: map (x+) xs)

- $= 0 \uparrow max (map (x+) xs)$
- $= 0 \uparrow (x + \max xs).$

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Back to Maximum Segment Sum We reason:

max · map sum · concat · map inits · tails
= { since map f · concat = concat · map (map f) }
max · concat · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since max · concat = max · map max }
max · map max · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since map f · map g = map (f · g) }
max · map (max · map sum · inits) · tails

 $max \cdot map$ (foldr zmax 0) \cdot tails

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= { since max · concat = max · map max }
max · map max · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since map f · map g = map (f · g) }
max · map (max · map sum · inits) · tails
= { reasoning in the previous slides }

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Back to Maximum Segment Sum We reason:

max · map sum · concat · map inits · tails
= { since map f · concat = concat · map (map f) }
max · concat · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since max · concat = max · map max }
max · map max · map (map sum) · map inits · tails
= { since map f · map g = map (f · g) }
max · map (max · map sum · inits) · tails

- = { reasoning in the previous slides } max · map (foldr zmax 0) · tails
- = { introducing *scanr* } *max* · *scanr zmax* 0.

Maximum Segment Sum in Linear Time!

- ▶ We have derived $mss = max \cdot scanr zmax 0$, where $zmax x y = 0 \uparrow (x + y)$.
- The algorithm runs in linear time, but takes linear space.
- A tupling transformation eliminates the need for linear space.
 mss = fst · maxhd · scanr zmax 0
 where maxhd xs = (max xs, hd xs). We omit this last step in

where maxna xs = (max xs, na xs). We omit this last step in the lecture.

► The final program is $mss = fst \cdot foldr step(0,0)$, where $step x (m, y) = ((0 \uparrow (x + y)) \uparrow m, 0 \uparrow (x + y)).$

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Folds

The Fold-Fusion Theorem More Useful Functions Defined as Folds Finally, Solving Maximum Segment Sum Folds on Trees

Unfolds

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Hylomorphism

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Wrapping Up

Folds on Trees

- Folds are not limited to lists. In fact, every datatype with so-called "regular base functors" induces a fold.
- Recall some datatypes for trees:

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textit{data iTree } \alpha & = & \textit{Null} \mid \textit{Node a} (\textit{iTree } \alpha) (\textit{iTree } \alpha); \\ \textit{data eTree } \alpha & = & \textit{Tip a} \mid \textit{Bin} (\textit{eTree } \alpha) (\textit{eTree } \alpha). \\ \end{array}$

► The fold for *iTree*, for example, is defined by:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{foldiT } f \in \text{Null} &= e, \\ \text{foldiT } f \in (\text{Node at } u) &= f a (\text{foldiT } f \in t) (\text{foldiT } f \in u). \\ \end{array}$

► The fold for *eTree*, is given by:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{foldeT } f \ g \ (\textit{Tip } x) & = & g \ x, \\ \textit{foldeT } f \ g \ (\textit{Bin } t \ u) & = & f \ (\textit{foldeT } f \ g \ t) \ (\textit{foldeT } f \ g \ u). \end{array}$

The Fold-Fusion Theorem More Useful Functions Defined as Folds Finally, Solving Maximum Segment Sum Folds on Trees

Some Simple Functions on Trees

to compute the size of an *iTree*: sizeiTree = foldiT (λx m n.m + n + 1) 0.

To sum up labels in an eTree: sumeTree = foldeT (+) id.

► To compute a list of all labels in an *iTree* and an *eTree*: *flatteniT* = *foldiT* (λx xs ys.xs + [x] + ys)[], *flatteneT* = *foldeT* (+) (λx.[x]).

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

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Wrapping Up

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

Unfolds Generate Data Structures

- While folds consumes a data structure, *unfolds* builds data structures.
- Unfold on lists is defined by:

unfoldr p f s = if p s then [] elselet <math>(x, s') = f s in x: unfoldr p f s'.

The value s is a "seed" to generate a list with. Function p checks the seed to determines whether to stop. If not, function f is used to generate an element and the next seed.

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

Some Useful Functions Defined as Unfolds

For brevity let us introduce the "split" notation. Given functions f :: α → β and g :: α → γ, ⟨f,g⟩ :: α → (β,γ) is a function defined by:

 $\langle f,g\rangle a = (f a,g a).$

- ► The function call *fromto m n* builds a list [n, n + 1, ..., m]: *fromto m* = *unfoldr* (≥ *m*) $\langle id, (1+) \rangle$.
- The function tails⁺ is like tails, but returns non-empty tails only:

 $tails^+ = unfoldr null \langle id, tl \rangle$, where null xs yields true iff xs = [].

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

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Unfolds May Build Infinite Data Structures

► The function call *from n* builds the infinitely long list [n, n + 1, ...]:

from = unfoldr (const false) $\langle id, (1+) \rangle$.

► More generally, *iterate f x* builds an infinitely long list [x, f x, f (f x)...]:

iterate f = unfoldr (const false) $\langle id, f \rangle$.

We have *from* = *iterate* (1+).

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

....

Merging as an Unfold

Given two sorted lists (xs, ys), the call merge (xs, ys) merges them into one sorted list:

merge	=	unfoldr null'2 mrg
null2(xs, ys)	=	null xs \land null ys
mrg ([], y: ys)	=	(y, ([], ys))
mrg(x: xs, [])	=	(x, (xs, []))
mrg(x: xs, y: ys)	=	if $x \leq y$ then $(x, (xs, y : ys))$
		else $(y, (x: xs, ys))$.

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Wrapping Up

Folds and Unfolds

- Folds and unfolds are dual concepts. Folds consume data structure, while unfolds build data structures.
- ▶ List constructors have types: (:) :: $\alpha \to [\alpha] \to [\alpha]$ and [] :: [α]; in *fold* f e, the arguments have types: f :: $\alpha \to \beta \to \beta$ and e :: β .
- List deconstructors have types: ⟨hd, tl⟩ :: [α] → (α, [α]); in unfoldr p f, the argument f has type β → (α, β).
- They do not look exactly symmetrical yet. But that is just because our notations are not general enough.

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

Folds v.s. Unfolds

- Folds are defined on inductive datatypes. All inductive datatypes are finite, and emit inductive proofs. Folds basically captures induction on the input.
- As we have seen, unfolds may generate infinite data structures.
 - They are related to coinductive datatypes.
 - Proof by induction does not (trivially) work for coinductive data in general. We need to instead use *coinductive proof*.

A Sketch of A Coinductive Proof

To prove that $map f \cdot iterate f = iterate f (f x)$, we show that for all possible *observations*, the *lhs* equals the *rhs*.

- $hd \cdot map f \cdot iterate f = hd \cdot iterate f (f x)$. Trivial.
- $tl \cdot map f \cdot iterate f = tl \cdot iterate f (f x)$:

tl (map f (iterate f x))

- = tl (f x : map f (iterate f (f x)))
- $= \{ hypothesis \}$
 - tl(fx: iterate f(f(x)))

= tl (iterate f (f x)).

The hypothesis looks a bit shaky: isn't it circular reasoning? We need to describe it in a more rigourous setting to establish its validity. This is out of the scope of this lecture.

Unfold on Lists Folds v.s. Unfolds

Unfolds on Trees

Unfolds can also be extended to trees. For internally labelled binary trees we define:

unfoldiT p f s = if p s then Null else $let (x, s_1, s_2) = f s$ $in Node x (unfoldiT p f s_1)$ $(unfoldiT p f s_2).$

And for externally labelled binary trees we define:

 $unfoldeT \ p \ f \ g \ s = if \ p \ s \ then \ Tip \ (g \ s) \ else \\ let \ (s_1, s_2) = f \ s \\ in \ Bin \ (unfoldeT \ p \ f \ g \ s_1) \\ (unfoldeT \ p \ f \ g \ s_2).$

Unflattening a Tree

- ► Recall the function *flatteneT* :: eTree α → [α], defined as a fold, flattening a tree into a list. Let us consider doing the reverse.
- Assume that we have the following functions:
 - single xs = true iff xs contains only one element.
 - half :: [α] → ([α], [α]) split a list of length n into two lists of lengths roughly half of n.
- ► The function unflatteneT builds a tree out of a list: unflattenT :: $[\alpha] \rightarrow eTree[\alpha],$ unflattenT = unfoldeT single half id.

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Mergesort as a Hylomorphism

- Recall the function merge merging a pair of sorted lists into one sorted list. Assume that it has a curried variant mergec.
- What does this function do?

msort = *foldeT merge*_c *id* · *unflatteneT*

This is mergesort!

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Wrapping Up

Quicksort as a Hylomorphism

Let *partition* be defined by:

 $\textit{partition} (x:xs) = (x,\textit{filter} (\leq x) xs,\textit{filter} (> x) xs).$

- Recall the function *flatteniT* flattening an *iTree*, defined by a fold.
- Quicksort can be defined by:

 $qsort = flatteniT \cdot unfoldiT null partition.$

• Compare and notice some symmetry:

 $qsort = flatteniT \cdot partitioniT$, $msort = mergeeT \cdot unflatteneT$.

Both are defined as a fold after an unfold.

Insertion Sort and Selection Sort

Insertion sort can be defined by an fold:

isort = *foldr insert* [],

where *insert* is specified by

insert x xs = takeWhile (< x) xs + [x] + dropWhile (< x) xs.

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Selection sort, on the other hand, can be naturally seen as an unfold:

ssort = *unfoldr null select*,

where *select* is specified by

select xs = (max xs, xs - [max xs]).

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Wrapping Up

Hylomorphism

- A fold after an unfold is called a *hylomorphism*.
- The unfold phase expands a data structure, while the fold phase reduces it.
- The divide-and-conquer pattern, for example, can be modelled by hylomorphism on trees.
- To avoid generating an intermediate tree, the fold and the unfold can be fused into a recursive function. E.g. let hyloiT f e p g = foldiT f e · unfoldiT p g, we have
 hyloiT f e p g s = if p s then e else
 let (x, s₁, s₂) = g s
 in f x (hyloiT f e p g s₁)
 - (hyloiT $f e p g s_2$).

Hylomorphism and Recursion

Okay, we can express hylomorphisms using recursion. But let us look at it the other way round.

- Imagine a programming in which you are *not* allowed to write explicit recursion. You are given only folds and unfolds for algebraic datatypes¹.
- When you do need recursion, define a datatype capturing the pattern of recursion, and split the recursion into a fold and an unfold.
- > This way, we can express any recursion by hylomorphisms!

Therefore, the hylomorphism is a concept as expressive as recursive functions (and, therefore, the Turing machine) — if we are allowed to have hylomorphisms, that is.

¹Built from regular base functors, if that makes any sense $\rightarrow \langle z \rangle$ $\rightarrow \langle z \rangle$ $\rightarrow \langle z \rangle$

Folds Take Inductive Types

- So far, we have assumed that it is allowed to write fold · unfold. However, let us not forget that they are defined on different types!
- Folds takes inductive types.
 - If we use folds only, everything terminates (a good property!).
 - Recall that we assume a simple model of functions between sets.
 - On the downside, of course, not every program can be written in terms of folds.

Unfolds Return Coinductive Types

Unfolds returns coinductive types.

- We can generate infinite data structure.
- But if we are allowed to use only unfolds, every program still terminates because there is no "consumer" to infinitely process the infinite data.
- Not every program can be written in terms of unfolds, either.

Hylomorphism, Recursion and Termination

- If we allow fold · unfold,
 - we can now express *every* program computable by a Turing machine.
 - But, we need a model assuming that inductive types and coinductive types coincide.
 - Therefore, folds must prepare to accept infinite data.
 - Therefore, some programs may fail to terminate!
 - Which means that *partial functions* have emerged.
 - Recursive equations may not have unique solutions.
 - And everything we believe so far are not on a solid basis anymore!
Folds Unfolds Hylomorphism Wrapping Up

Termination, Type Theory, Semantics ...

- One possible way out: instead of total function between sets, we move to *partial functions* between *complete partial orders*, and model what recursion means in this setting.
- There are also alternative approaches staying with functions and sets, but talk about when an equation has a unique solution.
- This is where all the following concepts and fields meet each other: unique solutions, termination, type theory, semantics, programming language theory, computability theory ... and a lot more!

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Wrapping Up

What have we learned?

- To derive programs from specification, functional programming languages allows the expand/reduce transformation.
- A number of properties we need can be proved by induction.
- To capture recurring patterns in reasoning, we move to structural recursion: folds captures induction, while unfolds capture coinduction.
 - We gave lots of examples of the fold-fusion rule.
 - Unfolds are equally important, unfortunately we ran out of space.
- Hylomorphism is as expressive as you can get. However, it introduces non-termination. And that opens rooms for plenty of related research.

Where to Go from Here?

- The Functional Pearls column in Journal of Functional Proramming has lots of neat example of derivations.
- Procedural program derivation (basing on the weakest precondition calculus) is another important branch we did not talk about.
- There are plenty of literature about folds, and
- more recently, papers about unfolds and coinduction.
- You may be interested in theories about inductive types, coinductive types, and datatypes in general,
- and semantics, denotational and operational,
- which may eventually lead you to category theory!

Part III

Procedural Program Derivation

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From Day 1 and Day 2...

We have covered a lot about functional program derivation:

- Expand/reduce transformation, and proof by induction.
- Some derivation techniques: accumulating parameter, tupling.
- Folds and fold fusion.
- Unfolds and hylomorphism.

For something you can apply to your work in the "real world", we will talk about deriving procedural programs in the last part of this lecture.

Most of the materials are taken from Anne Kaldewaij's book *Programming: the Derivation of Algorithms*.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

The Guarded Command Language

► A program computing the greatest common divisor:

 $|[\operatorname{con} A, B : int; \\ \operatorname{var} x, y : int;$

$$x, y := A, B;$$

$$do y < x \rightarrow x := x - y$$

$$\|x < y \rightarrow y := y - x$$

$$od$$

]|.

- Notice: a section for declarations, followed by a section for statements.
- Assignments: :=; do denotes loops with guarded bodies.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

The Guarded Command Language

► A program computing the greatest common divisor:

 $|[con A, B : int; \{ 0 < A \land 0 < B \}$ var x, y : int;

$$x, y := A, B;$$

$$do y < x \rightarrow x := x - y$$

$$\|x < y \rightarrow y := y - x$$

$$od$$

$$\{x = y = gcd(A, B)\}$$

- Notice: a section for declarations, followed by a section for statements.
- Assignments: :=; do denotes loops with guarded bodies.
- Assertions delimited in curly brackets.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

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Assertions

- The state space of a program is the states of all its variables.
 - E.g. the GCD program has state space $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$.
- The Hoare triple {P}S{Q}, operationally, denotes that the statement S, when executed in a state satisfying P, terminates in a state satisfying Q.
 - E.g., {*P*}*S*{*true*} expresses that *S* terminates.
 - $\{P\}S\{Q\}$ and $P_0 \Rightarrow P$ implies $\{P_0\}S\{Q\}$.
 - $\{P\}S\{Q\}$ and $Q \Rightarrow Q_0$ implies $\{P\}S\{Q_0\}$.

• Perhaps the simplest statement: $\{P\}$ *skip* $\{Q\}$ iff. $P \Rightarrow Q$.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Verification v.s. Derivation

- Recall the relationship between verification and derivation:
 - Verification: given a program, prove that it is correct with respect to some specification.
 - Derivation: start from the specification, and attempt to construct *only* correct programs.
- For this course, verification is mostly about putting in the right assertions.
- We will talk about verification first, before moving on to derivation.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

The Guarded Command Language Assignments and Selection Repetition

Procedural Program Derivation

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Maximum Segment Sum, Procedually

Wrapping Up

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Substitution and Assignments

- ▶ P[E/x]: substituting occurrences of x in P for E.
 - E.g. $(x \le 3)[x 1/x] \equiv x 1 \le 3 \equiv x \le 4$.
- Which is correct:
 - 1. $\{P\}x := E\{P[E/x]\}, \text{ or }$
 - 2. $\{P[E/x]\}x := E\{P\}?$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Substitution and Assignments

- ▶ P[E/x]: substituting occurrences of x in P for E.
 - E.g. $(x \le 3)[x 1/x] \equiv x 1 \le 3 \equiv x \le 4$.
- Which is correct:
 - 1. $\{P\}x := E\{P[E/x]\}$, or 2. $\{P[E/x]\}x := E\{P\}$?

Answer: 2! For example:

$$\{ (x \le 3)[x + 1/x] \} x := x + 1\{x \le 3\}$$

= $\{x + 1 \le 3\} x := x + 1\{x \le 3\}$
= $\{x \le 2\} x := x + 1\{x \le 3\}.$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

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E.g. Swapping Booleans

 \blacktriangleright The \equiv operator is defined by $true \equiv true = true$ $false \equiv true = false$ $true \equiv false = false$ $false \equiv false = true$ • $(a \equiv b) \equiv c = a \equiv (b \equiv c); true \equiv a = a.$ Verify: |[**var** *a*, *b* : *bool*; $\{a \equiv A \land b \equiv B\}$ $a := a \equiv b;$ $b := a \equiv b;$ $a := a \equiv b$; $\{a \equiv B \land b \equiv A\}$ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ □ ののの

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

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Assignments and Selectior Repetition

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Selection

- Selection takes the form if $B_0 \to S_0 \| \dots \| B_n \to S_n$ fi.
- Each B_i is called a guard; $B_i \rightarrow S_i$ is a guarded command.
- ▶ If none of the guards *B*₀...*B_n* evaluate to true, the program aborts. Otherwise, one of the command with a true guard is chosen *non-deterministically* and executed.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Selection

- Selection takes the form if $B_0 \to S_0 \| \dots \| B_n \to S_n$ fi.
- Each B_i is called a guard; $B_i \rightarrow S_i$ is a guarded command.
- ▶ If none of the guards *B*₀...*B_n* evaluate to true, the program aborts. Otherwise, one of the command with a true guard is chosen *non-deterministically* and executed.

```
To annotate an if statement:
```

```
 \{P\} 
if B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{Q\} 
 \|B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{Q\} 
fi
 \{Q, Pf\}, 
where Pf :: P \Rightarrow B_0 \lor B_1.
```

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Binary Maximum

• Goal: to assign $x \uparrow y$ to z. By definition,

 $z = x \uparrow y \equiv (z = x \lor z = y) \land x \le z \land y \le z.$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Binary Maximum

• Goal: to assign $x \uparrow y$ to z. By definition,

 $z = x \uparrow y \equiv (z = x \lor z = y) \land x \leq z \land y \leq z.$

• Try z := x. We reason:

$$((z = x \lor z = y) \land x \le z \land y \le z)[x/z]$$

$$\equiv (x = x \lor x = y) \land x \le x \land y \le x$$

$$\equiv y \le x,$$

which hinted at using a guarded command: $y \le x \rightarrow z := x$.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Binary Maximum

• Goal: to assign $x \uparrow y$ to z. By definition,

 $z = x \uparrow y \equiv (z = x \lor z = y) \land x \leq z \land y \leq z.$

• Try z := x. We reason:

$$((z = x \lor z = y) \land x \le z \land y \le z)[x/z]$$

$$\equiv (x = x \lor x = y) \land x \le x \land y \le x$$

$$\equiv y \le x,$$

which hinted at using a guarded command: $y \le x \rightarrow z := x$.

Indeed:

$$\{true\}$$

$$if y \le x \rightarrow \{y \le x\}z := x\{z = x \uparrow y\}$$

$$\|x \le y \rightarrow \{x \le y\}z := y\{z = x \uparrow y\}$$

$$fi$$

$$\{z = x \uparrow y\}.$$

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Loops

- Repetition takes the form $\operatorname{do} B_0 \to S_0 \| \dots \| B_n \to S_n \operatorname{od}$.
- ► If none of the guards B₀...B_n evaluate to true, the loop terminates. Otherwise one of the commands is chosen non-deterministically, before the next iteration.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Loops

- Repetition takes the form $\operatorname{do} B_0 \to S_0 \| \dots \| B_n \to S_n \operatorname{od}$.
- If none of the guards B₀...B_n evaluate to true, the loop terminates. Otherwise one of the commands is chosen non-deterministically, before the next iteration.
- ► To annotate a loop (for partial correctness):

```
 \{P\} \\ \mathbf{do} \ B_0 \to \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} \\ \| \ B_1 \to \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} \\ \mathbf{od} \\ \{Q, Pf\}, \\ \text{where } Pf :: P \land \neg B_0 \land \neg B_1 \Rightarrow Q.
```

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Loops

- Repetition takes the form $\operatorname{do} B_0 \to S_0 \| \dots \| B_n \to S_n \operatorname{od}$.
- If none of the guards B₀...B_n evaluate to true, the loop terminates. Otherwise one of the commands is chosen non-deterministically, before the next iteration.
- To annotate a loop (for partial correctness):

```
 \{P\} \\ \mathbf{do} \ B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} \\ \| \ B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} \\ \mathbf{od} \\ \{Q, Pf\},
```

where $Pf :: P \land \neg B_0 \land \neg B_1 \Rightarrow Q$.

P is called the *loop invariant*. Every loop should be constructed with an invariant in mind!

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Linear-Time Exponentiation

 $|| \operatorname{con} N\{0 \le N\}; \operatorname{var} x, n : int;$ x, n := 1, 0;**do** $n \neq N \rightarrow$ x, n := x + x, n + 1od ${x = 2^{N}}$ }

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Linear-Time Exponentiation

```
|[\operatorname{con} N\{0 \leq N\}; \operatorname{var} x, n: int;]|
```

```
x, n := 1, 0;
\{x = 2^n \land n \le N\}
do n \ne N \rightarrow
```

x, n := x + x, n + 1

od
$$\{x = 2^N \}$$

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Linear-Time Exponentiation

 $|[\operatorname{con} N\{0 \leq N\}; \operatorname{var} x, n: int;]|$

x, n := 1, 0; $\{x = 2^n \land n \le N\}$ **do** $n \ne N \rightarrow$

x, n := x + x, n + 1

Pf2:

od $\{x = 2^N, Pf2\}$

 $x = 2^n \land n \le N \land \neg (n \ne N)$ $\Rightarrow x = 2^N$

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Linear-Time Exponentiation

```
|[\operatorname{con} N\{0 \leq N\}; \operatorname{var} x, n: int;]|
```

```
x, n := 1, 0;
\{x = 2^n \land n \le N\}
do n \ne N \rightarrow
```

x, n := x + x, n + 1 $\{x = 2^n \land n \le N, Pf1\}$ od $\{x = 2^N, Pf2\}$

 $x = 2^n \land n \le N \land \neg (n \ne N)$ $\Rightarrow x = 2^N$

Pf2:

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Linear-Time Exponentiation

```
|[\operatorname{con} N\{0 \le N\}; \operatorname{var} x, n: int;]|
```

$$x, n := 1, 0;$$

$$\{x = 2^{n} \land n \le N\}$$

$$do n \ne N \rightarrow$$

$$\{x = 2^{n} \land n \le N \land n \ne N\}$$

$$x, n := x + x, n + 1$$

$$\{x = 2^{n} \land n \le N, Pf1\}$$

$$cod$$

$$\{x = 2^{N}, Pf2\}$$

$$Pf2:$$

$$x = 2^{n} \land n \le N \land \neg (n \ne N)$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2^{N}$$

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Assignments and Selection Repetition

Linear-Time Exponentiation

 $|[\operatorname{con} N\{0 \leq N\}; \operatorname{var} x, n: int;$

$$x, n := 1, 0;$$

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do $n \ne N \rightarrow$

$$\{x = 2^n \land n \le N \land n \ne N\}$$

 $x, n := x + x, n + 1$

$$\{x = 2^n \land n \le N, Pf1\}$$

od

$$\{x = 2^N, Pf2\}$$

Pf1:

 $(x = 2^{n} \land n \le N)[x + x, n + 1/x, n]$ $\equiv x + x = 2^{n+1} \land n + 1 \le N$ $\equiv x = 2^{n} \land n < N$ Pf2:

$$x = 2^{n} \land n \le N \land \neg (n \ne N)$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2^{N}$$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Greatest Common Divisor

• Known: gcd(x, x) = x; gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, x - y) if x > y.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Greatest Common Divisor

► Known: gcd(x, x) = x; gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, x - y) if x > y. |[con A, B : int; {0 < A ∧ 0 < B} var x, y : int;

$$x, y := A, B;$$

$$\{0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B)$$

$$do y < x \rightarrow x := x - y$$

$$\|x < y \rightarrow y := y - x$$

$$od$$

$$\{x = gcd(A, B) \land y = gcd(A, B)\}$$
]

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Greatest Common Divisor

► Known: gcd(x, x) = x; gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, x - y) if x > y. |[con A, B : int; {0 < A ∧ 0 < B} var x, y : int;

$$x, y := A, B;$$

$$\{0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B)\}$$

$$do y < x \rightarrow x := x - y$$

$$\|x < y \rightarrow y := y - x$$
od
$$\{x = gcd(A, B) \land y = gcd(A, B)\}$$

$$\|$$

$$(0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B))[x - y/x]$$

$$\equiv 0 < x - y \land 0 < y \land gcd(x - y, y) = gcd(A, B)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B) \land y < x$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B) \land y < x$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B) \land y < x$$

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$$\Rightarrow 0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B) \land y < x$$
Assignments and Selection Repetition

A Weird Equilibrium

Consider the following program:

 $\begin{aligned} & [[var x, y, z : int; \\ & \{true \\ & do x < y \to x := x + 1 \\ & [] y < z \to y := y + 1 \\ & [] z < x \to z := z + 1 \\ & od \\ & \{x = y = z\} \\]]. \end{aligned}$

If it terminates at all, we do have x = y = z. But why does it terminate?

Assignments and Selection Repetition

A Weird Equilibrium

Consider the following program:

If it terminates at all, we do have x = y = z. But why does it terminate?

1. $bnd \ge 0$, and bnd = 0 implies none of the guards are true.

2. $\{x < y \land bnd = t\}x := x + 1\{bnd < t\}.$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Repetition

To annotate a loop for total correctness:

```
 \{P, bnd = t\} 
 \mathbf{do} B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} 
 \| B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} 
 \mathbf{od} 
 \{Q\},
```

Assignments and Selection Repetition

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Repetition

To annotate a loop for total correctness:

```
 \{P, bnd = t\} 
 \mathbf{do} B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} 
 \| B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} 
 \mathbf{od} 
 \{Q\},
```

we have got a list of things to prove:

1. $B \wedge \neg B_0 \wedge \neg B_1 \Rightarrow Q$,

Assignments and Selection Repetition

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Repetition

To annotate a loop for total correctness:

```
 \{P, bnd = t\} 
 \mathbf{do} B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} 
 \| B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} 
 \mathbf{od} 
 \{Q\},
```

- 1. $B \wedge \neg B_0 \wedge \neg B_1 \Rightarrow Q$,
- 2. for all i, $\{P \land B_i\}S_i\{P\}$,

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Repetition

To annotate a loop for total correctness:

```
 \{P, bnd = t\} 
 \mathbf{do} B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} 
 \| B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} 
 \mathbf{od} 
 \{Q\},
```

- 1. $B \wedge \neg B_0 \wedge \neg B_1 \Rightarrow Q$,
- 2. for all i, $\{P \land B_i\}S_i\{P\}$,
- 3. $P \wedge (B_1 \vee B_2) \Rightarrow t \ge 0$,

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Repetition

To annotate a loop for total correctness:

```
 \{P, bnd = t\} 
 \mathbf{do} B_0 \rightarrow \{P \land B_0\} S_0\{P\} 
 \| B_1 \rightarrow \{P \land B_1\} S_1\{P\} 
 \mathbf{od} 
 \{Q\},
```

- 1. $B \wedge \neg B_0 \wedge \neg B_1 \Rightarrow Q$,
- 2. for all i, $\{P \land B_i\}S_i\{P\}$,
- 3. $P \wedge (B_1 \vee B_2) \Rightarrow t \geq 0$,
- 4. for all i, $\{P \land B_i \land t = C\}S_i\{t < C\}$.

Assignments and Selection Repetition

E.g. Linear-Time Exponentiation

What is the bound function? |[con N{0 ≤ N}; var x, n : int;

$$x, n := 1, 0;$$

$$\{x = 2^n \land n \le N \}$$

$$do n \ne N \rightarrow$$

$$x, n := x + x, n + 1$$

$$od$$

$$\{x = 2^N\}$$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

E.g. Linear-Time Exponentiation

What is the bound function?
[con N{0 ≤ N}; var x, n : int;

$$x, n := 1, 0;$$

$$\{x = 2^{n} \land n \leq N, N - n\}$$
do $n \neq N \rightarrow$

$$x, n := x + x, n + 1$$
od
$$\{x = 2^{N}\}$$
]
$$x = 2^{n} \land n \land n \neq N \Rightarrow N - n \geq 0,$$

$$\{\dots \land N - n = t\}x, n := x + x, n - 1\{N - n < t\}.$$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

E.g. Greatest Common Divisor

What is the bound function? |[con A, B : int; {0 < A ∧ 0 < B} var x, y : int;

$$x, y := A, B;$$

$$\{0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B)\}$$

$$do y < x \rightarrow x := x - y$$

$$\|x < y \rightarrow y := y - x$$

$$od$$

$$\{x = gcd(A, B) \land y = gcd(A, B)\}$$

Assignments and Selection Repetition

E.g. Greatest Common Divisor

What is the bound function? |[con A, B : int; {0 < A ∧ 0 < B} var x, y : int;

$$x, y := A, B;
\{0 < x \land 0 < y \land gcd(x, y) = gcd(A, B), bnd = |x - y|\}
do y < x \to x := x - y
||x < y \to y := y - x
od
\{x = gcd(A, B) \land y = gcd(A, B)\}
]|
$$\dots \Rightarrow |x - y| \ge 0,
\{\dots 0 < y \land y < x \land |x - y| = t\}x := x - y\{|x - y| < t\}.$$$$

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Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

The Guarded Command Language Assignments and Selection Repetition

Procedural Program Derivation

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Maximum Segment Sum, Procedually

Wrapping Up

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Deriving Programs from Specifications

```
From such a specification:
```

```
[[ con declarations;
    {preconditions}
    prog
    {postcondition}
]|
```

we hope to derive prog.

- We usually work backwards from the post condition.
- The techniques we are about to learn is mostly about constructing loops and loop invariants.

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Conjunctive Postconditions

- When the post condition has the form P ∧ Q, one may take one of the conjuncts as the invariant and the other as the guard:
 - $\{P\}$ do $\neg Q \rightarrow S$ od $\{P \land Q\}$.

• E.g. consider the specficication:

```
|[ \operatorname{con} A, B : int; \{0 \le A \land 0 \le B\} \\ \operatorname{var} q, r : int; \\ divmod \\ \{q = A \operatorname{div} B \land r = A \operatorname{mod} B\} \\ ]|.
```

► The post condition expands to
R :: A = q × B + r ∧ 0 ≤ r ∧ r < B.</p>

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Computing the Quotient and the Remainder

Let try $A = q \times B + r \wedge 0 \le r$ as the invariant and $\neg(r < B)$.

```
\{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \le r\}
do B \le r \rightarrow
```

od $\{P \land r < B\}$

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Computing the Quotient and the Remainder

Let try $A = q \times B + r \wedge 0 \leq r$ as the invariant and $\neg (r < B)$.

• *P* is established by q, r := 0, A.

```
q, r := 0, A;
{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \le r}
do B \le r \rightarrow
```

od $\{P \land r < B\}$

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Computing the Quotient and the Remainder

Let try $A = q \times B + r \wedge 0 \le r$ as the invariant and $\neg(r < B)$.

• *P* is established by q, r := 0, A.

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 $q, r := 0, A; \qquad \qquad \blacktriangleright \quad \text{Choose } r \text{ as the bound.} \\ \{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \le r\} \\ \textbf{do } B \le r \rightarrow$

od $\{P \land r < B\}$

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Computing the Quotient and the Remainder

Let try $A = q \times B + r \wedge 0 \le r$ as the invariant and $\neg(r < B)$.

P is established by q, r := 0, A. $\{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \leq r\}$ Choose r as the bound. F := r - B r := r - B P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A. P is established by q, r := 0, A.

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Computing the Quotient and the Remainder

Let try $A = q \times B + r \wedge 0 \le r$ as the invariant and $\neg(r < B)$.

P is established by q, r := 0, A. $\{r := 0, A; \\ \{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \le r\} \\ \text{b Choose } r \text{ as the bound.}$ $\{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \le r\} \\ \text{b Since } B > 0, \text{ try } r := r - B:$ $P[r - B/r] \\ \equiv A = q \times B + r - B \land 0 \le r - B \\ \equiv A = (q - 1) \times B + r \land B \le r.$ $\{P \land r < B\} \\ \text{b } (A = (q - 1)B + r \land B \le r) \\ \notin A = q \times B + r \land B \le r$

Faking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Fail Invariants

Computing the Quotient and the Remainder

Let try $A = q \times B + r \wedge 0 \le r$ as the invariant and $\neg(r < B)$.

P is established by q, r := 0, A. $\{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \leq r\}$ Choose r as the bound. $\{P :: A = q \times B + r \land 0 \leq r\}$ Since B > 0, try r := r - B: P[r - B/r] $\equiv A = q \times B + r - B \land 0 \leq r - B$ $\equiv A = (q - 1) \times B + r \land B \leq r.$ $(A = (q - 1)B + r \land B \leq r)[q + 1/q]$ $\Leftrightarrow A = q \times B + r \land B \leq r$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Quantifications

► Given associative \oplus with identity e, we denote $x \ m \oplus x \ (m+1) \dots \oplus x \ (n-1)$ by $(\oplus i : m \le i < n : x \ i)$.

$$\blacktriangleright (\oplus i : n \le i < n : x i) = e.$$

- $\blacktriangleright (\oplus i : m \le i < n+1 : x i) = (\oplus i : m \le i < n : x i) \oplus x n \text{ if } m \le n.$
- ► E.g.
 - $(+i:3 \le i < 5:i^2) = 3^2 + 4^2 = 25.$
 - $(+i, j: 3 \le i \le j < 5: i \times j) = 3 \times 3 + 3 \times 4 + 4 \times 4.$
 - $(\land i : 2 \le i < 9 : odd i \Rightarrow prime i) = true.$
 - ($\uparrow i: 1 \le i < 7: -i^2 + 5i$) = 6 (when i = 2 or 3).
- As a convention, $(+i: 0 \le i < n : x i)$ is written $(\Sigma i: 0 \le i < n : x i)$.

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Summing Up an Array $|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} f : \operatorname{array} [0..N] \text{ of } int;$ $\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i), bnd : N - n\}$ $\operatorname{do} n \ne N \rightarrow \operatorname{od}$ $\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < N : f i)\}$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Summing Up an Array

 $\begin{aligned} &|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N) \ of \ int; \\ &n, x := 0, 0; \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f \ i) \\ & \operatorname{do} n \ne N \rightarrow \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < N : f \ i)\} \end{aligned}$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

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Summing Up an Array

 $\begin{array}{l} |[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N) \ of \ int; \\ n, x := 0, 0; \\ \{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f \ i) \\ \operatorname{do} n \ne N \rightarrow \\ \{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < N : f \ i)\} \end{array} , bnd : N - n \}$

► Use N - n as bound, try incrementing n: $(x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i))[n + 1/n]$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i)$

 $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Summing Up an Array

 $\begin{aligned} &|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N) \ of \ int; \\ &n, x := 0, 0; \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f \ i) \land 0 \le n, bnd : N - n\} \\ &do \ n \ne N \to n := n + 1 \ od \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < N : f \ i)\} \end{aligned}$

► Use N - n as bound, try incrementing n: $(x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) \land 0 \le n)[n + 1/n]$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i) \land 0 \le n + 1$ $\Leftrightarrow x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i) \land 0 \le n$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n \land 0 \le n$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Summing Up an Array

 $\begin{aligned} &|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N) \ of \ int; \\ &n, x := 0, 0; \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f \ i) \land 0 \le n, bnd : N - n\} \\ &do \ n \ne N \to n := n + 1 \ od \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < N : f \ i)\} \end{aligned}$

• Use N - n as bound, try incrementing n: $(x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) \land 0 \le n)[n + 1/n]$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i) \land 0 \le n + 1$ $\Leftrightarrow x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i) \land 0 \le n$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n \land 0 \le n$ $(x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n \land 0 \le n)$

 $\Leftarrow x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) \land 0 \le n$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Summing Up an Array

 $\begin{aligned} &|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N) \ of \ int; \\ &n, x := 0, 0; \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f \ i) \land 0 \le n, bnd : N - n\} \\ &do \ n \ne N \to x := x + f \ n; \ n := n + 1 \ od \\ &\{x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < N : f \ i)\} \end{aligned}$

► Use N - n as bound, try incrementing n: $(x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) \land 0 \le n)[n + 1/n]$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i) \land 0 \le n + 1$ $\Leftrightarrow x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n + 1 : f i) \land 0 \le n$ $\equiv x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n \land 0 \le n$ $(x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n \land 0 \le n)[x + f n/x]$ $\equiv x + f n = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) + f n \land 0 \le n$ $\Leftrightarrow x = (\Sigma i : 0 \le i < n : f i) \land 0 \le n$

Fibonacci

Recall: fib 0 = 0, fib 1 = 1, and fib (n + 2) = fib n + fib (n + 1).

$$\begin{array}{ll} [[\mbox{con } N : int; \{ 0 \le N \} \ \mbox{var } x & : int; \\ n, x & := 0, 0 & ; \\ \{ x = fib \, n \land 0 \le n \le N & \\ \mbox{do } n \ne N \rightarrow & n := n + 1 \\ \mbox{od} \\ \{ x = fib \, N \} \]| \end{array}$$

Inv. is established by n, x := 0, 0. $(x = fib n \land 0 \le n \le N)$ $(x = fib (n+1) \land 0 \le n < N)$ (n+1/n)

Fibonacci

Recall: fib 0 = 0, fib 1 = 1, and fib (n + 2) = fib n + fib (n + 1).

$$\begin{array}{l|[con N : int; \{0 \le N\} var x : int; \\ n, x := 0, 0 ; \\ \{x = fib \, n \land 0 \le n \le N \\ do \, n \ne N \rightarrow & n := n + 1 \\ od \\ \{x = fib \, N\} \]| \end{array}$$

Inv. is established by n, x := 0, 0.(x = fib n ∧ 0≤n≤N)
≡ x = fib (n+1) ∧ 0≤n<N</p>
(x = fib (n+1) ∧ ...)
★ x = fib n ∧ ...

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Fibonacci

Recall: fib 0 = 0, fib 1 = 1, and fib (n + 2) = fib n + fib (n + 1).

$$\begin{aligned} &|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ \operatorname{var} x, y : int; \\ &n, x, y := 0, 0, 1; \\ &\{x = fib \ n \land 0 \le n \le N \land \ y = fib \ (n+1)\} \\ &\operatorname{do} n \ne N \to \\ &\operatorname{od} \\ &\{x = fib \ N\} \]| \end{aligned}$$

Inv. is established by n, x := 0, 0. $(x = fib n \land 0 \le n \le N \land y = fib (n+1))[n+1/n]$ $\equiv x = fib (n+1) \land 0 \le n < N \land y = fib (n+2)$ $(x = fib (n+1) \land \ldots \land y = fib (n+2))$ $\Leftrightarrow x = fib n \land \ldots \land y = fib (n+1)$

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Fibonacci

Recall: fib 0 = 0, fib 1 = 1, and fib (n + 2) = fib n + fib (n + 1).

$$\begin{aligned} & [[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ \operatorname{var} x, y : int; \\ & n, x, y := 0, 0, 1; \\ & \{x = fib \ n \land 0 \le n \le N \land \ y = fib \ (n+1)\} \\ & \operatorname{do} n \ne N \to \ x, y := y, x + y; \quad n := n+1 \\ & \operatorname{od} \\ & \{x = fib \ N\} \]| \end{aligned}$$

Inv. is established by n, x := 0, 0. $(x = fib n \land 0 \le n \le N \land y = fib (n+1))[n+1/n]$ $\equiv x = fib (n+1) \land 0 \le n < N \land y = fib (n+2)$ $(x = fib (n+1) \land \dots \land y = fib (n+2))[y, x + y/x, y]$ $\equiv y = fib (n+1) \land \dots \land x + y = fib (n+2)$ $\Leftrightarrow x = fib n \land \dots \land y = fib (n+1)$

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Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant **Tail Invariants**

Using Associativity

• Consider again computing A^B. Notice that:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x^0 &=& 1 \\ x^y &=& 1 \times (x \times x)^{y \operatorname{div} 2} & \text{if even } y, \\ &=& x \times x^{y-1} & \text{if } odd \ y. \end{array}$$

- Starting from A^B, we can use the properties above to keep "shifting some value to the left" until we have x₁ × ... × 1.
- ► Also notice that we need × to be associative.

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant **Tail Invariants**

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Using Associativity

▶ In general, to achieve r = f X where

 $f x = a \qquad \text{if } bx,$ $f x = g x \oplus f(hx) \quad \text{if } \neg bx.$ for associative \oplus with identity e, we may:

$$x, r := X, e;$$

$$\{r \oplus f x = f X\}$$

$$do \neg b x \rightarrow x, r := hx, r \oplus g x od;$$

$$\{r \oplus a = f X\}$$

$$r := r \oplus a.$$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant **Tail Invariants**

Using Associativity

▶ In general, to achieve r = f X where

 $f x = a \qquad \text{if } bx,$ $f x = g x \oplus f(hx) \qquad \text{if } \neg bx.$ for associative \oplus with identity e, we may: x, r := X, e; $\{r \oplus f x = f X\}$ $do \neg bx \rightarrow x, r := hx, r \oplus g x \text{ od};$ $\{r \oplus a = f X\}$ $r := r \oplus a.$

Verify:

 $(r \oplus f x = f X)[hx, r \oplus g x/x, r]$ $\equiv (r \oplus g x) \oplus f (hx) = f X$ $\equiv r \oplus (g x \oplus f (hx)) = f X$ $\equiv r \oplus f x = f X.$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant **Tail Invariants**

Fast Exponentiation

► To achieve $r = A^B$, choose invariant $r \times x^y = A^B$: r, x, y := 1, A, B; $\{r \times x^y = A^B \land 0 \le y, bnd = y\}$ **do** $y \ne 0 \land even y \rightarrow x, y := x \times x, y$ **div** 2 $\|y \ne 0 \land odd y \rightarrow r, y := r \times x, y - 1$ **od** $\{r \times x^y = A^B \land y = 0\}.$

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant **Tail Invariants**

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Fast Exponentiation

► To achieve $r = A^B$, choose invariant $r \times x^y = A^B$: r, x, y := 1, A, B; $\{r \times x^y = A^B \land 0 \le y, bnd = y\}$ **do** $y \ne 0 \land even y \rightarrow x, y := x \times x, y$ **div** 2 $\| y \ne 0 \land odd y \rightarrow r, y := r \times x, y - 1$ **od** $\{r \times x^y = A^B \land y = 0\}.$

Verify the second branch, for example:

 $(r \times x^{y} = A^{B})[r \times x, y - 1/r, y] \equiv (r \times x) \times x^{y-1} = A^{B} \equiv r \times (x \times x^{y-1}) = A^{B} \Leftrightarrow r \times x^{y} = A^{B} \land y < 0.$
The Guarded Command Language

Assignments and Selection Repetition

Procedural Program Derivation

Taking Conjuncts as Invariants Replacing Constants by Variables Strengthening the Invariant Tail Invariants

Maximum Segment Sum, Procedually

Wrapping Up

Specification

 $|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N] \text{ of } int;$ var r : int;

$$\{r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le N : sum p q)\}$$

• sum $p q = \Sigma i : p \le i < q : f i$.

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Specification

```
\begin{split} &|[\operatorname{con} N : int; \{0 \le N\} \ f : \operatorname{array} [0..N) \text{ of } int; \\ &\operatorname{var} r, n : int; \\ &n, r := 0, 0; \\ &\{r = (\uparrow p, q : 0 \le p \le q \le n : sum p \ q) \land 0 \le n \le N\} \\ &\operatorname{do} n \ne N \rightarrow \\ & \dots; n := n + 1 \\ &\operatorname{od} \\ &\{r = (\uparrow p, q : 0 \le p \le q \le N : sum p \ q)\} \end{split}
```

- sum $p q = \Sigma i : p \le i < q : f i$.
- Replacing constant N by variable n, use an up-loop.

Strengthening the Invariant

```
• Let P_0 \equiv r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q).
           n, r := 0, 0 :
           \{P_0 \land 0 < n < N\}
           do n \neq N \rightarrow
                     ...; n := n + 1
           od
           {r = (\uparrow p, q : 0 
       (r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q) \land 0 \le n \le N)[n + 1/n]
    \equiv r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n+1: sum p q) \land 0 \le n+1 \le N
\blacktriangleright = r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q) \uparrow
              (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le n+1: sum p(n+1))
           \wedge 0 \leq n + 1 \leq N
```

Strengthening the Invariant

```
• Let P_0 \equiv r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q).
           n, r, s := 0, 0, 0
           \{P_0 \land 0 < n < N \land s = (\uparrow p : 0 < p < n : sum p n)\}
           do n \neq N \rightarrow
                     ...: n := n + 1
           od
           {r = (\uparrow p, q : 0 
       (r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q) \land 0 \le n \le N)[n + 1/n]
    \equiv r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n+1: sum p q) \land 0 \le n+1 \le N
\blacktriangleright = r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q) \uparrow
              (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le n+1: sum p(n+1))
           \wedge 0 \leq n + 1 \leq N
```

• Let's introduce $P_1 \equiv s = (\uparrow p : 0 \le p \le n : sum p n)$.

Constructing the Loop Body

- Known: $P_0 \equiv r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q)$,
- $P_1 \equiv s = (\uparrow p : 0 \le p \le n : sum p n),$
- ► $P_0[n+1/n] \equiv r = (\uparrow p, q: 0 \le p \le q \le n: sum p q) \uparrow (\uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n+1: sum p (n+1)).$
- Therefore, a possible strategy would be:

$$\{ P_0 \land P_1 \dots \}$$

$$s := ?;$$

$$\{ P_0 \land P_1[n+1/n] \dots \}$$

$$r := r \uparrow s;$$

$$\{ P_0[n+1/n] \land P_1[n+1/n] \dots \}$$

$$n := n+1$$

$$\{ P_0 \land P_1 \dots \}$$

Updating the Prefix Sum

Recall $P_1 \equiv s = (\uparrow p : 0 \le p \le n : sum p n)$.

$$(\uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n: sum p n)[n+1/n] = \uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n+1: sum p (n+1) = (\uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n: sum p (n+1)) \uparrow sum (n+1) (n+1) = (\uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n: sum p (n+1)) \uparrow 0 = (\uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n: (sum p n + f n)) \uparrow 0 = ((\uparrow p: 0 \le p \le n: sum p n) + f n) \uparrow 0$$

Thus, $\{P_1\}s := ?\{P_1[n+1/n]\}$ is satisfied by $s := (s + f n) \uparrow 0$.

Derived Program

```
|[ con N : int; \{0 \le N\} f : array [0..N] of int;
       var r, s, n : int;
       n, r, s := 0, 0, 0;
       \{P_0 \land P_1 \land 0 \le n \le N, bnd : N - n\}
       do n \neq N \rightarrow
                  s := (s + f n) \uparrow 0;
                  r := r \uparrow s;
                  n := n + 1
       od
       \{r = (\uparrow 0 \le p \le q \le N : s : um p q)\}
\blacktriangleright P_0 \equiv r = (\uparrow 0 \le p \le q \le n : s : um p q).
```

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 $P_1 \equiv s = (\uparrow 0 \leq p \leq q \leq n : s : um p q)$ $P_1 \equiv s = (\uparrow 0 \leq p \leq n : s : um p n).$

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Wrapping Up

What have we learned?

- Procedural program derivation by backwards reasoning.
- Key to procedural program derivation: every loop shall be built with an invariant and a bound in mind.
- Some techniques to construct loop invariants:
 - taking conjuncts as invariants;
 - replacing constants by variables;
 - strengthening the invariant;
 - tail invariants.
- Some of them are closely related to techniques we introduced in Day 1 and Day 2, e.g. tupling and accumulating parameters.

What's Missing?

- Side-effects strictly forbidden in expressions.
- That means aliasing could cause disasters,
- which in turn makes call-by-reference dangerous.
 - Extra care must be taken when we introduce subroutines.
- And, no pointers. Which means that we have problem talking about complex data structures.
 - In contrast, functional program derivation is essentially built on a theory of data structure.
 - Rescue: separation logic, to talk about when data structure is shared.

Where to Go from Here?

- Early issues of Science of Computer Programming have regular columns for program derivation.
- Books and papers by Dijkstra, Gries, Back, Backhouse, etc.
- You might not actually derive programs, but knowledge learnt here can be applied to program verification.
 - Plenty of tools around for program verification basing on pre/post-conditions. Some of them will be taught in the next summer school.
- You might never derive any more programs for the rest of your life. But the next time you need a loop, you will know better how to construct it and why it works.