


## Script generated by TTT

Title: Nipkow: Info2 (12.11.2013)

Date: Tue Nov 12 15:32:23 CET 2013

Duration: 86:03 min

Pages: 136



Example: proof by cases

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**Lemma**  $\text{rem } z \text{ (xs ++ ys)} = \text{rem } z \text{ xs ++ rem } z \text{ ys}$

**Proof** by structural induction on xs

Base case:



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rem x [] = []
rem x (y:ys) | x==y      = rem x ys
               | otherwise = y : rem x ys
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Induction step:

To show:  $\text{rem } z \text{ ((x:xs)++ys)} = \text{rem } z \text{ (x:xs)} ++ \text{rem } z \text{ ys}$

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## Proof by cases

Works just as well for if-then-else, for example

```
rem x [] = []  
rem x (y:ys) = if x == y then rem x ys  
              else y : rem x ys
```



## Inefficiency of reverse

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reverse [1,2,3]
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= (3 : ([] ++ [2])) ++ [1]
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itrev :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]
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Problem: IH not applicable because too specialized: `[]`



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`= reverse xs ++ ([x] ++ ys)`   -- by Lemma `app_assoc`  
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Note: IH is used with `x:ys` instead of `ys`



When using the IH, variables may be replaced by arbitrary expressions, only the induction variable must stay fixed.



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Justification: all variables are implicitly  $\forall$ -quantified, except for the induction variable.



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Every element should occur as often in the output as in the input!



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Undefinedness can be handled, too.  
But it complicates life



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Two examples:

- Not true: `head [] - head [] = 0`
- From the **nonterminating** definition  
`f x = f x + 1`  
we could conclude that  $0 = 1$ .





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The proof methods in this chapter assume that all recursive definitions under consideration terminate.

Most Haskell functions we have seen so far terminate.



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Note:

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- $m$  can be defined in Haskell or mathematics.
- The conditions above can be refined to take special Haskell features into account, eg sequential pattern matching.



More generally:  $f :: T1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow Tn \rightarrow T$  terminates

if there is a measure function  $m :: T1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow Tn \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that

- for every defining equation  $f\ p1 \dots pn = t$



More generally:  $f :: T1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow Tn \rightarrow T$  terminates

if there is a measure function  $m :: T1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow Tn \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that

- for every defining equation  $f\ p1 \dots pn = t$
- and for every recursive call  $f\ r1 \dots rn$  in  $t$ :  
 $m\ p1 \dots pn > m\ r1 \dots rn$ .



More generally:  $f :: T_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow T_n \rightarrow T$  terminates if there is a measure function  $m :: T_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow T_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that

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- and for every recursive call  $f\ r_1 \dots r_n$  in  $t$ :  
 $m\ p_1 \dots p_n > m\ r_1 \dots r_n$ .

Of course, all other functions that are called by  $f$  must also terminate.



## Infinite values



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Haskell allows infinite values, in particular infinite lists.

Example: `[1, 1, 1, ...]`

Infinite objects must be constructed by recursion:

```
ones = 1 : ones
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Note:

- By termination of functions we really mean termination on *finite* values.
- For example `reverse` terminates only on finite lists.

This is fine because we can only construct finite values anyway.



How can infinite values be useful?

Because of “lazy evaluation”.



## Exceptions

If we use arithmetic equations like  $x - x = 0$  unconditionally, we can “lose” exceptions:

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In such cases, we can prove equations  $e1 = e2$  that are only *partially correct*:

If  $e1$  and  $e2$  do not produce a runtime exception then they evaluate to the same value.



## Summary

- In this chapter everything must terminate



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- This avoids undefined and infinite values



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- In this chapter everything must terminate
- This avoids undefined and infinite values
- This simplifies proofs



## 6. Higher-Order Functions



Recall [Pic is short for Picture]

```
alterH :: Pic -> Pic -> Int -> Pic
alterH pic1 pic2 1 = pic1
alterH pic1 pic2 n = beside pic1 (alterH pic2 pic1 (n-1))
```

```
alterV :: Pic -> Pic -> Int -> Pic
alterV pic1 pic2 1 = pic1
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alt f pic1 pic2 1 = pic1
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Higher-order functions:  
Functions that take functions as arguments





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Higher-order functions capture patterns of computation

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## 6.1 Applying functions to all elements of a list: map



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What is the type of map?

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map ::
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Predefined in Prelude.



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Two possible definitions:

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map f xs = [ f x | x <- xs ]
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```
map f []      = []  
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
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## Evaluating map

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## Some properties of map

```
length (map f xs) =
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## Some properties of map

`length (map f xs) = length xs`



## Some properties of map

`length (map f xs) = length xs`

`map f (xs ++ ys) =`



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Proofs by induction



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QuickCheck does not work automatically  
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Proofs by induction



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for properties of function variables

It needs to know how to generate and print functions.

Cheap alternative: replace function variable by specific function(s)

Example

```
prop_map_even :: [Int] -> [Int] -> Bool
```

```
prop_map_even xs ys =
```

```
  map even (xs ++ ys) = map even xs ++ map even ys
```





## 6.2 Filtering a list: filter



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### Example

```
filter even [1, 2, 3]
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```
filter null [[] , [1,2], []]
= [[] , []]
```



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## filter

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Two possible definitions:

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filter p xs = [ x | x <- xs, p x ]
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Two possible definitions:

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```

```
filter p [] = []
filter p (x:xs) | p x = x : filter p xs
                  | otherwise = filter p xs
```



## Some properties of filter

`filter p (xs ++ ys) = filter p xs ++ filter p ys`

`filter p (reverse xs) = reverse (filter p xs)`

Proofs by induction