# Interactive Theorem Proving (ITP) Course Web Version

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version 3c35cc2 of Mon Nov 11 10:22:43 2019

## Part I

Preface



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## Preface

- these slides originate from a course for advanced master students
- it was given by the PROSPER group at KTH in Stockholm in 2017 (see https://www.kth.se/social/group/interactive-theorem-)
- the course focused on how to use HOL 4
- students taking the course were expected to
  - ▶ know functional programming, esp. SML
  - ► understand predicate logic
  - ▶ have some experience with pen and paper proofs
- $\bullet$  the course consisted of 9 lectures, which each took 90 minutes
- there were 19 supervised practical sessions, which each took 2 h
- usually there was 1 lecture and 2 practical sessions each week
- students were expected to work about 10 h each week on exercises

#### Preface II

- usually, these slides present concepts and some high-level entry points
- often some more details were explained than covered on the slides
- technical details were covered in the practical sessions
- they are provided as they are in the hope that they are useful<sup>1</sup> (there are no guarentees of correctness:-))
- the exercise question-sheets are available as well
- if you have questions, feel free to contact Thomas Tuerk (thomas@tuerk-brechen.de)

<sup>1</sup>if you find errors, please contact Thomas Tuerk

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#### Motivation



- Complex systems almost certainly contain bugs.
- Critical systems (e.g. avionics) need to meet very high standards.
- It is infeasible in practice to achieve such high standards just by testing.
- Debugging via testing suffers from diminishing returns.

"Program testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never to show their absence!"

— Edsger W. Dijkstra

## Part II

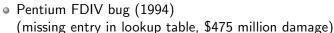
## Introduction



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Famous Bugs



- Ariane V explosion (1996)
   (integer overflow, \$1 billion prototype destroyed)
- Mars Climate Orbiter (1999)
   (destroyed in Mars orbit, mixup of units pound-force and newtons)
- Knight Capital Group Error in Ultra Short Time Trading (2012) (faulty deployment, repurposing of critical flag, \$440 lost in 45 min on stock exchange)
- . . . .

#### Fun to read

http://www.cs.tau.ac.il/~nachumd/verify/horror.html https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\_of\_software\_bugs



- proof can show absence of errors in design
- but proofs talk about a design, not a real system
- → testing and proving complement each other

"As far as the laws of mathematics refer to reality, they are not certain; and as far as they are certain, they do not refer to reality."

— Albert Einstein

#### Mathematical Proof

- informal, convince other mathematicians
- checked by community of domain experts
- subtle errors are hard to find
- often provide some new insight about our world
- often short, but require creativity and a brilliant idea

#### Formal Proof

- formal, rigorously use a logical formalism
- checkable by stupid machines
- very reliable
- often contain no new ideas and no amazing insights
- often long, very tedious, but largely trivial

We are interested in formal proofs in this lecture.

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## Interactive Proofs



## Automated vs Manual (Formal) Proof

## Fully Manual Proof

- very tedious; one has to grind through many trivial but detailed proofs
- easy to make mistakes
- hard to keep track of all assumptions and preconditions
- hard to maintain, if something changes (see Ariane V)

#### **Automated Proof**

- amazing success in certain areas
- but still often infeasible for interesting problems
- hard to get insights in case a proof attempt fails
- even if it works, it is often not that automated
  - run automated tool for a few days
  - ▶ abort, change command line arguments to use different heuristics
  - run again and iterate till you find a set of heuristics that prove it fully automatically in a few seconds

- combine strengths of manual and automated proofs
- many different options to combine automated and manual proofs
  - ► mainly check existing proofs (e.g. HOL Zero)
  - user mainly provides lemmata statements, computer searches proofs using previous lemmata and very few hints (e.g. ACL 2)
  - ► most systems are somewhere in the middle
- typically the human user
  - ► provides insights into the problem
  - ► structures the proof
  - ► provides main arguments
- typically the computer
  - ► checks proof
  - ► keeps track of all used assumptions
  - $\,\blacktriangleright\,$  provides automation to grind through lengthy, but trivial proofs

## Typical Interactive Proof Activities

- provide precise definitions of concepts
- state properties of these concepts
- prove these properties
  - ► human provides insight and structure
  - ► computer does book-keeping and automates simple proofs
- build and use libraries of formal definitions and proofs
  - formalisations of mathematical theories like
    - ★ lists, sets, bags, ...
    - ★ real numbers
    - **★** probability theory
  - specifications of real-world artefacts like
    - **★** processors
    - \* programming languages
    - **★** network protocols
  - reasoning tools

There is a strong connection with programming. Lessons learned in Software Engineering apply.

## Which theorem prover is the best one? :-)

- there is no **best** theorem prover
- better question: Which is the **best one for a certain purpose**?
- important points to consider
  - ► existing libraries
  - ► used logic
  - ► level of automation
  - ► user interface
  - ► importance development speed versus trustworthiness
  - ► How familiar are you with the different provers?
  - ► Which prover do people in your vicinity use?
  - ► your personal preferences
  - ▶ ...

In this course we use the HOL theorem prover, because it is used by the TCS group.



#### Different Interactive Provers



- there are many different interactive provers, e.g.
  - ► Isabelle/HOL
  - ► Coq
  - ► PVS
  - ► HOL family of provers
  - ► ACL2
  - ▶ ...
- important differences
  - ▶ the formalism used
  - ► level of trustworthiness
  - ► level of automation
  - ► libraries
  - ► languages for writing proofs
  - ► user interface
  - ▶ ...

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## Part III

## **HOL 4 History and Architecture**



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## LCF - Logic of Computable Functions







- **Standford LCF** 1971-72 by Milner et al.
- formalism devised by Dana Scott in 1969
- intended to reason about recursively defined functions
- intended for computer science applications
- strengths
  - ► powerful simplification mechanism
  - support for backward proof
- limitations
  - ▶ proofs need a lot of memory
  - ► fixed, hard-coded set of proof commands

- Milner worked on improving LCF in Edinburgh
- research assistants
  - ► Lockwood Morris
  - Malcolm Newey
  - ► Chris Wadsworth
  - ▶ Mike Gordon
- Edinburgh LCF 1979
- introduction of Meta Language (ML)
- ML was invented to write proof procedures
- ML became an influential functional programming language
- using ML allowed implementing the LCF approach

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LCF Approach II

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## LCF Approach

- $\bullet$  implement an abstract datatype thm to represent theorems
- semantics of ML ensure that values of type thm can only be created using its interface
- interface is very small
  - ► predefined theorems are axioms
  - ► function with result type theorem are inferences
- interface is carefully designed and checked
  - ► size of interface and implementation allow careful checking
  - ► one checks that the interface really implements only axioms and inferences that are valid in the used logic
- However you create a theorem, there is a proof for it.
- together with similar abstract datatypes for types and terms, this forms the **kernel**

## Modus Ponens Example

#### Inference Rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash a \Rightarrow b \qquad \Delta \vdash a}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash b}$$

#### SML function

val MP : thm -> thm -> thm MP(
$$\Gamma \vdash a \Rightarrow b$$
)( $\Delta \vdash a$ ) = ( $\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash b$ )

- very trustworthy only the small kernel needs to be trusted
- efficient no need to store proofs

#### Easy to extend and automate

However complicated and potentially buggy your code is, if a value of type theorem is produced, it has been created through the small trusted interface. Therefore the statement really holds.

## LCF Style Systems

There are now many interactive theorem provers out there that use an approach similar to that of Edinburgh LCF.

- HOL family
  - ► HOL theorem prover
  - ► HOL Light
  - ► HOL Zero
  - ► Proof Power
  - **>** ...
- Isabelle
- Nuprl
- Coq
- . . . .

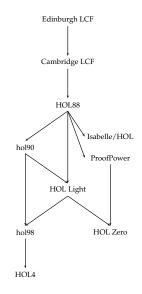
## Family of HOL

 ProofPower commercial version of HOL88 by Roger Jones, Rob Arthan et al.

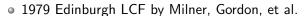
 HOL Light lean CAML / OCaml port by John Harrison

 HOL Zero trustworthy proof checker by Mark Adams

- Isabelle
  - ► 1990 by Larry Paulson
  - meta-theorem prover that supports multiple logics
  - ► however, mainly HOL used, ZF a little
  - nowadays probably the most widely used HOL system
  - ► originally designed for software verification



## History of HOL



- 1981 Mike Gordon becomes lecturer in Cambridge
- 1985 Cambridge LCF
  - ► Larry Paulson and Gèrard Huet
  - ► implementation of ML compiler
  - powerful simplifier
  - various improvements and extensions
- 1988 HOL
  - ► Mike Gordon and Keith Hanna
  - ▶ adaption of Cambridge LCF to classical higher order logic
  - ▶ intention: hardware verification
- 1990 HOL90 reimplementation in SML by Konrad Slind at University of Calgary
- 1998 HOL98 implementation in Moscow ML and new library and theory mechanism
- since then HOL Kananaskis releases, called informally HOL 4

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## Part IV

HOL's Logic



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## **HOL** Logic

- the HOL theorem prover uses a version of classical higher order logic: classical higher order predicate calculus with terms from the typed lambda calculus (i.e. simple type theory)
- this sounds complicated, but is intuitive for SML programmers
- (S)ML and HOL logic designed to fit each other
- if you understand SML, you understand HOL logic

#### HOL = functional programming + logic

#### **Ambiguity Warning**

The acronym *HOL* refers to both the *HOL interactive theorem prover* and the *HOL logic* used by it. It's also a common abbreviation for *higher order logic* in general.

- Types
  - SML datatype for types
    - ▶ **Type Variables** ('a,  $\alpha$ , 'b,  $\beta$ , ...) Type variables are implicitly universally quantified. Theorems containing type variables hold for all instantiations of these. Proofs using type variables can be seen as proof schemata.
    - ► Atomic Types (c)
      Atomic types denote fixed types. Examples: num, bool, unit
    - ▶ Compound Types  $((\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)op)$  op is a **type operator** of arity n and  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$  argument types. Type operators denote operations for constructing types. Examples: num list or 'a # 'b.
    - ▶ Function Types  $(\sigma_1 \to \sigma_2)$  $\sigma_1 \to \sigma_2$  is the type of **total** functions from  $\sigma_1$  to  $\sigma_2$ .
  - types are never empty in HOL, i. e. for each type at least one value exists
  - all HOL functions are total

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#### **Terms**

Terms II

- SML datatype for terms
  - ► Variables (x, y, . . . )
  - **▶** Constants (c, . . . )
  - ► Function Application (f a)
  - ▶ Lambda Abstraction ( $\x$ . f x or  $\lambda x$ . fx) Lambda abstraction represents anonymous function definition. The corresponding SML syntax is fn x => f x.
- terms have to be well-typed
- same typing rules and same type-inference as in SML take place
- terms very similar to SML expressions
- notice: predicates are functions with return type bool, i.e. no distinction between functions and predicates, terms and formulae

HOL term	SML expression	type HOL / SML
0	0	num / int
x:'a	x:'a	variable of type 'a
x:bool	x:bool	variable of type bool
x + 5	x + 5	applying function + to $x$ and 5
$\x$ . x + 5	$fn x \Rightarrow x + 5$	anonymous (a. k. a. inline) function
		of type num -> num
(5, T)	(5, true)	<pre>num # bool / int * bool</pre>
[5;3;2]++[6]	[5,3,2]@[6]	$ ext{num list} /  ext{int list}$

## Free and Bound Variables / Alpha Equivalence



Theorems



- in SML, the names of function arguments does not matter (much)
- similarly in HOL, the names of variables used by lambda-abstractions does not matter (much)
- the lambda-expression  $\lambda x$ . t is said to **bind** the variables x in term t
- variables that are guarded by a lambda expression are called bound
- all other variables are free
- Example: x is free and y is bound in  $(x = 5) \land (\lambda y. (y < x))$  3
- the names of bound variables are unimportant semantically
- two terms are called alpha-equivalent iff they differ only in the names of bound variables
- Example:  $\lambda x$ . x and  $\lambda y$ . y are alpha-equivalent
- Example: x and y are not alpha-equivalent

- theorems are of the form  $\Gamma \vdash p$  where
  - $ightharpoonup \Gamma$  is a set of hypothesis
  - ▶ *p* is the conclusion of the theorem
  - ▶ all elements of  $\Gamma$  and p are formulae, i. e. terms of type bool
- $\Gamma \vdash p$  records that using  $\Gamma$  the statement p has been proved
- notice difference to logic: there it means can be proved
- the proof itself is not recorded
- theorems can only be created through a small interface in the kernel

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**HOL Light Inferences I** 

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## **HOL Light Kernel**

- the HOL kernel is hard to explain
  - ▶ for historic reasons some concepts are represented rather complicated
  - ► for speed reasons some derivable concepts have been added
- instead consider the HOL Light kernel, which is a cleaned-up version
- there are two predefined constants
  - ▶ = : 'a -> 'a -> bool
  - ▶ @ : ('a -> bool) -> 'a
- there are two predefined types
  - ▶ bool
  - ▶ ind
- the meaning of these types and constants is given by inference rules and axioms

## **HOL Light Inferences II**

## **HOL Light Axioms and Definition Principles**



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$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash p \Leftrightarrow q \qquad \Delta \vdash p}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash q} \text{ EQ\_MP}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash p \qquad \Delta \vdash q}{\left(\Gamma - \{q\}\right) \cup \left(\Delta - \{p\}\right) \vdash p \Leftrightarrow q} \text{ DEDUCT\_ANTISYM\_RULE}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma[x_1,\ldots,x_n] \vdash \rho[x_1,\ldots,x_n]}{\Gamma[t_1,\ldots,t_n] \vdash \rho[t_1,\ldots,t_n]} \text{ INST}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma[\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n] \vdash \rho[\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n]}{\Gamma[\gamma_1,\ldots,\gamma_n] \vdash \rho[\gamma_1,\ldots,\gamma_n]} \text{ INST_TYPE}$$

3 axioms needed

ETA\_AX 
$$|-(\lambda x. t x)| = t$$
  
SELECT\_AX  $|-P x \Longrightarrow P((@)P))$   
INFINITY\_AX predefined type ind is infinite

- definition principle for constants
  - constants can be introduced as abbreviations
  - ► constraint: no free vars and no new type vars
- definition principle for types
  - ▶ new types can be defined as non-empty subtypes of existing types
- both principles
  - ▶ lead to conservative extensions
  - preserve consistency

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#### **HOL** Light derived concepts

Everything else is derived from this small kernel.

$$T =_{def} (\lambda p. p) = (\lambda p. p)$$

$$\wedge =_{def} \lambda p q. (\lambda f. f p q) = (\lambda f. f T T)$$

$$\Longrightarrow =_{def} \lambda p q. (p \wedge q \Leftrightarrow p)$$

$$\forall =_{def} \lambda P. (P = \lambda x. T)$$

$$\exists =_{def} \lambda P. (\forall q. (\forall x. P(x) \Longrightarrow q) \Longrightarrow q)$$

Multiple Kernels

- Kernel defines abstract datatypes for types, terms and theorems
- one does not need to look at the internal implementation
- therefore, easy to exchange
- there are at least 3 different kernels for HOL
  - ► standard kernel (de Bruijn indices)
  - experimental kernel (name / type pairs)
  - ► OpenTheory kernel (for proof recording)

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## **HOL Logic Summary**

- HOL theorem prover uses classical higher order logic
- HOL logic is very similar to SML
  - ► syntax
  - ► type system
  - ► type inference
- HOL theorem prover very trustworthy because of LCF approach
  - ► there is a small kernel
  - proofs are not stored explicitly
- you don't need to know the details of the kernel
- usually one works at a much higher level of abstraction

## Part V

## Basic HOL Usage



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## **HOL** Technical Usage Issues

- practical issues are discussed in practical sessions
  - ▶ how to install HOL
  - ▶ which key-combinations to use in emacs-mode
  - ► detailed signature of libraries and theories
  - ► all parameters and options of certain tools
  - ▶ ...
- exercise sheets sometimes
  - ▶ ask to read some documentation
  - provide examples
  - ▶ list references where to get additional information
- if you have problems, ask me outside lecture (thomas@tuerk-brechen.de)
- covered only very briefly in lectures

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## Installing HOL



- webpage: https://hol-theorem-prover.org
- HOL supports two SML implementations
  - ► Moscow ML (http://mosml.org)
  - ► PolyML (http://www.polyml.org)
- I recommend using PolyML
- please use emacs with
  - ► hol-mode
  - ► sml-mode
  - ► hol-unicode, if you want to type Unicode
- please install recent revision from git repo or Kananaskis 11 release
- documentation found on HOL webpage and with sources

#### General Architecture

- HOL is a collection of SML modules
- starting HOL starts a SML Read-Eval-Print-Loop (REPL) with
  - ► some HOL modules loaded
  - ► some default modules opened
  - ► an input wrapper to help parsing terms called unquote
- unquote provides special quotes for terms and types
  - ► implemented as input filter
  - ▶ ''my-term'' becomes Parse.Term [QUOTE "my-term"]
  - '':my-type'' becomes Parse.Type [QUOTE ":my-type"]
- main interfaces
  - ► emacs (used in the course)
  - ▶ vim
  - ▶ bare shell

## Directory Structure

- bin HOL binaries
- src HOL sources
- examples HOL examples
  - ► interesting projects by various people
  - examples owned by their developer
  - ► coding style and level of maintenance differ a lot
- help sources for reference manual
  - ▶ after compilation home of reference HTML page
- Manual HOL manuals
  - ▶ Tutorial
  - Description
  - ► Reference (PDF version)
  - ► Interaction
  - ► Quick (cheat pages)
  - ► Style-guide
  - ▶ ...

#### <sup>⊚ ଡ଼ଡ଼</sup> File

#### Filenames

- \*Script.sml HOL proof script file
  - script files contain definitions and proof scripts
  - executing them results in HOL searching and checking proofs
  - ► this might take very long
  - ► resulting theorems are stored in \*Theory.{sml|sig} files
- \*Theory. {sml|sig} HOL theory
  - ▶ auto-generated by corresponding script file
  - ▶ load quickly, because they don't search/check proofs
  - ▶ do not edit theory files
- \*Syntax.{sml|sig} syntax libraries
  - ► contain syntax related functions
  - ▶ i. e. functions to construct and destruct terms and types
- \*Lib.{sml|sig} general libraries
- \*Simps.{sml|sig} simplifications
- selftest.sml selftest for current directory

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## Unicode

- HOL supports both Unicode and pure ASCII input and output
- advantages of Unicode compared to ASCII
  - easier to read (good fonts provided)
  - ▶ no need to learn special ASCII syntax
- disadvanges of Unicode compared to ASCII
  - ▶ harder to type (even with hol-unicode.el)
  - ► less portable between systems
- whether you like Unicode is highly a matter of personal taste
- HOL's policy
  - ► no Unicode in HOL's source directory src
  - ► Unicode in examples directory examples is fine
- I recommend turning Unicode output off initially
  - ► this simplifies learning the ASCII syntax
  - ► no need for special fonts
  - ▶ it is easier to copy and paste terms from HOL's output

## Where to find help?

- reference manual
  - ▶ available as HTML pages, single PDF file and in-system help
- description manual
- Style-guide (still under development)
- HOL webpage (https://hol-theorem-prover.org)
- mailing-list hol-info
- DB.match and DB.find
- \*Theory.sig and selftest.sml files
- ask someone, e.g. me :-) (thomas@tuerk-brechen.de)

#### Kernel too detailed

- we already discussed the HOL Logic
- the kernel itself does not even contain basic logic operators
- usually one uses a much higher level of abstraction
  - ► many operations and datatypes are defined
  - $\,\blacktriangleright\,$  high-level derived inference rules are used
- let's now look at this more common abstraction level



## Part VI

## Forward Proofs



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## Common Terms and Types

		@_
		$\odot$

	Unicode	ASCII
type vars	$\alpha$ , $\beta$ ,	'a, 'b,
type annotated term	term:type	term:type
true	T	T
false	F	F
negation	$\neg b$	~b
conjunction	b1 ∧ b2	b1 /\ b2
disjunction	b1 ∨ b2	b1 \/ b2
implication	$b1 \implies b2$	b1 ==> b2
equivalence	b1 ⇔ b2	b1 <=> b2
disequation	$v1 \neq v2$	v1 <> v2
all-quantification	$\forall x. P x$	!x. P x
existential quantification	$\exists x. P x$	?x. P x
Hilbert's choice operator	0x. P x	0x. P x

There are similar restrictions to constant and variable names as in SML. HOL specific: don't start variable names with an underscore

## Syntax conventions

 $\Theta$   $\Theta$ 

## Creating Terms



- common function syntax
  - ▶ prefix notation, e.g. SUC x
  - ► infix notation, e.g. x + y
  - ▶ quantifier notation, e.g.  $\forall x$ . P x means  $(\forall)$   $(\lambda x$ . P x)
- infix and quantifier notation can be turned into prefix notation
   Example: (+) x y and \$+ x y are the same as x + y
- quantifiers of the same type don't need to be repeated Example:  $\forall x \ y. \ P \ x \ y$  is short for  $\forall x. \ \forall y. \ P \ x \ y$
- $\bullet$  there is special syntax for some functions Example: if c then v1 else v2 is nice syntax for COND c v1 v2
- associative infix operators are usually right-associative
   Example: b1 /\ b2 /\ b3 is parsed as b1 /\ (b2 /\ b3)

#### Term Parser

Use special quotation provided by unquote.

## **Operator Precedence**

It is easy to misjudge the binding strength of certain operators. Therefore use plenty of parenthesis.

#### Use Syntax Functions

Terms are just SML values of type term. You can use syntax functions (usually defined in \*Syntax.sml files) to create them.

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Inference Rules for Equality

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## Creating Terms II



rarser	Syntax runs	
'':bool''	<pre>mk_type ("bool", []) or bool</pre>	type of Booleans
''T''	$mk_const$ ("T", bool) or T	term true
''~b''	mk_neg (	negation of
	<pre>mk_var ("b", bool))</pre>	Boolean var b
''… /\ …''	mk_conj (,)	conjunction
''… \/ …''	$\mathtt{mk\_disj}$ (,)	disjunction
'' ==>''	$mk_imp$ (,)	implication
'' =''	mk_eq (,)	equation
'' <=>''	$mk_eq$ (,)	equivalence
'' <>''	mk_neg (mk_eq (,))	negated equation

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash s = t}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. \ s = \lambda x.t} \text{ ABS}$$

$$\frac{F \vdash s = t}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. \ s = \lambda x.t} \text{ ABS}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash s = t}{\Delta \vdash u = v}$$

$$\frac{types \ fit}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash s(u) = t(v)} \text{ MK\_COMB}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash t = s$$

$$\Gamma \vdash s = t$$

$$\Delta \vdash t = u$$

$$\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash s = u$$

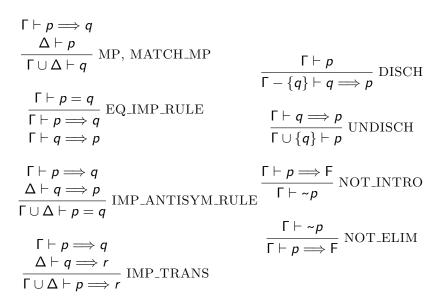
$$\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash q$$

#### Inference Rules for free Variables

$$\frac{\Gamma[x_1, \dots, x_n] \vdash \rho[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{\Gamma[t_1, \dots, t_n] \vdash \rho[t_1, \dots, t_n]} \text{ INST}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n] \vdash \rho[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n]}{\Gamma[\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n] \vdash \rho[\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n]} \text{ INST-TYPE}$$

## Inference Rules for Implication



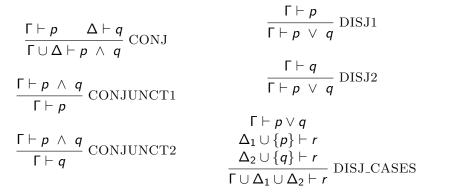
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Inference Rules for Conjunction / Disjunction

Inference Rules for Quantifiers



$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash p \quad x \text{ not free in } \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \forall x. \ p} \text{ GEN} \qquad \frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash p[u/x]}{\Gamma \vdash \exists x. \ p} \text{ EXISTS}}{\Gamma \vdash \exists x. \ p} \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash \forall x. \ p}{\Gamma \vdash p[u/x]} \text{ SPEC} \qquad \frac{\Delta \cup \{p[u/x]\} \vdash r}{u \text{ not free in } \Gamma, \Delta, p \text{ and } r} \\ \frac{u \text{ not free in } \Gamma, \Delta, p \text{ and } r}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash r} \text{ CHOOSE}$$

#### Forward Proofs

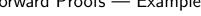
- axioms and inference rules are used to derive theorems
- this method is called **forward proof** 
  - ▶ one starts with basic building blocks
  - ▶ one moves step by step forward
  - ▶ finally the theorem one is interested in is derived
- one can also implement own proof tools

## Forward Proofs — Example II

Let's prove  $\forall P \ v. \ (\exists x. \ (x = v) \land P \ x) \iff P \ v.$ 

```
val tm_v = ''v:'a'';
val tm P = ''P:'a -> bool'':
val tm_lhs = ''?x. (x = v) / P x''
val tm_rhs = mk_comb (tm_P, tm_v);
val thm1 = let
  val thm1a = ASSUME tm_rhs;
                                         > val thm1a = [P v] |- P v: thm
  val thm1b =
                                         > val thm1b =
                                             [P v] |- (v = v) / P v: thm
    CONJ (REFL tm_v) thm1a;
                                         > val thm1c =
  val thm1c =
                                             [P v] |-?x. (x = v) / P x
    EXISTS (tm lhs. tm v) thm1b
                                         > val thm1 = [] |-
  DISCH tm rhs thm1c
                                             P v \Longrightarrow ?x. (x = v) / P x: thm
end
```

## Forward Proofs — Example I



Let's prove  $\forall p. \ p \Longrightarrow p.$ 

```
val IMP_REFL_THM = let
 val tm1 = ''p:bool'';
                        > val tm1 = ''p'': term
                             > val thm1 = [p] |- p: thm
 val thm1 = ASSUME tm1;
 val thm2 = DISCH tm1 thm1; > val thm2 = |- p ==> p: thm
in
 GEN tm1 thm2
                             > val IMP_REFL_THM =
                                 |-!p.p ==> p: thm
end
fun IMP_REFL t =
                             > val IMP_REFL =
 SPEC t IMP_REFL_THM;
                                 fn: term -> thm
```

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## Forward Proofs — Example II cont.

```
val thm2 = let
                                        > val thm2a = [(u = v) /\ P u] |-
 val thm2a =
   ASSUME ((u: a = v) / P u')
                                            (u = v) / P u: thm
 val thm2b = AP_TERM tm_P
                                        > val thm2b = [(u = v) /\ P u] |-
                                            P u <=> P v
    (CONJUNCT1 thm2a);
                                        > val thm2c = [(u = v) / P u] | -
 val thm2c = EQ_MP thm2b
    (CONJUNCT2 thm2a);
                                        > val thm2d = [?x. (x = v) / Px] | -
  val thm2d =
   CHOOSE (''u:'a'',
                                            Ρv
     ASSUME tm_lhs) thm2c
                                        > val thm2 = [] |-
 DISCH tm_lhs thm2d
                                            ?x. (x = v) / P x ==> P v
                                       > val thm3 = [] |-
val thm3 = IMP ANTISYM RULE thm2 thm1
                                            ?x. (x = v) / P x \iff P v
                                        > val thm4 = [] |- !P v.
val thm4 = GENL [tm_P, tm_v] thm3
                                            ?x. (x = v) / P x \iff P v
```

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## Part VII

## **Backward Proofs**



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## Motivation II - thinking backwards

- we want to prove
  - ▶ !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A
- all-quantifiers can easily be added later, so let's get rid of them
  - ► A /\ B <=> B /\ A
- now we have an equivalence, let's show 2 implications
  - ► A /\ B ==> B /\ A
  - ► B /\ A ==> A /\ B
- we have an implication, so we can use the precondition as an assumption
  - ▶ using A /\ B show B /\ A
  - ► A /\ B ==> B /\ A

#### Motivation I

• let's prove !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A

```
(* Show |- A /\ B ==> B /\ A *)
val thm1a = ASSUME ''A /\ B'';
val thm1b = CONJ (CONJUNCT2 thm1a) (CONJUNCT1 thm1a);
val thm1 = DISCH ''A /\ B'' thm1b

(* Show |- B /\ A ==> A /\ B *)
val thm2a = ASSUME ''B /\ A'';
val thm2b = CONJ (CONJUNCT2 thm2a) (CONJUNCT1 thm2a);
val thm2 = DISCH ''B /\ A'' thm2b

(* Combine to get |- A /\ B <=> B /\ A *)
val thm3 = IMP_ANTISYM_RULE thm1 thm2

(* Add quantifiers *)
val thm4 = GENL [''A:bool'', ''B:bool''] thm3
```

- this is how you write down a proof
- for finding a proof it is however often useful to think backwards

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## Motivation III - thinking backwards



- we have a conjunction as assumption, let's split it
  - ▶ using A and B show B /\ A
  - ► A /\ B ==> B /\ A
- we have to show a conjunction, so let's show both parts
  - ▶ using A and B show B
  - ▶ using A and B show A
  - ► A /\ B ==> B /\ A
- the first two proof obligations are trivial
  - ► A /\ B ==> B /\ A
- o . . .
- we are done

#### Motivation IV

## **HOL** Implementation of Backward Proofs



- common practise
  - ► think backwards to find proof
  - write found proof down in forward style
- often switch between backward and forward style within a proof Example: induction proof
  - ▶ backward step: induct on . . .
  - ► forward steps: prove base case and induction case
- whether to use forward or backward proofs depend on
  - support by the interactive theorem prover you use
    - ★ HOL 4 and close family: emphasis on backward proof
    - ★ Isabelle/HOL: emphasis on forward proof
    - ★ Coq: emphasis on backward proof
  - your way of thinking
  - ► the theorem you try to prove

- in HOL
  - proof tactics / backward proofs used for most user-level proofs
  - ► forward proofs used usually for writing automation
- backward proofs are implemented by tactics in HOL
  - decomposition into subgoals implemented in SML
  - ► SML datastructures used to keep track of all open subgoals
  - ► forward proof used to construct theorems
- to understand backward proofs in HOL we need to look at
  - ▶ goal SML datatype for proof obligations
  - ▶ goalStack library for keeping track of goals
  - ► tactic SML type for functions performing backward proofs

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**Tactics** 

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## Goals

- goals represent proof obligations, i. e. theorems we need/want to prove
- the SML type goal is an abbreviation for term list \* term
- the goal ([asm\_1, ..., asm\_n], c) records that we need/want to prove the theorem {asm\_1, ..., asm\_n} |- c

## Example Goals

#### Goal

([''A'', ''B''], ''A /\ B'') ([''B'', ''A''], ''A /\ B'') ([''B /\ A''], ''A /\ B'')

#### Theorem

 $\{A, B\} \mid -A / \setminus B$  $\{A, B\} \mid -A / \setminus B$  $\{B / \setminus A\} \mid -A / \setminus B$ ([], ''(B  $/\$  A) ==> (A  $/\$  B)'') |- (B  $/\$  A) ==> (A  $/\$  B)

- the SML type tactic is an abbreviation for the type goal -> goal list \* validation
- validation is an abbreviation for thm list -> thm
- given a goal, a tactic
  - ▶ decides into which subgoals to decompose the goal
  - ► returns this list of subgoals
  - ► returns a validation that
    - ★ given a list of theorems for the computed subgoals
    - ★ produces a theorem for the original goal
- special case: empty list of subgoals
  - ▶ the validation (given []) needs to produce a theorem for the goal
- notice: a tactic might be invalid

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## Tactic Example — CONJ\_TAC

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## Tactic Example — EQ\_TAC

 $\frac{\Delta \vdash q \Longrightarrow p}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash p = q} \text{IMP\_ANTISYM\_RULE}$ 

val EQ\_TAC: tactic = fn (asl, t) =>

val (lhs, rhs) = dest\_eq t

 $\Gamma \vdash p \Longrightarrow q$ 

in

end



 $t \equiv lhs = rhs$ 

 $asl \vdash lhs ==> rhs$ 

 $\frac{\text{asl} \vdash \text{rhs} ==> 1\text{hs}}{\text{asl} \vdash \text{t}}$ 

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash p \qquad \Delta \vdash q}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash p \ \land \ q} \text{ CONJ}$$

$$\frac{\texttt{t} \equiv \texttt{conj1} \ \ / \setminus \texttt{conj2}}{\texttt{asl} \vdash \texttt{conj1} \ \ \ } \\ \frac{\texttt{asl} \vdash \texttt{conj2}}{\texttt{asl} \vdash \texttt{t}}$$

```
val CONJ_TAC: tactic = fn (asl, t) =>
  let
    val (conj1, conj2) = dest_conj t
  in
    ([(asl, conj1), (asl, conj2)],
     fn [th1, th2] => CONJ th1 th2 | _ => raise Match)
  end
  handle HOL_ERR _ => raise ERR "CONJ_TAC" ""
```

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## proofManagerLib / goalStack

- the proofManagerLib keeps track of open goals
- it uses goalStack internally
- important commands
  - ► **g** set up new goal
  - ▶ e expand a tactic
  - ▶ p print the current status
  - ▶ top\_thm get the proved thm at the end

Tactic Proof Example I

fn [th1, th2] => IMP\_ANTISYM\_RULE th1 th2

handle HOL\_ERR \_ => raise ERR "EQ\_TAC" ""

=> raise Match)

([(asl, mk\_imp (lhs, rhs)), (asl, mk\_imp (rhs, lhs))],



## Previous Goalstack

1 \_

User Action

g '!A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A';

New Goalstack

Initial goal:

!A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A

: proof

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## Tactic Proof Example II

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Tactic Proof Example III

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Previous Goalstack

Initial goal:

!A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A

: proof

**User Action** 

- e GEN\_TAC;
- e GEN\_TAC;

New Goalstack

A /\ B <=> B /\ A

: proof

Previous Goalstack

A /\ B <=> B /\ A

: proof

**User Action** 

e EQ\_TAC;

New Goalstack

B /\ A ==> A /\ B

 $A / B \Longrightarrow B / A$ 

Previous Goalstack

: proof

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Tactic Proof Example IV

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Tactic Proof Example V

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Previous Goalstack

B /\ A ==> A /\ B

A / B ==> B / A : proof

User Action

e CONJ\_TAC;

0. A 1. B

B /\ A

User Action

e STRIP\_TAC;

New Goalstack

B /\ A

- O. A
- 1. B

New Goalstack

.\_\_\_\_

0. A 1. B

\_\_\_\_

0. A 1. B

## Tactic Proof Example VI

```
Previous Goalstack

A

O. A

1. B

B

O. A

1. B
```

```
User Action
e (ACCEPT_TAC (ASSUME ''B:bool''));
e (ACCEPT_TAC (ASSUME ''A:bool''));
```

```
New Goalstack
B /\ A ==> A /\ B
: proof
```

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## Tactic Proof Example VIII

```
Previous Goalstack
Initial goal proved.
|- !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A:
proof
```

```
User Action
val thm = top_thm();
```

```
Result
val thm =
    |- !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A:
    thm
```

## Tactic Proof Example VII

```
Previous Goalstack

B /\ A ==> A /\ B

: proof
```

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```
User Action
e STRIP_TAC;
e (ASM_REWRITE_TAC[]);
```

```
New Goalstack
Initial goal proved.
|- !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A:
    proof
```

## Tactic Proof Example IX

```
Result
val thm =
    |- !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A:
    thm
```

## Tactic Proof Example X



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## Summary Backward Proofs



#### Cleaned-up Tactic

```
val thm = prove (''!A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A'',
    REPEAT GEN_TAC >>
    EQ_TAC >> (
        REPEAT STRIP_TAC >>
        ASM_REWRITE_TAC []
));
```

#### Result

```
val thm =
  |- !A B. A /\ B <=> B /\ A:
  thm
```

## Part VIII

#### **Basic Tactics**



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- in HOL most user-level proofs are tactic-based
  - ▶ automation often written in forward style
  - ► low-level, basic proofs written in forward style
  - ▶ nearly everything else is written in backward (tactic) style
- there are many different tactics
- in the lecture only the most basic ones will be discussed
- you need to learn about tactics on your own
  - ▶ good starting point: Quick manual
  - ▶ learning finer points takes a lot of time
  - exercises require you to read up on tactics
- often there are many ways to prove a statement, which tactics to use depends on
  - ► personal way of thinking
  - personal style and preferences
  - ► maintainability, clarity, elegance, robustness
  - ▶ ..

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## Syntax of Tactics in HOL



- originally tactics were written all in capital letters with underscores
   Example: ALL\_TAC
- since 2010 more and more tactics have overloaded lower-case syntax Example: all\_tac
- sometimes, the lower-case version is shortened
  - Example: REPEAT, rpt
- sometimes, there is special syntax
   Example: THEN, \\, >>
- which one to use is mostly a matter of personal taste
  - ► all-capital names are hard to read and type
  - ▶ however, not for all tactics there are lower-case versions
  - ▶ mixed lower- and upper-case tactics are even harder to read
  - ▶ often shortened lower-case name is not *speaking*

In the lecture we will use mostly the old-style names.

#### Some Basic Tactics

GEN_TAC	remove outermost all-quantifier
DISCH_TAC	move antecedent of goal into assumptions
$CONJ\_TAC$	splits conjunctive goal
STRIP_TAC	splits on outermost connective (combination
	of GEN_TAC, CONJ_TAC, DISCH_TAC,)
DISJ1_TAC	selects left disjunct
DISJ2_TAC	selects right disjunct
EQ_TAC	reduce Boolean equality to implications
ASSUME_TAC thm	add theorem to list of assumptions
EXISTS_TAC term	provide witness for existential goal

#### Tacticals

- tacticals are SML functions that combine tactics to form new tactics
- common workflow
  - ► develop large tactic interactively
  - ▶ using goalStack and editor support to execute tactics one by one
  - ► combine tactics manually with tacticals to create larger tactics
  - ▶ finally end up with one large tactic that solves your goal
  - ▶ use prove or store\_thm instead of goalStack
- make sure to **clearly mark proof structure** by e.g.
  - ► use indentation
  - ▶ use parentheses
  - ▶ use appropriate connectives
  - ▶ ..
- goalStack commands like e or g should not appear in your final proof

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#### **Basic Rewrite Tactics**



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## Some Basic Tacticals

tac1 >> tac2	THEN, \\	applies tactics in sequence
tac >  tacL	THENL	applies list of tactics to subgoals
tac1 >- tac2	THEN1	applies tac2 to the first subgoal of tac1
REPEAT tac	rpt	repeats tac until it fails
NTAC n tac		apply tac n times
REVERSE tac	reverse	reverses the order of subgoals
tac1 ORELSE tac2		applies tac1 only if tac2 fails
TRY tac		do nothing if tac fails
$ALL\_TAC$	${\tt all\_tac}$	do nothing
$NO_{-}TAC$		fail

- (equational) rewriting is at the core of HOL's automation
- we will discuss it in detail later
- details complex, but basic usage is straightforward
  - ▶ given a theorem rewr\_thm of form |- P x = Q x and a term t
  - ► rewriting t with rewr\_thm means
  - ▶ replacing each occurrence of a term P c for some c with Q c in t
- warning: rewriting may loop

Example: rewriting with theorem  $|-X| <=> (X /\ T)$ 

REWRITE\_TAC thms rewrite goal using equations found

in given list of theorems

ASM\_REWRITE\_TAC thms in addition use assumptions

ONCE\_REWRITE\_TAC thms rewrite once in goal using equations ONCE\_ASM\_REWRITE\_TAC thms rewrite once using assumptions

## Case-Split and Induction Tactics

Assumption Tactics

POP ASSUM thm-tac

PAT\_ASSUM term thm-tac

WEAKEN\_TAC term-pred

also PAT X ASSUM term thm-tac

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use and remove first assumption

assumption matching pattern

use (and remove) first

removes first assumption

satisfying predicate

common usage POP\_ASSUM MP\_TAC

Induct\_on 'term' induct on term

Induct induct on all-quantifier Cases\_on 'term' case-split on term

Cases case-split on all-quantifier

MATCH\_MP\_TAC thm apply rule

IRULE\_TAC thm generalised apply rule

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## **Subgoal Tactics**



## **Decision Procedure Tactics**

- decision procedures try to solve the current goal completely
- they either succeed or fail
- no partial progress
- decision procedures vital for automation

TAUT\_TAC propositional logic tautology checker

DECIDE\_TAC linear arithmetic for num

METIS\_TAC thms first order prover numLib.ARITH\_TAC Presburger arithmetic intLib.ARITH\_TAC uses Omega test

• it is vital to structure your proofs well

- ► improved maintainability
- ▶ improved readability
- ► improved reusability
- ► saves time in medium-run
- therefore, use many small lemmata
- also, use many explicit subgoals

 $\hbox{`term-frag' by tac} \qquad \qquad \hbox{show term with tac and} \\$ 

add it to assumptions

'term-frag' suffices\_by tac show it suffices to prove term

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- notice that by and suffices\_by take term fragments
- term fragments are also called **term quotations**
- they represent (partially) unparsed terms
- parsing takes place during execution of tactic in context of goal
- this helps to avoid type annotations
- however, this means syntax errors show late as well
- the library **Q** defines many tactics using term fragments

- here many tactics are presented in a very short amount of time
- there are many, many more important tactics out there
- few people can learn a programming language just by reading manuals
- similar few people can learn HOL just by reading and listening
- you should write your own proofs and play around with these tactics
- solving the exercises is highly recommended (and actually required if you want credits for this course)

## Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 1

- ullet we want to prove !1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 \* LENGTH 1
- $\bullet$  first step: set up goal on goalStack
- at same time start writing proof script

# Proof Script val LENGTH\_APPEND\_SAME = prove ( ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 \* LENGTH 1'',

#### Actions

- run g ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 \* LENGTH 1''
- this is done by hol-mode
- move cursor inside term and press M-h g
   (menu-entry HOL Goalstack New goal)

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## Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 2

#### Current Goal

```
!1. LENGTH (1 ++ 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1
```

- the outermost connective is an all-quantifier
- let's get rid of it via GEN\_TAC

## **Proof Script**

```
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
    ''!1. LENGTH (1 ++ 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1'',
GEN_TAC
```

#### Actions

- run e GEN TAC
- this is done by hol-mode
- mark line with GEN\_TAC and press M-h e
   (menu-entry HOL Goalstack Apply tactic)

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## Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 3



Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 4



```
Current Goal
LENGTH (1 ++ 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1
```

- LENGTH of APPEND can be simplified
- let's search an appropriate lemma with DB.match

## Actions

- o run DB.print\_match [] ''LENGTH (\_ ++ \_)''
- this is done via hol-mode
- press M-h m and enter term pattern (menu-entry HOL - Misc - DB match)
- this finds the theorem listTheory.LENGTH\_APPEND
  - |- !11 12. LENGTH (11 ++ 12) = LENGTH 11 + LENGTH 12

#### Current Goal

LENGTH (1 ++ 1) = 2 \* LENGTH 1

• let's rewrite with found theorem listTheory.LENGTH\_APPEND

## **Proof Script**

```
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
    ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1'',
GEN_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND]
```

#### Actions

- connect the new tactic with tactical >> (THEN)
- use hol-mode to expand the new tactic

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## Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 5



## Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 6



#### Current Goal

LENGTH 1 + LENGTH 1 = 2 \* LENGTH 1

- let's search a theorem for simplifying 2 \* LENGTH 1
- prepare for extending the previous rewrite tactic

## Current Goal

LENGTH (1 ++ 1) = 2 \* LENGTH 1

- extend the previous rewrite tactic
- finish proof

#### **Proof Script**

```
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
    ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1'',
GEN_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND]
```

## **Proof Script**

```
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
    ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1'',
GEN_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND, arithmeticTheory.TIMES2]);
```

#### Actions

- DB.match finds theorem arithmeticTheory.TIMES2
- press M-h b and undo last tactic expansion (menu-entry HOL - Goalstack - Back up)

#### Actions

- add TIMES2 to the list of theorems used by rewrite tactic
- use hol-mode to expand the extended rewrite tactic
- goal is solved, so let's add closing parenthesis and semicolon

## Tactical Proof - Example I - Slide 7



Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 1



- we have a finished tactic proving our goal
- notice that GEN\_TAC is not needed
- let's polish the proof script

```
Proof Script
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
    ''!l. LENGTH (APPEND l l) = 2 * LENGTH l'',
GEN_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND, arithmeticTheory.TIMES2]);
```

```
Polished Proof Script
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
   ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1'',
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND, arithmeticTheory.TIMES2]);
```

- let's prove something slightly more complicated
- drop old goal by pressing M-h d
   (menu-entry HOL Goalstack Drop goal)
- set up goal on goalStack (M-h g)
- at same time start writing proof script

```
Proof Script

val NOT_ALL_DISTINCT_LEMMA = prove (''!x1 x2 x3 11 12 13.

(MEM x1 11 /\ MEM x2 12 /\ MEM x3 13) /\

((x1 <= x2) /\ (x2 <= x3) /\ x3 <= SUC x1) ==>

"(ALL_DISTINCT (11 ++ 12 ++ 13))'',
```

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## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 2



## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 2



```
Current Goal
```

```
!x1 x2 x3 11 12 13.

(MEM x1 11 /\ MEM x2 12 /\ MEM x3 13) /\

x1 <= x2 /\ x2 <= x3 /\ x3 <= SUC x1 ==>

~ALL_DISTINCT (11 ++ 12 ++ 13)
```

let's strip the goal

```
Proof Script
```

#### Current Goal

```
!x1 x2 x3 11 12 13.

(MEM x1 11 /\ MEM x2 12 /\ MEM x3 13) /\
x1 <= x2 /\ x2 <= x3 /\ x3 <= SUC x1 ==>
~ALL_DISTINCT (11 ++ 12 ++ 13)
```

let's strip the goal

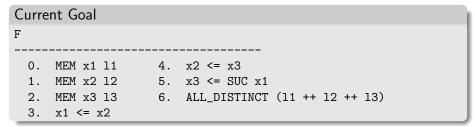
#### **Proof Script**

```
val LENGTH_APPEND_SAME = prove (
    ''!1. LENGTH (APPEND 1 1) = 2 * LENGTH 1'',
REPEAT STRIP_TAC
```

#### Actions

- add REPEAT STRIP\_TAC to proof script
- expand this tactic using hol-mode

## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 3



o oops, we did too much, we would like to keep ALL\_DISTINCT in goal

```
Proof Script
val NOT_ALL_DISTINCT_LEMMA = prove (''...'',
REPEAT GEN_TAC >> STRIP_TAC
```

#### Actions

- undo REPEAT STRIP\_TAC (M-h b)
- expand more fine-tuned strip tactic

## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 5

- from assumptions 3, 4 and 5 we know  $x2 = x1 \ / \ x2 = x3$
- let's deduce this fact by DECIDE\_TAC

```
Proof Script

val NOT_ALL_DISTINCT_LEMMA = prove (''...'',
REPEAT GEN_TAC >> STRIP_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.ALL_DISTINCT_APPEND, listTheory.MEM_APPEND] >>
'(x2 = x1) \/ (x2 = x3)' by DECIDE_TAC
```

## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 4

- now let's simplify ALL\_DISTINCT
- search suitable theorems with DB.match
- use them with rewrite tactic

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```
Proof Script
val NOT_ALL_DISTINCT_LEMMA = prove (''...'',
REPEAT GEN_TAC >> STRIP_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.ALL_DISTINCT_APPEND, listTheory.MEM_APPEND]
```

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## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 6

#### Current Goals — 2 subgoals, one for each disjunct

- both goals are easily solved by first-order reasoning
- let's use METIS\_TAC[] for both subgoals

```
Proof Script
val NOT_ALL_DISTINCT_LEMMA = prove (''...'',
REPEAT GEN_TAC >> STRIP_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.ALL_DISTINCT_APPEND, listTheory.MEM_APPEND] >>
'(x2 = x1) \/ (x2 = x3)' by DECIDE_TAC >> (
    METIS_TAC[]
));
```

## Tactical Proof - Example II - Slide 7



- notice that proof structure is explicit
- parentheses and indentation used to mark new subgoals

## Part IX

## Induction Proofs



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#### Mathematical Induction



#### Structural Induction Theorems



- mathematical (a. k. a. natural) induction principle: If a property P holds for 0 and P(n) implies P(n+1) for all n, then P(n) holds for all n.
- HOL is expressive enough to encode this principle as a theorem.

```
|- !P. P 0 / (!n. P n ==> P (SUC n)) ==> !n. P n
```

- Performing mathematical induction in HOL means applying this theorem (e.g. via HO\_MATCH\_MP\_TAC)
- there are many similarish induction theorems in HOL
- Example: complete induction principle

```
|-!P. (!n. (!m. m < n ==> P m) ==> P n) ==> !n. P n
```

- structural induction theorems are an important special form of induction theorems
- they describe performing induction on the structure of a datatype
- Example: |- !P. P [] /\ (!t. P t ==> !h. P (h::t)) ==> !1. P 1
- $\bullet$  structural induction is used very frequently in HOL
- for each algabraic datatype, there is an induction theorem

#### Other Induction Theorems







- there are many induction theorems in HOL
  - ► datatype definitions lead to induction theorems
  - ► recursive function definitions produce corresponding induction theorems
  - ► recursive relation definitions give rise to induction theorems
  - ► many are manually defined
- Examples

- the tactic Induct (or Induct\_on) is usually used to start induction proofs
- it looks at the type of the quantifier (or its argument) and applies the default induction theorem for this type
- this is usually what one needs
- other (non default) induction theorems can be applied via INDUCT\_THEN or HO\_MATCH\_MP\_TAC
- similarish Cases\_on picks and applies default case-split theorems

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## Induction Proof - Example I - Slide 2



- Induction Proof Example I Slide 1
  - let's prove via induction
    !11 12. REVERSE (11 ++ 12) = REVERSE 12 ++ REVERSE 11
  - we set up the goal and start an induction proof on 11

```
Proof Script
val REVERSE_APPEND = prove (
''!11 12. REVERSE (11 ++ 12) = REVERSE 12 ++ REVERSE 11'',
Induct
```

- the induction tactic produced two cases
- base case:

```
!12. REVERSE ([] ++ 12) = REVERSE 12 ++ REVERSE []
```

• induction step:

both goals can be easily proved by rewriting

```
Proof Script

val REVERSE_APPEND = prove (''
!!1 12. REVERSE (11 ++ 12) = REVERSE 12 ++ REVERSE 11'',
```

```
REWRITE_TAC[REVERSE_DEF, APPEND, APPEND_NIL],
ASM_REWRITE_TAC[REVERSE_DEF, APPEND, APPEND_ASSOC]
]);
```

## Induction Proof - Example II - Slide 2

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- Induction Proof Example II Slide 2



- let's prove via induction
  - !1. REVERSE (REVERSE 1) = 1
- we set up the goal and start an induction proof on 1

```
Proof Script
val REVERSE_REVERSE = prove (
''!1. REVERSE (REVERSE 1) = 1'',
Induct
```

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• the induction tactic produced two cases

```
base case:
```

```
• induction step:
```

REVERSE (REVERSE []) = []

again both goals can be easily proved by rewriting

```
Proof Script

val REVERSE_REVERSE = prove (
    ''!1. REVERSE (REVERSE 1) = 1'',
Induct >| [
    REWRITE_TAC[REVERSE_DEF],
    ASM_REWRITE_TAC[REVERSE_DEF, REVERSE_APPEND, APPEND]
]);
```

## Definitional Extensions

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## Part X

## **Basic Definitions**



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- there are conservative definition principles for types and constants
- conservative means that all theorems that can be proved in extended theory can also be proved in original one
- however, such extensions make the theory more comfortable
- definitions introduce no new inconsistencies
- the HOL community has a very strong tradition of a purely definitional approach

#### Axiomatic Extensions

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#### Oracles



- axioms are a different approach
- they allow postulating arbitrary properties, i. e. extending the logic with arbitrary theorems
- this approach might introduce new inconsistencies
- in HOL axioms are very rarely needed
- using definitions is often considered more elegant
- it is hard to keep track of axioms
- use axioms only if you really know what you are doing

- oracles are families of axioms
- however, they are used differently than axioms
- they are used to enable usage of external tools and knowledge
- you might want to use an external automated prover
- this external tool acts as an oracle
  - ► it provides answers
  - ▶ it does not explain or justify these answers
- you don't know, whether this external tool might be buggy
- all theorems proved via it are tagged with a special oracle-tag
- tags are propagated
- this allows keeping track of everything depending on the correctness of this tool

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## Pitfalls of Definitional Approach



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## Oracles II

- Common oracle-tags
  - ► DISK\_THM theorem was written to disk and read again
  - ► HolSatLib proved by MiniSat
  - ► HolSmtLib proved by external SMT solver
  - ► fast\_proof proof was skipped to compile a theory rapidly
  - ▶ cheat we cheated :-)
- cheating via e.g. the cheat tactic means skipping proofs
- it can be helpful during proof development
  - ▶ test whether some lemmata allow you finishing the proof
  - ► skip lengthy but boring cases and focus on critical parts first
  - ► experiment with exact form of invariants
  - **.** . . .
- cheats should be removed reasonable quickly
- HOL warns about cheats and skipped proofs

- definitions can't introduce new inconsistencies
- they force you to state all assumed properties at one location
- however, you still need to be careful
- Is your definition really expressing what you had in mind?
- Does your formalisation correspond to the real world artefact ?
- How can you convince others that this is the case ?
- we will discuss methods to deal with this later in this course
  - ► formal sanity
  - ► conformance testing
  - ► code review
  - ► comments, good names, clear coding style
  - ▶ ..
- this is highly complex and needs a lot of effort in general

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**Definitions** 



 HOL allows to introduce new constants with certain properties, provided the existence of such constants has been shown

#### 

- new\_specification is a convenience wrapper
  - ▶ it uses existential quantification instead of Hilbert's choice
  - ► deals with pair syntax
  - stores resulting definitions in theory
- new\_specification captures the underlying principle nicely

special case: new constant defined by equality

```
Specification with Equality
> double_EXISTS
val it =
|- ?double. (!n. double n = (n + n))
> val double_def = new_specification ("double_def", ["double"], double_EXISTS);
val double_def =
|- !n. double n = n + n
```

• there is a specialised methods for such simple definitions

```
Non Recursive Definitions
> val DOUBLE_DEF = new_definition ("DOUBLE_DEF", ''DOUBLE n = n + n'')
val DOUBLE_DEF =
    |- !n. DOUBLE n = n + n
```

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## **Underspecified Functions**



## Restrictions for Definitions

- all variables occurring on right-hand-side (rhs) need to be arguments
  - ▶ e.g. new\_definition (..., "F n = n + m") fails
  - ▶ m is free on rhs
- all type variables occurring on rhs need to occur on lhs

  - ► IS\_FIN\_TY would lead to inconsistency
  - ► |- FINITE (UNIV : bool set)
  - ► |- ~FINITE (UNIV : num set)
  - ► T <=> FINITE (UNIV:bool set) <=> IS\_FIN\_TY <=>

FINITE (UNIV:num set) <=> F

▶ therefore, such definitions can't be allowed

- function specification do not need to define the function precisely
- multiple different functions satisfying one spec are possible
- functions resulting from such specs are called underspecified
- underspecified functions are still total, one just lacks knowledge
- one common application: modelling partial functions
  - ▶ functions like e.g. HD and TL are total
  - ▶ they are defined for empty lists
  - ▶ however, it is not specified, which value they have for empty lists
  - ▶ only known: HD [] = HD [] and TL [] = TL []
    val MY\_HD\_EXISTS = prove (''?hd. !x xs. (hd (x::xs) = x)'', ...);
    val MY\_HD\_SPEC =

new\_specification ("MY\_HD\_SPEC", ["MY\_HD"], MY\_HD\_EXISTS)

## Primitive Type Definitions







- HOL allows introducing non-empty subtypes of existing types
- a predicate P : ty -> bool describes a subset of an existing type ty
- ty may contain type variables
- only non-empty types are allowed
- therefore a non-emptyness proof ex-thm of form ?e. P e is needed
- new\_type\_definition (op-name, ex-thm) then introduces a new type op-name specified by P

- lets try to define a type dlist of lists containing no duplicates
- predicate ALL\_DISTINCT : 'a list -> bool is used to define it
- easy to prove theorem dlist\_exists: |- ?1. ALL\_DISTINCT 1
- val dlist\_TY\_DEF = new\_type\_definitions("dlist",
   dlist\_exists) defines a new type 'a dlist and returns a theorem

```
|- ?(rep :'a dlist -> 'a list).
    TYPE_DEFINITION ALL_DISTINCT rep
```

- rep is a function taking a 'a dlist to the list representing it
  - ► rep is injective
  - ▶ a list satisfies ALL\_DISTINCT iff there is a corresponding dlist

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## Primitive Definition Principles Summary



## Primitive Type Definitions - Example 2

 define\_new\_type\_bijections can be used to define bijections between old and new type

- other useful theorems can be automatically proved by
  - ▶ prove\_abs\_fn\_one\_one
  - ▶ prove\_abs\_fn\_onto
  - ► prove\_rep\_fn\_one\_one
  - ▶ prove\_rep\_fn\_onto

- primitive definition principles are easily explained
- they lead to conservative extensions
- however, they are cumbersome to use
- LCF approach allows implementing more convenient definition tools
  - ► Datatype package
  - ► TFL (Total Functional Language) package
  - ► IndDef (Inductive Definition) package
  - ► quotientLib Quotient Types Library
  - ▶ ...



## Functional Programming Example



- the Datatype package allows to define datatypes conveniently
- the TFL package allows to define (mutually recursive) functions
- the EVAL conversion allows evaluating those definitions
- this gives many HOL developments the feeling of a functional program
- there is really a close connection between functional programming and definitions in HOL
  - ► functional programming design principles apply
  - ► EVAL is a great way to test quickly, whether your definitions are working as intended

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# Datatype Package - Example I

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## Datatype Package

- the Datatype package allows to define SML style datatypes easily
- there is support for
  - algebraic datatypes
  - record types
  - ► mutually recursive types
  - ▶ ...
- many constants are automatically introduced
  - constructors
  - ► case-split constant
  - ► size function
  - $\,\blacktriangleright\,$  field-update and accessor functions for records
  - ▶ ...
- many theorems are derived and stored in current theory
  - ► injectivity and distinctness of constructors
  - nchotomy and structural induction theorems
  - ► rewrites for case-split, size and record update functions

▶ ...

```
Tree Datatype in HOL — Deprecated Syntax

Hol_datatype 'btree = Leaf of 'a

| Node of btree => 'b => btree'
```

## Datatype Package - Example I - Derived Theorems 1

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Datatype Package - Example I - Derived Theorems 2

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#### btree\_distinct

|- !a2 a1 a0 a. Leaf a <> Node a0 a1 a2

#### btree\_11

```
|- (!a a'. (Leaf a = Leaf a') <=> (a = a')) /\
    (!a0 a1 a2 a0' a1' a2'.
        (Node a0 a1 a2 = Node a0' a1' a2') <=>
        (a0 = a0') /\ (a1 = a1') /\ (a2 = a2'))
```

#### btree\_nchotomy

```
|-!bb. (?a. bb = Leaf a) \/ (?b b1 b0. bb = Node b b1 b0)
```

#### btree\_induction

#### btree size def

```
|- (!f f1 a. btree_size f f1 (Leaf a) = 1 + f a) /\
   (!f f1 a0 a1 a2.
   btree_size f f1 (Node a0 a1 a2) =
   1 + (btree_size f f1 a0 + (f1 a1 + btree_size f f1 a2)))
```

#### btree\_case\_def

```
|- (!a f f1. btree_CASE (Leaf a) f f1 = f a) /\
   (!a0 a1 a2 f f1. btree_CASE (Node a0 a1 a2) f f1 = f1 a0 a1 a2)
```

#### btree\_case\_cong

```
|- !M M' f f1.

(M = M') /\ (!a. (M' = Leaf a) ==> (f a = f' a)) /\

(!a0 a1 a2.

(M' = Node a0 a1 a2) ==> (f1 a0 a1 a2 = f1' a0 a1 a2)) ==>

(btree_CASE M f f1 = btree_CASE M' f' f1')
```

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## Datatype Package - Example II



## Datatype Package - Example II - Derived Theorems



#### Enumeration type in SML

datatype my\_enum = E1 | E2 | E3

#### Enumeration type in HOL

Datatype 'my\_enum = E1 | E2 | E3'

#### my\_enum\_nchotomy

|- !P. P E1 /\ P E2 /\ P E3 ==> !a. P a

#### my\_enum\_distinct

|- E1 <> E2 /\ E1 <> E3 /\ E2 <> E3

#### my\_enum2num\_thm

|-  $(my_enum2num E1 = 0) / (my_enum2num E2 = 1) / (my_enum2num E3 = 2)$ 

#### my\_enum2num\_num2my\_enum

 $|-!r.r < 3 \iff (my_enum2num (num2my_enum r) = r)$ 



Datatype Package - Example III - Derived Theorems



```
Record type in SML

type rgb = { r : int, g : int, b : int }
```

```
Record type in HOL

Datatype 'rgb = <| r : num; g : num; b : num |>'
```

```
rgb_nchotomy
|- !rr. ?n n0 n1. rr = rgb n n0 n1
```

```
rgb_r_fupd
|- !f n n0 n1. rgb n n0 n1 with r updated_by f = rgb (f n) n0 n1
```

```
rgb_updates_eq_literal
|- !r n1 n0 n.
    r with <|r := n1; g := n0; b := n|> = <|r := n1; g := n0; b := n|>
```

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## Datatype Package - Example IV

- nested record types are not allowed
- however, mutual recursive types can mitigate this restriction

## Not Supported Nested Record Type Example in HOL

## Filesystem Datatype - Mutual Recursion in HOL

- Datatype Package No support for Co-Algebraic Types
  - there is no support for co-algebraic types
  - the Datatype package could be extended to do so
  - other systems like Isabelle/HOL provide high-level methods for defining such types

# Datatype Package - Discussion



# Total Functional Language (TFL) package



- Datatype package allows to define many useful datatypes
- however, there are many limitations
  - ▶ some types cannot be defined in HOL, e.g. empty types
  - ► some types are not supported, e.g. co-algebraic types
  - ► there are bugs (currently e.g. some trouble with certain mutually recursive definitions)
- biggest restrictions in practice (in my opinion and my line of work)
  - ► no support for co-algebraic datatypes
  - ▶ no nested record datatypes
- o depending on datatype, different sets of useful lemmata are derived
- most important ones are added to TypeBase
  - ▶ tools like Induct\_on, Cases\_on use them
  - ► there is support for pattern matching

- TFL package implements support for terminating functional definitions
- Define defines functions from high-level descriptions
- there is support for pattern matching
- look and feel is like function definitions in SML
- based on well-founded recursion principle
- Define is the most common way for definitions in HOL

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Well-Founded Recursion



#### Well-Founded Relations

• a relation R : 'a -> 'a -> bool is called **well-founded**, iff there are no infinite descending chains

wellfounded  $R = \sim ?f. !n. R (f (SUC n)) (f n)$ 

- Example: \$< : num -> num -> bool is well-founded
- if arguments of recursive calls are smaller according to well-founded relation, the recursion terminates
- this is the essence of termination proofs

- a well-founded relation R can be used to define recursive functions
- this recursion principle is called WFREC in HOL
- idea of WFREC
  - ▶ if arguments get smaller according to R, perform recursive call
  - ▶ otherwise abort and return ARB
- WFREC always defines a function
- if all recursive calls indeed decrease according to R, the original recursive equations can be derived from the WFREC representation
- TFL uses this internally
- however, this is well-hidden from the user



- Define feels like a function definition in HOL
- it can be used to define "terminating" recursive functions
- Define is implemented by a large, non-trivial piece of SML code
- it uses many heuristics
- outcome of Define sometimes hard to predict
- the input descriptions are only hints
  - ▶ the produced function and the definitional theorem might be different
  - ► in simple examples, quantifiers added
  - ► pattern compilation takes place
  - ► earlier "conjuncts" have precedence

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# Primitive Definitions



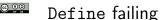
# Define - More Examples

```
> val MY HD def = Define 'MY HD (x :: xs) = x'
val MY_HD_def = |-!x xs. MY_HD (x::xs) = x : thm
> val IS SORTED def = Define '
     (IS_SORTED (x1 :: x2 :: xs) = ((x1 < x2) / (IS_SORTED (x2::xs)))) / (IS_SORTED (x2::xs)))) / (IS_SORTED (x2::xs)))) / (IS_SORTED (x2::xs))))
     (IS\_SORTED _ = T)
val IS_SORTED_def =
   |- (!xs x2 x1. IS_SORTED (x1::x2::xs) <=> x1 < x2 /\ IS_SORTED (x2::xs)) /\
      (IS_SORTED [] <=> T) /\ (!v. IS_SORTED [v] <=> T)
> val EVEN_def = Define '(EVEN 0 = T) /\ (ODD 0 = F) /\
                           (EVEN (SUC n) = ODD n) / \ (ODD (SUC n) = EVEN n)
val EVEN def =
   |- (EVEN O <=> T) /\ (ODD O <=> F) /\ (!n. EVEN (SUC n) <=> ODD n) /\
      (!n. ODD (SUC n) <=> EVEN n) : thm
> val ZIP_def = Define '(ZIP (x::xs) (y::ys) = (x,y)::(ZIP xs ys)) /\
                          val ZIP_def =
   |-(!ys y xs x. ZIP (x::xs) (y::ys) = (x,y)::ZIP xs ys) /
      (!v1. ZIP [] v1 = []) / (!v4 v3. ZIP (v3::v4) [] = []) : thm
```

- Define introduces (if needed) the function using WFREC
- intended definition derived as a theorem
- the theorems are stored in current theory
- usually, one never needs to look at it

#### Examples

#### Induction Theorems





- Define automatically defines induction theorems
- these theorems are stored in current theory with suffix ind
- use DB.fetch "-" "something\_ind" to retrieve them
- these induction theorems are useful to reason about corresponding recursive functions

- Define might fail for various reasons to define a function
  - ▶ such a function cannot be defined in HOL
  - ▶ such a function can be defined, but not via the methods used by TFL
  - ► TFL can define such a function, but its heuristics are too weak and user guidance is required
  - ► there is a bug :-)
- termination is an important concept for Define
- it is easy to misunderstand termination in the context of HOL
- we need to understand what is meant by termination

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#### Termination in HOL II



# Termination in HOL

- in SML it is natural to talk about termination of functions
- in the HOL logic there is no concept of execution
- thus, there is no concept of termination in HOL

```
3 characterisations of a function f : num -> num

|- !n. f n = 0

|- (f 0 = 0) /\ !n. (f (SUC n) = f n)

|- (f 0 = 0) /\ !n. (f n = f (SUC n))

Is f terminating? All 3 theorems are equivalent.
```

- it is useful to think in terms of termination
- the TFL package implements heuristics to define functions that would terminate in SML
- the TFL package uses well-founded recursion
- the required well-founded relation corresponds to a termination proof
- therefore, it is very natural to think of Define searching a termination proof
- important: this is the idea behind this function definition package, not a property of HOL

HOL is not limited to "terminating" functions

#### Termination in HOL III

#### Manual Termination Proofs I

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- one can define "non-terminating" functions in HOL
- however, one cannot do so (easily) with Define

#### Definition of WHILE in HOL

|- !P g x. WHILE P g x = if P x then WHILE P g (g x) else x

#### **Execution Order**

There is no "execution order". One can easily define a complicated constant function:  $(myk : num \rightarrow num) (n:num) = (let x = myk (n+1) in 0)$ 

#### **Unsound Definitions**

A function  $f: num \rightarrow num$  with the following property cannot be defined in HOL unless HOL has an inconsistancy:

!n. f n = ((f n) + 1)

Such a function would allow to prove 0 = 1.

- TFL uses various heuristics to find a well-founded relation
- however, these heuristics may not be strong enough
- in such cases the user can provide a well-founded relation manually
- the most common well-founded relations are **measures**
- measures map values to natural numbers and use the less relation
   |-!(f:'a -> num) x y. measure f x y <=> (f x < f y)</li>
- all measures are well-founded: |- !f. WF (measure f)
- moreover, existing well-founded relations can be combined
  - ► lexicographic order LEX
  - ► list lexicographic order LLEX
  - ▶ ...

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#### Manual Termination Proofs II

- if Define fails to find a termination proof, Hol\_defn can be used
- Hol\_defn defers termination proofs
- it derives termination conditions and sets up the function definitions
- all results are packaged as a value of type defn
- after calling Hol\_defn the defined function(s) can be used
- however, the intended definition theorem has not been derived yet
- to derive it, one needs to
  - provide a well-founded relation
  - ► show that termination conditions respect that relation
- Defn.tprove and Defn.tgoal are intended for this
- proofs usually start by providing relation via tactic WF\_REL\_TAC

# Manual Termination Proof Example 1

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```
> val qsort_defn = Hol_defn "qsort" '
  (qsort ord [] = []) /\
  (qsort ord (x::rst) =
     (qsort ord (FILTER ($~ o ord x) rst)) ++
     [x] ++
     (qsort ord (FILTER (ord x) rst)))'
val qsort_defn = HOL function definition (recursive)
Equation(s):
 [...] |- qsort ord [] = []
 [...] |- qsort ord (x::rst) =
            qsort ord (FILTER ($~ o ord x) rst) ++ [x] ++
            qsort ord (FILTER (ord x) rst)
Induction: ...
Termination conditions:
  0. !rst x ord. R (ord,FILTER (ord x) rst) (ord,x::rst)
  1. !rst x ord. R (ord, FILTER ($~ o ord x) rst) (ord, x::rst)
  2. WF R
```

# Manual Termination Proof Example 2

# Part XI

# **Good Definitions**



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# Manual Termination Proof Example 3



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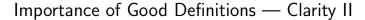
## Importance of Good Definitions



- using good definitions is very important
  - ▶ good definitions are vital for **clarity**
  - ▶ **proofs** depend a lot on the form of definitions
- unluckily, it is hard to state what a good definition is
- even harder to come up with good definitions
- let's look at it a bit closer anyhow

# Importance of Good Definitions — Clarity I







- HOL guarantees that theorems do indeed hold
- However, does the theorem mean what you think it does?
- you can separate your development in
  - ► main theorems you care for
  - ► auxiliary stuff used to derive your main theorems
- it is essential to understand your main theorems

#### Guarded by HOL

- proofs checked
- internal, technical definitions
- technical lemmata
- proof tools

#### Manual review needed for

- meaning of main theorems
- meaning of definitions used by main theorems
- meaning of types used by main theorems

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# Importance of Good Definitions — Proofs

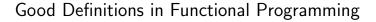


- Importance of Good Definitions Clarity III
  - it is essential to understand your main theorems
    - you need to understand all the definitions directly used
    - ▶ you need to understand the indirectly used ones as well
    - ▶ you need to convince others that you express the intended statement
    - ▶ therefore, it is vital to use very simple, clear definitions
  - $\bullet$  defining concepts is often the main development task
  - checking resulting model against real artefact is vital
    - ► testing via e.g. EVAL
    - ► formal sanity
    - conformance testing
  - wrong models are main source of error when using HOL
  - proofs, auxiliary lemmata and auxiliary definitions
    - ► can be as technical and complicated as you like
    - ► correctness is guaranteed by HOL
    - ► reviewers don't need to care

- good definitions can shorten proofs significantly
- they improve maintainability
- they can improve automation drastically
- unluckily for proofs definitions often need to be technical
- this contradicts clarity aims

# How to come up with good definitions







- unluckily, it is hard to state what a good definition is
- it is even harder to come up with them
  - ▶ there are often many competing interests
  - ▶ a lot of experience and detailed tool knowledge is needed
  - ► much depends on personal style and taste
- general advice: use more than one definition
  - ▶ in HOL you can derive equivalent definitions as theorems
  - ▶ define a concept as clearly and easily as possible
  - derive equivalent definitions for various purposes
    - ★ one very close to your favourite textbook
    - ★ one nice for certain types of proofs
    - **★** another one good for evaluation
    - **\*** ..
- lessons from functional programming apply

#### Objectives

- clarity (readability, maintainability)
- performance (runtime speed, memory usage, ...)

#### General Advice

- use the powerful type-system
- use many small function definitions
- encode invariants in types and function signatures

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#### Good Definitions – no number encodings

- many programmers familiar with C encode everything as a number
- enumeration types are very cheap in SML and HOL
- use them instead

# Good Definitions — Isomorphic Types



- the type-checker is your friend
  - ► it helps you find errors
  - ► code becomes more robust
  - ▶ using good types is a great way of writing self-documenting code
  - therefore, use many types
  - even use types isomorphic to existing ones

#### Virtual and Physical Memory Addresses

Virtual and physical addresses might in a development both be numbers. It is still nice to use separate types to avoid mixing them up.

```
val _ = Datatype 'vaddr = VAddr num';
val _ = Datatype 'paddr = PAddr num';

val virt_to_phys_addr_def = Define '
  virt_to_phys_addr (VAddr a) = PAddr( translation of a )';
```

#### **Example Enumeration Types**

In C the result of an order comparison is an integer with 3 equivalence classes: 0, negative and positive integers. In SML and HOL, it is better to use a variant type.



- often people use tuples where records would be more appropriate
- using large tuples quickly becomes awkward
  - ▶ it is easy to mix up order of tuple entries
    - ★ often types coincide, so type-checker does not help
  - ► no good error messages for tuples
    - ★ hard to decipher type mismatch messages for long product types
    - ★ hard to figure out which entry is missing at which position
    - ★ non-local error messages
    - ★ variable in last entry can hide missing entries
- records sometimes require slightly more proof effort
- however, records have many benefits

- using records
  - ▶ introduces field names
  - provides automatically defined accessor and update functions
  - ► leads to better type-checking error messages
- records improve readability
  - ▶ accessors and update functions lead to shorter code
  - ▶ field names act as documentation
- records improve maintainability
  - ► improved error messages
  - much easier to add extra fields

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Good Definitions — Encoding Invariants II

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# Good Definitions — Encoding Invariants

- try to encode as many invariants as possible in the types
- this allows the type-checker to ensure them for you
- you don't have to check them manually any more
- $\, \bullet \,$  your code becomes more robust and clearer

#### Network Connections (Example by Yaron Minsky from Jane Street)

 $Consider \ the \ following \ data type \ for \ network \ connections. \ It \ has \ many \ implicit \ invariants.$ 

#### Network Connections (Example by Yaron Minsky from Jane Street) II

The following definition of connection\_info makes the invariants explicit:

#### Good Definitions in HOL

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#### Good Definitions in HOL II

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#### **Objectives**

- clarity (readability)
- good for proofs
- o performance (good for automation, easily evaluatable, ...)

#### General Advice

- same advice as for functional programming applies
- use even smaller definitions
  - introduce auxiliary definitions for important function parts
  - use extra definitions for important constants
  - ▶ ...
- tiny definitions
  - allow keeping proof state small by unfolding only needed ones
  - allow many small lemmata
  - improve maintainability

#### Technical Issues

- write definitions such that they work well with HOL's tools
- this requires you to know HOL well
- a lot of experience is required
- general advice
  - avoid explicit case-expressions
  - prefer curried functions

#### Example

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# Good Definitions in HOL III

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# Formal Sanity

#### Multiple Equivalent Definitions

- satisfy competing requirements by having multiple equivalent definitions
- derive them as theorems
- initial definition should be as clear as possible
  - clarity allows simpler reviews
  - simplicity reduces the likelihood of errors

#### Formal Sanity

- $\bullet$  to ensure correctness test your definitions via e.g. <code>EVAL</code>
- in HOL testing means symbolic evaluation, i. e. proving lemmata
- formally proving sanity check lemmata is very beneficial
  - ▶ they should express core properties of your definition
  - $\,\,{}^{\triangleright}\,$  thereby they check your intuition against your actual definitions
  - these lemmata are often useful for following proofs
  - using them improves robustness and maintainability of your development
- I highly recommend using formal sanity checks

#### Example - ALL\_DISTINCT

```
|- (ALL_DISTINCT [] <=> T) /\
    (!h t. ALL_DISTINCT (h::t) <=> ~MEM h t /\ ALL_DISTINCT t)

|- !l. ALL_DISTINCT 1 <=>
        (!x. MEM x l ==> (FILTER ($= x) l = [x]))

|- !ls. ALL_DISTINCT ls <=> (CARD (set ls) = LENGTH ls):
```

# Formal Sanity Example I

# Formal Sanity Example II 1

```
© 00
```

```
> val ALL_DISTINCT = Define '
   (ALL_DISTINCT [] = T) /\
   (ALL_DISTINCT (h::t) = ~MEM h t /\ ALL_DISTINCT t)';
```

```
Example Sanity Check Lemmata
|- ALL_DISTINCT []
|- !x xs. ALL_DISTINCT (x::xs) <=> ~MEM x xs /\ ALL_DISTINCT xs
|- !x. ALL_DISTINCT [x]
|- !x xs. ~(ALL_DISTINCT (x::x::xs))
|- !1. ALL_DISTINCT (REVERSE 1) <=> ALL_DISTINCT 1
|- !x 1. ALL_DISTINCT (SNOC x 1) <=> ~MEM x 1 /\ ALL_DISTINCT 1
```

ALL\_DISTINCT 11 /\ ALL\_DISTINCT 12 /\ !e. MEM e 11 ==> ~MEM e 12

```
> val ZIP_def = Define '
    (ZIP [] ys = []) /\ (ZIP xs [] = []) /\
    (ZIP (x::xs) (y::ys) = (x, y)::(ZIP xs ys))'

val ZIP_def =
|- (!ys. ZIP [] ys = []) /\ (!v3 v2. ZIP (v2::v3) [] = []) /\
    (!ys y xs x. ZIP (x::xs) (y::ys) = (x,y)::ZIP xs ys)
```

- above definition of ZIP looks straightforward
- small changes cause heuristics to produce different theorems
- use formal sanity lemmata to compensate

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# Formal Sanity Example II 2

|- !11 12. ALL\_DISTINCT (11 ++ 12) <=>

```
val ZIP_def =
|- (!ys. ZIP [] ys = []) /\ (!v3 v2. ZIP (v2::v3) [] = []) /\
    (!ys v xs x. ZIP (x::xs) (v::ys) = (x.v)::ZIP xs vs)
```

```
(!ys y xs x. ZIP (x::xs) (y::ys) = (x,y)::ZIP xs ys)
```

```
Example Formal Sanity Lemmata

|- (!xs. ZIP xs [] = []) /\ (!ys. ZIP [] ys = []) /\ (!y ys x xs. ZIP (x::xs) (y::ys) = (x,y)::ZIP xs ys)

|- !xs ys. LENGTH (ZIP xs ys) = MIN (LENGTH xs) (LENGTH ys)

|- !x y xs ys. MEM (x, y) (ZIP xs ys) ==> (MEM x xs /\ MEM y ys)

|- !xs1 xs2 ys1 ys2. LENGTH xs1 = LENGTH ys1 ==> (ZIP (xs1++xs2) (ys1++ys2) = (ZIP xs1 ys1 ++ ZIP xs2 ys2))

...
```

- in your proofs use sanity lemmata, not original definition
- this makes your development robust against
  - small changes to the definition required later
  - ► changes to Define and its heuristics
  - bugs in function definition package

#### Part XII

# Deep and Shallow Embeddings



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# Deep and Shallow Embeddings

- - Example: Embedding of Propositional Logic I
- © 00

- often one models some kind of formal language
- important design decision: use **deep** or **shallow** embedding
- in a nutshell:
  - ► shallow embeddings just model semantics
  - ▶ deep embeddings model syntax as well
- a shallow embedding directly uses the HOL logic
- a deep embedding
  - defines a datatype for the syntax of the language
  - provides a function to map this syntax to a semantic

- propositional logic is a subset of HOL
- a shallow embedding is therefore trivial

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# Example: Embedding of Propositional Logic II

- we can also define a datatype for propositional logic
- this leads to a deep embedding

#### Shallow

quick and easy to build

Shallow vs. Deep Embeddings

extensions are simple

#### Deep

- can reason about syntax
- allows verified implementations
- sometimes tricky to define
  - e.g. bound variables

#### Important Questions for Deciding

- Do I need to reason about syntax?
- Do I have hard to define syntax like bound variables?
- How much time do I have?



- with deep embedding one can easily formalise syntactic properties like
  - ► Which variables does a propositional formula contain?
  - ► Is a formula in negation-normal-form (NNF)?
- with shallow embeddings
  - syntactic concepts can't be defined in HOL
  - ▶ however, they can be defined in SML
  - ▶ no proofs about them possible

```
val _ = Define '
  (IS_NNF (d_not d_true) = T) /\ (IS_NNF (d_not (d_var v)) = T) /\
  (IS_NNF (d_not _) = F) /\
  (IS_NNF d_true = T) /\ (IS_NNF (d_var v) = T) /\
  (IS_NNF (d_and p1 p2) = (IS_NNF p1 /\ IS_NNF p2)) /\
  (IS_NNF (d_or p1 p2) = (IS_NNF p1 /\ IS_NNF p2)) /\
  (IS_NNF (d_implies p1 p2) = (IS_NNF p1 /\ IS_NNF p2))'
```

#### Verified Programs

- are formalised in HOL
- their properties have been proven once and for all
- all runs have proven properties
- are usually less sophisticated, since they need verification
- is what one wants ideally
- often require deep embedding

#### Verifying Programs

- are written in meta-language
- they produce a separate proof for each run
- only certain that current run has properties
- allow more flexibility, e. g. fancy heuristics
- good pragmatic solution
- shallow embedding fine

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# Summary Deep vs. Shallow Embeddings

- deep embeddings require more work
- they however allow reasoning about syntax
  - ► induction and case-splits possible
  - ▶ a semantic subset can be carved out syntactically
- syntax sometimes hard to define for deep embeddings
- combinations of deep and shallow embeddings common
  - ► certain parts are deeply embedded
  - others are embedded shallowly

Part XIII

Rewriting



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# Rewriting in HOL



#### Semantic Foundations



- simplification via rewriting was already a strength of Edinburgh LCF
- it was further improved for Cambridge LCF
- HOL inherited this powerful rewriter
- equational reasoning is still the main workhorse
- there are many different equational reasoning tools in HOL
  - Rewrite library inherited from Cambridge LCF you have seen it in the form of REWRITE\_TAC
  - computeLib fast evaluation build for speed, optimised for ground terms seen in the form of EVAL
  - simpLib Simplification sophisticated rewrite engine, HOL's main workhorse not discussed in this lecture, yet
  - ▶ ...

• we have seen primitive inference rules for equality before

$$\Gamma \vdash s = t 
\Delta \vdash u = v 
\underline{types \ fit} 
\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash s(u) = t(v)$$
COMB
$$\frac{x \ not \ free \ in \ \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. \ s = \lambda x. \ t}$$
ABS
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash s = t}{\Delta \vdash t = u}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \vdash t = u}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash s = u}$$
TRANS
$$\frac{\vdash t = t}{\vdash t = t}$$

- these rules allow us to replace any subterm with an equal one
- this is the core of rewriting

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# Conversionals



#### Conversions

- in HOL, equality reasoning is implemented by conversions
- a conversion is a SML function of type term -> thm
- given a term t, a conversion
  - ▶ produces a theorem of the form |- t = t'
  - ▶ raises an UNCHANGED exception or
  - ▶ fails, i. e. raises an HOL\_ERR exception

# Example > BETA\_CONV ''(\x. SUC x) y'' val it = |- (\x. SUC x) y = SUC y > BETA\_CONV ''SUC y'' Exception-HOL\_ERR ... raised > REPEATC BETA\_CONV ''SUC y'' Exception- UNCHANGED raised

- similar to tactics and tacticals there are **conversionals** for conversions
- conversionals allow building conversions from simpler ones
- there are many of them
  - ► THENC
  - ► ORELSEC
  - ► REPEATC
  - ► TRY\_CONV
  - ► RAND\_CONV
  - ► RATOR\_CONV
  - ► ABS\_CONV
  - ▶ ...

# Depth Conversionals

• there are many different ones

positions in distinct subterms

processing rewritten terms

top-level again after change

repeatedly at top-level

REWR. CONV

- it remains to rewrite terms at top-level
- this is achieved by REWR\_CONV
- given a term t and a theorem |- t1 = t2, REWR\_CONV t thm
  - ▶ searches an instantiation of term and type variables such that t1 becomes  $\alpha$ -equivalent to t
  - ► fails, if no instantiation is found
  - ▶ otherwise, instantiate the theorem and get |- t1' = t2'
  - ▶ return theorem |- t = t2'

#### Example

```
term LENGTH [1;2;3], theorem |- LENGTH ((x:'a)::xs) = SUC (LENGTH xs)
found type instantiation: ['':'a'' |-> '':num'']
found term instantiation: [''x:num'' |-> ''1'': ''xs'' |-> ''[2:3]'']
returned theorem: |- LENGTH [1;2;3] = SUC (LENGTH [2;3])
```

- the tricky part is finding the instantiation
- this problem is called the (term) **matching** problem

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# Term Matching

given term t\_org and a term t\_goal try to find

for rewriting depth-conversionals are important

a depth-conversional applies a conversion to all subterms

► ONCE\_DEPTH\_CONV c — top down, applies c once at highest possible

► TOP\_DEPTH\_CONV c — top down, like TOP\_SWEEP\_CONV, but try

▶ DEPTH\_CONV c — bottom up, recurse over subterms, then apply c

▶ TOP\_SWEEP\_CONV c — top down, like ONCE\_DEPTH\_CONV, but continues

▶ REDEPTH\_CONV c — bottom up, like DEPTH\_CONV, but revisits subterms

- ► type substitution ty\_s
- ▶ term substitution tm\_s
- such that subst tm\_s (inst ty\_s t\_org)  $\stackrel{\alpha}{\equiv}$  t\_goal
- this can be easily implemented by a recursive search

```
t_org
                t_goal
                                    action
t1_org t2_org t1_goal t2_goal
                                    recurse
t1_org t2_org
                otherwise
\x. t_org x
                 \y. t_goal y
                                    match types of x, y and recurse
\x. t_org x
                otherwise
                                    fail
                                    match types
const
                same const
                otherwise
                                    fail
const
                anything
                                    try to bind var.
var
                                    take care of existing bindings
```

# **Examples Term Matching**

```
t_goal
t_org
                              LENGTH [1;2;3]
LENGTH ((x:'a)::xs)
                                                                 'a \rightarrow num, x \rightarrow 1, xs \rightarrow [2;3]
[]:'a list
                               []:'b list
                                                                 empty substitution
b /\ T
                              (P (x:'a) \Longrightarrow Q) / T
                                                                b \rightarrow P x ==> 0
b /\ b
                              P \times / \ P \times
                                                                \texttt{b} \,\to\, \texttt{P} \,\, \texttt{x}
b /\ b
                              P \times / \ P v
!x:num. P x /\ Q x
                              !y:num. P' y /\ Q' y
                                                                	extsf{P} 	o 	extsf{P'}, 	extsf{Q} 	o 	extsf{Q'}
!x:num. P x /\ Q x
                              !y. (2 = y) / Q' y
                                                                P \rightarrow (\$= 2), Q \rightarrow Q'
!x:num. P x / \ Q x !y. (y = 2) / \ Q' y
```

- it is often very annoying that the last match in the list above fails
- it prevents us for example rewriting !y. (2 = y) / Q y to (!y. (2=y)) / (!y. Q y)
- Can we do better? Yes, with higher order (term) matching.

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# Higher Order Term Matching

- $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$
- Examples Higher Order Term Matching



- ullet term matching searches for substitutions such that t\_org becomes lpha-equivalent to t\_goal
- higher order term matching searches for substitutions such that t\_org becomes t\_subst such that the  $\beta\eta$ -normalform of t\_subst is  $\alpha$ -equivalent equivalent to  $\beta\eta$ -normalform of t\_goal, i.e.

higher order term matching is aware of the semantics of  $\lambda$ 

```
β-reduction (λx. f) y = f[y/x] η-conversion (λx. f x) = f where x is not free in f
```

- the HOL implementation expects t\_org to be a higher-order pattern
  - t\_org is β-reduced
  - ► if X is a variable that should be instantiated, then all arguments should be distinct variables
- for other forms of t\_org, HOL's implementation might fail
- higher order matching is used by HO\_REWR\_CONV

Don't worry, it might look complicated, but in practice it is easy to get a feeling for higher order matching.

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#### Rewrite Library



Rewrite Library II

- $\bullet$  the rewrite library combines REWR\_CONV with depth conversions
- there are many different conversions, rules and tactics
- at their core, they all work very similarly
  - given a list of theorems, a set of rewrite theorems is derived
    - **★** split conjunctions
    - ★ remove outermost universal quantification
    - ★ introduce equations by adding = T (or = F) if needed
  - ► REWR\_CONV is applied to all the resulting rewrite theorems
  - ▶ a depth-conversion is used with resulting conversion
- for performance reasons an efficient indexing structure is used
- by default implicit rewrites are added

- REWRITE\_CONV
- REWRITE\_RULE
- REWRITE\_TAC
- ASM\_REWRITE\_TAC
- ONCE\_REWRITE\_TAC
- PURE\_REWRITE\_TAC
- PURE\_ONCE\_REWRITE\_TAC

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#### Ho\_Rewrite Library

- similar to Rewrite lib, but uses higher order matching
- internally uses HO\_REWR\_CONV
- similar conversions, rules and tactics as Rewrite lib
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.REWRITE\_CONV
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.REWRITE\_RULE
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.REWRITE\_TAC
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.ASM\_REWRITE\_TAC
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.ONCE\_REWRITE\_TAC
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.PURE\_REWRITE\_TAC
  - ► Ho\_Rewrite.PURE\_ONCE\_REWRITE\_TAC
  - ▶ ...

## Summary Rewrite and Ho\_Rewrite Library

- the Rewrite and Ho\_Rewrite library provide powerful infrastructure for term rewriting
- thanks to clever implementations they are reasonably efficient
- basics are easily explained
- however, efficient usage needs some experience



# Examples Rewrite and Ho\_Rewrite Library



```
> REWRITE_CONV [LENGTH] ''LENGTH [1;2]''
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (SUC 0)

> ONCE_REWRITE_CONV [LENGTH] ''LENGTH [1;2]''
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (LENGTH [2])

> REWRITE_CONV [] ''A /\ A /\ ~A''
Exception- UNCHANGED raised

> PURE_REWRITE_CONV [NOT_AND] ''A /\ A /\ ~A''
val it = |- A /\ A /\ ~A <=> A /\ F

> REWRITE_CONV [NOT_AND] ''A /\ A /\ ~A''
val it = |- A /\ A /\ ~A <=> F

> REWRITE_CONV [FORALL_AND_THM] ''!x. P x /\ Q x /\ R x''
Exception- UNCHANGED raised

> Ho_Rewrite_REWRITE_CONV [FORALL_AND_THM] ''!x. P x /\ Q x /\ R x''
val it = |- !x. P x /\ Q x /\ R x <=> (!x. P x) /\ (!x. Q x) /\ (!x. R x)
```

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# Term Rewriting Systems



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- to use rewriting efficiently, one needs to understand about term rewriting systems
- this is a large topic
- unluckily, it cannot be covered here in detail for time constraints
- however, in practise you quickly get a feeling
- important points in practise
  - ► ensure termination of your rewrites
  - ► make sure they work nicely together

# Term Rewriting Systems — Termination



# Termination — Subterm examples



#### Theory

- for each rewrite theorem |-t1| = t2 ensure t2 < t1

#### Practice

- informally define for yourself what simpler means
- ensure each rewrite makes terms simpler
- good heuristics
  - subterms are simpler than whole term
  - use an order on functions

- a proper subterm is always simpler
  - ▶ !1. APPEND [] 1 = 1
  - $\triangleright$  !n. n + 0 = n
  - ▶ !1. REVERSE (REVERSE 1) = 1
  - ▶ !t1 t2. if T then t1 else t2 <=> t1
  - $\triangleright$  !n. n \* 0 = 0
- the right hand side should not use extra vars, throwing parts away is usually simpler
  - ▶ !x xs. (SNOC x xs = []) = F
  - ▶ !x xs. LENGTH (x::xs) = SUC (LENGTH xs)
  - ► !n x xs. DROP (SUC n) (x::xs) = DROP n xs

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Termination — Normalforms

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#### Termination — use simpler terms



• it is useful to consider some functions simple and other complicated

- replace complicated ones with simple ones
- never do it in the opposite direction
- clear examples
  - $\blacktriangleright$  |- !m n. MEM m (COUNT\_LIST n) <=> (m < n)
  - $\blacktriangleright$  |- !ls n. (DROP n ls = []) <=> (n >= LENGTH ls)
- unclear example
  - ► |- !L. REVERSE L = REV L []

- some equations can be used in both directions
- one should decide on one direction
- this implicitly defines a **normalform** one wants terms to be in
- examples
  - ► |- !f 1. MAP f (REVERSE 1) = REVERSE (MAP f 1)
  - ▶ |- !11 12 13. 11 ++ (12 ++ 13) = 11 ++ 12 ++ 13

#### Termination — Problematic rewrite rules

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# Rewrites working together



- some equations immediately lead to non-termination, e.g.
  - $| | m \ n \cdot m + n = n + m$  $| - | m \cdot m \cdot m = m + 0$
- slightly more subtle are rules like
  - $\blacktriangleright$  |- !n. fact n = if (n = 0) then 1 else n \* fact(n-1)
- often combination of multiple rules leads to non-termination this is especially problematic when adding to predefined sets of rewrites
  - ► |-!m n p. m + (n + p) = (m + n) + p and |-!m n p. (m + n) + p = m + (n + p)

- rewrite rules should not compete with each other
- if a term ta can be rewritten to ta1 and ta2 applying different rewrite rules, then ta1 and ta2 it should be possible to further rewrite them both to a common tb
- this can often be achieved by adding extra rewrite rules

#### Example

Assume we have the rewrite rules  $|-DOUBLE\ n=n+n$  and  $|-EVEN\ (DOUBLE\ n)=T$ .

With these the term EVEN (DOUBLE 2) can be rewritten to

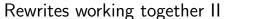
- T or
- EVEN (2 + 2).

To avoid a hard to predict result, EVEN (2+2) should be rewritten to T. Adding an extra rewrite rule |-| EVEN (n + n) = T achieves this.

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computeLib

- to design rewrite systems that work well, normalforms are vital
- a term is in **normalform**, if it cannot be rewritten any further
- one should have a clear idea what the normalform of common terms looks like
- all rules should work together to establish this normalform
- the right-hand-side of each rule should be in normalform
- the left-hand-side should not be simplifiable by any other rule
- the order in which rules are applied should not influence the final result

- computeLib is the library behind EVAL
- it is a rewriting library designed for evaluating ground terms (i. e. terms without variables) efficiently
- it uses a call-by-value strategy similar to SML's
- it uses first order term matching
- $\bullet$  it performs  $\beta$  reduction in addition to rewrites

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#### compset

#### EVAL



- computeLib uses compsets to store its rewrites
- a compset stores
  - ► rewrite rules
  - extra conversions
- the extra conversions are guarded by a term pattern for efficiency
- users can define their own compsets
- however, computeLib maintains one special compset called the\_compset
- the\_compset is used by EVAL

- EVAL uses the\_compset
- tools like the Datatype or TFL libraries automatically extend the\_compset
- this way, EVAL knows about (nearly) all types and functions
- one can extended the\_compset manually as well
- rewrites exported by Define are good for ground terms but may lead to non-termination for non-ground terms
- zDefine prevents TFL from automatically extending the\_compset

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# Basic Usage I



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# simpLib

- simpLib is a sophisticated rewrite engine
- it is HOL's main workhorse
- it provides
  - ► higher order rewriting
  - ► usage of context information
  - ► conditional rewriting
  - ► arbitrary conversions
  - support for decision procedures
  - ► simple heuristics to avoid non-termination
  - ► fancier preprocessing of rewrite theorems
  - ▶ ...
- it is very powerful, but compared to Rewrite lib sometimes slow

- simpLib uses simpsets
- simpsets are special datatypes storing
  - rewrite rules
  - conversions
  - ► decision procedures
  - ► congruence rules
  - •
- in addition there are simpset-fragments
- simpset-fragments contain similar information as simpsets
- fragments can be added to and removed from simpsets
- common usage: basic simpset combined with one or more simpset-fragments, e.g.
  - ► list\_ss ++ pairSimps.gen\_beta\_ss
  - ▶ std\_ss ++ QI\_ss
  - ▶ ...

# Basic Usage II





- a call to the simplifier takes as arguments
  - ► a simpset
  - ► a list of rewrite theorems
- common high-level entry points are
  - ► SIMP\_CONV ss thmL conversion
  - ► SIMP\_RULE ss thmL rule
  - ► SIMP\_TAC ss thmL tactic without considering assumptions
  - ► ASM\_SIMP\_TAC ss thmL tactic using assumptions to simplify goal
  - ► FULL\_SIMP\_TAC ss thmL tactic simplifying assumptions with each other and goal with assumptions
  - ► REV\_FULL\_SIMP\_TAC ss thmL similar to FULL\_SIMP\_TAC but with reversed order of assumptions
- there are many derived tools not discussed here

```
> SIMP_CONV bool_ss [LENGTH] ''LENGTH [1;2]''
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (SUC 0)
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [LENGTH] ''LENGTH [1;2]''
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = 2
> SIMP_CONV list_ss [] ''LENGTH [1;2]''
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = 2
```

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#### FULL\_SIMP\_TAC Example



# REV\_FULL\_SIMP\_TAC Example



#### Current GoalStack

P (SUC (SUC x0)) (SUC (SUC y0))

- 0. SUC y1 = y2
- 1. x1 = SUC x0
- 2. y1 = SUC y0
- 3. SUC x1 = x2

#### Action

FULL\_SIMP\_TAC std\_ss []

#### Current GoalStack

P (SUC (SUC x0)) y2

- 0. SUC (SUC y0) = y2
- 1. x1 = SUC x0
- $2. \quad y1 = SUC \ y0$
- 3. SUC x1 = x2

#### Action

REV\_FULL\_SIMP\_TAC std\_ss []

# Resulting GoalStack

P (SUC (SUC x0)) y2

- 0. SUC (SUC y0) = y2
- 1. x1 = SUC x0
- 2. y1 = SUC y0
- 3. SUC x1 = x2

# Resulting GoalStack

P x2 y2

- -----
- 0. SUC (SUC y0) = y2 1. x1 = SUC x0
- 2. y1 = SUC y0
- 3. SUC (SUC x0) = x2

# Common simpsets

- Common simpset-fragments



- pure\_ss empty simpset
- bool\_ss basic simpset
- std\_ss standard simpset
- arith\_ss arithmetic simpset
- list\_ss list simpset
- real\_ss real simpset

- many theories and libraries provide their own simpset-fragments
- PRED\_SET\_ss simplify sets
- STRING\_ss simplify strings
- QI\_ss extra quantifier instantiations
- $\bullet$  gen\_beta\_ss  $\beta$  reduction for pairs
- $\bullet$  ETA\_ss  $\eta$  conversion
- EQUIV\_EXTRACT\_ss extract common part of equivalence
- CONJ\_ss use conjunctions for context
- LIFT\_COND\_ss lifting if-then-else
- . . .

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#### രെ

# Examples I



#### Build-In Conversions and Decision Procedures



- $\bullet$  most common and useful conversion is probably  $\beta\text{-reduction}$
- std\_ss has support for basic arithmetic and numerals
- it also has simple, syntactic conversions for instantiating quantifiers

```
▶ !x. ... /\ (x = c) /\ ... ==> ...
```

- ► !x. ... \/ ~(x = c) \/ ...
- ▶ ?x. ... /\ (x = c) /\ ...
- besides very useful conversions, there are decision procedures as well
- the most frequently used one is probably the arithmetic decision procedure you already know from DECIDE

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ''(\x. x + 2) 5''
val it = |- (\x. x + 2) 5 = 7

> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ''!x. Q x /\ (x = 7) ==> P x''
val it = |- (!x. Q x /\ (x = 7) ==> P x) <=> (Q 7 ==> P 7)''

> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ''?x. Q x /\ (x = 7) /\ P x''
val it = |- (?x. Q x /\ (x = 7) /\ P x) <=> (Q 7 /\ P 7)''

> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ''x > 7 ==> x > 5''
Exception- UNCHANGED raised

> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [] ''x > 7 ==> x > 5''
val it = |- (x > 7 ==> x > 5) <=> T
```

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# Higher Order Rewriting

- © (100)
- Context



- the simplifier supports higher order rewriting
- this is often very handy
- for example it allows moving quantifiers around easily

- a great feature of the simplifier is that it can use context information
- by default simple context information is used like
  - ▶ the precondition of an implication
  - ▶ the condition of if-then-else
- one can configure which context to use via congruence rules
  - ► e.g. by using CONJ\_ss one can easily use context of conjunctions
  - ► warning: using CONJ\_ss can be slow
- using context often simplifies proofs drastically
  - using Rewrite lib, often a goal needs to be split and a precondition moved to the assumptions
  - ▶ then ASM\_REWRITE\_TAC can be used
  - ▶ with SIMP\_TAC there is no need to split the goal

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# Conditional Rewriting I



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# Context Examples

- perhaps the most powerful feature of the simplifier is that it supports conditional rewriting
- this means it allows conditional rewrite theorems of the form
   |- cond ==> (t1 = t2)
- if the simplifier finds a term t1' it can rewrite via t1 = t2 to t2', it tries to discharge the assumption cond'
- for this, it calls itself recursively on cond'
  - ▶ all the decision procedures and all context information is used
  - conditional rewriting can be used
  - ▶ to prevent divergence, there is a limit on recursion depth
- if cond' = T can be shown, t1' is rewritten to t2'
- otherwise t1' is not modified

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## Conditional Rewriting Example

```
© 00
```

Conditional Rewriting Example II



```
• consider the conditional rewrite theorem
```

```
!1 n. LENGTH 1 <= n ==> (DROP n 1 = [])
```

let's assume we want to prove

Conditional Rewriting II

```
(DROP 7 [1;2;3;4]) ++ [5;6;7] = [5;6;7]
```

- we can without conditional rewriting
  - ▶ show |- LENGTH [1;2;3;4] <= 7
  - ▶ use this to discharge the precondition of the rewrite theorem
  - ► use the resulting theorem to rewrite the goal
- with conditional rewriting, this is all automated

conditional rewriting often shortens proofs considerably

```
Proof with Simplifier
```

```
prove (''(DROP 7 [1;2;3;4]) ++ [5;6;7] = [5;6;7]'',
SIMP_TAC list_ss [])
```

Notice that DROP\_LENGTH\_TOO\_LONG is part of list\_ss.

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# Conditional Rewriting Pitfalls I

Looping example

runtime: 0.00000s,

Exception- UNCHANGED raised



- conditional rewriting is a very powerful technique
- decision procedures and sophisticated rewrites can be used to discharge preconditions without cluttering proof state
- it provides a powerful search for theorems that apply
- however, if used naively, it can be slow
- moreover, to work well, rewrite theorems need to of a special form

- if the pattern is too general, the simplifier becomes very slow
- consider the following, trivial but hopefully educational example

```
> val my_thm = prove (''~P ==> (P = F)'', PROVE_TAC[])
> time (SIMP_CONV std_ss [my_thm]) ''P1 /\ P2 /\ P3 /\ ... /\ P10''
runtime: 0.84000s, gctime: 0.02400s, systime: 0.02400s.
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
> time (SIMP_CONV std_ss []) ''P1 /\ P2 /\ P3 /\ ... /\ P10''
```

gctime: 0.00000s,

► notice that the rewrite is applied at plenty of places (quadratic in number of conjuncts)

systime: 0.00000s.

- ► notice that each backchaining triggers many more backchainings
- ▶ each has to be aborted to prevent diverging
- ► as a result, the simplifier becomes very slow
- ▶ incidentally, the conditional rewrite is useless

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# Conditional Rewriting Pitfalls II

- © 00
- Conditional Rewriting Pitfalls III

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- good conditional rewrites |- c ==> (1 = r) should mention only variables in c that appear in 1
- if c contains extra variables x1 ... xn, the conditional rewrite engine has to search instantiations for them
- this mean that conditional rewriting is trying discharge the precondition ?x1 ... xn. c
- the simplifier is usually not able to find such instances

```
Transitivity
> val P_def = Define 'P x y = x < y';
> val my_thm = prove (''!x y z. P x y ==> P y z ==> P x z'', ...)
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [my_thm] ''P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4''
Exception- UNCHANGED raised

(* However transitivity of < build in via decision procedure *)
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [P_def] ''P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4''
val it = |- P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4 <=> T:
```

• let's look in detail why SIMP\_CONV did not make progress above

```
> set_trace "simplifier" 2;
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [my_thm] ''P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4''
           more context: |- !x y z. P x y ==> P y z ==> P x z
[468000]:
           New rewrite: |-(?y. P x y / P y z) ==> (P x z <=> T)
[584000]:
           more context: [.] |- P 2 3 /\ P 3 4
           New rewrite: [.] |- P 2 3 <=> T
[584000]:
[584000]:
           New rewrite: [.] |- P 3 4 <=> T
           rewriting P 2 4 with |-(?y. P x y / P y z) ==> (P x z <=> T)
[588000]:
[588000]:
           trying to solve: ?y. P 2 y /\ P y 4
           rewriting P 2 y with |-(?y. P x y / P y z) ==> (P x z <=> T)
[588000]:
[592000]:
           trying to solve: ?v'. P 2 v' /\ P v' v
[596000]:
           looping - cut
[608000]:
           looping - stack limit reached
[640000]:
           couldn't solve: ?y. P 2 y /\ P y 4
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

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#### Conditional vs. Unconditional Rewrite Rules



# Special Rewrite Forms



- conditional rewrite rules are often much more powerful
- however, Rewrite lib does not support them
- for this reason there are often two versions of rewrite theorems

#### drop example

- DROP\_LENGTH\_NIL is a useful rewrite rule:
  - |-!1. DROP (LENGTH 1) 1 = []
- in proofs, one needs to be careful though to preserve exactly this form
  - one should not (partly) evaluate LENGTH 1 or modify 1 somehow
- with the conditional rewrite rule DROP\_LENGTH\_TOO\_LONG one does not need to be as careful
  - |-!1 n. LENGTH 1 <= n ==> (DROP n 1 = [])
    - ▶ the simplifier can use simplify the precondition using information about LENGTH and even arithmetic decision procedures

- some theorems given in the list of rewrites to the simplifier are used for special purposes
- there are marking functions that mark these theorems
  - ▶ Once : thm -> thm use given theorem at most once
  - ► Ntimes : thm -> int -> thm use given theorem at most the given number of times
  - ► AC : thm -> thm -> thm use given associativity and commutativity theorems for AC rewriting
  - ► Cong : thm -> thm use given theorem as a congruence rule
- these special forms are easy ways to add this information to a simpset
- it can be directly set in a simpset as well

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# Example Once

... diverges ...

```
> SIMP_CONV pure_ss [Once ADD_COMM] ''a + b = c + d''
val it = |- (a + b = c + d) <=> (b + a = c + d)

> SIMP_CONV pure_ss [Ntimes ADD_COMM 2] ''a + b = c + d''
val it = |- (a + b = c + d) <=> (a + b = c + d)

> SIMP_CONV pure_ss [ADD_COMM] ''a + b = c + d''
Exception- UNCHANGED raised

> ONCE_REWRITE_CONV [ADD_COMM] ''a + b = c + d''
val it = |- (a + b = c + d) <=> (b + a = d + c)
```

# Stateful Simpset

- the simpset srw\_ss() is maintained by the system
  - ▶ it is automatically extended by new type-definitions▶ theories can extend it via export\_rewrites
  - ► libs can augment it via augment\_srw\_ss
- the stateful simpset contains many rewrites
- it is very powerful and easy to use

```
Example
> SIMP_CONV (srw_ss()) [] ''case [] of [] => (2 + 4)''
val it = |- (case [] of [] => 2 + 4 | v::v1 => ARB) = 6
```

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# Discussion on Stateful Simpset

> REWRITE\_CONV [ADD\_COMM] ''a + b = c + d''

- the stateful simpset is very powerful and easy to use
- however, results are hard to predict
- proofs using it unwisely are hard to maintain
- the stateful simpset can expand too much
  - ▶ bigger, harder to read proof states
  - ▶ high level arguments become hard to see
- whether to use the stateful simpset depends on personal proof style
- I advise to not use srw\_ss at the beginning
- once you got a good intuition on how the simplifier works, make your own choice

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## Adding Own Conversions



@ **(1)** 

- it is complicated to add arbitrary decision procedures to a simpset
- however, adding simple conversions is straightforward
- a conversion is described by a stdconvdata record

• use std\_conv\_ss to create simpset-fragement

#### Example

```
val WORD_ADD_ss =
  simpLib.std_conv_ss
  {conv = CHANGED_CONV WORD_ADD_CANON_CONV,
   name = "WORD_ADD_CANON_CONV",
  pats = [''words$word_add (w:'a word) y'']}
```

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# **Summary Simplifier**

- the simplifier is HOL's main workhorse for automation
- it is very powerful
- conditional rewriting very powerful
  - ▶ here only simple examples were presented
  - experiment with it to get a feeling
- many advanced features not discussed here at all
  - ► using congruence rules
  - ► writing own decision procedures
  - ► rewriting with respect to arbitrary congruence relations

#### Warning

The simplifier is very powerful. Make sure you understand it and are in control when using it. Otherwise your proofs easily become lengthy, convoluted and hard to maintain.

# Part XIV

# Advanced Definition Principles



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#### Relations II



#### Relations

- a relation is a function from some arguments to bool
- the following example types are all types of relations:
  - ▶ : 'a -> 'a -> bool
  - ▶ : 'a -> 'b -> bool
  - ▶ : 'a -> 'b -> 'c -> 'd -> bool
  - ▶ : ('a # 'b # 'c) -> bool
  - ▶ : bool
  - ▶ : 'a -> bool
- relations are closely related to sets
  - ▶ R a b c <=> (a, b, c) IN {(a, b, c) | R a b c}
  - ► (a, b, c) IN S <=> (\a b c. (a, b, c) IN S) a b c

 $\, \bullet \,$  relations are often defined by a set of rules

#### Definition of Reflexive-Transitive Closure

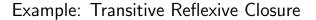
The transitive reflexive closure of a relation  $R: 'a \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow bool$  can be defined as the least relation RTC R that satisfies the following rules:

$$\frac{\texttt{R} \times \texttt{y}}{\texttt{RTC} \ \texttt{R} \times \texttt{y}} \quad \frac{\texttt{RTC} \ \texttt{R} \times \texttt{y}}{\texttt{RTC} \ \texttt{R} \times \texttt{x}} \quad \frac{\texttt{RTC} \ \texttt{R} \times \texttt{y}}{\texttt{RTC} \ \texttt{R} \times \texttt{z}}$$

- if the rules are monoton, a least and a greatest fix point exists (Knaster-Tarski theorem)
- least fixpoints give rise to inductive relations
- greatest fixpoints give rise to coinductive relations

# (Co)inductive Relations in HOL







- (Co)IndDefLib provides infrastructure for defining (co)inductive relations
- given a set of rules Hol\_(co)reln defines (co)inductive relations
- 3 theorems are returned and stored in current theory
  - ▶ a rules theorem it states that the defined constant satisfies the rules
  - ► a cases theorem this is an equational form of the rules showing that the defined relation is indeed a fixpoint
  - ► a (co)induction theorem
- additionally a strong (co)induction theorem is stored in current theory

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## Example: Transitive Reflexive Closure II

```
\odot \odot
```

# Example: EVEN

- > val (EVEN\_REL\_rules, EVEN\_REL\_ind, EVEN\_REL\_cases) = Hol\_reln
   '(EVEN\_REL 0) /\ (!n. EVEN\_REL n ==> (EVEN\_REL (n + 2)))';

  val EVEN\_REL\_cases =
   |- !ao. EVEN\_REL ao <=> (ao = 0) \/ ?n. (ao = n + 2) /\ EVEN\_REL n

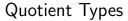
  val EVEN\_REL\_rules =
   |- EVEN\_REL 0 /\ !n. EVEN\_REL n ==> EVEN\_REL (n + 2)

  val EVEN\_REL\_ind = |- !EVEN\_REL'.
   (EVEN\_REL' 0 /\ (!n. EVEN\_REL' n ==> EVEN\_REL' (n + 2))) ==>
   (!ao. EVEN\_REL ao ==> EVEN\_REL' ao)
  - notice that in this example there is exactly one fixpoint
  - therefore, for these rules the inductive and coinductive relation coincide

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## **Example: Dummy Relations**

```
© 0
```





```
> val (DF_rules, DF_ind, DF_cases) = Hol_reln
    '(!n. DF (n+1) ==> (DF n))'
> val (DT_rules, DT_coind, DT_cases) = Hol_coreln
    '(!n. DT (n+1) ==> (DT n))'

val DT_coind =
    |- !DT'. (!a0. DT' a0 ==> DT' (a0 + 1)) ==> !a0. DT' a0 ==> DT a0

val DF_ind =
    |- !DF'. (!n. DF' (n + 1) ==> DF' n) ==> !a0. DF a0 ==> DF' a0

val DT_cases = |- !a0. DT a0 <=> DT (a0 + 1):
val DF_cases = |- !a0. DF a0 <=> DF (a0 + 1):
```

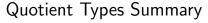
- notice that the definitions of DT and DF look like a non-terminating recursive definition
- DT is always true, i.e. |- !n. DT n
- DF is always false, i. e. | !n. ~(DF n)

- quotientLib allows to define types as quotients of existing types with respect to partial equivalence relation
- each equivalence class becomes a value of the new type
- partiality allows ignoring certain values of original type
- quotientLib allows to lift definitions and lemmata as well
- details are technical and won't be presented here

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# Quotient Types Example







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- let's assume we have an implementation of finite sets of numbers as binary trees with
  - ▶ type binset
  - ▶ binary tree invariant WF\_BINSET : binset -> bool
  - ► constant empty\_binset
  - ▶ add and member functions add : num -> binset -> binset, mem : binset -> num -> bool
- we can define a partial equivalence relation by

```
binset_equiv b1 b2 := (
  WF_BINSET b1 /\ WF_BINSET b2 /\
  (!n. mem b1 n <=> mem b2 n))
```

- this allows defining a quotient type of sets of numbers
- functions empty\_binset, add and mem as well as lemmata about them can be lifted automatically

- quotient types are sometimes very useful
  - e.g. rational numbers are defined as a quotient type
- there is powerful infrastructure for them
- many tasks are automated
- however, the details are technical and won't be discussed here

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# Pattern Matching / Case Expressions

- TFL / Define

- pattern matching ubiquitous in functional programming
- pattern matching is a powerful technique
- it helps to write concise, readable definitions
- very handy and frequently used for interactive theorem proving
- however, it is **not directly supported** by HOL's logic
- representations in HOL
  - ► sets of equations as produced by Define
  - decision trees (printed as case-expressions)

- we have already used top-level pattern matches with the TFL package
- Define is able to handle them
  - ▶ all the semantic complexity is taken care of
  - ► no special syntax or functions remain
  - ▶ no special rewrite rules, reasoning tools needed afterwards
- Define produces a set of equations
- this is the recommended way of using pattern matching in HOL

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# Case Expressions II

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# Case Expressions

- sometimes one does not want to use this compilation by TFL
  - ▶ one wants to use pattern-matches somewhere nested in a term
  - ▶ one might not want to introduce a new constant
  - ▶ one might want to avoid using TFL for technical reasons
- in such situations, case-expressions can be used
- their syntax is similar to the syntax used by SML

- the datatype package defines case-constants for each datatype
- the parser contains a pattern compilation algorithm
- case-expressions are by the parser compiled to decision trees using case-constants
- pretty printer prints these decision trees as case-expressions again

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- using case expressions feels very natural to functional programmers
- case-expressions allow concise, well-readable definitions
- however, there are also many drawbacks
- there is large, complicated code in the parser and pretty printer
  - ► this is outside the kernel
  - lacktriangle parsing a pretty-printed term can result in a non lpha-equivalent one
  - ▶ there are bugs in this code (see e.g. Issue #416 reported 8 May 2017)
- the results are hard to predict
  - ▶ heuristics involved in creating decision tree
  - ► however, it is beneficial that proofs follow this internal, volatile structure

- technical issues
  - ▶ it is tricky to reason about decision trees
  - ▶ rewrite rules about case-constants needs to be fetched from TypeBase
    - \* alternative srw\_ss often does more than wanted
  - ▶ partially evaluated decision-trees are not pretty printed nicely any more
- underspecified functions
  - ► decision trees are exhaustive
  - ▶ they list underspecified cases explicitly with value ARB
  - ► this can be lengthy
  - ► Define in contrast hides underspecified cases

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Case Expression Example IIa – partial evaluation



# Case Expression Example I

```
Partial Proof Script

val _ = prove (''!11 12.
    (LENGTH 11 = LENGTH 12) ==>
    ((ZIP 11 12 = []) <=> ((11 = []) /\ (12 = [])))'',

ONCE_REWRITE_TAC [ZIP_def]
```

```
Partial Proof Script

val _ = prove (''!11 12.
   (LENGTH 11 = LENGTH 12) ==>
        ((ZIP 11 12 = []) <=> ((11 = []) /\ (12 = [])))'',

ONCE_REWRITE_TAC [ZIP_def] >> REWRITE_TAC[pairTheory.pair_case_def] >> BETA_TAC
```

```
Current Goal
!11 12.
  (LENGTH 11 = LENGTH 12) ==>
  (((case 11 of
       [] => (case 12 of [] => [] | v4::v5 => ARB)
       | x::xs' => case 12 of [] => ARB | y::ys' => (x,y)::ZIP xs' ys') =
       []) <=> (11 = []) /\ (12 = []))
```

# Case Expression Example IIb — following tree structure

# Case Expression Summary

```
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```

- case expressions are natural to functional programmers
- they allow concise, readable definitions
- however, fancy parser and pretty-printer needed
  - ► trustworthiness issues
  - ► sanity check lemmata advisable
- reasoning about case expressions can be tricky and lengthy
- proofs about case expression often hard to maintain
- therefore, use top-level pattern matching via Define if easily possible

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# Part XV

#### Maintainable Proofs



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#### Motivation



- proofs are hopefully still used in a few weeks, months or even years
- often the environment changes slightly during the lifetime of a proof
  - ► your definitions change slightly
  - ▶ your own lemmata change (e.g. become more general)
  - ► used libraries change
  - ► HOL changes
    - $\star$  automation becomes more powerful
    - ★ rewrite rules in certain simpsets change
    - $\bigstar$  definition packages produce slightly different theorems
    - ★ autogenerated variable-names change
    - **\*** ...
- even if HOL and used libraries are stable, proofs often go through several iterations
- often they are adapted by someone else than the original author
- therefore it is important that proofs are easily maintainable



Formatting



- maintainability is closely linked to other desirable properties of proofs
- proofs should be
  - ► easily understandable
  - ▶ well-structured
  - ► robust
    - ★ they should be able to cope with minor changes to environment
    - ★ if they fail they should do so at sensible points
  - ► reusable
- How can one write proofs with such properties?
- as usual, there are no easy answers but plenty of good advice
- I recommend following the advice of **ProofStyle** manual
- parts of this advice as well as a few extra points are discussed in the following

- format your proof such that it easily understandable
- make the structure of the proof very clear
- show clearly where subgoals start and stop
- use indentation to mark proofs of subgoals
- use empty lines to separate large proofs of subgoals
- use comments where appropriate

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# Formatting Example I



# Formatting Example II

**Bad Example Subgoals** 



# **Bad Example Term Formatting**

```
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> LENGTH 12 <
LENGTH (11 ++ 12)'',
...)</pre>
```

#### Good Example Term Formatting

```
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'', ...)
```

```
Cases >>
REWRITE_TAC[] >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
REPEAT STRIP_TAC >>
DECIDE_TAC)
```

prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',

# Improved Example Subgoals

At least show when a subgoal starts and ends

```
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >> (
    REWRITE_TAC[]
) >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
REPEAT STRIP_TAC >>
DECIDE_TAC)
```

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# Formatting Example II 3



#### Good Example Subgoals

Make sure REWRITE\_TAC is only applied to first subgoal and proof fails, if it does not solve this subgoal.

```
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >- (
   REWRITE_TAC[]
) >>
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
REPEAT STRIP_TAC >>
DECIDE_TAC)
```

# Alternative Good Example Subgoals

Alternative good formatting using THENL

```
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >| [
   REWRITE_TAC[],

REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
   REPEAT STRIP_TAC >>
   DECIDE_TAC
])
```

#### **Another Bad Example Subgoals**

Bad formatting using THENL

```
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >| [REWRITE_TAC[],
REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
REPEAT STRIP_TAC >> DECIDE_TAC])
```

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#### Some basic advice

#### use semicoli after each declaration

- ► if exception is raised during interactive processing (e.g. by a failing proof), previous successful declarations are kept
- ▶ it sometimes leads to better error messages in case of parsing errors
- use plenty of parentheses to make structure very clear
- don't ignore parser warnings
  - especially warnings about multiple possible parse trees are likely to lead to unstable proofs
  - ▶ understand why such warnings occur and make sure there is no problem
- format your development well
  - ► use indentation
  - ► use linebreaks at sensible points
  - ► don't use overlong lines
  - **>** ...
- don't use open in middle of files
- personal opinion: avoid unicode in source files

# KISS and Premature Optimisation



- follow standard design principles
  - ► KISS principle
  - "premature optimization is the root of all evil" (Donald Knuth)
- don't try to be overly clever
- simple proofs are preferable
- proof-checking-speed mostly unimportant
- conciseness not a value in itself but desirable if it helps
  - readability
  - maintainability
- abstraction is often desirable, but also has a price
  - ▶ don't use too complex, artificial definitions and lemmata

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```
Too much abstraction Example

val TOO_ABSTRACT_LEMMA = prove (''
!(size :'a -> num) (P : 'a -> bool) (combine : 'a -> 'a -> 'a).
    (!x. P x ==> (0 < size x)) /\
    (!x1 x2. size x1 + size x2 <= size (combine x1 x2)) ==>

    (!x1 x2. P x1 ==> (size x2 < size (combine x1 x2)))'',
    ...)

prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
    some proof using ABSTRACT_LEMMA
)
```

- a common mistake is to use too clever tactics
  - ▶ intended to work on many (sub)goals
  - ▶ using TRY and other fancy trial and error mechanisms
  - ▶ intended to replace multiple simple, clear tactics
- typical case: a tactic containing TRY applied to many subgoals
- it is often hard to see why such tactics work
- if something goes wrong, they are hard to debug
- general advice: don't factor with tactics, instead use definitions and lemmata

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## Too Clever Tactics Example I

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# Too Clever Tactics Example II



```
Bad Example Subgoals
prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >> (
   REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
   REPEAT STRIP_TAC >>
   DECIDE_TAC
))
```

```
Alternative Good Example Subgoals II

prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >> SIMP_TAC list_ss [])

prove (''!11 12. 11 <> [] ==> (LENGTH 12 < LENGTH (11 ++ 12))'',
Cases >| [
REWRITE_TAC[],

REWRITE_TAC[],

REWRITE_TAC[listTheory.LENGTH, listTheory.LENGTH_APPEND] >>
DECIDE_TAC
])
```

```
Bad Example
val oadd_def = Define '(oadd (SOME n1) (SOME n2) = (SOME (n1 + n2))) /\
                      (oadd _
                                                = NONE)';
val osub_def = Define '(osub (SOME n1) (SOME n2) = (SOME (n1 - n2))) /\
                      (osub _
val omul def = Define '(omul (SOME n1) (SOME n2) = (SOME (n1 * n2))) /
                      (omul _
                                                = NONE)';
val obin_NONE_TAC =
 Cases_on 'o1' >> Cases_on 'o2' >>
 SIMP_TAC std_ss [oadd_def, osub_def, omul_def];
val oadd_NONE = prove (
 ''!o1 o2. (oadd o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE)'',
 obin NONE TAC):
val osub_NONE = prove (
 ''!o1 o2. (osub o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE)'',
 obin NONE TAC):
val omul_NONE = prove (
 ''!o1 o2. (omul o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE)'',
 obin_NONE_TAC);
```

```
Good Example
val obin_def = Define '(obin op (SOME n1) (SOME n2) = (SOME (op n1 n2))) /
                       (obin _ _
                                                    = NONE) :
val oadd_def = Define 'oadd = obin $+';
val osub_def = Define 'osub = obin $-';
val omul_def = Define 'omul = obin $*';
val obin_NONE = prove (
 ''!op o1 o2. (obin op o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE)'',
 Cases on 'o1' >> Cases on 'o2' >> SIMP TAC std ss [obin def]):
val oadd_NONE = prove (
  ''!o1 o2. (oadd o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE)'',
 REWRITE_TAC[oadd_def, obin_NONE]);
val osub_NONE = prove (
 ''!o1 o2. (osub o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE) '',
 REWRITE_TAC[osub_def, obin_NONE]);
val omul_NONE = prove (
 ''!o1 o2. (omul o1 o2 = NONE) <=> (o1 = NONE) \/ (o2 = NONE)'',
 REWRITE_TAC[omul_def, obin_NONE]);
```

- often it is beneficial to use subgoals
  - ► they structure long proofs well
  - ► they help keeping the proof state clean
  - ▶ they mark clearly what one tries to proof
  - ▶ they provide points where proofs can break sensibly
- general enough subgoals should become lemmata
  - ► this improves reusability
  - proof script for main lemma becomes shorter
  - proofs are disentangled

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# Subgoal Example II



# Subgoal Example

- the following example is taken from exercise 5
- we try to prove !1. IS\_WEAK\_SUBLIST\_FILTER 1 1
- given are following definitions and lemmata

```
val FILTER_BY_BOOLS_def = Define '
 FILTER_BY_BOOLS bl 1 = MAP SND (FILTER FST (ZIP (bl, 1)))';
val IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_def = Define 'IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER 11 12 =
 ?(b1 : bool list). (LENGTH b1 = LENGTH 11) /\ (12 = FILTER_BY_BOOLS b1 11)';
val FILTER_BY_BOOLS_REWRITES = store_thm ("FILTER_BY_BOOLS_REWRITES",
 ''(FILTER_BY_BOOLS [] [] = []) /\
   (!b bl x xs. (FILTER_BY_BOOLS (b::bl) (x::xs) =
    if b then x::(FILTER_BY_BOOLS bl xs) else FILTER_BY_BOOLS bl xs))'',
REWRITE_TAC [FILTER_BY_BOOLS_def, ZIP, MAP, FILTER] >>
Cases_on 'b' >> REWRITE_TAC [MAP]);
```

# First Version

```
val IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_REFL = store_thm ("IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_REFL",
  "!1. IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER 1 1",
REWRITE_TAC[IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_def] >>
Induct_on '1' >- (
 Q.EXISTS_TAC '[]' >>
 SIMP_TAC list_ss [FILTER_BY_BOOLS_REWRITES]
) >>
FULL_SIMP_TAC std_ss [] >>
GEN_TAC >>
Q.EXISTS TAC 'T::bl' >>
ASM_SIMP_TAC list_ss [FILTER_BY_BOOLS_REWRITES])
```

- the proof mixes properties of IS\_WEAK\_SUBLIST\_FILTER and properties of FILTER\_BY\_BOOLS
- it is hard to see what the main idea is

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# Subgoal Example IV



- the following proof separates the property of FILTER\_BY\_BOOLS as a subgoal
- the main idea becomes clearer

```
Subgoal Version
val Is_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_REFL = store_thm ("IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_REFL",
    ''!1. IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER 1 1'',
GEN_TAC >>
REWRITE_TAC[IS_WEAK_SUBLIST_FILTER_def] >>
    'FILTER_BY_BOOLS (REPLICATE (LENGTH 1) T) 1 = 1' suffices_by (
    METIS_TAC[LENGTH_REPLICATE]
) >>
Induct_on '1' >> (
    ASM_SIMP_TAC list_ss [FILTER_BY_BOOLS_REWRITES, REPLICATE]
))
```

- the subgoal is general enough to justify a lemma
- the structure becomes even cleaner
- this improves reusability

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SIMP\_TAC list\_ss [FILTER\_BY\_BOOLS\_REPL\_T, LENGTH\_REPLICATE])

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## Autogenerated Names Example

REWRITE\_TAC[IS\_WEAK\_SUBLIST\_FILTER\_def] >>

Q.EXISTS TAC 'REPLICATE (LENGTH 1) T' >>



Avoid Autogenerated Names

- many HOL-tactics introduce new variable names
  - ▶ Induct
  - ► Cases
  - ▶ ...
- the new names are often very artificial
- even worse, generated names might change in future
- proof scripts using autogenerated names are therefore
  - ▶ hard to read
  - ► potentially fragile
- therefore rename variables after they have been introduced
- HOL has multiple tactics supporting renaming
- most useful is rename1 'pat', it searches for pattern and renames vars accordingly

# Bad Example

```
prove (''!1. 1 < LENGTH 1 ==> (?x1 x2 l'. l = x1::x2::l')'',
GEN_TAC >>
Cases_on 'l' >> SIMP_TAC list_ss [] >>
Cases_on 't' >> SIMP_TAC list_ss [])
```

#### Good Example

```
prove (''!1. 1 < LENGTH 1 ==> (?x1 x2 l'. l = x1::x2::l')'',
GEN_TAC >>
Cases_on '1' >> SIMP_TAC list_ss [] >>
rename1 'LENGTH 12' >>
Cases_on '12' >> SIMP_TAC list_ss [])
```

#### Proof State before rename1

```
1 < SUC (LENGTH t) ==> ?x2 l'. t = x2::1'
```

#### Proof State after rename1

```
1 < SUC (LENGTH 12) ==> ?x2 1'. 12 = x2::1'
```

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#### Overview of HOL 4



# Part XVI

# Overview of HOL 4



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- in this course we discussed the basics of HOL 4
- you were encouraged to learn more on your own in exercises
- there is a lot more to learn even after the end of the course
  - many more libraries
  - ▶ proof tools
  - ► existing formalisations
  - ▶ ..
- to really use HOL well, you should continue learning
- to help getting started, a short overview is presented here

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#### **HOL Bare Source Directories**

The following source directories are the very basis of HOL. They are required to build hol.bare.

- src/portableML common stuff for PolyML and MoscowML
- src/prekernel
- src/0 Standard Kernel
- src/logging-kernel Logging Kernel
- src/experimental-kernel Experimental Kernel
- src/postkernel
- src/opentheory
- src/parse
- src/bool
- src/1
- src/proofman

#### HOL Basic Directories

On top of hol.bare, there are many basic theories and tools. These are all required for building the main hol executable.

- src/compute fast ground term rewriting
- src/HolSat SAT solver interfaces
- src/taut propositional proofs using HolSat
- src/marker marking terms
- src/q parsing support
- src/combin combinators
- src/lite some simple lib with various stuff
- src/refute refutation prover, normal forms
- src/metis first order resolution prover
- src/meson first order model elimination prover

#### **HOL Basic Directories II**

- src/simp simplifier
- src/holyhammer tool for finding Metis proofs
- src/tactictoe machine learning tool for finding proofs
- src/IndDef (co)inductive relation definitions
- src/basicProof library containing proof tools
- src/relation relations and order theory
- src/one unit type theory
- src/pair tuples
- src/sum sum types
- src/tfl defining terminating functions
- src/option option types

#### **HOL More Theories I**

Besides the basic libraries and theories that are required and loaded by hol, there are many more developements in HOL's source directory.

- src/sort sorting lists
- src/string strings
- src/TeX exporting LaTeX code
- src/res\_quan restricted quantifiers
- src/quotient quotient type package
- src/finite\_map finite map theory
- src/bag bags a.k.a. multisets
- src/n-bit machine words

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#### **HOL Basic Directories III**



- src/num numbers and arithmetic
- src/pred\_set predicate sets
- src/datatype Datatype package
- src/list list theories
- src/monad monads
- src/quantHeuristics instantiating quantifiers
- src/unwind lib for unwinding structural hardware definitions
- src/pattern\_matches pattern matches alternative
- src/bossLib main HOL lib loaded at start

bossLib is one central library. It loads all basic theories and libraries and provides convenient wrappers for the most common tools.

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**HOL More Theories II** 



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- src/ring reasoning about rings
- src/integer integers
- src/llists lazy lists
- src/path finite and infinite paths through a transition system
- src/patricia efficient finite map implementations using trees
- src/emit emitting SML and OCaml code
- src/search traversal of graphs that may contain cycles

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#### **HOL More Theories III**



# HOL Selected Examples I



- src/rational rational numbers
- src/real real numbers
- src/complex comples numbers
- src/HolQbf quantified boolean formulas
- src/HolSmt support for external SMT solvers
- src/float IEEE floating point numbers
- src/floating-point new version of IEEE floating point numbers
- src/probability some propability theory
- src/temporal shallow embedding of temporal logic
- ...

The directory examples hosts many theories and libraries as well. There is not always a clear distinction between an example and a development in src. However, in general examples are more specialised and often larger. They are not required to follow HOL's coding style as much as developments in src.

- examples/balanced\_bst finite maps via balanced trees
- examples/unification (nominal) unification
- examples/Crypto various block ciphers
- examples/elliptic elliptic curve cryptography
- examples/formal-languages regular and context free formal languages
- examples/computability basic computability theory

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## **HOL Selected Examples II**



# **HOL Selected Examples III**



- examples/set-theory axiomatic formalisation of set theory
- examples/lambda lambda calculus
- examples/acl2 connection to ACL2 prover
- examples/theorem-prover soundness proof of Milawa prover
- examples/PSL formalisation of PSL
- examples/HolBdd Binary Decision Diagrams
- examples/HolCheck basic model checker
- examples/temporal\_deep deep embedding of temporal logics and automata

- examples/pgcl formalisation of pGCL (the Probabilistic Guarded Command Language)
- examples/dev some hardware compilation
- examples/STE symbolic trajectory evalutation
- examples/separationLogic formalisation of separation logic
- examples/ARM formalisation of ARM architecture
- examples/13-machine-code |3 language
- examples/machine-code compilers and decompilers to machine-code

...

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# **Concluding Remarks**

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- Part XVII
- Other Interactive Theorem Provers

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- some useful tools are a bit hidden in the HOL sources
- moreover there are developments outside the main HOL 4 sources
  - ► CakeML https://cakeml.org
- keep in touch with community to continue learning about HOL 4
  - ► mailing-list hol-info
  - ► GitHub https://github.com/HOL-Theorem-Prover/HOL
  - ▶ https://hol-theorem-prover.org
- if you continue using HOL, please consider sharing your work with the community

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HOL 4



#### Other Interactive Theorem Provers

- at the beginning we very briefly discussed other theorem provers
- now, with more knowledge about HOL 4 we can discuss other provers and their differences to HOL 4 in more detail
- HOL 4 is a good system
- it is very well suited for the tasks required by the PROSPER project
- however, as always choose the right tool for your task
- you might find a different prover more suitable for your needs
- hopefully this course has enabled you to learn to use other provers on your own without much trouble

- based on classical higher order logic
- logic is sweet spot between expressivity and automation
- $+\,$  very trustworthy thanks to LCF approach
- + simple enough to understand easily
- + very easy to write custom proof tools, i. e. own automation
- + reasonably fast and efficient
- decent automation
- no user-interface
- no special proof language
- no IDE, very little editor support

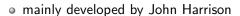
# **HOL** Omega

- mainly developed by Peter Homeier http://www.trustworthytools.com/
- extension of HOL 4
  - + logic extended by kinds
  - + allows type operator variables
  - + allows quantification over type variables
- + sometimes handy to e.g. model category theory
- not very actively developed
- HOL 4 usually sufficient and better supported

#### Isabelle

- Isabelle is also a descendant of LCF
- originally developed by Larry Paulson in Cambridge https://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/research/hvg/Isabelle/
- meanwhile also developed at TU Munich by Tobias Nipkow http://www21.in.tum.de
- huge contributions by Markarius Wenzel http://sketis.net
- Isabelle is a generic theorem prover
- most used instantiation is Isabelle/HOL
- other important one is Isabelle/ZF

# HOL Light



- https://github.com/jrh13/hol-light
- cleanup and reimplementation of HOL in OCaml
- little legacy code
- however, still very similar to HOL 4
- + much better automation for real analysis
- + cleaner
- OCaml introduces some minor issues with trustworthiness
- some other libs and tools of HOL 4 are missing
- HOL 4 has bigger community

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# Isabelle / HOL - Logic



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- logic of Isabelle / HOL very similar to HOL's logic
  - meta logic leads to meta level quantification and object level quantification
  - + type classes
  - + powerful module system
  - + existential variables
  - ▶ ...
- Isabelle is implemented using the LCF approach
- it uses SML (Poly/ML)
- many original tools (e.g. simplifier) similar to HOL
- focused as HOL on equational reasoning
- many tools are exchanged between HOL 4 and Isabelle / HOL
  - Metis
  - ▶ Sledgehammer
  - ▶ ...

# Isabelle / HOL - Engineering

- Isabelle / HOL Isar



- + a lot of engineering went into Isabelle/HOL
- + it has a very nice GUI
  - ► IDE based on JEdit
  - special language for proofs (Isar)
  - ► good error messages
  - **.** . . .
- + very good automation
- + efficient implementations
- + many libraries (Archive of Formal Proof)
- + excellent code extraction
- + good documentation
- + easy for new users

- special proof language Isar used
- this allows to write declarative proofs
  - very high level
  - ► easy to read by humans
  - ▶ very robust
  - ► very good tool support
  - ▶ ...
- however, tactical proofs are not easily accessible any more
  - ▶ many intermediate goals need to be stated (declared) explicitly
  - ► this can be very tedious
  - ▶ tools like verification condition generators are hard to use

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Cog

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# Isabelle / HOL - Drawbacks

- + Isabelle/HOL provides excellent out of the box automation
- + it provides a very nice user interface
- $+\,$  it is very nice for new users
- however, this comes at a price
  - ► multiple layers added between kernel and user
  - ► hard to understand all these layers
  - ► a lot of knowledge is needed to write your own automation
- hard to write own automation
- Isabelle/HOL due to focus on declarative proofs not well suited for e. g. PROSPER

- Coq is a proof assistant using the Calculus of Inductive Constructions
- inspired by HOL 88
- backward proofs as in HOL 4 used
- however, very big differences
  - ► much more powerful logic
  - ▶ dependent types
  - ► constructive logic
  - ▶ not exactly following LCF approach
- $+ \ \ \mathsf{good} \ \ \mathsf{user} \ \mathsf{interface}$
- $+ \ \ \mathsf{very} \ \mathsf{good} \ \mathsf{community} \ \mathsf{support}$

# Coq - Logic



# Coq - Drawbacks



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- + Coq's logic is very powerful
- + it is very natural for mathematicians
- + very natural for language theory
- + allows reasoning about proofs
- allows to add axioms as needed
- as a result, Cog is used often to
  - ► formalise mathematics
  - ► formalise programming language semantics
  - ► reason about proof theory

- Coq's power comes at a price
- there is not much automation
- proofs tend to be very long
  - ► they are very simple though
  - + comparably easy to maintain
- Coq's proof checking can be very slow
- when verifying programs or hardware you notice that HOL was designed for this purpose
  - ▶ need for **obvious** termination is tedious
  - missing automation
  - very slow

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# Summary

- there are many good theorem provers out there
- pick the right tool for your purpose
- the HOL theorem prover is a good system for many purposes
- for PROSPER it is a good choice
- I encourage you to continue learning about HOL and interactive theorem proving in general
- if you have any questions feel free to contact me (Thomas Tuerk, email thomas@tuerk-brechen.de)