

4 Type and function definitions

5 Induction Heuristics

6 Simplification

Notation

Implication associates to the right:

$$A \Longrightarrow B \Longrightarrow C$$
 means $A \Longrightarrow (B \Longrightarrow C)$

Similarly for other arrows: \Rightarrow , \longrightarrow

$$\frac{A_1 \quad \dots \quad A_n}{B} \quad \text{means} \quad A_1 \Longrightarrow \dots \Longrightarrow A_n \Longrightarrow B$$



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$$\label{eq:HOL} \begin{split} \text{HOL} &= \text{Higher-Order Logic} \\ \text{HOL} &= \text{Functional Programming} + \text{Logic} \end{split}$$

HOL has

- datatypes
- recursive functions
- logical operators

HOL is a programming language!

Higher-order = functions are values, too!

HOL Formulas:

- For the moment: only term = term, e.g. 1+2 = 4
- Later: \land , \lor , \longrightarrow , \forall , ...

 Overview of Isabelle/HOL Types and terms Interface By example: types bool, nat and list Summary

Types

Basic syntax:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau & ::= (\tau) \\ & | bool | nat | int | \dots base types \\ & | 'a | 'b | \dots type variables \\ & | \tau \Rightarrow \tau functions \\ & | \tau \times \tau pairs (ascii: *) \\ & | \tau list list lists \\ & | \tau set sets \\ & \dots user-defined types \end{aligned}$$

Convention: $au_1 \Rightarrow au_2 \Rightarrow au_3 \equiv au_1 \Rightarrow (au_2 \Rightarrow au_3)$

Terms

Terms can be formed as follows:

- Function application: f t is the call of function f with argument t. If f has more arguments: f t₁ t₂ ... Examples: sin π, plus x y
- Function abstraction: λx. t is the function with parameter x and result t, i.e. "x → t". Example: λx. plus x x

Terms

Basic syntax:

 $\begin{array}{cccc}t & ::= & (t) \\ & | & a & \text{constant or variable (identifier)} \\ & | & t & t & \text{function application} \\ & | & \lambda x. & t & \text{function abstraction} \\ & | & \dots & \text{lots of syntactic sugar}\end{array}$

Examples:
$$f(g x) y$$

 $h(\lambda x. f(g x))$

Convention: $f t_1 t_2 t_3 \equiv ((f t_1) t_2) t_3$

This language of terms is known as the λ -calculus.

The computation rule of the λ -calculus is the replacement of formal by actual parameters:

 $(\lambda x. t) u = t[u/x]$

where t[u/x] is "t with u substituted for x".

Example: $(\lambda x. x + 5) = 3 + 5$

- The step from $(\lambda x. t) u$ to t[u/x] is called β -reduction.
- Isabelle performs β -reduction automatically.

Terms must be well-typed

(the argument of every function call must be of the right type)

Notation: $t :: \tau$ means "t is a well-typed term of type τ ".

$$\frac{t :: \tau_1 \Rightarrow \tau_2 \qquad u :: \tau_1}{t \ u :: \tau_2}$$

Type inference

Isabelle automatically computes the type of each variable in a term. This is called *type inference*.

In the presence of *overloaded* functions (functions with multiple types) this is not always possible.

User can help with *type annotations* inside the term. Example: f(x::nat)

Currying

Thou shalt Curry your functions

- Curried: $f :: \tau_1 \Rightarrow \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau$
- Tupled: $f' :: \tau_1 \times \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau$

Advantage:

Currying allows *partial application* $f a_1$ where $a_1 :: \tau_1$

Predefined syntactic sugar

- Infix: +, -, *, #, @, ...
- Mixfix: if _ then _ else _, case _ of, ...

Prefix binds more strongly than infix: $f x + y \equiv (f x) + y \not\equiv f (x + y)$

> Enclose *if* and *case* in parentheses: (*if* _ *then* _ *else* _)

Theory = Isabelle Module

Syntax: theory MyThimports $T_1 \dots T_n$ begin (definitions, theorems, proofs, ...)* end

MyTh: name of theory. Must live in file MyTh.thy T_i : names of *imported* theories. Import transitive.

Usually: imports Main



In .thy files: Types, terms and formulas need to be inclosed in "

Except for single identifiers

" normally not shown on slides

 Overview of Isabelle/HOL Types and terms Interface By example: types bool, nat and list Summary

isabelle jedit

- Based on *jEdit* editor
- Processes Isabelle text automatically when editing .thy files (like modern Java IDEs)

Overview_Demo.thy

3 Overview of Isabelle/HOL

Types and terms Interface By example: types *bool*, *nat* and *list* Summary

Type bool

datatype $bool = True \mid False$

Predefined functions: $\land, \lor, \longrightarrow, \ldots :: bool \Rightarrow bool \Rightarrow bool$

A formula is a term of type bool

if-and-only-if: =

Type *nat*

datatype $nat = 0 \mid Suc \; nat$

Values of type *nat*: 0, Suc 0, Suc(Suc 0), ...

Predefined functions: $+, *, ... :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat$

Numbers and arithmetic operations are overloaded: 0,1,2,... :: 'a, + :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'a

You need type annotations: 1 :: nat, x + (y::nat)unless the context is unambiguous: $Suc \ z$

Nat_Demo.thy

An informal proof

Lemma add $m \ 0 = m$ **Proof** by induction on m.

- Case 0 (the base case): $add \ 0 \ 0 = 0$ holds by definition of add.
- Case Suc m (the induction step): We assume add m 0 = m, the induction hypothesis (IH). We need to show add (Suc m) 0 = Suc m. The proof is as follows: add (Suc m) 0 = Suc (add m 0) by def. of add = Suc m by IH

Type 'a list

Lists of elements of type 'a

datatype 'a list = Nil | Cons 'a ('a list)

Some lists: Nil, Cons 1 Nil, Cons 1 (Cons 2 Nil), ...

Syntactic sugar:

- [] = *Nil*: empty list
- x # xs = Cons x xs: list with first element x ("head") and rest xs ("tail")

•
$$[x_1, \ldots, x_n] = x_1 \# \ldots x_n \# [$$

Structural Induction for lists

To prove that P(xs) for all lists xs, prove

- *P*([]) and
- for arbitrary but fixed x and xs, P(xs) implies P(x#xs).

$$\frac{P([]) \qquad \bigwedge x \ xs. \ P(xs) \Longrightarrow \ P(x\#xs)}{P(xs)}$$

List_Demo.thy

An informal proof

Lemma app (app xs ys) zs = app xs (app ys zs)**Proof** by induction on xs.

- Case Nil: app (app Nil ys) zs = app ys zs = app Nil (app ys zs) holds by definition of app.
- Case Cons x xs: We assume app (app xs ys) zs =app xs (app ys zs) (IH), and we need to show app (app (Cons x xs) ys) zs =app (Cons x xs) (app ys zs).The proof is as follows: app (app (Cons x xs) ys) zs= Cons x (app (app xs ys) zs) by definition of app $= Cons \ x \ (app \ xs \ (app \ ys \ zs))$ by IH = app (Cons x xs) (app ys zs) by definition of app

Large library: HOL/List.thy

Included in Main.

Don't reinvent, reuse!

Predefined: xs @ ys (append), length, and map

3 Overview of Isabelle/HOL

Types and terms Interface By example: types *bool*, *nat* and *list* Summary

- **datatype** defines (possibly) recursive data types.
- **fun** defines (possibly) recursive functions by pattern-matching over datatype constructors.

Proof methods

- *induction* performs structural induction on some variable (if the type of the variable is a datatype).
- *auto* solves as many subgoals as it can, mainly by simplification (symbolic evaluation):

"=" is used only from left to right!

Proofs

General schema:

```
lemma name: "..."
apply (...)
apply (...)
:
done
```

If the lemma is suitable as a simplification rule: **lemma** name[simp]: "..." Top down proofs

Command

sorry

"completes" any proof.

Allows top down development:

Assume lemma first, prove it later.

The proof state

1.
$$\bigwedge x_1 \dots x_p$$
. $A \Longrightarrow B$
 $x_1 \dots x_p$ fixed local variables
 A local assumption(s)
 B actual (sub)goal

Multiple assumptions



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Type and function definitions
 Type definitions
 Function definitions



type_synonym $name = \tau$

Introduces a synonym name for type τ

Examples

type_synonym $string = char \ list$ type_synonym $('a, 'b)foo = 'a \ list \times 'b \ list$

Type synonyms are expanded after parsing and are not present in internal representation and output

datatype — the general case datatype $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)t = C_1 \tau_{1,1} \dots \tau_{1,n_1}$ $| \dots \\ C_k \tau_{k,1} \dots \tau_{k,n_k}$

- Types: $C_i :: \tau_{i,1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow \tau_{i,n_i} \Rightarrow (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)t$
- Distinctness: $C_i \ldots \neq C_j \ldots$ if $i \neq j$
- Injectivity: $(C_i \ x_1 \dots x_{n_i} = C_i \ y_1 \dots y_{n_i}) = (x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_{n_i} = y_{n_i})$

Distinctness and injectivity are applied automatically Induction must be applied explicitly

Case expressions

Datatype values can be taken apart with case:

(case xs of $[] \Rightarrow \dots | y \# ys \Rightarrow \dots y \dots ys \dots)$

Wildcards: _

(case m of
$$0 \Rightarrow Suc \ 0 \mid Suc \ \Rightarrow 0$$
)

Nested patterns:

(case *xs* of $[0] \Rightarrow 0 \mid [Suc \ n] \Rightarrow n \mid _ \Rightarrow 2$)

Complicated patterns mean complicated proofs! Need () in context

Tree_Demo.thy

The *option* type

datatype 'a option = None | Some 'a

If 'a has values a_1, a_2, \ldots then 'a option has values None, Some a_1 , Some a_2, \ldots

Typical application:

fun $lookup :: ('a \times 'b) \ list \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'b \ option$ where $lookup [] \ x = None |$ $lookup ((a, b) \# ps) \ x =$ $(if \ a = x \ then \ Some \ b \ else \ lookup \ ps \ x)$

Type and function definitions Type definitions Function definitions

Non-recursive definitions

Example definition $sq :: nat \Rightarrow nat$ where sq n = n*n

No pattern matching, just $f x_1 \ldots x_n = \ldots$

The danger of nontermination

How about
$$f x = f x + 1$$
 ?

All functions in HOL must be total

Key features of **fun**

- Pattern-matching over datatype constructors
- Order of equations matters
- Termination must be provable automatically by size measures
- Proves customized induction schema

Example: separation

fun $sep :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \ list \Rightarrow 'a \ list where$ $sep \ a \ (x \# y \# zs) = x \# a \# sep \ a \ (y \# zs) |$ $sep \ a \ xs = xs$

Example: Ackermann

fun
$$ack :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat$$
 where
 $ack \ 0 \qquad n \qquad = Suc \ n \mid$
 $ack (Suc \ m) \ 0 \qquad = ack \ m (Suc \ 0) \mid$
 $ack (Suc \ m) (Suc \ n) = ack \ m (ack (Suc \ m) \ n)$

Terminates because the arguments decrease *lexicographically* with each recursive call:

- $(Suc \ m, \ 0) > (m, \ Suc \ 0)$
- $(Suc \ m, \ Suc \ n) > (Suc \ m, \ n)$
- (Suc m, Suc n) > (m, _)

primrec

- A restrictive version of fun
- Means *primitive recursive*
- Most functions are primitive recursive
- Frequently found in Isabelle theories

The essence of primitive recursion:

 $\begin{array}{ll} f(0) & = \dots & \text{no recursion} \\ f(Suc \ n) & = \dots f(n) \dots \\ g([]) & = \dots & \text{no recursion} \\ g(x \# xs) & = \dots g(xs) \dots \end{array}$

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Basic induction heuristics

Theorems about recursive functions are proved by induction

Induction on argument number i of f if f is defined by recursion on argument number i

A tail recursive reverse

Our initial reverse:

fun
$$rev :: 'a \ list \Rightarrow 'a \ list$$
 where
 $rev [] = [] |$
 $rev (x \# xs) = rev \ xs @ [x]$

A tail recursive version:

fun *itrev* :: 'a *list* \Rightarrow 'a *list* \Rightarrow 'a *list* **where** *itrev* [] ys = ys | *itrev* (x#xs) ys =

lemma *itrev* xs [] = rev xs

Induction_Demo.thy

Generalisation

Generalisation

- Replace constants by variables
- Generalize free variables
 - by *arbitrary* in induction proof
 - (or by universal quantifier in formula)

So far, all proofs were by structural induction because all functions were primitive recursive.

In each induction step, 1 constructor is added. In each recursive call, 1 constructor is removed.

Now: induction for complex recursion patterns.

Computation Induction

Example

fun $div2 :: nat \Rightarrow nat$ where $div2 \ 0 = 0 |$ $div2 \ (Suc \ 0) = 0 |$ $div2 \ (Suc(Suc \ n)) = Suc(div2 \ n)$

 \rightsquigarrow induction rule div2.induct:

$$\frac{P(0) \quad P(Suc \ 0) \quad \bigwedge n. \ P(n) \Longrightarrow P(Suc(Suc \ n))}{P(m)}$$

Computation Induction

If $f :: \tau \Rightarrow \tau'$ is defined by **fun**, a special induction schema is provided to prove P(x) for all $x :: \tau$:

for each defining equation

$$f(e) = \dots f(r_1) \dots f(r_k) \dots$$

prove P(e) assuming $P(r_1), \ldots, P(r_k)$.

Induction follows course of (terminating!) computation Motto: properties of f are best proved by rule f.induct

How to apply *f.induct*

If $f :: \tau_1 \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow \tau_n \Rightarrow \tau'$:

(induction $a_1 \ldots a_n$ rule: f.induct)

Heuristic:

- there should be a call $f a_1 \ldots a_n$ in your goal
- ideally the a_i should be variables.

Induction_Demo.thy

Computation Induction

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Simplification means ...

Using equations l = r from left to right As long as possible

Terminology: equation ~> *simplification rule*

Simplification = (Term) Rewriting

An example

Equations:

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
0+n &=& n & (1) \\
(Suc \ m)+n &=& Suc \ (m+n) & (2) \\
(Suc \ m \leq Suc \ n) &=& (m \leq n) & (3) \\
(0 \leq m) &=& True & (4)
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 0+Suc \ 0 &\leq & Suc \ 0+x & \stackrel{(1)}{=} \\ Suc \ 0 &\leq & Suc \ 0+x & \stackrel{(2)}{=} \\ Suc \ 0 &\leq & Suc \ (0+x) & \stackrel{(3)}{=} \\ 0 &\leq & 0+x & \stackrel{(4)}{=} \\ True \end{array}$$

Conditional rewriting

Simplification rules can be conditional:

$$\llbracket P_1; \ldots; P_k \rrbracket \Longrightarrow l = r$$

is applicable only if all P_i can be proved first, again by simplification.

Example

$$p(0) = True$$

$$p(x) \Longrightarrow f(x) = g(x)$$

We can simplify f(0) to g(0) but we cannot simplify f(1) because p(1) is not provable.

Termination

Simplification may not terminate. Isabelle uses *simp*-rules (almost) blindly from left to right.

Example:
$$f(x) = g(x), g(x) = f(x)$$

Principle:

$$\llbracket P_1; \ldots; P_k \rrbracket \Longrightarrow l = r$$

is suitable as a *simp*-rule only if l is "bigger" than r and each P_i

$$n < m \Longrightarrow (n < Suc \ m) = True \$$
YES
Suc $n < m \Longrightarrow (n < m) = True \$ NO

Proof method *simp*

apply(simp add: $eq_1 \ldots eq_n$)

Simplify $P_1 \ldots P_m$ and C using

- lemmas with attribute *simp*
- rules from fun and datatype
- additional lemmas $eq_1 \ldots eq_n$
- assumptions $P_1 \ldots P_m$

Variations:

- $(simp \ldots del: \ldots)$ removes simp-lemmas
- *add* and *del* are optional

auto versus simp

- *auto* acts on all subgoals
- *simp* acts only on subgoal 1
- *auto* applies *simp* and more
- *auto* can also be modified: (*auto simp add*: ... *simp del*: ...)

Rewriting with definitions

Definitions (definition) must be used explicitly:

 $(simp add: f_-def...)$

 \boldsymbol{f} is the function whose definition is to be unfolded.

Case splitting with simp/auto Automatic:

$$P (if A then s else t) = \\ (A \longrightarrow P(s)) \land (\neg A \longrightarrow P(t))$$

By hand:

$$P (case \ e \ of \ 0 \Rightarrow a \mid Suc \ n \Rightarrow b) = \\ (e = 0 \longrightarrow P(a)) \land (\forall n. \ e = Suc \ n \longrightarrow P(b))$$

Proof method: (*simp split: nat.split*) Or *auto*. Similar for any datatype *t*: *t.split* Simp_Demo.thy