Advanced Type Features

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[1]Largely based on earlier talks by Rick Butler and Hanne Gottliebsen

Outline

Uninterpreted Functions

In PVS, functions can be defined without a "body." These functions are called uninterpreted.

```
floor(a: real): int

abs: [int -> nat]

which_quadrant(x: real, y: real): {i: nat | i >= 1 AND i <= 4}
```

When would you use an uninterpreted function?

- Different implementations (e.g. sorting)
- The precise function is unknown, but its general characteristics are known
- The function represents unknown information (e.g. time of user input)

Types are important!

- Only type information can be used in a proof
- Should restrict the types as much as possible. A poor type choice is `abs:[int -> int]`

Dependent Types

Dependent types are types that depend on other values

```
real_stack: TYPE = [# size: nat,
                      elements: [{n: nat | n < size} -> real]
                    #]
```

```
mod(m: nat, d: posnat): {r: nat | r <  d}
```

In this lecture...

- We will explore how the prover can take advantage of dependent types
- We will use the `floor_ceil` theory from the prelude as a running example

Functional Attempt to define `floor`

First try, an interpreted function

```
x: VAR real

floor(x): int = x - fractional(x)
```

- Ugh, now we have to define another function

Axiomatic attempt to define `floor`

```
x: VAR real

floor(x): int
floor_def: AXIOM floor(x) <= x & x < floor(x) + 1
```

This fully defines the key property of a `floor` function, but

- Must ensure that our axioms are consistent
  - Why are inconsistent axioms bad?
  - Warning: it is easy to miss problems here!
- Must explicitly bring in the properties of `floor` through the `floor_def` axiom
- But on the plus side, we don't have to prove axioms

Prelude Theory floor_ceil

```
x: VAR real
i: VAR integer

floor(x): {i | i <= x & x < i + 1}
```

The return type of `floor` depends upon the argument `x`

- The main property of `floor` is contained in the return type
- The return type is so constrained that it only has one element (and we can prove this in PVS)
- Thus, without providing a body, we have completely defined this function
- By putting type info in, the decision procedures can use this information in the proofs automatically.
  - Which command invokes the decision procedures?
- `ceiling` is defined in a similar manner:

  ```
  ceiling(x): {i | x <= i & i < x + 1}
  ```

Proving Key Properties

The `assert` command tries to prove a result automatically using the type information.

```
floor_def: LEMMA floor(x) <= x & x < floor(x) + 1
```

Proof of `floor_def`:

```
  |-------
{1}   (FORALL (x: real): floor(x) <= x & x < floor(x) + 1)

Rule? (skosimp*)

  |-------
{1}   floor(x!1) <= x!1 & x!1 < floor(x!1) + 1

Rule? (assert)

  |-------
{1}   floor(x!1) <= x!1 & x!1 < 1 + floor(x!1)

Rule? (assert)
Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision
Q.E.D.
```

Observations on the Proof

- The following properties of `floor` are proved with `(skosimp*) (assert)`:

```
floor_ceiling_reflect1: LEMMA floor(-x) = -ceiling(x)

floor_int              : LEMMA floor(i) = i
ceiling_int            : LEMMA ceiling(i) = i

floor_ceiling_int      : LEMMA floor(i)=ceiling(i)

floor_split            : LEMMA i = floor(i/2)+ceiling(i/2)

floor_within_1         : LEMMA x - floor(x) < 1
ceiling_within_1       : LEMMA ceiling(x) - x < 1
```

- Sometimes a `typepred floor(...)` will be needed. This usually becomes necessary when nonlinear arithmetic is present in the sequent

Existence TCCs

PVS requires us to demonstrate that the return type is non-empty

```
% Existence TCC generated ... for floor(x): {i | i<=x & x<i+1}
floor_TCC1: OBLIGATION
  (EXISTS (x1:[x:real -> {i: integer | i<=x & x<1+i}]): TRUE);
```

The proof relies on supplying a value that satisfies the type:

```
(inst + "lambda x: choose({i: integer | i<=x & x<1+i})")
```

Then, to show this set is non-empty, we rely on the following properties of the reals located in the prelude:

```
lub_int: LEMMA
  upper_bound?((LAMBDA i, j: i <= j))(i, I)
   => EXISTS (j:(I)): least_upper_bound?((LAMBDA i,j:i<=j))(j,I)
axiom_of_archimedes: LEMMA EXISTS i: x < i
```

We will spare you the details, though you can get the proof by issuing `M-x edit-proof` in the `prelude.pvs` buffer (`M-x vpf`)

Motivation for Parameterized Types

Sometimes dependent types are not enough. Let's say we want a bounded array of an arbitrary size:

```
real_array: TYPE = [below(N) -> real]
```

PVS does not know what `N` is. Even if we add a variable declaration for `N` the problem persists:

```
N: VAR posint
real_array: TYPE = [below(N) -> real]
```

Note, constant types are defined as expected

```
real_array_ten: TYPE = [below(10) -> real]
```

Parameterized Types

There are two ways to use use N in a type declaration:

- By adding N as a theory parameter

```
arrays [N: posint] : THEORY
  real_array: TYPE = [below(N) -> real]
```

- By adding N as a type parameter

```
arrays : THEORY
  N: VAR posint
  real_array(N): TYPE = [below(N) -> real]
```

- What is the difference?

Scope!

Theory parameter `N` is known throughout the theory; there is only one `N`. Information about `N` is implicit.

```
arrays [N: posint] : THEORY
  real_array: TYPE = [below(N) -> real]

  A: VAR real_array
  P: pred[real_array]
  lem: LEMMA FORALL A: P(A)
```

Type parameter `N` is not fixed within the theory. We can not declare a global variable `A` as above, but we must qualify `A` and `P` fully in each lemma:

```
arrays : THEORY
  N: VAR posint
  real_array(N): TYPE = [below(N) -> real]

  lem: LEMMA FORALL (A:below_array(N)),
                    (P:pred[below_array(N)]): P(A)
```

Using Total Functions For Partial Specification

- In PVS, all functions are total, so the domains should be suitably restricted. For example:

  ```
  div(x: real, y: {nz: real | nz /= 0}): real
  ```

- Partial specification is useful. How can we emulate it?

  ```
  x,y,z: VAR real
  unspecified(x,y,z): real
  faulty: VAR bool

  component(x,y,z,faulty): real =
    IF faulty THEN unspecified(x,y,z)
              ELSE x*x + y*y + z*z
    ENDIF
  ```

- The uninterpreted function `unspecified` returns a value
- But, we do not know anything about that value (except its type)

Equal Unspecifieds

- If we are not careful, we can prove things we don't mean

```
component1(x,y,z,faulty): real =
  IF faulty THEN unspecified(x,y,z)
            ELSE x*x + y*y + z*z
  ENDIF

component2(x,y,z,faulty): real =
  IF faulty THEN unspecified(x,y,z)
            ELSE 4*x + 4*y + 4*z
  ENDIF
```

- We probably didn't mean to say that if `component1` and `component2` are both faulty then they produce the same value. That is, we can prove:

```
faulty1 & faulty2 =>
    component1(x,y,z,faulty1) = component2(x,y,z,faulty2)
```

- Solve this with two unspecified functions: `unspecified1` and `unspecified2`
- But what about a distributed system where the same function is run on multiple processors?

Another Method for Partial Specification

```
component_a(x,y,z,faulty): { w: real | NOT faulty =>
                              w = x*x + y*y + z*z}
component_b(x,y,z,faulty): { w: real | NOT faulty =>
                              w = x*x + y*y + z*z}
```

- The dependent type mechanism is used to constrain the return type of the function
- But, only when `faulty` is `FALSE`
- We cannot prove

  ```
  component_a(x,y,z,faulty) = component_b(x,y,z,faulty)
  ```

- Why?

Motivation for Judgements[2]

An example based on the NASA mod library:

```
i,k: VAR int
j: VAR nonzero_integer
m: VAR posnat

mod(i,j): {k | abs(k) < abs(j)} = i - j * floor(i/j)

mod_pos: LEMMA mod(i,m) >= 0 AND mod(i,m) < m
```

mod_pos says, if mod's second argument is positive, then the returned value is

- non-negative
- smaller than the second argument

Let's prove mod_pos

[2] PVS only uses the spelling *judgement*, an alternate English spelling is *judgment*

Proof of mod_pos

```
  |-------
{1}   FORALL (i:integer, m:posnat): mod(i,m) >= 0 AND mod(i,m)<m

Rule? (skosimp*)

  |-------
{1}   mod(i!1, m!1) >= 0 AND mod(i!1, m!1) < m!1

Rule? (expand "mod")

  |-------
{1}   i!1 - m!1 * floor(i!1 / m!1) >= 0 AND
       i!1 - m!1 * floor(i!1 / m!1) < m!1

Rule? (typepred "floor(i!1 / m!1)")

{-1}  floor(i!1 / m!1) <= i!1 / m!1
{-2}  i!1 / m!1 < 1 + floor(i!1 / m!1)
  |-------
[1]   i!1 - m!1 * floor(i!1 / m!1) >= 0 AND
       i!1 - m!1 * floor(i!1 / m!1) < m!1
```

What's the next step, any thoughts?

Proof of mod_pos (cont'd)

```
{-1}  floor(i!1 / m!1) <= i!1 / m!1
{-2}  i!1 / m!1 < 1 + floor(i!1 / m!1)
  |-------
[1]   i!1 - m!1 * floor(i!1 / m!1) >= 0 AND
       i!1 - m!1 * floor(i!1 / m!1) < m!1

Rule? (grind-reals)

div_mult_pos_le2 rewrites floor(i!1 / m!1) <= i!1 / m!1
  to floor(i!1 / m!1) * m!1 <= i!1
div_mult_pos_lt1 rewrites i!1 / m!1 < 1 + floor(i!1 / m!1)
  to i!1 < floor(i!1 / m!1) * m!1 + m!1
div_mult_pos_le2 rewrites floor(i!1 / m!1) <= i!1 / m!1
  to floor(i!1 / m!1) * m!1 <= i!1
div_mult_pos_lt1 rewrites i!1 / m!1 < 1 + floor(i!1 / m!1)
  to i!1 < floor(i!1 / m!1) * m!1 + m!1

Applying GRIND-REALS,
Q.E.D.
```

A total of 4 proof steps.

Why Judgements?

```
i,k: VAR int
m: VAR posnat

mod_pos: LEMMA mod(i,m) >= 0 AND mod(i,m) < m
```

Essentially, `mod_pos` describes the type of `mod` whenever the second parameter is positive.

- Would be nice if this were known to prover
- Might eliminate some nuisance TCCs

Judgements

A JUDGEMENT supplies type information to the typechecker beyond what comes from the function definition.

- For mod, if the domain of the function is restricted, then the return type is restricted.

```
i,k: VAR int
m: VAR posnat

mod_below: JUDGEMENT mod(i,m) HAS_TYPE below(m)
```

Once we have the mod_below judgement, we can prove the mod_pos lemma in only three steps:

```
(skosimp*) (assert) (assert)
```

- And we didn't have to explicitly bring in mod_below

Or two steps if we bring in the judgement:

```
(skosimp*) (rewrite "mod_below")
```

No Free Lunch

PVS will create a TCC that requires us to prove the judgement is correct.

```
% Judgement subtype TCC generated (at line ...) for mod(i,m)
% expected type below(m)
% unfinished
mod_below: OBLIGATION FORALL (i,m): mod(i,m)>=0 AND mod(i,m)<m;
```

This proof is very similar to the original proof of `mod_pos`.

Unnamed Judgements

We may name judgements like we saw above, but PVS also allows judgements to be unnamed as in

```
i,k: VAR int
j: VAR nonzero_integer
m: VAR posnat

mod(i,j): {k | abs(k) < abs(j)} = i - j * floor(i/j)
mod_pos: LEMMA mod(i,m) >= 0 AND mod(i,m) < m
JUDGEMENT mod(i,m) HAS_TYPE below(m)
```

- Cannot refer directly to an unnamed judgement
- Prover commands still apply it
- Proof of `mod_pos`

  `(skosimp*) (assert) (assert)`

Judgements for Types

- In the previous slides we have seen how to use a judgement to show that an expression has a certain type.
- JUDGEMENT can also be used to show that a type is a subtype of another.

```
zero_to_five: TYPE = {i:int | i>=0 AND i<= 5}
zero_to_ten: TYPE = {i:int | i>=0 AND i<=10}

JUDGEMENT zero_to_five SUBTYPE_OF zero_to_ten

posreal_is_nzreal: JUDGEMENT posreal SUBTYPE_OF nzreal

equiv_is_reflexive: JUDGEMENT (equivalence?)
                          SUBTYPE_OF (reflexive?)
```

- Appropriate TCCs will be generated for each judgement

Motivation for Recursive Judgements

Let's say that we had a tail-recursive implementation of factorial.

```
factit(n,f:nat) : RECURSIVE nat =
  IF n = 0
    THEN f
    ELSE  factit(n-1,n*f)
  ENDIF
MEASURE n
```

And let's say that we wanted to prove that this definition is equal to the existing definition.

```
IMPORTING reals@factorial

factit_factorial : LEMMA
  FORALL(n:nat): factit(n,1) = factorial(n)
```

Proof of factit_factorial

```
  |-------
1   FORALL (n: nat): factit(n, 1) = factorial(n)

Rule? (induct "n")
Inducting on n on formula 1,
this yields  2 subgoals:
factit_factorial.1 :

  |-------
{1}   factit(0, 1) = factorial(0)

Rule?  (expand* "factit" "factorial")

This completes the proof of factit_factorial.1.

factit_factorial.2 :

  |-------
{1}   FORALL j:
        factit(j, 1) = factorial(j) IMPLIES
         factit(j + 1, 1) = factorial(j + 1)

Rule?  (skosimp*)
```

Proof of factit_factorial

```
{-1}  factit(j!1, 1) = factorial(j!1)
  |-------
{1}   factit(j!1 + 1, 1) = factorial(j!1 + 1)

Rule? (expand "factorial" 1)

[-1]  factit(j!1, 1) = factorial(j!1)
  |-------
{1}   factit(1 + j!1, 1) = factorial(j!1) + factorial(j!1) * j!1

Rule?  (expand "factit" 1)

[-1]  factit(j!1, 1) = factorial(j!1)
  |-------
{1}   factit(j!1, 1 + j!1) = factorial(j!1) + factorial(j!1) * j!1

Rule?  (replace -1 :dir RL :hide? T)

  |-------
{1}   factit(j!1, 1 + j!1) = factit(j!1, 1) + factit(j!1, 1) * j!1
```

What do we do now? What is the problem?

Key property of `factit`

The key property of `factit` for an arbitrary `f` is

```
factit_interm : LEMMA
   FORALL(n:nat, f:nat): factit(n,f) = f*factit(n, 1)
```

which is easily proven by induction.

With this result, we can prove `factit_factorial`

```
.
.
  |-------
{1}   factit(j!1, 1 + j!1) = factit(j!1, 1) + factit(j!1, 1) * j!1

Rule? (rewrite "factit_interm")

This completes the proof of factit_factorial.2.

Q.E.D.
```

Key property of `factit`

We can encorporate this property into a JUDGEMENT

```
factit_jud : JUDGEMENT
  factit(n,f:nat) HAS_TYPE {m : nat | m = f*factorial(n)}
```

which is will generate an TCC obligation very similar to `factit_interm`.

With this judgement, we can prove `factit_factorial`

```
.
.
  |-------
{1}   factit(j!1, 1 + j!1) = factit(j!1, 1) + factit(j!1, 1) * j!1

Rule? (assert)

This completes the proof of factit_factorial.2.

Q.E.D.
```

Key property of `factit`

Another form of this JUDGEMENT is

```
  factit_jud : RECURSIVE JUDGEMENT
    factit(n,f:nat) HAS_TYPE {m : nat | m = f*factorial(n)}
```

Which is will generate two obligations:

```
factit_jud_TCC1: OBLIGATION
  FORALL (f1, n1: nat, v: [[nat, nat] -> nat]):
    (FORALL (n, f: nat): v(n, f) = f * factorial(n)) IMPLIES
     n1 = 0 IMPLIES f1 = f1 * factorial(n1);

factit_jud_TCC2: OBLIGATION
  FORALL (f1, n1: nat, v: [[nat, nat] -> nat]):
    (FORALL (n, f: nat): v(n, f) = f * factorial(n)) IMPLIES
     NOT n1 = 0 IMPLIES v(n1 - 1, n1 * f1) = f1 * factorial(n1);
```

Which are proven automatically!

The reason these proofs are much easier is that the type constraint is recursively added to the TCCs.

Summary: If you have a recursive definition, consider using recursive judgements.