Collection Types Sequences, Arrays, Sets, and Bags

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¹heavily based on a previous talk by Rick Butler

Outline



- Sets
- Proving with Sets
- Sets in Type Theory
- Choose
- Finite Sets
- Bags

2 Object Collections

- Sequence
- Bounded Array
- Array Operations
- Finite Sequences

Membership Collections

These "membership" collections are available in PVS

- Sets [T -> bool]
- Finite Sets [(is_finite) -> bool]
- Bags (aka multisets) [T -> nat]
- Finite Bags [(is_finite) -> nat]

Sets in PVS

- A set is just a predicate (i.e., a function into bool): letters: TYPE = {a,b,c,d,e,f}
 s: set[letters] = ...
- But, there is no PVS set constructor:

S:set[letters] = $\{a, b, d, e\}$

► However, this form can be used for *type* construction (see above)

The Sets Theory in Prelude

The sets[T: TYPE] theory is defined in the prelude:

```
sets [T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  set: TYPE = [T -> bool]
  x, y: VAR T
  a. b. c: VAR set
  p: VAR PRED[T]
 member(x, a): bool = a(x)
 empty?(a): bool = (FORALL x: NOT member(x, a))
 emptyset: set = \{x \mid false\}
 nonempty?(a): bool = NOT empty?(a)
 fullset: set = \{x \mid true\}
 subset?(a, b): bool = (FORALL x: member(x, a) => member(x, b))
 strict_subset?(a, b): bool = subset?(a, b) & a /= b
```

. . .

The Sets Theory in Prelude (cont'd)

PVS Name	meaning
union(a,b)	everything in a or b
intersection(a,b)	anything in both <i>a</i> and <i>b</i>
disjoint?(a,b)	do <i>a</i> and <i>b</i> share any elements
difference(a,b)	all members of <i>a</i> that are not in <i>b</i>
singleton(x)	constructs set with element x
add(x,a)	add element x to a
<pre>remove(x,a)</pre>	remove element x from a
choose(a)	choose an arbitrary element of a
rest(a)	the set <i>a</i> without choose(a)

Some important lemmas about sets

Useful lemmas about sets in the sets_lemmas theory in the prelude

member_add : LEMMA member(x, a) IMPLIES add(x, a) = a choose_member : LEMMA NOT empty?(a) IMPLIES member(choose(a), a) choose_singleton: LEMMA choose(singleton(x)) = x

Using Set Lemmas

• Using the lemma:

union_commutative: LEMMA union(a, b) = union(b, a)

• Usually, one must include the parent type:

```
(lemma "union_commutative[nat])"
```

Sometimes you can get away with

```
(rewrite "union_commutative)"
but not always!
```

Set Union and Intersection

$$x \in B \cup C \equiv union(B, C)(x) = B(x) OR C(x)$$

 $x \in B \cap C \equiv ext{intersection(B, C)(x) = B(x) AND C(x)}$

Thus operations on sets can be reduced to propositional formulas by set membership, i.e.,

- union(B, C) is a function
- union(B, C)(x) is a propositional formula

Proving with subset?

```
_____
{1}
     subset?(B, C)
Rule? (expand "subset?")
{1} (FORALL (x: int): member(x, B) \Rightarrow member(x, C))
Rule? (skosimp*)
   _____
{1} member(x!1, B) \Rightarrow member(x!1, C)
Rule? (expand "member")
{1}
    (B(x!1) \implies C(x!1))
```

This can get a little tedious, is there another way?

Interlude: Auto Rewriting

```
_____
\{1\} factorial(5) > 100
Rule? (rewrite "factorial")
nn gets 5, Rewriting using factorial, matching in *,
   _____
\{1\} 5 * factorial(4) > 100
Rule? (auto-rewrite "factorial")
   _____
[1] 5 * factorial (4) > 100
Rule? (assert)
factorial rewrites factorial(1) to 1
factorial rewrites factorial(2) to 2
factorial rewrites factorial(3) to 6
factorial rewrites factorial(4) to 24
Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision procedures,
Q.E.D.
```

Set Auto-rewriting

An automatic reduction of set operations can be facilitated through use of

```
(install-rewrites :defs t)
```

which installs all the definitions used directly or indirectly in the original statement as auto-rewrite rules

Another form is

```
(auto-rewrite-theory "sets[T]")
```

which installs an entire theory as auto-rewrites.

• Be careful with this one. If the theory contains a commutativity result, this will cause an endless loop.

install-rewrites

```
{-1} subset?(A!1, C!1)
   |------
{1} subset?(union(A!1, B!1), union(C!1, B!1))
Rule? (install-rewrites :defs t)
Rewriting relative to the theory: sets[real],
this simplifies to:
set_rewrite2 :
[-1] subset?(A!1, C!1)
   |------
[1] subset?(union(A!1, B!1), union(C!1, B!1))
```

install-rewrites (cont'd)

```
Rule? (assert)
member rewrites member(x, A!1) to A!1(x)
member rewrites member(x, C!1) to C!1(x)
subset? rewrites subset? (A!1. C!1) to FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) => C!1(x)
member rewrites member(x, A!1) to A!1(x)
member rewrites member(x, B!1) to B!1(x)
union rewrites union(A!1, B!1)(x) to A!1(x) OR B!1(x)
member rewrites member(x, union(A!1, B!1)) to A!1(x) OR B!1(x)
member rewrites member(x, C!1) to C!1(x)
union rewrites union(C!1, B!1)(x) to C!1(x) OR B!1(x)
member rewrites member(x, union(C!1, B!1)) to C!1(x) OR B!1(x)
subset? rewrites subset?(union(A!1, B!1), union(C!1, B!1))
  to FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) \cap B!1(x) => C!1(x) \cap B!1(x)
Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision procedures,
this simplifies to:
set_rewrite2 :
\{-1\} FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) => C!1(x)
{1} FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) OR B!1(x) \Rightarrow C!1(x) OR B!1(x)
```

an easily proved formula.

How?

Set Equality

To prove that two sets are equal we must use function extensionality:

$$f = g \ IFF \ \forall x : f(x) = g(x)$$

because sets are just functions into bools (i.e., predicates)

- (decompose-equality) will do the trick
- (apply-extensionality) is a less powerful version

Set Equality: Example

```
A: set[real] = { x: real | (x=1) OR (x=2) OR (x=3) }
```

```
equality: LEMMA A = add(1,add(2,singleton(3)))
```

```
ill_ext :
{1} A = add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))
Rule? (decompose-equality)
{1} A(x!1) = add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))(x!1)
Rule? (install-rewrites :defs t)
  _____
[1] A(x!1) = add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))(x!1)
```

Set Equality: Example (cont'd)

```
Rule? (assert)
A rewrites AA(x!1)
  to (x!1 = 1) OR (x!1 = 2) OR (x!1 = 3)
singleton rewrites singleton(3)(x!1)
  to x!1 = 3
member rewrites member(x!1, singleton(3))
to x!1 = 3
add rewrites add(2, singleton(3))(x!1)
  to 2 = x!1 \text{ OR } x!1 = 3
member rewrites member(x!1, add(2, singleton(3)))
 to 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3
add rewrites add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))(x!1)
  to 1 = x!1 OR 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3
Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision procedures,
{1} (((x!1 = 1) \text{ OR } (x!1 = 2) \text{ OR } (x!1 = 3)) =
                  (1 = x!1 \text{ OR } 2 = x!1 \text{ OR } x!1 = 3))
Rule? (ground)
No change on: (ground)
```

What happened here? Any suggestions?

Set Equality: Example (cont'd)

We need to convert the equality of two formulas into a propositional formula.

Big Warning

Given

 $T_{-100}: TYPE = \{ n: nat | 0 \le n \text{ AND } n \le 100 \}$ $T_{-125}: TYPE = \{ n: nat | 25 \le n \text{ AND } n \le 125 \}$

Then

{ t: T_100 | t = 50 }
$$\neq$$
 { t: T_125 | t = 50 }

Why?

Big Warning (cont'd)

```
Given
   T.100: TYPE = { n: nat | 0 <= n AND n <= 100 }
   T_125: TYPE = { n: nat | 25 <= n AND n <= 125 }
When we ask are these two sets equal
   { t:T_100 | t = 50 } { t: T_125 | t = 50 }
We are really asking are these two functions equal?</pre>
```

 $(LAMBDA (t:T_100): t = 50)$ $(LAMBDA (t:T_125): t = 50)$

THE DOMAINS ARE NOT EQUAL!

- The decompose-equality strategy requires the domains to be the same
- Even though in set theory semantics they represent the same set

Thoughts About Sets in Type Theory

Type theory offers several advantages over set theory

- Avoids the classic paradoxes in an intuitive way.
- Type checking uncovers errors
- More "natural" for people used to (most) programming languages

However, there are some disadvantages:

- Sets with the same elements but different domains are different.
 - The emptyset is not unique (i.e., emptyset[T1] and emptyset[T2] are not identical)
- There are different set operations for each basic element type. In other words, card[T1] is not the same function as card[T2].

Back to "Big Warning"

If you give PVS

T_100: TYPE = { n: nat | 0 <= n AND n <= 100 }

11: LEMMA {t:T_100 | t = 50} = {t: nat | n = 50}

it will recognize the domain mismatch and interpret this as

```
|------
{1} {t: T_100 | t = 50} = restrict({n: nat | n = 50})
```

where restrict is defined in the prelude as:

```
restrict [T: TYPE, S: TYPE FROM T, R: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
f: VAR [T -> R]
s: VAR S
restrict(f)(s): R = f(s)
CONVERSION restrict
END restrict
```

This CONVERSION helps here, but there are plenty of cases it doesn't.

The Moral Of the Story

MORAL: Define sets over the PARENT TYPE unless there is a very good reason not to.

```
USE
{ n: nat | P(n) AND n <= 100 }
RATHER THAN
T_100: TYPE = { n: nat | n <= 100 }
{ t:T_100 | P(t) }
```

This will keep all the domains the same.

Choose Function

- The choose function returns an arbitrary element of a nonempty set: choose(p: (nonempty?)): (p) = epsilon(p)
- An empty set will cause an unprovable TCC.
- If the set is potentially empty, one should use epsilon directly.
- epsilon produces an element in the set if one exists, and otherwise produces an arbitrary element of the type.
 - The parent type of the set must be nonempty.

```
    The function epsilon is defined as follows:

            epsilons [T: NONEMPTY_TYPE]: THEORY
            BEGIN
            p: VAR pred[T]
            x: VAR T
            epsilon(p): T
            epsilon_ax: AXIOM (EXISTS x: p(x)) => p(epsilon(p))
```

Choose Function: Additional Thoughts

- choose returns an arbitrary element, not a random element, thus if
 x = choose(a) and y = choose(a), then x always equals y
- It would have been nice if choose had been defined without a body:
 choose(p: (nonempty?)): (p)
 since all of the properties needed are implicit in the return type.
 - If the body were not present, choose would not expand when using (grind) Or (auto-rewrite-theory "sets[nat]")
 - Recommendation:

```
(auto-rewrite-theory "sets[nat]" :exclude "choose")
(grind :exclude "choose")
(install-rewrites :DEFS T :EXCLUDE "choose")
```

Motivation For Finite Sets

We would like to have to following functions defined over sets:

- Cardinality function
- 2 Minimum and maximum over a set
- Summation over a set
- and the ability to perform set induction.

Basic Definitions

Let's define a predicate that indicates when a set is finite:

is_finite(S): bool = (EXISTS N, (f: [(S)->below[N]]): injective?(f))

- So a set is finite if there is a one-to-one function between the members of the set and a finite set of natural numbers.
- The user is free to pick any N that is convenient and not necessarily the smallest.
- injective? is defined in the PVS prelude as:

```
functions [D, R: TYPE]: THEORY
f, g: VAR [D -> R]
x, x1, x2: VAR D
y: VAR R
injective?(f): bool = (FORALL x1, x2: (f(x1) = f(x2) => (x1 = x2)))
surjective?(f): bool = (FORALL y: (EXISTS x: f(x) = y))
bijective?(f): bool = injective?(f) & surjective?(f)
```

The type finite_set

finite_set: TYPE = (is_finite) CONTAINING emptyset[T]

A nonempty finite set is defined as follows: non_empty_finite_set: TYPE = {s: finite_set | NOT empty?(s)}

The declaration of a finite set variable: IMPORTING finite_sets S: VAR finite_set[T]

```
REMINDER:
(is_finite) is an abbreviation for the type
{t: setof[T] | is_finite(t)}
```

Finite Set Operations

- The standard set operations are defined in the prelude theory, sets
- Because finite_set is a subtype of set, all of the operations on the set type are inherited by the finite_set type.

The set operations preserve finiteness:

```
A,B: VAR finite_sets
```

<pre>finite_union: finite_intersection: finite_difference:</pre>	LEMMA	<pre>is_finite(union(A,B)) is_finite(intersection(A,B)) is_finite(difference(A,B))</pre>
<pre>finite_add: finite_remove:</pre>		<pre>is_finite(add(x,A)) is_finite(remove(x,A))</pre>
finite_subset:	LEMMA	<pre>subset?(S,A) IMPLIES is_finite(S)</pre>
<pre>finite_singleton: finite_empty: finite_rest:</pre>	LEMMA	<pre>is_finite(singleton(x)) is_finite(emptyset[T]) is_finite(rest(A))</pre>

Judgements for Finite Sets - for Reference

finite_singleton: JUDGEMENT singleton(x) HAS_TYPE finite_set

```
finite_union : JUDGEMENT union(A, B) HAS_TYPE finite_set
finite_intersec1: JUDGEMENT intersection(s, A) HAS_TYPE finite_set
finite_intersec2: JUDGEMENT intersection(A, s) HAS_TYPE finite_set
```

```
nonemp_fin_un1: JUDGEMENT union(NA, B) HAS_TYPE non_empty_finite_set
```

- The inclusion of these judgements in the library will minimize the number of TCCs that are generated.
- Without the JUDGEMENT statements, every use of the basic set operations on a finite set (e.g. add(x,s)) in a context that requires a finite set, would result in the generation of a TCC.
- What's the different between these judgements and the lemmas on the previous page?

Structure Of The Finite Sets Library

The library contains the following theories

finite_sets	part of the prelude, not library (pro- vides basic type and cardinality)
finite_sets_sum	summation over a set
finite_sets_minmax	min and max over a set
finite_sets_inductions	induction schemes
finite_sets_sum_real	additional properties for summa-
	tions over real-valued functions
finite_sets_int	special results of integer sets
finite_sets_nat	special results of natural num sets

The library also contains theories card_def, finite_sets_def, and card_lt which are not meant to be directly imported.

Cardinality of a Finite Set - for Reference

- Cardinality is defined to be the smallest n for which an injection exists.
- To inhibit expansion, the card function is defined using a return type that is a singleton.
- The definition can be retrieved using a typepred command (e.g. typepred "card(S!1)") or the card_bij theorem:

```
card_bij: THEOREM card(S) = N IFF
        (EXISTS (f: [(S) -> below[N]]): bijective?(f))
```

Lemmas of card Over the Set Operations

card_union	$ A\cup B = A + B - A\cap B $
card_add	add one if element is not in set
card_remove	remove one if element is in set
$card_subset$	$A \subseteq B$ implies $ A \leq B $
$\mathtt{card_emptyset}$	equals zero
$card_singleton$	equals one

Most users of the library will only need to use these lemmas and not the more fundamental definition of card.

Minimum and Maximum of a Set

The library² provides functions that return the minimum and maximum elements of a set

```
SS: VAR non_empty_finite_set[T]
```

• These functions are not constructively defined, but are merely constrained to return a value from a specified set.

The following useful properties of min and max over the set union operator are also provided:

```
A,B: VAR non_empty_finite_set
```

²nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_minmax.pvs

Summation Over a Set

```
The library<sup>3</sup> provides summation
  sum(S,f) : RECURSIVE R =
      IF (empty?(S)) THEN zero
      ELSE f(choose(S)) + sum(rest(S), f)
      ENDIF MEASURE (LAMBDA S.f: card(S))
Many useful properties of sum are available, including:
  x : VAR T
  S.A.B: VAR finite set
  sum_empty: THEOREM sum(emptyset[T],f) = zero
  sum_singleton: THEOREM sum(singleton(x),f) = f(x) + zero
  sum add: THEOREM sum(add(x,S),f)
              = sum(S,f) + IF member(x,S) THEN zero ELSE f(x) ENDIF
  sum_remove: THEOREM sum(remove(x,S),f)
                + IF member(x,S) THEN f(x) ELSE zero ENDIF = sum(S,f)
```

³nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_sum.pvs

Induction Schemes

The library⁴ provides several induction schemes over sets:

$cardinal_induction$	inducts over cardinality of the set
finite_set_induction	$p(emptyset)$ and $p(S) \Rightarrow p(add(e,S))$
finite_set_ind_modified	p(emptyset), not S(e), and $p(S) \Rightarrow$
	p(add(e,S))
finite_set_induction_rest	$p(emptyset)$ and $rest(S) \Rightarrow p(S)$
$finite_set_induction_union$	p(emptyset) and $p(S1)$ AND $p(S2) \Rightarrow$
	union(S1,S2)
finite_set_induction_gen	(FORALL S2: S2 < S => p(S2)) =>
	p(S)
$\texttt{nonempty}_\texttt{card}_\texttt{induction}$	inducts over cardinality of the set
nonempty_finite_set_induct	not $S(e)$, and $p(S) \Rightarrow p(add(e,S))$

Use these by, e.g., (induct :name "finite_set_induction")

⁴nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_inductions.pvs

Bags (aka Multisets)⁵

- Sets capture information about membership
- Bags capture information about quantity
 bag: TYPE = [T -> nat]
- Located in the structures directory of the library
- Convert a bag to a set: bag_to_set

```
Some operations on bags:
```

emptybag	:	bag =	(LAMBDA	t:	0)
<pre>insert(x,b) purge(x,b) extract(x,b)</pre>	:	bag =	(LAMBDA	t:	IF $x = t$ THEN $b(t) + 1$ ELSE $b(t)$ ENDIF) IF $x = t$ THEN 0 ELSE $b(t)$ ENDIF) IF $x = t$ THEN $b(t)$ ELSE 0 ENDIF)
plus(a,b) union(a,b) intersection(a,b)	:	bag =	(LAMBDA	t:	a(t) + b(t)) max(a(t),b(t))) min(a(t),b(t)))

⁵Defined in NASA's structures library

Object Collections: Four Ways in PVS

- sequence [nat -> T]
- bounded array [below(N) -> T]
- finite sequence

[# length: nat, seq: [below[length] -> T] #]

```
    list datatype
        list [T: TYPE]: DATATYPE
        BEGIN
        null: null?
        cons (car: T, cdr:list):cons?
        END list
```

lists will be covered in the abstract data type lecture

Sequence

PVS provides a sequence (i.e., unbounded array) as follows: T: TYPE

A1: FUNCTION [nat -> T] A2: ARRAY [nat -> T] A3: [nat -> T] A4: sequence[T]

all of which are the same.

Prelude sequences Theory

function	meaning
nth(seq, n)	<i>n</i> th element of the sequence
<pre>suffix(seq, n)</pre>	sequence starting after the <i>n</i> th element
first(seq)	first element
rest(seq)	sequence excluding the first element
add(x, seq)	add element x to the sequence
delete(n, seq)	delete the <i>nth</i> element
<pre>insert(x, n, seq)</pre>	insert x into seq at n

In addition to these definitions are certain results such as:

• add_first_rest: LEMMA add(first(seq), rest(seq)) = seq

Bounded Array⁶

Sometimes it is useful to have an array that is indexed by integer subrange as in a programming language:

```
below_arrays[N: nat, T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
below_array: TYPE = [below(N) -> T]
A: VAR below_array
x: VAR T
ii: VAR below(N)
in?(x,A): bool = (EXISTS ii: x = A(ii))
END below_arrays
```

Note that **below** is defined in PVS prelude

below(i: nat): TYPE = {s: nat | s < i}

⁶Defined in NASA's structures library

Definition of Array Maximum - for Reference

```
_{imax rec}^{7} returns the index of the maximum value
imax_rec(A,ii,jj): RECURSIVE below(N) =
        IF jj <= ii THEN ii
        ELSE.
            LET IX = imax_rec(A, jj-1) IN
            IF A(IX) <= A(jj) THEN jj ELSE IX ENDIF
        ENDIF MEASURE (LAMBDA A, ii, jj: jj)
This generates the following TCCs:
   imax_rec_TCC1: OBLIGATION (FORALL (jj): jj = 0 IMPLIES 0 < N);</pre>
   imax_rec_TCC2: OBLIGATION (FORALL (jj): NOT jj = 0
                                 IMPLIES jj - 1 \ge 0 AND jj - 1 < N;
   imax_rec_TCC3: OBLIGATION (FORALL (A, jj): NOT jj = 0
                                 IMPLIES ij - 1 < ij;
```

all of which are discharged with M-x tcp.

⁷nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_inductions.pvs

Properties of imax_rec - for Reference

```
imax_rec_lem: LEMMA j <= jj IMPLIES A(j) <= A(imax_rec(A,jj))</pre>
Proof:
(""
 (induct "jj" 1)
 (("1" (flatten) (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec") (assert))
  ("2" (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec" +) (inst?) (lift-if) (ground))))
imax_rec_rng: LEMMA 0 <= imax_rec(A,jj) AND imax_rec(A,jj) <= jj</pre>
Proof:
(""
 (induct "ii" 1)
 (("1" (flatten) (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec") (propax))
```

```
("2" (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec" +) (inst?) (lift-if) (ground))))
```

Definition of max(A) and Properties

```
imax(A): below(N) = imax_rec(A,N-1)
```

```
max(A): real = A(imax(A))
```

```
max_lem : LEMMA A(i) <= max(A)</pre>
```

imax_lem: LEMMA A(imax(A)) = max(A)

max_def : LEMMA A(i) <= max(A) AND in?(max(A),A)</pre>

Array Concatenation ⁸

```
concat_arrays [n:nat, m:nat, T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
IMPORTING below_arrays
a_n: VAR below_array[n,T]
a_m: VAR below_array[m,T]
nm : VAR below(n+m)
o(a_n, a_m): below_array[n+m,T]
= (LAMBDA nm: IF nm < n THEN a_n(nm)
ELSE a_m(nm - n)
ENDIF)</pre>
```

- The function o overloads a function already defined in the prelude.
- The return type of o depends upon the theory parameters n and m.
- o is an operator
 - Either o(A,B) or A o B are valid

⁸nasalib/structures/concat_arrays.pvs

Array Concatenation Properties

```
a_n: VAR below_array[n,T]
a_m: VAR below_array[m,T]
nm : VAR below(n+m)
```

```
concat_array_bot0: THEOREM m = 0 IMPLIES a_n o a_m = a_n
concat_array_top0: THEOREM n = 0 IMPLIES a_n o a_m = a_m
```

```
i: VAR below(n)
j: VAR {i: int | i >= n AND i < n+m}
concat_array_bot : THEOREM (a_n o a_m)(i) = a_n(i)
concat_array_top : THEOREM (a_n o a_m)(j) = a_m(j-n)</pre>
```

Array Extraction

```
Given an array A = [a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_{N-1}], we want the elements A^{(m,n)} = [a_m, ..., a_n]
```

```
caret_arrays [N:nat, T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  IMPORTING below_arrays, empty_array_def
  A: VAR below_array[N,T]
  m. n: VAR nat
  p: VAR [nat, below[N]]
  empty_array: below_array[0,T]
  ^(A, p): below_array[LET (m, n) = p IN
                          TF m > n THEN O
                          ELSE n - m + 1 ENDIF,T] =
      LET (m, n) = p IN
        IF m <= n THEN (LAMBDA (x: below[n-m+1]): A(x + m))
        ELSE empty_array
        ENDIF
```

Properties of Array Extraction

```
caret_all : LEMMA N > 0 IMPLIES A^{(0,N-1)} = A
```

```
caret_ii_0: LEMMA FORALL (i: below(N)): (A^(i,i))(0) = A(i)
```

- (A^ (i,i)) extracts an array with a single element
- (A^(i,i))(0) returns the single element

Prelude Theory Finite Sequences

```
finite_sequences [T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
finite_sequence: TYPE = [# length:nat, seq:[below[length] -> T] #]
finseq: TYPE = finite_sequence
fs, fs1, fs2, fs3: VAR finseq
m, n: VAR nat
empty_seq: finseq =
  (# length := 0,
      seq := (LAMBDA (x: below[0]): epsilon! (t:T): true) #)
finseq_appl(fs): [below[length(fs)] -> T] = fs'seq;
```

Finite Sequences Operations

Similar to bounded arrays, concatenation and extraction are defined

Concatenation operator:

Extraction operator:

```
p: VAR [nat, nat]

^(fs, p): finseq =

LET (m, n) = p

IN IF m > n OR m >= fs'length

THEN empty_seq

ELSE LET len = min(n - m + 1, fs'length - m)

IN (# length := len,

seq := (LAMEDA (x: below[len]): fs'seq(x + m)) #)

ENDIF
```