
COMP 4161
NICTA Advanced Course

Advanced Topics in Software Verification

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Exercises from last time

- Reduce $(\lambda x. y (\lambda v. x v)) (\lambda y. v y)$ to $\beta\eta$ normal form.
- Find an encoding for function fs , sn , and $pair$ such that $fs (pair a b) =_{\beta} a$ and $sn (pair a b) =_{\beta} b$.
- (harder) Find an encoding of list objects, i.e. for the function $cons$ and nil . Then find an encoding for map (that is, $map f [x_1, \dots, x_n] = [f x_1, \dots, f x_n]$), and for $foldl$ (that is, $foldl f i [x_1, \dots, x_n] = f x_1 (f x_2 (f x_3 (\dots (f x_n i))) \dots)$)

Content

Rough timeline

- Intro & motivation, getting started [1]

- Foundations & Principles
 - Lambda Calculus, natural deduction [2,3,4^a]
 - Higher Order Logic [5,6^b,7]
 - Term rewriting [8,9,10^c]

- Proof & Specification Techniques
 - Isar [11,12^d]
 - Inductively defined sets, rule induction [13^e,15]
 - Datatypes, recursion, induction [16,17^f,18,19]
 - Calculational reasoning, mathematics style proofs [20]
 - Hoare logic, proofs about programs [21^g,22,23]

^a a1 out; ^b a1 due; ^c a2 out; ^d a2 due; ^e session break; ^f a3 out; ^g a3 due

λ calculus is inconsistent

Can find term R such that $R R =_{\beta} \text{not}(R R)$

There are more terms that do not make sense:

`1 2, true false, etc.`

Solution: rule out ill-formed terms by using types.
(Church 1940)

Introducing types

Idea: assign a type to each “sensible” λ term.

Examples:

→ for *term* t has type α write $t :: \alpha$

→ if x has type α then $\lambda x. x$ is a function from α to α

Write: $(\lambda x. x) :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$

→ for $s t$ to be sensible:

s must be function

t must be right type for parameter

If $s :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ and $t :: \alpha$ then $(s t) :: \beta$

THAT'S ABOUT IT

NOW FORMALLY AGAIN

Syntax for λ^{\rightarrow}

Terms: $t ::= v \mid c \mid (t t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$
 $v, x \in V, \quad c \in C, \quad V, C$ sets of names

Types: $\tau ::= b \mid \nu \mid \tau \Rightarrow \tau$
 $b \in \{\text{bool}, \text{int}, \dots\}$ base types
 $\nu \in \{\alpha, \beta, \dots\}$ type variables

$$\alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow \gamma = \alpha \Rightarrow (\beta \Rightarrow \gamma)$$

Context Γ :

Γ : function from variable and constant names to types.

Term t has type τ in context Γ : $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

Examples

$$\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. x) :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$$
$$[y \leftarrow \text{int}] \vdash y :: \text{int}$$
$$[z \leftarrow \text{bool}] \vdash (\lambda y. y) z :: \text{bool}$$
$$[] \vdash \lambda f x. f x :: (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta$$

A term t is **well typed** or **type correct**
if there are Γ and τ such that $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

Type Checking Rules



Variables:
$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash x :: \Gamma(x)}$$

Application:
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 :: \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 :: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (t_1 t_2) :: \tau_1}$$

Abstraction:
$$\frac{\Gamma[x \leftarrow \tau_1] \vdash t :: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. t) :: \tau_1 \Rightarrow \tau_2}$$

Example Type Derivation:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{[x \leftarrow \alpha, y \leftarrow \beta] \vdash x :: \alpha}{[x \leftarrow \alpha] \vdash \lambda y. x :: \beta \Rightarrow \alpha}}{[] \vdash \lambda x y. x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow \alpha}}$$

More complex Example

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash f :: \alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta)}{\Gamma \vdash f x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash x :: \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash x :: \alpha}}{\Gamma \vdash f x x :: \beta}}{[f \leftarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta] \vdash \lambda x. f x x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta}$$

$$\frac{[f \leftarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta] \vdash \lambda x. f x x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta}{\square \vdash \lambda f x. f x x :: (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta}$$

$$\Gamma = [f \leftarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta, x \leftarrow \alpha]$$

More general Types

A term can have more than one type.

Example: $\square \vdash \lambda x. x :: \text{bool} \Rightarrow \text{bool}$

$\square \vdash \lambda x. x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$

Some types are more general than others:

$\tau \lesssim \sigma$ if there is a substitution S such that $\tau = S(\sigma)$

Examples:

$\text{int} \Rightarrow \text{bool} \lesssim \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \lesssim \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \not\lesssim \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$

Most general Types

Fact: each type correct term has a most general type

Formally:

$$\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau \implies \exists \sigma. \Gamma \vdash t :: \sigma \wedge (\forall \sigma'. \Gamma \vdash t :: \sigma' \implies \sigma' \lesssim \sigma)$$

It can be found by executing the typing rules backwards.

- **type checking:** checking if $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$ for given Γ and τ
- **type inference:** computing Γ and τ such that $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

Type checking and type inference on λ^{\rightarrow} are decidable.

What about β reduction?

Definition of β reduction stays the same.

Fact: Well typed terms stay well typed during β reduction

Formally: $\Gamma \vdash s :: \tau \wedge s \longrightarrow_{\beta} t \implies \Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

This property is called **subject reduction**

What about termination?

β reduction in $\lambda \rightarrow$ always terminates.



(Alan Turing, 1942)

→ $=_{\beta}$ is decidable

To decide if $s =_{\beta} t$, reduce s and t to normal form (always exists, because \rightarrow_{β} terminates), and compare result.

→ $=_{\alpha\beta\eta}$ is decidable

This is why Isabelle can automatically reduce each term to $\beta\eta$ normal form.

What does this mean for Expressiveness?

Not all computable functions can be expressed in λ^{\rightarrow} !

How can typed functional languages then be turing complete?

Fact:

Each computable function can be encoded as closed, type correct λ^{\rightarrow} term using $Y :: (\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow \tau$ with $Y t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t (Y t)$ as only constant.

- Y is called fix point operator
- used for recursion
- lose decidability (what does $Y (\lambda x.x)$ reduce to?)

Types and Terms in Isabelle

Types: $\tau ::= b \mid 'v \mid 'v :: C \mid \tau \Rightarrow \tau \mid (\tau, \dots, \tau) K$
 $b \in \{\text{bool}, \text{int}, \dots\}$ base types
 $v \in \{\alpha, \beta, \dots\}$ type variables
 $K \in \{\text{set}, \text{list}, \dots\}$ type constructors
 $C \in \{\text{order}, \text{linord}, \dots\}$ type classes

Terms: $t ::= v \mid c \mid ?v \mid (t t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$
 $v, x \in V, \quad c \in C, \quad V, C$ sets of names

- **type constructors:** construct a new type out of a parameter type.
 Example: `int list`
- **type classes:** restrict type variables to a class defined by axioms.
 Example: $\alpha :: \text{order}$
- **schematic variables:** variables that can be instantiated.

Type Classes

→ similar to Haskell's type classes, but with semantic properties

axclass order < ord

order_refl: " $x \leq x$ "

order_trans: " $\llbracket x \leq y; y \leq z \rrbracket \implies x \leq z$ "

...

→ theorems can be proved in the abstract

lemma order_less_trans: " $\bigwedge x :: 'a :: order. \llbracket x < y; y < z \rrbracket \implies x < z$ "

→ can be used for subtyping

axclass linorder < order

linorder_linear: " $x \leq y \vee y \leq x$ "

→ can be instantiated

instance nat :: " $\{\text{order, linorder}\}$ " **by** ...

Schematic Variables

$$\frac{X \quad Y}{X \wedge Y}$$

→ X and Y must be **instantiated** to apply the rule

But: **lemma** “ $x + 0 = 0 + x$ ”

→ x is free

→ convention: lemma must be true for all x

→ **during the proof**, x must **not** be instantiated

Solution:

Isabelle has **free** (x), **bound** (x), and **schematic** ($?X$) variables.

Only schematic variables can be instantiated.

Free converted into schematic after proof is finished.

Higher Order Unification

Unification:

Find substitution σ on variables for terms s, t such that $\sigma(s) = \sigma(t)$

In Isabelle:

Find substitution σ on schematic variables such that $\sigma(s) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \sigma(t)$

Examples:

$$?X \wedge ?Y \quad =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \quad x \wedge x \quad [?X \leftarrow x, ?Y \leftarrow x]$$

$$?P \ x \quad =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \quad x \wedge x \quad [?P \leftarrow \lambda x. x \wedge x]$$

$$P \ (?f \ x) \quad =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \quad ?Y \ x \quad [?f \leftarrow \lambda x. x, ?Y \leftarrow P]$$

Higher Order: schematic variables can be functions.

Higher Order Unification

- Unification modulo $\alpha\beta$ (Higher Order Unification) is semi-decidable
- Unification modulo $\alpha\beta\eta$ is undecidable
- Higher Order Unification has possibly infinitely many solutions

But:

- Most cases are well-behaved
- Important fragments (like Higher Order Patterns) are decidable

Higher Order Pattern:

- is a term in β normal form where
- each occurrence of a schematic variable is of the form $?f t_1 \dots t_n$
- and the $t_1 \dots t_n$ are η -convertible into n distinct bound variables

We have learned so far...

- Simply typed lambda calculus: λ^{\rightarrow}
- Typing rules for λ^{\rightarrow} , type variables, type contexts
- β -reduction in λ^{\rightarrow} satisfies subject reduction
- β -reduction in λ^{\rightarrow} always terminates
- Types and terms in Isabelle

Exercises



- Construct a type derivation tree for the term $\lambda x y z. z x (y x)$
- Find a unifier (substitution) such that $\lambda x y z. ?F y z = \lambda x y z. z (?G x y)$