



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, $foldl f i [x_1, \dots, x_n] = f x_1 (f x_2 (f x_3 (\dots (f x_n i))))$).

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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]

^aa1 out; ^ba1 due; ^ca2 out; ^da2 due; ^esession break; ^fa3 out; ^ga3 due

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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)

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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 $(s t) :: \beta$

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THAT’S ABOUT IT

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NOW FORMALLY AGAIN



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Syntax for λ^{\rightarrow}



Terms: $t ::= v \mid c \mid (t t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$
 $v, x \in V, c \in C, V, C$ 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 : $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

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Examples

$$\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. x) :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$$

$$[y \leftarrow \text{int}] \vdash y :: \text{int}$$

$$[z \leftarrow \text{bool}] \vdash (\lambda y. y) z :: \text{bool}$$

$$\square \vdash \lambda f x. f x :: (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta$$

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

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Example Type Derivation:

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

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Type Checking Rules

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

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

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More complex Example

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

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

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More general Types



A term can have more than one type.

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

Some types are more general than others:

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

Examples:

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

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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.

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What about β reduction?



Definition of β reduction stays the same.

Fact: Well typed terms stay well typed during β reduction

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

This property is called **subject reduction**

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What about termination?



β reduction in λ^{\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.

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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?)

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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: $t ::= v \mid c \mid ?v \mid (t \ t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$
 $v, x \in V, \ c \in C, \ V, C$ 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.

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Type Classes



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

```
axclass order < ord
  order_refl: "x ≤ x"
  order_trans: "[x ≤ y; y ≤ z] ⇒ x ≤ z"
  ...
```

- theorems can be proved in the abstract

```
lemma order_Less_trans: "∧ x :: 'a :: order. [x < y; y < z] ⇒ x < z"
```

- can be used for subtyping

```
axclass linorder < order
  linorder_linear: "x ≤ y ∨ y ≤ x"
```

- can be instantiated

```
instance nat :: "{order, linorder}" by ...
```

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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.

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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:

$$\begin{aligned} ?X \wedge ?Y &=_{\alpha\beta\eta} x \wedge x & [?X \leftarrow x, ?Y \leftarrow x] \\ ?P x &=_{\alpha\beta\eta} x \wedge x & [?P \leftarrow \lambda x. x \wedge x] \\ P (?f x) &=_{\alpha\beta\eta} ?Y x & [?f \leftarrow \lambda x. x, ?Y \leftarrow P] \end{aligned}$$

Higher Order: schematic variables can be functions.

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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

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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

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Exercises



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

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