



COMP 4161
NICTA Advanced Course

Advanced Topics in Software Verification

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Exercises for last time

- Download and install Isabelle from <http://mirror.cse.unsw.edu.au/pub/isabelle/>
- Switch on X-Symbol in ProofGeneral
- Step through the demo files from the lecture web page
- Write your own theory file, look at some theorems in the library, try 'find theorem'

- How many theorems can help you if you need to prove something like "Suc(Suc x)"?
- What is the name of the theorem for associativity of addition of natural numbers in the library?

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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]

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

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λ -calculus

Alonzo Church

- lived 1903–1995
- supervised people like Alan Turing, Stephen Kleene
- famous for Church-Turing thesis, lambda calculus, first undecidability results
- invented λ calculus in 1930's



λ -calculus

- originally meant as foundation of mathematics
- important applications in theoretical computer science
- foundation of computability and functional programming

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untyped λ -calculus



- turing complete model of computation
- a simple way of writing down functions

Basic intuition:

instead of $f(x) = x + 5$
write $f = \lambda x. x + 5$

$\lambda x. x + 5$

- a term
- a nameless function
- that adds 5 to its parameter

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Function Application



For applying arguments to functions

instead of $f(a)$
write $f a$

Example: $(\lambda x. x + 5) a$

Evaluating: in $(\lambda x. t)$ a replace x by a in t
(computation!)

Example: $(\lambda x. x + 5) (a + b)$ evaluates to $(a + b) + 5$

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THAT'S IT!

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NOW FORMAL

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Syntax



Terms: $t ::= v \mid c \mid (t t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$

$v, x \in V, c \in C, V, C$ sets of names

- v, x variables
- c constants
- $(t t)$ application
- $(\lambda x. t)$ abstraction

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Conventions



- leave out parentheses where possible
- list variables instead of multiple λ

Example: instead of $(\lambda y. (\lambda x. (x y)))$ write $\lambda y x. x y$

Rules:

- list variables: $\lambda x. (\lambda y. t) = \lambda x y. t$
- application binds to the left: $x y z = (x y) z \neq x (y z)$
- abstraction binds to the right: $\lambda x. x y = \lambda x. (x y) \neq (\lambda x. x) y$
- leave out outermost parentheses

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Getting used to the Syntax



Example:

$\lambda x y z. x z (y z) =$

$\lambda x y z. (x z) (y z) =$

$\lambda x y z. ((x z) (y z)) =$

$\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. ((x z) (y z)) =$

$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. (\lambda z. ((x z) (y z)))))$

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Computation



Intuition: replace parameter by argument
this is called β -reduction

Example

$(\lambda x y. f (y x)) 5 (\lambda x. x) \rightarrow_{\beta}$

$(\lambda y. f (y 5)) (\lambda x. x) \rightarrow_{\beta}$

$f ((\lambda x. x) 5) \rightarrow_{\beta}$

$f 5$

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Defining Computation



β reduction:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\lambda x. s) t \rightarrow_{\beta} s[x \leftarrow t] \\ s \rightarrow_{\beta} s' & \implies (s t) \rightarrow_{\beta} (s' t) \\ t \rightarrow_{\beta} t' & \implies (s t) \rightarrow_{\beta} (s t') \\ s \rightarrow_{\beta} s' & \implies (\lambda x. s) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. s') \end{aligned}$$

Still to do: define $s[x \leftarrow t]$

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Defining Substitution



Easy concept. Small problem: variable capture.

Example: $(\lambda x. x z)[z \leftarrow x]$

We do **not** want: $(\lambda x. x x)$ as result.

What do we want?

In $(\lambda y. y z)[z \leftarrow x] = (\lambda y. y x)$ there would be no problem.

So, solution is: rename bound variables.

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Free Variables



Bound variables: in $(\lambda x. t)$, x is a bound variable.

Free variables FV of a term:

$$\begin{aligned} FV(x) &= \{x\} \\ FV(c) &= \{\} \\ FV(st) &= FV(s) \cup FV(t) \\ FV(\lambda x. t) &= FV(t) \setminus \{x\} \end{aligned}$$

Example: $FV(\lambda x. (\lambda y. (\lambda x. x) y) y x) = \{y\}$

Term t is called **closed** if $FV(t) = \{\}$

Our problematic substitution example, $(\lambda x. x z)[z \leftarrow x]$, is problematic because the bound variable x is a free variable of the replacement term " x ".

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Substitution



$$\begin{aligned} x[x \leftarrow t] &= t \\ y[x \leftarrow t] &= y && \text{if } x \neq y \\ c[x \leftarrow t] &= c \end{aligned}$$

$$(s_1 s_2)[x \leftarrow t] = (s_1[x \leftarrow t] s_2[x \leftarrow t])$$

$$(\lambda x. s)[x \leftarrow t] = (\lambda x. s)$$

$$(\lambda y. s)[x \leftarrow t] = (\lambda y. s[x \leftarrow t]) \quad \text{if } x \neq y \text{ and } y \notin FV(t)$$

$$(\lambda y. s)[x \leftarrow t] = (\lambda z. s[y \leftarrow z][x \leftarrow t]) \quad \text{if } x \neq y \text{ and } z \notin FV(t) \cup FV(s)$$

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Substitution Example



$$\begin{aligned} & (x (\lambda x. x) (\lambda y. z x))[x \leftarrow y] \\ = & (x[x \leftarrow y]) ((\lambda x. x)[x \leftarrow y]) ((\lambda y. z x)[x \leftarrow y]) \\ = & y (\lambda x. x) (\lambda y'. z y) \end{aligned}$$

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α Conversion



Bound names are irrelevant:

$\lambda x. x$ and $\lambda y. y$ denote the same function.

α conversion:

$s =_{\alpha} t$ means $s = t$ up to renaming of bound variables.

Formally:

$$\begin{aligned} s & \rightarrow_{\alpha} s' \implies (\lambda x. t) \rightarrow_{\alpha} (\lambda y. t[x \leftarrow y]) \text{ if } y \notin FV(t) \\ t & \rightarrow_{\alpha} t' \implies (s t) \rightarrow_{\alpha} (s' t) \\ s & \rightarrow_{\alpha} s' \implies (\lambda x. s) \rightarrow_{\alpha} (\lambda x. s') \end{aligned}$$

$$s =_{\alpha} t \text{ iff } s \rightarrow_{\alpha}^* t$$

(\rightarrow_{α}^* = transitive, reflexive closure of \rightarrow_{α} = multiple steps)

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α Conversion



Equality in Isabelle is equality modulo α conversion:

if $s =_{\alpha} t$ then s and t are syntactically equal.

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} & x (\lambda x y. x y) \\ =_{\alpha} & x (\lambda y x. y x) \\ =_{\alpha} & x (\lambda z y. z y) \\ \neq_{\alpha} & z (\lambda z y. z y) \\ \neq_{\alpha} & x (\lambda x x. x x) \end{aligned}$$

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Back to β



We have defined β reduction: \rightarrow_{β}

Some notation and concepts:

- \rightarrow_{β} conversion: $s =_{\beta} t$ iff $\exists n. s \rightarrow_{\beta}^* n \wedge t \rightarrow_{\beta}^* n$
- \rightarrow t is **reducible** if there is an s such that $t \rightarrow_{\beta} s$
- $(\lambda x. s) t$ is called a **redex** (reducible expression)
- t is reducible iff it contains a redex
- if it is not reducible, t is in **normal form**

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Does every λ term have a normal form?



No!

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) \\ (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) \\ (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) &\rightarrow_{\beta} \dots \end{aligned}$$

(but: $(\lambda x y. y) ((\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. y$)

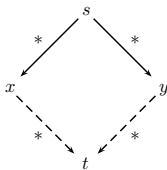
λ calculus is not terminating

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β reduction is confluent



Confluence: $s \rightarrow_{\beta}^* x \wedge s \rightarrow_{\beta}^* y \implies \exists t. x \rightarrow_{\beta}^* t \wedge y \rightarrow_{\beta}^* t$



Order of reduction does not matter for result
Normal forms in λ calculus are unique

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β reduction is confluent



Example:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x y. y) ((\lambda x. x x) a) &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x y. y) (a a) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. y \\ (\lambda x y. y) ((\lambda x. x x) a) &\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. y \end{aligned}$$

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η Conversion



Another case of trivially equal functions: $t = (\lambda x. t x)$

$$\text{Definition: } \begin{array}{l} s \rightarrow_{\eta} s' \iff (\lambda x. t x) \rightarrow_{\eta} t \quad \text{if } x \notin FV(t) \\ t \rightarrow_{\eta} t' \iff (s t) \rightarrow_{\eta} (s' t) \\ s \rightarrow_{\eta} s' \iff (\lambda x. s) \rightarrow_{\eta} (\lambda x. s') \end{array}$$

$$s =_{\eta} t \text{ iff } \exists n. s \rightarrow_{\eta}^* n \wedge t \rightarrow_{\eta}^* n$$

Example: $(\lambda x. f x) (\lambda y. g y) \rightarrow_{\eta} (\lambda x. f x) g \rightarrow_{\eta} f g$

- η reduction is confluent and terminating.
- $\rightarrow_{\beta\eta}$ is confluent.
- $\rightarrow_{\beta\eta}$ means \rightarrow_{β} and \rightarrow_{η} steps are both allowed.
- Equality in Isabelle is also modulo η conversion.

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In fact ...



Equality in Isabelle is modulo α , β , and η conversion.

We will see later why that is possible.

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So, what can you do with λ calculus?



λ calculus is very expressive, you can encode:

- logic, set theory
- turing machines, functional programs, etc.

Examples:

$\text{true} \equiv \lambda x y. x$ $\text{if true } x y \rightarrow_{\beta}^* x$
 $\text{false} \equiv \lambda x y. y$ $\text{if false } x y \rightarrow_{\beta}^* y$
 $\text{if} \equiv \lambda z x y. z x y$

Now, not, and, or, etc is easy:

$\text{not} \equiv \lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ false true}$
 $\text{and} \equiv \lambda x y. \text{if } x y \text{ false}$
 $\text{or} \equiv \lambda x y. \text{if } x \text{ true } y$

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More Examples



Encoding natural numbers (Church Numerals)

$0 \equiv \lambda f x. x$
 $1 \equiv \lambda f x. f x$
 $2 \equiv \lambda f x. f (f x)$
 $3 \equiv \lambda f x. f (f (f x))$
 ...

Natural number n takes arguments f and x , applies f n -times to x .

$\text{iszero} \equiv \lambda n. n (\lambda x. \text{false}) \text{true}$
 $\text{succ} \equiv \lambda n f x. f (n f x)$
 $\text{add} \equiv \lambda m n. \lambda f x. m f (n f x)$

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Fix Points



$(\lambda x f. f (x x f)) (\lambda x f. f (x x f)) t \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $(\lambda f. f ((\lambda x f. f (x x f)) (\lambda x f. f (x x f)) f)) t \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $t ((\lambda x f. f (x x f)) (\lambda x f. f (x x f)) t)$

$\mu = (\lambda x f. f (x x f)) (\lambda x f. f (x x f))$
 $\mu t \rightarrow_{\beta} t (\mu t) \rightarrow_{\beta} t (t (\mu t)) \rightarrow_{\beta} t (t (t (\mu t))) \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$

$(\lambda x f. f (x x f)) (\lambda x f. f (x x f))$ is Turing's fix point operator

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Nice, but ...



As a mathematical foundation, λ does not work. **It is inconsistent.**

- **Frege** (Predicate Logic, ~ 1879):
allows arbitrary quantification over predicates
- **Russell** (1901): Paradox $R \equiv \{X | X \notin X\}$
- **Whitehead & Russell** (Principia Mathematica, 1910-1913):
Fix the problem
- **Church** (1930): λ calculus as logic, true, false, \wedge , ... as λ terms

Problem: with $\{x | P x\} \equiv \lambda x. P x$ $x \in M \equiv M x$
you can write $R \equiv \lambda x. \text{not } (x x)$
and get $(R R) =_{\beta} \text{not } (R R)$

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ISABELLE DEMO

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We have learned so far...



- λ calculus syntax
- free variables, substitution
- β reduction
- α and η conversion
- β reduction is confluent
- λ calculus is very expressive (turing complete)
- λ calculus is inconsistent

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Exercises



- 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 $fold$ (that is, $fold f i [x_1, \dots, x_n] = f x_1 (f x_2 (f x_3 (\dots (f x_n i)))) \dots$)

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