Coq

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Lecture 4: Advanced functional programming with CoQ

- Example minimal.v, Monads.v
- Challenges section 5.2 ListChallenges.v



Outline

- Introduction
- Basics of Cog system
- Using simple inductive definitions
- Functional programming with CoQ
 - Recursive functions
 - Partiality and dependent types
 - Simple programs on lists
 - Well-founded induction and recursion
 - Imperative programming

Representing a partial function

- ▶ $f: A \rightarrow B$ defined only on a subset dom of A.
- extend f in an arbitrary way (need a default value in B)
- use an option type:

```
Coq? Print option.
Inductive option (A : Type) : Type
     := Some : A -> option A | None : option A
```

- need to consider the None case explicitely
- can be hidden with monadic notations
- ► Consider the function as a relation of type $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow Prop$
 - Prove functionality
 - F x y instead of f x
 - no computation

Introducing logic in types

Types and properties can be mixed freely.

add an explicit precondition to the function:

```
f: \forall x: A, \operatorname{dom} x \to B
```

- each call to f a requires a proof p of dom a internally: f ap.
- partially hide the proof in a subset type:

```
\begin{array}{ll} f: \{x: A | \text{dom}\, x\} \to B & \text{internally} \; f\left(a,p\right) \\ \text{Coq: Print sig.} \\ \text{Inductive sig (A : Type) (P : A -> Prop) : Type :=} \\ & \text{exist : forall } x: A, P x -> \text{sig P} \end{array}
```

use high-level tools like Program or type classes to separate programming from solving proof obligations.



Using subset types for specifications

Proposition can appear also to restrict images:

$$S$$
: nat $\rightarrow \{n : \text{nat} | 0 < n\}$

restrictions can depend on the input:

$$next : \forall n : nat, \{m : nat | n < m\}$$

Dependent types



Other useful dependent types

```
Cog? Print sumbool.
Inductive sumbool (A B : Prop) : Set :=
    left : A \rightarrow \{A\} + \{B\} \mid right : B \rightarrow \{A\} + \{B\}
Cog? Print sumor.
Inductive sumor (A: Type) (B: Prop): Type :=
    inleft : A \rightarrow A + \{B\} \mid inright : B \rightarrow A + \{B\}
Cog? Check forall n m, \{n \le m\} + \{m \le n\}.
Cog? Check forall n, { m \mid m < n \} + \{n=0\}.
Use objects in sumbool as booleans value:
Cog? Check zerop.
zerop
     : forall n : nat, \{n = 0\} + \{0 < n\}
Cog? Definition choice (n x y:nat) :=
Cog? if zerop n then x else v.
choice is defined
```

Annotated programs

Advantages:

- Develop program and proof simultaneously.
- ▶ The specification is available each time the program is used.
- Possibly discovery of a program from a proof.

```
Coq? Goal forall n m, \{n \le m\} + \{m \le n\}.
```

Drawbacks:

- Inside Coq, the program contains proof-terms: printing, reduction can become awful.
- Some proof-irrelevance mechanism needed (primitive in PVS)

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Lists

```
Coq? Require Import List.
Coq? Print list.
Inductive list (A : Type) : Type :=
   nil : list A | cons : A -> list A -> list A
For nil: Argument A is implicit and maximally inserted
```

First challenge on computing sum and max proving:

 $sum I \le length I \times max I$

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Well-founded induction and recursion

- Only structural recursion is accepted
- But it can be structural on complex inductive definitions
- ► Loop:

let
$$f n = if p n$$
 then n else $f(n + 1)$

Fixpoint for well-founded relations:

$$\mathbf{let}\,f\,x=t(x,f)$$

Any call to f y in t is such that y < x for a well-founded relation (no infinite decreasing sequence).

Analysing the loop construction

let
$$f n = if p n$$
 then n else $f (n + 1)$

Terminates only if there exists $m \ge n$ such that pm = true.

See minimal.v

Typing well-founded fixpoint

$$\mathbf{let}\,f\,x=t(x,f)$$

► To get $f: A \rightarrow B$ we need: $t: A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$

To ensure calls are done on smaller instances:

$$t : \forall x : A, (\forall y : A, y < x \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$$

• generalisation to $f: \forall x: A, P(x)$

$$t: \forall x: A, (\forall y: A, y < x \rightarrow P(y)) \rightarrow P(x)$$

Well-founded fixpoint in CoQ

```
Cog? Check Fix.
Fix
     : forall (A : Type) (R : A -> A -> Prop),
        well founded R ->
        forall P : A -> Type,
        (forall x : A, (forall y : A, R y x \rightarrow P y) \rightarrow P x) \rightarrow
        forall x : A, P x
Property of Fix
Coq? Check Fix_eq.
Fix eq
     : forall (A : Type) (R : A -> A -> Prop) (Rwf : well_founded R)
          (P : A -> Tvpe)
          (F : forall x : A, (forall y : A, R y x \rightarrow P y) \rightarrow P x),
        (forall (x : A) (f q : forall y : A, R y x \rightarrow P y),
         (forall (y : A) (p : R y x), f y p = g y p) \rightarrow F x f = F x g)
        forall x : A,
       Fix Rwf P F x = F \times (fun (y : A) (\_ : R y x) => Fix Rwf P F y)
```

Accessibility

How is it possible?

▶ The fixpoint is on the proof of well-foundness of the relation.

```
Coq? Print Acc.
Inductive Acc (x : A) : Prop :=
    Acc_intro : (forall y : A, R y x -> Acc R y) -> Acc R x

Coq? Print Acc_inv.
Acc_inv =
fun (x : A) (H : Acc R x) =>
    match H with | Acc_intro HO => HO end
    : forall (x : A), Acc R x -> forall y : A, R y x -> Acc R y
```

When H : Acc R x, $Acc_{inv} x H$ is structurally smaller than H.

Summary

- Fixpoint in CoQ are syntactically restricted but expressive
- ► High-level tools help define recursive functions and reason on them: Program, Function...
- Types may contain logical parts.
- Functions in Coo are computable, may help doing proofs.
- Extraction of Ocaml or Haskell.
- Formally proved versions of tools developed this way:
 - ► Compilers (C, lustre)
 - Verifiers (prover traces, register allocation, LR-automata...)
 - Kernel of an SMT solver (alt-ergo)

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Monads to handle non functional behavior

Used in Haskell to simulate imperative features.

A monad is given by

- Comp: Type → Type,
 comp A represents computations of type A;
- return : A → comp A (aka unit) return v represents the value v seen as the result of a computation;
- ▶ bind: comp $A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow \text{comp } B) \rightarrow \text{comp } B$, bind passes the result of the first computation to the second one.

Syntax: "do p <- e1; e2" means bind
$$e_1$$
 (fun $p \Rightarrow e_2$).

See Monads.v

Memory representation

- ► The previous monadic approach for states does not consider aliases in programs.
- Functional representation of memory and adresses:

See LinkedLists.v

Representation of memory

```
Coq? Definition adr := option Z.
Coq? Definition null : adr := None.
Coq? Record node : Type
Coq? := mknode { value : nat ; next : adr}.
Coq? Definition heap := Z -> option node.
Coq? Definition val (h : heap) (a : adr) : option node
Coq? := match a with None => None | Some z => h z end.
```

The state of the program will be the heap.

Alternative representation of memory

More static separation (model à la Burstall-Bornat)

Frame properties

- Need to specify logically validity of adresses, separation
- Separation logic can be encoded
- See Ynot (Harvard, Morrisett): a Coo library to reason on imperative programs with separation logic.