

The HOL Logic and Tool

λ -Calculus plus Predicate Calculus.

- x, y, z — variables
- $T, F, 0, 1$ — constants
- $A = B$ — equality
- $\neg P, P \wedge Q, P \supset Q, \dots$ — connectives
- $\lambda x. E$ — λ -abstraction
- $\forall x. P, \exists y. Q$ — logical quantifiers
- $f x$ — function application

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Terms of the λ -Calculus

TERM ::= CONSTANT
 | VARIABLE
 | TERM TERM
 | λ VARIABLE. TERM

Constants: Written as identifiers: a, \max, \dots , or symbols: $T, +, =, \wedge, \forall, \dots$

Variables: Range over a type. Written as ordinary identifiers: $x, name, \dots$

Applications: $f x$ is the application of function f to x .

Application is left associative; e.g., $f x y$ is $(f x) y$.

Note: Some function constants are written as infixes; e.g., $1 + 2$ rather than $+ 1 2$, but this is just a convenience.

Abstractions: $\lambda x. E$ is a function which when applied to v returns $E[v/x]$;

e.g., $(\lambda x. x + 1)$ is the increment function.

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Higher-Order Logic is Typed

The notation $E : \tau$ indicates that expression E has type τ .

The following types, and others, are available:

- I
- N
- $\alpha \times \beta$
- α list
- B
- Z
- $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
- α tree

A well-formed term must have a unique type consistent with its subterms:

$$\frac{1 : N \quad x : N \quad + : N \rightarrow N \rightarrow N}{(1 + x) : N}$$

Why? Higher-order logic is too expressive without types!

$$\text{Russel} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda p. \neg(p p))$$

What is RusselRussel?

This definition is not well formed because it does not type-check.

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The Seven Inference Rules of HOL

Assume: $\frac{}{P \vdash P}$

Reflect: $\frac{}{\vdash E = E}$

Modus Ponens: $\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash P \supset Q \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash P}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash Q}$

Discharge: $\frac{\Gamma, P \vdash Q}{\Gamma \vdash P \supset Q}$

β -Convert: $\frac{}{\vdash (\lambda x. E) D = E[D/x]}$

Substitute: $\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash D = E \quad \Gamma_2 \vdash P[D]}{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2 \vdash P[E]}$

Instantiate Types: $\frac{\Gamma \vdash P}{\Gamma \vdash P[\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n / \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n]}$
 Provided none of τ_1, \dots, τ_n occur in Γ .

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What Does 'Higher-Order' Mean?

- There is no distinction between formulae and terms. Formulae are just boolean term.
- Predicates are, therefore, just boolean valued functions.
- Variables can range over functions (and hence predicates).
- Functions (predicates) can take functions (predicates) as arguments and return functions as results.

Example: Principle of Induction

$$\forall P. P 0 \wedge (\forall n. P n \supset P(n+1)) \supset (\forall m. P m)$$

Example: Principle of Recursive Definition

$$\forall x f. \exists g. g 0 = x \wedge (\forall n. g(n+1) = f(g n))$$

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λ -Abstraction and Binding

A occurrence of a variable v is *bound* if it appears in the body of a term of the form $\lambda v. \text{body}$. Occurrences of a variable that are not bound are *free*.

$$\begin{array}{c} (\lambda x. f x)(\lambda y. x) \\ \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ \text{bound free} \end{array}$$

Bound variables can be renamed with the abstraction while keeping its meaning, so long as no free variables get bound (are *captured*).

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

Only λ binds variables, all other 'binders' are higher-order functions.

For example, $\forall x. P$ is just an abbreviation for $\forall(\lambda x. P)$, where \forall is a higher-order function defined as follows:

$$\forall f = (f \circ (\lambda x. T))$$

Note: $\lambda x y. E$ can be used to abbreviate $\lambda x. (\lambda y. E)$.

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The Five Axioms of HOL

Excluded Middle: $\forall b. (b = T) \vee (b = F)$

Antisymmetric Implication: $\forall b c. (b \supset c) \supset (c \supset b) \supset (b = c)$

η -Conversion: $\forall f. (\lambda x. f x) = f$

Choice: $\forall P x. P x \supset P(\epsilon P)$

Infinity: $\exists f : I \rightarrow I. (\forall x y. (f x = f y) \supset (x = y)) \wedge (\neg \forall x. \exists y. x = f y)$

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The Three Rules of HOL Definition

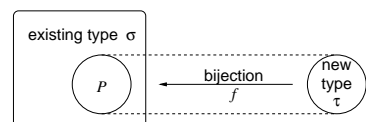
Constant Definition: $\vdash c x_1 \dots x_n = E$

Provided there are no free variables in $\lambda x_1 \dots x_n. E$.

Constant Specification: $\vdash P[c]$

Provided c is not already a constant and $\exists x. P[x]$.

Type Definition: $\exists f : \tau \rightarrow \sigma. (\forall x y. (f x = f y) \supset (x = y)) \wedge (\forall z. P z = (\exists w. z = f w))$



Providing τ is not already a type and $\exists x. P x$.

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The HOL Tool and ML

HOL is a collection of definitions added to the programming language ML.

ML is functional:

```
- fun reverse [] = []
  | reverse (x::xs) = (reverse xs)@[x];
> val reverse = fn :  $\alpha$  list  $\rightarrow$   $\alpha$  list
- reverse [1, 2, 3];
> val it = [3, 2, 1] : int list
```

ML is higher order:

```
- fun map f [] = []
  | map f (x::xs) = (f x)::(map f xs);
> val map = fn : ( $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ )  $\rightarrow$   $\alpha$  list  $\rightarrow$   $\beta$  list
- map reverse [[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]];
> val it = [[3, 2, 1], [6, 5, 4], [9, 8, 7]] :
  int list list
```

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Using ML as a Meta-Language

Types and terms of the HOL logic are represented as ML inductive data-types.

```
- val sad_but_true = Term 'Vx:I. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x';
> val sad_but_true = 'Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x' : Term.term

- free_vars sad_but_true;
> val it = ['Mortal', 'Man'] : Term.term list

- subst [Term 'Mortal : I  $\rightarrow$  B' \ Term 'Moron : I  $\rightarrow$  B']
  sad_but_true;
> val it = 'Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Moron x' : Term.term

- #conseq (dest_imp (body (rand sad_but_true)));
> val it = 'Mortal x' : Term.term
- type_of it;
> val it = ':B' : Type.hol_type
```

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An Abstract Data-Type of Theorems

The axioms are theorem valued constants.

```
- BOOL_CASES_AX;
> val it =  $\vdash \forall t. (t = T) \vee (t = F) : Thm.thm$ 
- IMP_ANTISYM_AX;
> val it =  $\vdash \forall t1 t2. (t1 \supset t2) \supset (t2 \supset t1) \supset (t1 = t2) : Thm.thm$ 
```

The inferences rule (and definition rules) are functions that return theorems.

```
- ASSUME;
> val it = fn : Term.term  $\rightarrow$  Thm.thm
- sad_but_true;
> val it = 'Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x' : Term.term
- ASSUME sad_but_true;
> val it =
  [Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x]  $\vdash$  Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x :
  Thm.thm
```

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Goal Directed Proof in HOL

```
- g '(Vx:I. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x)  $\wedge$  Man socrates  $\supset$  Mortal socrates';
> val it = Proof.manager status: 1 proofs.
  1. Incomplete:
      Initial goal:
      (Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x)  $\wedge$  Man socrates  $\supset$  Mortal socrates
      : GoalstackPure.proofs
- e STRIP_TAC;
OK.. 1 subgoal:
> val it =
  Mortal socrates
-----
  0. Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x
  1. Man socrates
      : GoalstackPure.goalstack
- e RES_TAC;
OK.. Goal proved.
[.]  $\vdash$  Mortal socrates
> val it =
  Initial goal proved.
   $\vdash$  (Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x)  $\wedge$  Man socrates  $\supset$  Mortal socrates
  : GoalstackPure.goalstack
```

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Inductive Data-types in ML

Users can define inductive data-types and recursive functions on them.

```
- datatype  $\alpha$  tree = LEAF of  $\alpha$ 
  | BRANCH of  $\alpha$  tree  $\times$   $\alpha$  tree;
> datatype  $\alpha$  tree
  con LEAF = fn :  $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$  tree
  con BRANCH = fn :  $\alpha$  tree  $\times$   $\alpha$  tree  $\rightarrow \alpha$  tree

- fun fringe (LEAF x) = [x]
  | fringe (BRANCH (t1,t2)) = (fringe t1)@ (fringe t2);
> val fringe = fn :  $\alpha$  tree  $\rightarrow \alpha$  list
```

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Abstract Data-Types in ML

```
structure stack :
sig
  type  $\alpha$  stack
  exception underflow
  val empty :  $\alpha$  stack
  val push :  $\alpha \times \alpha$  stack  $\rightarrow \alpha$  stack
  val pop :  $\alpha$  stack  $\rightarrow \alpha$  stack
  val top :  $\alpha$  stack  $\rightarrow \alpha$ 
end
=
struct
  type  $\alpha$  stack =  $\alpha$  list
  exception underflow
  val empty = []
  fun push (e,s) = e::s
  fun pop (e::s) = s
    | pop [] = raise underflow
  fun top (e::s) = e
    | top [] = raise underflow
end;
```

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A Proof in HOL

HOL proofs are ML programs that create values of the theorem type.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\text{Vx. Man x } \supset \text{ Mortal x} \vdash \text{[ASSUME]}}{\text{Vx. Man x } \supset \text{ Mortal x}}}{\text{Vx. Man x } \supset \text{ Mortal x} \vdash \text{[SPECIALISE]}}}{\frac{\text{Man socrates } \supset \text{ Mortal socrates} \quad \text{Man socrates } \vdash \text{Man socrates}}{\text{Vx. Man x } \supset \text{ Mortal x, Man socrates } \vdash \text{Mortal socrates}} \text{[MODUSPONENS]}} \text{[ASSUME]}$$

This proof is translated into HOL as follows:

```
- val th1 = ASSUME (Term 'Vx:I. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x');
> val th1 = [Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x]  $\vdash$  Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x :
  Thm.thm
- val th2 = ASSUME (Term '(Man (socrates:I)):B');
> val th2 = [Man socrates]  $\vdash$  Man socrates : Thm.thm
- val th3 = SPEC (Term 'socrates:I') th1;
> val th3 =
  [Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x]  $\vdash$  Man socrates  $\supset$  Mortal socrates :
  Thm.thm
- MP th3 th2;
> val it = [Vx. Man x  $\supset$  Mortal x, Man socrates]  $\vdash$  Mortal socrates :
  Thm.thm
```

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Strengths and Weaknesses of HOL

- ✓ Expressive logic — good for capturing specifications and models
- ✗ Expressive logic — difficult to decide
- ✓ Typed logic — well matched to many computing problem domains
- ✗ Typed logic — a hindrance in some noncomputing domains
- ✓ Simple logic syntax — easy to mechanise
- ✓ Simple deductive system — easy to mechanise
- ✓ Secure architecture — users can extend the system safely
- ✗ User hostile — though not a fundamental limitation

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