
Isabelle's meta-logic

Basic constructs

Implication \Rightarrow (\Rightarrow)

For separating premises and conclusion of theorems

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Universal quantifier \wedge (! !)

For binding local variables

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For separating premises and conclusion of theorems

Equality \equiv ($=$)

For definitions

Universal quantifier \wedge (! !)

For binding local variables

Do not use *inside* HOL formulae

Notation

$\llbracket A_1; \dots ; A_n \rrbracket \implies B$

abbreviates

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$;$ \approx “and”

The proof state

1. $\wedge x_1 \dots x_p . \llbracket A_1; \dots ; A_n \rrbracket \Rightarrow B$

$x_1 \dots x_p$ Local constants

$A_1 \dots A_n$ Local assumptions

B Actual (sub)goal

Type and function definition in Isabelle/HOL

Type definition in Isabelle/HOL

Introducing new types

Keywords:

- **typedecl**: pure declaration
- **types**: abbreviation
- **datatype**: recursive datatype

typedec

typedec *name*

Introduces new “opaque” type *name* without definition

typedec \mathfrak{l}

typedec \mathfrak{l} $name$

Introduces new “opaque” type $name$ without definition

Example:

typedec \mathfrak{l} $addr$ — An abstract type of addresses

types

types $name = \tau$

Introduces an *abbreviation* $name$ for type τ

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Examples:

types

$name = string$

$('a, 'b)foo = 'a list \times 'b list$

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Type abbreviations are expanded immediately after parsing
Not present in internal representation and Isabelle output

datatype

The example

datatype $'a\ list = Nil \mid Cons\ ('a\ list)$

Properties:

- **Types:** $Nil :: 'a\ list$
 $Cons :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a\ list \Rightarrow 'a\ list$
- **Distinctness:** $Nil \neq Cons\ x\ xs$
- **Injectivity:** $(Cons\ x\ xs = Cons\ y\ ys) = (x = y \wedge xs = ys)$

The general case

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \textbf{datatype } (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)\tau & = & C_1 \ \tau_{1,1} \dots \tau_{1,n_1} \\ & | & \dots \\ & | & C_k \ \tau_{k,1} \dots \tau_{k,n_k} \end{array}$$

- *Types:* $C_i :: \tau_{i,1} \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \tau_{i,n_i} \Rightarrow (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)\tau$
- *Distinctness:* $C_i \dots \neq C_j \dots$ if $i \neq j$
- *Injectivity:*
 $(C_i \ x_1 \dots x_{n_i} = C_i \ y_1 \dots y_{n_i}) = (x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_{n_i} = y_{n_i})$

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Distinctness and Injectivity are applied automatically
Induction must be applied explicitly

Function definition in Isabelle/HOL

Why nontermination can be harmful

How about $f\ x = f\ x + 1$?

Why nontermination can be harmful

How about $fx = fx + 1$?

Subtract fx on both sides.

$$\implies 0 = 1$$

Why nontermination can be harmful

How about $\textcolor{red}{fx = fx + 1}$?

Subtract $\textcolor{red}{fx}$ on both sides.

$$\implies \textcolor{red}{0 = 1}$$

! All functions in HOL must be total **!**

Function definition schemas in Isabelle/HOL

- Non-recursive with **definition**
No problem

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- Well-founded recursion with **function**
User-supplied termination proof

definition

Definition (non-recursive) by example

definition $\text{sq} :: \text{nat} \Rightarrow \text{nat}$ **where** $\text{sq } n = n * n$

Definitions: pitfalls

```
definition prime :: nat  $\Rightarrow$  bool where  
prime p = (1 < p  $\wedge$  (m dvd p  $\longrightarrow$  m = 1  $\vee$  m = p))
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```

Using definitions

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Unfolding the definition of `sq`:

`apply(unfold sq_def)`

primrec

The example

```
primrec app :: 'a list ⇒ 'a list ⇒ 'a list where
  app Nil           ys = ys |
  app (Cons x xs) ys = Cons x (app xs ys)
```

The general case

If τ is a datatype (with constructors C_1, \dots, C_k) then

$f :: \dots \Rightarrow \tau \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \tau'$ can be defined by *primitive recursion*:

$$f\ x_1 \dots (C_1\ y_{1,1} \dots y_{1,n_1}) \dots x_p = r_1 \mid$$

⋮

$$f\ x_1 \dots (C_k\ y_{k,1} \dots y_{k,n_k}) \dots x_p = r_k$$

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The recursive calls in r_i must be *structurally smaller*,
i.e. of the form $f\ a_1 \dots y_{i,j} \dots a_p$

nat is a datatype

datatype *nat* = 0 | Suc *nat*

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Functions on *nat* definable by primrec!

```
primrec f :: nat ⇒ ...
f 0 = ...
f(Suc n) = ... f n ...
```

More predefined types and functions

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datatype 'a option = None | Some 'a

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primrec

lookup k [] = None

lookup k (x#xs) =

(if fst x = k then Some(snd x) else lookup k xs)

case

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Nested patterns:

(case xs of [0] ⇒ 0 | [Suc n] ⇒ n | _ ⇒ 2)

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Needs () in context

Proof by case distinction

If $t :: \tau$ and τ is a datatype

apply(*case_tac t*)

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If $t :: \tau$ and τ is a datatype

apply(case_tac t)

creates k subgoals

$$t = C_i x_1 \dots x_p \implies \dots$$

one for each constructor C_i of type τ .

Demo: trees

fun

*From primitive recursion
to arbitrary pattern matching*

Example: Fibonacci

```
fun fib :: nat ⇒ nat where
```

```
fib 0 = 0 |
```

```
fib (Suc 0) = 1 |
```

```
fib (Suc(Suc n)) = fib (n+1) + fib n
```

Example: Separation

```
fun sep :: 'a ⇒ 'a list ⇒ 'a list where
```

```
sep a [] = [] |  
sep a [x] = [x] |  
sep a (x#y#zs) = x # a # sep a (y#zs)
```

Example: Ackermann

fun ack :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat where

$ack\ 0\ n = Suc\ n\ |$
 $ack\ (Suc\ m)\ 0 = ack\ m\ (Suc\ 0)\ |$
 $ack\ (Suc\ m)\ (Suc\ n) = ack\ m\ (ack\ (Suc\ m)\ n)$

Key features of fun

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- Termination must be provable
by lexicographic combination of size measures

Size

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- size counts number of (non-nullary) constructors

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Similar for tuples:

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Theorem If each component ordering terminates, then their *lexicographic product* terminates, too.

Ackermann terminates

$\text{ack } 0 \ n = \text{Suc } n$

$\text{ack } (\text{Suc } m) \ 0 = \text{ack } m \ (\text{Suc } 0)$

$\text{ack } (\text{Suc } m) \ (\text{Suc } n) = \text{ack } m \ (\text{ack } (\text{Suc } m) \ n)$

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because the arguments of each recursive call are lexicographically smaller than the arguments on the lhs.

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because the arguments of each recursive call are lexicographically smaller than the arguments on the lhs.

Note: order of arguments not important for Isabelle!

Computation Induction

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Induction follows course of (terminating!) computation

Computation Induction: Example

```
fun div2 :: nat ⇒ nat where
  div2 0 = 0 |
  div2 (Suc 0) = 0 |
  div2(Suc(Suc n)) = Suc(div2 n)
```

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```

~ induction rule div2.induct:

$$\frac{P(0) \quad P(\text{Suc } 0) \quad P(n) \Rightarrow P(\text{Suc}(\text{Suc } n))}{P(m)}$$

Demo: fun