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[**TODO:** Is the “department committee chairman” still Leslie A. Kolodziejski?]

Performance Engineering of Proof-Based Software Systems

by

Jason S. Gross

Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Computer Science and Engineering

at the

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

June 2020

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Abstract

[**TODO: More formal wording**] Formally verified proofs are important. Unfortunately, large-scale proofs, especially automated ones, in Coq, can be quite slow.

This thesis aims to be a partial guide to resolving the issue of slowness. We present a survey of the landscape of slowness in Coq, with a number of micro- and macro-benchmarks. We describe various metrics that allow prediction of slowness, such as term size, goal size, and number of binders, and note the occasional surprise-lack-of-bottleneck for some factors, such as total proof term size.

We identify three main categories of workarounds and partial solutions to slowness: design of APIs of Gallina libraries; changes to Coq’s type theory, implementation, or tooling; and automation design patterns, including proof by reflection. We present lessons drawn from the case-studies of a category-theory library, a proof-producing parser-generator, and a verified compiler and code generator for low-level cryptographic primitives.

[**TODO: Fix runon sentence**] The central new contribution presented by this thesis, beyond hopefully providing a roadmap to avoid slowness in large Coq developments, is a reflective framework for partial evaluation and rewriting which, in addition to being used to compile a code-generator for field arithmetic cryptographic primitives which generates the code currently used in Google Chrome, can serve as a template for a possibly replacement for tactics such as `rewrite`, `rewrite_strat`, `autorewrite`, `simpl`, and `cbn` which achieves much better performance by running in Coq’s VM while still allowing the flexibility of equational reasoning.

[**TODO: Maybe instead use the alternative from the thesis-proposal?**] The proposed research is a study of performance issues that come up in engineering large-scale proof-based systems in Coq. The thesis presents lessons learned about achieving acceptable performance in Coq in the course of case-studies on formalizing category theory, developing a parser synthesizer, and constructing a verified compiler for synthesizing efficient low-level cryptographic primitives. We also present a novel method of simple and fast reification, and a prototype tool for faster rewriting and customizable reduction which does not require extending Coq’s trusted code base.

Thesis Supervisor: Adam Chlipala
Title: Associate Professor of Computer Science

Acknowledgments

[**TODO: uniform style**] [**TODO: rearrange**] Thank you, Mom, for encouraging me from my youth and supporting me in all that I do. Last, and most of all, thank you, Adam Chlipala, for your patience, guidance, advice, and wisdom, during the writing of this thesis, and through my research career. [**TODO: Add more acknowledgments**] I want to thank Andres Erbsen for pointing out to me some of the particular performance bottlenecks in Coq that I made use of in this thesis, including those of subsection Sharing in Section 2.2.1 and those of subsections Name Resolution, Capture-Avoiding Substitution, Quadratic Creation of Substitutions for Existential Variables, and Quadratic Substitution in Function Application in Subsection 2.2.3. [**TODO: cite various grants**]

This work was supported in part by the MIT bigdata@CSAIL initiative, NSF grant CCF-1253229, ONR grant N000141310260, and AFOSR grant FA9550-14-1-0031. We also thank Benedikt Ahrens, Daniel R. Grayson, Robert Harper, Bas Spitters, and Edward Z. Yang for feedback on “Experience Implementing a Performant Category-Theory Library in Coq” [68].

[**TODO: rearrange**] A significant fraction of the text of this thesis is taken from papers I’ve co-authored during my PhD, sometimes with major edits, other times with only minor edits to conform to the flow of the thesis. In particular: [**TODO: how to format citations here**] Sections 3.3, 3.4, 3.5.1, 3.5.2 and 3.5.3 are taken from “Experience Implementing a Performant Category-Theory Library in Coq” [68].

s ?? and 6.1 is based on the introduction to Gross, Erbsen, and Chlipala [69].

[**QUESTION FOR ADAM:** Decide on whether to copyright myself or MIT; Adam, are there considerations to be aware of here?] [**TODO:** Download and fill out <https://libraries.mit.edu/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/umi-proquest-form.pdf>] [**TODO:** Change biblatex cite format to author-year or something so that it's easy to pick up references from the paper] [**TODO:** Share thesis with Eric Marion (cf 2020-05-14 15:53 Facebook Messenger)] [**TODO:** Share thesis with András Kovács (cf 2020-03-12 11:15 gmail <https://mail.google.com/mail/u/0/#search/andras/QgrcJHrnvrhWwVxKMQFsctxrGQx>)] [**TODO:** Share thesis with Talia Ringer and ppedrot]

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[**TODO:** decide on chapter/section capitalization and be consistent] [**TODO:** figure out if regression stats should be included, and, if so, how to calculate them] [**TODO:** make sure all appendices are at the very end, so we keep a linear progression] [**TODO:** update rewriting paper chapter with camera-ready file before editing]

Part I

Introduction

The most common mistake in performance engineering is to blindly optimize without profiling; you most often spend your time optimizing parts that aren't actually bottlenecks.

— Charles Leiserson (heavily paraphrased, reconstructed from memory of 6.172)

premature optimization is the root of all evil

— Donald Knuth

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Paragraph 1: Orient the reader to very broad things Software w/o bugs via formal methods [TODO: Initial intro paragraphs]

Paragraph 2: Success of foundational tools [TODO: transition to foundational tools] [TODO: explain how foundational tools like Coq are already useful]

Paragraph 3: performance of tools is important and non-trivial, and what we're doing here is explaining / demonstrating how and why it's non-trivial, and how to fix nontrivial performance issues [TODO: explain that performance, including of build-time, is important] [TODO: read and cite perf engineering study Ringer et al. [128]] [TODO: read / look into Georges, Buytaert, and Eeckhout [57]] [TODO: maybe read Mytkowicz et al. [111]] [TODO: Karl Palmskog: @Jason Gross I saw your post on performance optimization/measurements for proof assistants on Coq-Club. We summarize a lot of work on parallelization/selection for proof assistants in our regression proving papers (ASE 17 & ISSTA 18): Celik, Palmskog, and Gligoric [41] Palmskog, Celik, and Gligoric [117]] [TODO: read and cite Ebner et al. [52]] [TODO: read Shao, League, and Monnier [133]] "It's not directly related to proof assistants, but the techniques described can be applicable to proof assistants and the experience *may* be applicable to some extent." [TODO: read Brady, McBride, and McKinna [36]] [TODO: read Nogin [113]] [TODO: read Grégoire and Leroy's paper from ICFP 2002 Grégoire and Leroy [65]] [TODO: read Dirk Kleeblatt's PhD thesis Kleeblatt [81].] "Both of these are about using compiled code in dependent type checkers instead of interpreters." [TODO: read Andras Kovacs has smalltt at Kovács [89]]", which I don't think has been written up anywhere but has nonetheless been influential, both on Idris 2 and on Olle Fredriksson's reimplement of Sixten at <https://github.com/ollef/sixty>" [TODO: look at <https://github.com/AndrasKovacs/normalization-bench>] [TODO: look at <https://github.com/AndrasKovacs/smalltt>] [TODO: "I haven't yet updated the

smalltt repo, but there's a simplified (<https://gist.github.com/AndrasKovacs/a0e0938113b193d6b9c1c0620d853784>) implementation of its evaluator, which seems to have roughly the same performance but which is much simpler to implement.”] [TODO: [35]] [TODO: [120] about why not LCF tactics in dependently typed setting]

András Kovács wrote:

The basic idea is that in elaboration there are two primary computational tasks, one is conversion checking and the other is generating solutions for metavariables. Clearly, we should use NbE/environment machines for evaluation, and implement conversion checking in the semantic domain. However, when we want to generate meta solutions, we need to compute syntactic terms, and vanilla NbE domain only supports quote/readback to normal forms. Normal forms are way too big and terrible for this purpose. Hence, we extend vanilla NbE domain with lazy non-deterministic choice between two or more evaluation strategies. In the simplest case, the point of divergence is whether we unfold some class of definitions or not. Then, the conversion checking algorithm can choose to take the full-unfolding branch, and the quoting operation can choose to take the non-unfolding branch. At the same time, we have a great deal of shared computation between the two branches; we avoid recomputing many things if we choose to look at both branches.

I believe that a feature like this is absolutely necessary for robust performance. Otherwise, we choke on bad asymptotics, which is surprisingly common in dependent settings. In Agda and Coq, even something as trivial as elaborating a length-indexed vector expression has quadratic complexity in the length of the vector.

It is also extremely important to stick to the spirit of Coquand's semantic checking algorithm as much as possible. In summary: core syntax should support **no** expensive computation: no substitution, shifting, renaming, or other ad-hoc term massaging. Core syntax should be viewed as immutable machine code, which supports evaluation into various semantic domains, from which sometimes we can read syntax back; this also leaves it open to swap out the representation of core syntax to efficient alternatives such as bytecode or machine code.

Only after we get the above two basic points right, can we start to think about more specific and esoteric optimizations. I am skeptical of proposed solutions which do not include these. Hash consing has been brought up many times, but it is very unsatisfying compared to non-deterministic NbE, because of its large constant costs, implementation complexity, and the failure to handle sharing loss from beta-redexes in any meaningful way (which is the most important source of sharing loss!). I am also skeptical of exotic evaluators such as interaction nets and optimal

beta reducers; there is a good reason that all modern functional languages run on environment machines instead of interaction nets.

If we want to support type classes, then tabled instance resolution Selsam, Ullrich, and Moura [132] is also a must, otherwise we are again smothered by bad asymptotics even in modestly complex class hierarchies. This can be viewed as a specific instance of hash-consing (or rather “memoization”), so while I think ubiquitous hash-consing is bad, some focused usage can do good.

Injectivity analysis is another thing which I believe has large potential impact. By this I mean checking whether functions are injective up to definitional equality, which is decidable, and can be used to more precisely optimize unfolding in conversion checking.

I’d be very interested in your findings about proof assistant performance. This has been a topic that I’ve been working on on-and-off for several years. I’ve recently started to implement a system which I intend to be eventually “production strength” and also as fast as possible, and naturally I want to incorporate existing performance know-how.

[**TODO:** look into “So technically, the lost sharing is the second-order sharing that is preserved in “optimal reduction” of lambda calculi [Levy-1980, Lamping-1990, Asperti-Laneve-1992], while hash consing normally is directly usable only for first-order sharing.”] [**TODO:** look at <https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/3466976/online-reference-book-for-implementing-concepts-in-type-theory>]

[**TODO:** look at <https://github.com/AndrasKovacs/elaboration-zoo/blob/0c7f8a676c0964cc05AIMprez/AIMprez.pdf> or https://eutypes.cs.ru.nl/eutypes_pmwiki/uploads/Meetings/Kovacs_slides.pdf] Konrad Slind wrote: [**TODO:** read Barras [23]] [**TODO:** Boulton [33]] [**TODO:** Related to this is work on sound interfaces to external tools, also an enduring topic: Slind [136]]

1.1.1 What are proof assistants?

[**TODO:** wide look at various proof assistants and successes] [**TODO:** read and cite Talia’s paper Ringer et al. [128]?]

1.2 Basic Design Choices

[**TODO:** introduce section where we talk about what some big design decisions are and why we might make them the way we do]

1.2.1 Dependent Types: What? Why? How?

[**TODO:** explain dependent type theory, motivate using it] [**TODO:** read and cite Lamport and Paulson [93] and Paulson [118] h/t Karl Palmskog @palmskog on gitter <https://gitter.im/coq/coq?at=5e5ec0ae4eefc06dcf31943f>]

1.2.2 The De Bruijn Criterion

[**TODO:** explain the De Bruijn criterion] [**TODO:** look into Selsam, Hudon, and Moura [131] Sealing Pointer-Based Optimizations Behind Pure Functions] [**TODO:** example: Ltac vs Gallina, kind-of]

1.3 Look ahead: Layout and contributions of the thesis

[**TODO:** describe layout] [**TODO:** describe main contributions]

1.A Transcript bits from talking with Adam

And my phone is now recording.

Yeah, so my son's this story is that the there'll be sort of introduction and at some point I'll have to introduce caulk and some amount of detail and I'm not sure where exactly that bit of it goes. But the main thing I want to talk about in the introduction is.

Like what makes performance in caulk and assistance especially dependently type ones different from performance and other programming languages, let me suggest here for the very beginning. I would try to write introduction that doesn't go into a lot of detail about conflict but paints a broad picture.

Say sort of like going through a breath first traversal of the material starting with the higher level motivation, so that's whoever reads it understands what you're trying to accomplish and what major it's a progress you made towards those goals and then chapter two. Presents more the details on call background, that'll be needed to understand the precise rules of the game and what's going to come later okay so then I'm thinking the chapter one in the introduction is something like performance in crew or like proof assistance or thing preface systems are important performance improve assistance is important yeah.

I'm not sure how much it feels like in order to like talk about why performance improve assistance is important. I need to say something about like what makes it different like why it's not already solved. The information at a very high level there so the the like highest level the sketch here is that in most languages the performance looks something like EU write something and it works and maybe you have to optimize it a little and like as you get bigger examples, it slowly gets slower.

Whereas in caulk the experience is that he writes something in that works and you get bigger examples and it gets a bit slower and then you make your examples just a

little bit bigger and now it takes a week or a month or like unclear just I'm sure we can find examples like that in traditional software also like you you just pushed your working set beyond the cast size or.

Something like that.

I think that's true put my senses that in preface this then it like this is. This is just how the like. It seems like this is pervasive in preface systems. I think this is the wrong level abstraction for. Section one. I would first try to convey the big message of the detention between flexibility and trust in a free persistent building out alcohol methods tools, we can typically get around a lot of these issues.

I say okay, so. So is this section where I want to talk about the divide between kernel trusted code base and the rest of it you might try starting out with with just introducing the debate on criteria remind me what that does. Roughly what you just said small currently that's in terms of some sort of record of approved that can be appreciated in terms of only a small senators okay, yeah that seems good.

And you might want to give an idea for what dependent types are what's the peel they give people using them and some sort of fuzzy idea for the challenges that might emerge are.

Yeah.

I'm trying to figure out what it feels like. I have like two very different levels that I can pitch dependent types at and not sure if either one is adequate for thesis. One of them is explaining dependent types as in many languages you want to know at compile time if you try to pass an integer when you're function is expecting a string yeah in caulk you like you have this part of these system on steroids where you can do things like oh.

You need to pass element of the empty set if the turning machine does not halt and if the turning machine does halt the need to pass an element of the one element set. There was definitely skipping forward way through an explanation of what depends sorry why are we here?

Well represented about the actual way is so this is sort of the like what? What makes dependent types powerful and challenging. The the what dependent types are. I feel like my technical explanation is something like they let the home. So one version of it is that they return value for your the return type of your function gets the depend on the value of the arguments.

Yes, that does sound like a definition. I mean, it's it's not.

Hit. To only works precisely if you're either fully curried or like it doesn't capture

segment types exactly or something.

Sure. Okay. I'm right. And no, and then the the turning machine bit is an explanation of like what? What dependent types let you do and how they let you encode proofs and this part of the system. I don't think it's an explanation of why it pays off to do things that way.

They're really important to have in the first section. I feel like I don't have a good explanation of why why it appears off to be a superficial systems on type theory, rather than doing something like Isabel Hall. It's gonna be a problem, but if you spend a while. Theseus explaining how to handle dependent types properly and you have an explained why that was the right size choice to put them in there in the first place.

Yeah. It feels like currently I like to have the knowledge about to have an argument for them. Okay.

Other than like lots of people do it or something. I think part of it is connected to the small trusted go-based story of how tribulation checking works. Really don't have another option but using types of things sometimes. I feel like if you base everything on the axioms of sub theory, you can have a.

TCP that's much smaller than that of call. Maybe. We get the same performance advantages ignore this issue that there's a design choice that creates a large fraction of the challenges and the thesis and not explain why it's there. If you want to start out by saying there was a time when we were confused and thought this was a good idea and now we're going to trace through the consequences.

That's better than trying to ignore it.

I think I want guidance from you on what to do here. It feels like the best I can say is like this is a choice that lots of people make and we're going to look at like assuming that you've made this choice like what follows? Maybe should try to pull people who seem like on a bashed fans of a family type programming improve assistance even today and get looked there.

There didn't justifications over. I think it's fun. Okay, it's a good start. Which might translate into what happens to match every people of intuition as well. I think that's close correlative fun here. Yeah.

I guess I can like email. Call club or something.

Okay. Okay, I will plan to email golf club. It's good. And figure out something to write. Feels like this will be one of the one of the week links in my thesis. Okay. Okay, so there will be some chunks that's like talking about dependent types and.

You won't you want to make a similar introduction and motivation for every major feature that leaked into interesting and significant challenges in the work you presents.

Yeah, so I guess the it feels like the two main.

Like two main features that I'm going to talk about are motivated by the Deborah and Criterion and using dependent types.

I think there's something about computation for efficiency being built into certain parts of the system, that is. Fundamental here having compiled my thoughts. Yeah. I feel like that that's sort of runs through both of them or something. So we're sorry that like runs through both so I'm with my overall plan is that there'll be this introduction section, there'll be another section that like introduces call can talks about alike.

Survey of what performance issues and calls look like from a like bird's eye view. Okay, and then there'll be a section on.

1.B more transcript from Adam

I expect. In terms of where I expect to have trouble feels like I expect that. I'll have a lot of trouble making the technical details of the rewriter the targeted right level.

And I'll have trouble sort of weaving all of the different parts together coherently.

Because of what to be feels like it's sort of inherent. Between the category theory part and the the article is very important yeah. I feel like. Like I like the current way that I'm dealing with that of like we're going to look at like two completely different parts of the system that like overlapping little bit and how you solve them or like ways to solve them and like one of them is convergent.

And then the other one is or like one of them is conversion and the root of the issue is dependent types and then the other one is ah. Program transformation and rewriting in the root of the issue is this separation between the trusted code base and the parts that you freely optimize.

Okay. And like, Ah in the conversion that there's like a couple solutions one of them is that is basically all the way on the never call conversion end of things and the other one is on the like shove everything into the type level and this is where the like the amber efficient computation shows up and then in the the program transformation and rewriting section the solution that we're using is the shove everything into the piano.

Okay.

Did you bitch you reification in your little walk-through? I did not but I expect the the. Program transformation section is going to or like the program transformation chapter is going to split and will have. For like we'll have a bunch of sections and one of them will be on like.

Proof by reflection and then another one will be on like reification and some part of that will be on reification by parametricity. It's probably the case of the content from that paper as long enough that it shouldn't just be one section within a chapter. It's the reader. Feel happy about making a progress if you don't have evidence long chapters.

Length of an independent research paper as a good standard for roughly how long a chapter can get I could instead of calling them chapters call them like half parts yeah and I'm beneath that have chapters and have like perk introduction that has the like true introduction and then the like here is called and performance issues in call and then part conversion.

And then part.

I don't know what to call the next word. It's not you're writing in production. I mean, maybe it's rewriting in reduction but it's also like it also covers fruit by reflection in general, but if you're general pattern is apart of corresponds to a problem and then that treatment of each problem you introduce a solution including the background for it then makes sense to me, then you'd have reflection be introduced within there well within the first portion be conversion, it should be API design or something, okay?

Yeah, I could do that. Oh so API design is a part and then in part that's on rewriting and reduction.

With chapters on. The like introduce the problem the talk about proof by reflection talk about reification and reification by parametricity.

And then talk about the rewriter and then your like talk about the performance of the rewriter and the like broad strokes of it and then talk about the technical details and challenges and implementing the rewriter and then there's like a part conclusion.

That talks about the like let's look back on on performance over the past decade and talk and see where we've like made strides and what this can say about future proof assistance and then also look forward and be like here's the like next challenged tackle and performance of previous systems like call.

Yeah. Sounds good to me. Cool was that the level of detail you were looking for here home.

I think I. To the part that I feel most fuzzy on still is the introduction, oh.

I could go into more detail and tell you it feels like I've given a good level of detail of the outline, okay, oh.

Except it feels like I still don't know how to do the introduction or split it up. Okay, so you want to drill down I think I want to drill down more on the introduction unless you think it's better to save the introduction part for later. Do we have anything higher priority by later?

I meant after I read the other parts of the thesis or something, okay? You try to productively use the remaining time in this meeting and if you don't have a better idea of what to do, we should talk about. The only other idea of that I have for what to do is to tell you more bits of the story for from the other parts.

When it sounds like you're much more confident that you have that story inside you. Yeah, it feels like I'm I'm like still a little bit fuzzy, but I like every time I tell that it gets more clear and I feel confident that this will continue to be the pattern.

Whereas for the introduction, I feel like Like every time I tell it it's completely different and. It's not getting any more clear. You know, most people these things don't take shape until they're actually writing. You didn't necessarily expect to reach it fixed point by speaking it over and over again.

Yeah that way I feel like I'm I'm trying out a methodology of this like recording and using transcripts. Yeah and.

Then like taking the transcripts and putting them into tech and polishing them and soon it might be the case that's speaking it. Is closer to writing. Okay the way I'm trying to approach this.

1.C more Adam transcript

So tell me the story of land called Intro. Okay, so. One cold in true has. Two three chapters.

It feels like I I know how to end the introduction more than I know how to start it. How do you end it? Oh so I ended with a the like final chapter in the introduction is a sort of a painting of where map of like. This is what performance and caulk looks like.

1.D more Adam transcript

Ah. Okay, so things that need to go in the earlier parts. What are what is proof assistant and what is cock? To proud criterion.

Whatever dependent types. Maybe like what is what is conversion what is or I don't know if I introduce conversion on the here if I save it for later. Should you included what is a proof assistant but you didn't include why do we care about them, okay, maybe you all said mind.

I mean, I do have it in mind but I didn't have it in mind here idea why do we care about purpose systems, what are they already been used for was the basis of confidence that this is a painful tool? So this is like like look at all the prior work things that.

Shouldn't shouldn't less literally yeah.

And then why do we care about performance and purpose systems?

I do worry that there is prior work that I'm not going to find on performance improvement systems. I feel like I'm not currently aware of much other than maybe now there's. I think there's like making. I feel like there's some things that like touch on performance, that's like. Canonical structures for less ad hoc automation and.

The maybe some of burglaries stuff on reflection. If yep stars not raise and so forth native stuff.

Yeah.

I can't explain to you don't exhausted literature search there myself, okay. I shouldn't it's done some time it's returned alert literature yeah. I'm spending a few hours trying to find some other things out there. I remember what I did that with a much smaller time parameter than a few hours right before the poll deadline.

I found this this paper from the the Isabel crowd doing allows him with things and, Wasn't the ideal time to realize that yeah for the the rewriter paper yeah, yeah. Apparently we just never done a web search before for. Something like rewriting normalization by calculation proof assistance came up pretty quickly, yeah.

I feel like we ran into a similar issue with pressures and that I dove into implementing part series without having read any of literature on pursuers.

So what's these? Push down literature search. Early in the writing process this time even if it's too late to be early in the research process, you know. I will in to do that, okay?

Happy set enough about chapter one. I don't think so. I think we've like thrown a bunch of things out but I like and like I know how to say a little bit about each of them, okay, but I don't I don't know how to say enough about or like I don't know what is enough about each of them some of them.

I don't know how to say enough about them and I definitely don't know how to weave them into a story. While you're trying to introduce main performance element aspects of performance metal and aspects of. Particular. Design philosophy using caulk in some related systems, you're trying to explain why they were introduced originally.

And something of the challenges for the user that they introduced.

Were trying we need to keep our focus on not having this come across as here's a system that someone threw at us and we figured out how to use it well. That could be the nature of the experiment we ran to answer larger design questions, but we have we want to keep relating back to the larger questions.

I feel like when I when I try to imagine the intricate trend I keep running into the problem where. I can like. Say a lot of things and eventually I'll get to where I want to go, but. The it feels like I'm going to leave the reader not knowing what we're doing for the chapter or two.

That's good it's good it's it's good relative to what's possible. What we're doing is so technical that we need to introduce a lot of background before anyone can appreciate it.

I feel like it would be good to give them a sense and maybe even like part of me wants to be like we should give them a sense in the first paragraph that we're like, I don't know dealing with performance issues and verified in life. Making. Systems not have bugs or something okay, yeah if we're just literally putting that phrase into the first paragraphs.

Sounds plausible. So that would evangelize more detail. I've been something that's like roughly it feels like sort of what I'm want to do is I want to orient the reader. I want to be like here here's what here's the broad thing of what we're going to look at and I want that and I don't know the first sentence the first paragraph.

That worries the like first sentence of the second paragraph. And then I want to like introduce some amount of context and then be like okay now that you have this context. I can orient you better like here's a better version of what we're going to be doing and then that paves the way for more context and then I can be like, okay now that you have this more context.

Like here's an even better version of what we're going to be doing and either that will be the last iteration or one more iteration and be like okay now that you have all of the context now I can actually start talking about what we're doing you just need to give yourself permission to write low-polity texts ready to revise it later, ah feels like a skill that I've never learned when I'm very handy one.

It feels like so the skill that I do have is like talk to someone with a low quality

explanation, okay, and then as they express confusion revise on that. And it feels like that's a suddenly different skill yeah. It's just really hard to get oh you work your way up to complex information if you're just speaking it.

There's a reason we use written explanations, what do you mean? Working memories not sufficient to. Receive a complex idea just by listening to someone talk with no other visual aids up. So it may be that you're. By forcing yourself to use the conversational medium, you're so eliminating you're the set of what you could possibly convey you for you restricted your attention to such easy things and you feel like you're making progress, but oh.

It feels like the things that I can convey to the conversational medium or enough to get me to the point where I'm comfortable writing details or something, okay? Like it feels like like we have the rewriting paper and like, Even if I throw out the introduction bits of it.

I feel like I should be able to get to the point where I should be able to get up to the meat of it with the conversational medium and then just take the written made of it. I feel like you might need to point to code examples to do that.

I could believe that.

It feels like I'm floundering much earlier in the process.

Like I'm floundering that the orient the reader step. You know.

Tempted to just try again with the. Telling you that to know that I have this picture about what I'm trying to do with the introduction which I did not have before okay attempted to just try again to give you the story of the introduction, okay for minutes give you as much as I can give you in three minutes, let's do it, okay, so.

Story is that Jesus is going to look at. How.

We're looking at verified or at getting systems that don't have bugs in them and how to. Be performant when doing this what's hard about being performant and like how to. Succeed you haven't mentioned a aspect of foundational tools that a small trusted basis. I think that is central to this.

Depends on how you interpret it says it's not having buck you might be worried about bugs in the fall methods tools. Which case perhaps this is the unified. Oh people could use the nudge with a more explicit framing. So, I feel like I want that to be in the.

Non leave like super initial contacts but in the in the like background after the first contact setting that's like, okay the way that we're going to the like tools that we're

using for not forgetting systems without bugs are proof assistance and these are foundational tools and here's this large body of work that's about how this has been useful and like why this is a reasonable way to get systems without bugs make sense as a buildup principle for the introduction.

I think throughout most of the paper you want the top-level frame of the problem people's minds to be fun. Damentally about foundational tools. Yeah, I think I'm going to.

Like. I think by paragraph three. I want to stop talking about or will. Yeah, I feel like by something around paragraph three of the introduction. I want to like like we're not. We're not talking about other ways of getting systems without bugs, we're talking about proofs. And purposes those sorts of foundational tools, okay?

And.

I feel like now I need to say something about performance and I don't know what to say.

Can't use the tools. I don't get what's that's kind of the maybe I just say that oh and then.

So I'm tempted here to be like okay and like this is this is what makes performance in pure physicists different but I feel like. You're suggesting from earlier was don't do that here. Like like my story wasn't compelling enough about why performance is bad and purpose. I think talking about this dope the proof system is this organism we found in the jungle we're going to tell you what's why isn't how you deal with it isn't near this convincing as talking about a fundamental trade-off between flexibility and trust.

Okay, so it goes here is where I. Want to introduce the grind criteria.

And I feel like then I want to introduce dependent types and maybe this is very.

Um and that. I'll need to like pull cockclub or something. And then I feel like now I want to reorient it's also three o'clock. Okay, oh and then I want to like reorient where. Like what we're going to be doing or something. Like spiral back to the.

So we're looking at. Performance improvement systems and these two issues you're going to generate. Like broad swaths of the. System where performance issues occur and I'll be talking about. What the performance issues look like and also ways to solve them. And then after that I get more context on.

In cock here is this palette of performance issues and like what they look like okay, so that seemed like a good introduction sketch. That level of abstraction you have

my. Cult thanks sure. I'm assuming that you don't want to have any input into this strategy.

1.E Transcript bits from Talking with Rajee

High level story:

Coq and proof assistance are important. Performance in them is important, especially at scale. Performance engineering in proof assistants has some unique challenges that don't show up in other programming languages.

And I want to paint a picture of what the unique challenges are. There are two main areas in the existing system that I want to call attention to, in regards to performance bottlenecks. I will describe them, and describe the performance issues, and propose some reasons about why there might be performance bottlenecks, and describe solutions for them. And maybe also there'll be another section that has some miscellaneous other performance bottlenecks.

[**TODO:** where does this description of Coq's design go?]

1.F Coq's design

Coq is split into two parts.

There's the part of the system that is called the kernel or the trusted code base. Once you get a proof this part will be like "yup, I believe the proof" or like "nope your proof is bad." And then there's the other part that is like "here's magic and it will make proof for you." You're like "I have an arithmetic expression please prove that it's true" and there's a bit in this other part that's like "I know how to prove arithmetic expressions" and it gets the arithmetic expression and then it generates a certificate or proof that this other trusted part checks. If the part generating the arithmetic proof is wrong then the users come complaining to you that you have a bug. If the part checking the proofs is wrong, then you don't see the bug and now suddenly your users can prove anything they want. And the system is no longer trustworthy right and so for that bit of it you need to be very careful with any changes you make.

[**TODO:** this chapter]

Chapter 2

The Performance Landscape in Type-Theoretic Proof Assistants

2.1 The Story

[**TODO: come up with a better name for this section**] The purpose of this chapter is to convince the reader that the issue of performance in proof assistants is non-trivial in ways that differ from performance bottlenecks in non-dependently-typed languages. I intend to do this by first sketching out what I see as the main difference between performance issues in dependently-typed proof assistants vs performance issues in other languages, and then supporting this claim with a palette of real performance issues that have arisen in Coq.

The widespread commonsense in performance engineering[**commonsense-perf-engineering-order-of** is that good performance optimization happens in a particular order: there is no use micro-optimizing code if you are implementing an algorithm with unacceptable performance characteristics; imagine trying to optimize the pseudorandom number generator used in bogosort [**bogosort**], for example.¹ Similarly, there is no use trying to find or create a better algorithm if the problem you’re solving is more complicated than it needs to be; consider, for example, the difference between ray tracers and physics simulators. Ray tracers determine what objects can be seen from a given point essentially by drawing lines from the viewpoint to the object and seeing if it passes through any other object “in front of” it. Alternatively, one could provide a source of light waves and simulate the physical interaction of light with the various objects, to determine what images remain when the light arrives at a particular point. There’s no use trying to find an efficient algorithm for simulating quantum electrodynamics, though, if all you need to know is “which parts of which objects need to be drawn on the screen?”

¹Bogosort, whose name is a portmanteau of the words bogus and sort [**bogosort-name**], sorts a list by randomly permuting the list over and over until it is sorted.

One essential ingredient to allowing this division of concerns—between specifying the problem, picking an efficient algorithm, and optimizing the implementation of the algorithm—is knowledge of what a typical set of input looks like, and what the scope looks like. In Coq, and other dependently-typed proof assistants, this ingredient is missing. When sorting a list, we know that the length of the list and the initial ordering matter; for sorting algorithms that work for sorting lists with any type of elements, it generally doesn't matter, though, whether we're sorting a list of integers or colors or names. Furthermore, randomized datasets tend to be reasonably representative for list ordering, though we may also care about some special cases, such as already-sorted lists, nearly sorted lists, and lists in reverse-sorted order. We can say that sorting is always possible in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time, and that's a pretty good starting point.

In proof assistants, the domain is much larger: in theory, we want to be able to check any proof anyone might write. Furthermore, in dependently typed proof assistants, the worst-case behavior is effectively unbounded, because any provably terminating computation can be run at typechecking time. [TODO: cite <https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/12200>]

In fact, this issue already arises for compilers of mainstream programming languages. [TODO: literature search on perf of compiletime in mainstream compilers?] The C++ language, for example, has `constexpr` constructions that allow running arbitrary computation at compile-time, and it's well-known that C++ templates can incur a large compile-time performance overhead. [TODO: cite?] However, I claim that, in most languages, even as you scale your program, these performance issues are the exception rather than the rule. Most code written in C or C++ does not hit unbounded compile-time performance bottlenecks. Generally if you write code that compiles in a reasonable amount of time, as you scale up your codebase, your compile time will slowly creep up as well.

In Coq, however, the scaling story is very different. Frequently, users will cobble together code that works to prove a toy version of some theorem, or to verify a toy version of some program. By virtue of the fact that humans are impatient, the code will execute in reasonable time on the toy version. The user will then apply the same proof technique on a slightly larger example, and the proof-checking time will often be pretty similar. After scaling the input size a bit more, the proof-checking time will be noticeably slow—maybe it now takes a couple of minutes. Scaling the input just a tiny bit more, though, will result in the compiler not finishing even if you let it run for a day or more. This is what working in an exponential performance domain is like.

To put numbers on this, a project I was working on [TODO: cite fiat-crypto] involved generating C code to do arithmetic on very large numbers. The code generation was parameterized on the number of machine words needed to represent a single big integer. Our smallest toy example used two machine words; our largest—slightly



Figure 2-1: Timing of synthesizing subtraction

unrealistic—example used 17. The smallest toy example—two machine words—took about 14 seconds. Based on the the compile-time performance of about a hundred examples, we expect the largest example—17 machine words—would have taken over four thousand *millenia*! See Figure 2-1 and Figure 2-2. (Our primary non-toy test example used four machine words and took just under a minute; the biggest realistic example we were targeting was twice that size, at eight machine words, and took about 20 hours.)

Maybe, you might ask, were we generating unreasonable amounts of code? Each example using n machine words generated $3n$ lines of code. Furthermore, the actual code generation took less than 0.002% of the total time on the largest examples we tested (just 14 seconds out of about 211 hours). How can this be?

Our method involved two steps: first generate the code, then check that the generated code matches with what comes out of the verified code generator. This may seem a bit silly, but this is actually somewhat common; if you have a theorem that says “any code that comes out of this code generator satisfies this property”, you need a



Figure 2-2: Timing of synthesizing subtraction (log-scale)

proof that the code you feed into the theorem actually came out of the specified code generator, and the easiest way to prove this is, roughly, to tell the proof assistant to just check that fact for you. (It's possible to be more careful and not do the work twice, but this often makes the code a bit harder to read and understand, and is oftentimes pointless; premature optimization is the root of all evil, as they say.) Furthermore, because you often don't want to fully compute results when checking that two things are equal—just imagine having to compute the factorial of 1000 just to check that $1000!$ is equal to itself—the default method for checking that the code came out of the code generator is different from the method we used to compute the code in the first place.

The fix itself is quite simple, only 21 characters long.² However, tracking down this solution was quite involved, requiring the following pieces:

1. A good profiling tool for proof scripts (see ??). This is a standard component of a performance engineer's toolkit, but when I started my PhD, there was no adequate profiling infrastructure for Coq. While such a tool is essential for performance engineering in all domains, what's unusual about dependently-typed proof assistants, I claim, is that essentially *every* codebase that needs to scale runs into performance issues, and furthermore these issues are frequently total blockers for development because so many of them are exponential in nature.
2. Understanding the details of how Coq works under-the-hood. Conversion, the ability to check if two types or terms are the same, is one of the core components of any dependently-typed proof assistant. Understanding the details of how conversion works is generally not something users of a proof assistant want to worry about; it's like asking C programmers to keep in mind the size of `gcc`'s maximum nesting level for `#include`'d files³ when writing basic programs. It's certainly something that advanced users need to be aware of, but it's not something that comes up frequently.
3. Being able to run the proof assistant in your head. When I looked at the conversion problem, I knew immediately what the most likely cause of the performance issue was. But this is because I've managed to internalize most of how Coq runs in my head. This might seem reasonable at a glance; one expects to have to understand the system being optimized in order to optimize it. But I've managed to learn the details of what Coq is doing—including performance characteristics—basically without having to read the source code at all! This is akin to, say, being able to learn how `gcc` represents various bits of C code, what transformations it does in what order, and what performance characteristics these transformations have, just from using `gcc` to compile C

²Strategy 1 [Let_In]. for those who are curious.

³It's 200, for those who are curious. [TODO: cite <https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-7.5.0/cpp/Implementation-limits.html>]

code and reading the error messages it gives you. These are details that should not need to be exposed to the user, but because dependent type theory is so complicated—complicated enough that it’s generally assumed that users will get *line-by-line interactive feedback from the compiler* while developing, the numerous design decisions and seemingly reasonable defaults and heuristics lead to subtle performance issues. Note, furthermore, that this performance issue is essentially about the algorithm used to implement conversion, and is not even sensible when only talking about only the spec of what it means for two terms to be convertible. [TODO: incorporate Andres’ suggestions:] you running the typechecker in your head is essentially the statement that if the entire implementation is part of the spec, it is possible to engineer better, and something close to this has been necessary in practice. the research direction you are advocating is finding a simpler performance-aware spec (perhaps by moving around interfaces or etc; my thought is that maybe we just want to get rid of the kernel and trust the proof engine).

4. Knowing how to tweak the built-in defaults for parts of the system which most users expect to be able to treat as black-boxes.

Note that even after this fix, the performance is *still* exponential! However, the performance is good enough that we deemed it not currently worth digging into the profile to understand the remaining bottlenecks. See Figure 2-3 and Figure 2-4.

[TODO: Some sort of summary of argument-so-far here]

To finish off the argument about slowness in dependently-typed proof assistants, I want to present four axes of performance bottlenecks. These axes are by no means exhaustive, but, in my experience, most interesting performance bottlenecks scale as a super-linear factor of one or more of these axes.

Misc Fragments

[TODO: Find a place for this (h/t conversation with Andres)]: because we have a kernel and a proof engine on top of it, you need to simultaneously optimize the kernel and the proof engine to see performance improvements; if the kernel API doesn’t give you good enough performance on primitives, then there’s no hope to optimizing the proof engine, but at the same time if the proof engine is not optimized right, improvements in the performance of the kernel API don’t have noticeable impact.

[TODO: find a place for this:] In many domains, good performance optimization can be done locally. It’s rarely the case that disparate parts of the codebase must be simultaneously optimized to see any performance improvement. However, in proof assistants satisfying the de Bruijn criterion, there are many seemingly reasonable

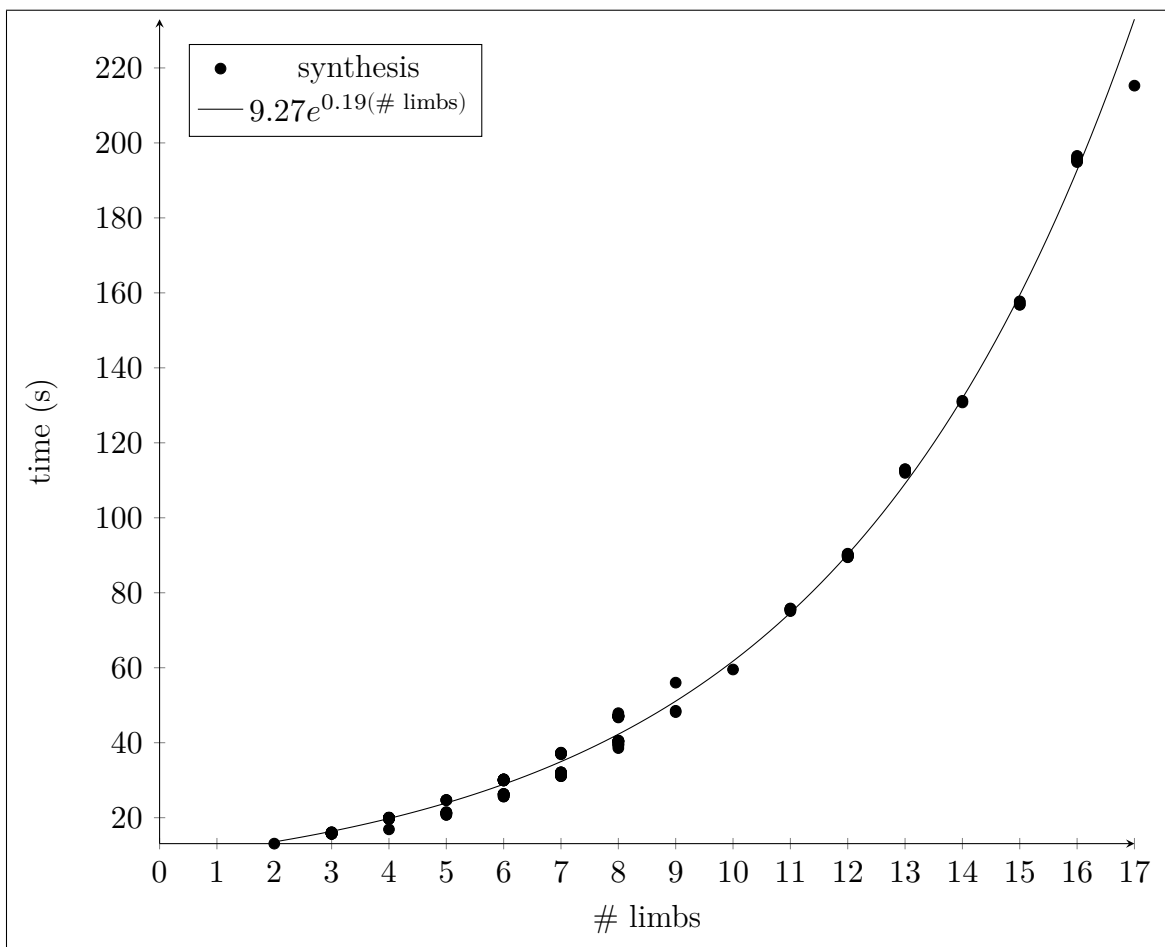


Figure 2-3: Timing of synthesizing subtraction after fixing the bottleneck



Figure 2-4: Timing of synthesizing subtraction after fixing the bottleneck (log-scale)

implementation choices that can be made for the kernel which make performance-optimizing the proof engine next to impossible. Worse, if performance optimization is done incrementally, to avoid needless premature optimization, then it can be the case that performance-optimizing the kernel has effectively no visible impact; the most efficient proof engine design for the slower kernel might be inefficient in ways that prevent optimizations in the kernel from showing up in actual use cases, because simple proof engine implementations tend to avoid the performance bottlenecks of the kernel while simultaneously shadowing them with bottlenecks with similar performance characteristics.

[**TODO: incorporate Andres' suggestions**] I like the last two sentences. I would instead lead with something along the lines of “in many domains, the performance challenges have been studied and understood, resulting in useful decompositions of the problem into subtasks that can be optimized independently.” “in proof assistants, it doesn’t look like anyone has even tried” :P. but e.g. signal processing was a huge mess too before the fast fourier transform. coq abstractions are mostly accidents of history. no other system has a clear performance-conscious story for how these interfaces should be designed either.

2.2 The Four Axes

I now present four major axes of performance. These are not comprehensive, but after extensive experience with Coq, most performance bottlenecks scaled super-linearly as a function of at least one of these axes. [**TODO: introduce this section better**]

2.2.1 The Size of the Type

We start with one of the simplest axes.

Suppose we want to prove a conjunction of n things, say, $\text{True} \wedge \text{True} \wedge \dots \wedge \text{True}$. For such a simple theorem, we want the size of the proof, and the time- and memory-complexity of checking it, to be linear in n .

Recall from Subsection 1.2.2 that we want a separation between the small trusted part of the proof assistant and the larger untrusted part. The untrusted part generates certificates, which in dependently typed proof assistants are called terms, which the trusted part, the kernel, checks.

[**TODO: Mention possibility of not building proof terms at all somewhere**] Andrew Appel said via private correspondence on May 7, 2020, 7:39 PM:

There’s some work on typechecking LF, in the Twelf system, where there can be performance bottlenecks if you’re not careful.

The most glaringly obvious performance bottleneck in Coq is that it builds proof terms, when one should really use the futuristic technique of using data abstraction, in the type system, to distinguish “proposition” from “theorem”; as done in that state-of-the-art system, Edinburgh LCF. And presumably HOL, HOL light, Isabelle/HOL, etc.

The obvious certificate to prove a conjunction $A \wedge B$ is to hold a certificate a proving A and a certificate b proving B . In Coq, this certificate is called `conj` and it takes four parameters: A , B , $a : A$, and $b : B$. Perhaps you can already spot the problem.

To prove a conjunction of n things, we end up repeating the type n times in the certificate, resulting in a term that is quadratic in the size of the type. We see in Figure 2-5 the time it takes to do this in Coq’s tactic mode via **repeat constructor**. If we are careful to construct the certificate manually without duplicating work, we see that it takes linear time for Coq to build the certificate and quadratic time for Coq to check the certificate; see Figure 2-6. [TODO: improve data collection on perf test] [TODO: make a note about more complicated types causing scaling factors to be worse, and not just impacting the leaves]

Note that for small, and even medium-sized examples, it’s pretty reasonable to do duplicative work. It’s only when we reach very large examples that we start hitting non-linear behavior.

There are two obvious solutions for this problem:

1. We can drop the type parameters from the `conj` certificates.
2. We can implement some sort of sharing, where common subterms of the type only exist once in the representation.

Dropping Type Parameters: Nominal vs. Structural Typing

The first option requires that the proof assistant implement structural typing [structural-typing] rather than nominal typing [nominal-typing]. [TODO: Find a place for this note:] Note that it doesn’t actually require structural; we can do it with nominal typing if we enforce everywhere that we can only compare terms who are known to be the same type, because not having structural typing results in having a single kernel term with multiple non-unifiable types. [TODO: maybe look into TAPL] [TODO: explain structural and nominal typing more] Morally, the reason for this is that if we have an inductive record type [TODO: have we explained inductive types yet?] [TODO: have we explained records yet?] whose fields do not constrain the parameters of the inductive type family [TODO: have we explained parameters vs indices and inductive type families yet?], then we need to consider different instantiations of the same inductive type family to be convertible. That is, if we have a phantom record such as [TODO: mention where the name “phantom” comes from?]

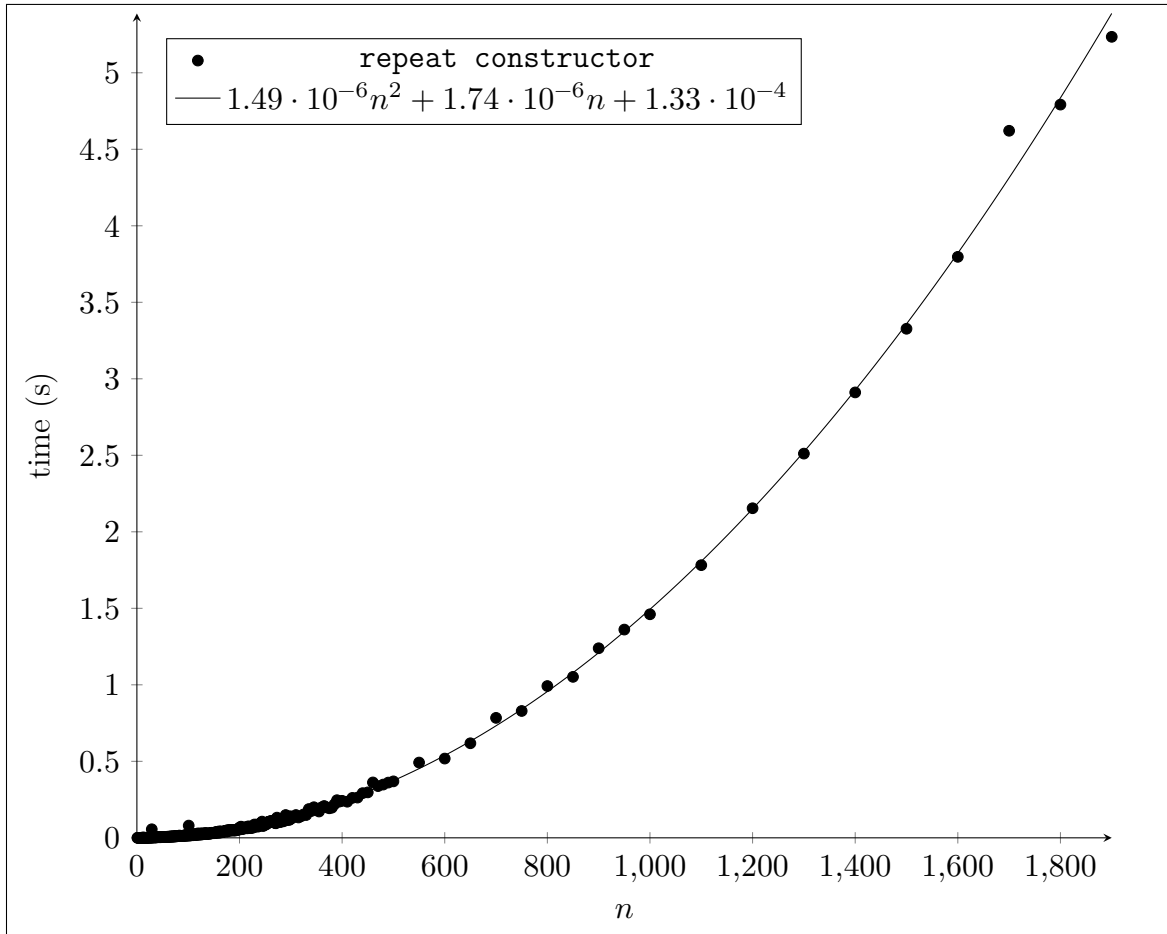


Figure 2-5: Timing of **repeat constructor** to prove a conjunction of n Trues

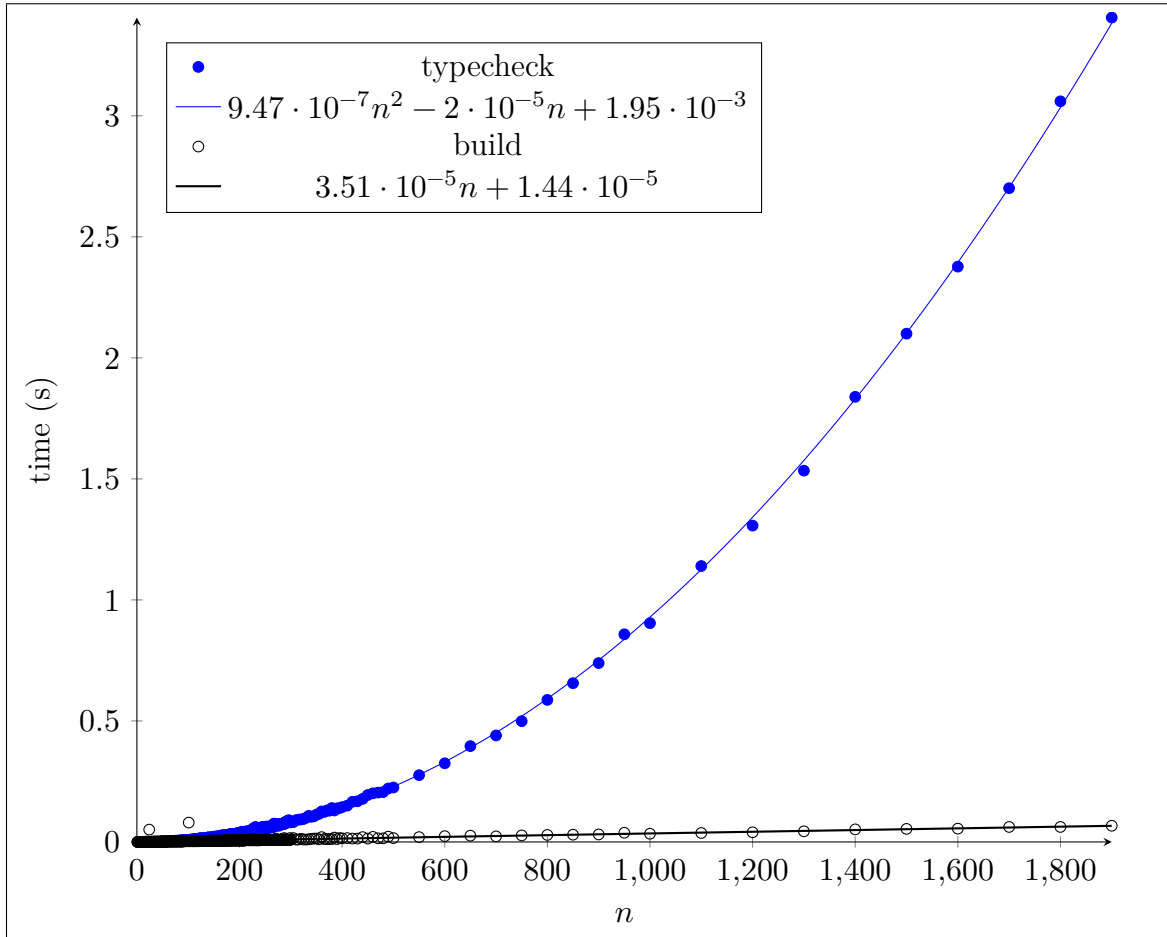


Figure 2-6: Timing of manually building and typechecking a certificate to prove a conjunction of n Trues using Ltac2

```
Record Phantom (A : Type) := phantom {}.
```

and our implementation does not include `A` as an argument to `phantom`, then we must consider `phantom` to be both of type `Phantom nat` and `Phantom bool`, even though `nat` and `bool` are not the same. I have requested this feature in [<https://github.com/coq/coq/issues>]. Note, however, that sometimes it is important for such phantom types to be considered distinct when doing type-level programming. **[TODO: Come up with better justification for having nominal typing available?]**

Sharing

The alternative to eliminating the duplicative arguments is to ensure that the duplication is at-most constant sized. There are two ways to do this: either the user can explicitly share subterms so that the size of the term is in fact linear in the size of the goal, or the proof assistant can ensure maximal sharing of subterms **[TODO: explain this better]**.

There are two ways for the user to share subterms: using let-binders, and using function abstraction. For example, rather than writing

```
@conj True (and True (and True True)) I (@conj True (and True True) I (@conj True True
```

and having roughly n^2 occurrences⁴ of `True` when we are trying to prove a conjunction of n `Trues`, the user can instead write

```
let T0 : Prop := True in
let v0 : T0   := I in
let T1 : Prop := and True T0 in
let v1 : T1   := @conj True T0 I v0 in
let T2 : Prop := and True T1 in
let v2 : T2   := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2
```

which has only n occurrences of `True`. Alternatively, the user can write

```
(λ (T0 : Prop) (v0 : T0),
  (λ (T1 : Prop) (v1 : T1),
    (λ (T2 : Prop) (v2 : T2), @conj True T2 I v2)
    (and True T1) (@conj True T1 I v1))
    (and True T0) (@conj True T0 I v0))
True I
```

⁴The exact count is $n(n+1)/2 - 1$.

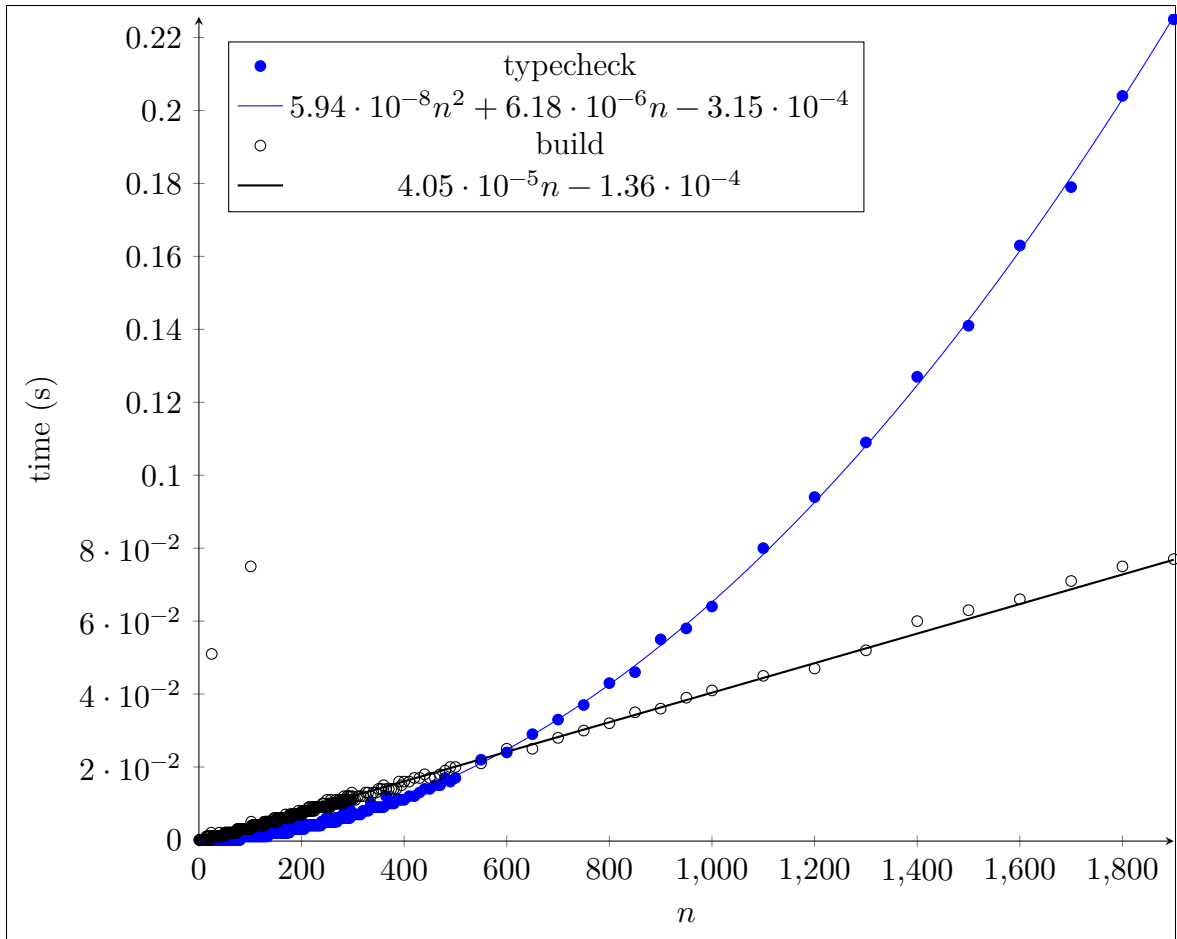


Figure 2-7: Timing of manually building and typechecking a certificate to prove a conjunction of n Trues using `let`-binders using Ltac2[**TODO: find pdf of manual for styling**]

Unfortunately, both of these incur quadratic typechecking cost, even though the size of the term is linear. See Figure 2-7 and Figure 2-8. [**TODO: improve data collection on perf test**]

Recall that the typing rules for λ and `let` are as follows:[**TODO: cite appendix with typing rules of Coq?**] [**TODO: maybe look in <https://github.com/achlipala/frap> and/or TAPL by Benjamin C. Pierce for how to render typing rules**] [**QUESTION FOR ADAM: What's the suggested way of pretty-printing typing rules?**] [**QUESTION FOR ADAM: Which way do substitution brackets go?**] [**QUESTION FOR ADAM: What convention should we use for typing rules with regard to things being types? Maybe just copy the HoTT book?**]

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \Gamma \vdash A \text{ type} \quad \Gamma, x:A \vdash B \text{ type} \\
 \Gamma, x:A \vdash f:B \\
 \hline
 \Gamma \vdash (\lambda (x:A), f) : \forall x:A, B
 \end{array}$$

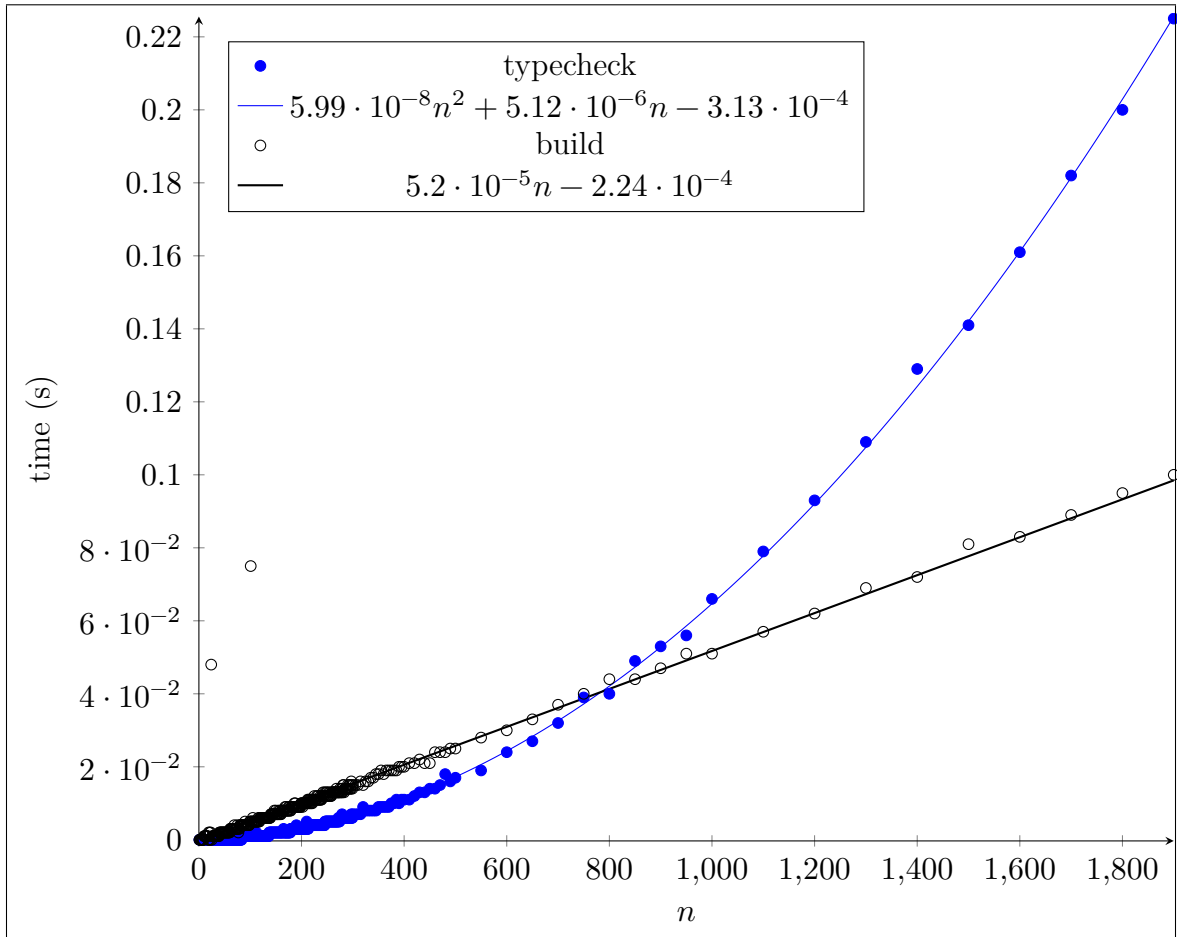


Figure 2-8: Timing of manually building and typechecking a certificate to prove a conjunction of n Trues using abstraction and application using Ltac2

$$\begin{array}{l}
\Gamma \vdash A \text{ type} \quad \Gamma, x:A \vdash B \text{ type} \\
\Gamma \vdash f : \forall x:A, B \\
\Gamma \vdash y : A \\
\hline
\Gamma \vdash f y : B[x/y]
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
\Gamma \vdash A \text{ type} \\
\Gamma \vdash y : A \\
\Gamma, x:A:=y \vdash B \text{ type} \\
\Gamma, x:A:=y \vdash f : B \\
\hline
\Gamma \vdash (\text{let } x : A := y \text{ in } f) : B[x/y]
\end{array}$$

Let us consider the inferred types for the intermediate terms when typechecking the **let** expression:

- We infer the type and True T2 for the expression

```
@conj True T2 I v2
```

- We perform the no-op substitution of v2 into that type to type the expression

```
let v2 : T2 := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2
```

- We substitute T2 := and True T1 into this type to get the type and True (and True T1) for the expression

```
let T2 : Prop := and True T1 in
let v2 : T2 := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2
```

- We perform the no-op substitution of v1 into this type to get the type for the expression

```
let v1 : T1 := @conj True T0 I v0 in
let T2 : Prop := and True T1 in
let v2 : T2 := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2
```

- We substitute T1 := and True T0 into this type to get the type and True (and True (and True T0) for the expression

```
let T1 : Prop := and True T0 in
let v1 : T1 := @conj True T0 I v0 in
```

```

let T2 : Prop := and True T1 in
let v2 : T2    := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2

```

- We perform the no-op substitution of `v0` into this type to get the type for the expression

```

let v0 : T0    := I in
let T1 : Prop := and True T0 in
let v1 : T1    := @conj True T0 I v0 in
let T2 : Prop := and True T1 in
let v2 : T2    := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2

```

- Finally, we substitute `T0 := True` into this type to get the type `and True (and True (and True` for the expression

```

let T0 : Prop := True in
let v0 : T0    := I in
let T1 : Prop := and True T0 in
let v1 : T1    := @conj True T0 I v0 in
let T2 : Prop := and True T1 in
let v2 : T2    := @conj True T1 I v0 in
@conj True T2 I v2

```

Note that we have performed linearly many substitutions into linearly-sized types, so unless substitution is constant time in size of the term being substituted, we incur quadratic overhead here. The story for function abstraction is similar. **[TODO: cite <https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/8232> maybe?]**

[TODO: Should we run through typechecking in more detail here?]

We again have two choices to fix this: either we can change the typechecking rules (which work just fine for small-to-medium-sized terms), or we can adjust typechecking to deal with some sort of pending substitution data, so that we only do substitution once.

[TODO: maybe cite <https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/11838>?]

[TODO: reference quadratic cbv here, which had a similar issue?]

[TODO: some sort of section division marker here?]

The proof assistant can also try to heuristically share subterms for us. Many proof assistants do some version of this, called *hashconsing*. **[TODO: explain and cite [hashconsing](#)?]**

However, hashconsing loses a lot of its benefit if terms are not maximally shared (and they almost never are), and can lead to very unpredictable performance when transformations unexpectedly cause a loss of sharing. **[TODO: cite hashconsing needing to be full to get perf benefit]** Furthermore, it's an open problem how to efficiently persist full hashconsing to disk in a way that allows for diamond dependencies. **[TODO: explain this more, find citation for hashconsing being hard with disk]** **[TODO: flesh out hashconsing section more]** **[TODO: maybe cite <https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/9028#issuecomment-600013284> about hashconsing being slow]**

2.2.2 The Size of the Term

Recall that Coq (and dependently typed proof assistants in general) have *terms* which serve as both programs and proofs. The essential function of a proof checker is to verify that a given term has a given type. We obviously cannot type-check a term in better than linear time in the size of the representation of the term.

Recall that we cannot place any hard bounds on complexity of typechecking a term, as terms as simple as `@eq_refl bool true` proving that the boolean `true` is equal to itself can also be typechecked as proofs of arbitrarily complex decision procedures returning success.

We might reasonably hope that typechecking problems which require no interesting computation can be completed in time linear in the size of the term and its type.

However, some seemingly reasonable decisions can result in typechecking taking quadratic time in the size of the term, as we saw in Section 2.2.1.

[TODO: maybe move some text from the sharing section to here?]

Even worse, typechecking can easily be unboundedly large in the size of the term when the typechecker chooses the wrong constants to unfold, even when very little work ought to be done.

[TODO: discussion of conversion checking, and conversion modulo delta-beta]

Consider the problem of typechecking `@eq_refl nat (fact 100) : @id nat (fact 100) = fact 100` where `fact` is the factorial function on natural numbers and `id` is the polymorphic identity function. **[TODO: should we define polymorphic identity function somewhere?]** If the typechecker either decides to unfold `id` before unfolding `fact`, or if it performs a breath-first search, then we get speedy performance. However, if the typechecker instead unfolds `id` *last*, then we end up computing the normal form of `100!`, which takes a long time and a lot of memory. See Figure 2-9.

Note that it is by no means obvious that the typechecker can meaningfully do anything about this. Breath-first search is significantly more complicated than depth-first, is

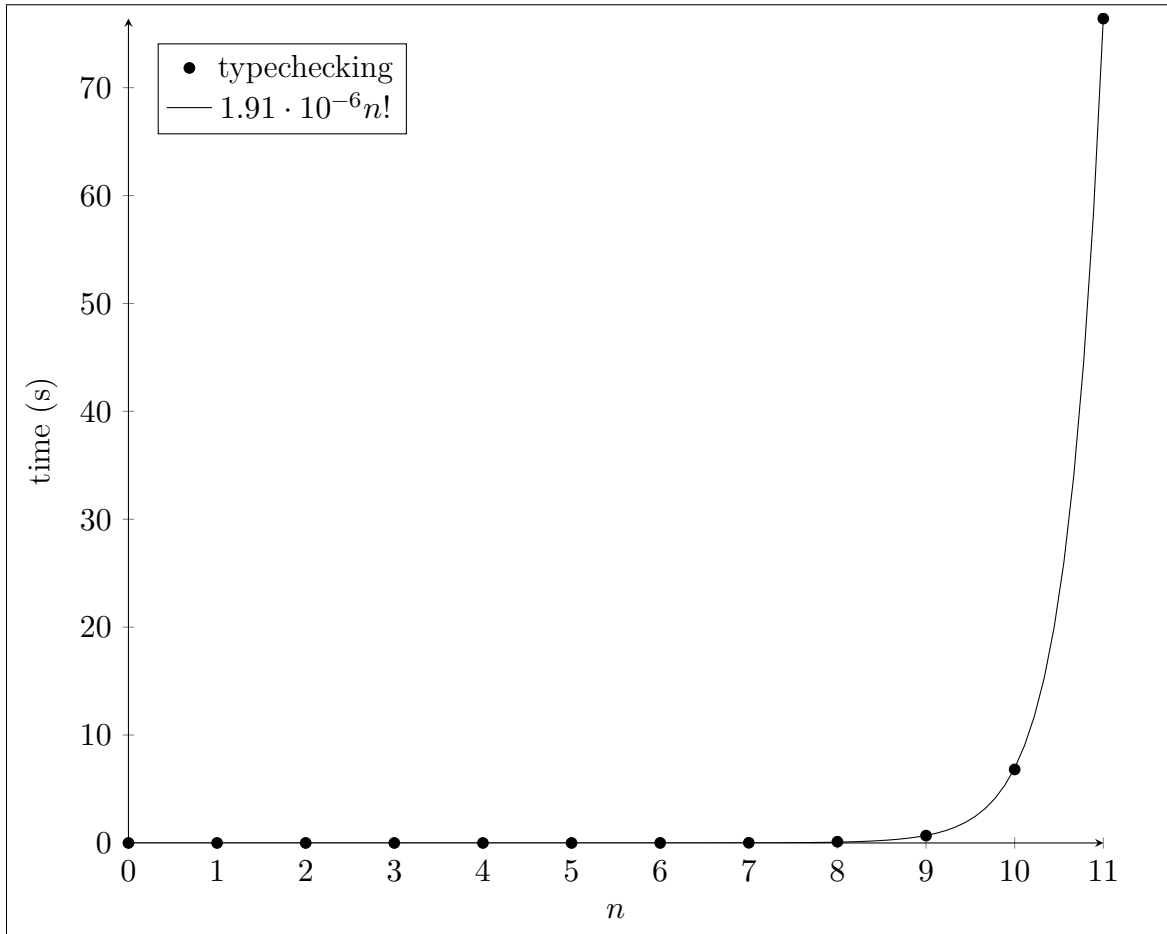


Figure 2-9: Timing of typechecking `@eq_refl nat (fact n) : @id nat (fact n) = fact n`

harder to write good heuristics for, can incur enormous space overheads, and can be massively slower in cases where there are many options and the standard heuristics for depth-first unfolding in conversion-checking are sufficient. Furthermore, the more heuristics there are to tune conversion-checking, the more “magic” the algorithm seems, and the harder it is to debug when the performance is inadequate.

As described in [TODO: reference above example about fiat-crypto], in fiat-crypto, we got exponential slowdown due to this issue, with an estimated overhead of over four millenia of extra typechecking time in the worst examples we were trying to handle.

[TODO: maybe forward reference to the number of abstraction barriers] [TODO: maybe include more about real-world fiat-crypto example here?]

2.2.3 The Number of Binders

This is a particular subcase of the above sections that we call out explicitly. Often there will be some operation (for example, substitution, lifting, context-creation) that needs to happen every time there is a binder, and which, when done naively, is linear in the size of the term or the size of the context. As a result, naïve implementations will often incur quadratic—or worse—overhead in the number of binders.

[TODO: make sure we’ve explained proof engine and Ltac by here]

Similarly, if there is any operation that is even linear rather than constant in the number of binders in the context, then any user operation in proof mode which must be done, say, for each hypothesis, will incur an overall quadratic-or-worse performance penalty.

The claim of this subsection is not that any particular application is inherently constrained by a performance bottleneck in the number of binders, but instead that it’s very, very easy to end up with quadratic-or-worse performance in the number of binders, and hence that this forms a meaningful cluster for performance bottlenecks in practice.

I will attempt to demonstrate this point with a palette of actual historical performance issues in Coq—some of which persist to this day—where the relevant axis was “number of binders.” None of these performance issues are insurmountable, but all of them are either a result of seemingly reasonable decisions, have subtle interplay with seemingly disparate parts of the system, or else are to this day still mysterious despite the work of developers to investigate them.

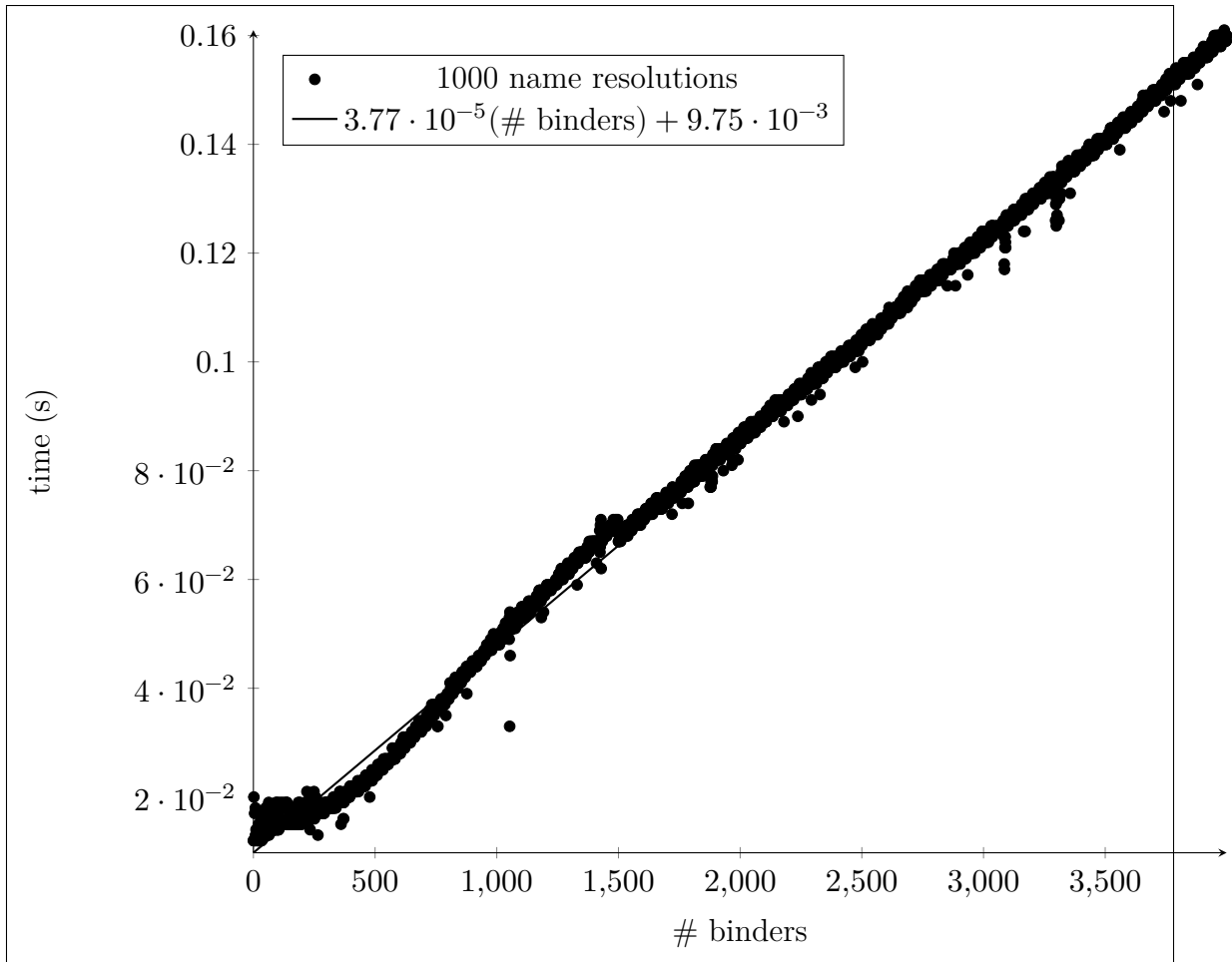


Figure 2-10: Timing of internalizing a name 1000 times under n binders

Name Resolution

One key component of interactive proof assistants is figuring out which constant is referred to by a given name. It may be tempting to keep the context in an array or linked list. However, if looking up which constant or variable is referred to by a name is $\mathcal{O}(n)$, then internalizing a term with n typed binders is going to be $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$, because we need to do name lookups for each binder. See #9582 and #9586.

See Figure 2-10 for the timing of name resolution in Coq. See Figure 2-11 for the effect on internalizing a lambda with n arguments.

[**TODO:** mention Coq version automatically, mention why we're using a different Coq version]

[**TODO:** Is this called internalization or is it called elaboration]

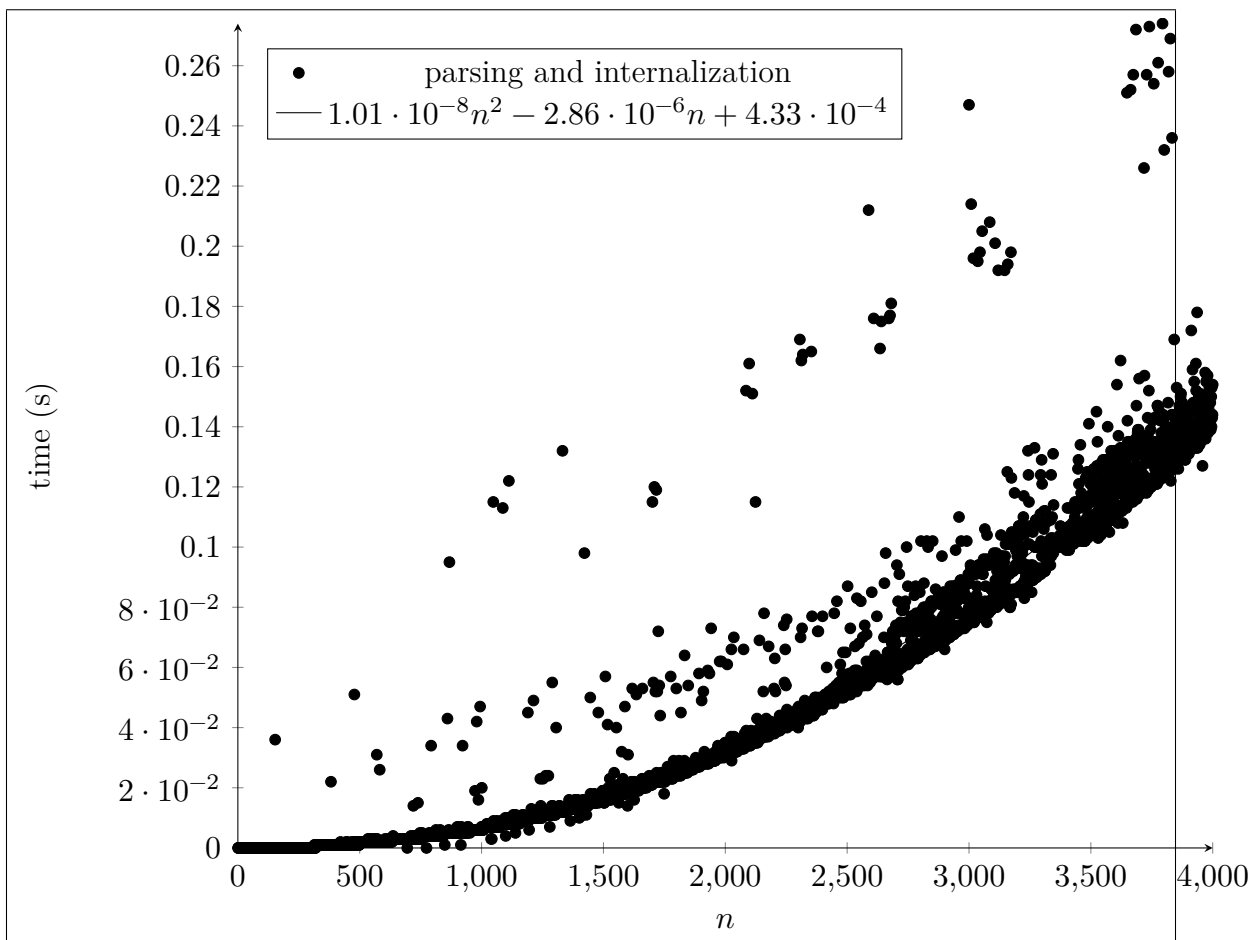


Figure 2-11: Timing of internalizing a function with n differently-named arguments of type True

Capture-Avoiding Substitution

If the user is presented with a proof engine interface where all context variables are named, then in general the proof engine must implement capture-avoiding substitution. For example, if the user wants to operate inside the hole in $(\lambda x, \text{let } y := x \text{ in } \lambda x, _)$, then the user needs to be able to talk about the body of y , which is not the same as the innermost x . However, if the α -renaming is even just linear in the existing context, then creating a new hole under n binders will take $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ time in the worst case, as we may have to do n renamings, each of which take time $\mathcal{O}(n)$. See #9582, perhaps also #8245 and #8237 and #8231.

This might be the cause of the difference in Figure 2-13 between having different names (which do not need to be renamed) and having either no name (requiring name generation) or having all binders with the same name (requiring renaming in *ev* substitutions).

[**TODO:** ADD PLOT: try to come up with a graph for renaming stuff] [**TODO:** ADD PLOT: check if confounders come up]

Quadratic Creation of Substitutions for Existential Variables

Recall [**TODO:** make sure that this is mentioned previously, and that we're not rehashing things too much] that when we separate the trusted kernel from the untrusted proof engine, we want to be able to represent not-yet-finished terms in the proof engine. The standard way to do this is to enrich the type of terms with an “existential variable” node, which stands for a term which will be filled later. [**TODO:** cite original idea for *ev*ars? (what is it?)] Such existential variables, or *ev*ars, typically exist in a particular context. That is, you have access to some hypotheses but not others when filling an *ev*ar.

Sometimes, reduction results in changing the context in which an *ev*ar exists. For example, if we want to β -reduce $(\lambda x, ?e_1) (S y)$, then the result is the *ev*ar $?e_1$ with $S y$ substituted for x .

There are a number of ways to represent substitution, and the choices are entangled with the choices of term representation.

Note that most substitutions are either identity or lifting substitutions. [**TODO:** define identity and lifting substitutions]

One popular representation is the locally nameless representation. [**locally-nameless**] [**TODO:** Justify it? Discuss other representations? Say why and how it's convenient?] However, if we use a locally nameless term representation, then finding a compact representation for identity and lifting substitutions is quite tricky. If the substitution representation takes $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time to create in a context of size n , then having a λ with n

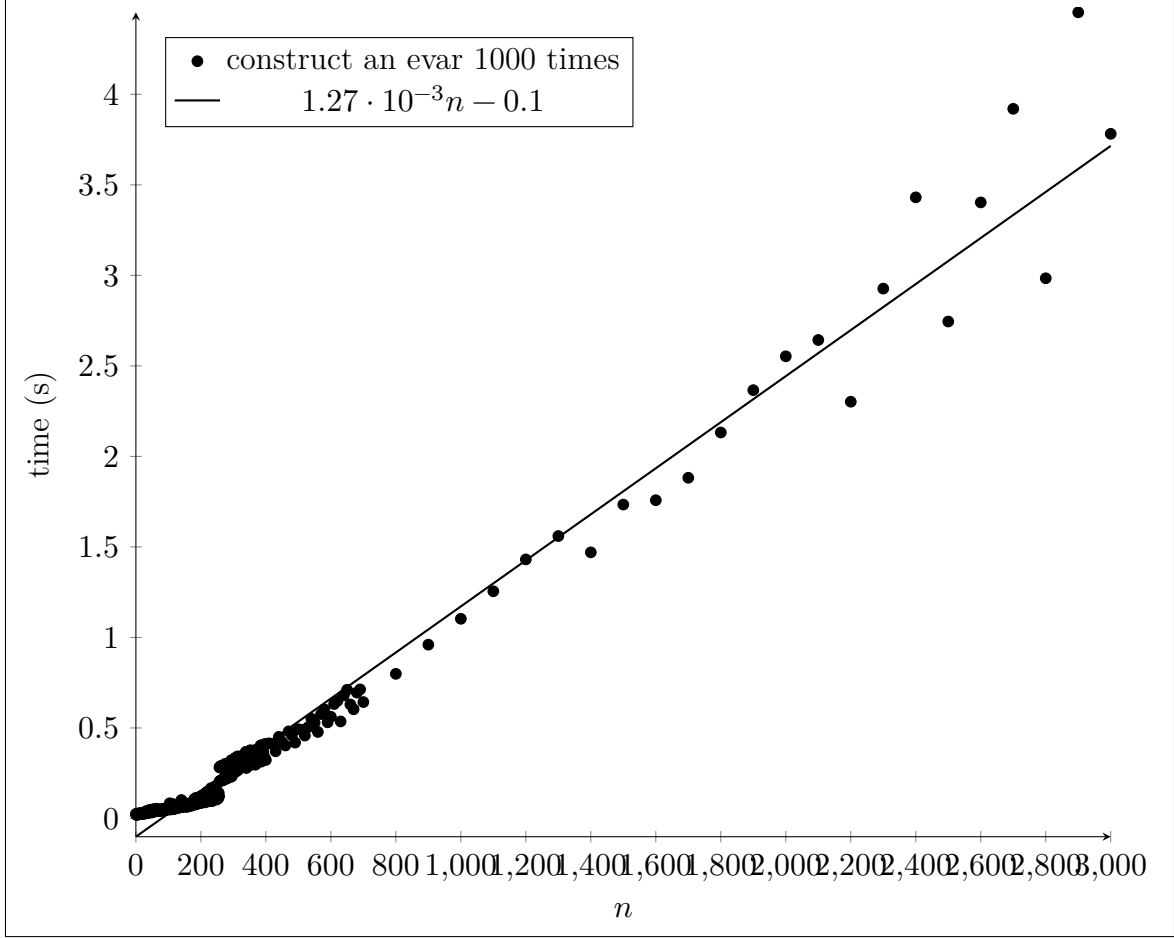


Figure 2-12: Timing of generating 1000 evvars in a context of size n

arguments whose types are not known takes $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ time, because we end up creating identity substitutions for n holes, with linear-sized contexts.

Note that fully nameless, i.e., de Bruijn term representations, do not suffer from this issue.

See #8237 and #11896 for a mitigation of some (but not all) issues.

See also Figure 2-12 and Figure 2-13.

Quadratic Substitution in Function Application

Consider the case of typechecking a non-dependent function applied to n arguments. If substitution is performed eagerly, following directly the rules of the type theory, **[TODO: cite the rules / reference an appendix]**, then typechecking is quadratic. This is because the type of the function is $\mathcal{O}(n)$, and doing substitution n times on a term of size $\mathcal{O}(n)$ is quadratic.

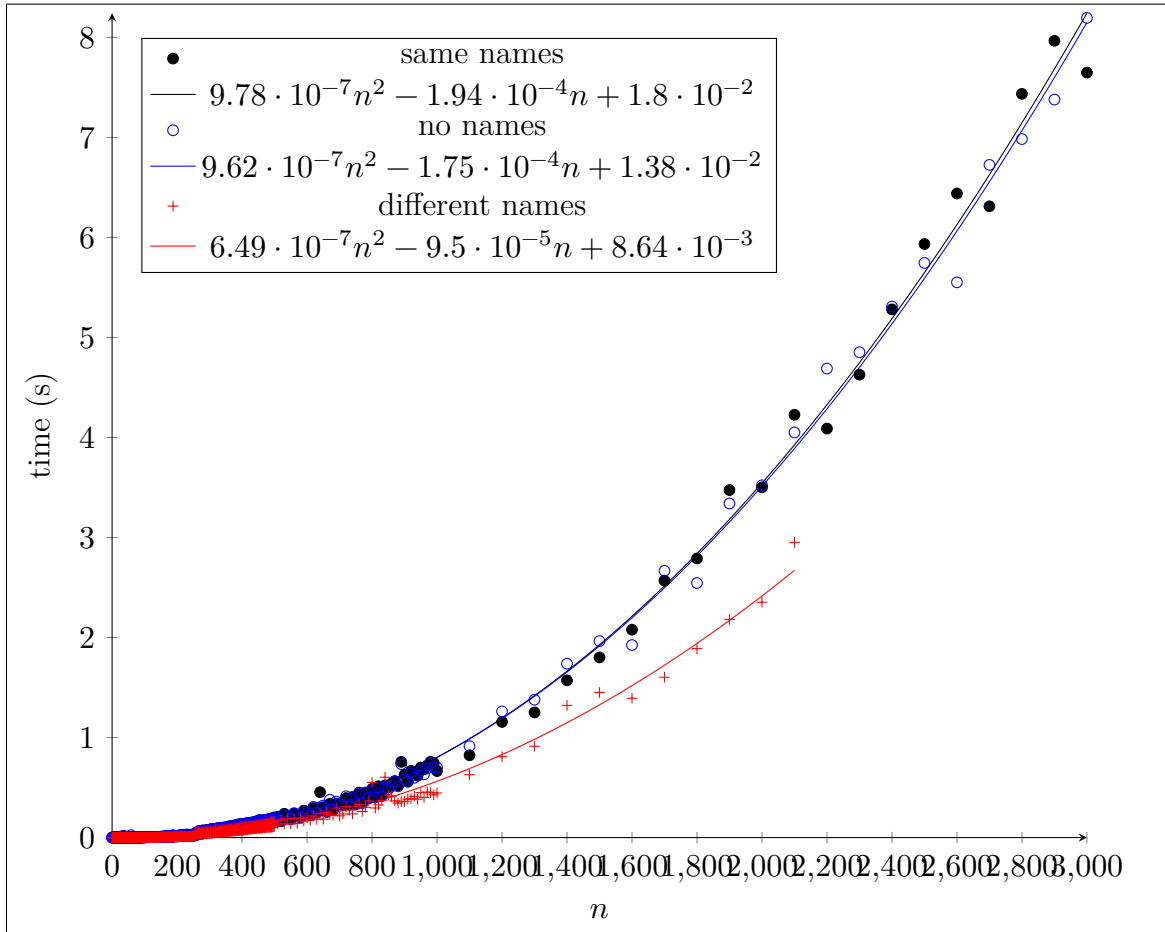


Figure 2-13: Timing of generating a λ with n binders of unknown/evan type, all of which have either no name, the same name, or different names

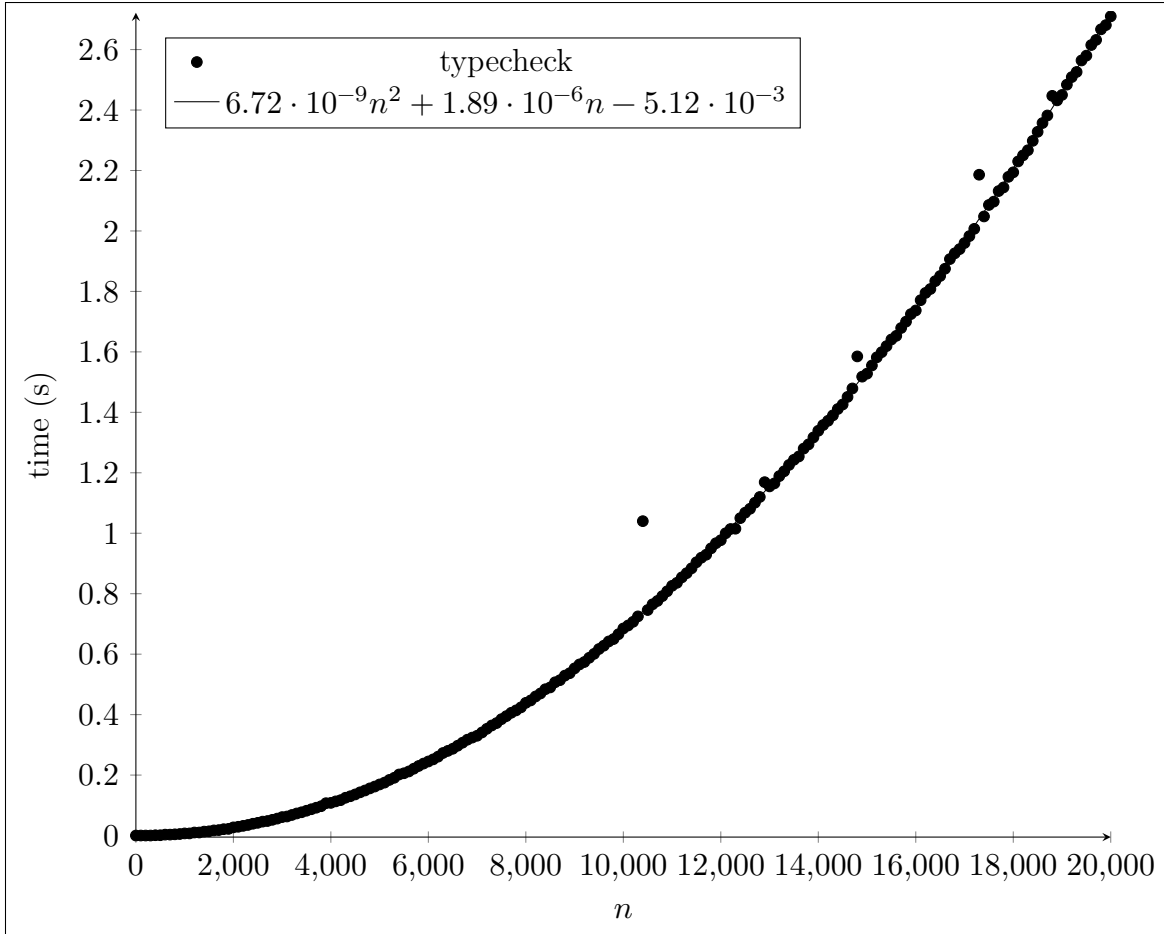


Figure 2-14: Timing of typechecking a function applied to n arguments

If the term representation contains n -ary application nodes, it's possible to resolve this performance bottleneck by delaying the substitutions. If only unary application nodes exist, it's much harder to solve.

Note that this is important, for example, if you want to avoid the problem of quadratically-sized certificates by making a n -ary conjunction-constructor which is parameterized on a list of the conjuncts. Such a function could then be applied to the n proofs of the conjuncts.

See #8232 and #12118 and #8255.

See Figure 2-14.

Quadratic Normalization by Evaluation

Normalization by evaluation (NbE) is a nifty way to implement reduction where function abstraction in the object language is represented by function abstraction in the metalanguage. **[TODO: explain or forward-reference NbE]** **[TODO: Read stuff in**

<https://github.com/HoTT/book/issues/995#issuecomment-418825844> for NbE stuff] [TODO: Say more about it than that it’s “nifty”] Coq uses NbE to implement two of its reduction machines (**lazy** and **cbv**).

The details of implementing NbE depend on the term representation used. If a fancy term encoding like PHOAS [TODO: reference explanation of PHOAS] is used, then it’s not hard to implement a good NbE algorithm. However, such fancy term representations incur unpredictable and hard-to-deal-with performance costs. Most languages do not do any reduction on thunks until they are called with arguments, which means that forcing early reduction of a PHOAS-like term representation requires round-tripping through another term representation, which can be costly on large terms if there is not much to reduce. On the other hand, other term representations need to implement either capture-avoiding substitution (for named representations) or index lifting (for de Bruijn and locally nameless representations).

The sort-of obvious way to implement this transformation is to write a function that takes a term and a binder, and either renames the binder for capture-avoiding substitution or else lifts the indices of the term. The problem with this implementation is that if you call it every time you move a term under a binder, then moving a term under n binders traverses the term n times. If the term size is also proportional to n , then the result is quadratic blowup in the number of binders.

See #11151 for an occurrence of this performance issue in the wild in Coq. See also Figure 2-15.

Quadratic Closure Compilation

It’s important to be able to perform reduction of terms in an optimized way. [TODO: maybe give a better introductory justification to the vm and native compiler than “it’s important”?] When doing optimized reduction in an imperative language, we need to represent closures—abstraction nodes—in some way. Often this involves associating to each closure both some information about or code implementing the body of the function, as well as the values of all of the free variables of that closure. [TODO: cite <https://flint.cs.yale.edu/shao/papers/escc.html> or its references for closure compilation] In order to have efficient lookup, we need to know the memory location storing the value of any given variable statically at closure-compilation time. The standard way of doing this [TODO: cite something for flat closure compilation] is to allocate an array of values for each closure. If variables are represented with de Bruijn indices, for example, it’s then a very easy array lookup to get the value of any variable. Note that this allocation is linear in the number of free variables of a term. If we have many nested binders and use all of them underneath all the binders, then every abstraction node has as many free variables as there are total binders, and hence we get quadratic overhead.

See #11151 and #11964 and #7826 for an occurrence of this issue in the wild. Note

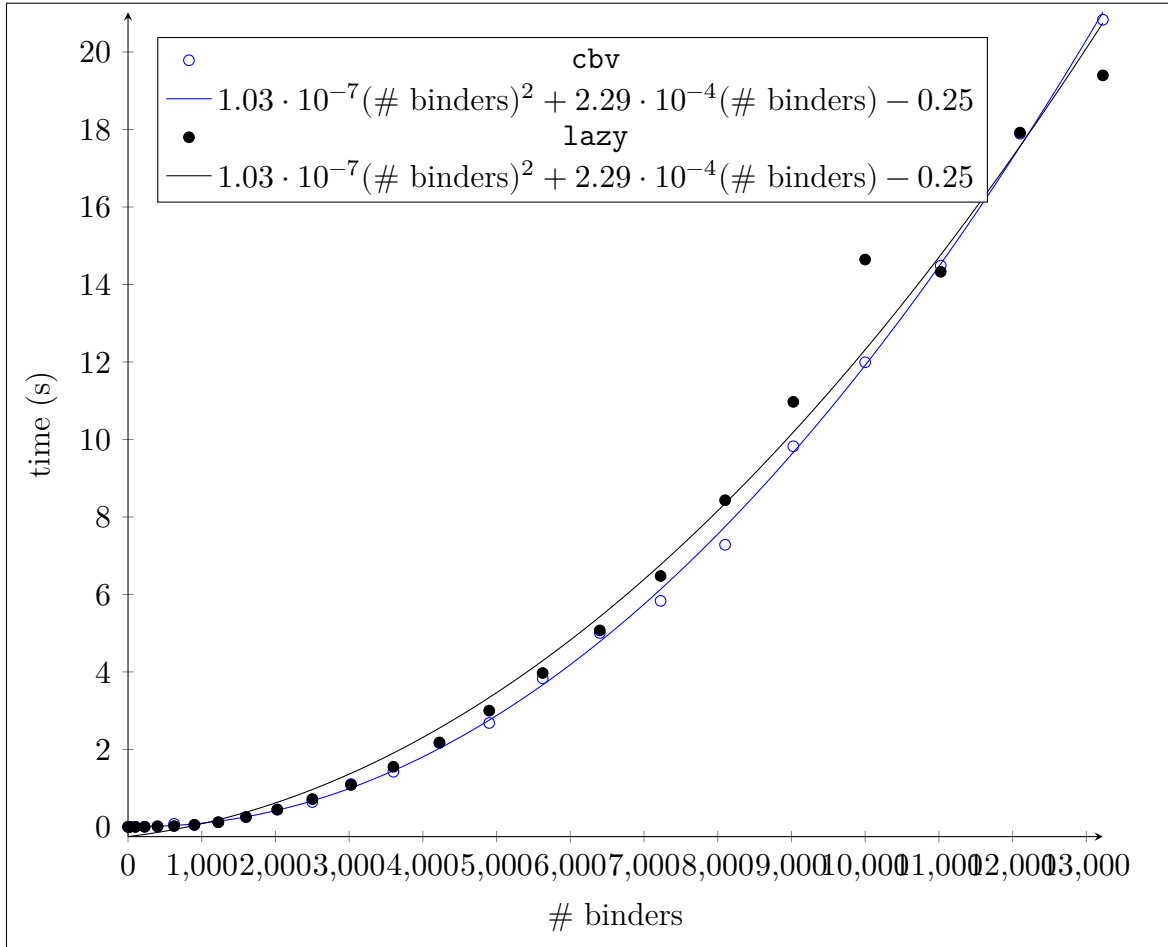


Figure 2-15: Timing of running **cbv** and **lazy** reduction on interpreting a PHOAS expression as a function of the number of binders

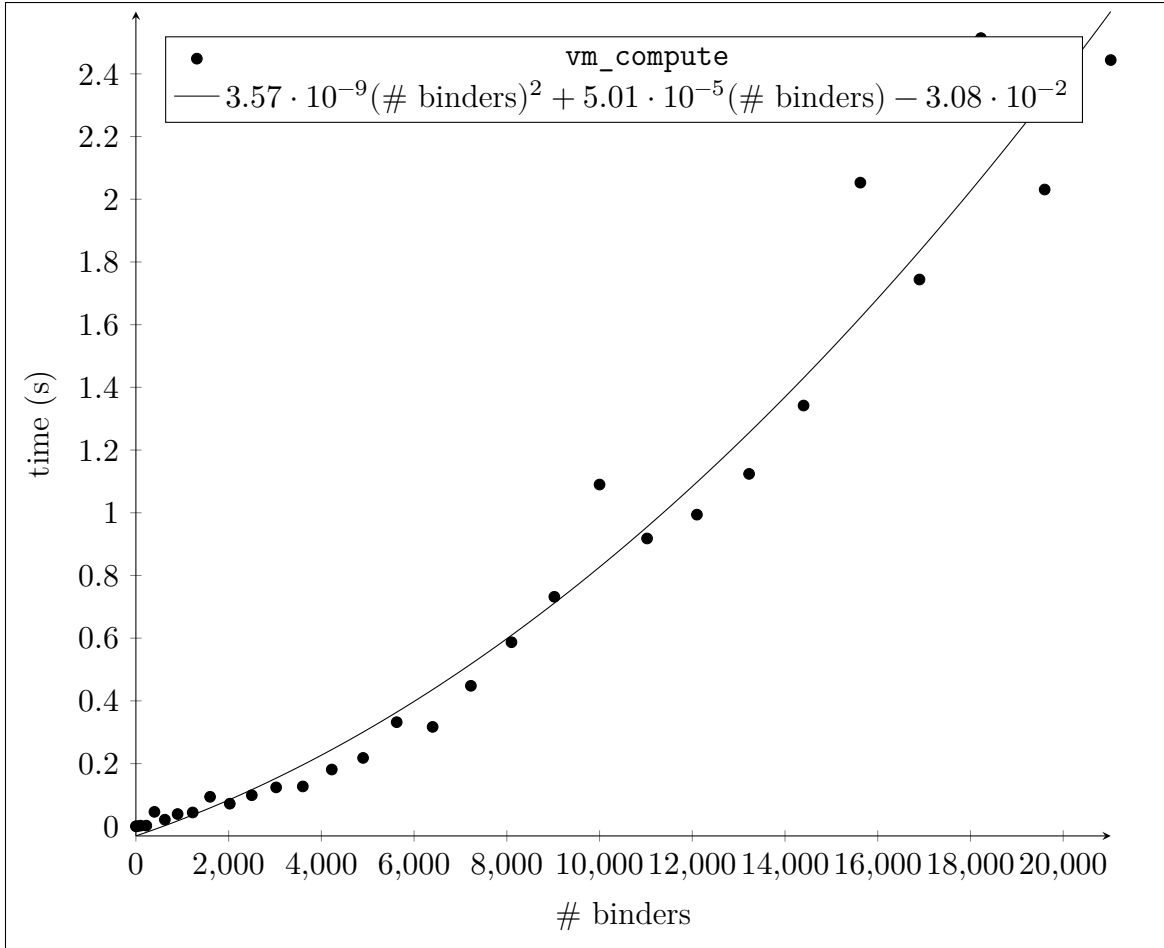


Figure 2-16: Timing of running **vm_compute** reduction on interpreting a PHOAS expression as a function of the number of binders

that this issue rarely shows up in hand-written code, only in generated code, so developers of compilers such as `ocamlc` and `gcc` might be uninterested in optimizing this case. However, it's quite essential when doing meta-programming involving large generated terms. It's especially essential if we want to chain together reflective automation passes that operate on different input languages and therefore require denotation and reification between the passes. In such cases, unless our encoding language uses named or de Bruijn variable encoding, there's no way to avoid large numbers of nested binders at compilation time while preserving code sharing. Hence if we're trying to reuse the work of existing compilers to bootstrap good performance of reduction (as is the case for the native compiler in Coq), we have trouble with cases such as this one. **[TODO: reorganize this paragraph, improve it]**

See also Figure 2-16 and Figure 2-17.

[TODO: maybe more examples here?]

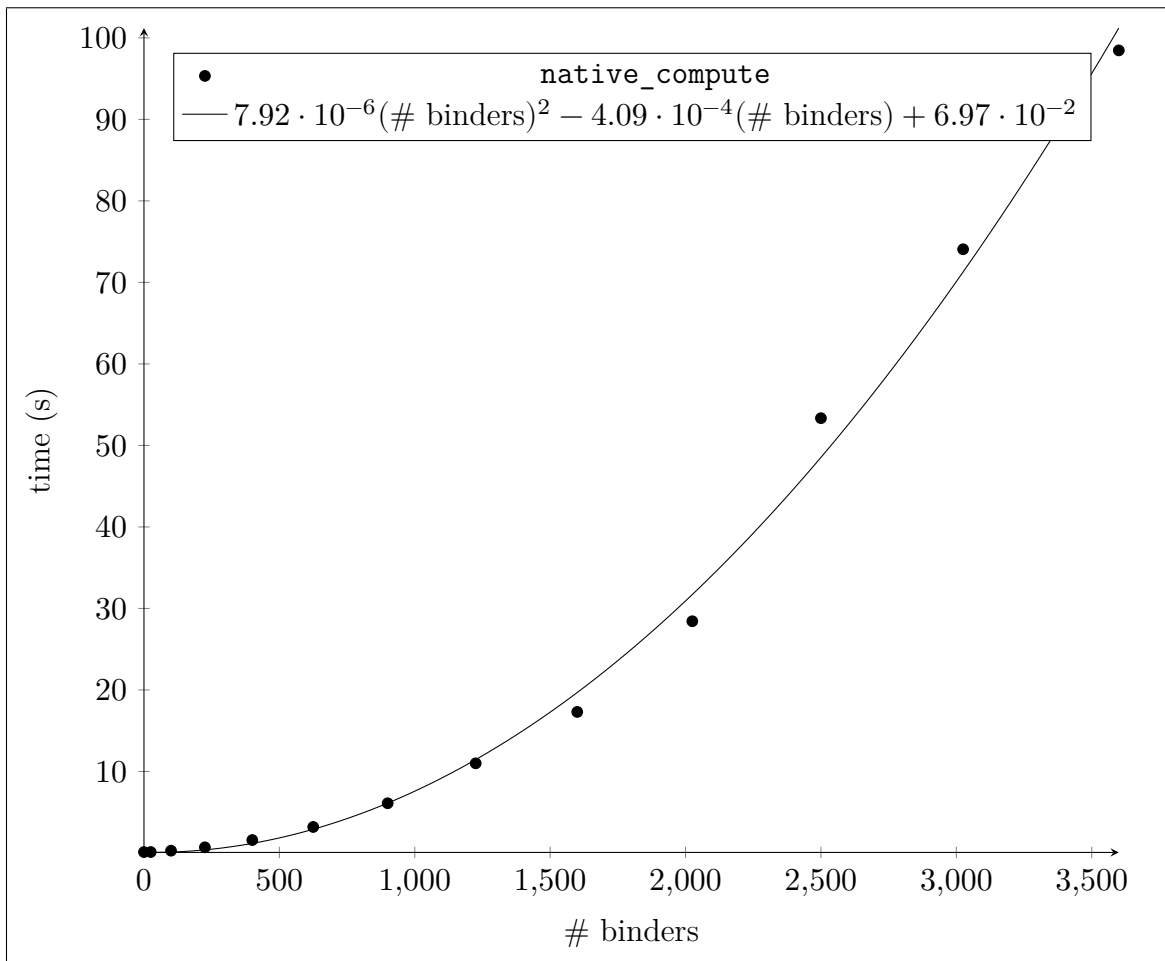


Figure 2-17: Timing of running **native_compute** reduction on interpreting a PHOAS expression as a function of the number of binders

2.2.4 The Number of Nested Abstraction Barriers

[**TODO: ADD PLOT:** This section requires digging into the historical performance issues around this to find convincing stand-alone examples so we can have graphs here.]

This axis is the most theoretical of the axes. An abstraction barrier is an interface for making use of code, definitions, and theorems. For example, you might define non-negative integers using a binary representation, and present the interface of zero, successor, and the standard induction principle, along with an equational theory for how induction behaves on zero and successor. [**TODO: should I spell this example out more?**] You might use lists and non-negative integers to implement a hash-set datatype for storing sets of hashable values, and present the hash-set with methods for empty, add, remove, membership-testing, and some sort of fold. Each of these is an abstraction barrier.

There are three primary ways that nested abstraction barriers can lead to performance bottlenecks: one involving conversion missteps and two involving exponential blow-up in the size of types.

Conversion Troubles

If abstraction barriers are not perfectly opaque—that is, if the typechecker ever has to unfold the definitions making up the API in order to typecheck a term—then every additional abstraction barrier provides another opportunity for the typechecker to pick the wrong constant to unfold first. [**TODO: add example?**] In some typecheckers, such as Coq, it’s possible to provide hints to the typechecker to inform it which constants to unfold when. In such a system, it’s possible to carefully craft conversion hints so that abstraction barriers are always unfolded in the right order. Alternatively, it might be possible to carefully craft a system which picks the right order of unfolding by using a dependency analysis.

However, most users don’t bother to set up hints like this, and dependency analysis isn’t sufficient to determine which abstraction barrier is “higher up” when there are many parts of it, only some of which are mentioned in any given part of the next abstraction barrier. The reason users don’t set up hints like this is that usually it’s not necessary. There’s often minimal overhead, and things just work, even when the wrong path is picked—until the number of abstraction barriers or the size of the underlying term gets large enough. Then we get noticeable exponential blowup, and everything is sad. Furthermore, it’s hard to know which part of conversion is incurring exponential blowup, and thus one has to basically get all of the conversion hints right, simultaneously, without any feedback, to see any performance improvement.

Type Size Blowup: Abstraction Barrier Mismatch

When abstraction barriers are leaky or misaligned, there's a cost that accumulates in the size of the types of theorems. Consider, for example, the two different ways of using tuples: (1) we can use the projections `fst` and `snd`; or (2) we can use the eliminator `pair_rect` : $\forall A B (P : A \times B \rightarrow \mathbf{Type}), (\forall a b, P (a, b)) \rightarrow \forall x, P x$. The first gets us access to one element of the tuple at a time, while the second has us using all elements of the tuple simultaneously.

Suppose now there is one API defined in terms of `fst` and `snd`, and another API defined in terms of `pair_rect`. To make these APIs interoperate, we need to explicitly convert from one representation to another. Furthermore, every theorem about the composition of these APIs needs to include the interoperation in talking about how they relate.

If such API mismatches are nested, or if this code size blowup interacts with conversion missteps, then the performance issues compound.

[**TODO:** maybe be more concrete here?]

Type Size Blowup: Packed vs. Unpacked Records

When designing APIs, especially of mathematical objects, one of the biggest choices is whether to pack the records, or whether to pass arguments in as fields. That is, when defining a monoid, for example, there are five ways to go about specifying it:

1. (packed) A *monoid* consists of a type A , a binary operation $\cdot : A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$, an identity element e , a proof that e is a left- and right-identity $e \cdot a = a \cdot e = a$ for all a , and a proof of associativity that $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$.
2. A *monoid on a carrier type* A consists of a binary operation $\cdot : A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$, an identity element e , a proof that e is a left- and right-identity, and a proof of associativity.
3. A *monoid on a carrier type* A under the binary operation $\cdot : A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$ consists of an identity element e , a proof that e is a left- and right-identity, and a proof of associativity.
4. (mostly unpacked) A *monoid on a carrier type* A under the binary operation $\cdot : A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$ with identity element e consists of a proof that e is a left- and right-identity and a proof of associativity.
5. (fully unpacked) A monoid on a carrier type A under the binary operation $\cdot : A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$ with identity element e using a proof p that e is a left- and right-identity and a proof of q of associativity consists of an element of the one-element unit type.

[**TODO:** cite math-classes and HoTT for past design work here]

If we go with anything but the fully packed design, then we incur exponential overhead as we go up abstraction layers, as follows. A *monoid homomorphism* from a monoid A to a monoid B consists of a function between the carrier types, and proofs that this function respects composition and identity. If we use an unpacked definition of monoid with n type parameters, then a similar definition of a monoid homomorphism involves at least $2n + 2$ type parameters. In higher category theory, it's common to talk about morphisms between morphisms, and every additional layer here doubles the number of type arguments, and this can quickly lead to very large terms, resulting in major performance bottlenecks. Note that number of type parameters determines the constant factor out front of the exponential growth in the number of layers of mathematical constructions.

[**TODO:** maybe figure out some examples and include perf data?] [**TODO:** does this need more exposition?]

2.3 Conclusion of this Chapter

[**TODO:** How should this chapter be concluded?] [**TODO:** Maybe another look-forward at what comes next?]

Part II

API Design

Chapter 3

Design-based fixes

3.1 Introduction

In Chapters 1 and 2, we talked about two different fundamental sources of performance bottlenecks in proof assistants: the power that comes from having dependent types, in Subsection 1.2.1; and the de Bruijn criterion of having a small trusted kernel, in Subsection 1.2.2. In this chapter, we will dive further into the performance issues arising from the first of these design decisions, expanding on Subsection 2.2.4 (The Number of Nested Abstraction Barriers), and proposing some general guidelines for handling these performance bottlenecks.

This chapter is primarily geared at the users of proof assistants, and especially at proof-assistant library developers.

We saw in The Number of Nested Abstraction Barriers three different ways that design choices for abstraction barriers can impact performance: We saw in Type Size Blowup: Abstraction Barrier Mismatch that API mismatch results in type-size blowup. We saw in Conversion Troubles that imperfectly opaque abstraction barriers result in slowdown due to needless calls to the conversion checker. We saw in Type Size Blowup: Packed vs. Unpacked Records how the choice of whether to use packed or unpacked records impacts performance.

In this chapter, we will focus primarily on the first of these ways; while it might seem like a simple question of good design, it turns out that good API design in dependently-typed programming languages is significantly harder than in simply-typed programming languages. Mitigating the second source of performance bottlenecks, imperfectly opaque abstraction barriers, on the other hand, is actually just a question of meticulous tracking of how abstraction barriers are defined and used, and designing them so that they all unfolding is explicit. However, we will present an exception to the rule of opaque abstraction barriers in Section 3.4 in which deliberate

breaking of all abstraction barriers in a careful way can result in performance gains of up to a factor of two: Section 3.4 presents one of our favorite design patterns for categorical constructions: a way of coaxing Coq’s definitional equality into implementing *proof by duality*, one of the most widely known ideas in category theory. [TODO: adjust the tone of what comes after the colon in the previous sentence to fit with this paper] Finally, the question of whether to use packed or unpacked records is actually a genuine trade-off in both design-space and performance, as far as I can tell; the non-performance design considerations have been discussed before in [TODO: cite math classes, etc], while the performance implications are relatively straightforward. As far as I’m aware, there’s not really a good way to get the best of all worlds.

Much of this chapter will draw on examples and experience from a category theory library we implemented in Coq [68], which we introduce in Section 3.3.

3.2 When And How To Use Dependent Types Painlessly

The extremes are relatively easy:

- Total separation between proofs and programs, so that programs are simply typed, works relatively well
- Pre-existing mathematics, where objects are fully bundled with proofs and never need to be separated from them, also works relatively well
- The rule of thumb in the middle: it is painful to recombine proofs and programs after you separate them; if you are doing it to define an opaque transformation that acts on proof-carrying code, that is okay, but if you cannot make that abstraction barrier, enormous pain results.
- For example, if you have length-indexed lists and want to index into them with elements of a finite type, things are fine until you need to divorce the index from its proof of finiteness. If you, for example, want to index into, say, the concatenation of two lists, with an index into the first of the lists, then you will likely run into trouble, because you are trying to consider the index separately from its proof of finitude, but you have to recombine them to do the indexing.

[TODO: flesh out this section] [TODO: More examples from the rewriter?]

3.3 A Brief Introduction To Our Category Theory Library

3.3.1 Introduction

Category theory [98] is a popular all-encompassing mathematical formalism that casts familiar mathematical ideas from many domains in terms of a few unifying concepts.

A *category* can be described as a directed graph plus algebraic laws stating equivalences between paths through the graph. Because of this spartan philosophical grounding, category theory is sometimes referred to in good humor as “formal abstract nonsense.” Certainly the popular perception of category theory is quite far from pragmatic issues of implementation. Our implementation of category theory has run squarely into issues of design and efficient implementation of type theories, proof assistants, and developments within them.

One might presume that it is a routine exercise to transliterate categorical concepts from the whiteboard to Coq. Most category theorists would probably be surprised to learn that standard constructions “run too slowly,” but in our experience that is exactly the result of experimenting with naïve first Coq implementations of categorical constructs. It is important to tune the library design to minimize the cost of manipulating terms and proving interesting theorems.

Category theory, said to be “notoriously hard to formalize” [72], provides a good stress test of any proof assistant, highlighting problems in usability and efficiency.

Formalizing the connection between universal morphisms and adjunctions provides a typical example of our experience with performance. A *universal morphism* is a construct in category theory generalizing extrema from calculus. An *adjunction* is a weakened notion of equivalence. In the process of rewriting our library to be compatible with homotopy type theory, we discovered that cleaning up this construction conceptually resulted in a significant slow-down, because our first attempted rewrite resulted in a leaky abstraction barrier and, most importantly, large goals (Subsection 3.5.2). Plugging the holes there reduced goal sizes by two orders of magnitude¹, which led to a factor of ten speedup in that file (from 39s to 3s), but incurred a factor of three slow-down in the file where we defined the abstraction barriers (from 7s to 21s). Working around slow projections of Σ types (Subsection 3.5.4) and being more careful about code reuse each gave us back half of that lost time.

We begin our discussion in ?? considering a mundane aspect of type definitions that has large consequences for usability and performance. With the expressive power of Coq’s logic Gallina, we often face a choice of making *parameters* of a type family explicit arguments to it, which looks like universal quantification; or of including them within values of the type, which looks like existential quantification. As a general principle, we found that the universal or *outside* style improves the user experience modulo performance, while the existential or *inside* style speeds up type checking. The rule that we settled on was: *inside* definitions for pieces that are usually treated as black boxes by further constructions, and *outside* definitions for pieces whose internal structure is more important later on.

Section 3.4 presents one of our favorite design patterns for categorical constructions:

¹The word count of the larger of the two relevant goals went from 7,312 to 191.

a way of coaxing Coq’s definitional equality into implementing *proof by duality*, one of the most widely known ideas in category theory. In ??, we describe a few other design choices that had large impacts on usability and performance, often of a few orders of magnitude. **[TODO: this is duplicative with text above]**

3.4 Internalizing Duality Arguments in Type Theory

In general, we tried to design our library so that trivial proofs on paper remain trivial when formalized. One of Coq’s main tools to make proofs trivial is the definitional equality, where some facts follow by computational reduction of terms. We came up with some small tweaks to core definitions that allow a common family of proofs by *duality* to follow by computation.

Proof by duality is a common idea in higher mathematics: sometimes, it is productive to flip the directions of all the arrows. For example, if some fact about least upper bounds is provable, chances are that the same kind of fact about greatest lower bounds will also be provable in roughly the same way, by replacing “greater than”s with “less than”s and vice versa.

Concretely, there is a dualizing operation on categories that inverts the directions of the morphisms:

Notation $"\mathcal{C}^{op}" := (\{ | \text{Ob} := \text{Ob } \mathcal{C}; \text{Hom } x \ y := \text{Hom } \mathcal{C} \ y \ x; \dots \})$.

Dualization can be used, roughly, for example, to turn a proof that Cartesian product is an associative operation into a proof that disjoint union is an associative operation; products are dual to disjoint unions.

One of the simplest examples of duality in category theory is initial and terminal objects. In a category \mathcal{C} , an initial object 0 is one that has a unique morphism $0 \rightarrow x$ to every object x in \mathcal{C} ; a terminal object 1 is one that has a unique morphism $x \rightarrow 1$ from every object x in \mathcal{C} . Initial objects in \mathcal{C} are terminal objects in \mathcal{C}^{op} . The initial object of any category is unique up to isomorphism; for any two initial objects 0 and $0'$, there is an isomorphism $0 \cong 0'$. By flipping all of the arrows around, we can prove, by duality, that the terminal object is unique up to isomorphism. More precisely, from a proof that an initial object of \mathcal{C}^{op} is unique up to isomorphism, we get that any two terminal objects $1'$ and 1 in \mathcal{C} , which are initial in \mathcal{C}^{op} , are isomorphic in \mathcal{C}^{op} . Since an isomorphism $x \cong y$ in \mathcal{C}^{op} is an isomorphism $y \cong x$ in \mathcal{C} , we get that 1 and $1'$ are isomorphic in \mathcal{C} .

It is generally straightforward to see that there is an isomorphism between a theorem and its dual, and the technique of dualization is well-known to category theorists,

among others. We discovered that, by being careful about how we defined things, we could make theorems be judgmentally equal to their duals! That is, when we prove a theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \text{initial_ob_unique} : & \forall C(x\ y : \text{Ob } C), \\ & \text{is_initial_ob } x \rightarrow \text{is_initial_ob } y \rightarrow x \cong y, \end{aligned}$$

we can define another theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \text{terminal_ob_unique} : & \forall C(x\ y : \text{Ob } C), \\ & \text{is_terminal_ob } x \rightarrow \text{is_terminal_ob } y \rightarrow x \cong y \end{aligned}$$

as

$$\text{terminal_ob_unique } C\ x\ y\ H\ H' := \text{initial_ob_unique } C^{\text{op}}\ y\ x\ H'\ H.$$

Interestingly, we found that in proofs with sufficiently complicated types, it can take a few seconds or more for Coq to accept such a definition; we are not sure whether this is due to peculiarities of the reduction strategy of our version of Coq, or speed dependency on the size of the normal form of the type (rather than on the size of the unnormalized type), or something else entirely.

In contrast to the simplicity of witnessing the isomorphism, it takes a significant amount of care in defining concepts, often to get around deficiencies of Coq, to achieve *judgmental* duality. Even now, we were unable to achieve this ideal for some theorems. For example, category theorists typically identify the functor category $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\text{op}}$ (whose objects are functors $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\text{op}}$ and whose morphisms are natural transformations) with $(\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D})^{\text{op}}$ (whose objects are functors $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ and whose morphisms are flipped natural transformations). These categories are canonically isomorphic (by the dualizing natural transformations), and, with the univalence axiom [147], they are equal as categories! However, to make these categories definitionally equal, we need to define functors as a structural record type (see Section 2.2.1) rather than a nominal one.

3.4.1 Duality Design Patterns

One of the simplest theorems about duality is that it is involutive; we have that $(\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}})^{\text{op}} = \mathcal{C}$. In order to internalize proof by duality via judgmental equality, we sometimes need this equality to be judgmental. Although it is impossible in general in Coq 8.4 (see dodging judgmental η on records below), the latest version of Coq available when we were creating this library, we want at least to have it be true for any explicit category (that is, any category specified by giving its objects, morphisms, etc., rather than referred to via a local variable).

Removing Symmetry

Taking the dual of a category, one constructs a proof that $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$ from a proof that $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$. The standard approach is to apply symmetry. However, because applying symmetry twice results in a judgmentally different proof, we decided instead to extend the definition of `Category` to require both a proof of $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$ and a proof of $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$. Then our dualizing operation simply swaps the proofs. We added a convenience constructor for categories that asks only for one of the proofs, and applies symmetry to get the other one. Because we formalized 0-truncated category theory, where the type of morphisms is required to have unique identity proofs, asking for this other proof does not result in any coherence issues.

Dualizing the Terminal Category

To make everything work out nicely, we needed the terminal category, which is the category with one object and only the identity morphism, to be the dual of itself. We originally had the terminal category as a special case of the discrete category on n objects. Given a type T with uniqueness of identity proofs, the discrete category on T has as objects inhabitants of T , and has as morphisms from x to y proofs that $x = y$. These categories are not judgmentally equal to their duals, because the type $x = y$ is not judgmentally the same as the type $y = x$. As a result, we instead used the indiscrete category, which has `unit` as its type of morphisms.

Which Side Does the Identity Go On?

The last tricky obstacle we encountered was that when defining a functor out of the terminal category, it is necessary to pick whether to use the right identity law or the left identity law to prove that the functor preserves composition; both will prove that the identity composed with itself is the identity. The problem is that dualizing the functor leads to a road block where either concrete choice turns out to be “wrong,” because the dual of the functor out of the terminal category will not be judgmentally equal to another instance of itself. To fix this problem, we further extended the definition of category to require a proof that the identity composed with itself is the identity.

Dodging Judgmental η on Records

The last problem we ran into was the fact that sometimes, we really, really wanted judgmental η on records. The η rule for records says any application of the record constructor to all the projections of an object yields exactly that object; e.g. for pairs, $x \equiv (x_1, x_2)$ (where x_1 and x_2 are the first and second projections, respectively). For categories, the η rule says that given a category \mathcal{C} , for a “new” category defined by saying that its objects are the objects of \mathcal{C} , its morphisms are the morphisms of \mathcal{C} , ..., the “new” category is judgmentally equal to \mathcal{C} .

In particular, we wanted to show that any functor out of the terminal category is the opposite of some other functor; namely, any $F : 1 \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ should be equal to $(F^{\text{op}})^{\text{op}} : 1 \rightarrow (\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}})^{\text{op}}$. However, without the judgmental η rule for records, a local variable \mathcal{C} cannot be judgmentally equal to $(\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}})^{\text{op}}$, which reduces to an application of the constructor for a category, unless the η rule is built into the proof assistant. To get around the problem, we made two variants of dual functors: given $F : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$, we have $F^{\text{op}} : \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\text{op}}$, and given $F : \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\text{op}}$, we have $F^{\text{op}'} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$. There are two other flavors of dual functors, corresponding to the other two pairings of $^{\text{op}}$ with domain and codomain, but we have been glad to avoid defining them so far. As it was, we ended up having four variants of dual natural transformation, and are very glad that we did not need sixteen. When Coq 8.5 was released, we no longer needed to pull this trick, as we could simply enable the η rule for records judgmentally.

3.4.2 Moving Forward: Computation Rules for Pattern Matching

While we were able to work around most of the issues that we had in internalizing proof by duality, things would have been far nicer if we had more η rules. The η rule for records is explained above. The η rule for equality says that the identity function is judgmentally equal to the function $f : \forall x y, x = y \rightarrow x = y$ defined by pattern matching on the first proof of equality; this rule is necessary to have any hope that applying symmetry twice is judgmentally the identity transformation.

Subsection 3.5.1 will give more examples of the pain of manipulating pattern matching on equality. Homotopy type theory provides a framework that systematizes reasoning about proofs of equality, turning a seemingly impossible task into a manageable one. However, there is still a significant burden associated with reasoning about equalities, because so few of the rules are judgmental.

We are currently attempting to divine the appropriate computation rules for pattern matching constructs, in the hopes of making reasoning with proofs of equality more pleasant.²

3.5 A Sampling of Abstraction Barriers

[**TODO:** maybe this section should come first?]

We acknowledge that the concept of performance issues arising from choices of abstraction barriers may seem a bit counter-intuitive. After all, abstraction barriers generally live in the mind of the developer, in some sense, and it seems a bit insane to say that performance of the code depends on the mental state of the programmer.

²See https://coq.inria.fr/bugs/show_bug.cgi?id=3179 and https://coq.inria.fr/bugs/show_bug.cgi?id=3119.

Therefore, we will describe a sampling of abstraction barriers and the design choices that went into them, drawn from real examples [QUESTION FOR ADAM: how much should I talk about the category theory library itself in my thesis?], as well as the performance issues that arose from these choices.

A few other pervasive strategies made non-trivial differences for proof performance or simplicity.

3.5.1 Identities vs. Equalities; Associators

There are a number of constructions that are provably equal, but which we found more convenient to construct transformations between instead, despite the increased verbosity of such definitions. This is especially true of constructions that strayed towards higher category theory. For example, when constructing the Grothendieck construction of a functor to the category of categories, we found it easier to first generalize the construction from functors to pseudofunctors. The definition of a pseudofunctor results from replacing various equalities in the definition of a functor with isomorphisms (analogous to bijections between sets or types), together with proofs that the isomorphisms obey various coherence properties. This replacement helped because there are fewer operations on isomorphisms (namely, just composition and inverting), and more operations on proofs of equality (pattern matching, or anything definable via induction); when we were forced to perform all of the operations in the same way, syntactically, it was easier to pick out the operations and reason about them.

Another example was defining the (co)unit of adjunction composition, where instead of a proof that $F \circ (G \circ H) = (F \circ G) \circ H$, we used a natural transformation, a coherent mapping between the actions of functors. Where equality-based constructions led to computational reduction getting stuck at casts, the constructions with natural transformations reduce in all of the expected contexts.

3.5.2 Opacity; Linear Dependence of Speed on Term Size

Coq is slow at dealing with large terms. For goals around 175,000 words long³, we have found that simple tactics like `apply f_equal` take around 1 second to execute, which makes interactive theorem proving very frustrating.⁴ Even more frustrating is the fact that the largest contribution to this size is often arguments to irrelevant functions, i.e., functions that are provably equal to all other functions of the same type. (These are proofs related to algebraic laws like associativity, carried inside many constructions.)

Opacification helps by preventing the type checker from unfolding some definitions, but it is not enough: the type checker still has to deal with all of the large arguments

³When we had objects as arguments rather than fields (see ??), we encountered goals of about 219,633 words when constructing pointwise Kan extensions.

⁴See also https://coq.inria.fr/bugs/show_bug.cgi?id=3280.

to the opaque function. Hash-consing might fix the problem completely.

Alternatively, it would be nice if, given a proof that all of the inhabitants of a type were equal, we could forget about terms of that type, so that their sizes would not impose any penalties on term manipulation. One solution might be irrelevant fields, like those of Agda, or implemented via the Implicit CiC [24, 109].

3.5.3 Abstraction Barriers

In many projects, choosing the right abstraction barriers is essential to reducing mistakes, improving maintainability and readability of code, and cutting down on time wasted by programmers trying to hold too many things in their heads at once. This project was no exception; we developed an allergic reaction to constructions with more than four or so arguments, after making one too many mistakes in defining limits and colimits. Limits are a generalization, to arbitrary categories, of subsets of Cartesian products. Colimits are a generalization, to arbitrary categories, of disjoint unions modulo equivalence relations.

Our original flattened definition of limits involved a single definition with 14 nested binders for types and algebraic properties. After a particularly frustrating experience hunting down a mistake in one of these components, we decided to factor the definition into a larger number of simpler definitions, including familiar categorical constructs like terminal objects and comma categories. This refactoring paid off even further when some months later we discovered the universal morphism definition of adjoint functors. With a little more abstraction, we were able to reuse the same decomposition to prove the equivalence between universal morphisms and adjoint functors, with minimal effort.

Perhaps less typical of programming experience, we found that picking the right abstraction barriers could drastically reduce compile time by keeping details out of sight in large goal formulas. In the instance discussed in the introduction, we got a factor of ten speed-up by plugging holes in a leaky abstraction barrier!⁵

3.5.4 Nested Σ Types

In Coq, there are two ways to represent a data structure with one constructor and many fields: as a single inductive type with one constructor (records), or as a nested Σ type. For instance, consider a record type with two type fields A and B and a function f from A to B . A logically equivalent encoding would be $\Sigma A. \Sigma B. A \rightarrow B$. There are two important differences between these encodings in Coq.

The first is that while a theorem statement may abstract over all possible Σ types, it may not abstract over all record types, which somehow have a less first-class status.

⁵See <https://github.com/HoTT/HoTT/commit/eb0099005171> for the exact change.

Such a limitation is inconvenient and leads to code duplication.

The far more pressing problem, overriding the previous point, is that nested Σ types have horrendous performance, and are sometimes a few orders of magnitude slower. The culprit is projections from nested Σ types, which, when unfolded (as they must be, to do computation), each take almost the entirety of the nested Σ type as an argument, and so grow in size very quickly.

Let's consider a toy example to see the asymptotic performance. To construct a nested Σ type with three fields of type `unit`, we can write the type:

```
{ _ : unit & { _ : unit & unit } }
```

If we want to project out the final field, we must write `projT2 (projT2 x)` which, when implicit arguments are included, expands to [\[TODO: figure out why spacing is strange above this code example\]](#)

```
@projT2 unit (λ _ : unit, unit) (@projT2 unit (λ _ : unit, { _ : unit & unit }) x)
```

This term grows quadratically in the number of projections because the type of the n^{th} field is repeated approximately $2n$ times. This is even more of a problem when we need to **destruct** `x` to prove something about the projections, as we need to **destruct** it as many times as there are fields, which adds another factor of n to the performance cost of building the proof from scratch; in Coq, this cost is either avoided due to sharing or else is hidden by a quadratic factor which is a much larger constant factor. Note that this is a sort-of dual to the problem of Subsection 2.2.1; there, we encountered quadratic overhead in applying the constructors (which is also a problem here), whereas right now we are discussing quadratic overhead in applying the eliminators. See Figure 3-1 for the performance details.

We can avoid much of the cost of building the projection term by using *primitive projections* (see ?? for more explanation of this feature). Note that this feature is a sort-of dual to the proposed feature of dropping constructor parameters described in Section 2.2.1. This does drastically reduce the overhead of building the projection term, but only cuts in half the constant factor in destructing the variable so as to prove something about the projection. See Figure 3-2 for performance details.

There are two solutions to this issue:

1. use built-in *record* types
2. carefully define intermediate abstraction barriers to avoid the quadratic overhead

Both of these essentially solve the issue of quadratic overhead in projecting out the fields. This is the benefit of good abstraction barriers.

In Coq 8.11, **destruct** is unfortunately still quadratic due to issues with name generation, but the constant factor is much smaller; see ?? and #12271.

We now come to the question: how much do we pay for using this abstraction barrier? That is, how much is the one-time cost of defining the abstraction barrier. Obviously, we can just make definitions for each of the projections and for the eliminator, and pay the cubic (or perhaps even quartic; see the leading term in Figure 3-1) overhead once. There’s an interesting question, though, of if we can avoid this overhead all-together.

As seen in ??, using records partially avoids the overhead. Defining the record type, though, still incurs a quadratic factor due to hashconsing the projections; see #12270.

[TODO: remove use of “you”] If your proof assistant does not support records out-of-the-box, or you want to avoid using them for whatever reason⁶, you can instead define intermediate abstraction barriers by hand. Here is what code that almost works looks like for four fields:

Local Set Implicit Arguments.

```
Record sigT {A} (P : A -> Type) := existT { projT1 : A ; projT2 : P projT1 }.
Definition sigT_eta {A P} (x : @sigT A P) : x = existT P (projT1 x) (projT2 x).
Proof. destruct x; reflexivity. Defined.
Definition _T0 := unit.
Definition _T1 := @sigT unit (fun _ : unit => _T0).
Definition _T2 := @sigT unit (fun _ : unit => _T1).
Definition _T3 := @sigT unit (fun _ : unit => _T2).
Definition T := _T3.
Definition Build_T0 (x0 : unit) : _T0 := x0.
Definition Build_T1 (x0 : unit) (rest : _T0) : _T1
  := @existT unit (fun _ : unit => _T0) x0 rest.
Definition Build_T2 (x0 : unit) (rest : _T1) : _T2
  := @existT unit (fun _ : unit => _T1) x0 rest.
Definition Build_T3 (x0 : unit) (rest : _T2) : _T3
  := @existT unit (fun _ : unit => _T2) x0 rest.
Definition Build_T (x0 : unit) (x1 : unit) (x2 : unit) (x3 : unit) : T
  := Build_T3 x0 (Build_T2 x1 (Build_T1 x2 (Build_T0 x3))).

Definition _T0_proj (x : _T0) : unit := x.
Definition _T1_proj1 (x : _T1) : unit := projT1 x.
Definition _T1_proj2 (x : _T1) : _T0 := projT2 x.
Definition _T2_proj1 (x : _T2) : unit := projT1 x.
```

⁶Note that the UniMath library **[TODO: cite unimath]** does this. **[TODO: explain reasoning]**

```

Definition _T2_proj2 (x : _T2) : _T1 := projT2 x.
Definition _T3_proj1 (x : _T3) : unit := projT1 x.
Definition _T3_proj2 (x : _T3) : _T2 := projT2 x.

Definition proj_T_1 (x : T) : unit := _T3_proj1 x.
Definition proj_T_1_rest (x : T) : _T2 := _T3_proj2 x.
Definition proj_T_2 (x : T) : unit := _T2_proj1 (proj_T_1_rest x).
Definition proj_T_2_rest (x : T) : _T1 := _T2_proj2 (proj_T_1_rest x).
Definition proj_T_3 (x : T) : unit := _T1_proj1 (proj_T_2_rest x).
Definition proj_T_3_rest (x : T) : _T0 := _T1_proj2 (proj_T_2_rest x).
Definition proj_T_4 (x : T) : unit := _T0_proj (proj_T_3_rest x).

Definition _T0_eta (x : _T0) : x = Build_T0 (_T0_proj x) := @eq_refl _T0 x.
Definition _T1_eta (x : _T1) : x = Build_T1 (_T1_proj1 x) (_T1_proj2 x)
:= @sigT_eta unit (fun _ : unit => _T0) x.
Definition _T2_eta (x : _T2) : x = Build_T2 (_T2_proj1 x) (_T2_proj2 x)
:= @sigT_eta unit (fun _ : unit => _T1) x.
Definition _T3_eta (x : _T3) : x = Build_T3 (_T3_proj1 x) (_T3_proj2 x)
:= @sigT_eta unit (fun _ : unit => _T2) x.

Definition T_eta (x : T)
: x = Build_T (proj_T_1 x) (proj_T_2 x) (proj_T_3 x) (proj_T_4 x)
:= let lhs3 := x in
   let lhs2 := _T3_proj2 lhs3 in
   let lhs1 := _T2_proj2 lhs2 in
   let lhs0 := _T1_proj2 lhs1 in
   let final := _T0_proj lhs0 in
   let rhs0 := Build_T0 final in
   let rhs1 := Build_T1 (_T1_proj1 lhs1) rhs0 in
   let rhs2 := Build_T2 (_T2_proj1 lhs2) rhs1 in
   let rhs3 := Build_T3 (_T3_proj1 lhs3) rhs2 in
   (((@eq_trans _T3)
    lhs3 (Build_T3 (_T3_proj1 lhs3) lhs2) rhs3
    (_T3_eta lhs3)
    ((@f_equal _T2 _T3 (Build_T3 (_T3_proj1 lhs3))))
    lhs2 rhs2
    ((@eq_trans _T2)
     lhs2 (Build_T2 (_T2_proj1 lhs2) lhs1) rhs2
     (_T2_eta lhs2)
     ((@f_equal _T1 _T2 (Build_T2 (_T2_proj1 lhs2))))
     lhs1 rhs1
     ((@eq_trans _T1)
      lhs1 (Build_T1 (_T1_proj1 lhs1) lhs0) rhs1
      (_T1_eta lhs1)
      ((@f_equal _T0 _T1 (Build_T1 (_T1_proj1 lhs1))))

```

```

      lhs0 rhs0
      (_T0_eta lhs0))))))
: x = Build_T (proj_T_1 x) (proj_T_2 x) (proj_T_3 x) (proj_T_4 x)).

Import EqNotations.
Definition T_rect (P : T -> Type)
  (f : forall (x0 : unit) (x1 : unit) (x2 : unit) (x3 : unit),
    P (Build_T x0 x1 x2 x3))
  (x : T)
: P x
:= rew <- [P] T_eta x in
  f (proj_T_1 x) (proj_T_2 x) (proj_T_3 x) (proj_T_4 x).

```

It only almost works because, although the overall size of the terms, even accounting for implicits, is linear in the number of fields, we still incur a quadratic number of unfoldings in the final cast node in the proof of `T_eta`. Note that this cast node is only present to make explicit the conversion problem that must happen; removing it does not break anything, but then the quadratic cost is hidden in non-trivial substitutions of the `let`-binders into the types. It might be possible to avoid this quadratic factor by being even more careful, but I was unable to find a way to do it.⁷ Worse, though, due to the issue with nested `let`-binders described in Section 2.2.1, we would still incur a quadratic typechecking cost.

We can, however, avoid this cost by turning on primitive projections via `Set Primitive Projections` at the top of this block of code: this enables judgmental η -conversion for primitive records, whence we can prove `T_eta` with the proof term `@eq_refl T x`. See ?? for performance details.

[**TODO:** make this timing graph] [**TODO:** move figures up to be closer to references]

[**TODO:** Find more examples to talk about here?]

⁷Note that even reflective automation (see Chapter 4) is not sufficient to solve this issue. Essentially, the bottleneck is that at the bottom of the chain of `let`-binders in the η proof, we have two different types for the η -principle. One of them uses the globally-defined projections out of `T`, while the other uses the projections of `x` defined in the local context. We need to convert between these two types in linear time. Converting between two differently defined projections takes time linear in the number of under-the-hood projections, i.e., linear in the number of fields. Doing this once for each projection thus takes quadratic time. Using a reflective representation of nested Σ types, and thus being able to prove the η principle once and for all in constant time, would not help here, because it takes quadratic time to convert between the type of the η principle in reflective-land and the type that we want. One thing that might help would be to have a version of conversion checking that was both memoized and could perform in-place reduction; see [**TODO:** cite <https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/12269>].

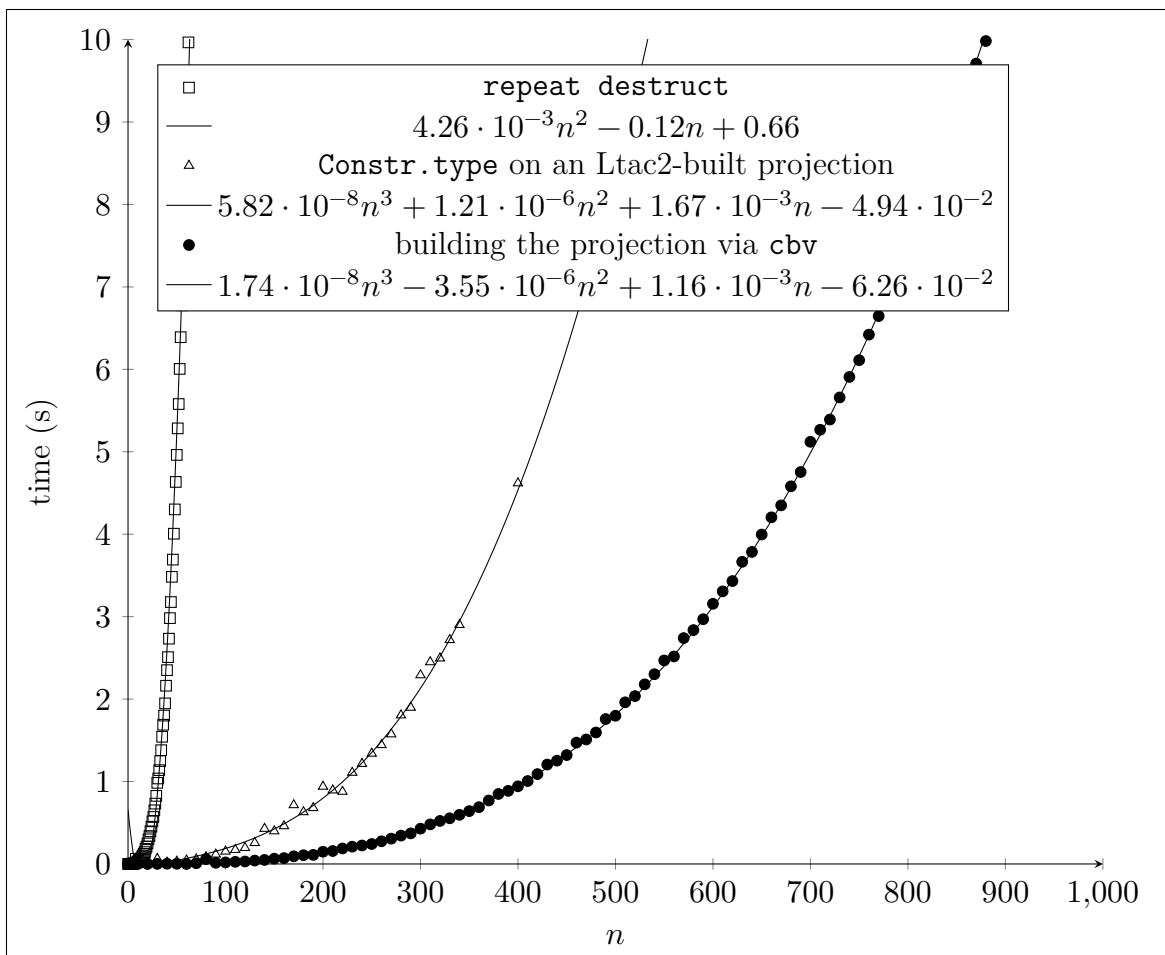


Figure 3-1: There are two ways we look at the performance of building a term like `projT1 (projT2 ... (projT2 x))` with n `projT2`s: we can define a recursive function that computes this term and then use `cbv` to reduce away the recursion, and time how long this takes; or we can build the term using Ltac2 and then typecheck it. This plot displays both of these methods, and in addition displays the time it takes to run `destruct` to break x into its component fields, as lower bound for how long it takes to prove anything about a nested Σ type with n fields.

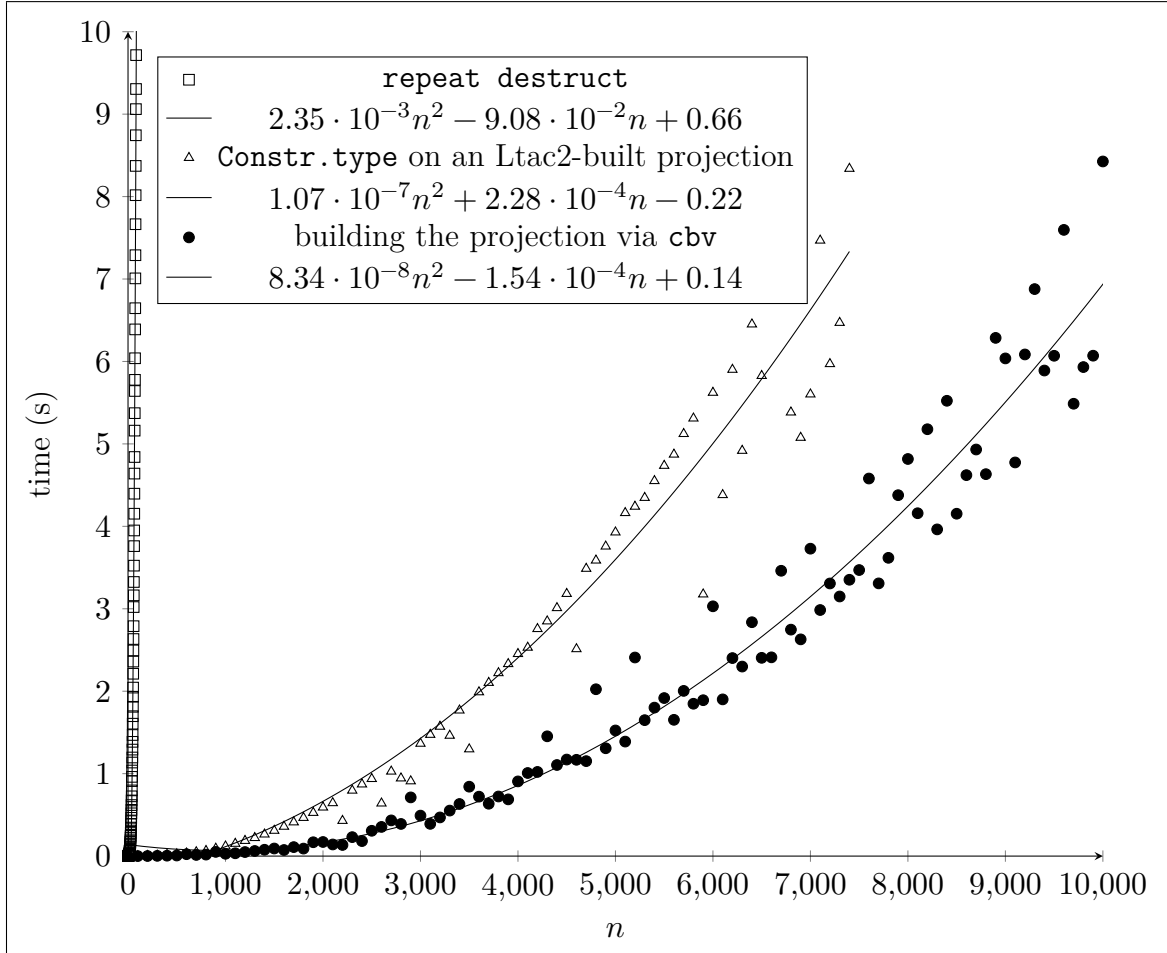


Figure 3-2: The same graph as Figure 3-1, but with primitive projections turned on. Note that the x -axis is $10\times$ larger on this plot.

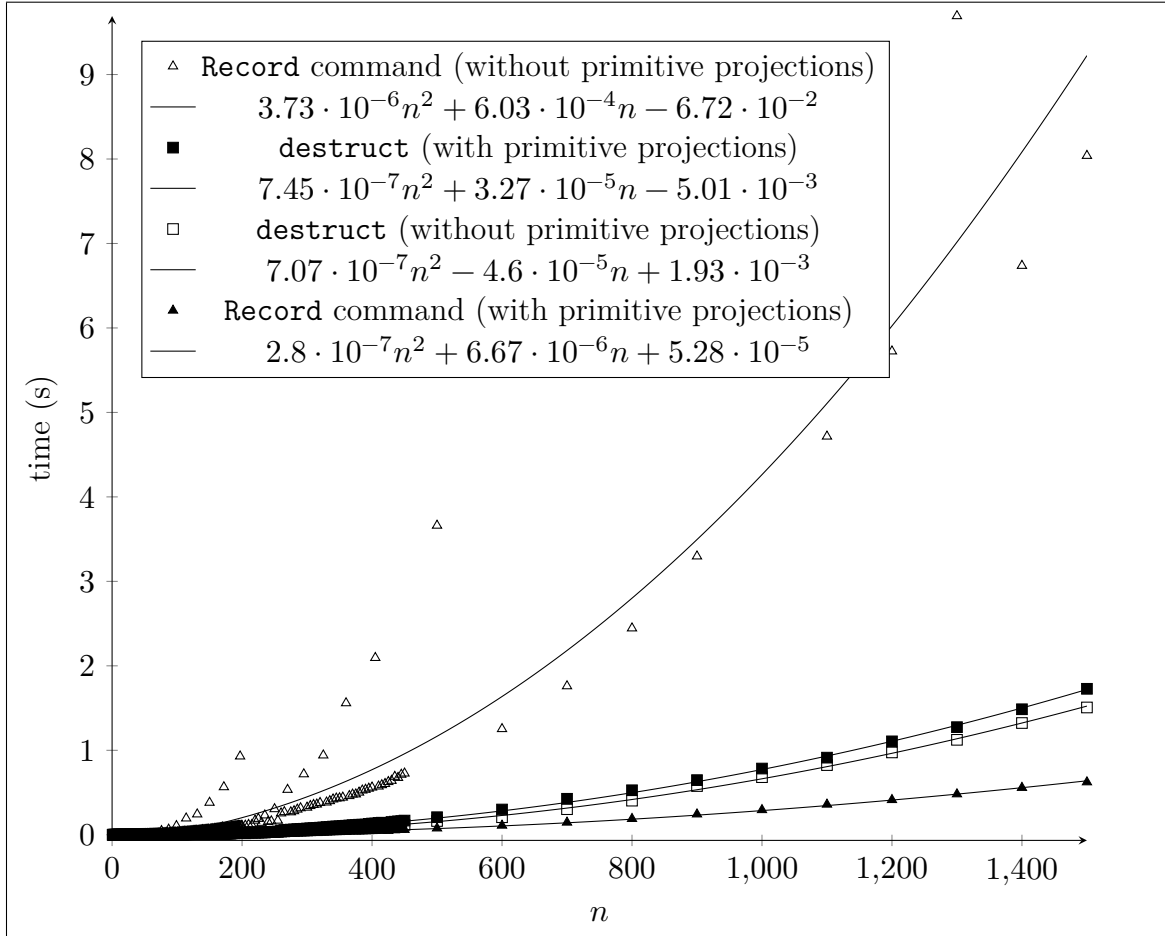


Figure 3-3: Timing of running a **Record** command to define a record with n fields, and the time to **destruct** such a record. Note that building the goal involving projecting out the last field takes less than 0.001s for all numbers of fields that we tested. (Presumably for large enough numbers of fields, we'd start getting a logarithmic overhead from parsing the name of the final field, which, when represented as x followed by the field number in base 10, does grow in size as $\log_{10} n$.) Note that the non-monotonic timing is *reproducible*, and we have asked the Coq developers about it at #12270.

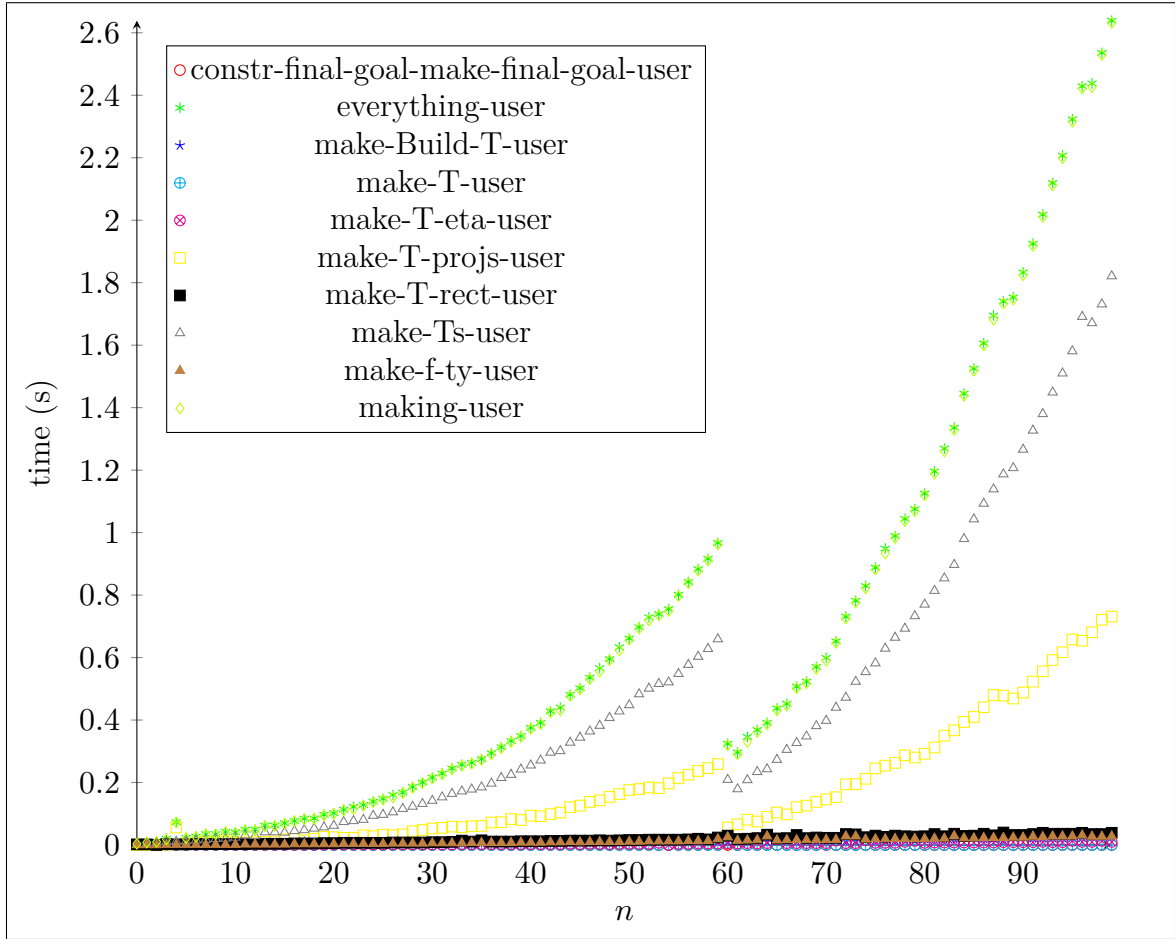


Figure 3-4: timing-performance-experiments/make-nested-prim-prod-abstraction.txt

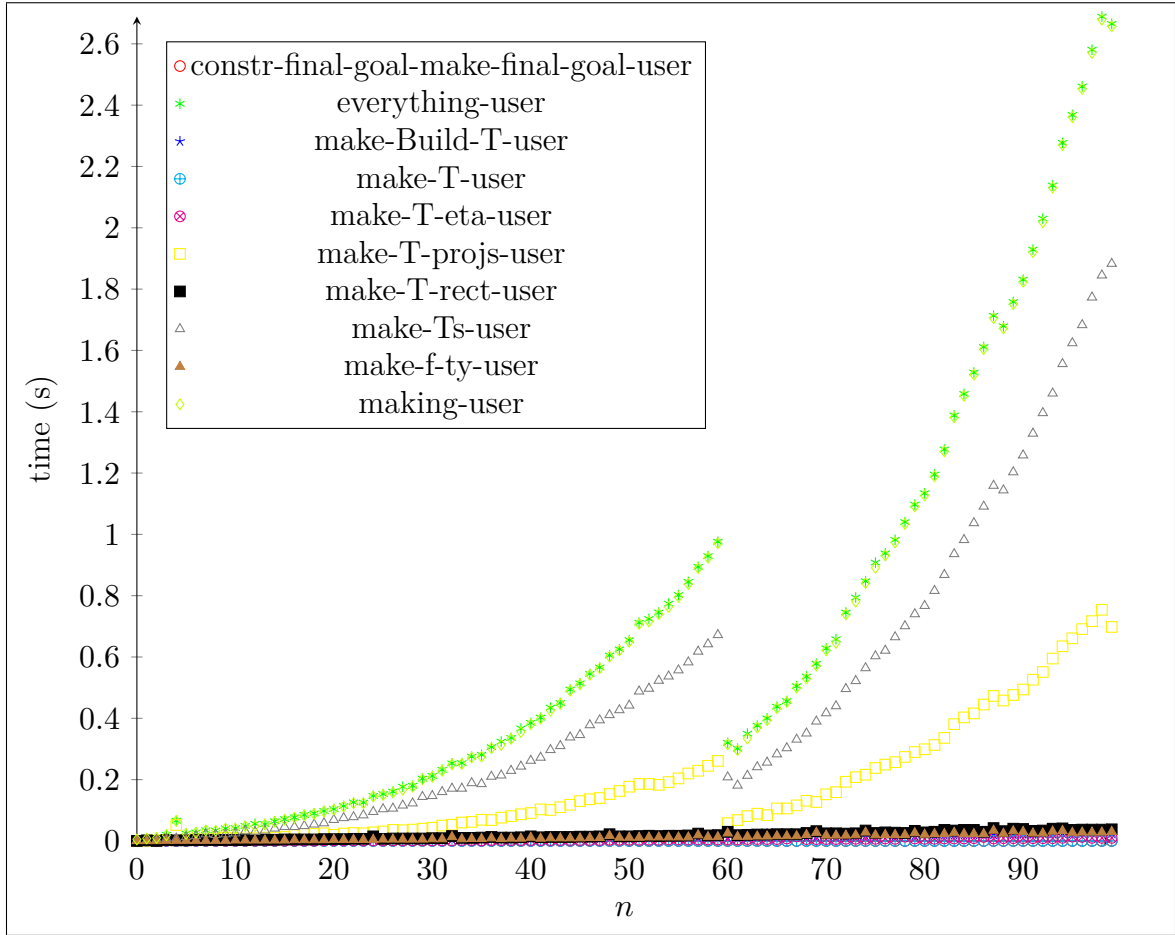


Figure 3-5: timing-performance-experiments/make-nested-prim-sig-abstraction.txt

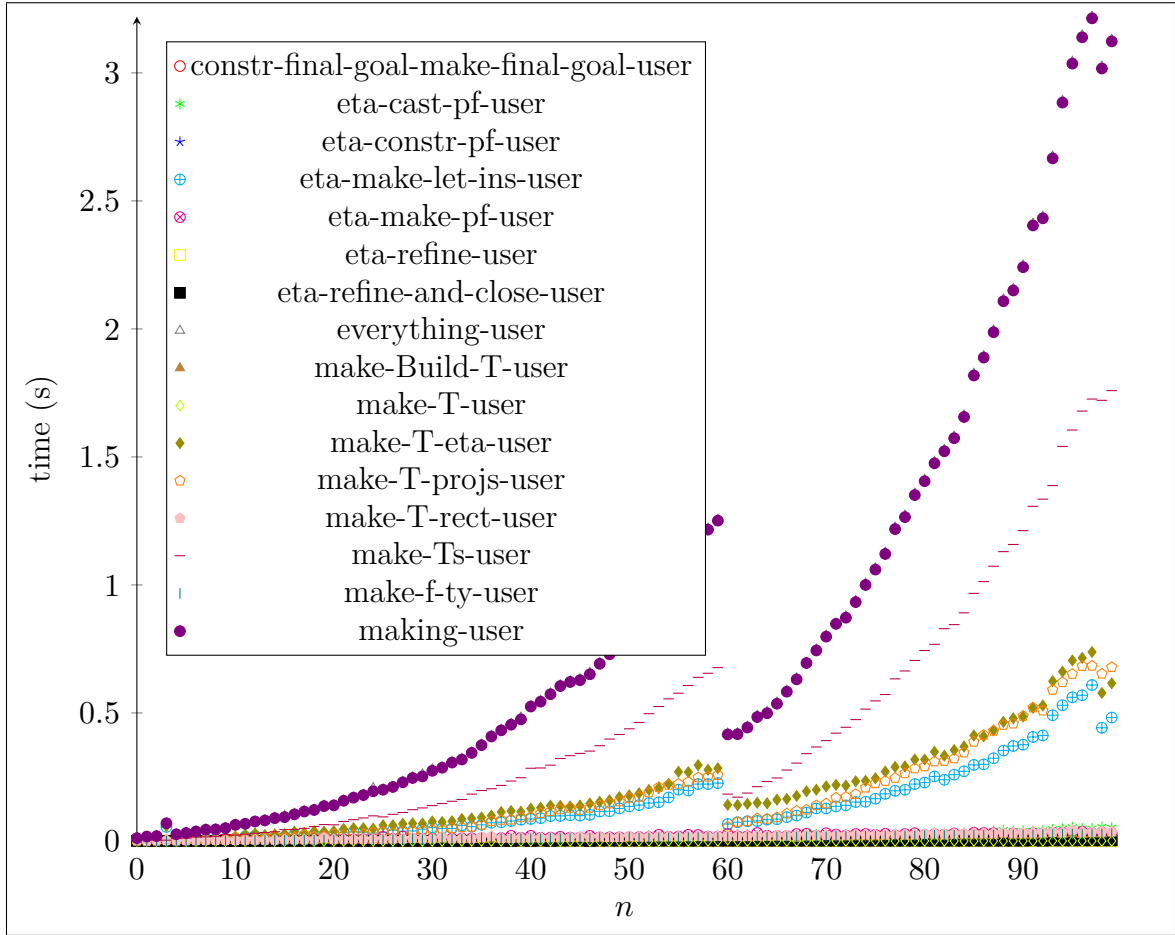


Figure 3-6: timing-performance-experiments/make-nested-prod-abstraction.txt

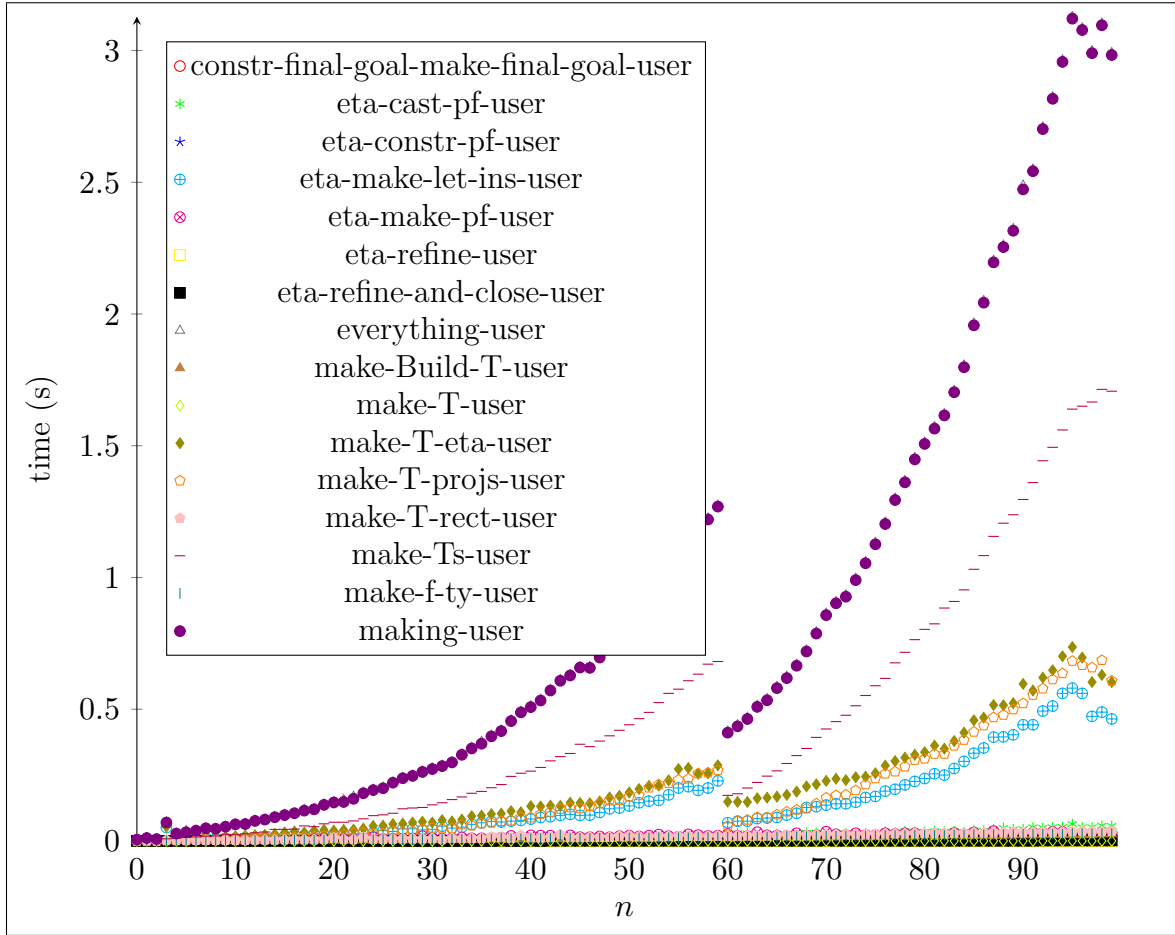


Figure 3-7: timing-performance-experiments/make-nested-sig-abstraction.txt

Part III

Program Transformation and Rewriting

Chapter 4

Reflective Program Transformation

4.1 Introduction

[**TODO:** reformat this for flow, right now it's from reification-by-parametricity]

Proof by reflection [34] is an established method for employing verified proof procedures, within larger proofs. [103, 104, 99, 60] [**TODO:** should we cite this many things here, or remove some of them?] There are a number of benefits to using verified functional programs written in the proof assistant's logic, instead of tactic scripts. We can often prove that procedures always terminate without attempting fallacious proof steps, and perhaps we can even prove that a procedure gives logically complete answers, for instance telling us definitively whether a proposition is true or false. In contrast, tactic-based procedures may encounter runtime errors or loop forever. As a consequence, if we want to keep the trusted codebase small, as discussed in Subsection 1.2.2, these tactic procedures must output proof terms, justifying their decisions, and these terms can grow large, making for slower proving and requiring transmission of large proof terms to be checked slowly by others. A verified procedure need not generate a certificate for each invocation.

The starting point for proof by reflection is *reification*: translating a “native” term of the logic into an explicit abstract syntax tree. We may then feed that tree to verified procedures or any other functional programs in the logic. The benefits listed above are particularly appealing in domains where goals are very large. For instance, consider verification of large software systems, where we might want to reify thousands of lines of source code. Popular methods turn out to be surprisingly slow, often to the point where, counter-intuitively, the majority of proof-execution time is spent in reification – unless the proof engineer invests in writing a plugin directly in the proof assistant's metalanguage (e.g., OCaml for Coq).

[**TODO:** move this paragraph elsewhere] In this paper, we show that reification

can be both simpler and faster than with standard methods. Perhaps surprisingly, we demonstrate how to reify terms almost entirely through reduction in the logic, with a small amount of tactic code for setup and no ML programming. Though our techniques should be broadly applicable, especially in proof assistants based on type theory, our experience is with Coq, and we review the requisite background in the remainder of this introduction. In Section 6.2, we summarize our survey into prior approaches to reification and provide high-quality implementations and documentation for them, serving a tutorial function independent of our new contributions. Experts on the subject might want to skip directly to Section 6.3, which explains our alternative technique. We benchmark our approach against 18 competitors in Section 6.4.

4.1.1 Proof-Script Primer

[TODO: rename this subsection] Basic Coq proofs are often written as lists of steps such as **induction** on some structure, **rewrite** using a known equivalence, or **unfold** of a definition. Very quickly, proofs can become long and tedious, both to write and to read, and hence Coq provides \mathcal{L}_{tac} , a scripting language for proofs. As theorems and proofs grow in complexity, users frequently run into performance and maintainability issues with \mathcal{L}_{tac} . Consider the case where we want to prove that a large algebraic expression, involving many **let ... in ...** expressions, is even:

```
Inductive is_even : nat -> Prop :=
| even_0 : is_even 0
| even_SS : forall x, is_even x -> is_even (S (S x)).
Goal is_even (let x := 100 * 100 * 100 * 100 in
               let y := x * x * x * x in
               y * y * y * y).
```

Coq stack-overflows if we try to reduce this goal. As a workaround, we might write a lemma that talks about evenness of **let ... in ...**, plus one about evenness of multiplication, and we might then write a tactic that composes such lemmas.

[TODO: factor some of this with chapter 2] Even on smaller terms, though, proof size can quickly become an issue. If we give a naive proof that 7000 is even, the proof term will contain all of the even numbers between 0 and 7000, giving a proof-term-size blow-up at least quadratic in size (recalling that natural numbers are represented in unary; the challenges remain for more efficient base encodings). Clever readers will notice that Coq could share subterms in the proof tree, recovering a term that is linear in the size of the goal. However, such sharing would have to be preserved very carefully, to prevent size blow-up from unexpected loss of sharing, and today's Coq version does not do that sharing. Even if it did, tactics that rely on assumptions about Coq's sharing strategy become harder to debug, rather than easier.

4.1.2 Reflective-Automation Primer

Enter reflective automation, which simultaneously solves both the problem of performance and the problem of debuggability. Proof terms, in a sense, are traces of a proof script. They provide Coq's kernel with a term that it can check to verify that no illegal steps were taken. Listing every step results in large traces.

The idea of reflective automation is that, if we can get a formal encoding of our goal, plus an algorithm to *check* the property we care about, then we can do much better than storing the entire trace of the program. We can prove that our checker is correct once and for all, removing the need to trace its steps.

```
Fixpoint check_is_even (n : nat) : bool
:= match n with
| 0 => true
| 1 => false
| S (S n) => check_is_even n
end.
```

A simple evenness checker can just operate on the unary encoding of natural numbers (Figure 6-1).

We can use its correctness theorem to prove goals much more quickly:

Figure 4-1: Evenness Checking

```
Theorem soundness : forall n, check_is_even n = true -> is_even n.
```

```
Goal is_even 2000.
```

```
Time repeat (apply even_SS || apply even_0). (* 1.8 s *)
```

```
Undo.
```

```
Time apply soundness; vm_compute; reflexivity. (* 0.004 s *)
```

The tactic **vm_compute** tells Coq to use its virtual machine for reduction, to compute the value of `check_is_even 2000`, after which **reflexivity** proves that `true = true`. Note how much faster this method is. In fact, even the asymptotic complexity is better; this new algorithm is linear rather than quadratic in `n`.

However, even this procedure takes a bit over three minutes to prove the goal `is_even (10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10)`. To do better, we need a formal representation of terms or expressions.

4.1.3 Reflective-Syntax Primer

[TODO: should the footnote be uncommented here?] Sometimes, to achieve faster proofs, we must be able to tell, for example, whether we got a term by multiplication or by addition, and not merely whether its normal form is 0 or a successor.

A reflective automation procedure generally has two steps. The first step is to *reify* the goal into some abstract syntactic representation, which we call the *term language* or an *expression language*. The second step is to run the algorithm on the reified goal.

```
Inductive expr :=
| Nat0 : expr
| NatS (x : expr) : expr
| NatMul (x y : expr) : expr.
```

Figure 4-2: Simple Expressions

What should our expression language include? At a bare minimum, we must have multiplication nodes, and we must have **nat** literals. If we encode **S** and **0** separately, a decision that will become important later in Section 6.3, we get the inductive type of Figure 6-2.

Before diving into methods of reification, let us write the evenness checker.

```
Fixpoint check_is_even_expr (t : expr) : bool
:= match t with
| Nat0 => true
| NatS x => negb (check_is_even_expr x)
| NatMul x y => orb (check_is_even_expr x) (check_is_even_expr y)
end.
```

Before we can state the soundness theorem (whenever this checker returns **true**, the represented number is even), we must write the function that tells us what number our expression represents, called *denotation* or *interpretation*:

```
Fixpoint denote (t : expr) : nat
:= match t with
| Nat0 => 0
| NatS x => S (denote x)
| NatMul x y => denote x * denote y
end.
```

```
Theorem check_is_even_expr_sound (e : expr)
: check_is_even_expr e = true -> is_even (denote e).
```

Given a tactic **Reify** to produce a reified term from a **nat**, we can time **check_is_even_expr**. It is instant on the last example.

Before we proceed to reification, we will introduce one more complexity. If we want to support our initial example with **let ... in ...** efficiently, we must also have **let**-expressions. Our current procedure that inlines **let**-expressions takes 19 seconds, for example, on **let x0 := 10 * 10 in let x1 := x0 * x0 in ... let x24 := x23 * x23 in x24**. The choices of representation of binders, which are essential to encoding **let**-expressions, include higher-order abstract syntax (HOAS) [123], parametric higher-order abstract syntax (PHOAS) [45] also known as weak HOAS [46], de Bruijn indices [37], nominal representations [125], locally nameless representations [43, 96], named representations, and nested abstract syntax [73, 29]. A survey of a number of options for binding can be found in [22]. **[QUESTION FOR ADAM: is this a place to cite POPLMark? What should be said about it? Should I mention more sorts of representations?]**

Although we will eventually choose the PHOAS representation for the tools presented in ??, we will also briefly survey some of the options for encoding binders, with an eye towards performance implications.

PHOAS

The PHOAS representation [45, 46] is particularly convenient. In PHOAS, expression binders are represented by binders in Gallina, the functional language of Coq, and the expression language is parameterized over the type of the binder. Let us define a constant and notation for **let** expressions as definitions (a common choice in real Coq developments, to block Coq’s default behavior of inlining **let** binders silently; the same choice will also turn out to be useful for reification later). We thus have:

```

Inductive expr {var : Type} :=
| Nat0 : expr
| NatS : expr -> expr
| NatMul : expr -> expr -> expr
| Var : var -> expr
| LetIn : expr -> (var -> expr) -> expr.
Definition Let_In {A B} (v : A) (f : A -> B) := let x := v in f x.
Notation "'dlet' x := v 'in' f" := (Let_In v (fun x => f)).
Notation "'elet' x := v 'in' f" := (LetIn v (fun x => f)).
Fixpoint denote (t : @expr nat) : nat
:= match t with
| Nat0 => 0
| NatS x => S (denote x)
| NatMul x y => denote x * denote y
| Var v => v
| LetIn v f => dlet x := denote v in denote (f x)
end.
Fixpoint check_is_even_expr (t : @expr bool) : bool
:= match t with
| Nat0 => true
| NatS x => negb (check_is_even_expr x)
| NatMul x y => orb (check_is_even_expr x) (check_is_even_expr y)
| Var v_even => v_even
| LetIn v f => let v_even := check_is_even_expr v in
check_is_even_expr (f v_even)
end.

```

Note, importantly, that `check_is_even_expr` and `denote` take `exprs` with *different* instantiations of the `var` parameter. This is necessary so that we can store the information about whether or not a particular **let**-bound expression is even (or what its denotation is) in the variable node itself. However, this means that we cannot

reuse the same expression as arguments to both functions to formulate the soundness condition. Instead, we must introduce a notion of *relatedness* of expressions with different instantiations of the `var` parameter.

Such a relatedness predicate has one constructor for each constructor of `expr`, essentially encoding that the two expressions have the same structure. For the `Var` case, we defer to membership in a list of “related” variables, which we extend each time we go underneath a binder.

```
Inductive related {var1 var2 : Type}
  : list (var1 * var2) -> @expr var1 -> @expr var2 -> Prop :=
| RelatedNat0 {Γ}
  : related Γ Nat0 Nat0
| RelatedNatS {Γ e1 e2}
  : related Γ e1 e2 -> related Γ (NatS e1) (NatS e2)
| RelatedNatMul {Γ x1 x2 y1 y2}
  : related Γ x1 x2 -> related Γ y1 y2 -> related Γ (NatMul x1 y1) (NatMul x2 y2)
| RelatedVar {Γ v1 v2}
  : (v1, v2) Γ -> related Γ (Var v1) (Var v2)
| RelatedLetIn {Γ e1 e2 f1 f2}
  : related Γ e1 e2 -> (∀ v1 v2, related ((v1, v2) :: Γ) (f1 v1) (f2 v2))
  -> related Γ (LetIn e1 f1) (LetIn e2 f2).
```

Conventionally, syntax trees are parametric over the value of the `var` parameter, and we require that all instantiations give related ASTs (in the empty context), whence we call the parametric AST *well-formed*:

Definition Expr := ∀ var, @expr var.

Definition Wf (e : Expr) := ∀ var1 var2, related [] (e var1) (e var2)

We could then prove a modified form of our soundness theorem:

Theorem check_is_even_expr_sound (e : Expr) (H : Wf e)
 : check_is_even_expr (e bool) = true -> is_even (denote (e nat)).

To complete the picture, we would need a tactic `Reify` which took in a term of type `nat` and gave back a term of type `forall var, @expr var`, plus a tactic `prove_wf` which solved a goal of the form `Wf e` by repeated application of constructors. Given these, we could solve an evenness goal by writing¹

¹Note that for the `refine` to be fast, we must issue something like `Strategy -10 [denote]` to tell Coq to unfold `denote` before `Let_In`.

```

match goal with
| [ |- is_even ?v ]
  => let e := Reify v in
      refine (check_is_even_expr_sound e _ _);
      [ prove_wf | vm_compute; reflexivity ]
end.

```

Multiple Types

One important point, not yet mentioned, is that sometimes we want our reflective language to handle multiple types of terms. For example, we might want to enrich our language of expressions with lists. Since expressions like “take the successor of this list” don’t make sense, the natural choice is to index the inductive over codes for types.

We might write:

```

Inductive type := Nat | List (_ : type).
Inductive expr {var : type -> Type} : type -> Type :=
| Nat0 : expr Nat
| NatS : expr Nat -> expr Nat
| NatMul : expr Nat -> expr Nat -> expr Nat
| Var {t} : var t -> expr t
| LetIn {t1 t2} : expr t1 -> (var t1 -> expr t2) -> expr t2
| Nil {t} : expr (List t)
| Cons {t} : expr t -> expr (List t) -> expr (List t)
| Length {t} : expr (List t) -> expr Nat.

```

We would then have to adjust the definitions of the other functions accordingly. The type signatures of the might functions become

```

Fixpoint denote_type (t : type) : Type
:= match t with
| Nat => nat
| List t => list (denote_type t)
end.

Fixpoint even_data_of_type (t : type) : Type
:= match t with
| Nat => bool (* is the nat even or not? *)
| List t => list (even_data_of_type t)
end.

Fixpoint denote {t} (e : @expr denote_type t) : denote_type t.
Fixpoint check_is_even_expr {t} (e : @expr even_data_of_type t)

```

```

    : even_data_of_type t.
Inductive related {var1 var2 : type -> Type}
  : list { t : type & var1 t * var2 t } ->  $\forall$  {t}, @expr var1 t -> @expr var2 t -> Prop
Definition Expr (t : type) :=  $\forall$  var, @expr var t.
Definition Wf {t} (e : Expr t)
  :=  $\forall$  var1 var2, related [] (e var1) (e var2).

```

See, e.g., [45] for a fuller treatment.

de Bruijn Indices

The idea behind *de Bruijn indices* is that variables are encoded by numbers which count up starting from the nearest enclosing binder. We might write

```

Inductive expr :=
| Nat0 : expr
| NatS : expr -> expr
| NatMul : expr -> expr -> expr
| Var : nat -> expr
| LetIn : expr -> expr -> expr.
Fixpoint denote (default : nat) ( $\Gamma$  : list nat) (t : @expr nat) : nat
:= match t with
| Nat0 => 0
| NatS x => S (denote default  $\Gamma$  x)
| NatMul x y => denote default  $\Gamma$  x * denote default  $\Gamma$  y
| Var idx => nth_default default  $\Gamma$  idx
| LetIn v f => dlet x := denote default  $\Gamma$  v in
               denote default (x ::  $\Gamma$ ) f
end.

```

If we wanted a more efficient representation, we could choose better data-structures for the context Γ and variable indices than linked lists and unary-encoded natural numbers. One particularly convenient choice, in Coq, would be using the efficient `PositiveMap.t` data-structure which encodes a finite map of binary-encoded positives to any type.

One unfortunate result is that the natural denotation function is no longer total. Here we have chosen to give a denotation function which returns a default element when a variable reference is too large, but we could instead choose to return an `option nat`.

This causes further problems when dealing with an AST type which can represent terms of multiple types. In that case, we might annotate each variable node with a type code, mandate decidable equality of type codes, and then during denotation,

we'd check the type of the variable node with the type of the corresponding variable in the context.

Nested Abstract Syntax

If we want a variant of de Bruijn indices which guarantees well-typed syntax trees, we can use nested abstract syntax. [73, 29] On mono-typed ASTs, this looks like encoding the size of the context in the type of the expressions. For example, we could use `option` types: [73]

```
Notation "^V" := (option V).
Inductive expr : Type -> Type :=
| Nat0 {V} : expr V
| NatS {V} : expr V -> expr V
| NatMul {V} : expr V -> expr V -> expr V
| Var {V} : V -> expr V
| LetIn {V} : expr V -> expr (^V) -> expr V.
```

This may seem a bit strange to those accustomed to encodings of terms in proof assistants, but it generalizes to a quite familiar intrinsic encoding of dependent type theory using types, contexts, and terms. [26] Namely, when the expressions are multi-typed, we end up with something like

```
Inductive context :=
| emp : context
| push : type -> context -> context.
Inductive var : context -> type -> Type :=
| Var0 {t Γ} : var (push t Γ) t
| VarS {t t' Γ} : var Γ t -> var (push t' Γ) t.
Inductive expr : context -> type -> Type :=
| Nat0 {Γ} : expr Γ Nat
| NatS {Γ} : expr Γ Nat -> expr Γ Nat
| NatMul {Γ} : expr Γ Nat -> expr Γ Nat -> expr Γ Nat
| Var {t Γ} : var Γ t -> expr Γ t
| LetIn {Γ t1 t2} : expr Γ t1 -> expr (push t1 Γ) t2 -> expr Γ t2.
```

Note that this generalizes nicely to codes for dependent types if the proof assistant supports induction-induction.

Although this representation enjoys both decidable equality of binders (like de Bruijn indices), as well as being well-typed-by-construction (like PHOAS), it's unfortunately unfit for coding algorithms that need to scale without massive assistance from the proof assistant. In particular, the naïve encoding of this inductive datatype incurs a

quadratic overhead in representing terms involving binders, because each node stores the entire context. It is possible in theory to avoid this blowup by dropping the indices of the inductive type from the runtime representation. [36] One way to simulate this in Coq would be to put `context` in `Prop` and then extract the code to OCaml, which erases the `Props`. Alternatively, if Coq is extended with support for dropping irrelevant subterms [58] from the term representation, then this speedup could be accomplished even inside Coq.

Nominal

Nominal representations [125] use names rather than indices for binders. These representations have the benefit of being more human-readable, but require reasoning about freshness of names and capture-avoiding substitution. Additionally, if the representation of names is not sufficiently compact, the overhead of storing names at every binder node can become significant.

Locally Nameless

We mention the locally nameless representation [43, 96] because it is the term representation used by Coq itself. This representation uses de Bruijn indices for closed terms, and names for variables which are not bound in the current term.

Much like nominal representations, locally nameless representations also incur the overhead of generating and storing names. Naïve algorithms for generating fresh names, such as the algorithm used in Coq, can easily incur overhead that's linear in the size of the context. Generating n fresh names then incurs $\Theta(n^2)$ overhead. **[TODO: explain what evar substitutions are somewhere? reference it here?]** Additionally, using a locally nameless representation requires that evar substitutions be named. **[TODO: elaborate more on the performance bottlenecks of named evar substitutions]** See also ??.

4.1.4 Performance of Proving Reflective Well-Formedness of PHOAS

We saw in Section 4.1.3 that in order to prove the soundness theorem, we needed a way to relate two PHOASTs, which generalized to a notion of well-formedness for the `Expr` type.

Unfortunately, the proof that two `exprs` are `related` is quadratic in the size of the expression, for much the same reason that proving conjunctions in Subsection 2.2.1 resulted in a proof term which was quadratic in the number of conjuncts. We present two ways to encode linearly-sized proofs of well-formedness in PHOAS.

Iterating Reflection

The first method of encoding linearly-sized proofs of `related` is itself a good study in how using proof by reflection can compress proof terms. Rather than constructing the inductive `related` proof, we can instead write a fixed point:

```
Fixpoint is_related {var1 var2 : Type} (Γ : list (var1 * var2))
  (e1 : @expr var1) (e2 : @expr var2) : Prop :=
  match e1, e2 with
  | Nat0, Nat0 => True
  | NatS e1, NatS e2 => is_related Γ e1 e2
  | NatMul x1 y1, NatMul x2 y2
    => is_related Γ x1 x2 /\ is_related Γ y1 y2
  | Var v1, Var v2 => List.In (v1, v2) Γ
  | LetIn e1 f1, LetIn e2 f2
    => is_related Γ e1 e2 /\ forall v1 v2, is_related ((v1, v2) :: Γ) (f1 v1) (f2 v2)
  | _, _ => False
  end.
```

This unfortunately isn't quite linear in the size of the syntax tree, though it is significantly smaller. One way to achieve truly linear² proofs is to pick a more optimized representation for list membership and to convert the proposition to be an eliminator. This consists of replacing $A \wedge B$ with $\forall P, A \rightarrow B \rightarrow P$, and similar.

```
Fixpoint is_related_elim {var1 var2 : Type} (Γ : list (var1 * var2))
  (e1 : @expr var1) (e2 : @expr var2) : Prop :=
  match e1, e2 with
  | Nat0, Nat0 => True
  | NatS e1, NatS e2 => is_related_elim Γ e1 e2
  | NatMul x1 y1, NatMul x2 y2 => forall P : Prop,
    (is_related_elim Γ x1 x2 -> is_related_elim Γ y1 y2 -> P) -> P
  | Var v1, Var v2 => forall (P : Prop),
    (forall n, List.nth_error Γ (N.to_nat n) = Some (v1, v2) -> P) -> P
  | LetIn e1 f1, LetIn e2 f2 => forall P : Prop,
    (is_related_elim Γ e1 e2
      -> (forall v1 v2, is_related_elim ((v1, v2) :: Γ) (f1 v1) (f2 v2))
      -> P)
    -> P
  | _, _ => False
  end.
```

²Actually, the size of the proof term will still have an extra logarithmic factor in the size of the syntax tree, due to the way we represent list membership proofs.

We can now prove that `is_related_elim Γ e1 e2 \rightarrow is_related Γ e1 e2`.

Note that making use of the fixpoint is significantly more inconvenient than making use of the inductive; the proof of `check_is_even_expr_sound`, for example, proceeds most naturally by induction on the relatedness hypothesis. We could instead induct on one of the ASTs and destruct the other one, but this becomes quite hairy when the ASTs are indexed over their types.

[TODO: Should I benchmark this and insert graphs?]

Via de Bruijn

An alternative, ultimately superior, method of constructing compact proofs of relatedness involves a translation to a de Bruijn representation. We can define a boolean predicate on de Bruijn syntax representing well-formedness.

```
Fixpoint is_closed_under (max_idx : nat) (e : expr) : bool :=
  match expr with
  | Nat0 => true
  | NatS e => is_closed_under max_idx e
  | NatMul x y => is_closed_under max_idx x && is_closed_under max_idx y
  | Var n => n <? max_idx
  | LetIn v f => is_closed_under max_idx v && is_closed_under (S max_idx) f
  end.
Definition is_closed := is_closed_under 0.
```

Note that this check generalizes quite nicely to expressions indexed over their types—so long as type codes have decidable equality—where we can pass around a list (or more efficient map structure) of types for each variable, and just check that the types are equal.

Now we can prove that whenever a de Bruijn `expr` is closed, any two PHOAS `exprs` created from that AST will be related in the empty context. Therefore, if the PHOAS `expr` we start off with is the result of converting some de Bruijn `expr` to PHOAS, we can easily prove that it's well-formed simply by running `vm_compute` on the `is_closed` procedure. How might we get such a de Bruijn `expr`? The easiest way is to write a converter from PHOAS to de Bruijn.

Hence we can prove the theorem $\forall e, \text{is_closed } (\text{PHOAS_to_deBruijn } e) = \text{true} \wedge e = \text{deBruijn_to_PHOAS } (\text{PHOAS_to_deBruijn } e) \rightarrow \text{Wf } e$. The hypothesis of this theorem is quite easy to check; we simply run `vm_compute` and then instantiate it with the proof term `conj (eq_refl true) (eq_refl e)`, which is linear in the size of `e`.

4.2 Reification

The one part of proof by reflection that we’ve neglected up to this point is reification. There are many ways of performing reification; in ??, we discuss 18 different ways of implementing reification, using 6 different metaprogramming facilities in the Coq ecosystem: \mathcal{L}_{tac} , Ltac2, Mtac [62, 79], type classes [140], canonical structures [60], and reification-specific OCaml plugins (quote [48], template-coq [16], ours). Figure 6-3 displays the simplest case: an Ltac script to reify a tree of function applications and constants. Unfortunately, all methods we surveyed become drastically more complicated or slower (and usually both) when adapted to reify terms with variable bindings such as `let-in` or λ nodes.

We have made detailed walkthroughs and source code of these implementations available³ in hope that they will be useful for others considering implementing reification using one of these metaprogramming mechanisms, instructive as nontrivial examples of multiple metaprogramming facilities, or helpful as a case study in Coq performance engineering.

[**TODO:** Maybe include detailed walkthroughs in the appendix?]

However, we do *not* recommend reading these out of general interest: most of the complexity in the described implementations strikes us as needless, with significant aspects of the design being driven by surprising behaviors, misfeatures, bugs and performance bottlenecks of the underlying machinery as opposed to the task of reification.

```
Ltac f v x := (* reify var term *)
  lazy match x with
  | 0 => constr: (@Nat0 v)
  | S ?x => let X := f v x in
            constr: (@NatS v X)
  | ?x*?y => let X := f v x in
             let Y := f v y in
             constr: (@NatMul v X Y)
```

Figure 4-3. Reification Without Binders in \mathcal{L}_{tac}

[**TODO:** should this paragraph be here, or above the last one?] There are a couple of complications that arise when reifying binders, which broadly fall into two categories. One category is the metaprogramming language’s treatment of binders. In \mathcal{L}_{tac} , for example, the body of a function is not a well-typed term, because the variable binder refers to a non-existent name; getting the name to actually refer to something, so that we can inspect the term, is responsible for a great deal of the complexity in reification code in \mathcal{L}_{tac} . The other category is any mismatch between the representation of binders in the metaprogramming language, and the representation of binders in the reified syntax. If the metaprogramming language represents variables as de Bruijn indices, and we are reifying to a de Bruijn representation, then we can reuse the indices. If the metaprogramming language represents variables as names, and we are reifying to a named representation, then we can reuse the names. If the representations mismatch, then we need to do extra work to align the representations, such as keeping some sort of finite map structure from binders in the metalanguage to binders in the AST.

³<https://github.com/mit-plv/reification-by-parametricity>

[**TODO:** what's a good way to end this chapter?]

4.A Reflective Evenness Checking in Coq

[**TODO:** fix input of this file]

Chapter 5

Extended Description of the Rewriter

[**TODO:** this chapter] [**TODO:** mention frowned-upon Perl scripts previously in BoringSSL(?) OpenSSL?; (ask Andres for reference?)] Perl scripts were complicated, a number of steps removed from actual running code, hard to maintain and verify. [**TODO:** Refer back to representation changes (good abstraction barriers / equivalences) being important in fiat-crypto, and being cheap only because we have a rewriter]

5.1 Rewriter

5.1.1 Introduction

- The goal of the rewriter is to take an abstract syntax tree and perform reduction or rewriting.
- There are three things that happen in rewriting: beta reduction, let-lifting, and replacement of rewrite patterns with their substitutions
- Beta reduction is replacing $(\lambda x. F) y$ with $F[x \Rightarrow y]$. We do this with a normalization-by-evaluation strategy.
- Let-lifting involves replacing $f (\text{let } x := y \text{ in } z)$ with $\text{let } x := y \text{ in } f x$. Note that for higher-order functions, we push lets under lambdas, rather than lifting them; we replace $f (\text{let } x := y \text{ in } (\lambda z. w))$ with $f (\lambda z. \text{let } x := y \text{ in } w)$. This is done for the convenience of not having to track the let-binding-structure at every level of arrow.
- Replacing rewriting patterns with substitutions involves, for example, replacing $x + 0$ with x .
- There's actually a fourth thing, which happens during let-lifting: some let binders get inlined: In particular, any let-bound value which is a combination of variables, literals, and the identifiers `nil`, `cons`, `pair`, `fst`, `snd`, `Z.opp`, `Z.cast`,

and `Z.cast2` gets inlined. If the let-bound variable contains any lambdas, lets, or applications of identifiers other than the above, then it is not inlined.

5.1.2 Beta-Reduction and Let-Lifting

- We use the following data-type:

```
Fixpoint value' (with_lets : bool) (t : type)
  := match t with
    | type.base t
      => if with_lets then UnderLets (expr t) else expr t
    | type.arrow s d
      => value' false s -> value' true d
  end.
```

Definition value := value' false.

Definition value_with_lets := value' true.

- Here are some examples:

```
- value Z := UnderLets (expr Z)
- value (Z -> Z) := expr Z -> UnderLets (expr Z)
- value (Z -> Z -> Z) := expr Z -> expr Z -> UnderLets (expr Z)
- value ((Z -> Z) -> Z) := (expr Z -> UnderLets (expr Z)) -> UnderLets
  (expr Z)
```

- By converting expressions to values and using normalization-by-evaluation, we get beta reduction in the standard way.

- We use a couple of splicing combinators to perform let-lifting:

```
- Fixpoint splice {A B} (x : UnderLets A) (e : A -> UnderLets B)
  : UnderLets B
- Fixpoint splice_list {A B} (ls : list (UnderLets A)) (e : list
  A -> UnderLets B) : UnderLets B
- Fixpoint splice_under_lets_with_value {T t} (x : UnderLets T) :
  (T -> value_with_lets t) -> value_with_lets t
- Definition splice_value_with_lets {t t'} : value_with_lets t ->
  (value t -> value_with_lets t') -> value_with_lets t'
```

- There's one additional building block, which is responsible for deciding which lets to inline:

```
- Fixpoint reify_and_let_binds_base_cps {t : base.type} : expr t
  -> forall T, (expr t -> UnderLets T) -> UnderLets T
```

- As is typical for NBE, we make use of a reify-reflect pair of functions: `coq`
 Fixpoint reify {with_lets} {t} : value' with_lets t -> expr t with
 reflect {with_lets} {t} : expr t -> value' with_lets t

- The NBE part of the rewriter, responsible for beta reduction and let-lifting, is now expressible:

```

Local Notation "e <---- e' ; f" := (splice_value_with_lets e' (fun e => f%under_
Local Notation "e <----- e' ; f" := (splice_under_lets_with_value e' (fun e => f

Fixpoint rewrite_bottomup {t} (e : @expr value t) : value_with_lets t
:= match e with
| expr.Ident t idc
  => rewrite_head _ idc
| expr.App s d f x => let f : value s -> value_with_lets d := @rewrite_bott
| expr.LetIn A B x f => x <---- @rewrite_bottomup A x;
                        xv <----- reify_and_let_binds_cps x _ UnderLets.B
                        @rewrite_bottomup B (f (reflect xv))
| expr.Var t v => Base_value v
| expr.Abs s d f => fun x : value s => @rewrite_bottomup d (f x)
end%under_lets.

```

5.1.3 Rewriting

There are three parts and one additional detail to rewriting:

- Pattern matching compilation
- Decision tree evaluation
- Rewriting with a particular rewrite rule
- Rewriting again in the output of a rewrite rule ### Overview
- Rewrite rules are patterns (things like ?? + #? meaning “any variable added to any literal”) paired with dependently typed replacement values indexed over the pattern. The replacement value takes in types for each type variable, **values** for each variable (??), and interpreted values for each literal wildcard. Additionally, any identifier that takes extra parameters will result in the parameters being passed into the rewrite rule. The return type for replacement values is an option UnderLets expr of the correct type.
- A list of rewrite rules is compiled into (a) a decision tree, and (b) a rewriter that functions by evaluating that decision tree. ### The small extra detail: Rewriting again in the output of a rewrite rule
- We tie the entire rewriter together with a fueled repeat_rewrite; the fuel is set to the length of the list of rewrite rules. This means that as long as the intended

rewrite sequences form a DAG, then the rewriter will find all occurrences. ““coq
 Notation nbe := (@rewrite_bottomup (fun t idc => reflect (expr.Ident idc))).

```

Fixpoint repeat_rewrite      (rewrite_head : forall (do_again : forall t : base.type,
@expr value (type.base t) -> UnderLets (@expr var (type.base t)))      t
(idc : ident t), value_with_lets t)      (fuel : nat) {t} e : value_with_lets t :=
@rewrite_bottomup      (rewrite_head      (fun t' e'      => match
fuel with      | Datatypes.O => nbe e'      | Datatypes.S fuel' =>
@repeat_rewrite rewrite_head fuel' (type.base t') e'      end%under_lets))      t
e. - This feature is used to rewrite again with the literal-list append
rule (appending two lists of cons cells results in a single list of cons
cells) in the output of the `flat_map` rule (`flat_map` on a literal list
of cons cells maps the function over the list and joins the resulting lists
with `List.app`). ### Pattern matching compilation - This part of the rewriter
does not need to be verified, because the rewriter-compiler is proven correct
independent of the decision tree used. Note that we could avoid this stage
all together, and simply try each rewrite rule in sequence. We include
this for efficiency. TODO: perf comparison of this method. - We follow
*Compiling Pattern Matching to Good Decision Trees* by Luc Maranget (http://moscova.i
which describes compilation of pattern matches in OCaml to a decision tree
that eliminates needless repeated work (for example, decomposing an expression
into `x + y + z` only once even if two different rules match on that pattern).
- We do *not* bother implementing the optimizations that they describe for
finding minimal decision trees. TODO: Mention something about future work?
Perf testing? - The type of decision trees - A `decision_tree` describes
how to match a vector (or list) of patterns against a vector of expressions.
The cases of a `decision_tree` are: - `TryLeaf k onfailure`: Try the
kth rewrite rule; if it fails, keep going with `onfailure` - `Failure`:
Abort; nothing left to try - `Switch icases app_case default`: With
the first element of the vector, match on its kind; if it is an identifier
matching something in `icases`, remove the first element of the vector run
that decision tree; if it is an application and `app_case` is not `None`,
try the `app_case` decision_tree, replacing the first element of each vector
with the two elements of the function and the argument its applied to; otherwise,
don't modify the vectors, and use the `default` decision tree. - `Swap
i cont`: Swap the first element of the vector with the ith element, and
keep going with `cont` - The inductive type:coq Inductive decision_tree:=
| TryLeaf (k: nat) (onfailure: decision_tree) | Failure | Switch (icases: list (raw_pident
* decision_tree)) (app_case: option decision_tree) (default: decision_tree)
| Swap (i: nat) (cont: decision_tree). - Raw identifiers - Note that the
type of `icases`, the list of identifier cases in the `Switch` constructor
above, maps what we call a `raw_pident` ("p" for "pattern") to a decision
tree. The rewriter is parameterized over a type of `raw_pident`s, which
is instantiated with a python-generated inductive type which names all of

```


the identifiers we care about, except without any arguments. We call them "raw" because they are not type-indexed. - An example where this is important: We want to be able to express a decision tree for the pattern ``fst (x, y)``. This involves an application of the identifier ``fst`` to a pair. We want to be able to talk about "``fst``, of any type" in the decision tree, without needing to list out all of the possible type arguments to ``fst``. - Swap vs indices - One design decision we copy from **Compiling Pattern Matching to Good Decision Trees** is to have a ``Swap`` case. We could instead augment each ``Switch`` with the index in the vector being examined. If we did this, we'd need to talk about splicing a new list into the middle of an existing list, which is harder than talking about swapping two indices of a list. - Note that swapping is **significantly** more painful over typed patterns and terms than over untyped ones. If we index our vectors over a list of types, then we need to swap the types, and later swap them back (when reconstructing the term for evaluation), and then we need to unswap the terms in a way that has `unswap (swap ls)` on the term level **judgmentally** indexed on the type level over the same index-list as `ls`. This is painful, and is an example of pain caused by picking the wrong abstraction, in a way that causes exponential blow-up with each extra layer of dependency added. - The type of patterns - Patterns describe the LHS of rewrite rules, or the LHS of cases of a match statement. We index patterns over their type: `coq Inductive pattern.base.type := var (p : positive) | type_base (t : Compilers.base.type.base) | prod (A B : type) | list (A : type)`. - The type of a pattern is either an arrow or a `pattern.base.type`, and a `pattern.base.type` is either a positive-indexed type-variable (written `'1`, `'2`, ...), or a product, a list, or a standard `base.type` (with no type-variables) - A pattern is either a wildcard, an identifier, or an application of patterns. Note that our rewriter only handles fully applied patterns, i.e., only things of type ``pattern (type.base t)``, not things of type ``pattern t``. (This is not actually true. The rewriter can kind-of handle non-fully-applied patterns, but the Gallina won't reduce in the right places, so we restrict ourselves to fully-applied patterns.) `coq Inductive pattern {ident : type -> Type} : type -> Type := | Wildcard (t : type) : pattern t | Ident {t} (idc : ident t) : pattern t | App {s d} (f : pattern (s -> d)) (x : pattern s) : pattern d`. - Pattern matching **compilation** to decision trees actually uses a more raw version of patterns, which come from these patterns: `coq Module Raw. Inductive pattern {ident : Type} := | Wildcard | Ident (idc : ident) | App (f x : pattern)`. End Raw. - This is because the pattern matching compilation algorithm is morally done over untyped patterns and terms. - The definitions - TODO: How much detail should I include about intermediate things? - Pattern matching compilation at the top-level, takes in a list of patterns, and spits out a decision tree. Note that each ``TryLeaf`` node in the decision tree has an index ``k``, which denotes the index in this initial list of patterns of the chosen rewrite rule. - The workhorse of pattern matching compilation is ``Fixpoint compile_rewrites' (fuel : nat) (pattern_matrix : list (nat * list rawpattern)) : option decision_tree``. This takes the

list rows of the matrix of patterns, each one containing a list (vector in the original source paper) of patterns to match against, and the original index of the rewrite rule that this list of patterns came from. Note that all of these lists are in fact the same length, but we do not track this invariant anywhere, because it would add additional overhead for little-to-no gain.

- The ``compile_rewrites'`` procedure operates as follows:
 - If we are out of fuel, then we fail (return ``None``)
 - If the ``pattern_matrix`` is empty, we indicate ``Failure`` to match
 - If the first row is made up entirely of wildcards, we indicate to ``TryLeaf`` with the rewrite rule corresponding to the first row, and then to continue on with the decision tree corresponding to the rest of the rows.
 - If the first element of the first row is a wildcard, we ``Swap`` the first element with the index ``i`` of the first non-wildcard pattern in the first row. We then swap the first element with the ``i``th element in every row of the matrix, and continue on with the result of compiling that matrix.
 - If the first element of the first row is not a wildcard, we issue a ``Switch``. We first split the pattern matrix by finding the first row where the first element in that row is a wildcard, and aggregating that row and all rows after it into the ``default_pattern_matrix``. We partition the rows before that row into the ones where the first element is an application node and the ones where the first element is an identifier node. The application nodes get split into the pattern for the function, and the pattern for the argument, and these two are prepended to the row. We group the rows that start with identifier patterns into groups according to the pattern identifier at the beginning of the row, and then take the tail of each of these rows. We then compile all of these decision trees to make up the Switch case.
 - In code, this looks like:

```

coq Definition compile_rewrites_step (pattern_matrix : list (nat
  * list rawpattern)) : option decision_tree := match pattern_matrix with
| nil => Some Failure
| (n1, p1) :: ps => match get_index_of_first_non_wildcard p1 with
| None (* p1 is all wildcards ) => (onfailure <- compile_rewrites ps;
  Some (TryLeaf n1 onfailure))
| _ => let '(pattern_matrix, default_pattern_matrix) :=
  split_at_first_pattern_wildcard pattern_matrix in
  default_case <- compile_rewrites default_pattern_matrix;
  app_case <- (if contains_pattern_app pattern_matrix
  then option_map Some (compile_rewrites (Option.List.map filter_pattern_app pattern_matrix))
  else Some None);
  let pidcs := get_unique_pattern_ident pattern_matrix in
  let icases := Option.List.map (fun pidc => option_map (pair pidc) (compile_rewrites (Option.List.map (filter_pattern_pident pidc) pattern_matrix))) pidcs in
  Some (Switch icases app_case default_case)
| Some i => let pattern_matrix' := List.map (fun '(n, ps) => (n, match swap_list 0 i ps with
  None => nil ( should be impossible *)
  _ => ps')) pattern_matrix' in
  compile_rewrites_step pattern_matrix'
end))

```

tern_matrix in d <- compile_rewrites pattern_matrix'; Some (Swap
id) end end%option. - We wrap `compile_rewrites` in a definition
`compile_rewrites` which extracts the well-typed patterns from a list of
rewrite rules, associates them to indices, and strips the typing information
off of the patterns to create raw (untyped) patterns. ### Decision Tree
Evaluation - The next step in rewriting is to evaluate the decision tree
to construct Gallina procedure that takes in an unknown (at rewrite-rule-compile-time
AST and performs the rewrite. This is broken up into two steps. The first
step is to create the `match` structure that exposes all of the relevant
information in the AST, and picks which rewrite rules to try in which order,
and glues together failure and success of rewriting. The second step is
to actually try to rewrite with a given rule, under the assumption that
enough structure has been exposed. - Because we have multiple phases of
compilation, we need to track which information we have (and therefore can
perform reduction on) when we know only the patterns but not the AST being
rewritten in, and which reductions have to wait until we know the AST. The
way we track this information is by creating a wrapper type for ASTs. Note
that the wrapper type is not indexed over type codes, because pattern matching
compilation naturally operates over untyped terms, and adjusting it to work
when indexed over a vector of types is painful. - The wrapper type, and
revealing structure - Because different rewrite rules require different
amounts of structure, we want to feed in only as much structure as is required
for a given rewrite rule. For example, if we have one rewrite rule that
is looking at `(? + ?) + ?`, and another that is looking at `? + 0`, we
want to feed in the argument to the top-level `+` into the second rewrite
rule, not a reassembled version of all of the different things an expression
might be after checking for `+`-like structure of the first argument. If
we did not do this, every rewrite rule replacement pattern would end up
being as complicated as the deepest rewrite rule being considered, and we
expect this would incur performance overhead. TODO: Perf testing? - Because
we want our rewrite-rule-compilation to happen by reduction in Coq, we define
many operations in CPS-style, so that we can carefully manage the exact
judgmental structures of the discriminates of `match` statements. - An
`Inductive rawexpr : Type` is one of the following things:

```

coq Inductive raw-
expr : Type := | rIdent (known : bool) {t} (idc : ident t) {t'} (alt : expr t') |
rApp (f x : rawexpr) {t} (alt : expr t) | rExpr {t} (e : expr t) | rValue {t} (e :
value t). - `rIdent known t idc t' alt` - an identifier `idc : ident t`,
whose unrevealed structure is `alt : expr t'`. The boolean `known` indicates
if the identifier is known to be simple enough that we can fully reduce
matching on its type arguments during rewrite-rule-compilation-time. For
example, if we know an identifier to be `Z.add` (perhaps because we have
matched on it already), we can reduce equality tests against the type. However,
if an identifier is `nil T`, we are not guaranteed to know the type of the
list judgmentally, and so we do not want to reduce type-equality tests against
the list. Note that type-equality tests and type-transport are introduced

```

as the least-evil thing we could find to cross the broken abstraction barrier between the untyped terms of pattern matching compilation, and the typed PHOASTs that we are operating on.

- ``rApp f x t alt`` is the application of the ``rawexpr` `f`` to the ``rawexpr` `x``, whose unrevealed structure is ``alt : expr t``.
- ``rExpr t e`` is a not-as-yet revealed expression ``e : expr t``.
- ``rValue t e`` is an unrevealed value ``e : value t``. Such NBE-style values may contain thunked computation, such as deferred rewriting opportunities. This is essential for fully evaluating rewriting in expressions such as ``map (fun x => x + x + 0) ls``, where you want to rewrite away the ``map`` (when ``ls`` is a concrete list of cons cells), the ``+ 0`` (always), and the ``x + x`` whenever ``x`` is a literal (which you do not know until you have distributed the function over the list). Allowing thunked computation in the ASTs allows us to do all of this rewriting in a single pass.
- Revealing structure: ``Definition reveal_rawexpr_cps (e : rawexpr) : ~> rawexpr``
- For the sake of proofs, we actually define a slightly more general version of revealing structure, which allows us to specify whether or not we have already matched against the putative identifier at the top-level of the ``rawexpr``.
- The code: `coq Definition reveal_rawexpr_cps_gen (assume_known : option bool) (e : rawexpr) : ~> rawexpr := fun T k => match e, assume_known with | rExpr _e as r, / rValue (type.base) e as r, => match e with / expr.Ident t idc => k (rIdent (match assume_known with Some known => known / => false end) idc e) | expr.App s d f x => k (rApp (rExpr f) (rExpr x) e) | _ => k r end | rIdent _t idc t' alt, Some known => k (rIdent known idc alt) | e', _ => k e' end.`
- To reveal a ``rawexpr``, CPS-style, we first match on the ``rawexpr``.
- If it is an ``rExpr``, or a ``rValue`` at a base type (and thus just an expression), we then match on the resulting expression.
- If it is an identifier or an application node, we encode that, and then invoke the continuation
- Otherwise, we invoke the continuation with the existing ``rExpr`` or ``rValue``, because there was no more accessible structure to reveal; we do not allow matching on lambdas syntactically.
- If it is an identifier and we are hard-coding the ``known`` status about if matches on the type of the identifier can be reduced, then we re-assemble the ``rIdent`` node with the new ``known`` status and invoke the continuation.
- Otherwise, we just invoke the continuation on the reassembled ``rawexpr``.
- Correctness conditions
- There are a couple of properties that must hold of ``reveal_rawexpr_cps``.
- The first is a ``cps_id`` rule, which says that applying ``reveal_rawexpr_cps`` to any continuation is the same as invoking the continuation with ``reveal_rawexpr_cps`` applied to the identity continuation.
- The next rule talks about a property we call ``rawexpr_types_ok``. To say that this property holds is to say that the ``rawexpr``s are well-typed in accordance with the unrevealed expressions stored in the tree.
- Code: `coq Fixpoint rawexpr_types_ok (r : @rawexpr var) (t : type) : Prop := match r with | rExpr t' / rValue t' => t' = t | rIdent _t1 _t2 => t1 = t / t2 = t / rApp f x t' alt => t' = t / match alt`

`with` `/ expr.App s d` `=> rawexpr_types_ok f (type.arrow s`
`d)` `/ rawexpr_types_ok x s` `/ => False` `end`
`end.` - We must then have that a ``rawexpr`` is ``rawexpr_types_ok`` if and
only if the result of revealing one layer of structure via ``reveal_rawexpr_cps``
is ``rawexpr_types_ok``. - We also define a relation ``rawexpr_equiv``
which says that two ``rawexpr``s represent the same expression, up to different
amounts of revealed structure. - Code:coq Local Notation `e1 === e2`
`:= (existT expr _e1 = existT expr _e2) : type_scope.`

```

Fixpoint rawexpr_equiv_expr {t0} (e1 : expr t0) (r2 : rawexpr) {struct r2} : Prop
:= match r2 with
| rIdent _ t idc t' alt
  => alt === e1 /\ expr.Ident idc === e1
| rApp f x t alt
  => alt === e1
  /\ match e1 with
  | expr.App _ _ f' x'
    => rawexpr_equiv_expr f' f /\ rawexpr_equiv_expr x' x
  | _ => False
  end
| rExpr t e
| rValue (type.base t) e
  => e === e1
| rValue t e => False
end.

```

```

Fixpoint rawexpr_equiv (r1 r2 : rawexpr) : Prop
:= match r1, r2 with
| rExpr t e, r
| r, rExpr t e
| rValue (type.base t) e, r
| r, rValue (type.base t) e
  => rawexpr_equiv_expr e r
| rValue t1 e1, rValue t2 e2
  => existT _ t1 e1 = existT _ t2 e2
| rIdent _ t1 idc1 t'1 alt1, rIdent _ t2 idc2 t'2 alt2
  => alt1 === alt2
  /\ (existT ident _ idc1 = existT ident _ idc2)
| rApp f1 x1 t1 alt1, rApp f2 x2 t2 alt2
  => alt1 === alt2
  /\ rawexpr_equiv f1 f2
  /\ rawexpr_equiv x1 x2
| rValue _ _, _
| rIdent _ _ _ _ , _
| rApp _ _ _ _ , _

```

```

      => False
    end.
  ...

  - The relation `rawexpr_equiv` is effectively the recursive closure of `reveal_rawexpr`
  <!---
  - Finally, we define a notation of `wf` for `rawexpr`s called `wf_rawexpr`, and we
  related, then the results of calling `reveal_rawexpr` on both of them are `wf_rawexpr`
  related.
  - The definition of `wf_rawexpr` is:
  ```coq
 Inductive wf_rawexpr : list { t : type & var1 t * var2 t }%type -> forall {t},
 | Wf_rIdent {t} G known (idc : ident t) : wf_rawexpr G (rIdent known idc (expr.
 | Wf_rApp {s d} G
 f1 (f1e : @expr var1 (s -> d)) x1 (x1e : @expr var1 s)
 f2 (f2e : @expr var2 (s -> d)) x2 (x2e : @expr var2 s)
 : wf_rawexpr G f1 f1e f2 f2e
 -> wf_rawexpr G x1 x1e x2 x2e
 -> wf_rawexpr G
 (rApp f1 x1 (expr.App f1e x1e)) (expr.App f1e x1e)
 (rApp f2 x2 (expr.App f2e x2e)) (expr.App f2e x2e)
 | Wf_rExpr {t} G (e1 e2 : expr t)
 : expr.wf G e1 e2 -> wf_rawexpr G (rExpr e1) e1 (rExpr e2) e2
 | Wf_rValue {t} G (v1 v2 : value t)
 : wf_value G v1 v2
 -> wf_rawexpr G (rValue v1) (reify v1) (rValue v2) (reify v2).
  ``` --->

```

- Evaluating the decision tree

- Decision tree evaluation is performed by a single monolithic recursive function:

```

Fixpoint eval_decision_tree {T} (ctx : list rawexpr) (d : decision_tree)
(cont : nat -> list rawexpr -> option T) {struct d} : option T

```

```

Fixpoint eval_decision_tree {T} (ctx : list rawexpr) (d : decision_tree) (cont :
:= match d with
| TryLeaf k onfailure
  => let res := cont k ctx in
    match onfailure with
    | Failure => res
    | _ => res ;; (@eval_decision_tree T ctx onfailure cont)
    end
| Failure => None
| Switch icas es app_case default_case
  => match ctx with
    | nil => None

```

```
| ctx0 :: ctx'
=> let res
    := reveal_rawexpr_cps
      ctx0 _
      (fun ctx0'
        => match ctx0' with
          | rIdent known t idc t' alt
            => fold_right
              (fun '(pidc, icase) rest
                => let res
                    := if known
                      then
                        (args <- invert_bind_args _ idc
                          @eval_decision_tree
                            T ctx' icase
                              (fun k ctx''
                                => cont k (rIdent
                                  (raw_pident_i
                                    (raw_pident_t
                                      ...))))))
                      else
                        @eval_decision_tree
                          T ctx' icase
                            (fun k ctx''
                              => option_bind'
                                (invert_bind_args_unknow
                                  (fun args
                                    => cont k (rIdent
                                      (raw_piden
                                        (raw_piden
                                          ...)))))))
                  in
                    match rest with
                    | None => Some res
                    | Some rest => Some (res ;; rest)
                  end)
                None
                icases;;;
                None
          | rApp f x t alt
            => match app_case with
              | Some app_case
                => @eval_decision_tree
                  T (f :: x :: ctx') app_case
                    (fun k ctx''
                      => match ctx'' with
                        | f' :: x' :: ctx'''
```

```

                                => cont k (rApp f' x' alt :: ctx'')
                                | _ => None
                                end)
                                | None => None
                                end
                                | rExpr t e
                                | rValue t e
                                => None
                                end) in
    match default_case with
    | Failure => res
    | _ => res ;; (@eval_decision_tree T ctx default_case cont)
    end
  end
| Swap i d'
  => match swap_list 0 i ctx with
  | Some ctx'
    => @eval_decision_tree
      T ctx' d'
      (fun k ctx''
        => match swap_list 0 i ctx'' with
        | Some ctx''' => cont k ctx'''
        | None => None
        end)
      | None => None
    end
  end%option.

```

- This function takes a list (vector in the original source paper) `ctx` of `rawexprs` to match against, a `decision_tree d` to evaluate, and a “continuation” `cont` which tries a given rewrite rule based on the index of the rewrite rule (in the original list of rewrite rules) and the list of `rawexprs` to feed into the rewrite rule. This continuation is threaded through the decision tree evaluation procedure, and each time we split up the structure of the pattern matrix (virtually, in the decision tree) and the list of `rawexprs` (concretely, as an argument), we add a bit to the continuation that “undoes” the splitting. In the end, the top-level “continuation” gets fed a singleton list containing a `rawexpr` with enough structure for the rewrite rule it is trying. TODO: Figure out how to be more clear here; I anticipate this is unclear, and I’m not sure how to fix it except by randomly throwing more sentences in to try to explain it in various different ways.
- Correctness conditions
 - There are two correctness conditions for `eval_decision_tree`: one for `wf`, and the other for `Interp`.

- The interpretation-correctness rule says that either `eval_decision_tree` returns `None`, or it returns the result of calling the continuation on some index and with some list of `rawexprs` which is element-wise `rawexpr_equiv` to the input list. In other words, `eval_decision_tree` does nothing more than revealing some structure, and then eventually calling the continuation (which is to be filled in with “rewrite with this rule”) on the revealed `rawexpr`.
 - The `wf` correctness condition is significantly more verbose to state, but it boils down to saying that as long as the continuation behaves “the same” (for some parameterized notion of “the same”) on `wf_rawexpr`-related `rawexprs`, then `eval_decision_tree` will similarly behave “the same” on element-wise `wf_rawexpr`-related lists of `rawexprs`.
- Definition
 - The `eval_decision_tree` procedure proceeds recursively on the structure of the `decision_tree`.
 - If the decision tree is a `TryLeaf k onfailure`, then we try the continuation on the `kth` rewrite rule. If it fails (by returning `None`), we proceed with `onfailure`. In the code, there is a bit of extra care taken to simplify the resulting output code when `onfailure` is just `Failure`, i.e., no remaining matches to try. This probably does not impact performance, but it makes the output of the rewrite-rule-compilation procedure slightly easier to read and debug.
 - If the decision tree is `Failure` return `None`, i.e., we did not succeed in rewriting.
 - If the decision tree starts with `Swap i d'`, we swap the first element with the `i`th element in the list of `rawexprs` we are matching on (to mirror the swapping in the pattern matrix that happened when compiling the decision tree), and then continue on evaluating `d'`. We augment the continuation by reversing the swap in the list of `rawexprs` passed in at the beginning, to cancel out the swap we did “on the outside” before continuing with evaluation of the decision tree. Note that here we are jumping through some extra hoops to get the right reduction behavior at rewrite-rule-compilation time.
 - If none of the above match, the decision tree must begin with `Switch icases app_case default_case`. In this case, we start by revealing the structure of the first element of the list of `rawexprs`. (If there is no first element, which should never happen, we indicate failure by returning `None`.) In the continuation of `reveal_rawexpr_cps`, we check which sort of `rawexpr` we have. Note that in all cases of failure below, we try again with the `default_case`.
 - * If we have no accessible structure (`rExpr` or `rValue`), then we fail with `None`.
 - * If we have an application, we take the two arguments of `rApp`, the

function and its argument, and prepend them to the tail of the list of `rawexprs`. We then continue evaluation with `app_case` (if it is non-`None`), and, in the continuation, we reassemble the `rawexpr` by taking the first two elements of the passed-in-list, and combining them in a new `rApp` node. We keep the unrevealed structure in `alt` the same as it was in the `rApp` that we started with.

- * If we have an identifier, then we look at `icases`. We fold through the list of identifiers, looking to see if any of them match the identifier that we have. If the identifier is `known`, then we perform the match before evaluating the corresponding decision tree, because we want to avoid revealing useless structure. If the identifier is not `known`, then first we reveal all of the necessary structure for this identifier by continuing decision tree evaluation, and only then in the continuation do we try to match against the identifier.
- * In both cases, we drop the first element of the list of `rawexprs` being matched against when continuing evaluation, to mirror the dropping that happens in compilation of the decision tree. We then prepend a re-built identifier onto the head of the list inside the continuation. We have a table of which pattern identifiers have `known` types, and we have conversion functions between pattern identifiers and PHOAST identifiers (autogenerated in Python) which allow us to extract the arguments from the PHOAST identifier and re-insert them into the pattern identifier. For example, this will extract the list type from `nil` (because the pattern-identifier version does not specify what the type of the list is—we will say more about this in the next section), or the literal value from the `Literal` identifier, and allow recreating the fully-typed identifier from the pattern-identifier with these arguments. This allows more rewriter-compile-time reduction opportunities which allows us to deduplicate matches against the same identifier. Note that we have two different constants that we use for binding these arguments; they do the same thing, but one is reduced away completely at rewrite-rule-compilation time, and the other is preserved. `###`
Rewriting with a particular rewrite rule

- The final big piece of the rewriter is to rewrite with a particular rule, given a `rawexpr` with enough revealed structure, a `pattern` against which we bind arguments, and a replacement rule which is a function indexed over the `pattern`. We saw above the inductive type of patterns. Let us now discuss the structure of the replacement rules.
- Replacement rule types
- The data for a replacement rule is indexed over a pattern-type `t` and a `p : pattern t`. It has three options, in addition to the actual replacement rule:

```
Record rewrite_rule_data {t} {p : pattern t} :=
```

```

{ rew_should_do_again : bool;
  rew_with_opt : bool;
  rew_under_lets : bool;
  rew_replacement : @with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen value t p rew_should_do_again

```

- `rew_should_do_again` determines whether or not to rewrite again in the output of this rewrite rule. For example, the rewrite rule for `flat_map` on a concrete list of cons cells maps the function over the list, and joins the resulting list of lists with `append`. We want to rewrite again with the rule for `List.app` in the output of this replacement.
- `rew_with_opt` determines whether or not the rewrite rule might fail. For example, rewrite rules like `x + 0 ~> x` are encoded by talking about the pattern of a wildcard added to a literal, and say that the rewrite only succeeds if the literal is 0. Additionally, as another example, all rewrite rules involving casts fail if bounds on the input do not line up; in the pattern `Z.cast @ ((Z.cast @ ??) + (Z.cast @ ??))` the cast node in front of an addition must be loose enough to hold the sum of the ranges taken from the two cast nodes in front of each of the wildcards.
- `rew_under_lets` determines whether or not the replacement rule returns an explicit `UnderLets` structure. This can be used for let-binding a part of the replacement value.
- The rewrite rule replacement itself is a function. It takes in first all type variables which are mentioned in the pattern, and then, in an in-order traversal of the pattern syntax tree, the non-type arguments for each identifier (e.g., interpreted values of literals, ranges of cast nodes) and a `value (pattern.type.subst_default t evm)` for each wildcard of type `t` (that is, we plug in the known type variables into the pattern-type, and use `unit` for any unknown type variables). It may return a thing in the `option` and/or `UnderLets` monads, depending on `rew_with_opt` and `rew_under_lets`. Underneath these possible monads, it returns an `expr` of the correct type (we substitute the type variables we take in into the type of the pattern), whose `var` type is either `@value var` (if `rew_should_do_again`) or `var` (if not `rew_should_do_again`). The different `var` types are primarily to make the type of the output of the rewrite rule line up with the expression type that is fed into the rewriter as a whole. We have a number of definitions that describe this in a dependently typed mess:

```

– We aggregate the type variables into a PositiveSet.t with Fixpoint
  pattern.base.collect_vars (t : base.type) : PositiveSet.t and
  Fixpoint pattern.type.collect_vars (t : type) : PositiveSet.t:
  coq Module base. Fixpoint collect_vars (t : type) : PositiveSet.t
  := match t with
    | type.var p => PositiveSet.add p PositiveSet.empty
    | type.type_base t => PositiveSet.empty
    | type.prod A
  B => PositiveSet.union (collect_vars A) (collect_vars B)
  type.list A => collect_vars A
  end. End base. Module
  type. Fixpoint collect_vars (t : type) : PositiveSet.t :=

```

```

match t with
  | type.base t => base.collect_vars t
type.arrow s d => PositiveSet.union (collect_vars s) (collect_vars d)
end. End type.

```

- We quantify over type variables for each of the numbers in the `PositiveSet.t` and aggregate the bound types into a `PositiveMap.t` with `pattern.type.forall_vars`. Note that we use the possibly ill-chosen abbreviation `EvarMap` for `PositiveMap.t`
- `Compilers.base.type`. “coq Local Notation forall_vars_body K LS EVM0 := (fold_right (fun i k evm => forall t : Compilers.base.type, k (PositiveMap.add i t evm)) K LS EVM0).

Definition forall_vars (p : PositiveSet.t) (k : EvarMap -> Type) := forall_vars_body k (List.rev (PositiveSet.elements p)) (PositiveMap.empty _). - We take in the context variable ``pident_arg_types : forall t, pident t -> list Type`` which describes the arguments bound for a given pattern identifier. - We then quantify over identifier arguments and wildcard values with ``with_unification_resultT``: coq Local Notation type_of_list_cps := (fold_right (fun a K => a -> K)).

Fixpoint with_unification_resultT' {var} {t} (p : pattern t) (evm : EvarMap) (K : Type) : Type := match p return Type with | pattern.Wildcard t => var (pattern.type.subst_default t evm) -> K | pattern.Ident t idc => type_of_list_cps K (pident_arg_types t idc) | pattern.App s d f x => @with_unification_resultT' var _f evm (@with_unification_resultT' var _x evm K) end%type.

Definition with_unification_resultT {var t} (p : pattern t) (K : type -> Type) : Type := pattern.type.forall_vars (@pattern.collect_vars _t p) (fun evm => @with_unification_resultT' var t p evm (K (pattern.type.subst_default t evm))). - Finally, we can define the type of rewrite replacement rules: coq Local Notation deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen' should_do_again with_opt under_lets t := (match (@expr.expr base.type ident (if should_do_again then value else var) t) with | x0 => match (if under_lets then UnderLets x0 else x0) with | x1 => if with_opt then option x1 else x1 end end).

Definition deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen (should_do_again : bool) (with_opt : bool) (under_lets : bool) t := deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen' should_do_again with_opt under_lets t.

Definition with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen {var t} (p : pattern t) (should_do_again : bool) (with_opt : bool) (under_lets : bool) := @with_unification_resultT var t p (fun t => deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen' should_do_again with_opt under_lets t). Whence we have coq rew_replacement : @with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen value t p rew_should_do_again rew_with_opt rew_under_lets “

- There are two steps to rewriting with a rule, both conceptually simple but in practice complicated by dependent types. We must unify a pattern with an expression, gathering binding data for the replacement rule as we go; and we must

apply the replacement rule to the binding data (which is non-trivial because the rewrite rules are expressed as curried dependently-typed towers indexed over the rewrite rule pattern). In order to state the correctness conditions for gathering binding data, we must first talk about applying replacement rules to binding data.

- Applying binding data
- The general strategy for applying binding data is to define an uncurried package (sigma type, or dependent pair) holding all of the arguments, and to define an application function that applies the replacement rule (at various stages of construction) to the binding data package.
- The uncurried package types
 - To turn a list of Types into a Type, we define `Local Notation type_of_list` `:= (fold_right (fun a b => prod a b) unit).`
 - The type `unification_resultT'` describes the binding data for a pattern, given a map of pattern type variables to types: `coq Fixpoint unification_resultT' {var} {t} (p : pattern t) (evm : EvarMap) : Type := match p return Type with | pattern.Wildcard t => var (pattern.type.subst_default t evm) | pattern.Ident t idc => type_of_list (pident_arg_types t idc) | pattern.App s d f x => @unification_resultT' var _ f evm * @unification_resultT' var _ x evm end%type.`
 - A `unification_resultT` packages up the type variable replacement map with the bound values: `coq Definition unification_resultT {var t} (p : pattern t) : Type := { evm : EvarMap & @unification_resultT' var t p evm }.`
- The application functions
 - The definition `app_type_of_list` applies a CPS-type `type_of_list_cps` function to uncurried arguments: `coq Definition app_type_of_list {K} {ls : list Type} (f : type_of_list_cps K ls) (args : type_of_list ls) : K := list_rect (fun ls => type_of_list_cps K ls -> type_of_list ls -> K) (fun v _ => v) (fun T Ts rec f x => rec (f (fst x)) (snd x)) ls f args.`
 - Given two different maps of type variables (another instance of abstraction-barrier-breaking), we can apply a `with_unification_resultT'` to a `unification_resultT` by inserting casts in the appropriate places: `coq (** TODO: Maybe have a fancier version of this that doesn't actually need to insert casts, by doing a fixpoint on the list of elements / the evar map *) Fixpoint app_transport_with_unification_resultT'_cps {var t p evm1 evm2 K} {struct p} : @with_unification_resultT' var t p evm1 K -> @unification_resultT' var t p evm2 -> forall`

```

T, (K -> option T) -> option T      := fun f x T k      => match
p return with_unification_resultT' p evm1 K -> unification_resultT'
p evm2 -> option T with                | pattern.Wildcard t      =>
fun f x                                => (tr <- type.try_make_transport_cps base.try_make_t
var _ _;                                (tr <- tr;                                k
(f (tr x)))%option)%cps                | pattern.Ident t idc => fun f x
=> k (app_type_of_list f x)              | pattern.App s d f x      =>
fun F (xy : unification_resultT' f _ * unification_resultT' x _)
=> @app_transport_with_unification_resultT'_cps
_ f _ _ _ F (fst xy) T                  (fun F'                      =>
@app_transport_with_unification_resultT'_cps
_ x _ _ _ F' (snd xy) T                  (fun x' => k x'))
end%option f x.

```

- We can apply a `forall_vars` tower over the type variables in a pattern to a particular mapping of type variables to types, with a headache of dependently typed code: “‘coq Fixpoint app_forall_vars_gen {k : EvarMap -> Type} (evm : EvarMap) (ls : list PositiveMap.key) : forall evm0, forall_vars_body k ls evm0 -> option (k (fold_right (fun i k evm' => k (match PositiveMap.find i evm with Some v => PositiveMap.add i v evm' | None => evm' end)) (fun evm => evm) ls evm0)) := match ls return forall evm0, forall_vars_body k ls evm0 -> option (k (fold_right (fun i k evm' => k (match PositiveMap.find i evm with Some v => PositiveMap.add i v evm' | None => evm' end)) (fun evm => evm) ls evm0)) with | nil => fun evm0 val => Some val | cons x xs => match PositiveMap.find x evm as xt return (forall evm0, (forall t, fold_right _k xs (PositiveMap.add x t evm0)) -> option (k (fold_right _ _xs match xt with | Some v => PositiveMap.add x v evm0 | None => evm0 end)))) with | Some v => fun evm0 val => @app_forall_vars_gen k evm xs _ (val v) | None => fun evm0 val => None end end.

Definition app_forall_vars {p : PositiveSet.t} {k : EvarMap -> Type} (f : forall_vars p k) (evm : EvarMap) : option (k (fold_right (fun i k evm' => k (match PositiveMap.find i evm with Some v => PositiveMap.add i v evm' | None => evm' end)) (fun evm => evm) (List.rev (PositiveSet.elements p)) (PositiveMap.empty))) := @app_forall_vars_gen k evm (List.rev (PositiveSet.elements p)) (PositiveMap.empty) f. - Finally, we can apply a ``with_unification_resultT`` to a ``unification_resultT`` package in the obvious way, inserting casts as

```

needed:coq Definition app_with_unification_resultT_cps {var t p K} : @with_unification_resultT
var t p K -> @unification_resultT var t p -> forall T, ({ evm' : _& K (pat-
tern.type.subst_default t evm') } -> option T) -> option T := fun f x T k =>
(f' <- pattern.type.app_forall_vars f (projT1 x);      app_transport_with_unification_resultT' cp
f' (projT2 x)      (fun fx      => k (existT _fx)))%option. “

```

- Unifying patterns with expressions
- First, we unify the types, in continuation-passing-style, returning an optional `PositiveMap.t` from type variable indices to types.
 - This is actually done in two steps, so that rewrite-rule-compilation can reduce away all occurrences of patterns. First, we check that the expression has the right structure, and extract all of the relevant types both from the pattern and from the expression. Then we connect the types with `type.arrow` (used simply for convenience, so we don't have to unify lists of types, only individual types), and we unify the two resulting types, extracting a `PositiveMap.t` describing the assignments resulting from the unification problem.
 - We first define a few helper definitions that should be self-explanatory:
 - * The function `type_of_rawexpr` gets the type of a `rawexpr`:

```

coq Definition type_of_rawexpr (e : rawexpr) : type := match
e with
| rIdent _ t idc t' alt => t' | rApp f
x t alt => t | rExpr t e => t | rValue t e =>
t end.

```
 - * The functions `pattern.base.relax` and `pattern.type.relax` take a PHOAST type and turn it into a pattern type, which just happens to have no pattern type variables.

```

Module base. Fixpoint relax
(t : Compilers.base.type) : type := match t with
| Compilers.base.type.type_base t => type.type_base t
| Compilers.base.type.prod A B => type.prod (relax A) (relax B)
| Compilers.base.type.list A => type.list (relax A)
end. End base. Module type. Fixpoint relax
(t : type.type Compilers.base.type) : type := match t
with
| type.base t => type.base (base.relax t)
| type.arrow s d => type.arrow (relax s) (relax d)
end. End type.

```
 - The function responsible for checking the structure of patterns and extracting the types to be unified is `preunify_types {t} (e : rawexpr) (p : pattern t) : option (option (ptype * type))`. It will return `None` if the structure does not match, `Some None` if the type of an identifier of known type in the `rawexpr` does not match the type of the identifier in the pattern (which is guaranteed to always be known, and thus this comparison is safe to perform at rewriter-rule-compilation time), and will

return `Some (Some (t1, t2))` if the structures match, where `t1` and `t2` are the types to be unified.

```

Fixpoint preunify_types {t} (e : rawexpr) (p : pattern t) {struct p}
  : option (option (ptype * type))
:= match p, e with
| pattern.Wildcard t, _
  => Some (Some (t, type_of_rawexpr e))
| pattern.Ident pt pidc, rIdent known t idc _ _
  => if andb known (type.type_beq _ pattern.base.type.type_beq pt (patt
    then Some None
    else Some (Some (pt, t))
| pattern.App s d pf px, rApp f x _ _
  => (resa <- @preunify_types _ f pf;
    resb <- @preunify_types _ x px;
    Some match resa, resb with
    | None, None => None
    | None, Some t
    | Some t, None => Some t
    | Some (a, a'), Some (b, b')
      => Some (type.arrow a b, type.arrow a' b')
    end)
| pattern.Ident _ _, _
| pattern.App _ _ _ _, _
  => None
end%option.

```

– We have two correctness conditions on `preunify_types`.

- * The `wf` correctness condition says that if two `rawexprs` are `wf_rawexpr`-related, then the result of pre-unifying one of them with a pattern `p` is the same as the result of pre-unifying the other with the same pattern `p`.
- * Second, for interpretation-correctness, we define a recursive proposition encoding the well-matching of patterns with `rawexprs` under a given map of pattern type variables to types: `coq Fixpoint types_match_with (evm : EvarMap) {t} (e : rawexpr) (p : pattern t) {struct p} : Prop := match p, e with | pattern.Wildcard t, e => pattern.type.subst t evm = Some (type_of_rawexpr e) | pattern.Ident t idc, rIdent known t' _ _ => pattern.type.subst t evm = Some t' | pattern.App s d f x, rApp f' x' _ _ => @types_match_with evm _ f' f /\ @types_match_with evm _ x' x | pattern.Ident _ _, _ | pattern.App _ _ _ _, _ => False end.`
- * Then we prove that for any map `evm` of pattern type variables to types, if `preunify_types re p` returns `Some (Some (pt, t'))`, and the result of substituting into `pt` the pattern type variables in the


```

given map is t', then types_match_with evm re p holds. Symbol-
ically, this is coq
Lemma preunify_types_to_match_with {t re
p evm}      : match @preunify_types ident var pident t re p
with        | Some None => True          | Some (Some (pt, t'))
=> pattern.type.subst pt evm = Some t'    | None => False
end        -> types_match_with evm re p.

```

- In a possibly-gratuitous use of dependent typing to ensure that no uses of `PositiveMap.t` remain after rewrite-rule-compilation, we define a dependently typed data structure indexed over the pattern type which holds the mapping of each pattern type variable to a corresponding type. This step cannot be fully reduced at rewrite-rule-compilation time, because we may not know enough type structure in the `rawexpr`. We then collect these variables into a `PositiveMap.t`; this step *can* be fully reduced at rewrite-rule-compilation time, because the pattern always has a well-defined type structure, and so we know *which* type variables will have assignments in the `PositiveMap.t`, even if we don't necessarily know concretely (at rewrite-rule-compilation time) *what* those type variables will be assigned to. We must also add a final check that substituting into the pattern type according the resulting `PositiveMap.t` actually does give the expected type; we do not want `'1 -> '1` and `nat -> bool` to unify. We could check at each addition to the `PositiveMap.t` that we are not replacing one type with a different type. However, the proofs are much simpler if we simply do a wholesale check at the very end. We eventually perform this check in `unify_types`.

```

* We thus define the dependently typed structures: ““ Module base.
  Fixpoint var_types_of (t : type) : Set      := match t with      |
  type.var _=> Compilers.base.type           | type.type_base _=> unit
  | type.prod A B => var_types_of A * var_types_of B      | type.list
  A => var_types_of A      end%type.

```

```

  Fixpoint add_var_types_cps {t : type} (v : var_types_of t) (evm :
  EvarMap) : ~> EvarMap      := fun T k      => match t return
  var_types_of t -> T with      | type.var p      => fun t => k
  (PositiveMap.add p t evm)      | type.prod A B      => fun '(a,
  b) => @add_var_types_cps A a evm _ (fun evm => @add_var_types_cps
  B b evm _k)      | type.list A => fun t => @add_var_types_cps A t
  evm _k      | type.type_base _=> fun _=> k evm      end v. End
  base. Module type.  Fixpoint var_types_of (t : type) : Set      := match
  t with      | type.base t => base.var_types_of t      | type.arrow s d =>
  var_types_of s * var_types_of d      end%type.

```

```

  Fixpoint add_var_types_cps {t : type} (v : var_types_of t) (evm :
  EvarMap) : ~> EvarMap      := fun T k      => match t return var_types_of
  t -> T with      | type.base t => fun v => @base.add_var_types_cps
  t v evm _k      | type.arrow A B      => fun '(a, b) =>
  @add_var_types_cps A a evm _ (fun evm => @add_var_types_cps B b

```

```

    evm _k)      end v. End type. - We can now write down the unifier
    that produces `var_types_of` from a unification problem; it is
    straightforward: Module base. Fixpoint unify_extracted (ptype
    : type) (etype : Compilers.base.type) : option (var_types_of ptype) :=
    match ptype, etype return option (var_types_of ptype) with
    | type.var p, _ => Some etype | type.type_base t, Compilers.base.type.type_base
    t' => if base.type.base_beq t t' then Some tt else
    None | type.prod A B, Compilers.base.type.prod A' B' =>
    a <- unify_extracted A A'; b <- unify_extracted B B';
    Some (a, b) | type.list A, Compilers.base.type.list A' =>
    unify_extracted A A' | type.type_base , | type.prod _, |
    type.list , => None end%option. End base. Module
    type. Fixpoint unify_extracted (ptype : type) (etype : type.type
    Compilers.base.type) : option (var_types_of ptype) := match ptype,
    etype return option (var_types_of ptype) with
    | type.base t, type.base t' => base.unify_extracted t t' | type.arrow A B, type.arrow
    A' B' => a <- unify_extracted A A'; b <- unify_extracted
    B B'; Some (a, b) | type.base , | type.arrow _,
    => None end%option. End type. ““

```

- Finally, we can write down the type-unifier for patterns and **rawexprs**. Note that the final equality check, described and motivated above, is performed in this function.

(* for unfolding help *)

Definition option_type_type_beq := option_beq (type.type_beq _ base.type.type_beq _)

```

Definition unify_types {t} (e : rawexpr) (p : pattern t) : ~> option EvarMap
:= fun T k
=> match preunify_types e p with
| Some (Some (pt, t))
=> match pattern.type.unify_extracted pt t with
| Some vars
=> pattern.type.add_var_types_cps
vars (PositiveMap.empty _) _
(fun evm
=> (* there might be multiple type variables which map
if option_type_type_beq (pattern.type.subst pt evm) (
then k (Some evm)
else k None)
| None => k None
end
| Some None
=> k (Some (PositiveMap.empty _))
| None => k None
end.

```

- Now that we have unified the types and gotten a `PositiveMap.t` of pattern type variables to types, we are ready to unify the patterns, and extract the identifier arguments and values from the `rawexpr`. Because it would be entirely too painful to track at the type-level that the type unifier guarantees a match on structure and types, we instead sprinkle type transports all over this definition to get the types to line up. Here we pay the price of an imperfect abstraction barrier (that we have types lying around, and we rely in some places on types lining up, but do not track everywhere that types line up). Most of the other complications in this function come from (a) working in continuation-passing-style (for getting the right reduction behavior) or (b) tracking the differences between things we can reduce at rewrite-rule-compilation time, and things we can't.

- We first describe some helper definitions and context variables.
- The context variable `pident_arg_types : forall t, pident t -> list Type` describes for each pattern identifier what arguments should be bound for it.
- The context variables (`pident_unify pident_unify_unknown : forall t t' (idc : pident t) (idc' : pident t'), option (type_of_list (pident_arg_types t idc))`) are the to-be-unfolded and not-to-be-unfolded versions of unifying a pattern identifier with a PHOAST identifier.
- We can convert a `rawexpr` into a `value` or an `expr`:

```

Definition expr_of_rawexpr (e : rawexpr) : expr (type_of_rawexpr e)
:= match e with
| rIdent _ t idc t' alt => alt
| rApp f x t alt => alt
| rExpr t e => e
| rValue t e => reify e
end.

```

```

Definition value_of_rawexpr (e : rawexpr) : value (type_of_rawexpr e)
:= Eval cbv `expr_of_rawexpr` in
  match e with
  | rValue t e => e
  | e => reflect (expr_of_rawexpr e)
end.

```

- We can now write down the pattern-expression-unifier: “‘coq Definition option_bind' {A B} := @Option.bind A B. (* for help with unfolding *)

```

Fixpoint unify_pattern' {t} (e : rawexpr) (p : pattern t) (evm : EvarMap)
{struct p} : forall T, (unification_resultT' p evm -> option T) -> option T
:= match p, e return forall T, (unification_resultT' p evm -> option T) -> option T with
| pattern.Wildcard t', _ => fun T k
=> (tro <- type.try_make_transport_cps (@base.try_make_transport_cps) value

```

```

(type_of_rawexpr e) (pattern.type.subst_default t' evm);      (tr <-
tro;                  <- pattern.type.subst t' evm; (* ensure that we did
not fall into the default case *)                             (k (tr (value_of_rawexpr
e))))%option)%cps      | pattern.Ident t pidc, rIdent known _idc _ =>
fun T k                => (if known                          then Option.bind (pident_unify
_pidc idc)              else option_bind' (pident_unify_unknown _pidc idc))
k      | pattern.App s d pf px, rApp f x _                    => fun T k                =>
@unify_pattern'         -f pf evm T                          (fun fv                =>
@unify_pattern'         x px evm T                            (fun xv
=> k (fv, xv)))          | pattern.Ident _,                    | pattern.App ---,      => fun
_k => None               end%option. - We have three correctness conditions on
`unify_pattern`:      - It must be the case that if we invoke `unify_pattern`
with any continuation, the result is the same as invoking it with the
continuation `Some`, binding the result in the option monad, and then
invoking the continuation on the bound value.      - There is the `wf`
correctness condition, which says that if two `rawexpr`s are `wf_rawexpr`-
related, then invoking `unify_pattern` with the continuation `Some`
either results in `None` on both of them, or it results in two `wf_unification`-
related results. We define `wf_unification_resultT` ascoq Fixpoint
wf_value' {with_lets : bool} G {t : type} : value'1 with_lets t -> value'2
with_lets t -> Prop := match t, with_lets with      | type.base t, true =>
UnderLets.wf (fun G' => expr.wf G') G      | type.base t, false => expr.wf
G      | type.arrow s d, _      => fun f1 f2      => (forall seg G' v1 v2,
G' = (seg ++ G)%list      -> @wf_value'false seg s v1 v2      ->
@wf_value' true G' d (f1 v1) (f2 v2))      end.

```

```

Definition wf_value G {t} : value1 t -> value2 t -> Prop := @wf_value' false G
Definition wf_value_with_lets G {t} : value_with_lets1 t -> value_with_lets2 t

```

```

Fixpoint related_unification_resultT' {var1 var2} (R : forall t, var1 t -> var2 t)
: @unification_resultT' var1 t p evm -> @unification_resultT' var2 t p evm ->
:= match p in pattern.pattern t return @unification_resultT' var1 t p evm ->
| pattern.Wildcard t => R _
| pattern.Ident t idc => eq
| pattern.App s d f x
=> fun (v1 : unification_resultT' f evm * unification_resultT' x evm)
(v2 : unification_resultT' f evm * unification_resultT' x evm)
=> @related_unification_resultT' _ _ R _ _ _ (fst v1) (fst v2)
/\ @related_unification_resultT' _ _ R _ _ _ (snd v1) (snd v2)
end.

```

```

Definition wf_unification_resultT' (G : list {t1 : type & (var1 t1 * var2 t1)})
: @unification_resultT' value t p evm -> @unification_resultT' value t p evm
:= @related_unification_resultT' _ _ (fun _ => wf_value G) t p evm.
...

```

- The interp-correctness condition is (a bit more than) a bit of a mouthful, and
 - It is a bit hard to say what makes an expression interp-related to an interp-related to a interpreted value if and only if the interpretation of the expression

```

```coq
Section with_interp.
 Context {base_type : Type}
 {ident : type base_type -> Type}
 {interp_base_type : base_type -> Type}
 (interp_ident : forall t, ident t -> type.interp interp_base_type t)

 Fixpoint interp_related_gen
 {var : type base_type -> Type}
 (R : forall t, var t -> type.interp interp_base_type t -> Prop)
 {t} (e : @expr base_type ident var t)
 : type.interp interp_base_type t -> Prop
 := match e in expr t return type.interp interp_base_type t -> Prop with
 | expr.Var t v1 => R t v1
 | expr.App s d f x
 => fun v2
 => exists fv xv,
 @interp_related_gen var R _ f fv
 /\ @interp_related_gen var R _ x xv
 /\ fv xv = v2
 | expr.Ident t idc
 => fun v2 => interp_ident _ idc == v2
 | expr.Abs s d f1
 => fun f2
 => forall x1 x2,
 R _ x1 x2
 -> @interp_related_gen var R d (f1 x1) (f2 x2)
 | expr.LetIn s d x f (* combine the App rule with the Abs rule *)
 => fun v2
 => exists fv xv,
 @interp_related_gen var R _ x xv
 /\ (forall x1 x2,
 R _ x1 x2
 -> @interp_related_gen var R d (f x1) (fv x2))
 /\ fv xv = v2
 end.

 Definition interp_related {t} (e : @expr base_type ident (type.interp interp_base_type t))
 := @interp_related_gen (type.interp interp_base_type) (@type.eqv) t e.
End with_interp.
```

```

- A term in the `UnderLets` monad is `UnderLets.interp_related` to an interpreted value

```

let-binders with `expr`-let-binders) results in an expression that is `expr.interp
- A `value` is `value_interp_related` to an interpreted value `v` whenever it
  ```coq
 Fixpoint value_interp_related {t with_lets} : @value' var with_lets t -> type
 := match t, with_lets with
 | type.base _, true => UnderLets_interp_related
 | type.base _, false => expr_interp_related
 | type.arrow s d, _
 => fun (f1 : @value' _ _ s -> @value' _ _ d) (f2 : type.interp _ s -> type.interp _ d)
 => forall x1 x2,
 @value_interp_related s _ x1 x2
 -> @value_interp_related d _ (f1 x1) (f2 x2)
 end.
 ...

- A `rawexpr` is `rawexpr_interp_related` to an interpreted value `v` if both
  ```coq
  Fixpoint rawexpr_interp_related (r1 : rawexpr) : type.interp base.interp (type_of_rawexpr r1) -> Prop
  := match r1 return type.interp base.interp (type_of_rawexpr r1) -> Prop with
    | rExpr _ e1
    | rValue (type.base _) e1
      => expr_interp_related e1
    | rValue t1 v1
      => value_interp_related v1
    | rIdent _ t1 idc1 t'1 alt1
      => fun v2
        => expr.interp ident_interp alt1 == v2
        /\ existT expr t1 (expr.Ident idc1) = existT expr t'1 alt1
    | rApp f1 x1 t1 alt1
      => match alt1 in expr.expr t return type.interp base.interp t -> Prop with
        | expr.App s d af ax
          => fun v2
            => exists fv xv (pff : type.arrow s d = type_of_rawexpr f1) (
              @expr_interp_related _ af fv
              /\ @expr_interp_related _ ax xv
              /\ @rawexpr_interp_related f1 (rew pff in fv)
              /\ @rawexpr_interp_related x1 (rew pfx in xv)
              /\ fv xv = v2
            )
        | _ => fun _ => False
      end
    end.
  ...

- We can say when a `unification_resultT` returning an `expr` whose `var` type is
  related to a `unification_resultT` returning an `expr` whose `var` type is `type`
  obvious way:
  ```coq

```

Local Notation var := (type.interp base.interp) (only parsing).

```

Definition unification_resultT'_interp_related {t p evm}
 : @unification_resultT' (@value var) t p evm -> @unification_resultT' var
 := related_unification_resultT' (fun t => value_interp_related).
...

```

- We say that a `rawexpr`'s types are ok if the revealed and unrevealed structures are correct.

```

Fixpoint rawexpr_types_ok (r : @rawexpr var) (t : type) : Prop
:= match r with
| rExpr t' _
| rValue t' _
=> t' = t
| rIdent _ t1 _ t2 _
=> t1 = t /\ t2 = t
| rApp f x t' alt
=> t' = t
 /\ match alt with
 | expr.App s d _ _
 => rawexpr_types_ok f (type.arrow s d)
 /\ rawexpr_types_ok x s
 | _ => False
 end
end.
...

```

- We can define a transformation that takes in a `PositiveMap.t` of pattern types and creates a new `PositiveMap.t` in accordance with the `PositiveSet.t`. This is done as follows:

```

...coq
Local Notation mk_new_evm0 evm ls
:= (fold_right
 (fun i k evm'
 => k match PositiveMap.find i evm with
 | Some v => PositiveMap.add i v evm'
 | None => evm'
 end) (fun evm' => evm')
 (List.rev ls)) (only parsing).

```

```

Local Notation mk_new_evm' evm ps
:= (mk_new_evm0
 evm
 (PositiveSet.elements ps)) (only parsing).

```

```

Local Notation mk_new_evm evm ps
:= (mk_new_evm' evm ps (PositiveMap.empty _)) (only parsing).

```

```

...
- Given a proof of `@types_match_with evm t re p` that the types of `re : rawe
- The final and perhaps most important auxiliary component is the notation of
 - This definition itself needs a few auxiliary definitions and context varia
 - We have a context variable `(pident_to_typed : forall t (idc : pident t) (
instantiations of type variables of pattern identifiers be valid; this means tha
 - We define `lam_type_of_list` to convert between the `cps` and non-
cps versions of type lists:
  ```coq
  Local Notation type_of_list
    := (fold_right (fun a b => prod a b) unit).
  Local Notation type_of_list_cps
    := (fold_right (fun a K => a -> K)).

  Definition lam_type_of_list {ls K} : (type_of_list ls -> K) -> type_of_list_cps K ls
  := list_rect
    (fun ls => (type_of_list ls -> K) -> type_of_list_cps K ls)
    (fun f => f tt)
    (fun T Ts rec k t => rec (fun ts => k (t, ts)))
    ls.
  ...

- We may now define the default interpretation:
  ```coq
 Fixpoint pattern_default_interp' {K t} (p : pattern t) evm {struct p} : (v
 := match p in pattern.pattern t return (var (pattern.type.subst_default
 | pattern.Wildcard t => fun k v => k v
 | pattern.Ident t idc
 => fun k
 => lam_type_of_list (fun args => k (ident_interp _ (pident_to_typed
 | pattern.App s d f x
 => fun k
 => @pattern_default_interp'
 _ _ f evm
 (fun ef
 => @pattern_default_interp'
 _ _ x evm
 (fun ex
 => k (ef ex)))
 end.
 ...

- To define the unprimed version, which also accounts for the type variables
  ```coq
  Fixpoint lam_forall_vars_gen {k : EvarMap -> Type}
    (f : forall evm, k evm)
    (ls : list PositiveMap.key)

```



```

      : forall evm0, forall_vars_body k ls evm0
      := match ls return forall evm0, forall_vars_body k ls evm0 with
         | nil => f
         | cons x xs => fun evm t => @lam_forall_vars_gen k f xs _
      end.

Definition lam_forall_vars {p : PositiveSet.t} {k : EvarMap -> Type}
  (f : forall evm, k evm)
  : forall_vars p k
  := @lam_forall_vars_gen k f _ _ .
...

- Now we can define the default interpretation as a `with_unification_resultT
  ```coq
 Definition pattern_default_interp {t} (p : pattern t)
 : @with_unification_resultT var t p var
 := pattern.type.lam_forall_vars
 (fun evm
 => pattern_default_interp' p evm id).
 ...

- Now, finally, we may state the interp-correctness condition of the pattern u
  ```coq
  Lemma interp_unify_pattern' {t re p evm res v}
    (Hre : rawexpr_interp_related re v)
    (H : @unify_pattern' t re p evm _ (@Some _) = Some res)
    (Ht : @types_match_with evm t re p)
    (Ht' : rawexpr_types_ok re (type_of_rawexpr re))
    (evm' := mk_new_evm evm (pattern_collect_vars p))
    (Hty : type_of_rawexpr re = pattern.type.subst_default t evm'
      := eq_type_of_rawexpr_of_types_match_with' Ht Ht')
  : exists resv : _,
    unification_resultT'_interp_related res resv
    /\ app_transport_with_unification_resultT'_cps
       (pattern_default_interp' p evm' id) resv _ (@Some _)
    = Some (rew Hty in v).
  ...

- We can now glue the type pattern-unifier with the expression pattern-
  unifier in a straightforward way. Note that this pattern unifier also has
  three correctness conditions. coq
  Definition unify_pattern {t} (e
  : rawexpr) (p : pattern t)      : forall T, (unification_resultT
p -> option T) -> option T      := fun T cont      => unify_types
e p _      (fun evm      => evm <- evm;
e p evm T (fun v => cont (existT _ _ v)))%option.

```

uni

- The first correctness condition is again the cps-identity rule: if you invoke `unify_pattern` with any continuation, that must be the same as invoking

it with `Some`, binding the value in the option monad, and then invoking the continuation on the bound value.

- The `wf` correctness condition requires us to define a notion of `wf` for `unification_resultT`.

* We say that two `unification_resultT`s are `wf`-related if their type-variable-maps are equal, and their identifier-arguments and wildcard binding values are appropriately `wf`-related: “`coq Definition related_sigT_by_eq {A P1 P2} (R : forall x : A, P1 x -> P2 x -> Prop) (x : @sigT A P1) (y : @sigT A P2) : Prop := { pf : projT1 x = projT1 y | R (rew pf in projT2 x) (projT2 y) }`.”

`Definition related_unification_resultT {var1 var2} (R : forall t, var1 t -> var2 t -> Prop) {t p} : @unification_resultT _t p -> @unification_resultT _t p -> Prop := related_sigT_by_eq (@related_unification_resultT' _ _ R t p).`

`Definition wf_unification_resultT (G : list {t1 : type & (var1 t1 * var2 t1)%type}) {t p} : @unification_resultT (@value var1) t p -> @unification_resultT (@value var2) t p -> Prop := @related_unification_resultT _ _ (fun _ => wf_value G) t p.` – The ‘`wf`’ correctness condition is then that if we have two ‘`wf_rawexpr`’-related ‘`rawexpr`’s, invoking ‘`unify_pattern`’ on each ‘`rawexpr`’ to unify it with a singular pattern ‘`p`’, with continuation ‘`Some`’, results either in ‘`None`’ in both cases, or in two ‘`unification_resultT`’s which are ‘`wf_unification_resultT`’-related. – The interpretation correctness condition is a bit of a mouthful. – We say that two ‘`unification_resultT`’s are `interp`-related if their mappings of type variables to types are equal, and their packages of non-type binding data are appropriately `interp`-related.
`coq Local Notation var := (type.interp base.interp) (only parsing).`

`Definition unification_resultT_interp_related {t p}`
`: @unification_resultT (@value var) t p -> @unification_resultT var t p ->`
`:= related_unification_resultT (fun t => value_interp_related).`
`...`

- * We can now state the interpretation correctness condition, which is a bit hard for me to meaningfully talk about in English words except by saying “it does the right thing for a good notion of ‘right’”:

`Lemma interp_unify_pattern {t re p v res}`
`(Hre : rawexpr_interp_related re v)`
`(Ht' : rawexpr_types_ok re (type_of_rawexpr re))`
`(H : @unify_pattern t re p _ (@Some _) = Some res)`
`(evm' := mk_new_evm (projT1 res) (pattern_collect_vars p))`
`: exists resv,`
`unification_resultT_interp_related res resv`
`/\ exists Hty, (app_with_unification_resultT_cps (@pattern_default_i`

- Plugging in the arguments to a rewrite rule: Take 2
- There is one more definition before we put all of the rewrite replacement rule pieces together: we describe a way to handle the fact that we are underneath zero, one, or two monads. The way we handle this is by just assuming that we are underneath two monads, and issuing monad-return statements as necessary to correct:

```

Definition normalize_deep_rewrite_rule {should_do_again with_opt under_lets t}
  : deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen should_do_again with_opt under_lets t
  -> deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen should_do_again true true t
:= match with_opt, under_lets with
  | true , true  => fun x => x
  | false, true  => fun x => Some x
  | true , false => fun x => (x <- x; Some (UnderLets.Base x))%option
  | false, false => fun x => Some (UnderLets.Base x)
end%cps.

```

- The **wf** correctness condition, unsurprisingly, just says that if two rewrite replacement rules are appropriately **wf**-related, then their normalizations are too. This is quite verbose to state, though, because it requires traversing multiple layers of monads and pesky dependent types. TODO: should this code actually be included? “‘coq Definition wf_maybe_do_again_expr {t} {rew_should_do_again1 rew_should_do_again2 : bool} (G : list {t : _& (var1 t * var2 t)%type}) : expr (var:=if rew_should_do_again1 then @value var1 else var1) t -> expr (var:=if rew_should_do_again2 then @value var2 else var2) t -> Prop := match rew_should_do_again1, rew_should_do_again2 return expr (var:=if rew_should_do_again1 then @value var1 else var1) t -> expr (var:=if rew_should_do_again2 then @value var2 else var2) t -> Prop with | true, true => fun e1 e2 => exists G', (forall t' v1' v2', List.In (existT _t' (v1', v2')) G' -> wf_value G v1' v2') / expr.wf G' e1 e2 | false, false => expr.wf G | , => fun _ => False end.

```

Definition wf_maybe_under_lets_expr {T1 T2} (P : list {t :
  _& (var1 t * var2 t)%type} -> T1 -> T2 -> Prop) (G : list {t : _&
  (var1 t * var2 t)%type}) {rew_under_lets1 rew_under_lets2 : bool} :
  (if rew_under_lets1 then UnderLets var1 T1 else T1) -> (if rew_under_lets2
  then UnderLets var2 T2 else T2) -> Prop := match rew_under_lets1,
  rew_under_lets2 return (if rew_under_lets1 then UnderLets var1 T1
  else T1) -> (if rew_under_lets2 then UnderLets var2 T2 else T2)
-> Prop with | true, true => UnderLets.wf P G | false, false
=> P G | , => fun _ => False end.

```

```

Definition maybe_option_eq {A B} {opt1 opt2 : bool} (R : A -> B -> Prop)
: (if opt1 then option A else A) -> (if opt2 then option B else B) -> Prop :=

```

```

match opt1, opt2 with      | true, true => option_eq R      | false, false => R
| , => fun _ => False      end.

```

```

Definition wf_deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen (G : list {t : _& (var1 t *
var2 t)%type}) {t} {rew_should_do_again1 rew_with_opt1
rew_under_lets1 : bool} {rew_should_do_again2 rew_with_opt2
rew_under_lets2 : bool} : deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen1 rew_should_do_again1
rew_with_opt1 rew_under_lets1 t -> deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen2 rew_should_do_again2
rew_with_opt2 rew_under_lets2 t -> Prop := maybe_option_eq (wf_maybe_under_lets_exp
wf_maybe_do_again_expr G).

```

Lemma wf_normalize_deep_rewrite_rule {G} {t} {should_do_again1
with_opt1 under_lets1} {should_do_again2 with_opt2 under_lets2} {r1
r2} (Hwf : @wf_deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen G t should_do_again1 with_opt1
under_lets1 should_do_again2 with_opt2 under_lets2 r1 r2) : option_eq (Un-
derLets.wf (fun G' => wf_maybe_do_again_expr G') G) (normalize_deep_rewrite_rule
r1) (normalize_deep_rewrite_rule r2). “- We do not require any interp-correctness
condition on normalize_deep_rewrite_rule. Instead, we bake normalize_deep_rewrite_rule’
into the per-rewrite-rule correctness conditions that a user must prove of every
individual rewrite rule.

- Actually, I lied. We need to define the type of a rewrite rule before we can say what it means for one to be correct.

- An `anypattern` is a dynamically-typed pattern. This is used so that we can talk about lists of rewrite rules. `coq Record > anypattern {ident : type -> Type} := { type_of_anypattern : type; pattern :> @pattern ident type_of_anypattern }.`
- A `rewrite_ruleT` is just a sigma of a pattern of any type, with `rewrite_rule_data` over that pattern: `coq Definition rewrite_ruleTP := (fun p : anypattern => @rewrite_rule_data _ (pattern.pattern_of_anypattern p)). Definition rewrite_ruleT := sigT rewrite_ruleTP. Definition rewrite_rulesT := (list rewrite_ruleT).`

- We now define a helper definition to support rewriting again in the output of a rewrite rule. This is a separate definition mostly to make dependent types slightly less painful.

```

Definition maybe_do_againT (should_do_again : bool) (t : base.type)
:= ((@expr.expr base.type ident (if should_do_again then value else var) t) ->
Definition maybe_do_again
  (do_again : forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t
  (should_do_again : bool) (t : base.type)
:= if should_do_again return maybe_do_againT should_do_again t
  then do_again t
  else UnderLets.Base.

```

- You might think that the correctness condition for this is trivial. And, indeed, the `wf` correctness condition is straightforward. In fact, we have already seen it above in `wf_maybe_do_again_expr`, as there is no proof, only a definition of what it means for things to be related depending on whether or not we are rewriting again.

- The interpretation correctness rule, on the other hand, is surprisingly subtle. You may have noticed above that `expr.interp_related` is parameterized on an arbitrary `var` type, and an arbitrary relation between the `var` type and `type.interp base.interp`. I said that it is equivalent to equality of interpretation under the assumption of function extensionality, but that is only the case if `var` is instantiated to `type.interp` and the relation is equality or pointwise/extensional equivalence. Here, we must instantiate the `var` type with `@value var`, and the relation with `value_interp_related`. We then prove that for any “good” notion of rewriting again, if our input value is interp-related to an interpreted value, the result of maybe rewriting again is also interp-related to that interpreted value.

```

value. coq Lemma interp_maybe_do_again (do_again : forall
t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t -> UnderLets
(expr t)) (Hdo_again : forall t e v, expr.interp_related
ident_interp (fun t => value_interp_related) e v ->
UnderLets_interp_related (do_again t e) v) {should_do_again
: bool} {t e v} (He : (if should_do_again then @expr.expr
- - (if should_do_again then - else -) - -> - then
expr.interp_related_gen ident_interp (fun t => value_interp_related)
else expr_interp_related) e v) : UnderLets_interp_related (@maybe_do_again
- - do_again should_do_again t e) v.

```

- For the purposes of ensuring that reduction does not get blocked where it should not, we only allow rewrite rules to match on fully applied patterns, and to return base-typed expressions. We patch this broken abstraction barrier with

```

Local Notation base_type_of t
:= (match t with type.base t' => t' | type.arrow _ _ => base.type.unit end).

```

- Finally, we can define what it means to rewrite with a particular rewrite rule. It is messy primarily due to continuation passing style, optional values, and type casts. Note that we use `<-` to mean “bind in whatever monad is the top-most scope”. Other than these complications, it just unifies the pattern with the `rawexpr` to get binding data, applies the rewrite replacement rule to the binding data, normalizes the applied rewrite replacement rule, calls the rewriter again on the output if it should, and returns the result. `coq Definition`
- ```

rewrite_with_rule {t} e' (pf : rewrite_ruleT) : option (UnderLets
(expr t)) := let 'existT p f := pf in let should_do_again :=
rew_should_do_again f in unify_pattern e' (pattern.pattern_of_anypat
p) - (fun x => app_with_unification_resultT_cps (rew

```

```

f) x _ (fun f' => (tr <- type.try_make_transport_cps
(@base.try_make_transport_cps) _ _ _; (tr <- tr;
(tr' <- type.try_make_transport_cps (@base.try_make_transport_cps)
_ _ _; (tr' <- tr'; option
(normalize_deep_rewrite_rule (projT2 f')) (fun
fv => Some (fv <-- fv;
<-- maybe_do_again should_do_again (base_type_of (type_of_rawexpr e'))
(tr fv); UnderLets.Base
(tr' fv))%under_lets))%option)%cps)%option)%cps).

```

- We once again do not have any `wf` correctness condition for `rewrite_with_rule`; we merely unfold it as needed.
- To write down the correctness condition for `rewrite_with_rule`, we must first define what it means for `rewrite_rule_data` to be “good”.
- Here is where we use `normalize_deep_rewrite_rule`. Replacement rule data is good with respect to an interpretation value if normalizing it gives an appropriately interp-related thing to that interpretation value:

Local Notation `var := (type.interp base.interp) (only parsing).`

```

Definition deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen_good_relation
 {should_do_again with_opt under_lets : bool} {t}
 (v1 : @deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen should_do_again with_opt under_lets
 (v2 : var t)
 : Prop
:= let v1 := normalize_deep_rewrite_rule v1 in
 match v1 with
 | None => True
 | Some v1 => UnderLets.interp_related
 ident_interp
 (if should_do_again
 return (@expr.expr base.type ident (if should_do_again
 then expr.interp_related_gen ident_interp (fun t => val
 else expr.interp_related)
 v1
 v2
 end.

```

- Rewrite rule data is good if, for any interp-related binding data, the replacement function applied to the value-binding-data is interp-related to the default interpretation of the pattern applied to the interpreted-value-binding-data:

```

Definition rewrite_rule_data_interp_goodT
 {t} {p : pattern t} (r : @rewrite_rule_data t p)
 : Prop

```

```

:= forall x y,
 related_unification_resultT (fun t => value_interp_related) x y
-> option_eq
 (fun fx gy
 => related_sigT_by_eq
 (fun evm
 => @deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen_good_relation
 (rew_should_do_again r) (rew_with_opt r) (rew_under_let
 fx gy)
 (app_with_unification_resultT_cps (rew_replacement r) x _ (@Some _))
 (app_with_unification_resultT_cps (pattern_default_interp p) y _ (@

```

- The interpretation correctness condition then says that if the rewrite rule is good, the `rawexpr re` has ok types, the “rewrite again” function is good, and `rewrite_with_rule` succeeds and outputs an expression `v1`, then `v1` is interp-related to any interpreted value which `re` is interp-related to:

```

Lemma interp_rewrite_with_rule
 (do_again : forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t -
 (Hdo_again : forall t e v,
 expr.interp_related_gen ident_interp (fun t => value_interp_related
 -> UnderLets_interp_related (do_again t e) v)
 (rewr : rewrite_ruleT)
 (Hrewr : rewrite_rule_data_interp_goodT (projT2 rewr))
 t e re v1 v2
 (Ht : t = type_of_rawexpr re)
 (Ht' : rawexpr_types_ok re (type_of_rawexpr re))
: @rewrite_with_rule do_again t re rewr = Some v1
-> rawexpr_interp_related re (rew Ht in v2)
-> UnderLets_interp_related v1 v2.

```

## Tying it all together

- We can now say what it means to rewrite with a decision tree in a given `rawexpr re`. We evaluate the decision tree, and whenever we are asked to try the `k`th rewrite rule, we look for it in our list of rewrite rules, and invoke `rewrite_with_rule`. By default, if rewriting fails, we will eventually return `expr_of_rawexpr re`. `coq` Definition `eval_rewrite_rules` (d : decision\_tree) (rews : rewrite\_rulesT) (e : rawexpr) : UnderLets (expr (type\_of\_rawexpr e)) := let defaulte := expr\_of\_rawexpr e in (eval\_decision\_tree (e::nil) d (fun k ctx => match ctx return option (UnderLets (expr (type\_of\_rawexpr e))) with | e'::nil => (pf <- nth\_error rews k; rewrite\_with\_rule e' pf)%option | \_ => None end));; (UnderLets.Base defaulte))%option.

- To define the correctness conditions, we must first define what it means for lists of rewrite rules to be good.

– For `wf`, we need to catch up a bit before getting to lists of rewrite rules.

These say the obvious things: “`coq` Definition `wf_with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen`  
`(G : list {t : _& (var1 t * var2 t)%type}) {t} {p : pattern`  
`t} {rew_should_do_again1 rew_with_opt1 rew_under_lets1}`  
`{rew_should_do_again2 rew_with_opt2 rew_under_lets2} :`  
`with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen1 p rew_should_do_again1 rew_with_opt1`  
`rew_under_lets1 -> with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen2 p rew_should_do_again2`  
`rew_with_opt2 rew_under_lets2 -> Prop := fun f g`  
`=> forall x y, wf_unification_resultT G x y ->`  
`option_eq (fun (fx : { evm : _& deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen1`  
`rew_should_do_again1 rew_with_opt1 rew_under_lets1 _}) (gy`  
`: { evm : _& deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen2 rew_should_do_again2 rew_with_opt2`  
`rew_under_lets2 _}) => related_sigT_by_eq`  
`(fun _=> wf_deep_rewrite_ruleTP_gen G) fx gy) (app_with_unification_resultT`  
`f x _(@Some )) (app_with_unification_resultT_cps g y`  
`(@Some _)).`

Definition `wf_rewrite_rule_data` `(G : list {t : _& (var1`  
`t * var2 t)%type}) {t} {p : pattern t} (r1`  
`: @rewrite_rule_data1 t p) (r2 : @rewrite_rule_data2 t p)`  
`: Prop := wf_with_unif_rewrite_ruleTP_gen G (rew_replacement r1)`  
`(rew_replacement r2).`

– Two lists of rewrite rules are ``wf`` related if they have the same length, and if any pair of rules in their zipper (``List.combine``) have

equal patterns and ``wf``-related data:`coq` Definition `rewrite_rules_goodT`  
`(rew1 : rewrite_rulesT1) (rew2 : rewrite_rulesT2) : Prop := length rew1 =`  
`length rew2 / (forall p1 r1 p2 r2, List.In (existT _p1 r1, existT`  
`_p2 r2) (combine rew1 rew2) -> { pf : p1 = p2 |`  
`forall G, wf_rewrite_rule_data G`  
`(rew [fun tp => @rewrite_rule_data1 _ (pattern.pattern_of_anypattern tp)] pf`  
`in r1) r2 }).` – A list of rewrite rules is good for

interpretation if every rewrite rule in that list is good for interpretation:`coq`

Definition `rewrite_rules_interp_goodT` `(rews : rewrite_rulesT) : Prop :=`  
`forall p r, List.In (existT _p r) rews -> rewrite_rule_data_interp_goodT r.` –

The ``wf``-correctness condition for ``eval_rewrite_rules`` says the obvious thing: for ``wf``-related “rewrite again” functions, ``wf``-related lists

of rewrite rules, and ``wf``-related ``rawexpr``s, the output of ``eval_rewrite_rules``

is ``wf``-related:`coq` Lemma `wf_eval_rewrite_rules` `(do_again1 : forall`  
`t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident (@value var1) t -> @UnderLets var1`  
`(@expr var1 t)) (do_again2 : forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type`  
`ident (@value var2) t -> @UnderLets var2 (@expr var2 t)) (wf_do_again`  
`: forall G (t : base.type) e1 e2, (exists G', (forall t v1 v2, List.In`



```

(existT _t (v1, v2)) G' -> Compile.wf_value G v1 v2) / expr.wf G' e1 e2)
-> UnderLets.wf (fun G' => expr.wf G') G (@do_again1 t e1) (@do_again2 t
e2)) (d : @decision_tree raw_pident) (rew1 : rewrite_rulesT1) (rew2
: rewrite_rulesT2) (Hrew : rewrite_rules_goodT rew1 rew2) (re1 :
@rawexpr var1) (re2 : @rawexpr var2) {t} G e1 e2 (Hwf : @wf_rawexpr
G t re1 e1 re2 e2) : UnderLets.wf (fun G' => expr.wf G') G (rew
[fun t => @UnderLets var1 (expr t)] (proj1 (eq_type_of_rawexpr_of_wf Hwf)))
in (eval_rewrite_rules1 do_again1 d rew1 re1)) (rew [fun t => @UnderLets
var2 (expr t)] (proj2 (eq_type_of_rawexpr_of_wf Hwf))) in (eval_rewrite_rules2
do_again2 d rew2 re2)). - The interpretation correctness is also the
expected one: for a "rewrite again" function that preserves interp-relatedness,
a good-for-interp list of rewrite rules, a `rawexpr` whose types are
ok and which is interp-related to a value `v`, the result of `eval_rewrite_rules
is interp-related to `v`:coq Lemma interp_eval_rewrite_rules (do_again
: forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t -> UnderLets (expr t))
(d : decision_tree) (rew_rules : rewrite_rulesT) (re : rawexpr) v (Hre
: rawexpr_types_ok re (type_of_rawexpr re)) (res := @eval_rewrite_rules
do_again d rew_rules re) (Hdo_again : forall t e v, expr.in-
terp_related_gen ident_interp (fun t => value_interp_related) e v ->
UnderLets_interp_related (do_again t e) v) (Hr : rawexpr_interp_related
re v) (Hrew_rules : rewrite_rules_interp_goodT rew_rules) : Under-
Lets_interp_related res v. “

```

- Only one piece remains (other than defining particular rewrite rules and proving them good). If you were following carefully, you might note that `eval_rewrite_rules` takes in a `rawexpr` and produces an `UnderLets expr`, while `rewrite_bottomup` expects a function `rewrite_head : forall t (idc : ident t), value_with_lets t`. From a PHOAST identifier, we must construct a `value_with_lets` which collects all of the `value` arguments to the identifier and performs `eval_rewrite_rules` once the identifier is fully applied. We call this function `assemble_identifier_rewriters`, and it is built out of a small number of pieces.
- We define a convenience function that takes a `value` and an `expr` at the same type, and produces a `rawexpr` by using `rExpr` on the `expr` if the type is a base type, and `rValue` on the `value` otherwise. Morally, the `expr` and the `value` should be the same term, modulo `reify` and/or `reflect`:

```

Definition rValueOrExpr2 {t} : value t -> expr t -> rawexpr
:= match t with
| type.base _ => fun v e => @rExpr _ e
| type.arrow _ _ => fun v e => @rValue _ v
end.

```

- We take in a context variable (eventually autogenerated by python) which eta-  
iota-expands a function over an identifier by producing a `match` on the identifier. Its specification is that it is pointwise-equal to function application; it exists

entirely so that we can perform rewrite-rule-compilation time reduction on the rewrite rules by writing down the cases for every head identifier separately. The context variable is `eta_ident_cps : forall {T : type.type base.type -> Type} {t} (idc : ident t) (f : forall t', ident t' -> T t'), T t, and we require that forall T t idc f, @eta_ident_cps T t idc f = f t idc.`

- We can now carefully define the function that turns `eval_rewrite_rules` into a thing that can be plugged into `rewrite_head`. We take care to preserve thunked computation in `rValue` nodes, while describing the alternative structure via `reify`. In general, the stored values are only `interp`-related to the same things that the “unrevealed structure” expressions are `interp`-related to. There is no other relation (that we’ve found) between the values and the expressions, and this caused a great deal of pain when trying to specify the interpretation correctness properties.

Section with\_do\_again.

```
Context (dtree : decision_tree)
 (rewrite_rules : rewrite_rulesT)
 (default_fuel : nat)
 (do_again : forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t -
```

```
Let dorewrite1 (e : rawexpr) : UnderLets (expr (type_of_rawexpr e))
:= eval_rewrite_rules do_again dtree rewrite_rules e.
```

```
Fixpoint assemble_identifier_rewriters' (t : type) : forall e : rawexpr, (fora
:= match t return forall e : rawexpr, (forall P, P (type_of_rawexpr e) -> P
| type.base _
=> fun e k => k (fun t => UnderLets (expr t)) (dorewrite1 e)
| type.arrow s d
=> fun f k (x : value' _ _)
=> let x' := reify x in
 @assemble_identifier_rewriters' d (rApp f (rValueOrExpr2 x x')) (k
end%under_lets.
```

```
Definition assemble_identifier_rewriters {t} (idc : ident t) : value_with_lets
:= eta_ident_cps _ _ idc (fun t' idc' => assemble_identifier_rewriters' t' (
End with_do_again.
```

- The `wf`-correctness condition for `assemble_identifier_rewriters'` says that if two `rawexprs` are `wf`-related, and both continuations are extensionally/pointwise equal to the identity function transported across the appropriate equality proof, then the results of `assemble_identifier_rewriters'` are `wf`-related, under the assumption that the “rewrite again” functions are appropriately `wf`-related and the list of rewrite rules is good. “coq Section with\_do\_again. Context (dtree : @decision\_tree raw\_pident) (rew1 : rewrite\_rulesT1) (rew2 : rewrite\_rulesT2) (Hrew :

```

rewrite_rules_goodT rew1 rew2) (do_again1 : forall t : base.type,
@expr.expr base.type ident (@value var1) t -> @UnderLets var1 (@expr
var1 t)) (do_again2 : forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident
(@value var2) t -> @UnderLets var2 (@expr var2 t)) (wf_do_again
: forall G G' (t : base.type) e1 e2, (forall t v1 v2, List.In (existT
_t (v1, v2)) G' -> Compile.wf_value G v1 v2) -> expr.wf G' e1
e2 -> UnderLets.wf (fun G' => expr.wf G') G (@do_again1 t
e1) (@do_again2 t e2)).

```

Lemma wf\_assemble\_identifier\_rewriters' G t re1 e1 re2 e2 K1 K2  
 (He : @wf\_rawexpr G t re1 e1 re2 e2) (HK1 : forall P v, K1 P v  
 = rew [P] (proj1 (eq\_type\_of\_rawexpr\_of\_wf He)) in v) (HK2 : forall  
 P v, K2 P v = rew [P] (proj2 (eq\_type\_of\_rawexpr\_of\_wf He)) in v) :  
 wf\_value\_with\_lets G (@assemble\_identifier\_rewriters' var1 rew1  
 do\_again1 t re1 K1) (@assemble\_identifier\_rewriters' var2 rew2 do\_again2 t  
 re2 K2). - The `wf`-correctness condition for `assemble\_identifier\_rewriters`  
 merely says that the outputs are always `wf`-related, again under the  
 assumption that the "rewrite again" functions are appropriately `wf`-related  
 and the list of rewrite rules is good. `coq Lemma wf_assemble_identifier_rewriters`  
`G t (idc : ident t) : wf_value_with_lets G (@assemble_identifier_rewriters`  
`var1 rew1 do_again1 t idc) (@assemble_identifier_rewriters var2 rew2`  
`do_again2 t idc).` Proof. - The interpretation correctness condition  
 says that for a good "rewrite again" function, a good-for-interpretation  
 list of rewrite rules, a `rawexpr` `re` whose types are ok and which  
 is interp-related to an interpreted value `v`, the result of `assemble\_identifier`  
 is interp-related to `v`. The actual statement is slightly more obscure,  
 parameterizing over types which are equal to computed things, primarily  
 for ease of induction in the proof. `coq Lemma interp_assemble_identifier_rewriters'`  
`(do_again : forall t : base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t -> Under-`  
`Lets (expr t)) (dt : decision_tree) (rew_rules : rewrite_rulesT) t re K`  
`(res := @assemble_identifier_rewriters' dt rew_rules do_again t re K) (Hre`  
`: rawexpr_types_ok re (type_of_rawexpr re)) (Ht : type_of_rawexpr re = t)`  
`v (HK : K = (fun P v => rew [P] Ht in v)) (Hdo_again : forall t e`  
`v, expr.interp_related_gen ident_interp (fun t => value_interp_related)`  
`e v -> UnderLets_interp_related (do_again t e) v) (Hrew_rules :`  
`rewrite_rules_interp_goodT rew_rules) (Hr : rawexpr_interp_related re v)`  
`: value_interp_related res (rew Ht in v).` - The interpretation correctness  
 condition for `assemble\_identifier\_rewriters` is very similar, where  
 the `rawexpr\_interp\_related` hypothesis is replaced by an pointwise  
 equality between the interpretation of the identifier and the interpreted  
 value. `coq Lemma interp_assemble_identifier_rewriters (do_again : forall t`  
`: base.type, @expr.expr base.type ident value t -> UnderLets (expr t)) (d :`  
`decision_tree) (rew_rules : rewrite_rulesT) t idc v (res := @assem-`  
`ble_identifier_rewriters d rew_rules do_again t idc) (Hdo_again : forall t e`  
`v, expr.interp_related_gen ident_interp (fun t => value_interp_related)`

`e v -> UnderLets_interp_related (do_again t e) v) (Hrew_rules :  
rewrite_rules_interp_goodT rew_rules) (Hv : ident_interp t idc == v) :  
value_interp_related res v. ““`

- We have not talked about correctness conditions for the functions we looked at in the very beginning, `rewrite_bottomup` and `repeat_rewrite`, but the correctness conditions for these two are straightforward, so we state them without explanation.

– The `wf` correctness conditions are “‘`coq Section with_rewrite_head. Context (rewrite_head1 : forall t (idc : ident t), @value_with_lets var1 t) (rewrite_head2 : forall t (idc : ident t), @value_with_lets var2 t) (wf_rewrite_head : forall G t (idc1 idc2 : ident t), idc1 = idc2 -> wf_value_with_lets G (rewrite_head1 t idc1) (rewrite_head2 t idc2)).`

Local Notation `rewrite_bottomup1 := (@rewrite_bottomup var1 rewrite_head1).`  
Local Notation `rewrite_bottomup2 := (@rewrite_bottomup var2 rewrite_head2).`

Lemma `wf_rewrite_bottomup G G' {t} e1 e2 (Hwf : expr.wf G e1 e2) (HG : forall t v1 v2, List.In (existT _t (v1, v2)) G -> wf_value G' v1 v2) : wf_value_with_lets G' (@rewrite_bottomup1 t e1) (@rewrite_bottomup2 t e2).`  
End `with_rewrite_head.`

Local Notation `nbe var := (@rewrite_bottomup var (fun t idc => reflect (expr.Ident idc))).`

Lemma `wf_nbe G G' {t} e1 e2 (Hwf : expr.wf G e1 e2) (HG : forall t v1 v2, List.In (existT _t (v1, v2)) G -> wf_value G' v1 v2) : wf_value_with_lets G' (@nbe var1 t e1) (@nbe var2 t e2).`

Section `with_rewrite_head2. Context (rewrite_head1 : forall (do_again : forall t : base.type, @expr (@value var1) (type.base t) -> @UnderLets var1 (@expr var1 (type.base t))) t (idc : ident t), @value_with_lets var1 t) (rewrite_head2 : forall (do_again : forall t : base.type, @expr (@value var2) (type.base t) -> @UnderLets var2 (@expr var2 (type.base t))) t (idc : ident t), @value_with_lets var2 t) (wf_rewrite_head : forall do_again1 do_again2 (wf_do_again : forall G' G (t : base.type) e1 e2 (HG : forall t v1 v2, List.In (existT _t (v1, v2)) G -> wf_value G' v1 v2), expr.wf G e1 e2 -> UnderLets.wf (fun G' => expr.wf G') G' (do_again1 t e1) (do_again2 t e2)) G t (idc1 idc2 : ident t), idc1 = idc2 -> wf_value_with_lets G (rewrite_head1 do_again1 t idc1) (rewrite_head2 do_again2 t idc2)).`

Lemma `wf_repeat_rewrite fuel : forall {t} G G' e1 e2 (Hwf : expr.wf G e1 e2) (HG : forall t v1 v2, List.In (existT _t (v1, v2)) G -> wf_value G' v1 v2), wf_value_with_lets G' (@repeat_rewrite var1 rewrite_head1 fuel t e1) (@repeat_rewrite var2 rewrite_head2 fuel t e2).` – **The interpretation correctness conditions are**  
`coq Section with_rewrite_head. Context (rewrite_head`

: forall t (idc : ident t), value\_with\_lets t) (interp\_rewrite\_head : forall t idc v, ident\_interp idc == v -> value\_interp\_related (rewrite\_head t idc) v).

Lemma interp\_rewrite\_bottomup {t e v} (He : expr.interp\_related\_gen (@ident\_interp) (fun t => value\_interp\_related) e v) : value\_interp\_related (@rewrite\_bottomup var rewrite\_head t e) v. End with\_rewrite\_head.

Local Notation nbe := (@rewrite\_bottomup var (fun t idc => reflect (expr.Ident idc))).

Lemma interp\_nbe {t e v} (He : expr.interp\_related\_gen (@ident\_interp) (fun t => value\_interp\_related) e v) : value\_interp\_related (@nbe t e) v.

Lemma interp\_repeat\_rewrite {rewrite\_head fuel t e v} (retT := value\_interp\_related (@repeat\_rewrite \_rewrite\_head fuel t e) v) (Hrewrite\_head : forall do\_again (Hdo\_again : forall t e v, expr.interp\_related\_gen (@ident\_interp) (fun t => value\_interp\_related) e v -> UnderLets.interp\_related (@ident\_interp) (expr.interp\_related (@ident\_interp)) (do\_again t e) v) t idc v, ident\_interp idc == v -> value\_interp\_related (@rewrite\_head do\_again t idc) v) (He : expr.interp\_related\_gen (@ident\_interp) (fun t => value\_interp\_related) e v) : retT.  
““



# Chapter 6

## Reification by Parametricity

### Fast Setup for Proof by Reflection, in Two Lines of $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$

#### Abstract

We present a new strategy for performing reification in Coq. That is, we show how to generate first-class abstract syntax trees from “native” terms of Coq’s logic, suitable as inputs to verified compilers or procedures in the *proof-by-reflection* style. Our new strategy, based on simple generalization of subterms as variables, is straightforward, short, and fast. In its pure form, it is only complete for constants and function applications, but “let” binders, eliminators, lambdas, and quantifiers can be accommodated through lightweight coding conventions or preprocessing.

We survey the existing methods of reification across multiple Coq metaprogramming facilities, describing various design choices and tricks that can be used to speed them up, as well as various limitations. We report benchmarking results for 18 variants, in addition to our own, finding that our own reification outperforms 16 of these methods in all cases, and one additional method in some cases; writing an OCaml plugin is the only method tested to be faster. Our method is the most concise of the strategies we considered, reifying terms using only two to four lines of  $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$ —beyond lists of the identifiers to reify and their reified variants. Additionally, our strategy automatically provides error messages that are no less helpful than Coq’s own error messages.

## 6.1 Introduction

Proof by reflection [34] is an established method for employing verified proof procedures, within larger proofs. There are a number of benefits to using verified functional programs written in the proof assistant’s logic, instead of tactic scripts. We can often

prove that procedures always terminate without attempting fallacious proof steps, and perhaps we can even prove that a procedure gives logically complete answers, for instance telling us definitively whether a proposition is true or false. In contrast, tactic-based procedures may encounter runtime errors or loop forever. As a consequence, those procedures must output proof terms, justifying their decisions, and these terms can grow large, making for slower proving and requiring transmission of large proof terms to be checked slowly by others. A verified procedure need not generate a certificate for each invocation.

The starting point for proof by reflection is *reification*: translating a “native” term of the logic into an explicit abstract syntax tree. We may then feed that tree to verified procedures or any other functional programs in the logic. The benefits listed above are particularly appealing in domains where goals are very large. For instance, consider verification of large software systems, where we might want to reify thousands of lines of source code. Popular methods turn out to be surprisingly slow, often to the point where, counter-intuitively, the majority of proof-execution time is spent in reification – unless the proof engineer invests in writing a plugin directly in the proof assistant’s metalanguage (e.g., OCaml for Coq).

In this paper, we show that reification can be both simpler and faster than with standard methods. Perhaps surprisingly, we demonstrate how to reify terms almost entirely through reduction in the logic, with a small amount of tactic code for setup and no ML programming. Though our techniques should be broadly applicable, especially in proof assistants based on type theory, our experience is with Coq, and we review the requisite background in the remainder of this introduction. In Section 6.2, we summarize our survey into prior approaches to reification and provide high-quality implementations and documentation for them, serving a tutorial function independent of our new contributions. Experts on the subject might want to skip directly to Section 6.3, which explains our alternative technique. We benchmark our approach against 18 competitors in Section 6.4.

### 6.1.1 Proof-Script Primer

Basic Coq proofs are often written as lists of steps such as **induction** on some structure, **rewrite** using a known equivalence, or **unfold** of a definition. Very quickly, proofs can become long and tedious, both to write and to read, and hence Coq provides  $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$ , a scripting language for proofs. As theorems and proofs grow in complexity, users frequently run into performance and maintainability issues with  $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$ . Consider the case where we want to prove that a large algebraic expression, involving many **let ... in ...** expressions, is even:

```
Inductive is_even : nat -> Prop :=
| even_0 : is_even 0
| even_SS : forall x, is_even x -> is_even (S (S x)).
Goal is_even (let x := 100 * 100 * 100 * 100 in
```



```

let y := x * x * x * x in
y * y * y * y).

```

Coq stack-overflows if we try to reduce this goal. As a workaround, we might write a lemma that talks about evenness of `let ... in ...`, plus one about evenness of multiplication, and we might then write a tactic that composes such lemmas.

Even on smaller terms, though, proof size can quickly become an issue. If we give a naive proof that 7000 is even, the proof term will contain all of the even numbers between 0 and 7000, giving a proof-term-size blow-up at least quadratic in size (recalling that natural numbers are represented in unary; the challenges remain for more efficient base encodings). Clever readers will notice that Coq could share subterms in the proof tree, recovering a term that is linear in the size of the goal. However, such sharing would have to be preserved very carefully, to prevent size blow-up from unexpected loss of sharing, and today's Coq version does not do that sharing. Even if it did, tactics that rely on assumptions about Coq's sharing strategy become harder to debug, rather than easier.

### 6.1.2 Reflective-Automation Primer

Enter reflective automation, which simultaneously solves both the problem of performance and the problem of debuggability. Proof terms, in a sense, are traces of a proof script. They provide Coq's kernel with a term that it can check to verify that no illegal steps were taken. Listing every step results in large traces.

The idea of reflective automation is that, if we can get a formal encoding of our goal, plus an algorithm to *check* the property we care about, then we can do much better than storing the entire trace of the program. We can prove that our checker is correct once and for all, removing the need to trace its steps.

A simple evenness checker can just operate on the unary encoding of natural numbers (Figure 6-1). We can use its correctness theorem to prove goals much more quickly:

```

Fixpoint check_is_even
 (n : nat) : bool
:= match n with
 | 0 => true
 | 1 => false
 | S (S n)
 => check_is_even n
end.

```

Figure 6-1: Evenness Checking

```

Theorem soundness : forall n, check_is_even n = true -> is_even n.

```

```

Goal is_even 2000.

```

```

Time repeat (apply even_SS || apply even_0). (* 1.8 s *)

```

```

Undo.

```

```

Time apply soundness; vm_compute; reflexivity. (* 0.004 s *)

```

The tactic `vm_compute` tells Coq to use its virtual machine for reduction, to compute the value of `check_is_even 2000`, after which `reflexivity` proves that `true`

`= true`. Note how much faster this method is. In fact, even the asymptotic complexity is better; this new algorithm is linear rather than quadratic in `n`.

However, even this procedure takes a bit over three minutes to prove `is_even (10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10 * 10)`. To do better, we need a formal representation of terms or expressions.

### 6.1.3 Reflective-Syntax Primer

Sometimes, to achieve faster proofs, we must be able to tell, for example, whether we got a term by multiplication or by addition, and not merely whether its normal form is 0 or a successor.

A reflective automation procedure generally has two steps. The first step is to *reify* the goal into some abstract syntactic representation, which we call the *term language* or an *expression language*. The second step is to run the algorithm on the reified syntax.

```
Inductive expr :=
| Nat0 : expr
| NatS (x : expr) : expr
| NatMul (x y : expr) : expr.
```

What should our expression language include? At a bare minimum, it should have multiplication nodes, and we must have `nat` literals. If we encode `S` and `0` separately, a decision that will become important later in Section 6.3, we get the inductive type of Figure 6-2.

Before diving into methods of reification, let us write the evenness checker.

```
Fixpoint check_is_even_expr (t : expr) : bool
:= match t with
| Nat0 => true
| NatS x => negb (check_is_even_expr x)
| NatMul x y => orb (check_is_even_expr x) (check_is_even_expr y)
end.
```

Before we can state the soundness theorem (whenever this checker returns `true`, the represented number is even), we must write the function that tells us what number our expression represents, called *denotation* or *interpretation*:

```
Fixpoint denote (t : expr) : nat
:= match t with
| Nat0 => 0
| NatS x => S (denote x)
| NatMul x y => denote x * denote y
end.
```

Theorem `check_is_even_expr_sound (e : expr)`

```
: check_is_even_expr e = true -> is_even (denote e).
```

Given a tactic `Reify` to produce a reified term from a `nat`, we can time `check_is_even_expr`. It is instant on the last example.

Before we proceed to reification, we will introduce one more complexity. If we want to support our initial example with `let ... in ...` efficiently, we must also have `let`-expressions. Our current procedure that inlines `let`-expressions takes 19 seconds, for example, on `let x0 := 10 * 10 in let x1 := x0 * x0 in ... let x24 := x23 * x23 in x24`. The choices of representation include higher-order abstract syntax (HOAS) [123], parametric higher-order abstract syntax (PHOAS) [45], and de Bruijn indices [37]. The PHOAS representation is particularly convenient. In PHOAS, expression binders are represented by binders in Gallina, the functional language of Coq, and the expression language is parameterized over the type of the binder. Let us define a constant and notation for `let` expressions as definitions (a common choice in real Coq developments, to block Coq's default behavior of inlining `let` binders silently; the same choice will also turn out to be useful for reification later). We thus have:

```
Inductive expr {var : Type} :=
| Nat0 : expr
| NatS : expr -> expr
| NatMul : expr -> expr -> expr
| Var : var -> expr
| LetIn : expr -> (var -> expr) -> expr.
Definition Let_In {A B} (v : A) (f : A -> B) := let x := v in f x.
Notation "'dlet' x := v 'in' f" := (Let_In v (fun x => f)).
Notation "'elet' x := v 'in' f" := (LetIn v (fun x => f)).
Fixpoint denote (t : @expr nat) : nat
:= match t with
| Nat0 => 0
| NatS x => S (denote x)
| NatMul x y => denote x * denote y
| Var v => v
| LetIn v f => dlet x := denote v in denote (f x)
end.
```

A full treatment of evenness checking for PHOAS would require proving well-formedness of syntactic expressions; for a more complete discussion of PHOAS, we refer the reader elsewhere [45]. Using `Wf` to denote the well-formedness predicate, we could prove a theorem

```
Theorem check_is_even_expr_sound (e : ∀ var, @expr var) (H : Wf e)
: check_is_even_expr (e bool) = true -> is_even (denote (e nat)).
```

To complete the picture, we would need a tactic `Reify` which took in a term of type `nat` and gave back a term of type `forall var, @expr var`, plus a tactic `prove_wf` which solved a goal of the form `Wf e` by repeated application of constructors. Given these, we could solve an evenness goal by writing<sup>1</sup>

```
match goal with
| [|- is_even ?v]
=> let e := Reify v in
 refine (check_is_even_expr_sound e _ _);
 [prove_wf | vm_compute; reflexivity]
end.
```

## 6.2 Methods of Reification

We implemented reification in 18 different ways, using 6 different metaprogramming facilities in the Coq ecosystem: Ltac, Ltac2, Mtac [62], type classes [140], canonical structures [60], and reification-specific OCaml plugins (quote [48], template-coq [16], ours). Figure 6-3 displays the simplest case: an Ltac script to reify a tree of function applications and constants. Unfortunately, all methods we surveyed become drastically more complicated or slower (and usually both) when adapted to reify terms with variable bindings such as `let-in` or `λ` nodes.

We have made detailed walkthroughs and source code of these implementations available<sup>2</sup> in hope that they will be useful for others considering implementing reification using one of these metaprogramming mechanisms, instructive as nontrivial examples of multiple metaprogramming facilities, or helpful as a case study in Coq performance engineering. However, we do *not* recommend reading these out of general interest: most of the complexity in the described implementations strikes us as needless, with significant aspects of the design being driven by surprising behaviors, mistakes, bugs, and performance bottlenecks of the underlying machinery as opposed to the task of reification.

```
Ltac f v x := (* reify var term *)
 lazymatch x with
 | 0 => constr: (@Nat0 v)
 | S ?x => let X := f v x in
 constr: (@NatS v X)
 | ?x*?y => let X := f v x in
 let Y := f v y in
 constr: (@NatMul v X Y)
 end.
```

Figure 6-3. Reification Without Binders in Coq

## 6.3 Reification by Parametricity

We propose factoring reification into two passes, both of which essentially have robust, built-in implementations in Coq: *abstraction* or *generalization*, and *substitution* or

<sup>1</sup>Note that for the `refine` to be fast, we must issue something like `Strategy -10 [denote]` to tell Coq to unfold `denote` before `Let_In`.

<sup>2</sup><https://github.com/mit-plv/reification-by-parametricity>

*specialization.*

The key insight to this factoring is that the shape of a reified term is essentially the same as the shape of the term that we start with. We can make precise the way these shapes are the same by abstracting over the parts that are different, obtaining a function that can be specialized to give either the original term or the reified term.

That is, we have the commutative triangle in Figure 6-4.

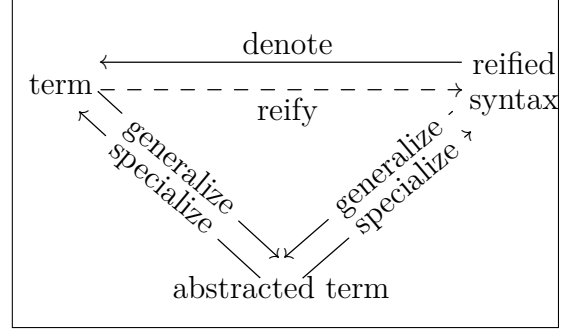


Figure 6-4: Abstraction and Reification

### 6.3.1 Case-By-Case Walkthrough Function Applications And Constants.

Consider the example of reifying  $2 \times 2$ . In this case, the *term* is  $2 \times 2$  or  $(\text{mul } (\text{S } (\text{S } \text{O})) (\text{S } (\text{S } \text{O})))$ .

To reify, we first *generalize* or *abstract* the term  $2 \times 2$  over the successor function  $\text{S}$ , the zero constructor  $\text{O}$ , the multiplication function  $\text{mul}$ , and the type  $\mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers. We get a function taking one type argument and three value arguments:

$$\Lambda N. \lambda(\text{MUL} : N \rightarrow N \rightarrow N) (\text{O} : N) (\text{S} : N \rightarrow N). \text{MUL } (\text{S } (\text{S } \text{O})) (\text{S } (\text{S } \text{O}))$$

We can now specialize this term in one of two ways: we may substitute  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\text{mul}$ ,  $\text{O}$ , and  $\text{S}$ , to get back the term we started with; or we may substitute  $\text{expr}$ ,  $\text{NatMul}$ ,  $\text{NatO}$ , and  $\text{NatS}$  to get the reified syntax tree

$$\text{NatMul } (\text{NatS } (\text{NatS } \text{NatO})) (\text{NatS } (\text{NatS } \text{NatO}))$$

This simple two-step process is the core of our algorithm for reification: abstract over all identifiers (and key parts of their types) and specialize to syntax-tree constructors for these identifiers.

### Wrapped Primitives: “Let” Binders, Eliminators, Quantifiers.

The above procedure can be applied to a term that contains “let” binders to get a PHOAS syntax tree that represents the original term, but doing so would not capture sharing. The result would contain native “let” bindings of subexpressions, not PHOAS let expressions. Call-by-value evaluation of any procedure applied to the reification result would first substitute the let-bound subexpressions – leading to potentially exponential blowup and, in practice, memory exhaustion.

The abstraction mechanisms in all proof assistants (that we know about) only allow

abstracting over terms, not language primitives. However, primitives can often be wrapped in explicit definitions, which we *can* abstract over. For example, we already used a wrapper for “let” binders, and terms that use it can be reified by abstracting over that definition. If we start with the expression

$$\text{dlet } a := 1 \text{ in } a \times a$$

and abstract over  $(\text{@Let\_In } \mathbb{N} \ \mathbb{N})$ ,  $S$ ,  $O$ ,  $\text{mul}$ , and  $\mathbb{N}$ , we get a function of one type argument and four value arguments:

$$\Lambda N. \lambda (\text{MUL} : N \rightarrow N \rightarrow N). \lambda (O : N). \lambda (S : N \rightarrow N). \\ \lambda (\text{LETIN} : N \rightarrow (N \rightarrow N) \rightarrow N). \text{LETIN } (S \ O) \ (\lambda a. \text{MUL } a \ a)$$

We may once again specialize this term to obtain either our original term or the reified syntax. Note that to obtain reified PHOAS syntax, we must include a **Var** node in the **LetIn** expression; we substitute  $(\lambda x \ f. \text{LetIn } x \ (\lambda v. \ f \ (\text{Var } v)))$  for **LETIN** to obtain the PHOAS syntax tree

$$\text{LetIn } (\text{NatS } \text{NatO}) \ (\lambda v. \text{NatMul } (\text{Var } v) \ (\text{Var } v))$$

Wrapping a metalanguage primitive in a definition in the code to be reified is in general sufficient for reification by parametricity. Pattern matching and recursion cannot be abstracted over directly, but if the same code is expressed using eliminators, these can be handled like other functions. Similarly, even though  $\forall/\Pi$  cannot be abstracted over, proof automation that itself introduces universal quantifiers before reification can easily wrap them in a marker definition  $(\_forall \ T \ P := forall \ (x:T), \ P \ x)$  that can be. Existential quantifiers are not primitive in Coq and can be reified directly.

## Lambdas.

While it would be sufficient to require that, in code to be reified, we write all lambdas with a named wrapper function, that would significantly clutter the code. We can do better by making use of the fact that a PHOAS object-language lambda (**Abs** node) consists of a metalanguage lambda that binds a value of type **var**, which can be used in expressions through constructor **Var** : **var**  $\rightarrow$  **expr**. Naive reification by parametricity would turn a lambda of type  $N \rightarrow N$  into a lambda of type **expr**  $\rightarrow$  **expr**. A reification procedure that explicitly recurses over the metalanguage syntax could just precompose this recursive-call result with **Var** to get the desired object-language encoding of the lambda, but handling lambdas specially does not fit in the framework of abstraction and specialization.

First, let us handle the common case of lambdas that appear as arguments to higher-order functions. One easy approach: while the parametricity-based framework does not allow for special-casing lambdas, it is up to us to choose how to handle functions that we expect will take lambdas as arguments. We may replace each higher-order function with a metalanguage lambda that wraps the higher-order arguments in object-language lambdas, inserting **Var** nodes as appropriate. Code calling the func-

tion `sum_upto n f := f(0)+f(1)+...+f(n)` can be reified by abstracting over relevant definitions and substituting  $(\lambda n\ f.\ \text{SumUpTo}\ n\ (\text{Abs}\ (\lambda v.\ f\ (\text{Var}\ v))))$  for `sum_upto`. Note that the expression plugged in for `sum_upto` differs from the one plugged in for `Let_In` only in the use of a deeply embedded abstraction node. If we wanted to reify `Let_In` as just another higher-order function (as opposed to a distinguished wrapper for a primitive), the code would look identical to that for `sum_upto`.

It would be convenient if abstracting and substituting for functions that take higher-order arguments were enough to reify lambdas, but here is a counterexample.

$$\begin{aligned} & \lambda\ x\ y.\ x \times ((\lambda\ z.\ z \times z)\ y) \\ \Lambda N.\ & \lambda(\text{MUL} : N \rightarrow N \rightarrow N).\ \lambda\ (x\ y : N).\ \text{Mul}\ x\ ((\lambda\ (z : N).\ \text{Mul}\ z\ z)\ y) \\ & \lambda\ (x\ y : \text{expr}).\ \text{NatMul}\ x\ (\text{NatMul}\ y\ y) \end{aligned}$$

The result is not even a PHOAS expression. We claim a desirable reified form is

$$\text{Abs}(\lambda\ x.\ \text{Abs}(\lambda\ y.\ \text{NatMul}\ (\text{Var}\ x)\ (\text{NatMul}\ (\text{Var}\ y)\ (\text{Var}\ y))))$$

Admittedly, even our improved form is not quite precise:  $\lambda\ z.\ z \times z$  has been lost. However, as almost all standard Coq tactics silently reduce applications of lambdas, working under the assumption that functions not wrapped in definitions will be arbitrarily evaluated during scripting is already the norm. Accepting that limitation, it remains to consider possible occurrences of metalanguage lambdas in normal forms of outputs of reification as described so far. As lambdas in `expr` nodes that take metalanguage functions as arguments (`Let_In`, `Abs`) are handled by the rules for these nodes, the remaining lambdas must be exactly at the head of the expression. Manipulating these is outside of the power of abstraction and specialization; we recommend postprocessing using a simple recursive tactic script.

### 6.3.2 Commuting Abstraction and Reduction

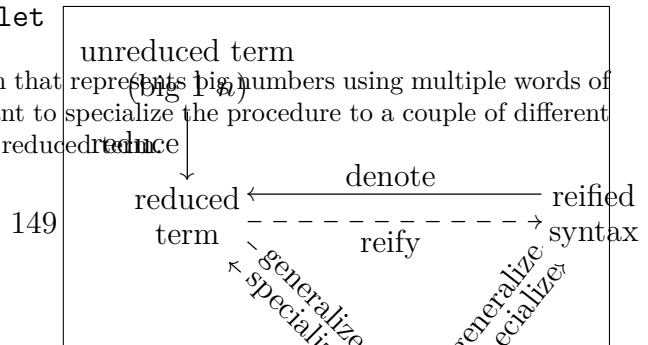
Sometimes, the term we want to reify is the result of reducing another term. For example, we might have a function that reduces to a term with a variable number of `let` binders.<sup>3</sup> We might have an inductive type that counts the number of `let ... in ...` nodes we want in our output.

`Inductive count := none | one_more (how_many : count).`

It is important that this type be syntactically distinct from  $\mathbb{N}$  for reasons we will see shortly.

We can then define a recursive function that constructs some number of nested `let`

<sup>3</sup>More realistically, we might have a function that represents big numbers using multiple words of a user-specified width. In this case, we may want to specialize the procedure to a couple of different bitwidths, then reifying the resulting partially reduced



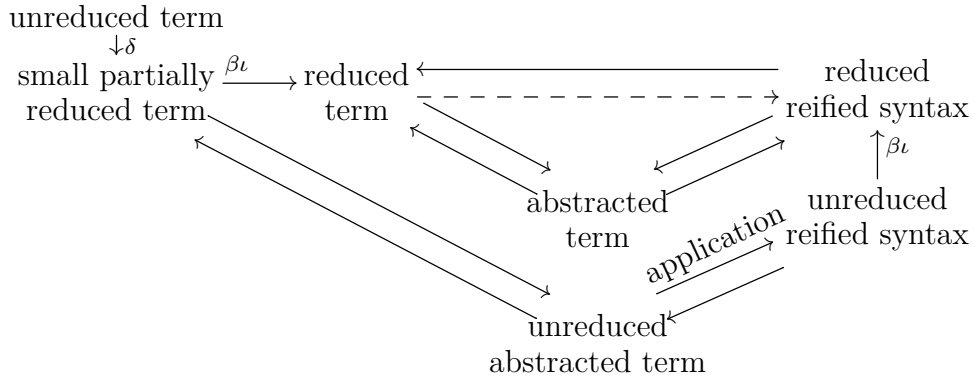
binders:

```

Fixpoint big (x:nat) (n:count)
 : nat
:= match n with
| none => x
| one_more n'
 => dlet x' := x * x in
 big x' n'
end.

```

Our commutative diagram in Figure 6-4 now has an additional node, becoming Figure 6-5. Since generalization and specialization are proportional in speed to the size of the term being handled, we can gain a significant performance boost by performing generalization before reduction. To explain why, we split apart the commutative diagram a bit more; in reduction, there is a  $\delta$  or unfolding step, followed by a  $\beta\iota$  step that reduces applications of  $\lambda$ s and evaluates recursive calls. In specialization, there is an application step, where the  $\lambda$  is applied to arguments, and a  $\beta$ -reduction step, where the arguments are substituted. To obtain reified syntax, we may perform generalization after  $\delta$ -reduction (before  $\beta\iota$ -reduction), and we are not required to perform the final  $\beta$ -reduction step of specialization to get a well-typed term. It is important that unfolding **big** results in exposing the body for generalization, which we accomplish in Coq by exposing the anonymous recursive function; in other languages, the result may be a primitive eliminator applied to the body of the fixpoint. Either way, our commutative diagram thus becomes



Let us step through this alternative path of reduction using the example of the unreduced term **big 1 100**, where we take 100 to mean the term represented by  $\underbrace{(\text{one\_more} \cdots (\text{one\_more} \text{ none}) \cdots)}_{100}$ .

Our first step is to unfold **big**, rendered as the arrow labeled  $\delta$  in the diagram. In Coq, the result is an anonymous fixpoint; here we will write it using the recursor **count\_rec** of type  $\forall T. T \rightarrow (\text{count} \rightarrow T \rightarrow T) \rightarrow \text{count} \rightarrow T$ . Performing  $\delta$ -reduction, that is,



unfolding **big**, gives us the small partially reduced term

```
(λ(x : ℕ). λ(n : count).
count_rec (ℕ → ℕ) (λx. x) (λn'. λbign. λx. dlet x' := x × x in bign x')) 1 100
```

We call this term small, because performing  $\beta\iota$  reduction gives us a much larger reduced term:

```
dlet x1 := 1 × 1 in ... dlet x100 := x99 × x99 in x100
```

Abstracting the small partially reduced term over (**@Let\_In** ℕ ℕ), **S**, **O**, **mul**, and **ℕ** gives us the abstracted unreduced term

```
ΛN. λ(MUL : N → N → N)(O : N)(S : N → N)(LETIN : N → (N → N) → N).
 (λ(x : N). λ(n : count). count_rec (N → N) (λx. x)
 (λn'. λbign. λx. LETIN (MUL x x) (λx'. bign x')))
 (S O) 100
```

Note that it is essential here that **count** is not syntactically the same as **ℕ**; if they were the same, the abstraction would be ill-typed, as we have not abstracted over **count\_rec**. More generally, it is essential that there is a clear separation between types that we reify and types that we do not, and we must reify *all* operations on the types that we reify.

We can now apply this term to **expr**, **NatMul**, **NatS**, **Nat0**, and, finally,  $(\lambda v f. \text{LetIn } v (\lambda x. f (\text{Var } x)))$ . We get an unreduced reified syntax tree of type **expr**. If we now perform  $\beta\iota$  reduction, we get our fully reduced reified term.

We take a moment to emphasize that this technique is not possible with any other method of reification. We could just as well have not specialized the function to the **count** of 100, yielding a function of type **count** → **expr**, despite the fact that our reflective language knows nothing about **count**!

This technique is especially useful for terms that will not reduce without concrete parameters, but which should be reified for many different parameters. Running reduction once is slightly faster than running OCaml reification once, and it is more than twice as fast as running reduction followed by OCaml reification. For sufficiently large terms and sufficiently many parameter values, this performance beats even OCaml reification.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>4</sup>We discovered this method in the process of needing to reify implementations of cryptographic primitives [53] for a couple hundred different choices of numeric parameters (e.g., prime modulus of arithmetic). A couple hundred is enough to beat the overhead.

### 6.3.3 Implementation in $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$

`ExampleMoreParametricity.v` in the code supplement mirrors the development of reification by parametricity in Subsection 6.3.1.

Unfortunately, Coq does not have a tactic that performs abstraction.<sup>5</sup> However, the `pattern` tactic suffices; it performs abstraction followed by application, making it a sort of one-sided inverse to  $\beta$ -reduction. By chaining `pattern` with an  $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$ -`match` statement to peel off the application, we can get the abstracted function.

```
Ltac Reify x :=
match(eval pattern nat, Nat.mul, S, 0, (@Let_In nat nat) in x)with
| ?rx _ _ _ _ =>
 constr:(fun var => rx (@expr var) NatMul NatS Nat0
 (fun v f => LetIn v (fun x => f (Var x))))
end.
```

Note that if `@expr var` lives in `Type` rather than `Set`, an additional step involving retyping the term is needed; we refer the reader to `Parametricity.v` in the code supplement.

The error messages returned by the `pattern` tactic can be rather opaque at times; in `ExampleParametricityErrorMessages.v`, we provide a procedure for decoding the error messages.

#### Open Terms.

At some level it is natural to ask about generalizing our method to reify open terms (i.e., with free variables), but we think such phrasing is a red herring. Any lemma statement about a procedure that acts on a representation of open terms would need to talk about how these terms would be closed. For example, solvers for algebraic goals without quantifiers treat free variables as implicitly universally quantified. The encodings are invariably ad-hoc: the free variables might be assigned unique numbers during reification, and the lemma statement would be quantified over a sufficiently long list that these numbers will be used to index into. Instead, we recommend directly reifying the natural encoding of the goal as interpreted by the solver, e.g. by adding new explicit quantifiers. Here is a hypothetical goal and a tactic script for this strategy:

$$(a \ b : \text{nat}) \ (H : 0 < b) \ |- \ \exists \ q \ r, \ a = q \times b + r \wedge r < b$$

```
repeat match goal with
| n : nat |- ?P =>
 match eval pattern n in P with
 | ?P' _ => revert n; change (_forall nat P')
```

---

<sup>5</sup>The `generalize` tactic returns  $\forall$  rather than  $\lambda$ , and it only works on types.

```

 end
 | H : ?A |- ?B => revert H; change (impl A B)
 | |- ?G => (* $\forall a\ b, 0 < b \rightarrow \exists q\ r, a = q \times b + r \wedge r < b$ *)
 let rG := Reify G in
 refine (nonlinear_integer_solver_sound rG _ _);
 [prove_wf | vm_compute; reflexivity]
end.

```

Briefly, this script replaced the context variables `a` and `b` with universal quantifiers in the conclusion, and it replaced the premise `H` with an implication in the conclusion. The syntax-tree datatype used in this example can be found in `ExampleMoreParametricity.v`.

### 6.3.4 Advantages and Disadvantages

This method is faster than all but  $\mathcal{L}_{tac}2$  and OCaml reification, and commuting reduction and abstraction makes this method faster even than the low-level  $\mathcal{L}_{tac}2$  reification in many cases. Additionally, this method is much more concise than nearly every other method we have examined, and it is very simple to implement.

We will emphasize here that this strategy shines when the initial term is small, the partially computed terms are big (and there are many of them), and the operations to evaluate are mostly well-separated by types (e.g., evaluate all of the `count` operations and none of the `nat` ones).

This strategy is not directly applicable for reification of `match` (rather than eliminators) or `let ... in ...` (rather than a definition that unfolds to `let ... in ...`), `forall` (rather than a definition that unfolds to `forall`), or when reification should not be modulo  $\beta\iota\zeta$ -reduction.

## 6.4 Performance Comparison

We have done a performance comparison of the various methods of reification to the PHOAS language `@expr var` from Figure 6.1.3 in Coq 8.7.1. A typical reification routine will obtain the term to be reified from the goal, reify it, run `transitivity` (`denote reified_term`) (possibly after normalizing the reified term), and solve the side condition with something like `lazy [denote]; reflexivity`. Our testing on a few samples indicated that using `change` rather than `transitivity; lazy [denote]; reflexivity` can be around 3X slower; note that we do not test the time of `Defined`.

There are two interesting metrics to consider: (1) how long does it take to reify the term? and (2) how long does it take to get a normalized reified term, i.e., how long does it take both to reify the term and normalize the reified term? We have chosen to consider (1), because it provides the most fine-grained analysis of the actual reification

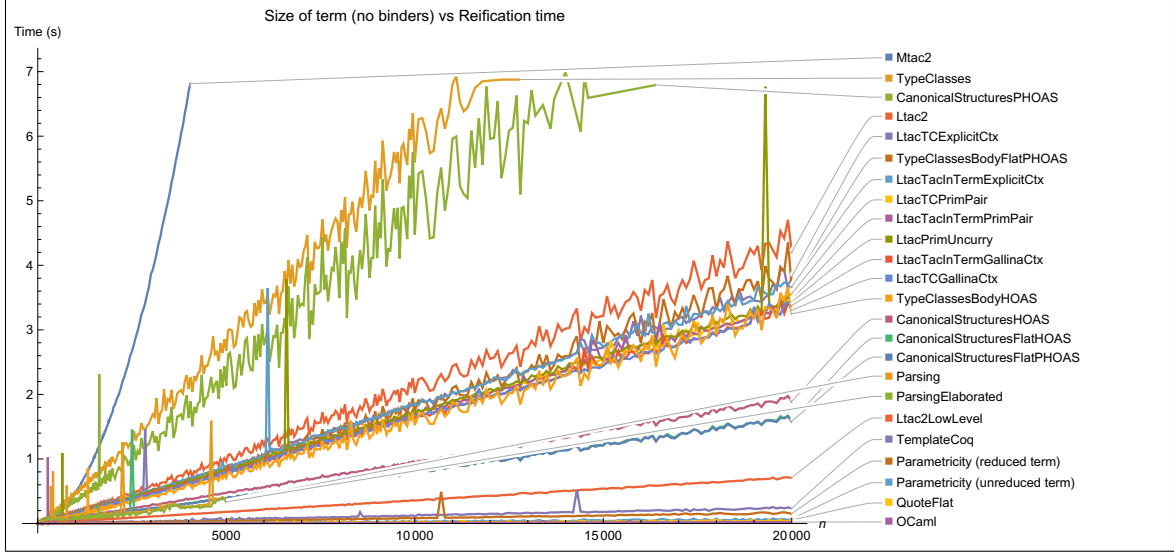


Figure 6-6: Performance of Reification without Binders

method.

### 6.4.1 Without Binders

We look at terms of the form  $1 * 1 * 1 * \dots$  where multiplication is associated to create a balanced binary tree. We say that the *size of the term* is the number of 1s. We refer the reader to the attached code for the exact test cases and the code of each reification method being tested.

We found that the performance of all methods is linear in term size.

Sorted from slowest to fastest, most of the labels in Figure 6-6 should be self-explanatory and are found in similarly named `.v` files in the associated code; we call out a few potentially confusing ones:

- The “Parsing” benchmark is “reification by copy-paste”: a script generates a `.v` file with notation for an already-reified term; we benchmark the amount of time it takes to parse and typecheck that term. The “ParsingElaborated” benchmark is similar, but instead of giving notation for an already-reified term, we give the complete syntax tree, including arguments normally left implicit. Note that these benchmarks cut off at around 5000 rather than at around 20 000, because on large terms, Coq crashes with a stack overflow in parsing.
- We have four variants starting with “CanonicalStructures” here. The Flat variants reify to `@expr nat` rather than to `forall var, @expr var` and benefit from fewer function binders and application nodes. The HOAS variants do not include a case for `let ... in ...` nodes, while the PHOAS variants do. Un-

like most other reification methods, there is a significant cost associated with handling more sorts of identifiers in canonical structures.

We note that on this benchmark our method is slightly faster than template-coq, which reifies to de Bruijn indices, and slightly slower than the quote plugin in the standard library and the OCaml plugin we wrote by hand.

### 6.4.2 With Binders

We look at terms of the form `dlet a1 := 1 * 1 in dlet a2 := a1 * a1 in ... dlet an := an-1 * an-1 in an`, where  $n$  is the size of the term. The first graph shown here includes all of the reification variants at linear scale, while the next step zooms in on the highest-performance variants at log-log scale.

In addition to reification benchmarks, the graph in Figure 6-7 includes as a reference (1) the time it takes to run `lazy` reduction on a reified term already in normal form (“identity lazy”) and (2) the time it takes to check that the reified term matches the original native term (“lazy Denote”). The former is just barely faster than OCaml reification; the latter often takes longer than reification itself. The line for the template-coq plugin cuts off at around 10 000 rather than around 20 000 because at that point template-coq starts crashing with stack overflows.

A nontrivial portion of the cost of “Parametricity (reduced term)” seems to be due to the fact that looking up the type of a binder is linear in the number of binders in the context, thus resulting in quadratic behavior of the retyping step that comes after abstraction in the `pattern` tactic. In Coq 8.8, this lookup will be  $\log n$ , and so reification will become even faster [121].

## 6.5 Future Work, Concluding Remarks

We identify one remaining open question with this method that has the potential of removing the next largest bottleneck in reification: using reduction to show that the reified term is correct.

Recall our reification procedure and the associated diagram, from Figure 6.3.2. We perform  $\delta$  on an unreduced term to obtain a small, partially reduced term; we then perform abstraction to get an abstracted, unreduced term, followed by application to get unreduced reified syntax. These steps are all fast. Finally, we perform  $\beta\iota$ -reduction to get reduced, reified syntax and perform  $\beta\iota\delta$  reduction to get back a

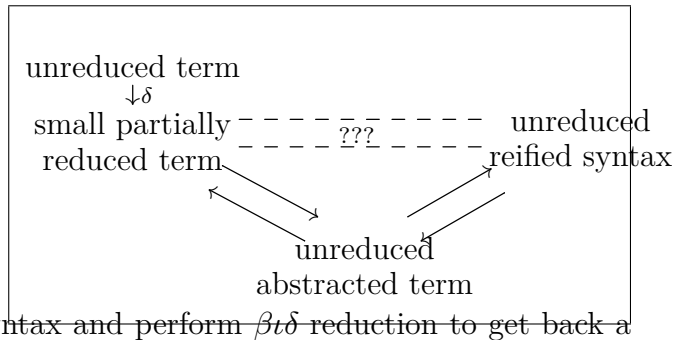


Figure 6-8: Completing the commutative triangle

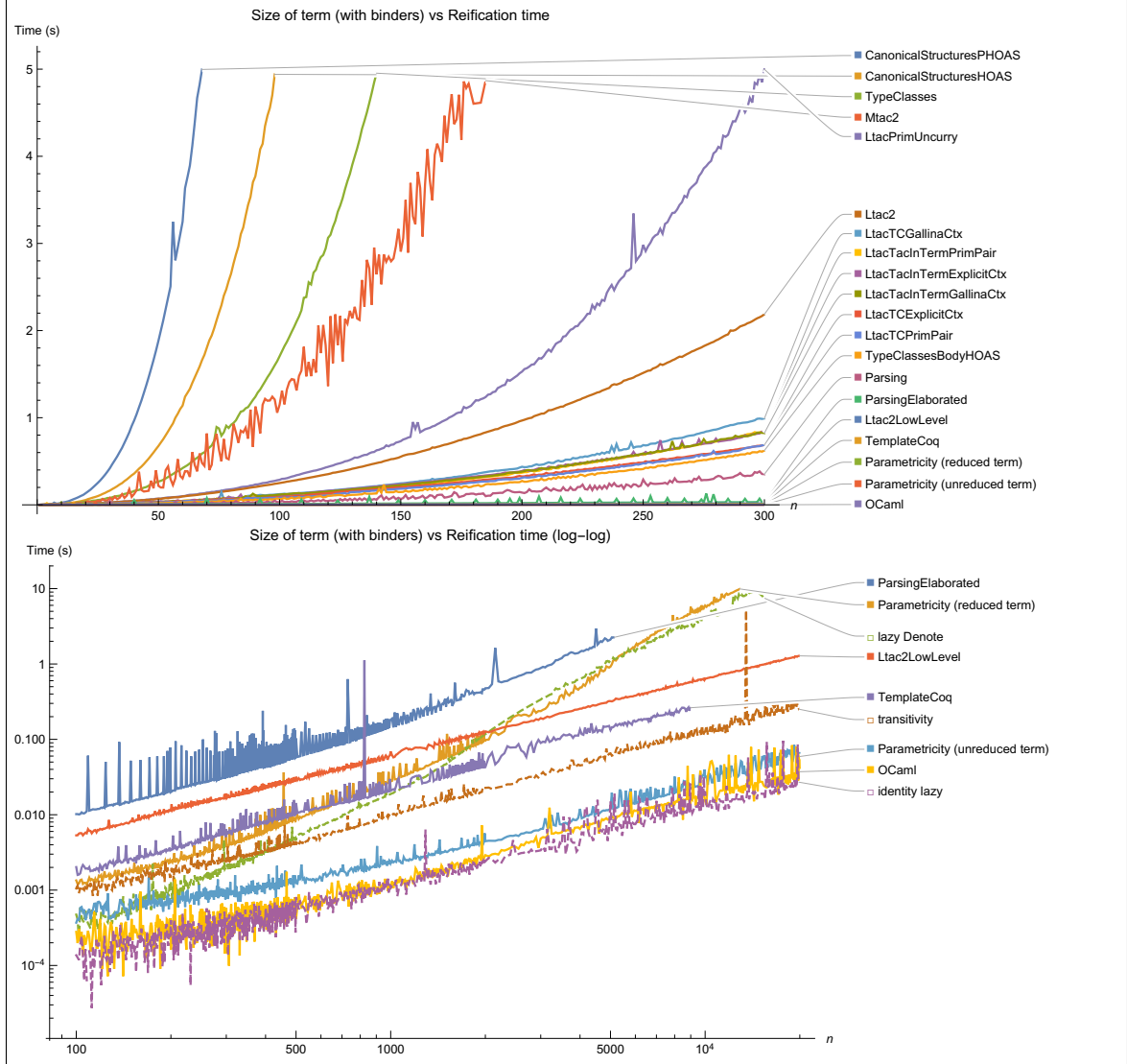


Figure 6-7: Performance of Reification with Binders

reduced form of our original term. These steps are slow, but we must do them if we are to have verified reflective automation.

It would be nice if we could prove this equality without ever reducing our term. That is, it would be nice if we could have the diagram in Figure 6-8.

The question, then, is how to connect the small partially reduced term with `denote` applied to the unreduced reified syntax. That is, letting  $F$  denote the unreduced abstracted term, how can we prove, without reducing  $F$ , that

$$F \text{ N Mul O S } (@\text{Let\_In } \text{N } \text{N}) = \text{denote } (F \text{ expr NatMul NatO NatS LetIn})$$

We hypothesize that a form of internalized parametricity would suffice for proving

this lemma. In particular, we could specialize  $F$ 's type argument with  $\mathbb{N} \times \text{expr}$ . Then we would need a proof that for any function  $F$  of type

$$\forall (T : \text{Type}), (T \rightarrow T \rightarrow T) \rightarrow T \rightarrow (T \rightarrow T) \rightarrow (T \rightarrow (T \rightarrow T) \rightarrow T) \rightarrow T$$

and any types  $A$  and  $B$ , and any terms  $f_A : A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$ ,  $f_B : B \rightarrow B \rightarrow B$ ,  $a : A$ ,  $b : B$ ,  $g_A : A \rightarrow A$ ,  $g_B : B \rightarrow B$ ,  $h_A : A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A$ , and  $h_B : B \rightarrow (B \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$ , using  $f \times g$  to denote lifting a pair of functions to a function over pairs:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fst } (F (A \times B) (f_A \times f_B) (a, b) (g_A \times g_B) (h_A \times h_B)) &= F A f_A a g_A h_A \wedge \\ \text{snd } (F (A \times B) (f_A \times f_B) (a, b) (g_A \times g_B) (h_A \times h_B)) &= F B f_B b g_B h_B \end{aligned}$$

This theorem is a sort of parametricity theorem.

Despite this remaining open question, we hope that our performance results make a strong case for our method of reification; it is fast, concise, and robust.

## 6.6 Acknowledgments and Historical Notes

We would like to thank Hugo Herbelin for sharing the trick with `type of` to propagate universe constraints<sup>6</sup> as well as useful conversations on Coq's bug tracker that allowed us to track down performance issues.<sup>7</sup> We would like to thank Pierre-Marie Pédrot for conversations on Coq's Gitter and his help in tracking down performance bottlenecks in earlier versions of our reification scripts and in Coq's tactics. We would like to thank Beta Ziliani for his help in using Mtac2, as well as his invaluable guidance in figuring out how to use canonical structures to reify to PHOAS. We also thank John Wiegley for feedback on the paper.

For those interested in history, our method of reification by parametricity was inspired by the `evm_compute` tactic [103]. We first made use of `pattern` to allow `vm_compute` to replace `cbv-with-an-explicit-blacklist` when we discovered `cbv` was too slow and the blacklist too hard to maintain. We then noticed that in the sequence of doing abstraction; `vm_compute`; application;  $\beta$ -reduction; reification, we could move  $\beta$ -reduction to the end of the sequence if we fused reification with application, and thus reification by parametricity was born.

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<sup>6</sup><https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/5996#issuecomment-338405694>

<sup>7</sup><https://github.com/coq/coq/issues/6252>

## Part IV

## Conclusion



# Chapter 7

## Tooling fixes (improvements in Coq)

[**TODO:** Mention how `ever single` tactic used to be slow]

### 7.A Fragments from the category theory paper

For reasons that we present in the course of the paper, we were unsatisfied with the feature set of released Coq version 8.4. We wound up adopting the Coq version under development by homotopy type theorists [139], making critical use of its stronger universe polymorphism (??) and higher inductive types (??). We hope that our account here provides useful data points for proof assistant designers about which features can have serious impact on proving convenience or performance in very abstract developments. The two features we mentioned earlier in the paragraph can simplify the Coq user experience dramatically, while a number of other features, at various stages of conception or implementation by Coq team members, can make proving much easier or improve proof script performance by orders of magnitude, generally by reducing term size (Subsection 3.5.2): primitive record projections (Subsection 3.5.4), internalized proof irrelevance for equalities (Subsection 3.5.2), and  $\eta$  rules for records (Section 3.4.1) and equality proofs (Subsection 3.4.2).

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### 7.B transcript bits from Adam

Ah a sort of like preconclusion chapter that's like let's now look at how cock is evolved performance wise over the years like here places that we've actually improved performance and this will be one that draws a bunch of other examples from the category theory paper, like look universe polymorphism is a thing that was implemented and helps here and like sort of like presenting a bunch of little things.

## 7.C transcript bits from Rajee

So those are the two main sections the thesis. And then there's another section of other small. Miscellaneous things that come up better like performance bottlenecks. Through like can or performance concerns, let's say these are things like decide design decisions that can have quadratic impacts. Um, Decisions about like what parts of cop to use for what and like why some bits might be more or less slow than others.

Yeah, that's that's that section and then I think I'm going to have seconds last section. Be a sort of retrospective of like places where cocks performance has gotten better in the past like decade or so of like I started with a bunch of ways that solving performance issues improved systems is heard but here are some successes and things where like we've managed to improve things and you can actually like, Leverage this for faster performance.

[**TODO:** this chapter]

# Chapter 8

## Concluding Remarks

### 8.A transcript bits from Adam

And then they'll be the conclusion which I'm thinking of having as a like what are the next steps in performance of previous distance and I think this will. My current inclination is to like, Sort of point towards the paper that under has been talking about writing that's like okay, so there's a sense in which in order to do program transformation and rewriting we took the entire non-trusted part and we threw it out.

The like. And like part of that is because most uses of the non-trusted part you just cobble something together that works but if you're like tracking every single time you invoke conversion and you're like carefully piecing together something it should be possible to make something that scales. And it's not clear if that's currently even the case.

Unlike investigating that it's sort of the next wave of. Performance issues to look at. Okay. Well when you get to the conclusion of this sort of document you've pretty freehand to speculate on things and go where your heart takes you so I'm not too worried about I haven't feel like that part of the relatively quick for you to write and free of difficult choice points.

Yeah, that seems that seems mostly true. I feel like I'll have a little bit of trouble with the like first paragraph on the last paragraph of the conclusion. I'd like the transition points and they'll like actually tying it up but the body of it seems I don't expect to have that much trouble, okay?

### 8.B transcript bits from Rajee

[**TODO:** Decide between options, maybe add more text]

**Option 1** Perhaps this thesis has inspired you to write your own performance system and we remind you about the things you should look out for when implementing it.

**Option 2** The End

[**TODO:** insert category theory diagram of an End here]

**Option 3 (best so far)** What are the next steps in proof assistant performance. There's a paper that Andres has floated writing that I think is a good next paper to write.

Ah, that is something like okay, so you've like, Followed all the tenants that I've laid out to like have fast APIs you're like very careful about where you're having called two things. And then you start hitting so brief historical perspective. I've described a bunch of like quadratic or exponential behaviors where like you're hitting.

Areas of the system that aren't scaling nicely. There was a previous generation to this where pretty much everything was quadratic or exponential in like everything and so you couldn't do anything beyond a certain scale because everything would start blowing up on you I see and there was someone before me named George got there who when working on he was the one who led the team at Microsoft Research to you formalized the four color theorem.

I think now not the four color theorem the odd order theorem. In call okay took them about ten years. I think you've mentioned this yeah oh and he went on the cocktails and they fixed these like everything is terrible and everything. So now we're heading like problems that maybe maybe are more fundamental to proof assistance.

But like then you you design your things carefully and you're careful about which parts the system you use and you'd like count for every step. And then you start hitting the next class of problems, which is I have a couple thousand things. A couple thousand variables and I want to introduce them all oops adding a couple thousand like adding  $n$  variables is quadratic or cubic in the number of variables that I'm introducing that's unfortunate.

Um, or you're like I want to like change my goal state oops making a new goal state is linear in how many variables there that's sad now. I'm now by running time is quadratic in the number of goal states or something mm-hmm.

And like you hit all of these like the fundamental building blocks. Are too slow. And. That's sort of the next area to investigate of like how do you build a proof assistant so like what are the fundamental building blocks? How are they too slow? Huh the how do we know there are two slow what what are the factors that they're too slow and

like can we show that there's like no way to get anything to actually scale without completely re-implementing the profanion because that's basically what I what I said for program transformation.

I'm like look the existing thing it's quadratic it's real sad let's throw it out and write a new one and stick it in the part of the system that's fast. So like yeah, you can do that for all your proofs you can throw out the entire pure system and write a new one.

But like, Would be nice if you didn't have to do that we say that again. So like you're like, okay, I was trying to do this thing no just the last sentence, oh it would be nice if we didn't have to do that yeah. So the alternative is to the to the alternative is that you figure out what the primitives are what they're too slow and why they're too slow and how do you design a proof assistant like a proof engine with primitives that are actually performant that if you're carefully accounting for all of the primitive steps that you're doing in your proof then you can actually get a proof with reasonable performance.

Like all the things that I've been describing are. You slap something together and it works on small things and then you increase your you try to scale it and it's suddenly stops working because of exponential behavior. And like, Maybe there isn't a hope of fixing that if you slap something together.

But if you're like carefully engineering your proof, you should be able to avoid that. What is the careful part like can you describe that or is it just like the thing so? Okay, so here's how here's how beginners pure things in caulk. Their teacher tells them what they're trying to prove.

They look at what they're trying to prove they look at the list of things they can do they're like, oh I'm trying to prove for all  $X$  something. I know a tactic to use. I'm gonna use interest. Oh I'm trying I have a conjunction in my hypothesis that I know a tactic to use I'm gonna use destruct.

I'm trying to prove something about natural numbers, how do I prove something about natural numbers by induction? Where you have this very simple pattern match that are matching program that's running in a brain that you're like how do I do this thing one step at a time? I'm just gonna try a thing and see what works we have some arithmetic, let's try simple let's see if cock knows how to make it simpler there's a tactic called simple without the, Okay, um, sometimes it makes things much nicer.

Sometimes it makes things explode, sometimes it runs forever and gives you nothing it doesn't actually ever run forever pretty much. But running for a year is about as good as running forever.

And so you'll try it and if it works then you're like great it worked. I can keep going

yeah and if it doesn't work then you're like, oh I guess it didn't work, let me try something else instead. And like this is this is how beginners implement proofs and like the way I do proofs is I'm like, okay, let me figure out why this thing should be true.

And let me figure out what gets me closer to my understanding of why it should be true and then I run the same kind of simple program that um that beginners run that's like, oh this should be true by induction on this variable. I'm not just doing induction randomly.

I know why I'm doing induction on what and I'm like, oh I have this conjunction. I can split it apart. I have this disjunction I can split it apart and like I keep making steps and at each point. I'm like, am I still convinced that this theorem is true?

And if I have ever I'm like, oh doesn't these seem like this true anymore that I'd like backup but otherwise I just keep going as long as I'm convinced that the theorem is still reasonable. Where you say something like you do things by figuring out why something should be true is that like.

Is that like constructing approved sketching your head and then doing it versus someone being like oh I know what tactic to implement them, therefore. I will try to construct yeah it's like using a proof method to generate a proof versus knowing what you want to prove and then writing it need to or something oh where is this something different like how does it apply to the engineering case?

I think it's something like that okay, so the thing that I'm doing is I'm like do I believe that this is true when I explain to a very intelligent five-year-old why this is true. And then I'll make steps unlike if at any point. I hit a theorem that I or like I hit a state where I'm like.

This is doesn't seem true anymore. That I'll like back up but I and like I have a big sense of the proof in my head okay, oh but it's like I'm like, okay this this should follow by arithmetic. So then I do a bunch of arithmetic like things and eventually hopefully I get out a thing that's true, but it's like if I want to prove that something is true by arithmetic.

I can just like look at my thing take a step that makes the thing simpler and if the thing still seems true that I'm like great I made it simpler now what and like I can keep taking steps to make it simpler until it's done and I don't have to have a like entire proof in my head.

That's interesting. Don't yeah yeah, this is because I got lined by line feedback on my prefixes. I go along it's great. Yeah. The problem with doing things this way is that they don't scale yeah it seems hard like. It seemed like I feel like with most problems you have to kind of have a proof in your head and then use the syntax to

like.

Make it so let me let me also clarify yeah the sorts of proofs currently that you need to do in caulk or way simpler and the more tedious and the sorts of proofs that you're thinking of here's an example of a proof that you might have to do in caulk, um, this is this is like on the interesting end of proofs okay, oh if you, Have a loop that adds up all the numbers between one and  $m$ .

It's the same thing as multiplying  $n$  times,  $m$ , plus one dividing by two, okay? This is the interesting proof here's another interesting proof, we're merged sword and bubble sort give you the same list if you give them the same list then. In both cases do just do it you you prove so the things you need to prove is you need to prove that they're included or do you just run both things and say no you can't run both things because you need to prove that it's true for every single list, right?

So yeah so the way that you would prove this is you define what it means to be sorted better to be what it means to be a stable sorting of a particular list, maybe you don't need that. I think you can just define what it means to be sorted and what it means for like two lists to be the same up to permutation and you're like for any list there's a unique list, that is the same up to permutation and also sorted.

Look both of these sorting methods produce that list. Okay, oh and like this is at the interesting end the like standard end or things like, um,

If I have a binary tree that holds numbers. And I add one to all the leaves then I take the sum of all the leaves. The number that I get is the number of leaves plus the sum of all the leaves before I added one.

You know, it's these sort of like trivial structural properties.

A lot of time is that proving trivial structural properties. I see so so it's not like you like there's like a it's often not like you're missing a concept and understanding how to generate the proof or something but you need like an elegant way to like structure the proof or something and that's the part where you're saying that the beginner would just be like here's tactic.

I will apply it anywhere like oh what's the good structure to do this or something? I mean, even I'm not what's the good structure to this? I'm like what's what's the structure to do this that isn't wrong? Okay, the beginner is like, Like cargo culting Margo what cargo holding that means?

I maybe it's originated from Richard Feynman and that. There are some places where the. Ah, like livelihood of the tribes depended on like airplane deliveries of cargo. And. Like there was always a ritual associated with the cargo showing up where you like wave the lights in the air so that the airplane can land on the landing strip.

And so you can like there there were some cults so I hear I don't know how accurate this is that developed around this where people would waive the lights in the air hoping that this would make the airplanes in the cargo show up. I see right so you can do the same sort of thing with programming you're like, oh I found the program that does the thing.

I want maybe I can take the code and maybe it'll do the thing. I want. And like you'll also include all the other care and like you're like, why is this other code here? Well, because it was in this other program that did the thing that I want. I don't know if I need it.

So like why are you doing this proof like this because the example proof that I saw had this structure and it worked through the system was like, okay. Yeah, right. So I am I'm at a more advanced level where I'm like, okay, I know that's a proof things about binary trees.

I'm gonna go by induction on the binary tree and I'll do something with the number of leaves and I'll figure the rest of the details out as I go.

And this is how most proofs get done. You do them piecewise. And you like don't account for like how much work call has to do at each step, you're like try it. So work it works then it's good doesn't work that it's bad. And like you could carefully in your head design the entire proof and like carefully account for how much work you expect cock to have to do at each step and make sure that cock shouldn't have to do any work that you don't think it should do.

But very few people designed proofs like this. But it should be possible to get a proof that is fast if you design it like this and like the next wave of performance issues is going to be that even when you're designing proofs like this things are still not fast enough.

And so then that's Cox problem. That's the like, how do you design a proof assistant with good enough primitives? Right, yeah, right. I'm like, look you can just. Throughout throw out the prevention. Do this other thing instead works nicely.

But like it would be nice if you don't have to do that. To get things to scale.

And yeah, that's that's the sort of next step. Right. Now, that's not like a nicer conclusion. Next step is all these very inspiring.



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