# OMDoc Support for Axiomatic Specifications in VeriFun

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#### Abstract

Axiomatic specifications stipulate properties of operations axiomatically and are used to reason about mathematical structures like groups, rings, fields, etc. on an abstract layer. Axiomatic specifications allow the organization of the mathematical structures under investigation in a modularized and hierarchical manner, thus supporting well-structured presentations. They also provide representations of non-freely generated data types like integers in a way which supports automated reasoning. A further advantage is that concrete implementations inherit the instances of all proven properties of a specification after it has been proved that the implementation satisfies the axioms of the specification. To utilize these benefits, the interactive verification tool verifun has been extended to support axiomatic specifications. For a full integration it is necessary to adapt the OMDoc standard [14] to support all features used in axiomatic specifications, such that storing case studies using axiomatic specification in the OMDoc format is possible. This paper describes all features of axiomatic specifications in verifun and defines how they are mapped to OMDoc constructs.

## 1 Introduction

Most up-to-date programming languages allow modularization of programs to organize increasing amounts of lines of code. Modules provide interfaces for the communication with external code. The properties of a module are mostly described by additional textual comments. Programmers implementing the same interface in another module know in which way the procedures should behave and hopefully stick to the given comments. However, for formal program verification, the properties of procedures declared by an interface need to be represented formally. An interface used for program verification has to specify the

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```
structure\ bool <= true, false
structure \mathbb{N} <= 0, ^+(^-:\mathbb{N})
structure list[@X] <= \emptyset, [infix]::(hd:@X, tl:list[@X])
function occurs(i:@X, k:list[@X]):\mathbb{N} <=
if k = \emptyset
  then 0
  else if i = hd(k) then +(occurs(i, tl(k))) else occurs(i, tl(k)) end
end
function ordered(k:list[\mathbb{N}]):bool <=
if k = \emptyset
  then true
  else if tl(k) = \emptyset
     then true
     else if hd(k) > hd(tl(k)) then false else ordered(tl(k)) end
  end
end
function insert(n:\mathbb{N}, k: list[\mathbb{N}]): list[\mathbb{N}] <=
if k = \emptyset
  then n :: \emptyset
  else if n > hd(k) then hd(k) :: insert(n, tl(k)) else n :: k end
end
function isort(k:list[\mathbb{N}]):list[\mathbb{N}] <=
if k = \emptyset then \emptyset else insert(hd(k), isort(tl(k))) end
lemma isort\ sorts <= \forall k: list[\mathbb{N}]\ ordered(isort(k))
lemma isort permutes <= \forall n: \mathbb{N}, k: list[\mathbb{N}] \ occurs(n, k) = occurs(n, isort(k))
```

Figure 1: Insertion sort over domain  $(\mathbb{N}, >)$ 

operators and additionally some axioms which constrain the operators to specific properties. The formal notion is that of a *specification* which stipulates domains, operators defined on these domains, and axioms stating properties on these operators. The classic algebraic concept of axiomatic specifications is exposed in detail in [8,9].

This paper describes the integration of axiomatic specifications into the  $\sqrt{\text{eriFun}}$  system [19, 21, 22], an interactive theorem prover for the verification of programs written in the functional programming language  $\mathcal{L}$  [20]. Figure 1 shows an example of a simple  $\mathcal{L}$  program. For each feature of axiomatic specifications we will describe the realization in OMDoc.

```
\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{specification} \ TotalOrder \\ \operatorname{domain} \ @O \\ \operatorname{operator} \ le: @O, @O \to bool \\ \operatorname{axiom} \ reflexivity <= \forall x . @O \ le(x,x) \\ \operatorname{axiom} \ antisymmetry <= \forall x, y . @O \ le(x,y) \land le(y,x) \to x = y \\ \operatorname{axiom} \ transitivity <= \forall x, y, z . @O \ le(x,y) \land le(y,z) \to le(x,z) \\ \operatorname{axiom} \ totality <= \forall x, y . @O \ le(x,y) \lor le(y,x) \end{array}
```

Figure 2: Axiomatic specification of a total order

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Sections 2 and A describe the capabilities of specifications in verifun. The semantics of programs with specifications and lemmas stating program properties is defined in Sect. B. Section C gives an survey of other systems which support axiomatic specifications and Sect. 3 concludes with the contributions of this paper and future work.

# 2 Specification Hierarchies

## 2.1 Simple Specifications

Lemmas isort sorts and isort permutes specify the requirements for isort (which must hold for any sorting algorithm). Sorting is specified constructively here by using a specific ordered domain, viz.  $(\mathbb{N}, >)$ , and procedures, viz. ordered and occurs, which decide list properties. However, sorting lists can be specified abstractly without relying on  $(\mathbb{N}, >)$  only. Figure 2 displays the definition of an ordered domain by the axiomatic specification TotalOrder. This definition gives the domain @O of the specification, an operator le over @O, and the axioms defining properties of le.

These basic elements of a specification are encoded in OMDoc as follows:

- specification itself (container)
  - encoding of folders
  - modules and
  - visibilities
- domains (type variables)
- operators (second order term variables)
- axioms (standard?)

The abstract variant of insertion sort for ordered domains is given in Fig. 3. *Importing* a specification into a procedure (denoted by [...]) extends the procedure's signature by the symbols defined in the specification, thus making these

```
function ordered[O:TotalOrder](k:list[@O]):bool <=
if k = \emptyset
  then true
  else if tl(k) = \emptyset
    then true
    else if le(hd(k), hd(tl(k))) then ordered[O](tl(k)) else false end
  end
end
function insert[O:TotalOrder](n:@O, k:list[@O]):list[@O] <=
if k = \emptyset
  then n :: \emptyset
  else if le(n, hd(k)) then n :: k else hd(k) :: insert[O](n, tl(k)) end
function isort[O:TotalOrder](k:list[@O]):list[@O] <=
if k = \emptyset then \emptyset else insert[O](hd(k), isort[O](tl(k))) end
lemma isort\ sorts[O:TotalOrder] <= \forall k:list[@O]\ ordered[O](isort[O](k))
lemma isort permutes [O:TotalOrder] \leftarrow \forall n: \mathbb{N}, k: list[@O]
  occurs(n, k) = occurs(n, isort[O](k))
```

Figure 3: Insertion sort over total ordered domains

symbols available in the procedure body. For example, procedure ordered, importing specification TotalOrder, now is defined upon lists over domain @O and uses the operator le for comparing list elements. By this import, the signature of ordered is extended by the additional specification parameter O of "type" TotalOrder, an actual instance of which has to be provided each time procedure ordered is called, cf. lemma isort sorts in Fig. 3. In this lemma the specification is imported, too, and passed to the calls of ordered and isort. Importing a specification into a lemma definition does not only make the domains and operators available in the lemma body, but also imports the axioms given for the imported operators. These axioms may be used for the proof of the lemma like verified lemmas of a program. Likewise, by importing a specification S into a procedure f, the axioms of S are also available in f to support a termination proof for f.

Hence, the information about *imported* specifications—called the *environment*—has to be encoded in OMDoc in addition to a procedure's formal parameters and a lemma's quantification, respectively.

 $\bullet$  extended procedure signature (list of names & specifications) = environment

```
specification PriorityQueue[O:TotalOrder]
  domain Q[@O]
  operator new: Q[@O]
  operator ins: @O, Q[@O] \rightarrow Q[@O]
  operator min: Q[@O] \rightarrow @O
  operator dm: Q[@O] \rightarrow Q[@O]
  operator size: Q[@O] \rightarrow \mathbb{N}
  axiom min ins new \le \forall v : @O min(ins(v, new)) = v
  axiom \ dm \ ins \ new <= \forall v : @O \ dm(ins(v, new)) = new
  axiom min ins notnew \leq \forall v: @O, q:Q[@O]
    q \neq new \rightarrow if\{le(min(q), v), min(ins(v, q)) = min(q), min(ins(v, q)) = v\}
  axiom \ dm \ ins \ notnew <= \forall v: @O, q:Q[@O]
    q \neq new \rightarrow if\{le(min(q), v), dm(ins(v, q)) = ins(v, dm(q)), dm(ins(v, q)) = q\}
  axiom ins not new \leq \forall v: @O, q:Q[@O] ins(v,q) \neq new
  axiom ins min dm \le \forall q : Q[@O] \ q \ne new \rightarrow q = ins(min(q), dm(q)))
  axiom size definition \leq \forall v: @O, q:Q[@O]
    (q = new \rightarrow size(q) = 0) \land
    (size(ins(v,q)) = +(size(q))) \land
    (q \neq new \rightarrow size(q) \neq 0 \land size(dm(q)) = -(size(q)))
```

Figure 4: Specification of a priority queue

- extended terms—see below
- $\bullet$  extended lemma quantification = environment

#### 2.2 Parameterization

Specifications may not only be imported into procedures and lemmas, but into other specifications as well—called parameterization. Figure 4 shows the definition of a priority queue which is parameterized by a total order, i.e. the priority queue specification uses a totally ordered domain given by specification TotalOrder of Fig. 2. For defining the domain of PriorityQueue, a type operator variable <math>Q for a container data type like list containing elements of type @O (imported from TotalOrder) is used. Next, the operators for the priority queue are defined: Operator new creates a new queue, ins inserts an element into the queue, min yields the minimal element of the queue, and dm deletes the minimal element from the priority queue. Finally, the properties of the operators are given by the axioms. Specification PriorityQueue also defines an operator size which is used to justify termination of procedures which operate on PriorityQueues.

Thus, the signature of a specification is also extended by a list of imports which is handled in OMDoc in analogy to the environment of procedures and lemmas:

• extend specification signature

```
function makeQueue[P:PriorityQueue](l:list[@O]):Q[@O] <= if l=\emptyset then new else <math>ins(hd(l), makeQueue[P](tl(l))) end function makeList[P:PriorityQueue](q:Q[@O]):list[@O] <= if q=new then \emptyset else <math>min(q)::makeList[P](dm(q)) end function sort[P:PriorityQueue](l:list[@O]):list[@O] <= makeList[P](makeQueue[P](l)) lemma sort\ sorts[P:PriorityQueue] <= \forall l:list[@O]\ ordered[O(P)](sort[P](l)) lemma sort\ permutes[P:PriorityQueue] <= \forall n:@O, l:list[@O]\ occurs(n,l) = occurs(n,sort[P](l))
```

Figure 5: A sorting algorithm using priority queues

Elements are removed from the queue wrt. the given ordering, i.e. smallest element first. This property can be used to implement a sorting algorithm for lists over an ordered domain: First all elements are inserted into the queue, and then the elements are removed and added to an initially empty list in the order in which they were removed from the queue. The implementation of this algorithm is given in Fig. 5. Basically, it just creates a priority queue from the given list l and converts it back into a list. To check the correctness of the sorting algorithm of Fig. 5 it has to be proved that sort returns an ordered permutation of its input list. The elements of a priority queue P are ordered wrt. the total order O of priority queue P, denoted by O(P), by which specification PriorityQueue is parameterized. Hence, procedure ordered of Fig. 3 is called with O(P) in the lemma sort sorts of Fig. 5, thus referencing the total order of the priority queue specification.

These references to specification extend the definition of terms. Now, a term is not only defined by a leading function symbol followed by a term list, but—depending on the procedure—a leading function symbol, a list of specification terms (like O(P) or simply P), and a term list (cf. recursive calls in the sorting procedures using priority queues). Specification terms are decoded in OMDoc as

- describe specification terms here!
- integration into term concept

#### 2.3 Inheritance, Renaming, and Lemmas

The priority queue specification uses the total order specification by adding an additional domain and operators over the new domain. Another kind of using a specification is *inheritance*. When inheriting from other specifications, these

```
specification Monoid
  {\tt domain}\ @M
 operator op:@M,@M\to@M
  operator neut:@M
  axiom left neut \leq \forall x : @M \ op(neut, x) = x
  axiom right neut \leq \forall x : @M \ op(x, neut) = x
 axiom op assoc \le \forall x, y, z : @M \ op(op(x, y), z) = op(x, op(y, z))
specification Group[M:Monoid(@G, op, neut)]
  operator inv: @G \rightarrow @G
 axiom inv op right \leq \forall x: @G \ op(x, inv(x)) = neut
 lemma inv op left \leq \forall x: @G \ op(inv(x), x) = neut
 lemma inv inv \le \forall x : @G inv(inv(x)) = x
specification \ Group Homomorphism [G1: Group (@G1, op1, neut1, inv1),
                                          G2:Group(@G2, op2, neut2, inv2)]
  operator h:@G1 \rightarrow @G2
  axiom homomorphism \le \forall x, y : @G1 \ op2(h(x), h(y)) = h(op1(x, y))
  lemma h \ keeps \ neut <= h(neut1) = neut2
 lemma h \ keeps \ inv <= \forall x : @G1 \ h(inv1(x)) = inv2(h(x))
specification RingUnit[G:Group(@R, plus, zero, minus)],
                            M:Monoid(@R, mult, one)
 axiom plus commutativity \leq \forall x, y : @R \ plus(x, y) = plus(y, x)
  axiom left distributivity \leq \forall x, y, z : @R
    mult(x, plus(y, z)) = plus(mult(x, y), mult(x, z))
 axiom right distributivity <= \forall x, y, z : @R
    mult(plus(y, z), x) = plus(mult(y, x), mult(z, x))
```

Figure 6: Axiomatic specifications of algebraic structures

specifications are refined by adding new operators on the imported domains and/or restricting the imported operators by additional axioms. Inheritance of specifications is related to inheritance in object oriented languages (OO) where a class is extended by additional fields and methods (whereas overriding methods is not possible with specifications). An inherited specification  $S[T:U(\ldots)]$  can also be used in contexts where the imported specification U is expected by simply referencing it with T(S)—corresponding to subtyping in OO. An example for inheritance is the extension of a monoid to a group. A monoid is a structure with an associative operator and a neutral element. By adding an inverse operator inv, a group inherits from a monoid like in specification Group of Fig. 6.

When importing a specification, domains and operators may be renamed.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$ There is no syntactical or semantical difference between importing, parameterizing, and inheriting. The different namings only indicate different purposes of utilizing specifications.

For instance, the domain of Monoid is renamed to @G upon inheritance into specification Group. Renaming of local domains and operators of specifications particularly allows the import of multiple instances of a single specification into another specification. For example, specification GroupHomomorphism of Fig. 6 displays a group homomorphism which is defined by importing two separate instances of specification Group. By renaming the domains and all operators of Group, both instances are distinguished in specification GroupHomomorphism. As another benefit, renaming is also used to link imported specifications together by sharing domains and/or operators. For instance, Fig. 6 shows how a ring with unit element inherits from a group and a monoid by renaming the domains of Group and Monoid to @R, thus identifying both domains. Therefore all operators imported from Monoid and Group are defined on the same domain in the context of specification RingUnit.

The signature extensions of procedures, lemmas, and specifications (called inheritance/parameterization here) is thus augmented by additional *renaming* operations. In OMDoc these renamings are decoded as

- type substitutions and
- term substitutions

#### 2.4 Instantiation

Before proving a lemma which imports a specification S, consistency of S has to be verified. To this effect, an instantiation of specification S with a structure satisfying the axioms of S has to be provided. Then the instantiated axioms have to be proved and—if successful—it is verified that S possesses a model. These models are quite simple in many cases, often using singleton domains. For example, the instantiation of PriorityQueue (also instantiating TotalOrder) is given in Fig. 7. The domain of specification TotalOrder is instantiated with the free data structure singleton consisting of the single constant constructor single. The domain of PriorityQueue is instantiated with the data structure list of linear lists. Now all operators are instantiated in the order of their definition in the specification using the constant function leSingleton, the constructors and selectors of list and the length function  $|\cdot|$ . Similarly, all specifications of Fig. 6 can be instantiated by using singleton domains and constant functions.

From the OMDoc perspective an instance of specification S is only a collection of *imported specifications*—possibly with renamings—and a renaming for the elements of S, i.e.

- environment
- specification + type/term substitutions

Instantiations are also used to assert that a concrete structure *implements* an abstract structure given by an axiomatic specification. For instance, using the monoid structure given in Fig. 6, a procedure *fold* can be defined which folds the elements of a list by applying the monoid operation successively to

```
\begin{split} & \text{function } leSingleton <= single \\ & \text{function } leSingleton(x,y:singleton):bool <= true \\ & \text{function } [outfix] \mid (l:list[@X]): \mathbb{N} <= if \ l = \emptyset \ then \ 0 \ else \ ^+(\mid tl(l)\mid) \ end \\ & \text{instance } PQInstance <= PriorityQueue(singleton, list, leSingleton, \emptyset, ::, hd, tl, \mid \cdot \mid) \\ & \text{function } fold[M:Monoid](l:list[@M]): @M <= \\ & if \ l = \emptyset \ then \ neut \ else \ op(hd(l), fold[M](tl(l))) \ end \\ & \text{lemma } fold \ append[M:Monoid] <= \forall l1, l2:list[@M] \\ & op(fold[M](l1), fold[M](l2)) = fold[M](append(l1, l2)) \\ & \text{instance } Plus <= Monoid(\mathbb{N}, +, 0) \\ & \text{function } fold[Plus](l:list[\mathbb{N}]): \mathbb{N} <= \\ & if \ l = \emptyset \ then \ 0 \ else \ hd(l) + fold[Plus](tl(l)) \ end \\ & \text{lemma } fold \ append[Plus] <= \forall l1, l2:list[\mathbb{N}] \\ & fold[Plus](l1) + fold[Plus](l2) = fold[Plus](append(l1, l2)) \\ & \text{instance } ProductMonoid[M_1:Monoid(...), M_2:Monoid(...)] <= Monoid(...) \\ \end{split}
```

Figure 7: Instantiations of specifications

all elements of the list, cf. Fig. 7. Given a further procedure append for list concatenation, it can be proved that applying fold to a concatenated list is the same as folding both parts separately and applying the monoid operation to the results, cf. lemma fold append in Fig. 7. Having proved that natural numbers with addition + and 0, abbreviated by Plus, are an instance of Monoid, i.e. that Plus implements a monoid as given by Monoid, procedures using Monoid may be instantiated with Plus and all lemmas holding for monoids hold for Plus as well, cf. procedure fold[Plus] and lemma fold append[Plus] of Fig. 7 which are available implicitly after the instantiation Plus has been proved.

Thus, the concept of specification terms is extended to terms with use an instantiation as a leading "function symbol" and whose arity is determined by its environment. The instance which shows that product monoid with suitable operations build a monoid again from Fig. 7 allows, e.g., for the specification term ProductMonoid(Plus, ProductMonoid(Plus, M)), if M is the name for some specification of a monoid in the current environment. This is decoded in OMDoc in the following way:

• instances as leading specification term symbols

## 3 Conclusion

Axiomatic specifications as presented here have been integrated into an experimental version of the veriFun system [15] and further developed based on the experiences gained by using specifications in several case studies. However, proving properties about axiomatically specified entities necessitates a high degree of user interaction in veriFun. This is because veriFun's heuristics were designed for controlling the verification of properties of programs rather than the proof of theorems in pure first order logic. Hence, a pure first-order reasoner is needed when working with axiomatic specifications. We therefore presently investigate how to integrate a first-order theorem prover into the system [10]. Another open problem, the support of the OMDoc standard is tackled in this paper and will be implemented soon.

We presented the essential features of axiomatic specifications in VeriFun, illustrated by several examples. Our proposal offers a certain flexibility, as many kinds of combinations between specifications are supported: Specifications can be inherited, parameterized, referenced, multi-used, linked, and instantiated. Using specifications it is even possible to perform induction proofs over non-freely generated data types like integers without introducing formal clutter by using normal forms, defining congruence relations explicitly, etc. A comparison with related work, summarized in Tab. 1, reveals that our approach might extend proposals known from the literature in a useful way, especially wrt. the possibilities of developing structured hierarchies of specifications.

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# A Specification of Non-Free Data Types

In the previous sections, specifications were used to build hierarchies of theories which then were used in generic algorithms and lemmas. Another benefit of axiomatic specifications is that they support the definition of non-free data types like *integer*. Such specifications are typically neither instantiated nor inherited from nor multi-used.

# A.1 Integers

Integers are defined as a set  $\mathbb{Z} := \mathbb{Z}^- \cup \{0\} \cup \mathbb{Z}^+$ , where  $\mathbb{Z}^- := \{-n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, n > 0\}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}^+ := \{n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, n > 0\}$ . This structure is modeled with specification Integer of Fig. 8. Here, integers are built with the operators zero, succ, and pred over some domain @I. Operators succ and pred are non-free, as non-trivial equations between them hold, e.g. that they are inverse to each other; both are injective, and do not possess a fixpoint. Additionally, the specification defines the algebraic sign sign and the absolute value abs of an integer.

The axioms for operators sign, abs, pred, and succ guarantee that  $\mathbb{N}$  (represented by terms over 0 and  $^+(\ldots)$ ) is isomorphic to  $\{0\} \cup \mathbb{Z}^+$  (represented by

```
structure int\_sign \le pos, neut, neg
specification Integer
  \mathtt{domain}\ @I
  operator zero:@I
  operator succ:@I \rightarrow @I
  operator pred:@I \rightarrow @I
  operator sign: @I \rightarrow int\_sign
  \mathtt{operator}\ abs:@I\to\mathbb{N}
  axiom \ pred \ succ <= \forall i:@I \ pred(succ(i)) = i
  axiom \ succ \ pred <= \forall i:@I \ succ(pred(i)) = i
  axiom \ succ \ not \ id \le \forall i: @I \ succ(i) \ne i
  axiom pred not id \ll \forall i:@I \ pred(i) \neq i
  axiom succ\ injective <= \forall i1, i2:@I\ succ(i1) = succ(i2) \rightarrow i1 = i2
  axiom pred injective <= \forall i1, i2: @I \ pred(i1) = pred(i2) \rightarrow i1 = i2
  \texttt{axiom} \ sign \ definition <= \forall i : @I \ (i = zero \leftrightarrow sign(i) = neut) \land
     (sign(pred(zero)) = neg) \land (sign(succ(zero)) = pos) \land
     (sign(i) = pos \rightarrow sign(succ(i)) = pos \land sign(pred(i)) \neq neg) \land
     (sign(i) = neg \rightarrow sign(pred(i)) = neg \land sign(succ(i)) \neq pos)
  axiom \ abs \ definition <= \forall i:@I
     case \{ sign(i);
            pos: abs(i) = -(abs(succ(i))) \wedge abs(i) = +(abs(pred(i))),
            neut: abs(i) = 0,
            neg: abs(i) = {}^+(abs(succ(i))) \land abs(i) = {}^-(abs(pred(i)))
```

Figure 8: Specification of the integers

terms over zero and succ) as well as to  $\{0\} \cup \mathbb{Z}^-$  (represented by terms over zero and pred), where term i represents an integer in  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  if sign(i) = pos and an integer in  $\mathbb{Z}^-$  if sign(i) = neg. Terms i with sign(i) = neut represent  $\{0\}$ .

Functions sign and abs also provide a termination argument for algorithms over integers, which is used to prove termination of procedures operating on Integer: Procedures function  $f[I:Integer](x:@I,...):\tau <= ...$  are usually defined recursively, typically by case analysis over the sign of at least one of its arguments.<sup>2</sup> Termination is verified by proving a termination hypothesis like  $C \to abs(x) > abs(t)$  for recursive calls f(t,...) under condition C.

Before verifying properties of procedures importing *Integer*, an instance of specification *Integer* has to be provided to ensure consistency of the specification: By encoding integers as natural numbers (viz. even numbers to represent the non-negative integers and odd numbers to represent the negative ones) a model for the axioms of *Integer* is obtained, thus proving consistency of this specification.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ Since integers do not have a unique representation using zero, succ, and pred, a case analysis on the leading "constructor" neither makes sense nor is syntactically possible.

Alternatively, integers can be straightforwardly represented by pairs of sign and natural number, by pairs of natural numbers, by a free data type with three constructors Zero, Succ, and Pred, etc. Having a concrete representation of integers, in principle there is no need to use an abstract presentation. But each of the above concrete representations introduce formal peculiarities which makes the formulation of procedures and statements about them (as well as proofs of these statements) awkward. E.g., (-,0) and (+,0) always need a special treatment when using pairs of sign and natural number. Similarly, a user-defined equality has to be provided when using pairs of natural numbers, where (n,m) denotes the integer n-m. Defining a freely generated data type requires restriction to normal forms of integers to be able to use the built-in equality. Thus, all procedures have to be defined to return results in normal form, and formulation of properties is restricted to normal form integers. Encoding integers by even and odd natural numbers avoids all pitfalls of the other representations, but with the high price of unreadable definitions and counterintuitive proof obligations.

All these problems are circumvented when using an axiomatic specification as the built-in equality then can be used like for freely generated data types. Hence a *naive implementation* is used for proving *consistency* of specification *Integer*, but then the *abstract presentation* coming with *Integer* is used for *working* with integers, i.e. to formulate procedures operating on integers and stating lemmas about them, as this eases definitions and proofs significantly.

# A.2 Algorithms

Figure 9 gives some definitions of arithmetic operations over integers. Addition of integers, e.g., is defined recursively similarly to the recursive definition of addition of natural numbers. Termination of procedure plus is shown using procedure > with termination function  $\lambda x, y.abs(x)$ . This yields two termination hypotheses for procedure plus, viz.  $sign(x) = pos \rightarrow abs(x) > abs(pred(x))$  and  $sign(x) = neg \rightarrow abs(x) > abs(succ(x))$ . Both termination hypotheses are easily proved using the axioms of Integer. Subtraction, multiplication, and negation are defined in a similar way, based on the case analysis of the sign of one argument, and termination is shown in the same way as for addition. Procedures quotient and remainder have more complicated termination hypotheses. Using  $\lambda x, y.abs(x)$  as a termination function again, termination hypotheses are obtained which require lemmas relating abs, sign, plus, minus, and >.

#### A.3 Verification

In general, lemmas about recursively defined procedures are proved by induction. Sound induction schemas can be obtained uniformly from the recursion structure of *terminating* procedures. For example, procedure *plus* yields follow-

 $<sup>^4</sup>$ The value  $\star$  denotes an indetermined result, i.e. *quotient* and *remainder* are only incompletely defined, cf. [23].

```
function plus[I:Integer](x, y:@I):@I <=
                                                   function minus[I:Integer](x,y:@I):@I <=
case sign(x) of
                                                   case sign(y) of
  pos: succ(plus[I](pred(x), y)),
                                                     pos: minus[I](pred(x), pred(y)),
  neut:y,
                                                     neut: x.
  neg: pred(plus[I](succ(x), y))
                                                     neg: minus[I](succ(x), succ(y))
function times[I:Integer](x, y:@I):@I <=
                                                   function uminus[I:Integer](x:@I):@I <=
case sign(x) of
                                                   case \ sign(x) \ of
 pos: plus[I](times[I](pred(x), y), y),
                                                     pos: pred(uminus[I](pred(x))),
  neut: zero,
                                                     neut: x,
  neg:minus[I](times[I](succ(x),y),y)
                                                     neg: succ(uminus[I](succ(x)))
function quotient[I:Integer](x, y:@I):@I <=
                                                   function remainder[I:Integer](x, y:@I):@I <=
                                                   case \ sign(y) \ of
case sign(y) of
    if \ abs(y) > abs(x)
                                                       if \ abs(y) > abs(x)
      then\ zero
                                                         then x
      else case sign(x) of
                                                         else case sign(x) of
       pos: succ(quotient[I](minus[I](x, y), y))
                                                           pos: remainder[I](minus[I](x, y), y)
        neg: pred(quotient[I](plus[I](x,y),y))
                                                           neg: remainder[I](plus[I](x, y), y)
    end end
                                                       end end
  neut: \star^4
                                                     neut: \star^4
  neq:
                                                     neq:
    if \ abs(y) > abs(x)
                                                       if \ abs(y) > abs(x)
      then zero
                                                         then \ x
      else case sign(x) of
                                                         else case sign(x) of
        pos: pred(quotient[I](plus[I](x, y), y))
                                                           pos: remainder[I](plus[I](x, y), y)
        neut: zero
                                                           neut: zero
        neg: succ(quotient[I](minus[I](x, y), y))
                                                           neg: remainder[I](minus[I](x, y), y)
    end \ end
                                                       end end
end
                                                   end
```

Figure 9: Arithmetic operations over integers

ing induction schema for proving a formula  $\phi[x]$  with a free integer variable x:

Figure 10 displays some properties of *Integer* operations which have been verified in verifum by induction, some of which were subsequently used to verify other proof obligations. For example, lemma sign plus pos neg has been used for proving termination of procedure quotient.

The integers together with addition and unary minus form an abelian group, defined by specification AbelianGroup of Fig. 10. The instance property follows immediately from some of the properties displayed in Fig. 10. Like procedures, lemmas, and specifications, an instance can import specifications, too. So the parameterized instantiation of AbelianGroup given in Fig. 10 is easily proved correct. This instantiation makes, e.g., the instance  $\forall x: @I\ uminus(uminus(x)) = x$  of lemma  $inv\ inv$  of specification Group of Fig. 6 available for integers, such that it can be used in subsequent proofs of lemmas about integers.

```
lemma plus associative[I:Integer] \leq \forall x, y, z:@I
  plus[I](x, plus[I](y, z)) = plus[I](plus[I](x, y), z)
lemma plus commutative [I:Integer] \leq \forall x, y : @I
  plus[I](x,y) = plus[I](y,x)
lemma sign\ plus\ pos\ neg[I:Integer] <= \forall x,y:@I
  sign(x) = pos \land sign(y) = neg \rightarrow
    if\{abs(x) > abs(y),
      sign(plus[I](x,y)) = pos,
      if\{abs(y) > abs(x), sign(plus[I](x, y)) = neg, sign(plus[I](x, y)) = neut\}\}
lemma plus uminus same is zero[I:Integer] \leq \forall x:@I
  plus[I](x, uminus[I](x)) = zero
lemma quotient remainder [I:Integer] \leq \forall x, y : @I
  sign(y) \neq neut \rightarrow x = plus[I](times[I](quotient[I](x,y),y), remainder[I](x,y)))
specification Abelian Group[G:Group]
  axiom op\ comm <= \forall x, y: @G\ op(x,y) = op(y,x)
instance\ IntegersGroup[I:Integer] <=
  AbelianGroup(@I, zero, plus[I], uminus[I])
```

Figure 10: Properties of integers

#### B Semantics

The operational semantics for  $\mathcal{L}$ -programs P is defined in [18, 20] by an interpreter  $eval_P: \bigcup_{\tau} \mathcal{T}(\Sigma(P))_{\tau} \mapsto \bigcup_{\tau} \mathcal{T}(\Sigma(P)^c)_{\tau}$  which maps ground terms of arbitrary monomorphic data types  $\tau$  to constructor ground terms of the respective monomorphic data types using the definition of the procedures and data types in P. In [2] the language is extended to  $\mathcal{L}^*$  including higher-order functions.

To be able to define the semantics of programs with specifications and lemmas about them, we first define the components of specifications and instances. Furthermore, environments (written as [...]) and conversions—i.e. renamings or instantiations—of specifications are defined. Last, environment terms which are used, e.g., to address substructures are defined.

**Definition B.1** (Specifications, Environments, and Instances). A specification s is a tuple  $s = (S, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{V}_T, \mathcal{V}_O, \mathcal{A}\mathcal{X})$ , where S is an identifier,  $\mathcal{E}$  is the environment of the specification,  $\mathcal{V}_T$  is a list of type variables and type operator variables denoting the domain of the specification,  $\mathcal{V}_O$  is a list of first-order function variables denoting the operators of the specification, and  $\mathcal{A}\mathcal{X}$  is a finite set of

second-order formulas defining the axioms of the specification.

A specification conversion is a pair  $\gamma := \langle \xi, \sigma \rangle$  where  $\xi$  is a type substitution and  $\sigma$  is a term substitution.  $\gamma$  is an s-conversion for specification s if  $dom(\xi) \subseteq \mathcal{V}_T$  and  $dom(\sigma) \subseteq \mathcal{V}_O$ .

An environment  $\mathcal{E}$  is a list of named specification conversions  $\mathcal{E} = \langle e_1 : (s_1, \gamma_1), \dots, e_n : (s_n, \gamma_n) \rangle$  where each  $\gamma_i$  is an  $s_i$ -conversion. The domain of  $\mathcal{E}$  is defined by  $dom(\mathcal{E}) := \langle e_1, \dots, e_n \rangle$ , and  $\mathcal{E}(e_i) := (s_i, \gamma_i)$  for each  $e_i \in dom(\mathcal{E})$ .

An *instance* is a tuple  $(I, \mathcal{E}, s, \gamma)$  where I is the name of the instantiation,  $\mathcal{E}$  is an environment, s is a specification, and  $\gamma$  is an s-conversion.

Specification conversions provide a renaming or a specialization of a specification. Environments are used to make some (renamed) specifications available in different contexts, like in specification, instance, procedure, or lemma definitions.

**Definition B.2** (Environment Terms). Given an environment  $\mathcal{E}$ , the set  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$  of specification typed environment terms is defined as the smallest set satisfying (1)–(3). To each environment term  $e \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$ , a corresponding specification conversion  $\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}$  is assigned.

- 1.  $a_s \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$  for each  $a \in dom(\mathcal{E})$  with  $\mathcal{E}(a) = (s, \gamma)$ ; and  $\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(a_s) := \gamma$ ,
- 2.  $b(a_s)_{s'} \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$  for each  $a_s \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$  with  $s = (S, \mathcal{E}_s, \mathcal{V}_T, \mathcal{V}_O, \mathcal{AX})$  and for each  $b \in dom(\mathcal{E}_s)$  with  $\mathcal{E}_s(b) = (s', \gamma')$ ; and  $\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(b(a_s)_{s'}) := \gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(a_s) \circ \gamma'$ , and
- 3.  $I[a^1_{s_1},\ldots,a^n_{s_n}]_s \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$  for each instance  $(I,\mathcal{E}_I,s,\gamma)$  with  $\mathcal{E}_I = \langle e_1 : (s_1,\gamma_1),\ldots,e_n : (s_n,\gamma_n) \rangle$  and  $a^1_{s_1},\ldots,a^n_{s_n} \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$ , if  $\gamma_{I[a^1_{s_1},\ldots,a^n_{s_n}]} = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_{(s_i,\gamma_i),a^i_{s_i}}$  with  $\gamma_{(s_i,\gamma_i),a^i_{s_i}} = \langle \{\gamma_i(\tau)/\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(a^i_{s_i})(\tau)|\tau \in \mathcal{V}_T(s_i)\}, \ \{\gamma_i(x)/\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(a^i_{s_i})(x)|x \in \mathcal{V}_O(s_i)\} \rangle$  is well-defined; and  $\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(I[a^1_{s_1},\ldots,a^n_{s_n}]) := \gamma_{I[a^1_{s_1},\ldots,a^n_{s_n}]} \circ \gamma$ .

Sometimes an environment term  $e_s$  is denoted as e:s.

With (1) all specifications used directly in the environment can be addressed by their name and the induced conversion is defined by the environment. If some specification uses other specifications in its environment, they can be referenced by using the name, given in the environment with (2) and the conversion is the concatenation of the conversion induced by  $a_s$  and the conversion which is used in the environment of s to import s'. Furthermore, existing instances with an environment can be specialized using properly typed environment terms (3), i.e. the environment terms need to address the specifications used in the environment of the instance. The corresponding conversion is the concatenation of the conversions induced by the subterms and the conversion defined in the actual instance. The conversions induced by the subterms are slightly modified such that they do not replace the variables of the specifications, but the variables already renamed by the instance conversion. So, each environment term  $e_s$  defines an s-conversion which provides a renaming of the original specification so that it matches its usage in the environment.

The semantics of a procedure function  $func[\mathcal{E}](x_1:\tau_1,\ldots,x_m:\tau_m):\tau <= \ldots$  with  $\mathcal{E} := \langle e_1:(s_1,\gamma_1),\ldots,e_n:(s_n,\gamma_n)\rangle$  is defined as the semantics of the signature extended  $\mathcal{L}^*$ -procedure function  $func^*(\gamma_1(\mathcal{V}_O(s_1)),\ldots,\gamma_n(\mathcal{V}_O(s_n)),x_1:\tau_1,\ldots,x_m:\tau_m):\tau <= \ldots$  where  $\mathcal{V}_O(s)$  denotes the list of operators of specification s. I.e., the semantics of a procedure with an environment is defined as the semantics of the corresponding signature extended procedure without an environment, but additional renamed first-order parameters corresponding to the operators of the used specifications. Calls of procedure func are translated to calls of the signature extended procedure  $func^*$  by computing the specification conversions  $\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}$  for the environment terms and applying them to the actual environment (given by environment terms) of the procedure call, yielding the properly renamed function variables of the addressed specifications. Hence, a procedure call  $func[a_1:s_1,\ldots,a_n:s_n](t_1,\ldots,t_m)$  in an environment  $\mathcal{E}$  with  $a_i:s_i \in \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{E}}$  is translated into call  $func^*(\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(a_1)(\mathcal{V}_O(s_1)),\ldots,\gamma_{\mathcal{E}}(a_n)(\mathcal{V}_O(s_n),t_1,\ldots,t_m)$ .

For example, the semantics of procedure plus of Fig. 9 is defined as the semantics of the transformed procedure

```
\begin{aligned} & \text{function } plus^*(zero:@I, succ, pred:@I \rightarrow @I, sign:@I \rightarrow int\_sign, \\ & abs:@I \rightarrow \mathbb{N}, x, y:@I):@I <= \\ & case & sign(x) & of \\ & pos: succ(plus^*(zero, succ, pred, sign, abs, pred(x), y)), \\ & neut: y, \\ & neg: pred(plus^*(zero, succ, pred, sign, abs, succ(x), y)) \\ & end \end{aligned}
```

where the signature is extended with first-order function variables and the recursive calls are translated to calls of the signature extended procedure.

A lemma lemma  $lem[\mathcal{E}] <= \forall x_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, x_m : \tau_m$  b with environment  $\mathcal{E} := \langle e_1 : (s_1, \gamma_1), \ldots, e_n : (s_n, \gamma_n) \rangle$  is true in a program P iff for all substitutions  $\sigma_O$  with  $dom(\sigma_O) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_i(\mathcal{V}_O(s_i))$  assigning the first-order function variables arbitrary terminating  $\mathcal{L}$ -procedures holds:  $eval_P(\sigma_\xi(\sigma_O(b))) = true$  for all constructor ground substitutions  $\sigma_\xi$  with  $dom(\sigma_\xi) = \{x_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, x_m : \tau_m\}$  if  $eval_P(\sigma'_{\xi'}(\sigma_O(ax))) = true$  for all axioms  $\forall z_1 : v_1, \ldots, z_k : v_k$  ax  $\in \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_i(\mathcal{AX}(s_i))$  and for all constructor ground substitutions  $\sigma'_{\xi'}$  with  $dom(\sigma'_{\xi'}) = \{z_1 : v_1, \ldots, z_k : v_k\}$ , where  $\mathcal{AX}(s)$  denotes the set of axioms of specification s.

An instance  $(I, \langle e_1:(s_1, \gamma_1), \dots, e_n:(s_n, \gamma_n)\rangle, s, \gamma)$  is true in a program P iff for all substitutions  $\sigma_O$  with  $dom(\sigma_O) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_i(\mathcal{V}_O(s_i))$  assigning the first-order function variables arbitrary terminating  $\mathcal{L}$ -procedures holds:  $eval_P(\sigma_\xi(\sigma_O(b))) = true$  for all axioms  $\forall x_1:\tau_1, \dots, x_m:\tau_m \ b \in \gamma(\mathcal{AX}(s))$  and all constructor ground substitutions  $\sigma_\xi$  with  $dom(\sigma_\xi) = \{x_1:\tau_1, \dots, x_m:\tau_m\}$  if  $eval_P(\sigma'_{\xi'}(\sigma_O(ax))) = true$  for all axioms  $\forall z_1:v_1, \dots, z_k:v_k \ ax \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_i(\mathcal{AX}(s_i))$  available in the environment and for all constructor ground substitutions  $\sigma'_{\xi'}$  with  $dom(\sigma'_{\xi'}) = \{z_1:v_1, \dots, z_k:v_k\}$ .

 $<sup>{}^5\</sup>sigma_{\xi}$  denotes a pair of a term substitution  $\sigma$  and a type substitution  $\xi$ .

## C Related Work

ACL2 provides mechanisms to build structured theories [13]. In a so-called encapsulation the user can define function symbols and constraints (axioms) on them. Theorems derived from axioms introduced by encapsulations may be functionally instantiated [6], i.e. a functional substitution maps the symbols of the encapsulation to concrete functions. If it can be shown that these functions satisfy the axioms of the encapsulation, the theorem can be instantiated with these functions. This corresponds to instantiation of specifications like in Fig. 7, where Monoid is instantiated. ACL2 uses a global namespace, and thus prohibits inheritance or multi-usage, cf. GroupHomomorphism in Fig. 6, of specifications, since no renaming is possible. Furthermore every instantiation of a specification has to be concrete in the sense that all domain and operator variables have to be instantiated. Instantiations like IntegersGroup, cf. Fig. 10, are not possible.

IMPS supports axiomatic specifications by so-called *little theories* [11]. The user can build theories based on different axioms and instantiate derived theorems by *translation* into other theories, i.e. giving a mapping between specifications like with parameterized instantiations, cf. Fig. 10. IMPS allows no multi-usage and only a very restricted version of inheritance, where the user has to give a translation between independent specifications manually to prove the inheritance relation between these specifications. I.e., inheritance cannot be accomplished by parameterization, cf. specification *Group* of Fig. 6, but has to be stated explicitly after defining specifications. Hence, common domains and operators first have to be defined twice and then are shown to be equivalent.

PVS implements direct support for theory interpretations [17]. A theory can use uninterpreted types and functions and stipulate axioms, like a specification in  $\sqrt{\text{eriFun}}$ . A theory can be imported into another theory by mapping some or all uninterpreted types and functions to concrete types and functions. This realizes inheritance and instantiation and allows multiple usage of the same theory upon import. The completely instantiated axioms are proof obligations (type checking constraints) presented to the user. However, it is not possible to link imported theories, i.e. it is not possible to use two different theories sharing some operators or domains, cf. specification RingUnit of Fig. 6.

Isabelle/HOL [16] uses axiomatic type classes to provide axiomatic specifications, inspired by type classes [12] in Haskell. Axiomatic type classes specify the constraints on some previously defined function symbols. Type classes can include other type classes and be instantiated with either concrete implementations or other type classes, i.e. type classes support inheritance and (possibly parameterized) instantiations. Isabelle's axiomatic type classes are restricted to only one domain per type class as well as only one instance of each type for a given class and do not allow the usage of type operator variables like Q in specification PriorityQueue of Fig. 4.

A more recent approach in Isabelle is the concept of *locales* [4]. Locales define a layer on top of the underlying logic of Isabelle which is used to manage certain *contexts*. Such a context is usually a set of function symbols and

axioms about them, i.e. an axiomatic specification. Locales can be combined using so-called *locale expressions* allowing inheritance, sharing, and multi-usage, like specifications *RingUnit* and *GroupHomomorphism* in Fig. 6. Since locales are constructed on top of Isabelle's logic, usage of type operator variables is prohibited, too.

The MAYA-System [3] is not a reasoning system, but manages development graphs which are a representation of axiomatic specifications and links between them. These links represent imports and instantiations of specifications. MAYA reads specification languages like CASL [1] and transforms them into a development graph. The proof obligations resulting from the development graph are passed to some external proof system. MAYA allows inheritance, instantiation, and multi-usage of specifications, but supports neither type operator variables nor referencing of substructures, which is used, e.g., in lemma sort sorts of Fig. 5.

Nuprl allows axiomatic specifications by definition of classes [7]. A class is a collection of sets and operators on them, where the signature of an operator is a type in Nuprl's constructive type theory. Axioms are further types and also part of classes. Inheritance is modeled by intersection of classes (types), and multi-usage and sharing is possible by applying renamings to classes. But the mapping of classes to renamed instances always has to be given explicitly after defining composed classes. Hence, e.g. modeling of algebraic structures like in Fig. 6 is possible, but linking the Monoid specifications used in the definition of RingUnit requires two explicit renamings of Monoid after the definition of RingUnit. Parameterization of classes is formulated in terms of dependent types. Instantiation and referencing of substructures is not possible.

Coq supports modules to structure theories [5]. A module consists of definitions of parameters (domains and operators) and axioms. Modules can be extended and parameterized as well as instantiated, cf. sorting with priority queues of Figs. 3 and 7. Modules may be used multiple, but sharing between different instances of one module is not supported. Thus, definition of RingUnit in Fig. 6 is not possible in Coq whereas GroupHomomorphism can be defined since both imported groups do not share any elements.

Table 1: Comparison with other systems

	VeriFun	ACL2	IMPS	PVS	Isabelle/ HOL	Locales	MAYA	Nuprl	Coq
inheritance	$\checkmark$	X	•	$\checkmark$	•	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
parameterization	$\checkmark$	X	X	$\checkmark$	•	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
type operator vars	$\checkmark$	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
referencing	$\checkmark$	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
multi-usage	$\checkmark$	X	X	$\checkmark$	X	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	•	$\checkmark$
sharing	$\checkmark$	X	X	X	X	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	•	×
instantiation	$\checkmark$	•	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$	X	$\checkmark$