# Comparison of two theorem provers: Isabelle & Coq

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### Introduction

# PRINCIPLES OF MATHEMATICAL LOGIC

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TRANSPATED FROM THE CERMAN BY

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#### Über die Bedeutung des Satzes vom ausgeschlossenen Dritten in der Mathematik, insbesondere in der Funktionentheorie 'h.

Von L. E. J. Brouwer in Amsterdam.

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Innerhalb eines bestimmten endlichen "Hauptsystems" können Eigenschaften von Systemen, d. h. Abhlidharbeiten von Systemen auf andere Systemen mit vorgeschriebenen Elementkorrespondenzen, immer gepräßt (d. h. entweder beweisen 
oder auf absurdung geführt werden; gide durch die betreffende Eigenschaft angewiesene Abhlidung besitzt nämlich auf jeden Fall nur eine endliche Anzahl von 
Ausführungungslightkeiten, von dennen jede für sich unternommen und entwederbis zur Benntigung oder bis zur Hemmung fortgesetzt werden kann. (Hierbei 
liefert das Prinzip der mathematischen Induktion oft das Mittel, derartige Profungen ohne individuelle Betrachtung jedes an der Abhlidung beteiligten Elementes 
bew. jeder für die Abhlidung bestehenden Austführungsmöglichkeist durchknufthern; 
demustolge kann die Pröfung auch für Systeme mit sehr großer Elementenzahl 
mitunter vershätnismäßig schelle Verlaufen.

Auf Grand der obigen Profbarkeit gilt für innerhalb eines bestimmten endihen Hauptsystems konzipierte Eigenschaften der Satz vom ausgezelbeszene Dritten, d. b. das Prinzip, daß jede Eigenschaft für jedes System entweder richtig oder unmöglich ist, und insbesondere der Satz vom der Retziprozität der Komplementzrepziez, d. b. das Prinzip, daß für jedes System aus der Unmöglichkeit der Unmöglichkeit einer Eigenschaft die Richtigkeit dieser Eigenschaft folgt.

Wenn z. B. die Vereinigung  $\mathfrak{S}(p,q)$  zweier mathematischer Spezies p und q wenigstens 11 Elemente enthält, so folgt hieraus auf Grund des (in diesem Falle als "Disjunktionsprinzip" auftretenden) Satzes vom ausgeschlossenen Dritten, daß entweder p oder q wenigstens 6 Elemente enthält.

Ebenso: Wenn man in der elementaren Arithmetik bewiesen hat, daß, wenn

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## Outline

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# Elements of a Formal System

• A formula (judgement, statement)  $\phi \in \Phi$ :

$$\phi := p \mid q \mid \dots$$

$$\mid \phi_1 \land \phi_2 \mid \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 \mid \neg \phi_1 \mid \phi_1 \to \phi_2$$

$$\mid true \mid false$$

$$\mid \dots$$

- Propositional variables:
- $\phi_{\Delta} \in A$

-  $p, q, ... \in V$ 

An axiom

• An inference rule  $\tau$ 

- a transition function  $\tau:\Phi o\Phi$
- A formula  $\phi$  provable from  $\Phi$   $\Phi \vdash \phi$
- A tautology  $\top$   $\vdash \phi$
- A contradiction  $\bot$   $\vdash \neg \phi$

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# Definition of the formal system

A formal system is a quadruple  $\Gamma = \langle A, V, \Omega, R \rangle$ , where

- A set of axioms
- V set of propositional variables
- $\Omega$  set of logical operators
- R set of inference rules

A formal proof of the formula  $\phi$  is a finite sequence of judgements

$$\psi_1 \xrightarrow{\tau_1} \psi_2 \xrightarrow{\tau_2} \dots \xrightarrow{\tau_n} \psi_n$$

where each  $\psi_i$  is either an axiom  $\phi_{A_i}$ , or a formula inferred from the set of previously derived formulas according the rules of inference.

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# Properties of a formal system

#### A formal system $\Gamma$ is called:

- if  $\exists \phi \in \Gamma : \Gamma \vdash \phi \land \Gamma \vdash \neg \phi \Leftrightarrow \Gamma \nvdash \bot$ : consistent.
- if  $\forall \phi \in U : A \vdash \phi \lor A \vdash \neg \phi$ : complete.
- independent, if  $\exists a \in A : A \vdash a$ .

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#### A formal system

# Classical Logic example: The Hilbert System

Set of axioms:

$$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$$
  
 $(A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow$ 

Some provable tautologies:

 $((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A) \rightarrow B$ 

 $\neg\neg(A\vee\neg A)$ 

 $A \rightarrow \neg \neg A$ 

 $\neg \neg A \rightarrow A$ 

$$(A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C))$$

$$A \lor \neg A$$

$$\llbracket A, A \to B \rrbracket \longrightarrow B$$

(nnEM)

(DNi)

(DNe)

(PL)

 $\neg (A \land B) \rightarrow \neg A \lor \neg B$ 

 $\neg (A \lor B) \rightarrow \neg A \land \neg B$ 

 $\neg A \land \neg B \rightarrow \neg (A \lor B)$ 

 $\neg A \lor \neg B \to \neg (A \land B)$ 

(DMci)

(DMce)

(DMde)

(A1)

(A2)

(EM)

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# Intuitionistic Logic

a.k.a. Constructive Logic Set of axioms:

$$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$$

$$(A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C))$$

Some provable tautologies:

 $\neg\neg(A\vee\neg A)$ 

 $A \rightarrow \neg \neg A$ 

 $\neg \neg A \rightarrow A$ 

$$(A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)$$

$$\llbracket A. A \rightarrow B \rrbracket \longrightarrow B$$

$$B 
bracket{
bracket}{
bracket} \longrightarrow B$$

$$B 
bracket \longrightarrow B$$

$$\rightarrow B$$

(DNe)

(PL)

$$\neg (A \land B) \rightarrow \neg A \lor \neg B$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \rightarrow \neg A \land \neg B$$

 $\neg A \lor \neg B \rightarrow \neg (A \land B)$ 

 $\neg A \land \neg B \rightarrow \neg (A \lor B)$  (DMce)

(A1)

(A2)(EM)

(MP)

(DMci)

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# Isabelle: first acquaintance

- a generic proof assistant
- based on classical higher-order logic
- created in 1986 by
  - Larry Paulson @ University of Cambridge, and
  - Tobias Nipkow @ Technische Universität München
- uses powerful functional language HOL
- the proof system core *Isabelle* is extended by various theories: Isabelle/HOL, Isabelle/ZF, Isabelle/CCL, etc.

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#### Example 3: Definition of basic datatypes

```
datatype bool =
  True | False

datatype nat =
  zero ("0") | Suc nat
```

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```
Example 5: Definition of basic datatypes
datatype bool =
   True | False

datatype nat =
   zero ("0") | Suc nat
```

```
Example 6: Definition of addition over nat
fun add :: "nat ⇒ nat ⇒ nat"
  where
    "add 0 n = n" |
    "add (Suc m) n = Suc(add m n)"
```

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# Cog: first acquaintance

- a formal proof management system
- based intuitionistic logic (Calculus of Inductive Constructions)
- created at INRIA (Paris, France) in 1984
- uses powerful functional language Gallina
- has large collection of formalised theories
- widely used in software verification (proof code extraction)

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```
Example 9: Definition of basic datatypes
Inductive False : Prop := .
Inductive True : Prop :=
  I : True.
Inductive nat : Type :=
   1 0 : nat
    S : nat \rightarrow nat.
```

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Example 11: Definition of basic datatypes
Inductive False : Prop := .
Inductive True : Prop :=
  I : True.
```

```
Inductive nat : Type :=
  1 0 : nat
    S : nat \rightarrow nat.
```

```
Fixpoint add (n m: nat) : nat :=
  match n with
    | \bigcirc => m
     \mid S n' => S (n' + m)
  end
where "n + m" :=
  (add n m) : nat_scope.
```

Example 12: Definition of addition over nat

# Comparison

#### Major similarities:

- both work in a similar way of verifying the proof or assisting in creation of the new one
- premises  $\xrightarrow{\text{tactics}}$  goals (forward proof)
- goals  $\xrightarrow{tactics}$  premises (backward proof)
- both have large amount of libraries with formalised theories
- both dispose the set of highly automated tactics
- both are being actively developed these days

#### Major differences:

- based on different logics ⇒
  - \* unprovable statements and invalid proofs in Coq
  - \* sometimes more complex proof in Coq
  - \* constructive proof in Coq

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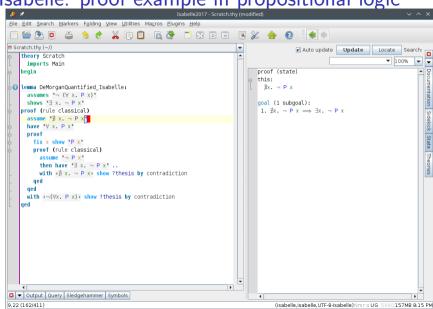
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# Isabelle: proof example in propositional logic



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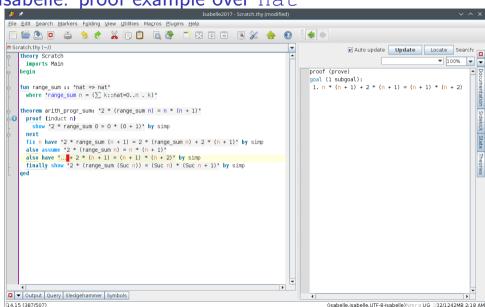
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# Isabelle: proof example over nat



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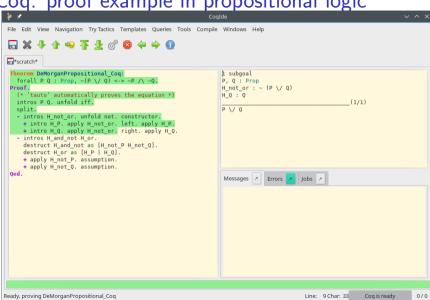
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Coq: proof example in propositional logic

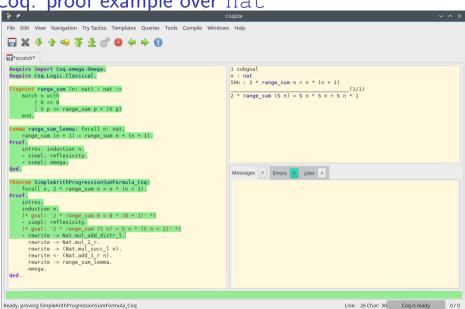


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# Cog: proof example over nat

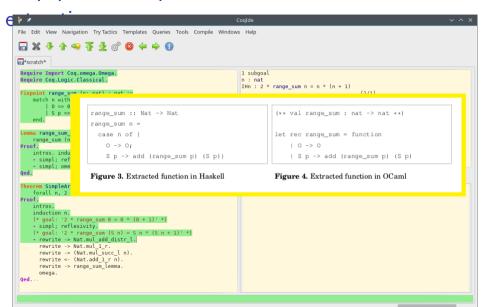


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# Coq: proof example over nat + verified code



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# Summary

- Two widespread theorem provers were considered: Isabelle and Coq
- The key difference between them lie in differences between logical theories they based on
- Nonetheless, they both may be used to solve applied problems, such as software testing and verification

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