Formal Methods

Lecture 4

(B. Pierce's slides for the book "Types and Programming Languages")

Going Meta...

The functional programming style used in OCaml is based on treating *programs as data* — i.e., on writing functions that manipulate other functions as their inputs and outputs.

Everything in this course is based on treating *programs as* mathematical objects — i.e., we will be building mathematical theories whose basic objects of study are programs (and whole programming languages).

Jargon: We will be studying the *metatheory* of programming languages.

(Review)

Basics of Induction

Induction

Principle of *ordinary induction* on natural numbers:

Suppose that P is a predicate on the natural numbers. Then:

```
If P(0) and, for all i, P(i) implies P(i + 1), then P(n) holds for all n.
```

Example

Theorem:
$$2^0 + 2^1 + ... + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$$
, for every n .
Proof: Let $P(i)$ be " $2^0 + 2^1 + ... + 2^i = 2^{i+1} - 1$."

A Show $P(0)$:
$$2^0 = 1 = 2^1 - 1$$

A Show that P(i) implies P(i+1):

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i+1} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i}) + 2^{i+1}$$

= $(2^{i+1} - 1) + 2^{i+1}$
= $2 \cdot (2^{i+1}) - 1$
= $2^{i+2} - 1$

The result (P(n)) for all n) follows by the principle of (ordinary) induction.

Shorthand form

Theorem: $2^0 + 2^1 + ... + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$, for every *n*. Proof: By induction on *n*.

A Base case (n = 0):

$$2^0 = 1 = 2^1 - 1$$

Inductive case (n = i + 1):

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i+1} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i}) + 2^{i+1}$$

$$= (2^{i+1} - 1) + 2^{i+1}$$

$$= 2 \cdot (2^{i+1}) - 1$$

$$= 2^{i+2} - 1$$

Complete Induction

Principle of *complete induction* on natural numbers:

Suppose that P is a predicate on the natural numbers. Then:

```
If, for each natural number n,

given P(i) for all i < n

we can show P(n),

then P(n) holds for all n.
```

Complete versus ordinary induction

Ordinary and complete induction are *interderivable* — assuming one, we can prove the other.

Thus, the choice of which to use for a particular proof is purely a question of style.

Syntax

Simple Arithmetic Expressions

Here is a BNF grammar for a very simple language of arithmetic expressions:

```
t :: terms

= true constant true
false constant false
if t then t else t conditional
0 constant zero
succ t successor
pred t predecessor
iszero t zero test
```

Terminology:

t here is a metavariable

Abstract vs. concrete syntax

Q: Does this grammar define a set of *character strings*, a set of *token lists*, or a set of *abstract syntax trees*?

Abstract vs. concrete syntax

Q: Does this grammar define a set of *character strings*, a set of *token lists*, or a set of *abstract syntax trees*?

A: In a sense, all three. But we are primarily interested, here, in abstract syntax trees.

For this reason, grammars like the one on the previous slide are sometimes called *abstract grammars*. An abstract grammar *defines* a set of abstract syntax trees and *suggests* a mapping from character strings to trees.

We then *write* terms as linear character strings rather than trees simply for convenience. If there is any potential confusion about what tree is intended, we use parentheses to disambiguate.

```
Q: So, are
      succ 0
      succ (0)
      (((succ ((((((0)))))))))
"the same term"?
What about
      succ 0
      pred (succ (succ 0))
```

A more explicit form of the definition

The set \top of *terms* is the smallest set such that

```
    1. {true, false, 0} ⊆ T;
    2. if t<sub>1</sub> ∈ T, then {succ t<sub>1</sub>, pred t<sub>1</sub>, iszero t<sub>1</sub>} ⊆ T;
    3. if t<sub>1</sub> ∈ T, t<sub>2</sub> ∈ T, and t<sub>3</sub> ∈ T, then if t<sub>1</sub> then t<sub>2</sub> else t<sub>3</sub> ∈ T.
```

Inference rules

An alternate notation for the same definition:

```
\begin{array}{lll} & \text{true} \in \mathsf{T} & \text{false} \in \mathsf{T} & 0 \in \mathsf{T} \\ & \underline{t_1 \in \mathsf{T}} & \underline{t_1 \in \mathsf{T}} & \underline{t_1 \in \mathsf{T}} \\ & \text{succ} \ \ \underline{t_1 \in \mathsf{T}} & \text{pred} \ \ \underline{t_1} \in \mathsf{T} & \text{iszero} \ \ \underline{t_1} \in \mathsf{T} \\ & & \underline{t_1 \in \mathsf{T}} & \underline{t_2 \in \mathsf{T}} & \underline{t_3} \in \mathsf{T} \\ & & \text{if} \ \ \underline{t_1} & \text{then} \ \ \underline{t_2} & \text{else} \ \ \underline{t_3} \in \mathsf{T} \end{array}
```

Note that "the smallest set closed under..." is implied (but often not stated explicitly).

Terminology:

- axiom vs. rule
- concrete rule vs. rule scheme

Terms, concretely

Define an infinite sequence of sets, S_0 , S_1 , S_2 , . . . , as follows:

```
\begin{array}{lll} S_0 & = & \varnothing \\ S_{i+1} & = & \{ \text{true, false, 0} \} \\ & \cup & \{ \text{succ } t_1, \, \text{pred } t_1, \, \text{iszero } t_1 \mid t_1 \in S_i \} \\ & \cup & \{ \text{if } t_1 \, \text{then } t_2 \, \text{else } t_3 \mid t_1, t_2, t_3 \in S_i \} \end{array}
```

Now let

$$S = US_i$$

Comparing the definitions

We have seen two different presentations of terms:

- 1. as the *smallest* set that is *closed* under certain rules (T)
 - explicit inductive definition
 - BNF shorthand
 - inference rule shorthand
- as the *limit* (S) of a series of sets (of larger and larger terms)

What does it mean to assert that "these presentations are equivalent"?

Why two definitions?

The two ways of defining the set of terms are both useful:

- the definition of terms as the smallest set with a certain closure property is compact and easy to read
- 2. the definition of the set of terms as the limit of a sequence gives us an *induction principle* for proving things about terms...

Syntax

Induction on

Induction on Terms

Definition: The depth of a term t is the smallest i such that $t \in S_i$.

From the definition of S, it is clear that, if a term t is in S_i , then all of its immediate subterms must be in S_{i-1} , i.e., they must have strictly smaller depths.

This observation justifies the *principle of induction on terms*. Let P be a predicate on terms.

```
If, for each term s,
given P(r) for all immediate subterms r of s
we can show P(s),
then P(t) holds for all t.
```

Inductive Function Definitions

The set of constants appearing in a term t, written Consts(t), is defined as follows:

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textit{Consts}(\texttt{true}) & = & \{\texttt{true}\} \\ \textit{Consts}(\texttt{false}) & = & \{\texttt{false}\} \\ \textit{Consts}(\texttt{0}) & = & \{\texttt{0}\} \\ \textit{Consts}(\texttt{succ t1}) & = & \textit{Consts}(\texttt{t1}) \\ \textit{Consts}(\texttt{pred t1}) & = & \textit{Consts}(\texttt{t1}) \\ \textit{Consts}(\texttt{iszero t1}) & = & \textit{Consts}(\texttt{t1}) \\ \textit{Consts}(\texttt{if t1 then t2 else t3}) & = & \textit{Consts}(\texttt{t1}) \cup \textit{Consts}(\texttt{t2}) \\ & & \cup \textit{Consts}(\texttt{t3}) \end{array}
```

Simple, right?

First question:

Normally, a "definition" just assigns a convenient name to a previously-known thing. But here, the "thing" on the right-hand side involves the very name that we are "defining"!

So in what sense is this a definition??

Second question: Suppose we had written this instead...

The set of constants appearing in a term t, written BadConsts(t), is defined as follows:

```
BadConsts(true) = {true}
BadConsts(false) = {false}
BadConsts(0) = {0}
BadConsts(0) = {}
BadConsts(succ t 1) = BadConsts(t 1)
BadConsts(pred t 1) = BadConsts(iszero t 1) = BadConsts(iszero t 1)
```

What is the essential difference between these two definitions? How do we tell the difference between well-formed inductive definitions and ill-formed ones? What, exactly, does a well-formed inductive definition mean?

What is a function?

Recall that a function f from A (its domain) to B (its codomain) can be viewed as a two-place relation (called the "graph" of the function) with certain properties:

It is *total*: Every element of its domain occurs at least once in its graph. More precisely:

For every $a \in A$, there exists some $b \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$.

It is *deterministic*: every element of its domain occurs at most once in its graph. More precisely: If $(a, b_1) \in f$ and $(a, b_2) \in f$, then $b_1 = b_2$. We have seen how to define relations inductively. E.g.... Let *Consts* be the smallest two-place relation closed under the following rules:

```
(true, \{true\}) \in Consts
                      (false, \{false\}) \in Consts
                            (0, \{0\}) \in Consts
                         (t_1, C) \in Consts
                       (succ t<sub>1</sub>, C) \in Consts
                            (t_1, C) \in Consts
                       (pred t_1, C) \in Consts
                            (t_1, C) \in Consts
                      (iszero t_1, C) \in Consts
      (t_1, C_1) \in Consts (t_2, C_2) \in Consts (t_3, C_3) \in Consts
(if t<sub>1</sub> then t<sub>2</sub> else t<sub>3</sub>, (Consts(t<sub>1</sub>) \cup Consts(t<sub>2</sub>) \cup Consts(t<sub>3</sub>))) \in
                                       Consts
```

This definition certainly defines a *relation* (i.e., the smallest one with a certain closure property).

Q: How can we be sure that this relation is a *function*?

A: Prove it!

Theorem: The relation *Consts* defined by the inference rules a couple of slides ago is total and deterministic.

I.e., for each term t there is exactly one set of terms C such that $(t, C) \in Consts$.

Proof: By induction on t.

To apply the induction principle for terms, we must show, for an arbitrary term ${\rm t}$, that if

for each immediate subterm $_S$ of $_t$, there is exactly one set of terms C_s such that $(_S$, C_s) \in Consts

then

there is exactly one set of terms C such that $(t, C) \in Consts$.

Proceed by cases on the form of \boldsymbol{t} .

- If t is 0, true, or false, then we can immediately see from the definition of *Consts* that there is exactly one set of terms C (namely $\{t\}$) such that $(t, C) \in Consts$.
- If t is succ t₁, then the induction hypothesis tells us that there is exactly one set of terms C_1 such that $(t_1, C_1) \in Consts$. But then it is clear from the definition of Consts that there is exactly one set C (namely C_1) such that $(t_1, C_1) \in Consts$.

Similarly when t is pred to or is zero to.

- A If t is if s1 then s2 else s3, then the induction hypothesis tells us
 - there is exactly one set of terms C_1 such that $(t_1, C_1) \in Consts$
 - there is exactly one set of terms C_2 such that $(t_2, C_2) \in Consts$
 - there is exactly one set of terms C_3 such that $(t_3, C_3) \in Consts$

But then it is clear from the definition of *Consts* that there is exactly one set C (namely $C_1 \cup C_2 \cup C_3$) such that $(t, C) \in Consts$.

How about the bad definition?

```
(true, \{true\}) \in BadConsts
     (false, \{false\}) \in BadConsts
          (0,\{0\}) \in BadConsts
          (0, \{\}) \in BadConsts
          (t_1, C) \in BadConsts
       (succ t_1, C) \in BadConsts
          (t_1, C) \in BadConsts
      (pred t_1, C) \in BadConsts
(iszero (iszero t_1), C) \in BadConsts
     (iszero t_1, C) \in BadConsts
```

This set of rules defines a perfectly good relation — it's just that this relation does not happen to be a function!

Just for fun, let's calculate some cases of this relation...

- For what values of C do we have $(false, C) \in BadConsts$?
- For what values of C do we have (succ 0, C) \in BadConsts?
- For what values of C do we have
 (if false then 0 else 0, C) ∈ BadConsts?
- For what values of C do we have (iszero 0, C) \in BadConsts?

Another Inductive Definition

```
size(true) = 1
size(false) = 1
size(0) = 1
size(succ t_1) = size(t_1) + 1
size(pred t_1) = size(t_1) + 1
size(iszero t_1) = size(t_1) + 1
size(if t_1 then t_2 else t_3) = size(t_1) + size(t_2) + size(t_3) + 1
```

Another proof by induction

Theorem: The number of distinct constants in a term is at most the size of the term. I.e., $|Consts(t)| \le size(t)$.

Proof:

Another proof by induction

Theorem: The number of distinct constants in a term is at most the size of the term. I.e., $|Consts(t)| \le size(t)$.

Proof: By induction on t.

Another proof by induction

Theorem: The number of distinct constants in a term is at most the size of the term. I.e., $|Consts(t)| \le size(t)$.

Proof: By induction on t.

Assuming the desired property for immediate subterms of \boldsymbol{t} , we must prove it for \boldsymbol{t} itself.

There are "three" cases to consider:

Case: t is a constant

Immediate: $|Consts(t)| = |\{t\}| = 1 = size(t)$.

Case: $t = succ t_1$, pred t_1 , or iszero t_1

By the induction hypothesis, $|Consts(t_1)| \le size(t_1)$. We now calculate as follows:

```
|Consts(t)| = |Consts(t_1)| \le size(t_1) < size(t_1).
```

```
Case: t = if t_1 then t_2 else t_3
```

By the induction hypothesis, $|Consts(t_1)| \le size(t_1)$, $|Consts(t_2)| \le size(t_2)$, and $|Consts(t_3)| \le size(t_3)$. We now calculate as follows:

```
|\textit{Consts}(t \ )| = |\textit{Consts}(t \ _1) \cup \textit{Consts}(t \ _2) \cup \textit{Consts}(t \ _3)|
\leq |\textit{Consts}(t \ _1)| + |\textit{Consts}(t \ _2)| + |\textit{Consts}(t \ _3)|
\leq \textit{size}(t \ _1) + \textit{size}(t \ _2) + \textit{size}(t \ _3)
< \textit{size}(t \ ).
```

Operational Semantics

Abstract Machines

An abstract machine consists of:

- a set of states
- riangle a transition relation on states, written - riangle

We read " $t \rightarrow t'$ " as "t evaluates to t' in one step".

A state records *all* the information in the machine at a given moment. For example, an abstract-machine-style description of a conventional microprocessor would include the program counter, the contents of the registers, the contents of main memory, and the machine code program being executed.

Abstract Machines

For the very simple languages we are considering at the moment, however, the term being evaluated is the whole state of the abstract machine.

Nb. Often, the transition relation is actually a partial function: i.e., from a given state, there is at most one possible next state. But in general there may be many.

Operational semantics for Booleans

Syntax of terms and values

```
t ::= terms
true constant true
false constant false
if t then t else t conditional

v ::= values
true false false false value
```

Evaluation relation for Booleans

The evaluation relation $t \to t'$ is the smallest relation closed under the following rules:

```
if true then t2 else t3 \rightarrow t2 (E-IfTrue)

if false then t2 else t3 \rightarrow t3 (E-IfFalse)

t_1 \rightarrow t_1'
if t1 then t2 else t3 \rightarrow if t_1' then t2 else t3
```

Terminology

Computation rules:

```
if true then t2 else t3 \rightarrow t2 (E-IfTrue)
if false then t2 else t3 \rightarrow t3 (E-IfFalse)
```

Congruence rule:

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1}{t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \longrightarrow \text{if } t_1' \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3} \text{(E-If)}$$

Computation rules perform "real" computation steps. Congruence rules determine *where* computation rules can be applied next.

Evaluation, more explicitly

 \rightarrow is the smallest two-place relation closed under the following rules:

```
((if true then t2 else t3), t2) \in -\rightarrow

((if false then t2 else t3), t3) \in -\rightarrow

(t1, t'1) \in -\rightarrow

((if t1 then t2 else t3), (if t'1 then t2 else t3)) \in -\rightarrow
```

The notation $t \to t'$ is short-hand for $(t, t') \in - \to$.

Simple Arithmetic Expressions

The set T of terms is defined by the following abstract grammar:

```
t ::= terms
true constant true
false constant false
if t then t else t conditional
0 constant zero
succ t successor
pred t predecessor
iszero t terms
constant true
constant false
conditional
predecessor
```

Inference Rule Notation

More explicitly: The set T is the *smallest* set *closed* under the following rules.

```
\begin{array}{cccc} true \in T & false \in T & 0 \in T \\ \underline{t_1 \in T} & \underline{t_1 \in T} & \underline{t_1 \in T} \\ succ & t_1 \in T & pred & t_1 \in T \end{array} & \underline{t_1 \in T} \\ \underline{t_1 \in T} & t_2 \in T & t_3 \in T \\ if & t_1 & then & t_2 & else & t_3 \in T \end{array}
```

Generating Functions

Each of these rules can be thought of as a *generating function* that, given some elements from T , generates some other element of T . Saying that T is closed under these rules means that T cannot be made any bigger using these generating functions — it already contains everything "justified by its members."

Let's write these generating functions explicitly.

```
F_1(U) = \{ \text{true} \}

F_2(U) = \{ \text{false} \}

F_3(U) = \{ 0 \}

F_4(U) = \{ \text{succ } t_1 \mid t_1 \in U \}

F_5(U) = \{ \text{pred } t_1 \mid t_1 \in U \}

F_6(U) = \{ \text{iszero } t_1 \mid t_1 \in U \}

F_7(U) = \{ \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \mid t_1, t_2, t_3 \in U \}
```

Each one takes a set of terms U as input and produces a set of "terms justified by U'' as output.

If we now define a generating function for the whole set of inference rules (by combining the generating functions for the individual rules),

$$F(U) = F_1(U) \cup F_2(U) \cup F_3(U) \cup F_4(U) \cup F_5(U) \cup F_6(U) \cup F_7(U)$$

then we can restate the previous definition of the set of terms \top like this:

Definition:

- A set U is said to be "closed under F" (or "F-closed") if $F(U) \subseteq U$.
- The set of terms T is the smallest F -closed set. (I.e., if O is another set such that F (O) \subseteq O, then T \subseteq O.)

Our alternate definition of the set of terms can also be stated using the generating function ${\it F}$:

$$S_0 = \emptyset$$

$$S_{i+1} = F(S_i)$$

$$S = U.S_i$$

Compare this definition of S with the one we saw last time:

$$S_{i+1} = \emptyset$$

$$S_{i+1} = \{\text{true, false, 0}\}$$

$$\cup \{\text{succ } t_1, \text{ pred } t_1, \text{ iszero } t_1 \mid t_1 \in S_i\}$$

$$\cup \{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \mid t_1, t_2, t_3 \in S_i\}$$

$$S = U_i S_i$$

We have "pulled out" F and given it a name.

Note that our two definitions of terms characterize the same set from different directions:

- "from above," as the intersection of all F -closed sets;
- "from below," as the limit (union) of a series of sets that start from Ø and get "closer and closer to being F -closed."

The book shows that these two definitions actually define the same set.

Structural Induction

The principle of structural induction on terms can also be re-stated using generating functions:

Suppose T is the smallest F-closed set.

```
If, for each set U,
from the assumption "P(u) holds for every u \in U"
```

we can show "P(v) holds for any $v \in F(U)$,"

then P(t) holds for all $t \in T$.

Structural Induction

Why? Because:

- We assumed that T was the *smallest F* -closed set, i.e., that $T \subseteq O$ for any other F -closed set O.
- But showing

```
for each set U,
given P(u) for all u \in U
we can show P(v) for all v \in F(U)
```

amounts to showing that "the set of all terms satisfying P'' (call it O) is itself an F -closed set.

Since $T \subseteq O$, every element of T satisfies P.

Structural Induction

Compare this with the structural induction principle for terms from last lecture:

```
If, for each term s,
    given P(r) for all immediate subterms r of s
    we can show P(s),
then P(t) holds for all t.
```

Recall, from the definition of S, it is clear that, if a term t is in S_i , then all of its immediate subterms must be in S_{i-1} , i.e., they must have strictly smaller depths. Therefore:

```
If, for each term s,
    given P(r) for all immediate subterms r of s
    we can show P(s), then
P(t) holds for all t.
```

Slightly more explicit proof:

- Assume that for each term s, given P(r) for all immediate subterms of s, we can show P(s).
- Then show, by induction on i, that P(t) holds for all terms t with depth i.
- \triangle Therefore, P(t) holds for all t.