Programming in Coq

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The plan

- Write simple programs
- Write properties of the programs
- Prove that we did not lie

Illustration: algorithm, property, proof

Describe an algorithm

▶ add all numbers between 0 and n

Describe a property

• if x_n is the result value, then $2x_n = n(n+1)$

Prove the property

- ▶ By induction on n, if n = 0 both sides are 0
- if we assume $2x_n = n(n+1)$ we have

$$2x_{n+1} = 2(x_n + (n+1)) = 2x_n + 2(n+1) = n(n+1) + 2(n+1)$$
... = $(n+1) * ((n+1) + 1)$

Let's start easy

Two ways to develop software in Coq

- Describe algorithms inside Coq, Execute outside
 - ▶ More extended programming language (+)
 - ▶ Lighter runtime environment (+)
- Do everything inside Coq
 - Simpler programming language (-)
 - Use Coq as an interpreter (-)
 - ▶ Instant feedback (+)
- We will mostly show the latter

Basic data structures

- ▶ numbers 1, 42, 1024
- boolean values true, false
- pairs (1, true)
- ▶ lists of things 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: 4 :: nil
- functions fun x => x
 fun x => (x, true)
 fun x => x :: x :: 3 :: 4 :: nil

Data structures under the hood

natural numbers consist of symbolic expressions of two kinds

- 0
- S n where n is already a natural number

For instance S (S (S 0)) is a natural number Display machinery will print it as 3 Lists consists of *symbolic expressions* of two kinds

- ▶ nil
- cons a / where a is an element and / is a list of elements

For instance cons (S 0) (cons (S (S 0)) nil) is a list Display machinery will print it as 1 :: 2 :: nil

More about functions

- Always use initial line Require Import Arith ZArith List Bool Psatz.
- 2-argument operations on numbers +, *, /, mod, -
- boolean relations on numbers <?, =?, <=?</p>
- ▶ 2-argument operations on boolean values &&, ||
- boolean negation negb
- test on boolean value if then else
- projections on pairs fst, snd
- more complex programming structure for lists (to be given later)

Defining and using your own functions

- ▶ Give a name to a value : Definition name := value.
 - ▶ Give a name to a function : Definition fname := fun x : nat => x.
 - ▶ Alternative : Definition fname (x : nat) := x.
- Use a function: write the name before the argument write fname (fname 1)
 - parentheses not always needed
- Check your own formulas using the Check command.
- Compute your examples using the Compute command.
- ▶ Know what is defined using the Print command.

Examples

```
Require Import Arith ZArith List Bool Psatz.
Definition add2 x := x + 2.
Check add2 3.
add2 3 : nat
Compute add2 3.
= 5 : nat
Print add2.
add2 = fun x : nat => x + 2
     : nat -> nat
```

Examples (2)

```
Definition twice (f : nat -> nat) (x : nat) := f (f x).
Compute twice add2 1.
= 5 : nat
Compute twice (twice add2) 1.
= 9 : nat
```

Comments on the examples

- twice is a function with two arguments
 - ▶ the syntax is really different from C, java, etc.
- parentheses are needed around f x in the definition of twice
- No parentheses around the two arguments in the use of twice
- twice can also be used with only one argument the value is a function

Functions about data-structures

- ▶ components of a pair : fst, snd
- ▶ Fetching elements of a list

Programming with pairs

```
Definition pair_to_sum1 (p : nat * nat) := fst p + snd p.
Definition pair_to_sum2 (p : nat * nat) :=
  match p with (a, b) => a + b end.
Compute pair_to_sum2 (3, 5).
= 8 : nat
```

Programming with lists

```
Definition headplus1 (1 : list nat) :=
  match 1 with
    a :: 11 => a + 1
  | nil => 0
  end.

Compute headplus1 (3 :: 2 :: nil).
```

Programming with lists

```
Definition headplus1 (1 : list nat) :=
  match 1 with
    a :: 11 => a + 1
  | nil => 0
  end.

Compute headplus1 (3 :: 2 :: nil).
= 4 : nat
```

Recursive programming with lists

- ▶ A list has a sub-component that is itself a list
- ▶ A recursive program can call itself on that sub-component

```
Fixpoint grow_nat (l : list nat) :=
match 1 with
 nil => nil
| a :: 11 => 2 * a :: 2 * a + 1 :: grow_nat 11
end.
Fixpoint my_filter {T : Type} (p : T -> bool)
    (1 : list T) : list T :=
match 1 with
 nil => nil
| a :: 11 =>
  if p a then a :: my_filter p l1 else my_filter p l1
end.
```

Comments on list programming

- Lists and pairs are polymorphic data structures
- You don't need to know the type of elements for many operations
- Types actually are function arguments
 - You can choose for the type argument to be implicit
- No undefined behavior: all functions must cover all cases of the data-structure

```
Fixpoint grow_nat (1 : list nat) :=
match 1 with
   nil => nil
| a :: 11 => 2 * a :: 2 * a + 1 :: grow_nat 11
end.
grow_nat (0 :: 1 :: nil)
```

```
Fixpoint grow_nat (1 : list nat) :=
match 1 with
  nil => nil
| a :: 11 => 2 * a :: 2 * a + 1 :: grow_nat 11
end.

2 * 0 :: 2 * 0 + 1 :: grow_nat (1 :: nil)
```

```
Fixpoint grow_nat (1 : list nat) :=
match 1 with
   nil => nil
| a :: 11 => 2 * a :: 2 * a + 1 :: grow_nat l1
end.

2 * 0 :: 2 * 0 + 1 :: 2 * 1 :: 2 * 1 + 1 :: grow_nat nil
```

```
Fixpoint grow_nat (1 : list nat) :=
match 1 with
   nil => nil
| a :: 11 => 2 * a :: 2 * a + 1 :: grow_nat 11
end.

2 * 0 :: 2 * 0 + 1 :: 2 * 1 :: 2 * 1 + 1 :: nil
```

Initial example : sum of n first natural numbers

```
Fixpoint sumn (n : nat) :=
  match n with 0 => 0 | S p => sumn p + (p + 1) end.
Compute sumn 10.
= 55 : nat
```

Dependently typed functions

- Coq notation for dependent product: forall
- ► Polymorphic identity has type : forall A, A -> A
 - ▶ It is a 2-argument function
- All branches of pattern matching return in the same type by default
- Dependently typed pattern matching has a return clause

Strongly typed programming

- Including proofs in data
- Including specifications in types
- ▶ Example: forall x y: nat, $\{x = y\} + \{x \iff y\}$
- Such a function returns more information than just true or false
- the type is the full specification
- ► This style is not exploited much in this tutorial

Advanced topic: type classes

- What you write is not what you get
- Implicit arguments are used extensively
 - ► Polymorphism
 - Overloading
- Coq works for you: type inference
- You can guide type inference

illustrating implicit arguments

```
Check length.
length : forall A : Type, list A -> nat
Check length (1 :: nil).
length (1 :: nat) : nat
Set Printing Implicit.
Check length (1 :: nil).
@length nat (1 :: nat) : nat
```

The value of the first argument is guessed by Coq Arguments can be made implicit: 3 approaches

- ▶ By default Set Implicit Arguments.
- ► At declaration time Definition id {A:Type} A -> A.
- ▶ Later using a command called Arguments.

Type classes: ad-hoc type inference

- ► Type classes: added properties
- Declaration for each type
- Users can set up proof search for type inference

Example type classes (thx Software foundations)

```
Require Import String.
Open Scope string_scope.
Class Show (T : Type) := {show : T -> string}.
Instance showBool : Show bool :=
    { show := fun b => if b then "true" else "false" }.
```

```
Fixpoint show_list_aux {T : Type} '{Show T} (l : list T) :
    string :=
    match l with
        nil => "]"
        l e :: l' =>
        "; " ++ show e ++ show_list_aux l'
    end.
```

```
Definition show_list {T : Type} '{Show T} (1 : list T) :=
  match 1 with
   nil => "[]"
  | a :: 1' => "[" ++ show a ++ show_list_aux l'
  end.
Instance showList {T : Type} '{Show T} : Show (list T) :=
 {show := show_list}.
Compute
  show ((true::false::nil)::(true::nil)::nil::nil).
 = "[[true; false]; [true]; []]" : string
Compute show (1:: 2:: nil).
(let (show) := ?Show in show)(1 :: 2 :: nil) : string
```

The risks of type classes

- ▶ You can program type class resolution to perform proof search
- Proof search is undecidable
- You may force type inference to never terminate

Arbitrary computation through type classes

```
Definition cstep (x : Z) : Z :=
  if Z.even x then x / 2 else (3 * x + 1).
Class C_{index}(x : Z) (y : Z).
Instance C_1: C_{index} 1 0.
Instance C_0 \{x n : Z\} \{C_i n d e x (c s t e p x) n\} :
   C_{index} \times (n + 1).
Definition ctrigger (x : Z) \{y : Z\} \{C_{index} \} := y.
Compute ctrigger 2223.
= 182 : Z
```