# Introduction to the Coq system

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#### Coq: A proof assistant

A software providing an environment for interactively or semi-automatically developing mathematical proofs and certified programming.

Examples of similar softwares:

- Boyer-Moore's NqThm, now ACL2
- PVS (general purpose)
- HOL4
- Hol-Light
- Isabelle-HOL (general purpose)
- Mizar (set theory, mathematically oriented, large database of mathematics, controlled natural language)
- Agda (richly-typed programming-as-proving oriented)

#### Coq: specificities

Coq: general purpose, pretty mature, based on a formalism which is both a very expressive and natural logic and a richly-typed programming language (the Calculus of Inductive Constructions, CIC)

Three main components:

- a kernel ensuring correctness of proof certificates
- a concrete user language featuring high-level convenient features (type classes, implicit arguments, coercions, user notations, ...)
- a programmable multi-purpose proof language with a range of beginners-to-experts interactive and automated proof methods (tactics)
- + various extra features
- extraction of programs to OCaml, Haskell, ...
- libraries
- user interfaces

An overview of the Coq formalism (CIC)

#### Coq's logical formalism: The Calculus of Inductive Constructions

A formalism derived from a long-standing scientific history:

• Intuitionistic logic: a proof is a process which produces witnesses for existential statements, and effective proofs for disjunction (ruling out, say,  $A \vee \neg A$ , i.e.  $A \setminus / \neg A$  in Coq notation, or

$$\exists x \forall y (P(x) \rightarrow P(y))$$

i.e.

exists 
$$x$$
, forall  $y$ ,  $(Px \rightarrow Py)$ 

in Coq notation)

• The proofs-as-programs, formulas-as-type correspondence (Curry 1958, Howard 1968) The language of proofs is a programming language. E.g. the proof of an implication  $A \rightarrow B$  can be represented as a function fun  $a:A \Rightarrow some\ proof\ of\ B$  depending on a proof of A)

# Coq's logical formalism: The Calculus of Inductive Constructions (continued)

A formalism derived from a long-standing scientific history:

• Martin-Löf's intuitionistic type theory (from 1975, proofs-as- $\lambda$ -terms, propositions-as-sets, types are themselves *sorted*, inductive types, ...) In Coq's syntax, inductive types looks like

```
Inductive nat : Type :=
| 0 : nat
| S : nat -> nat.
```

• Girard-Reynolds' System F (1971, impredicativity of propositions) E.g., in Coq, one can represent formulas of the form

forall 
$$A : Prop, A \rightarrow A$$

# Coq's logical formalism: The Calculus of Inductive Constructions (continued)

A formalism derived from a long-standing scientific history:

- Coquand's Calculus of Constructions (1984)
   The strength of higher-order logic, but no primitive inductive types
- Coquand-Paulin's Calculus of Inductive Constructions (1988)
   A merge of the Calculus of Constructions with Martin-Löf's type theory
- Coq V8.0 predicative's Calculus of Inductive Constructions (2004)
   A weakening of the logic so that it is compatible with classical logic and axiom of choice.

#### Coq's logical formalism: The Calculus of Inductive Constructions, syntax

A concise primitive language of expressions:

```
expr ::= Type | Set | Prop (sorts)
          forall x : expr, expr (universal quantification / dependent function type)
          fun x : expr \Rightarrow expr (function abstraction over a variable)
         let x := expr_1 in expr_2 (local definitions)
                                          (a name, referring either to a bound variable,
                                           a global constant, an inductive type or a constructor
                                          (function application)
          expr_1 expr_2
          match expr with
                                         (case analysis)
            | C_1 x_{11} ... x_{1n_1} =  expr_1
            \mid C_p x_{p1} ... x_{pn_p} \Rightarrow expr_p
           end
           fix f(x_1 : expr_1) \dots (x_n : expr_n) : expr := expr_n
                                         (well-founded recursion)
          \mathsf{cofix}\ f\ (x_1: \mathsf{expr}_1) \dots (x_n: \mathsf{expr}_n) : \mathsf{expr} := \mathsf{expr}
                                          (guarded co-recursion)
```

and slight variants of them...

### Coq's logical formalism: The Calculus of Inductive Constructions, syntax

Note: forall  $x : expr_1$ ,  $expr_2$  is also known as dependent product

All of forall  $x : expr_1$ ,  $expr_2$ , fun  $x : expr_1 => expr_2$  and let  $x := expr_1$  in  $expr_2$  are binding x in  $expr_2$ . Conversely, the variable x is called bound in  $expr_2$ .

$$expr_1 expr_1 \dots expr_n$$
 is the same as  $(\dots (expr_0 expr_1) \dots) expr_n$ 

fun 
$$(x_1 : expr_1) \dots (x_n : expr_n) \Rightarrow expr$$

is the same as

fun 
$$x_1 : expr_1 \Rightarrow \dots \text{fun } x_n : expr_n \Rightarrow expr$$

forall 
$$(x_1 : expr_1) \dots (x_n : expr_n)$$
,  $expr$ 

is the same as

forall 
$$x_1 : expr_1$$
, ... forall  $x_n : expr_n$ , expr

# Coq's logical formalism: types

Any semantically well-formed expression has a type.

Types are themselves expressions, so any type has itself a type, which is a *sort* Sorts are types and are hence themselves expressions.

The types form a subset of expressions, hereafter written type.

#### The sorts of the Calculus of Inductive Constructions

Prop: the sort of propositions

Examples:  $expr_1 = expr_2$ ,  $0 \le 1$ , True, False, True-> False,  $0 = 0 \ / \ 1 \le 2$ ,  $0 = 0 \ / \ 1 \le 2$ ,  $0 = 0 \ / \ 1 \le 2$ ,... are propositions (using names and notations defined in the initial state of Coq)

Set: the sort of "small" (data-)types

Examples: nat, bool, list nat, option bool, nat-> bool, ... are sets (using names defined in the initial state of Coq)

Type<sub>1</sub>: the sort of types, including Prop and Set seen themselves as types

Type<sub>2</sub>: the sort of types of level 2, including Prop, Set and Type<sub>1</sub> seen themselves as types

. . .

Type $_n$ : the sort of types of level n

In practice: n is left implicit as it is inferred by Coq (one simply write Type). So, users only see Prop, Set and Type.

#### The general components of a Coq document

Gallina: A concise primitive language for expressing logical theories:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \textit{decl} \; ::= \; \mathsf{Definition} \; c \; (x_1 : \textit{type}_1) \ldots (x_n : \textit{type}_n) : \textit{type} := \textit{expr}. \\ & \mid \; \mathsf{Axiom} \; c : \textit{type}. \\ & \mid \; \mathsf{Parameter} \; c : \textit{type}. \\ & \mid \; \mathsf{Theorem} \; c \; (x_1 : \textit{type}_1) \ldots (x_n : \textit{type}_n) : \textit{type}. \; \mathsf{Proof.} \; ... \textit{proof script}... \; \mathsf{Qed.} \\ & \mid \; \mathsf{Inductive} \; I \; (x_1 : \textit{type}_1) \ldots (x_n : \textit{type}_n) : \textit{type} := C_1 : \textit{type}_1 \mid \ldots \mid C_p : \textit{type}_p \\ & \mid \; \mathsf{CoInductive} \; I \; (x_1 : \textit{type}_1) \ldots (x_n : \textit{type}_n) : \textit{type} := C_1 : \textit{type}_1 \mid \ldots \mid C_p : \textit{type}_p \\ & \mid \; \mathsf{and} \; \mathsf{variants} \; \mathsf{(Fixpoint, CoFixpoint, Record, \ldots)} \end{array}
```

 $\mathcal{L}_{tac}$ : An extensive (and extensible) language of tactics to write proof scripts.

The vernacular: An extensive language of commands to manage the proof development environment (notations, implicit arguments, coercions, type classes, ...).

# Inductive and coinductive types

A general scheme to introduce new types (i.e. sets, propositions, general types) by constructors.

Inductive types can be recursive if the recursion is strictly covariant (so-called *strict positivity* condition):

#### Dependency in types

Let us consider an expression forall  $x : expr_1$ ,  $expr_2$ .

If x occurs in  $expr_2$ , one says that  $expr_2$  depends on x, or, alternatively, that forall x:  $expr_1$ ,  $expr_2$  is a dependent function type.

When x is not dependent in  $expr_2$ , one writes  $expr_1 \rightarrow expr_2$ .

### How to recognize sets, types and propositions?

The expression forall  $a: expr_1$ ,  $expr_2$  is a proposition (resp. set, type) whenever  $expr_2$  is.

The expression  $expr_1$ ->  $expr_2$  is a proposition (resp. set, type) when  $expr_1$  and  $expr_2$  are.

When  $expr_1$  is a type and  $expr_2$  is Prop,  $expr_1$ ->  $expr_2$  denotes the types of predicates over the type  $expr_1$ .

Example: nat-> Prop is the type of predicates over a natural number.

For instance, forall P:nat -> Prop, P 0 -> P 1 expresses that 0 and 1 are indistinguishable, in the sense that for any property, if the property holds for 0, it holds for 1 too.

Focusing on the sub-language which implements logic

#### Expressing logical connectives and quantifiers in Coq

Implication is expressed

Universal quantification over domain T

Example:

forall x:nat, forall y:nat, 
$$x = y \rightarrow y = x$$

abbreviated

forall 
$$x y:nat$$
,  $x = y \rightarrow y = x$ 

(we shall see later on how the predicate = and the set nat are defined)

# Expressing logical connectives and quantifiers in Coq (continued)

Note: on the contrary of common mathematical practice, in Coq, forall binds to the end of the expression. E.g.

```
forall A:Prop, A -> forall B:Prop, B -> False
means
forall A:Prop, (A -> forall B:Prop , (B -> False))
and not
(forall A:Prop, A) -> (forall B:Prop, B) -> False
```

#### The other connectives are defined

Falsity is defined inductively as a proposition with no constructor.

```
Inductive False : Prop := .
```

True is defined inductively as a proposition with a constructor with no argument.

```
Inductive True : Prop := I : True.
```

Conjunction  $A \wedge B$  is defined inductively as a parametric proposition with a constructor expecting a proof of A and a proof of B.

```
Inductive and (A B:Prop) : Prop := conj : A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A / B where "A / B" := (and A B).
```

Disjunction  $A \vee B$  is defined inductively as a parametric proposition with two constructors, one expecting a proof of A and the other a proof of B.

```
Inductive or (A B:Prop) : Prop :=
| or_introl : A -> A \/ B
| or_intror : B -> A \/ B
where "A \/ B" := (or A B).
```

#### The other connectives (continued)

*Negation* ~A is defined as an abbreviation:

```
Definition not (A:Prop) := A -> False.
Notation "~ A" := (not A).
```

Existential quantification  $\exists x : A.P(x)$  is defined inductively:

```
Inductive ex (A:Type) (P:A->Prop) : Prop := ex_intro : forall x:A, P x -> exists x : A, P x where "exists x : A , Q" := (ex A (fun x => Q)).
```

Equality t = u is defined as an inductive predicate:

```
Inductive eq (A:Type) (a:A): A \rightarrow Prop := refl: a = a where "t = u" := (eq A t u).
```

#### Sets and types

The *unit* type is defined inductively:

```
Inductive unit : Set :=
| tt : unit.

The Boolean type is defined inductively:
Inductive bool : Set :=
| true : bool
| false : bool.

The type of natural number is defined inductively:
Inductive nat : Set :=
| 0 : nat
| S : nat -> nat.
```

### Sets and types (continued)

The type of *list* is defined inductively with a parameter:

```
Inductive list (A:Type) : Type :=
| nil : list A
| cons : A -> list A -> list A.

Similarly, the option type is defined:

Inductive option (A:Type) : Type :=
| None : option A
| Some : A -> option A.

The function type is given by -> .

Dependent function types will be shown later.
```