

# Dependent Types and Theorem Proving: Proving is programming in disguise

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# Plan of lectures

- Lecture 1: Programming with dependent types.
- **Lecture 2: Proving theorems with dependent types.**
- Lecture 3: Differences between programming and proving.
- Lecture 4: Examples of bigger programs and longer proofs.
- Lecture 5: A deeper dive into  $F^*$ .

## 1 Introduction

## 2 Constructive logic: you already know it

- Function types are implications
- Sum is disjunction
- Product is conjunction
- Unit is True
- Falsity and negation

## 3 Higher-order logic: you already know it

- Predicates and relations
- Universal quantifier is the dependent function type
- Existential quantifier is the dependent pair type

## 4 Induction is recursion

## 5 Inductive predicates and relations

- Undecidability and generative thinking
- Proof relevance

## 6 Equality

- Definition and convertibility
- Properties of equality
- Caveat: equality of functions and types
- Concrete, decidable and heterogeneous equality

# Boolean “logic”

- Being a programmer, you are good friends with the booleans, aren't you?
- There are two booleans, `true` and `false`.
- We can combine booleans `b` and `c` with the usual boolean functions:
  - `not b` – “not `b`”
  - `b && c` – “`b` and `c`”
  - `b || c` – “`b` or `c`”

# What is a logic

- Boolean logic is not an example of what logicians call a “logic”, in the sense that it is not a “logical system”, but merely a type with some unary and binary functions on it.
- A logic usually consists of:
- A definition of what **propositions** we’re dealing with.
- A **semantics**, which tells us what these propositions mean.
- A **proof system**, which tells us which propositions can be proven and disproven.
- A **soundness theorem** which states that propositions proven true using the proof system are semantically true.
- Optionally, there may also be a **completeness theorem** which states that all semantically true propositions can be proven.

# Propositions

- A proposition asserts that something is the case, irrespectively of whether this really is the case or not.
- Real world example: “It’s raining or I like trains.”
- Math example: “4 is a prime number.”
- Software example: “For each input string  $x$ , if  $x$  is not malformed, my program produces as output an array of length at most 10.”
- Hardware example: “This circuit implements addition of 16 bit integers.”

# Propositional constants and connectives

- Propositions (usual letters:  $P, Q, R$ ) are defined as follows:
- $\top$  – the true proposition.
- $\perp$  – the false proposition.
- $P, Q, R, \dots$  – propositional variables.
- $\neg P$  – negation, read “not  $P$ ”.
- $P \vee Q$  – disjunction, read “ $P$  or  $Q$ ”.
- $P \wedge Q$  – conjunction, read “ $P$  and  $Q$ ”.
- $P \implies Q$  – implication, read “ $P$  implies  $Q$ ”.
- $P \iff Q$  – logical equivalence, read “ $P$  if and only if  $Q$ ”.

# Classical logic

- Classical logic is the most widely known/taught/used logical system in the world.
- In classical logic, **we think of propositions as being either true or false.**
- Therefore, classical logic is the logic in which truth values are the booleans.
- The truth value of a propositional variable is determined by a **valuation**  $v : \text{Var} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ .
- If  $v(P) = \text{true}$ , then  $P$  is considered to be true.
- Otherwise it's considered false.



# Semantics of classical logic 1/2

- Given a valuation  $v : \text{Var} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ , the truth value of a proposition can be determined with a recursive function  $\llbracket - \rrbracket : \text{Prop} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$ .
- $\llbracket \top \rrbracket = \text{true}$
- $\llbracket \perp \rrbracket = \text{false}$
- $\llbracket P \rrbracket = v(P)$ , where  $P$  is a variable.
- $\llbracket \neg \phi \rrbracket = \text{not } \llbracket \phi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \phi \vee \psi \rrbracket = \llbracket \phi \rrbracket \text{ || } \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \phi \wedge \psi \rrbracket = \llbracket \phi \rrbracket \text{ \&\& } \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \phi \implies \psi \rrbracket = (\text{not } \llbracket \phi \rrbracket) \text{ || } \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \phi \iff \psi \rrbracket = \llbracket \phi \rrbracket \text{ == } \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$

# Semantics of classical logic 2/2

- $P$  is satisfiable when  $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \text{true}$  for some valuation.
- $P$  is falsifiable when  $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \text{false}$  for some valuation.
- $P$  is a tautology when  $\llbracket P \rrbracket = \text{true}$  for all valuations.

# Example

- Example: the proposition  $P \implies Q$  is satisfiable (for  $v(P) = \text{true}$ ,  $v(Q) = \text{true}$ ).
- It is also falsifiable (for  $v(P) = \text{true}$ ,  $v(Q) = \text{false}$ ).
- Therefore, it is not a tautology.
- Example: the proposition  $P \wedge Q \implies Q \wedge P$  is a tautology.
- We have
$$\llbracket P \wedge Q \implies Q \wedge P \rrbracket = (\text{not } v(P) \ \&\& \ v(Q)) \ || \ (v(P) \ \&\& \ v(Q)).$$
- For any values of  $v(P)$  and  $v(Q)$  we always get true.

# The rest

- We can check whether a proposition is a tautology by trying all possible valuations, but there are exponentially many of them.
- We can do better by defining a proof system with some axioms and inference rules, which would allow us to **prove** that a proposition is a tautology without trying all valuations.
- We won't do that because **classical logic is not the right logical system for proving programs correct**.
- We will use constructive logic instead.

# Constructive logic

- In constructive logic, **propositions ARE NOT either true or false.**
- In constructive logic we usually think about propositions **in terms of their proofs.**
- In everyday language and also in mathematics as it is usually practiced, a “proof” means an argument by which one human demonstrates the truth of a statement to another human.
- In constructive logic, a proof is a formal object which **certifies that the given proposition holds.**
- If we have a proof of  $P$ , we may think of it as “true” (although we shouldn’t think in terms of true and false).
- If we have a proof of  $\neg P$ , we may think that  $P$  is “false”.
- If we have neither proof, we don’t know anything about  $P$ .

# Propositions are types, proofs are programs

- If  $t$  is a proof of  $A$ , which we write as  $t : A$ , then we consider the proposition  $A$  to be true.
- Otherwise, we don't know anything about  $A$ .

