

Interactive Theorem Proving (ITP) Course

Parts XIII, XIV

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Part XIII

Rewriting



- simplification via rewriting was already a strength of Edinburgh LCF
- it was further improved for Cambridge LCF
- HOL inherited this powerful rewriter
- equational reasoning is still the main workhorse
- there are many different equational reasoning tools in HOL
 - ▶ `Rewrite` library
inherited from Cambridge LCF
you have seen it in the form of `REWRITE_TAC`
 - ▶ `computeLib` — fast evaluation
build for speed, optimised for ground terms
seen in the form of `EVAL`
 - ▶ `simplLib` — Simplification
sophisticated rewrite engine, HOL's main workhorse
not discussed in this lecture, yet
 - ▶ ...

- we have seen primitive inference rules for equality before

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \Gamma \vdash s = t \\ \Delta \vdash u = v \\ \text{types fit} \end{array}}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash s(u) = t(v)} \text{ COMB}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \Gamma \vdash s = t \\ x \text{ not free in } \Gamma \end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. s = \lambda x. t} \text{ ABS}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \Gamma \vdash s = t \\ \Delta \vdash t = u \end{array}}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash s = u} \text{ TRANS}$$

$$\frac{}{\vdash t = t} \text{ REFL}$$

- these rules allow us to replace any subterm with an equal one
- this is the core of rewriting

Conversions

- in HOL, equality reasoning is implemented by **conversions**
- a conversion is a SML function of type `term -> thm`
- given a term `t`, a conversion
 - ▶ produce a theorem of the form `|- t = t'`
 - ▶ raise an **UNCHANGED** exception
 - ▶ fail, i. e. raise an **HOL_ERR** exception

Example

```
> BETA_CONV ‘‘(\x. SUC x) y‘‘  
val it = |- (\x. SUC x) y = SUC y
```

```
> BETA_CONV ‘‘SUC y‘‘  
Exception-HOL_ERR ... raised
```

```
> REPEATC BETA_CONV ‘‘SUC y‘‘  
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

- similar to tactics and tacticals there are **conversionals** for conversions
- conversionals allow building conversions from simpler ones
- there are many of them
 - ▶ THENC
 - ▶ ORELSEC
 - ▶ REPEATC
 - ▶ TRY_CONV
 - ▶ RAND_CONV
 - ▶ RATOR_CONV
 - ▶ ABS_CONV
 - ▶ ...

- for rewriting depth-conversionals are important
- a depth-conversional applies a conversion to all subterms
- there are many different ones
 - ▶ `ONCE_DEPTH_CONV c` — top down, applies `c` once at highest possible positions in distinct subterms
 - ▶ `TOP_SWEEP_CONV c` — top down, like `ONCE_DEPTH_CONV`, but continues processing rewritten terms
 - ▶ `TOP_DEPTH_CONV c` — top down, like `TOP_SWEEP_CONV`, but try top-level again after change
 - ▶ `DEPTH_CONV c` — bottom up, recurse over subterms, then apply `c` repeatedly at top-level
 - ▶ `REDEPTH_CONV c` — bottom up, like `DEPTH_CONV`, but revisits subterms

REWR_CONV

- it remains to rewrite terms at top-level
- this is achieved by `REWR_CONV`
- given a theorem and a term `t` and a theorem $\vdash t_1 = t_2$, `REWR_CONV t thm`
 - ▶ searches an instantiation of term and type variables such that `t1` becomes α -equivalent to `t`
 - ▶ fails, if no instantiation is found
 - ▶ otherwise, instantiate the theorem and get $\vdash t_1' = t_2'$
 - ▶ return theorem $\vdash t = t_2'$

Example

```
term LENGTH [1;2;3], theorem  $\vdash$  LENGTH ((x:'a)::xs) = SUC (LENGTH xs)
found type instantiation: [':a'  $\rightarrow$  ':num']
found term instantiation: [':x:num'  $\rightarrow$  '1'; ':xs'  $\rightarrow$  '[2;3]']
returned theorem:  $\vdash$  LENGTH [1;2;3] = SUC (LENGTH [2;3])
```

- the tricky part is finding the instantiation
- this problem is called the (term) **matching** problem

- given term `t_org` and a term `t_goal` try to find
 - ▶ type substitution `ty_s`
 - ▶ term substitution `tm_s`
- such that $\text{subst } tm_s \text{ (inst } ty_s \text{ t_org)} \stackrel{\alpha}{\equiv} t_goal$
- this can be easily implemented by a recursive search

<code>t_org</code>	<code>t_goal</code>	action
<code>t1_org t2_org</code>	<code>t1_goal t2_goal</code>	recurse
<code>t1_org t2_org</code>	otherwise	fail
<code>\x. t_org x</code>	<code>\y. t_goal y</code>	match types of x, y and recurse
<code>\x. t_org x</code>	otherwise	fail
<code>const</code>	same <code>const</code>	match types
<code>const</code>	otherwise	fail
<code>var</code>	anything	try to bind var, take care of existing bindings

Examples Term Matching



t_org

```
LENGTH ((x:'a)::xs)
[]:'a list
0
b  $\wedge$  T
b  $\wedge$  b
b  $\wedge$  b
!x:num. P x  $\wedge$  Q x
!x:num. P x  $\wedge$  Q x
!x:num. P x  $\wedge$  Q x
```

t_goal

```
LENGTH [1;2;3]
[]:'b list
0
(P (x:'a) ==> Q)  $\wedge$  T
P x  $\wedge$  P x
P x  $\wedge$  P y
!y:num. P' y  $\wedge$  Q' y
!y. (2 = y)  $\wedge$  Q' y
!y. (y = 2)  $\wedge$  Q' y
```

subst

```
'a  $\rightarrow$  num, x  $\rightarrow$  1, xs  $\rightarrow$  [2;3]
'a  $\rightarrow$  'b
empty substitution
b  $\rightarrow$  P x ==> Q
b  $\rightarrow$  P x
fail
P  $\rightarrow$  P', Q  $\rightarrow$  Q'
P  $\rightarrow$  ($= 2), Q  $\rightarrow$  Q'
fail
```

- it is often very annoying that the last match fails
- it prevents us for example rewriting $!y. (2 = y) \wedge Q y$ to $(!y. (2=y)) \wedge (!y. Q y)$
- Can we do better? Yes, with higher order (term) matching.

Higher Order Term Matching



- term matching searches for substitutions such that t_org becomes α -equivalent to t_goal
- **higher order term matching** searches for substitutions such that t_org becomes t_subst such that the $\beta\eta$ -normalform of t_subst is α -equivalent equivalent to $\beta\eta$ -normalform of t_goal , i. e.
higher order term matching is aware of the semantics of λ

$$\beta\text{-reduction} \quad (\lambda x. f) y = f[y/x]$$

$$\eta\text{-conversion} \quad (\lambda x. f x) = f \text{ where } x \text{ is not free in } f$$

- the HOL implementation expects t_org to be a **higher-order pattern**
 - ▶ t_org is β -reduced
 - ▶ if X is a variable that should be instantiated, then all arguments should be distinct variables
- for other forms of t_org , HOL's implementation might fail
- higher order matching is used by [HO_REWR_CONV](#)

Examples Higher Order Term Matching



t_org

```
!x:num. P x /\ Q x
!x. P x /\ Q x
!x. P x /\ Q
!x. P (x, x)
!x. P (x, x)
```

t_goal

```
!y. (y = 2) /\ Q' y
!x. P x /\ Q x /\ Z x
!x. P x /\ Q x
!x. Q x
!x. FST (x,x) = SND (x,x)
```

substs

```
P → (\y. y = 2), Q → Q'
Q → \x. Q x /\ Z x
fails
fails
P → \xx. FST xx = SND xx
```

**Don't worry, it might look complicated, but
in practice it is easy to get a feeling for higher order matching.**

- the rewrite library combines `REWR_CONV` with depth conversions
- there are many different conversions, rules and tactics
- at they core, they all work very similarly
 - ▶ given a list of theorems, a set of rewrite theorems is derived
 - ★ split conjunctions
 - ★ remove outermost universal quantification
 - ★ introduce equations by adding `= T` (or `= F`) if needed
 - ▶ `REWR_CONV` is applied to all the resulting rewrite theorems
 - ▶ a depth-conversion is used with resulting conversion
- for performance reasons an efficient indexing structure is used
- by default implicit rewrites are added

- REWRITE_CONV
- REWRITE_RULE
- REWRITE_TAC
- ASM_REWRITE_TAC
- ONCE_REWRITE_TAC
- PURE_REWRITE_TAC
- PURE_ONCE_REWRITE_TAC
- ...

- similar to `Rewrite` lib, but uses higher order matching
- internally uses `HO_REWR_CONV`
- similar conversions, rules and tactics as `Rewrite` lib
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.REWRITE_CONV`
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.REWRITE_RULE`
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.REWRITE_TAC`
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.ASM_REWRITE_TAC`
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.ONCE_REWRITE_TAC`
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.PURE_REWRITE_TAC`
 - ▶ `Ho_Rewrite.PURE_ONCE_REWRITE_TAC`
 - ▶ ...

Examples Rewrite and Ho_Rewrite Library



```
> REWRITE_CONV [LENGTH] ‘‘LENGTH [1;2]’’
```

```
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (SUC 0)
```

```
> ONCE_REWRITE_CONV [LENGTH] ‘‘LENGTH [1;2]’’
```

```
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (LENGTH [2])
```

```
> ONCE_REWRITE_CONV [LENGTH] ‘‘LENGTH [1;2]’’
```

```
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (LENGTH [2])
```

```
> REWRITE_CONV [] ‘‘A /\ A /\ ~A’’
```

```
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

```
> PURE_REWRITE_CONV [NOT_AND] ‘‘A /\ A /\ ~A’’
```

```
val it = |- A /\ A /\ ~A <=> A /\ F
```

```
> REWRITE_CONV [NOT_AND] ‘‘A /\ A /\ ~A’’
```

```
val it = |- A /\ A /\ ~A <=> F
```

```
> REWRITE_CONV [FORALL_AND_THM] ‘‘!x. P x /\ Q x /\ R x’’
```

```
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

```
> Ho_Rewrite.REWRITE_CONV [FORALL_AND_THM] ‘‘!x. P x /\ Q x /\ R x’’
```

```
val it = |- !x. P x /\ Q x /\ R x <=> (!x. P x) /\ (!x. Q x) /\ (!x. R x)
```


- the `Rewrite` and `Ho_Rewrite` library provide powerful infrastructure for term rewriting
- thanks to clever implementations they are reasonably efficient
- basics are easily explained
- however, efficient usage needs some experience

- to use rewriting efficiently, one needs to understand about term rewriting systems
- this is a large topic
- one can easily give whole course just about term rewriting systems
- however, in practise you quickly get a feeling
- important points in practise
 - ▶ ensure termination of your rewrites
 - ▶ make sure they work nicely together

Theory

- choose well-founded order $<$
- for each rewrite theorem $t_1 = t_2$ ensure $t_2 < t_1$

Practice

- informally define for yourself what **simpler** means
- ensure each rewrite makes terms simpler
- good heuristics
 - ▶ subterms are simpler than whole term
 - ▶ use an order on functions

- a proper subterm is always simpler
 - ▶ !l. APPEND [] l = l
 - ▶ !n. n + 0 = n
 - ▶ !l. REVERSE (REVERSE l) = l
 - ▶ !t1 t2. if T then t1 else t2 <=> t1
 - ▶ !n. n * 0 = 0
- the right hand side should not use extra vars, throwing parts away is usually simpler
 - ▶ !x xs. (SNOC x xs = []) = T
 - ▶ !x xs. LENGTH (x::xs) = SUC (LENGTH xs)
 - ▶ !n x xs. DROP (SUC n) (x::xs) = DROP n xs

Termination — use simpler terms



- it is useful to consider some functions simple and other complicated
- replace complicated ones with simple ones
- never do it in the opposite direction
- clear examples
 - ▶ `|- !m n. MEM m (COUNT_LIST n) <=> (m < n)`
 - ▶ `|- !ls n. (DROP n ls = []) <=> (n >= LENGTH ls)`
- unclear examples
 - ▶ `|- !L. REVERSE L = REV L []`

- some equations can be used in both directions
- one should decide on one direction
- this implicitly defined a **normalform** one wants terms to be in
- examples
 - ▶ `|- !f l. MAP f (REVERSE l) = REVERSE (MAP f l)`
 - ▶ `|- !l1 l2 l3. l1 ++ (l2 ++ l3) = l1 ++ l2 ++ l3`

- some equations immediately lead to non-termination, e. g.
 - ▶ $\vdash !m\ n. m + n = n + m$
 - ▶ $\vdash !m. m = m + 0$
- slightly more subtle are rules like
 - ▶ $\vdash !n. \text{fact } n = \text{if } (n = 0) \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * \text{fact}(n-1)$
- often combination of multiple rules leads to non-termination
this is especially problematic when adding to predefined set of rewrites
 - ▶ $\vdash !m\ n\ p. m + (n + p) = (m + n) + p$ and
▶ $\vdash !m\ n\ p. (m + n) + p = m + (n + p)$

Rewrites working together

- rewrite rules should not complete with each other
- if a term ta can be rewritten to $ta1$ and $ta2$ applying different rewrite rules, then the $ta1$ and $ta2$ should be further rewritten to a common tb
- this can often be achieved by adding extra rewrite rules

Example

Assume we have the rewrite rules $\mid-$ $\text{DOUBLE } n = n + n$ and $\mid-$ $\text{EVEN } (\text{DOUBLE } n) = T$.

With these the term $\text{EVEN } (\text{DOUBLE } 2)$ can be rewritten to

- T or
- $\text{EVEN } (2 + 2)$.

To avoid a hard to predict result, $\text{EVEN } (2+2)$ should be rewritten to T . Adding an extra rewrite rule $\mid-$ $\text{EVEN } (n + n) = T$ achieves this.

Rewrites working together II



- to design rewrite systems that work well, normalforms are vital
- a term is in **normalform**, if it cannot be rewritten any further
- one should have a clear idea what the normalform of common terms looks like
- all rules should work together to establish this normalform
- the right-hand-side of each rule should be in normalform
- the left-hand-side should not be simplifiable by any other rule
- the order in which rules are applied should not influence the final result

- `computeLib` is the library behind `EVAL`
- it is a rewriting library designed for evaluating ground terms (i. e. terms without variables) efficiently
- it uses a call-by-value strategy similar to SML's
- it uses first order term matching
- it performs β reduction in addition to rewrites

- `computeLib` uses `compsets` to store its rewrites
- a `compset` stores
 - ▶ rewrite rules
 - ▶ extra conversions
- the extra conversions are guarded by a term pattern for efficiency
- users can define their own compsets
- however, `computeLib` maintains one special compset called `the_compset`
- `the_compset` is used by `EVAL`

- `EVAL` uses `the_compset`
- tools like the `Datatype` of `TFL` automatically extend `the_compset`
- this way, `EVAL` knows about (nearly) all types and functions
- one can extended `the_compset` manually as well
- rewrites exported by `Define` are good for ground terms but may lead to non-termination for non-ground terms
- `zDefine` prevents `TFL` from automatically extending `the_compset`

- `simpLib` is a sophisticated rewrite engine
- it is HOL's main workhorse
- it provides
 - ▶ higher order rewriting
 - ▶ usage of context information
 - ▶ conditional rewriting
 - ▶ arbitrary conversions
 - ▶ support for decision procedures
 - ▶ simple heuristics to avoid non-termination
 - ▶ fancier preprocessing of rewrite theorems
 - ▶ ...
- it is very powerful, but compared to `Rewrite` lib sometimes slow

- `simpLib` uses **`simpsets`**
- `simpsets` are special datatypes storing
 - ▶ rewrite rules
 - ▶ conversions
 - ▶ decision procedures
 - ▶ congruence rules
 - ▶ ...
- in addition there are `simpset-fragments`
- `simpset-fragments` contain similar information as `simpsets`
- fragments can be added to and removed from `simpsets`
- most important `simpset` is `std_ss`

- a call to the simplifier takes as arguments
 - ▶ a simpset
 - ▶ a list of rewrite theorems
- common high-level entry points are
 - ▶ `SIMP_CONV ss thmL` — conversion
 - ▶ `SIMP_RULE ss thmL` — rule
 - ▶ `SIMP_TAC ss thmL` — tactic without considering assumptions
 - ▶ `ASM_SIMP_TAC ss thmL` — tactic using assumptions to simplify goal
 - ▶ `FULL_SIMP_TAC ss thmL` — tactic simplifying assumptions with each other and goal with assumptions
 - ▶ `REV_FULL_SIMP_TAC ss thmL` — similar to `FULL_SIMP_TAC` but with reversed order of assumptions
- there are many derived tools not discussed here

Basic Simplifier Examples



```
> SIMP_CONV bool_ss [LENGTH] ``LENGTH [1;2]``  
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = SUC (SUC 0)
```

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [LENGTH] ``LENGTH [1;2]``  
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = 2
```

```
> SIMP_CONV list_ss [] ``LENGTH [1;2]``  
val it = |- LENGTH [1; 2] = 2
```


Common simpsets



- `pure_ss` — empty simpset
- `bool_ss` — basic simpset
- `std_ss` — standard simpset
- `arith_ss` — arithmetic simpset
- `list_ss` — list simpset
- `real_ss` — real simpset

- many theories and libraries provide their own simpset-fragments
- `PRED_SET_ss` — simplify sets
- `STRING_ss` — simplify strings
- `QI_ss` — extra quantifier instantiations
- `gen_beta_ss` — β reduction for pairs
- `ETA_ss` — η conversion
- `EQUIV_EXTRACT_ss` — extract common part of equivalence
- `CONJ_ss` — use conjunctions for context
- ...

- in contrast to `Rewrite` lib the simplifier can run arbitrary conversions
- most useful is probably β reduction
- `std_ss` has support for basic arithmetic and numerals
- it also has simple, syntactic conversions for instantiating quantifiers
 - ▶ $!x. \dots \wedge (x = c) \wedge \dots \implies \dots$
 - ▶ $!x. \dots \vee \sim(x = c) \vee \dots$
 - ▶ $?x. \dots \wedge (x = c) \wedge \dots$
- besides very useful conversions, there are decision procedures as well
- the most frequently used one is probably the arithmetic decision procedure you already know from `DECIDE`

Examples I



```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ``(\x. x + 2) 5``
```

```
val it = |- (\x. x + 2) 5 = 7
```

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ``!x. Q x /\ (x = 7) ==> P x``
```

```
val it = |- (!x. Q x /\ (x = 7) ==> P x) <=> (Q 7 ==> P 7)``
```

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ``?x. Q x /\ (x = 7) /\ P x``
```

```
val it = |- (?x. Q x /\ (x = 7) /\ P x) <=> (Q 7 /\ P 7)``
```

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ``x > 7 ==> x > 5``
```

```
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

```
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [] ``x > 7 ==> x > 5``
```

```
val it = |- (x > 7 ==> x > 5) <=> T
```

- the simplifier supports higher order rewriting
- this is often very handy
- for example it allows moving quantifiers around easily

Examples

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [FORALL_AND_THM] ‘‘!x. P x /\ Q /\ R x’’  
val it = |- (!x. P x /\ Q /\ R x) <=>  
          (!x. P x) /\ Q /\ (!x. R x)
```

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [GSYM RIGHT_EXISTS_AND_THM, GSYM LEFT_FORALL_IMP_THM]  
  ‘‘!y. (P y /\ (?x. y = SUC x)) ==> Q y’’  
val it = |- (!y. P y /\ (?x. y = SUC x) ==> Q y) <=>  
          !x. P (SUC x) ==> Q (SUC x)
```

- a great feature of the simplifier is that it can use context information
- by default simple context information is used like
 - ▶ the precondition of an implication
 - ▶ the condition of `if-then-else`
- one can configure which context to use via congruence rules
 - ▶ by using `CONJ_ss` one can easily use context of conjunctions
 - ▶ warning: using `CONJ_ss` can be slow
 - ▶ using other contexts is outside the scope of this lecture
- using context often simplifies proofs drastically
 - ▶ using `Rewrite` lib, often a goal needs to be split and a precondition moved to the assumptions
 - ▶ then `ASM_REWRITE_TAC` can be used
 - ▶ with `SIMP_TAC` there is no need to split the goal

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ``((l = []) ==> P l) /\ Q l``  
val it = |- ((l = []) ==> P l) /\ Q l <=>  
            ((l = []) ==> P []) /\ Q l
```

```
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [] ``if (c /\ x < 5) then (P c /\ x < 6) else Q c``  
val it = |- (if c /\ x < 5 then P c /\ x < 6 else Q c) <=>  
            if c /\ x < 5 then P T else Q c:
```

```
> SIMP_CONV std_ss [] ``P x /\ (Q x /\ P x ==> Z x)``  
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

```
> SIMP_CONV (std_ss++boolSimps.CONJ_ss) [] ``P x /\ (Q x /\ P x ==> Z x)``  
val it = |- P x /\ (Q x /\ P x ==> Z x) <=> P x /\ (Q x ==> Z x)
```

- perhaps the most powerful feature of the simplifier is that it supports conditional rewriting
- this means it allows **conditional** rewrite theorem of the form
$$\mid - \text{cond} \implies (t1 = t2)$$
- if the simplifier finds a term $t1'$ it can rewrite via $t1 = t2$ to $t2'$, it tries to discharge the assumption cond'
- for this, it calls itself recursively on cond'
 - ▶ all the decision procedures and all context information is used
 - ▶ conditional rewriting can be used
 - ▶ to prevent divergence, there is a limit on recursion depth
- if $\text{cond}' = \text{T}$ can be shown, $t1'$ is rewritten to $t2'$
- otherwise $t1'$ is not modified

- conditional rewriting is a very powerful technique
- decision procedures and sophisticated rewrites can be used to discharge preconditions without cluttering proof state
- it provides a powerful search for theorems that apply
- however, if used naively, it can be slow
- moreover, to work well, rewrite theorems need to be of a special form

Conditional Rewriting Example

- consider the conditional rewrite theorem

```
!l n. LENGTH l <= n ==> (DROP n l = [])
```

- let's assume we want to prove

```
(DROP 7 [1;2;3;4]) ++ [5;6;7] = [5;6;7]
```

- we can without conditional rewriting

- ▶ show `|- LENGTH [1;2;3;4] <= 7`
- ▶ use this to discharge the precondition of the rewrite theorem
- ▶ use the resulting theorem to rewrite the goal

- with conditional rewriting, this is all automated

```
> SIMP_CONV list_ss [DROP_LENGTH_TOO_LONG]
```

```
“(DROP 7 [1;2;3;4]) ++ [5;6;7]”
```

```
val it = |- DROP 7 [1; 2; 3; 4] ++ [5; 6; 7] = [5; 6; 7]
```

- conditional rewriting often shortens proofs considerably

- if the pattern is too general, the simplifier becomes very slow
- consider the following, trivial but hopefully useful example

Looping example

```
> val my_thm = prove ('~P ==> (P = F)') , PROVE_TAC[]
> time (SIMP_CONV std_ss [my_thm]) 'P1 /\ P2 /\ P3 /\ ... /\ P10'
runtime: 0.84000s,    gctime: 0.02400s,    systime: 0.02400s.
Exception- UNCHANGED raised

> time (SIMP_CONV std_ss []) 'P1 /\ P2 /\ P3 /\ ... /\ P10'
runtime: 0.00000s,    gctime: 0.00000s,    systime: 0.00000s.
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

- ▶ notice that the rewrite is applied at plenty of places (quadratic in number of conjuncts)
- ▶ notice that each backchaining triggers many more backchainings
- ▶ each has to be aborted to prevent diverging
- ▶ as a result, the simplifier becomes very slow
- ▶ incidentally, the conditional rewrite is useless

Conditional Rewriting Pitfalls II

- good conditional rewrites $\mid- c \implies (l = r)$ should mention only variables in c that appear in l
- if c contains extra variables $x_1 \dots x_n$, the conditional rewrite engine has to search instantiations for them
- this means that conditional rewriting is trying to discharge the precondition $?x_1 \dots x_n. c$
- the simplifier is usually not able to find such instances

Transitivity

```
> val P_def = Define 'P x y = x < y';
> val my_thm = prove ('!x y z. P x y ==> P y z ==> P x z', ...)
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [my_thm] 'P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4'
Exception- UNCHANGED raised
```

```
(* However transitivity of < build in via decision procedure *)
> SIMP_CONV arith_ss [P_def] 'P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4'
val it = |- P 2 3 /\ P 3 4 ==> P 2 4 <=> T:
```

Conditional vs. Unconditional Rewrite Rules

- conditional rewrite rules are often much more powerful
- however, `Rewrite` lib does not support them
- for this reason there are often two versions of rewrite theorems

drop example

- `DROP_LENGTH_NIL` is a useful rewrite rule:


```
|- !l. DROP (LENGTH l) l = []
```
- in proofs, one needs to be careful though to preserve exactly this form
 - ▶ one should not (partly) evaluate `LENGTH l` or modify `l` somehow
- with the conditional rewrite rule `DROP_LENGTH_TOO_LONG` one does not need to be as careful


```
|- !l n. LENGTH l <= n ==> (DROP n l = [])
```

 - ▶ the simplifier can use simplify the precondition using information about `LENGTH` and even arithmetic decision procedures

Part XIV

Advanced Definition Principles



- a relation is a function from some arguments to bool
- the following example types are all types of relations:
 - ▶ : 'a -> 'a -> bool
 - ▶ : 'a -> 'b -> bool
 - ▶ : 'a -> 'b -> 'c -> 'd -> bool
 - ▶ : ('a # 'b # 'c) -> bool
 - ▶ : bool
 - ▶ : 'a -> bool
- relations are closely related to sets
 - ▶ $R\ a\ b\ c \iff (a, b, c) \in \{(a, b, c) \mid R\ a\ b\ c\}$
 - ▶ $(a, b, c) \in S \iff (\lambda a\ b\ c. (a, b, c) \in S)\ a\ b\ c$

- relations are often defined by a set of **rules**

Definition of Reflexive-Transitive Closure

The transitive reflexive closure of a relation $R : 'a \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow \text{bool}$ can be defined as the least relation $\text{RTC } R$ that satisfies the following rules:

$$\frac{R \ x \ y}{\text{RTC } R \ x \ y} \quad \frac{}{\text{RTC } R \ x \ x} \quad \frac{\text{RTC } R \ x \ y \quad \text{RTC } R \ y \ z}{\text{RTC } R \ x \ z}$$

- if the rules are monoton, a least and a greatest fix point exists (Knaster-Tarski theorem)
- least fixpoints give rise to **inductive relations**
- greatest fixpoints give rise to **coinductive relations**

- `(Co)IndDefLib` provides infrastructure for defining (co)inductive relations
- given a set of rules `Hol_(co)reln` defines (co)inductive relations
- 3 theorems are returned and stored in current theory
 - ▶ a rules theorem — it states that the defined constant satisfies the rules
 - ▶ a cases theorem — this is an equational form of the rules showing that the defined relation is indeed a fixpoint
 - ▶ a (co)induction theorem
- additionally a strong (co)induction theorem is stored in current theory

Example: Transitive Reflexive Closure



```
> val (RTC_REL_rules, RTC_REL_ind, RTC_REL_cases) = Hol_reln '  
    (!x y.    R x y                               ==> RTC_REL R x y) /\  
    (!x.      RTC_REL R x x) /\  
    (!x y z. RTC_REL R x y /\ RTC_REL R x z ==> RTC_REL R x z)'
```

```
val RTC_REL_rules = |- !R.  
    (!x y. R x y ==> RTC_REL R x y) /\ (!x. RTC_REL R x x) /\  
    (!x y z. RTC_REL R x y /\ RTC_REL R x z ==> RTC_REL R x z)
```

```
val RTC_REL_cases = |- !R a0 a1.  
    RTC_REL R a0 a1 <=>  
    (R a0 a1 \\/ (a1 = a0) \\/ ?y. RTC_REL R a0 y /\ RTC_REL R a0 a1)
```

Example: Transitive Reflexive Closure II



```
val RTC_REL_ind = |- !R RTC_REL'.
  ((!x y. R x y ==> RTC_REL' x y) /\ (!x. RTC_REL' x x) /\
   (!x y z. RTC_REL' x y /\ RTC_REL' x z ==> RTC_REL' x z)) ==>
  (!a0 a1. RTC_REL R a0 a1 ==> RTC_REL' a0 a1)
```

```
> val RTC_REL_strongind = DB.fetch "-" "RTC_REL_strongind"
```

```
val RTC_REL_strongind = |- !R RTC_REL'.
  (!x y. R x y ==> RTC_REL' x y) /\ (!x. RTC_REL' x x) /\
  (!x y z.
   RTC_REL R x y /\ RTC_REL' x y /\ RTC_REL R x z /\
   RTC_REL' x z ==>
   RTC_REL' x z) ==>
  (!a0 a1. RTC_REL R a0 a1 ==> RTC_REL' a0 a1)
```

Example: EVEN



```
> val (EVEN_REL_rules, EVEN_REL_ind, EVEN_REL_cases) = Hol_reln
  '(EVEN_REL 0) /\ (!n. EVEN_REL n ==> (EVEN_REL (n + 2)))';
```

```
val EVEN_REL_cases =
  |- !a0. EVEN_REL a0 <=> (a0 = 0) \/\ ?n. (a0 = n + 2) /\ EVEN_REL n
```

```
val EVEN_REL_rules =
  |- EVEN_REL 0 /\ !n. EVEN_REL n ==> EVEN_REL (n + 2)
```

```
val EVEN_REL_ind = |- !EVEN_REL'.
  (!a0.
    EVEN_REL' a0 ==>
      (a0 = 0) \/\ ?n. (a0 = n + 2) /\ EVEN_REL' n) ==>
    (!a0. EVEN_REL' a0 ==> EVEN_REL a0)
```

- notice that in this example there is exactly one fixpoint
- therefore for these rule, the induction and coinductive relation coincide

Example: Dummy Relations

```
> val (DF_rules, DF_ind, DF_cases) = Hol_reln
  '(!n. DF (n+1) ==> (DF n))'
```

```
> val (DT_rules, DT_coind, DT_cases) = Hol_coreln
  '(!n. DT (n+1) ==> (DT n))'
```

```
val DT_coind =
  |- !DT'. (!a0. DT' a0 ==> DT' (a0 + 1)) ==> !a0. DT' a0 ==> DT a0
```

```
val DF_ind =
  |- !DF'. (!n. DF' (n + 1) ==> DF' n) ==> !a0. DF a0 ==> DF' a0
```

```
val DT_cases = |- !a0. DT a0 <=> DT (a0 + 1):
val DF_cases = |- !a0. DF a0 <=> DF (a0 + 1):
```

- notice that for both **DT** and **DF** we used essentially a non-derminating recursion
- **DT** is always true, i. e. $\vdash !n. DT\ n$
- **DF** is always false, i. e. $\vdash !n. \sim(DF\ n)$

???



???

