

Lecture 6

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Simplification in Detail

- ▶ Simplification is the heart of the theorem prover. It:
 - ▶ applies propositional calculus, equality, and linear arithmetic decision procedures,
 - ▶ uses type information and forward chaining rules to construct a “context” describing the assumptions of each subterm,
 - ▶ rewrites each subterm in the appropriate context, using definitions, conditional rewrite rules, and metafunctions,
 - ▶ use propositional calculus normalization to convert the resulting formula to an equivalent set of formulas, reduce the set under subsumption, and deposit the surviving formulas back in the pool.
- ▶ Assume the formula to which the simplifier is applied is of the form (implies (and $p_1 \dots p_n$) q). The p_i are the hypotheses and q is the conclusion.
- ▶ First we discuss equivalence relations and congruence rules, which are fundamental to several aspects of the simplifier.
- ▶ Then we discuss each of the four steps in the order in which they occur.

Context

- ▶ After decision procedures, the simplifier will rewrite each hypothesis and then the conclusion.
- ▶ Rewriting is done in a context that specifies what is assumed true.
 - ▶ For the conclusion, we assume all of the hypotheses.
 - ▶ For a hypothesis, we assume the other hypotheses and the negation of the conclusion.
- ▶ The context actually consists of two kinds of information: arithmetic and type theoretic.
 - ▶ Arithmetic inequalities from the assumptions and linear rules provide arithmetic information.
 - ▶ Type theoretic information: type algorithm, type-prescription & compound-recognizer rules.

Type-Theoretic Context

- ▶ *Type-prescription* rules allow you to inform the type algorithm of the type of the output produced by a function.
 - ▶ E.g., `(true-listp (rev x))` allows the type algorithm to deduce that the type of `(rev (app a b))` is either `nil` or a proper `cons`.
- ▶ *Compound-recognizer rules* are applicable to Boolean-valued functions of one argument (recognizers).
 - ▶ E.g., `(implies (primep x) (posp x))` allows ACL2 to deduce type information about `x`.
- ▶ *Forward chaining rules*: a theorem of the form
 - ▶ E.g., `(implies (and p1 . . . pn) q)`, where `p1` is the default trigger term (you can specify the trigger terms).
 - ▶ If an instance of the trigger occurs in the context and the `pi` are all true in the context, then `q` is added to the context.

Tau System

- ▶ Tau rules extend ACL2's type checker.
- ▶ The tau system is only tried when subgoals first enter the waterfall and when they are stable under simplification.
- ▶ Supports many kinds of rules, including
 - ▶ Simple: (implies (p v) (q v))
 - ▶ Conjunctive: (implies (and (p₁ v) ... (p_k v)) (q v))
 - ▶ Signature: (implies (and (p₁ x₁) (p₂ x₂) ...) (q (fn x₁ x₂ ...)))
 - ▶ Eval, Signature Form 2, Bounder, Big Switch, MV-NTH Synonym, etc.
- ▶ p, q, p₁, etc., denote monadic Boolean-valued function symbols, or equalities where one argument is constant, arithmetic comparisons in which one argument is a constant, or the negations of such terms.

Rewriter: High-Level Overview

- ▶ Variable & constants rewrite to themselves
- ▶ $(f a_1 \dots a_n)$: (*target*) In most cases, rewrite a_i , to get a'_i and rewrite $(f a'_1 \dots a'_n)$ (inside-out)
- ▶ Special case(s): if f is `if`, rewrite the test, a_1 , to a'_1 ; then rewrite a_2 and/or a_3 depending on whether we can establish if a'_1 is `nil`
- ▶ $(f a'_1 \dots a'_n)$: Consider all rules derived from axioms, definitions, theorems in reverse chronological order.
- ▶ Apply the first that fires & repeat
- ▶ All of this happens in simplification
- ▶ There is a rich underlying theory of term-rewriting

Rewrite Rules

- ▶ Rewrite rules are of the form:
(implies (and $h_1 \dots h_k$) (equal (f $b_1 \dots b_n$) rhs))
- ▶ The definition of f is of this form (hyps are input contracts)
- ▶ A theorem concluding with (not (p . . .)) is considered to conclude with (iff (p . . .) nil)
- ▶ A theorem concluding with (p . . .), where p is not a known equivalence relation and is not “not,” is considered to conclude with (iff (p ...) t)
- ▶ Rules causes the rewriter to replace instances (f $b_1 \dots b_n$) with the corresponding instance of rhs when they fire

Rewrite Rules

- ▶ Rewrite rule: (implies (and $h_1 \dots h_k$) (equal (f $b_1 \dots b_n$) rhs))
- ▶ Rule causes the rewriter to replace *pattern* (f $b_1 \dots b_n$) with the corresponding instance of rhs when they fire
- ▶ If we can instantiate variables in the pattern so that the pattern matches the target to get, say
(implies (and $h'_1 \dots h'_k$) (equal (f $a'_1 \dots a'_n$) rhs'))
- ▶ We try to apply the rule, by establishing its hypotheses
- ▶ Backchaining: Rewriting is used recursively to establish each hypothesis in the order in which they appear
- ▶ If successful, recursively rewrite rhs' to get rhs''
- ▶ Certain heuristic checks are used to prevent some loops
- ▶ Finally, if certain heuristics approve of rhs'', we say the rule fires and the result is rhs''. This result replaces the target term.

Special Hypotheses

- ▶ p_i is an arithmetic inequality, say $(< u v)$: the two arguments are rewritten, to u' and v' , and then the linear arithmetic decision procedure is applied to $(< u' v')$.
- ▶ An instantiated hypothesis contains free variables (e.g., transitivity). The rewriter looks for a binding of the free variables that make the hypothesis true. See `set-match-free-default`, which can be set to `:once`, `:all`, etc. Backtracking can occur.
- ▶ An instantiated hypothesis is of one of three forms:
 - ▶ `(syntaxp p)` always returns `t`. But when the rewriter encounters such a hypothesis it evaluates the form inside the `syntaxp` to decide whether the rule should fire.
 - ▶ `(force p)` is defined as the identity function. When the rewriter finds a hyp marked with `force`, it tries to establish it as above and if that fails it assumes `hyp` and goes on. These proofs are, by default, delayed until the successful completion of the main goal, using all the power of the theorem prover.
 - ▶ `(case-split p)` is a variant of `force`. When a hypothesis has the form `(case-split hyp)` it is logically equivalent to `hyp`. If ACL2 attempts to apply the rule but cannot establish the instance of `hyp` holds, it considers the `hyp` true anyhow, but creates a subgoal in which the instance of `hyp` is assumed false.

Heuristic Checks

- ▶ A rule for a function definition or *definition rule*, corresponds to expanding a call of the function. If the definition is recursive, we want to avoid looping: the rewriter will not fire the rule if the rewritten rhs, rhs'' , fails certain tests.
 - ▶ One test permitting firing is that the arguments to the rewritten recursive call already appear in the formula being proved by the simplifier.
 - ▶ Another test permitting the firing is that the arguments be symbolically simpler.
- ▶ For rules like $(\text{equal } (f\ x\ y)\ (f\ y\ x))$ that permute arguments to a function, care is taken not to loop forever. Essentially, the system uses permutative rules only to swap arguments into “alphabetical” order.
- ▶ The rewriter just does what you tell it to do with your rewrite rules. If you tell it to loop forever, by rewriting a to b , b to c , and c to a , then it will loop forever, or as long as the resources of time and memory allow.

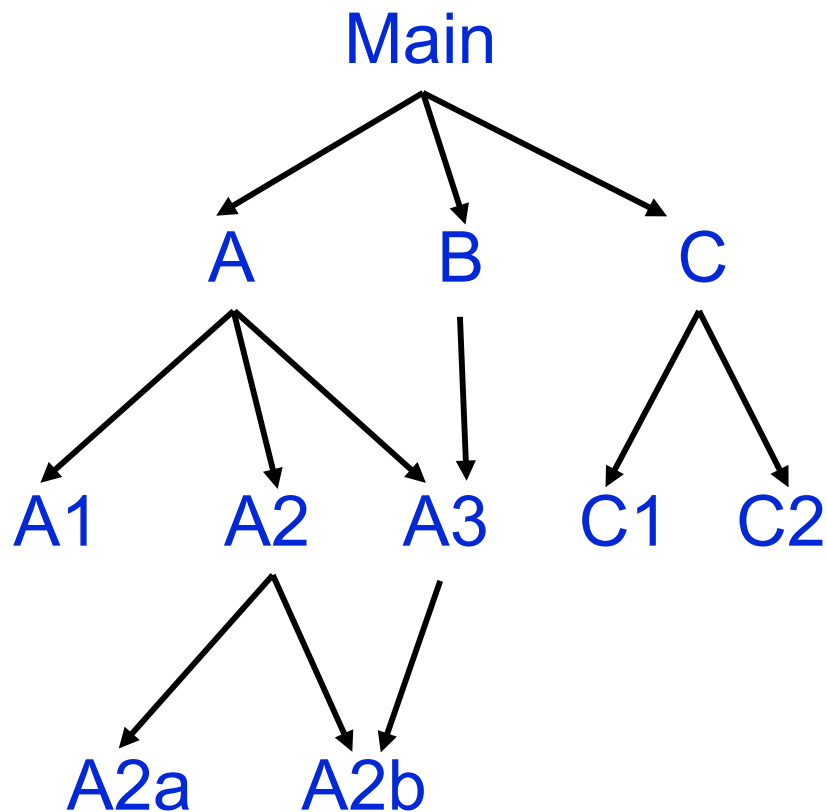
Normalization & Subsumption

- ▶ Assume the simplifier is working on $(\text{implies } (\text{and } p_1 \dots p_k) q)$, by rewriting the parts, and it has just rewritten p_k . Suppose the result is a term that involves an if-expressions, say the result is $(p \text{ (if } a \text{ b c)})$. Then if normalization occurs.
- ▶ The simplifier tries to clean up the set of formulas.
 - ▶ For example, if one formula is $(\text{implies } p \text{ } q)$ and another is $(\text{implies } (\text{and } p \text{ } r) \text{ } q)$, then clearly we just prove the former.
 - ▶ If one formula is $(\text{implies } (\text{and } p \text{ } r) \text{ } q)$ and another is $(\text{implies } (\text{and } p \text{ } (\text{not } r)) \text{ } q)$, then we just prove $(\text{implies } p \text{ } q)$.
- ▶ If the result of subsumption/replacement is a set containing the input formula, then the simplifier passes the formula to dest elim.
- ▶ If the result is the empty set of formulas, then the simplifier proved the input formula.
- ▶ Otherwise, the simplifier deposits each of the formulas into the pool.

Driving ACL2

- ▶ You are responsible for guiding ACL2 by proving the appropriate lemmas
- ▶ Rules generated by lemmas are rewrite rules
- ▶ You have to learn to program ACL2
- ▶ That involves building a mental model
- ▶ The ACL2 book advocates “the method”
- ▶ Once a proof attempt is started, one can interact with ACL2 only by interrupting the proof attempt

Proof Tags

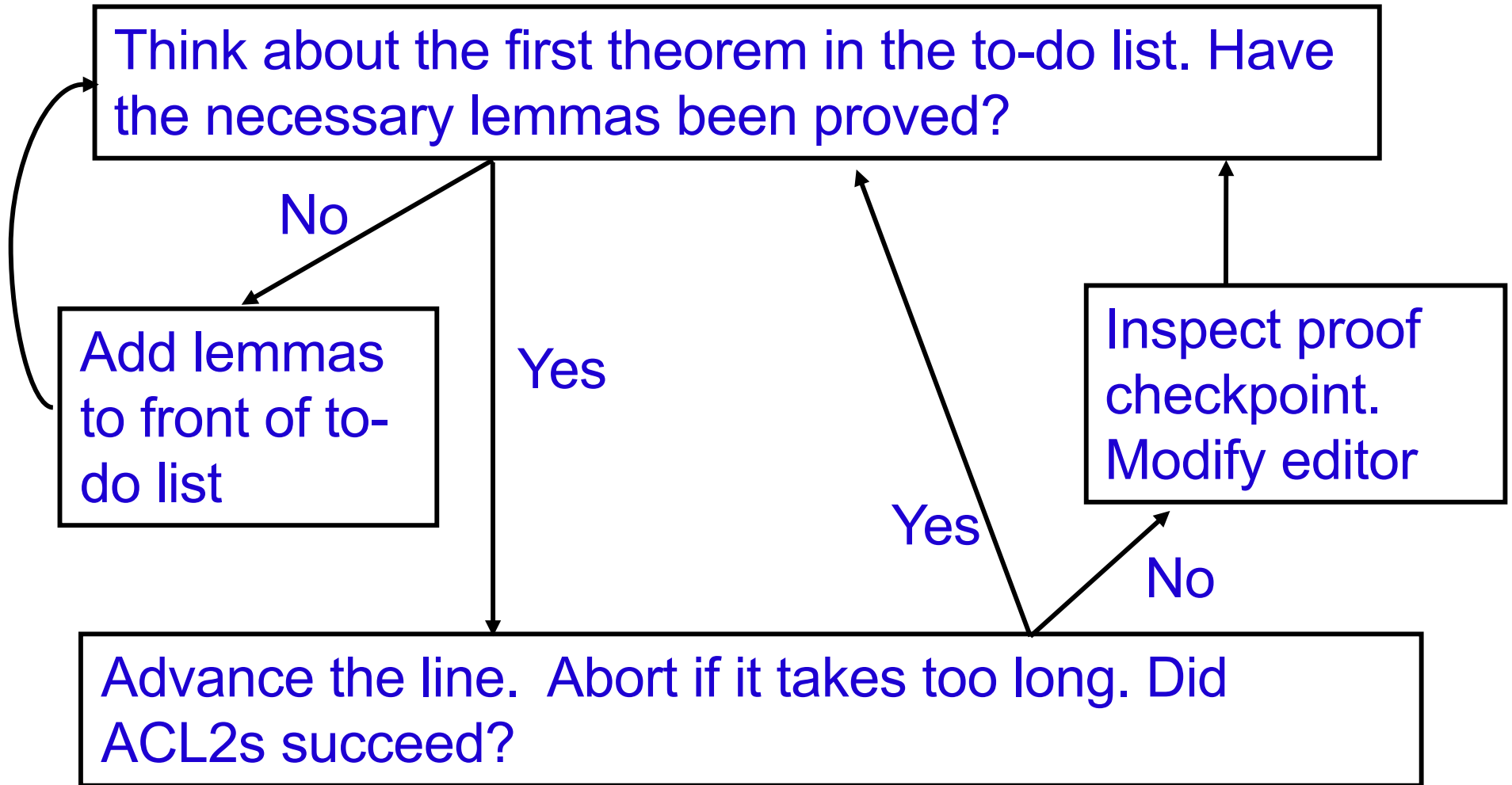


- ▶ In the proof dag, every node corresponds to a lemma
- ▶ To lead ACL2 to a proof, you must prove every lemma (using a topological sort)
- ▶ As a practical matter, you may not have the dag
- ▶ The Method is a way of using ACL2 to discover it

The Method

- ▶ In ACL2s, we have an editor and a session
- ▶ Our code is in the editor, initially containing the main theorem
- ▶ When we are done, the editor will contain a topological sort of a proof dag
- ▶ During the project, the editor has a “line”
 - ▶ Above the line, is the done list: successful commands
 - ▶ Below line, to-do list: remaining commands

The Method



Failed Proofs and Generalization

- ▶ Focus on first subgoal that ACL2 cannot simplify which does not get proved
- ▶ Use the proof-tree “view” to select checkpoints
- ▶ Use the proof builder (use ACL2 as a proof checker)
- ▶ Consider defining and proving

```
(defun append (x y)
  (if (endp x)
      y
      (cons (car x) (append (cdr x) y))))
```

```
(defthm append-a
  (equal (append (append a a) a)
         (append a (append a a))))
```

- ▶ Generalization is key (as it is in all of math)

Theorem Proving Strategies

- ▶ ACL2 is really a programmable theorem prover
- ▶ Define a “normal” form & rules that assume/respect it
- ▶ Coming up with a rewrite strategy is key, e.g., if app associates to the left, then rules that associate it to the right are going to cause loops
- ▶ In addition to rewrite rules, there are *built-in-clause*, *clause-processor*, *compound-recognizer*, *congruence*, *definition*, *elim*, *equivalence*, *forward-chaining*, *generalize*, *induction*, *linear*, *meta*, *refinement*, *tau-system*, *type-prescription*, *type-set-inverter* and *well-founded-relation* rules and many options for controlling how they work
- ▶ You can also provide hints, including *computed-hints*, which allow you to write a program that computes hints based on the goal under consideration
- ▶ You can define your own theorem prover (meta rules), use external solvers (*clause-processors*), etc

DEMO

Append/Reverse example

Defining rewrite rules

Rewrite strategies

Proof Builder (Proof Checker)

Examples