

Mathematical Proofs on the computer

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A computer language for mathematics

- The calculus of constructions: a simple kernel based on dependent types
 - Algorithms
 - Proofs
- Extra layers to bridge the gap with mathematical practice
 - Notations
 - implicit arguments
 - coercions
 - canonical structures
 - Changing point of view
- Libraries of results
 - structuring principles
 - Searching approaches

Outline

- 1 Kernel
- 2 Layers
- 3 Library

The kernel

- Propositions as types, Programs as proofs
- A proof of “ A implies B ” is a tool to produce proofs of B
 - But it requires a proof of A as input
- Notation $f (g a)$ instead of $f(g(a))$
- Notation `fun x : A => e`
for the function that maps x of type A to e
- Example `fun x : A => x` is a proof of $A \rightarrow A$
read this *A implies B*
- A simple notion of truth, a simple verification problem
- Beware that some concepts on computer are not totally faithful to reality, example of subtraction

Dependent types

- Families of types:
 - `list A`, lists of elements of type `A`
 - `prime n`, proofs that `n` is prime (if any)
 - `ordinal n`, numbers smaller than `n`
- More than one type for the possible outputs of one function
- Notation `forall x : T, B x`
- Useful for polymorphism: `nil : forall A, list A`
- Useful for logic: `forall x : nat, ~prime(4 * n)`

Dependent pairs

- Data with extra information
- Example `ordinal n` (will be noted `'I_n`)
 - Each element combines a number p and a proof of $p < n$
- Not exactly a subset of the type of natural numbers
- Used pervasively this week: qualified types
- Especially useful if the qualification is given by a boolean predicate
 - `eqtype`, `choicetype`, `monoid`, etc

Practical approaches

- The mathematical language uses a lot of ambiguity
- Notational conventions abound
- Polymorphism does not require explicit types
- Qualified data should be usable as unqualified data
- Information should be added to existing types as proof progresses

Notations

- Numbers are just a notation on top of a data-structure:
 $3 = S (S (S 0))$
- $S x$ is actually written $x.+1$
- $a \&\& b$ is a notation for $andb a b$
- operations are “dissymmetric” :
 $S (S (S x))$ and $3 + x$ are convertible, but not $x + 3$
- comparisons are computations:
 $2 < 5 + x$ is convertible to $true$, but not $2 < x + 5$

Implicit Arguments

- Coq can be configured so that arguments of functions are guessed when possible
- Functions with 5 arguments behave as if they had 2
- Convention used extensively in `ssreflect`
`Set Implicit Arguments. Unset Strict Implicit.`
- `About cat.`
`cat : forall T : Type, seq T -> seq T -> seq T`
 Argument T is implicit and maximally inserted
- `Check cat [:: 1; 2].`
`cat [:: 1; 2] : seq nat -> seq nat`
- Also used for many theorems
 apply them directly to proofs of their first hypothesis

Coercions

- Data with added information does not belong in the same type
- For instance $i : 'l_n$ contains both a natural number p and a proof that $p < n$
Technically, it cannot be used as a natural number
- Coercions bridge the gaps
- `Print Coercions.` shows all coercions
- For instance `nat_of_ord : forall n, 'l_n -> nat`
- $i + 5$ is actually $(\text{nat_of_ord } n \ i) + 5$

Adding information to existing objects

- In human memory, everything has “connotations”
- Numbers: addition is commutative, has a neutral element. . .
- Number operations are created naked, structure is added later
- The mechanism is called a *canonical structure*
- For instance, for every associative op we have

$$\text{t1} : \text{forall } x \ y \ z \ t, \text{ op } (\text{op } x \ y) (\text{op } z \ t) = \\ \text{op } x (\text{op } y (\text{op } z \ t))$$

- addition of numbers is associative, and so is concatenation of sequences
- Canonical structures provide a direct way to remember associativity and to apply `t1` to both operators

Changing points of view

- Changing points of view about objects is a natural process in mathematics
- In computer things are more rigid
- A systematic way to use equivalences or isomorphisms
- For instance `coprimeP`
 $(\exists u : nat * nat, u_1 n - u_2 m = 1) \Leftrightarrow (\text{coprime } n \ m)$
- `apply/coprimeP` will use the equivalence in the appropriate direction

The ssreflect library

- A large library (distributed version : 70kloc in 54 files)
- Mainly organized to support the odd order theorem
 - forays in algebra and linear algebra
 - advanced treatment of matrices and polynomials
- Loading files as needed
- Require `Import ssreflect ssrfun ssrbool ...`
- Theorem naming is systematic
 - Properties of associativity are denoted by an `A`
 - Properties of commutativity are denoted by a `C`
 - Properties of inversion are called `cancel` and denoted by a `K`

Maintenance discipline

- Big documents : big maintenance problem
- Proofs are linear script with an underlying tree structure
 - Making the tree-structure apparent: terminate branches with **by**
 - Indentation : $2*(n-1)$ when n subgoals are open
 - Always choose names for your hypotheses during proofs

Searching information in the library

- Use the graph to navigate files
 - Each node gives access to file outlines
 - File outlines contain documentation in the preamble
 - Defined symbols are clickable
- Within Coq, use the `Search` command

Searching

- *Search pattern.*
Look for theorems whose conclusion matches the pattern
- *Search pattern₁ pattern₂.* Look for theorems whose conclusion matches *pattern₁* and which contain *pattern₂*

Search (*_* <= *_* * *_*).

lt_n_ceil forall m d : nat, 0 < d -> m < (m %/ d).+1 * d

leq_pmull forall m n : nat, 0 < n -> m <= n * m

leq_pmulr forall m n : nat, 0 < n -> m <= m * n

...

Search (*_* = *_*) (*_* * *_*) (*_* <= *_*).

eqn_pmull2l forall .., 0 < m -> (m * n1 == m * n2) = (n1 == n2)

eqn_pmul2r forall .., 0 < m -> (n1 * m == n2 * m) = (n1 == n2)