Notable Examples in Isabelle/HOL

December 12, 2021

Contents

1	Ad 1.1 1.2	Hoc Overloading Plain Ad Hoc Overloading	3 3 5			
2	Per	mutation Types	6			
3	АТ	Cail-Recursive, Stack-Based Ackermann's Function	8			
4	Cantor's Theorem					
	4.1	Mathematical statement and proof	10			
	4.2	Automated proofs	10			
	4.3	Elementary version in higher-order predicate logic	10			
	4.4	Classic Isabelle/HOL example	10			
5	Coherent Logic Problems					
	5.1	Equivalence of two versions of Pappus' Axiom	11			
	5.2	Preservation of the Diamond Property under reflexive closure	13			
6	Some Isar command definitions					
	6.1	Diagnostic command: no state change	13			
	6.2	Old-style global theory declaration	13			
	6.3	Local theory specification	13			
7	The Drinker's Principle 1					
8	Examples of function definitions					
	8.1	Very basic	15			
	8.2	Currying	15			
	8.3	Nested recursion	15			
		8.3.1 Here comes McCarthy's 91-function	16			
		8.3.2 Here comes Takeuchi's function	16			
	8.4	More general patterns	16			

		8.4.1 Overlapping patterns	16
		8.4.2 Guards	17
	8.5	Mutual Recursion	17
	8.6	Definitions in local contexts	18
	8.7	fun_cases	18
		8.7.1 Predecessor	18
		8.7.2 List to option	19
		8.7.3 Boolean Functions	19
		8.7.4 Many parameters	20
	8.8	Partial Function Definitions	20
	8.9	Regression tests	20
		8.9.1 Context recursion	20
		8.9.2 A combination of context and nested recursion	20
		8.9.3 Context, but no recursive call	21
		8.9.4 Tupled nested recursion	21
		8.9.5 Let	21
		8.9.6 Abbreviations	21
		8.9.7 Simple Higher-Order Recursion	21
		8.9.8 Pattern matching on records	22
		8.9.9 The diagonal function	22
		8.9.10 Many equations (quadratic blowup)	22
		8.9.11 Automatic pattern splitting	23
		8.9.12 Polymorphic partial-function	23
9	Gro	ebner Basis Examples	23
	9.1	Basic examples	23
	9.2	Lemmas for Lagrange's theorem	24
	9.3	Colinearity is invariant by rotation	25
10	Exa	mple of Declaring an Oracle	2 5
		Oracle declaration	26
		Oracle as low-level rule	26
		Oracle as proof method \dots	26
11	Exa	mples of automatically derived induction rules	26
	11.1	Some simple induction principles on nat	26
12		tbook-style reasoning: the Knaster-Tarski Theorem	27
		Prose version	27
	12.2	Formal versions	28

13	Isabelle/ML basics	28			
	13.1 ML expressions	28			
	13.2 Antiquotations	29			
	13.3 Recursive ML evaluation	29			
	13.4 IDE support	29			
	13.5 Example: factorial and ackermann function in Isabelle/ML $$.	29			
	13.6 Parallel Isabelle/ML	30			
	13.7 Function specifications in Isabelle/HOL	30			
14	Peirce's Law	30			
15	5 Using extensible records in HOL – points and coloured points				
	15.1 Points	32			
	15.1.1 Introducing concrete records and record schemes	32			
	15.1.2 Record selection and record update	32			
	15.1.3 Some lemmas about records	32			
	15.2 Coloured points: record extension	34			
	15.2.1 Non-coercive structural subtyping	34			
	15.3 Other features	34			
	15.4 A more complex record expression	36			
	15.5 Some code generation	36			
16	Finite sequences	36			
17	17 Square roots of primes are irrational				

1 Ad Hoc Overloading

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} \bf theory & Adhoc\_Overloading\_Examples \\ \bf imports \\ Main \\ HOL-Library.Infinite\_Set \\ HOL-Library.Adhoc\_Overloading \\ \bf begin \\ \end{tabular}
```

Adhoc overloading allows to overload a constant depending on its type. Typically this involves to introduce an uninterpreted constant (used for input and output) and then add some variants (used internally).

1.1 Plain Ad Hoc Overloading

Consider the type of first-order terms.

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{datatype} \ ('a, \ 'b) \ term = \\ Var \ 'b \mid \\ Fun \ 'a \ ('a, \ 'b) \ term \ list \end{array}
```

The set of variables of a term might be computed as follows.

```
fun term\_vars :: ('a, 'b) term \Rightarrow 'b set where

term\_vars (Var x) = \{x\} \mid

term\_vars (Fun f ts) = \bigcup (set (map term\_vars ts))
```

However, also for *rules* (i.e., pairs of terms) and term rewrite systems (i.e., sets of rules), the set of variables makes sense. Thus we introduce an unspecified constant *vars*.

```
consts vars :: 'a \Rightarrow 'b \ set
```

Which is then overloaded with variants for terms, rules, and TRSs.

```
adhoc_overloading
```

```
vars term_vars
```

```
value [nbe] vars (Fun "f" [Var 0, Var 1])
```

```
fun rule\_vars :: ('a, 'b) term \times ('a, 'b) term \Rightarrow 'b set where <math>rule\_vars (l, r) = vars l \cup vars r
```

adhoc_overloading

```
vars rule vars
```

```
value [nbe] vars (Var 1, Var 0)
```

```
definition trs\_vars :: (('a, 'b) term \times ('a, 'b) term) set \Rightarrow 'b set where <math>trs\_vars R = \bigcup (rule\_vars `R)
```

adhoc_overloading

```
vars trs_vars
```

```
value [nbe] vars \{(Var\ 1,\ Var\ 0)\}
```

Sometimes it is necessary to add explicit type constraints before a variant can be determined.

```
value vars (R :: (('a, 'b) \ term \times ('a, 'b) \ term) \ set)
```

It is also possible to remove variants.

no_adhoc_overloading

```
vars term_vars rule_vars
```

As stated earlier, the overloaded constant is only used for input and output. Internally, always a variant is used, as can be observed by the configuration option $show_variants$.

```
adhoc_overloading
```

```
vars term_vars
```

declare [[show_variants]]

1.2 Adhoc Overloading inside Locales

As example we use permutations that are parametrized over an atom type 'a.

```
definition perms :: ('a \Rightarrow 'a) set where
  perms = \{f. \ bij \ f \land finite \ \{x. \ f \ x \neq x\}\}
typedef 'a perm = perms :: ('a \Rightarrow 'a) set
  \langle proof \rangle
First we need some auxiliary lemmas.
lemma permsI [Pure.intro]:
 assumes bij f and MOST x. f x = x
 shows f \in perms
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma perms_imp_bij:
 f \in perms \Longrightarrow bij f
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma perms imp MOST eq:
 f \in perms \Longrightarrow MOST \ x. \ f \ x = x
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma id_perms [simp]:
  id \in \mathit{perms}
  (\lambda x. \ x) \in perms
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma perms_comp [simp]:
  assumes f: f \in perms and g: g \in perms
 shows (f \circ g) \in perms
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma perms_inv:
 assumes f: f \in perms
 shows inv f \in perms
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma bij_Rep_perm: bij (Rep_perm p)
  \langle proof \rangle
instantiation perm :: (type) group_add
begin
```

```
definition \theta = Abs\_perm id
\mathbf{definition} - p = Abs\_perm \ (inv \ (Rep\_perm \ p))
definition p + q = Abs\_perm (Rep\_perm p \circ Rep\_perm q)
definition (p1::'a \ perm) - p2 = p1 + p2
lemma Rep\_perm\_\theta: Rep\_perm \theta = id
  \langle proof \rangle
\mathbf{lemma}\ \mathit{Rep\_perm\_add} \colon
  Rep\_perm (p1 + p2) = Rep\_perm p1 \circ Rep\_perm p2
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma Rep_perm_uminus:
  Rep\_perm (-p) = inv (Rep\_perm p)
  \langle proof \rangle
instance
 \langle proof \rangle
end
\mathbf{lemmas}\ Rep\_perm\_simps =
  Rep\_perm\_0
  Rep\_perm\_add
  Rep_perm_uminus
```

2 Permutation Types

We want to be able to apply permutations to arbitrary types. To this end we introduce a constant *PERMUTE* together with convenient infix syntax.

```
consts PERMUTE :: 'a \ perm \Rightarrow 'b \Rightarrow 'b \ (infixr \cdot 75)
```

Then we add a locale for types 'b that support application of permutations.

```
locale permute =
fixes permute :: 'a \ perm \Rightarrow 'b \Rightarrow 'b
assumes permute\_zero \ [simp]: permute \ 0 \ x = x
and permute\_plus \ [simp]: permute \ (p + q) \ x = permute \ p \ (permute \ q \ x)
begin
adhoc_overloading
PERMUTE \ permute
```

Permuting atoms.

end

```
definition permute\_atom :: 'a \ perm \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'a \ where <math>permute\_atom \ p \ a = (Rep\_perm \ p) \ a
```

```
adhoc_overloading
  PERMUTE permute_atom
interpretation atom_permute: permute permute_atom
  \langle proof \rangle
Permuting permutations.
definition permute\_perm :: 'a perm \Rightarrow 'a perm \Rightarrow 'a perm where
 permute\_perm p q = p + q - p
adhoc_overloading
  PERMUTE permute_perm
interpretation perm_permute: permute permute_perm
  \langle proof \rangle
Permuting functions.
\mathbf{locale}\ \mathit{fun\_permute} =
  dom: permute perm1 + ran: permute perm2
 for perm1 :: 'a perm \Rightarrow 'b \Rightarrow 'b
 and perm2 :: 'a perm \Rightarrow 'c \Rightarrow 'c
begin
adhoc_overloading
  PERMUTE perm1 perm2
definition permute\_fun :: 'a perm \Rightarrow ('b \Rightarrow 'c) \Rightarrow ('b \Rightarrow 'c) where
 permute\_fun \ p \ f = (\lambda x. \ p \cdot (f \ (-p \cdot x)))
adhoc_overloading
  PERMUTE permute_fun
end
sublocale fun\_permute \subseteq permute\_fun
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma (Abs\_perm\ id :: nat\ perm) \cdot Suc\ \theta = Suc\ \theta
  \langle proof \rangle
interpretation atom_fun_permute: fun_permute permute_atom permute_atom
  \langle proof \rangle
adhoc_overloading
  PERMUTE\ atom\_fun\_permute.permute\_fun
lemma (Abs\_perm id :: 'a perm) \cdot id = id
```

 $\langle proof \rangle$

3 A Tail-Recursive, Stack-Based Ackermann's Function

theory Ackermann imports Main

begin

This theory investigates a stack-based implementation of Ackermann's function. Let's recall the traditional definition, as modified by Rózsa Péter and Raphael Robinson.

```
fun ack :: [nat,nat] \Rightarrow nat where

ack \ 0 \ n = Suc \ n

| ack \ (Suc \ m) \ 0 = ack \ m \ 1

| ack \ (Suc \ m) \ (Suc \ n) = ack \ m \ (ack \ (Suc \ m) \ n)
```

Here is the stack-based version, which uses lists.

```
function (domintros) ackloop :: nat list \Rightarrow nat where ackloop (n # 0 # l) = ackloop (Suc n # l) | ackloop (0 # Suc m # l) = ackloop (1 # m # l) | ackloop (Suc n # Suc m # l) = ackloop (n # Suc m # m # l) | ackloop [m] = m | ackloop [] = 0 \langle proof \rangle
```

The key task is to prove termination. In the first recursive call, the head of the list gets bigger while the list gets shorter, suggesting that the length of the list should be the primary termination criterion. But in the third recursive call, the list gets longer. The idea of trying a multiset-based termination argument is frustrated by the second recursive call when m=0: the list elements are simply permuted.

Fortunately, the function definition package allows us to define a function and only later identify its domain of termination. Instead, it makes all the recursion equations conditional on satisfying the function's domain predicate. Here we shall eventually be able to show that the predicate is always satisfied.

```
 \begin{array}{l} ackloop\_dom \; (Suc \; n \; \# \; l) \Longrightarrow ackloop\_dom \; (n \; \# \; 0 \; \# \; l) \\ ackloop\_dom \; (Suc \; 0 \; \# \; m \; \# \; l) \Longrightarrow ackloop\_dom \; (0 \; \# \; Suc \; m \; \# \; l) \\ ackloop\_dom \; (n \; \# \; Suc \; m \; \# \; m \; \# \; l) \Longrightarrow ackloop\_dom \; (Suc \; n \; \# \; Suc \; m \; \# \; l) \\ ackloop\_dom \; [m] \\ ackloop\_dom \; [] \\ \end{array}
```

declare ackloop.domintros [simp]

Termination is trivial if the length of the list is less than two. The following lemma is the key to proving termination for longer lists.

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{lemma} \ ackloop\_dom \ (ack \ m \ n \ \# \ l) \Longrightarrow ackloop\_dom \ (n \ \# \ m \ \# \ l) \\ \langle proof \rangle \end{array}
```

The proof above (which actually is unused) can be expressed concisely as follows.

```
lemma ackloop\_dom\_longer:
ackloop\_dom\ (ack\ m\ n\ \#\ l) \Longrightarrow ackloop\_dom\ (n\ \#\ m\ \#\ l)
\langle proof \rangle
lemma ackloop\_dom\ (ack\ m\ n\ \#\ l) \Longrightarrow ackloop\_dom\ (n\ \#\ m\ \#\ l)
\langle proof \rangle
```

This function codifies what *ackloop* is designed to do. Proving the two functions equivalent also shows that *ackloop* can be used to compute Ackermann's function.

```
fun acklist :: nat \ list \Rightarrow nat \ \mathbf{where}
acklist \ (n\#m\#l) = acklist \ (ack \ m \ n \ \# \ l)
| \ acklist \ [m] = m
| \ acklist \ [] = 0
```

The induction rule for acklist is

```
\llbracket \bigwedge n \ m \ l. \ P \ (ack \ m \ n \ \# \ l) \Longrightarrow P \ (n \ \# \ m \ \# \ l); \ \bigwedge m. \ P \ [m]; \ P \ [] \rrbracket \Longrightarrow P \ a0
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{lemma} \ ackloop\_dom : \ ackloop\_dom \ l \\ \langle proof \rangle \end{array}
```

```
termination ackloop \langle proof \rangle
```

This result is trivial even by inspection of the function definitions (which faithfully follow the definition of Ackermann's function). All that we needed was termination.

```
lemma ackloop\_acklist: ackloop\ l = acklist\ l
\langle proof \rangle

theorem ack: ack\ m\ n = ackloop\ [n,m]
\langle proof \rangle
```

4 Cantor's Theorem

theory Cantor

end

```
imports Main
begin
```

4.1 Mathematical statement and proof

Cantor's Theorem states that there is no surjection from a set to its powerset. The proof works by diagonalization. E.g. see

- http://mathworld.wolfram.com/CantorDiagonalMethod.html
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantor's diagonal argument

```
theorem Cantor: \nexists f :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \ set. \ \forall \ A. \ \exists \ x. \ A = f \ x \ \langle proof \rangle
```

4.2 Automated proofs

These automated proofs are much shorter, but lack information why and how it works.

```
theorem \nexists f :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \ set. \ \forall A. \ \exists \ x. \ f \ x = A \langle proof \rangle
theorem \nexists f :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \ set. \ \forall A. \ \exists \ x. \ f \ x = A \langle proof \rangle
```

4.3 Elementary version in higher-order predicate logic

The subsequent formulation by passes set notation of HOL; it uses elementary λ -calculus and predicate logic, with standard introduction and elimination rules. This also shows that the proof does not require classical reasoning.

```
lemma iff\_contradiction:
assumes *: \neg A \longleftrightarrow A
shows False
\langle proof \rangle

theorem Cantor': \nexists f :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow bool. \forall A. \exists x. A = f x \langle proof \rangle
```

4.4 Classic Isabelle/HOL example

The following treatment of Cantor's Theorem follows the classic example from the early 1990s, e.g. see the file 92/HOL/ex/set.ML in Isabelle92 or [2, §18.7]. The old tactic scripts synthesize key information of the proof by refinement of schematic goal states. In contrast, the Isar proof needs to say explicitly what is proven.

Cantor's Theorem states that every set has more subsets than it has elements. It has become a favourite basic example in pure higher-order logic since it is so easily expressed:

```
\forall f :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow bool. \ \exists S :: \alpha \Rightarrow bool. \ \forall x :: \alpha. \ f \ x \neq S
```

Viewing types as sets, $\alpha \Rightarrow bool$ represents the powerset of α . This version of the theorem states that for every function from α to its powerset, some subset is outside its range. The Isabelle/Isar proofs below uses HOL's set theory, with the type α set and the operator range :: $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \beta$ set.

```
theorem \exists S. S \notin range (f :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a set) \langle proof \rangle
```

How much creativity is required? As it happens, Isabelle can prove this theorem automatically using best-first search. Depth-first search would diverge, but best-first search successfully navigates through the large search space. The context of Isabelle's classical prover contains rules for the relevant constructs of HOL's set theory.

```
theorem \exists S. S \notin range (f :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a set) \ \langle proof \rangle
```

end

5 Coherent Logic Problems

theory Coherent imports Main begin

no_notation

5.1 Equivalence of two versions of Pappus' Axiom

```
comp (infixl o 55) and relcomp (infixr O 75)

lemma p1p2:
assumes col\ a\ b\ c\ l\ \land\ col\ d\ e\ f\ m
and col\ b\ f\ g\ n\ \land\ col\ c\ e\ g\ o
and col\ b\ d\ h\ p\ \land\ col\ a\ e\ h\ q
and col\ c\ d\ i\ r\ \land\ col\ a\ f\ i\ s
and el\ n\ o\implies goal
and el\ n\ o\implies goal
and el\ s\ r\implies goal
and el\ s\ r\implies goal
and h\ A\ B\ C\ D\ col\ A\ B\ C\ D\implies pl\ A\ D
and h\ A\ B\ C\ D\ col\ A\ B\ C\ D\implies pl\ B\ D
and h\ A\ B\ C\ D\ col\ A\ B\ C\ D\implies pl\ C\ D
```

```
and \bigwedge A B. pl A B \Longrightarrow ep A A
     and \bigwedge A \ B. \ ep \ A \ B \Longrightarrow ep \ B \ A
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. ep A \ B \Longrightarrow ep B \ C \Longrightarrow ep A \ C
     and \bigwedge A B. pl A B \Longrightarrow el B B
     and \bigwedge A B. el A B \Longrightarrow el B A
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. el A \ B \Longrightarrow el \ B \ C \Longrightarrow el \ A \ C
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. ep A \ B \Longrightarrow pl \ B \ C \Longrightarrow pl \ A \ C
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. pl \ A \ B \Longrightarrow el \ B \ C \Longrightarrow pl \ A \ C
     and \bigwedge A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q.
                \operatorname{col} A \mathrel{B} \mathrel{C} \mathrel{D} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{col} \mathrel{E} \mathrel{F} \mathrel{G} \mathrel{H} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{col} \mathrel{B} \mathrel{G} \mathrel{I} \mathrel{J} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{col} \mathrel{C} \mathrel{F} \mathrel{I} \mathrel{K} \Longrightarrow
                col\ B\ E\ L\ M \Longrightarrow col\ A\ F\ L\ N \Longrightarrow col\ C\ E\ O\ P \Longrightarrow col\ A\ G\ O\ Q \Longrightarrow
               (\exists R. \ col \ I \ L \ O \ R) \lor pl \ A \ H \lor pl \ B \ H \lor pl \ C \ H \lor pl \ E \ D \lor pl \ F \ D \lor pl
GD
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C \ D. pl \ A \ B \Longrightarrow pl \ A \ C \Longrightarrow pl \ D \ B \Longrightarrow pl \ D \ C \Longrightarrow ep \ A \ D \lor el
B C
     and \bigwedge A B. ep A A \Longrightarrow ep B B \Longrightarrow \exists C. pl A C \land pl B C
   shows goal \langle proof \rangle
lemma p2p1:
   assumes col\ a\ b\ c\ l\ \wedge\ col\ d\ e\ f\ m
     and col\ b\ f\ g\ n\ \wedge\ col\ c\ e\ g\ o
     and col\ b\ d\ h\ p \wedge col\ a\ e\ h\ q
     and col\ c\ d\ i\ r \wedge col\ a\ f\ i\ s
     and pl \ a \ m \Longrightarrow goal
     and pl \ b \ m \Longrightarrow goal
     and pl \ c \ m \Longrightarrow goal
     and pl \ d \ l \Longrightarrow goal
     and pl \ e \ l \Longrightarrow goal
     and pl f l \Longrightarrow goal
     and \bigwedge A. pl\ g\ A \Longrightarrow pl\ h\ A \Longrightarrow pl\ i\ A \Longrightarrow goal
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C \ D. col \ A \ B \ C \ D \Longrightarrow pl \ A \ D
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C \ D. col \ A \ B \ C \ D \Longrightarrow pl \ B \ D
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C \ D. col \ A \ B \ C \ D \Longrightarrow pl \ C \ D
     and \bigwedge A \ B. \ pl \ A \ B \Longrightarrow ep \ A \ A
     and \bigwedge A B. ep A B \Longrightarrow ep B A
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. ep A \ B \Longrightarrow ep B \ C \Longrightarrow ep A \ C
     and \bigwedge A B. pl A B \Longrightarrow el B B
     and \bigwedge A \ B. \ el \ A \ B \Longrightarrow el \ B \ A
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. el \ A \ B \Longrightarrow el \ B \ C \Longrightarrow el \ A \ C
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. ep A \ B \Longrightarrow pl \ B \ C \Longrightarrow pl \ A \ C
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. pl \ A \ B \Longrightarrow el \ B \ C \Longrightarrow pl \ A \ C
     and \bigwedge A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q.
                col\ A\ B\ C\ J \Longrightarrow col\ D\ E\ F\ K \Longrightarrow col\ B\ F\ G\ L \Longrightarrow col\ C\ E\ G\ M \Longrightarrow
                col\ B\ D\ H\ N \Longrightarrow col\ A\ E\ H\ O \Longrightarrow col\ C\ D\ I\ P \Longrightarrow col\ A\ F\ I\ Q \Longrightarrow
                (\exists R. col G H I R) \lor el L M \lor el N O \lor el P Q
      and \bigwedge A \ B \ C \ D. pl \ C \ A \Longrightarrow pl \ C \ B \Longrightarrow pl \ D \ A \Longrightarrow pl \ D \ B \Longrightarrow ep \ C \ D \ \lor \ el
     and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. ep A \ A \Longrightarrow ep \ B \ B \Longrightarrow \exists \ C. pl A \ C \land pl \ B \ C
   shows goal \langle proof \rangle
```

5.2 Preservation of the Diamond Property under reflexive closure

```
lemma diamond:
  assumes reflexive_rewrite a b reflexive_rewrite a c
   and \bigwedge A. reflexive_rewrite b \ A \Longrightarrow reflexive\_rewrite \ c \ A \Longrightarrow goal
   and \bigwedge A. equalish A
   and \bigwedge A B. equalish A B \Longrightarrow equalish B A
   and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. equalish A \ B \Longrightarrow reflexive\_rewrite \ B \ C \Longrightarrow reflexive\_rewrite \ A
C
   and \bigwedge A B. equalish A B \Longrightarrow reflexive_rewrite A B
   and \bigwedge A B. rewrite A B \Longrightarrow reflexive_rewrite A B
   and \bigwedge A B. reflexive_rewrite A B \Longrightarrow equalish A B \vee rewrite A B
   and \bigwedge A \ B \ C. rewrite A \ B \Longrightarrow rewrite \ A \ C \Longrightarrow \exists \ D. rewrite B \ D \land rewrite \ C
D
  shows goal \langle proof \rangle
end
      Some Isar command definitions
6
theory Commands
imports Main
keywords
  print_test :: diag and
  global\_test :: thy\_decl and
  local\_test :: thy\_decl
begin
        Diagnostic command: no state change
6.1
\langle ML \rangle
print\_test x
print\_test \lambda x. x = a
        Old-style global theory declaration
6.2
\langle ML \rangle
global\_test a
global\_test b
print\_test a
        Local theory specification
6.3
\langle ML \rangle
local\_test true = True
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{print\_test} \ true \\ \mathbf{thm} \ true\_def \\ \\ \mathbf{local\_test} \ identity = \lambda x. \ x \\ \mathbf{print\_test} \ identity \ x \\ \mathbf{thm} \ identity\_def \\ \\ \mathbf{context} \ \mathbf{fixes} \ x \ y :: nat \\ \mathbf{begin} \\ \\ \mathbf{local\_test} \ test = x + y \\ \mathbf{print\_test} \ test \\ \mathbf{thm} \ test\_def \\ \\ \mathbf{end} \\ \\ \mathbf{print\_test} \ test \ 0 \ 1 \\ \mathbf{thm} \ test\_def \\ \\ \mathbf{end} \\ \\ \end{array}
```

7 The Drinker's Principle

```
theory Drinker
imports Main
begin
```

Here is another example of classical reasoning: the Drinker's Principle says that for some person, if he is drunk, everybody else is drunk!

We first prove a classical part of de-Morgan's law.

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{lemma} \ de\_Morgan: \\ \textbf{assumes} \lnot (\forall \, x. \, P \, x) \\ \textbf{shows} \ \exists \, x. \ \lnot P \, x \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \textbf{theorem} \ Drinker's\_Principle: \ \exists \, x. \ drunk \ x \longrightarrow (\forall \, x. \ drunk \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \textbf{end} \end{array}
```

8 Examples of function definitions

```
theory Functions imports Main HOL-Library.Monad_Syntax begin
```

8.1 Very basic

```
fun fib :: nat \Rightarrow nat

where

fib 0 = 1

| fib (Suc \ 0) = 1

| fib (Suc \ (Suc \ n)) = fib \ n + fib \ (Suc \ n)
```

Partial simp and induction rules:

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{thm} \ \textit{fib.psimps} \\ \textbf{thm} \ \textit{fib.pinduct} \end{array}
```

There is also a cases rule to distinguish cases along the definition:

 $\mathbf{thm}\ \mathit{fib.cases}$

Total simp and induction rules:

```
thm fib.simps
thm fib.induct
```

Elimination rules:

 ${f thm}\ fib.elims$

8.2 Currying

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{fun } add \\ \textbf{where} \\ add \ 0 \ y = y \\ \mid add \ (Suc \ x) \ y = Suc \ (add \ x \ y) \\ \\ \textbf{thm } add.simps \\ \textbf{thm } add.induct \ -- \ \text{Note the curried induction predicate} \end{array}
```

8.3 Nested recursion

```
function nz
where
nz \ \theta = \theta
\mid nz \ (Suc \ x) = nz \ (nz \ x)
\langle proof \rangle

lemma nz\_is\_zero: — A lemma we need to prove termination assumes trm: nz\_dom \ x
shows nz \ x = \theta
\langle proof \rangle

termination nz
\langle proof \rangle

thm nz.simps
thm nz.induct
```

8.3.1 Here comes McCarthy's 91-function

function $f91 :: nat \Rightarrow nat$

```
where
 f91 \ n = (if \ 100 < n \ then \ n - 10 \ else \ f91 \ (f91 \ (n + 11)))
\langle proof \rangle
Prove a lemma before attempting a termination proof:
lemma f91\_estimate:
  assumes trm: f91_dom n
  shows n < f91 \ n + 11
\langle proof \rangle
termination
\langle proof \rangle
Now trivial (even though it does not belong here):
lemma f91 \ n = (if \ 100 < n \ then \ n - 10 \ else \ 91)
  \langle proof \rangle
8.3.2
          Here comes Takeuchi's function
definition tak\_m1 where tak\_m1 = (\lambda(x,y,z)). if x \le y then 0 else 1
definition tak\_m2 where tak\_m2 = (\lambda(x,y,z). nat (Max <math>\{x, y, z\} - Min \{x, y, z\})
definition tak\_m3 where tak\_m3 = (\lambda(x,y,z). \ nat \ (x - Min \ \{x, y, z\}))
function tak :: int \Rightarrow int \Rightarrow int \Rightarrow int where
 tak \ x \ y \ z = (if \ x \le y \ then \ y \ else \ tak \ (tak \ (x-1) \ y \ z) \ (tak \ (y-1) \ z \ x) \ (tak \ (z-1)
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma tak_pcorrect:
  tak\_dom(x, y, z) \Longrightarrow tak \ x \ y \ z = (if \ x \le y \ then \ y \ else \ if \ y \le z \ then \ z \ else \ x)
  \langle proof \rangle
termination
  \langle proof \rangle
theorem tak\_correct: tak x y z = (if x \le y then y else if y \le z then z else x)
  \langle proof \rangle
```

8.4 More general patterns

8.4.1 Overlapping patterns

Currently, patterns must always be compatible with each other, since no automatic splitting takes place. But the following definition of GCD is OK, although patterns overlap:

```
fun gcd2 :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat
where
  gcd2 \ x \ \theta = x
| gcd2 \ 0 \ y = y
| gcd2 (Suc x) (Suc y) = (if x < y then gcd2 (Suc x) (y - x))|
                                  else gcd2 (x - y) (Suc y)
thm gcd2.simps
\mathbf{thm}\ gcd2.induct
```

8.4.2Guards

We can reformulate the above example using guarded patterns:

```
function gcd3 :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat
where
  gcd3 \ x \ \theta = x
| gcd3 \ 0 \ y = y
 gcd3 (Suc x) (Suc y) = gcd3 (Suc x) (y - x) if x < y
| gcd3 (Suc x) (Suc y) = gcd3 (x - y) (Suc y)  if \neg x < y
  \langle proof \rangle
termination \langle proof \rangle
thm gcd3.simps
\mathbf{thm}\ gcd3.induct
General patterns allow even strange definitions:
```

```
function ev :: nat \Rightarrow bool
where
  ev(2*n) = True
| ev (2 * n + 1) = False
\langle proof \rangle
termination \langle proof \rangle
\mathbf{thm}\ ev.simps
{f thm}\ ev.induct
{f thm}\ ev.cases
```

Mutual Recursion 8.5

```
fun evn od :: nat \Rightarrow bool
where
  evn \ \theta = True
 od \ \theta = False
 evn (Suc n) = od n
\mid od (Suc \ n) = evn \ n
{f thm}\ evn.simps
{f thm}\ od.simps
```

```
thm evn_od.induct
thm evn_od.termination
thm evn.elims
thm od.elims
```

8.6 Definitions in local contexts

```
locale my\_monoid =
 fixes opr :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'a
   and un :: 'a
 assumes assoc: opr(opr x y) z = opr x (opr y z)
   and lunit: opr un x = x
   and runit: opr x un = x
begin
fun foldR :: 'a \ list \Rightarrow 'a
where
 foldR [] = un
| foldR (x \# xs) = opr x (foldR xs)
fun foldL :: 'a \ list \Rightarrow 'a
where
 foldL[] = un
| foldL [x] = x
| foldL (x \# y \# ys) = foldL (opr x y \# ys)
\mathbf{thm}\ fold L. simps
lemma foldR\_foldL: foldR xs = foldL xs
  \langle proof \rangle
thm foldR\_foldL
end
{f thm}\ my\_monoid.foldL.simps
thm my_monoid.foldR_foldL
      fun\_cases
8.7.1 Predecessor
fun pred :: nat \Rightarrow nat
where
 pred \theta = \theta
\mid pred (Suc \ n) = n
thm pred.elims
```

lemma

```
assumes pred \ x = y
obtains x = 0 \ y = 0 \ | \ n where x = Suc \ n \ y = n
\langle proof \rangle
```

If the predecessor of a number is 0, that number must be 0 or 1.

fun_cases $pred\theta E[elim]$: $pred\ n = \theta$

lemma
$$pred \ n = 0 \Longrightarrow n = 0 \lor n = Suc \ 0$$

 $\langle proof \rangle$

Other expressions on the right-hand side also work, but whether the generated rule is useful depends on how well the simplifier can simplify it. This example works well:

fun_cases pred42E[elim]: pred n = 42

lemma
$$pred \ n = 42 \Longrightarrow n = 43$$
 $\langle proof \rangle$

8.7.2 List to option

```
fun list\_to\_option :: 'a \ list \Rightarrow 'a \ option where list\_to\_option \ [x] = Some \ x | \ list\_to\_option \ \_ = None
```

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{fun_cases} \ \mathit{list_to_option_None}E \colon \mathit{list_to_option} \ \mathit{xs} = \mathit{None} \\ \mathbf{and} \ \mathit{list_to_option_Some}E \colon \mathit{list_to_option} \ \mathit{xs} = \mathit{Some} \ \mathit{x} \end{array}$

```
lemma list\_to\_option \ xs = Some \ y \Longrightarrow xs = [y] \ \langle proof \rangle
```

8.7.3 Boolean Functions

```
fun xor :: bool \Rightarrow bool \Rightarrow bool
where
xor \ False \ False = False
| \ xor \ True \ True = False
| \ xor \ \_ = True
```

thm xor.elims

fun_cases does not only recognise function equations, but also works with functions that return a boolean, e.g.:

8.7.4 Many parameters

```
fun sum4 :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat
where sum4 a b c d = a + b + c + d

fun_cases sum40E: sum4 a b c d = 0

lemma sum4 a b c d = 0 \Longrightarrow a = 0
\langle proof \rangle
```

8.8 Partial Function Definitions

Partial functions in the option monad:

```
partial_function (option)
  collatz :: nat \Rightarrow nat \ list \ option

where
  collatz n =
  (if n \leq 1 \ then \ Some \ [n]
  else if even n
  then do { ns \leftarrow collatz \ (n \ div \ 2); \ Some \ (n \ \# \ ns) \ }
  else do { ns \leftarrow collatz \ (3 * n + 1); \ Some \ (n \ \# \ ns) \ })

declare collatz.simps[code]

value collatz \ 23

Tail-recursive functions:

partial_function (tailrec) fixpoint :: ('a \Rightarrow 'a) \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'a

where
  fixpoint f \ x = (if \ f \ x = x \ then \ x \ else fixpoint \ f \ (f \ x))
```

8.9 Regression tests

The following examples mainly serve as tests for the function package.

```
fun listlen :: 'a \ list \Rightarrow nat
where
listlen \ [] = 0
| \ listlen \ (x\#xs) = Suc \ (listlen \ xs)
```

8.9.1 Context recursion

```
fun f :: nat \Rightarrow nat
where
zero: f \ 0 = 0
| succ: f \ (Suc \ n) = (if f \ n = 0 \ then \ 0 \ else \ f \ n)
```

8.9.2 A combination of context and nested recursion

```
function h :: nat \Rightarrow nat where
```

```
\begin{array}{l} h \ 0 = 0 \\ | \ h \ (Suc \ n) = (if \ h \ n = 0 \ then \ h \ (h \ n) \ else \ h \ n) \\ \langle proof \rangle \end{array}
```

8.9.3 Context, but no recursive call

```
fun i :: nat \Rightarrow nat
where
i \ 0 = 0
\mid i \ (Suc \ n) = (if \ n = 0 \ then \ 0 \ else \ i \ n)
```

8.9.4 Tupled nested recursion

```
fun fa :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat

where

fa \ 0 \ y = 0

| fa \ (Suc \ n) \ y = (if \ fa \ n \ y = 0 \ then \ 0 \ else \ fa \ n \ y)
```

8.9.5 Let

```
fun j :: nat \Rightarrow nat

where

j \ 0 = 0

| \ j \ (Suc \ n) = (let \ u = n \ in \ Suc \ (j \ u))
```

There were some problems with fresh names ...

```
function k :: nat \Rightarrow nat
where
k x = (let \ a = x; \ b = x \ in \ k \ x)
\langle proof \rangle
```

function
$$f2 :: (nat \times nat) \Rightarrow (nat \times nat)$$

where
 $f2 \ p = (let \ (x,y) = p \ in \ f2 \ (y,x))$
 $\langle proof \rangle$

8.9.6 Abbreviations

```
fun f3 :: 'a set \Rightarrow bool where

f3 x = finite x
```

8.9.7 Simple Higher-Order Recursion

datatype 'a tree = Leaf 'a | Branch 'a tree list

fun treemap ::
$$('a \Rightarrow 'a) \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree}$$

where
treemap fn (Leaf n) = (Leaf (fn n))

```
| treemap fn (Branch l) = (Branch (map (treemap fn) l))
\mathbf{fun} \ \mathit{tinc} :: \mathit{nat} \ \mathit{tree} \Rightarrow \mathit{nat} \ \mathit{tree}
where
  tinc (Leaf n) = Leaf (Suc n)
| tinc (Branch l) = Branch (map tinc l)
fun testcase :: 'a tree \Rightarrow 'a list
where
  testcase (Leaf a) = [a]
\mid testcase (Branch x) =
   (let xs = concat (map testcase x);
        ys = concat (map \ testcase \ x) \ in
    xs @ ys)
8.9.8
          Pattern matching on records
\mathbf{record}\ point =
  Xcoord :: int
  Ycoord :: int
function swp :: point \Rightarrow point
  swp (|Xcoord = x, Ycoord = y|) = (|Xcoord = y, Ycoord = x|)
\langle proof \rangle
termination \langle proof \rangle
8.9.9
          The diagonal function
fun diag :: bool \Rightarrow bool \Rightarrow bool \Rightarrow nat
where
  diag \ x \ True \ False = 1
 diag\ False\ y\ True = 2
 diag\ True\ False\ z=3
 diag True True True = 4
 diag\ False\ False\ False\ =\ 5
8.9.10 Many equations (quadratic blowup)
datatype DT =
 A \mid B \mid C \mid D \mid E \mid F \mid G \mid H \mid I \mid J \mid K \mid L \mid M \mid N \mid P
|Q|R|S|T|U|V
fun big :: DT \Rightarrow nat
where
  big A = 0
 big B = 0
 big C = 0
 big D = 0
| big E = 0
```

```
big F = 0
big G = 0
big\ H=0
big\ I = 0
big J = 0
big K = 0
big L = 0
big\ M=0
big N = 0
\mathit{big}\; P = \mathit{0}
big Q = 0
big R = 0
big S = 0
big T = 0
big\ U = 0
big\ V = 0
```

8.9.11 Automatic pattern splitting

```
fun f4 :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow bool
where
f4 \ 0 \ 0 = True
| f4 \ \_ \ \_ = False
```

8.9.12 Polymorphic partial-function

```
partial_function (option) f5 :: 'a list \Rightarrow 'a option where f5 x = f5 x
```

 $\quad \mathbf{end} \quad$

9 Groebner Basis Examples

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{theory} \ \textit{Groebner\_Examples} \\ \textbf{imports} \ \textit{Main} \\ \textbf{begin} \end{array}
```

9.1 Basic examples

```
lemma fixes x :: int shows x ^3 = x ^3 \langle proof \rangle
lemma fixes x :: int shows (x - (-2))^5 = x ^5 + (10 * x ^4 + (40 * x ^3 + (80 * x^2 + (80 * x + 32))))
```

```
\langle proof \rangle
schematic\_goal
 fixes x :: int
 shows (x - (-2))^5 * (y - 78)^8 = ?X
 \langle proof \rangle
\mathbf{lemma} ((-3) \land (Suc (Suc (Suc (0)))) == (X::'a::\{comm\_ring\_1\})
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma ((x::int) + y)^3 - 1 = (x - z)^2 - 10 \Longrightarrow x = z + 3 \Longrightarrow x = -y
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma (4::nat) + 4 = 3 + 5
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma (4::int) + \theta = 4
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma
 assumes a * x^2 + b * x + c = (0::int) and d * x^2 + e * x + f = 0
 shows d^2 * c^2 - 2 * d * c * a * f + a^2 * f^2 - e * d * b * c - e * b * a * f +
   a * e^2 * c + f * d * b^2 = 0
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma (x::int)^3 - x^2 - 5*x - 3 = 0 \longleftrightarrow (x = 3 \lor x = -1)
 \langle proof \rangle
theorem x*(x^2 - x - 5) - 3 = (0::int) \longleftrightarrow (x = 3 \lor x = -1)
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma
 fixes x::'a::idom
 shows x^2 * y = x^2 \& x * y^2 = y^2 \longleftrightarrow x = 1 \& y = 1 | x = 0 \& y = 0
 \langle proof \rangle
9.2
       Lemmas for Lagrange's theorem
definition
 sq :: 'a :: times => 'a  where
 sq x == x*x
lemma
 fixes x1 :: 'a::{idom}
 shows
 (sq x1 + sq x2 + sq x3 + sq x4) * (sq y1 + sq y2 + sq y3 + sq y4) =
   sq (x1*y1 - x2*y2 - x3*y3 - x4*y4) +
   sq (x1*y2 + x2*y1 + x3*y4 - x4*y3) +
   sq(x1*y3 - x2*y4 + x3*y1 + x4*y2) +
```

```
sq(x1*y4 + x2*y3 - x3*y2 + x4*y1)
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma
 fixes p1 :: 'a::{idom}
 shows
 (sq p1 + sq q1 + sq r1 + sq s1 + sq t1 + sq u1 + sq v1 + sq w1) *
  (sq p2 + sq q2 + sq r2 + sq s2 + sq t2 + sq u2 + sq v2 + sq w2)
  = sq \left( p1 * p2 - q1 * q2 - r1 * r2 - s1 * s2 - t1 * t2 - u1 * u2 - v1 * v2 - w1 * w2 \right)
   sq(p1*q2+q1*p2+r1*s2-s1*r2+t1*u2-u1*t2-v1*w2+w1*v2)
   sq(p1*r2-q1*s2+r1*p2+s1*q2+t1*v2+u1*w2-v1*t2-w1*u2)
+
   sq(p1*s2 + q1*r2 - r1*q2 + s1*p2 + t1*w2 - u1*v2 + v1*u2 - w1*t2)
+
   sq(p1*t2-q1*u2-r1*v2-s1*w2+t1*p2+u1*q2+v1*r2+w1*s2)
+
   sq(p1*u2 + q1*t2 - r1*w2 + s1*v2 - t1*q2 + u1*p2 - v1*s2 + w1*r2)
+
   sq(p1*v2 + q1*w2 + r1*t2 - s1*u2 - t1*r2 + u1*s2 + v1*p2 - w1*q2)
    sq(p1*w2 - q1*v2 + r1*u2 + s1*t2 - t1*s2 - u1*r2 + v1*q2 + w1*p2)
 \langle proof \rangle
```

9.3 Colinearity is invariant by rotation

```
type_synonym point = int \times int
```

```
definition collinear ::point \Rightarrow point \Rightarrow point \Rightarrow bool where collinear \equiv \lambda(Ax,Ay) (Bx,By) (Cx,Cy). ((Ax-Bx)*(By-Cy)=(Ay-By)*(Bx-Cx))

lemma collinear_inv_rotation:
assumes collinear (Ax,Ay) (Bx,By) (Cx,Cy) and c^2+s^2=1
shows collinear (Ax*c-Ay*s,Ay*c+Ax*s)
(Bx*c-By*s,By*c+Bx*s) (Cx*c-Cy*s,Cy*c+Cx*s)
\langle proof \rangle

lemma \exists (d::int).\ a*y-a*x=n*d \Longrightarrow \exists u\ v.\ a*u+n*v=1 \Longrightarrow \exists e.\ y-x=n*e
\langle proof \rangle
```

10 Example of Declaring an Oracle

theory Iff_Oracle imports Main

end

begin

10.1 Oracle declaration

This oracle makes tautologies of the form P = (P = (P = P)). The length is specified by an integer, which is checked to be even and positive. $\langle ML \rangle$

10.2 Oracle as low-level rule

 $\langle ML \rangle$

These oracle calls had better fail.

 $\langle ML \rangle$

10.3 Oracle as proof method

 $\langle ML \rangle$

$$\mathbf{lemma} \ A \longleftrightarrow A$$
$$\langle proof \rangle$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{lemma} \ A \longleftrightarrow A \longleftrightarrow A \longleftrightarrow A \longleftrightarrow A \end{array}$$

$$\langle proof \rangle$$

lemma $A \langle proof \rangle$

end

11 Examples of automatically derived induction rules

theory Induction_Schema imports Main begin

11.1 Some simple induction principles on nat

$$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{lemma} \ nat_standard_induct: \\ \llbracket P \ \theta; \ \bigwedge n. \ P \ n \Longrightarrow P \ (Suc \ n) \rrbracket \Longrightarrow P \ x \\ \langle proof \rangle \end{array}$$

lemma $nat_induct2$:

```
\llbracket P \ \theta; P \ (Suc \ \theta); \bigwedge k. \ P \ k ==> P \ (Suc \ k) ==> P \ (Suc \ (Suc \ k)) \ \rrbracket
  \Longrightarrow P n
\langle proof \rangle
lemma minus one induct:
  \llbracket \bigwedge n :: nat. \ (n \neq 0 \Longrightarrow P \ (n-1)) \Longrightarrow P \ n \rrbracket \Longrightarrow P \ x
\langle proof \rangle
{\bf theorem}\ \mathit{diff\_induct} :
   (!!x. \ P \ x \ 0) ==> (!!y. \ P \ 0 \ (Suc \ y)) ==>
     (!!x y. P x y ==> P (Suc x) (Suc y)) ==> P m n
\langle proof \rangle
lemma list_induct2':
  \llbracket P \sqcap \Pi ;
  \bigwedge x \ xs. \ P \ (x \# xs) \ [];
  \bigwedge y \ ys. \ P \ [] \ (y\#ys);
   \bigwedge x \ xs \ y \ ys. \ P \ xs \ ys \implies P \ (x\#xs) \ (y\#ys) \ ]
 \implies P xs ys
\langle proof \rangle
{\bf theorem}\ even\_odd\_induct:
  assumes R \theta
  assumes Q \theta
  assumes \bigwedge n. Q n \Longrightarrow R (Suc n)
  assumes \bigwedge n. R n \Longrightarrow Q (Suc n)
  shows R \ n \ Q \ n
   \langle proof \rangle
```

12 Textbook-style reasoning: the Knaster-Tarski Theorem

```
\begin{array}{c} \textbf{theory} \ \textit{Knaster\_Tarski} \\ \textbf{imports} \ \textit{Main} \\ \textbf{begin} \end{array}
```

end

unbundle lattice_syntax

12.1 Prose version

According to the textbook [1, pages 93–94], the Knaster-Tarski fixpoint theorem is as follows.¹

The Knaster-Tarski Fixpoint Theorem. Let L be a complete lattice and $f: L \to L$ an order-preserving map. Then $\prod \{x \in L \mid f(x) \leq x\}$ is a

¹We have dualized the argument, and tuned the notation a little bit.

fixpoint of f.

Proof. Let $H = \{x \in L \mid f(x) \leq x\}$ and $a = \prod H$. For all $x \in H$ we have $a \leq x$, so $f(a) \leq f(x) \leq x$. Thus f(a) is a lower bound of H, whence $f(a) \leq a$. We now use this inequality to prove the reverse one (!) and thereby complete the proof that a is a fixpoint. Since f is order-preserving, $f(f(a)) \leq f(a)$. This says $f(a) \in H$, so $a \leq f(a)$.

12.2 Formal versions

The Isar proof below closely follows the original presentation. Virtually all of the prose narration has been rephrased in terms of formal Isar language elements. Just as many textbook-style proofs, there is a strong bias towards forward proof, and several bends in the course of reasoning.

```
theorem Knaster\_Tarski:
fixes f :: 'a :: complete\_lattice \Rightarrow 'a
assumes mono\ f
shows \exists\ a.\ f\ a = a
\langle proof \rangle
```

Above we have used several advanced Isar language elements, such as explicit block structure and weak assumptions. Thus we have mimicked the particular way of reasoning of the original text.

In the subsequent version the order of reasoning is changed to achieve structured top-down decomposition of the problem at the outer level, while only the inner steps of reasoning are done in a forward manner. We are certainly more at ease here, requiring only the most basic features of the Isar language.

```
theorem Knaster\_Tarski':

fixes f:: 'a::complete\_lattice \Rightarrow 'a

assumes mono\ f

shows \exists\ a.\ f\ a=a

\langle proof \rangle
```

 \mathbf{end}

13 Isabelle/ML basics

```
theory ML imports Main begin
```

13.1 ML expressions

The Isabelle command ML allows to embed Isabelle/ML source into the formal text. It is type-checked, compiled, and run within that environment.

Note that side-effects should be avoided, unless the intention is to change global parameters of the run-time environment (rare).

ML top-level bindings are managed within the theory context.

 $\langle ML \rangle$

13.2 Antiquotations

There are some language extensions (via antiquotations), as explained in the "Isabelle/Isar implementation manual", chapter 0.

 $\langle ML \rangle$

Formal entities from the surrounding context may be referenced as follows:

term 1 + 1 — term within theory source

 $\langle ML \rangle$

13.3 Recursive ML evaluation

 $\langle ML \rangle$

13.4 IDE support

ML embedded into the Isabelle environment is connected to the Prover IDE. Poly/ML provides:

- precise positions for warnings / errors
- markup for defining positions of identifiers
- markup for inferred types of sub-expressions
- pretty-printing of ML values with markup
- completion of ML names
- source-level debugger

 $\langle ML \rangle$

13.5 Example: factorial and ackermann function in Isabelle/ML

 $\langle ML \rangle$

See http://mathworld.wolfram.com/AckermannFunction.html.

 $\langle ML \rangle$

13.6 Parallel Isabelle/ML

Future.fork/join/cancel manage parallel evaluation.

Note that within Isabelle theory documents, the top-level command boundary may not be transgressed without special precautions. This is normally managed by the system when performing parallel proof checking.

 $\langle ML \rangle$

The Par_List module provides high-level combinators for parallel list operations.

 $\langle ML \rangle$

13.7 Function specifications in Isabelle/HOL

```
fun factorial :: nat \Rightarrow nat
where
factorial 0 = 1
| factorial (Suc \ n) = Suc \ n * factorial \ n

term factorial 4 — symbolic term
value factorial 4 — evaluation via ML code generation in the background

declare [[ML\_source\_trace]]
\langle ML \rangle

fun ackermann :: nat \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow nat
where
    ackermann 0 \ n = n + 1
| ackermann (Suc \ m) \ 0 = ackermann \ m \ 1
| ackermann (Suc \ m) \ (Suc \ n) = ackermann \ m \ (ackermann \ (Suc \ m) \ n)

value ackermann \ 3 \ 5
end
```

14 Peirce's Law

```
theory Peirce
imports Main
begin
```

We consider Peirce's Law: $((A \longrightarrow B) \longrightarrow A) \longrightarrow A$. This is an inherently non-intuitionistic statement, so its proof will certainly involve some form of classical contradiction.

The first proof is again a well-balanced combination of plain backward and forward reasoning. The actual classical step is where the negated goal may

be introduced as additional assumption. This eventually leads to a contradiction. 2

theorem
$$((A \longrightarrow B) \longrightarrow A) \longrightarrow A$$
 $\langle proof \rangle$

In the subsequent version the reasoning is rearranged by means of "weak assumptions" (as introduced by **presume**). Before assuming the negated goal $\neg A$, its intended consequence $A \longrightarrow B$ is put into place in order to solve the main problem. Nevertheless, we do not get anything for free, but have to establish $A \longrightarrow B$ later on. The overall effect is that of a logical cut.

Technically speaking, whenever some goal is solved by **show** in the context of weak assumptions then the latter give rise to new subgoals, which may be established separately. In contrast, strong assumptions (as introduced by **assume**) are solved immediately.

theorem
$$((A \longrightarrow B) \longrightarrow A) \longrightarrow A$$
 $\langle proof \rangle$

Note that the goals stemming from weak assumptions may be even left until qed time, where they get eventually solved "by assumption" as well. In that case there is really no fundamental difference between the two kinds of assumptions, apart from the order of reducing the individual parts of the proof configuration.

Nevertheless, the "strong" mode of plain assumptions is quite important in practice to achieve robustness of proof text interpretation. By forcing both the conclusion and the assumptions to unify with the pending goal to be solved, goal selection becomes quite deterministic. For example, decomposition with rules of the "case-analysis" type usually gives rise to several goals that only differ in there local contexts. With strong assumptions these may be still solved in any order in a predictable way, while weak ones would quickly lead to great confusion, eventually demanding even some backtracking.

end

15 Using extensible records in HOL – points and coloured points

theory Records imports Main begin

²The rule involved there is negation elimination; it holds in intuitionistic logic as well.

15.1 Points

```
\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{record} \ point = \\ xpos :: nat \\ ypos :: nat \end{array}
```

Apart many other things, above record declaration produces the following theorems:

```
thm point.simps
thm point.iffs
thm point.defs
```

The set of theorems *point.simps* is added automatically to the standard simpset, *point.iffs* is added to the Classical Reasoner and Simplifier context.

Record declarations define new types and type abbreviations:

```
point = (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat) = () point_ext_type
'a point_scheme = (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat, ... :: 'a) = 'a point_ext_type

consts foo2 :: (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat)

consts foo4 :: 'a \Rightarrow (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat, ... :: 'a)
```

15.1.1 Introducing concrete records and record schemes

```
definition foo1 :: point

where foo1 = (|xpos = 1, ypos = 0|)

definition foo3 :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \ point\_scheme

where foo3 \ ext = (|xpos = 1, ypos = 0, ... = ext|)
```

15.1.2 Record selection and record update

```
definition getX :: 'a \ point\_scheme \Rightarrow nat

where getX \ r = xpos \ r

definition setX :: 'a \ point\_scheme \Rightarrow nat \Rightarrow 'a \ point\_scheme

where setX \ r \ n = r \ (|xpos := n|)
```

15.1.3 Some lemmas about records

Basic simplifications.

```
lemma point.make n p = (|xpos = n, ypos = p)

\langle proof \rangle

lemma xpos (|xpos = m, ypos = n, ... = p) = m

\langle proof \rangle

lemma (|xpos = m, ypos = n, ... = p)(|xpos = 0) = (|xpos = 0, ypos = n, ... = p)
```

```
\langle proof \rangle
Equality of records.
lemma n = n' \Longrightarrow p = p' \Longrightarrow (xpos = n, ypos = p) = (xpos = n', ypos = p')
   - introduction of concrete record equality
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma (xpos = n, ypos = p) = (xpos = n', ypos = p') \implies n = n'
 — elimination of concrete record equality
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma r(xpos := n)(ypos := m) = r(ypos := m)(xpos := n)
  — introduction of abstract record equality
  \langle proof \rangle
lemma r(xpos := n) = r(xpos := n') if n = n'
  — elimination of abstract record equality (manual proof)
\langle proof \rangle
Surjective pairing
lemma r = (xpos = xpos \ r, ypos = ypos \ r)
 \langle proof \rangle
lemma r = (xpos = xpos \ r, ypos = ypos \ r, \dots = point.more \ r)
 \langle proof \rangle
Representation of records by cases or (degenerate) induction.
lemma r(xpos := n)(ypos := m) = r(ypos := m)(xpos := n)
\langle proof \rangle
lemma r(xpos := n)(ypos := m) = r(ypos := m)(xpos := n)
\langle proof \rangle
lemma r(xpos := n)(xpos := m) = r(xpos := m)
\langle proof \rangle
lemma r(xpos := n)(xpos := m) = r(xpos := m)
\langle proof \rangle
lemma r(xpos := n)(xpos := m) = r(xpos := m)
 \langle proof \rangle
Concrete records are type instances of record schemes.
definition foo5 :: nat
 where foo5 = getX (xpos = 1, ypos = 0)
```

Manipulating the "..." (more) part.

```
definition incX :: 'a \ point\_scheme \Rightarrow 'a \ point\_scheme
where incX \ r = (xpos = xpos \ r + 1, \ ypos = ypos \ r, \ldots = point.more \ r)
lemma incX \ r = setX \ r \ (Suc \ (getX \ r))
\langle proof \rangle
```

An alternative definition.

```
definition incX' :: 'a \ point\_scheme \Rightarrow 'a \ point\_scheme

where incX' \ r = r(xpos := xpos \ r + 1)
```

15.2 Coloured points: record extension

```
datatype colour = Red | Green | Blue
record cpoint = point +
  colour :: colour
```

The record declaration defines a new type constructor and abbreviations:

```
cpoint = (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat, colour :: colour) =
   () cpoint__ext__type point__ext__type
'a cpoint__scheme = (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat, colour :: colour, ... :: 'a) =
   'a cpoint__ext__type point__ext__type

consts foo6 :: cpoint
   consts foo7 :: (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat, colour :: colour))
   consts foo8 :: 'a cpoint__scheme
   consts foo9 :: (|xpos :: nat, ypos :: nat, colour :: colour, ... :: 'a))

Functions on point schemes work for cpoints as well.

definition foo10 :: nat
   where foo10 = getX (|xpos = 2, ypos = 0, colour = Blue))
```

15.2.1 Non-coercive structural subtyping

```
Term foo11 has type cpoint, not type point — Great!

definition foo11 :: cpoint

where foo11 = setX \ (xpos = 2, ypos = 0, colour = Blue) \ 0
```

15.3 Other features

Field names contribute to record identity.

```
record point' = xpos' :: nat ypos' :: nat
May not apply getX to (xpos' = 2, ypos' = 0) — type error.
```

Polymorphic records.

```
record 'a point'' = point + content :: 'a
```

type_synonym cpoint'' = colour point''

Updating a record field with an identical value is simplified.

lemma
$$r(|xpos| = xpos r) = r$$

 $\langle proof \rangle$

Only the most recent update to a component survives simplification.

lemma
$$r(xpos := x, ypos := y, xpos := x') = r(ypos := y, xpos := x') \langle proof \rangle$$

In some cases its convenient to automatically split (quantified) records. For this purpose there is the simproc Record.split_simproc and the tactic Record.split_simp_tac. The simplification procedure only splits the records, whereas the tactic also simplifies the resulting goal with the standard record simplification rules. A (generalized) predicate on the record is passed as parameter that decides whether or how 'deep' to split the record. It can peek on the subterm starting at the quantified occurrence of the record (including the quantifier). The value 0 indicates no split, a value greater 0 splits up to the given bound of record extension and finally the value ~1 completely splits the record. Record.split_simp_tac additionally takes a list of equations for simplification and can also split fixed record variables.

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{lemma} \ (\forall \, r. \, P \ (xpos \ r)) \longrightarrow (\forall \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \mathbf{lemma} \ (\forall \, r. \, P \ (xpos \ r)) \longrightarrow (\forall \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \mathbf{lemma} \ (\exists \, r. \, P \ (xpos \ r)) \longrightarrow (\exists \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \mathbf{lemma} \ \bigwedge r. \, P \ (xpos \ r) \Longrightarrow (\exists \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \mathbf{lemma} \ \bigwedge r. \, P \ (xpos \ r) \Longrightarrow (\exists \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \mathbf{lemma} \ \bigwedge r. \, P \ (xpos \ r) \Longrightarrow (\exists \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \\ \\ \mathbf{lemma} \ P \ (xpos \ r) \Longrightarrow (\exists \, x. \, P \ x) \\ \langle proof \rangle \end{array}$$

```
\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{begin} \\ \langle \mathit{proof} \rangle \\ \mathbf{end} \end{array}
```

The effect of simproc Record.ex_sel_eq_simproc is illustrated by the following lemma.

```
lemma \exists r. xpos r = x \langle proof \rangle
```

15.4 A more complex record expression

```
record ('a, 'b, 'c) bar = bar1 :: 'a

bar2 :: 'b

bar3 :: 'c

bar21 :: 'b \times 'a

bar32 :: 'c \times 'b

bar31 :: 'c \times 'a

print_record ('a,'b,'c) bar
```

15.5 Some code generation

```
export_code foo1 foo3 foo5 foo10 checking SML
```

Code generation can also be switched off, for instance for very large records:

```
\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{declare} \ [[record\_codegen = false]] \\ \\ \mathbf{record} \ not\_so\_large\_record = \\ bar520 :: nat \\ bar521 :: nat \times nat \\ \\ \mathbf{declare} \ [[record\_codegen = true]] \\ \\ \mathbf{end} \end{array}
```

16 Finite sequences

```
theory Seq imports Main begin

datatype 'a seq = Empty \mid Seq 'a 'a seq

fun conc :: 'a seq \Rightarrow 'a seq \Rightarrow 'a seq

where

conc \ Empty \ ys = ys

| \ conc \ (Seq \ x \ xs) \ ys = Seq \ x \ (conc \ xs \ ys)
```

```
fun reverse :: 'a seq \Rightarrow 'a seq
where
reverse Empty = Empty
| reverse (Seq x xs) = conc (reverse xs) (Seq x Empty)

lemma conc_empty: conc xs Empty = xs
\langle proof \rangle

lemma conc_assoc: conc (conc xs ys) zs = conc xs (conc ys zs)
\langle proof \rangle

lemma reverse_conc: reverse (conc xs ys) = conc (reverse ys) (reverse xs)
\langle proof \rangle

lemma reverse_reverse: reverse (reverse xs) = xs
\langle proof \rangle
```

17 Square roots of primes are irrational

```
theory Sqrt imports Complex\_Main\ HOL-Computational\_Algebra.Primes begin

The square root of any prime number (including 2) is irrational. theorem sqrt\_prime\_irrational: fixes p::nat assumes prime\ p shows sqrt\ p \notin \mathbb{Q} \langle proof \rangle corollary sqrt\_2\_not\_rat:\ sqrt\ 2 \notin \mathbb{Q}
```

Here is an alternative version of the main proof, using mostly linear forward-reasoning. While this results in less top-down structure, it is probably closer to proofs seen in mathematics.

```
theorem fixes p :: nat assumes prime\ p shows sqrt\ p \notin \mathbb{Q} \langle proof \rangle
```

 $\langle proof \rangle$

Another old chestnut, which is a consequence of the irrationality of sqrt 2.

```
lemma \exists a \ b :: real. \ a \notin \mathbb{Q} \land b \notin \mathbb{Q} \land a \ powr \ b \in \mathbb{Q} \ (\mathbf{is} \ \exists \ a \ b. \ ?P \ a \ b) \langle proof \rangle
```

 $\quad \text{end} \quad$

References

- [1] B. A. Davey and H. A. Priestley. *Introduction to Lattices and Order*. Cambridge University Press, 1990.
- [2] L. C. Paulson. *Isabelle: A Generic Theorem Prover*. Springer, 1994. LNCS 828.