

Mechanized semantics, eight lecture

# Coq in Coq: Mechanizing the logic of a proof assistant

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"This course is an introduction to the formal semantics of programming languages and to their uses for building and validating programming tools and verification tools:

- type systems;
- program logics;
- static analyzers;
- compilers.

All definitions, properties and proofs are mechanized using the Coq proof assistant.

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- compilers.

All definitions, properties and proofs are mechanized using the Coq proof assistant.

- Throughout the course, we used Coq as a programming tool and a verification tool.
- Can we trust this tool?
- Which formalisms could help validate this tool?

Inadequacy: what is proved is not what you think.

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```
Require Import Arith. (Chris Casinghino, 2009-04-01)
(* BEGIN PROOF OF FERMAT"S LAST THEOREM *)
Theorem fermat : forall n x y z,
    n > 2 ->
    x > 0 -> y > 0 -> z > 0 ->
    x ^ n + y ^ n <> z ^ n.
Proof.
    intros n x y z. trivial.
Qed.
(* END PROOF OF FERMAT"S LAST THEOREM *)
```

Inadequacy: what is proved is not what you think.

Admitted proofs; axioms that are false or inconsistent.

Example: some classical logic axioms are inconsistent with the -impredicative-set option of Coq.

Inadequacy: what is proved is not what you think.

Admitted proofs; axioms that are false or inconsistent.

A bug in a critical part of Coq's implementation The implementation follows the de Bruijn architecture:

- a kernel that re-checks proof terms (critical);
- tactics that build these proof terms (not critical).

Inadequacy: what is proved is not what you think.

Admitted proofs; axioms that are false or inconsistent.

A bug in a critical part of Coq's implementation

An inconsistency in the logic implemented by Coq.

## Logical consistency

A logic is consistent if it cannot deduce a paradox or an obvious absurdity, such as

- $P \land \neg P$  for some paradox P (classical logic)
- ⊥ (written False in Coq) (intuitionistic logic)
- 0 = 1 (Peano arithmetic)
- $\forall P. P$  (higher-order logic)

Equivalently: a logic is consistent if there exists at least one proposition that cannot be deduced.

(The *ex falso quod libet* principle: from absurdity, all propositions follow.)

## Example: an intuitionnistic logic

 $\Gamma_1, P, \Gamma_2 \vdash P$  (Ax)

 $\frac{\Gamma, P \vdash Q}{\Gamma \vdash P \Rightarrow Q} \stackrel{(\Rightarrow 1)}{(\Rightarrow 1)} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P \Rightarrow Q \quad \Gamma \vdash P}{\Gamma \vdash Q} \stackrel{(\Rightarrow E, modus ponens)}{(\Rightarrow E, modus ponens)}$   $\frac{\Gamma \vdash P \Rightarrow Q}{\Gamma \vdash P \land Q} \stackrel{(\land 1)}{(\land E_{1})} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P \land Q}{\Gamma \vdash P} \stackrel{(\land E_{1})}{(\land E_{2})} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P \land Q}{\Gamma \vdash Q} \stackrel{(\land E_{2})}{(\land E_{2})}$   $\frac{\Gamma \vdash \bot}{\Gamma \vdash P} \stackrel{(\bot E, quod libet)}{(\downarrow E, quod libet)}$ 

Consistency = there exists one P such that we cannot derive  $\vdash$  P.

### Theorem (Gödel, 1931)

Let L be a consistent logic containing Peano arithmetic. The proposition "L is consistent" can be expressed in L but cannot be proved in L.

Corollary: a proof of consistency for a logic must be conducted in a "more powerful" logic.

The Curry-Howard correspondence connects several logics (including that of Coq) with typed functional languages:

Langage typé	Logique
type	proposition
term	proof, "construction"
reduction	cut elimination

(See my 2018-2019 course.)

Typed language	Logic
functions $\sigma \rightarrow \tau$	$P \Rightarrow Q$ implication
products $\sigma \times \tau$	$P \wedge Q$ conjunction
$\operatorname{sums} \sigma + \tau$	$P \lor Q$ disjunction
type unit (1 constructor)	op triviality
type empty (0 constructors)	$\perp$ absurdity
polymorphism $\forall \alpha. \ \tau$	$\forall X.P$ for all
type abstraction $\exists \alpha. \ \tau$	∃XP there exists

Simply-typed lambda-calculus

 $\Gamma_1, \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A}, \Gamma_2 \vdash \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A}$ 

$\Gamma, \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A} \vdash \mathbf{M} : \mathbf{B}$	$\Gamma \vdash M : A \rightarrow L$	B Γ⊢N:A
$\overline{\Gamma \vdash \lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{M} : \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}}$	Г	N : B
$\Gamma \vdash M : A \qquad \Gamma \vdash N : B$	$\Gamma \vdash M : A \times B$	$\Gamma \vdash M : A \times B$
$\Gamma \vdash (M, N) : A \times B$	$\Gamma \vdash \pi_1 M : A$	$\Gamma \vdash \pi_2 M : B$
I	$\Gamma \vdash M$ : empty	

 $\Gamma \vdash \text{match } M \text{ with end} : A$ 

## **Deduction rules = typing rules**

#### Intuitionistic logic

	$\overline{\Gamma}_1,$	$A,\overline{\Gamma}_2 \vdash$	А		
Γ,	A ⊢ B	Γ⊢	$A \Rightarrow B$	Γ⊢	А
Ē⊢	$A \Rightarrow B$		Γ⊢	В	
$\overline{\Gamma} \vdash A$	<b>Γ</b> ⊢ <b>Β</b>	F⊢	$A \wedge B$	Γ⊢	$A \wedge B$
Γ⊢	$A \wedge B$	Γ⊢	Α	Γ⊢	В
		Γ⊢ ⊥			
	Ē⊢		А		

 $\overline{\Gamma}$  is  $\Gamma$  without variable names, e.g.  $\overline{x:A, y:A} = A, A$ .

Typed language	Logic
Inhabitated type $ au$ ( $\exists M. \ \emptyset \vdash M :  au$ )	Provable proposition P
There exists one non-inhabitated type	The logic is consistent

(Extends the proof of soundness from lecture #7.)

## Theorem (Canonical forms)

Let v be a value. If  $\emptyset \vdash v : \sigma \to \tau$ , then v is an abstraction  $\lambda x.M$ . If  $\emptyset \vdash v : \sigma \times \tau$ , then v is a pair  $(v_1, v_2)$ . It is impossible that  $\emptyset \vdash v : empty$ .

## Theorem (Preservation)

If  $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$  and  $M \rightarrow N$ , then  $\Gamma \vdash N : \tau$ .

### Theorem (Progress)

If  $\emptyset \vdash M : \tau$ , either M is a value or M reduces.

## Theorem (Normalization)

Every typable term has a normal form: if  $\Gamma \vdash M : \tau$ , there exists N such that  $M \xrightarrow{*} N \not\rightarrow$ 

#### Corollary (Logical consistency)

The empty type is not inhabited.

#### Proof.

Assume there exists *M* such that  $\emptyset \vdash M$  : empty.

By normalization we have N such that  $M \xrightarrow{*} N \not\rightarrow$ .

By preservation we have  $\emptyset \vdash N$  : empty.

By progress we have that N is a value.

By canonical forms, we have a contradiction.

Most language features that make a programming language Turing-complete make logics inconsistent.

#### Example: general recursion

let rec f x = f x in f () has type  $\tau$  for any  $\tau$ .

As a proof principle, it is  $(P \Rightarrow P) \Rightarrow P \dots$ 

Example: algebraic types with negative occurrences

Inductive t : Type := Lam: (t -> t) -> t
encodes pure lambda-calculus, including divergence.

Inductive P : Prop := Hyp: (P -> False) -> P
is such that P <-> (P -> False), from which False follows.

## **Proving normalization**

An approach introduced by Tait (1967) for simple types, extended to system *F* by Girard (1972). A special case of logical relation (Plotkin, 1973; Statman, 1985).

Define the sets  $RED(\tau)$  by induction on type  $\tau$ :

```
RED(\iota) = \{M \mid M \text{ terminates, i.e. } \exists N, M \xrightarrow{*} N \not\rightarrow \}RED(\sigma \rightarrow \tau) = \{M \mid \forall N \in RED(\sigma), M N \in RED(\tau)\}
```

(We write  $\iota$  for any base type: bool, nat, etc)

$$RED(\iota) = \{ M \mid M \text{ terminates, i.e. } \exists N, M \xrightarrow{*} N \not\rightarrow \}$$
$$RED(\sigma \rightarrow \tau) = \{ M \mid \forall N \in RED(\sigma), M N \in RED(\tau) \}$$

We then show:

- 1. If  $M \in RED(\tau)$  then M terminates.
- 2. If  $\emptyset \vdash M : \tau$  then  $M \in RED(\tau)$ , or, more generally:

If  $x_1 : \tau_1, \ldots, x_n : \tau_n \vdash M : \tau$  and  $M_i \in RED(\tau_i)$  for every *i*, then  $M\{x_1 \leftarrow M_1, \ldots, x_n \leftarrow M_n\} \in RED(\tau)$ .

In a **predicative** type system such as ML, or Martin Löf type theory, ou Agda, we can take

 $\mathsf{RED}(\forall \alpha. \tau) = \{\mathsf{M} \mid \forall \sigma, \mathsf{M}[\sigma] \in \mathsf{RED}(\tau\{\alpha \leftarrow \sigma\})\}$ 

This definition remains well founded because  $\alpha$  can only be instantiated by types  $\sigma$  that are "smaller" than  $\forall \alpha. \tau$ .

In an impredicative system such as system F or Coq,  $\alpha$  can be instantiated by any type, including  $\forall \alpha.\tau$ . Example:

if  $id : \forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha$  then  $id [\forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha] id : \forall \alpha. \alpha \to \alpha$ 

The definition of RED is therefore incorrect.

Girard's idea: interpret type variables  $\alpha$  not just by the sets  $RED(\sigma)$  for some types  $\sigma$ , but by a larger class of sets: the reducibility candidates (candidates de réductibilité).

A set U of terms is a reducibility candidate if

- 1. every  $M \in U$  terminates;
- 2. U is closed under expansion: if  $M \to M'$  and  $M' \in U$  then  $M \in U$
- 3. *U* is closed under certain reductions. (See Girard, *The blind spot*, vol. 1 ch. 6)

## Reducibility candidates, visually



Reducibility:  $(\Phi: type variable \rightarrow candidate)$ 

$$\begin{split} & \textit{RED}(\iota, \Phi) = \{\textit{M} \mid \textit{M} \text{ terminates}\} \\ & \textit{RED}(\sigma \to \tau, \Phi) = \{\textit{M} \mid \forall \textit{N} \in \textit{RED}(\sigma, \Phi), \textit{M} \; \textit{N} \in \textit{RED}(\tau, \Phi)\} \\ & \textit{RED}(\alpha, \Phi) = \Phi(\alpha) \\ & \textit{RED}(\forall \alpha. \tau, \Phi) = \{\textit{M} \mid \forall \sigma, \forall \textit{U} \in \textit{CAND}(\sigma), \textit{M}[\sigma] \in \textit{RED}(\tau, \; \Phi + \alpha \mapsto \textit{U})\} \end{split}$$

We then prove:

- 1.  $RED(\tau, \Phi)$  is a reducibility candidate.
- 2. If  $\emptyset \vdash M : \tau$  then  $M \in RED(\tau, \Phi)$ .

## Formalizing and mechanizing Coq

## From simple types to the Calculus of Constructions

Simple types	$\texttt{neg}:\texttt{bool}\to\texttt{bool}$	$term \mapsto term$
+ polymorphism	$\operatorname{id}: \forall \alpha. \; \alpha \to \alpha$	$type \mapsto term$
+ type operators	$\texttt{list}:\texttt{Type}\to\texttt{Type}$	$type \mapsto type$
+ dependent types	$\texttt{vec}:\texttt{nat}\to\texttt{Type}$	$term \mapsto type$

= Calculus of Constructions



### **Calculus of Constructions**

- + universe hierarchy
- + inductive types
- + coinductive types
- + universe cumulativity
- + universe polymorphism

 $pprox \mathrm{Coq}$ 

 $0: \texttt{nat}: \texttt{Type}_0: \texttt{Type}_1$ 

 $\texttt{nat},\texttt{list},\wedge,\vee,\exists$ 

stream, delay

In the style of Pure Type Systems:

- No syntactic distinction between terms and types.
- A single  $\lambda$  for all the kinds of functions (term  $\mapsto$  term, type  $\mapsto$  term, type, etc)
- A single  $\Pi$  representing function types and  $\forall$  types.
- Universes to stratify into terms, types, kinds, etc.

Universe: $U ::= \operatorname{Prop} | \operatorname{Type}_i$ Terms, types:A, B ::= xvariables $| \lambda x : A, B$ abstractions| A Bapplications| Uuniverse name $| \Pi x : A, B$ dependent function type

Notation:  $A \rightarrow B \stackrel{def}{=} \Pi x : A. B$  if x not free in B.

## **Typing rules**

 $\underbrace{(U,U')\in\mathcal{A}}_{(ax)} \qquad \underbrace{\Gamma\vdash A:U}_{(var)} \qquad \underbrace{\Gamma\vdash A:B\quad \Gamma\vdash C:U}_{(var)}$ (wk)  $\emptyset \vdash U : U'$   $\Gamma, x : A \vdash x : A$   $\Gamma, x : C \vdash A : B$  $\Gamma \vdash A : U_1 \qquad \Gamma, x : A \vdash B : U_2 \qquad (U_1, U_2, U_3) \in \mathcal{R}$  (pi)  $\Gamma \vdash \Pi x : A.B : U_3$  $\Gamma, x : A \vdash B : C \qquad \Gamma \vdash \Pi x : A.C : U$ (abstr)  $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : A, B : \Pi x : A, C$  $\underbrace{\Gamma \vdash f: \Pi x: A. B \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}_{(app)}$  $\Gamma \vdash f a : B\{x \leftarrow a\}$  $\Gamma \vdash A : B \quad \Gamma \vdash B' : U \quad B \xrightarrow{*} \xleftarrow{*} B'$ (conv)  $\Gamma \vdash A : B'$ 

## The conversion rule: typing modulo reductions

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A : B \quad \Gamma \vdash B' : U \quad B \xrightarrow{*} \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} B'}{\Gamma \vdash A : B'} (conv)$$

Types are identified up to reductions (computations).

Example 1: the type dtype (Fun Bool Bool) contains the same values as the type bool  $\rightarrow$  bool, because these two types are equal modulo computation of the dtype function.

Example 2: the trivial proof for the proposition 4 = 4 is also a proof for the proposition 2 + 2 = 4, because these two propositions are equal modulo computation of the + function.

## The conversion rule: typing modulo reductions

$$\frac{ \Gamma \vdash A: B \quad \Gamma \vdash B': U \quad B \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} \stackrel{*}{\leftarrow} B' }{ \Gamma \vdash A: B'} \ (\text{conv})$$

Types are identified up to reductions (computations).

- Enables new ways for programming and proving, such as "proofs by reflection", where computation replaces logical deduction.
- A challenge for the metatheory: typing depends on computation.
- A challenge for the implementation of the type-checker: need an efficient evaluation mechanism during type-checking.

$$\frac{(U, U') \in \mathcal{A}}{\emptyset \vdash U : U'} \text{ (ax) } \frac{\Gamma \vdash A : U_1 \quad \Gamma, x : A \vdash B : U_2 \quad (U_1, U_2, U_3) \in \mathcal{R}}{\Gamma \vdash \Pi x : A \cdot B : U_3} \text{ (pi)}$$

The  ${\mathcal A}$  relation determines which universe belong to which universe. In Coq:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{(\texttt{Prop}, \texttt{Type}_0), (\texttt{Type}_i, \texttt{Type}_{i+1})\}$$

The  $\mathcal{R}$  relation determines the universe for  $\Pi x : A.B.$  In Coq:

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(U, \texttt{Prop}, \texttt{Prop}), (\texttt{Type}_i, \texttt{Type}_j, \texttt{Type}_{\mathsf{max}(i,j)})\}$$

Crucial for logical consistency! For instance, Type : Type or Girard's system *U* can encode the Burali-Forti paradox...

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A formalization of PCUIC (Polymorphic Cumulative Calculus of Inductive Constructions). Normalization is admitted. Verifies all other parts of the metatheory, an efficient type-checker, and an extraction algorithm. J. Chapman, *Type theory should eat itself*, 2008 Towards a normalization algorithm for MLTT, using intrinsically-typed syntax.

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A. Abel, J. Öhman, A. Vezzosi, *Decidability of conversion for type theory in type theory*, 2018

An algorithm to test convertibility in the presence of dependent types (one universe), in Agda (MLTT + induction-recursion).

#### Proof assistants should eat themselves?



Can we mechanize a good fragment of the logic of a proof assistant in a barely bigger fragment?

## References

Proofs of normalization:

- Simple types, in Coq: B. Pierce et al, *Software Foundations*, volume 2, chapter "Norm".
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- Calculus of Constructions: H. Geuvers, A short and flexible proof of Strong Normalization for the Calculus of Constructions, 1995.

Cut elimination and logical consistency:

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