Mathematical Extension in Event-B through the Rodin Theory Component

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DRAFT: 8 June 2010

1 Introduction

This paper outlines how some of the concepts proposed in [1] to deal with mathematical extension in Event-B will be realised in Rodin from a user perspective. We show the theory component, currently defined by the rule-based prover plugin, will be extended to allow for new basic predicate definitions, new operator definitions and new inductive data type definitions. The theory component will also support the definition of rewrite rules and inference rules to be used by the rule-based prover.

Mostly the document reflects the outcome of the WP9 meeting in Southampton on 6 May 2010. Various people contributed to the discussion, including Stefan Hallerstede, Alexei Iliasov, Michael Leuschel, Matthias Schmalz and Laurent Voisin.

The first version of mathematical extension will not support the declaration of user defined binders nor will it support rules that require substitution for variables. These will be added later. These proposals do not include support for dependant types nor predicate sub-typing.

2 Theory component

A theory component has a name, a list of global type parameters (global to the theory), and an arbitrary number of definitions and rules:

theory name type parameters T_1, \ldots, T_n

- $\{ \langle Basic \ Predicate \ Definition \rangle \}$
- $\langle Operator Definition \rangle$
- $\langle Data Type Definition \rangle$ $\langle Rewrite Rule \rangle$ $\langle Inference Rule \rangle$ }

We look at each form of definition and rule in turn in the following sections. In the following it is important to recall that the mathematical language has two syntactic categories, *expressions* and *predicates*.

3 Defining new basic predicates

A basic predicate is a property on one or more expressions. For example, the predicate x divides y holds when x is an integer divisor of y. This predicate is defined in the following way:

```
predicate divides

infix

args x,y

condition x \in \mathbb{N} \land y \in \mathbb{N}

definition \exists a \cdot y = a \times x
```

This declares a new basic predicate *divides*. It is declared as infix with two argments x and y. This declaration makes the predicate E *divides* Fsyntactically valid for integer expressions E and F. The condition specifies a well-definedness condition – in this case that x and y must be naturals. The argument types are inferred from the condition – in this case it is inferred that x and y are of type \mathbb{Z} . The final clause provides the definition of x *divides* y. That is, we have

 $x \text{ divides } y \iff \exists a \cdot y = a \times x$

A new basic predicate can be infix or prefix. For example, if *divides* had been declared as prefix, then divides(E, F) would become syntactically valid. An infix predicate must have exactly two arguments.

Though in this case the arguents are typed with the predefined type \mathbb{Z} , in general arguments may be typed using some of the type parameters defined for the theory which makes the predicate polymorphic on those type parameters.

The general structure of a basic predicate definition is as follows:

```
predicate Identifier
( prefix | infix )
args x_1, \ldots, x_n
condition P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
definition Q(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
```

4 Defining new operators

While a basic predicate forms a predicate from a number of expressions, an operator forms an expression from a number of expressions. We consider an example involving the representation of sequences as functions whose domains are contiguous ranges of naturals starting at 1, i.e., functions from $(1..n) \rightarrow T$. The *seq* operator takes a set *s* and yields all sequences whose members are in *s*:

Here seq is declared to be a prefix operator with a single argument represented by s. The well-definedness condition declares s to be a subset of a global type parameter T. Since T is a type parameter, this means that seq is polymorphic on type T. The final clause defines the expression seq(T) in terms of the existing expression language. The definition means we have that:

 $seq(s) = \{ f, n \cdot f \in (1..n) \rightarrow s \mid f \}$

Here is an example of another prefix operator size that yields the size of a sequence:

Proof obligations are generated to verify the well-definedness of definitions. For example, the definition of *size* leads to a proof obligation requiring that card(m) is well-defined whenever $m \in seq(T)$. This is provable from the condition that m is a sequence since any element of seq(T) has a finite domain and card(m) is well-defined when m is finite (in Section 6 this is expressed as in inference rule).

Operators may be infix in which case they may be declared to be associative and commutative. For example, the concatenation operator on sequences, declared as follows, is associative:

operator

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{infix assoc} \\ \text{args} & m, n \\ \text{condition} & m \in seq(T) \land n \in seq(T) \\ \text{definition} & m \cup \{ \ i, x \ \cdot \ i \mapsto x \in n \ | \ size(m) + i \mapsto x \ \} \end{array}$

The general form of an operator definition is as follows:

The core mathematical language will be extended with conditional expressions for use in operator definitions. For example, the max operator, that yields the maximum of two integers, is defined using a conditional expression as follows:

```
operator max

infix assoc commut // declare max to be associative and commutative

type parameters T

args x, y

condition x \in \mathbb{Z} \land y \in \mathbb{Z}

definition if x \ge y then x else y
```

Declaring an operator to be associative and commutative gives rise to proof obligations to verify these properties. Since the Rodin provers automatically make use of commutativity and associativity properties of operators, to avoid circular proofs, the proof obligations must be specified in terms of the operator definition rather than the operator itself, e.g., the above declaration of max will give rise to the following commutativity proof obligation:

if $x \ge y$ then x else $y = \text{if } y \ge x$ then y else x

5 Rewrite Rules

A rewrite rule is used in automatic or interactive proof to rewrite an expression or predicate in order to faciliate proof. A rewrite involves a left hand pattern and one or more right hands. Each right hand may be guarded by some condition. For example, the following rewrite rule defines two ways of rewriting the expression card(i..j) depending on a condition on i and j:

```
rewriteCardIntegerRangeautomanual completevarsi, jconditioni \in \mathbb{Z} \land j \in \mathbb{Z}lhscard(i..j)rhsi \leq j \quad j - i + 1i > j \quad 0
```

This declaration allows the rewrite to be deployed by the rule-based prover plug-in. The above declaration means that the rewrite rule can be used in automatic and interactive proof modes. The 'complete' declaration means that the disjunction of the guards must be true. The variables of the rule (i and j) serve as meta variables that can be matched with any expression of the appropriate type. The condition clause is used to type the variables of rule. For details of the proof obligations associated with rewrites and details of how the rule-based prover applies rewrite rules see [2].

The general form of a rewrite rule for expressions is as follows:

rewrite Name [auto] [manual] [complete] vars x_1, \ldots, x_n condition $P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$

lhs rhs	$E(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$		
	$Q_1(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$	$E_1(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$	
	$Q_m(x_1,\ldots,x_m)$	$E_m(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$	
	$\mathfrak{Q}_m(\mathfrak{w}_1,\ldots,\mathfrak{w}_n)$	$\mathcal{L}_m(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$	

The general form for predicates is as follows:

```
rewrite Name

[auto] [manual] [complete]

vars x_1, \dots, x_n

condition P(x_1, \dots, x_n)

lhs R(x_1, \dots, x_n)

rhs

\boxed{\begin{array}{c|c}Q_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) & R_1(x_1, \dots, x_n)\\ \vdots & \vdots\\ Q_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) & R_m(x_1, \dots, x_n)\end{array}}
```

Currently the predicates may not contain predicate variables though this will be addressed in the future.

6 Inference Rules

An inference rule has a list of hypothesis and a consequent. It is parameterised by one or more variables. For example, the following inference rule has two hypotheses and a consequent that may be inferred from the hypotheses:

```
rule FiniteSeq

vars s, m

given

s \subseteq T

m \in seq(s)

infer

finite(m)
```

The rule declaration gives rise to a soundness proof obligation.

Here is another inference rule showing that sequence concatenation is closed for elements of seq(s):

```
rule Concat1
```

```
 \begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{vars} & s,m,n\\ \mathbf{given} & s \subseteq T\\ & m \in seq(s)\\ & n \in seq(s)\\ \mathbf{infer} & m \frown n \in seq(s) \end{array}
```

The general form of an inference rule is as follows:

```
rule Name

vars x_1, \ldots, x_n

given

P_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \ldots, P_m(x_1, \ldots, x_n)

infer

Q(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
```

7 Defining new datatypes

A new datatype declaration defines a new type constructor together with constructor and destructor functions for elements of the new type. For example the usual inductive list type constructor is defined as follows:

```
datatype List

type args T

constructors

nil

cons(head:T, tail:List(T))
```

This defines

- A new type constructor List: List(T) becomes a type for any type T.
- A set operator List: List(s) is a set expression the set of lists whose members are in set s
- Two constructors *nil* and *cons*
- Two destructors *head* and *tail*
- An induction principle on *List*

Proof by induction will be supported though a special reasoner that will generate an induction scheme for any particular hypothesis or goal of a proof. The general form of an inductive data definition is as follows:

datatype Ident

```
type args T_1 \dots T_n
constructors
c_1(d_1^1: E_1^1, \dots, d_1^j: E_1^j)
\vdots
c_m(d_m^1: E_m^1, \dots, d_m^k: E_m^k)
```

Here E_j^i is a type expression that may include occurrences of the type being defined $Ident(T_1 \ldots T_n)$. If E_j^i does include occurrences of $Ident(T_1 \ldots T_n)$, then E_j^i must be *finitary*, i.e., E_j^i is $Ident(T_1 \ldots T_n)$ or is formed from a cartesian product or an existing inductive data type.

8 Pattern matching with datatypes

When defining basic predicates and operators on inductive types, the usual pattern matching may be used. For example the *size* function on inductive lists is defined as follows:

operator size

```
\begin{array}{c|c} \textbf{prefix} \\ \textbf{args} & a \\ \textbf{condition} & a \in List(T) \\ \textbf{definition} \\ \hline \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ nil & 0 \\ \hline \\ cons(x,b) & 1+size(b) \\ \end{array}
```

Since a is of type List(T) the argument a may be matched against each of the constructors for List.

Here is an example of an operator definition that removes duplicates in a list. It is dfined using a conditional expression:

```
operator remdup

prefix

args a

condition a \in List(T)

definition
```

match a		
nil	nil	
cons(x,b)	if $member(x, b)$ then $remdup(b)$ else $cons(x, remdup(b))$	

General definition: to be done.

9 Fixed Point definitions

The proposals in [1] suggests a functional predicate definition form where an operator is defined as the solution of some predicate. Rather than supporting this more general form initially, we propose a special case, namely a fixed point definition (based on a suggestion by Laurent). For example, transitive closure of a relation may be defined as follows:

This defines tcl(r) to be the least (under the \subseteq ordering) relation satisfying

 $y = r \cup r; y$

The fixpoint definition will lead to the following rewrites and inference rules being automatically declared:

rewrite $tcl(r) \rightsquigarrow r \cup r; tcl(r)$ rewrite $r \cup r; tcl(r) \rightsquigarrow tcl(r)$ rule given $r \cup r; z \subseteq z$ infer $tcl(r) \subseteq z$

The general definitions is as follows:

```
operator Ident

prefix

type parameters T_1, \ldots, T_n

args x_1, \ldots, x_n

condition P(x_1, \ldots, x_n)

fixpoint y where

E(y, x_1, \ldots, x_n)

order O
```

The definition will lead to proof obligations as follows:

monotonicity: $y \mapsto y' \in O \Rightarrow E(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto E(y', x_1, \dots, x_n) \in O$ partial order: O is a partial order

10 Records and Data Types

Data type definitions support the definition of variant records: the constructors define the separate forms that a record might take while the destructors provide a means of accessing the fields of a record. The essential difference between this and the current records plug-in is that data types are polymorphic, e.g., we may have lists of integers and lists of names co-existing in the same Event-B model, whereas the records as defined by the records plug-in are not polymorphic. Also the datatypes will come with an induction principle in the case of recursive data types. Later we will explore whether a datatype declaration can be constructed automatically by the records plug-in from the existing records syntax (in a way that is syntactically backwards compatible with the existing records plug-in syntax).

References

- Jean-Raymond Abrial, Michael Butler, Stefan Hallerstede, Michael Leuschel, Matthias Schmalz, and Laurent Voisin. Proposals for Mathematical Extensions for Event-B. http://deploy-eprints.ecs.soton.ac.uk/216/, 2009.
- [2] Issam Maamria, Michael Butler, Andrew Edmunds, and Abdolbaghi Rezazadeh. On an Extensible Rule-based Prover for Event-B, November 2009. http://eprints.ecs.soton.ac.uk/18273/.