# Combining Proofs and Programs in Trellys 

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The Trellys project

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Chris Casinghino

Vilhelm Sjöberg Peng (Frank) Fu Nathan Collins

Garrin Kimmell
A collaborative project to design a statically-typed functional programming language based on dependent type theory.

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Work-in-progress

## Why Dependent Types?

- Lightweight verification: Dependent types express application-specific program invariants that are beyond the scope of existing type systems. Example: Trees that satisfy the binary-search tree invariant


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- Expressiveness: Dependent types enable flexible interfaces, allowing more programs to be statically checked. Examples: metaprogramming, variable arity-polymorphism, type-directed programming.


## Why Dependent Types?

- Lightweight verification: Dependent types express application-specific program invariants that are beyond the scope of existing type systems. Example: Trees that satisfy the binary-search tree invariant
- Expressiveness: Dependent types enable flexible interfaces, allowing more programs to be statically checked. Examples: metaprogramming, variable arity-polymorphism, type-directed programming.
- Uniformity: Full-spectrum dependent types provide the same syntax and semantics for program computations, type-level computations, and proofs.


## An incremental approach

Start with a general purpose, call-by-value, functional programming language and strengthen its type system.

- Want to reuse existing ideas from FP languages
- Want to draw programmers from FP communities
- Want existing code to work with minor modification


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Start with a general purpose, call-by-value, functional programming language and strengthen its type system.

- Want to reuse existing ideas from FP languages
- Want to draw programmers from FP communities
- Want existing code to work with minor modification
- Want to support incremental verification... only provide the strongest guarantees about the most critical code.


## On the shoulders of giants

Not the first to propose programming with dependent types

- Agda, Epigram, Coq, Lego, Nuprl


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Not the first functional language to incorporate ideas from Type Theory

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Not the first to propose a full-spectrum functional programming language based on dependent types

- Guru, Cayenne, Cardelli "A Polymorphic $\lambda$-calculus with Type:Type"


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- Have to choose something. Want to include nontermination so the order of evaluation makes a difference


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- Have to choose something. Want to include nontermination so the order of evaluation makes a difference
- Good cost model. Programmers can better predict the running time and space usage of their programs
- Distinction between values and computations built into the language. Variables stand for values, not computations


## A programming language, not a logic

Can't use Curry-Howard Isomorphism to interpret this language as a logic.

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## A programming language, not a logic

Can't use Curry-Howard Isomorphism to interpret this language as a logic.
All types are inhabited.
A seeming contradiction
How can we have a full-spectrum, dependently-typed language based on an inconsistent logic?

## Syntactic type soundness

Main property of typed programming languages is proven by an elementary syntactic argument and extends in a straightforward manner to modern language features (such as references, concurrency, exceptions, continuations, etc.)

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If $\vdash a:$ A then either a diverges, aborts, or $a \rightsquigarrow_{\mathrm{cbv}}^{*} v$ and $\vdash v: A$.

Type soundness gives us a form of partial correctness

## Partial correctness

Can give a logical interpretation for values based on partial correctness:

$$
\vdash a: \Sigma x: \text { Nat.even } x=\text { true }
$$

If $a$ terminates, then it must produce a pair of a natural number and a proof that the result is even.

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\vdash a: \Sigma x: \text { Nat. }(\text { even } x=\text { true }) \rightarrow(x=3)
$$

Type soundness tells us that trying to use the implication in some other proof could cause the program to diverge or abort, but not "go wrong."

## Total correctness

Partial correctness is not enough

- Can't compile this language efficiently (have to run proofs)
- Users are willing to work harder for stronger guarantees for critical code


## From partial correctness to total correctness

Plan for the rest of the talk:

- Part I: present a full-spectrum CBV language that satisfies type soundness only
- Part II: identify a "logical" sublanguage and discuss the interactions between the two parts


## From partial correctness to total correctness

Plan for the rest of the talk:

- Part I: present a full-spectrum CBV language that satisfies type soundness only
- Part II: identify a "logical" sublanguage and discuss the interactions between the two parts
Not covered by this talk:
- How to make type checking decidable by adding annotations to the syntax
- How to make program development feasible by inferring annotations


## Part I: A call-by-value programming language with dependent types

## Uniform language

Types, terms, kinds defined using the same syntax

## Syntax

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a, b, A, B::=\star \mid \text { Nat } \mid(x: A) \rightarrow B \\
& 0 \mid \text { S } a \mid \text { case } a \text { of }\left\{0 \Rightarrow a_{1} ; \text { S } x \Rightarrow a_{2}\right\} \\
& x|\operatorname{rec} f x . a| a b \\
& \text { abort } \\
& v, u::=\star|\operatorname{Nat}|(x: A) \rightarrow B \\
& \text { | } 0 \mid \mathrm{S} v \\
& x \mid \text { rec } f x . a
\end{aligned}
$$

## Call-by-value operational semantics

$$
a \rightsquigarrow \mathrm{cbv} b
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{(\operatorname{rec} f x \cdot a) v \rightsquigarrow} \begin{array}{l}
\mathrm{cbv}[v / x][\operatorname{rec} f x \cdot a / f] a \\
\text { case } 0 \text { of }\left\{0 \Rightarrow a_{1} ; \mathrm{S} x \Rightarrow a_{2}\right\} \rightsquigarrow_{\mathrm{cbv}} a_{1}
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { case }(\mathrm{S} v) \text { of }\left\{0 \Rightarrow a_{1} ; \mathrm{S} x \Rightarrow a_{2}\right\} \rightsquigarrow \mathrm{cbv}[v / x] a_{2}
$$

$\overline{\mathcal{E} \text { [abort] } \rightsquigarrow_{\text {cbv }} \text { abort }}$

## Example

## Polymorphic application

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{app}:(x: \star) \rightarrow(f: x \rightarrow x) \rightarrow(z: x) \rightarrow x \\
& \operatorname{app}=\lambda x \cdot \lambda f \cdot \lambda z \cdot f z \\
& \operatorname{app} \operatorname{Nat}(\lambda x \cdot x) 0 \equiv 0
\end{aligned}
$$

Use standard abbreviations:

- $\lambda x . a$ for rec $f x . a$ when $f$ is not free in $a$
- $A \rightarrow B$ for $(x: A) \rightarrow B$ when $x$ is not free in $B$


## Expressive example

$$
\begin{aligned}
z e r o A p p & =\lambda g \cdot \lambda z \cdot g \\
\text { one App } & =\lambda g \cdot \lambda z \cdot g z \\
t w o A p p & =\lambda g \cdot \lambda z \cdot g z z
\end{aligned}
$$

$n A p p=\operatorname{rec} f n$. case $n$ of

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{0 \Rightarrow \lambda g . \lambda z . g ; \\
& \mathrm{S} m \Rightarrow \lambda g . \lambda z . f m(g z) z\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Expressive example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { zeroApp }: \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \\
& \text { zeroApp }=\lambda g \cdot \lambda z . g \\
& \text { oneApp } \quad:(\text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat }) \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \\
& \text { oneApp }=\lambda g \cdot \lambda z . g z \\
& \text { twoApp }:(\text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat }) \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \\
& \text { twoApp }= \\
& \text { No. } 2 z . g z z
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n A p p=\operatorname{rec} f n . \text { case } n \text { of } \\
& \qquad \begin{aligned}
0 & \Rightarrow \lambda g \cdot \lambda z \cdot g ; \\
\mathrm{S} m & \Rightarrow \lambda g \cdot \lambda z \cdot f m(g z) z\}
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

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$$
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& n A p p:(n: \text { Nat }) \rightarrow(N n) \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \\
& n A p p=\operatorname{rec} f n . \text { case } n \text { of } \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& N \quad: \text { Nat } \rightarrow * \\
& N=\operatorname{rec} f n \text {. case } n \text { of } \\
& \{0 \Rightarrow \text { Nat; } \\
& \mathrm{S} m \Rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow f m\} \\
& n A p p:(n: \text { Nat }) \rightarrow(N n) \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \\
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& \{0 \Rightarrow \lambda g . \lambda z . g ; \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

## Typing relation

$\Gamma \vdash a: A$
General recursion

$$
\frac{\ulcorner, y: A, f:(y: A) \rightarrow B \vdash a: B}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{rec} f y \cdot a:(y: A) \rightarrow B}
$$

Explicit failure

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \star}{\Gamma \vdash \text { abort }: A}
$$

Type is a type

$$
\vdash \star: \star
$$

## Conversion

Because types depend on programs, we want to identify types that contain equivalent programs.

$$
\text { Vec Nat }(1+2) \equiv \operatorname{Vec} \text { Nat } 3
$$

Expressions can be assigned any equivalent type

## Conversion

$$
\ulcorner\vdash a: A \quad A \equiv B \quad\ulcorner\vdash B: \star
$$

$$
\Gamma \vdash a: B
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$$

But what does it mean for types to be equal?

## Definitional Equality

- Based on operational semantics (hence undecidable)
- Ideally: identify all terms that are contextually equivalent to each other
- For now: close step relation under reflexivity, symmetry, transitivity and substitutivity
- Strictly computational

$$
a \equiv b
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{a_{1} \rightsquigarrow \mathrm{cbv} a_{2}}{a_{1} \equiv a_{2}} \quad \begin{array}{c}
a \equiv a
\end{array} \frac{a_{1} \equiv a_{2}}{a_{2} \equiv a_{1}} \\
\frac{a_{1} \equiv a_{2} \quad a_{2} \equiv a_{3}}{a_{1} \equiv a_{3}} \\
\frac{a_{1} \equiv a_{2}}{\left[a_{1} / x\right] A \equiv\left[a_{2} / x\right] A}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Internalizing equality

Internalize definitional equality as a proposition, with a trivial proof

$$
a, b, A, B::=\ldots|a=b| \text { join }
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Trivial proof holds when terms are definitionally equal and the proposition is well-formed

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\frac{a \equiv b \quad\ulcorner\vdash a=b: \star}{\Gamma \vdash \text { join }: a=b}
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\frac{a \equiv b \quad\ulcorner\vdash a=b: \star}{\Gamma \vdash \text { join }: a=b}
$$

Because definitional equality is untyped, propositional equality is heterogeneous

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash a=b: \star}
$$

## Conversion and propositional equality

Extend conversion rule to propositional equality

$$
\frac{\ulcorner\vdash a: A \quad\ulcorner\vdash v: A=B}{\Gamma \vdash a: B}
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- Conversion is implicit. Terms that differ only in convertible types are trivially equal


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- Proof must be a value because of partial correctness


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- Subsumes previous conversion rule (using join as the value)
- Conversion is implicit. Terms that differ only in convertible types are trivially equal
- Proof must be a value because of partial correctness
- Don't care which value it is


## Why can we do this?

Type soundness follows the following property (which can be proven syntactically):

Lemma (Soundness of propositional equality)
If $\vdash v: A_{1}=A_{2}$ then $A_{1} \equiv A_{2}$.

## The cost of CBV

Call-by-value semantics adds extra hypothesis to application rule:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a:(x: A) \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash b: A \quad \Gamma \vdash[b / x] B: \star}{\Gamma \vdash a b:[b / x] B}
$$

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$$

If $b$ is a non-value, the rule must make sure that $x$ was never treated as a value in $B$.

## Implicit arguments

Some values have no runtime effect.
Useful for:

- Parametric polymorphism $(x: \star) \rightarrow x \rightarrow x$
- Preconditions $(x:$ Nat $) \rightarrow \neg(x=0) \rightarrow$ Nat Want to elide them from the syntax of terms

$$
\operatorname{app}(\lambda x . x) 0 \text { instead of app } \operatorname{Nat}(\lambda x . x) 0
$$

## Implicit arguments

Add implicit abstraction type

$$
a, b, A, B::=\ldots \mid[x: A] \rightarrow B
$$

but... can only generalize over values

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash v: B \quad x \notin \mathrm{FV} v}{\Gamma \vdash v:[x: A] \rightarrow B}
$$

...can only instantiate with values

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a:[x: A] \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash v: A}{\Gamma \vdash a:[v / x] B}
$$

## Value restrictions are annoying

Suppose we write a program that proves the following fact about natural numbers:

$$
f:(x: \text { Nat }) \rightarrow(y: \text { Nat }) \rightarrow(x=\mathrm{S} y) \rightarrow \neg(x=0)
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However, a use of this lemma " $f x y z$ " is not a value and cannot be erased.

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However, a use of this lemma " $f x y z$ " is not a value and cannot be erased.
Must first use an explicit argument to evaluate it to a value, even though the value is irrelevant.

## Taking stock

- Make type checking decidable by adding annotations to the syntax
- Make program development feasible by inferring annotations


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## Taking stock

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- Make program development feasible by inferring annotations
- ...but, irrelevant computations remain at runtime
- ...slowing execution
- ...weakening equivalence
- ...and weakening static guarantees

Part II : A logical sublanguage

## A logical language

- There is a logically-consistent sublanguage hiding in here.


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- Annotate typing judgement to specify the logical language or the programmatic language.


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- How do we identify it?
- We use the type system!
- Annotate typing judgement to specify the logical language or the programmatic language.

New typing judgement form:

$$
\Gamma \vdash^{\theta} a: A \quad \text { where } \quad \theta::=\mathrm{L} \mid \mathrm{P}
$$

## Subsumption

Logical language is a sublanguage of the programmatic language.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} a: A}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} a: A}
$$

It guarantees stronger properties about its expressions.
Theorem (Syntactic type soundness)
If $\vdash^{\mathrm{P}} a:$ A then either a diverges, aborts, or $a \rightsquigarrow_{c \mathrm{cbv}}^{*} v$ and $\vdash^{\mathrm{P}} v: A$.

Theorem (Semantic consistency)
If $\vdash^{\mathrm{L}} a:$ A then $a \rightsquigarrow_{\mathrm{cbv}}^{*} v$ and $\vdash^{\mathrm{L}} v: A$

## Expressive features must be programmatic

Some capabilities only available for the programmatic language
Type-In-Type

$$
\overline{\vdash^{P} \star: \star}
$$

Failure

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} A: \star}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} \text { abort }: A}
$$

## General recursion

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}}\left(x:^{\theta} A\right) \rightarrow B: \star \\
& \Gamma, x:^{\theta} A, f::^{\mathrm{P}}\left(x:^{\theta} A\right) \rightarrow B \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} b: B \\
& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} \operatorname{rec} f x . b:\left(x:^{\theta} A\right) \rightarrow B
\end{aligned}
$$

## What does the logical language look like?

Logical functions should not be recursive...

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}}\left(x:^{\theta} A\right) \rightarrow B: \star \quad \Gamma, x:^{\theta} A \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} b: B}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} \operatorname{rec} f x . b:\left(x:^{\theta} A\right) \rightarrow B}
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## What does the logical language look like?

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$$

...except for primitive recursion over natural numbers

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma, x:^{\mathrm{L}} \operatorname{Nat} \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} B: \star \\
& \Gamma, x::^{\mathrm{L}} \mathrm{Nat}, f:{ }^{\mathrm{L}}\left(y:{ }^{\mathrm{L}} \mathrm{Nat}\right) \rightarrow[z: \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{~S} y)=x] \rightarrow[y / x] B \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} b: B \\
& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} \text { rec } f x . b:\left(x:^{\mathrm{L}} \mathrm{Nat}\right) \rightarrow B
\end{aligned}
$$

## Mixing the sublanguages

Programmatic functions can have logical parameters:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}}\left(x:^{\mathrm{L}} A\right) \rightarrow B: \star \\
& \Gamma, x:^{\mathrm{L}} A, f:^{\mathrm{P}}\left(x:^{\mathrm{L}} A\right) \rightarrow B \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} b: B \\
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& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} \text { rec } f x . b:\left(x:^{\mathrm{L}} A\right) \rightarrow B
\end{aligned}
$$

Such arguments are logical "proofs" that the preconditions of the function are satisfied.
These arguments can be implicit, even if they are not values.

## Freedom of Speech

Logical functions can have programmatic parameters:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}}\left(x:{ }^{\mathrm{P}} A\right) \rightarrow B: \star \quad \Gamma, x: \mathrm{P} A \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} b: B}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} \operatorname{rec} f x \cdot b:\left(x:^{\mathrm{P}} A\right) \rightarrow B}
$$

## Freedom of Speech

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$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}}(x: \mathrm{P} A) \rightarrow B: \star \quad \Gamma, x: \mathrm{P} A \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} b: B}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} \operatorname{rec} f x . b:\left(x:{ }^{\mathrm{P}} A\right) \rightarrow B}
$$

Application restricted to terminating arguments.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} a:(x: \mathrm{P} A) \rightarrow B \\
& \Gamma \vdash_{\downarrow} b: A \quad \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}}[b / x] B: \star \\
& \Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} a b:[b / x] B
\end{aligned}
$$

Total arguments are either logical or values.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} a: A}{\Gamma \vdash_{\downarrow} a: A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} v: A}{\Gamma \vdash_{\downarrow} v: A}
$$

## Conversion

- Conversion available for both languages
- Equality proof must be total

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\theta} a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash_{\downarrow} b: A=B}{\Gamma \vdash^{\theta} a: B}
$$

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This means that it is sound to treat a variable of type Nat as logical, no matter what it is assumed to be in the context.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} x: \mathrm{Nat}}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} x: \mathrm{Nat}}
$$

## Uniform equality

Equality proofs are also shared.
All equality proofs and propositions are logical, no matter what sort of terms they equate.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
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\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} b: B}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} a=b: \star} & \frac{a \equiv b}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} \text { join }: a=b}
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\end{array}
$$

We can treat a programmatic variable as a logical equality proof.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{P}} x: A=B}{\Gamma \vdash^{\mathrm{L}} x: A=B}
$$

This supports incremental verification. We can have a partial function return an equality proof, and then use that to satisfy the preconditions of any part of the code.

Conclusion

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- Strengthen definitional and propositional equality
- Elaboration to an annotated language


## Summary

- Can have full-spectrum dependently-typed language with nontermination, effects, etc.
- Call-by-value semantics permits "partial correctness"
- Logical and programmatic languages can interact
- All proofs are programs
- Logic can talk about programs
- Shared values can be passed from programs to the logic

