

Collection Types

Sequences, Arrays, Sets, and Bags

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¹heavily based on a previous talk by Rick Butler

Outline

1 Membership Collections

- Sets
- Proving with Sets
- Sets in Type Theory
- Choose
- Finite Sets
- Bags

2 Object Collections

- Sequence
- Bounded Array
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- Finite Sequences

Membership Collections

These “membership” collections are available in PVS

- **Sets** [T -> bool]
- **Finite Sets** [(is_finite) -> bool]
- **Bags** (aka multisets) [T -> nat]
- **Finite Bags** [(is_finite) -> nat]

Sets in PVS

- A set is just a predicate (i.e., a function into bool):
letters: TYPE = {a,b,c,d,e,f}
S: set[letters] = ...

- For example, if s represents:
S(a) --> TRUE S(b) --> TRUE
S(c) --> FALSE S(d) --> TRUE
S(e) --> TRUE S(f) --> FALSE

Then, it can be specified in PVS as:

```
S: set[letters] = (LAMBDA (x: letters):  
                  (x=a) OR (x=b) OR (x=d) OR (x=e))
```

Alternatively, one could write:

```
S: set[letters] = { x: letters | (x=a) OR (x=b) OR  
                                  (x=d) OR (x=e) }
```

- But, **there is no** PVS set constructor:

```
S:set[letters] = { a, b, d, e }
```

- ▶ However, this form can be used for *type* construction (see above)

The Sets Theory in Prelude

The `sets[T: TYPE]` theory is defined in the prelude:

```
sets [T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  set: TYPE = [T -> bool]

  x, y: VAR T
  a, b, c: VAR set
  p: VAR PRED[T]

  member(x, a): bool = a(x)

  empty?(a): bool = (FORALL x: NOT member(x, a))
  emptyset: set = {x | false}
  nonempty?(a): bool = NOT empty?(a)
  fullset: set = {x | true}

  subset?(a, b): bool = (FORALL x: member(x, a) => member(x, b))
  strict_subset?(a, b): bool = subset?(a, b) & a /= b
  ...
```

The Sets Theory in Prelude (cont'd)

| PVS Name | meaning |
|--------------------------------|--|
| <code>union(a,b)</code> | everything in <i>a</i> or <i>b</i> |
| <code>intersection(a,b)</code> | anything in both <i>a</i> and <i>b</i> |
| <code>disjoint?(a,b)</code> | do <i>a</i> and <i>b</i> share any elements |
| <code>difference(a,b)</code> | all members of <i>a</i> that are not in <i>b</i> |
| <code>singleton(x)</code> | constructs set with element <i>x</i> |
| <code>add(x,a)</code> | add element <i>x</i> to <i>a</i> |
| <code>remove(x,a)</code> | remove element <i>x</i> from <i>a</i> |
| <code>choose(a)</code> | choose an arbitrary element of <i>a</i> |
| <code>rest(a)</code> | the set <i>a</i> without <code>choose(a)</code> |

Some important lemmas about sets

Useful lemmas about sets in the `sets_lemmas` theory in the prelude

```
emptyset_is_empty?: LEMMA empty?(a) IFF a = emptyset
subset_transitive  : LEMMA subset?(a, b) AND subset?(b, c)
                    IMPLIES subset?(a, c)
subset_emptyset   : LEMMA subset?(emptyset, a)
union_empty       : LEMMA union(a, emptyset) = a
union_subset1     : LEMMA subset?(a, union(a, b))

intersection_empty: LEMMA intersection(a, emptyset) = emptyset
distribute_intersection_union: LEMMA intersection(a, union(b, c))
                                = union(intersection(a, b), intersection(a, c))
distribute_union_intersection: LEMMA union(a, intersection(b, c))
                                = intersection(union(a, b), union(a, c))

member_add        : LEMMA member(x, a) IMPLIES add(x, a) = a
choose_member     : LEMMA NOT empty?(a) IMPLIES member(choose(a), a)
choose_singleton: LEMMA choose(singleton(x)) = x
```

Using Set Lemmas

- Using the lemma:

```
union_commutative: LEMMA union(a, b) = union(b, a)
```

- Usually, one must include the parent type:

```
(lemma "union_commutative[nat]")
```

- Sometimes you can get away with

```
(rewrite "union_commutative")
```

but not always!

Set Union and Intersection

$$x \in B \cup C \equiv \text{union}(B, C)(x) = B(x) \text{ OR } C(x)$$

$$x \in B \cap C \equiv \text{intersection}(B, C)(x) = B(x) \text{ AND } C(x)$$

Thus operations on sets can be reduced to propositional formulas by set membership, i.e.,

- $\text{union}(B, C)$ is a function
- $\text{union}(B, C)(x)$ is a **propositional formula**

Proving with subset?

```
|-----  
{1}  subset?(B, C)  
  
Rule? (expand "subset?")  
  
|-----  
{1}  (FORALL (x: int): member(x, B) => member(x, C))  
  
Rule? (skosimp*)  
  
|-----  
{1}  member(x!1, B) => member(x!1, C)  
  
Rule? (expand "member")  
  
|-----  
{1}  (B(x!1) => C(x!1))
```

This can get a little tedious, is there another way?

Interlude: Auto Rewriting

```
|-----  
{1}  factorial(5) > 100  
  
Rule? (rewrite "factorial")  
nn gets 5, Rewriting using factorial, matching in *,  
  
|-----  
{1}  5 * factorial(4) > 100  
  
Rule? (auto-rewrite "factorial")  
  
|-----  
[1]  5 * factorial(4) > 100  
  
Rule? (assert)  
factorial rewrites factorial(1) to 1  
factorial rewrites factorial(2) to 2  
factorial rewrites factorial(3) to 6  
factorial rewrites factorial(4) to 24  
Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision procedures,  
Q.E.D.
```

Set Auto-rewriting

An automatic reduction of set operations can be facilitated through use of

```
(install-rewrites :defs t)
```

which installs all the definitions used directly or indirectly in the original statement as auto-rewrite rules

Another form is

```
(auto-rewrite-theory "sets[T]")
```

which installs an entire theory as auto-rewrites.

- Be careful with this one. If the theory contains a commutativity result, this will cause an **endless loop**.

install-rewrites

```
{-1} subset?(A!1, C!1)
|-----
{1}  subset?(union(A!1, B!1), union(C!1, B!1))
```

Rule? (`install-rewrites :defs t`)

Rewriting relative to the theory: `sets[real]`,
this simplifies to:

`set_rewrite2 :`

```
[-1] subset?(A!1, C!1)
|-----
[1]  subset?(union(A!1, B!1), union(C!1, B!1))
```

install-rewrites (cont'd)

Rule? (`assert`)

`member` rewrites `member(x, A!1)` to `A!1(x)`

`member` rewrites `member(x, C!1)` to `C!1(x)`

`subset?` rewrites `subset?(A!1, C!1)` to `FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) => C!1(x)`

`member` rewrites `member(x, A!1)` to `A!1(x)`

`member` rewrites `member(x, B!1)` to `B!1(x)`

`union` rewrites `union(A!1, B!1)(x)` to `A!1(x) OR B!1(x)`

`member` rewrites `member(x, union(A!1, B!1))` to `A!1(x) OR B!1(x)`

`member` rewrites `member(x, C!1)` to `C!1(x)`

`union` rewrites `union(C!1, B!1)(x)` to `C!1(x) OR B!1(x)`

`member` rewrites `member(x, union(C!1, B!1))` to `C!1(x) OR B!1(x)`

`subset?` rewrites `subset?(union(A!1, B!1), union(C!1, B!1))`

to `FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) OR B!1(x) => C!1(x) OR B!1(x)`

Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision procedures,
this simplifies to:

`set_rewrite2 :`

```
{-1} FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) => C!1(x)
|-----
{1}  FORALL (x: real): A!1(x) OR B!1(x) => C!1(x) OR B!1(x)
```

an easily proved formula.

How?

Set Equality

- To prove that two sets are equal we must use function extensionality:

$$f = g \text{ IFF } \forall x : f(x) = g(x)$$

because sets are just functions into bools (i.e., predicates)

- `(decompose-equality)` will do the trick
- `(apply-extensionality)` is a less powerful version

Set Equality: Example

```
A: set[real] = { x: real | (x=1) OR (x=2) OR (x=3) }
```

```
equality: LEMMA A = add(1,add(2,singleton(3)))
```

```
ill_ext :  
  |-----  
{1}    A = add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))  
  
Rule? (decompose-equality)  
  
  |-----  
{1}    A(x!1) = add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))(x!1)  
  
Rule? (install-rewrites :defs t)  
  
  |-----  
[1]    A(x!1) = add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))(x!1)
```

Set Equality: Example (cont'd)

```
Rule? (assert)
A rewrites AA(x!1)
  to (x!1 = 1) OR (x!1 = 2) OR (x!1 = 3)
singleton rewrites singleton(3)(x!1)
  to x!1 = 3
member rewrites member(x!1, singleton(3))
  to x!1 = 3
add rewrites add(2, singleton(3))(x!1)
  to 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3
member rewrites member(x!1, add(2, singleton(3)))
  to 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3
add rewrites add(1, add(2, singleton(3)))(x!1)
  to 1 = x!1 OR 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3
Simplifying, rewriting, and recording with decision procedures,

  |-----
{1}  (((x!1 = 1) OR (x!1 = 2) OR (x!1 = 3)) =
      (1 = x!1 OR 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3))

Rule? (ground)
No change on: (ground)
```

What happened here? Any suggestions?

Set Equality: Example (cont'd)

We need to convert the **equality** of two formulas into a propositional formula.

```
Rule? (iff)
Converting top level boolean equality into IFF form,
Converting equality to IFF,
this simplifies to:
ill_ext :

  |-----
{1}  (x!1 = 1) OR (x!1 = 2) OR (x!1 = 3) IFF
      1 = x!1 OR 2 = x!1 OR x!1 = 3

Rule? (ground)
Applying propositional simplification and decision procedures,
Q.E.D.
```

Big Warning

Given

```
T_100: TYPE = { n: nat | 0 <= n AND n <= 100 }  
T_125: TYPE = { n: nat | 25 <= n AND n <= 125 }
```

Then

```
{ t: T_100 | t = 50 } ≠ { t: T_125 | t = 50 }
```

Why?

Big Warning (cont'd)

Given

```
T_100: TYPE = { n: nat | 0 <= n AND n <= 100 }  
T_125: TYPE = { n: nat | 25 <= n AND n <= 125 }
```

When we ask are these two **sets** equal

```
{ t:T_100 | t = 50 }    { t: T_125 | t = 50 }
```

We are really asking are these two **functions** equal?

```
(LAMBDA (t:T_100): t = 50)    (LAMBDA (t: T_125): t = 50)
```

THE DOMAINS ARE NOT EQUAL!

- The **decompose-equality** strategy requires the domains to be the same
- Even though in set theory semantics they represent the same set

Thoughts About Sets in Type Theory

Type theory offers several advantages over set theory

- Avoids the classic paradoxes in an intuitive way.
- Type checking uncovers errors
- More “natural” for people used to (most) programming languages

However, there are some disadvantages:

- Sets with the same elements but different domains are different.
 - ▶ The emptyset is not unique
(i.e., `emptyset[T1]` and `emptyset[T2]` are not identical)
- There are different set operations for each basic element type. In other words, `card[T1]` is not the same function as `card[T2]`.

Back to “Big Warning”

If you give PVS

```
T_100: TYPE = { n: nat | 0 <= n AND n <= 100 }  
ll: LEMMA {t:T_100 | t = 50} = {t: nat | n = 50}
```

it will recognize the domain mismatch and interpret this as

```
|-----  
{1}   {t: T_100 | t = 50} = restrict({n: nat | n = 50})
```

where `restrict` is defined in the prelude as:

```
restrict [T: TYPE, S: TYPE FROM T, R: TYPE]: THEORY  
BEGIN  
  f: VAR [T -> R]  
  s: VAR S  
  
  restrict(f)(s): R = f(s)  
  CONVERSION restrict  
END restrict
```

This `CONVERSION` helps here, but there are plenty of cases it doesn't.

The Moral Of the Story

MORAL: Define sets over the **PARENT TYPE** unless there is a very good reason not to.

USE

```
{ n: nat | P(n) AND n <= 100 }
```

RATHER THAN

```
T_100: TYPE = { n: nat | n <= 100 }  
{ t:T_100 | P(t) }
```

This will keep all the domains the same.

Choose Function

- The `choose` function returns an **arbitrary element** of a nonempty set:
`choose(p: (nonempty?)):` $(p) = \text{epsilon}(p)$
- An empty set will cause an **unprovable TCC**.
- If the set is potentially empty, one should use `epsilon` directly.
- `epsilon` produces an element in the set if one exists, and otherwise produces an arbitrary element of the type.
 - ▶ The parent type of the set **must be nonempty**.

- The function `epsilon` is defined as follows:

```
epsilon [T: NONEMPTY_TYPE]: THEORY  
BEGIN  
  p: VAR pred[T]  
  x: VAR T  
  
  epsilon(p): T  
  
  epsilon_ax: AXIOM (EXISTS x: p(x)) => p(epsilon(p))
```

Choose Function: Additional Thoughts

- `choose` returns an arbitrary element, not a random element, thus if $x = \text{choose}(a)$ and $y = \text{choose}(a)$, then x **always equals** y
- It would have been nice if `choose` had been defined without a body:

```
choose(p: (nonempty?)): (p)
```

since all of the properties needed are implicit in the return type.

- ▶ If the body were not present, `choose` would **not expand** when using `(grind)` or `(auto-rewrite-theory "sets[nat]")`
- ▶ Recommendation:

```
(auto-rewrite-theory "sets[nat]" :exclude "choose")  
(grind :exclude "choose")  
(install-rewrites :DEFS T :EXCLUDE "choose")
```

Motivation For Finite Sets

We would like to have the following functions defined over sets:

- 1 Cardinality function
- 2 Minimum and maximum over a set
- 3 Summation over a set

and the ability to perform set induction.

Basic Definitions

Let's define a predicate that indicates when a set is finite:

```
is_finite(S): bool = (EXISTS N, (f: [(S)->below[N]]): injective?(f))
```

- So a set is finite if there is a one-to-one function between the members of the set and a finite set of natural numbers.
- The user is free to pick any N that is convenient and not necessarily the smallest.
- `injective?` is defined in the PVS prelude as:

```
functions [D, R: TYPE]: THEORY
  f, g: VAR [D -> R]
  x, x1, x2: VAR D
  y: VAR R

  injective?(f): bool = (FORALL x1, x2: (f(x1) = f(x2) => (x1 = x2)))

  surjective?(f): bool = (FORALL y: (EXISTS x: f(x) = y))

  bijective?(f): bool = injective?(f) & surjective?(f)
```

The type `finite_set`

```
finite_set: TYPE = (is_finite) CONTAINING emptyset[T]
```

A nonempty finite set is defined as follows:

```
non_empty_finite_set: TYPE = {s: finite_set | NOT empty?(s)}
```

The declaration of a finite set variable:

```
IMPORTING finite_sets
S: VAR finite_set[T]
```

REMINDER:

`(is_finite)` is an abbreviation for the type
`{t: setof[T] | is_finite(t)}`

Finite Set Operations

- The standard set operations are defined in the prelude theory, `sets`
- Because `finite_set` is a subtype of `set`, all of the operations on the `set` type are inherited by the `finite_set` type.

The set operations preserve finiteness:

A,B: VAR finite_sets

```
finite_union:      LEMMA is_finite(union(A,B))
finite_intersection: LEMMA is_finite(intersection(A,B))
finite_difference: LEMMA is_finite(difference(A,B))

finite_add:       LEMMA is_finite(add(x,A))
finite_remove:    LEMMA is_finite(remove(x,A))

finite_subset:    LEMMA subset?(S,A) IMPLIES is_finite(S)

finite_singleton: LEMMA is_finite singleton(x)
finite_empty:     LEMMA is_finite(emptyset [T])
finite_rest:      LEMMA is_finite(rest(A))
```

Judgements for Finite Sets - for Reference

```
finite_singleton: JUDGEMENT singleton(x) HAS_TYPE finite_set

finite_union      : JUDGEMENT union(A, B) HAS_TYPE finite_set
finite_intersec1: JUDGEMENT intersection(s, A) HAS_TYPE finite_set
finite_intersec2: JUDGEMENT intersection(A, s) HAS_TYPE finite_set

nonempty_finite_is_nonempty: JUDGEMENT
  non_empty_finite_set SUBTYPE_OF (nonempty?[T])

nonemp_fin_un1: JUDGEMENT union(NA, B) HAS_TYPE non_empty_finite_set
```

- The inclusion of these judgements in the library will minimize the number of TCCs that are generated.
- Without the JUDGEMENT statements, every use of the basic set operations on a finite set (e.g. `add(x,s)`) in a context that requires a finite set, would result in the generation of a TCC.
- What's the different between these judgements and the lemmas on the previous page?

Structure Of The Finite Sets Library

The library contains the following theories

| | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <code>finite_sets</code> | part of the prelude, not library (provides basic type and cardinality) |
| <code>finite_sets_sum</code> | summation over a set |
| <code>finite_sets_minmax</code> | min and max over a set |
| <code>finite_sets_inductions</code> | induction schemes |
| <code>finite_sets_sum_real</code> | additional properties for summations over real-valued functions |
| <code>finite_sets_int</code> | special results of integer sets |
| <code>finite_sets_nat</code> | special results of natural num sets |

The library also contains theories `card_def`, `finite_sets_def`, and `card_lt` which are not meant to be directly imported.

Cardinality of a Finite Set - for Reference

```
S: VAR finite_set[T]

inj_set(S): (nonempty?[nat]) =
  {n | EXISTS (f: [(S)->below[n]]) : injective?(f) }

Card(S): nat = min(inj_set(S))

card(S): {n: nat | n = Card(S)}          % inhibit expansion
```

- Cardinality is defined to be the **smallest** `n` for which an injection exists.
- To inhibit expansion, the `card` function is defined using a return type that is a singleton.
- The definition can be retrieved using a `typepred` command (e.g. `typepred "card(S!1)"`) or the `card_bij` theorem:

```
card_bij: THEOREM card(S) = N IFF
  (EXISTS (f: [(S) -> below[N]]): bijective?(f))
```

Lemmas of card Over the Set Operations

| | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| <code>card_union</code> | $ A \cup B = A + B - A \cap B $ |
| <code>card_add</code> | add one if element is not in set |
| <code>card_remove</code> | remove one if element is in set |
| <code>card_subset</code> | $A \subseteq B$ implies $ A \leq B $ |
| <code>card_emptyset</code> | equals zero |
| <code>card_singleton</code> | equals one |

Most users of the library will only need to use these lemmas and not the more fundamental definition of `card`.

Minimum and Maximum of a Set

The library² provides functions that return the minimum and maximum elements of a set

```
SS: VAR non_empty_finite_set[T]
```

```
min(SS): {a:T | SS(a) AND (FORALL (x:T): SS(x) IMPLIES a <= x)}
```

```
max(SS): {a:T | SS(a) AND (FORALL (x:T): SS(x) IMPLIES x <= a)}
```

- These functions are not constructively defined, but are merely constrained to return a value from a specified set.

The following useful properties of `min` and `max` over the set `union` operator are also provided:

```
A,B: VAR non_empty_finite_set
```

```
min_union: LEMMA min(A) = x AND min(B) = y IMPLIES  
             min(union(A,B)) = min(x,y)
```

```
max_union: LEMMA max(A) = x AND max(B) = y IMPLIES  
             max(union(A,B)) = max(x,y)
```

²nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_minmax.pvs

Summation Over a Set

The library³ provides summation

```
sum(S,f) : RECURSIVE R =  
  IF (empty?(S)) THEN zero  
  ELSE f(choose(S)) + sum(rest(S),f)  
  ENDIF MEASURE (LAMBDA S,f: card(S))
```

Many useful properties of `sum` are available, including:

```
x : VAR T  
S,A,B: VAR finite_set
```

```
sum_empty: THEOREM sum(emptyset[T],f) = zero
```

```
sum_singleton: THEOREM sum singleton(x),f) = f(x) + zero
```

```
sum_add: THEOREM sum(add(x,S),f)  
  = sum(S,f) + IF member(x,S) THEN zero ELSE f(x) ENDIF
```

```
sum_remove: THEOREM sum(remove(x,S),f)  
  + IF member(x,S) THEN f(x) ELSE zero ENDIF = sum(S,f)
```

³nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_sum.pvs

Induction Schemes

The library⁴ provides several induction schemes over sets:

| | |
|---|---|
| <code>cardinal_induction</code> | inducts over cardinality of the set |
| <code>finite_set_induction</code> | $p(\text{emptyset})$ and $p(S) \Rightarrow p(\text{add}(e,S))$ |
| <code>finite_set_ind_modified</code> | $p(\text{emptyset})$, not $s(e)$, and $p(S) \Rightarrow p(\text{add}(e,S))$ |
| <code>finite_set_induction_rest</code> | $p(\text{emptyset})$ and $\text{rest}(S) \Rightarrow p(S)$ |
| <code>finite_set_induction_union</code> | $p(\text{emptyset})$ and $p(S1) \text{ AND } p(S2) \Rightarrow \text{union}(S1,S2)$ |
| <code>finite_set_induction_gen</code> | $(\text{FORALL } S2: S2 < S \Rightarrow p(S2)) \Rightarrow p(S)$ |
| <code>nonempty_card_induction</code> | inducts over cardinality of the set |
| <code>nonempty_finite_set_induct</code> | not $s(e)$, and $p(S) \Rightarrow p(\text{add}(e,S))$ |

Use these by, e.g., `(induct :name "finite_set_induction")`

⁴nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_inductions.pvs

Bags (aka Multisets)⁵

- Sets capture information about membership
- Bags capture information about quantity
bag: TYPE = [T -> nat]
- Located in the `structures` directory of the library
- Convert a bag to a set: `bag_to_set`

Some operations on bags:

```
emptybag      : bag = (LAMBDA t: 0)

insert(x,b)   : bag = (LAMBDA t: IF x = t THEN b(t) + 1 ELSE b(t) ENDIF)
purge(x,b)    : bag = (LAMBDA t: IF x = t THEN 0 ELSE b(t) ENDIF)
extract(x,b)  : bag = (LAMBDA t: IF x = t THEN b(t) ELSE 0 ENDIF)

plus(a,b)     : bag = (LAMBDA t: a(t) + b(t))
union(a,b)    : bag = (LAMBDA t: max(a(t),b(t)))
intersection(a,b): bag = (LAMBDA t: min(a(t),b(t)))
```

⁵Defined in NASA's `structures` library

Object Collections: Four Ways in PVS

- `sequence` [nat -> T]
- `bounded array` [below(N) -> T]
- `finite sequence`
[# length: nat, seq: [below[length] -> T] #]
- `list datatype`
list [T: TYPE]: DATATYPE
BEGIN
 null: null?
 cons (car: T, cdr:list):cons?
END list

lists will be covered in the abstract data type lecture

Sequence

PVS provides a [sequence](#) (i.e., unbounded array) as follows:

T: TYPE

A1: FUNCTION [nat -> T]

A2: ARRAY [nat -> T]

A3: [nat -> T]

A4: sequence[T]

all of which are the same.

Prelude sequences Theory

| function | meaning |
|--------------------------------|---|
| <code>nth(seq, n)</code> | n^{th} element of the sequence |
| <code>suffix(seq, n)</code> | sequence starting after the n^{th} element |
| <code>first(seq)</code> | first element |
| <code>rest(seq)</code> | sequence excluding the first element |
| <code>add(x, seq)</code> | add element x to the sequence |
| <code>delete(n, seq)</code> | delete the n^{th} element |
| <code>insert(x, n, seq)</code> | insert x into seq at n |

In addition to these definitions are certain results such as:

- `add_first_rest`: LEMMA `add(first(seq), rest(seq)) = seq`

Bounded Array⁶

Sometimes it is useful to have an array that is indexed by integer subrange as in a programming language:

```
below_arrays[N: nat, T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  below_array: TYPE = [below(N) -> T]

  A: VAR below_array
  x: VAR T
  ii: VAR below(N)

  in?(x,A): bool = (EXISTS ii: x = A(ii))
END below_arrays
```

Note that `below` is defined in PVS prelude

```
below(i: nat): TYPE = {s: nat | s < i}
```

⁶Defined in NASA's structures library

Definition of Array Maximum - for Reference

`imax_rec`⁷ returns the index of the maximum value

```
imax_rec(A,ii,jj): RECURSIVE below(N) =
  IF jj <= ii THEN ii
  ELSE
    LET IX = imax_rec(A,jj-1) IN
    IF A(IX) <= A(jj) THEN jj ELSE IX ENDIF
  ENDIF MEASURE (LAMBDA A,ii,jj: jj)
```

This generates the following TCCs:

```
imax_rec_TCC1: OBLIGATION (FORALL (jj): jj = 0 IMPLIES 0 < N);
imax_rec_TCC2: OBLIGATION (FORALL (jj): NOT jj = 0
  IMPLIES jj - 1 >= 0 AND jj - 1 < N);
imax_rec_TCC3: OBLIGATION (FORALL (A, jj): NOT jj = 0
  IMPLIES jj - 1 < jj);
```

all of which are discharged with `M-x tcp`.

⁷nasalib/finite_sets/finite_sets_inductions.pvs

Properties of `imax_rec` - for Reference

`imax_rec_lem`: LEMMA $j \leq jj$ IMPLIES $A(j) \leq A(\text{imax_rec}(A, jj))$

Proof:

```
(""
  (induct "jj" 1)
  (("1" (flatten) (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec") (assert))
   ("2" (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec" +) (inst?) (lift-if) (ground))))
```

`imax_rec_rng`: LEMMA $0 \leq \text{imax_rec}(A, jj)$ AND $\text{imax_rec}(A, jj) \leq jj$

Proof:

```
(""
  (induct "jj" 1)
  (("1" (flatten) (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec") (propax))
   ("2" (skosimp*) (expand "imax_rec" +) (inst?) (lift-if) (ground))))
```

Definition of `max(A)` and Properties

`imax(A)`: $\text{below}(N) = \text{imax_rec}(A, N-1)$

`max(A)`: $\text{real} = A(\text{imax}(A))$

`max_lem` : LEMMA $A(i) \leq \text{max}(A)$

`imax_lem`: LEMMA $A(\text{imax}(A)) = \text{max}(A)$

`max_def` : LEMMA $A(i) \leq \text{max}(A)$ AND $\text{in}?(A, \text{max}(A))$

Array Concatenation ⁸

```
concat_arrays [n:nat, m:nat, T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  IMPORTING below_arrays

  a_n: VAR below_array[n,T]
  a_m: VAR below_array[m,T]
  nm : VAR below(n+m)

  o(a_n, a_m): below_array[n+m,T]
    = (LAMBDA nm: IF nm < n THEN a_n(nm)
        ELSE a_m(nm - n)
        ENDIF)
```

- The function `o` overloads a function already defined in the prelude.
- The return type of `o` depends upon the theory parameters `n` and `m`.
- `o` is an operator
 - ▶ Either `o(A,B)` or `A o B` are valid

⁸nasalib/structures/concat_arrays.pvs

Array Concatenation Properties

```
a_n: VAR below_array[n,T]
a_m: VAR below_array[m,T]
nm : VAR below(n+m)
```

```
concat_array_bot0: THEOREM m = 0 IMPLIES a_n o a_m = a_n
concat_array_top0: THEOREM n = 0 IMPLIES a_n o a_m = a_m
```

```
i: VAR below(n)
j: VAR {i: int | i >= n AND i < n+m}
```

```
concat_array_bot : THEOREM (a_n o a_m)(i) = a_n(i)
concat_array_top : THEOREM (a_n o a_m)(j) = a_m(j-n)
```

Array Extraction

Given an array $A = [a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{(N-1)}]$, we want the elements

$$A^{(m,n)} = [a_m, \dots, a_n]$$

```
caret_arrays [N:nat, T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  IMPORTING below_arrays, empty_array_def

  A: VAR below_array[N,T]
  m, n: VAR nat
  p: VAR [nat, below[N]]

  empty_array: below_array[0,T]

  ^ (A, p): below_array[LET (m, n) = p IN
                        IF m > n THEN 0
                        ELSE n - m + 1 ENDIF, T] =
    LET (m, n) = p IN
      IF m <= n THEN (LAMBDA (x: below[n-m+1]): A(x + m))
      ELSE empty_array
      ENDIF
```

Properties of Array Extraction

```
caret_all : LEMMA N > 0 IMPLIES A^(0,N-1) = A
```

```
caret_ii_0: LEMMA FORALL (i: below(N)): (A^(i,i))(0) = A(i)
```

```
caret_elim: LEMMA
  FORALL (j: below(N), i: upto(j), k: below(j-i+1)):
    (A ^ (i, j))(k) = A(i+k)
```

- $(A^{(i,i)})$ extracts an array with a single element
- $(A^{(i,i)})(0)$ returns the single element

Prelude Theory Finite Sequences

```
finite_sequences [T: TYPE]: THEORY
BEGIN
  finite_sequence: TYPE = [# length:nat, seq:[below[length] -> T] #]
  finseq: TYPE = finite_sequence

  fs, fs1, fs2, fs3: VAR finseq
  m, n: VAR nat

  empty_seq: finseq =
    (# length := 0,
     seq := (LAMBDA (x: below[0]): epsilon! (t:T): true) #)

  finseq_appl(fs): [below[length(fs)] -> T] = fs'seq;
```

Finite Sequences Operations

Similar to bounded arrays, concatenation and extraction are defined

Concatenation operator:

```
o(fs1, fs2): finseq =
  LET lsum = fs1'length + fs2'length
  IN (# length := lsum,
     seq := (LAMBDA (n:below[lsum]):
              IF n < fs1'length
                THEN fs1'seq(n)
                ELSE fs2'seq(n-fs1'length)
              ENDIF) #);
```

Extraction operator:

```
p: VAR [nat, nat]

^(fs, p): finseq =
  LET (m, n) = p
  IN IF m > n OR m >= fs'length
     THEN empty_seq
     ELSE LET len = min(n - m + 1, fs'length - m)
          IN (# length := len,
             seq := (LAMBDA (x: below[len]): fs'seq(x + m)) #)
  ENDIF
```