

# More About Coq

## Software Formal Verification

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## The Coq library

Proof development often take advantage from the large base of definitions and facts found in the Coq library.

- *The initial library*: it contains elementary logical notions and datatypes. It constitutes the basic state of the system directly available when running Coq.
- *The standard library*: general-purpose libraries containing various developments of Coq axiomatizations about sets, lists, sorting, arithmetic, etc. This library comes with the system and its modules are directly accessible through the `Require` command.

<http://coq.inria.fr/doc-eng.html>

- *Users' contributions*: user-provided libraries or developments are provided by Coq users' community. These libraries and developments are available for download.

<http://coq.inria.fr/contribs-eng.html>

# Coq standard library

In the Coq system most usual datatypes are represented as inductive types and packages provide a variety of properties, functions, and theorems around these datatypes.

## Some often used packages:

<code>Logic</code>	Classical logic and dependent equality
<code>Arith</code>	Basic Peano arithmetic
<code>ZArith</code>	Basic relative integer arithmetic
<code>Bool</code>	Booleans (basic functions and results)
<code>Lists</code>	Polymorphic lists and Streams
<code>Sets</code>	Sets (classical, constructive, finite, infinite, power set, etc.)
<code>FSets</code>	Specification and implementations of finite sets and finite maps
<code>QArith</code>	Axiomatization of rational numbers
<code>Reals</code>	Formalization of real numbers
<code>Relations</code>	Relations (definitions and basic results)
...	

## Interpretation scopes

To simplify the input of expressions, the Coq system provides a notion of *interpretation scopes*, which define how notations are interpreted.

- An interpretation scope is a set of notations for terms with their interpretation.
- Interpretation scopes provides with a weak, purely syntactical form of notations overloading.
- Scopes may be opened and several scopes may be opened at a time.
- When a given notation has several interpretations, the most recently opened scope takes precedence (the collection of opened scopes may be viewed as a stack).
- It is possible to locally extend the interpretation scope stack using the syntax  $(term)\%key$  (or simply  $term\%key$  for atomic terms), where *key* is a special identifier called *delimiting key* and bound to a given scope.

## Check the following sequence of commands:

```
Require Import ZArith.
Require Import List.

Locate "_ * _".
Locate "_ + _".

Print Scope nat_scope.
Print Scope Z_scope.
Print Scope list_scope.

Check 3.
Eval compute in 4+5.
Check (3*5)%Z.
Eval compute in (3 + 5)%Z.

Open Scope Z_scope.

Check 3.
Check (S (S (S 0))).
Eval compute in 7*3.

Close Scope Z_scope.

Check 3.
```

## Searching the environment

Some useful commands to find already existing proofs of facts in the environment.

- **Search** *ident* - displays the name and type of all theorems of the current context whose statement's conclusion has the form (*ident* t1 .. tn)
- **SearchAbout** *ident* - displays the name and type of all objects (theorems, axioms, etc) of the current context whose statement contains *ident*.
- **SearchPattern** *pattern* - displays the name and type of all theorems of the current context which matches the expression *pattern*.
- **SearchRewrite** *pattern* - displays the name and type of all theorems of the current context whose statement's conclusion is an equality of which one side matches the expression *pattern*.

## Check the following commands:

```
Search le.
SearchAbout le.
SearchPattern (le (_ + _) (_ + _)).
SearchPattern (_ + _ <= _ + _).
SearchRewrite (_ + (_ - _)).
```

# Implicit arguments

Some typing information in terms are redundant.

A subterm can be replaced by symbol `_` if it can be inferred from the other parts of the term during typing.

```
Definition comp : forall A B C:Set, (A->B) -> (B->C) -> A -> C
  := fun A B C f g x => g (f x).
```

```
Definition example (A:Set) (f:nat->A) := comp _ _ _ S f.
```

The implicit arguments mechanism makes possible to avoid `_` in Coq expressions. The arguments that could be inferred are automatically determined and declared as implicit arguments when a function is defined.

Set Implicit Arguments.

```
Definition comp1 : forall A B C:Set, (A->B) -> (B->C) -> A -> C
  := fun A B C f g x => g (f x).
```

```
Definition example1 (A:Set) (f:nat->A) := comp1 S f.
```

# Implicit arguments

A special syntax (using `@`) allows to refer to the constant without implicit arguments.

```
Check (@comp1 nat nat nat S S).
```

It is also possible to specify an explicit value for an implicit argument.

```
Check (comp1 (C:=nat) S).
```

The generation of implicit arguments can be disabled with

Unset Implicit Arguments.

It is possible to enforce some implicit arguments.

```
Definition comp2 : forall A B C:Set, (A->B) -> (B->C) -> A -> C
  := fun A B C f g x => g (f x).
```

```
Implicit Arguments comp2 [A C].
```

```
Definition example2 (A:Set) (f:nat->A) := comp2 nat S f.
```

```
Print Implicit example2.
```

```
Print Implicit comp2.
```

# Proof irrelevance

Let  $P$  be a proposition and  $t$  a term of type  $P$ .

The following commands are **not** equivalent:

```
Theorem name : P.  
Proof t.
```

```
Definition name : P := t.
```

- A definition made with `Definition` or `Let` is **transparent**: its value  $t$  and type  $P$  are both visible for later use.
- A definition made with `Theorem`, `Lemma`, etc., is **opaque**: only the type  $P$  and the existence of the value  $t$  are made visible for later use.
- Transparent definition can be unfolded and can be subject to  $\delta$ -reduction, while opaque definitions cannot.

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

# Basic tactics

- `intro`, `intros` – introduction rule for  $\Pi$  (several times)
- `apply` – elimination rule for  $\Pi$
- `assumption` – match conclusion with an hypothesis
- `exact` – gives directly the exact proof term of the goal

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

# Tactics for first-order reasoning

Proposition ( $P$ )	Introduction	Elimination ( $H$ of type $P$ )
$\perp$		<code>elim H, contradiction</code>
$\neg A$	<code>intro</code>	<code>apply H</code>
$A \wedge B$	<code>split</code>	<code>elim H, destruct H as [H1 H2]</code>
$A \Rightarrow B$	<code>intro</code>	<code>apply H</code>
$A \vee B$	<code>left, right</code>	<code>elim H, destruct H as [H1 H2]</code>
$\forall x:A. Q$	<code>intro</code>	<code>apply H</code>
$\exists x:A. Q$	<code>exists witness</code>	<code>elim H, destruct H as [x H1]</code>

# Tactics for equational reasoning

- `rewrite` – rewrites a goal using an equality.
- `rewrite <-` – rewrites a goal using an equality in the reverse direction.
- `reflexivity` – reflexivity property for equality.
- `symmetry` – symmetry property for equality.
- `transitivity` – transitivity property for equality.
- `replace a with b` – replaces `a` by `b` while generating the subgoal `a=b`.
- ...

# Convertibility tactics

- `simpl`, `red`, `cbv`, `lazy`, `compute` – performs evaluation.
- `unfold` – applies the  $\delta$  rule for a transparent constant.
- `pattern` – performs a beta-expansion on the goal.
- `change` – replaces the goal by a convertible one.
- ...

## Tactics for inductive reasoning

- `elim` – to apply the corresponding induction principle.
- `induction` – performs induction on an identifier.
- `case`, `destruct` – performs case analysis.
- `constructor` – applies to a goal such that the head of its conclusion is an inductive constant.
- `discriminate` – discriminates objects built from different constructors.
- `injection` – applies the fact that constructors of inductive types are injections.
- `inversion` – given an inductive type instance, find all the necessary condition that must hold on the arguments of its constructors
- ...

## Other useful tactics and commands

- `clear` – removes an hypothesis from the environment.
- `generalize` – reintroduces an hypothesis into the goal.
- `cut`, `assert` – proves the goal through an intermediate result.
- `absurd` – applies False elimination.
- `contradict` – allows to manipulate negated hypothesis and goals.
- `refine` – allows to give an exact proof but still with some holes (“\_”).
- ...
  
- `Admitted` – aborts the current proof and replaces the statement by an axiom that can be used in later proofs.
- `Abort` – aborts the current proof without saving anything.

## Combining tactics

The basic tactics can be combined into more powerful tactics using tactics combinators, also called *tacticals*.

- `t1 ; t2` – applies tactic `t1` to the current goal and then `t2` to each generated subgoal.
- `t1 || t2` – applies tactic `t1`; if it fails then applies `t2`.
- `t ; [ t1 | ... | tn ]` – applies `t` and then `ti` to the *i*-th generated subgoals; there must be exactly *n* subgoals generated by `t`.
- `idtac` – does nothing
- `try t` – applies `t` if it does not fail; otherwise does nothing.
- `repeat t` – repeats `t` as long as it does not fail.
- `solve t` – applies `t` only if it solves the current goal.
- ...

The Coq system has a tactic language for programming new tactics: `Ltac`



# Automatic tactics

- `trivial` – tries those tactics that can solve the goal in one step.
- `auto` – tries a combination of tactics `intro`, `apply` and `assumption` using the theorems stored in a database as hints for this tactic.
- `eauto` – like `auto` but more powerful but also more time-consuming.
- `autorewrite` – repeats rewriting with a collection of theorems, using these theorems always in the same direction.
- `tauto` – useful to prove facts that are tautologies in intuitionistic PL.
- `intuition` – useful to prove facts that are tautologies in intuitionistic FOL.
- `ring` – does proves of equality for expressions containing addition and multiplication.
- `omega` – proves systems of linear inequations (sums of  $n * x$  terms).
- `field` – like `ring` but for a field structure (it also considers division).
- `fourier` – like `omega` but for real numbers.
- `subst` – replaces all the occurrences of a variable defined in the hypotheses.
- ...

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# Controlling automation

Several *hint databases* are defined in the Coq standard library. The actual content of a database is the collection of the hints declared to belong to this database in each of the various modules currently loaded.

- `Hint Resolve` – add theorems to the database of hints to be used by `auto` using `apply`.
- `Hint Rewrite` – add theorems to the database of hints to be used by `autorewrite`
- ...

Defined databases: `core`, `arith`, `zarith`, `bool`, `datatypes`, `sets`, `typeclass_instances`, `v62`.

One can optionally declare a hint database using the command `Create HintDb`. If a hint is added to an unknown database, it will be automatically created.

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See the [Reference Manual](#) ...

## Some datatypes of programming

```
Inductive unit : Set := tt : unit.
```

```
Inductive bool : Set := true : bool | false : bool.
```

```
Inductive nat : Set := 0 : nat | S : nat -> nat.
```

```
Inductive option (A : Type) : Type := Some : A -> option A  
| None : option A.
```

```
Inductive identity (A : Type) (a : A) : A -> Type :=  
  refl_identity : identity A a a.
```

Some operations on bool are also provided: `andb` (with infix notation `&&`), `orb` (with infix notation `||`), `xorb`, `implb` and `negb`.

# Some datatypes of programming

```
Inductive sum (A B : Type) : Type := inl : A -> A + B
                                     | inr : B -> A + B.
```

```
Inductive prod (A B : Type) : Type := pair : A -> B -> A * B.
```

```
Definition fst (A B : Type) (p : A * B) := let (x, _) := p in x.
```

```
Definition snd (A B : Type) (p : A * B) := let (_, y) := p in y.
```

The constructive sum  $\{A\}+\{B\}$  of two propositions A and B.

```
Inductive sumbool (A B : Prop) : Set :=
  | left : A -> {A} + {B}
  | right : B -> {A} + {B}.
```

## If-then-else

- The `sumbool` type can be used to define an “if-then-else” construct in Coq.
- Coq accepts the syntax if `test` then ... else ... when `test` has either of type `bool` or  $\{A\}+\{B\}$ , with propositions A and B.

- Its meaning is the pattern-matching

```
match test with
| left H => ...
| right H => ...
end.
```

- We can identify  $\{P\}+\{\sim P\}$  as the type of decidable predicates:

The standard library defines many useful predicates, e.g.

```
le_lt_dec : forall n m : nat, {n <= m} + {m < n}
```

```
Z_eq_dec : forall x y : Z, {x = y} + {x <> y}
```

```
Z_lt_ge_dec : forall x y : Z, {x < y} + {x >= y}
```

## A function that checks if an element is in a list.

```
Fixpoint elem (a:Z) (l:list Z) {struct l} : bool :=
  match l with
  | nil => false
  | cons x xs => if Z_eq_dec x a then true else (elem a xs)
  end.
```

## Exercise:

Prove that

```
Theorem elem_corr : forall (a:Z) (l1 l2:list Z),
  elem a (app l1 l2) = orb (elem a l1) (elem a l2).
```

# The “subset” type

- Coq’s type system allows to combine a datatype and a predicate over this type, creating “the type of data that satisfies the predicate”. Intuitively, the type one obtains represents a **subset** of the initial type.

```
Inductive sig (A : Type) (P : A -> Prop) : Type :=
  exist : forall x : A, P x -> sig A P.
```

- Given  $A:\text{Type}$  and  $P:A\rightarrow\text{Prop}$ , the syntactical convention for  $(\text{Sig } A \ P)$  is the construct  $\{x:A \mid P \ x\}$ . (Predicate  $P$  is the *characteristic function* of this set).
- We may build elements of this set as  $(\text{exist } x \ p)$  whenever we have a *witness*  $x:A$  with its *justification*  $p:P \ x$ .
- From such a  $(\text{exist } x \ p)$  we may in turn *extract* its witness  $x:A$ .
- In technical terms, one says that  $\text{sig}$  is a “*dependent sum*” or a  $\Sigma$ -*type*.

# The “subset” type

A value of type  $\{x:A \mid P\ x\}$  should contain a *computation* component that says how to obtain a value  $v$  and a *certificate*, a proof that  $v$  satisfies predicate  $P$ .

A variant `sig2` with two predicates is also provided.

```
Inductive sig2 (A : Type) (P Q : A -> Prop) : Type :=  
  exist2 : forall x : A, P x -> Q x -> sig2 A P Q
```

The notation for  $(\text{sig2 } A \ P \ Q)$  is  $\{x:A \mid P \ x \ \& \ Q \ x\}$ .

## Functional correctness

There are **two approaches** to defining functions and providing proofs that they satisfy a given specification:

- To define these functions with a *weak specification* and then add *companion lemmas*.  
For instance, we define a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and we prove a statement of the form  $\forall x:A, R \ x \ (f \ x)$ , where  $R$  is a relation coding the intended input/output behaviour of the function.
- To give a *strong specification* of the function: the type of this function directly states that the input is a value  $x$  of type  $A$  and that the output is the combination of a value  $v$  of type  $B$  and a proof that  $v$  satisfies  $R \ x \ v$ .  
This kind of specification usually relies on dependent types.

# Partiality

The Coq system **does not allow** the definition of partial functions (i.e. functions that give a run-time error on certain inputs). However we can enrich the function domain with a precondition that assures that invalid inputs are excluded.

- A partial function from type  $A$  to type  $B$  can be described with a type of the form  $\forall x:A, P x \rightarrow B$ , where  $P$  is a predicate that describes the function's domain.
- Applying a function of this type requires two arguments: a term  $t$  of type  $A$  and a proof of the precondition  $P t$ .

## An example

An attempt to define the head function as follows will fail

```
Definition head (A:Type) (l:list A) : A :=  
  match l with  
  | cons x xs => x  
  end.
```

```
Error: Non exhaustive pattern-matching: no clause found  
      for pattern nil
```

To overcome the above difficulty, we need to:

- consider a precondition that excludes all the erroneous argument values;
- pass to the function an additional argument: a proof that the precondition holds;
- the match constructor return type is lifted to a function from a proof of the precondition to the result type.
- any invalid branch in the match constructor leads to a logical contradiction (it violates the precondition).

## An example

```
Definition head (A:Type) (l:list A) (p:l<>nil) : A.
refine (fun A l p=>
  match l return (l<>nil->A) with
  | nil => fun H => _
  | cons x xs => fun H => x
  end p).
elim H; reflexivity.
Defined.
```

Print Implicit head.

```
head : forall (A : Type) (l : list A), l <> nil -> A
```

Arguments A, l are implicit

## An example

The specification of head is:

```
Definition headPre (A:Type) (l:list A) : Prop := l<>nil.
```

```
Inductive headRel (A:Type) (x:A) : list A -> Prop :=
  headIntro : forall l, headRel x (cons x l).
```

The correctness of function head is thus given by the following theorem:

```
Theorem head_correct : forall (A:Type) (l:list A) (p:headPre l),
  headRel (head p) l.
```

Proof.

```
induction l.
```

```
intro H; elim H; reflexivity.
```

```
intros; destruct l; [simpl; constructor | simpl; constructor].
```

```
Qed.
```

# Extraction

- Conventional programming languages do not provide dependent types and well-typed functions in Coq do not always correspond to well-typed functions in the target programming language.
- In CIC functions may contain subterms corresponding to proofs that have practically no interest with respect to the final value.
- The computations done in the proofs correspond to verifications that should be done once and for all at compile-time, while the computation on the actual data needs to be done for each value presented to functions at run-time.
- Coq implements this mechanism of filtering the computational content from the objects - the so called **extraction mechanism**.
- The distinction between the sorts Prop and Set is used to mark the logical aspects that should be discharged during extraction or the computational aspects that should be kept.

# Extraction

Coq supports different target languages: Ocaml, Haskell, Scheme.

Check head.

```
head : forall (A : Type) (l : list A), l <> nil -> A
```

```
Extraction Language Haskell.  
Extraction Inline False_rect.  
Extraction head.
```

```
head :: (List a1) -> a1  
head l =  
  case l of  
    Nil -> Prelude.error "absurd case"  
    Cons x xs -> x
```



# Specification types

Using  $\Sigma$ -types we can express specification constraints in the type of a function - we simply restrict the codomain type to those values satisfying the specification.

- Consider the following definition of the inductive relation “ $x$  is the last element of list  $l$ ”, and the theorem specifying the function that gives the last element of a list.

```
Inductive Last (A:Type) (x:A) : list A -> Prop :=
| last_base : Last x (cons x nil)
| last_step  : forall l y, Last x l -> Last x (cons y l).
```

```
Theorem last_correct : forall (A:Type) (l:list A),
  l<>nil -> { x:A | Last x l }.
```

- By proving this theorem we build an inhabitant of this type, and then we can extract the computational content of this proof, and obtain a function that satisfies the specification.
- The Coq system thus provides a **certified software production tool**, since the extracted programs satisfy the specifications described in the formal developments.

# Specification types

Let us build an inhabitant of that type

```
Theorem last_correct : forall (A:Type) (l:list A),
  l<>nil -> { x:A | Last x l }.
```

Proof.

```
induction l.
```

```
intro H; elim H; reflexivity.
```

```
intros. destruct l.
```

```
exists a; auto.
```

```
constructor.
```

```
elim IHl.
```

```
intros; exists x.
```

```
constructor. assumption.
```

```
discriminate.
```

```
Qed.
```

# Program extraction

We can extract the computational content of the proof of the last theorem.

```
Extraction Language Haskell.
```

```
Extraction Inline False_rect.
```

```
Extraction Inline sig_rect.
```

```
Extraction Inline list_rect.
```

```
Extraction last_correct.
```

```
last_correct :: (List a1) -> a1
last_correct l =
  case l of
    Nil -> Prelude.error "absurd case"
    Cons a l0 -> (case l0 of
      Nil -> a
      Cons a0 l1 -> last_correct l0)
```

## Case study: sorting a list

A simple characterisation of **sorted lists** consists in requiring that two consecutive elements be compatible with the  $\leq$  relation.

We can codify this with the following predicate:

```
Open Scope Z_scope.
```

```
Inductive Sorted : list Z -> Prop :=
| sorted0 : Sorted nil
| sorted1 : forall z:Z, Sorted (z :: nil)
| sorted2 :
  forall (z1 z2:Z) (l:list Z),
    z1 <= z2 ->
    Sorted (z2 :: l) -> Sorted (z1 :: z2 :: l).
```

## Case study: sorting a list

To capture **permutations**, instead of an inductive definition we will define the relation using an auxiliary function that count the number of occurrences of elements:

```
Fixpoint count (z:Z) (l:list Z) {struct l} : nat :=
  match l with
  | nil => 0%nat
  | (z' :: l') =>
    match Z_eq_dec z z' with
    | left _ => S (count z l')
    | right _ => count z l'
    end
  end.
```

A list is a permutation of another when contains exactly the same number of occurrences (for each possible element):

```
Definition Perm (l1 l2:list Z) : Prop :=
  forall z, count z l1 = count z l2.
```

## Case study: sorting a list

### Exercise:

Prove that Perm is an equivalence relation:

```
Lemma Perm_reflex : forall l:list Z, Perm l l.
```

```
Lemma Perm_sym : forall l1 l2, Perm l1 l2 -> Perm l2 l1.
```

```
Lemma Perm_trans : forall l1 l2 l3,
  Perm l1 l2 -> Perm l2 l3 -> Perm l1 l3.
```

### Exercise:

Prove the following lemmas:

```
Lemma Perm_cons : forall a l1 l2,
  Perm l1 l2 -> Perm (a::l1) (a::l2).
```

```
Lemma Perm_cons_cons : forall x y l, Perm (x::y::l) (y::x::l).
```

## Case study: sorting a list

A simple strategy to sort a list consist in iterate an “insert” function that inserts an element in a sorted list.

```
Fixpoint insert (x:Z) (l:list Z) {struct l} : list Z :=
  match l with
  | nil => cons x nil
  | cons h t =>
    match Z_lt_ge_dec x h with
    | left _ => cons x (cons h t)
    | right _ => cons h (insert x t)
    end
  end.
```

```
Fixpoint isort (l:list Z) : list Z :=
  match l with
  | nil => nil
  | cons h t => insert h (isort t)
  end.
```

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

## Case study: sorting a list

The theorem we want to prove is:

```
Theorem isort_correct : forall (l l':list Z),
  l'=isort l -> Perm l l' /\ Sorted l'.
```

We will certainly need auxiliary lemmas... Let us make a prospective proof attempt:

```
Theorem isort_correct : forall (l l':list Z),
  l'=isort l -> Perm l l' /\ Sorted l'.
induction l; intros.
unfold Perm; rewrite H; split; auto.
simpl. constructor. simpl in H.
rewrite H. (* ?????????????? *)
```

```
a : Z
l : list Z
IH1 : forall l' : list Z, l' = isort l -> Perm l l' /\ Sorted l'
l' : list Z
H : l' = insert a (isort l)
=====
Perm (a :: l) (insert a (isort l)) /\ Sorted (insert a (isort l))
```

## Case study: sorting a list

It is now clear what are the needed lemmas:

```
Lemma insert_Perm : forall x l, Perm (x::l) (insert x l).
```

```
unfold Perm; induction l.
simpl. reflexivity.
simpl insert. elim (Z_lt_ge_dec x a). reflexivity.
intros. rewrite Perm_cons_cons.
pattern (x::l). simpl count. elim (Z_eq_dec z a).
intros. rewrite IHl; reflexivity.
intros. apply IHl.
Qed.
```

```
Lemma insert_Sorted : forall x l, Sorted l -> Sorted (insert x l).
```

```
intros x l H; elim H; simpl.
constructor.
intro z; elim (Z_lt_ge_dec x z); intros.
constructor.
auto with zarith.
...
Qed.
```

## Case study: sorting a list

Now we can conclude the proof of correctness...

```
Theorem isort_correct : forall (l l':list Z),
    l'=isort l -> Perm l l' /\ Sorted l'.
```

Proof.

```
induction l; intros.
unfold Perm; rewrite H; split; auto.
simpl. constructor. simpl in H.
rewrite H. (* ?????????????? *)
elim (IHl (isort l)); intros; split.
apply Perm_trans with (a::isort l).
unfold Perm. intro z. simpl. elim (Z_eq_dec z a). intros.
elim H0; reflexivity.
intros. elim H0. reflexivity.
apply insert_Perm.
apply insert_Sorted.
assumption.
Qed.
```

## Case study: sorting a list

### Exercise:

Complete the following proof and extract its computational content to an Haskell function.

```
Definition inssort : forall (l:list Z),
                        { l' | Perm l l' & Sorted l' }.
induction l.
...
Defined.
```

### Exercise:

Use the same method to extract the insert function from its specification.

## Non-structural recursion

When the recursion pattern of a function is not structural in the arguments, we are no longer able to directly use the derived recursors to define it.

### Consider the Euclidean division algorithm written in Haskell

```
div :: Int -> Int -> (Int,Int)
div n d | n < d = (0,n)
        | otherwise = let (q,r) := div (n-d) d
                          in (q+1,r)
```

- In recent versions of Coq (after v8.1), a new command `Function` allows to directly encode general recursive functions.
- The `Function` command accepts a measure function that specifies how the argument “decreases” between recursive function calls.
- It generates proof-obligations that must be checked to guaranty the termination.

## Non-structural recursion

Close Scope Z\_scope.

```
Function div (p:nat*nat) {measure fst} : nat*nat :=
  match p with
  | (_,0) => (0,0)
  | (a,b) => if le_lt_dec b a
             then let (x,y) := div (a-b,b) in (1+x,y)
             else (0,a)
  end.
Proof.
intros.
simpl.
omega.
Qed.
```

The Function command generates a lot of auxiliary results related to the defined function. Some of them are powerful tools to reason about it.

## Non-structural recursion

The Function command is also useful to provide “natural encodings” of functions that otherwise would need to be expressed in a contrived manner.

### Exercise:

Complete the definition of the function merge, presenting a proof of its termination.

```
Function merge (p:list Z*list Z)
{measure (fun p=>(length (fst p))+(length (snd p)))} : list Z :=
  match p with
  | (nil,l) => l
  | (l,nil) => l
  | (x::xs,y::ys) => if Z_lt_ge_dec x y
                     then x::(merge (xs,y::ys))
                     else y::(merge (x::xs,ys))
  end.
```

# Another example of correctness

## A specification of the Euclidean division algorithm:

```
Definition divRel (args:nat*nat) (res:nat*nat) : Prop :=  
  let (n,d):=args in let (q,r):=res in q*d+r=n /\ r<d.
```

```
Definition divPre (args:nat*nat) : Prop := (snd args)<>0.
```

## A proof of correctness:

```
Theorem div_correct : forall (p:nat*nat), divPre p -> divRel p (div p).  
Proof.  
unfold divPre, divRel.  
intro p.  
(* we make use of the specialised induction principle to conduct the proof... *)  
functional induction (div p); simpl.  
intro H; elim H; reflexivity.  
(* a first trick: we expand (div (a-b,b)) in order to get rid of the let (q,r)=... *)  
replace (div (a-b,b)) with (fst (div (a-b,b)),snd (div (a-b,b))) in IHp0.  
simpl in *.  
intro H; elim (IHp0 H); intros.  
split.  
(* again a similar trick: we expand "x" and "y0" in order to use an hypothesis *)  
change (b + (fst (x,y0)) * b + (snd (x,y0)) = a).  
rewrite <- e1.  
omega.  
(* and again... *)  
change (snd (x,y0)<b); rewrite <- e1; assumption.  
symmetry; apply surjective_pairing.  
auto.  
Qed.
```