

A Step-Indexing Approach to Partial Functions

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We describe an ACL2 package for defining partial recursive functions that also supports efficient execution. While packages for defining partial recursive functions already exist for other theorem provers, they often require inductive definitions or recursion operators which are not available in ACL2 and they provide little, if any, support for executing the resulting definitions. We use step-indexing as the underlying implementation technology, enabling the definitions to be carried out in first order logic. We also show how recent enhancements to ACL2's guard feature can be used to enable the efficient execution of partial recursive functions.

1 Introduction

The provision of support for defining and reasoning about recursive functions has been an ongoing theme in interactive proof assistants since at least the time of the original LCF and Boyer-Moore systems. In most of the current interactive proof systems, one can expect to be able to introduce a function defined by recursion(s) of practically any form, and to thereupon be supplied with appropriate tools for reasoning about the function, *e.g.*, the specified recursion equations and an induction theorem customized to the recursion pattern.

Of particular interest in recent work is the ability to define *partial* functions. Supporting partiality is of course important in modeling systems of any kind. Partiality also proves to be a valuable tool when dealing with the well-known difficulties posed by nested recursion, since partiality support often allows straightforward proofs of termination [6]. Finally, support for partiality means that the two tasks of (a) defining a function's behavior and (b) showing that the function terminates, can be completely separated by first defining the function as a partial function and, when convenient, showing that the function terminates.

In a logic of total functions, such as ACL2 or HOL, partiality can be modeled by defining a separate *domain predicate*, which is used to constrain the introduced function. Given arguments which happen to be in its domain, the partial function can be unfolded to yield the corresponding element of its range. A correspondingly constrained induction theorem can also be produced.

In some work in Isabelle/HOL [6] the graph of the partial function and its domain predicate are introduced by inductive definitions. However, there are other ways of approaching the definition task. For example, the first author has shown how techniques from compilers for functional languages (continuations and defunctionalization) can be adapted to define partial functions in a first-order setting [4]. In this paper we explore a new approach that uses *step-indexing*. This new approach is very simple and supports efficient evaluation of partial functions, an important requirement not previously addressed by others.

Step-indexing Step-indexing is a technique which adds a counter to objects being modeled in a logical construction or an execution. It is typically used to help in reasoning about difficult recursive constructs, since the counter helps introduce a notion of step of construction (or computation), and therefore can sometimes allow simple inductions. By this expedient, one can often avoid heavyweight domain theory

(dealing with limits of approximations) and instead perform much simpler proofs on individual approximations (roughly speaking). The nomenclature was introduced in [1] but similar ideas appear elsewhere, *e.g.*, in the notion of *interpreter admissibility* used in the semantics of the ACL2 theory mechanism [5] and earlier [3].

2 Illustrative Example

In the following, we will describe the process of definition by a worked example. Our description may seem somewhat *ad hoc* but, in fact, the derivations are completely schematic and we are just using the example to give concrete instances of general proofs.

Ackermann's function will be the running example: it is reasonably familiar, and has nested recursion, which reveals issues that don't arise with non-nested recursions. Ackermann's function is defined as:

```
(equal (ack x y)
  (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
    (if (= y 0) (ack (1- x) 1)
      (ack (1- x) (ack x (1- y)))))))
```

This recursion terminates for natural number arguments as it is an example of *iterated primitive recursion*, *i.e.*, one where the arguments to each recursive call get smaller under the lexicographic combination of the predecessor relation on \mathbb{N} . In ACL2, however, we must consider the behavior of the function for all possible input values, including the negative integers. Consequently the above recursion equations describe a partial function and *specifies* the following theorems:

- Equational characterization of the domain.

```
(equal (ack-domain x y)
  (if (= x 0) t
    (if (= y 0) (ack-domain (1- x) 1)
      (and (ack-domain x (1- y))
        (ack-domain (1- x) (ack x (1- y)))))))
```

- Constrained recursion equations:

```
(implies
  (ack-domain x y)
  (equal (ack x y)
    (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
      (if (= y 0) (ack (1- x) 1)
        (ack (1- x) (ack x (1- y)))))))
```

- Constrained induction theorem:

```
(and (implies (and (ack-domain x y)
  (not (= x 0))
  (not (= y 0))
  (:p x (+ -1 y)))
  (:p x y))
  (implies (and (ack-domain x y)
  (not (= x 0))
  (not (= y 0))
```

```

      (:p x (+ -1 y))
      (:p (+ -1 x) (ack x (+ -1 y))))
    (:p x y))
  (implies (and (ack-domain x y)
                (not (= x 0))
                (= y 0)
                (:p (+ -1 x) 1))
            (:p x y))
  (implies (and (ack-domain x y)
                (= x 0))
            (:p x y)))

```

3 Base formalization

We will next show how `ack` and `ack-domain` are defined and discuss the derivation of the specified theorems. We have considered two approaches:

Approach K transforms the input equations using the partiality monad [8] before defining a step-indexed version of the function. In `ACL2`, the partial operation is transformed to manipulate a pair consisting of an error flag and a value. The intended function and its domain are simple definitions in terms of the step-indexed version.

Approach G does not transform the input. Instead, it directly defines the step-indexed function and also the step-indexed domain.

This paper will focus on approach G as it is fully implemented in `ACL2`. The method directly defines `iack`, the step-indexed version of `ack`, with very little transformation.

```

(defun iack (d x y)
  (if (zp d) (+ y 1)
      (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
          (if (= y 0) (iack (1- d) (1- x) 1)
              (iack (1- d) (1- x) (iack x (1- d) (1- y)))))))

```

The only difference from the original equations for `ack`, besides the addition of the index d which decrements at each recursive call, is a new base case which deals with the case when the index drops to zero. In that case, a default result is returned which the user may provide. If the user does not provide a default value, the mechanization picks a value from among the original base cases ($y+1$ in this example).

Indexed domain The logical domain predicate `Lack-dom`, to be introduced later, is defined in terms of a step-indexed version `iack-dom`, which is, again, defined primitive recursively over an index that decrements at each recursive call.

```

(defun iack-dom (d x y)
  (if (zp d) (= x 0)
      (if (= x 0) t
          (if (= y 0) (iack-dom (1- d) (1- x) 1)
              (and (iack-dom (1- d) x (1- y))
                   (iack-dom (1- d) (1- x) (iack (1- d) x (1- y)))))))

```

Note, however, that the definition of `iack-dom` is not a completely direct adaptation of the original equations, since inner calls in nested recursions are lifted out separately as arguments to `iack-dom`. Again, we have to supply a value when the index drops to zero. A disjunction of all of the tests that drive control flow into a base case is used ($x = 0$ in our example).

Measure function A crucial part of the development is a *measure* function, `ack-measure`, having the property that it yields the least depth of recursion needed to obtain a result for the given inputs, when such a depth exists. We proceed in two steps. First, we use the `defchoose` facility to introduce a function `ack-depth`, which yields a depth of recursion sufficient to obtain a result if such a depth exists.

```
(defchoose ack-depth (d)
  (iack-dom d x y))
```

While this step of the formalization is not constructive and not computable we will derive computable consequences.

In order to formulate the desired induction theorem for `ack`, we will need to have the *least* depth of recursion. The least depth can be computed once it is known that there is a depth at which recursion terminates; thus we construct a recursive function `iack-min-index` which returns the smallest depth at which `iack-dom` holds.

```
(defun iack-min-index (d x y)
  (if (zp d) 0
      (if (not (iack-dom d x y)) 0
          (if (not (iack-dom (1- d) x y)) d
              (iack-min-index (1- d) x y))))))
```

With that in hand, we define

```
(defun ack-measure (x y)
  (iack-min-index (ack-depth x y) x y))
```

and prove that `ack-measure` returns the least index, when there is an index at which `iack` terminates. We then define the logical definition for `ack`—`Lack`—and a logical definition for its domain—`Lack-dom`.

```
(defun Lack (x y) (iack (ack-measure x y) x y))

(defun Lack-dom (x y) (iack-dom (ack-measure x y) x y))
```

Basic properties Later proofs require a small collection of properties about the definedness of `iack`, namely that it is deterministic and stable, and `ack-measure` is canonical.

```
(defthm iack-deterministic
  (implies (and (iack-dom d1 x y) (iack-dom d2 x y))
            (equal (iack d1 x y)
                   (iack d2 x y))))

(defthm iack-stable
  (implies (and (iack-dom d1 x y) (< (nfix d1) (nfix d2)))
            (iack-dom d2 x y)))

(defthm iack-measure-canonical
  (implies (iack-dom d x y)
            (equal (iack d x y)
                   (iack (ack-measure x y) x y))))
```

These are straightforward to prove.

In ACL2, the least-depth property possessed by `ack-measure` is not as useful to the proof automation as a recursive characterization, especially in the proofs of the recursive presentations of `Lack-dom` and `Lack`. Here is the recursion equation for `ack-measure`:

```
(equal (ack-measure x y)
  (if (not (Lack-dom x y)) 0
    (if (= x 0) 0
      (if (= y 0) (1+ (ack-measure (1- x) 1))
        (1+ (max (ack-measure x (1- y))
                  (ack-measure (1- x) (Lack x (1- y))))))))))
```

Thus, the depth of a recursive call is one less than that of the originating call. For multiple recursions, the maximum of the depths of the recursions is one less than the depth of the originating call. As a result, the measure decreases along each recursive call. Using this equation for `ack-measure`, ACL2 is able to prove the following theorems about `Lack-dom` and `Lack`:

```
(equal (Lack-dom x y)
  (if (= x 0) t
    (if (= y 0) (Lack-dom (1- x) 1)
      (and (Lack-dom x (1- y))
           (Lack-dom (1- x) (Lack x (1- y)))))))

(equal (Lack x y)
  (if (not (Lack-dom x y)) (1+ y)
    (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
      (if (= y 0) (Lack (1- x) 1)
        (Lack (1- x) (Lack x (1- y)))))))
```

With the characterizations of the domain and the measure, we are now in a position to introduce a logical induction scheme for `Lack`. The induction scheme is a variation of the body of `Lack-dom`, extended with a guard on the domain, `Lack-dom`, and justified by `ack-measure`.

```
(defun Lack-induction (x y)
  (declare (xargs :measure (ack-measure x y)))
  (if (not (Lack-domain x y)) nil
    (if (= x 0) t
      (if (= y 0) (Lack-induction (1- x) 1)
        (and (Lack-induction x (1- y))
             (Lack-induction (1- x) (Lack x (1- y))))))))
```

4 Executable versions

We now have a useful logical theory for `Lack`: a defining theorem, a domain predicate, a measure and an induction scheme. Constructing efficient executables within this logical theory, however, is not simple. The defining theorem for `Lack` includes a call of `Lack-dom` and the defining theorem for `Lack-dom` includes a call of `Lack`. Thus, `Lack` and `Lack-dom` are mutually recursive. However, naively checking membership in the domain for every argument in an execution would be unnecessarily expensive. To address this we define a mutually recursive set of functions, `mack` (for mutually recursive `ack`) and `ack-domain`, and attach executable bodies to them using appropriate guards and MBE. The logical definitions of these functions are quite benign; it is in the executable definitions and the guards that things get interesting.

```
(mutual-recursion

(defun mack (x y)
  (declare (xargs :guard (ack-domain x y)))
  (mbe :logic (Lack x y)
       :exec (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
                 (if (= y 0) (mack (1- x) 1)
                     (mack (1- x) (mack x (1- y)))))))

(defun ack-domain (x y)
  (mbe :logic (Lack-dom x y)
       :exec (if (= x 0) t
                 (if (= y 0) (ack-domain (1- x) 1)
                     (and (ack-domain x (1- y))
                          (ack-domain (1- x) (Lack x (1- y)))))))

)
```

The executable body of `ack-domain` still calls `mack`, but note that the executable body of `mack` does not call `ack-domain`. A check on the domain is, however, necessary to complete the requisite proof that the logical body, `Lack`, is the same as the executable body. This necessary check on the domain is included as a call to `ack-domain` in the guard of `mack`¹. The ability to use other functions from within a mutually recursive clique as guards was added to ACL2 in version 3.6. The beauty of using `ack-domain` as a guard is that it need only be satisfied once (prior to calling `mack`) rather than once every iteration of `mack`, as would have been the case had we used the defining theorem of `Lack` above.

While a single call to `ack-domain` is much better than many calls, any such call can result in substantial execution overhead for a given call of `ack`. For reflexive functions such as `ack`, the cost of evaluating the domain function may actually be exponentially more expensive than the cost of evaluating the function itself. To minimize this overhead, we refine our executable model even further by introducing another indexed version of `ack`, called `comp-ack` for *computational ack*. The only difference between `comp-ack` and `iack` is in the case when the bound d is exhausted: `iack` simply returns the default value, while `comp-ack` checks `ack-domain` and, if false, returns the default value, but if true, continues execution by calling `mack`. Note that this domain check satisfies the guards of `mack`.

```
(defun comp-ack (d x y)
  (if (zp d) (if (ack-domain x y) (mack x y) (+ y 1))
      (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
          (if (= y 0) (comp-ack (1- d) (1- x) 1)
              (comp-ack (1- d) (1- x) (comp-ack x (1- d) (1- y)))))))
```

In this function, the wasted computation of the domain check is deferred: the function runs nearly as fast as possible, with only the addition of the index decrement and check, until the index bound is exhausted. Only then does it perform a potentially expensive domain check. If the arguments are in the domain, execution completes as quickly as possible without any further domain checks or index counters. Now we pick some large constant number `BIG`—in our current implementation, the largest number fitting into a machine integer—and finally make the ultimate definition of `ack`.

```
(defun ack (x y)
  (comp-ack (BIG) x y))
```

¹In addition to any user provided guards

This function allows us to compute values of the partial function `ack` by invoking `comp-ack`. The only slowdown until the bound is reached is the constant cost of decrementing the index at each recursive call. `BIG` is large enough, especially in the era of 64-bit machine integers, that most applications that will terminate should terminate long before the index is exceeded.

The following characterization of `ack` is then provable:

```
(equal (ack x y)
  (if (not (ack-domain x y)) (comp-ack (BIG) x y)
    (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
      (if (= y 0) (ack (1- x) 1)
        (ack (1- x) (ack x (1- y))))))))
```

Note that the behavior of `ack` outside of the function domain is not simply our default value, but has been complicated by our use of `comp-ack`. There is certainly a trade-off here between execution efficiency and simplicity in that case. The above characterization of `ack` is what we export, along with updated versions of `ack-domain` and `ack-measure` expressed in terms of `ack` and a final induction scheme, `ack-induction`, also defined with respect to `ack` and justified by `ack-measure`. This gives us the desired combination of logical reasoning power plus fast computations via `comp-ack`.

5 Implementation

A mechanized implementation of these ideas has been codified in `ACL2` in a macro called `def::ung`. While our previous discussion illustrated the general behavior of this macro, the actual behavior exhibited by `def::ung` for a given invocation may be a subset of the behaviors we describe above. Nonetheless, the macro is fully automated and is designed to behave as a replacement for `defun` for introducing partial recursive functions.

Just as with `defun`, `def::ung` constructs guards from Common Lisp declarations and the `xargs :guard` keyword. It also deduces guard conditions from the `xargs :signature` keyword. This feature, inherited from `def::un` (from `coi/util/defun` in the `ACL2` books), provides a convenient, Common Lisp declaration-inspired language for specifying a function's logical signature. Guard proofs can be controlled using `:guard-hints` and the signature proofs can be controlled using `:signature-hints`. Such low-level control is, however, discouraged. A better approach is to admit the definition in a theory conducive to automated proofs of these conjectures. Guard proofs can also be delayed using `:verify-guards nil`. Note that guard verification of the admitted function may require guard verification of a number of supporting functions as well.

If no guard information is provided by the user in the form of declarations or the `:guard` or `:signature` keywords, `def::ung` will produce an executable from the logical definition using `ec-call` to suppress any residual guard conditions. Such default execution behavior roughly mimic that of `defun`. Note that when no guard information is provided to `def::ung`, an indexed executable is not generated under the rationale that efficient execution is not a priority in that case.

In addition to the `:signature` and `:signature-hints` keywords, the `def::ung` macro accepts a number of other non-standard `xargs` keywords that give the user additional control over its behavior.

`:default-value expr`

The `:default-value` keyword allows the user to provide an expression to compute the default value to be returned by the function when its arguments are outside of the function domain. This expression may be computed from the function arguments. When `:default-value` is not specified, `def::ung` chooses a default value from among the function's base cases.

`:non-executable [nil]/t`

`Def::ung` will, by default, attempt to produce an executable function definition. When `:non-executable` is `t`, `def::ung` will provide only the logical theory for the function with absolutely no support for execution. Nonetheless, if a `:signature` is provided, an appropriate type theorem will still be generated.

`:indexed-execution [t]/nil`

By default, when guard information is provided, the executable function defined by `def::ung` is indexed to optimize performance. The indexed function is, however, somewhat more difficult to reason about outside of the function's domain. If this is an issue, the user may specify `:indexed-execution nil` to suppress the generation and use of an indexed execution function.

`:wrapper-macro name`

When `:indexed-execution` is `nil`, the guard of the resulting executable requires that the function arguments be in the domain of the function. When a name is provided via the `:wrapper-macro` keyword, `def::ung` will generate a wrapper macro that tests whether the arguments are in the domain prior to calling the function. If the arguments are not in the domain, the default value is returned. This wrapper macro can then be invoked in place of the function when the domain guard may not be satisfied.

Following is an illustration of how we might define our `ack` example using `def::ung`. Because we provide guard information, `def::ung` will generate an indexed executable. The default value we provide here, `0`, is used to define the behavior of the function on arguments outside of its domain, as in (`ack -1 0`).

```
(def::ung ack (x y)
  (declare (xargs :signature ((natp natp) natp)
            :default-value 0))
  (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
      (if (= y 0) (ack (1- x) 1)
          (ack (1- x) (ack x (1- y))))))
```

We can verify the defining equation of `ack`:

```
(defthm check-ack-definition
  (equal (ack x y)
    (if (not (ack-domain x y)) (ack-compute (defung::big-depth-fn) x y)
        (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
            (if (= y 0) (ack (1- x) 1)
                (ack (1- x) (ack x (1- y)))))))
  :hints (("Goal" :in-theory (disable (:rewrite defung::generalize-big-depth-fn))))
  :rule-classes nil)
```

We can also execute `ack` on some concrete values:

```
ACL2 !>(time$ (ack 3 11))
; (EV-REC *RETURN-LAST-ARG3* ...) took
; 1.25 seconds realtime, 1.25 seconds runtime
; (1,120 bytes allocated).
16381
```

Here we run an equivalent program mode definition for comparison:


```

ACL2 !>(defun ack0 (x y)
  (declare (xargs :mode :program))
  (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
      (if (= y 0) (ack0 (1- x) 1)
          (ack0 (1- x) (ack0 x (1- y))))))

```

Summary

Form: (DEFUN ACK0 ...)

Rules: NIL

Time: 0.00 seconds (prove: 0.00, print: 0.00, other: 0.00)

ACK0

```

ACL2 !>(time$ (ack0 3 11))
; (EV-REC *RETURN-LAST-ARG3* ...) took
; 0.61 seconds realtime, 0.61 seconds runtime
; (1,120 bytes allocated).
16381

```

It is interesting to observe the impact that the domain check has on computational performance. Here we define a version of ack without indexed computation. When evaluating this function in the top level loop, ACL2 first checks whether the inputs are in the domain of the function by executing ack2-domain.

```

(def::ung ack2 (x y)
  (declare (xargs :signature ((natp natp) natp)
              :indexed-execution nil
              :wrapper-macro ack2-exec))
  (if (= x 0) (1+ y)
      (if (= y 0) (ack2 (1- x) 1)
          (ack2 (1- x) (ack2 x (1- y))))))

```

Now compare the difference in time between evaluating ack2 and ack2-domain below. Note that the ack2-domain computation time dominates the ack2 computation time and that ack, which executes without a domain check, essentially makes up the difference. With reflexive functions such as ack2, it is possible for the domain computation time to grow exponentially faster than the function computation time.

```

ACL2 !>(time$ (ack2 3 8))
; (EV-REC *RETURN-LAST-ARG3* ...) took
; 15.34 seconds realtime, 15.34 seconds runtime
; (1,120 bytes allocated).
2045
ACL2 !>(time$ (ack2-domain 3 8))
; (EV-REC *RETURN-LAST-ARG3* ...) took
; 15.32 seconds realtime, 15.31 seconds runtime
; (1,120 bytes allocated).
T
ACL2 !>(time$ (ack 3 8))
; (EV-REC *RETURN-LAST-ARG3* ...) took
; 0.02 seconds realtime, 0.02 seconds runtime
; (1,120 bytes allocated).
2045

```

The support for partiality provided by def::ung means that the two tasks of (a) defining a function's behavior and (b) showing that the function terminates, can be completely separated by first defining the

function as a partial function and, when convenient, showing that the function terminates. The `def::total` macro, also exported by the `def::ung` book, provides support for proving termination of functions admitted using `def::ung`. The macro allows the user to specify an `xargs :measure` and, as appropriate, a `:well-founded-relation` that justifies termination. In addition, the body of the macro may contain a predicate that articulates the condition under which the function is total. This condition may simply be `t`. If multiple termination proofs (presumably under different conditions) are desired, the user may specify different names for the different proofs using the `xargs` keyword `:totality-theorem name`.

We can prove the totality of our example, `ack`, when the function guards are satisfied, that is: when the inputs are natural numbers.

```
(def::total ack (x y)
  (declare (xargs :measure (l1list x y)
                 :well-founded-relation l<
                 :totality-theorem natp-ack-terminates))
  (and (natp x) (natp y)))
```

The `def::ung` macro is being used within Rockwell Collins to develop tools for reasoning about software systems, especially systems written in the C programming language. While the correctness of such tools is of interest to us, their termination is not. Additionally, because these tools are being applied to actual C programs, it is important that they execute quickly. The `def::ung` macro addresses both of these issues, allowing us to reason formally about our tools within the logic and allowing them to execute quickly on concrete input.

6 Related work

The second author's PhD [9] developed a recursion operator-based approach to defining total recursive functions. One theme in the work was attempting to separate the definition of a function from reasoning about its termination, a long-standing problem with nested recursions. Although successful for total functions, the approach failed to capture any notion of partiality or explicit domain of a function and hence nested recursive functions were painful to formalize and reason about, and partial functions were not dealt with at all.

In his dissertation work, Krauss [6] took a different tack. Instead of instantiating a pre-proved recursion theorem, a construction is done fresh for each function submitted. The approach uses inductive definitions to construct the graph and the domain of the function. The specified function itself is obtained once the graph is (automatically) shown to be functional, and then the constrained induction theorem and recursion equations are derived. The package also comes with support for automated termination proofs.

A nice overview—as of 2006—of support in Type Theory implementations for recursive definitions is given in [2]. The technical contribution in the paper is based on inductively defining the graph, similar to (and contemporaneous with) Krauss' approach, although it did not deal with nested recursion.

ACL2 for a long time only supported total functions, but Manolios and Moore [7] discovered that tail-recursions are consistent to admit into ACL2. Based on that work, the first author of the present paper created an ACL2 macro that maps arbitrary recursive specifications into CPS (continuation-passing style) and then transforms the CPS result down to first order, obtaining a tail-recursive model of the original function, from which the desired equations and proof principles can be derived [4]. Similar to Krauss' work, a separate domain predicate is defined, thus separating the definition of a function and its termination proof. The implementation was, however, complex and performed somewhat inefficiently.

The general approach taken in TFL [9], namely to instantiate a pre-proved recursion theorem, compresses much of the model-building work into one theorem that can be instantiated and manipulated to deliver the desired result. It remains to be seen whether a similarly useful recursion theorem can be generated for partial functions, whereby the domain of the function is explicitly included. This could be a potential application of encapsulate and functional instantiation in ACL2.

Finally, none of the work we are aware of deals with the issue of execution of partial functions in theorem provers.

7 Future Work

The ability to admit partial functions and to delay proofs of termination is a useful feature. The `def::total` macro already provides support for proving the termination of partial functions admitted with `def::ung`. Total functions, however, can be executed in ACL2 more efficiently than partial functions. The ability to add an executable body to an encapsulated function symbol or to replace an existing executable body has been recently added to ACL2 (via `defattach`). A useful extension of `def::total` would be the ability to attach a more efficient (total) executable body to the original partial function symbol.

Ideally `def::ung` would be a seamless replacement for `defun`. While the current package attempts this, certain aspects of function admission in ACL2 are out of our control. For example, while it is possible to assign theorems to the rule class `:definition`, it is not possible to control the names of runic designators. We cannot, for example, change the runic designator used by `defun` and we cannot assign the runic designator (`:definition foo`) to a theorem whose name is not `foo`. Without such ability it is impossible for a user to mimic fully the behavior of built-in macros such as `defun`. The clever use of `add-macro-alias` (as in `defun-inline`), however, might strengthen the desired illusion.

Single threaded objects and multi-value returns are always an issue for macros that generate or manipulate function definitions. They are particularly bothersome because they do not readily admit generic solutions, going so far as to infect even such constructs as encapsulation. The `def::ung` macro does not currently support either construct.

Early experiments suggest that the monadic approach (Approach K), while requiring more extensive surgery to the body of the function definition, may substantially improve execution speed by executing the domain computation in parallel with the function computation. The primary drawback of this approach is that, for optimal efficiency, it requires the use of multiple-value returns – a construct not currently supported in the framework. Nonetheless, this approach may ultimately be required in order to provide general support for single-threaded objects since the domain computation in such functions will likely involve predicates over an evolving single-threaded state.

Care has been taken to automate, control, and streamline the proof process behind `def::ung`. All of the proofs performed by the macro are schematic, meaning that they follow the same line of reasoning with every invocation. Unfortunately, it is often difficult to keep ACL2 on the script. For example, ACL2 will always replace symbols with `nil` if it knows that the symbol is null. Unfortunately, even such simple transformations can break our schematic proofs. ACL2 also has difficulty manipulating large single-threaded function definitions and it is nearly impossible to keep ACL2 from performing beta reduction. As a result, `def::ung` can be much slower and more brittle than we would like. To address such issues, we are exploring the possibility of using clause processors to isolate and insulate the proof process from the whims of ACL2.

However, the ultimate solution might be to simply incorporate a partial function definition capability directly into the ACL2 core. While the definitions generated by `def::ung` have been verified to be sound

on a variety of examples, it is unclear to the authors how one might verify the soundness of the approach once and for all.

8 Conclusions

We have developed a new ACL2 package for partial function definition, with particular emphasis on efficient execution of partial functions. A long-term goal of ours has been to move programming notions as much as possible into logic, so that our chosen logic environments allow the full comfort of programming with the usual idioms and techniques while also providing direct and unfettered use of the theorem prover to establish properties. An important part of that goal is efficient execution of formal models while maintaining a strong connection between the function as an entity being reasoned about and the function as an entity being executed. The package discussed in this paper supports programming as an activity that can be done inside a theorem prover without sacrificing execution speed or burdening the programmer with onerous termination proofs.

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