Introducing the ITP Tool: a Tutorial*

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Abstract: We present a tutorial of the ITP tool, a rewriting-based theorem prover that can be used to prove inductive properties of membership equational specifications. We also introduce membership equational logic as a formal language particularly adequate for specifying and verifying semantic data structures, such as ordered lists, binary search trees, priority queues, and powerlists. The ITP tool is a Maude program that makes extensive use of the reflective capabilities of this system. In fact, rewriting-based proof simplification steps are directly executed by the powerful underlying Maude rewriting engine. The ITP tool is currently available as a web-based application that includes a module editor, a formula editor, and a command editor. These editors allow users to create and modify their specifications, to formalize properties about them, and to guide their proofs by filling and submitting web forms.

Key Words: inductive theorem proving, semantic data structures, membership equational logic, ITP

Category: F.3.1, F.4.2

1 Introduction

The ITP tool is a theorem prover that can be used to prove properties of membership equational specifications, as well as incompletely specified algorithms on them, as a way to support incremental development of specifications. As an introduction to the ITP tutorial, we recall in Section 1.1 the basic concepts underlying the equational specification of data structures; then, in Section 1.2 we highlight the advanced concepts provided by membership equational logic to specify semantic data structures; finally, in Section 1.3, we discuss the models of the membership equational specifications with respect to which the properties are verified in the ITP tool.

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1.1 Specification and Verification of Data Structures

The equational specification of data structures starts with the declaration of an alphabet of symbols with which to build terms to represent the elements of the data structure. These symbols are called the *constructor* symbols, and (ground) *constructor-terms* are those built only with constructor symbols. Since non-trivial data structures contain data of different types, contructors are typically declared along with the *sorts* of their arguments and of their results.

Example 1. Consider an equational specification of lists of integers. To represent lists of integers as terms, we can declare the constant symbol nil and the binary operator cons as constructors; the constant nil is a term of sort List, and the operator cons takes terms of sort Int and List and builds terms of sort List. For the sake of the example, we suppose that ..., -1, 0, 1, ... have been also declared as constant symbols of the sort Int. In this specification, the empty list [] is represented by the term nil and the list [1,2] is represented by the term cons(1, cons(2, nil)).

Interesting data structures provide operations over elements of the data type. Their equational specifications include the declaration of the symbols that represent these operations, along with their definitions. The union of the alphabets of constructor symbols and of operation symbols is called the *signature* of the specification. The clauses that define the operations of a data structure are called the *axioms* of the specification.

Example 2. Consider an equational specification of lists of integers with an operation that returns the concatenation of two lists. To represent this operation we can add to the alphabet in Example 1 a binary symbol append and introduce in the specification the following equations:

$$\forall \{L\} (\texttt{append}(\texttt{nil}, L) = L) \\ \forall \{I, L, L'\} (\texttt{append}(\texttt{cons}(I, L), L') = \texttt{cons}(I, \texttt{append}(L, L'))) \,,$$

where I is a variable over the sort Int, and L and L' are variables over the sort List.

Equational specifications have many possible interpretations or models, which are first-order structures M in which

- sorts s are interpreted as sets $s^{\mathcal{M}}$;
- constants c of the sort s are interpreted as elements $c^{\mathcal{M}}$ in the set $s^{\mathcal{M}}$; and
- operators f are interpreted as functions $f^{\mathcal{M}}$ over the elements in the sets interpreting the sorts of their arguments, and which return elements in the sets interpreting the sorts of their results.

While the different interpretations have in common that they satisfy the axioms included in the specification and their logical *consequences*, they are different because each one can satisfy other properties, which cannot be derived from those axioms using the inference rules of equational logic.

Example 3. All possible interpretations of the specification of lists of integers introduced in Example 2 satisfy that

$$\forall \{I, L\} (\texttt{append}(\texttt{cons}(I, \texttt{nil}), \texttt{nil}) = \texttt{cons}(I, \texttt{nil})),$$

where I is a variable over the sort Int. However, some of them may satisfy that

$$append(append(L, L'), L'') = append(L, append(L', L'')), \qquad (1)$$

that is, that the operation append is associative, while others may satisfy its negation

$$\neg(\text{append}(\text{append}(L, L'), L'') = \text{append}(L, \text{append}(L', L'')))$$
,

where L, L' and L'' are variables over the sort List.

Verifying an equational specification of a data structure consists in proving that the required properties are satisfied at least by the "interesting" models. Consequently, in the formulation of a verification task, it has to be clearly stated which are those models that should satisfy the property.

Example 4. The inductive models of the specification introduced in Example 2 certainly verify (1). In these models the sets interpreting the sorts are inductively generated by the constructors. For example, \mathcal{M} is an inductive model for this specification if and only if $\mathtt{List}^{\mathcal{M}}$ (and, analogously, $\mathtt{Int}^{\mathcal{M}}$) is defined as follows:

- $-\ \mathtt{nil}^\mathcal{M} \in \mathtt{List}^\mathcal{M}.$
- $-\operatorname{cons}^{\mathcal{M}}(I,L) \in \operatorname{List}^{\mathcal{M}} \text{ if } I \in \operatorname{Int}^{\mathcal{M}} \text{ and } L \in \operatorname{List}^{\mathcal{M}}.$
- Nothing else belongs to $List^{\mathcal{M}}$.

1.2 Membership Equational Logic

A distinguishing feature of the specification of *semantic* data structures (such as ordered lists, binary search trees, priority queues, and powerlists) from the specifications of other data structures (such as lists, sets, queues, trees, etc.) is that the constructors for semantic data structures are *partial*, that is, ground constructor-terms not necessarily represent legal data.

Example 5. Consider now an equational specification of *ordered* lists of integers. As in Example 1, we can use cons and nil as constructors to represent lists; notice, however, that

```
- cons(1, nil) is both a list and an ordered list; and
```

```
- cons(2, cons(1, nil)) is a list, but not an ordered list.
```

That is, cons and nil are only partial for ordered lists.

Membership equational logic (MEL) is an expressive version of equational logic; a full account of its syntax and semantics can be found in [Meseguer, 1998, Bouhoula et al., 2000]. MEL has been designed to ease the task of specifying semantic data structures. To handle partiality, MEL introduces the distinction between *kinds* and *sorts*, which must be always associated to kinds. The idea is that kinds can include "illegal" terms, while sorts only include "legal" terms.

Example 6. Let us specify ordered lists of integers in MEL. We first declare a kind Bool? with an associated sort Bool (for legal Boolean values), a kind Int? with an associated sort Int (for legal integers), and a kind List? with three associated sorts, NeList (for legal non-empty lists), List (for legal lists) and OList (for legal ordered lists). Then, we declare that nil is a constant symbol of the kind List?, and that cons is a binary operator symbol that takes terms of the kind Int? and terms of the kind List? and constructs terms of the kind List?. For the sake of the example, we suppose that true and false have been declared as constant symbols of the kind Bool?, and we also suppose that ..., -1, 0, 1, ... have been declared as constant symbols of the kind Int?, along with the standard arithmetic operations and relations (which are represented as Boolean functions). This signature can be declared in the Diet Maude specification language as follows:

```
kind Bool? = [Bool] .
kind Int? = [Int] .
kind List? = [NeList, List, OList] .
op nil : -> List? .
op cons : Int? List? -> List? .
```

Diet Maude is a syntactic sugar-free dialect of Maude [Clavel et al., 2005], a high-performance interpreter for MEL (and its rewriting logic extension). In Diet Maude, variables range over kinds (whose names must be included in the variables' names), and kinds must be explicitly declared with their associated sorts. In the above signature, cons(1, nil), and cons(2, cons(1, nil)) are well-formed terms since they have a kind, namely, List?. But they do not have a sort, since we have not defined yet which terms represent legal non-empty lists, lists, and/or ordered lists.

To define which well-formed terms have a sort (and not only a kind), MEL provides (conditional) *membership equational axioms*. A membership equational axiom is a universally quantified *membership assertion*,

$$\forall \{\mathbf{x}\}(t(\mathbf{x}):s),$$

where $t(\mathbf{x})$ is a pattern (that is, a well-formed term with variables in \mathbf{x}), and s is a sort (which must be associated to the kind of the pattern). As an axiom, it declares that any well-formed term that is an instance of the pattern $t(\mathbf{x})$ has the sort s. Membership equational axioms can also be conditional,

$$\forall \{\mathbf{x}\} \Big(\Big(\bigwedge_{i} w_{i}(\mathbf{x}) : s_{i} \wedge \bigwedge_{j} u_{j}(\mathbf{x}) = v_{j}(\mathbf{x}) \Big) \rightarrow t(\mathbf{x}) : s \Big),$$

where conditions are conjunctions of equalities and membership assertions. A membership assertion $w_i(\mathbf{x}): s_i$ in the condition of a conditional membership axiom restricts the instances of $t(\mathbf{x})$ that have the sort s to be (a subset of) those for which the corresponding instances of $w_i(\mathbf{x})$ have the sort s_i . An equality $u_j(\mathbf{x}) = v_j(\mathbf{x})$ in a conditional membership axiom behaves like an equality in a conditional equation in equational logic.

Example 7. Consider the signature introduced in Example 6 to represent ordered lists of integers. We can define the terms that represent legal non-empty lists, legal lists, and legal ordered lists using the following membership axioms. Let I, I' be variables of the kind Int? and let L be a variable of the kind List?.

- A term of the form cons(I, L) represents a legal non-empty list if I represents a legal integer and L represents a legal list:

$$\forall \{I, L\}((I: \mathtt{Int} \wedge L: \mathtt{List}) \rightarrow \mathtt{cons}(I, L): \mathtt{NeList}).$$

- The constant nil represents a legal list.

- A term that represents a legal non-empty list represents a legal list as well:

$$\forall \{L\}(L: \texttt{NeList} \rightarrow L: \texttt{List}).$$

- The constant nil represents a legal ordered list.

 A term of the form cons(I, nil) represents a legal ordered list if I represents a legal integer:

$$\forall \{I\}(I: \mathtt{Int} \rightarrow \mathtt{cons}(I,\mathtt{nil}): \mathtt{OList}).$$

- A term of the form cons(I, cons(I', L)) represents a legal ordered list if I and I' represent legal integers, L represents a legal list, cons(I', L) represents a legal ordered list, and $I \leq I'$:

```
\begin{split} &\forall \{I,I',L\} (\\ &(I: \mathtt{Int} \wedge I': \mathtt{Int} \wedge L: \mathtt{List} \wedge \mathtt{cons}(I',L): \mathtt{OList} \wedge I \leq I' = \mathtt{true}) \\ &\rightarrow \mathtt{cons}(I,\mathtt{cons}(I',L)): \mathtt{OList}) \,. \end{split}
```

The above membership axioms can be declared in Diet Maude as follows:

```
cmb cons(I:Int?, L:List?): NeList
   if I:Int? : Int /\ L:List? : List .

mb nil : List .

cmb L:List? : List if L:List? : NeList .

mb nil : OList .

cmb cons(I:Int?, nil): OList if I:Int? : Int .

cmb cons(I:Int?, cons(I':Int?, L:List?)): OList
   if I:Int? : Int /\ I':Int? : Int /\ L:List? : List /\
        cons(I':Int?, L:List?): OList /\ I:Int? <= I':Int? = true .</pre>
```

In this context, the term cons(1, nil) has sorts NeList, List and OList, while the term cons(2, cons(1, nil)) has only sorts NeList and List. That is, the term cons(1, nil) represents both a (non-empty) legal list and a legal ordered list, while the term cons(2, cons(1, nil)) represents a (non-empty) legal list but not a legal ordered list.

To define the value of the operations over the elements of the data type, MEL provides (conditional) *equational axioms*. An equational axiom is a universally quantified equality,

$$\forall \{\mathbf{x}\}(t(\mathbf{x}) = t'(\mathbf{x})),\,$$

where $t(\mathbf{x})$ and $t'(\mathbf{x})$ are patterns (which must have the same kind): $t(\mathbf{x})$ is called the left-hand side, which typically consists of a term representing an operation call, and $t'(\mathbf{x})$ the right-hand side of the equation. As an axiom, it declares that any well-formed term that is an instance of the left-hand side is equal to the corresponding instance of the right-hand side. Equational axioms can also be conditional,

$$\forall \{\mathbf{x}\} \Big(\Big(\bigwedge_i w_i(\mathbf{x}) : s_i \wedge \bigwedge_j u_j(\mathbf{x}) = v_j(\mathbf{x}) \Big) \rightarrow t(\mathbf{x}) = t'(\mathbf{x}) \Big),$$

where conditions are conjunctions of equalities and membership assertions.

Example 8. Consider the operation that returns the tail of a list of integers. We first extend the signature introduced in Example 7 with a unary operation symbol tail that takes terms of the kind List? and returns terms also of the kind List?. Then, we define that

the tail of a list constructed by cons-ing an integer to a list is equal to this list:

$$\forall \{I, L\} (\mathtt{tail}(\mathtt{cons}(I, L)) = L),$$

where *I* is a variable of the kind Int? and *L* is a variable of the kind List?.

This equational axiom can be declared in Diet Maude as follows:

```
eq tail(cons(I:Int?, L:List?)) = L:List? .
```

Finally, MEL specifications have many possible interpretations or models, which are first-order structures M in which

- kinds k are interpreted as sets $k^{\mathcal{M}}$;
- sorts s of the kind k are interpreted as subsets $s^{\mathcal{M}} \subset k^{\mathcal{M}}$;
- constants c of the kind k are interpreted as elements $c^{\mathcal{M}}$ in the set $k^{\mathcal{M}}$; and
- operators f are interpreted as functions $f^{\mathcal{M}}$ over the elements in the sets interpreting the kinds of their arguments, and which return elements in the sets interpreting the kinds of their results.
- sort-membership is interpreted as membership in the set interpreting the sort.

The different interpretations have in common that they satisfy the axioms included in the specification and their logical consequences. To prove that a property is a logical consequence we can use the MEL inference system presented in [Meseguer, 1998]. This is a sound and complete calculus that extends equational logic with rules for proving memberships. In particular, to prove that a term t has a sort s we can

- check that t is an instance of (the pattern of) a membership axiom and, in the case of a conditional membership, prove that the conditions are fulfilled, or
- prove that t is equal to another term t' and that t' has the sort s.

Example 9. Consider the specification of ordered lists with the tail operation introduced in Example 8. We can prove that

$$\forall \{I, L\}((I: \mathtt{Int} \land L: \mathtt{List}) \rightarrow \mathtt{tail}(\mathtt{cons}(I, L)): \mathtt{List}) \tag{2}$$

since, for any terms I and L, tail(cons(I, L)) is equal to L and L is, by assumption, of the sort List. Thus, by soundness of the calculus, (2) is a logical consequence and it holds in all the models of the specification.

1.3 The ITP Tool

The ITP tool is a theorem-proving *assistant*. It can be used to interactively verify properties of MEL specifications with respect to its *ITP-models*. An ITP-model is a model of the specification such that:

- It is an inductive model, in the sense that the sets interpreting the sorts in the model are inductively generated by the membership axioms defining the sorts in the specification. That is, sorts have no junk [Goguen et al., 1978].
- It is a standard model of the theory of arithmetic for the integer numbers.

Example 10. Let \mathcal{M} be a model of the specification of ordered lists introduced in Example 7. Let us suppose that \mathcal{M} is also a standard model for the theory of arithmetic, with $\mathtt{Int}^{\mathcal{M}}$ being the set of integer numbers \mathbb{Z} , and $\Leftarrow^{\mathcal{M}}$ the inequality relation \Leftarrow . Then, $\mathtt{NeList}^{\mathcal{M}}$ is inductively generated by the membership axioms defining $\mathtt{NeList}^{\mathcal{M}}$ is defined as follows:

- $-\operatorname{cons}^{\mathcal{M}}(I,L) \in \operatorname{NeList}^{\mathcal{M}} \text{ if } I \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } L \in \operatorname{List}^{\mathcal{M}}.$
- Nothing else belongs to NeList $^{\mathcal{M}}$.

Similarly, $\mathtt{List}^{\mathcal{M}}$ is inductively generated if and only if:

- $-\ \mathtt{nil}^\mathcal{M} \in \mathtt{List}^\mathcal{M}.$
- $-L \in \mathtt{List}^{\mathcal{M}} \text{ if } L \in \mathtt{NeList}^{\mathcal{M}}.$
- Nothing else belongs to $\mathtt{List}^{\mathcal{M}}$.

Finally, $OList^{\mathcal{M}}$ is inductively generated if and only if:

- $-\ \mathtt{nil}^\mathcal{M} \in \mathtt{OList}^\mathcal{M}.$
- $-\operatorname{cons}^{\mathcal{M}}(I,\operatorname{nil}^{\mathcal{M}})\in\operatorname{OList}^{\mathcal{M}}\ \mathrm{if}\ I\in\mathbb{Z}.$
- $-\ \mathsf{cons}^{\mathcal{M}}(I,\mathsf{cons}^{\mathcal{M}}(I',L)) \in \mathtt{OList}^{\mathcal{M}} \ \text{if} \ I,I' \in \mathbb{Z}, L \in \mathtt{List}^{\mathcal{M}}, \mathsf{cons}^{\mathcal{M}}(I',L) \in \mathtt{OList}^{\mathcal{M}}, \ \text{and} \ I \leq I'.$
- Nothing else belongs to $OList^{\mathcal{M}}$.

By default, the ITP tool assumes that the sets interpreting the sorts are also *freely* generated [Enderton, 2000], that is, two different ground constructor-terms always denote different elements. However, users can "customize" the tool for verifying properties about models that do not satisfy the "freeness" requirement; of course, some of the commands, whose soundness is based on this requirement, would not be then available.

An important feature of the proposed semantic framework is that it supports proofs by complete induction over the natural numbers and by structural induction. Another interesting feature is that incompletely specified operations can be reasoned about to support incrementality. Unlike in most reasoning systems including RRL [Kapur and Zhang, 1995] and ACL2 [Kaufmann et al., 2000], operations do not have to be completely specified before inductive properties about them can be verified mechanically.

Example 11. Consider an extension of the specification of ordered lists introduced in Example 7 that includes an operation length to calculate the length of a list. For the sake of the example, suppose that length is incompletely specified.

```
op length : List? -> Int? .
eq length(cons(I:Int?, L:List?)) = 1 + length(L:List?) .
```

Despite the fact that the length of an empty list is not defined, the following property can be verified:

$$(\forall \{L\}(L: \mathtt{List} \ \to \ \mathtt{length}(L): \mathtt{Int}) \ \land \ \mathtt{0} \mathrel{<=} \mathtt{length}(\mathtt{nil}) = \mathtt{true}) \\ \ \to \ \forall \{L\}(L: \mathtt{List} \ \to \ \mathtt{length}(L) \mathrel{>=} \mathtt{0} = \mathtt{true}) \,, \quad (3)$$

where L is a variable of the kind List?. The proof goes as follows. Assume that

$$\forall \{L\}(L: \mathtt{List} \to \mathtt{length}(L): \mathtt{Int}) \tag{4}$$

and that

$$0 \le length(nil) = true.$$
 (5)

Then, by induction on L,

$$\forall \{L\}(L: \texttt{List} \rightarrow \texttt{length}(L) >= \texttt{0} = \texttt{true})$$

holds if

$$length(nil) >= 0 = true$$
 (6)

holds and, for any term L in the kind List?,

$$\forall \{I\}(I: \mathtt{Int} \land L: \mathtt{List} \rightarrow \mathtt{length}(\mathtt{cons}(I, L)) >= 0 = \mathtt{true}) \tag{7}$$

holds whenever

$$length(L) >= 0 = true$$
 (8)

does. The base case (6) is a consequence, in the theory of arithmetic, of (4) and (5). The inductive case (7) can be reduced to proving that

$$1 + length(L) >= 0 = true$$
 (9)

holds since, for any terms I and L of the kinds, respectively, Int? and List?,

$$(length(cons(I, L)) >= 0) = (1 + length(L) >= 0)$$

is a consequence of the axiom defining length. But, (9) is a consequence, in the theory of arithmetic, of (4) and (8).

Finally, notice that the class of the ITP-models includes the *initial* model of the specification,¹ but possibly also many other models. This "tolerance" provides the extra freedom that is needed to inductively reason about incompletely specified operations.

Example 12. That the initial model of the specification of ordered lists introduced in Example 11 satisfies property (3) can be alternatively proved by noticing that

does not hold in the initial model. In fact, it also satisfies

$$(\forall \{L\}(L: \mathtt{List} \ \to \ \mathtt{length}(L): \mathtt{Int}) \ \land \ \mathtt{0>length}(\mathtt{nil}) = \mathtt{true}) \\ \ \to \ \forall \{L\}(L: \mathtt{List} \ \to \ \mathtt{length}(L) >= \mathtt{0} = \mathtt{true}) \ \ (10)$$

simply because, again,

$$0 > length(nil) = true$$
 (11)

does not hold in the initial model. However, (10) cannot be verified, as expected, in the class of the ITP-models since, for those in which (11) holds, then

cannot be true.

2 Getting started

The ITP tool is a Maude program. It comprises over 8.000 lines of Maude code that make extensive use of the reflective capabilities of the system. In fact, rewriting-based proof simplification steps are directly executed by the powerful

¹ In the initial model [Meseguer, 1998], sorts are interpreted as the smallest sets satisfying the axioms in the theory, and equality is interpreted as the smallest congruence satisfying those axioms.

underlying Maude rewriting engine, by transforming the Diet Maude specifications into Maude admissible modules.

The ITP tool is currently available as a web-based application that includes a module editor, a formula editor, and a command editor. These editors allow users to create and modify their specifications, to formalize properties about them, and to guide the proofs by filling and submitting web forms. The web application also offers a goal viewer, a script viewer, and a log viewer. They generate web pages that allow the user to check, print, and save the current state of a proof, the commands that have guided it, and the logs generated in the process by the Maude system.

The ITP Web tool can be executed in two different ways: either as a remote or as a local application. It comprises 2.000 lines of Maude code, 3.000 lines of JSP, and 7.500 lines of Java. The only requirements to run the remote application are a computer with an Internet connection and JDK 1.4.1 installed (it should be available on most computers), and a browser. The remote application can be accessed at the URL http://maude.sip.ucm.es:8080/webitp/, which displays the initial window shown in Figure 1. Running the ITP tool as a local application is more demanding. In addition to JDK 1.4.1 and a browser, it is also necessary to have the Tomcat server installed, as well as Maude and the files containing the specification of the ITP. The concrete details of the files needed and the steps to follow to complete the installation can be found at http://maude.sip.ucm.es/itp/.

2.1 Introducing a module

The screen captured in Figure 2 shows the ITP Web main menu: from it, Diet Maude modules can be created (create button) and edited (open button), and ITP scripts can be loaded (load). To give a taste of the tool, let us create the module corresponding to the specification of lists of integers introduced in Example 2 which contained an operation append to concatenate two lists.

To create a module from scratch, we push the create button, which takes us to the module editor whose appearance is shown in Figure 3. A new module tmp-id is opened which, by default, contains kinds for quoted identifiers, Booleans, integers (with the standard operations), and strings. The kind Int? contains the sorts Zero (for the number 0), NzNat (for natural numbers different from 0), Nat (for natural numbers), NzInt (for integer numbers different from 0), and Int (for integer numbers). There are three main actions that can be executed from the module editor: modifying (modify column), inserting (insert column), and deleting (delete column) an element from the module.

To insert a kind, sort, operator, membership, or equation, we have to select the corresponding option from the drop-down list below insert and then push select. The next step depends on the selection. For inserting a kind, we only need





Figure 1: Initial screen of the ITP Web

to write its name; for inserting a sort, in addition to its name, the kind to which it belongs has to be specified: this is done by selecting one of the currently declared kinds from a drop-down list which is dynamically updated. The insertion of a new operator is guided by the menu in Figure 4. The operator's name is written below operator. Then, the types of the arguments are selected from a drop-down list which contains the available kinds, and inserted (or removed) by pressing add (delete). Finally, the type of the result is specified in the same manner using the list below result. There is also a check box ctor that allows the operator to be flagged as a free constructor. The procedure for adding a membership or equation is similar in both cases: a term (or two, for an equation) has to be written and a sort selected from those available. Conditions, if required, are added in a similar way. Proceeding in this manner we introduce the whole specification LIST, as shown in Figure 5. Once completed, we can press save to save the resulting module in a file.² We can also press next to load the module in the ITP database and return to the ITP Web main menu.

² In fact, save generates a web page with the ITP commands that have created the module. To really save the module, save the content of this web page as a file.

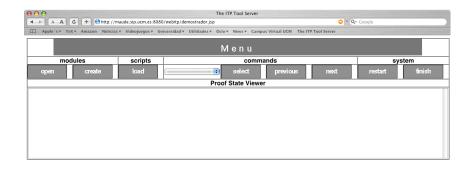


Figure 2: Main menu

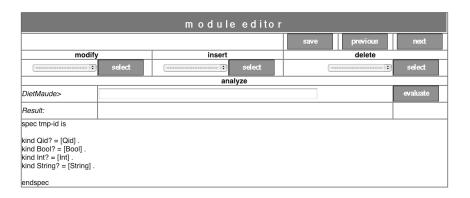


Figure 3: Module editor

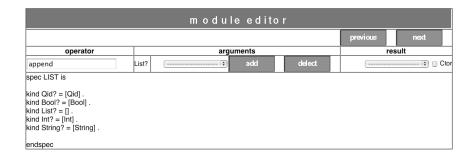


Figure 4: Inserting an operator

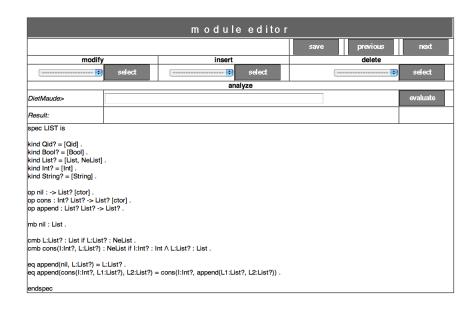


Figure 5: Specification of lists of integers

2.2 A first proof

A property that LIST should verify is that append is associative:

```
\forall \{L, L'L''\}(L: \texttt{List} \land L': \texttt{List} \land L'': \texttt{List}) \\ \rightarrow \texttt{append}(\texttt{append}(L, L'), L'') = \texttt{append}(L, \texttt{append}(L', L'')) \,, \quad (12)
```

where L, L', and L'' are variables of the kind List? This goal can be introduced by choosing the command goal from the drop-down list beside select, in the main menu; initially, this is the only option available, but once a goal has been introduced other commands will appear in the list. The first step consists in choosing the goal's label and the module is going to refer to. In this case, we choose the name list-assoc and the module LIST, as shown in Figure 6. The second step consists in introducing the formula to be verified. For this, the tool takes us to the formula editor. Formulas are constructed in a top-down, left-to-right fashion, as illustrated by the partially built formula in Figure 7. The formula editor contains a drop-down list from which the (sub)formula's top structure is chosen: this can be an equality (=), membership (:), implication (=>), conjunction (&), or existential (E) or universal quantification (A). Once completed, we can press next to return to the main menu: the goal's label will appear in the proof state viewer, as shown in Figure 8.

We can try to prove (12) by *structural induction*. For this, we select the sort-ind command, that has now been included, along several other options, in



Figure 6: Naming a goal



Figure 7: Building a formula

the drop-down list beside select. The command editor then asks to select from a drop-down list of variables which one is to be used for the induction (L:List? in this case); notice that the list only includes those variables for which the goal hypothesis contains a membership assertion. The command generates then an inductive subgoal for each of the memberships that specify the sort of the variable, and it chooses one of them as the working subgoal and tags it with (Selected). (Actually, the working subgoal can be changed using the command sel.) The output is as in Figure 9.

We can use the goal viewer to obtain information about the selected subgoal: its label, the property to be proved, the hypotheses and lemmas available (if

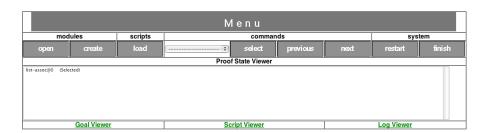


Figure 8: A goal just introduced

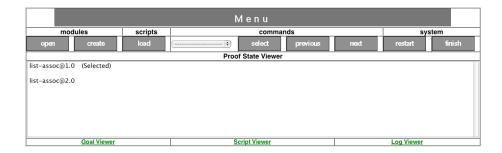


Figure 9: Subgoals

any), the "fresh" constants introduced (if any), and the original module. In this case, the goal viewer shows us the following information:

Notice that this is the subgoal corresponding to the base case in the inductive proof: the module LIST should verify (12) when L is nil. At this point, we can try to automatically prove append-assoc@1.0 with the command auto, that simplifies the goal, using the axioms in the original module along with the available hypotheses and lemmas, and discharges it when it discovers an inconsistency or reaches an identity. The command succeeds, the subgoal is discharged, and the ITP returns to us with the remaining subgoal generated by the induction. The goal viewer presents us with the following information:

³ Inconsistencies, like having length(nil)=-1 and length(nil)>=0 = true, are detected by the decision procedure for Presburger arithmetic with uninterpreted function symbols that the tool implements [Clavel et al., 2004].

This is the subgoal corresponding to the inductive case: the module LIST should verify (12) when L is cons(V0#0:Int?,V0#1:List?), assuming that it verifies (12) when L is V0#1:List?. We can also try to prove this subgoal automatically with the auto command and, again, the ITP succeeds and this completes the proof. The script viewer shows the script of our proof, which can be saved in a file for later use.

3 A script safari

We continue now exploring the ITP commands and illustrate how they are used in several scripts.

3.1 More on induction and simplification

In addition to the command sort-ind to reason by structural induction, the ITP also provides a nat-ind command to reason by induction over the natural numbers. This command takes a term of the kind Int? as argument and generates three subgoals from the original goal (the first one added as a lemma in the second and third): one which requires to prove that the term is of sort Nat; one which states that the goal holds for the term being equal to 0; and another one which states that the goal holds for the term being equal to n, assuming that it holds for the term being less than n. To illustrate its use, let us consider a module LIST-LENGTH that extends LIST with an operation to determine the length of a list.

```
op length : List? -> Int? .
eq length(nil) = 0 .
eq length(cons(I:Int?, L:List?)) = 1 + length(L:List?) .
```

In the module LIST-LENGTH, the associativity of the operation append can alternatively be proved by selecting nat-ind, that asks to introduce the term to use for the induction (in this case, length(L1:List?)), as shown in Figure 10. This selection gives rise to three subgoals. The first one, as mentioned above, simply requires to prove that the term length(L1:List?) is of sort Nat. The goal viewer now shows the following information:

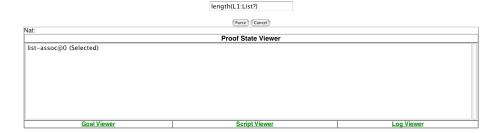


Figure 10: Induction over natural numbers

```
Label: append-assoc-bis0001.0
Formula: A{L:List?}((L:List? : List)==>(length(L:List?): Nat)).
```

This subgoal is discharged straightforwardly by one application of the induction scheme over lists (sort-ind) and two uses of the auto command. The goal viewer shows the following information about the first (and selected) of the remaining subgoals, which states that (12) holds for any terms L, L', L'' of the sort List such that length(L) is equal to 0.

Lemma lem-append-assoc-bis@0 corresponds to append-assoc-bis@0@1.0, already proved. Now, in the case of append-assoc-bis@1.0, using auto seems to have no effect except for the transformation of the variables into "fresh" constants and the simplication of the goal, by adding the formulas in the antecedent as hypotheses, as shown by the goal viewer:

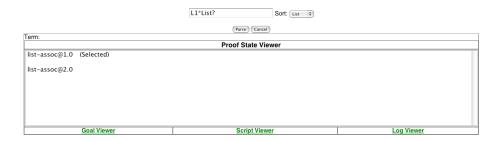


Figure 11: Term splitting

```
mb L*List? : List[hyp-2].
eq length(L*List?)= 0[hyp-3].
Lemmas:
cmb length(L:List?): Nat if L:List? : List[lem-append-assoc@0].
New constants:
op L''*List? : -> List? .
op L'*List? : -> List? .
op L*List? : -> List? .
```

Since the additional information provided by the hypotheses is not enough to further reduce any of the terms in the simplified goal, to proceed with the proof we must supply the ITP with guidelines to follow. In this case, it is useful to make a case analysis on the structure of L*List. For this, we can use the command term-split which asks for a term to perform the splitting on as well as for its sort, as shown in Figure 11. This command replaces the subgoal append-assoc-bis@1.0 with the two following ones, corresponding to the constructors for List:

At this point, append-assoc-bis@1.1.0 and append-assoc-bis@1.2.0 have the same hypotheses, lemmas, and new constants as append-assoc-bis@1.0.

Now we can try to prove the subgoal append-assoc-bis@1.1.0, corresponding to the case when the list L*List? is nil, and auto easily succeeds. It adds the equality in the antecedent as a new equational hypothesis; then, it simplifies both sides of the equality in the consequent using the axioms, hypotheses, and lemmas as rewrite rules; and finally, it discharges the simplified equality, because two terms syntactically identical are trivially equal.

The other subgoal generated deserves closer attention. The list L*List? is now built using cons and is not clear at all why the terms at both sides of the equality symbol should reduce to a common one. But recall that this subgoal has arisen while we are trying to prove the subgoal append-assoc-bis@1.0, that is, the one in which length(L*List?) is equal to 0 (as stated in its hypothesis [hyp-3]), and this is inconsistent with L*List? being constructed with cons. In this case, the auto command adds the equalities and memberships in the antecedent as new hypotheses:

```
eq L*List? = cons(V1#0*Int?,V1#1*List?) .
mb V1#1*List? : List .
mb V1#0*Int? : Int .
and it simplifies the hypothesis [hyp-3] to
eq 1 + length(V1#1*List?)= 0 .
```

Then it realizes, using the internal decision procedure for linear arithmetic with uninterpreted function symbols [Clavel et al., 2004], that the term 0 cannot be equal to 1 + length(V1#1*List?), since:

- the lemma [lem-append-assoc-bis@0] guarantees that, for any term L of sort List, length(L) returns a term greater or equal than 0, and,
- by hypothesis, V1#1*List? is a term of the sort List;

and it discharges the subgoal, not because both sides of the equality in the consequent can be reduced to a common term, but because the axioms, hypotheses, and lemmas form an inconsistent specification.

We are now left with the proof of the third subgoal generated by nat-ind, labeled append-assoc-bis@2.0, which states that (12) holds for any terms L, L', L'' such that length(L) is equal to n, assuming that it holds for any terms L_1, L'_1, L''_1 such that length(L_1) is less than n.

```
Label: append-assoc-bis@2.0
Formula:
A{VO#0:Nat}(
   (A{L:List? ; L':List? ; L'':List?}(
        ((((length(L:List?) < VO#0:Nat = true)</pre>
```

The proof proceeds exactly like that for append-assoc-bis@1.0. After applying auto, it is necessary to make a case analysis whose subcases can be discharged with auto. (This time, it is the proof of the first case which succeeds by inconsistency.)

In this example, the script produced by nat-ind is certainly more cumbersome than the one for sort-ind. However, there are proofs (e.g., in the mergesort algorithm) where nat-ind gives rise to proofs that cannot easily be done by structural induction.

3.2 Lemmas and more

This example is more involved than the previous ones and, besides further illustrating the use of sort definitions, it will serve to introduce two additional ITP commands: lem, to introduce auxiliary lemmas, and bool-split for Boolean case analysis.

Consider an extension LIST-SORT of the specification of ordered lists introduced in Example 7 that includes an operation insertion-sort to order a non-empty list by inserting, at the right position, its first element into the list that results from (recursively) ordering its tail.

```
= cons(J:Int?, insert(I:Int?, L:List?))
if I:Int? > J:Int? = true .
```

A property that LIST-SORT should verify is that insert-sort returns an ordered list:⁴

$$\forall \{L\}(L: \texttt{List} \to \texttt{insert-sort}(L): \texttt{OList}), \tag{13}$$

where L is a variable of the kind List?.

3.2.1 Goals which are lemmas

To start with, however, we will settle for a simpler result, namely that inserting an element into an ordered list results in another ordered list:

$$\forall \{I, L\}(I: \mathtt{Int} \wedge L: \mathtt{OList} \rightarrow \mathtt{insert}(I, L): \mathtt{OList}), \tag{14}$$

where I is a variable of the kind Int? and L is a variable of the kind List?. This property is likely to be needed as a lemma in order to prove (13). We can try to prove (14) by structural induction on L:List? with the sort-ind command. The case generated for the empty list is trivial and is discharged by auto; however, in the case of the singleton list, it merely transforms the goal into

```
Label: insert-olist@2.0
Formula: insert(I*Int?,cons(V0#0*Int?,nil)): OList.

Hypotheses:
mb I*Int? : Int[hyp-1].
mb V0#0*Int? : Int[hyp-0].

New constants:
op I*Int? : -> Int? .
op V0#0*Int? : -> Int? .
```

If we take a look at the equations for insert, the reason why the term

```
insert(I*Int?,cons(V0#0*Int?,nil))
```

cannot be further reduced becomes apparent: the two equations that might apply are conditional and depend on whether I*Int? <= V0#0*Int? or I*Int? > V0#0*Int? is equal to true. Thus, to discharge the subgoal insert-olist@2.0

⁴ Notice that for the operation insertion-sort to be well-defined it would also be necessary to prove that the resulting list is a permutation of the original one: we leave this proof as an exercise to the reader.

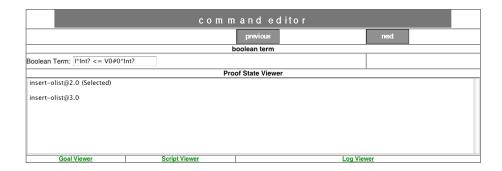


Figure 12: Boolean split

it is necessary to reason by cases. For that the ITP Web tool offers the command bool-split, which asks for a Boolean term, as shown in Figure 12, and replaces the subgoal with two new ones. As it can be checked with the goal viewer, in both subgoals the formulas to be proved are the same; the difference lies in the hypotheses associated to them: for the first one, the equation I*Int? <= V0#0*Int? = true has been added while in the second the inequality I*Int? <= V0#0*Int? is equal to false. Now, both subgoals can be automatically discharged with auto.

The situation for the inductive step is similar: after applying **auto** we are left with:

```
Label: insert-olist@3.0
Formula:
insert(I*Int?,cons(VO#1*Int?,cons(VO#2*Int?,VO#0*List?))): OList.

Hypotheses:
mb I*Int? : Int[hyp-6].
mb VO#0*List? : List[hyp-0].
mb VO#1*Int? : Int[hyp-1].
mb VO#2*Int? : Int[hyp-2].
mb cons(VO#2*Int?,VO#0*List?): OList[hyp-3].
cmb insert(I:Int?,cons(VO#2*Int?,VO#0*List?)): OList
    if I:Int? : Int[hyp-5].
eq VO#1*Int? <= VO#2*Int? = true[hyp-4].</pre>
New constants:
op I*Int? : -> Int? .
op VO#0*List? : -> List? .
```

```
op V0#1*Int? : -> Int? . op V0#2*Int? : -> Int? .
```

Again, we need to reason by case analysis and apply bool-split over I*Int? <= V0#1*Int?. This time, however, only the first auto succeeds while the second does not discharge the goal and presents us with:

```
Label: insert-olist@3.2.0
Formula:
cons(V0#1*Int?,insert(I*Int?,cons(V0#2*Int?,V0#0*List?))): OList.
```

along with the hypotheses and lemmas inherited from insert-olist@3.0, plus the hypothesis corresponding to this case:

```
eq I*Int? <= VO#1*Int? = false[case--false].
```

Assuming that insert is well-defined, it is clear that

```
cons(V0#1*Int?,insert(I*Int?,cons(V0#2*Int?,V0#0*List?)))
```

is an ordered list, given that:

- V0#1*Int? is less than I*Int?, by hypothesis [case--false]; and
- cons(V0#1*Int?, cons(V0#2*Int?, V0#0*List?)) is an ordered list, since, by hypothesis [hyp-4], V0#1*Int? is less than or equal to V0#2*Int? and, by hypothesis [hyp-3], cons(V0#2*Int?, V0#0*List?) is an ordered list.

What we need is a lemma that makes this observation a general and explicit statement about insert:

$$\begin{split} \forall \{I,J,L\} (((I: \texttt{Int} \land J: \texttt{Int} \land L: \texttt{List} \\ \land I &<= J = \texttt{true} \land \texttt{cons}(I,L): \texttt{OList}) \\ \rightarrow \texttt{cons}(I, \texttt{insert}(J,L)): \texttt{OList}), \end{split} \tag{15}$$

where I and J are variables of the kind Int?, and L is a variable of the kind List?.

3.2.2 Lemmas which are goals

To introduce a lemma, we choose lem in the drop-down list beside select and this takes us to a formula editor like that for goals; see Figure 13. Back to the main menu, after introducing (15), the proof state viewer shows that (15) has been added as a new (and selected) subgoal cons-insert-olist@0; the goal viewer shows that (15) has also been added to the subgoal insert-olist@3.2.0 as a new hypothesis.

form ula editor						
label		module				
cons-insert-olist		LIST-SORT				
formula						
			previous	next		
FORMULA11:		select				
(A(I:Int?; J:Int?; L:List?)((((((((((((((((((((((((((((((((((((
Goal Viewer		Script Viewer		Log Viewer		

Figure 13: A lemma

As usual, we prove cons-insert-olist@O by induction on the structure of the list L:List? The case generated for the base case is trivially discharged with auto whereas for the inductive case a Boolean case analysis on J*Int? <= VO#O*Int? is needed. Unfortunately, the command auto cannot discharge the subgoal corresponding to the case when J*Int? <= VO#O*Int? is true, but presents us with:

So why can't the ITP prove it? The reason is that nowhere is explicitly stated that I*Int? <= V0#0*Int? is equal to true. Now, this information can be extracted from the fact that cons(I*Int?,cons(V0#0*Int?,nil)) is a term of sort OList by using the command term-split over this term. This prompts the ITP

- V0#0*Int? is less than J*Int?, by hypothesis [case--false].

to make explicit all assumptions about cons(I*Int?,cons(VO#O*Int?,nil)), based on the membership axioms that define the sort OList and the fact that cons and nil have been declared as free constructors; the resulting subgoal can then be easily proved with auto.

We can try to prove the subgoal corresponding to the case when J*Int? <= V0#0*Int? is false using the same script: auto, term-split over the term cons(I*Int?,cons(V0#0*Int?,V0#1*List?)), and auto again. However, this time, the last auto cannot discharge the subgoal, but presents us with:

```
Label: cons-insert-olist@2.2.1.0
Formula:
cons(V1#1*Int?,cons(V1#2*Int?,insert(J*Int?,V1#0*List?))): OList.
and a number of hypothesis, including:
Hipotesis:
mb J*Int? : Int[hyp-4].
mb V1#2*Int? : Int[hyp-9].
mb cons(V1#2*Int?,V1#0*List?): OList[hyp-10].
cmb cons(I:Int?,insert(J:Int?,V1#0*List?)): OList
    if I:Int? <= J:Int? = true /\ cons(I:Int?,V0#1*List?): OList
    /\ J:Int? : Int /\ I:Int? : Int[hyp-2].
eq V1#1*Int? <= V1#2*Int? = true[hyp-14].
eq J*Int? <= V1#2*Int? = false[case--false].
Again, it is clear that
    cons(V1#1*Int?,cons(V1#2*Int?,insert(J*Int?,V1#0*List?)))</pre>
```

is an ordered list, given that:

- V1#1*Int? is less than or equal to V1#2*Int?, by hypothesis [hyp-14]; and
- cons(V1#2*Int?,insert(J*Int?,V1#0*List?)) is an ordered list, by the
 induction hypothesis [hyp-2], under the hypotheses [hyp-10], [hyp-4],
 [hyp-9], and [case-false].

So why can't the ITP prove it? Because it cannot prove that

is a term of sort List, which is a condition in the membership axiom that defines when terms of the form cons(I, cons(J, L)) are ordered lists. But, of course, insert satisfies this lemma:

$$\forall \{I, L\}(I: \mathtt{Int} \wedge L: \mathtt{List} \rightarrow \mathtt{insert}(I, L): \mathtt{List}), \tag{16}$$

which can be easily proved by structural induction.

3.2.3 Lemmas to prove goals

Suppose that (16) has been proved as a goal, and that the proof script has been saved in a file insert-list.itp. Then, we can automatically insert (16) as a lemma in the subgoal cons-insert-olist@2.2.1.0 by simply loading the file with the load button. With this additional information, the command auto succeeds in the proof of cons-insert-olist@2.2.1.0, and the proof of the lemma is completed.

We can now try again to discharge the subgoal insert-olist@3.2.0 with the command auto. The command succeeds this time, thanks to the lemma lem-cons-insert-olist@0. This completes the proof of the fact that inserting an element into an ordered list produces an ordered list. By clicking now on script viewer, we can save the script for future use. In fact, we will need this result as an auxiliary lemma for the main theorem we are interested in, that is, that the list returned by insertion-sort is ordered.

After introducing (13) in the usual way by means of the formula editor, we can try to prove it by structural induction. The base case is trivial and is discharged by the command auto. However, in the inductive case, auto simply transforms the goal into:

```
Label: insertion-sort-olist@2.0
Formula: insert(V0#0*Int?,insertion-sort(V0#1*List?)): OList.

Hypotheses:
mb V0#0*Int? : Int[hyp-0].
mb V0#1*List? : List[hyp-1].
mb insertion-sort(V0#1*List?): OList[hyp-2].

New constants:
op V0#0*Int? : -> Int? .
op V0#1*List? : -> List? .
```

It is clear that insert(V0#0*Int?,insertion-sort(V0#1*List?)) is an ordered list, since we know that inserting an element into an ordered list leaves it ordered and, by induction hypothesis [hyp-2], insertion-sort(V0#1*List?) is an ordered list. What we need then is to introduce the lemma insert-olist in the subgoal insertion-sort-olist@2.0, by loading its proof script. After that, the command auto succeeds, as expected.

3.3 Quantifiers too

Even though all the examples considered so far have consisted of universally quantified formulas, the ITP can also deal with existential quantifiers: we illus-

trate its use with an example borrowed from PVS's tutorial [Crow et al., 1995, Section 4.3].

We wish to prove that any postage requirement of 8 cents or more can be met solely with 3 and 5 cent stamps, i.e., is the sum of some multiple of 3 and some multiple of 5:

$$\forall \{I\}((I:\mathtt{Nat}) \to \exists \{\mathit{Three}, \mathit{Five}\}(\mathit{Three} : \mathtt{Nat} \land \mathit{Five} : \mathtt{Nat} \\ \land I + 8 = (3 \times \mathit{Three}) + (5 \times \mathit{Five}))), \tag{17}$$

where I, Five, and Three are variables of the kind Int?.

As such, this is simply a property about natural numbers and the corresponding specification is trivial and adds nothing to the default module; we just change its name to STAMP:

```
spec STAMP is
  kind Qid? = [Qid] .
  kind Bool? = [Bool] .
  kind Int? = [Int] .
  kind String? = [String] .
endspec
```

After introducing (17) with the formula editor, the proof proceeds by induction on I:Int?. The subgoal corresponding to the base case is:

```
Label: stamps@1.0
Formula: E{Five:Int?; Three:Int?}
  (((0 + 8 = 3 * Three:Int? + 5 * Five:Int?)
  &(Three:Int? : Nat))&(Five:Int? : Nat)).
```

Clearly, letting Three:Int? and Five:Int? both be 1 fulfills the base case; such instantiation is communicated to the ITP Web tool through the exist-inst-subs command. This takes us to a screen in which we specify the values to assign to the existential variables, as shown in Figure 14.

The command exist-inst-subs replaces the goal with the following one:

```
Label: stamps@1.0
Formula: ((0 + 8 = 3 * 1 + 5 * 1) & (1 : Nat)) & (1 : Nat).
```

To unfold the conjunction we need to apply the conj command twice, after which each of the conjuncts is immediately discharged with auto.

For the inductive step we need to find natural numbers $\it Three$ and $\it Five$ such that

```
(1+I) + 8 = 3 * Three + 5 * Five
```

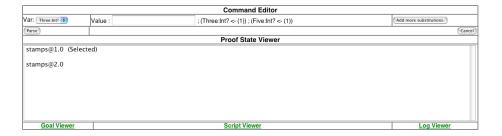


Figure 14: Existential instantiation

assuming that there exist natural numbers Three' and Five' such that

$$I + 8 = 3 * Three' + 5 * Five'$$
.

Notice that if Five' is 0 we can take Five to be 2 and Three to be equal to Three' - 3; otherwise, we obtain the result by making Five equal to Five' - 1 and Three to Three' + 2.

The ITP script mimics quite closely the proof above. First, auto transforms the subgoal stamps@2.0 corresponding to the inductive case into:⁵

⁵ Note that the ITP internal constructors for the natural numbers are the constant 0, to represent the number 0, and the unary operator s, to represent the successor of any number.

```
op V0#0*Int? : -> Int? .
```

with the induction hypothesis labeled as [hyp-1]. Note, however, that [hyp-1] cannot be directly used by the command auto as executable additional information, that is, as information that can be used in the rewriting-based simplication steps. To remove the existential quantifier from [hyp-1], we can use the command exist-inst-hyp which results in a new subgoal with the same formula to be proved but with the following additional executable hypotheses:

```
mb Five!hyp-1*Int? : Nat[hyp-2].
mb Three!hyp-1*Int? : Nat[hyp-3].
eq V0#0*Int? + 8
= 3 * Three!hyp-1*Int? + 5 * Five!hyp-1*Int?[hyp-4].
```

These hypotheses state that Three!hyp-1*Int? and Five!hyp-1*Int? are the witnesses of [hyp-1], which is therefore removed from the list of available hypotheses. The rest of the proof is straightforward: we simply have to distinguish cases according to whether Five!hyp-1*Int? is zero or not, and instantiate Three:Int? and Five:Int? accordingly. The sequence of commands is: first, bool-split on Five!hyp-1*Int? <= 0; then, for the true-case, exist-inst-subst (with Five:Int? and Three:Int? instantiated, respectively, to 2 and Three!hyp-1*Int? - 3), cnj (twice), and auto (thrice); finally, for the false-case, exist-inst-subst (with Five:Int? and Three:Int? instantiated, respectively, to Five!hyp-1*Int? - 1 and Three!hyp-1*Int? + 2), cnj (twice), and auto (thrice).

4 Conclusions

In this tutorial we have given a quick overview of the ITP tool, an interactive, rewriting-based theorem prover that can be used to prove inductive properties of membership equational specifications. As an introduction to the tool, we have presented membership equational logic and discussed its adequacy for the specification and verification of semantic data structures, such as ordered lists, binary search trees, priority queues, and powerlists. An interesting feature of the proposed semantic framework is that incompletely specified operations can be reasoned about so as to support incrementality. That is, unlike in most reasoning systems including RRL [Kapur and Zhang, 1995] and ACL2 [Kaufmann et al., 2000], operations do not have to be completely specified before inductive properties about them can be verified mechanically.

The ITP tool is currently available as a web-based application that includes a module editor, a formula editor, and a command editor. These editors allow

users to create and modify their specifications, to formalize properties about them, and to guide their proofs by filling and submitting web forms. The ITP is still an experimental tool, but the results obtained so far are quite encouraging. The ITP tool is the only theorem prover at present that supports reasoning about membership equational logic specifications. The powerful integration of term rewriting with a decision procedure for linear arithmetic with uninterpreted function symbols [Clavel et al., 2004], while also available in other rewriting-based theorem provers like RRL [Kapur and Zhang, 1995], has been easily and efficiently implemented in the ITP by exploiting the reflective design of the tool and the reflective capabilities of the Maude system. This fact has encouraged us to plan to add other decision procedures to our tool in the near future. Another interesting extension of the tool is the implementation of the cover set induction method [Kapur and Subramaniam, 1996], a feature already available in RRL [Kapur and Zhang, 1995].

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A ITP Tool commands

We summarize here the commands available in the tool:

- goal. This command introduces a goal to be proved with the ITP. It asks for a label, the specification the goal is about, and the goal itself.
- lem. This command introduces a lemma to be proved with the ITP about the current specification. It opens a formula editor like that for goal.
- auto. It first transforms all the variables into fresh constants and then reduces the terms in the goal as much as possible by using the equations in the module as rewrite rules. When necessary, decision procedures are applied to check if the conditions of conditional equations are satisfied.
- sort-ind. To reason by structural induction over a given variable. The goals are generated from the constructor memberships for the sort of the variable and all its subsorts. Base cases correspond to unconditional memberships of the form t:s, and give rise to new subgoals by replacing the given variable in the current goal with t. The inductive steps correspond to conditional memberships.
- nat-ind. Given a term of kind Int?, it generates three subgoals from the current one. The first goal states that the term is actually of sort Nat. The second one is the original goal with the assumption that the value of the term is 0. The third subgoal states that if the original one holds when the value of the term is less that N, then it also holds when its value is N.
- bool-split. It splits the current goal in two: one in which a given Boolean term is assumed to be true and another one in which it is assumed to be false.
- term-split. It asks for a term and a sort and then unifies the term with those defining the giving sort. For each of the results of that unification, it replaces the current goal with a new one in which the term has been substituted by the corresponding instantiation and some new hypotheses (from the conditions of the memberships) may have been added.

- ${\sf exist\mbox{-}inst\mbox{-}subs}.$ It instantiates the current existential goal with a given substitution.
- $-\,$ exist-inst-hyp. It instantiates one of the existential formulas in the hypotheses with values that satisfy it.
- sel. It changes the active subgoal.
- conj. It unfolds a conjunction into its two conjuncts.