

1 Translation validation of the Pattern Matching Compiler

1.1 Source program

The algorithm takes as its input a source program and translates it into an algebraic data structure which type we call *decision_tree*.

```
type decision_tree =  
  | Unreachable  
  | Failure  
  | Leaf of source_expr  
  | Guard of source_blackbox * decision_tree * decision_tree  
  | Switch of accessor * (constructor * decision_tree) list * decision_tree
```

Unreachable, Leaf of `source_expr` and Failure are the terminals of the three. We distinguish

- Unreachable: statically it is known that no value can go there
- Failure: a value matching this part results in an error
- Leaf: a value matching this part results into the evaluation of a source black box of code

The algorithm doesn't support type-declaration-based analysis to know the list of constructors at a given type. Let's consider some trivial examples:

```
function true -> 1
```

is translated to

```
Switch ([ (true, Leaf 1) ], Failure)
```

while

```
function  
true -> 1  
| false -> 2
```

will be translated to

```
Switch ([ (true, Leaf 1); (false, Leaf 2) ])
```

It is possible to produce Unreachable examples by using refutation clauses (a "dot" in the right-hand-side)

```
function
true -> 1
| false -> 2
| _ -> .
```

that gets translated into `Switch ([(true, Leaf 1); (false, Leaf 2)], Unreachable)`

We trust this annotation, which is reasonable as the type-checker verifies that it indeed holds.

Guard nodes of the tree are emitted whenever a guard is found. Guards node contains a blackbox of code that is never evaluated and two branches, one that is taken in case the guard evaluates to true and the other one that contains the path taken when the guard evaluates to true.

The source code of a pattern matching function has the following form:

```
match variable with
| pattern1 → expr1
| pattern2 when guard → expr2
| pattern3 as var → expr3
⋮
| pn → exprn
```

Patterns could or could not be exhaustive.

Pattern matching code could also be written using the more compact form:

```

function
| pattern1 → expr1
| pattern2 when guard → expr2
| pattern3 as var → expr3
:
| pn → exprn

```

This BNF grammar describes formally the grammar of the source program:

```

start ::= "match" id "with" patterns | "function" patterns
patterns ::= (pattern0|pattern1) pattern1+
;; pattern0 and pattern1 are needed to distinguish the first case in which
;; we can avoid writing the optional vertical line
pattern0 ::= clause
pattern1 ::= "|" clause
clause ::= lexpr "->" rexpr
lexpr ::= rule (ε|condition)
rexpr ::= _code ;; arbitrary code
rule ::= wildcard|variable|constructor _pattern|{}or _pattern ;;
;; rules
wildcard ::= "_"
variable ::= identifier
constructor _pattern ::= constructor (rule|ε) (assignment|ε)
constructor ::= int|float|char|string|bool |unit|record|exn|objects|ref |list|tuple|array|variant|parameter
or _pattern ::= rule ("|" wildcard|variable|constructor _pattern)+
condition ::= "when" bexpr
assignment ::= "as" id
bexpr ::= _code ;; arbitrary code

```

A source program t_S is a collection of pattern clauses pointing to *bb* terms. Running a program t_S against an input value v_S produces as a result r :

$$\begin{aligned}
t_S &::= (p \rightarrow bb)^{i \in I} \\
p &::= | K(p_i)^i, i \in I | (p|q) | n \in \mathbb{N} \\
r &::= \text{guard list} * (\text{Match } bb | \text{NoMatch} | \text{Absurd}) \\
t_S(v_S) &\rightarrow r
\end{aligned}$$

TODO: argument on what it means to run a source program

guard and *bb* expressions are treated as blackboxes of OCaml code. A sound approach for treating these blackboxes would be to inspect the OCaml compiler during translation to Lambda code and extract the blackboxes compiled in their Lambda representation. This would allow to test for equality with the respective blackbox at the target level. Given that this level of introspection is currently not possible, we decided to restrict the structure of blackboxes to the following (valid) OCaml code:

```
external guard : 'a -> 'b = "guard"
external observe : 'a -> 'b = "observe"
```

We assume these two external functions *guard* and *observe* with a valid type that lets the user pass any number of arguments to them. All the guards are of the form `guard <arg> <arg> <arg>`, where the `<arg>` are expressed using the OCaml pattern matching language. Similarly, all the right-hand-side expressions are of the form `observe <arg> <arg> ...` with the same constraints on arguments.

```
type t = K1 | K2 of t (* declaration of an algebraic and recursive datatype t *)
```

```
let _ = function
  | K1 -> observe 0
  | K2 K1 -> observe 1
  | K2 x when guard x -> observe 2
  | K2 (K2 x) as y when guard x y -> observe 3
  | K2 _ -> observe 4
```

In our prototype we make use of accessors to encode stored values.

```

let value = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: []
(* that can also be written *)
let value = []      (field 0 x) = 1
  |> List.cons 3    (field 0 (field 1 x)) = 2      An accessor a
  |> List.cons 2    (field 0 (field 1 (field 1 x))) = 3
  |> List.cons 1    (field 0 (field 1 (field 1 (field 1 x)))) = []

```

represents the access path to a value that can be reached by deconstructing the scrutinee.

$a ::= \text{Here} \mid n.a$

The above example, in encoded form:

```

Here = 1
1.Here = 2
1.1.Here = 3
1.1.1.Here = []

```

In our prototype the source matrix m_S is defined as follows

$$\text{SMatrix } m_S := (a_j)^{j \in J}, ((p_{ij})^{j \in J} \rightarrow bb_i)^{i \in I}$$

Source matrices are used to build source decision trees C_S . A decision tree is defined as either a Leaf, a Failure terminal or an intermediate node with different children sharing the same accessor a and an optional fallback. Failure is emitted only when the patterns don't cover the whole set of possible input values S . The fallback is not needed when the user doesn't use a wildcard pattern. %%% Give example of thing

$$C_S ::= \text{Leaf } bb \mid \text{Switch}(a, (K_i \rightarrow C_i)^{i \in S}, C?) \mid \text{Failure} \mid \text{Unreachable}$$

$$v_S ::= K(v_i)^{i \in I} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}$$

We say that a translation of a source program to a decision tree is correct when for every possible input, the source program and its respective decision tree produces the same result

$$\forall v_S, t_S(v_S) = \llbracket t_S \rrbracket_S(v_S)$$

We define the decision tree of source programs $\llbracket t_S \rrbracket$ in terms of the decision tree of pattern matrices $\llbracket m_S \rrbracket$ by the following:

$$\llbracket (p_i \rightarrow bb_i)^{i \in I} \rrbracket := \llbracket (\text{Here}), (p_i \rightarrow bb_i)^{i \in I} \rrbracket$$

Decision tree computed from pattern matrices respect the following invariant:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall v (v_i)^{i \in I} = v(a_i)^{i \in I} \rightarrow \llbracket m \rrbracket(v) = m(v_i)^{i \in I} \text{ for } m = ((a_i)^{i \in I}, (r_i)^{i \in I}) \\ v(\text{Here}) = v \\ K(v_i)^i(k.a) = v_k(a) \text{ if } k \in [0;n[\end{aligned}$$

We proceed to show the correctness of the invariant by a case analysis.

Base cases:

1. $\llbracket \emptyset, (\emptyset \rightarrow bb_i)^i \rrbracket \equiv \text{Leaf } bb_i$ where $i := \min(I)$, that is a decision tree $\llbracket ms \rrbracket$ defined by an empty accessor and empty patterns pointing to blackboxes bb_i . This respects the invariant because a source matrix in the case of empty rows returns the first expression and $(\text{Leaf } bb)(v) := \text{Match } bb$
2. $\llbracket (a_j)^j, \emptyset \rrbracket \equiv \text{Failure}$

Regarding non base cases: Let's first define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{let } \text{Idx}(k) &:= [0; \text{arity}(k)[\\ \text{let } \text{First}(\emptyset) &:= \perp \\ \text{let } \text{First}((a_j)^j) &:= a_{\min(j \in J \neq \emptyset)} \\ m &:= ((a_i)^i ((p_{ij})^i \rightarrow e_j)^{ij}) \\ (k_k)^k &:= \text{headconstructor}(p_{i0})^i \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Groups}(m) := (k_k \rightarrow ((a)_{0,l})^{l \in \text{Idx}(k_k)} + + + (a_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}, (\text{if } p_{0j} \text{ is } k_l \text{ then } (q_l)^{l \in \text{Idx}(k_k)} + + + (p_{ij})^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}} \rightarrow \quad (1)$$

$\text{Groups}(m)$ is an auxiliary function that source a matrix m into submatrices, according to the head constructor of their first pattern. $\text{Groups}(m)$ returns one submatrix m_r for each head constructor k that occurs on the first row of m , plus one "wildcard submatrix" m_{wild} that matches on all values that do not start with one of those head constructors.

Intuitively, m is equivalent to its decomposition in the following sense: if the first pattern of an input vector $(v_i)^i$ starts with one of the head constructors k , then running $(v_i)^i$ against m is the same as running it against the submatrix m_k ; otherwise (its head constructor is none of the k) it is equivalent to running it against the wildcard submatrix.

We formalize this intuition as follows: Lemma (Groups): Let

$$m$$

be a matrix with

$$Groups(m) = (k_r \rightarrow m_r)^k, m_{wild}$$

. For any value vector $(v_i)^l$ such that $v_0 = k(v_i)^l$ for some constructor k , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{if } k = k_k \text{ for some } k \text{ then} \\ &\quad m(v_i)^i = m_k((v_i)^l + (v_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}) \\ &\text{else} \\ &\quad m(v_i)^i = m_{wild}(v_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}} \end{aligned}$$

1. Proof: Let m be a matrix with

$$Group(m) = (k_r \rightarrow m_r)^k, m_{wild}$$

Let $(v_i)^i$ be an input matrix with $v_0 = k(v_i)^l$ for some k . We proceed by case analysis:

- either k is one of the k_k for some k
- or k is none of the $(k_k)^k$

Both $m(v_i)^i$ and $m_k(v_k)^k$ are defined as the first matching result of a family over each row r_j of a matrix

We know, from the definition of $Groups(m)$, that m_k is

$$\begin{aligned}
& ((a)\{0.1\})^{l \in \text{Idx}(k_k)} + (a_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}, \\
& (\\
& \quad \text{if } p_{0j} \text{ is } k(q_l) \text{ then} \\
& \quad \quad (q_l)^l + (p_{ij})^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}} \rightarrow e_j \\
& \quad \text{if } p_{0j} \text{ is } _ \text{ then} \\
& \quad \quad (_)^l + (p_{ij})^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}} \rightarrow e_j \\
& \quad \text{else } \perp \\
&)_{j \in J}
\end{aligned}$$

By definition, $m(v_i)^i$ is

$$\begin{aligned}
m(v_i)^i &= \text{First}(r_j(v_i)^i)^j \text{ for } m = ((a_i)^i, (r_j)^j) \\
(p_i)^i (v_i)^i &= \{ \\
& \quad \text{if } p_0 = k(q_l)^l, v_0 = k'(v'_k)^k, k = \text{Idx}(k') \text{ and } l = \text{Idx}(k) \\
& \quad \text{if } k \neq k' \text{ then } \perp \\
& \quad \text{if } k = k' \text{ then } ((q_l)^l + (p_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}) ((v'_k)^k + (v_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}) \\
& \quad \text{if } p_0 = (q_1|q_2) \text{ then} \\
& \quad \text{First}((q_1 p_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}} (v_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}, (q_2 p_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}} (v_i)^{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}) \}
\end{aligned}$$

For this reason, if we can prove that

$$\forall j, r_j(v_i)^i = r'_j((v'_k)^k ++ (v_i)^i)$$

it follows that

$$m(v_i)^i = m_k((v'_k)^k ++ (v_i)^i)$$

from the above definition.

We can also show that $a_i = (a_{0.1})^l + a_{i \in I \setminus \{0\}}$ because $v(a_0) = K(v(a)\{0.1\})^l$

1.2 Target translation

The target program of the following general form is parsed using a parser generated by Menhir, a LR(1) parser generator for the OCaml programming

language. Menhir compiles LR(1) a grammar specification, in this case a subset of the Lambda intermediate language, down to OCaml code. This is the grammar of the target language (TODO: check menhir grammar)

```

start ::= sexpr
sexpr ::= variable | string | "(" special_form ")"
string ::= "\"" identifier "\"" ;; string between doublequotes
variable ::= identifier
special_form ::= let|catch|if|switch|switch-star|field|apply|isout
let ::= "let" assignment sexpr ;; (assignment sexpr)+ outside of pattern match code
assignment ::= "function" variable variable+ ;; the first variable is the identifier of the function
field ::= "field" digit variable
apply ::= ocaml_lambda_code ;; arbitrary code
catch ::= "catch" sexpr with sexpr
with ::= "with" "(" label ")"
exit ::= "exit" label
switch-star ::= "switch*" variable case*
switch ::= "switch" variable case* "default:" sexpr
case ::= "case" casevar ":" sexpr
casevar ::= ("tag"|"int") integer
if ::= "if" bexpr sexpr sexpr
bexpr ::= "(" ("!="|"="|\vert{">"|<="|">"|<") sexpr digit | field ")"
label ::= integer

```

The prototype doesn't support strings.

The AST built by the parser is traversed and evaluated by the symbolic execution engine. Given that the target language supports jumps in the form of "catch - exit" blocks the engine tries to evaluate the instructions inside the blocks and stores the result of the partial evaluation into a record. When a jump is encountered, the information at the point allows to finalize the evaluation of the jump block. In the environment the engine also stores bindings to values and functions. Integer additions and subtractions are

simplified in a second pass. The result of the symbolic evaluation is a target decision tree C_T

$$C_T ::= \text{Leaf } bb \mid \text{Switch}(a, (\pi_i \rightarrow C_i)^{i \in S}, C?) \mid \text{Failure}$$

$$v_T ::= \text{Cell}(\text{tag} \in \mathbb{N}, (v_i)^{i \in I}) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Every branch of the decision tree is "constrained" by a domain

$$\text{Domain } \pi = \{ n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \times n \mid n \in \text{Tag} \subseteq \mathbb{N} \}$$

Intuitively, the π condition at every branch tells us the set of possible values that can "flow" through that path. π conditions are refined by the engine during the evaluation; at the root of the decision tree the domain corresponds to the set of possible values that the type of the function can hold. $C?$ is the fallback node of the tree that is taken whenever the value at that point of the execution can't flow to any other subbranch. Intuitively, the π_{fallback} condition of the $C?$ fallback node is

$$\pi_{\text{fallback}} = \neg \bigcup_{i \in I} \pi_i$$

The fallback node can be omitted in the case where the domain of the children nodes correspond to set of possible values pointed by the accessor at that point of the execution

$$\text{domain}(v_S(a)) = \bigcup_{i \in I} \pi_i$$

We say that a translation of a target program to a decision tree is correct when for every possible input, the target program and its respective decision tree produces the same result

$$\forall v_T, t_T(v_T) = \llbracket t_T \rrbracket_T(v_T)$$

1.3 Equivalence checking

The equivalence checking algorithm takes as input a domain of possible values S and a pair of source and target decision trees and in case the two trees are not equivalent it returns a counter example. The algorithm respects the following correctness statement:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T)[] = \text{Yes} \wedge C_T \text{ covers } S &\implies \forall v_S \approx v_T \in S, C_S(v_S) = C_T(v_T) \\ \text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T)[] = \text{No}(v_S, v_T) \wedge C_T \text{ covers } S &\implies v_S \approx v_T \in S \wedge C_S(v_S) \neq C_T(v_T) \end{aligned}$$

Our equivalence-checking algorithm $\text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T)G$ is an exactly decision procedure for the provability of the judgment $(\text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T)G)$, defined

below.

<p style="text-align: center;"><i>constraint trees</i></p> $C ::= \text{Leaf}(t)$ $ \text{Failure}$ $ \text{Switch}(a, (\pi_i, C_i)^i, C_{\text{fb}})$ $ \text{Guard}(t, C_0, C_1)$	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>boolean result</i></p> $b \in \{0, 1\}$ <p style="text-align: center;"><i>guard queues</i></p> $G ::= (t_1 = b_1), \dots, (t_n = b_n)$
--	--

input space

$$S \subseteq \{(v_S, v_T) \mid v_S \approx_{\text{val}} v_T\}$$

$$\frac{}{\text{equiv}(\emptyset, C_S, C_T)G} \qquad \frac{}{\text{equiv}(S, \text{Failure}, \text{Failure})\square}$$

$$\frac{t_S \approx_{\text{term}} t_T}{\text{equiv}(S, \text{Leaf}(t_S), \text{Leaf}(t_T))\square}$$

$$\frac{\forall i, \text{equiv}((S \wedge a = K_i), C_i, \text{trim}(C_T, a = K_i))G \quad \text{equiv}((S \wedge a \notin (K_i)^i), C_{\text{fb}}, \text{trim}(C_T, a \notin (K_i)^i))G}{\text{equiv}(S, \text{Switch}(a, (K_i, C_i)^i, C_{\text{fb}}), C_T)G}$$

$$\frac{C_S \in \text{Leaf}(t), \text{Failure} \quad \forall i, \text{equiv}((S \wedge a \in D_i), C_S, C_i)G \quad \text{equiv}((S \wedge a \notin (D_i)^i), C_S, C_{\text{fb}})G}{\text{equiv}(S, C_S, \text{Switch}(a, (D_i)^i C_i, C_{\text{fb}}))G}$$

$$\frac{\text{equiv}(S, C_0, C_T)G, (t_S = 0) \quad \text{equiv}(S, C_1, C_T)G, (t_S = 1)}{\text{equiv}(S, \text{Guard}(t_S, C_0, C_1), C_T)G}$$

$$\frac{t_S \approx_{\text{term}} t_T \quad \text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_b)G}{\text{equiv}(S, C_S, \text{Guard}(t_T, C_0, C_1))(t_S = b), G}$$

Running a program t_S or its translation $\llbracket t_S \rrbracket$ against an input v_S produces as a result r in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} (\llbracket t_S \rrbracket_S(v_S) \equiv C_S(v_S)) &\rightarrow r \\ t_S(v_S) &\rightarrow r \end{aligned}$$

Likewise

$(\llbracket t_T \rrbracket_T(v_T) \equiv C_T(v_T)) \rightarrow r$
 $t_T(v_T) \rightarrow r$
 result $r ::=$ guard list * (Match blackbox | NoMatch | Absurd)
 guard $::=$ blackbox.

Having defined equivalence between two inputs of which one is expressed in the source language and the other in the target language, $v_S \simeq v_T$, we can define the equivalence between a couple of programs or a couple of decision trees

$$\begin{aligned}
 t_S \simeq t_T &:= \forall v_S \simeq v_T, t_S(v_S) = t_T(v_T) \\
 C_S \simeq C_T &:= \forall v_S \simeq v_T, C_S(v_S) = C_T(v_T)
 \end{aligned}$$

The result of the proposed equivalence algorithm is *Yes* or *No*(v_S, v_T). In particular, in the negative case, v_S and v_T are a couple of possible counter examples for which the decision trees produce a different result.

In the presence of guards we can say that two results are equivalent modulo the guards queue, written $r_1 \simeq_{gs} r_2$, when:

$$(gs_1, r_1) \simeq_{gs} (gs_2, r_2) \Leftrightarrow (gs_1, r_1) = (gs_2 ++ gs, r_2)$$

We say that C_T covers the input space S , written $covers(C_T, S)$ when every value $v_S \in S$ is a valid input to the decision tree C_T . (TODO: rephrase) Given an input space S and a couple of decision trees, where the target decision tree C_T covers the input space S , we say that the two decision trees are equivalent when:

$$equiv(S, C_S, C_T, gs) = Yes \wedge covers(C_T, S) \rightarrow \forall v_S \simeq v_T \in S, C_S(v_S) \simeq_{gs} C_T(v_T)$$

Similarly we say that a couple of decision trees in the presence of an input space S are *not* equivalent when:

$$equiv(S, C_S, C_T, gs) = No(v_S, v_T) \wedge covers(C_T, S) \rightarrow v_S \simeq v_T \in S \wedge C_S(v_S) \neq_{gs} C_T(v_T)$$

Corollary: For a full input space S , that is the universe of the target program we say:

$$\text{equiv}(S, \llbracket t_S \rrbracket_S, \llbracket t_T \rrbracket_T, \emptyset) = \text{Yes} \Leftrightarrow t_S \simeq t_T$$

1.3.1 The trimming lemma

The trimming lemma allows to reduce the size of a decision tree given an accessor $a \rightarrow \pi$ relation (TODO: expand)

$$\forall v_T \in (a \rightarrow \pi), C_T(v_T) = C_{t/a \rightarrow \pi}(v_T)$$

We prove this by induction on C_T :

- $C_T = \text{Leaf}_{\text{bb}}$: when the decision tree is a leaf terminal, the result of trimming on a Leaf is the Leaf itself

$$\text{Leaf}_{\text{bb}/a \rightarrow \pi}(v) = \text{Leaf}_{\text{bb}}(v)$$

- The same applies to Failure terminal

$$\text{Failure}_{/a \rightarrow \pi}(v) = \text{Failure}(v)$$

- When $C_T = \text{Switch}(b, (\pi \rightarrow C_i)^i)_{/a \rightarrow \pi}$ then we look at the accessor a of the subtree C_i and we define $\pi_i' = \pi_i$ if $a \neq b$ else $\pi_i \cap \pi$. Trimming a switch node yields the following result:

$$\text{Switch}(b, (\pi \rightarrow C_i)^{i \in I})_{/a \rightarrow \pi} := \text{Switch}(b, (\pi_i' \rightarrow C_{i/a \rightarrow \pi})^{i \in I})$$

For the trimming lemma we have to prove that running the value v_T against the decision tree C_T is the same as running v_T against the tree C_{trim} that is the result of the trimming operation on C_T

$$C_T(v_T) = C_{\text{trim}}(v_T) = \text{Switch}(b, (\pi_i' \rightarrow C_{i/a \rightarrow \pi})^{i \in I})(v_T)$$

We can reason by first noting that when $v_T \notin (b \rightarrow \pi_i)^i$ the node must be a Failure node. In the case where $\exists k \mid v_T \in (b \rightarrow \pi_k)$ then we can prove that

$$C_{k/a \rightarrow \pi}(v_T) = \text{Switch}(b, (\pi_i' \rightarrow C_{i/a \rightarrow \pi})^{i \in I})(v_T)$$

because when $a \neq b$ then $\pi_k' = \pi_k$ and this means that $v_T \in \pi_k'$ while when $a = b$ then $\pi_k' = (\pi_k \cap \pi)$ and $v_T \in \pi_k'$ because:

- by the hypothesis, $v_T \in \pi$
- we are in the case where $v_T \in \pi_k$

So $v_T \in \pi_k'$ and by induction

$$C_k(v_T) = C_{k/a \rightarrow \pi}(v_T)$$

We also know that $\forall v_T \in (b \rightarrow \pi_k) \rightarrow C_T(v_T) = C_k(v_T)$ By putting together the last two steps, we have proven the trimming lemma.

1.3.2 Equivalence checking

The equivalence checking algorithm takes as parameters an input space S , a source decision tree C_S and a target decision tree C_T :

$$\text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T) \rightarrow \text{Yes} \mid \text{No}(v_S, v_T)$$

When the algorithm returns Yes and the input space is covered by C_S we can say that the couple of decision trees are the same for every couple of source value v_S and target value v_T that are equivalent.

$$\text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T) = \text{Yes and cover}(C_T, S) \rightarrow \forall v_S \simeq v_T \in S \wedge C_S(v_S) = C_T(v_T)$$

In the case where the algorithm returns No we have at least a couple of counter example values v_S and v_T for which the two decision trees outputs a different result.

$$\text{equiv}(S, C_S, C_T) = \text{No}(v_S, v_T) \text{ and cover}(C_T, S) \rightarrow \forall v_S \simeq v_T \in S \wedge C_S(v_S) \neq C_T(v_T)$$

We define the following

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Forall}(\text{Yes}) &= \text{Yes} \\
\text{Forall}(\text{Yes}::l) &= \text{Forall}(l) \\
\text{Forall}(\text{No}(v_S, v_T)::_) &= \text{No}(v_S, v_T)
\end{aligned}$$

There exists and are injective:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{int}(k) &\in \mathbb{N} \text{ (arity}(k) = 0) \\
\text{tag}(k) &\in \mathbb{N} \text{ (arity}(k) > 0) \\
\pi(k) &= \{n \mid \text{int}(k) = n\} \times \{n \mid \text{tag}(k) = n\}
\end{aligned}$$

where k is a constructor.

We proceed by case analysis:

1. in case of unreachable:

$$C_S(v_S) = \text{Absurd}(\text{Unreachable}) \neq C_T(v_T) \quad \forall v_S, v_T$$

1. In the case of an empty input space

$$\text{equiv}(\emptyset, C_S, C_T) := \text{Yes}$$

and that is trivial to prove because there is no pair of values (v_S, v_T) that could be tested against the decision trees. In the other subcases S is always non-empty.

2. When there are *Failure* nodes at both sides the result is *Yes*:

$$\text{equiv}(S, \text{Failure}, \text{Failure}) := \text{Yes}$$

Given that $\forall v, \text{Failure}(v) = \text{Failure}$, the statement holds.

3. When we have a Leaf or a Failure at the left side:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{equiv}(S, \text{Failure as } C_S, \text{Switch}(a, (\pi_i \rightarrow C_{T_i})^{i \in I})) &:= \text{Forall}(\text{equiv}(S \cap a \rightarrow \pi(k_i)), C_S, C_{T_i})^{i \in I} \\
\text{equiv}(S, \text{Leaf } bb_S \text{ as } C_S, \text{Switch}(a, (\pi_i \rightarrow C_{T_i})^{i \in I})) &:= \text{Forall}(\text{equiv}(S \cap a \rightarrow \pi(k_i)), C_S, C_{T_i})^{i \in I}
\end{aligned}$$

The algorithm either returns *Yes* for every sub-input space $S_i := S \cap (a \rightarrow \pi(k_i))$ and subtree C_{T_i}

$$\text{equiv}(S_i, C_S, C_{T_i}) = \text{Yes } \forall i$$

or we have a counter example v_S, v_T for which

$$v_S \simeq v_T \in S_k \wedge c_S(v_S) \neq C_{T_k}(v_T)$$

then because

$$\begin{aligned} v_T \in (a \rightarrow \pi_k) &\rightarrow C_T(v_T) = C_{T_k}(v_T) , \\ v_S \simeq v_T \in S &\wedge C_S(v_S) \neq C_T(v_T) \end{aligned}$$

we can say that

$$\text{equiv}(S_i, C_S, C_{T_i}) = \text{No}(v_S, v_T) \text{ for some minimal } k \in I$$

4. When we have a Switch on the right we define π_{fallback} as the domain of values not covered but the union of the constructors k_i

$$\pi_{\text{fallback}} = \neg \bigcup_{i \in I} \pi(k_i)$$

The algorithm proceeds by trimming

$$\begin{aligned} \text{equiv}(S, \text{Switch}(a, (k_i \rightarrow C_{S_i})^{i \in I}, C_{\text{sf}}), C_T) &:= \\ \text{Forall}(\text{equiv}(S \cap (a \rightarrow \pi(k_i)^{i \in I}), C_{S_i}, C_{t/a \rightarrow \pi(k_i)})^{i \in I} &+ \text{equiv}(S \cap (a \rightarrow \pi_n), C_S, C_{a \rightarrow \pi_{\text{fallback}}})) \end{aligned}$$

The statement still holds and we show this by first analyzing the *Yes* case:

$$\text{Forall}(\text{equiv}(S \cap (a \rightarrow \pi(k_i)^{i \in I}), C_{S_i}, C_{t/a \rightarrow \pi(k_i)})^{i \in I} = \text{Yes}$$

The constructor k is either included in the set of constructors k_i :

$$k \mid k \in (k_i)^i \wedge C_S(v_S) = C_{S_i}(v_S)$$

We also know that

- (1) $C_{S_i}(v_S) = C_{t/a \rightarrow \pi_i}(v_T)$
- (2) $C_{T/a \rightarrow \pi_i}(v_T) = C_T(v_T)$

(1) is true by induction and (2) is a consequence of the trimming lemma. Putting everything together:

$$C_S(v_S) = C_{S_i}(v_S) = C_{T/a \rightarrow \pi_i}(v_T) = C_T(v_T)$$

When the $k \notin (k_i)^i$ [TODO]

The auxiliary Forall function returns $No(v_S, v_T)$ when, for a minimum k ,

$$\text{equiv}(S_k, C_{S_k}, C_{T/a \rightarrow \pi_k} = No(v_S, v_T)$$

Then we can say that

$$C_{S_k}(v_S) \neq C_{t/a \rightarrow \pi_k}(v_T)$$

that is enough for proving that

$$C_{S_k}(v_S) \neq (C_{t/a \rightarrow \pi_k}(v_T) = C_T(v_T))$$