

B3. Data Types

- (a) The set of Booleans.
- (b) The finite sets.
- (c) Atomic formulae and the traffic light example.
- (d) The disjoint union of sets.
- (e) The Σ -set.
- (f) The set of natural numbers.
- (g) Lists.
- (h) Universes.
- (i) Algebraic data types.

Formation Rule

Bool : Set

Introduction Rules

tt : Bool
ff : Bool

Elimination Rule

$$C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad \frac{\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \text{ ic ec cond} : C \text{ ff} \quad C \text{ tt} \quad ec : C \text{ ff} \quad cond : \text{Bool}}{C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}}$$

Equality Rules

$$C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad \frac{\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \text{ ic ec tt} = ic : C \text{ ff} \quad C \text{ tt} \quad ec : C \text{ ff}}{\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \text{ ic ec ff} = ec : C \text{ ff}}$$

The Set of Booleans (Cont.)

Remarks

- In the above
 - **tt** stands for true, **ff** stands for false.
 - **ic** stands for "if-case", **ec** for "else-case".
 - **com** for "condition".
- We can write the elimination rule in a **more compact** but less readable way:
 - $\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} : (C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}) \rightarrow (ic : C \text{ tt}) \rightarrow (ec : C \text{ ff}) \rightarrow (cond : \text{Bool}) \rightarrow C \text{ cond}$
- **tt**, **ff** are the **constructors** of Bool.

- This is similar to the definition of for instance (+) in **curried form** in Haskell
 - (+) : int → int → int.
 - (+) 3 is the function which takes an integer and adds to it 3.
 - * **Shorter** than writing $\lambda x.3 + x$.

Remarks (Cont.)

- AND is the **conjunction**:
 - AND tt $c = c$.
 - Correct since tt $\wedge c = c$.
 - AND ff $c = ff$.
 - Correct since ff $\wedge c = ff$.
- In the following we write Bool, if it
 - is a type in **boldface red**,
 - and if it is a term, in *italic blue*.

AND := $\lambda(b, c : \text{Bool}). \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) c \text{ ff } b$

Example

- Notice that we then get for $C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}, ic : C \text{ tt}, ec : C \text{ ff}$
 - $f := \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \text{ ic } ec$,
 - $(\text{cond} : \text{Bool}) \rightarrow C \text{ cond}$: $(\text{cond} : \text{Bool}) \rightarrow C \text{ cond}$
 - $f \text{ tt} = \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \text{ ic } ec \text{ tt} = ic : C \text{ tt}$,
 - $f \text{ ff} = \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \text{ ic } ec \text{ ff} = ec : C \text{ ff}$.
- So we obtain functions from Bool into other sets **without having to write** $\lambda(b : \text{Bool}). \dots$.
- That's why we choose the argument to eliminate from as the **last one**.

Remarks (Cont.)

- Note that we have the following **order of the arguments** of $\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}}$:
 - First we have the **set into which we eliminate**.
 - Then follow the **cases**, one for each constructor.
 - Finally we put the **element which we are eliminating**.
- In some sense $\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}}$ is a "then_else_if" – the **condition** (if ..,) **is the last one**.

Remarks (Cont.)

- Derivation of AND: $\text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
- First we derive $b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}$:

Example (Cont.)

$$\frac{\text{Bool} : \text{Set}}{b : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}}{b : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Type}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool}, b' : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool}, b' : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Set}}$$

- We derive

$$b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} : \text{Type}$$

(using part of the derivation above):

$$\frac{\dots}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool}, b' : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool}, b' : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Set}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool}, b' : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool} \text{tt} = \text{Bool} : \text{Set}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} : \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} : \text{Type}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} : \text{Type}}$$

- Similarly follows

Example (Cont.)

$$b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{ff} : \text{Type}$$

– Using part of the proof above, we derive

$$b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} :$$

$$\frac{\dots}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} : \text{Type}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow c : \text{Bool}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} : \text{Type}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt}}$$

– We derive

$$b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{ff} : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{ff} :$$

$$\frac{\dots}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{ff} : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{ff} : \text{Type}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{ff} : \text{Bool}} \quad \frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{ff} : \text{Type}}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{ff} : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{ff} : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{ff}}$$

- We derive $b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow b : \text{Bool}$ using part of the proof above:

$$\frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context} \dots}{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow b : \text{Bool}}$$

Example (Cont.)

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- Finally we obtain our judgement (we stack the premises of the rule because of lack of space):

$$b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set} \\ b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{tt} \\ b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{ff} : (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) \text{ff}$$

$$\frac{b : \text{Bool}, c : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) c \text{ff} b : \text{Bool}}{b : \text{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(c : \text{Bool}). \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) c \text{ff} b : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}} \\ \frac{\lambda(b, c : \text{Bool}). \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) c \text{ff} b : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}}{\lambda(b, c : \text{Bool}). \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \text{Bool}). \text{Bool}) c \text{ff} b : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}}$$

Example (Cont.)

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Elimination into Type

We can extend add elimination and equality rules, having as result Type:

Elimination Rule into Type

$$\frac{C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Type} \quad ic : C \text{tt} \quad ec : C \text{ff} \quad cond : \text{Bool}}{\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \quad ic \quad ec \quad cond : C \text{cond}}$$

Equality Rules into Type

$$\frac{C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Type} \quad ic : C \text{tt} \quad ec : C \text{ff}}{\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \quad ic \quad ec \quad \text{tt} = ic : C \text{tt}}$$

$$\frac{C : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Type} \quad ic : C \text{tt} \quad ec : C \text{ff}}{\text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} C \quad ic \quad ec \quad \text{ff} = ec : C \text{ff}}$$

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Elimination into Type (Cont.)

We can extend this into an elimination rule into kind or other higher types.

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Bool in Agda

- We introduce Bool by simply **listing its constructors** (similarly to Haskell syntax):

```
data Bool = tt | ff
```

- This introduces as well constants

```
- tt :: Bool
- ff :: Bool
```

- With this syntax, each constructor **can occur at most once in a data type**,
 - i.e. we cannot define a second type having constructor tt,
 - e.g. for defining True (which is used later):

```
data True = tt
```

Bool in Agda (Cont.)

- The definition of Bool above is treated in Agda as an **abbreviation** for the following three **more fundamental Agda definitions**:

```
Bool :: Set
      = data tt | ff
      tt  : Bool
      ff  : Bool
      = tt@Bool
      = ff@Bool
```

Bool in Agda (Cont.)

- The definition of Bool as

```
Bool :: Set
      = data tt | ff
```

introduces Bool as a set **having constructors tt@Bool and ff@Bool**.

- So tt, and ff **have to be defined separately**.
- If it is clear that the element in question is of type Bool, then one can replace tt@Bool by **tt**.

- The definition of Bool as above **doesn't prevent the definition of another set** with constructors tt or ff.
- This syntax is the only one allowed, if one defines a set using the **data keyword depending on arguments**.

More about this later.

- **Internally**, tt will always be represented as tt@Bool, similarly for ff.

- So Agda **evaluates tt to tt@Bool**.

- This can be seen when using for instance **"agda-compute-WHNF"**,
 compute weak head normal form.

$$\begin{aligned}
 f &:: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
 &= \text{case } x \text{ of} \\
 &\quad \{ (\text{tt}) \rightarrow \{ i \ i \}; \\
 &\quad \quad (\text{ff}) \rightarrow \{ i \ i \}; \}
 \end{aligned}$$

- The goal expands to:
 - This introduces a **case distinction** by the constructor used for introducing x :
 - We can then type into the goal x and choose the menu item **"agda-case"**.
 - x could have been introduced as tt or ff .

Case Distinction (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned}
 f &(x :: \text{Bool}) \\
 &:: \text{Bool} \\
 &= \{ i \ i \}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Elimination in Agda is based on **case distinction**.
 - Assume we want to define $f : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$, s.t.
 - * $f \ \text{tt} = \text{ff}$,
 - * $f \ \text{ff} = \text{tt}$.
 - So we have the goal:
 - * $f \ \text{ff} = \text{tt}$.

Case Distinction

- Similarly one finds that in the second goal x is $\text{ff} @ _$.
 - $x :: \text{Bool} = \text{tt} @ _$.
 - It contains
 - (use goal-menu **"agda-context"**):
 - Alternatively, **check**, the cursor being in that goal, **the context**

Case Distinction (Cont.)

- The **value of x** in the first goal **can be tested** as follows:
 - Position the cursor in the first goal and choose (goal-) menu item **"agda-compute-WHNF"**
 - * **"Compute weak head normal form"** means essentially **"compute the result of reducing that term"**.
 - More precisely this means that a term is reduced until it starts with a constructor (or is a variable).
 - Then type into the mini-buffer x .
 - One gets the answer $\text{tt} @ _$.

Case Distinction (Cont.)

Case Distinction (Cont.)

- Now we can solve the new goals by inserting
 - ff into the first one,
 - tt into the second one.
- We obtain a function:

$$f \ (x :: Bool) \ \begin{cases} :: Bool \\ = \text{case } x \text{ of} \\ \{ (tt) \rightarrow ff; \\ (ff) \rightarrow tt; \} \end{cases}$$

- $f \ x$ is the **negation of x** .

Testing the Defined Function

- We can test our function by using "agda-compute-WHNF".
- We have to create a goal for this.

- The reduction machinery is **context dependent**.
- The context depends on where in the buffer we are.
- * See the above example where x was depending on the goal tt or ff.
- Not every place in the buffer is a good place.
- **Good places for context are goals**, and that's the **only place** where Agda allows us to **compute the weak head normal form of expressions**.

Testing the Defined Function

- So we
 - type in a dummy goal:
- $$test :: Set \ \{ i \} = \{ i \}$$
- move to the new goal
 - choose "agda-compute-WHNF",
 - and type into the mini-buffer $f \ tt$.

- The result shown is ff .

(b) The Finite Sets

Bool can be generalized to sets having n elements (n a fixed natural number):

$Fin_n : Set$

Introduction Rules

$A_n^k : Fin_n$

(for $k = 0, \dots, n - 1$)

Elimination Rule

$$C : Fin_n \rightarrow Set \\ s_0 : C \ A_n^0 \\ s_1 : C \ A_n^1 \\ \vdots \\ s_{n-1} : C \ A_n^{n-1} \\ a : Fin_n \\ \hline \text{Case}_n \ C \ s_0 \ \dots \ s_{n-1} \ a : C \ a$$

Equality Rules

The Finite Sets (Cont)

$$\begin{array}{l}
 C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Set} \\
 s_0 : C A_n^0 \\
 s_1 : C A_n^1 \\
 \vdots \\
 s_{n-1} : C A_n^{n-1} \\
 \hline
 \text{Case}_n C s_0 \dots s_{n-1} A_n^k = s_k : C A_n^k
 \end{array}$$

(for $k = 0, \dots, n - 1$).

Omitting Premises in Equality Rules

Since the premises of the equality rule can in most cases be determined from the introduction and elimination rules, we will **usually omit them**, and write for instance for the previous rule:

$$\text{Case}_n C s_0 \dots s_{n-1} A_n^k = s_k : C A_n^k$$

We sometimes even **omit the type**:

$$\text{Case}_n C s_0 \dots s_{n-1} A_n^k = s_k$$

More compact elimination rules

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \bullet \text{Case}_n : (C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Set}) \\
 \rightarrow (s_0 : C A_n^0) \\
 \rightarrow \dots \\
 \rightarrow (s_{n-1} : C A_n^{n-1}) \\
 \rightarrow (a : \text{Fin}_n) \\
 \rightarrow C a
 \end{array}$$

Elimination into Type

- Similarly as for Bool we can write down **elimination rules**, where $C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Type}$ (instead of $C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Set}$).
- This can be done for all sets defined later as well.

- From a **logic point of view**, it expresses:
From an element of C true we obtain an element of $C t$ for every $t : \text{True}$.
- So there is no $C : \text{True} \rightarrow \text{Set}$ s.t. C true is inhabited, but $C x$ is not inhabited for some other $x : \text{True}$.
- This means that all elements of x of type True are **indistinguishable from true**, i.e. they are **identical to true**.
- This equality is called **Leibnitz equality**.
- $\text{Case}^{\text{True}} c$ is the untyped function $\lambda x.c$.
- However, in Agda we might not be able to derive
- $\lambda(t : \text{True}).c : (t : \text{True}) \rightarrow C t$
- $\text{Case}^{\text{True}}$ is **computationally not very interesting**.

Rules for True (Cont.)

- False has **no elements**.
- It is formula which is **always false**.
- As well called **absurdity**.
- $\text{Case}^{\text{False}}$ expresses: **from an element f of False we obtain an element of any set** (which might depend on f).
- From a logic point of view this is **"Ex falsum quodlibet"** (from the absurdity follows anything).
E.g. A **false formula** like " $0 = 1$ " or "Swansea lies in Germany" **implies everything**.

False

- True** is the special case Fin_n for $n = 1$:
- Formation Rule**
 $\text{True} : \text{Set}$
- Introduction Rules**
 $\text{true} : \text{True}$
- Elimination Rule**
 $\frac{C : \text{True} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad c : C \text{ true} \quad t : \text{True}}{\text{Case}^{\text{True}} c t : C t}$
- Equality Rule**
 $\frac{C : \text{True} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad c : C \text{ true} = c' : C \text{ true}}{\text{Case}^{\text{True}} c \text{ true} = c' : C \text{ true}}$

Rules for True

- False** is the special case Fin_n for $n = 0$:
- Formation Rule**
 $\text{False} : \text{Set}$
- There is no Introduction Rule**
- Elimination Rule**
 $\frac{C : \text{False} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad f : \text{False}}{\text{Case}^{\text{False}} f : C f}$
- There is no Equality Rule**

Rules for False

```

is-red (c :: Colour)
  :: Bool
= case c of
  { (red)   → tt;
    (green) → ff;
    (blue)  → ff; }
    
```

- With this we obtain `red :: Colour`
- And we can define for instance


```
data Colour = blue | red | green
```
- E.g.
- **Finite sets** can be introduced by giving **one constructor for each element**.

Finite Sets in Agda

- The result is


```

g (x :: False)
  :: Bool
= case x of { }
      
```
- If we make case distinction on `x` there is **no case to choose from**, so we don't have to define anything.

False in Agda (Cont.)

- `CaseFalse` has **no computational meaning**, since there is no element it can be applied to.
- Applies of course only if we are working in a **terminating type theory**.
- If we had **full recursion**, we could define `f : False by f = f`.
- However that `f` doesn't reduce to canonical form.
- That's why it's important to carry out the **termination check in Agda**, otherwise one obtains for instance elements of `False`.

False (Cont.)

- If we want to solve


```

g (x :: False)
  :: Bool
= { i }
      
```
- In Agda we can define the empty set as a "data"-set **with no constructors**:


```
data False =
```
- we can insert into the goal `x` and choose menu-item **"agda-case"**.

False in Agda

Example for the Use of False

- Assume the **type of trees**:

data Tree = pine | oak

IsOak :: Tree → Set

IsOak pine = False

IsOak oak = True

s.t.

- Below we will show, how to introduce a function

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Example for the Use of False (Cont.)

- If we want to define a function from trees, which are oak trees, into another set, we can do so by requiring **an additional argument** "IsOak":

f (t :: Tree)

(p :: IsOak t)

:: A

= case t of

{ pine

→ case p of { ; }

oak → ... ; }

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Example for the Use of False (Cont.)

- In order to use *f* we have to **know** that *t* is an oak tree,

– i.e. we have to provide an argument *p* which expresses the fact that we know this.

- Note that we **don't have to invent a result** of *f* in case *t* is a pine tree.

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Example 2 for the Use of False

- Similarly we can introduce a **stack**, together with a predicate

NotEmpty :: Stack → Set

s.t.

NotEmpty s = False

if *s* is the empty stack.

- Now we can define

pop (s :: Stack)

(p :: NotEmpty s)

:: Stack

= ...

- Again we **don't have to provide a result, in case *s* is empty.**

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True in Agda

- The definition of True in Agda is **straightforward**:

data False = true

- Case distinction will require to **solve the case true**:

$$g \quad (x :: \text{True}) \quad :: \quad \text{Bool}$$

$$= \quad \text{case } x \text{ of } \{ (\text{true}) \rightarrow \{! \}; \}$$

(c) Atomic Formulae and the Traffic Light Example

Atomic Formulae

- We have already introduced **two formulae**:

- True.
- * True is **inhabited**.
- There is a proof of it (true).
- True is therefore **type-theoretically true**:
- A formula is **type-theoretically true**, if it is **provable**, i.e.

Truth in type theory means provability.

Atomic Formulae (Cont.)

- False.
- * False is **not inhabited**.
- There is **no proof** of False.
- Furthermore**, from any proof of False we can derive everything (elimination rules for False).
- False is therefore **type-theoretically false**: A formula is **type-theoretically false**, if from it we can derive everything.
- Since this implies that we can derive False and from False we can derive everything, this is equivalent to the following: A formula is **type-theoretically false**, if from a proof of it we can derive False (i.e. a **contradiction**).

Atomic Formulae (Cont.)

- There are formulae in type theory, which are **neither type-theoretically true nor type-theoretically false**.

- This means that we can neither prove them, nor derive from a proof a contradiction.
- Truth in type theory means that we **know that it is true**.
- Falsity in type theory means that we **know that it cannot be true**.
- There are formulae in type theory for which **neither of these two holds**.
- True and False as above are formulae corresponding to the **truth values true and false**.

atom tt = True
 atom ff = False

$$\frac{b : \text{Bool}}{\text{atom } b : \text{Set}}$$

- This corresponds to the following rules (which are not needed)

atom (Cont.)

- Using atom we can now define **decidable predicates** on sets.
- Assume we have a **set of states** of a system A .
 - E.g. the set of states a railway controller can choose.
- Assume we have a function $f : A \rightarrow \text{Bool}$.
 - E.g. $f a$ means: **state a is safe**.

Decidable Predicates

atom : Bool \rightarrow Set
 atom tt = True
 atom ff = False

- We can **map** truth values to their corresponding formula:

atom

atom (b :: Bool)
 :: Set
 = case b of
 { (tt) \rightarrow True;
 (ff) \rightarrow False; }

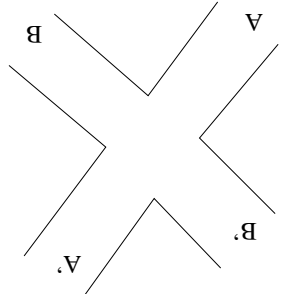
atom in Agda

Decidable Predicates (Cont.)

- Let now $g : A \rightarrow \text{Set}$, $g\ a = \text{atom}(f\ a)$.
 - If $f\ a$ is **true** (e.g. a is safe), $g\ a$ is **inhabited**.
 - If $f\ a$ is **false** (e.g. a is unsafe), $g\ a$ is **not inhabited**.
- Now, the existence of a $h : (a : A) \rightarrow g\ a$ means:
 - For all $a : A$ we have $g\ a$ is **inhabited**,
 - i.e. for all $a : A$, $f\ a$ is **true**,
 - e.g. for all $a : A$, a is **safe**.

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The Traffic Light Example



- Assume a **road crossing**, controlled by **traffic lights**:
- Assume from each direction A, A', B, B' there is one traffic light,
 - but A and A' always coincide, similarly B and B' .

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The Set of Physical States

- For simplicity assume that **each traffic light is either red or green**:
 - data Colour = red | green
- The set of **physical states of the system** is given by a pair, determining the colour of A (and therefore as well A') and of B (and B')
 - Phys-State :: Set
 - = sig{ sigA :: Colour;
 - sigB :: Colour; }

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The Set of Control States

- The set of **control states** is a set of states of the system, a controller of the system can choose.
 - Each of these states **should be safe**.
 - In our example, **all safe states will be captured** (this can usually be only achieved in small examples).
- A **complete set of control states** consists of:
 - Allred – all signals are red.
 - Agreen – signal A (and A') is green, signal B is red.
 - Bgreen – signal B is green, signal A is red.

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- We therefore define

```
data Control_State = Allred | Agreen | Bgreen
```

The Set of Control States (Cont.)

- We define the **state of signals A, B depending on a control state:**

```
toSigA (s :: Control_State)
  :: Colour
  = case s of
    { (Allred)   → red;
      (Agreen)   → green;
      (Bgreen)   → red; }
toSigB (s :: Control_State)
  :: Colour
  = case s of
    { (Allred)   → red;
      (Agreen)   → red;
      (Bgreen)   → green; }
```

Mapping Control States to Physical States

- Now we can define the **physical state corresponding to a control state:**

```
phys-state (s :: Control_State)
  :: Phys_State
  = struct{ sigA = toSigA s;
            sigB = toSigB s; }
```

Mapping Control States to Physical States

- We define now **when a physical state is safe:**

- It is **safe iff not both signals are green.**
- We define now a corresponding predicate **directly**, without defining first a Boolean function.
- We first define a predicate depending on two signals:

```
CorAux (a :: Colour) (b :: Colour)
  :: Set
  = case a of
    { (red)   → True;
      (green) → case b of
        { (red)   → True;
          (green) → False; }; }
CorAux (a :: Colour) (b :: Colour)
  :: Set
  = case a of
    { (red)   → True;
      (green) → case b of
        { (red)   → True;
          (green) → False; }; }
```

Safety Predicate

Safety Predicate (Cont.)

– Now we define

```

Cor (s :: Phys_State)
  :: Set
  = CorAux s.sigA s.sigB

```

- **Remark:** In some cases in order to define a function from some **product (i.e. a sig-set)** into some other set, it is better first to **introduce an auxiliary function**, depending on the components of that product.
- In the current example this wouldn't have caused problems, but in more complex examples it does (due to the lack of the η -rule).

Safety of the System (Cont.)

- The first element true was an element of $\text{Cor}(\text{phys_state Allred})$, which reduces to **True**.
- Similarly for the other two elements.
- This works only because **each control state corresponds to a correct physical state**.

– If this hadn't been the case, we would have gotten instances where the goal to solve is **False**, which we can't solve.

Safety of the System

- Now we show that **all control states are safe:**

```

cor-proof (s :: Control_State)
  :: Cor(phys_state s)
  = case s of
    { (Allred)   → true;
      (Agreen)   → true;
      (Bgreen)   → true; }

```

Safety of the System (Cont.)

- If one makes a **mistake** which results in an unsafe situation (e.g. sets to $\text{SigB Agreen} = \text{green}$, then in the last step we obtain one goal of type **False**.)
- Then we can't solve this goal directly and **cannot prove the correctness**. (In fact we could type-theoretically solve this goal by using **full recursion**, (e.g. solve this goal as **cor-proof Agreen**), but this would be rejected by the termination check.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Plus-Split } A B C \text{ sl } sr \text{ (inl } A B a) &= \text{sl } a : C \text{ (inl } A B a) \\ \text{Plus-Split } A B C \text{ sl } sr \text{ (inr } A B b) &= \text{sr } b : C \text{ (inr } A B b) \end{aligned}$$

Equality Rules

The Disjoint Union of Sets (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} (+) \quad (A :: \text{Set}) & \\ & :: \text{Set} \\ & = \text{data inl}(a :: A) \mid \text{inr}(b :: B) \end{aligned}$$

- The disjoint union can be defined as a "data"-set having **two constructors** inl (in-left) and inr (in-right):

Disjoint Union in Agda

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Formation Rule} & \frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : \text{Set} \quad a : A \quad \text{inl } A B a : A + B}{A : \text{Set} \quad B : \text{Set} \quad b : B \quad \text{inr } A B b : A + B} \\ \text{Introduction Rules} & \frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : \text{Set} \quad C : (A + B) \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad \text{sl} : (a : A) \rightarrow C \text{ (inl } A B a) \quad \text{sr} : (b : B) \rightarrow C \text{ (inr } A B b)}{\text{Plus-Split } A B C \text{ sl } sr : C d} \\ \text{Elimination Rule} & \frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : \text{Set} \quad C : (A + B) \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad \text{sl} : (a : A) \rightarrow C \text{ (inl } A B a) \quad \text{sr} : (b : B) \rightarrow C \text{ (inr } A B b)}{d : A + B} \end{aligned}$$

(d) The Disjoint Union of Sets

- A **more compact notation** is:
 - $(+) : \text{Set} \rightarrow \text{Set} \rightarrow \text{Set}$, written infix.
 - $\text{inl} : (A, B : \text{Set}) \rightarrow A \rightarrow (A + B)$.
 - $\text{inr} : (A, B : \text{Set}) \rightarrow B \rightarrow (A + B)$.
 - $\text{Plus-Split} : (A, B : \text{Set}) \rightarrow (C : (A + B) \rightarrow \text{Set}) \rightarrow C$
 - $\text{sl} : (a : A) \rightarrow C \text{ (inl } A B a)$
 - $\text{sr} : (b : B) \rightarrow C \text{ (inr } A B b)$
 - $d : (d : A + B) \rightarrow C d$.

Disjoint Union using the Logical Framework

Disjoint Union in Agda (Cont.)

- The notation $(+)$ means, that $+$ can be used **infix**.
- Now we have, if $A, B :: \text{Set}$:
 - $\text{inl}@(A + B) :: A \rightarrow (A + B)$
 - $\text{inr}@(A + B) :: B \rightarrow (A + B)$
 - This can be checked using the menu "**agda-infer-type**" in a dummy goal.
 - Note that we cannot assign a type to $\text{inr}@-$.
 - $(+)$ **cannot** be defined using the abbreviated data notation (which would be of the form $\text{data } (+) = \dots$).

Disjoint Union in Agda (Cont.)

- Elimination is again represented by case distinction. So if want to define for $A, B :: \text{Set}$ for instance

$$f \ (c :: A + B) :: \text{Bool} = \{! !\}$$

we can type into the goal c and choose menu "agda-case".

Disjoint Union in Agda (Cont.)

- We obtain
 - $f \ (c :: A + B) :: \text{Bool} = \text{case } c \text{ of}$
 - $\{ \text{inl } a \} \rightarrow \{! !\}$
 - $\{ \text{inr } b \} \rightarrow \{! !\}$
- and insert into the first goal e.g. true and the second one false

Use of Concrete Disjoint Sets

- It is usually **more convenient** to define concrete disjoint unions **directly** with more intuitive names for constructors, e.g.
- data Plant = tree(t :: Tree) | flower(f :: Flower)
- Now one can define for instance
 - $\text{isFlower } (p :: \text{Plant}) :: \text{Bool}$
 - $= \text{case } p \text{ of}$
 - $\{ \text{tree } t \} \rightarrow \text{ff}$
 - $\{ \text{flower } f \} \rightarrow \text{tt}$

(e) The Σ -Set

$$\frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : A \rightarrow \text{Set}}{\Sigma A B : \text{Set}}$$

Formation Rule

$$\frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : A \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad a : A \quad b : B a}{p A B a b : \Sigma A B}$$

Introduction Rule

$$\frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : A \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad C : (\Sigma A B) \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad s : (a : A) \rightarrow (b : B a) \rightarrow C (p A B a b)}{\text{Sigma_Split } A B C s d : C d}$$

Elimination Rule

Equality Rule

$$\text{Sigma_Split } A B C s (p A B a b) = s a b : C (p A B a b)$$

The Σ -Set (Cont)

The Σ -Set using the Logical Framework

• The more compact notation is:

$$- \Sigma : (A : \text{Set}) \rightarrow (B : A \rightarrow \text{Set}) \rightarrow \text{Set} .$$

$$- p : (A : \text{Set}) \rightarrow (B : A \rightarrow \text{Set}) \rightarrow \text{Set} .$$

$$\rightarrow (a : A) \rightarrow (b : B a) \rightarrow \Sigma A B .$$

$$\rightarrow \Sigma A B .$$

The Σ -Set using the Logical Framework (Cont.)

- Sigma_Split

$$: (A : \text{Set})$$

$$\rightarrow (B : A \rightarrow \text{Set})$$

$$\rightarrow (C : (\Sigma A B) \rightarrow \text{Set})$$

$$\rightarrow (s : (a : A, b : B a)$$

$$\rightarrow C (p A B a b))$$

$$\rightarrow (d : \Sigma A B)$$

$$\rightarrow C d .$$

- However the dependent product has the η -rule (which is however not implemented in Agda).
- Because of the lack of η -rule, Σ works usually **better than the dependent product** in Agda.
- I personally **don't use the dependent product** of Agda much.

The Σ -Set and the Dependent Product

`data Plant = plant (g :: Plant-Group)(pg :: Plants-in-group g)`

- Again one usually defines concrete Σ -sets more directly.
- **Example:** Assume we have defined
 - a set `Plant-Group` for **groups of plants** (e.g. "tree", "flower"),
 - depending on `g :: Plant-Group`, sets `Plants-in-group g` for **plants in that group**.
- The **set of plants** can then be defined as

The Σ -Set in Agda (Cont.)

- The **dependent product** and the Σ -set are very similar.
 - Both have similar introduction rules (for the Σ -set, the constructors have additional arguments `A`, `B` necessary for bureaucratic reasons only).
 - One can define the projections π_0, π_1 using `Sigma-Split`:
- $$\pi_0 = \text{Sigma-Split } A \ B \ (\lambda x : A). \lambda (y : B \ x). x$$
- $$\pi_1 = \text{Sigma-Split } A \ B \ (\lambda x : A). \lambda (y : B \ x). y$$
- On the other hand, from π_0, π_1 we can define `Sigma-Split` as follows:
- $$\lambda A, B, C, s, d. s \ \pi_0(d) \ \pi_1(d) \cdot$$

The Σ -Set and the Dependent Product

`Sigma (A :: Set) (B :: A -> Set) :: Set`
`= data p (a :: A) (b :: Ba)`

- Σ can be defined as a "data"-set with constructor `p`:

The Σ -Set in Agda

Formulae in Dependent Type Theory

- We have seen how to represent **atomic decidable formulae**.
- Now treatment of complex formulae constructed using **logical connectives**.

Conjunction (Cont.)

- With this identification, the **introduction rule** for \wedge allows to form a proof of $A \wedge B$ from a proof of A and a proof of B .

$$\frac{p : A \quad q : B}{\langle p, q \rangle : A \wedge B}$$

- This means that we can **derive $A \wedge B$ from A and B** .

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule for \wedge** :

$$\frac{A \quad B}{A \wedge B}$$

The Σ -Set in Agda (Cont.)

- Not surprisingly, for **elimination** we use **case distinction**, e.g.:

$$f (p :: \text{Plant}) \text{ Plant-group} ::= \text{case } p \text{ of } \{ (\text{plant } g \text{ } pg) \rightarrow g ; \}$$

Conjunction

- $A \wedge B$ is true iff both A is true and B is true.
- Therefore a proof of $A \wedge B$ consists of a **proof of A and a proof of B** .
- It is therefore a pair $\langle p, q \rangle$ consisting of a proof p of A and a proof q of B .
- Therefore the set of proofs of $A \wedge B$ is the set of pairs of elements of A and B , i.e. **$A \times B$** .
- We can **identify** $A \wedge B$ with $A \times B$.

Conjunction (Cont.)

- The **elimination rule** for \wedge allows to project a proof of $A \wedge B$ to a proof of A and a proof of B :

$$\frac{p : A \wedge B}{\pi_0(p) : A} \quad \frac{p : A \wedge B}{\pi_1(p) : B}$$

- This means that we can **derive from $A \wedge B$ both A and B** .

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rule** for \wedge :

$$\frac{A \wedge B}{A} \quad \frac{A \wedge B}{B}$$

Disjunction

- $A \vee B$ is true iff A is true or B is true.

- Therefore a **proof of $A \vee B$ consists of a proof of A or a proof of B , plus the information which one.**

- It is therefore an element $\text{inl } p$ for a proof $p : A$ or an element $\text{inr } q$ for a proof $q : B$.

- Therefore the set of proofs of $A \vee B$ is the **disjoint union of A and B** , i.e. $A + B$.

- We can **identify** $A \vee B$ with $A + B$.

Disjunction (Cont.)

- With this identification, the **introduction rules** for \vee allows to form a proof of $A \vee B$ from a proof of A or from a proof of B .

$$\frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : \text{Set} \quad p : A}{\text{inl } A B p : A + B} \quad \frac{A : \text{Set} \quad B : \text{Set} \quad p : B}{\text{inr } A B p : A + B}$$

- Omitting the premises $A, B : \text{Set}$ and omitting them as arguments of inl and inr (which is needed only for bureaucratic reasons) we get:

$$\frac{p : A}{\text{inl } p : A + B} \quad \frac{p : B}{\text{inr } p : A + B}$$

Disjunction (Cont.)

- This means that we can **derive $A \vee B$ from A and from B** .

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rules** for \vee :

$$\frac{A}{A \vee B} \quad \frac{B}{A \vee B}$$

Disjunction (Cont.)

- The **elimination rule** for + allows to form from an element of $A + B$ an element of any set C provided we can compute such an element from A and from B :

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} A : \text{Set} \\ B : \text{Set} \\ C : (A \vee B) \rightarrow \text{Set} \\ sl : (a : A) \rightarrow C \text{ (inl } A B a) \\ sr : (b : B) \rightarrow C \text{ (inr } A B b) \end{array}}{d : A \vee B} \text{Plus_Split } A B C \text{ sl sr } d : C d$$

- Omitting the dependency of C on $A \vee B$ and omitting the bureaucratic premises and arguments A, B and C we get:

$$\frac{d : A \vee B \quad sl : A \rightarrow C \quad sr : B \rightarrow C}{\text{Plus_Split } sl \ sr \ d : C}$$

Disjunction (Cont.)

- This means that we can **derive from $A \vee B$ a formula C , if we can derive C from A and from B .**

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rules for \vee** :

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} A \\ B \\ \vdots \\ C \end{array}}{A \vee B} C$$

- (Note that in the ordinary elimination rule, from the premise " C derivable from A " we obtain " $A \rightarrow C$ ", similarly for " C derivable from B " we get $B \rightarrow C$.)

Implication

- We write temporarily \supset for logical implication, in order to distinguish it from the function type \rightarrow .

– Below we see that \supset can be identified with \rightarrow .

- $A \supset B$ is true iff, whenever A is true then B is true.

- Therefore **if there is a proof of A , there must be a proof of B .**

- Therefore a proof of $A \supset B$ is a **function, which takes a proof of A and computes a proof of B .**

- Therefore the set of proofs of $A \supset B$ is the **function type $A \rightarrow B$.**

- We can **identify $A \supset B$ with $A \rightarrow B$.**

Implication (Cont.)

- With this identification, the **introduction rule for \supset** allows to form a proof of $A \supset B$ from a proof of B depending on a proof p of A :

$$\frac{p : A \Rightarrow q : B}{\lambda(p : A).q : A \supset B}$$

- This means that, if we, **from assumptions $p:A$ can prove B**

– (i.e. we can make use of a context $p : A$ for proving $q : B$)

- **then we can derive $A \supset B$ without assuming $p:A$.**

$$\frac{A \supset B}{A} B$$

- This means that we can **derive from $A \supset B$ and A that B holds**.
- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rule for \supset** :

$$\frac{p \quad q : B}{p : A \supset B} q : A$$

- The **elimination rule for \supset** allows to apply a proof p of $A \supset B$ to a proof of q of A in order to obtain a proof of B :

Implication (Cont.)

- Since we have many types, we have to write when using quantifiers explicitly the type, the bound variable is ranging over:
We write therefore $\forall x : A.B$, $\exists x : A.B$.
- $\forall x : A.B$ is true iff, for all $x : A$ there exists a proof of B (with that x).
- Therefore a proof of $\forall x : A.B$ is a **function, which takes an $x:A$ and computes an element of B** .
- Therefore the set of proofs of $\forall x : A.B$ is the **dependent function type $(x : A) \rightarrow B$** .
- We can **identify $\forall x : A.B$ with $(x : A) \rightarrow B$** .

Universal Quantification

$$\frac{A}{B} A \supset B$$

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule for \supset** :

Implication (Cont.)

- $\neg A$ has the same meaning as $A \supset \perp$ (where \perp is **absurdity** or the set False):
 - If there is no proof of A , then we can prove $A \supset \perp$.
 - If from any proof of A we can create a proof of absurdity, then there cannot be a proof of A , A must be false.
- Therefore we can identify $\neg A$ with $A \rightarrow \text{False}$.

Negation

- **x might not occur free in any assumption of the proof.** * This is guaranteed in type theory, since $x : A$ must be the last element of the context, so any other assumptions must be located before it and can therefore **not depend on x:A**.
- The **conclusion will no longer depend on free variables x**. * This corresponds in type theory to the fact that **x:A does no longer occur in the context of the conclusion**.

where

$$\frac{B}{\forall x : A. B}$$

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule for \forall** :

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

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- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rule for \forall**

$$\frac{\forall x : A. B \quad a : A}{B[x := a]}$$
- For the simple languages used in ordinary logic, there is no need to derive that $a : A$; in more **complex type theories we have to carry out this derivation**.

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

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- This means that, if we, **from x:A can prove B**, then we get a proof of $\forall x : A. B$ which doesn't depend on $x : A$.
- With this identification, the **introduction rule for \forall** allows to form a proof of $\forall x : A. B$ from a proof of B depending on an element $x : A$:

$$\frac{x : A \Rightarrow p : B \quad \lambda(x : A). p : \forall x : A. B}{x : A \Rightarrow p : B}$$

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

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- This means that we can **derive from $\forall x : A. B$ and an element of $a : A$ that $B[x := a]$ holds**.
- The **elimination rule** for the dependent function type allows to apply a proof p of $\forall x : A. B$ to an element $a : A$ in order to obtain a proof of $B[x := a]$:

$$\frac{p : \forall x : A. B \quad a : A}{p \ a : B[x := a]}$$

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

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$$\frac{a : A \quad B[x := a]}{\exists x : A.B}$$

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule** for \exists :

$$\frac{a : A \quad p : B[x := a] \quad \langle a, p \rangle}{\exists x : A.B}$$

- With this identification, the **introduction rule** for \exists allows to form a proof of $\exists x : A.B$ from an element $a : A$ and a proof $p : B[x := a]$.

Existential Quantification (Cont.)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} C \\ \vdots \\ B \\ x : A \end{array}}{\exists x : A.B} \quad C$$

where the conclusion does not depend on $x : A$ and B .

- Therefore the **rule in natural deduction** follows from the type theoretic rules:

Existential Quantification (Cont.)

- We can **identify** $\exists x : A.B$ with $(x : A) \times B$.

$$(x : A) \times B$$

- Therefore the set of proofs of $\exists x : A.B$ is the **dependent product** $(x : A) \times B$.
- Therefore a proof of $\exists x : A.B$ is a **pair $\langle a, p \rangle$ consisting of an element $a : A$ and a proof p of $B[x := a]$.**
- $\exists x : A.B$ is true iff there exists an $a : A$ such that $B[x := a]$ is true.

Existential Quantification

- Assume:
 - * C : Set, which does not depend on $x : A$,
 - * $p : \exists x : A.B$ and
 - * $x : A, y : B \Rightarrow c : C$.
- Then we have $c[x := \pi_0(p), y := \pi_1(p)] : C$, **not depending on $x:A$ or $y:B$.**

- From this we can derive a rule which is essentially that used in natural deduction (in which one doesn't have explicit proofs):
- This kind of rule works only if we have **explicit proofs**.
- The **elimination rule** for the dependent product allows to project a proof p of $\exists x : A.B$ to an element $\pi_0(p) : A$ and proof $\pi_1(p) : B[x := \pi_0(p)]$.

Existential Quantification (Cont.)

Constructive (or Intuitionistic) Logic

- From type theoretic proofs we can **directly extract programs**.
 - For instance, if $p : \forall x : A. \exists y : B. C(x, y)$, then we have
 - for $x : A$ it follows $b := \pi_0(p x) : B$ and $\pi_1(p x) : C(x, b)$.
 - Therefore $f := \lambda x : A. \pi_0(p x)$ is a **function** $A \rightarrow B$, and we have
- $$\lambda(x : A). \pi_1(p x) : \forall x : A. C(x, f x)$$
- i.e. we have a proof that $\forall x : A. C(x, f x)$ holds.
 - Therefore, from a proof of $\forall x : A. \exists y : B. C(x, y)$, we can **extract a function**, which computes the y from the x .

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- We can derive as well a function which **depending on $p : A + B$ decides whether $p = \text{inl}(a)$ or $p = \text{inr}(b)$** .
 - Therefore we can decide, from a proof of a disjunction, **which of the disjuncts holds**.
 - Now:
- Any function in type theory is **recursive**.
 - We **cannot decide the Turing Halting problem**, i.e. we cannot decide for a Turing machine whether it halts or not.
 - Therefore **we cannot prove in type theory**
- $$\forall x : \text{Turing_Machine}. (x \text{ halts} \vee \neg(x \text{ halts}))$$

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- In classical logic we **can prove the above**, since we can derive $A \vee \neg A$ (tertium non datur) for any formula A .
- In type theory, this law **cannot hold**, unless we don't want that all programs can be evaluated.
 - The logic of type theory is **intuitionistic (constructive) logic**, in which $A \vee \neg A$ and $\neg\neg A \rightarrow A$ don't hold for all formulae A .

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- In **classical logic**,
 - $\exists x : A. B$ is equivalent to $\neg \forall x : A. \neg B$.
 - $A \vee B$ is equivalent to $\neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B)$.
- If we take decidable atomic formulae only and replace $\exists x : A. B$ and $A \vee B$ by the above formulae, then **all formulas provable in classical logic are derivable**.
- This requires $(\neg\neg A) \rightarrow A$, which can be shown for all formulae built from decidable atomic formulae using $\neg, \rightarrow, \vee, \wedge$.
- The formula $A \vee \neg A$ translates into $\neg(\neg A \wedge \neg\neg A)$, which trivially holds, since $\neg A$ and $\neg\neg A$ implies \perp .

- In this sense, **type theory contains classical logic**, but is **richer**, since it has as well so called **strong disjunction and existential quantification**.

$$(E\exists : A.B) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg(E\exists : A.B) \leftrightarrow \neg\forall x : A.\neg B)$$

- Now it follows (classically):
 - By $\forall x : A.\neg B$ we get $\neg B$, therefore a contradiction.
 - Assume $\exists x : A.B$. Assume x s.t. B holds.
 - Assume $\forall x : A.\neg B$. Show $\neg(\exists x : A.B)$:
 - $\neg B$.
 - If we had B , then we had $\exists x : A.B$, contradicting $\neg(\exists x : A.B)$. Therefore
 - Assume $\neg(\exists x : A.B)$, $x : A$ and show $\neg B$.
- We show intuitionistically $\neg(E\exists : A.B) \leftrightarrow \forall x : A.\neg B$:

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- **Weak disjunction and existential quantification** is expressed by the formulae $\neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B)$ and $\neg\forall x : A.\neg B$.
- When using only weak disjunction, existential quantification and decidable atomic formulae, we obtain classical logic.
- **Strong disjunction and existential quantification** is expressed by the original type theoretic formulae.

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- * If A is true, then $\neg\neg A \rightarrow A$ holds.
- * If A is false, then $\neg\neg A$ is false, therefore $\neg\neg A \rightarrow A$ holds.

$$\neg\neg A \rightarrow A$$

$$E\exists : A.B \leftrightarrow \neg\forall x : A.\neg B$$

- We have classically:
 - Proof (using classical logic) of

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

$$(A \vee B) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg(A \vee B) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B))$$

- Proof of $A \vee B \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B)$:
 - We show intuitionistically $\neg(A \vee B) \leftrightarrow (\neg A \wedge \neg B)$:
 - * Assume $\neg(A \vee B)$. If A then $A \vee B$, a contradiction, therefore $\neg A$.
 - Similarly we get $\neg B$, therefore $\neg A \wedge \neg B$.
 - * Assume $\neg A \wedge \neg B$, show $\neg(A \vee B)$.
 - Now it follows (classically):
 - Assume $A \vee B$. If A then a contradiction with $\neg A$, similarly with B .

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

$$\frac{S\ n : \mathbb{N}}{\mathbb{N} : \mathbb{N}}$$

0 : \mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N} : Set

- Then the type theoretic rules are
- Let S be a type theoretic notation for the operation $x \mapsto x + 1$.

The Set of Natural Numbers (Cont.)

$$\cdot \quad g$$

$$\cdot \quad f\ n'$$

- Compute n .
- If $n = 0$, then the result is a .
- Otherwise $n = S(n')$.
- * We assume that we have determined already how to compute $f\ n'$.
- * Now $f\ n$ reduces to $g\ n'$ ($f\ n'$).
- * $g\ n'$ ($f\ n'$) can be computed, since we know how to compute

- The **computation of $f\ n$** proceeds now as follows:

Primitive Recursion (Cont.)

- starting with the empty set,
- adding 0 to it, and
- adding, whenever we have x in it $x + 1$ to it.

- \mathbb{N} can be generated by
- The set \mathbb{N} is the type theoretic representation of the set $\mathbb{N} := \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.

(f) The Set of Natural Numbers

- $f\ 0 = a$,
- $f\ (S\ n) = g\ n\ (f\ n)$.

Then we can define $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, s.t.

- $a : \mathbb{N}$,
- and, if $n : \mathbb{N}$, $x : \mathbb{N}$ then $g\ n\ x : \mathbb{N}$.

- **Primitive Recursion expresses:**

Primitive Recursion

Example

• The function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ with $f(x) = 2 \cdot x$ can be defined **primitive recursively** by:

- $f(0) = 0$.
- $f(S(n)) = S(f(n))$.

• Therefore take in the definition above:

- $a = 0$,
- $g\ n\ x = S(S(x))$.

Generalized Primitive Recursion

• We can **generalize primitive recursion** as follows:

- First we can **replace the range of f by an arbitrary set C**
* i.e. we allow for any set C

$$f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow C$$

- Further, C can now **depend on N** .

• We obtain the following set of rules:

Rules for the Natural Numbers

$$\mathbb{N} : \text{Set}$$

Introduction Rules

$$\frac{}{0 : \mathbb{N}}$$

Elimination Rule

$$\frac{C : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad a : C_0 \quad f : (x : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow Cx \rightarrow C(Sx)}{P C a f n : Cn}$$

Equality Rules

$$P C a f 0 = a$$
$$P C a f (S n) = f n (P C a f n)$$

Rules for the Natural Numbers (Cont.)

• Note that if we define in the elimination rule $g := P C f$ then

$$g\ n : Cn$$

which means that

$$\lambda(n : \mathbb{N}).g\ n : (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow Cn.$$

- The equality rules read:

$$g\ 0 = a$$
$$g(S\ n) = f\ n(g\ n)$$

Rules for N using the Logical Framework

- The more compact notation is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - N : \text{Set}, \\
 & - 0 : N, \\
 & - S : N \rightarrow N, \\
 & - P : (C : N \rightarrow \text{Set}) \\
 & \quad \rightarrow C \ 0 \\
 & \quad \rightarrow C \ n \\
 & \quad \rightarrow (x : N) \rightarrow C \ x \rightarrow C \ (S \ x) \\
 & \quad \rightarrow (n : N) \\
 & \quad \rightarrow C \ n .
 \end{aligned}$$

Natural Numbers in Agda

- N is defined using data:

$$\text{data } N = Z \mid S(n :: N)$$

(Unfortunately, 0 is not an acceptable name in Agda).

- Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z & :: N \\
 S & :: N \rightarrow N
 \end{aligned}$$

Elimination Rules for N in Agda

- Elimination works via case distinction in Agda.

– If we want to introduce

$$f \ (n :: N) \ :: A$$

$$= \{ i \} \ i$$

* A possibly depending on n,

we can type into the goal n and use the menu agda-case.

We get

$$f \ (n :: N) \ :: A$$

= case n of

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \{ Z \} \ \rightarrow \{ i \} \ i; \\
 & \{ S \ n' \} \ \rightarrow \{ i \} \ i; \}
 \end{aligned}$$

Elimination Rules for N in Agda (Cont.)

- For solving the goals, we can now make use of f. That will be accepted by the type checker.

- However, if we use of full f, and then use menu item

“agda-check-termination”, we might obtain an error-message.

- If we

- do not make use of f in the case n=Z and
- only use of f n' in case n = S n'.

then agda-check-termination succeeds.

- The following definition of the **Fibonacci numbers** can't be defined this way directly using the rules of type theory, but it **can be defined in Agda** as follows and **agda-check-termination** accepts it:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{one} &:: \text{S Z} \\ \text{fb } n &:: \text{N} \\ &= \text{case } n \text{ of} \\ &\quad \text{one} \rightarrow \{ \text{Z} \} \\ &\quad \text{case } n' \text{ of} \rightarrow \{ \text{S } n'' \} \\ &\quad \text{one;} \rightarrow \{ \text{Z} \} \\ &\quad \text{fb } n' + \text{fb } n''; \} \end{aligned}$$

Example of the Power of Termination Check

- Then the function

$$f \ (n :: \text{N}) \ \begin{cases} \text{Z;} \\ \text{S } n'; \end{cases} \rightarrow \text{Z;} \rightarrow \{ \text{S } n' \} \rightarrow f \ (\text{pred } n); \}$$
 terminates always
 - (it returns for all $n : \text{N}$ the value Z).
- However, **agda-check-termination** fails.

Example for Limitations of Termination Check (Cont.)

- If **agda-check-termination** succeeds, the definition should be **correct**.
 - (The lecturer hasn't checked the algorithm).
- However, **if agda-check-termination fails**, the **definition might still be correct**.

Elimination Rules for N in Agda (Cont.)

- Assume we define the **predecessor function**

$$\text{pred } (n :: \text{N}) \ \begin{cases} \text{Z;} \\ \text{S } n'; \end{cases} \rightarrow \text{Z;} \rightarrow \{ \text{S } n' \} \rightarrow n - 1 \ \text{otherwise.}$$
 i.e.

$$\text{pred}(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n - 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example for Limitations of Termination Check

$$n + 0 = n$$

$$n + (m' + 1) = (n + m') + 1$$

• The definition expresses:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (+) \quad (n, m :: \mathbb{N}) \\
 & :: \mathbb{N} \\
 & = \text{case } m \text{ of} \\
 & \quad \{ (Z) \rightarrow n; \\
 & \quad (S \ m') \rightarrow S \ (n + m') \};
 \end{aligned}$$

• Definition of + in Agda:

Example: Addition

$$n \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$n \cdot (m' + 1) = (n \cdot m') + n$$

• The definition expresses:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (*) \quad (n, m :: \mathbb{N}) \\
 & :: \mathbb{N} \\
 & = \text{case } m \text{ of} \\
 & \quad \{ (Z) \rightarrow Z; \\
 & \quad (S \ m') \rightarrow n * m' + n \};
 \end{aligned}$$

• Definition

Example: Multiplication

- Because of the **undecidability of the Turing halting problem**
 - it is undecidable whether a recursively defined function terminates or not
- there is no **extension of agda-check-termination, which accepts exactly all in agda definable functions, which terminate for all inputs.**

Limitations of the Termination Check (Cont.)

- Note that (+) is used **infix**, i.e. we write $n + m$ for $(+) \ n \ m$.
- If $m = S \ m'$, the definition of (+) $n \ m$ refers to $(+) \ n \ m'$,
- $(+) \ n \ m'$ is **defined before** $(+) \ n \ m$ since m' is introduced before m .

Example: Addition

- $(Z == Z) = \text{True}$.
- $(Z == S n) = (S n == Z) = \text{False}$.
- $(S n == S m) = (n == m)$.

equations:

- The **equality** $(n == m) :: \text{Set}$ for $n, m :: \mathbb{N}$ can be defined using the

Equality on N

$$\text{refl} (n : \mathbb{N}) :: n == n = \{i\}$$

- **Type theoretically** this means that we have to define a function `refl`:

$$\forall n : \mathbb{N}. n == n$$

- **Reflexivity** of `==` is the formula:

Reflexivity of ==

- Again `*` is **treated infix**.
- Agda has built in that `*` **binds more than +**.
- $n * m' + n$ is treated as $(n * m') + n$.
- Note that the definition of `*` requires, that `+` **is already defined**.

Example: Multiplication (Cont.)

- Task of coursework 3, Question 1 to fill in those goals.

$$\begin{aligned} & (==) (n, m :: \mathbb{N}) :: \text{Set} = \\ & \quad \text{case } n \text{ of } \{ Z \} \rightarrow \text{case } m \text{ of } \{ Z \} \rightarrow \{i\} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \{ S m' \} \rightarrow \{i\} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \{ Z \} \rightarrow \{i\} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \{ S m' \} \rightarrow \{i\} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \{ S m' \} \rightarrow \{i\} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \{ S m' \} \rightarrow \{i\} \end{aligned}$$

- From this one can now derive a definition in Agda:

Equality on N (Cont.)

- Case $n = Z$ is trivial.
- Case $n = S n'$ can be solved using $\text{reH } n'$ (which is defined before $\text{reH } n$).
- Task of Coursework 3, Question 1 (e) to solve this goal.

Reflexivity of == (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sym } (n, m : \mathbb{N}) & \quad (p :: n == m) \\ & \quad :: m == n \\ & \quad = \text{case } n \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ Z \} \rightarrow \text{case } m \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ Z \} \rightarrow \text{case } m \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ S m' \} \rightarrow \{ i \}; \\ & \quad \{ S n' \} \rightarrow \{ i \}; \\ & \quad \{ i \}; \} \\ & \quad \{ i \}; \} \end{aligned}$$

- This can now be shown using **case distinction**:

Symmetry of == (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{reH } (n : \mathbb{N}) & \quad :: n == n \\ & \quad = \text{case } n \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ Z \} \rightarrow \{ i \}; \\ & \quad \{ S n' \} \rightarrow \{ i \}; \} \end{aligned}$$

- This can now be shown using **case distinction**:

Reflexivity of == (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sym } (n, m : \mathbb{N}) & \quad (p :: n == m) \\ & \quad :: m == n \\ & \quad = \{ i \} \end{aligned}$$

- **Type theoretically** this means that we have to define a function sym :

$$\forall n, m : \mathbb{N}. n == m \rightarrow m == n$$

- **Symmetry** of == is the formula:

Symmetry of ==

- The **first goal** can be solved by using true (since $(Z == Z) = \text{True}$).

- For the **second goal** we know p is an element of $Z == S\ m'$ which is False.

– Therefore if we make **case distinction on p** we get

case p of { }

and have solved the second goal.

- Similarly the **third goal** can be solved.

Symmetry of == (Cont.)

- In the fourth goal, we have as type of goal $S\ m' == S\ n'$ which is identical to $m' == n'$.

– The type of p is $S\ n' == S\ m'$ which is identical to $n' == m'$.

- The goal can be solved by using $\text{sym}\ n'\ m'\ p$.

– Note that we can **use here p** since it is of type $n' == m'$.

* It is correct to use it since **n' is introduced before n** .

. Therefore **$\text{sym}\ n'$ can be defined before n** .

* This definition will be **accepted by agda-check-termination**.

Symmetry of == (Cont.)

- Define first

data Nil = nil

Cons (A, B :: Set)

:: Set

= data cons(a :: A)(b :: B)

Example: Tuples (or Vectors) of Length n

- Now we can define (we use Vec for vector)

Vec (A :: Set)

(n :: N)

:: Set

= case n of

{ (Z)

Nil;

→ Cons A (Vec A m'); }

Example: Tuples (or Vectors) of Length n

$$\text{Vec}(A, 0) := \{ \langle \rangle \},$$

$$\text{Vec}(A, n + 1) := \{ \langle a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \rangle \mid a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \in A \}.$$

- In **ordinary mathematics**, we would define

Remarks on Tuples of Length n

$$\text{Vec } A \text{ Z}$$

$$\text{-- nil} :: \text{Vec } A \text{ n} \rightarrow \text{Vec } A \text{ n} \rightarrow \text{Vec } A \text{ (S n)}.$$

$$\text{-- cons}@(\text{Vec } A \text{ (S n)}) :: A \rightarrow \text{Vec } A \text{ n} \rightarrow \text{Vec } A \text{ (S n)}.$$

- In the type theoretic definition we have **constructors**

Remarks on Tuples of Length n (Cont.)

- This is the **type theoretic analogue** of the previous definitions.

$$\text{Vec } A \text{ n} = \text{Cons } A \text{ (Cons } A \text{ } \dots \text{ (Cons } A \text{ Nil) } \dots \text{))}.$$

n times

- Therefore (with the obvious definition of two),

Tuples of Length n

for elements a_1, \dots, a_n of A .

- In ordinary mathematical notation, we would write $\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$ for such an element.

$$\text{cons } a_1 \text{ (cons } a_2 \text{ } \dots \text{ (cons } a_n \text{ nil) } \dots \text{))}$$

then this reads:

$$\text{Vec}(A, 0) := \{ \text{nil} \},$$

$$\text{Vec}(A, n + 1) := \{ \text{cons}(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in \text{Vec}(A, n) \}.$$

- If we define

$$\text{nil} := \langle \rangle,$$

$$\text{cons}(a_1, \langle a_2, \dots, a_{n+1} \rangle) := \langle a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \rangle,$$

Remarks on Tuples of Length n

Example: Componentwise Sum of Tuples of Length n

$$\langle 2, 3, 4 \rangle + \langle 5, 6, 7 \rangle = \langle 7, 9, 11 \rangle .$$

- We define **component-wise sum of tuples of length n**.
- Using mathematical notation, this sum for instance as follows:

(g) Lists

- We define the set of lists of elements of type A in Agda.
- We have two constructors:
 - nil, generating the empty list.
 - cons, adding an element of A in front of a list
- So we define lists as:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{list } (A :: \text{Set}) &:: \text{Set} \\ &= \text{data nil} \\ &| \text{cons}(a :: A) (l :: \text{list } A) \end{aligned}$$

Example: Sum of Tuples of Length n

- Define
- $\text{NVec } (n :: \mathbb{N}) = \text{Vec } \mathbb{N} \ n$
- $\text{NVec } n$ are tuples of natural numbers of length n .

Example: Componentwise Sum of Tuples of Length n (Cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SumNVec } (n :: \mathbb{N}) &:: \text{NVec } n \\ &= \text{case } n \text{ of} \\ &\{ \text{Z} \} \rightarrow \text{nil}; \\ &\{ \text{S } n' \} \rightarrow \text{case } \text{avec} \text{ of} \\ &\{ \text{cons } a \text{ avec}' \} \rightarrow \text{case } \text{bvec} \text{ of} \\ &\{ \text{cons } b \text{ bvec}' \} \rightarrow \text{cons@-} \\ &\quad (a + b) \\ &\quad (\text{SumNVec } n' \text{ avec}' \text{ bvec}') \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{length } (l :: \text{list } N) &:: N \\ &= \text{case } l \text{ of} \\ &\{ (\text{nil}) \rightarrow Z; \\ &\text{cons } a \ l' \rightarrow S \ (\text{length } l'); \} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Length of a List

- Define $\text{append} : (A : \text{Set}) \rightarrow (\text{list } A) \rightarrow (\text{list } A) \rightarrow \text{list } A$, s.t. $\text{append } A \ l' \ l$ is the result of appending the list l' at the end of list l .
- E.g., if a, b, c, d are elements of A , and if we define $\text{cons} : = \text{cons}@(\text{list } A)$, $\text{nil} := \text{nil}@(\text{list } A)$, then:

$$\text{append } A \ (\text{cons } a \ (\text{cons } b \ (\text{cons } c \ (\text{cons } d \ \text{nil})))) = \text{cons } a \ (\text{cons } b \ (\text{cons } c \ (\text{cons } d \ \text{nil})))$$

Interesting Exercise

and in the second goal we can make use of $f \ l'$.

$$\begin{aligned} f \ (l :: \text{list } A) &:: C \\ &= \text{case } l \text{ of} \\ &\{ (\text{nil}) \rightarrow \{ i \}; \\ &\text{cons } a \ l' \rightarrow \{ i \}; \} \end{aligned}$$

- Elimination rule uses list-recursion:
 - Assume
 - $A : \text{Set}$
 - $C :: \text{Set}$, depending on $l :: \text{list } A$.
- Then we can define

Elimination Rule for Lists

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sumlist } (l :: \text{list } N) &:: N \\ &= \text{case } l \text{ of} \\ &\{ (\text{nil}) \rightarrow Z; \\ &\text{cons } n \ l' \rightarrow n + \text{sumlist } l'; \} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Sum of the Elements of a List

(h) Universes.

- A universe U is a set, the elements of which are codes for sets.

- So we have

– $U : \text{Set}$,

– $\Gamma : U \rightarrow \text{Set}$ (the decoding function).

- We consider in the following a universe closed under

– $\text{Fin}_0, \text{Fin}_1, \text{Bool}$,

– N ,

– $+$,

– Σ ,

– the dependent function type.

Formation Rule

$U : \text{Set}$

$\frac{a : U}{\Gamma a : \text{Set}}$

Introduction and Equality Rules

$\widehat{\text{Fin}}_0 : U$

$\Gamma(\widehat{\text{Fin}}_0) = \text{Fin}_0 : \text{Set}$

$\widehat{\text{Fin}}_1 : U$

$\Gamma(\widehat{\text{Fin}}_1) = \text{Fin}_1 : \text{Set}$

$\widehat{\text{Bool}} : U$

$\Gamma(\widehat{\text{Bool}}) = \text{Bool} : \text{Set}$

**Introduction/Equality Rules
for the Universe (Cont.)**

$\frac{a : U \quad b : U}{a \doteq b : U}$

$\Gamma(a \doteq b) = \Gamma(a) + \Gamma(b) : \text{Set}$

$\frac{a : U \quad b : \Gamma(a) \rightarrow U}{\widehat{\Sigma}(a, b) : U}$

$\Gamma(\widehat{\Sigma}(a, b)) = \Sigma \Gamma(a) (\lambda x. \Gamma(b x)) : \text{Set}$

**Introduction/Equality Rules
for the Universe (Cont.)**

$\frac{a : U \quad b : \Gamma(a) \rightarrow U}{\widehat{\Pi}(a, b) : U}$

$\Gamma(\widehat{\Pi}(a, b)) = (x : \Gamma(a)) \rightarrow \Gamma(b x) : \text{Set}$

Elimination and Equality Rules for the Universe (Cont.)

- There exist as well elimination rules and corresponding equality rules for the universe.
- They are very long (one step for each of constructor of \mathbb{U}) and are not very much used.
- They follow the principles present in previous rules.

Applications of the Universe

- Example: Define

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{\text{atom}} &: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \mathbb{U}, & \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}} &:= \text{Case}_{\text{Bool}}(\lambda(x : \text{Bool}).\mathbb{U}) \widehat{\text{Fin}}_1 \widehat{\text{Fin}}_0, \\ \text{atom} &: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}, & \text{atom} &: \lambda(x : \text{Bool}).\widehat{\text{T}}(\widehat{\text{atom}} x), \end{aligned}$$

Then

 - $\text{atom } \text{tt} = \widehat{\text{Fin}}_1$,
 - $\text{atom } \text{ff} = \widehat{\text{Fin}}_0$.

Applications of the Universe

- Ordinary elimination rules don't allow to eliminate into Set .
- However often, one can verify, that all sets needed are "elements of a universe",
 - i.e. there are codes in the universe representing them.
- Then one can eliminate into the universe instead of Set and use \mathbb{T} to obtain the required function.

Universes in Agda

- \mathbb{U} and \mathbb{T} need to be defined simultaneously.
 - Usually Agda type checks definitions in sequence, so no reference to later definitions possible.
 - Special construct `mutual`.
 - * Everything in the scope of it is type checked simultaneously.
 - * Scope determined by indentation.

Universes in Agda (Cont.)

```

mutual
  U :: Set
  data Nthat = data
    | Finzerohat
    | Finonehat
    | Boolhat
    | Sigmahat (a :: U)(b :: U) → U
    | Pihat (a :: U)(b :: U) → U

```

Universes in Agda (Cont.)

T in the following is to be intended the same as U:

```

T (u :: U)
  :: Set
  = case u of
    { (Nthat)
    → N;
      (Finzerohat)
    → Finzero;
      (Finonehat)
    → Finone;
      (Boolhat)
    → Bool;
      (Sigmahat a b)
    → Sigma (T a) (λ(x :: T a) → T (b x));
      (Pihat a b)
    → (x :: T a) → T (b x); }

```

(!) Algebraic Data Types.

- The construct "data" in Agda is much more powerful than what is covered by type theoretic rules.
- In general we can define now sets having arbitrarily many constructors with arbitrarily many arguments of arbitrary types.

```

A :: Set
  = data C1(a11 :: A11) ... (a1n1 :: A1n1)
    | C2(a21 :: A21) ... (a2n2 :: A2n2)
    ...
    | Cm(am1 :: Am1) ... (amm1 :: Amm1)

```

Meaning of "data"

- The idea is that A as before is the least set A s.t. we have constructors:

```

C1@A :: (a11 :: A11)
        <- ...
        <- (a1n1 :: A1n1)
        <- A

```

where a constructor always constructs new elements.

- In other words the elements of A are exactly those constructed by those constructors.

- In general:

$$A :: \text{Set} \quad C_1 (a_{11} :: A_{11}) \dots (a_{1n_1} :: A_{1n_1}) \quad | \quad C_2 (a_{21} :: A_{21}) \dots (a_{2n_2} :: A_{2n_2}) \quad | \quad C_m (a_{m1} :: A_{m1}) \dots (a_{mn_m} :: A_{mn_m})$$
- is a strictly positive algebraic data type, if all A_{i_j} are
 - either types which don't make use of A
 - or are A itself.
- And if A is a strictly positive algebraic data type, then A is acceptable.
- The definitions of finite sets, $\Sigma A B$, $A + B$, $A \times B$, and N were strictly positive algebraic data types.

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types (Cont.)

- A "good" definition is the set of lists of natural numbers, defined as follows:

$$\text{Nlist} :: \text{Set} \quad = \text{data nil} \quad | \quad \text{cons} (a :: N) \quad (l :: \text{Nlist})$$
- The constructor `cons` of `Nlists` refers to `Nlist`, but in a positive way:
 - We have: if $a :: N$ and $l :: \text{Nlist}$, then we have `cons a l :: Nlist`.
 - If we add `cons a l` to `Nlist`, the reason for adding it (namely $l :: \text{Nlist}$) is not destroyed by this addition.
 - So we can "construct" the set `Nlist` by
 - * starting with the emptyset,
 - * adding `nil` and
 - * closing it under `cons` whenever possible.
- Because we can "construct" `Nlist`, the above is an acceptable definition

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types (Cont.)

- If we
 - * have constructed some part of A already,
 - * find a function $f :: A \rightarrow A$, and
 - * add `cons f` to A ,
 then f might no longer be a function $A \rightarrow A$.
 - (f applied to the new element `cons f` might not be defined).
 - In fact, "agda-check-termination" issues a warning, if we define A as above.
 - We shouldn't make use of such definitions.

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types (Cont.)

- In the types A_{i_j} we can make use of A .
- However, it is difficult to understand A , if we have **negative** occurrences of A .
 - Example:

$$A :: \text{Set} \quad = \text{data } C (f :: A \rightarrow A) \quad | \quad \text{cons } A \quad (f :: A \rightarrow A)$$
 - What is the least set A having a constructor `cons A`?

$$\text{cons } A :: (f :: A \rightarrow A) \quad | \quad \text{cons } A \quad ?$$

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types

- In such examples the constructors refer strictly positive to all sets which are to be defined simultaneously.

```
mutual
  Even :: Set
  Odd  :: Set
= data S (n :: Even)
= data Z | S (n :: Odd)
```

- Example: the even and odd numbers:
- An often used extension is to define several sets simultaneously inductively.

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types, Extensions

- Functions from strictly positive data types can now be defined by case distinction as before.
- For termination we need only that in the definition of f , when have to define $f (C_{a_1} \dots a_n)$, we can refer only to f applied to elements used in $C_{a_1} \dots a_n$.

Elimination Rules for data

- This is a strictly positive data type.

```
BinTree :: Set
= data leaf
  | branch (left :: BinTree)
  | right :: BinTree)
```

- The set of binary trees can be defined as follows:

One further Example

- The last definition is unproblematic, since, if we have $f :: N \rightarrow 0$ and construct $\text{lim} @ f$ out of it, adding this new element to 0 doesn't destroy the reason for adding it to 0.
- So again 0 can be "constructed".

```
0 :: Set
= data leaf
  | succ (o :: 0)
  | lim (f :: N -> 0)
```

- Example (called "Kleene's 0"):
- We can even allow $A_{i_j} = B_{i_j} > A$ or even $A_{i_j} = B_{i_j} > \dots > B_{i_j} > A$, where A is one of the types introduced simultaneously.

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types, Extensions

examples

• For instance

– in the Bintree example, when defining

$f :: Bintree \rightarrow A$

by case-distinction, then the definition of

f (branch @_left right)

can make use of f left and f right.

– In the example of 0, when defining

$g :: 0 \rightarrow A$

by case-distinction, then the definition of

g (lim @_f)

can make use of g (f n) for all $n :: N$.