

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.

(a) The Set of Booleans

Formation Rule

$\text{Bool} : \text{Set}$

Introduction Rules

$\text{tt} : \text{Bool}$

$\text{ff} : \text{Bool}$

Elimination Rule

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

The Set of Booleans (Cont.)

Equality Rules

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

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

Remarks

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

Remarks (Cont.)

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

Remarks (Cont.)

- This is similar to the definition of for instance $(+)$ in **curri**
 - $(+) : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$.
 - $(+) 3$ is the function which takes an integer and adds to it 3.
 - * **Shorter** than writing $\lambda x.3 + x$.

Remarks (Cont.)

- Note that we have the following **order of the arguments**
 - 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 is the last one**.

Example

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

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

Example (Cont.)

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

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

Example (Cont.)

- We derive

$$b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Bool})$$

(using part of the derivation above):

$$\begin{array}{c} \dots \\ \frac{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool}, b' : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context}}{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool}, b' : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathit{Bool} : \text{Set}} \quad \frac{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool}}{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathit{Bool} : \text{Set}} \\ \frac{\frac{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Bool}) \text{ tt} = \dots}{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Bool})}}{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Bool})}} \end{array}$$

Example (Cont.)

- Similarly follows

$$b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Bool})$$

Example (Cont.)

- Using part of the proof above, we derive

$$b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Boo})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \dots \\ b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context} \end{array}}{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow c : \mathbf{Bool}} \quad b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Boo})$$
$$b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Boo})$$

- We derive

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

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \dots \\ b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \text{Context} \end{array}}{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathit{ff} : \mathbf{Bool}} \quad b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathbf{Bool} = (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Boo})$$
$$b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathit{ff} : (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}). \mathit{Boo})$$

Example (Cont.)

- We derive $b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow b : \mathbf{Bool}$ using part of th

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

Example (Cont.)

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

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{Bool} : \mathbf{B} \\ b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow c : (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{B} \\ b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathit{ff} : (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{.} \\ b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow b : \mathbf{Bool} \end{array}}{\frac{b : \mathbf{Bool}, c : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \mathit{Case}_{\mathbf{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{Bool})}{b : \mathbf{Bool} \Rightarrow \lambda(c : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{Case}_{\mathbf{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{Bool})}}{\lambda(b, c : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{Case}_{\mathbf{Bool}} (\lambda(b' : \mathbf{Bool}).\mathit{Bool})} c \mathit{ff} b : \mathbf{B}$$

Elimination into Type

We can extend add elimination and equality rules, having
Elimination Rule into Type

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

Equality Rules into Type

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

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

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Elimination into Type (Cont.)

We can extend this into an elimination rule **into Kind or ot**

Bool in Agda

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

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

- This introduces as well constants
 - `tt :: Bool`
 - `ff :: Bool`
- With this syntax, each constructor **can occur at most once**
 - i.e. we cannot define a second type having constructor 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 **ab** following three **more fundamental Agda definitions**:

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

Bool in Agda (Cont.)

- The definition of Bool as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Bool} &:: \text{Set} \\ &= \text{data } \text{tt} \mid \text{ff} \end{aligned}$$

introduces Bool as a set **having constructors tt@Bool**

- So tt, and ff **have to be defined separately**.
- If it is clear that the element in question is of type Bool, replace tt@Bool by tt@_.
- The definition of Bool as above **doesn't prevent another set** with constructors tt or ff.
- This syntax is the only one allowed, if one defines a set with **keyword depending on arguments**.
More about this later.

Bool in Agda (Cont.)

- **Internally**, `tt` will always be represented as `tt@Bool`, similar to `tt@Nat`.
 - So Agda **evaluates `tt` to `tt@Bool`**.
 - This can be seen when using for instance **“`agda-c`”** `compute weak head normal form`.

Case Distinction

- 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:

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

Case Distinction (Cont.)

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

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

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-) **“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 is a constructor (or is a variable).
 - Then type into the mini-buffer x .
 - One gets the answer

tt@_.

Case Distinction (Cont.)

- Alternatively, **check**, the cursor being in that goal, **the co**
 - (use goal-menu **“agda-context”**):

It contains

$x :: \text{Bool} = \text{tt@}_.$

- Similarly one finds that in the second goal x is $\text{ff@}_.$

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:

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

- $f x$ 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
 - Not every place in the buffer is a good place.
 - **Good places for context are goals**, and that's **the**
Agda allows us to **compute the weak head normal form**

Testing the Defined Function

- So we

- type in a dummy goal:

$$\begin{array}{l} test \quad :: \quad \text{Set} \\ \quad \quad = \quad \{! \ !\} \end{array}$$

- 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

Formation Rule

$$\text{Fin}_n : \text{Set}$$

Introduction Rules

$$A_k^n : \text{Fin}_n$$

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

Elimination Rule

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Set} \\ s_0 : C A_0^n \\ s_1 : C A_1^n \\ \vdots \\ s_{n-1} : C A_{n-1}^n \\ a : \text{Fin}_n \end{array}}{\text{Case}_n C s_0 \dots s_{n-1} a : C a}$$

The Finite Sets (Cont)

Equality Rules

$$\begin{array}{c} C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Set} \\ s_0 : C A_0^n \\ s_1 : C A_1^n \\ \vdots \\ s_{n-1} : C A_{n-1}^n \\ \hline \text{Case}_n C s_0 \dots s_{n-1} A_k^n = s_k : C A_k^n \end{array}$$

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

Omitting Premises in Equality Rules

Since the premises of the equality rule can in most cases be derived by the introduction and elimination rules, we will **usually omit** them. For instance for the previous rule:

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

We sometimes even **omit the type**:

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

More compact elimination rules

- $\text{Case}_n : (C : \text{Fin}_n \rightarrow \text{Set}) \quad .$
 - $\rightarrow (s_0 : C \ A_0^n)$
 - $\rightarrow \dots$
 - $\rightarrow (s_{n-1} : C \ A_{n-1}^n)$
 - $\rightarrow (a : \text{Fin}_n)$
 - $\rightarrow C \ a$

Elimination into Type

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

Rules for True

True is the special case Fin_n for $n = 1$:

Formation Rule

$$\text{True} : \text{Set}$$

Introduction Rules

$$\text{true} : \text{True}$$

Elimination Rule

$$\frac{C : \text{True} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad c : C \quad \text{true} \quad t : \text{True}}{\text{Case}_{\text{True}} \ c \ t : C \ t}$$

Equality Rule

$$\frac{C : \text{True} \rightarrow \text{Set} \quad c : C \quad \text{true}}{\text{Case}_{\text{True}} \ c \ \text{true} = c : C \ \text{true}}$$

Rules for True (Cont.)

- $\text{Case}_{\text{True}}$ is **computationally not very interesting**.
 - $\text{Case}_{\text{True}} c$ is the untyped function $\lambda x.c$.
 - However, in Agda we might not be able to derive

$$\lambda(t : \text{True}).c : (t : \text{True}) \rightarrow C t$$

- From a **logic point of view**, it expresses:
From an element of $C \text{ true}$ we obtain an element of $C t$ for any $t : \text{True}$.
 - So there is no $C : \text{True} \rightarrow \text{Set}$ s.t. $C \text{ true}$ is inhabited and $C x$ is not inhabited for some other $x : \text{True}$.
 - This means that all elements of x of type True are **indiscernible**, i.e. they are **identical to true**.
 - This equality is called **Leibniz equality**.

Rules for False

False is the special case Fin_n for $n = 0$:

Formation Rule

False : 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

False

- 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 can derive anything** (which might depend on f).
 - From a logic point of view this is **“Ex falso quodlibet”** (absurdity follows anything).
E.g. A **false formula** like “ $0 = 1$ ” or “Swansea lies in **everything**”.

False (Cont.)

- $\text{Case}_{\text{False}}$ has **no computational meaning**, since there is no function that can be applied to.
 - Applies of course only if we are working in a **termination** semantics.
 - If we had **full recursion**, we could define $f : \text{False}$ by $f = \lambda x. x$. However that f doesn't reduce to canonical form.
 - That's why it's important to carry out the **termination** analysis. Otherwise one obtains for instance elements of False .

Finite Sets in Agda

- **Finite sets** can be introduced by giving **one constructor**
E.g.

```
data Colour = blue | red | green
```

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

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

False in Agda

- In Agda we can define the empty set as a “data”-set **with**

data False =

- If we want to solve

$$\begin{aligned} g \quad (x :: \text{False}) \\ &:: \text{Bool} \\ &= \{! \ !\} \end{aligned}$$

we can insert into the goal x and choose menu-item “**ago**”

False in Agda (Cont.)

- The result is

$$\begin{aligned} g & (x :: \text{False}) \\ & :: \text{Bool} \\ & = \text{case } x \text{ of } \{ \} \end{aligned}$$

- If we make case distinction on x there is **no case to check** so we don't have to define anything.

Example for the Use of False

- Assume the **type of trees**:

$$\text{data Tree} = \text{pine} \mid \text{oak}$$

- Below we will show, how to introduce a function

$$\text{IsOak} :: \text{Tree} \rightarrow \text{Set}$$

s.t.

$$\text{IsOak pine} = \text{False}$$
$$\text{IsOak oak} = \text{True}$$

Example for the Use of False (Cont.)

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

$$\begin{aligned} f & (t :: \text{Tree}) \\ & (p :: \text{IsOak } t) \\ & :: A \\ & = \text{case } t \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ \text{pine} \rightarrow \text{case } p \text{ of } \{ \} \\ & \quad \quad \text{oak} \rightarrow \dots; \} \end{aligned}$$

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 that we know this.
- Note that we **don't have to invent a result** of f in case

Example 2 for the Use of False

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

$$\text{NotEmpty} :: \text{Stack} \rightarrow \text{Set}$$

s.t.

$$\text{NotEmpty } s = \text{False}$$

if s is the empty stack.

- Now we can define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pop} & \quad (s :: \text{Stack}) \\ & \quad (p :: \text{NotEmpty } s) \\ & \quad :: \text{Stack} \\ & \quad = \dots \end{aligned}$$

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

True in Agda

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

$$\text{data False} = \text{true}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} g & (x :: \text{True}) \\ & :: \text{Bool} \\ & = \text{case } x \text{ of } \{(\text{true}) \rightarrow \{! \};\} \end{aligned}$$

(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**.

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
(elimination rules for False).
 - False is therefore **type-theoretically false**:
A formula is **type-theoretically false**, if from
everything.
 - Since this implies that we can derive False and
derive everything, this is equivalent to the following
 - A formula is **type-theoretically false**, if from a
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 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** holds.
- True and False as above are formulae corresponding to **true and false**.

atom

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

$$\text{atom} \quad : \quad \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set}$$
$$\text{atom tt} \quad = \quad \text{True}$$
$$\text{atom ff} \quad = \quad \text{False}$$

- This can be defined using **case distinction**.

atom (Cont.)

- This corresponds to the following rules (which are not nee

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

atom tt = True

atom ff = False

atom in Agda

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

Decidable Predicates

- Using `atom` we can now define **decidable predicates** on
- 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**.

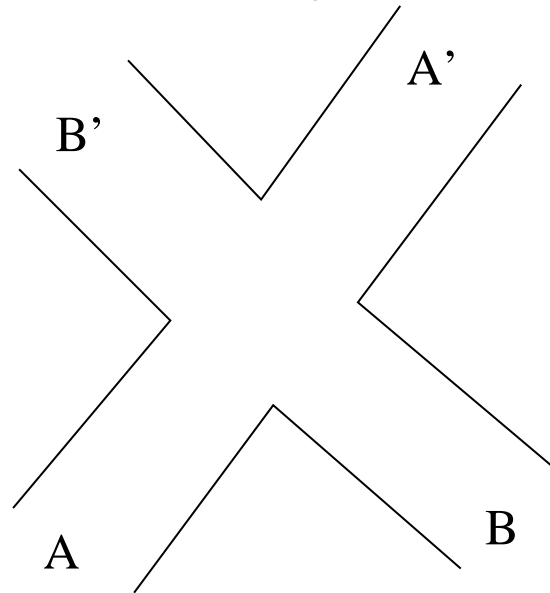
Decidable Predicates (Cont.)

- 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**,
 - ie. 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 traf
– but A and A' always coincide, similarly B and B'.

The Set of Physical States

- For simplicity assume that **each traffic light is either red**

data Colour = red | green

- The set of **physical states of the system** is given by a pair of colours of A (and therefore as well A') and of B (and B')

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Phys_State} &:: \text{Set} \\ &= \text{sig}\{ \text{sigA} :: \text{Colour}; \\ &\quad \text{sigB} :: \text{Colour}; \end{aligned}$$

The Set of Control States

- The set of **control states** is a set of states of the system, 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.

The Set of Control States (Cont.)

- We therefore define

`data Control_State = Allred | Agreen | Bg`

Mapping Control States to Physical States

- 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**

```
phys_state (s :: Control_State)
  :: Phys_State
  = struct{ sigA = toSigA
            sigB = toSigB
```

Safety Predicate

- 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**, with Boolean function.
 - We first define a predicate depending on two signals:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CorAux} & \quad (a :: \text{Colour}) \\ & \quad (b :: \text{Colour}) \\ & \quad :: \text{Set} \\ & = \text{case } a \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ (\text{red}) \quad \rightarrow \text{True;} \\ & \quad (\text{green}) \quad \rightarrow \text{case } b \text{ of} \\ & \quad \quad \{ (\text{red}) \\ & \quad \quad (\text{green}) \end{aligned}$$

Safety Predicate (Cont.)

– Now we define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cor} & (s :: \text{Phys_State}) \\ & :: \text{Set} \\ & = \text{CorAux } s.\text{sigA } s.\text{sigB} \end{aligned}$$

- **Remark:** In some cases in order to define a function from s (a sig-set) into some other set, it is better first to **introduce a 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

- 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.)

- The first element true was an element of $\text{Cor}(\text{phys_sta})$ reduces to **True**.
- Similarly for the other two elements.
- This works only because **each control state corresponds to a physical state**.
 - If this hadn't been the case, we would have gotten in a goal to solve is **False**, which we can't solve.

Safety of the System (Cont.)

- If one makes a **mistake** which results in an unsafe situation (e.g. sets toSigB Agree = green, then in the last step v of type False.
 - Then we can't solve this goal directly and **cannot prove**
 - (In fact we could type-theoretically solve this goal by using (e.g. solve this goal as **cor_proof Agree**), but this is blocked by the termination check.)

(d) The Disjoint Union of Sets

Formation Rule

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

Introduction Rules

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

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

Elimination Rule

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

The Disjoint Union of Sets (Cont.)

Equality Rules

$$\text{Plus_Split } A B C \text{ } sl \text{ } sr \text{ } (\text{inl } A B a) = sl \ a : C \text{ } (\text{id } C)$$

$$\text{Plus_Split } A B C \text{ } sl \text{ } sr \text{ } (\text{inr } A B b) = sr \ b : C \text{ } (\text{id } C)$$

Disjoint Union using the Logical Framework

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

Disjoint Union in Agda

- The disjoint union can be defined as a “data”-set having `inl` (in-left) and `inr` (inright):

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

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**”
 - 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

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

we can type into the goal c and choose menu “agda-case’

Disjoint Union in Agda (Cont.)

- We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} f & (c :: A + B) \\ & :: \text{Bool} \\ & = \text{case } c \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ (\text{inl } a) \rightarrow \{! !\}; \\ & \quad (\text{inr } b) \rightarrow \{! !\}; \} \end{aligned}$$

and insert into the first goal e.g. true and the second one

Use of Concrete Disjoint Sets

- It is usually **more convenient** to define concrete disjoint unions with more intuitive names for constructors, e.g.

```
data Plant = tree(t :: Tree) | flower(f :: Flower)
```

- Now one can define for instance

```
isFlower (p :: Plant)
  :: Bool
= case p of
    { (tree t)      → ff;
      (flower f)   → tt;
```

(e) The Σ -Set

Formation Rule

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

Introduction Rule

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} A : \text{Set} \\ B : A \rightarrow \text{Set} \\ a : A \\ b : B a \end{array}}{p A B a b : \Sigma A B}$$

Elimination Rule

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

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The Σ -Set (Cont)

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 using the Logical Framework

- The more compact notation is:

$$\begin{aligned} - \Sigma &: (A : \text{Set}) \\ &\rightarrow (B : A \rightarrow \text{Set}) \\ &\rightarrow \text{Set} . \\ - p &: (A : \text{Set}) \\ &\rightarrow (B : A \rightarrow \text{Set}) \\ &\rightarrow (a : A) \\ &\rightarrow (b : B a) \\ &\rightarrow \Sigma A B . \end{aligned}$$

The Σ -Set using the Logical Framework (C)

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

The Σ -Set and the Dependent Product

- The **dependent product and the Σ -set are very similar**
 - Both have similar introduction rules (for the Σ -set, the additional arguments A , B necessary for bureaucratic reasons)
 - One can define the projections π_0 , π_1 using `Sigma_Split`

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_0 &= \text{Sigma_Split } A \ B \ (\lambda x.A) \ (\lambda(x : A).\lambda(y : B(x))) \\ \pi_1 &= \text{Sigma_Split } A \ B \ (\lambda x.B \ \pi_0(x)) \ (\lambda(x : A).\lambda(y : B(x)))\end{aligned}$$

- On the other hand, from π_0 , π_1 we can define `Sigma_Split`

$$\lambda A, B, C, s, d. s \ \pi_0(d) \ \pi_1(d) \ .$$

The Σ -Set and the Dependent Product

- However the dependent product has the η -rule (which is 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.

The Σ -Set in Agda

- Σ can be defined as a “data”-set with constructor p :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sigma} & \quad (A :: \text{Set}) \\ & \quad (B :: A \rightarrow \text{Set}) \\ & \quad :: \text{Set} \\ & \quad = \text{data } p \text{ (} a :: A \text{) (} b :: Ba \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

The Σ -Set in Agda (Cont.)

- 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”,
 - depending on $g :: \text{Plant_Group}$, sets `Plants_in_group` **plants in that group**.
- The **set of plants** can then be defined as

`data Plant = plant (g :: Plant_Group)(pg :: Plants_in_group g)`

The Σ -Set in Agda (Cont.)

- Not surprisingly, for **elimination** we use **case distinction**

$$\begin{aligned} f & (p :: \text{Plant}) \\ & :: \text{Plant_group} \\ & = \text{case } p \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ (\text{plant } g \text{ } pg) \rightarrow g; \} \end{aligned}$$

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Formulae in Dependent Type Theor

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

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 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 proofs of A and B , i.e. $A \times B$.
- We can **identify** $A \wedge B$ with $A \times B$.

Conjunction (Cont.)

- With this identification, the **introduction rule** for \wedge allows us to derive 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**:

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

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 :

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

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

- This means that we can **derive from $A \wedge B$ both A and B**
- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rule**

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

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

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 plus the information which one.**
 - It is therefore an element $\text{inl } p$ for a proof $p : A$ or an proof $q : B$.
- Therefore the set of proofs of $A \vee B$ is the **disjoint union $A + B$.**
- We can **identify** $A \vee B$ with $A + B$.

Disjunction (Cont.)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Disjunction (Cont.)

- This means that we can **derive $A \vee B$ from A and from**
- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule**

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

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

Disjunction (Cont.)

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

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

- Omitting the dependency of C on $A \vee B$ and omitting 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 from A and from B .**
- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rule**

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

- (Note that in the ordinary elimination rule, from the premisses “ $A \rightarrow C$ ” and “ $B \rightarrow C$ ” we obtain “ $A \vee B \rightarrow C$ ”, similarly for “ C derivable from $A \vee B$ ”.)

Implication

- We write temporarily \supset for logical implication, in order to avoid confusion with 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 us to derive 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 $q : B$**
 - (i.e. we can make use of a context $p : A$ for proving $q : B$)**then we can derive $A \supset B$ without assuming $p:A$.**

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Implication (Cont.)

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule**

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

Implication (Cont.)

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

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

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

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

Negation

- $\neg A$ 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 any proof of A cannot be a proof of A , A must be false.
- Therefore we can identify $\neg A$ with $A \rightarrow \text{False}$.

Universal Quantification

- Since we have many types, we have to write when using \forall 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 .
- Therefore a proof of $\forall x : A.B$ is a **function, which takes an element of A and computes an element of B .**
- Therefore the set of proofs of $\forall x : A.B$ is the **dependent product $(x : A) \rightarrow B$.**
- We can **identify** $\forall x : A.B$ with $(x : A) \rightarrow B$.

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

- With this identification, the **introduction rule** for \forall allows us to derive a proof of $\forall x : A.B$ from a proof of B depending on an element a of A .

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

- This means that, if we, **from $x:A$ can prove B** , then we can prove $\forall x : A.B$ which doesn't depend on $x : A$.

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule**

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

where

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

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

- 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 $B[x := a]$.

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

- This means that we can **derive from $\forall x:A. B$ and an element $a:A$ that $B[x:=a]$ holds.**

Universal Quantification (Cont.)

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary elimination rule**
 - For the simple languages used in ordinary logic, there is a rule that $a : A$; in more **complex type theories we have a λ -derivation**.

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

Existential Quantification

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

Existential Quantification (Cont.)

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

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

- This is what is expressed by the **ordinary introduction rule**

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

Existential Quantification (Cont.)

- The **elimination rule** for the dependent product allows to go from a proof of $\exists x : A.B$ to an element $\pi_0(p) : A$ and proof $\pi_1(p) : B[\pi_0(p)]$.
- This kind of rule works only if we have **explicit proofs**.
- From this we can derive a rule which is essentially the \exists -elimination (in which one doesn't have explicit proofs):
 - Assume:
 - * $C : \text{Set}$, 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 $y:B$.

Existential Quantification (Cont.)

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

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

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

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 $f := \lambda x : A. \pi_1(p\ x)$ is a **function $A \rightarrow B$** , a

$$\lambda(\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A}). \pi_1(\mathbf{p}\ \mathbf{x}) : \forall \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A}. \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{f}\ \mathbf{x})$$

i.e. we have a proof that $\forall \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{A}. \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{f}\ \mathbf{x})$ **holds**.

- Therefore, from a proof of $\forall x : A. \exists y : B. C(x, y)$,
function, which computes the y from the x .

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

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

$\forall x : \text{Turing_Machine.}(x \text{ halts} \vee \neg(x \text{ h$

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- In classical logic we **can prove the above**, since we can use the law of excluded middle (tertium non datur) for any formula A .
- In type theory, this law **cannot hold**, unless we don't want to have a type that can be evaluated.
 - The logic of type theory is **intuitionistic (constructive)**. The laws $A \vee \neg A$ 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 $\exists x$ 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 decidable atomic formulae using $\neg, \rightarrow, \wedge, \forall$.
 - The formula $A \vee \neg A$ translates into $\neg(\neg A \wedge \neg\neg A)$, which is derivable since $\neg A$ and $\neg\neg A$ implies \perp .
- In this sense, **type theory contains classical logic**, but it also has as well so called **strong disjunction and existential**

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- Proof (using classical logic) of

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

- We have classically:

$$\neg\neg A \rightarrow A \quad :$$

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

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

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

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

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

- Proof of $\mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B} \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg\mathbf{A} \wedge \neg\mathbf{B})$:

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

$$(\mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B}) \leftrightarrow \neg\neg(\mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B}) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg\mathbf{A} \wedge \neg\mathbf{B})$$

Constructive Logic (Cont.)

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

(f) The Set of Natural Numbers

- The set \mathbb{N} is the type theoretic representation of the set \mathbb{N}
- \mathbb{N} can be generated by
 - starting with the empty set,
 - adding 0 to it, and
 - adding, whenever we have x in it $x + 1$ to it.

The Set of Natural Numbers (Cont.)

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

$$N : \text{Set}$$
$$0 : N$$
$$\frac{n : N}{S n : N}$$

Primitive Recursion

- **Primitive Recursion expresses:**

Assume we have

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

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

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

Primitive Recursion (Cont.)

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

Example

- The function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ with $f(x) = 2 \cdot x$ can be **recursively** by:
 - $f(0) = 0$.
 - $f(S n) = S (S (f n))$.
- 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**
 - * 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

Formation Rule

$N : \text{Set}$

Introduction Rules

$0 : N$

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

Elimination Rule

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} C : N \rightarrow \text{Set} \\ a : C 0 \\ f : (x : N) \rightarrow C x \rightarrow C (S x) \\ n : N \end{array}}{P C a f n : C n}$$

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 $g := P C f$
 - The conclusion of the elimination rule reads:

$$g n : C n$$

which means that

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

- The equality rules read:

$$\begin{aligned} g 0 &= a \\ g (S n) &= f n (g n) \end{aligned}$$

Rules for N using the Logical Framework

- The more compact notation is:
 - $N : \text{Set}$,
 - $0 : N$,
 - $S : N \rightarrow N$,
 - $P : (C : N \rightarrow \text{Set})$
 - $\rightarrow C\ 0$
 - $\rightarrow ((x : N) \rightarrow C\ x \rightarrow C\ (S\ x))$
 - $\rightarrow (n : N)$
 - $\rightarrow C\ n$.

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

$$\begin{aligned} f & (n :: N) \\ & :: A \\ & = \{! !\} \end{aligned}$$

- * A possibly depending on n ,
we can type into the goal n and use the menu agda-case
We get

$$\begin{aligned} f & (n :: N) \\ & :: A \\ & = \text{case } n \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ (Z) \quad \rightarrow \{! !\}; \\ & \quad (S n') \rightarrow \{! !\}; \} \end{aligned}$$

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-**
 - 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**.

Elimination Rules for N in Agda (Cont)

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

Example of the Power of Termination Ch

- The following definition of the **Fibonacci numbers** can't directly using the rules of type theory, but it **can be de** follows and **agda-check-termination accepts it**:
(one := S Z):

```
fib (n :: N)
  :: N
  = case n of
      { (Z)      → one;
        (S n')   → case n' of
                      { (Z)      → one;
                        (S n'')   → fib n' }
```

Example for Limitations of Termination C

- Assume we define the **predecessor function**

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

i.e

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

Example for Limitations of Termination Check

- Then the function

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

terminates always

– (it returns for all $n : \mathbb{N}$ the value Z).

- However, **agda-check-termination fails**.

Limitations of the Termination Check (Co

- Because of the **undecidability of the Turing halting problem**
 - it is undecidable whether a recursively defined function terminates
- there is no **extension of agda-check-termination, which checks all in agda definable functions, which terminate for all inputs**

Example: Addition

- Definition of $+$ in Agda:

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

- The definition expresses:

$$\begin{aligned} n + 0 &= n \\ n + (m' + 1) &= (n + m') + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Example: Addition

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

Example: Multiplication

- Definition

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

- The definition expresses:

$$\begin{aligned} n \cdot 0 &= 0 \\ n \cdot (m' + 1) &= (n \cdot m') + n \end{aligned}$$

Example: Multiplication (Cont.)

- 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 c**

Equality on N

- The **equality** $(n == m) :: \text{Set}$ for $n, m :: \mathbb{N}$ can be equations:
 - $(Z == Z) = \text{True}$.
 - $(Z == S\ n) = (S\ n == Z) = \text{False}$.
 - $(S\ n == S\ m) = (n == m)$.

Equality on N (Cont.)

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

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

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

Reflexivity of ==

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{refl} & \quad (n : \mathbb{N}) \\ & \quad :: n == n \\ & \quad = \{! \ !\} \end{aligned}$$

Reflexivity of == (Cont.)

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

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

Reflexivity of \equiv (Cont.)

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

Symmetry of ==

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

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

- **Type theoretically** this means that we have to define a f

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

Symmetry of == (Cont.)

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

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

Symmetry of \equiv (Cont.)

- The **first goal** can be solved by using true (since $Z \equiv$
- For the **second goal** we know p is an element of $Z \equiv S$
 - 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 $S\ m' == S\ n'$ 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 `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 m'** .
 - Therefore **`sym n'` can be defined before `sym n`**.
 - * This definition will be **accepted by agda-check-terms**.

Example: Tuples (or Vectors) of Length

- Define first

data Nil = nil

Cons (A, B :: Set)

:: Set

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

Example: Tuples (or Vectors) of Length

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vec} & \quad (A :: \text{Set}) \\ & \quad (n :: N) \\ & \quad :: \text{Set} \\ & = \text{case } n \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ (Z) \quad \rightarrow \text{Nil}; \\ & \quad (S \ m') \rightarrow \text{Cons } A \ (\text{Vec } A) \end{aligned}$$

Tuples of Length n

- Therefore (with the obvious definition of two),

$$\text{Vec } A \ n = \underbrace{\text{Cons } A \ (\text{Cons } A \ \dots \ (\text{Cons } A \ \text{Nil}))}_{n \text{ times}}$$

- The elements of $\text{Vec } A \ n$ are

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

for elements a_1, \dots, a_n of A .

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

Remarks on Tuples of Length n

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Vec}(A, 0) &:= \{\langle \rangle\} , \\ \text{Vec}(A, n + 1) &:= \{\langle a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \rangle \mid a_1, \dots, a_n\end{aligned}$$

Remarks on Tuples of Length n

- If we define

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

then this reads:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vec}(A, 0) &:= \{\text{nil}\} , \\ \text{Vec}(A, n + 1) &:= \{\text{cons}(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in \text{Vec}(A, n)\} \end{aligned}$$

Remarks on Tuples of Length n (Cont.)

- In the type theoretic definition we have **constructors**
 - $\text{nil} :: \text{Vec } A \ \mathbb{Z}$
 - $\text{cons}@(\text{Vec } A \ (S \ n)) :: A \rightarrow \text{Vec } A \ n \rightarrow \text{Vec } A \ (S \ n)$.
- This is the **type theoretic analogue** of the previous definition.

Example: Sum of Tuples of Length n

- Define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NVec } (n :: N) & \\ &:: \text{Set} \\ &= \text{Vec } N \ n \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Nvec } n$ are tuples of natural numbers of length n .

Example: Componentwise Sum of Tuples of Length n

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

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

Example: Componentwise Sum of Tuples of Length

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

(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:

```
list (A :: Set)
  :: Set
  = data nil
      | cons(a :: A) (l :: list A)
```

Elimination Rule for Lists

- Elimination rule uses list-recursion:

Assume

- $A : \text{Set}$
- $C :: \text{Set}$, depending on $l :: \text{list } A$.

Then we can define

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

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

Example: Length of a List

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

Example: Sum of the Elements of a List

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

Interesting Exercise

- 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 l .

- E.g., if a, b, c, d are elements of A ,
and if we define $\text{cons} := \text{cons}@(\text{list } A)$, $\text{nil} := \text{nil}@(\text{list } A)$

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

(h) Universes.

- A universe U is a set, the elements of which are codes for
- So we have
 - $U : \text{Set}$,
 - $T : U \rightarrow \text{Set}$ (the decoding function).
- We consider in the following a universe closed under
 - $\text{Fin}_0, \text{Fin}_1, \text{Bool}$,
 - \mathbb{N} ,
 - $+$,
 - Σ ,
 - the dependent function type.

Rules for the Universe

Formation Rule

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

Introduction and Equality Rules

$$\widehat{\text{Fin}}_0 : U$$
$$T(\widehat{\text{Fin}}_0) = \text{Fin}_0 : \text{Set}$$
$$\widehat{\text{Fin}}_1 : U$$
$$T(\widehat{\text{Fin}}_1) = \text{Fin}_1 : \text{Set}$$
$$\widehat{\text{Bool}} : U$$
$$T(\widehat{\text{Bool}}) = \text{Bool} : \text{Set}$$

Introduction/Equality Rules for the Universe (Cont.)

$$\frac{a : U \quad b : U}{a \hat{+} b : U}$$

$$\mathsf{T}(a \hat{+} b) = \mathsf{T}(a) + \mathsf{T}(b) : \mathsf{Set}$$

$$\frac{a : U \quad b : \mathsf{T}(a) \rightarrow U}{\hat{\Sigma}(a, b) : U}$$

$$\mathsf{T}(\hat{\Sigma}(a, b)) = \Sigma \mathsf{T}(a) (\lambda x. \mathsf{T}(b x)) : \mathsf{Set}$$

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

$$\frac{a : U \quad b : T(a) \rightarrow U}{\hat{\Pi}(a, b) : U}$$

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

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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 Universe), but they are very much used.
- They follow the principles present in previous rules.

Applications of the Universe

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

Applications of the Universe

- Example: Define

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{atom} & : \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Set} , \\ \text{atom} & : \lambda(x : \text{Bool}).\mathbf{T} (\widehat{\text{atom}} x) ,\end{aligned}$$

Then

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

Universes in Agda

- U and T need to be defined simultaneously.
 - Usually Agda type checks definitions in sequence, so no 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 Nhat

| Finzerohat

| Finonehat

| Boolhat

| Sigmahat $(a :: U)(b :: T a \rightarrow$

| Pihat $(a :: U)(b :: T a \rightarrow U)$

Universes in Agda (Cont.)

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

$$\begin{aligned} T & (u :: U) \\ & :: \text{Set} \\ & = \text{case } u \text{ of} \\ & \quad \{ (\text{Nhat}) \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow N; \\ & \quad (\text{Finzerohat}) \quad \rightarrow \text{Finzero}; \\ & \quad (\text{Finonehat}) \quad \rightarrow \text{Finone}; \\ & \quad (\text{Boolhat}) \quad \quad \rightarrow \text{Bool}; \\ & \quad (\text{Sigmahat } a \ b) \quad \rightarrow \text{Sigma } (T \ a) \ (\lambda(x :: T \ a) \rightarrow T \ (b \ x)); \\ & \quad (\text{Pihat } a \ b) \quad \quad \rightarrow (x :: T \ a) \rightarrow T \ (b \ x) \end{aligned}$$

(i) Algebraic Data Types.

- The construct “data” in Agda is much more powerful than in Haskell by type theoretic rules.
- In general we can define now sets having arbitrarily many arguments of arbitrary types.

$$\begin{aligned} A &:: \text{Set} \\ &= \text{data } C_1(a_{11} :: A_{11}) \cdots (a_{1n_1} :: A_{1n_1}) \\ &\quad | C_2(a_{21} :: A_{21}) \cdots (a_{2n_2} :: A_{2n_2}) \\ &\quad \dots \\ &\quad | C_m(a_{m1} :: A_{m1}) \cdots (a_{mn_m} :: A_{mn_m}) \end{aligned}$$

Meaning of “data”

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

$$\begin{aligned} C_i @ A &:: (a_{i1} :: A_{i1}) \\ &\rightarrow \dots \\ &\rightarrow (a_{in_i} :: A_{in_i}) \\ &\rightarrow A \end{aligned}$$

where a constructor always constructs new elements.

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

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types

- In the types A_{ij} we can make use of A .
 - However, it is difficult to understand A , if we have **new** of A .
 - Example:
 $A :: \text{Set}$
 $= \text{data } C (f :: A \rightarrow A)$
 - What is the least set A having a constructor
 $C @ A :: (f :: A \rightarrow A)$
 $\rightarrow A \quad ?$

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types (C)

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

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types (Co

- A “good” definition is the set of lists of natural numbers,

```
Nlist :: Set
      = data nil
          | cons (a :: N)
                (l :: Nlist)
```

- The constructor `cons@_` of N-lists refers to `Nlist`, but in We have: if $a :: N$ and $l :: Nlist$, then we have `Nlist`.
 - If we add `cons@_ a l` to `Nlist`, the reason for adding `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 accer

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types (Co

- In general:

$$\begin{aligned} A &:: \text{Set} \\ &= \text{data } C_1 (a_{11} :: A_{11}) \cdots (a_{1n_1} :: A_{1n_1}) \\ &\quad | C_2 (a_{21} :: A_{21}) \cdots (a_{2n_2} :: A_{2n_2}) \\ &\quad \cdots \\ &\quad | C_m (a_{m1} :: A_{m1}) \cdots (a_{mn_m} :: A_{mn_m}) \end{aligned}$$

is a strictly positive algebraic data type, if all A_{ij} 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
- The definitions of finite sets, $\Sigma A B$, $A + B$ and N were algebraic data types.

One further Example

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

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

- This is a strictly positive data type.

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types Extensions

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

```
mutual
```

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

```
Odd  :: Set  
      = data S (n :: Even)
```

- In such examples the constructors refer strictly positive to be defined simultaneously.

Strictly Positive Algebraic Data Types, Extensions

- We can even allow $A_{ij} = B_{1-} \rightarrow A$ or even $A_{ij} = B_{1-} \rightarrow$ where A is one of the types introduced simultaneously.
- Example (called “Kleene’s O ”):

$O :: \text{Set}$

= data leaf

| succ (o :: O)

| lim (f :: $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow O$)

- The last definition is unproblematic, since, if we have f we can construct $\text{lim@}_- f$ out of it, adding this new element to the reason for adding it to O .
- So again O can be “constructed”.

Elimination Rules for data

- Functions from strictly positive data types can now be used with the same distinction as before.
- For termination we need only that in the definition of f , where $w = f(C@_ a_1 \cdots a_n)$, we can refer only to f applied to elements $a_1 \cdots a_n$.

- For instance

- in the Bintree example, when defining

$$f :: \text{Bintree} \rightarrow A$$

by case-distinction, then the definition of

$$f (\text{branch} @ _ \text{ left right})$$

can make use of $f \text{ left}$ and $f \text{ right}$.

- In the example of \mathbb{O} , when defining

$$g :: \mathbb{O} \rightarrow A$$

by case-distinction, then the definition of

$$g (\text{lim} @ _ f)$$

can make use of $g (f \ n)$ for all $n :: \mathbb{N}$.