Dependent inductive types and logical connectives

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Yves Bertot Dependent inductive types and logical connectives

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Flashback: inductive datatypes

- Monomorphic: only define a single type,
- Each contructor gives a way to build elements in the type,
- Arguments in the same type are allowed for the constructors,
- Alternative notation
 Inductive tree : Type := L | B (t1 t2 : tree).

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Flashback: inductive datatypes

- Monomorphic: only define a single type,
- Each contructor gives a way to build elements in the type,
- Arguments in the same type are allowed for the constructors,
- ► Example: Inductive tree : Type := L : tree | B : tree → tree → tree.
- Alternative notation
 Inductive tree : Type := L | B (t1 t2 : tree).
- Generalize to *parameterized* types, where the parameter does not change.

- constructors may have arguments in other types of the same family,
- Known example vectors: Inductive vector (A:Type) : nat → Type := VNil : vector A 0
 VCons : ∀n : nat, A → vector A n → vector A (S n).

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Inductive vector (A:Type) : nat \rightarrow Type :=
VNil : vector A 0
| VCons : \foralln : nat, A \rightarrow vector A n \rightarrow vector A (S n).
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Inductive vector (A:Type) : nat \rightarrow Type :=
VNil : vector A 0
| VCons : \forall n : nat, A \rightarrow vector A n \rightarrow vector A (S n).
vector_cases :
\forall A : Type \forall P : \forall n : nat, vector n A \rightarrow Prop,
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\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Inductive vector (A:Type) : nat} \rightarrow \mbox{Type :=} \\ \mbox{VNil : vector A 0} \\ \mbox{I VCons : } \forall n : nat, A \rightarrow \mbox{vector A n} \rightarrow \mbox{vector A (S n)}. \\ \mbox{vector\_cases :} \\ \mbox{\forall}A : \mbox{Type } \forall P : \forall n : nat, \mbox{vector n } A \rightarrow \mbox{Prop}, \\ \mbox{P 0 (VNil A)} \rightarrow \end{array}
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Inductive vector (A:Type) : nat \rightarrow Type :=
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P 0 (VNil A) \rightarrow
(\forall(n:nat) (a:A) (v:vector n), P (S n) (Vcons A n a v)) \rightarrow
\forall(n:nat) (v:vector A n), P n v
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\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Inductive vector (A:Type) : nat} \rightarrow \mbox{Type :=} \\ \mbox{VNil : vector A 0} \\ \mbox{I VCons : } \forall n : nat, A \rightarrow \mbox{ list } A \rightarrow \mbox{ list } A. \\ \mbox{vector\_ind :} \\ \mbox{$\forall A : Type } \forall P : \forall n : nat, \mbox{ vector } n \ A \rightarrow \mbox{ Prop}, \\ \mbox{P 0 (VNil A)} \rightarrow \\ \mbox{$(\forall(n:nat) (a:A) (v:vector n), P n v \rightarrow P (S n) (Vcons A n a v)) \rightarrow $\\ \mbox{$\forall(n:nat) (v:vector A n), P n v]} \end{array}
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Curry Howard Isomorphism on Inductive Families

- For vectors, for every n in nat, the type vector A n contains at least one element,
- Why not design inductive families where only some indices have an *inhabited* type in the family,
- ► Example Inductive ev : nat → Type := ev0 : ev 0 | ev2 : ∀n, ev n → ev (S (S n)).
- The constructors make it possible to build elements in ev 0, ev 2, ev 4, ...
- To prove that ev 1 is not inhabited, we need an induction principle.

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Induction principle for ev

- ▶ Induction principle $ev_ind: \forall P: nat \rightarrow Prop,$ $P \ 0 \ ev0 \rightarrow (\forall (n:nat) \ (e:ev \ n), P \ n \ e \rightarrow P \ (S \ (S \ n)) \ (ev2 \ n \ e))$ $\rightarrow \forall (n:nat) \ (e:ev \ n), P \ n \ (ev \ n)$
- ► Let's prove that ev 1 is empty. Lemma ex_ev1 : ∀(n:nat) (e:ev n), n <> 1.

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Induction principle for ev

- ▶ Induction principle $ev_ind: \forall P: nat \rightarrow Prop,$ $P \ 0 \ ev0 \rightarrow (\forall (n:nat) \ (e:ev \ n), P \ n \ e \rightarrow P \ (S \ (S \ n)) \ (ev2 \ n \ e))$ $\rightarrow \forall (n:nat) \ (e:ev \ n), P \ n \ (ev \ n)$
- Let's prove that ev 1 is empty. Lemma ex_ev1 : ∀(n:nat) (e:ev n), n <> 1. intros n e; elim e.
- At this point, try to apply ev_ind, with its 5th argument matching e,
- P is chosen so that P n e \equiv n <> 1.

0 <> 1 discriminate.

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Second subgoal:

 \forall n', ev n' \rightarrow n' <> 1 \rightarrow S (S n') <> 1

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Second subgoal:

 $\label{eq:relation} \begin{array}{l} \forall n', \mbox{ ev }n' \rightarrow n' \mbox{ <> }1 \rightarrow S \mbox{ (S }n') \mbox{ <> }1 \\ \mbox{intros }n' \ _ \ _; \mbox{ discriminate. Qed.} \end{array}$

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Second subgoal:

 \forall n', ev n' \rightarrow n' <> 1 \rightarrow S (S n') <> 1 intros n' _ _; discriminate. Qed.

• Exercice, prove that $\forall x, ev \ x \rightarrow \exists y, x = y+y$

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- Make a systematic use of inductive families where all members may not be inhabited,
- Declare explicitly that elements are irrelevant,
- Adapt the induction principle.

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- Make a systematic use of inductive families where all members may not be inhabited,
- Declare explicitly that elements are irrelevant,
- Adapt the induction principle.
- Inductive even : nat → Prop := even0 : even 0
 | even2 : ∀n:nat, even n → even (S (S n)).
- Simpler induction principle:

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 \begin{array}{l} \forall \mathsf{P:} n \to \mathsf{Prop}, \\ \mathsf{P} \ 0 \to \\ (\forall \mathsf{n}, \ \mathsf{even} \ \mathsf{n} \to \mathsf{P} \ \mathsf{n} \to \mathsf{P} \ (\mathsf{S} \ (\mathsf{S} \ \mathsf{n}))) \to \\ \forall \mathsf{n:}\mathsf{nat}, \ \mathsf{even} \ \mathsf{n} \to \mathsf{P} \ \mathsf{n} \end{array}
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- Always remember that the constructors should state theorems that you want to be true,
- Do not forget that the arrow is not a "rewriting" step,
- Always test that you can prove a few basic facts.

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Example of wrong design

- What happens with the following definition: Inductive wev : nat → Prop := wev0 : wev 0

 | wev2 : ∀n, wev (S (S n)) → wev n.
- Why would you write this? To reduce the problem of proving that a large number is even to a simpler problem?
- Remember that the proof process reads implications backward.
- Here you would never be able to prove wev 2,
- Exercise: prove ~wev 2.
- Exercise: define divides inductively, prove th1 and th2 from the first lecture.

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- When proving a property on an object that satisfies an inductive predicate,
- Two solutions
 - Either prove by induction on the object (if possible),
 - Or prove by induction on the inductive predicate.

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- Lemma even_plus : forall x y, even x → even y → even (x+y). intros x; elim x. intros y _ evy; exact evy.
- The first case was easy!

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- Lemma even_plus : forall x y, even x → even y → even (x+y). intros x; elim x. intros y _ evy; exact evy.
- The first case was easy!

 $\begin{array}{l} \forall n, \ (\forall y, \ \text{even} \ n \rightarrow \text{even} \ y \rightarrow \text{even} \ (n+y)) \rightarrow \\ \forall y, \ \text{even} \ (S \ n) \rightarrow \text{even} \ y \rightarrow \text{even}((S \ n)+y) \end{array}$

Here even (S n) cannot be used to fill the premise of the induction hypothesis.

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Example of good choice

Lemma even_plus : forall x y, even x → even y → even (x+y). intros x y evx evy; elim evx.

evy : even y

even (0 + y)

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Example of good choice

▶ Lemma even_plus : forall x y, even x → even y → even (x+y). intros x y evx evy; elim evx.

evy : even y

even (0 + y) exact evy.

▶ The first case is also easy!

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Example of good choice

Lemma even_plus : forall x y, even $x \rightarrow$ even $y \rightarrow$ even (x+y). intros x y evx evy; elim evx. evy : even y even (0 + y)exact evy. The first case is also easy! $\forall n, even n \rightarrow even (n+y) \rightarrow even (S(Sn) + y)$ intros n _ evny; simpl. Force addition to compute,

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even (S (S (n + y)))
apply even2; exact evny.
Qed.
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- Some instances of an inductive predicate can be proved by a single constructor,
 - ► for instance even (S x) can only be proved by even2,
- In this case, the premises of this constructor must hold,
 - for even, if we know even $(S(S \times))$ we can deduce even \times
- In general, this means some implications can be read the other way round,
- This is done by a tactic called inversion.

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Things that can be described using Inductive predicates

order relations
Inductive le (n:nat) : nat → Prop := le_n : le n n | le_S : ∀m, le n m → le n (S m).
Partial functions, viewed as a relation Inductive rsyracuse : nat → nat → Prop := ps_1 : rsyracuse 1 0
| rs_p : ∀x n, rsyracuse x n → rsyracuse (2*x) (n+1)
| rs_o : ∀x n, ~even x → rsyracuse (3*x+1) n → rsyracuse x (n+1).

- Also many-to-many relations,
- Very useful for programming language semantics.

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 Conjunction and Disjunction Inductive and (A B:Prop) : Prop := conj : A → B → and A B.

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 Conjunction and Disjunction
 Inductive and (A B:Prop) : Prop := conj : A → B → and A B. and_ind: ∀A B P:Prop,

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Conjunction and Disjunction Inductive and (A B:Prop) : Prop := conj : A → B → and A B. and_ind: ∀A B P:Prop,(A → B → P)

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 Conjunction and Disjunction Inductive and (A B:Prop) : Prop := conj : A → B → and A B. and_ind: ∀A B P:Prop,(A → B → P) → A /\ B → P
 Inductive or (A B:Prop) : Prop := or_introl : A → or A B
 | or_intror : B → or A B.

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- Conjunction and Disjunction
 Inductive and (A B:Prop) : Prop :=
 conj : A → B → and A B.
 and_ind: ∀A B P:Prop,(A → B → P) → A /\ B → P
 Inductive or (A B:Prop) : Prop :=
 - or_introl : $\overrightarrow{A} \rightarrow \text{ or } \overrightarrow{A B}$ | or_intror : $\overrightarrow{B} \rightarrow \text{ or } \overrightarrow{A B}$. or_ind: $\forall \overrightarrow{A} \ \overrightarrow{B} \ \overrightarrow{P}$:Prop, $\overrightarrow{(A \rightarrow P)} \rightarrow (\overrightarrow{B} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{P}) \rightarrow \overrightarrow{A} \setminus \overrightarrow{A} \ \overrightarrow{B} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{P}$
- The tactic elim uses and_ind and or_ind,
- The tactic case or destruct use a more primitive but equivalent mechanism (pattern-matching).

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Inductive eq (A : Type) (x : A) : A → Prop := refl_equal : eq A × x.

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 Inductive eq (A : Type) (x : A) : A → Prop := refl_equal : eq A x x. eq_ind: ∀(A:Type) (x:A) (P : A → Prop),

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    Inductive eq (A : Type) (x : A) : A → Prop :=
refl_equal : eq A × x.
eq_ind: ∀(A:Type) (x:A) (P : A → Prop),
P ×
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▶ Inductive eq (A : Type) (x : A) : A → Prop := refl_equal : eq A × x. eq_ind: \forall (A:Type) (x:A) (P : A → Prop), P x → \forall y:A, x = y → P y

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- Inductive eq (A : Type) (x : A) : A → Prop := refl_equal : eq A × x.
 eq_ind: ∀(A:Type) (x:A) (P : A → Prop), P x → ∀y:A, x = y → P y
- The tactic elim applies eq_ind,
- In practice, we start with a goal of the form P y, and we end up with a goal of the form P x,
- Instances of y have been replaced by instances of x: rewriting to the left,
- ► The tactic rewrite ← uses eq_ind, rewrite → uses a symmetric eq_ind_r.

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▶ Inductive ex (A : Prop)(P : A \rightarrow Prop) : Prop := ex_intro : $\forall x, P x \rightarrow$ ex A P.

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Inductive ex (A : Prop)(P : A → Prop) : Prop := ex_intro : ∀x, P x → ex A P. ex_ind : ∀(A : Type)(P : A → Prop)(Q:Prop),

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▶ Inductive ex (A : Prop)(P : A → Prop) : Prop := ex_intro : $\forall x, P x \rightarrow ex A P$. ex_ind : $\forall (A : Type)(P : A \rightarrow Prop)(Q:Prop),$ $(\forall x : A, P x \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow ex A P \rightarrow Q$

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- ► Inductive ex (A : Prop)(P : A → Prop) : Prop := ex_intro : $\forall x, P x \rightarrow ex A P$. ex_ind : $\forall (A : Type)(P : A \rightarrow Prop)(Q:Prop),$ $(\forall x : A, P x \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow ex A P \rightarrow Q$
- The tactic elim uses ex_ind,
- Using elim produces an arbitrary element that satisfies the property,
- The notation exists x:A, P stands for ex A (fun x:A => P),
- ▶ In this course, I usually write $\exists x:A, P$.

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Tactics elim, destruct, intro on inductive types

- The tactic elim produces hypotheses,
- You usually need intro right away,
- ► The tactic destruct combines several elim then intros together.
- The tactic intro with a pattern also combines several elim and intro,
- The idea is to follow the structure of terms.

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 Lemma exdi : forall P Q R, P /\ (Q \/ (∃ x:nat, R x)) → (P /\ Q) \/(exists x:nat, P /\ R x). intros P Q R [hP [hQ | [w hR]]]. hP : P hQ : Q

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P / Q / \exists x : nat, P / R x
left; split; [exact hP | exact hQ].
hP : P
w : nat
hR : R w
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P / Q / \exists x : nat, P / R x
right; exists w; split; [exact hP | exact hR]. Qed.
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