

The Coq proof assistant : principles and practice

J.-F. Monin

Université Grenoble Alpes

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Lecture 1

Coq

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Understanding Formal Methods, J.F. Monin, Springer, 2003

- ▶ Static analysis
- ▶ Model Checking
- ▶ Deductive techniques
- ▶ Soundness: LCF architecture, proof terms (can be checked independantly)

Trade off

- ▶ pencil-paper / tool support
- ▶ automatization / generality
- ▶ ...

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

- ▶ Describe a model
- ▶ Explain it
- ▶ Reason about it
- ▶ Be clean and precise

Use math and logic... and make it funny!

Now routinely taught in many highly ranked universities

- ▶ France: Paris, Grenoble, Lyon, Bordeaux, Strasbourg...
- ▶ Europe: UK, Italy,...
- ▶ USA: Harvard, Yale, U. Pennsylvania, MIT, Princeton...
- ▶ Australia
- ▶ China: Coq Summer School Tsinghua, Suzhou, Shanghai

Some industrial uses

Spacecrafts, airplanes (Airbus, Boeing)

Microsoft

Intel

French railways

Telecom Operators

Nuclear power plants

Banks

Cryptography

Coq

J.-F. Monin

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Discover 3 aspects of Coq

1. Coq as a proof assistant

- ▶ write precise and clear definitions
- ▶ how to state meaningful theorems
- ▶ how to prove them in a perfectly rigorous way
this task is interactive: tedious parts can be discharged by the machine but creative part need input from a human.

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Discover 3 aspects of Coq

2. Coq as a challenging programming language

- ▶ many applications of Coq to problems arising in computer science

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Discover 3 aspects of Coq

3. Applications to reasoning about non-trivial programs

- ▶ lists, trees...
- ▶ data-structures implemented with pointers

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Introduction

- Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

- Several constructors
- Polymorphic trees

Firsts steps to Coq

Coq

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Key idea: abstraction

- ▶ take a concrete expression
- ▶ make some value (repeated or not) a parameter
- ▶ that's it

Simple but far reaching

The abstract thing can be

- ▶ a data, a function, a program, a type
- ▶ a family of them
- ▶ subtle combinations
e.g. a program may depend on a previously abstracted value; programs may depend on pgms, or on types, or conversely.

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

A very powerful logic

- ▶ Statements
- ▶ Proofs: concrete data
- ▶ More powerful than Peano arithmetic:
Goodstein sequences

A way to **compute** proofs for given statements

⇒ **Programming** comes first

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

A strange programming language

- ▶ Without state!!
- ▶ Called **functional programming**
- ▶ Components:

Components

- ▶ **lambda-calculus** (pure functions)
- ▶ **inductive types**

Remarks

- ▶ States can be simulated
- ▶ Actually lambda-calculus has the power of Turing machines

A strange programming language

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

State is a burden for reasoning

Immutable **values** are much more convenient

All proof assistants are related to a functional programming language

In the case of Coq (and others e.g. Agda, Matita, Lego, Nuprl) the relationship is very tight

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Introduction

- Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

- Several constructors
- Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Receipe (part 1)

- ▶ Take your preferred programming language (C, Python, Ocaml, Java, Javascript,...)
- ▶ Remove objects, classes,...
- ▶ Remove state variables (global, static, local, ...)
- ▶ Remove assignments
- ▶ Remove goto statements
- ▶ Remove if statements, loops
- ▶ Remove all side effects

What is left?

- ▶ expressions
- ▶ constants
- ▶ function calls
- ▶ (possibly recursive) function definitions

Receipe (part 2)

- ▶ Remove recursion

What you get is essentially **lambda-calculus with constants**

Lambda-calculus with constants

- ▶ **Built-in computations**
on integers, Booleans, characters,...
- ▶ Function calls :
replacement of formal parameters by actual parameters

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Receipe (part 3)

- ▶ Remove constants and built-in computations

What you get is essentially **pure lambda-calculus**

Pure lambda-calculus

- ▶ Function calls :
replacement of formal parameters by actual parameters

Just 3 things

- ▶ Variables: x, y, \dots
- ▶ Application: $U V$
- ▶ Abstraction: $\lambda x.U$

Just 1 computation rule: β -reduction

- ▶ Variables: x, y, \dots
- ▶ Application: $U V$
- ▶ $(\lambda x.U)V$ β -reduces to $U[x := V]$
(in any **context**, i.e., at any position inside a λ -term)

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Math notation

$$a \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 3$$
$$f \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. x + 2$$

Coq notation

Definition a := 3.

Definition f := fun x => x + 2.

Expansion of a definition to its body

Called δ -reduction

$f\ a$ reduces (in two δ steps) to $(\lambda x. x + 2)\ 3$

Then $(\lambda x. x + 2)\ 3$ β -reduces to $3 + 2$

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Functions with two (or more) arguments

Coq

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

A function of x and y is a function of x which returns a function of y

▶ Example: $\lambda x. (\lambda y. x + 2 * y)$

▶ Shorthands:

$\lambda x. (\lambda y. x + 2 * y)$

$\lambda xy. x + 2 * y$

▶ Application:

$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x + 2 * y) 5) 1$

$\xrightarrow{\beta} (\lambda y. 5 + 2 * y) 1$

$\xrightarrow{\beta} 5 + 2 * 1$

Pure λ -calculus deals only with functions

- ▶ Variables actually stand for functions
- ▶ Functions return functions
- ▶ Functions take functions as arguments
- ▶ Such functions are called **higher-order** functions

Pure λ -calculus has the power of Turing machines

- ▶ Constants (numbers, Booleans, etc.) can be encoded by functions
- ▶ Data-structures (pairs, tuples, lists, trees) can be encoded by functions
- ▶ Loops (iteration, recursion) can be encoded by functions

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Confluence (Church-Rosser)

- ▶ A **redex** is a position in a λ -term where a β -reduction is possible.
- ▶ A λ -term may contain several redexes
- ▶ Reducing a redex may produce 0, 1 or several new redexes
- ▶ Therefore, there are in general many ways to compute (reduce and reduce) a given term
- ▶ However, **the final result** (if any) **is always the same**: we say that pure λ -calculus has the **Church-Rosser** property

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Termination (Normalization)

- ▶ A term without redex is said to be **normal** (end of computations)
- ▶ We say that a term U is **weakly** (respectively **strongly**) normalizing if, respectively
 - ▶ **there exist** a reduction sequence $T = T_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T_1 \xrightarrow{\beta} \dots T_n$ such that T_n is normal
 - ▶ **all** reduction sequences $T = T_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} T_1 \xrightarrow{\beta} \dots$ eventually end with a normal term T_n
- ▶ (Pure) λ -calculus contains non-normalizing terms, e.g., $\Omega \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Delta\Delta$ with $\Delta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. xx$
- ▶ However, **typed** versions of λ -calculus, including Coq, don't allow such terms – actually all terms are strongly normalizing

Main properties of lambda-calculus (3)

The version of pure typed λ -calculus used in Coq is called the **Calculus of Constructions** (CoC, or CC).

The full λ -calculus used in Coq also contains inductive types; it is called the **Calculus of Inductive Constructions** (CIC).

Alltogether, confluence and normalization ensure that functions **do provide** a **unique** result for any input.

That is, functions are **total** (defined everywhere).

Examples of λ -calculi with this feature include

- ▶ simply typed λ -calculus, contained in
- ▶ CoC, itself contained in
- ▶ CIC

We will see that these typed λ -calculi have a logical interpretation. Totality is mandatory for the underlying logic to be **consistent**, and then to be usable in a proof assistant!

Simply typed λ -calculus

- ▶ Types are atomic types or arrow types $A \rightarrow B$
- ▶ All variables are provided such a type
- ▶ If U has type $A \rightarrow B$ and V has type A , then $U V$ has type B
- ▶ If x has type A and U has type B , then $\lambda x.U$ has type $A \rightarrow B$
- ▶ Example: $\lambda x.x$ has many types such as $A \rightarrow A$, $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$, etc.

A glance at typed lambda-calculus (2)

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Polymorphic typed λ -calculus

- ▶ Simple types + universally quantified types, e.g. $\forall X, X \rightarrow X$ (a satisfactory type for $\lambda x.x$)
- ▶ Such types are called **polymorphic** types

CoC (Calculus of Constructions)

- ▶ simple types
- ▶ polymorphic types
- ▶ dependent types (see later)

CIC (Calculus of Inductive Constructions)

- ▶ CoC + inductive types

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Expressive power of untyped lambda-calculus

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Terms similar to Ω can be used to define general recursion.

E.g. $Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda f. (\lambda x. f(xx))(\lambda x. f(xx))$.

Exercise: check that $Y f$ is a fixed point of f , that is, it β -reduces to a term which is equivalent to $f(Y f)$.

Any “recursive” definition of a function can be defined using Y . Therefore, **untyped pure λ -calculus has the power of Turing machines.**

However, strong normalization is lost, since such a computation contains infinite sequences of reductions (Hint : look at the redex inside Y).

Untyped pure λ -calculus is logically inconsistent
(Technically, Y could be used to prove `False`).

Expressive power of typed lambda-calculi

Υ is not typable even in CoC

- ▶ Good news: the underlying logic is consistent
- ▶ Bad news: general recursion is lost; **is it serious?**

Limited forms of recursion are typable:
(higher order) **iteration** and **primitive recursion**.

Expressive power of some typed λ -calculi

- ▶ simply typed λ -calculus: very weak (polynomials), moreover inconvenient
- ▶ CoC: very powerful – any practically provably total function can be represented (reminder: Goodstein sequences); however, still not very convenient
- ▶ CIC: very powerful (similar to CoC) but much more convenient

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Types everywhere

Very powerful **types**

Everything has a type, **even types**

We can **compute** on **types** and on **values** at the same time.

Examples: **families** of types.

- ▶ Example: **n**-tuples, with $n = 1, 2, \dots$ even 0.

... So it will become complex...

We start with a **graphical syntax**

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Types having finitely many values

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The simplest are called an **enumeration**

Example

Red : color

Orange : color

Yellow : color

Green : color

Blue : color

Indigo : color

Violet : color

Red_f : rgb

Green_f : rgb

Blue_f : rgb

Warning: a value has only **one** type

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

What is the type of `color` and `rgb`?

```
color : Set
rgb   : Set
```

What is the type of `Set`?

```
Set : Type
```

What is the type of `Type`?

```
Type(i) : Type(i + 1)
```

Graphical syntax

_____ Red
color

_____ Orange
color

_____ Yellow
color

_____ Green
color

_____ Blue
color

_____ Indigo
color

_____ Violet
color

Outline

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Coq

J.-F. Monin

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Graphical syntax

—— Red
color

—— Orange
color

—— Yellow
color

—— Green
color

—— Blue
color

—— Indigo
color

—— Violet
color

The horizontal bar means: **MAKES**

Red, Orange,... are called **CONSTRUCTORS**

At the same time we have **Set** color

In order to save space, we use **definitions**.

E.g. (*Coq syntax*)

Definition R := Red.

means that R is **definitionally** the same as Red.

Definition co := color.

means that co is **definitionally** the same as color.

Hence

Red:color, Red:co, R:color and R:co
are all the same judgement

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Graphical syntax

Definition O := Orange. Definition Y := Yellow.
Definition G := Green. Definition B := Blue.
Definition I := Indigo. Definition V := Violet.

$\frac{}{\text{co}}$ R $\frac{}{\text{co}}$ O $\frac{}{\text{co}}$ Y $\frac{}{\text{co}}$ G $\frac{}{\text{co}}$ B $\frac{}{\text{co}}$ I $\frac{}{\text{co}}$ V

Definition Rf := Red_f. Definition Gf := Green_f.
Definition Bf := Blue_f.

$\frac{}{\text{rgb}}$ Rf $\frac{}{\text{rgb}}$ Gf $\frac{}{\text{rgb}}$ Bf

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

We know how to **make** (or **construct**) a value in `color` or in `rgb`.

Next issue: how to **use** a value

- ▶ use a **given** value
- ▶ use a (still) **unknown** value

Composition of n-tuples

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Making a 4-tuple of rgb

$$\frac{\text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

The **constructor** `Mk4` makes a `tuple4` from

- ▶ a `rgb`
- ▶ a `rgb`
- ▶ a `rgb`
- ▶ a `rgb`

At the same time we have

— `tuple4`
`Set`

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

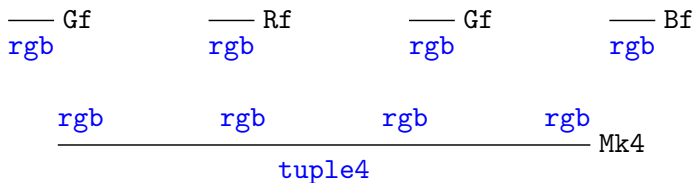
Composition of trees

Trees with variables

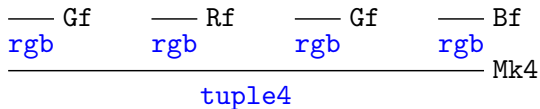
More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Building blocks



Connecting them yields the concrete 4-tuple of rgb

[Introduction](#)

Expected benefits from this course

[Coq](#)[Lambda-calculus](#)[Inductive types
\(graphically: trees\)](#)[Graphical syntax](#)[Composition of trees](#)[Trees with variables](#)[More general trees](#)

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Others trees for 4-tuples

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{— Gf} & \text{— Rf} & \text{— Gf} & \text{— Bf} \\ \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{— Bf} & \text{— Gf} & \text{— Bf} & \text{— Gf} \\ \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{— Rf} & \text{— Rf} & \text{— Rf} & \text{— Rf} \\ \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

Coq

J.-F. Monin

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Another view on Mk4

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As a building block

$$\frac{\text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

As a tree

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{---} & \downarrow x_1 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_2 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_3 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_4 \\ \text{rgb} & & \text{rgb} & & \text{rgb} & & \text{rgb} & \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

This is called an **open** tree

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

Outline

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

- Several constructors

- Polymorphic trees

Coq

J.-F. Monin

Introduction

- Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

- Several constructors
- Polymorphic trees

Closed and open trees

Coq

J.-F. Monin

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

The meaning (or value) of

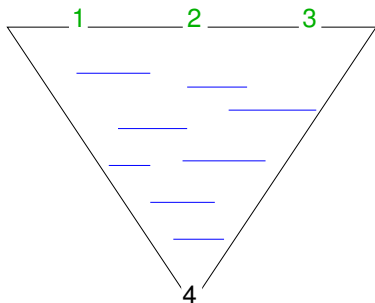
$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{--- Gf} & \text{--- Rf} & \text{--- Gf} & \text{--- Bf} \\ \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

is completely defined: this is called a **closed** tree.

In contrast, the meaning of the open tree

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{--- Gf} & \text{--- } x_2 & \text{--- Rf} & \text{--- } x_4 \\ \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

depends on x_2 and x_4 .

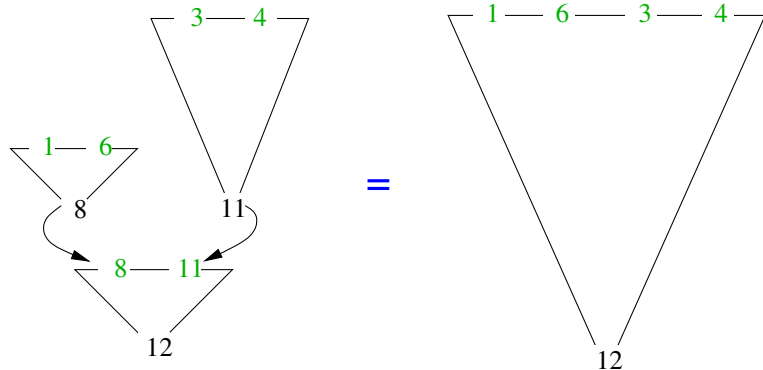


Interpretation

- ▶ At positions 1, 2, 3, 4: types
- ▶ 1, 2, 3: inputs
- ▶ 4: output (or result)

Makes the output from the inputs

Plugging trees



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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

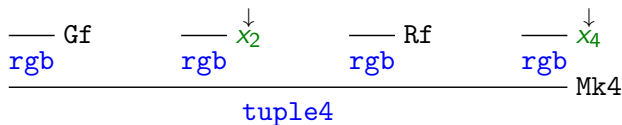
Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

The tree



has a meaning for all trees plugged into x_2 and x_4 .

The variables $x_2 : \text{rgb}$ and $x_4 : \text{rgb}$ make up the environment of this tree

Introduction

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
trees

Trees with
variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

WRONG

4-tuple of rgb

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{--- Gf} & \text{--- Rf} & \text{--- Gf} & \text{--- Bf} \\ \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} & \text{rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

4-tuple of color

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{--- O} & \text{--- Y} & \text{--- B} & \text{--- V} \\ \text{co} & \text{co} & \text{co} & \text{co} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

Mk4 must be applied to arguments of a given type

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

How to make 4-tuples more general

Solution 1: have different constructors

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{---} & \downarrow x_1 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_2 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_3 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_4 \\ \text{rgb} & & \text{rgb} & & \text{rgb} & & \text{rgb} & \\ \hline & & & & & & & \text{Mk4rgb} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{---} & \downarrow x_1 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_2 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_3 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_4 \\ \text{color} & & \text{color} & & \text{color} & & \text{color} & \\ \hline & & & & & & & \text{Mk4co} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cccc} \text{---} & \downarrow x_1 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_2 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_3 & \text{---} & \downarrow x_4 \\ \text{tuple4} & & \text{tuple4} & & \text{tuple4} & & \text{tuple4} & \\ \hline & & & & & & & \text{Mk4t4} \end{array}}{\text{tuple4}}$$

At the same time we have

$$\frac{\text{---}}{\text{Set}} \text{ tuple4}$$

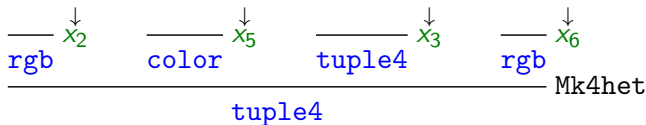
How to make 4-tuples more general

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Remark

Beyond `Mk4rgb`, `Mk4co`, `Mk4t4`, we can imagine **heterogeneous** 4-tuples, for instance:



Many possibilities... to be considered again later.

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

How to make 4-tuples more general

Coq

J.-F. Monin

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Solution 2: only one constructor, but more general

$$\frac{A \quad A \quad A \quad A}{\text{gtuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

But where does A come from?

We want the previous tree for all A ...

Solution 2: only one constructor, but more general

$$\frac{\frac{\text{---}}{\text{Set}} \downarrow A \quad \frac{\text{---}}{A} \downarrow x_1 \quad \frac{\text{---}}{A} \downarrow x_2 \quad \frac{\text{---}}{A} \downarrow x_3 \quad \frac{\text{---}}{A} \downarrow x_4}{\text{gtuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

As usual, at the same time we have

$$\frac{\text{---}}{\text{Set}} \text{gtuple4}$$

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Intermezzo: a shorthand for trees

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors
Polymorphic trees

$$\frac{\frac{\text{tuple4}}{\text{tuple4}} t1 \quad \frac{\text{tuple4}}{\text{tuple4}} t2 \quad \frac{\text{tuple4}}{\text{tuple4}} t3 \quad \frac{\text{tuple4}}{\text{tuple4}} t4}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4t4}$$

Where $t1$ is for example **defined** as

$$\frac{\frac{\text{rgb}}{\text{rgb}} \text{Gf} \quad \frac{\text{rgb}}{\text{rgb}} \text{Rf} \quad \frac{\text{rgb}}{\text{rgb}} \text{Gf} \quad \frac{\text{rgb}}{\text{rgb}} \text{Bf}}{\text{tuple4}} \text{Mk4rgb}$$

And so on for $t2$, etc.

Concrete example

$$\frac{\text{Set } \text{rgb} \quad \text{rgb } \text{u1} \quad \text{rgb } \text{u2} \quad \text{rgb } \text{u3} \quad \text{rgb } \text{u4}}{\text{gtuple4} \text{ Mk4}}$$

Coq

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Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

General homogeneous 4-tuples

$$\frac{\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{==} A & \text{==} u1 & \text{==} u2 & \text{==} u3 & \text{==} u4 \\ \text{Set} & A & A & A & A \end{array}}{\text{gtuple4}} \text{Mk4}$$

The type A can be many things beyond `rgb`

- ▶ `gtuple4`
- ▶ a complex tree

The trees $u1$, $u2$, $u3$, $u4$ and A can be open (they can depend on variables).

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types
(graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of
treesTrees with
variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

Introduction

Expected benefits from this course

Coq

Lambda-calculus

Inductive types (graphically: trees)

Graphical syntax

Composition of trees

Trees with variables

More general trees

Several constructors

Polymorphic trees

1) Write trees for examples of 4-tuples of 4-tuples using `tuple4` and `gtuple4`.

Some of them, closed, some of them open

E.g. $\langle\langle R, Y, B, B \rangle, \langle B, 0, x_4, R \rangle, \langle x_7, x_7, x_7, V \rangle, \langle V, Y, 0, R \rangle\rangle$

2) Trees for heterogeneous pairs (2-tuples) and for heterogeneous triples.

3) Trees for homogeneous n -tuples, where n can be 1, 2 or 3.

4) Trees for heterogeneous n -tuples, where n can be 0, 1 or 2.