

Inductive families

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

GADTs: difficulties

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$A \times B$

$A + B$

Simple structure, so lots of “models”
(sets, relations, propositions, semirings)

GADTs are about **type equalities**.

```
type (_, _) eq1 = Refl : ('a, 'a) eq1
```

GADTs reveal things about **types** when you examine **data**.

```
let cast : type a b. (a, b) eq1 -> a -> b =  
  fun Refl x -> x
```

GADTs lead to rich types that can be viewed as **propositions**.

```
val max : ('a, 'b, 'c) max -> 'a -> 'b -> 'c
```

GADT problems: existentials (or universals)

With GADTs, adding indexing requires existentials.

An **existential** type that **hides** the depth index:

```
type 'a edtree = E : ('a, _) dtree → 'a edtree
```

Constructing a **depth-indexed** tree from an **unindexed** tree:

```
let rec dify : 'a. 'a tree -> 'a edtree = function
  Empty -> E EmptyD
  | Tree (l, x, r) ->
    let E l' = dify l in
    let E r' = dify r in
    E (TreeD (l', x, r', max_depth l' r'))
```

There's no way to **relate** the depth index to the unindexed input.

With GADTs we need a **shadow world of types** for index values:

```
type z = Z : z
type 'n s = S : 'n → 'n s

# let zero = Z;;
val zero : z = Z
# let three = S (S (S Z));;
val three : z s s s = S (S (S Z))
```

With GADTs we can talk about arguments, but not about results

What we **mean**:

$$\text{max}(m, n) \equiv 0$$

What we **say**:

('m, 'n, 'o) max

With GADTs nothing prevents constructing meaningless types.

An **inhabited** type:

```
(* max(1,0) ≡ 1 *)  
(z s, z, z s) max
```

An **uninhabited** type:

```
(* max(1,2) ≡ 0 *)  
(z s, z s s, z) max
```

A **meaningless** type:

```
(* max(int,string) ≡ float *)  
(int, string, float) max
```

With **inductive families** (and **dependent types** generally)
things become **much simpler**...

Agda primer

Dependent functions and abbreviations

The dependent function space (Π) is written like this

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

Implicit arguments:

$$\forall \{x : A\} \rightarrow B$$

For non-dependent functions (x not used in B), abbreviate:

$$A \rightarrow B$$

If A can be inferred, abbreviate:

$$\forall x \rightarrow B$$

Simple data:

```
data Nat : Set where
  zero : Nat
  suc  : Nat → Nat
```

Parameterised data:

```
data Tree (α : Set) : Set where
  Empty  : Tree α
  Branch : Tree α → α → Tree α → Tree α
```

Indexed data:

```
data DTree (α : Set) : Nat → Set where
  Empty : DTree α zero
  Branch : ∀ {x y : Nat} → DTree α x → α → DTree α y →
    DTree α (suc (max x y))
```

Functions are written in **equational style**:

```
max : Nat → Nat → Nat
max zero r = r
max r zero = r
max (suc l) (suc r) = suc (max l r)
```

with clauses can compute with pattern variables on the **left of =**:

```
max2 : Nat → Nat → Nat
max2 zero r = r
max2 r zero = r
max2 (suc l) (suc r) with max2 l r
... | m = suc m
```

Agda supports **hole-driven development**.

Idea: leave holes in programs; fill interactively with Agda's help.

<code>min : Nat → Nat → Nat</code>	Goal: Nat
<code>min zero r = zero</code>	-----
<code>min r zero = zero</code>	r : Nat
<code>min (suc l) (suc r) = {!!}</code>	l : Nat

Benefits of rich types:

- Clearly describe intent
- Exclude incorrect programs
- Generate faster code
- Support interactive development (*new!*)

GADTs, improved

Indexing by terms: no more singletons

With **GADTs** we need a shadow world of types:

```
type z = Z : z and _ s = S : 'n → 'n s

# let zero = Z;;
val zero : z = Z
# let three = S (S (S Z));;
val three : z s s s = S (S (S Z))
```

With **term-indexed types** we can use simple data definitions:

```
data Nat : Set where
  zero : Nat
  suc  : Nat → Nat
```

Indexing by terms: no more relational programming

With **GADTs** type-level functions are written in relational style:

```
('m, 'n, 'o) max
```

With **term-indexed types** we can use simple functions:

```
max : Nat → Nat → Nat
```

```
max zero r = r
```

```
max r zero = r
```

```
max (suc l) (suc r) = suc (max l r)
```

Indexing with **max**:

```
data DTree (α : Set) : Nat → Set where
```

```
  Empty : DTree α zero
```

```
  Branch : ∀ {x y : Nat} → DTree α x → α → DTree α y →  
    DTree α (suc (max x y))
```

Indexing by terms: no more untyped indexes

With **GADTs** we can construct meaningless types
(because all indexes are in ★):

```
(* max(int, string) ≡ float *)  
(int, string, float) max
```

With inductive families, **indexes are classified**:

```
data Dtree (α : Set) : Nat → Set where
```

This is well-typed:

```
Dtree Nat (suc zero)
```

...but this is an error:

```
Dtree Nat Bool
```

Indexing by terms: no more existentials

GADTs require existentials to add indexing:

```
type 'a edtree = E : ('a, _) dtree → 'a edtree  
let rec dify : 'a. 'a tree -> 'a edtree = ...
```

Term-indexed result **types** can mention input **terms**:

```
dify :  $\forall\{\alpha\} \rightarrow (t : \text{Tree } \alpha) \rightarrow \text{DTree } \alpha \text{ (depth } t)$   
dify Empty = Empty  
dify (Branch t x tl) = Branch (dify t) x (dify tl)
```

Beyond GADTs

GADTs support **internal verification** by indexing data:

```
val top : ('a, 'n) gtree → 'n
```

But indexing by **every property** is unwieldy and non-modular.
(Consider: how can we define a **sorted** gtree using gtree?)

Agda's dependent types support **external verification**
— separating data and function definition from properties:

```
max-comm : ∀ {m n} → (max m n) ≡ (max n m)
```

```
swiv-depth : ∀ {α} → (t : Tree α) → depth t ≡ depth (swivel' t)
```

Large eliminations are an alternative way of defining indexed data.

Idea: functions from data to types.

Defining perfect trees as an **inductive family**:

```
data GTree (α : Set) : Nat → Set where
  Empty : GTree α zero
  TreeG : ∀ {n} → GTree α n → α → GTree α n → GTree α (suc n)
```

Defining perfect trees via a **recursive function**:

```
gtree : Set → Nat → Set
gtree α zero = T
gtree α (suc n) = gtree α n × α × gtree α n
```

Example ($n \equiv \text{suc zero}$):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gtree } \alpha \text{ (suc zero)} &= \text{gtree } \alpha \text{ zero} \times \alpha \times \text{gtree } \alpha \text{ zero} \\ &= T \times \alpha \times T \end{aligned}$$

Defining perfect trees via a **recursive function**:

```

gtree : Set → Nat → Set
gtree α zero = T
gtree α (suc n) = gtree α n × α × gtree α n

```

Program with `gtree` by **pattern-matching on the index**:

```

swivel : ∀ {α n} → gtree α n → gtree α n
swivel {α} {zero} t = tt
swivel {α} {suc n} (l , x , r) = swivel r , (x , swivel l)

```


Equality

Exhaustiveness: does a pattern match cover every case?

For **simple data types:** **well-understood, complete.**

*(ML pattern match compilation and partial evaluation
Sestoft, 1996)*

For **GADTs:** **impossible**

*(GADTs and Exhaustiveness: Looking for the Impossible
Garrigue & Le Normand, 2017)*

For **inductive families:** **even harder**

*(Dependent pattern matching and proof-relevant unification
Cockx, 2017)*

Type equality (for **GADTs**):

First, **expand aliases**. Then types have form $(t_1, t_2, \dots t_n) t$.

$(t_1, t_2, \dots t_n) t \equiv (s_1, s_2, \dots s_n) s$ iff $t_1 \equiv s_1 \wedge \dots \wedge t_n \equiv s_n$

Pattern matching **exposes equalities**, making types (un)equal.

Type equality with **term indexing**:

First, **normalize terms**. Terms equal if normalizations equal (judgemental equality).

Pattern matching exposes equalities, allowing further **computation**.

If we learn $n \equiv \text{zero}$ (propositional equality), can reduce **max** n n

Problem: without normalization we can build bogus proofs:

```
let rec f : type a b. (a, a) eq1 -> (a, b) eq1 =  
  fun Refl -> f Refl
```

OCaml supports **general recursion**:

```
val fix : (('a -> 'b) -> ('a -> 'b)) -> ('a -> 'b)  
let rec fix f x = f (fix f) x
```

i.e. (under Curry-Howard correspondence):

$$\forall A \forall B. ((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$$

Problem: determining equality involves normalizing terms
(may not terminate, may perform effects)

Next time: generic programming

```
val show : 'a → string
```