A Journey Through Types

Beck, Calvin hobbes@ualberta.ca

April 9, 2017

What is this Talk about?

Types! This presentation hopes to address the following:

- How types can help you write correct software.
 - ▶ This is important when *EVERYTHING* runs software.
 - Good type systems can make this less horrifying!
- How types make things easier to write in general.
 - ► Compiler can automate a lot more.
 - Compiler can catch many simple issues.

What is this Talk about?

Types! This presentation hopes to address the following:

- How types can help you write correct software.
 - ▶ This is important when *EVERYTHING* runs software.
 - Good type systems can make this less horrifying!
- How types make things easier to write in general.
 - Compiler can automate a lot more.
 - ► Compiler can catch many simple issues.

Somewhat of a whirlwind introduction. Let me know if you're lost, because this talk is all over the place!

What are we trying to solve?

You think that this is normal...

What are we trying to solve?

You think that this is normal...

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'NoneType' object is not subscriptable
```

What are we trying to solve?

You think that this is normal...

```
Traceback (most recent call last):
File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
TypeError: 'NoneType' object is not subscriptable
```

... It's not!

A type describes what a value "is".

A type describes what a value "is".

You have probably heard of this as "how the bits are stored in memory."

A type describes what a value "is".

You have probably heard of this as "how the bits are stored in memory."

A type describes what a value "is".

You have probably heard of this as "how the bits are stored in memory."

- Tell us how to use values.
 - ▶ Tells us what operations are defined on the types.
 - Can you add things of this type?
 - ▶ Can a function take a value of this type as an argument?
 - What kind of stuff does this function return?

A type describes what a value "is".

You have probably heard of this as "how the bits are stored in memory."

- Tell us how to use values.
 - ▶ Tells us what operations are defined on the types.
 - Can you add things of this type?
 - ▶ Can a function take a value of this type as an argument?
 - ▶ What kind of stuff does this function return?
- Documentation

A type describes what a value "is".

You have probably heard of this as "how the bits are stored in memory."

- Tell us how to use values.
 - ▶ Tells us what operations are defined on the types.
 - Can you add things of this type?
 - ▶ Can a function take a value of this type as an argument?
 - What kind of stuff does this function return?
- Documentation
- Rejection of general nonsense: 357^{circles}

A type describes what a value "is".

You have probably heard of this as "how the bits are stored in memory."

- Tell us how to use values.
 - ▶ Tells us what operations are defined on the types.
 - Can you add things of this type?
 - ▶ Can a function take a value of this type as an argument?
 - What kind of stuff does this function return?
- Documentation
- Rejection of general nonsense: 357^{circles}
 - NO MORE NULL REFERENCE EXCEPTIONS!

```
def my_sort(xs):
    if xs == []:
        return xs
    else:
        first_elem = xs[0]
        rest = xs[1:]

        smaller = my_sort([x for x in rest if x <= first_elem])
        larger = my_sort([x for x in rest if x > first_elem])

        return smaller + [first_elem] + larger

def my_factorial(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        return n * my_factorial(n-1)
```

- No types to help document functions.
- No types to catch errors at compile time.
 - ► Tests can help...
 - ▶ But it's nice to not have to worry about certain errors at all.

- What if we could force functions to be compartmentalized?
 - ▶ No sneaky IO
 - ► No hidden global states

- What if we could force functions to be compartmentalized?
 - ▶ No sneaky IO
 - ► No hidden global states
- Wouldn't it be nice to have a description of what a function can and can't do in a concise format?

- What if we could force functions to be compartmentalized?
 - ▶ No sneaky IO
 - ▶ No hidden global states
- Wouldn't it be nice to have a description of what a function can and can't do in a concise format?
- Could the compiler tell us when our function deviates from these descriptions?
 - Why wait until runtime to find your mistakes?

```
Integer factorial(Integer n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return 1:
    else f
        return n * factorial(n - 1):
ArrayList < Integer > my_sort (ArrayList < Integer > xs) {
    if (xs.size() == 0) {
        return new ArrayList < Integer > ();
    else f
        // Calvin is too lazy to write Java
        // ...
```

```
Integer factorial(Integer n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return 1:
    else f
        return n * factorial(n - 1):
ArrayList < Integer > my_sort (ArrayList < Integer > xs) {
    if (xs.size() == 0) {
        return new ArrayList < Integer > ();
    else f
        // Calvin is too lazy to write Java
        // ...
```

Very verbose. Lots of additional syntactic cruft.

```
Integer factorial(Integer n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return 1:
    else {
        return n * factorial(n - 1):
ArrayList < Integer > my_sort (ArrayList < Integer > xs) {
    if (xs.size() == 0) {
        return new ArrayList < Integer > ();
    else f
        // Calvin is too lazv to write Java
        // ...
```

- Very verbose. Lots of additional syntactic cruft.
- Can see what functions accept and return!

```
Integer factorial(Integer n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return 1:
    else {
        return n * factorial(n - 1):
ArrayList < Integer > my_sort (ArrayList < Integer > xs) {
    if (xs.size() == 0) {
        return new ArrayList < Integer > ();
    else f
        // Calvin is too lazv to write Java
        // ...
```

- Very verbose. Lots of additional syntactic cruft.
- Can see what functions accept and return!
- Null references... :c

```
Integer factorial(Integer n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return 1:
    else (
        return n * factorial(n - 1):
ArrayList < Integer > my_sort (ArrayList < Integer > xs) {
    if (xs.size() == 0) {
        return new ArrayList < Integer > ();
    else f
        // Calvin is too lazv to write Java
        // ...
```

- Very verbose. Lots of additional syntactic cruft.
- Can see what functions accept and return!
- Null references... :c

Types aren't bad...

```
Integer factorial(Integer n) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return 1:
    else (
        return n * factorial(n - 1):
ArrayList < Integer > my_sort (ArrayList < Integer > xs) {
    if (xs.size() == 0) {
        return new ArrayList < Integer > ();
    else f
        // Calvin is too lazv to write Java
        // ...
```

- Very verbose. Lots of additional syntactic cruft.
- Can see what functions accept and return!
- Null references... :c

Types aren't bad... Java is bad.

- Catch errors at compile time!
 - ▶ If something is "wrong", then why wait for runtime to tell us?

- Catch errors at compile time!
 - ▶ If something is "wrong", then why wait for runtime to tell us?
- Ease reading and writing of programs.
 - Act as a kind of documentation.
 - Guide us when writing programs.
 - Stop us from making mistakes.

- Catch errors at compile time!
 - ▶ If something is "wrong", then why wait for runtime to tell us?
- Ease reading and writing of programs.
 - Act as a kind of documentation.
 - Guide us when writing programs.
 - Stop us from making mistakes.
- Allow us to make better guarantees.
 - "Function does not alter global state"
 - "Function does not read from disk"

- Catch errors at compile time!
 - ▶ If something is "wrong", then why wait for runtime to tell us?
- Ease reading and writing of programs.
 - Act as a kind of documentation.
 - Guide us when writing programs.
 - Stop us from making mistakes.
- Allow us to make better guarantees.
 - "Function does not alter global state"
 - "Function does not read from disk"
- Not too much verbosity.
 - Nice, clean syntax!

```
def my_sort(xs):
    if xs == []:
        return xs
    else:
        first_elem = xs[0]
        rest = xs[1:]

        smaller = my_sort([x for x in rest if x <= first_elem])
        larger = my_sort([x for x in rest if x > first_elem])

        return smaller + [first_elem] + larger

def my_factorial(n):
    if n == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        return n * my_factorial(n-1)
```

```
def mv sort(xs):
   if xs == []:
        return vs
    else:
        first elem = xs[0]
        rest = xs[1:]
        smaller = my_sort([x for x in rest if x <= first_elem])</pre>
        larger = my_sort([x for x in rest if x > first_elem])
        return smaller + [first elem] + larger
def mv factorial(n):
   if n == 0:
        return 1
   else:
        return n * my_factorial(n-1)
```

- Type inference: compiler can figure out the types of things.
- Nice, relatively specific types.

```
-- Causes a type error, because it doesn't make sense.
mySort [factorial, (*2)]
```

Something similar in Python would only be caught at runtime

You might think you could do this:

```
-- Instead of: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort :: [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

You might think you could do this:

```
-- Instead of: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort :: [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

... But this actually causes a type error!

You might think you could do this:

```
-- Instead of: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort :: [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

- ... But this actually causes a type error!
 - a could be any type
 - This type could be unorderable
 - ▶ Like a function, or a picture
 - Need the constraint so we know we can perform comparisons!

You might think you could do this:

```
-- Instead of: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort :: [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

- ... But this actually causes a type error!
 - a could be any type
 - This type could be unorderable
 - ▶ Like a function, or a picture
 - Need the constraint so we know we can perform comparisons!

Haskell makes sure we can only perform operations that are defined on values of a given type, but allows us to be general about it. This function works with any orderable element still, and not just a fixed type.

Haskell is somewhat careful about what values inhabit a type.

Haskell is somewhat careful about what values inhabit a type.

■ No "null" values which inhabit every type.

Haskell is somewhat careful about what values inhabit a type.

- No "null" values which inhabit every type.
- This keeps it so that, for the most part, elements of a type act the same way.

Haskell is somewhat careful about what values inhabit a type.

- No "null" values which inhabit every type.
- This keeps it so that, for the most part, elements of a type act the same way.
- Operations on elements of a type work on all values, so no runtime exceptions are raised!

Haskell is somewhat careful about what values inhabit a type.

- No "null" values which inhabit every type.
- This keeps it so that, for the most part, elements of a type act the same way.
- Operations on elements of a type work on all values, so no runtime exceptions are raised!

This helps to keep everything sane!

Maybe maybe!

Sometimes you need something *like* a null. Maybe a function can't always compute an answer!

Maybe maybe!

Sometimes you need something *like* a null. Maybe a function can't always compute an answer!

Enter maybe types:

```
data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing
```

Maybe maybe!

Sometimes you need something *like* a null. Maybe a function can't always compute an answer!

Enter maybe types:

```
data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing
```

- Better than null!
- Type checker can tell us when we need to handle null.
- Compile time errors if we don't handle null!

Maybe examples

```
-- Find out where a value is in a list.
whichIndex :: Eq a => a -> [a] -> Maybe Integer
whichIndex = whichIndexAcc 0
-- Helper function that remembers our position in the list.
whichIndexAcc :: Eq a => Integer -> a -> [a] -> Maybe Integer
whichIndexAcc pos value [] = Nothing
whichIndexAcc pos value (x::xs) = if x == value
                                   then Just pos
                                   else whichIndexAcc (pos+1) xs
-- A dictionary of all the important words.
dictionary :: [String]
dictionary = ["cats", "sandwiches", "hot chocolate"]
main :: TO ()
main = do entry <- getLine
          case whichIndex entry dictionary of
               (Just pos) => putStrLn "Your entry is at position " ++ show
                    pos ++ " in the dictionary."
               Nothing => putStrLn "Your entry does not appear in the
                    dictionary."
```

- You know whichIndex can yield a "null" value (Nothing). Just from type.
- Could also be a Just <Integer>, such as Just 3.
- You have to explicitly unwrap these values (see main) to get at the possible value!

Maybe more!

Seems tedious? It's not! Good syntax makes this easy!

```
-- Look up a word in the same position in a different dictionary.
dictionary :: [String]
dictionary = ["cats", "sandwiches", "hot chocolate"]

synonyms :: [String]
synonyms = ["meows", "bread oreos", "sweet nectar"]

moreSynonyms :: [String]
moreSynonyms = ["floofs", "subs", "hot coco"]

-- Get value at index, Nothing if out of range.
getIndex :: Integer -> [a] -> Maybe a
getIndex [] = Nothing
getIndex 0 (x:xs) = Just x
getIndex n (_:xs) = getIndex (n-1) xs
```

More on next slide...

"Do" notation frees us from tedium!

```
lookupSynonyms :: String -> Maybe (String, String)
lookupSynonyms word = do index <- getIndex word dictionary
                         -- Lookup my synonyms, if anything fails return Nothing
                         firstSvnonvm <- getIndex index svnonvms
                         secondSynonym <- getIndex index moreSynonyms
                         -- Success! Return Just the synonyms.
                         Just (firstSvnonvm, secondSvnonvm)
-- lookupSynonyms essentially desugars to this.
-- The compiler can help avoid this tedium!
painfulLookupSynonyms :: String -> Maybe (String, String)
painfulLookupSynonyms word = case getIndex word dictionary of
                                  Nothing -> Nothing
                                  (Just index) ->
                                    case getIndex index synonyms of
                                         Nothing -> Nothing
                                         (Just first) ->
                                           case getIndex index moreSynonyms of
                                                 Nothing -> Nothing
                                                 (Just second) -> Just (first.
                                                      sacond)
main :: IO ()
main = do word <- getLine
          case lookupSynonym word of
            Nothing -> putStrLn ("Hmmm, I don't know a synonym for " ++ word)
            (Just synonym) -> putStrLn ("I think " ++ word ++ "'s are a lot like
                  " ++ synonym ++ "'s!")
```

If you're a JavaScript programmer you've probably encountered promises. In a language like Haskell you could also have a promise type, which is similar to Maybe. Imagine having:

If you're a JavaScript programmer you've probably encountered promises. In a language like Haskell you could also have a promise type, which is similar to Maybe. Imagine having:

■ The type checker tell you when you forgot to "unwrap" a promise.

If you're a JavaScript programmer you've probably encountered promises. In a language like Haskell you could also have a promise type, which is similar to Maybe. Imagine having:

- The type checker tell you when you forgot to "unwrap" a promise.
- Do notation which lets you string promises together with no syntactic overhead.

If you're a JavaScript programmer you've probably encountered promises. In a language like Haskell you could also have a promise type, which is similar to Maybe. Imagine having:

- The type checker tell you when you forgot to "unwrap" a promise.
- Do notation which lets you string promises together with no syntactic overhead.
- Not having to write JavaScript ;)

Having a good type system in an expressive language, like Haskell, can really help ease a lot of the pain you currently suffer.

If you're a JavaScript programmer you've probably encountered promises. In a language like Haskell you could also have a promise type, which is similar to Maybe. Imagine having:

- The type checker tell you when you forgot to "unwrap" a promise.
- Do notation which lets you string promises together with no syntactic overhead.
- Not having to write JavaScript ;)

Having a good type system in an expressive language, like Haskell, can really help ease a lot of the pain you currently suffer.

Programming can be good?

■ IO means a function performs input / output.

- IO means a function performs input / output.
 - ▶ Reads from disk, or stdin

- IO means a function performs input / output.
 - ▶ Reads from disk, or stdin
 - Writes to disk, prints to screen

- IO means a function performs input / output.
 - ▶ Reads from disk, or stdin
 - Writes to disk, prints to screen
 - etc...

- IO means a function performs input / output.
 - ▶ Reads from disk, or stdin
 - Writes to disk, prints to screen
 - etc...
- () is "void" no return value.

- IO means a function performs input / output.
 - Reads from disk, or stdin
 - Writes to disk, prints to screen
 - etc...
- () is "void" no return value.
- No escaping IO. Taints anything using it, so you know if something does input / output.

- IO means a function performs input / output.
 - Reads from disk, or stdin
 - Writes to disk, prints to screen
 - etc...
- () is "void" no return value.
- No escaping IO. Taints anything using it, so you know if something does input / output.
- Can help avoid unexpected behaviour, similar to global state changing a functions behaviour.

Haskell in summary: what does it buy us?

- We can catch errors at compile time!
 - ➤ Type system lets us describe values in a fair amount of detail, which removes a lot of obviously incorrect programs from the set of programs that compile.
 - Types don't contain nulls. Very few values which cause explosions at runtime.
- Easier to read and write programs. Types of functions are very descriptive!
 - ► Types help in much the same way as test driven development (but they're always there, unlike tests!)
 - Makes you think about arguments a function takes, and what it returns
 - ► Types point out errors when developing, such as forgetting to unwrap a Maybe value.

What more does it buy us?

- Types can be very general, allowing us to reuse functions with any type that makes sense.
 - mySort works with any list of orderable elements!
- It allows us to specify properties and guarantees within our programs.
 - ▶ "This function does not alter global state, or read from a file".
 - Functions are "pure".
 - Special actions, like IO, are clearly labeled.

There are some things that we just can't do with Haskell's types.

There are some things that we just can't do with Haskell's types.

Can write this:

```
index :: Integer -> [a] -> Maybe a
index 0 [] = Nothing
index 0 (x::xs) = Just x
index n (x::xs) = index (n-1) xs
```

There are some things that we just can't do with Haskell's types.

Can write this:

```
index :: Integer -> [a] -> Maybe a
index 0 [] = Nothing
index 0 (x::xs) = Just x
index n (x::xs) = index (n-1) xs
```

But can't just avoid calling an index function when the index is out of range:

```
-- Want the integer argument to always be in range so we don't need Maybe!
index :: Integer -> [a] -> a
index 0 [] = error "Uh... Whoops, walking off the end of the list!"
index 0 (x :: xs) = x
index n (x :: xs) = index (n-1) xs
```

There are some things that we just can't do with Haskell's types.

Can write this:

```
index :: Integer -> [a] -> Maybe a
index 0 [] = Nothing
index 0 (x::xs) = Just x
index n (x::xs) = index (n-1) xs
```

But can't just avoid calling an index function when the index is out of range:

```
-- Want the integer argument to always be in range so we don't need Maybe!
index :: Integer -> [a] -> a
index 0 [] = error "Uh... Whoops, walking off the end of the list!"
index 0 (x :: xs) = x
index n (x :: xs) = index (n-1) xs
```

- Need to encode length of the list into the type.
- Can't do this in Haskell because a type can not depend upon a value.
 - ▶ Length in the type must depend upon the length of the list value.



Also not possible to encode specific properties which depend upon values in types.

```
mySort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

Also not possible to encode specific properties which depend upon values in types.

```
mySort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

Would be nice to encode into the type of mySort that...

- Output list must be in ascending order.
- Output list must contain the same values as the input list.

Also not possible to encode specific properties which depend upon values in types.

```
mySort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
    larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

Would be nice to encode into the type of mySort that...

- Output list must be in ascending order.
- Output list must contain the same values as the input list.

This would prove that the program works! mySort would be guaranteed to sort a list in ascending order if the program type checks!

Also not possible to encode specific properties which depend upon values in types.

```
mySort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
mySort [] = []
mySort (first_elem::rest) = smaller ++ [first_elem] ++ larger
where smaller = mySort [x | x <- rest, x <= first_elem]
    larger = mySort [x | x <- rest, x > first_elem]
```

Would be nice to encode into the type of mySort that...

- Output list must be in ascending order.
- Output list must contain the same values as the input list.

This would prove that the program works! mySort would be guaranteed to sort a list in ascending order if the program type checks!

We can do this kind of thing with dependent types. We'll look at some basic examples in Idris, a programming language like Haskell, but with dependent types.

Dependent types in Idris

Vectors are a classic example of dependent types!

Dependent types in Idris

Vectors are a classic example of dependent types!

Like lists, but...

Dependent types in Idris

Vectors are a classic example of dependent types!

- Like lists, but...
- They include the length of the list in the type.

```
two_little_piggies : Vect 2 String
two_little_piggies = ["Oinkers", "Snorkins"]

-- This would be a type error, caught at compilation:
three_little_piggies : Vect 3 String
three_little_piggies = two_little_piggies
```

Computations at the type level allow us to make some more complicated, generalized functions.

Computations at the type level allow us to make some more complicated, generalized functions.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
```

Computations at the type level allow us to make some more complicated, generalized functions.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
```

n, m, and (n + m) are all natural numbers, and elem is any type.

Computations at the type level allow us to make some more complicated, generalized functions.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
```

n, m, and (n + m) are all natural numbers, and elem is any type.

```
data Vect : Nat -> Type -> Type where
Nil : Vect 0 a
(::) : (x : a) -> Vect k a -> Vect (S k) a
```

Computations at the type level allow us to make some more complicated, generalized functions.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
```

n, m, and (n + m) are all natural numbers, and elem is any type.

```
data Vect : Nat -> Type -> Type where
Nil : Vect 0 a
(::) : (x : a) -> Vect k a -> Vect (S k) a
```

■ The full Vect type constructed from natural number value for length, and a type for the elements.

Computations at the type level allow us to make some more complicated, generalized functions.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
```

n, m, and (n + m) are all natural numbers, and elem is any type.

```
data Vect : Nat -> Type -> Type where
Nil : Vect 0 a
(::) : (x : a) -> Vect k a -> Vect (S k) a
```

- The full Vect type constructed from natural number value for length, and a type for the elements.
- Two constructors define the type recursively (called an inductive type we'll see why later).
 - ▶ One for the empty vector.
 - ▶ Single value concatenated to another vector to make a vector with 1 more element. S is successor of natural numbers, +1.

Idris can help us generate programs based on the types. (All the steps you will see are done automatically by Idris).

Idris can help us generate programs based on the types. (All the steps you will see are done automatically by Idris).

We can ask idris to start our function definition based on the type:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append xs ys = ?append_rhs
```

Idris can help us generate programs based on the types. (All the steps you will see are done automatically by Idris).

We can ask idris to start our function definition based on the type:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append xs ys = ?append_rhs
```

?append_rhs is a hole. It's a stand in for a value we need to provide. Idris can tell us the type of a hole, and potentially fill it in for us. It also tells us types of what's in scope for the hole. This looks like this:

Idris can help us generate programs based on the types. (All the steps you will see are done automatically by Idris).

We can ask idris to start our function definition based on the type:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append xs ys = ?append_rhs
```

?append_rhs is a hole. It's a stand in for a value we need to provide. Idris can tell us the type of a hole, and potentially fill it in for us. It also tells us types of what's in scope for the hole. This looks like this:

We can get Idris to do case split on the first argument...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append xs ys = ?append_rhs
```

We can get Idris to do case split on the first argument...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append xs ys = ?append_rhs
```

Which leads to a pattern match on constructors, and two holes:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
append [] ys = ?append_rhs_1
append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

We can get Idris to do case split on the first argument...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append xs ys = ?append_rhs
```

Which leads to a pattern match on constructors, and two holes:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
append [] ys = ?append_rhs_1
append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

Once broken into cases, Idris can search for values which satisfy the types of the holes. Let's look at the first one...

Once broken into cases, Idris can search for values which satisfy the types of the holes. Let's look at the first one...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ?append_rhs_1
```

Once broken into cases, Idris can search for values which satisfy the types of the holes. Let's look at the first one...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ?append_rhs_1
```

Idris actually evaluates the type $Vect\ (0 + m)$ elem, so this is really...

Once broken into cases, Idris can search for values which satisfy the types of the holes. Let's look at the first one...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ?append_rhs_1
```

Idris actually evaluates the type Vect (0 + m) elem, so this is really...

Once broken into cases, Idris can search for values which satisfy the types of the holes. Let's look at the first one...

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ?append_rhs_1
```

Idris actually evaluates the type Vect (0 + m) elem, so this is really...

Only ys satisfies this type. Remember m could be any natural.

So, Idris can tell that it can use ys for this case, giving us:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

So, Idris can tell that it can use ys for this case, giving us:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

The second hole is a bit more interesting:

So, Idris can tell that it can use ys for this case, giving us:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

The second hole is a bit more interesting:

... Idris can also fill this in.

So, Idris can tell that it can use ys for this case, giving us:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

The second hole is a bit more interesting:

... Idris can also fill this in.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys
```

So, Idris can tell that it can use ys for this case, giving us:

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs_2
```

The second hole is a bit more interesting:

... Idris can also fill this in.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys
```

This seems bonkers, so let's look at how Idris did this.

To get append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys Idris realized a couple things:

```
data Nat : Type where
    0 : Nat -- Zero
    S : Nat -> Nat -- Successor (+1)

(+) : Nat -> Nat -> Nat
(+) 0 m = m
(+) (S k) m = S (k + m)
```

To get append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys Idris realized a couple things:

```
data Nat : Type where
    0 : Nat -- Zero
    S : Nat -> Nat -- Successor (+1)

(+) : Nat -> Nat -> Nat
(+) 0 m = m
(+) (S k) m = S (k + m)
```

Remember our hole:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (( S k ) + m ) elem
```

To get append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys Idris realized a couple things:

```
data Nat : Type where
    0 : Nat -- Zero
    S : Nat -> Nat -- Successor (+1)

(+) : Nat -> Nat -> Nat
(+) 0 m = m
(+) (S k) m = S (k + m)
```

Remember our hole:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (( S k ) + m ) elem
```

By definition (s k) + m = s (k + m), so we have:

To get append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys Idris realized a couple things:

```
data Nat : Type where
    0 : Nat -- Zero
    S : Nat -> Nat -- Successor (+1)

(+) : Nat -> Nat -> Nat
(+) 0 m = m
(+) (S k) m = S (k + m)
```

Remember our hole:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (( S k ) + m ) elem
```

By definition (s k) + m = s (k + m), so we have:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (S (k + m)) elem
```

So we really have this goal:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (S (k + m)) elem
```

Idris looks at how to construct a Vect (S blah) elem...

So we really have this goal:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (S (k + m)) elem
```

Idris looks at how to construct a Vect (S blah) elem...

```
data Vect : Nat -> Type -> Type where
Nil : Vect 0 a
(::) : (x : a) -> Vect k a -> Vect (S k) a
```

So we really have this goal:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (S (k + m)) elem
```

Idris looks at how to construct a Vect (S blah) elem...

```
data Vect : Nat -> Type -> Type where
Nil : Vect 0 a
(::) : (x : a) -> Vect k a -> Vect (S k) a
```

To construct a Vect (S blah) elem we need ::!

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
append [] ys = ys
append (x :: xs) ys = ?elem_to_concat :: ?rest_of_vect
```

So we really have this goal:

```
Main.append_rhs_2 : Vect (S (k + m)) elem
```

Idris looks at how to construct a Vect (S blah) elem...

```
data Vect : Nat -> Type -> Type where
Nil : Vect 0 a
(::) : (x : a) -> Vect k a -> Vect (S k) a
```

To construct a Vect (S blah) elem we need ::!

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
append [] ys = ys
append (x :: xs) ys = ?elem_to_concat :: ?rest_of_vect
```

These are the holes:

```
Main.elem_to_concat : elem
Main.rest_of_vect : Vect (k + m) elem
```

The first hole is easy for Idris.

The first hole is easy for Idris.

We need something with the arbitrary type elem. Only x fits!

The first hole is easy for Idris.

We need something with the arbitrary type elem. Only x fits!

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem
append [] ys = ys
append (x :: xs) ys = x :: ?rest_of_vect
```

The first hole is easy for Idris.

We need something with the arbitrary type elem. Only x fits!

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = x :: ?rest_of_vect
```

Second hole involves a bit more work...

Daily dose of recursion

Idris knows it can call append recursively with a $v_{\text{ect k elem}}$ and a $v_{\text{ect m elem}}$ to get a $v_{\text{ect (k + m) elem}}$.

Idris knows it can call append recursively with a $v_{\text{ect k elem}}$ and a $v_{\text{ect m elem}}$ to get a $v_{\text{ect (k + m) elem}}$.

Looking at our goal we have such vectors, ys and xs.

Idris knows it can call append recursively with a $v_{\text{ect k elem}}$ and a $v_{\text{ect m elem}}$ to get a $v_{\text{ect (k + m) elem}}$.

Looking at our goal we have such vectors, ys and xs.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys
```

Idris knows it can call append recursively with a $v_{\text{ect }k}$ elem and a $v_{\text{ect }m}$ elem to get a $v_{\text{ect }(k+m)}$ elem.

Looking at our goal we have such vectors, ys and xs.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys
```

Idris wrote this function automatically based on a small spec!

Idris knows it can call append recursively with a $v_{\text{ect k elem}}$ and a $v_{\text{ect m elem}}$ to get a $v_{\text{ect (k + m) elem}}$.

Looking at our goal we have such vectors, ys and xs.

```
append : Vect n elem -> Vect m elem -> Vect (n + m) elem append [] ys = ys append (x :: xs) ys = x :: append xs ys
```

Idris wrote this function automatically based on a small spec! It's cool that Idris even gets the order correct because of the types!

Less precise types

Doesn't work well with the less precise list type!

Less precise types

Doesn't work well with the less precise list type!

```
append : List elem -> List elem append [] ys = ?append_rhs1
append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs2
```

What do you think will happen when we try the same thing?

Less precise types

Doesn't work well with the less precise list type!

```
append : List elem -> List elem -> List elem append [] ys = ?append_rhs1 append (x :: xs) ys = ?append_rhs2
```

What do you think will happen when we try the same thing?

```
append : List elem -> List elem -> List elem append [] ys = [] append (x :: xs) ys = []
```

Huh... I guess it doesn't realize that append should make a list as long as the inputs combined!

Idris just finds the first possible function. Length isn't encoded in the type to enforce length of output.

In Haskell we couldn't guarantee that an index was in range of a list...

In Haskell we couldn't guarantee that an index was in range of a list... In Idris we can!

In Haskell we couldn't guarantee that an index was in range of a list... In Idris we can!

```
index : Fin len -> Vect len elem -> elem
index FZ (x :: xs) = x
index (FS n) (_ :: xs) = myIndex n xs
```

Fin len is a type for natural numbers strictly less than len

In Haskell we couldn't guarantee that an index was in range of a list... In Idris we can!

```
index : Fin len -> Vect len elem -> elem
index FZ (x :: xs) = x
index (FS n) (_ :: xs) = myIndex n xs
```

Fin len is a type for natural numbers strictly less than len

```
data Fin : Nat -> Type where
FZ : Fin (S k)
FS : Fin k -> Fin (S k)
```

A tale of cautious indexing

A tale of cautious indexing

Lots of cool guarantees that we can make with dependent types!

What are propositions?

What are propositions?

 \blacksquare A statement: "the sky is blue", "2 + 2 is 4"

What are propositions?

- \blacksquare A statement: "the sky is blue", "2 + 2 is 4"
- Not necessarily true: "2 + 2 is 27"

What are propositions?

- \blacksquare A statement: "the sky is blue", "2 + 2 is 4"
- Not necessarily true: "2 + 2 is 27"

Logical proofs are used to determine the validity of a proposition.

What are propositions?

- \blacksquare A statement: "the sky is blue", "2 + 2 is 4"
- Not necessarily true: "2 + 2 is 27"

Logical proofs are used to determine the validity of a proposition.

We could show that "2 + 2 is 27" is false with a logical proof.

Propositions are often represented by variables, for instance:

р

Propositions are often represented by variables, for instance:

р

p is a proposition. It could be anything, really...

Propositions are often represented by variables, for instance:

р

p is a proposition. It could be anything, really...

p = "ducks are fantastic"

Propositions are often represented by variables, for instance:

р

p is a proposition. It could be anything, really...

p = "ducks are fantastic"

And I might have another proposition:

q = "ducks are truly the worst"

Propositions are often represented by variables, for instance:

р

p is a proposition. It could be anything, really...

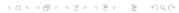
p = "ducks are fantastic"

And I might have another proposition:

q= "ducks are truly the worst"

We can build up more complicated propositions with logical connectives. In this case we might have:

Which means that if p is true, then q is not true. We'll see more of this shortly.



We've mostly been using plain English to convey these propositions, but often they'll be more mathematical statements, such as:

 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } m > n$

We've mostly been using plain English to convey these propositions, but often they'll be more mathematical statements, such as:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } m > n$$

Propositions...

- Are built up from a set of axioms
 - Just rules which describe your mathematical objects

We've mostly been using plain English to convey these propositions, but often they'll be more mathematical statements, such as:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } m > n$$

Propositions...

- Are built up from a set of axioms
 - ▶ Just rules which describe your mathematical objects
- Can be combined with logical connectives.

We've mostly been using plain English to convey these propositions, but often they'll be more mathematical statements, such as:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists m \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } m > n$$

Propositions...

- Are built up from a set of axioms
 - Just rules which describe your mathematical objects
- Can be combined with logical connectives.

Logic is a sort of metalanguage which describes how you can make judgements about your mathematical objects.

- Implication:
 - ightharpoonup p
 ightarrow q, meaning "if p is true, then q must be true."

- Implication:
 - ightharpoonup p
 ightharpoonup q, meaning "if p is true, then q must be true."
- Conjunction:
 - ▶ $p \land q$, meaning "both p and q are true."

- Implication:
 - ightharpoonup p
 ightarrow q, meaning "if p is true, then q must be true."
- Conjunction:
 - \triangleright $p \land q$, meaning "both p and q are true."
- Disjunction:
 - $ightharpoonup p \lor q$, meaning "at least one of p or q is true."

- Implication:
 - ightharpoonup p
 ightharpoonup q, meaning "if p is true, then q must be true."
- Conjunction:
 - ▶ $p \land q$, meaning "both p and q are true."
- Disjunction:
 - \triangleright $p \lor q$, meaning "at least one of p or q is true."
- Negation:
 - $ightharpoonup \neg p$, meaning "not p", "p is false."

Quantification

You might also have quantifiers:

Quantification

You might also have quantifiers:

- Universal quantification:
 - $\forall x \in S, p(x)$, meaning "for every x (in S), p(x) is true."

Quantification

You might also have quantifiers:

- Universal quantification:
 - $\forall x \in S, p(x)$, meaning "for every x (in S), p(x) is true."
- Existential quantification:
 - ▶ $\exists x \in S, p(x)$, meaning "there's at least on x (in S), which makes p(x) true."

Proof and inference rules

You also have some rules for how you can combine these things to form proofs. E.g., Modus ponens

$$p \rightarrow q, p \vdash q$$

Proof and inference rules

You also have some rules for how you can combine these things to form proofs. E.g., Modus ponens

$$p \rightarrow q, p \vdash q$$

Or conjunction elimination

$$p \land q \vdash p$$

$$p \land q \vdash q$$

Proof and inference rules

You also have some rules for how you can combine these things to form proofs. E.g., Modus ponens

$$p \rightarrow q, p \vdash q$$

Or conjunction elimination

$$p \land q \vdash p$$

$$p \land q \vdash q$$

Or conjunction introduction

$$p, q \vdash p \land q$$

Things get interesting when you start thinking about types as propositions...

Things get interesting when you start thinking about types as propositions...

$$p \rightarrow q$$

Things get interesting when you start thinking about types as propositions...

$$p \rightarrow q$$

This looks an awful lot like...

```
hmmm1 : p -> q
```

Things get interesting when you start thinking about types as propositions...

$$p \rightarrow q$$

This looks an awful lot like...

Similarly...

$$p \wedge q$$

Things get interesting when you start thinking about types as propositions...

$$p \rightarrow q$$

This looks an awful lot like...

Similarly...

$$p \wedge q$$

Is kind of similar to:

Conjunction elimination corresponds to destructing a product...

```
-- P /\ Q -> P
fst : (p, q) -> p
fst (a, b) = a

-- P /\ Q -> Q
snd : (p, q) -> q
snd (a, b) = b
```

Conjunction elimination corresponds to destructing a product...

```
-- P /\ Q -> P
fst : (p, q) -> p
fst (a, b) = a

-- P /\ Q -> Q
snd : (p, q) -> q
snd (a, b) = b
```

Conjuction introduction corresponds to constructing a product...

```
-- P -> Q -> (P, Q)
and : p -> q -> (p, q)
and a b = (a, b)
```

Conjunction elimination corresponds to destructing a product...

```
-- P /\ Q -> P
fst : (p, q) -> p
fst (a, b) = a

-- P /\ Q -> Q
snd : (p, q) -> q
snd (a, b) = b
```

Conjuction introduction corresponds to constructing a product...

```
-- P -> Q -> (P, Q)
and : p -> q -> (p, q)
and a b = (a, b)
```

Similar things for other logical connectives. E.g., $p \lor q$ corresponds to a sum type Either p q.

Conjunction elimination corresponds to destructing a product...

```
-- P /\ Q -> P
fst : (p, q) -> p
fst (a, b) = a

-- P /\ Q -> Q
snd : (p, q) -> q
snd (a, b) = b
```

Conjuction introduction corresponds to constructing a product...

```
-- P -> Q -> (P, Q)
and : p -> q -> (p, q)
and a b = (a, b)
```

Similar things for other logical connectives. E.g., $p \lor q$ corresponds to a sum type Either p q.

 $\neg p$ corresponds to p -> Void where Void is an uninhabited type.

Conjunction elimination corresponds to destructing a product...

```
-- P /\ Q -> P
fst : (p, q) -> p
fst (a, b) = a

-- P /\ Q -> Q
snd : (p, q) -> q
snd (a, b) = b
```

Conjuction introduction corresponds to constructing a product...

```
-- P -> Q -> (P, Q)
and : p -> q -> (p, q)
and a b = (a, b)
```

Similar things for other logical connectives. E.g., $p \lor q$ corresponds to a sum type Either p q.

 $\neg p$ corresponds to p -> Void where Void is an uninhabited type.

Dependent types are needed for quantifiers.

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

```
const : p -> q -> p
const a b = a
```

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

```
const : p -> q -> p
const a b = a
```

The value const can be seen as a proof of the proposition (type) p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p... This is what const says:

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

```
const : p -> q -> p
const a b = a
```

The value const can be seen as a proof of the proposition (type) $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p...$ This is what const says:

given a proof of p, a

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

```
const : p -> q -> p
const a b = a
```

The value const can be seen as a proof of the proposition (type) $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p...$ This is what const says:

- given a proof of p, a
- and a proof of q, b

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

```
const : p -> q -> p
const a b = a
```

The value const can be seen as a proof of the proposition (type) $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p...$ This is what const says:

- given a proof of p, a
- and a proof of q, b
- I can provide a as a proof of p

If types are propositions, then what are the values?

Well, they're a sort of "existence proof" of a proposition.

```
const : p -> q -> p
const a b = a
```

The value const can be seen as a proof of the proposition (type) $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow p...$ This is what const says:

- given a proof of p, a
- and a proof of q, b
- I can provide a as a proof of p

Which oddly enough makes a lot of sense as proof!

Invaluable proofs

Type checker can prevent bogus proofs! Stops us from proving false propositions!

Invaluable proofs

Type checker can prevent bogus proofs! Stops us from proving false propositions!

```
bogus : p \rightarrow q bogus p = -- What can I put here that would type check? :(
```

Invaluable proofs

Type checker can prevent bogus proofs! Stops us from proving false propositions!

```
bogus : p -> q
bogus p = -- What can I put here that would type check? :(
```

Can't find a value of type q, since we only have a value of type p!

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

```
equality_good : 2+3 = 5 -- Equality as a proposition in the type!
equality_good = Ref1

-- This fails to type check
equality_bad : 2+3 = 7
equality_bad = Ref1
```

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

```
equality_good : 2+3 = 5 -- Equality as a proposition in the type!
equality_good = Ref1
-- This fails to type check
equality_bad : 2+3 = 7
equality_bad = Ref1
```

Equality has only one constructor, Ref1. This is roughly defined as:

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

```
equality_good : 2+3 = 5 -- Equality as a proposition in the type!
equality_good = Ref1
-- This fails to type check
equality_bad : 2+3 = 7
equality_bad = Ref1
```

Equality has only one constructor, Refl. This is roughly defined as:

```
data (=) : a \rightarrow b \rightarrow Type where
Refl : x = x
```

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

```
equality_good : 2+3 = 5 -- Equality as a proposition in the type!
equality_good = Refl
-- This fails to type check
equality_bad : 2+3 = 7
equality_bad = Refl
```

Equality has only one constructor, Refl. This is roughly defined as:

```
data (=) : a -> b -> Type where
Refl : x = x
```

Looks a little obtuse... But if we need a something = blah type, we use Refl.

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

```
equality_good : 2+3 = 5 -- Equality as a proposition in the type!
equality_good = Refl
-- This fails to type check
equality_bad : 2+3 = 7
equality_bad = Refl
```

Equality has only one constructor, Ref1. This is roughly defined as:

```
data (=) : a -> b -> Type where
Refl : x = x
```

Looks a little obtuse... But if we need a something = blah type, we use Refl.

Idris will try to determine if they are equal from the definitions it knows about.

Idris has a type for equality between two things.

```
equality_good : 2+3 = 5 -- Equality as a proposition in the type!
equality_good = Refl
-- This fails to type check
equality_bad : 2+3 = 7
equality_bad = Refl
```

Equality has only one constructor, Ref1. This is roughly defined as:

```
data (=) : a -> b -> Type where
  Refl : x = x
```

Looks a little obtuse... But if we need a something = blah type, we use Refl.

Idris will try to determine if they are equal from the definitions it knows about.

E.g., 2+3 = 5, since Idris can evaluate 2+3 to 5, and see that they are identical

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f prf = ?cong_rhs
```

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f prf = ?cong_rhs
```

Seems a bit scary! Equality in the types!

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f prf = ?cong_rhs
```

Seems a bit scary! Equality in the types!

Remember that this just means we need to construct a type using Refl. Idris just needs to show that the left and right hand side are equal.

This is our goal:

This is our goal:

We can get some help by pattern matching!

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f Refl = ?cong_rhs_1
```

This is our goal:

We can get some help by pattern matching!

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f Refl = ?cong_rhs_1
```

Looks unimpressive, but it changed our goal:

Refl lets us construct equalities.

```
Refl : x = x
-- So, if we just replace the general "x" above with our "f x" we
-- would get...
Refl : f x = f x
```

Ref1 lets us construct equalities.

```
Refl : x = x
-- So, if we just replace the general "x" above with our "f x" we
-- would get...
Refl : f x = f x
```

Refl uses implicit arguments, can infer from context:

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f Refl = Refl
```

Ref1 lets us construct equalities.

```
Refl : x = x
-- So, if we just replace the general "x" above with our "f x" we
-- would get...
Refl : f x = f x
```

Refl uses implicit arguments, can infer from context:

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f Refl = Refl
```

Can also provide the argument explicitly:

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y
cong f (Refl \{x\}) = Refl \{x = f x\}
```

Ref1 lets us construct equalities.

```
Refl : x = x
-- So, if we just replace the general "x" above with our "f x" we
-- would get...
Refl : f x = f x
```

Refl uses implicit arguments, can infer from context:

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y cong f Refl = Refl
```

Can also provide the argument explicitly:

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y
cong f (Refl \{x\}) = Refl \{x = f x\}
```

Bit confusing because x is in both places, but x in the definition of Refl is in a different scope, and we substitute f x for x.

Ref1 lets us construct equalities.

```
Refl : x = x
-- So, if we just replace the general "x" above with our "f x" we
-- would get...
Refl : f x = f x
```

Refl uses implicit arguments, can infer from context:

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y cong f Refl = Refl
```

Can also provide the argument explicitly:

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y cong f (Refl \{x\}) = Refl \{x = f x\}
```

Bit confusing because x is in both places, but x in the definition of Refl is in a different scope, and we substitute f x for x.

This concludes the proof of cong!

Slightly more complicated proofs

Let's prove the associativity of addition on natural numbers!

Slightly more complicated proofs

Let's prove the associativity of addition on natural numbers!

Here's our nice unary representation of natural numbers:

```
data Nat : Type where
    0 : Nat
    S : Nat -> Nat -- Successor, +1

-- 0 = 0
-- S 0 = 1
-- S (S 0) = 2
-- etc...
```

Slightly more complicated proofs

Let's prove the associativity of addition on natural numbers!

Here's our nice unary representation of natural numbers:

```
data Nat : Type where
    0 : Nat
    S : Nat -> Nat -- Successor, +1

-- 0 = 0
-- S 0 = 1
-- S (S 0) = 2
-- etc...
```

Addition looks like this:

```
(+) : Nat -> Nat -> Nat
(+) 0 y = y
(+) (S x) y = S (x + y)
```

Associativity

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) \rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc x y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs
```

Associativity

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) \rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc x y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs
```

Case split on x...

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) \rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc 0 y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs_1
plus_assoc (S k) y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs_2
```

Associativity

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) \rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc x y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs
```

Case split on x...

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) -> x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc 0 y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs_1
plus_assoc (S k) y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs_2
```

Gives us some interesting holes...

First case...

We have:

First case...

We have:

Idris will evaluate expressions in an equality type when we use Refl, so this hole is really more like:

```
- + Main.plus_assoc_rhs_1 [P]
'_- y: Nat
z: Nat
Main.plus_assoc_rhs_1: y + z = y + z
```

First case...

We have:

Idris will evaluate expressions in an equality type when we use Ref1, so this hole is really more like:

```
- + Main.plus_assoc_rhs_1 [P]
'_- y : Nat
' - z : Nat

Main.plus_assoc_rhs_1 : y + z = y + z
```

Which is just satisfied with reflexivity...

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) -> x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc Z y z = Refl
plus_assoc (S k) y z = ?plus_assoc_rhs_2
```

Second case...

Here's our goal:

Second case...

Here's our goal:

Idris can evaluate this some to simplify as well.

It looks like we need to prove associativity again...

Second case...

Here's our goal:

Idris can evaluate this some to simplify as well.

It looks like we need to prove associativity again...

```
k + (y + z) = (k + y) + z
```

Recursion is induction!

Idris knows about recursion, so we can actually call plus_assoc on k, y, and z to get something with type...

```
attempt : (k \ y \ z : Nat) \rightarrow k + (y + z) = (k + y) + z
attempt k \ y \ z = plus_assoc \ k \ y \ z
```

Recursion is induction!

Idris knows about recursion, so we can actually call plus_assoc on k, y, and z to get something with type...

```
attempt : (k y z : Nat) -> k + (y + z) = (k + y) + z attempt k y z = plus_assoc k y z
```

So, now we just need to add S to both sides of this... Hmmm...

This is what we use cong for, if you remember...

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f (Refl {x}) = Refl {x = f x}
```

This is what we use cong for, if you remember...

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y
cong f (Refl \{x\}) = Refl \{x = f x\}
```

If we give cong a function, and an equality type, it will apply the function to both sides!

This is what we use cong for, if you remember...

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y
cong f (Refl \{x\}) = Refl \{x = f x\}
```

If we give cong a function, and an equality type, it will apply the function to both sides!

This is what we use cong for, if you remember...

```
cong : (f : a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow x = y \rightarrow f x = f y
cong f (Refl \{x\}) = Refl \{x = f x\}
```

If we give cong a function, and an equality type, it will apply the function to both sides!

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) \rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc Z y z = Refl
plus_assoc (S k) y z = cong S (plus_assoc k y z)
```

This completes the proof!

This is what we use cong for, if you remember...

```
cong : (f : a -> b) -> x = y -> f x = f y
cong f (Refl {x}) = Refl {x = f x}
```

If we give cong a function, and an equality type, it will apply the function to both sides!

```
plus_assoc : (x, y, z : Nat) \rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z
plus_assoc Z y z = Refl
plus_assoc (S k) y z = cong S (plus_assoc k y z)
```

This completes the proof!

Neat how applying a theorem is just applying a function. Also neat how recursion and induction are really just the same thing.

Tactics

Can use a different meta-language like Coq's tactics to aid proofs...

Tactics

Can use a different meta-language like Coq's tactics to aid proofs...

```
Inductive nat : Type :=
  I 0 : nat
  | S : nat -> nat.
Fixpoint plus (n m : nat) : nat :=
  match n with
    I \cap => m
   | S n' => S (plus n' m)
  end.
Theorem plus_assoc : forall (x y z : nat), plus x (plus y z) = plus (plus x
     y) z.
Proof.
  intros x y z. induction x as [| k].
  - reflexivity.
  - simpl. (* Simplify with evaluation *)
    rewrite IHk. (* Use induction hypothesis to rewrite terms *)
    reflexivity.
Qed.
```

Tactics

Can use a different meta-language like Coq's tactics to aid proofs...

```
Inductive nat : Type :=
  I 0 : nat
  | S : nat -> nat.
Fixpoint plus (n m : nat) : nat :=
  match n with
    I \cap => m
   | S n' => S (plus n' m)
  end.
Theorem plus_assoc : forall (x y z : nat), plus x (plus y z) = plus (plus x
     y) z.
Proof.
 intros x y z. induction x as [| k].
 - reflexivity.
 - simpl. (* Simplify with evaluation *)
    rewrite IHk. (* Use induction hypothesis to rewrite terms *)
    reflexivity.
Qed.
```

Can allow for very succinct and easy proof development, since meta-language can perform large automated steps!

Conclusion! Questions?

Whirlwind introduction, so you probably have many!

References

- Edwin Brady. Type-Driven Development with Idris. Manning, Mar. 2017. ISBN: 9781617293023. URL: https://www.manning.com/books/type-driven-development-with-idris.
- Benjamin C. Pierce et al. Software Foundations. Version 4.2. http://www.cis.upenn.edu/bcpierce/sf. Electronic textbook, 2017.
- Philip Wadler. "Propositions As Types". In: Commun. ACM 58.12 (Nov. 2015). ISSN: 0001-0782. DOI: 10.1145/2699407. URL: http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/2699407.

These are all good resources! You should look at them!