Talking About Mathematics in a Programming Language

Donnacha Oisín Kidney October 15, 2018 What do Programming Languages Have to do with Mathematics?

Programming is Proving

A Polynomial Solver

The *p*-Adics

What do Programming Languages Have to do with Mathematics?

A Syntax that is

- Readable
- Precise
- Terse

A Syntax that is

- Readable
- Precise
- Terse

Semantics that are

- Small
- Powerful
- Consistent

Syntax that is Semantics that are

- teadable Small
- dable Small cise • Powerful

• Terse

- Consistent
 - Consister

 $Semantics/axiomatic\ core\ Some\ of\ these\ are\ conflicting!$

Why not use a programming language as our proof language?

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8-1(What do Programming Languages Have to do with
2018	Mathematics?
	☐Benefits For Programmers

Mathematics and formal language has existed for thousands of years; programming has existed for only 60!

Benefits For Programmers

• Prove things about code

```
assert(list(reversed([1,2,3])) == [3,2,1]) 

vs

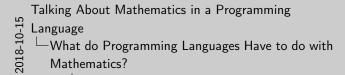
reverse-involution: \forall xs \rightarrow \text{reverse (reverse } xs) \equiv xs
```

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Mathematics?
Benefits For Programmers



Not just test!Mathematics and formal language has existed for thousands of years; programming has existed for only 60!

- Prove things about code
- Use ideas and concepts from maths—why reinvent them?

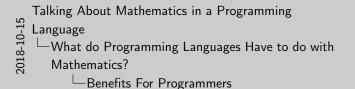


Prove things about code
 Use ideas and concepts from maths—why reinvent them?

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Mathematics and formal language has existed for thousands of years; programming has existed for only 60!

- Prove things about code
- Use ideas and concepts from maths—why reinvent them?
- Provide coherent justification for language features



Prove things about code
 Use ideas and concepts from maths—why reinvent them?

Provide coherent justification for language features

Benefits For Programmers

Mathematics and formal language has existed for thousands of years; programming has existed for only 60!

• Have a machine check your proofs

Currently, though, this is tedious

- Have a machine check your proofs
- Run your proofs

- Have a machine check your proofs
- Run your proofs
- Develop a consistent foundation for maths

- Have a machine check your proofs
- Run your proofs
- Develop a consistent foundation for maths

Wait—isn't this impossible?



Whitehead and Russell took *hundreds* of pages to prove 1 + 1 = 2

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Gödel showed that universal formal systems are incomplete

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Formal systems have improved

Gödel showed that universal formal systems are incomplete

Whitehead and Russell took *hundreds* of pages to prove 1 + 1 = 2

Formal systems have improved

Gödel showed that universal formal systems are incomplete

We don't need universal systems

Talking About Mathematics in a Programming Language -What do Programming Languages Have to do with

Use a combination of heuristics and exhaustive search to check some proposition.

-What About Automated Theorem Provers?

We have to trust the implementation.

Mathematics?

Generally regarded as:

Generally regarded as:

Inelegant

Generally regarded as:

- Inelegant
- Lacking Rigour

Generally regarded as:

- Inelegant
- Lacking Rigour
- Not Insightful

Generally regarded as:

- Inelegant
- Lacking Rigour
- Not Insightful

Require trust

Non Surveyable

The Four-Colour Theorem

Kenneth Appel and Wolfgang Haken. The Solution of the Four-Color-Map Problem.

Scientific American, 237(4):108-121, 1977

Did contain bugs!

But what if our formal language is executable?

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Can we write verified automated theorem provers?

But what if our formal language is executable? Can we write verified automated theorem provers?

Prove things about programs, and prove things about maths

But what if our formal language is executable?

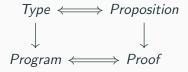
Can we write verified automated theorem provers?

Georges Gonthier. Formal Proof—The Four-Color Theorem.

Notices of the AMS, 55(11):12, 2008

Programming is Proving

The Curry-Howard Correspondence



Philip Wadler. Propositions As Types.

Commun. ACM, 58(12):75-84, November 2015

Types are Propositions

Types are (usually):

- Int
- String
- ..

How are these propositions?

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Types are Propositions



Propositions are things like "there are infinite primes", etc. Int certainly doesn't *look* like a proposition.

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20	Existential Proofs
	∟Existential Proofs

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Existential Proofs

We use a trick to translate: put a "there exists" before the type.

So when you see:

 $x: \mathbb{N}$

So when you see:

 $\mathbf{x}: \mathbb{N}$

Think:

 $\mathbb{N}.\mathbb{E}$

So when you see: Think: $\mathbf{x}:\,\mathbb{N} \qquad \qquad \exists.\mathbb{N}$

 $\ensuremath{\mathsf{NB}}$ We'll see a more powerful and precise version of \exists later.

So when you see: Think: $\mathbf{x}:\,\mathbb{N} \qquad \qquad \exists.\mathbb{N}$

NB

We'll see a more powerful and precise version of \exists later.

Proof is "by example":

So when you see: Think:

 $x: \mathbb{N}$ $\exists . \mathbb{N}$

NB

We'll see a more powerful and precise version of \exists later.

Proof is "by example":

x = 1

Programs are Proofs

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Programs are Proofs

Programs are Proofs

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Let's start working with a function as if it were a proof. The function we'll choose gets the first element from a list. It's commonly called "head" in functional programming.

Programs are Proofs

```
>>> head [1,2,3]
```

Programs are Proofs

```
>>> head [1,2,3]
```

Here's the type:

$$\mathsf{head} \,:\, \{A:\mathsf{Set}\} \to \mathsf{List}\,\, A \to A$$

Basic Agda Syntax

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Basic Agda Syntax

Basic Agda Syntax

head is what would be called a "generic" function in languages like Java. In other words, the type A is not specified in the implementation of the function.

Basic Agda Syntax

Equivalent in other languages:

```
Haskell head :: [a] -> a
```

Swift func head<A>(xs : [A]) -> A {

Basic Agda Syntax

Equivalent in other languages:

```
Haskell head :: [a] -> a
```

Swift func head<A>(xs : [A]) \rightarrow A {

head : $\{A : \mathsf{Set}\} \to \mathsf{List}\ A \to A$

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Basic Agda Syntax



In Agda, you must supply the type to the function: the curly brackets mean the argument is implicit.

Basic Agda Syntax

Equivalent in other languages:

```
Haskell head :: [a] -> a

Swift func head<A>(xs : [A]) -> A {
```

head : $\{A: \mathsf{Set}\} \to \mathsf{List}\ A \to A$ "Takes a list of things, and returns one of those things".

The Proposition is False!

```
>>> head []
error "head: empty list"
```

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The Proposition is False!

The Proposition is False!

>>> head []

error "head: empty list"

head isn't defined on the empty list, so the function doesn't exist. In other words, its type is a false proposition.

The Proposition is False!

```
>>> head [] error "head: empty list" head: \{A : Set\} \rightarrow List A \rightarrow A
```

The Proposition is False!

```
>>> head [] error "head: empty list" head: \{A: Set\} \rightarrow List \ A \rightarrow A False
```

If Agda is correct (as a formal logic):

If Agda is correct (as a formal logic):

We shouldn't be able to prove this using Agda

If Agda is correct (as a formal logic):

We shouldn't be able write this function in Agda

But Let's Try Anyway!

Function definition syntax

```
fib: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}

fib 0 = 0

fib (1+0) = 1+ 0

fib (1+(1+n)) = fib (1+n) + fib n
```

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☐But Let's Try Anyway!

Agda functions are defined (usually) with *pattern-matching*. For the natural numbers, we use the Peano numbers, which gives us 2 patterns: zero, and successor.

But Let's Try Anyway!

```
\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{length} : \left\{ A : \mathsf{Set} \right\} \to \mathsf{List} \ A \to \mathbb{N} \\ & \mathsf{length} \ [] = 0 \\ & \mathsf{length} \ (x :: xs) = 1 + \mathsf{length} \ xs \end{aligned}
```

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But Let's Try Anyway!



For lists, we also have two patterns: the empty list, and the head element followed by the rest of the list.

But Let's Try Anyway!

Here's a definition for head:

$$\mathsf{head}\;(x::xs)=x$$

No!

For correct proofs, partial functions aren't allowed

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But Let's Try Anyway!

Here's a definition for head:
had (x::x) = x

Not

For correct proofs, partial functions serv's allowed

—But Let's Try Anyway!

We need to disallow functions which don't match all patterns. Array access out-of-bounds, etc., also not allowed.

But Let's Try Anyway!

We're not out of the woods yet:

No!

For correct proofs, all functions must be total

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-But Let's Try Anyway!



To disallow *this* kind of thing, we must ensure all functions are *total*. For now, assume this means "terminating".

Correctness

For the proofs to be correct, we have two extra conditions that you usually don't have in programming:

- No partial programs
- Only total programs

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-Correctness

Correctness

For the grook to be correct, we have two extra conditions that you usually not to been in programming.

• No partial registers

• Only total programs

Without these conditions, your proofs are still correct if they run.

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Enough Restrictions!
That's a lot of things we can't prove.
How about something that we can?
How about the converse?

Can we prove that head doesn't exist?

Can we prove that head doesn't exist?

After all, all we have so far is "proof by trying really hard".

Falsehood

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Falsehood

☐ Falsehood

First we'll need a notion of "False". Often it's said that you can't prove negatives in dependently typed programming: not true! We'll use the principle of explosion: "A false thing is one that can be used to prove anything".

Falsehood

Principle of Explosion "Ex falso quodlibet"
If you stand for nothing, you'll fall for anything.

Falsehood

$$\neg: \forall \{\ell\} \to \mathsf{Set} \ \ell \to \mathsf{Set} \ _$$
$$\neg \ A = A \to \{B : \mathsf{Set}\} \to B$$

Principle of Explosion
"Ex falso quodlibet"

If you stand for nothing, you'll fall for anything.

head-doesn't-exist : $\neg (\{A : \mathsf{Set}\} \to \mathsf{List}\ A \to A)$ head-doesn't-exist head = head []

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head-doesn't-exist : $-(\{A : Set\} \rightarrow List A \rightarrow A)$ head-doesn't-exist head = head []

Here's how the proof works: for falsehood, we need to prove the supplied proposition, no matter what it is. If head exists, this is no problem! Just get the head of a list of proofs of the proposition, which can be empty.

Proofs are Programs

Proofs are Programs

Types/Propositions are sets

data Bool: Set where

true : Bool false : Bool

Proofs are Programs

Types/Propositions are sets

data Bool : Set where

true : Bool false : Bool

Inhabited by proofs

Bool Proposition true, false Proof

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	└─Implication

Just a function arrow

 $A\,\rightarrow\,B$



 ${\sf A}$ implies ${\sf B}$

 $\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{B}$

A implies B

Constructivist/Intuitionistic

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Implication

 $A \to B \hspace{1cm} A \ \, \text{implies B}$ Constructivist/Intuitionistic

Give me a proof of a, I'll give you a proof of b

Booleans?

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└─Booleans?

We don't use bools to express truth and falsehood.

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Bool is just a set with two values: nothing "true" or "false" about either of them!

This is the difference between using a computer to do maths and *doing* maths in a programming language

Booleans?

data ⊥ : Set where

Contradiction

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Booleans?



Falsehood (contradiction) is the proposition with no proofs. It's equivalent to what we had previously.

Booleans?

data ⊥ : Set where Contradiction

```
ptb : \forall \{a\} \{A : \mathsf{Set}\ a\} \rightarrow \neg\ A \rightarrow A \rightarrow \bot
ptb f x = f x
```

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Booleans?

In fact, we can convert from what we had previously

Booleans?

```
data \bot: Set where Contradiction

ptb: \forall \{a\} \{A : \text{Set } a\} \rightarrow \neg A \rightarrow A \rightarrow \bot

ptb f x = f x

lnc: \neg \bot

lnc()
```

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And *to* what we had previously. Here, we use an impossible pattern.

Booleans?

Booleans?

data I : Set where Contradiction

data T : Set where Tautology

tt : T

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data 1 : Set where Contradiction

data 1 : Set where Tautology

II : T

Tautology is kind of the "boring" type.

Booleans?

Conjunction

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201	
, ,	└─Conjunction

Conjunction ("and") is represented as a data type.

Conjunction

Conjunction

```
record _ × _ (A B : Set) : Set where
  constructor _ , _
  field
    fst : A
    snd : B
```

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Conjunction

It has two type parameters, and two fields.



let snd: B

self.fst = x

self.snd = y

record \times (A B : Set) : Set where

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-Conjunction



Syntax-wise, it's equivalent to a *class* in other languages.

```
record \_\times\_ (A B : Set) : Set where constructor \_,\_ field fst : A snd : B

data \_\times\_ (A B : Set) : Set where A \to B \to A \times B
```

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 \sqsubseteq Conjunction

We could also have written it like this. (Haskell-style)

The definition is basically equivalent, but we don't get two field accessors (we'd have to define them manually) and some of the syntax is better suited to the record form.

It does show the type of the constructor, though (which is the same in both).

It's curried, which you don't need to understand: just think of it as taking two arguments.

"If you have a proof of A, and a proof of B, you have a proof of A and B"

```
record _ x _ (A B : Set) : Set where
  constructor _ , _
  field
    fst : A
    snd : B
```

Type Theory 2-Tuple

```
record _ × _ (A B : Set) : Set where
  constructor _ , _
  field
    fst : A
    snd : B
```

Set Theory Cartesian Product

$$\{t,f\}\times\{1,2,3\}=\{(t,1),(f,1),(t,2),(f,2),(t,3),(f,3)\}$$

```
record _ × _ (A B : Set) : Set where
  constructor _ , _
  field
    fst : A
    snd : B
```

Familiar identities: conjunction-elimination

cnj-elim :
$$\forall \{A B\} \rightarrow A \times B \rightarrow A$$

cnj-elim = fst $A \land B \implies A$

Just a short note on currying.

-Currying

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

curry :
$$\{A \ B \ C : \mathsf{Set}\} \rightarrow (A \times B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$$

curry $f \ x \ y = f(x \ , \ y)$

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Currying

Currying $cury \cdot (A \ B \ C \ Sal) - (A \times B - C) \rightarrow A \rightarrow (B - C)$ $curry \cdot (x \ P \ f(x, y)$

Just a short note on currying.

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

The type: $A, B \rightarrow C$

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Currying



Just a short note on currying.

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The type:

 $A,B\to C$

Is isomorphic to:

$$A \to (B \to C)$$

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Just a short note on currying.

-Currying

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

The type:

$$A, B \rightarrow C$$

Is isomorphic to:

$$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$$

Because the statement:

"A and B implies C"

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Just a short note on currying.

-Currying

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

The type:

 $A, B \rightarrow C$

Is isomorphic to:

$$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$$

Because the statement:

"A and B implies C"

Is the same as saying:

"A implies B implies C"

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└─Currying

Just a short note on currying.

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

"If I'm outside and it's raining, I'm going to get wet"

 $Outside \land Raining \implies Wet$

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Currying $\label{eq:currying} {\it ``If Pro outside and it's raining, I'm going to get well'}$ ${\it Outside \land Raining} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ Wer$

 \sqsubseteq Currying

Just a short note on currying.

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

"If I'm outside and it's raining, I'm going to get wet"

$$Outside \land Raining \implies Wet$$

"When I'm outside, if it's raining I'm going to get wet"

$$Outside \implies Raining \implies Wet$$

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"If I'm outside and it's raining, I'm going to get wet"

Outside A Raining

Wet

When I'm outside, if it's raining I'm going to get wet'

Outside

Raining The going to get wet'

Currying

Currying

Just a short note on currying.

People familiar with Haskell will know what it is, I won't explain it in its entirety here, though. Just a little interesting thing on how it translates into logic.

Disjunction

```
data \_ \cup \_ (A \ B : Set) : Set where

inl : A \rightarrow A \cup B

inr : B \rightarrow A \cup B
```

Dependent Types

Dependent Types

Everything so far has been non-dependent

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Dependent Types

Dependent Types

Everything so far has been non-dependent

In other words, lots of modern languages support it. (Haskell)

Dependent Types

Everything so far has been non-dependent

Proving things using this bare-bones toolbox is difficult (though possible)

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Dependent Typos

Everything so far has been non-dependent

Proving things using this bare-bones stockes is difficult (though possible)

☐ Dependent Types

The proof that head doesn't exists, for instance, could be written in vanilla Haskell.

It's difficult to prove more complex statements using this pretty bare-bones toolbox, though, so we're going to introduce some extra handy features.

NOTE: when you prove things in non-total languages, the proofs only hold *if they terminate*. That doesn't *really* mean that they're "invalid", it just means that you have to run it for every case you want to check.

Dependent Types

Everything so far has been non-dependent

Proving things using this bare-bones toolbox is difficult (though possible)

To make things easier, we're going to add some things to our types

The □ Type

The □ Type

Upgrade the $\it function\ \it arrow$

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└─The Π Type



First, we upgrade the function arrow, so the right-hand-side can talk about the value on the left.

The ∏ Type

Upgrade the function arrow

prop:
$$(x: \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow 0 \le x$$

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—The Π Type

This lets us easily express properties

The IT Type

Upgrade the function arrow

prop : $(x : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow 0 \le x$

The ∏ Type

Upgrade the function arrow

prop:
$$(x: \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow 0 \le x$$

Now we have a proper \forall

The Σ Type

```
 \begin{array}{ll} \text{record NonZero}: \ \text{Set where} \\ \text{field} \\ \text{n}: \ \mathbb{N} \\ \text{proof}: \ 0 < n \end{array}
```

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Now, we upgrade our product types.

Later fields can refer to earlier ones.

The Equality Type

A Polynomial Solver

The p-Adics