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{-
    Agda in a hurry
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    An html rendering with syntax highlighting and internal links is available at
    https://www.cs.bham.ac.uk/~mhe/fp-learning-2017-2018/html/Agda-in-a-Hurry.html
    This is a brief introduction to Agda, originally written for
    (Haskell) functional programming students.
    Agda is a language similar to Haskell, but it includes dependent
    types, which have many uses, including writing specifications of
    functional programs.
    http://wiki.portal.chalmers.se/agda/pmwiki.php
    http://agda.readthedocs.io/en/latest/
    This tutorial doesn't cover the interactive construction of types
    and programs (and hence propositions and proofs).
    This file is also an introduction to dependent types.
    Organization:
      1. We first develop our own mini-library.
      2. We then discuss how to encode propositions as types in Agda.
      3. We then discuss list reversal, in particular the correctness
         of the "clever" algorithm that runs in linear, rather than
         quadratic, time.
      4. We conclude by giving a non-trivial example of the
         specification and proof of a non-trivial functional program
         with binary trees. This program is a direct translation of a
         Haskell program.
-}
{ -
    What Agda calls sets is what we normally call types in programming:
- }
Type = Set
{-
    The type of booleans:
-}
data Bool : Type where
  False True : Bool
if_then_else_ : \{A : Type\} \rightarrow Bool \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \rightarrow A
if False then x else y = y
if True then x else y = x
{ -
    Curly braces "{" and "}" are for implicit arguments, that we don't
    mention explictly, provided Agda can infer them. If it cannot, we
    have to write them explicitly when we call the function, enclosed
    in curly braces.
    http://wiki.portal.chalmers.se/agda/pmwiki.php?n=ReferenceManual.ImplicitArguments
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There is a slightly more general version of if_then_else_, using
     dependent types, which says that if we have P False and P True,
     then we have P b for any given b : Bool:
- }
Bool-induction : {P : Bool → Type}
                → P False
                → P True
                \rightarrow (b : Bool) \rightarrow P b
Bool-induction x y False = x
Bool-induction x y True = y
data Maybe (A : Type) : Type where
  Nothing : Maybe A
  Just
         : A → Maybe A
Maybe-induction : \{A : Type\} \{P : Maybe A \rightarrow Type\}
                 → P Nothing
                  \rightarrow ((x : A) \rightarrow P(Just x))
                  \rightarrow (m : Maybe A) \rightarrow P m
Maybe-induction p f Nothing = p
Maybe-induction p f (Just x) = f x
{ -
    This corresponds to Haskell's Either type constructor:
-}
data _+_ (A B : Type) : Type where
  inl : A \rightarrow A + B
  inr : B \rightarrow A + B
+-induction : {A B : Type} \{P : A + B \rightarrow Type\}
              \rightarrow ((x : A) \rightarrow P(inl x))
              \rightarrow ((y : B) \rightarrow P(inr y))
              \rightarrow ((z : A + B) \rightarrow P z)
+-induction f g (inl x) = f x
+-induction f g (inr y) = g y
{-
    Maybe A \cong A + 1, where 1 is the unit type.
-}
data 1 : Type where
    The empty type has no constructors:
-}
data ∅ : Type where
{ -
    The empty type has a function to any other type, defined by an empty
     set of equations. Its induction principle is a generalization of that.
-}
\varnothing-induction : {A : \varnothing \to Type} \to (e : \varnothing) \to A e
```

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Ø-induction ()
{ -
    A pattern () means that what is required is impossible, because
    the type under consideration is empty.
\varnothing-elim : {A : Type} \to \varnothing \to A
\varnothing-elim {A} = \varnothing-induction {\lambda \rightarrow A}
data List (A : Type) : Type where
 [] : List A
  :: : A → List A → List A
{-
    When we want to use an infix operator as a prefix function, we
    write underscores around it. So for example (_::_ x) is equivalent
    to \lambda xs \rightarrow x :: xs. However, we prefer to write (cons x) in this
    particular case, as (_∷_ x) occurs often in the following
    development, and we find (cons x) more readable:
-}
singleton : \{A : Type\} \rightarrow A \rightarrow List A
singleton x = x :: []
_+++_ : {A : Type} → List A → List A → List A
[]
         ++ ys = ys
(x :: xs) ++ ys = x :: (xs ++ ys)
-- Induction over lists is a functional program too:
List-induction : \{A : Type\} \{P : List A \rightarrow Type\}
                                                                       -- base case
                \rightarrow ((x : A) (xs : List A) \rightarrow P xs \rightarrow P(x :: xs)) -- induction step
                \rightarrow (xs : List A) \rightarrow P xs
List-induction base step []
                                      = base
List-induction base step (x :: xs) = step x xs (List-induction base step xs)
{ -
    Just as if_then_else_ is a particular case of Bool-induction, the
    infamous function foldr is a particular case of List-induction,
    where the type family P is constant:
-}
foldr : {A B : Type} \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B \rightarrow List A \rightarrow B
foldr \{A\} \{B\} f y = List-induction \{A\} \{P\} base step
  where
    P : List A \rightarrow Type
    P = B
    base : B
    base = y
    step : (x : A) (xs : List A) \rightarrow P xs \rightarrow P(x :: xs)
    step x _ y = f x y
{ -
    To convince ourselves that this really is the usual function
    foldr, we need to define the equality type (also known as the
    identity type), whose only constructor is refl (for reflexivity of
    equality):
-}
data _≡_ {A : Type} : A → A → Type where
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refl: (x : A) \rightarrow x \equiv x
\equiv-induction : {A : Type} {P : {x y : A} \rightarrow x \equiv y \rightarrow Type}
              \rightarrow ((x : A) \rightarrow P(refl x))
              \rightarrow (x y : A) (p : x \equiv y) \rightarrow P p
\equiv-induction r x .x (refl .x) = r x
{-
    The following can be defined from ≡-induction, but pattern
    matching on refl probably gives clearer definitions.
    The dot in front of a variable in a pattern is to deal with
    non-linearity (multiple occurrences of the same variable) of the
     pattern. The first undotted variable is pattern matched, and the
    dotted one assumes the same value.
-}
trans : \{A : Type\} \{x \ y \ z : A\} \rightarrow x \equiv y \rightarrow y \equiv z \rightarrow x \equiv z
trans (refl x) (refl .x) = refl x
sym : {A : Type} \{x \ y : A\} \rightarrow x \equiv y \rightarrow y \equiv x
sym (refl x) = refl x
ap : {A B : Type} (f : A \rightarrow B) \{x y : A\} \rightarrow x \equiv y \rightarrow f x \equiv f y
ap f (refl x) = refl (f x)
transport : \{A : Type\} \{P : A \rightarrow Type\} \{x y : A\} \rightarrow x \equiv y \rightarrow P x \rightarrow P y
transport P (refl x) p = p
   We can now formulate and prove the claim that the above
   construction does give the usual function foldr on lists:
foldr-base : {A B : Type} (f : A \rightarrow B \rightarrow B) (y : B)
           \rightarrow foldr f y [] \equiv y
foldr-base f y = refl y
foldr-step : {A B : Type} (f : A \rightarrow B \rightarrow B) (y : B) (x : A) (xs : List A)
           \rightarrow foldr f y (x :: xs) \equiv f x (foldr f y xs)
foldr-step f y x xs = refl _
{-
    In the above uses of refl in the right-hand side of an equation,
    Agda normalizes the two sides of the equation, and sees that they
    are the same, and accepts refl as a term with the required type.
    An underscore in the right-hand side of a definition represents a
    term that we don't bother to write because Agda can infer it. In
    the last example, the term can be either side of the equation we
    want to prove.
    But it has to be remarked that not all equations can be proved
    with refl. Here is an example, which needs to be done by induction
    on the list xs. But instead of using List-induction directly, we
    can have a proof by recursion on xs, like that of List-induction
    itself:
-}
++assoc : {A : Type} (xs ys zs : List A)
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\rightarrow (XS ++ YS) ++ ZS \equiv XS ++ (YS ++ ZS)
++assoc []
                ys zs = refl (ys ++ zs)
++assoc (x :: xs) ys zs = conclusion
  where
    IH: xs ++ ys ++ zs \equiv xs ++ (ys ++ zs)
    IH = ++assoc xs ys zs
    conclusion' : x :: (xs ++ ys ++ zs) \equiv x :: (xs ++ (ys ++ zs))
    conclusion' = ap (x :: ) IH
    conclusion : ((x :: xs) ++ ys) ++ zs \equiv (x :: xs) ++ (ys ++ zs)
    conclusion = conclusion'
{-
    Although the types of goal' and goal look different, they are the
    same in the sense that they simplify to the same type, applying
    the definition of _++_. In practice, we avoid conclusion' and
    define conclusion directly.
-}
{-
    In Haskell, it is possible to explicitly indicate the type of a
    subterm. In Agda we can achieve this with a user defined syntax
    extension. We use the unicode symbol ":", which looks like the
    Agda reserved symbol ":".
    What the following says is that when we write "x : A", what we
    actually mean is "id \{A\} x", where id is the identity function.
-}
id : \{A : Type\} \rightarrow A \rightarrow A
id \{A\} x = x
syntax id \{A\} x = x : A
have : \{A B : Type\} \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow B
have y = y
{-
    Notice that we can also write x : A : B (which associates as
    (x : A) : B) when the types A and B are "definitionally equal",
    meaning that they are the same when we expand the definitions.
    We exploit this to shorten the above proof while adding more
    information that is not needed for the computer to the reader:
-}
++assoc' : {A : Type} (xs ys zs : List A)
         \rightarrow (xs ++ ys) ++ zs \equiv xs ++ (ys ++ zs)
++assoc' []
                   ys zs = refl (ys ++ zs)
                         : ([] ++ ys) ++ zs \equiv [] ++ (ys ++ zs)
++assoc' (x :: xs) ys zs = (have(++assoc' xs ys zs : (xs ++ ys) ++ zs \equiv xs ++ (ys ++ zs)))
                            ap (x ::_) (++assoc' xs ys zs)
                            : x :: ((xs ++ ys) ++ zs) \equiv x :: (xs ++ (ys ++ zs))
                            : ((x :: xs) ++ ys) ++ zs \equiv (x :: xs) ++ (ys ++ zs)
    The computer can do away with this additional information via type
    inference, and so can we in principle, but not always in practice.
- }
++assoc'' : {A : Type} (xs ys zs : List A) → (xs ++ ys) ++ zs ≡ xs ++ (ys ++ zs)
++assoc'' []
                   ys zs = refl
++assoc'' (x :: xs) ys zs = ap (x :: ) (++assoc'' xs ys zs)
{-
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We now show that xs ++ [] for any list xs, by induction on xs. We
    do this in a terse way, given the above explanations.
-}
[]-right-neutral : \{X : Type\} (xs : List X) \rightarrow xs ++ [] \equiv xs
[]-right-neutral [] = refl []
[]-right-neutral (x :: xs) = ap (x ::_) ([]-right-neutral xs)
{-
List reversal.
- }
rev : {A : Type} → List A → List A
rev []
            = []
rev (x :: xs) = rev xs ++ (x :: [])
rev-++ : \{A : Type\} (xs ys : List A) \rightarrow rev (xs ++ ys) \equiv rev ys ++ rev xs
              = sym ([]-right-neutral (rev ys))
rev-++ [] ys
rev-++ (x :: xs) ys = conclusion
where
 IH : rev (xs ++ ys) \equiv rev ys ++ rev xs
  IH = rev-++ xs ys
  a : rev (xs ++ ys) ++ (x :: []) \equiv (rev ys ++ rev xs) ++ (x :: [])
  a = ap (_++ (x :: [])) IH
  b : (rev ys ++ rev xs) ++ (x :: []) \equiv rev ys ++ (rev xs ++ (x :: []))
  b = ++assoc (rev ys) (rev xs) (x :: [])
  conclusion : rev (xs ++ ys) ++ (x :: []) \equiv rev ys ++ (rev xs ++ (x :: []))
  conclusion = trans a b
rev-involutive : {A : Type} (xs : List A) → rev (rev xs) ≡ xs
rev-involutive [] = refl (rev (rev []))
rev-involutive (x :: xs) = conclusion
 IH : rev (rev xs) \equiv xs
  IH = rev-involutive xs
  a : rev (rev (x :: xs)) \equiv rev (rev xs ++ (x :: []))
  a = refl _
  b : rev (rev xs ++ (x :: [])) \equiv rev (x :: []) ++ rev (rev xs)
  b = rev-++ (rev xs) (x :: [])
  c : rev (x :: []) ++ rev (rev xs) \equiv rev (x :: []) ++ xs
  c = ap (rev (x :: []) ++_) IH
  conclusion : rev (rev (x :: xs)) \equiv (x :: xs)
  conclusion = trans a (trans b c)
{-
The above reversal function is quadratic time. It is well known that
it can be defined in linear time using rev-append. Let's prove this.
- }
rev-append : \{A : Type\} \rightarrow List A \rightarrow List A \rightarrow List A
rev-append []
                    ys = ys
rev-append (x :: xs) ys = rev-append xs (x :: ys)
rev-linear : {A : Type} → List A → List A
rev-linear xs = rev-append xs []
rev-append-spec : {A : Type}
                   (xs ys : List A)
                 → rev-append xs ys ≡ rev xs ++ ys
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rev-append-spec []
                            ys = refl ys
rev-append-spec (x :: xs) ys = conclusion
  IH: rev-append xs (x :: ys) \equiv rev xs ++ (x :: ys)
  IH = rev-append-spec xs (x :: ys)
  a : rev xs ++ ((x :: []) ++ ys) \equiv (rev xs ++ (x :: [])) ++ ys
  a = sym (++assoc (rev xs) (x :: []) ys)
  conclusion : rev-append (x :: xs) ys \equiv rev (x :: xs) ++ ys
  conclusion = trans IH a
rev-linear-correct : {A : Type}
                         (xs : List A)
                       → rev-linear xs ≡ rev xs
rev-linear-correct xs = trans (rev-append-spec xs []) ([]-right-neutral (rev xs))
{ -
    We now define the usual map function on lists in the two usual ways.
-}
map' : {A B : Type} \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow List A \rightarrow List B
map' f []
            = []
map' f (x :: xs) = f x :: map' f xs
map'' : {A B : Type} \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow List A \rightarrow List B
map'' f = foldr (\lambda x ys \rightarrow f x :: ys) []
maps-agreement : {A B : Type}
                     (f : A \rightarrow B)
                     (xs : List A)
\rightarrow map' f xs \equiv map'' f xs maps-agreement f [] = refl []
maps-agreement f(x :: xs) = conclusion
 where
  IH : map' f xs ≡ map'' f xs
  IH = maps-agreement f xs
  conclusion : f x :: map' f xs \equiv f x :: map'' f xs
  conclusion = ap (f x ::_) IH
{-
     Can choose below whether we want map = map' or map = map''.
     The proofs given below about them don't not need to be changed as
     the definition with foldr has the same definitional behaviour, as
     illustrated by the theorems foldr-base and foldr-step
     above.
-}
map : {A B : Type} \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow List A \rightarrow List B
map = map'
{-
     Some properties of map
- }
map-id : {A : Type}
          (xs : List A)
          \rightarrow map id xs \equiv xs
map-id []
                = refl []
map-id (x :: xs) = ap (x :: ) (map-id xs)
 _{\circ} : {A B C : Type} \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)
g \circ f = \lambda \times \rightarrow g (f \times)
map-∘ : {A B C : Type}
          (g : B \rightarrow C)
```

```
(f : A \rightarrow B)
                   (xs : List A)
              \rightarrow map (g \circ f) xs \equiv map g (map f xs)
map-\circ g f [] = refl []
map-\circ g f (x :: xs) = conclusion
  where
     IH: map (g \circ f) xs \equiv map g (map f xs)
    IH = map - \circ q f xs
     conclusion : g(f x) :: map(g \circ f) xs \equiv g(f x) :: map g(map f xs)
     conclusion = ap (g (f x) ::_) IH
{-
         We now define binary trees and a function to pick subtrees
         specified by a list of directions left and right.
-}
data BT (A: Type): Type where
     Empty: BT A
     Fork : A \rightarrow BT A \rightarrow BT A \rightarrow BT A
BT-induction : \{A : Type\} \{P : BT A \rightarrow Type\}
                               → P Empty
                               \rightarrow ((x : A) (l r : BT A) \rightarrow P l \rightarrow P r \rightarrow P(Fork x l r)) -- step
                               \rightarrow (t : BT A) \rightarrow P t
BT-induction {A} {P} base step Empty = base : P Empty
BT-induction \{A\} \{P\} base step \{F\} base
                                                                                                                                           (BT-induction base step r : P r)
                                                                                                            : P(Fork x l r)
data Direction: Type where
    L R : Direction
Address : Type
Address = List Direction
subtree : \{A : Type\} \rightarrow Address \rightarrow BT A \rightarrow Maybe(BT A)
isValid : {A : Type} → Address → BT A → Bool
isValid []
                                                                       = True
isValid (_ :: _) Empty
                                                                       = False
isValid (L :: ds) (Fork _ l _) = isValid ds l
isValid (R :: ds) (Fork _ _ r) = isValid ds r
{-
         If an addrees is invalid, then the function subtree gives Nothing:
-}
false-premise : \{P : Type\} \rightarrow True \equiv False \rightarrow P
false-premise ()
invalid-gives-Nothing : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
                                                   → isValid ds t ≡ False → subtree ds t ≡ Nothing
invalid-gives-Nothing {A} [] Empty p
     = false-premise(p : isValid {A} [] Empty ≡ False)
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invalid-gives-Nothing (d :: ds) Empty (refl False)
  = refl Nothing
  : Nothing ≡ Nothing
     subtree (d :: ds) Empty 	≡ Nothing
invalid-gives-Nothing [] (Fork x l r) p
  = false-premise(p : isValid [] (Fork x l r) \equiv False)
invalid-gives-Nothing (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) p
  = invalid-gives-Nothing ds l (p : isValid (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv False)
  : subtree ds l ≡ Nothing
  : subtree (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv Nothing
invalid-gives-Nothing (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) p
  = invalid-gives-Nothing ds r (p : isValid (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv False)
  : subtree ds r \equiv Nothing
  : subtree (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv Nothing
{-
    Or, in concise form:
-}
invalid-gives-Nothing' : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
                        → isValid ds t = False → subtree ds t = Nothing
invalid-gives-Nothing' []
                                     Empty
                                                     ()
invalid-gives-Nothing' (d :: ds) Empty (r invalid-gives-Nothing' [] (Fork x l r) () invalid-gives-Nothing' (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) p invalid-gives-Nothing' (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) p
                                                    (refl False) = refl Nothing
                                     (Fork x l r) ()
                                                                  = invalid-gives-Nothing' ds l p
= invalid-gives-Nothing' ds r p
{-
    We now show that if an address ds is valid for a tree t, then
    there is a tree t' with subtree ds t = Just t'.
    "There is ... with ..." can be expressed with \Sigma types, which we
    now explain and define.
    Given a type A and a type family B : A \rightarrow Type, the type \Sigma {A} B
    has as elements the pairs (x , y) with x : A and y : B x.
    The brackets in pairs are not necessary, so that we can write just
    "x , y". This is because we define comma to be a constructor,
    written as a binary operator in infix notation:
-}
record \Sigma (A : Type) (B : A \rightarrow Type) : Type where
  constructor
  field
    x : A
    y : B x
{ -
   We define special syntax to be able to write expressions involving
   \Sigma in a more friendly way, so that, for example,
        \Sigma x : A , B x
   is the type of pairs (x,y) with x : A and y : B x.
   Notice that, for some reason, the syntax declaration is backwards
   (what is defined in on the right rather than the left:
-}
syntax \Sigma A (\lambda x \rightarrow y) = \Sigma x : A , y
```

```
pr<sub>1</sub> : {A : Type} {B : A \rightarrow Type} \rightarrow (\Sigma x : A , B x) \rightarrow A
pr_1(x, y) = x
pr_2: {A : Type} {B : A \rightarrow Type} \rightarrow ((x , y) : \Sigma x : A , B x) \rightarrow B x
pr_2(x, y) = y
     Induction on \Sigma is uncurry:
- }
\Sigma-induction : {A : Type} {B : A \rightarrow Type} {P : \Sigma A B \rightarrow Type}
               \rightarrow ((x : A) (y : B x) \rightarrow P(x , y))
               \rightarrow (z : \Sigma A B) \rightarrow P z
\Sigma-induction f (x , y) = f x y
{ -
     We could have defined the projections by induction:
-}
pr_1' : {A : Type} {B : A \rightarrow Type} \rightarrow \Sigma A B \rightarrow A
pr<sub>1</sub>' {A} {B} = \Sigma-induction {A} {B} {\lambda \rightarrow A} (\lambda \times y \rightarrow x)
pr_2': {A : Type} {B : A \rightarrow Type} \rightarrow (z : \Sigma A B) \rightarrow B(pr_1 z)
pr<sub>2</sub>' {A} {B} = \Sigma-induction {A} {B} {\lambda z \rightarrow B (pr_1 z)} (\lambda x y \rightarrow y)
{-
     A particular case of \Sigma {A} C is when the family C : A \rightarrow Type is constant,
     that is, we have C \times = B for some type B, in which case we get the
     cartesian product A \times B.
-}
 _×_ : Type → Type → Type
\overline{A} \times B = \Sigma \times A , B
{ -
     We can now formulate and prove that if an address is valid, then
     it gives some subtree.
- }
false-premise' : {P : Type} → False ≡ True → P
false-premise' ()
valid-gives-just : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
                    → isValid ds t = True
                    \rightarrow \Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree ds t = Just t')
valid-gives-just {A} [] Empty p
  = (have(p : isValid \{A\} [] Empty \equiv True))
     (Empty , (refl \_ : subtree [] Empty \equiv Just Empty))
valid-gives-just {A} (d :: ds) Empty p
  = false-premise'(p : isValid {A} (d :: ds) Empty ≡ True)
valid-gives-just {A} [] (Fork x l r) p
  = Fork x l r , (refl \underline{\ } : subtree [] (Fork x l r) \equiv Just (Fork x l r))
  : \Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree [] (Fork x l r) \equiv Just t')
valid-gives-just {A} (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) p
  = valid-gives-just ds l(p:isValid(L::ds)(Fork x l r) \equiv True
                                     : isValid ds l ≡ True)
  : (\Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv Just t'))
  : \Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree ds l = Just t')
valid-gives-just {A} (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) p
  = valid-gives-just ds r (p : isValid (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) ≡ True
```

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: isValid ds r \equiv True)
  : (\Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv Just t'))
  : \Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree ds r = Just t')
{ -
    Or, in concise form:
- }
valid-gives-Just' : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
                   \rightarrow isValid ds t \equiv True \rightarrow \Sigma t' : BT A , (subtree ds t \equiv Just t')
valid-gives-Just' []
                               Empty
                                              p = Empty , (refl )
valid-gives-Just' (d :: ds) Empty
                                             ()
valid-gives-Just' []
                               (Fork x l r) p = Fork x l r , (refl _)
valid-gives-Just' (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) p = valid-gives-Just' ds l p
valid-gives-Just' (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) p = valid-gives-Just' ds r p
    We have been working with "propositions as types" and "proofs as
    (functional) programs", also known as the Curry--Howard
    interpretation of logic.
     A implies B
                                         A \rightarrow B
     A and B
                                         A \times B
     A or B
                                         A + B
     for all x : A, P(x)
                                         (x : A) \rightarrow P x
     there is x : A with P(x)
                                         \Sigma x : A , P x
     false
                                         Ø
     not A
                                         A → Ø
    (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Curry%E2%80%93Howard_correspondence)
    We now construct the list of valid addresses for a given tree. The
    construction is short, but the proof that it does produce
    precisely the valid addresses is long and requires many lemmas,
    particularly in our self-imposed absence of a library.
-}
\verb|validAddresses|: \{A : \mathsf{Type}\} \to \mathsf{BT} \ \mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{List} \ \mathsf{Address}|
validAddresses Empty
                              = singleton []
validAddresses (Fork _ l r) = (singleton [])
                               ++ (map (L ::_) (validAddresses l))
                               ++ (map (R :: ) (validAddresses r))
{ -
    The remainder of this tutorial is devoted to showing the following:
         For any given address ds and tree t : BT A,
             isValid ds t \equiv True \ if \ and \ only \ if \ ds \ is \ in \ validAddresses \ t.
    This is formulated and proved in the function main-theorem below.
    We define when an element x : A is in a list xs : List A, written
    x \in xs, borrowing the membership symbol \in from set theory:
-}
data _∈_ {A : Type} : A → List A → Type where inHead : (x : A) (xs : List A) → x ∈ x :: xs
  inTail : (x y : A) (xs : List A) \rightarrow y \in xs \rightarrow y \in x :: xs
{ -
    This is a so-called inductive definition of a predicate (the
    membership relation).
    (1) x \in x :: xs
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(2) y \in xs \rightarrow y \in x :: xs
             We construct a proof of (1) with inHead, and a proof of (2) with
             inTail.
             The following proof is by induction on "x \in xs".
- }
mapIsIn : {A B : Type} (f : A \rightarrow B) \{x : A\} \{xs : List A\}
                           \rightarrow x \in xs \rightarrow f x \in map f xs
mapIsIn f (inHead x xs) = inHead (f x) (map f xs)
                                                                                    : f x \in f x :: map f xs
                                                                                     : f x \in map f (x :: xs)
mapIsIn f (inTail x y xs i) = (have(i : y \in xs))
                                                                                                         (have(mapIsIn f i : f y ∈ map f xs))
inTail (f x) (f y) (map f xs) (mapIsIn f i)
                                                                                                   : f y \in f x :: map f xs
                                                                                                   : f y \in map f (x :: xs)
{-
             Or, in concise form:
mapIsIn' : {A B : Type} (f : A \rightarrow B) \{x : A\} \{xs : List A\}
                           \rightarrow x \in xs \rightarrow f x \in map f xs
mapIsIn' f (inHead x xs) = inHead (f x) (map f xs)
mapIsIn' f (inTail x y xs i) = inTail (f x) (f y) (map f xs) (mapIsIn' f i)
{-
             Even more concise:
- }
mapIsIn'' : {A B : Type} (f : A \rightarrow B) \{x : A\} \{xs : List A\}
                           \rightarrow x \in xs \rightarrow f x \in map f xs
mapIsIn'' _ (inHead _ _) = inHead _ _
mapIsIn'' _ (inTail _ _ x_ i) = inTail _ _ _ (mapIsIn'' _ i)
             Which means that we could have made all the "_" arguments into
             implicit arguments (greatly sacrificing clarity). Also, there is
             no guarantee that these implicit arguments will be inferrable in
             other contexts. In any case, it seems to be an art to decide which
             arguments should be left implicit with a good balance of
             conciseness and clarity.
-}
equal-heads : \{A : Type\} \{x \ y : A\} \{xs \ ys : List \ A\} \rightarrow (x :: xs) \equiv (y :: ys) \rightarrow x \equiv y
equal-heads \{A\} \{x\} \{x\}
equal-tails : \{A : Type\} \{x \ y : A\} \{xs \ ys : List \ A\} \rightarrow (x : xs) \equiv (y : ys) \rightarrow xs \equiv ys
equal-tails \{A\} \{x\} \{x\}
isInjective : \{A \ B : Type\} \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow Type
isInjective f = \{x \ y : \_\} \rightarrow f \ x \equiv f \ y \rightarrow x \equiv y
cons-injective : \{A : Type\} \{x : A\} \rightarrow isInjective(x ::_)
cons-injective \{A\} \{x\} = equal-tails \{A\} \{x\}
```

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{-
     The following is by induction on xs. We introduce an auxiliary
     function g to do this induction, with the other parameters
     fixed. Because we need to pattern-match on the value of (map f xs)
     in the induction, we introduce an extra parameter for the value ys
     of (map f xs). Agda has a special keywork "with" for that purpose,
    but we don't discuss it in this brief introduction.
-}
mapIsIn-converse : {A B : Type} \{f : A \rightarrow B\} \{x : A\} \{xs : List A\}
                     \rightarrow isInjective f \rightarrow f x \in map f xs \rightarrow x \in xs
mapIsIn-converse \{A\} \{B\} \{f\} \{x\} \{xs\} inj = g xs (map f xs) (refl_)
  where
    g: (xs: List A) (ys: List B) \rightarrow ys \equiv map f xs \rightarrow f x \in ys \rightarrow x \in xs
     g [] .(f x :: xs) () (inHead .(f x) xs)
    g[].(x' :: xs)() (inTail x'.(f x) xs i)
    g(x':xs).(fx:ys) e (inHead.(fx)ys) = conclusion
       where
         a : f x \equiv f x'
         a = have(e : f x :: ys \equiv map f (x' :: xs)
                       : f x :: ys = f x' :: map f xs)
              equal-heads e
         b : x \equiv x'
         b = inj a
         c: x \in x :: xs
         c = inHead \times xs
         conclusion : x \in x' :: xs
         conclusion = transport (\lambda x' \rightarrow x \in x' :: xs) b c
    g(x' :: xs) .(y :: ys) e(inTail y .(f x) ys i) = conclusion
       where
         et : ys \equiv map f xs
         et = have(e : y :: ys \equiv map f (x' :: xs)
                        : y :: ys = f x' :: map f xs)
               equal-tails e
         IH: f x \in ys \rightarrow x \in xs
         IH i = g \times s \cdot ys \cdot et \cdot i
         conclusion : x \in x' :: xs
         conclusion = inTail x' x xs (IH i)
{ -
     "Not A" holds, written, \negA, if A is empty, or equivalently if there
     is a function A \rightarrow \emptyset:
-}
¬ : Type → Type
\neg A = A \rightarrow \emptyset
{ -
     By induction on xs:
-}
not-in-map-if-not-in-image : {A B : Type} \{f : A \rightarrow B\} \{y : B\}
                                \rightarrow ((x : A) \rightarrow \neg(f x \equiv y)) \rightarrow (xs : List A) \rightarrow \neg(y \in map f xs)
not-in-map-if-not-in-image {A} {B} {f} {y} ni = g
  where
     remark : (x : A) \rightarrow f x \equiv y \rightarrow \emptyset
     remark = ni
    q : (xs : List A) \rightarrow y \in map f xs \rightarrow \emptyset
    g []
                  ()
    g(x :: xs) (inHead .(f x) .(map f xs))
                                                        = ni x (refl (f x))
    g(x :: xs) (inTail .(f x) .y .(map f xs) i) = g xs i
{-
```

```
By induction on zs:
-}
left-if-not-in-image : {A B : Type} {f : A \rightarrow B} {y : B} (xs : List A) {zs : List B}
                       \rightarrow ((x : A) \rightarrow \neg(f x \equiv y)) \rightarrow y \in zs ++ map f xs \rightarrow y \in zs
left-if-not-in-image \{A\} \{B\} \{f\} \{y\} xs \{zs\} ni = g zs
  where
    g : (zs : List B) \rightarrow y \in zs ++ map f xs \rightarrow y \in zs
    g[]i = (have (i : y \in map f xs))
              Ø-elim (not-in-map-if-not-in-image ni xs i) : v ∈ []
    q(z::zs) (inHead .z .(zs ++ map f xs)) = inHead z zs : z \in z :: zs
    g(z :: zs) (inTail .z y .(zs ++ map f xs) i) = inTail z y zs (g zs i : y \in zs)
{-
    By induction on xs:
-}
right-if-not-in-image : {A B : Type} \{f : A \rightarrow B\} \{y : B\} (xs : List A) \{zs : List B\}
                         \rightarrow ((x : A) \rightarrow \neg(f x \equiv y)) \rightarrow y \in map f xs ++ zs \rightarrow y \in zs
right-if-not-in-image {A} {B} {f} {y} xs {zs} ni = g xs
  where
    g : (xs : List A) \rightarrow y \in map f xs ++ zs \rightarrow y \in zs
    g[]i=i
    g(x:xs) (inHead .(f x) .(map f xs ++ zs)) = \emptyset-elim (ni x (refl (f x)))
    g(x :: xs) (inTail .(f x) y .(map f xs ++ zs) i) = g xs i
{-
    By induction on xs:
-}
inLHS: \{A : Type\} (x : A) (xs ys : List A) \rightarrow x \in xs \rightarrow x \in xs ++ ys
inLHS \{A\} x xs ys i = g xs i
  where
    g : (xs : List A) \rightarrow x \in xs \rightarrow x \in xs ++ ys
    g(x :: xs) (inHead .x .xs) = inHead x (xs ++ ys)
    g(x :: xs) (inTail .x y .xs i) = inTail x y (xs ++ ys) (g xs i)
{-
    Agda checks that the patterns in any definition are exhaustive.
    Notice that the function g doesn't have a case for the empty list
    because this case is impossible and Agda can see that from the
    definition of \in.
    By induction on xs:
-}
inRHS : {A : Type} (x : A) (xs ys : List A) \rightarrow x \in ys \rightarrow x \in xs ++ ys
inRHS \{A\} \times xs \ ys \ i = g \ xs \ i
  where
    g: (xs: List A) \rightarrow x \in ys \rightarrow x \in xs ++ ys
    g[]i=i
    g(x' :: xs) i = inTail x' x (xs ++ ys) (g xs i)
{ -
    With the above lemmas, we can finally prove our main theorem. We
    prove each direction separately.
- }
isValid-E-validAddresses : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
                             → isValid ds t ≡ True → ds ∈ validAddresses t
isValid-E-validAddresses [] Empty e
                                                         = inHead [] _ : [] E singleton []
isValid-E-validAddresses [] (Fork x l r) e
                                                        = inHead [] _ : [] E validAddresses (Fork x l r)
```

```
isValid-∈-validAddresses (L :: ds) Empty ()
isValid-E-validAddresses (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) e = inTail [] lemma
  IH : ds ∈ validAddresses l
  IH = isValid-\epsilon-validAddresses ds l (e : isValid (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv True)
  a : L :: ds E map (L :: ) (validAddresses l)
  a = mapIsIn (L :: ) IH
  lemma : L :: ds ∈ map (L ::_) (validAddresses l) ++ map (R ::_) (validAddresses r)
  lemma = inLHS (L :: ds) (map (L :: ) (validAddresses l)) (map (R :: ) (validAddresses r)) a
isValid-€-validAddresses (R :: ds) Empty ()
isValid-E-validAddresses (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) e = inTail [] lemma
  IH : ds ∈ validAddresses r
  IH = isValid-\epsilon-validAddresses ds r (e : isValid (R :: ds) (Fork x l r) \equiv True)
  a : R ∷ ds ∈ map (R ∷_) (validAddresses r)
  a = mapIsIn (R ::_) IH
  lemma : R :: ds ∈ map (L ::_) (validAddresses l) ++ map (R ::_) (validAddresses r)
  lemma = inRHS (R :: ds) (map (L ::_) (validAddresses l)) (map (R ::_) (validAddresses r)) a
E-validAddresses-implies-isValid : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
                                     → ds ∈ validAddresses t → isValid ds t ≡ True
E-validAddresses-implies-isValid {A} [] t i = refl (isValid [] t)
E-validAddresses-implies-isValid {A} (L :: ds) Empty (inTail _
                                                                           ())
\epsilon-validAddresses-implies-isValid \{A\} (L :: ds) (Fork x l r) (\overline{inTail} _ _ i) = conclusion
  where
    IH : ds ∈ validAddresses l → isValid ds l ≡ True
    IH = E-validAddresses-implies-isValid ds l
    remark : L :: ds ∈ map (L ::_) (validAddresses l) ++ map (R ::_) (validAddresses r)
    remark = i
    c : (ds : _) (vl : _) (vr : _)
      → L :: ds ∈ map (L ::_) vl ++ map (R ::_) vr → L :: ds ∈ map (L ::_) vl
    c ds vl vr = left-if-not-in-image vr ni
        ni : (es : \_) \rightarrow \neg((R :: es) \equiv (L :: ds))
        ni es ()
    b : (ds : _) (vl : _) (vr : _) \rightarrow L :: ds \in map (L ::_) vl ++ map (R ::_) vr \rightarrow ds \in vl
    b ds vl vr i = mapIsIn-converse cons-injective (c ds vl vr i)
    a : ds ∈ validAddresses l
    a = b ds (validAddresses l) (validAddresses r) i
    conclusion : isValid ds l ≡ True
    conclusion = IH a
E-validAddresses-implies-isValid {A} (R :: ds) Empty (inTail _
\mathsf{E}\text{-valid}\mathsf{Addresses}\text{-implies}\text{-isValid}\ \{\mathsf{A}\}\ (\mathsf{R}\ ::\ \mathsf{ds})\ (\mathsf{Fork}\ \mathsf{x}\ \mathsf{l}\ \mathsf{r})\ (\mathsf{inTail}\ \_\ \_\ \mathsf{i})\ =\ \mathsf{conclusion}
    IH : ds \in validAddresses r \rightarrow isValid ds r \equiv True
    IH = E-validAddresses-implies-isValid ds r
    remark : R :: ds ∈ map (L ::_) (validAddresses l) ++ map (R ::_) (validAddresses r)
    remark = i
    c : (ds : _) (vl : _) (vr : _)
      \rightarrow R :: ds \in map (L ::_) vl ++ map (R ::_) vr \rightarrow R :: ds \in map (R ::_) vr
    c ds vl vr = right-if-not-in-image vl ni
        ni : (es : \_) \rightarrow \neg((L :: es) \equiv (R :: ds))
         ni es ()
```

```
b : (ds : \_) (vl : \_) (vr : \_) \rightarrow R :: ds \in map (L ::\_) vl ++ map (R ::\_) vr \rightarrow ds \in vr
     b ds vl vr i = mapIsIn-converse cons-injective (c ds vl vr i)
     a : ds ∈ validAddresses r
     a = b ds (validAddresses l) (validAddresses r) i
     conclusion : isValid ds r \equiv True
     conclusion = IH a
{ -
     We now package the last two facts into a single one, to get our main theorem.
-}
 ⇔_ : Type → Type → Type
\overline{A} \Leftrightarrow B = (A \rightarrow B) \times (B \rightarrow A)
main-theorem : {A : Type} (ds : Address) (t : BT A)
               → isValid ds t ≡ True ⇔ ds ∈ validAddresses t
main-theorem\ ds\ t\ =\ isValid-\varepsilon-validAddresses\ ds\ t\ ,\ \varepsilon-validAddresses-implies-isValid\ ds\ t
{-
     We conclude by declaring the associativity and precedence of the
     binary operations defined above, so that many round brackets can
     be avoided. Without this, we would get syntax errors above.
-}
infixl 3 _++_
infix 2 _≡_
infix 2 _€_
infix 1 _⇔_
infixr 1 _,_
infixl 0 id
```