# Programming with (co-)inductive types in Coq 

Matthieu Sozeau

February 3rd 2014

# Programming with (co-)inductive types in Coq 

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## Last time

1. Record Types
2. Mathematical Structures and Coercions
3. Type Classes and Canonical Structures
4. Interfaces and Implementations
5. TODO Monadic Programming with Type Classes

Questions?
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## Today

In this class, we shall present how Coq allows us in practice to define data types using (co-)inductive declarations, compute on these datatypes, and reason by induction.

## Inductive declarations

An arbitrary type as assumed by:
Variable T : Type.
gives no a priori information on the nature, the number, or the properties of its inhabitants.

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## Inductive declarations

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Print bool.
Inductive bool : Set := true : bool | false : bool.

Print nat.
Inductive nat $:$ Set $:=O$ : nat $\mid S$ : nat $->$ nat.
Each such rule is called a constructor.

## Enumerated types

Enumerated types are types which list and name exhaustively their inhabitants.

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Inductive bool : Set := true : bool | false : bool.

Inductive color:Type :=
| white | black | yellow | cyan | magenta
| red | blue | green.

Check cyan.
cyan : color
Labels refer to distinct elements.

## Enumerated types: program by case analysis

Inspect the enumerated type inhabitants and assign values:
Definition my_negb (b : bool) :=
match b with true => false | false => true.

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Definition is_black_or_white (x : color) : bool := match x with
| black => true
| white => true
| _ => false
end.

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Compute: constructors are values.
Eval compute in (is_black_or_white hat).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\text { false } \\
& \text { : bool }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Enumerated types: reason by case analysis

Inspect the enumerated type inhabitants and build proofs:
Lemma bool_case : forall b : bool, b = true $\ / \mathrm{b}=$ false.
Proof.
intro b.
case b.
left; reflexivity.
right; reflexivity.
Qed.

## Enumerated types: reason by case analysis

Inspect the enumerated type inhabitants and build proofs:
Lemma is_black_or_whiteP : forall x : color, is_black_or_white $x=$ true -> $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{black}$ \/ $\mathrm{x}=$ white.
Proof.
(* Case analysis + computation *)
intro $x$; case $x$; simpl; intro e.
(* In the three first cases: e: false = true *) discriminate e.
discriminate e.
discriminate e.
(* Now: e: true = true *)
left; reflexivity.
right; reflexivity.
Qed.

## Enumerated types: reason by case analysis

Two important tactics, not specific to enumerated types:

- simpl: makes computation progress (pattern matching applied to a term starting with a constructor)
- discriminate: allows to use the fact that constructors are distincts:
- discriminate $H$ : closes a goal featuring a hypothesis H like ( H : true = false);
- discriminate: closes a goal like (0 <> S n).


## Options and partial functions

Function $f: A \rightarrow B$ defined on only a subdomain $D$ of $A$.

- Return a default value in $B$ for $x \notin D$ Arbitrary if $B$ is a variable: head of list
- Modify the return type: option $B$.

```
Inductive option:Type :=
    Some : B -> option | None : option.
```

- The program tests whether the input is inside the domain
- Similar to exceptions
- $\forall x, D x \Rightarrow g x=\operatorname{Some}(f x)$.
- Extra argument of domain: $\forall x, x \in D \rightarrow B$
- Argument erased by extraction: $D: A \rightarrow$ Prop.
- Proof irrelevance : $f \times d_{1}=f \times d_{2}$


## Recursive types

Let us craft new inductive types:
Inductive natBinTree : Set :=

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## Recursive types

Let us craft new inductive types:

```
Inductive natBinTree : Set :=
| Leaf : nat -> natBinTree
| Node : nat -> natBinTree -> natBinTree -> natBinTree.
```

Inductive term : Set :=
|Zero : term
IOne : term
|Plus : term -> term -> term
|Mult : term -> term -> term.

An inhabitant of a recursive type is built from a finite number of constructor applications.

## Recursive types: program by case analysis

We have already seen some examples of such pattern matching:

```
Definition isNotTwo x :=
    match x with
    | S (S O) => false
    | _ => true
end.
```


## Recursive types: program by case analysis

We have already seen some examples of such pattern matching:

```
Definition isNotTwo x :=
    match x with
    | S (S O) => false
    | _ => true
end.
Definition is_single_nBT (t : natBinTree) :=
match t with
|Leaf _ => true
|_ => false
end.
```


## Recursive types: proofs by case analysis

Lemma is_single_nBTP : forall t, is_single_nBT t = true -> exists n : nat, $\mathrm{t}=$ Leaf n . Proof.

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intros [ nleaf | nnode t1 t2] h.

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(* Second case: the test evaluates to false *)
simpl in h.
discriminate.

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simpl in h.
discriminate.
Qed.

## Recursive types

Constructors are injective:
Lemma inj_leaf : forall $\mathrm{x} y$, Leaf $\mathrm{x}=$ Leaf $\mathrm{y}->\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{y}$.
Proof.
intros x y hLxLy.
injection hLxLy.
trivial.
Qed.

## Recursive types: structural induction

Let us go back to the definition of natural numbers:

$$
\text { Inductive nat : Set }:=0 \text { : nat } \mid \mathrm{S}: \text { nat }->\text { nat. }
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The Inductive keyword means that at definition time, this system geneates an induction principle:
nat_ind

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\begin{aligned}
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nat_ind

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\begin{aligned}
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& \text { P 0 -> } \\
& \text { (forall n : nat, P n -> P (S n)) -> } \\
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\end{aligned}
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- Prove that the property holds for the base cases:
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- Prove that the property is transmitted inductively:
- forall t1 t2 : term, P t1 -> P t2 -> P (Plus t1 t2)
- forall t1 t2 : term, P t1 -> P t2 -> P (Mult t1 t2)


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The type term is the smallest type containing Zero and One, and closed under Plus and Mult.

## Recursive types: structural induction

The induction principles generated at definition time by the system allow to:

- Program by recursion (Fixpoint)
- Prove by induction (induction)


## Recursive types: program by structural induction

We can compute some information on the size of a term:
Fixpoint height (t : natBinTree) : nat := match t with
|Leaf _ => 0
|Node _ t1 t2 => Max.max (height t1) (height t2) + 1 end.

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|Node _ t1 t2 => Max.max (height t1) (height t2) + 1 end.

Fixpoint size (t : natBinTree) : nat := match $t$ with
|Leaf _ => 1
|Node _ t1 t2 => (size t1) + (size t2) + 1 end.

## Recursive types: program by structural induction

We can access some information contained in a term:

```
Require Import List.
Fixpoint label_at_occ (dflt : nat)
    (t : natBinTree)(u : list bool) :=
match u, t with
|nil, _ =>
    (match t with Leaf n => n | Node n _ _ => n end)
|b :: tl, t =>
    match t with
        |Leaf _ => dflt
        | Node _ t1 t2 =>
        if b then label_at_occ dflt t2 tl
        else label_at_occ dflt t1 tl
    end
end.
```


## Recursive types: proofs by structural induction

We have already seen induction at work on nats and lists. Here its goes on binary trees:

Lemma le_height_size : forall t : natBinTree, height t <= size t.
Proof.
induction t; simpl. auto.
apply plus_le_compat_r. apply max_case.
apply (le_trans _ _ _ IHt1).
apply le_plus_l.
apply (le_trans _ _ _ IHt2).
apply le_plus_r.
Qed.

## Structure of the definition of a recursive function

```
Inductive btree : Type := Leaf : btree
    | Node : btree -> btree -> btree.
```

Fixpoint get_subtree
(l:list bool) (t:btree) \{struct t\} : btree :=
match t, l with
| Empty, _ => Empty
| Node _ _, nil => t
| Node tl tr, b :: l' =>
if b then get_subtree l' tl else get_subtree l' tr
end.

- Note the recursive calls made on tl and tr.
- The recursive call should be done on a strict sub-term of the argument.
- This ensures the termination of recursive functions


## Termination

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We have to live with this ...

And we have to convince the system that all the functions we write are terminating.

## An example of recursive function: fact

Recursive call should be made on strict sub-term:

```
Fixpoint fact n :=
    match n with
    | 0 => 1
    | S n' => n * fact n'
    end.
Definition fact' :=
    fix fact1 n :=
    match n with
    | O => 1
    | S n' => n * fact1 n'
    end.
```


## An example of recursive function: div2

Recursive call can be done on not immediate sub-terms:

```
Fixpoint div2 n :=
    match n with
    | \(S\left(S n^{\prime}\right)=>S\left(\operatorname{div} 2 n^{\prime}\right)\)
    | _ => 0
    end.
```

A sub-term of strict sub-term is a strict sub-term

## More general recursive calls

- It is possible to have recursive calls on results of functions.
- All cases must return a strict sub-term.
- Strict sub-terms may be obtained by applying functions on strict sub-terms.
- This functions should only return sub-terms of their arguments. (not necessarily strict ones).
- The system checks by looking at all cases.


## Example of function that returns a sub-term

```
Definition pred (n : nat) :=
    match n with
    | 0 => n
    | S p => p
    end.
```

- In the 0 branch, the value is $n$, a (non-strict) sub-term of $n$.
- In the $S \mathrm{p}$ branch, the value is n a (strict) sub-term of n .


## Recursive function using pred

```
Fixpoint div2' (n : nat) :=
    match n with
        0 => n
    | S p => S (div2' (pred p))
    end.
```

The same trick can be played with minus which returns a sub-term of its first argument, to define euclidian division.

## Mutual recursion

It is possible to define function by mutual recursion:

```
Fixpoint even n :=
    match n with
    | 0 => true
    | S n' => odd n'
    end
with odd n :=
    match n with
    | O => false
    | S n' => even n'
    end.
```


## Lexicographic order

Sometimes termination functions is ensured by a lexicographic order on arguments. In Ocaml we can program:

```
let rec merge l1 12 =
    match l1, l2 with
    | [], _ -> 12
    | _, [] -> l1
    | x1::11', x2::12' ->
    if x1 <= x2 then
        x1 :: merge l1' l2
        else
        x2 :: merge l1 12';;
```


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        x2 :: merge l1 12';;
```

There are two recursive calls merge 11' 12 and merge 11 12'.

## Solution in Coq: internal recursion

Coq also makes it possible to describe anonymous recursive function Sometimes necessary to use them for difficult recursion patterns

```
Fixpoint merge (l1 12:list nat) : list nat :=
    match 11, 12 with
    | nil, _ => l2 | _, nil => l1
    | x1::11', x2::12' =>
    if leb x1 x2 then x1::merge l1' l2
    else
    x2 :: (fix merge_aux (12:list nat) :=
    match l2 with
    | nil => l1
    | x2::12' =>
        if leb x1 x2 then x1::merge l1' l2
        else x2:: merge_aux l2'
    end) 12'
    end.
```

The style is not very readable (use the Section instead)

## Another solution (Hugo Herbelin)

Fixpoint merge 11 12 :=
let fix merge_aux 12 := match 11, 12 with
| nil, _ => 12
| _, nil => l1
| x1::11', x2::12' =>
if leb x1 x2 then x1::merge l1' 12
else x2::merge_aux 12'
end
in merge_aux 12 .
Compute merge (2::3::5::7::nil) (3::4::10::nil).
= 2 :: 3 :: 3 :: 4 :: 5 :: 7 :: 10 :: nil
: list nat

## More general recursion

- Constraints of structural recursion may be too cumbersome.
- Sometimes a measure decreases, which cannot be expressed by structural recursion.
- The general solution provided by well-founded recursion.
- An intermediate solution provided by the command Function.


## Example using Function: fact on Z

Integers have a more complex structure than natural numbers

```
Inductive positive : Set :=
    | xH : positive (* encoding of 1 *)
    | x0 : positive -> positive (* encoding of 2*p *)
    | xI : positive -> positive. (* encoding of 2*p+1 *)
```

Inductive Z : Set :=
| Z0: Z | Zpos: positive -> Z | Zneg: positive -> Z.

- This type makes computation more efficient.
- $x-1$ is not a structural sub-term of $x$.
- For instance 3 is Zpos ( xI xH ) and 2 is Zpos ( xO xH ).


## Example using Function: fact on Z

Require Import Recdef.

Function factZ (x : Z) \{measure Zabs_nat x\} := if Zle_bool x 0 then 1 else $x *$ fact ( $x-1$ ).
1 subgoal

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ============================ \\
& \text { forall x : Z, Zle_bool x } 0 \text { = false -> } \\
& \text { (Zabs_nat (x - 1) < Zabs_nat x)\%nat }
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, we prove explicitely that the measure decreases.

## Merge again

```
Definition slen (p:list nat * list nat) :=
    length (fst p) + length (snd p).
```

Function Merge (p:list nat * list nat)
\{ measure slen p \} : list nat :=
match p with
| (nil, 12) => 12
| (l1, nil) => l1
| ( $x 1:: 11^{\prime}$ ) as 11, (x2::12') as 12) =>
if leb x1 x2 then $\mathrm{x} 1:: \mathrm{Merge}\left(11^{\prime}, 12\right)$
else x2::Merge (11,12')
end.
(* Two goals *)

Defined.

Compute Merge (2::3::5::7::nil, 3::4::10::nil).

## Well-founded Relations



Dotted lines represent any number of elementary relationships


Minimal elements are accessible


Elements whose all predecessors are accessible become accessible

..


Some time later ...





## Well founded relations in Coq

How to encode well founded relations in Coq? By crafting the type of trees with no infinite branch.

Let's try.

## Well founded relations in Coq

A type for binary trees:

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Inductive itree : Type :=
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A type for countably branching trees:
Inductive itree : Type :=
| Leaf : itree
| Node : (nat -> itree) -> itree.

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## Well founded relations in Coq

A type for countably branching trees:
Inductive itree : Type :=
| Leaf : itree
| Node : (nat -> itree) -> itree.
We can still program with inhabitants of that type:

```
Fixpoint ileft t :=
match t with
    | ILeaf => t
    | INode f => ileft (f 0)
end.
```


## Well founded relations in Coq

A (dependent) type for trees with bounded degree:
Inductive dtree' : nat -> Type :=

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| Node' : forall n,
(forall m, m < n -> dtree' m) -> dtree' n.

In fact the Leaf constructor can be removed:
Inductive dtree : nat -> Type :=
| Node : forall n,
(forall m, m < n -> dtree m) -> dtree n.
Because we can construct a (DLeaf : dtree 0) (exercise).

## Well founded relations in Coq

A (dependent) type for trees with bounded degree:
Inductive dtree : nat -> Type :=
| Node : forall n,
(forall m, m < n -> dtree m) -> dtree $n$.

## Well founded relations in Coq

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We can generalize to a binary relation R on nat:
Inductive atree (R : nat -> nat -> Prop) : nat -> Type :=
| ANode : forall n,
(forall m, R m n -> atree R m) -> atree R n.

## Well founded relations in Coq

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If it satisfies the following, this relation is for sure well founded:
Definition nat_well_founded (R : nat -> nat -> Prop) := forall $n$, atree R n.

## Well founded relations in Coq

A relation is well founded if all elements are accessible.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Inductive Acc (A : Type) ( } \mathrm{R}: \mathrm{A}->\mathrm{A}->\operatorname{Prop} \text { ) ( } \mathrm{x}: \mathrm{A}) \text { : Prop := } \\
& \text { Acc_intro : } \\
& \quad \text { (forall y : A, R y x } \rightarrow \text { Acc } \mathrm{R} \text { y) }->\text { Acc } \mathrm{R} x \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition well_founded (A:Type) (R:A->A->Prop) :=
forall a, Acc R a.

It is possible to define functions by recursion on the accessibility proof of an element (Function, Program are based on this).

## Proving that some relation is well-founded

Coq's Standard Library provides us with some useful examples of well-founded relations :

- The predicate lt over nat (but you can use measure instead)
- The predicate Zwf $c$, which is the restriction of $<$ to the interval [ $c, \infty[$ of $\mathbb{Z}$.
Libraries Relations, Wellfounded contains (dependent) cartesian product, transitive closure, lexicographic product and exponentiation.


## More examples: $\log 10$

Function $\log 10(n: Z)\{w f(Z w f 1) n\}: Z:=$ if Zlt_bool n 10 then 0 else $1+\log 10(n / 10)$.
Proof.
(* first goal *)
intros n Hleb.
unfold Zwf.
generalize (Zlt_cases n 10) (Z_div_lt n 10);rewrite Hleb. omega.
(* Second goal *)
apply Zwf_well_founded.
Defined.
(* Compute log10 2. : and wait (for a long time) ... *)

## $\log 10$ can also be defined using measure

```
Function log10 (n : Z) {measure Zabs_nat n} : Z :=
    if Zlt_bool n 10 then 0 else 1 + log10 (n / 10).
Proof.
    (* first goal *)
    intros n Hleb.
    unfold Zwf;generalize (Zlt_cases n 10); rewrite Hleb;intr
    apply Zabs_nat_lt.
    split.
    apply Z_div_pos;omega.
    apply Zdiv_lt_upper_bound;omega.
Defined.
```


## Generating one's own induction principle

Sometime, the generated induction principle is not usable.

```
Inductive tree (A:Type) :=
    | Node : A -> list (tree A) -> tree A.
```

Check tree_ind.

```
tree_ind
```

    : forall (A : Type) (P : tree A -> Prop),
    (forall (a : A) (l : list (tree A)), P (Node A a l))
    forall t : tree A, P t
    
## Generating one's own induction principle

```
my_tree_ind : forall (A : Type)
    (P : tree A -> Prop) (Pl : list (tree A) -> Prop),
    (forall a l, Pl l -> P (Node _ a l)) ->
    Pl nil ->
    (forall t l, P t -> Pl l -> Pl (t :: l)) ->
    forall t, P t
```

This is a good exercise...

## Principles of coinductive definitions

- Type (or family of types) defined by its constructors
- Values (closed normal term) begins with a constructor Construction by pattern-matching (match... with ...end)
- Biggest fixpoint $\nu X . F X$ : infinite objects
- Co-iteration: $\forall X,(X \subseteq F X) \rightarrow X \subseteq \nu X . F X$
- Co-recursion: $\forall X,(X \subseteq F(X+\nu X . F X)) \rightarrow X \subseteq \nu X . F X$
- Co-fixpoint: $f:=H(f): \nu X . F X$ Recursive calls on $f$ are guarded by the constructors of $\nu X . F X$.


## Example: streams

Variable A : Type.
CoInductive Stream : Type := Cons : A -> Stream -> Stream.

Definition hd (s:Stream) : A := match $s$ with Cons $a \quad$ _ $=$ a end.

Definition tl (s:Stream) : Stream : = match $s$ with Cons $\mathrm{a} t=>\mathrm{t}$ end.

## Example: streams

Variable A : Type.
CoInductive Stream : Type := Cons : A -> Stream -> Stream.

CoFixpoint ate (asA) $:=$ Cons a (che $a)$.

Lemma cte_hd : forall a, hd (te a) $=a$. Proof. trivial. Qed.

Lemma cte_tl : forall a, tl (te a) = te a. Proof. trivial. Qed.

Lemma cte_eq : forall a, cite $a=$ Cons $a(c t e a)$. Proof.
intros.
transitivity (Cons (hd (te a)) (tl (cte a)));
trivial.
now case (cte a) ; auto.
Qed.

## Functions should also be guarded

Filter on stream

```
Variable p:A->bool.
CoFixpoint filter (s:Stream) : Stream :=
    if p (hd s) then Cons (hd s) (filter (tl s))
    else filter (tl s)
```

Might introduce a closed term of type Stream which does not reduce to a constructor.

## Coinductive family

Notion of infinite proof:
CoFixpoint cte2 (a:A) := Cons a (Cons a (cte2 a)).
How to prove cte $a=$ cte2a?
Definition of an extentional (bisimulation) equality predicate:
CoInductive eqS (s t:Stream) : Prop :=

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { eqS_intros : hd } s=h d t->\text { eqS (tl s) (tl t) } \\
& \quad->\text { eqS } s t .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof
CoFixpoint cte_p1 a : eqS (cte a) (cte2 a) := eqS_intro (refl a) (cte_p2 a)
with cte_p2 a : eqS (cte a) (Cons a (cte2 a)) := eqS_intro (refl a) (cte_p1 a).

## A CS example

The computation monad (Megacz - PLPV'07, ...):
CoInductive comp (A : Type) :=
| Done (a : A) : comp A
| Step (c : comp A) : comp A
One Step is one "tick" of a computation.
Exercise: Show it is a monad, with special action:
eval : forall A, comp A -> nat -> option A

What's the right notion of equality on computations?
Write the Collatz function using this monad:
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collatz_conjecture.

