

Computer Supported Modeling and Reasoning

David Basin, Achim D. Brucker, Jan-Georg Smaus, and
Burkhardt Wolff

April 2005

<http://www.infsec.ethz.ch/education/permanent/csmr/>

Higher-Order Logic: Conservative Extensions

Burkhard Wolff

Outline

In the **previous lecture**, we have derived all well-known inference rules. There is now the need to scale up. Today we look at **conservative theory extensions**, an important method for this purpose.

Outline

In the **previous lecture**, we have derived all well-known inference rules. There is now the need to scale up. Today we look at **conservative theory extensions**, an important method for this purpose.

In the weeks to come, we will look at how mathematics is encoded in the Isabelle/HOL library.

Conservative Theory Extensions: Basics

Basic definitions (c.f. [GM93]):

Definition 1 (theory):

A (syntactic) **theory** T is a triple (χ, Σ, A) , where χ is a type signature, Σ a signature and A and a set of **axioms**.

Definition 2 (theory extension):

A theory $T' = (\chi', \Sigma', A')$ is an **extension** of a theory $T = (\chi, \Sigma, A)$ iff $\chi \subseteq \chi'$ and $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma'$ and $A \subseteq A'$.

Definitions (Cont.)

Definition 3 (conservative extension):

A theory extension $T' = (\chi', \Sigma', A')$ of a theory $T = (\chi, \Sigma, A)$ is **conservative** iff for the set of provable formulas Th we have

$$Th(T) = Th(T') \upharpoonright_{\Sigma},$$

where \upharpoonright_{Σ} filters away all formulas not belonging to Σ .

Counterexample:

$$\overline{\forall f :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha. Y f = f (Y f)}^{\text{fix}}$$

Consistency Preserved

Corollary 1 (consistency):

If T' is a conservative extension of T , then

$$\text{False} \notin \text{Th}(T) \Rightarrow \text{False} \notin \text{Th}(T').$$

Syntactic Schemata for Conservative Extensions

- Constant definition
- Type definition
- Constant specification
- Type specification

Will look at first two schemata now.

For the other two see [GM93].

Constant Definition

Definition 4 (constant definition):

A theory extension $T' = (\chi', \Sigma', A')$ of a theory $T = (\chi, \Sigma, A)$ is a **constant definition**, iff

- $\chi' = \chi$ and $\Sigma' = \Sigma \cup \{c :: \tau\}$, where $c \notin \text{dom}(\Sigma)$;
- $A' = A \cup \{c = E\}$;
- E does not contain c and is closed;
- no subterm of E has a type containing a type variable that is not contained in the type of c .

Constant Definitions Are Conservative

Lemma 1 (constant definitions):

Constant definitions are conservative.

Proof Sketch:

- $Th(T) \subseteq Th(T') \upharpoonright_{\Sigma}$: trivial.
- $Th(T) \supseteq Th(T') \upharpoonright_{\Sigma}$: let π' be a proof for $\phi \in Th(T') \upharpoonright_{\Sigma}$. We unfold any subterm in π' that contains c via $c = E$ into π . Then π must be a proof in T , implying $\phi \in Th(T)$.

Side Conditions

Where are those side conditions needed? What goes wrong?

Side Conditions

Where are those **side conditions** needed? What goes wrong?

Very simple example: Let $E \equiv \exists x :: \alpha y :: \alpha. x \neq y$ and suppose σ is a type inhabited by only one term, and τ is a type inhabited by at least two terms. Then we would have:

$$\begin{aligned} & c = c \quad \text{holds by } \textit{refl} \\ \implies & (\exists x :: \sigma y :: \sigma. x \neq y) = (\exists x :: \tau y :: \tau. x \neq y) \\ \implies & \textit{False} = \textit{True} \\ \implies & \textit{False} \end{aligned}$$

This explains **definition of *True***. Other (standard) example later.

More Constant Definitions in Isabelle

let — **in** —, **if** — **then** — **else** —, unique existence:

consts

Let :: [$'a$, $'a \Rightarrow 'b$] $\Rightarrow 'b$

If :: [bool, $'a$, $'a$] $\Rightarrow 'a$

defs

Let_def "Let s f \equiv f(s)"

if_def "If P x y \equiv THE z:: $'a$. (P=True \Rightarrow z=x) \wedge
(P=False \Rightarrow z=y)"

Ex1_def "Ex1(P) \equiv \exists x. P(x) \wedge (\forall y. P(y) \Rightarrow y=x)"

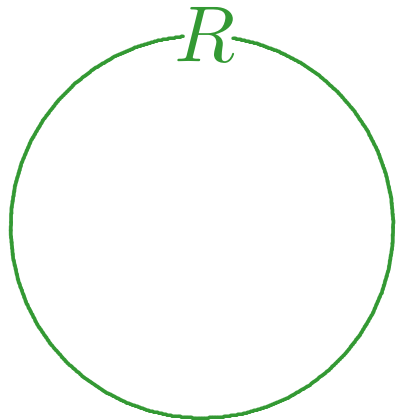
Recall: \Rightarrow is function type arrow; also recall **syntax** for

[...] \Rightarrow

Type Definitions

Type definitions, explained intuitively: we have

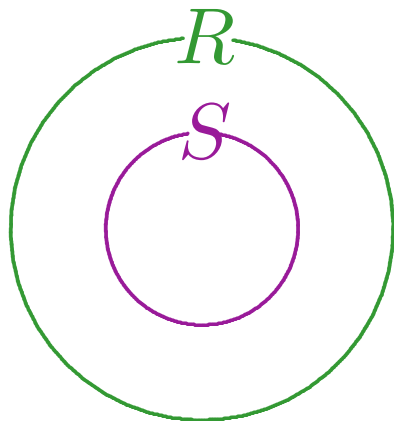
- an existing type R ;



Type Definitions

Type definitions, explained intuitively: we have

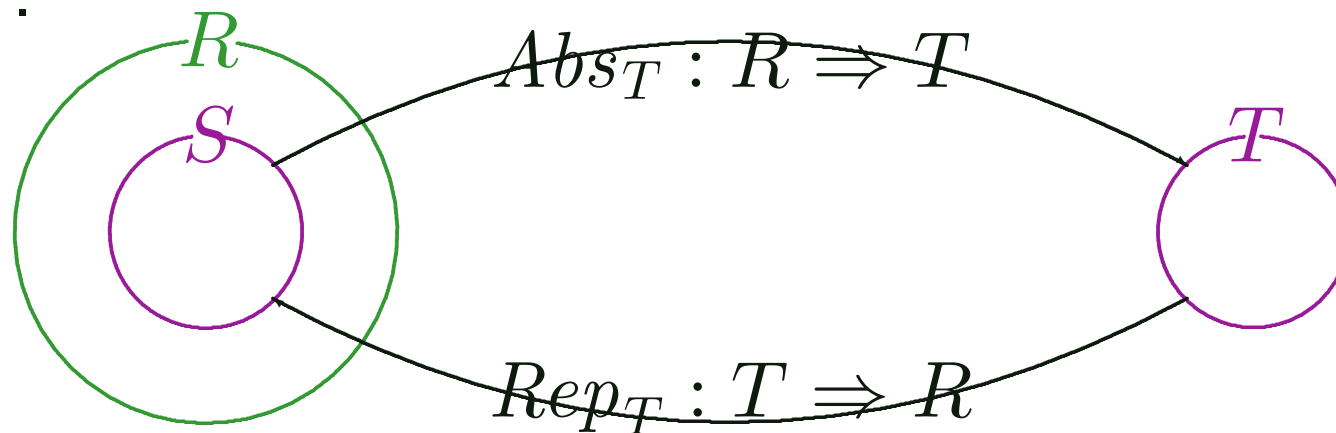
- an existing type R ;
- a predicate $S : R \Rightarrow bool$, defining a non-empty “subset” of R ;



Type Definitions

Type definitions, explained intuitively: we have

- an existing type R ;
- a predicate $S : R \Rightarrow \text{bool}$, defining a non-empty “subset” of R ;
- axioms stating an isomorphism between S and the new type T .



Type Definition: Definition

Definition 5 (type definition):

Assume a theory $Th = (\chi, \Sigma, A)$ and a type R and a term S such that $\Sigma \vdash S : R \Rightarrow bool$.

A theory extension $Th' = (\chi', \Sigma', A')$ of Th is a **type definition** for type T (where T fresh), iff

$$\begin{aligned} \chi' &= \chi \uplus \{T\}, \\ \Sigma' &= \Sigma \cup \{Abs_T : R \Rightarrow T, Rep_T : T \Rightarrow R\} \\ A' &= A \cup \{\forall x. Abs_T(Rep_T x) = x, \\ &\quad \forall x. S x \Rightarrow Rep_T(Abs_T x) = x\} \end{aligned}$$

Proof obligation $\exists x. S x$ can be proven inside HOL!

Type Definitions Are Conservative

Lemma 2 (type definitions):

Type definitions are conservative.

Proof see [GM93, pp.230].

HOL Is Rich Enough!

This may seem fishy: if a new type is always **isomorphic** to a **subset** of an **existing type**, how is this construction going to lead to a “rich” collection of types for large-scale applications?

HOL Is Rich Enough!

This may seem fishy: if a new type is always **isomorphic** to a **subset** of an **existing type**, how is this construction going to lead to a “rich” collection of types for large-scale applications?

But in fact, due to *ind* and \Rightarrow , the types in HOL are already very rich.

HOL Is Rich Enough!

This may seem fishy: if a new type is always **isomorphic** to a **subset** of an **existing type**, how is this construction going to lead to a “rich” collection of types for large-scale applications?

But in fact, due to *ind* and \Rightarrow , the types in HOL are already very rich.

We now give three examples revealing the power of type definitions.

Example: Typed Sets

General scheme,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \chi' &= \chi \uplus \{T\}, \\
 \Sigma' &= \Sigma \cup \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Abs}_T : R \Rightarrow T, \\ \text{Rep}_T : T \Rightarrow R \end{array} \right\}, \\
 A' &= A \cup \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \forall x. \text{Abs}_T (\text{Rep}_T x) = x, \\ \forall x. S x \Rightarrow \text{Rep}_T (\text{Abs}_T x) = x \end{array} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example: Typed Sets

General scheme, substituting $R \equiv \alpha \Rightarrow bool$ (α is any type variable),

$$\chi' = \chi \uplus \{T\},$$

$$\Sigma' = \Sigma \cup \{Abs_T : (\alpha \Rightarrow bool) \Rightarrow T, \\ Rep_T : T \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow bool)\}$$

$$A' = A \cup \{\forall x. Abs_T (Rep_T x) = x, \\ \forall x. S x \Rightarrow Rep_T (Abs_T x) = x\}$$

Example: Typed Sets

General scheme, substituting $R \equiv \alpha \Rightarrow bool$ (α is any type variable), $T \equiv \alpha \text{ set}$ (or *set*),

$$\chi' = \chi \uplus \{set\},$$

$$\Sigma' = \Sigma \cup \{Abs_{set} : (\alpha \Rightarrow bool) \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ set}, \\ Rep_{set} : \alpha \text{ set} \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow bool)\}$$

$$A' = A \cup \{\forall x. Abs_{set}(Rep_{set} x) = x, \\ \forall x. S x \Rightarrow Rep_{set}(Abs_{set} x) = x\}$$

Example: Typed Sets

General scheme, substituting $R \equiv \alpha \Rightarrow bool$ (α is any **type variable**), $T \equiv \alpha \text{ set}$ (or *set*), $S \equiv \lambda x :: \alpha \Rightarrow bool. True$

$$\chi' = \chi \uplus \{set\},$$

$$\Sigma' = \Sigma \cup \{Abs_{set} : (\alpha \Rightarrow bool) \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ set}, \\ Rep_{set} : \alpha \text{ set} \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow bool)\}$$

$$A' = A \cup \{\forall x. Abs_{set}(Rep_{set} x) = x, \\ \forall x. True \Rightarrow Rep_{set}(Abs_{set} x) = x\}$$

Example: Typed Sets

General scheme, substituting $R \equiv \alpha \Rightarrow bool$ (α is any **type variable**), $T \equiv \alpha \text{ set}$ (or *set*), $S \equiv \lambda x :: \alpha \Rightarrow bool. True$

$$\chi' = \chi \uplus \{set\},$$

$$\Sigma' = \Sigma \cup \{Abs_{set} : (\alpha \Rightarrow bool) \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ set}, \\ Rep_{set} : \alpha \text{ set} \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow bool)\}$$

$$A' = A \cup \{\forall x. Abs_{set}(Rep_{set} x) = x, \\ \forall x. Rep_{set}(Abs_{set} x) = x\}$$

Simplification since $S \equiv \lambda x. True$. **Proof obligation:**

$(\exists x. S x)$ trivial since $(\exists x. True) = True$. **Inhabitation is crucial!**

Sets: Remarks

Any function $r : \tau \Rightarrow \text{bool}$ can be interpreted as a set of τ ; r is called **characteristic** function. That's what $Abs_{set} r$ does; Abs_{set} is a wrapper saying “interpret r as set”.

Sets: Remarks

Any function $r : \tau \Rightarrow bool$ can be interpreted as a set of τ ; r is called **characteristic** function. That's what $Abs_{set} r$ does; Abs_{set} is a wrapper saying "interpret r as set".
 $S \equiv \lambda x. True$ and so S is **trivial** in this case.

More Constants for Sets

For convenient use of sets, we define more constants:

$$\begin{aligned}\{x \mid f x\} &\cong \text{Collect } f = \text{Abs}_{\text{set}} f \\ x \in A &= (\text{Rep}_{\text{set}} A) x \\ A \cup B &= \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\} \\ &\vdots\end{aligned}$$

Consistent set theory adequate for most of mathematics and computer science !

Here, sets are just an **example** to demonstrate type definitions. **Later** we study them for their own sake.

Example: Pairs

Consider type $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow bool$. We can regard a term $f : \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow bool$ as a representation of the pair (a, b) , where $a :: \alpha$ and $b :: \beta$, iff $f x y$ is true exactly for $x = a$ and $y = b$. Observe:

- For given a and b , there is **exactly one** such f (namely, $\lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. x = a \wedge y = b$).
- Some functions of type $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow bool$ represent pairs and others don't (e.g., the function $\lambda xy. True$ does not represent a pair). The ones that do are exactly the ones that have the form $\lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. x = a \wedge y = b$, **for some** a and b .

Type Definition for Pairs

This gives rise to a type definition where S is non-trivial:

$$R \equiv \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow \text{bool}$$

$$S \equiv \lambda f :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow \text{bool}.$$

$$\exists ab. f = \lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. x = a \wedge y = b$$

$$T \equiv \alpha \times \beta \quad (\times \text{ infix})$$

It is convenient to define a constant `Pair_Rep` (not to be confused with Rep_\times) as follows: Then

$$\text{Pair_Rep } a \ b = \lambda x :: 'a \ y :: 'b. x = a \wedge y = b.$$

Implementation in Isabelle

Isabelle provides a special syntax for type definitions:

typedef (T)

(typevars) T' = " $\{x. A(x)\}$ "

How is this linked to our **scheme**:

- the new type is called T' ;
- R is the type of x (inferred);
- S is $\lambda x. A x$;
- **constants** Abs_T and Rep_T are automatically generated.

Isabelle Syntax for Pair Example

constdefs

```
Pair_Rep :: ['a, 'b] ⇒ ['a, 'b] ⇒ bool  
"Pair_Rep ≡ (λ a b. λ x y. x=a ∧ y=b)"
```

typedef (Prod)

```
('a, 'b) "*" (infixr 20) =  
" {f. ∃ a b. f=Pair_Rep(a::'a)(b::'b)}"
```

The keyword `constdefs` introduces a constant definition. The definition and use of `Pair_Rep` is for convenience. There are “two names” `*` and `Prod`.

See [Product_Type.thy](#).

Example: Sums

An element of (α, β) **sum** is either $Inl\ a :: 'a$ or $Inr\ b :: 'b$.

Consider type $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow bool \Rightarrow bool$. We can regard

$f : \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow bool \Rightarrow bool$ as a

representation of . . .	iff $f\ x\ y\ i$ is true for . . .
-------------------------	------------------------------------

$Inl\ a$	$x = a$, y arbitrary, and $i = True$
----------	---

$Inr\ b$	x arbitrary, $y = b$, and $i = False$.
----------	--

Similar to **pairs**.

Isabelle Syntax for Sum Example

constdefs

```
Inl_Rep :: ['a, 'a, 'b, bool]  $\Rightarrow$  bool
```

```
"Inl_Rep  $\equiv$  ( $\lambda a. \lambda x y p. x=a \wedge p$ )"
```

```
Inr_Rep :: ['b, 'a, 'b, bool]  $\Rightarrow$  bool
```

```
"Inr_Rep  $\equiv$  ( $\lambda b. \lambda x y p. y=b \wedge \neg p$ )"
```

typedef (Sum)

```
('a, 'b)" + " =
```

```
" {f. ( $\exists a. f = \text{Inl\_Rep}(a :: 'a)$ )  $\vee$   
      ( $\exists b. f = \text{Inr\_Rep}(b :: 'b)$ )}"
```

See [Sum_Type.thy](#).

Exercise: How would you define a type even based on nat?

Summary

- We have introduced a method to **safely** build up larger theories

Summary

- We have introduced a method to **safely** build up larger theories
- . . . and built sums and products

Summary

- We have introduced a method to **safely** build up larger theories
- . . . and built sums and products
- . . . and sets !
(i.e. we have a method to overcome the problem of inconsistencies for the crucial problems !)

More Detailed Explanations

Axioms or Rules

Inside Isabelle, axioms are `thm`'s, and they may include Isabelle's metalevel implication \implies . For this reason, it is not required to mention *rules* explicitly.

But speaking more generally about HOL, not just its Isabelle implementation, one should better say “rules” here, i.e., objects with a horizontal line and zero or more formulas above the line and one formula below the line.

Provable Formulas

The provable formulas are terms of type *bool* derivable using the inference rules of HOL and the empty assumption list. We write $Th(T)$ for the derivable formulas of a theory T .

Closed Terms

A term is **closed** or **ground** if it does not contain any **free** variables.

Definition of *True* Is Type-Closed

True is defined as $\lambda x :: \text{bool}. x = \lambda x. x$ and not $\lambda x :: \alpha. x = \lambda x. x$. The definition must be **type-closed**.

Fixpoint Combinator

Given a function $f : \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$, a **fixpoint** of f is a term t such that $f t = t$. Now Y is supposed to be a fixpoint combinator, i.e., for any function f , the term $Y f$ should be a fixpoint of f . This is what the rule

$$\frac{}{\forall f :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha. Y f = f (Y f)} \text{fix}$$

says. Consider the example $f \equiv \neg$. Then the axiom allows us to infer $Y(\neg) = \neg(Y(\neg))$, and it is easy to derive *False* from this. This axiom is a standard example of a **non-conservative** extension of a theory.

This inconsistency is not surprising: Not every function has a fixpoint, so there cannot be a combinator returning a fixpoint of any function.

Nevertheless, fixpoints are important and must be realized in some way, as we will see [later](#).

Side Conditions

By **side conditions** we mean

- E does not contain c and is closed;
- no subterm of E has a type containing a type variable that is not contained in the type of c ;

in the definition.

The second condition also has a name: one says that the definition must be **type-closed**.

The notion of **having a type** is defined by the type assignment calculus. Since E is required to be closed, all variables occurring in E must be λ -bound, and so the type of those variables is given by the **type superscripts**.

Domains of Σ , Γ

The **domain** of Σ , denoted $dom(\Sigma)$, is $\{c \mid (c :: A) \in \Sigma \text{ for some } A\}$.

Likewise, the **domain** of Γ , denoted $dom(\Gamma)$, is $\{x \mid (x :: A) \in \Gamma \text{ for some } A\}$.

Note the **slight abuse of notation**.

constdefs

In Isabelle theory files, `consts` is the keyword preceding a sequence of constant declarations (i.e., this is where the Σ is defined), and `defs` is the keyword preceding the constant definitions defining these constants (i.e., this is where the A is defined).

`constdefs` combines the two, i.e. it allows for a sequence of both constant declarations and definitions, and the theorem identifier `c_def` is generated automatically. E.g.

`constdefs`

```
id  :: "'a ⇒ 'a"  
"id ≡ λ x. x"
```

will bind `id_def` to $id \equiv \lambda x. x$.

S

Here, S is any “predicate”, i.e., term of type $R \Rightarrow bool$, not necessarily a constant.

Fresh T

The type constructor T must not occur in χ .

What Is T ?

We use the letter χ to denote the set of type constructors (where the arity and fixity is indicated in some way). So since $T \in \chi'$, we have that T should be a type constructor. However, we abuse notation and also use T for the type obtained by applying the type constructor T to a vector of different **type variables** (as many as T requires).



The symbol \uplus denotes disjoint union, so the expression $A \uplus B$ is well-formed only when A and B have no elements in common.

What Are Abs_T and Rep_T ?

Of course we are giving a schematic definition here, so any letters we use are meta-notation.

Notice that Abs_T and Rep_T stand for new **constants**. For any new type T to be defined, two such constants must be added to the signature to provide a generic way of obtaining terms of the new type. Since the new type is isomorphic to the “subset” S , whose members are of type R , one can say that Abs_T and Rep_T provide a type conversion between (the subset S of) R and T .

So we have a new type T , and we can obtain members of the new type by applying Abs_T to a term t of type R for which $S t$ holds.

Isomorphism

The formulas

$$\forall x. Abs_T(Rep_T x) = x$$

$$\forall x. S x \Rightarrow Rep_T(Abs_T x) = x$$

state that the “set” S and the new type T are isomorphic. Note that Abs_T should not be applied to a term not in “set” S . Therefore we have the premise $S x$ in the above equation.

Note also that S could be the “trivial filter” $\lambda x. True$. In this case, Abs_T and Rep_T would provide an isomorphism between the entire type R and the new type T .

Proof Obligation

We have said *previously* that S should be a **non-empty** “subset” of T . Therefore it must be proven that $\exists x. S x$. This is related to the semantics.

Whenever a type definition is introduced in Isabelle, the proof obligation must be shown inside Isabelle/HOL. Isabelle provides the `typedef` syntax for type definitions, as we will see *later*.

Inhabitation in the *set* Example

We have $S \equiv \lambda x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \text{bool}. \text{True}$, and so in $(\exists x. Sx)$, the variable x has type $\alpha \Rightarrow \text{bool}$. The proposition $(\exists x. Sx)$ is true since the type $\alpha \Rightarrow \text{bool}$ is inhabited, e.g. by the term $\lambda x :: \alpha. \text{True}$ or $\lambda x :: \alpha. \text{False}$.

Beware of a confusion: This does not mean that the new type $\alpha \text{ set}$, defined by this construction, is the type of **non-empty** sets. There is a term for the empty set: The empty set is the term $\text{Abs}_{\text{set}} (\lambda x. \text{False})$. Recall a previous argument for the importance of inhabitation.

Trivial S

We said that in the general formalism for defining a new type, there is a term S of type $R \Rightarrow bool$ that defines a “subset” of a type R . In other words, it filters some terms from type R . Thus the idea that a predicate can be interpreted as a set is present in the general formalism for defining a new type.

Now we are talking about a particular example, the type αset . Having the idea “predicates are sets” in mind, one is **tempted to think** that in the particular example, S will take the role of defining particular sets, i.e., terms of type αset . This is not the case!

Rather, S is $\lambda x.True$ and hence trivial in this example. Moreover, in the example, R is $\alpha \Rightarrow bool$, and any term r of type R defines a set whose elements are of type α ; $Abs_{set} r$ is that set.

Collect

We have seen *Collect* before in the theory file [exercise_03](#) (naïve set theory).

Collect f is the set whose characteristic function is f . The usual concrete syntax is $\{x \mid f\ x\}$. The construct is called **set comprehension**.

Note also that *Collect* is the same as Abs_{set} here, so there is no need to have them as separate constants, and for this reason Isabelle theory file [Set.thy](#) only provides *Collect*.

The \in -Sign

We define

$$x \in A = (\text{Rep}_{set} A) x$$

Since Rep_{set} has type $\alpha \text{ set} \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \text{bool})$, this means that x is of type α and A is of type $(\alpha \Rightarrow \text{bool})$. Therefore \in is of type $\alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \text{ set}) \Rightarrow \text{bool}$ (but written *infix*).

In the the Isabelle theory [Set.thy](#), you will indeed find that the constant $\text{op} : (\text{Isabelle syntax for } \in)$ has type $[\alpha, \alpha \text{ set}] \Rightarrow \text{bool}$. However, you will not find anything directly corresponding to Rep_{set} .

One can see that this setup is equivalent to the one we have here (which was presented like that for the sake of generality). There are two axioms in [Set.thy](#):

axioms

`mem_Collect_eq [iff]:` $"(a : \{x. P(x)\}) = P(a)"$

Collect_mem_eq [simp]: " $\{x. x:A\} = A$ "

These axioms can be translated into definitions as follows:

$$a \in \{x \mid P x\} = P a \rightsquigarrow$$

$$a \in (\text{Collect } P) = P a \rightsquigarrow$$

$$a \in (\text{Abs}_{\text{set}} P) = P a \rightsquigarrow$$

$$\text{Rep}_{\text{set}}(\text{Abs}_{\text{set}} P) a = P a \rightsquigarrow \text{Rep}_{\text{set}}(\text{Abs}_{\text{set}} P) = P$$

The last step uses extensionality.

Now the second one:

$$\{x \mid x \in A\} = A \rightsquigarrow$$

$$\{x \mid (\text{Rep}_{\text{set}} A) x\} = A \rightsquigarrow$$

$$\text{Collect}(\text{Rep}_{\text{set}} A) = A$$

Ignoring some universal quantifications (these are implicit in Isabelle),

these are the isomorphy axioms for *set*.

Consistent Set Theory

Typed set theory is a conservative extension of HOL and hence consistent.

Recall the problems with untyped set theory.

“Exactly one” Term

When we say that there is “exactly one” f , this is meant modulo equality in HOL. This means that e.g. $\lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. y = b \wedge x = a$ is also such a term since $(\lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. x = a \wedge y = b) = (\lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. y = b \wedge x = a)$ is derivable in HOL.

Rep_{\times}

Rep_{\times} would be the generic name for one of the two isomorphism-defining functions.

Since Rep_{\times} can not be represented directly for lexical reasons, type definitions in Isabelle provide two names for a type, one if the type is used as such, and one for the purpose of generating the names of the isomorphism-defining functions.

Iteration of λ 's

We write $\lambda a :: \alpha b :: \beta. \lambda x :: \alpha y :: \beta. x = a \wedge y = b$ rather than $\lambda a :: \alpha b :: \beta x :: \alpha y :: \beta. x = a \wedge y = b$ to emphasize the idea that one first applies *Pair_Rep* to a and b , and the result is a function representing a pair, which can then be applied to x and y .

Sum Types

Idea of **sum** or **union** type: t is in the sum of τ and σ if t is either in τ or in σ . To do this formally in our **type system**, and also in the type system of functional programming languages like ML, t must be wrapped to signal if it is of type τ or of type σ .

For example, in ML one could define

$$\text{datatype } (\alpha, \beta) \text{ sum} = \text{Inl } \alpha \mid \text{Inr } \beta$$

So an element of (α, β) sum is either $\text{Inl } a$ where $a :: \alpha$ or $\text{Inr } b$ where $b :: \beta$.

Defining even

Suppose we have a type `nat` and a constant `+` with the expected meaning. We want to define a type `even` of even numbers. What is an even number?

Defining even

Suppose we have a type `nat` and a constant `+` with the expected meaning. We want to define a type `even` of even numbers. What is an even number?

The following choice of S is adequate:

$$S \equiv \lambda x. \exists n. x = n + n$$

Using the Isabelle scheme, this would be

```
typedef (Even)  
  even = " {x.  $\exists y. x=y+y$  }"
```

We could then go on by defining an operation `PLUS` on `even`, say as follows:

```
constdefs
```

PLUS::[even,even] \rightarrow even (**infixl** 56)

PLUS_def "op PLUS \equiv $\lambda xy.$ Abs_Even(Rep_Even(x)+Rep_Even(x))"

Note that we chose to use names `even` and `Even`, but we could have used the same name twice as well.

References

- [GM93] Michael J. C. Gordon and Tom F. Melham, editors. *Introduction to HOL*. Cambridge University Press, 1993.