Constructive analysis

Philosophy, Proof and Fundamentals

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Interval Analysis and Constructive Mathematics, Oaxaca, 13 – 18 November, 2016

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- The BHK interpretation
- Natural deduction
- Omniscience principles
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- Real numbers
- Ordering relation
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- Order completeness
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A history of constructivism

History

- Arithmetization of mathematics (Kronecker, 1887)
- Three kinds of intuition (Poincaré, 1905)
- French semi-intuitionism (Borel, 1914)
- Intuitionism (Brouwer, 1914)
- Predicativity (Weyl, 1918)
- Finitism (Skolem, 1923; Hilbert-Bernays, 1934)
- Constructive recursive mathematics (Markov, 1954)
- Constructive mathematics (Bishop, 1967)
- Logic
 - Intuitionistic logic (Heyting, 1934; Kolmogorov, 1932)

Mathematical theory

A mathematical theory consists of

- axioms describing mathematical objects in the theory, such as
 - natural numbers,
 - sets,
 - groups, etc.
- logic being used to derive theorems from the axioms

| | objects | logic |
|-----------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Interval analysis | intervals | classical logic |
| Constructive analysis | arbitrary reals | intuitionistic logic |
| Computable analysis | computable reals | classical logic |

We use the standard language of (many-sorted) first-order predicate logic based on

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▶ primitive logical operators $\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \bot, \forall, \exists$.

We introduce the abbreviations

$$\blacktriangleright \neg A \equiv A \rightarrow \bot;$$

$$\blacktriangleright A \leftrightarrow B \equiv (A \rightarrow B) \land (B \rightarrow A).$$

The BHK interpretation

The Brouwer-Heyting-Kolmogorov (BHK) interpretation of the logical operators is the following.

- A proof of A ∧ B is given by presenting a proof of A and a proof of B.
- A proof of A ∨ B is given by presenting either a proof of A or a proof of B.
- A proof of A → B is a construction which transform any proof of A into a proof of B.
- Absurdity \perp has no proof.
- A proof of ∀xA(x) is a construction which transforms any t into a proof of A(t).
- A proof of ∃xA(x) is given by presenting a t and a proof of A(t).

Natural Deduction System

We shall use \mathcal{D} , possibly with a subscript, for arbitrary deduction. We write $\Gamma \\ \mathcal{D} \\ \mathcal{A}$

to indicate that ${\mathcal D}$ is deduction with conclusion A and assumptions $\Gamma.$

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Deduction (Basis)

For each formula A,

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is a deduction with conclusion A and assumptions $\{A\}$.

Deduction (Induction step, \rightarrow I)



is a deduction with conclusion $A \rightarrow B$ and assumptions $\Gamma \setminus \{A\}$. We write

$$\frac{\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix}}{B} \\ \frac{B}{A \to B} \to \mathbf{I}$$

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Deduction (Induction step, $\rightarrow E$)



is a deduction with conclusion *B* and assumptions $\Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2$.

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Minimal logic



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Minimal logic



- ▶ In \forall E and \exists I, *t* must be free for *x* in *A*.
- In ∀I, D must not contain assumptions containing x free, and y ≡ x or y ∉ FV(A).

In ∃E, D₂ must not contain assumptions containing x free except A, x ∉ FV(C), and y ≡ x or y ∉ FV(A).



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$$\frac{\begin{bmatrix} A \to \forall xB \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} \forall xB \\ B \\ \forall E \end{bmatrix}} \to E$$
$$\frac{\frac{B}{A \to B} \to I}{\begin{bmatrix} A \to B \\ \forall E \\ \hline A \to B \end{bmatrix}} \forall I$$
$$\frac{\forall x(A \to B)}{\forall A \to B} \to I$$

where $x \notin FV(A)$.



where $x \notin FV(A)$.

Intuitionistic logic

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Intuitionistic logic is obtained from minimal logic by adding the intuitionistic absurdity rule (ex falso quodlibet).

is a deduction, then

is a deduction with conclusion A and assumptions Γ .

$$\mathcal{D}$$

 $\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \\ \mathcal{D} \\ \underline{\perp} \\ \underline{\Lambda} \ \perp_i \end{array}$



$$\frac{\begin{bmatrix} [\neg A] & [A] \\ \hline \pm & \bot_i \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} B \\ \neg A \to B \end{bmatrix}} \to E$$
$$\frac{B}{\neg A \to B} \to I$$
$$\frac{B}{\neg A \to B} \to I$$

Classical logic

Classical logic is obtained from intuitionistic logic by strengthening the absurdity rule to the classical absurdity rule (reductio ad absurdum).

 $\Gamma \mathcal{D}$

 $\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \\ \mathcal{D} \\ \frac{\perp}{A} \perp_c \end{array}$

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is a deduction, then

is a deduction with conclusion A and assumption $\Gamma \setminus \{\neg A\}$.

Example (classical logic)

The double negation elimination (DNE):



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Example (classical logic)

The principle of excluded middle (PEM):

$$\frac{\begin{bmatrix} \neg (A \lor \neg A) \end{bmatrix} \quad \frac{\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix}}{A \lor \neg A} \lor I_r}{\begin{bmatrix} \neg A \\ \neg A \end{bmatrix}} \to E}$$
$$\frac{\begin{bmatrix} \neg (A \lor \neg A) \end{bmatrix} \quad \frac{\downarrow}{A \lor \neg A} \lor I_l}{\downarrow} \to E}{\frac{\downarrow}{A \lor \neg A} \downarrow c} \to E}$$

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Example (classical logic)

De Morgan's law (DML):

 $\frac{ \begin{bmatrix} \neg (A \land B) \end{bmatrix} \quad \frac{\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} B \end{bmatrix}}{A \land B} \land \mathbf{I} \\ \xrightarrow{\frac{\bot}{\neg A} \to \mathbf{I}} \to \mathbf{E} \\ \frac{\frac{\neg A}{\neg A \lor \neg B} \lor \mathbf{I}_r}{\neg A \lor \neg B} \xrightarrow{} \overset{\frown \mathbf{F}}$ $[\neg(\neg A \lor \neg B)]$ $\frac{\frac{\bot}{\neg B} \to \mathrm{I}}{\neg A \lor \neg B} \lor \mathrm{I}_{I}$ $[\neg(\neg A \lor \neg B)]$ $\frac{\frac{\bot}{\neg A \lor \neg B} \bot_{c}}{\neg (A \land B) \to \neg A \lor \neg B} \to I$

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$\mathsf{RAA} \mathsf{\,vs} \to I$

 \perp_c : deriving *A* by deducing absurdity (\perp) from $\neg A$.

 $\begin{bmatrix} \neg A \\ \mathcal{D} \\ \frac{\bot}{A} \bot_c \end{bmatrix}$

 \rightarrow I: deriving $\neg A$ by deducing absurdity (\perp) from A.

$$\begin{array}{c} [A] \\ \mathcal{D} \\ \frac{\perp}{\neg \mathcal{A}} \rightarrow \mathbf{I} \end{array}$$

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Notations

•
$$m, n, i, j, k, \ldots \in \mathbb{N}$$

• $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \ldots \in \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$
• $\mathbf{0} = \lambda n.0$
• $\alpha \# \beta \Leftrightarrow \exists n(\alpha(n) \neq \beta(n))$

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Omniscience principles

• The limited principle of omniscience (LPO, Σ_1^0 -PEM):

$$\forall \alpha [\alpha \# \mathbf{0} \lor \neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0}]$$

• The weak limited principle of omniscience (WLPO, Π_1^0 -PEM):

$$\forall \alpha [\neg \neg \alpha \ \# \ \mathbf{0} \lor \neg \alpha \ \# \ \mathbf{0}]$$

• The lesser limited principle of omniscience (LLPO, Σ_1^0 -DML):

$$\forall \alpha \beta [\neg (\alpha \# \mathbf{0} \land \beta \# \mathbf{0}) \rightarrow \neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0} \lor \neg \beta \# \mathbf{0}]$$

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Markov's principle

• Markov's principle (MP, Σ_1^0 -DNE):

$$\forall \alpha [\neg \neg \alpha \ \# \ \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \alpha \ \# \ \mathbf{0}]$$

• Markov's principle for disjunction (MP^{\vee} , Π_1^0 -DML):

$$\forall \alpha \beta [\neg (\neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0} \land \neg \beta \# \mathbf{0}) \rightarrow \neg \neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0} \lor \neg \neg \beta \# \mathbf{0}]$$

Weak Markov's principle (WMP):

$$\forall \alpha [\forall \beta (\neg \neg \beta \# \mathbf{0} \lor \neg \neg \beta \# \alpha) \to \alpha \# \mathbf{0}]$$

Remark

We may assume without loss of generality that α (and $\beta)$ are ranging over

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- binary sequences,
- nondecreasing sequences,
- sequences with at most one nonzero term, or
- sequences with $\alpha(0) = 0$.

Relationship among principles



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- $\blacktriangleright \text{ LPO} \Leftrightarrow \text{WLPO} + \text{MP}$
- ▶ $MP \Leftrightarrow WMP + MP^{\vee}$

Remark

► MP (and hence WMP and MP[∨]) holds in constructive recursive mathematics.

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• WMP holds in intuitionism.

CZF and choice axioms

The materials in the lectures could be formalized in

the constructive Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory (CZF)

without the powerset axiom and the full separation axiom, together with the following choice axioms.

► The axiom of countable choice (AC₀):

$$\forall n \exists y \in YA(n, y) \rightarrow \exists f \in Y^{\mathbf{N}} \forall nA(n, f(n))$$

► The axiom of dependent choice (DC):

$$\forall x \in X \exists y \in XA(x, y) \rightarrow \\ \forall x \in X \exists f \in X^{\mathbf{N}}[f(0) = x \land \forall nA(f(n), f(n+1))]$$

Number systems

• The set **Z** of integers is the set $\mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$ with the equality

$$(n,m) =_{\mathsf{Z}} (n',m') \Leftrightarrow n+m'=n'+m.$$

The arithmetical relations and operations are defined on Z in a straightforwad way; natural numbers are embedded into Z by the mapping $n \mapsto (n, 0)$.

• The set **Q** of rationals is the set $\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{N}$ with the equality

$$(a,m) =_{\mathbf{Q}} (b,n) \Leftrightarrow a \cdot (n+1) =_{\mathbf{Z}} b \cdot (m+1).$$

The arithmetical relations and operations are defined on \mathbf{Q} in a straightforwad way; integers are embedded into \mathbf{Q} by the mapping $a \mapsto (a, 0)$.

Definition

A real number is a sequence $(p_n)_n$ of rationals such that

$$\forall mn \left(|p_m - p_n| < 2^{-m} + 2^{-n} \right).$$

We shall write \mathbf{R} for the set of real numbers as usual.

Remark

Rationals are embedded into **R** by the mapping $p \mapsto p^* = \lambda n.p$.

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Ordering relation

Definition

Let < be the ordering relation between real numbers $x = (p_n)_n$ and $y = (q_n)_n$ defined by

$$x < y \Leftrightarrow \exists n \left(2^{-n+2} < q_n - p_n
ight).$$

Proposition

Let $x, y, z \in \mathbf{R}$. Then

$$\neg (x < y \land y < x),$$

 $x < y \to x < z \lor z < y.$

Ordering relation

Proof.

Let $x = (p_n)_n$, $y = (q_n)_n$ and $z = (r_n)_n$, and suppose that x < y. Then there exists *n* such that $2^{-n+2} < q_n - p_n$. Setting N = n+3, either $(p_n + q_n)/2 < r_N$ or $r_N \le (p_n + q_n)/2$. In the former case, we have

$$2^{-N+2} < 2^{-n+1} - (2^{-(n+3)} + 2^{-n}) < \frac{q_n - p_n}{2} - (p_N - p_n)$$

= $\frac{p_n + q_n}{2} - p_N < r_N - p_N,$

and hence x < z. In the latter case, we have

$$2^{-N+2} < -(2^{-(n+3)}+2^{-n})+2^{-n+1} < (q_N-q_n)+\frac{q_n-p_n}{2}$$

= $q_N - \frac{p_n+q_n}{2} \le q_N - r_N,$

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and hence z < y.

Definition

We define the apartness #, the equality =, and the ordering relation \leq between real numbers x and y by

•
$$x \# y \Leftrightarrow (x < y \lor y < x),$$

•
$$x = y \Leftrightarrow \neg (x \# y),$$

•
$$x \leq y \Leftrightarrow \neg (y < x)$$
.

Lemma

Let $x, y, z \in \mathbf{R}$. Then

- $\blacktriangleright x \# y \leftrightarrow y \# x,$
- $\blacktriangleright x \# y \to x \# z \lor z \# y.$

Proposition

Let $x, y, z \in \mathbf{R}$. Then

► x = x,

$$\blacktriangleright x = y \rightarrow y = x,$$

 $x = y \land y = z \to x = z.$

Proposition

Let $x, x', y, y' \in \mathbf{R}$. Then $x = x' \land y = y' \land x < y \rightarrow x' < y',$ $\neg \neg (x < y \lor x = y \lor y < x),$ $x < y \land y < z \rightarrow x < z.$

Corollary

Let $x, x', y, y', z \in \mathbf{R}$. Then $x = x' \land y = y' \land x \# y \to x' \# y',$ $x = x' \land y = y' \land x < y \rightarrow x' < y'.$ $x \leq y \leftrightarrow \neg \neg (x < y \lor x = y),$ $\neg \neg (x < y \lor y < x),$ $\land x < y \land y < x \rightarrow x = y$, $x < y \land y < z \rightarrow x < z,$ $x < y \land y < z \rightarrow x < z,$ $x < y \land y < z \rightarrow x < z.$

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Proposition $\forall xy \in \mathbf{R}(x \# y \lor x = y) \Leftrightarrow LPO,$

Proof.

(\Leftarrow): Let $x = (p_n)_n$ and $y = (q_n)_n$, and define a binary sequence α by

$$\alpha(n) = 1 \Leftrightarrow 2^{-n+2} < |q_n - p_n|.$$

Then $\alpha \# \mathbf{0} \leftrightarrow x \# y$, and hence $x \# y \lor x = y$, by LPO. (\Rightarrow): Let α be a binary sequence α with at most one nonzero term, and define a sequence $(p_n)_n$ of rationals by

$$p_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \alpha(k) \cdot 2^{-k}.$$

Then $x = (p_n)_n \in \mathbf{R}$, and $x \# 0 \leftrightarrow \alpha \# \mathbf{0}$. Therefore $\alpha \# \mathbf{0} \lor \neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0}$, by $x \# 0 \lor x = 0$.

Proposition

$$\forall xy \in \mathbf{R}(\neg x = y \lor x = y) \Leftrightarrow \text{WLPO},$$

$$\flat \forall xy \in \mathbf{R} (x \le y \lor y \le x) \Leftrightarrow \text{LLPO},$$

$$\forall xy \in \mathbf{R}(\neg x = y \to x \ \# \ y) \Leftrightarrow \mathrm{MP},$$

$$\flat \forall xyz \in \mathbf{R}(\neg x = y \rightarrow \neg x = z \lor \neg z = y) \Leftrightarrow \mathrm{MP}^{\lor},$$

$$\forall xy \in \mathbf{R} (\forall z \in \mathbf{R} (\neg x = z \lor \neg z = y) \to x \# y) \Leftrightarrow \text{WMP}.$$

Arithmetical operations

The arithmetical operations are defined on ${\bf R}$ in a straightforwad way.

For $x = (p_n), y = (q_n) \in \mathbf{R}$, define $x + y = (p_{n+1} + q_{n+1});$ $-x = (-p_n);$ $|x| = (|p_n|);$ $\max\{x, y\} = (\max\{p_n, q_n\});$ \vdots

Cauchy completeness

Definition A sequence (x_n) of real numbers converges to $x \in \mathbf{R}$ if

$$\forall k \exists N_k \forall n \geq N_k [|x_n - x| < 2^{-k}].$$

Definition

A sequence (x_n) of real numbers is a Cauchy sequence if

$$\forall k \exists N_k \forall mn \geq N_k [|x_m - x_n| < 2^{-k}].$$

Theorem

A sequence of real numbers converges if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

Classical order completeness

Theorem

If S is an inhabited subset of **R** with an upper bound, then $\sup S$ exists.

Proposition

If every inhabited subset S of **R** with an upper bound has a supremum, then WLPO holds.

Proof.

Let α be a binary sequence. Then $S = \{\alpha(n) \mid n \in \mathbf{N}\}$ is an inhabited subset of **R** with an upper bound 2. If sup *S* exists, then either $0 < \sup S$ or $\sup S < 1$; in the former case, we have $\neg \neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0}$; in the latter case, we have $\neg \alpha \# \mathbf{0}$.

Constructive order completeness

Theorem

Let S be an inhabited subset of **R** with an upper bound. If either $\exists s \in S(a < s)$ or $\forall s \in S(s < b)$ for each $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$ with a < b, then sup S exists.

Proof.

Let $s_0 \in S$ and u_0 be an upper bound of S with $s_0 < u_0$. Define sequences (s_n) and (u_n) of real numbers by

$$s_{n+1} = (2s_n + u_n)/3, u_{n+1} = u_n$$
 if $\exists s \in S[(2s_n + u_n)/3 < s];$
 $s_{n+1} = s_n, u_{n+1} = (s_n + 2u_n)/3$ if $\forall s \in S[s < (s_n + 2u_n)/3].$

Note that $s_n < u_n$, $\exists s \in S(s_n \le s)$ and $\forall s \in S(s \le u_n)$ for each n. Then (s_n) and (u_n) converge to the same limit which is a supremum of S.

Constructive order completeness

Definition

A set S of real numbers is totally bounded if for each k there exist $s_0, \ldots, s_{n-1} \in S$ such that

$$\forall y \in S \exists m < n[|s_m - y| < 2^{-k}].$$

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Constructive order completeness

Proposition

An inhabited totally bounded set S of real numbers has a supremum.

Proof.

Let $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$ with a < b, and let k be such that $2^{-k} < (b-a)/2$. Then there exists $s_0, \ldots, s_{n-1} \in S$ such that

$$\forall y \in S \exists m < n[|s_m - y| < 2^{-k}].$$

Either $a < \max\{s_m \mid m < n\}$ or $\max\{s_m \mid m < n\} < (a+b)/2$. In the former case, there exists $s \in S$ such that a < s. In the latter case, for each $s \in S$ there exists m such that $|s - s_m| < 2^{-k}$, and hence

$$s < s_m + |s - s_m| < (a + b)/2 + (b - a)/2 = b.$$

Classical intermediate value theorem

Definition A function f from [0, 1] into **R** is uniformly continuous if

$$\forall k \exists M_k \forall xy \in [0,1][|x-y| < 2^{-M_k} \rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < 2^{-k}].$$

Theorem

If f is a uniformly continuous function from [0,1] into **R** with $f(0) \le 0 \le f(1)$, then there exists $x \in [0,1]$ such that f(x) = 0.

Classical intermediate value theorem

Proposition

The classical intermediate value theorem implies LLPO.

Proof.

Let $a \in \mathbf{R}$, and define a function f from [0,1] into \mathbf{R} by

$$f(x) = \min\{3(1+a)x - 1, 0\} + \max\{0, 3(1-a)x + (3a-2)\}.$$

Then f is uniformly continuous, and f(0) = -1 and f(1) = 1. If there exists $x \in [0, 1]$ such that f(x) = 0, then either 1/3 < x or x < 2/3; in the former case, we have $a \le 0$; in the latter case, we have $0 \le a$.

Constructive intermediate value theorem

Theorem If f is a uniformly continuous function from [0,1] into **R** with $f(0) \le 0 \le f(1)$, then for each k there exists $x \in [0,1]$ such that $|f(x)| < 2^{-k}$.

Constructive intermediate value theorem

Proof.

For given a k, let $l_0 = 0$ and $r_0 = 1$, and define sequences (l_n) and (r_n) by

$$\begin{split} &I_{n+1} = (I_n + r_n)/2, r_{n+1} = r_n & \text{if } f((I_n + r_n)/2) < 0, \\ &I_{n+1} = I_n, r_{n+1} = (I_n + r_n)/2 & \text{if } 0 < f((I_n + r_n)/2), \\ &I_{n+1} = (I_n + r_n)/2, r_{n+1} = (I_n + r_n)/2 & \text{if } |f((I_n + r_n)/2)| < 2^{-(k+1)}. \end{split}$$

Note that $f(I_n) < 2^{-(k+1)}$ and $-2^{-(k+1)} < f(r_n)$ for each n. Then (I_n) and (r_n) converge to the same limit $x \in [0, 1]$. Either $2^{-(k+1)} < |f(x)|$ or $|f(x)| < 2^{-k}$. In the former case, if $2^{-(k+1)} < f(x)$, then $2^{-(k+1)} < f(I_n) < 2^{-(k+1)}$ for some n, a contradiction; if $f(x) < -2^{-(k+1)}$, then $-2^{-(k+1)} < f(r_n) < -2^{-(k+1)}$ for some n, a contradiction. Therefore the latter must be the case.

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