Note that $half_1$ calls $half_2$ and vice versa. This is an example of so-called mutual recursion. This can be modeled by one function $half_{12}$ returning a pair such that $half_{12}(x) = \langle half_1(x), half_2(x) \rangle$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathit{half}_{12} \, \mathbf{0} & = & \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0} \rangle \\ \mathit{half}_{12} \, (\mathbf{s}(x)) & = & \langle \mathbf{snd} \, (\mathit{half}_{12}(x)), \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{fst} \, (\mathit{half}_{12}(x))) \\ \mathit{half} \, x & = & \mathbf{fst} \, (\mathit{half} \, x) \end{array}$$

In our notation this becomes

```
\begin{array}{rcl} \mathit{half}_{12} & = & \lambda x \in \mathbf{nat.} \ \mathbf{rec} \ x \\ & & \quad \mathbf{of} \ h(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0} \rangle \\ & & \quad | \ h(\mathbf{s}(x')) \Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{snd} \ (h(x)), \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{fst} \ (h(x))) \\ \mathit{half} & = & \lambda x \in \mathbf{nat.} \ \mathbf{fst} \ (\mathit{half}_{12} \ x) \end{array}
```

As a last example in the section, consider the subtraction function which cuts off at zero.

```
\begin{array}{rcl} minus \, \mathbf{0} \, y & = & \mathbf{0} \\ minus \, (\mathbf{s}(x')) \, \mathbf{0} & = & \mathbf{s}(x') \\ minus \, (\mathbf{s}(x')) \, (\mathbf{s}(y')) & = & minus \, x' \, y' \end{array}
```

To be presented in the schema of primitive recursion, this requires two nested case distinctions: the outermost one on the first argument x, the innermost one on the second argument y. So the result of the first application of minus must be function, which is directly represented in the definition below.

```
\begin{array}{ll} \textit{minus} &=& \lambda x \in \mathbf{nat.} \ \mathbf{rec} \ x \\ & \mathbf{of} \ m(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow \lambda y \in \mathbf{nat.} \ 0 \\ & \mid m(\mathbf{s}(x')) \Rightarrow \lambda y \in \mathbf{nat.} \ \mathbf{rec} \ y \\ & \mathbf{of} \ p(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{s}(x') \\ & \mid p(\mathbf{s}(y')) \Rightarrow (m \ (x')) \ y' \end{array}
```

Note that m is correctly applied only to x', while p is not used at all. So the inner recursion could have been written as a **case**-expression instead.

Functions defined by primitive recursion terminate. This is because the behavior of the function on $\mathbf{s}(n)$ is defined in terms of the behavior on n. We can therefore count down to $\mathbf{0}$, in which case no recursive call is allowed. An alternative approach is to take **case** as primitive and allow arbitrary recursion. In such a language it is much easier to program, but not every function terminates. We will see that for our purpose about integrating constructive reasoning and functional programming it is simpler if all functions one can write down are *total*, that is, are defined on all arguments. This is because total functions can be used to provide witnesses for propositions of the form $\forall x \in \mathbf{nat}$. $\exists y \in \mathbf{nat}$. P(x, y) by showing how to compute y from x. Functions that may not return an appropriate y cannot be used in this capacity and are generally much more difficult to reason about.

3.6 Booleans

Another simple example of a data type is provided by the Boolean type with two elements **true** and **false**. This should *not* be confused with the propositions \top and \bot . In fact, they correspond to the unit type **1** and the empty type **0**. We recall their definitions first, in analogy with the propositions.

There are no reduction rules at these types.

The Boolean type, **bool**, is instead defined by two introduction rules.

$$\frac{\overline{\mathbf{bool}\ type}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{true} \in \mathbf{bool}} \mathbf{bool} I_1 \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{false} \in \mathbf{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{false} \in \mathbf{bool}} \mathbf{bool} I_0$$

The elimination rule follows the now familiar pattern: since there are two introduction rules, we have to distinguish two cases for a given Boolean value. This could be written as

case
$$t$$
 of true $\Rightarrow s_1 \mid \mathbf{false} \Rightarrow s_0$

but we typically express the same program as an **if** t **then** s_1 **else** s_0 .

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \mathbf{bool} \qquad \Gamma \vdash s_1 \in \tau \qquad \Gamma \vdash s_0 \in \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{if} \ t \ \mathbf{then} \ s_1 \ \mathbf{else} \ s_0 \in \tau} \ \mathbf{bool} E$$

The reduction rules just distinguish the two cases for the subject of the if-expression.

if true then
$$s_1$$
 else $s_0 \implies s_1$ if false then s_1 else $s_0 \implies s_0$

Now we can define typical functions on booleans, such as and, or, and not.

$$and = \lambda x \in \mathbf{bool}. \ \lambda y \in \mathbf{bool}.$$
 $\mathbf{if} \ x \ \mathbf{then} \ y \ \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{false}$
 $or = \lambda x \in \mathbf{bool}. \ \lambda y \in \mathbf{bool}.$
 $\mathbf{if} \ x \ \mathbf{then} \ \mathbf{true} \ \mathbf{else} \ y$
 $not = \lambda x \in \mathbf{bool}.$
 $\mathbf{if} \ x \ \mathbf{then} \ \mathbf{false} \ \mathbf{else} \ \mathbf{true}$

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3.7 Lists

Another more interesting data type is that of lists. Lists can be created with elements from any type whatsoever, which means that τ list is a type for any type τ .

$$\frac{\tau \ type}{\tau \ \mathbf{list} \ type} \mathbf{list} F$$

Lists are built up from the empty list (nil) with the operation :: (pronounced "cons"), written in infix notation.

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{nil}^{\tau} \in \tau \operatorname{list}} \operatorname{list} I_{n} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \tau \qquad \Gamma \vdash s \in \tau \operatorname{list}}{\Gamma \vdash t :: s \in \tau \operatorname{list}} \operatorname{list} I_{c}$$

The elimination rule implements the schema of primitive recursion over lists. It can be specified as follows:

$$f(\mathbf{nil}) = s_n$$

 $f(x::l) = s_c(x, l, f(l))$

where we have indicated that s_c may mention x, l, and f(l), but no other occurrences of f. Again this guarantees termination.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \tau \text{ list } \qquad \Gamma \vdash s_n \in \sigma \qquad \Gamma, x \in \tau, l \in \tau \text{ list}, f(l) \in \sigma \text{ list } \vdash s_c \in \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{rec} \, t \text{ of } f(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow s_n \mid f(x :: l) \Rightarrow s_c \in \sigma} \mathbf{list} E$$

We have overloaded the **rec** constructor here—from the type of t we can always tell if it should recurse over natural numbers or lists. The reduction rules are once again recursive, as in the case for natural numbers.

Now we can define typical operations on lists via primitive recursion. A simple example is the *append* function to concatenate two lists.

$$append \ \mathbf{nil} \ k = k$$

 $append \ (x :: l') \ k = x :: (append \ l' \ k)$

In the notation of primitive recursion:

$$\begin{array}{rll} append &=& \lambda l \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}. \ \lambda k \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}. \ \mathbf{rec} \ l \\ & \mathbf{of} \ \ a(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow k \\ & \mid \ a(x :: l') \Rightarrow x :: (a \ l') \\ \vdash append &\in & \tau \ \mathbf{list} \rightarrow \tau \ \mathbf{list} \end{array}$$

Note that the last judgment is parametric in τ , a situation referred to as parametric polymorphism. In means that the judgment is valid for every type

 τ . We have encountered a similar situation, for example, when we asserted that $(A \wedge B) \supset A$ true. This judgment is parametric in A and B, and every instance of it by propositions A and B is evident, according to our derivation.

As a second example, we consider a program to reverse a list. The idea is to take elements out of the input list l and attach them to the front of a second list a one which starts out empty. The first list has been traversed, the second has accumulated the original list in reverse. If we call this function rev and the original one reverse, it satisfies the following specification.

```
\begin{array}{rcl} rev & \in & \tau \operatorname{\mathbf{list}} \to \tau \operatorname{\mathbf{list}} \to \tau \operatorname{\mathbf{list}} \\ rev \ \operatorname{\mathbf{nil}} a & = & a \\ rev \ (x :: l') \ a & = & rev \ l' \ (x :: a) \\ reverse & \in & \tau \operatorname{\mathbf{list}} \to \tau \operatorname{\mathbf{list}} \\ reverse \ l & = & rev \ l \ \operatorname{\mathbf{nil}} \end{array}
```

In programs of this kind we refer to a as the accumulator argument since it accumulates the final result which is returned in the base case. We can see that except for the additional argument a, the rev function is primitive recursive. To make this more explicit we can rewrite the definition of rev to the following equivalent form:

$$rev \ \mathbf{nil} = \lambda a. \ a$$

 $rev \ (x :: l) = \lambda a. \ rev \ l \ (x :: a)$

Now the transcription into our notation is direct.

```
\begin{array}{rcl} rev & = & \lambda l \in \tau \ \mathbf{list.} \ \mathbf{rec} \ l \\ & \mathbf{of} \ r(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow \lambda a \in \tau \ \mathbf{list.} \ a \\ & \mid r(x :: l') \Rightarrow \lambda a \in \tau \ \mathbf{list.} \ r \ (l') \ (x :: a) \end{array}
```

Finally a few simple functions which mix data types. The first counts the number of elements in a list.

```
\begin{array}{rcl} length & \in & \tau \operatorname{\bf list} \to \operatorname{\bf nat} \\ length & \operatorname{\bf nil} & = & \mathbf{0} \\ length & (x::l') & = & \operatorname{\bf s}(length \; (l')) \\ \\ length & = & \lambda x \in \tau \operatorname{\bf list.} \operatorname{\bf rec} \; x \\ & & \operatorname{\bf of} \; le(\operatorname{\bf nil}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{0} \\ & | \; le(x::l') \Rightarrow \operatorname{\bf s}(le \; (l')) \end{array}
```

The second compares two numbers for equality.

```
\begin{array}{rcl} eq & \in & \mathbf{nat} \mathop{\rightarrow} \mathbf{nat} \mathop{\rightarrow} \mathbf{bool} \\ eq & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & = & \mathbf{true} \\ eq & \mathbf{0} & (\mathbf{s}(y')) & = & \mathbf{false} \\ eq & (\mathbf{s}(x')) & \mathbf{0} & = & \mathbf{false} \\ eq & (\mathbf{s}(x')) & (\mathbf{s}(y')) & = & eq & x' & y' \end{array}
```

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As in the example of subtraction, we need to distinguish two levels.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} eq & = & \lambda x \in \mathbf{nat.\ rec}\ x \\ & \mathbf{of}\ e(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow \lambda y \in \mathbf{nat.\ rec}\ y \\ & \mathbf{of}\ f(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{true} \\ & |\ f(\mathbf{s}(y')) \Rightarrow \mathbf{false} \\ & |\ e(\mathbf{s}(x')) \Rightarrow \lambda y \in \mathbf{nat.\ rec}\ y \\ & \mathbf{of}\ f(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{false} \\ & |\ f(\mathbf{s}(y')) \Rightarrow e(x')\ y' \end{array}$$

We will see more examples of primitive recursive programming as we proceed to first order logic and quantification.

3.8 Summary of Data Types

Judgments.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \tau \ type & \tau \ \text{is a type} \\ t \in \tau & t \ \text{is a term of type} \ \tau \end{array}$$

Type Formation.

$$\frac{1}{\text{nat } type} \text{nat} F \qquad \frac{1}{\text{bool } type} \text{bool} F \qquad \frac{\tau \ type}{\tau \ \text{list } type} \text{list} F$$

Term Formation.

$$\frac{1}{\mathbf{0} \in \mathbf{nat}} \mathbf{nat} I_0 \qquad \frac{n \in \mathbf{nat}}{\mathbf{s}(n) \in \mathbf{nat}} \mathbf{nat} I_s$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \mathbf{nat} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_0 \in \tau \qquad \Gamma, x \in \mathbf{nat}, f(x) \in \tau \vdash t_s \in \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{rec} \ t \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow t_0 \mid f(\mathbf{s}(x)) \Rightarrow t_s \in \tau} \mathbf{nat} E$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{true} \in \mathbf{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{true} \in \mathbf{bool}} \mathbf{bool} I_1 \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{te} \in \mathbf{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{talse} \in \mathbf{bool}} \mathbf{bool} I_0$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \mathbf{bool} \qquad \Gamma \vdash s_1 \in \tau \qquad \Gamma \vdash s_0 \in \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{if} \ t \ \mathbf{then} \ s_1 \ \mathbf{else} \ s_0 \in \tau} \mathbf{bool} E$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{nil}^{\tau} \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{nil}^{\tau} \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}} \mathbf{list} I_n \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \tau \qquad \Gamma \vdash s \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}}{\Gamma \vdash t :: s \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}} \mathbf{list} I_c$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t \in \tau \ \mathbf{list} \qquad \Gamma \vdash s_n \in \sigma \qquad \Gamma, x \in \tau, l \in \tau \ \mathbf{list}, f(l) \in \sigma \ \mathbf{list} \vdash s_c \in \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{rec} \ t \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow s_n \mid f(x :: l) \Rightarrow s_c \in \sigma} \mathbf{list} E$$

Reductions.

```
 \begin{array}{cccc} (\mathbf{rec} \ \mathbf{0} \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow t_0 \mid f(\mathbf{s}(x)) \Rightarrow t_s) & \Longrightarrow & t_0 \\ (\mathbf{rec} \ \mathbf{s}(n) \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow t_0 \mid f(\mathbf{s}(x)) \Rightarrow t_s) & \Longrightarrow \\ & [(\mathbf{rec} \ n \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{0}) \Rightarrow t_0 \mid f(\mathbf{s}(x)) \Rightarrow t_s)/f(x)] \ [n/x] \ t_s \\ & \mathbf{if} \ \mathbf{true} \ \mathbf{then} \ s_1 \ \mathbf{else} \ s_0 & \Longrightarrow \ s_1 \\ & \mathbf{if} \ \mathbf{false} \ \mathbf{then} \ s_1 \ \mathbf{else} \ s_0 & \Longrightarrow \ s_0 \\ & (\mathbf{rec} \ \mathbf{nil} \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow s_n \mid f(x :: l) \Rightarrow s_c) & \Longrightarrow \ s_n \\ & (\mathbf{rec} \ (h :: t) \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow s_n \mid f(x :: l) \Rightarrow s_c) / f(l)] \ [h/x] \ [t/l] \ s_c \\ & [(\mathbf{rec} \ t \ \mathbf{of} \ f(\mathbf{nil}) \Rightarrow s_n \mid f(x :: l) \Rightarrow s_c) / f(l)] \ [h/x] \ [t/l] \ s_c \\ \end{array}
```

3.9 Predicates on Data Types

In the preceding sections we have introduced the concept of a type which is determined by its elements. Examples were natural numbers, Booleans, and lists. In the next chapter we will explicitly quantify over elements of types. For example, we may assert that every natural number is either even or odd. Or we may claim that any two numbers possess a greatest common divisor. In order to formulate such statements we need some basic propositions concerned with data types. In this section we will define such predicates, following our usual methodology of using introduction and elimination rules to define the meaning of propositions.

We begin with n < m, the less-than relation between natural numbers. We have the following formation rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash m \in \mathbf{nat} \quad \Gamma \vdash n \in \mathbf{nat}}{\Gamma \vdash m < n \ prop} < F$$

Note that this formation rule for propositions relies on the judgment $t \in \tau$. Consequently, we have to permit a hypothetical judgment, in case n or m mention variables declared with their type, such as $x \in \mathbf{nat}$. Thus, in general, the question whether A prop may now depend on assumptions of the form $x \in \tau$.

This has a consequence for the judgment A true. As before, we now must allow assumptions of the form B true, but in addition we must permit assumptions of the form $x \in \tau$. We still call the collection of such assumptions a *context* and continue to denote it with Γ .

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash m < n \ true}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{0} < \mathbf{s}(n) \ true} < I_0 \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash m < n \ true}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(m) < \mathbf{s}(n) \ true} < I_s$$

The second rule exhibits a new phenomenon: the relation '<' whose meaning we are trying to define appears in the premise as well as in the conclusion. In effect, we have not really introduced '<', since it already occurs. However, such a definition is still justified, since the conclusion defines the meaning of $\mathbf{s}(m) < \cdot$ in terms of $m < \cdot$. We refer to this relation as *inductively defined*. Actually we

have already seen a similar phenomenon in the second "introduction" rule for **nat**:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash n \in \mathbf{nat}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(n) \in \mathbf{nat}} \mathbf{nat} I_s$$

The type **nat** we are trying to define already occurs in the premise! So it may be better to think of this rule as a formation rule for the successor operation on natural numbers, rather than an introduction rule for natural numbers.

Returning to the less-than relation, we have to derive the elimination rules. What can we conclude from $\Gamma \vdash m < n \ true$? Since there are two introduction rules, we could try our previous approach and distinguish cases for the proof of that judgment. This, however, is somewhat awkward in this case—we postpone discussion of this option until later. Instead of distinguishing cases for the proof of the judgment, we distinguish cases for m and n. In each case, we analyse how the resulting judgment could be proven and write out the corresponding elimination rule. First, if n is zero, then the judgment can never have a normal proof, since no introduction rule applies. Therefore we are justified in concluding anything, as in the elimination rule for falsehood.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash m < \mathbf{0} \ true}{\Gamma \vdash C \ true} < E_0$$

If the $m = \mathbf{0}$ and $n = \mathbf{s}(n')$, then it could be inferred only by the first introduction rule $\langle I_0 \rangle$. This yields no information, since there are no premises to this rule. This is just as in the case of the true proposition \top .

The last remaining possibility is that both $m = \mathbf{s}(m')$ and $n = \mathbf{s}(n')$. In that case we now that m' < n', because $< I_s$ is the only rule that could have been applied.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(m') < \mathbf{s}(n') \ true}{\Gamma \vdash m' < n' \ true} < E_s$$

We summarize the formation, introduction, and elimination rules.

$$\begin{split} \frac{\Gamma \vdash n \in \mathbf{nat} \quad \Gamma \vdash m \in \mathbf{nat}}{\Gamma \vdash n < m \ prop} < & F \\ \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{n} < m \ prop}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{n} < m \ prop} < & I_0 \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash m < n \ true}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(m) < \mathbf{s}(n) \ true} < & I_s \\ \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash m < \mathbf{0} \ true}{\Gamma \vdash C \ true} < & E_0 \\ \\ no \ rule \ for \ \mathbf{0} < & \mathbf{s}(n') \end{split}$$

Now we can prove some simple relations between natural numbers. For

example:

$$\frac{- \frac{< \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{0}) \ true}{< \mathbf{l}_0} < I_0}{\cdot \vdash \mathbf{0} < \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{0})) \ true} < I_s$$

We can also establish some simple parametric properties of natural numbers.

$$\frac{m \in \mathbf{nat}, m < 0 \ true \vdash m < 0 \ true}{m \in \mathbf{nat}, m < 0 \ true \vdash \perp true} < E_0$$

$$\frac{m \in \mathbf{nat}, m < 0 \ true \vdash \perp true}{m \in \mathbf{nat} \vdash \neg (m < 0) \ true} \supset I^u$$

In the application of the $\langle E_0 \rangle$ rule, we chose $C = \bot$ in order to complete the proof of $\neg (m < \mathbf{0})$. Even slightly more complicated properties, such as $m < \mathbf{s}(m)$ require a proof by induction and are therefore postponed until Section ??.

We introduce one further relation between natural numbers, namely equality. We write $m =_{N} n$. Otherwise we follow the blueprint of the less-than relation.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash m \in \mathbf{nat} \qquad \Gamma \vdash n \in \mathbf{nat}}{\Gamma \vdash m =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} n \ prop} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} F$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{n} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} n \ true}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{0} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} \mathbf{0} \ true} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} I_0 \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash m =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} n \ true}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(m) =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} \mathbf{s}(n) \ true} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} I_s$$

$$no =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} E_{00} \ elimination \ rule \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{0} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} \mathbf{s}(n)}{\Gamma \vdash C \ true} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} E_{0s}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(m) =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} \mathbf{0} \ true}{\Gamma \vdash C \ true} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} E_{so} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}(m) =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} \mathbf{s}(n) \ true}{\Gamma \vdash m =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} n \ true} =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} E_{ss}$$

Note the difference between the function

$$eq \in \mathbf{nat} \mathop{
ightarrow} \mathbf{nat} \mathop{
ightarrow} \mathbf{bool}$$

and the proposition

$$m =_{\scriptscriptstyle N} n$$

The equality function provides a computation on natural numbers, always returning **true** or **false**. The proposition $m =_{N} n$ requires *proof*. Using induction, we can later verify a relationship between these two notions, namely that eq n m reduces to **true** if $m =_{N} n$ is true, and n m reduces to **false** if if $\neg(m =_{N} n)$.

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