Elaborating dependent (co)pattern matching

JESPER COCKX and ANDREAS ABEL, Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Chalmers and Gothenburg University, Sweden

In a dependently typed language, we can guarantee correctness of our programs by providing formal proofs. To check these proofs, the typechecker elaborates our programs and proofs from the high-level surface language into a low level core. However, this core language is by nature hard to understand by mere humans, so how can we know we proved the right thing? In this paper we study this problem in particular for dependent copattern matching, a powerful language construct for writing programs and proofs by dependent case analysis and mixed induction/coinduction. A definition by copattern matching in the surface language consists of a list of equations called clauses that are elaborated to a series of case splits structured as a case tree, which can be further translated to primitive eliminators. This second step has gotten a lot of attention in previous work, but in comparison the first step has been mostly ignored so far.

We present a dependently typed core language with inductive datatypes, coinductive record types, an identity type, and defined symbols represented by well-typed case trees. We also present an elaboration algorithm translating definitions by dependent copattern matching to a case tree in this core language. To make sure the user of our language does not have to look at the generated case tree, we prove that elaboration preserves the first-match semantics of the clauses given by the user. Based on the ideas in this paper, we reimplemented the algorithm used by Agda to check left-hand sides of definitions by pattern matching. The new implementation is at the same time more general and less complex, and fixes a number of bugs and usability issues with the old implementation. Thus this paper brings us one step closer towards a formally verified implementation of a practical dependently typed language.

1 INTRODUCTION

Dependently typed functional languages such as Agda [2017], Coq [INRIA 2017], Idris [2018], and Lean [de Moura et al. 2015] combine programming and proving into one language, so they should be at the same time expressive enough to be useful and simple enough to be sound. These apparently contradictory requirements are addressed by having two languages: a high-level surface language that focuses on expressivity and a small core language that focuses on simplicity. The main role of the typechecker is then to elaborate the high-level surface language into the low-level core.

Since the difference between the surface and core languages can be quite large, the elaboration process can be, well, elaborate. If there is an error in the elaboration process, our program or proof may still be accepted by the system but its meaning is not what was intended [Pollack 1998]. As an extreme example, we may think we have proven an interesting theorem when in fact, we have only proven something trivial. This may be detected in a later phase when trying to use this proof, or it may not be detected at all. Unfortunately, there is no bulletproof way to avoid such problems: each part of the elaboration process has to be verified independently to make sure it produces something sensible.

One important part of the elaboration process is the elaboration of definitions by dependent pattern matching [Coquand 1992]. Dependent pattern matching provides a convenient high-level interface to the low-level constructions of case splitting, structural induction, and specialization by unification. The elaboration of dependent pattern matching goes in two steps: first the list of clauses given by the user is translated to a case tree, and then the case tree is further translated...
to a term that only uses the primitive datatype eliminators. The second step has been studied in detail and is known to preserve the semantics of the case tree precisely [Cockx 2017; Goguen et al. 2006]. In contrast, the first step has received much less attention.

The goal of this paper is to formally describe an elaboration process of definitions by dependent pattern matching to a well-typed case tree for a realistic dependently typed language. Compared to the elaboration processes described by Norell [2007] and Sozeau [2010], we make the following improvements:

- We include both pattern and copattern matching.
- We are more flexible in the placement of forced patterns.
- We prove that the translation preserves the first-match semantics of the user clauses.

We discuss each of these improvements in more detail below.

Copatterns. Copatterns provide a convenient way to define and reason about infinite structures such as streams [Abel et al. 2013]. They can be nested and mixed with regular patterns. Elaboration of definitions by copattern matching has been studied for simply typed languages by Setzer et al. [2014], but so far the combination of copatterns with general dependent types has not been studied in detail.

One complication when dealing with copatterns in a dependently typed language is that the type of a projection can depend on the values of the previous projections. For example, define the coinductive type CoNat of possibly infinite natural numbers by the two projections iszero : Bool and pred : iszero ≡ Bool false → CoNat. We use copatterns to define the co-natural number cozero:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cozero} & : \text{CoNat} \\
\text{cozero} . \text{iszero} & = \text{true} \\
\text{cozero} . \text{pred} & = \emptyset 
\end{align*}
\]

To refute the proof of cozero . iszero ≡ Bool false with an absurd pattern ∅, the typechecker needs to know already that cozero . iszero = true, so it needs to check the clauses in the right order.

This example also shows that with mixed pattern/copattern matching, some clauses can have more arguments than others, so the typechecker has to deal with variable arity. This means that we need to consider introducing a new argument as an explicit node in the constructed case tree.

Flexible placement of forced patterns. When giving a definition by dependent pattern matching that involves forced patterns (also called presupposed terms [Brady et al. 2003] or inaccessible patterns [Norell 2007] or, in Agda, dot patterns), there are often multiple positions where to place them. For example, in the proof of symmetry of equality

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sym} : (x \ y : A) & \rightarrow x \equiv_A y \rightarrow y \equiv_A x \\
\text{sym} \ x \ [x] \ \text{refl} & = \text{refl}
\end{align*}
\]

it should not matter if we instead write sym [x] x refl = refl. In fact, we even allow the apparently non-linear definition sym x x refl = refl. In fact, we even allow the apparently non-linear definition sym x x refl = refl. Our elaboration algorithm addresses this by treating forced patterns as laziness annotations: they guarantee that the function will not match against a certain argument. This allows the user to be free in the placement of the forced patterns. For example, it is always allowed to write zero instead of [zero], or x instead of [x].

With our elaboration algorithm, it is easy to extend the pattern syntax with forced constructor patterns such as [ suc ] n (Brady et al. [2003]’s presupposed-constructor patterns). These allow the

1In Agda, case trees are part of the core language so the second step is skipped in practice, but it is still important to know that it could be done in theory.
user to annotate that the function should not match on the argument but still bind some of the arguments of the constructor.

**Preservation of first-match semantics.** Like Augustsson [1985] and Norell [2007], we allow the clauses of a definition by pattern matching to overlap and use the first-match semantics in the construction of the case tree. For example, when constructing a case tree from the definition

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{max} &: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \\
\text{max } \text{zero } y &= y \\
\text{max } x \text{ zero } &= x \\
\text{max } (\text{suc } x) (\text{suc } y) &= \text{suc } (\text{max } x y)
\end{align*}
\]

we do not get \( \text{max } x \text{ zero } = x \) but only \( \text{max } (\text{suc } x') \text{ zero } = \text{suc } x' \). This makes a difference for dependent type checking where we evaluate open terms with free variables like \( x \). In this paper we provide a proof that the translation from a list of clauses to a case tree preserves the first-match semantics of the clauses. More precisely, we prove that if the arguments given to a function match a clause and all previous clauses produce a mismatch,\(^2\) then the case tree produced by elaborating the clauses also computes for the given arguments and the result is the same as the one given by the clause.

**Contributions.**

- We present a dependently typed core language with inductive datatypes, coinductive record types and an identity type. The language is focused [Andreoli 1992; Krishnaswami 2009; Zeilberger 2008]: terms of our language correspond to the non-invertible rules to introduce and eliminate these types, while the invertible rules constitute case trees.

- We are the first to present a coverage checking algorithm for fully dependent copatterns. Our algorithm desugars deep copattern matching to well-typed case trees in our core language.

- We prove correctness: if the desugaring succeeds, then the behaviour of the case tree corresponds precisely to the first-match semantics of the given clauses.

- We have implemented a new version of the algorithm used by Agda for checking the left-hand sides of a definition by dependent (co)pattern matching, which will be part of the next release of Agda. At the time of writing the effort to remodel the elaboration to a case tree according to the theory presented in this paper is still ongoing, but our work so far has already uncovered and fixed multiple issues in the old implementation [Agda issue 2017a,b,c,d, 2018a,b]. Our algorithm could also be used by other implementations of dependent pattern matching such as the Equations package for Coq [Sozeau 2010], Idris [2018], and Lean [de Moura et al. 2015].

This paper was born out of a practical need that arose while reimplementing the elaboration algorithm for Agda: it was not clear to us what exactly we wanted to implement, and we did not find sufficiently precise answers in the existing literature. Our main goal in this paper is therefore to give a precise description of the language, the elaboration algorithm, and the high-level properties we expect them to have. This also means we do not focus on fully developing the metatheory of the language or giving detailed proofs for all the basic properties one would expect.

We start by introducing definitions by dependent (co)pattern matching and our elaboration algorithm to a case tree by a number of examples in Sect. 2. We then describe our core language in Sect. 3: the syntax, the rules for typing and equality, and the evaluation rules. In Sect. 4 we give the syntax and rules for case trees, and prove that a function defined by a well-typed case tree

\(^2\)Note that, in the example, open term \( \text{max } x \text{ zero } \) does not produce a mismatch with the first clause since it could match if variable \( x \) was replaced by \( \text{zero} \). In the first-match semantics, evaluation of \( \text{max } x \text{ zero } \) is stuck.
We simplify the constraints, removing those clauses with absurd constraints:  

\[ P_2 = \begin{cases} 
\text{[zero]} & j \leftrightarrow j \\
\text{[zero]} & i \leftrightarrow i \\
\text{[suc]} & (\text{suc} l) \leftrightarrow \text{suc} (\text{max} k l) 
\end{cases} \quad (6) \\
\]

\[ P_3 = \begin{cases} 
\text{[suc]} & j \leftrightarrow j \\
\text{[suc]} & i \leftrightarrow i \\
\text{[suc]} & (\text{suc} l) \leftrightarrow \text{suc} (\text{max} k l) 
\end{cases} \quad (7) 
\]

We simplify the constraints, removing those clauses with absurd constraints:  

\[ P_2 = \begin{cases} 
\text{[zero]} & j \leftrightarrow j \\
\text{[zero]} & i \leftrightarrow i 
\end{cases} \quad (8) \\
\]

\[ P_3 = \begin{cases} 
\text{[suc]} & (\text{suc} l) \leftrightarrow \text{suc} (\text{max} k l) 
\end{cases} \]

---

1:4 Jesper Cockx and Andreas Abel

We continue applying these operations (introducing a new variable and case analysis on a variable) until the first clause has no more user patterns and no more constraints where the left-hand side is a constructor. For example, for $P_2$ we get after one more introduction step $(n : \mathbb{N}) \mid \text{max zero } n : \mathbb{N} \vdash P_4$ where

$$P_4 = \begin{cases} [n \not\in j] & \mapsto j \\ \text{zero} \not\in i, n \not\in \text{zero} & \mapsto i \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

We solve the remaining constraint in the first clause by instantiating $j := n$. This means we are done and we have $\text{max zero } n = j[n / j] = n$. Similarly, elaborating $(p : \mathbb{N}) \mid \text{max (suc } p) : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \vdash P_3$ gives us $\text{max (suc } p) \text{ zero } = \text{suc } p$ and $\text{max (suc } p) (\text{suc } q) = \text{suc (max } p q)$. We record the operations used when elaborating the clauses in a case tree. Our syntax for case trees is close to the normal term syntax in other languages: $\lambda x$. for introducing a new variable and $\text{case } x\{}$ for a case split. For $\text{max}$, we get the following case tree:

$$\lambda m. \text{case}_m\{ \text{zero } \mapsto \lambda n. n, \text{suc } p \mapsto \lambda n. \text{case}_n\{ \text{zero } \mapsto \text{suc } p, \text{suc } q \mapsto \text{suc (max } p q) \} \} \quad (10)$$

**Example 2.** Next we take a look at how to elaborate definitions using copatterns. For the $\text{cozero}$ example (1), we have the initial configuration $\epsilon \mid \text{cozero } : \text{CoNat} + P_0$ where:

$$P_0 = \begin{cases} \text{.iszero } \mapsto \text{true} \\ \text{.pred } \emptyset \mapsto \text{impossible} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Here we need a new operation to split on the result type $\text{CoNat}$. This produces two subproblems $\epsilon \mid \text{cozero .iszero } + P_1$ and $\epsilon \mid \text{cozero .pred } : \text{cozero .iszero } \equiv_{\text{Bool}} \text{false } \rightarrow \text{CoNat} + P_2$ where

$$P_1 = \{ \text{true} \mapsto \text{impossible} \} \quad (12)$$

The first problem is solved immediately with $\text{cozero .iszero } = \text{true}$. In the second problem we introduce the variable $x : \text{cozero .iszero } \equiv_{\text{Bool}} \text{false}$ and note that $\text{cozero .iszero } = \text{true}$ from the previous branch, hence $x : \text{true } \equiv_{\text{Bool}} \text{false}$. Since $\text{true } \equiv_{\text{Bool}} \text{false}$ is an empty type (technically, since unification of $\text{true}$ with $\text{false}$ results in a conflict), we can perform a case split on $x$ with zero cases, solving the problem.

In the resulting case tree, the syntax for a split on the result type is $\text{record}\{\}$:

$$\text{record}\{ \text{iszero } \mapsto \text{true}, \text{pred } \mapsto \lambda x. \text{case } x\{} \} \quad (13)$$

For the next examples, we omit the details of the elaboration process and only show the definition by pattern matching and the resulting case tree.

**Example 3.** Consider the type $\text{CStream}$ of $\text{C}$ streams: potentially infinite streams of numbers that end on a zero. We define this as a record where the $\text{tail}$ field has two extra arguments enforcing that we can only take the tail if the head is $\text{suc } m$ for some $m$.

$$\text{record self } : \text{CStream } : \text{Set } \text{where}$$
$$\text{head } : \mathbb{N}$$
$$\text{tail } : (m : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow \text{self .head } \equiv_{\mathbb{N}} \text{suc } m \rightarrow \text{CStream}$$

Now consider the function $\text{countdown}$ that creates a $\text{C}$ stream counting down from a given number $n$:

$$\text{countdown } : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{CStream}$$
$$\text{countdown } n .\text{head } = n$$
$$\text{countdown } (\text{zero } m) .\text{tail } m \emptyset$$
$$\text{countdown } (\text{suc } m) .\text{tail } m \text{ refl } = \text{countdown } m$$

(15)
Our elaboration algorithm translates this definition to the following case tree:

$\lambda n. \text{record} \begin{cases} \text{head} & \mapsto n \\ \text{tail} & \mapsto \lambda m, p. \begin{cases} \text{zero} & \mapsto \text{case}_p \{ \} \\ \text{suc} n' & \mapsto \text{case}_p \{ \text{refl} \mapsto \text{succ} \text{m} \ (\text{countdown} \ m) \} \end{cases} \end{cases}$ \quad (16)

Note the extra annotation $\text{I}_m$ after the case split on $p : \text{succ} \ m \equiv_N \text{succ} \ n'$. This is a substitution (in this case the identity substitution on $(m : \mathbb{N})$) necessary for the evaluation rules of the case tree when matching on $\text{refl}$. It reflects the fact that $n'$ went out of scope after the case split on $\text{refl} : \text{succ} \ n' \equiv_N \text{succ} \ m$ (since unification instantiated it with $m$) so only the variable $m$ can still be used after this point.

**Example 4.** This example is based on issue #2896 on the Agda bug tracker [Agda issue 2018b]. The problem was that Agda’s old elaboration algorithm threw away a part of the pattern written by the user. This meant the definition could be elaborated to a different case tree from the one intended by the user.

The (simplified) example consists of the following datatype $D$ and function $\text{foo}$:

$\begin{array}{l}
\text{data} \enspace D \ (m : \mathbb{N}) : \text{Set} \ \text{where} \\
\quad \text{foo} : (m : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow D \ (\text{succ} \ m) \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \\
\quad \quad \ c : (n : \mathbb{N}) \ (p : n \equiv_N m) \rightarrow D \ m \rightarrow \text{foo} \ m \ (\text{c} \ (\text{succ} \ n) \ \text{refl}) = m + n
\end{array}$ \quad (17)

The old algorithm would ignore the pattern $\text{succ} \ n$ in the definition of $\text{foo}$. Our elaboration instead produces the following case tree:

$\lambda m, x. \begin{cases} c \ n \ p & \mapsto \text{case}_p \{ \text{refl} \mapsto \text{succ} \ (m + m) \} \end{cases}$ \quad (18)

Even though this case tree does not match on the $\text{succ}$ constructor, it implements the same computational behaviour as the clause in the definition of $\text{foo}$ because the first argument of $c$ is forced to be $\text{succ} \ m$ by the typing rules.

This example also shows another feature supported by our elaboration algorithm, namely that two different variables $m$ and $n$ in the user syntax may correspond to the same variable $m$ in the core syntax. In effect, $n$ is treated as a let-bound variable with value $m$.

**Example 5.** This example is based on issue #2964 on the Agda bug tracker [Agda issue 2018a]. The problem was that Agda was using a too liberal version of the first-match semantics that was not preserved by the translation to a case tree. The problem occurred for the following definition:

$\begin{array}{l}
f : (A : \text{Set}) \rightarrow A \rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow (A \equiv_{\text{Set}} \text{Bool}) \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
f \ [\text{Bool}] \quad \text{true} \quad \text{true} \quad \text{refl} = \text{true} \\
f \quad \quad \quad \quad = \text{false}
\end{array}$ \quad (19)

This function is elaborated (both by Agda’s old algorithm and by ours) to the following case tree:

$\lambda A, x, y, p. \ \text{case}_y \begin{cases} \text{true} & \mapsto \text{case}_p \{ \text{refl} \mapsto \text{true} \ x \ y \ \text{case}_x \{ \text{true} \mapsto \text{true} \ \text{false} \mapsto \text{false} \} \} \\ \text{false} & \mapsto \text{false} \end{cases}$ \quad (20)

According to the (liberal) first-match semantics, we should have $f \ \text{Bool} \ \text{false} \ y \ p = \text{false}$ for any $y : \text{Bool}$ and $p : \text{Bool} \equiv_{\text{Set}} \text{Bool}$, but this is not true for the case tree since evaluation gets stuck on the variable $y$. Another possibility is to start the case tree by a split on $p$ (after introducing all the variables), but this case tree still gets stuck on the variable $p$. In fact, there is no well-typed case tree that implements the first-match semantics of these clauses since we cannot perform a case split on $x : A$ before splitting on $p$.

One radical solution for this problem would be to only allow case trees where the case splits are performed in order from left to right. However, this would mean the typechecker must reject
many definitions such as \( f \) in this example. Instead we choose to keep the elaboration as it is and strengthen the first-match semantics of clauses. In the example of \( f \), this change means that we can only go to the second clause once all three arguments \( x, y \) and \( p \) are constructors, and at least one of them produces a mismatch.

### 3 CORE LANGUAGE

In this section we introduce a basic type theory for studying definitions by dependent pattern matching. It has support for dependent function types, an infinite hierarchy of predicative universes, equality types, inductive datatypes and coinductive records.

To keep the work in this paper as simple as possible, we leave out many features commonly included in dependently typed languages, such as lambda expressions and inductive families of datatypes (other than the equality type). These features can nevertheless be encoded in our language, see Sect. 3.5 for details.

Note also that we do not include any rules for \( \eta \)-equality, neither for lambda expressions (which do not exist) nor for records (which can be coinductive hence do not satisfy \( \eta \)).

#### 3.1 Syntax of the core type theory

Expressions of our type theory are almost identical to Agda’s internal term language. All function applications are in spine-normal form, so the head symbol of an application is exposed, be it variable \( x \), data \( D \) or record type \( R \), or defined function \( f \). We generalize applications to eliminations \( e \) by including projections \( \pi \) in spines \( \bar{e} \). Any expression is in weak head normal form but \( f \bar{e} \), which is computed via pattern matching (see Sect. 3.4).

**Definition 6** (Types and terms).

\[
A, B, u, v ::= \quad \text{weak head normal form} \\
| \quad \text{defined function applied to eliminations} \\
F, W ::= (x : A) \to B \quad \text{dependent function type} \\
| \quad \text{universe} \ell \\
| \quad \text{datatype fully applied to parameters} \\
| \quad \text{record type fully applied to parameters} \\
| \quad \text{equality type} \\
| \quad \text{variable applied to eliminations} \\
| \quad \text{constructor fully applied to arguments} \\
| \quad \text{proof of reflexivity} \\
\]

Any expression but \( c \bar{u} \) or \( \text{refl} \) can be a type; the first five weak head normal forms are definitely types. Any type has in turn a type, specifically some universe \( \text{Set}_\ell \).

**Definition 7** (Eliminations).

\[
e ::= \quad u \quad \text{application} \\
| \quad \pi \quad \text{projection} \\
\]

Binary application \([u e] \) is defined as a partial function on the syntax: for variables and functions it is defined by \( (x \bar{e}) e = x (\bar{e}, e) \) and \( (f \bar{e}) e = f (\bar{e}, e) \) respectively, otherwise it is undefined.

Patterns are generated from variables and constructors. In addition, we have \textit{forced} and \textit{absurd} patterns. Since we are matching spines, we also consider projections as patterns, or more precisely, as \textit{copatterns}.
Definition 8 (Patterns and copatterns).

\[ p ::= x \quad \text{variable pattern} \]
\[ \quad | \text{refl} \quad \text{pattern for reflexivity proof} \]
\[ \quad | c \bar{\rho} \quad \text{constructor pattern} \]
\[ \quad | [c] \bar{\rho} \quad \text{forced constructor pattern} \]
\[ \quad | [u] \quad \text{forced argument} \]
\[ \quad | \emptyset \quad \text{absurd pattern} \]

\[ q ::= p \quad \text{application copattern} \]
\[ \quad | .\pi \quad \text{projection copattern} \]

Forced patterns [Brady et al. 2003] appear with dependent types; they are either entirely forced arguments \([u]\), which are Agda’s dot patterns, or only the constructor is forced \([c] \bar{\rho}\). An argument can be forced by a match against \text{refl} somewhere in the surrounding (co)pattern. However, sometimes we want to bind variables in a forced argument; in this case, we revert to forced constructors. Absurd patterns\(^4\) are used to indicate that the type at this place is empty, i.e. no constructor can possibly match. They are also used to indicate an empty copattern split, i.e. a copattern split on a record type with no projections. This allows us in particular to define the unique element \text{tt} of the unit record by the clause \text{tt} \emptyset = \text{impossible}.

The pattern variables \text{PV}(\bar{q}) is the list of variables in \bar{q} that appear outside forcing brackets \([\cdot]\). By removing the forcing brackets, patterns \(p\) embed into terms \([p]\), and copatterns \(q\) into eliminations \([q]\), except for the absurd pattern \(\emptyset\).

\[
\begin{align*}
[x] &= x & [c \bar{\rho}] &= c \bar{\rho} & [(u)] &= u \\
[\text{refl}] &= \text{refl} & [(c) \bar{\rho}] &= c \bar{\rho} & [\cdot\pi] &= \cdot\pi
\end{align*}
\]

(21)

Constructors take a list of arguments whose types can depend on all previous arguments. The constructor parameters are given as a list \(x_1:A_1, \ldots, x_n:A_n\) with pairwise distinct \(x_i\) where \(A_i\) can depend on \(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1}\). This list can be conceived as a \text{cons}-list, then it is called a \textit{telescope}, or as a \textit{snoc}-list, then we call it a \textit{context}.

Definition 9 (Contexts and telescopes).

\[ \Gamma ::= \epsilon \quad \text{empty context} \quad \Delta ::= \epsilon \quad \text{empty telescope} \]
\[ \quad | \Gamma(x:A) \quad \text{context extension} \quad | (x:A)\Delta \quad \text{non-empty telescope} \]

Context and telescopes can be regarded as finite maps from variables to types, and we require \(x \notin \text{dom}(\Gamma)\) and \(x \notin \text{dom}(\Delta)\) in the above grammars. We implicitly convert between contexts and telescope, but there are still some conceptual differences. Contexts are always \textit{closed}, i.e. its types only refer to variables bound prior in the same context. In contrast, we allow \textit{open} telescopes whose types can also refer to surrounding context. Telescopes can be naturally thought of as \textit{context extensions}, and if \(\Gamma\) is a context and \(\Delta\) a telescope in context \(\Gamma\) where \(\text{dom}(\Gamma)\) and \(\text{dom}(\Delta)\) are disjoint, then \(\Gamma \Delta\) defined by \(\Gamma \epsilon = \Gamma\) and \(\Gamma((x:A)\Delta) = (\Gamma(x:A))\Delta\) is a new valid context. We embed telescopes in the syntax of declarations, but contexts are used in typing rules exclusively.

Given a telescope \(\Delta\), let \(\overline{\Delta}\) be \(\Delta\) without the types, i.e. the variables of \(\Delta\) in order. Further, we define \(\overline{\Delta \rightarrow C}\) as the iterated dependent function type via \(\epsilon \rightarrow C = C\) and \((x:A)\Delta \rightarrow C = (x:A) \rightarrow (\Delta \rightarrow C)\).

\(^4\)Absurd patterns are written \(\emptyset\) in Agda syntax.
A development in our core type theory is a list of declarations, of which there are three kinds: data type, record type, and function declarations. The input to the type checker is a list of unchecked declarations $\text{decl}^\ominus$, and the output a list of checked declarations $\text{decl}^\oplus$, called a signature $\Sigma$.

**Definition 10** (Declarations and signature).

\[
s ::= \emptyset \quad \text{status: unchecked}
\]
\[
\mid \emptyset \quad \text{status: checked}
\]
\[
\text{decl}^\oplus ::= \text{data } D \rightarrow \text{Set}_\ell \text{ where } \overline{\text{con}} \quad \text{datatype declaration}
\]
\[
\mid \text{record } \pi \rightarrow \text{self} : R \rightarrow \text{Set}_\ell \text{ where } \overline{\text{field}} \quad \text{record declaration}
\]
\[
\mid \text{definition } f : A \rightarrow A \text{ where } \overline{\text{cls}}^\pi \quad \text{function declaration}
\]
\[
\text{con} ::= c \Delta \quad \text{constructor declaration}
\]
\[
\text{field} ::= \pi : A \quad \text{field declaration}
\]
\[
\text{cls}^\ominus ::= \overline{q} \rightarrow \text{rhs} \quad \text{unchecked clause}
\]
\[
\text{cls}^\oplus ::= \Delta \vdash \overline{q} \rightarrow u : B \quad \text{checked clause}
\]
\[
\text{rhs} ::= u \quad \text{clause body: expression}
\]
\[
\mid \text{impossible} \quad \text{empty body for absurd pattern}
\]
\[
\Sigma ::= \overline{\text{decl}}^\oplus \quad \text{signature}
\]

A *data type* $D$ can be parameterized by telescope $\Delta$ and inhabits one of the universes $\text{Set}_\ell$. Each of its constructors $c_i$ (although there might be none) takes a telescope $\Delta_i$ of arguments that can refer to the parameters in $\Delta$. The full type of $c_i$ could be $\Delta \Delta_i \rightarrow D \Delta$, but we never apply constructors to the data parameters explicitly.

A *record type* $R$ can be thought of as a single constructor data type; its fields $\pi_1 : A_1, \ldots, \pi_n : A_n$ would be the constructor arguments. The field list behaves similar to a telescope, the type of each field can depend on the value of the previous fields. However, these values are referred to via $\text{self} . \pi_i$ where variable $\text{self}$ is a placeholder for the value of the whole record.\(^5\) The full type of projection $\pi_i$ could be $\Delta (\text{self} : R \Delta) \rightarrow A_i$, but like for constructors, we do not apply a projection explicitly to the record parameters.

Even though we do not spell out the conditions for ensuring totality in this paper, like *positivity*, *termination*, and *productivity* checking, data types, when recursive, should be thought of as inductive types, and record types, when recursive, as coinductive types [Abel et al. 2013]. Thus, there is no dedicated constructor for records; instead, concrete records are defined by what their projections compute.

Such definitions are subsumed under the last alternative dubbed *function declaration*. More precisely, these are *definitions by copattern matching* which include record definitions. Each clause defining the symbol $f : A$ consists of a list of copatterns $\overline{q}$ and right hand side $\text{rhs}$. The copatterns eliminate type $A$ into the type of the $\text{rhs}$ which is either a term $u$ or the special keyword $\text{impossible}$, in case one of the copatterns $q_i$ contains an absurd pattern $\emptyset$. The intended semantics is that if an application $f \overline{q}$ matches a left hand side $f \overline{q}$ with substitution $\sigma$, then $f \overline{q}$ reduces to $\text{rhs}$ under $\sigma$. For efficient computation of matching, we require *linearity of pattern variables* for checked clauses: each variable in $\overline{q}$ occurs only once in a non-forced position.

While checking declarations, the typechecker builds up a signature $\Sigma$ of already checked (parts of) declarations. Checked clauses are the elaboration (sections 2 and 5) of the corresponding

\(^5\)self is the analogous of Java’s this, but like in Scala’s trait, the name can be chosen.
unchecked clauses: they are non-overlapping and supplemented by a telescope \( \Delta \) holding the types of the pattern variables and the type \( B \) of left and right hand side. Further, checked clauses do not contain absurd patterns.

In the signature, the last entry might be incomplete, e.g. a data type missing some constructors, a record type missing some fields, or a function missing some clauses. During checking a declaration, we might add already checked parts of the declaration, dubbed snippets, to the signature.

**Definition 11** (Declaration snippets).

\[
Z ::= \text{data } D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \quad \text{data type signature}
\]

\[
| \text{constructor } c \Delta_c : D \Delta \quad \text{constructor signature}
\]

\[
| \text{record } R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \quad \text{record type signature}
\]

\[
| \text{projection } \text{self} : R \Delta \vdash \pi : A \quad \text{projection signature}
\]

\[
| \text{definition } f : A \quad \text{function signature}
\]

\[
| \text{clause } \Delta \vdash f \bar{q} \rightarrow v : B \quad \text{function clause}
\]

Adding a snippet \( Z \) to a signature \( \Sigma \), written \( [\Sigma, Z] \) is a always defined if \( Z \) is a data or record type or function signature; in this case, the corresponding declaration is appended to \( \Sigma \). Adding a constructor signature constructor \( c \Delta_c : D \Delta \) is only defined if the last declaration in \( \Sigma \) is (data \( D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \) where \( \text{con} \)) and \( c \) is not part of \( \text{con} \) yet. Analogous conditions apply when adding projection snippets. Function clauses can be added if the last declaration of \( \Sigma \) is a function declaration with the same name. We trust the formal definition of \( \Sigma, Z \) to the imagination of the reader. The conditions ensure that we do not add new constructors to a data type that is already complete or new fields to a completed record declaration. Such additions could destroy coverage for functions that have already been checked. Late addition of function clauses would not pose a problem, but that feature would be obsolete for our type theory anyway.

Membership of a snippet is written \( Z \in \Sigma \) and a decidable property with the obvious definition. These operations on the signature will be used in the inference rules of our type theory. Since we only refer to a constructor \( c \) in conjunction with its data type \( D \), constructors can be overloaded, and likewise projections.

### 3.2 Typing and equality

Our type theory employs the following basic typing and equality judgments, which are relative to a signature \( \Sigma \).

\[
\Sigma \vdash \Gamma \quad \text{context } \Gamma \text{ is wellformed}
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash_\ell \Delta \quad \text{in context } \Gamma \text{, telescope } \Delta \text{ is wellformed and } \ell \text{-bounded}
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u : A \quad \text{in context } \Gamma \text{, term } u \text{ has type } A
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta \quad \text{in context } \Gamma \text{, term list } \bar{u} \text{ instantiates telescope } \Delta
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u : A \vdash \bar{\bar{e}} : B \quad \text{in context } \Gamma \text{, head } u \text{ of type } A \text{ is eliminated via } \bar{\bar{e}} \text{ to type } B
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u = v : A \quad \text{in context } \Gamma \text{, terms } u \text{ and } v \text{ are equal of type } A
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \bar{u} = \bar{v} : \Delta \quad \text{in context } \Gamma \text{, term lists } \bar{u} \text{ and } \bar{v} \text{ are equal instantiations of } \Delta
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u : A \vdash \bar{\bar{e}} = \bar{\bar{e}'} : B \quad \bar{\bar{e}} \text{ and } \bar{\bar{e}'} \text{ are equal eliminations of head } u : A \text{ to type } B \text{ in } \Gamma
\]

In all these judgements, the signature \( \Sigma \) is fixed, thus we usually omit it, e.g. in the inferences rules.

We further define some shorthands for type-level judgements when we do not care about the universe level \( \ell \):

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \Delta \iff \exists \ell. \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash_\ell \Delta \quad \text{wellformed telescope}
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash A \iff \exists \ell. \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash A : \text{Set}_\ell \quad \text{wellformed type}
\]

\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash A = B \iff \exists \ell. \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash A = B : \text{Set}_\ell \quad \text{equal types}
\]
Entails $\vdash$ $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma \vdash A$.

### Types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \Gamma$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash A : \text{Set}_{\ell}$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash (x : A) \Rightarrow B : \text{Set}_{\ell}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash A : \text{Set}_{\ell}$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash (x : A) \Rightarrow B : \text{Set}_{\ell}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \text{data} \ D \Delta : \text{Set}_{\ell} \in \Sigma$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \text{record} \ R \Delta : \text{Set}_{\ell} \in \Sigma$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Heads ($h ::= x \in \mathcal{E} | f \epsilon$) and applications $h \bar{e}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \Gamma$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash x : A \in \Gamma$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash f \epsilon : A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash x : A \in \Gamma$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash f \epsilon : A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \bar{e} : \Delta$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \bar{h} : A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \bar{e} : \Delta$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \bar{h} : A$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash c \Delta : D \Delta \in \Xi$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \bar{e} : \Delta$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \bar{e} : \Delta_{\epsilon}[\Delta \mapsto \bar{u}]$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash \bar{e} : \Delta_{\epsilon}[\Delta \mapsto \bar{u}]$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash A$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conversion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : B$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : B$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1. Typing rules for expressions.

### If $\Gamma \vdash u : A$ then $\Gamma \vdash C$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash v : A$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash v : A$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash (x : A) \Rightarrow B \vdash \epsilon : C$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Projection self : $R \Delta \Rightarrow \pi : A \in \Sigma$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash u : R \Delta \Rightarrow \pi : A \in \Sigma$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A \Rightarrow \epsilon : C$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\vdash u : A \Rightarrow \epsilon : C$</td>
<td>$\Gamma \vdash u : A \Rightarrow \epsilon : C$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. The typing rules for eliminations.

In the inference rules, we make use of substitutions. Substitutions $\sigma$, $\tau$, $\nu$ are partial maps from variable names to terms with a finite domain. If $\text{dom}(\sigma)$ and $\text{dom}(\tau)$ are disjoint, then $\sigma \cup \tau$ denotes the union of these maps. We write the substitution that maps the variables $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ to the terms $\nu_1, \ldots, \nu_n$ (and is undefined for all other variables) by $[\nu_1/x_1; \ldots; \nu_n/x_n]$. In particular, the empty substitution $[]$ is undefined for all variables. If $\Delta = (x_1 : A_1) \ldots (x_n : A_n)$ is a telescope and $\bar{\nu} = \nu_1, \ldots, \nu_n$ is a list of terms, we may write $[\bar{\nu} / \Delta]$ for the substitution $[\nu_i / x_i]$. 

Entails ⊢ Γ.

\[\Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad \text{Precondition: } \Gamma \vdash \Delta.\]

The rules for the typing judgement \(\Gamma \vdash t : A\) are listed in Fig. 1. The type formation rules introduce an infinite hierarchy of predicative universes \(\text{Set}_\ell\) without cumulativity. The formation rules for data and record types make use of the judgment \(\Gamma \vdash \hat{u} : \Delta\) to type argument lists, same for the constructor rule, which introduces a data type. Further, \(\text{refl}\) introduces the equality type. All expressions involved in these rules are fully applied, but this changes when we come to the elimination rules. The types of heads, i.e. variables \(x\) or function symbols \(f\) are found in the context or signature.

The rules for applying heads \(u\) to spines \(\bar{e}\), judgement \(\Gamma \mid u : A \vdash \bar{e} : C\) are presented in Fig. 2. For checking arguments, the type of the head is sufficient, which needs to be a function type. To check projections, we need also the value \(u\) of the head that replaces \(\text{self}\) in the type of the projection. We may need to convert the type of the head to a function or record type to apply these rules, hence, we supply a suitable conversion rule. The result type \(C\) of this judgement need not be converted here, it can be converted in the typing judgement for expressions.

**Remark 12** (Focused syntax). The reader may have observed that our expressions cover only the non-invertible rules in the sense of focusing [Andreoli 1992], given that we consider data types as multiplicative disjunctions and record types as additive conjunctions: Terms introduce data and eliminate records and functions. The invertible rules, i.e. elimination for data and equality and introduction for function space and records are covered by pattern matching (Sect. 3.4) and, equivalently, case trees (Sect. 4). This matches our intuition that all the information/choice resides with the non-invertible rules, the terms, while the choice-free pattern matching corresponding to the invertible rules only sets the stage for the decisions taken in the terms.
Fig. 3 defines judgement \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta \) for telescope formation. The level \( \ell \) is an upper bound for the universe levels of the types that comprise the telescope. In particular, if we consider a telescope as a nested \( \Sigma \)-type, then \( \ell \) is an upper bound for the universe that hosts this type. This is important when checking that the level of a data type is sufficiently high for the level of data it contains (Fig. 4 and Fig. 10).

Definitional equality \( \Gamma \vdash u = u' : A \) is induced by rewriting function applications according to the function clauses. It is the least typed congruence over the axiom:

\[
\text{clause } \Delta \vdash f \bar{q} \leftarrow v : B \in \Sigma \quad \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \Delta \\
\Gamma \vdash f \bar{q}\sigma = v\sigma : B\sigma
\]

If \( f \bar{q} \leftarrow v \) is a defining clause of function \( f \), then each instance arising from a well-typed substitution \( \sigma \) is a valid equation. The full list of congruence and equivalence rules is given in Fig. 20 in Appendix A, together with congruence rules for applications (Fig. 21) and lists of terms (Fig. 22).

As usual in dependent type theory, definitional equality on types \( \Gamma \vdash A = B : \text{Set}_\ell \) is used for type conversion.

Using the notation \( (x_1, \ldots, x_n)\sigma = (x_1\sigma, \ldots, x_n\sigma) \), substitution typing can be reduced to typing of lists of terms:

**Definition 13** (Substitution typing and equality). Suppose \( \vdash \Gamma \) and \( \vdash \Delta \). We write \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \Delta \) for \( \text{dom}(\sigma) = \Delta \) and \( \Gamma \vdash \hat{\Delta} \sigma : \Delta \). Likewise, we write \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma = \sigma' : \Delta \) for \( \Gamma \vdash \hat{\Delta} \sigma = \hat{\Delta} \sigma' : \Delta \).

In addition to substitutions on terms, we also make use of substitutions on patterns called *pattern substitutions*. A pattern substitution \( \rho \) assigns to each variable a pattern. We reuse the same syntax for pattern substitutions as for normal substitutions. Any pattern substitution \( \rho \) can be used as a normal substitution \( [\rho] \) defined by \( x[\rho] = [x\rho] \).

**Lemma 14.** If \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \Delta_1(x : A)\Delta_2 \) then also \( \Gamma \vdash \sigma : \Delta_1(\Delta_2[x\sigma / x]) \).

**Lemma 15** (Substitution). Suppose \( \Gamma' \vdash \sigma : \Gamma \). Then the following hold:

- If \( \Gamma \vdash u : A \) then \( \Gamma' \vdash u\sigma : A\sigma \).
- If \( \Gamma' \vdash u : A \vdash \ell \vdash \hat{\Delta} \) then \( \Gamma' \vdash u\sigma : A\sigma \).
- If \( \Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta \) then \( \Gamma' \vdash \bar{u}\sigma : \Delta\sigma \).
- If \( \Gamma \vdash u = v : A \) then \( \Gamma' \vdash u\sigma = v\sigma : A\sigma \).
- If \( \Gamma' \vdash u : A \vdash \bar{e}_1 = \bar{e}_2 : C \) then \( \Gamma' \vdash u\sigma : A\sigma \vdash \bar{e}_1\sigma = \bar{e}_2\sigma : C\sigma \).
- If \( \Gamma \vdash \bar{u}_1 = \bar{u}_2 : \Delta \) then \( \Gamma' \vdash \bar{u}_1\sigma = \bar{u}_2\sigma : \Delta \).

**Proof.** By mutual induction on the derivation of the given judgement. The interesting case is when \( u \) is a variable application \( x \bar{e} \). Suppose that \( x : A \in \Gamma \) and \( \Gamma \vdash \bar{e} : B \), then \( \Gamma' \vdash x\sigma : A\sigma \). We also know from the induction hypothesis that \( \Gamma' \vdash x\sigma : A\sigma \vdash \bar{e}\sigma : B\sigma \), so we have \( \Gamma' \vdash x\sigma \bar{e}\sigma : B\sigma \), as we had to prove. \( \square \)

**Property 16.** If \( \Gamma \vdash u : A \) and \( \Gamma \vdash u : A \vdash \bar{e} : B \), then \( u \bar{e} \) is well-defined and \( \Gamma \vdash u \bar{e} : B \).

### 3.3 Signature well-formedness

A signature \( \Sigma \) extends \( \Sigma_0 \) if we can go from \( \Sigma_0 \) to \( \Sigma \) by adding valid snippets \( Z \), i.e. new datatypes, record types, and defined symbols, but new constructors/projections/clauses only for not yet completed definitions in \( \Sigma \). A signature \( \Sigma \) is well-formed if it is a valid extension of the empty signature \( e \). Formally, we define signature extension \( \Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma \) via snippet typing \( \Sigma \vdash Z \) by the rules in

\[ \Sigma \vdash Z \] Snipped \( Z \) is wellformed in signature \( \Sigma \).

\[ \Sigma \vdash \Delta \quad \text{data } D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \quad \Sigma ; \Delta \vdash \Delta_c \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash \text{constructor } c \Delta_c : D \Delta \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash \Delta \quad \text{record } R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \quad \Sigma ; \Delta \vdash A : \text{Set}_{\ell'} \quad \ell' \leq \ell \]

\[ \Sigma \vdash \Delta \quad \text{definition } f : A \quad \Sigma \vdash \Delta \quad \Delta \vdash f : A + [q] : B \quad \Delta \vdash \nu : B \]

\[ \Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma \] Signature \( \Sigma \) is a valid extension of \( \Sigma_0 \).

\[ \Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma \quad \Sigma \vdash Z \quad \Sigma, Z \text{ defined} \]

\[ \Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma_0 \]

Fig. 4. Rules for well-formed signature snippets and extension.

Fig. 4, and signature well-formedness \( \vdash \Sigma \) as \( \epsilon \subseteq \Sigma \). Recall that the rules for extending the signature with a constructor (resp. projection or clause) can only be used when the corresponding data type (resp. record type or definition) is the last thing in the signature, by definition of extending the signature with a snippet \( \Sigma, Z \). When adding a constructor or projection, it is ensured that the stored data is not too big in terms of universe level \( \ell \); this preserves predicativity. However, the parameters \( \Delta \) of a data or record type of level \( \ell \) can be big, they may exceed \( \ell \).

All typing and equality judgements are monotone in the signature, thus, remain valid under signature extensions.

**Lemma 17** (Signature extension preserves inferences). If \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u : A \) and \( \Sigma \subseteq \Sigma' \) then also \( \Sigma'; \Gamma \vdash u : A \) (and likewise for other judgements).

**Remark 18** (Coverage). The rules for extending a signature with a function definition given by a list of clauses are not strong enough to guarantee the usual properties of a language such as type preservation and progress. For example, we could define a function with no clauses at all (violating progress), or we could add a clause where all patterns are forced patterns (violating type preservation). We prove type preservation and progress only for functions that correspond to a well-typed case tree as defined in Sect. 4.

### 3.4 Pattern matching and evaluation rules

Evaluation to weak-head normal form \([\Sigma \vdash u \downarrow w]\) is defined inductively in Fig. 5. Since our language does not contain syntax for lambda abstraction, there is no rule for \( \beta \)-reduction. Almost all terms are their own weak-head normal form; the only exception are applications \( f \dot{e} \).

Evaluation is mutually defined with matching against (co)patterns \([\Sigma \vdash [\dot{e} / \dot{q}] \downarrow \sigma] \) (Fig. 6).

Herein, \( \sigma \parallel_\downarrow \) is either a substitution \( \sigma \) with \( \text{dom}(\sigma) = \text{PV}(\dot{q}) \) or the error value \( \bot \) for mismatch. Join of lifted substitutions \( \sigma \parallel_\downarrow \tau \parallel_\downarrow \) is \( \bot \) if one of the operands is \( \bot \), otherwise the join \( \sigma \parallel_\downarrow \tau \).

A pattern variable \( x \) matches any term \( \nu \), producing singleton substitution \([\nu / x]\). Likewise for a forced pattern \([u]\), but it does not bind any pattern variables. Projections \( .\pi \) only match themselves, and so do constructors \( c \dot{p} \), but they require evaluation \( \nu \parallel_\downarrow c \dot{u} \) of the scrutinee \( \nu \) and subsequent successful matching \([u / \dot{p}] \downarrow \sigma \) of the arguments. For forced constructors \([c] \dot{p} \), the constructor
would reduce to \( y \). This short-cuts the function evaluation.

Suppose a function \( u \) is not sufficient to derive \( \Sigma \). If matching a clause is stuck, we must not try the next one. A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.

A priori, matching can get stuck, if none of the rules apply. In particular, this happens when we try to evaluate an underapplied function or an open term, i.e. a term with free variables. For the purpose of the evaluation judgement, we would not need to track definite mismatch (\( \bot \)) separately from getting stuck. However, for the first-match semantics [Augustsson 1985] we do: There, a function that eliminates absurdity will be stuck for lack of matching clauses.
a case tree using a left-to-right splitting order. Thus, we require our pattern match semantics to be faithful with any possible elaboration of clauses into case trees.\footnote{In a sense, this is opposite to lazy pattern matching \cite{Maranget1992}, which aims to find the right clause with the least amount of matching.}

### 3.5 Other language features

In comparison to dependently typed programming languages like Agda and Idris, or core language seem rather reduced. In the following, we discuss how some popular features could be translated to our core language.

**Lambda abstractions and $\eta$-equality:** A lambda abstraction $\lambda x. t$ in context $\Gamma$ can be lifted to the top-level and encoded as auxiliary function $f \overset{\Gamma}{\mapsto} x \leftrightarrow t$. We obtain extensionality ($\eta$) by adding the following rule to definitional equality:

$$\Gamma \vdash t_1 : (x : A) \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : (x : A) \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma(x : A) \vdash t_1 x = t_2 x : B$$

$$\Gamma \vdash t_1 = t_2 : (x : A) \rightarrow B$$

**Record expressions:** Likewise, a record value $\text{record}\{\bar{x} = \bar{v}\}$ in $\Gamma$ can be turned into an auxiliary definition by copattern matching with clauses $(f \overset{\Gamma}{\mapsto} \bar{x} \leftrightarrow v_i)_i$. We could add an $\eta$-law that considers two values of record type $R$ definitionally equal if they are so under each projection of $R$. However, to maintain decidability of definitional equality, this should only applied to non-recursive records, as recursive records model coinductive types which do not admit $\eta$.

**Indexed datatypes** can be defined as regular (parameterized) datatypes with extra arguments to each constructor containing equality proofs for the indices. For example, $\text{Vec} A n$ can be defined as follows:

```plaintext
data Vec (A : Set) (n : ℕ) : Set where
  nil  : n ≡ ℕ zero → Vec A n
  cons : (m : ℕ)(x : A)(xs : Vec A m) → n ≡ ℕ suc m → Vec A n
```

**Indexed record types** can be defined analogously to indexed datatypes. For example, $\text{Vec} A n$ can also be defined as a record type:

```plaintext
record Vec (A : Set)(n : ℕ) : Set where
  head : (m : ℕ) → n ≡ ℕ suc m → A
  tail : (m : ℕ) → n ≡ ℕ suc m → Vec A m
```

**Mutual recursion** can be simulated by nested recursion as long as we do not define checks for positivity and termination.

**Wildcard patterns** can be written as variable patterns with a fresh name.

**Record patterns** would make sense for inductive records with $\eta$. Without changes to the core language, we can represent them by first turning deep matching into shallow matching, along the lines of Setzer et al. \cite{Setzer2014}, and then turn record matches on the left-hand side into projection applications on the right-hand side.

This concludes the presentation of our core language.

### 4 CASE TREES

From a user perspective it is nice to be able to define a function by a list of clauses, but for a core language this representation of functions leaves much to be desired: it is hard to see whether a set of clauses is covering all cases \cite{Coquand1992}, and evaluating the clauses directly can be slow for
We refrain from doing so in this paper for the sake of simplicity.

A case tree for a defined function \( f : A \) is well-typed in environment \( \Sigma \) if \( \Sigma | f : A \vdash \Sigma' | Q \). In this proposition, \( \Sigma \) is the signature in which case tree \( Q \) for function \( f : A \) is well-typed, and \( \Sigma' \) is the output signature which is \( \Sigma \) extended with the function clauses corresponding to case tree \( Q \).

Note that empty case and empty record are allowed, to cover the empty data type and the unit type, i.e. the record without fields.

Case tree typing is established by the generalized judgement \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \tilde{q} : A + \Sigma' \vdash Q \) (Fig. 7) that considers a case tree \( Q \) for the instance \( f \tilde{q} \) of the function in a context \( \Gamma \) of the pattern variables of \( \tilde{q} \). We have the following rules for \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \tilde{q} : A + \Sigma' \vdash Q \):

- **CtDone** A leaf of a case tree consists of a right-hand side \( v \) which needs to be of the same type \( C \) of the corresponding left-hand side \( \tilde{q} \) and may only refer to the pattern variables \( \Gamma \) of \( \tilde{q} \). If this is the case, the clause \( f \tilde{q} \mapsto v \) is added to the signature.
- **CtIntro** If the left-hand side \( f \tilde{q} \) is of function type \( (x : A) \rightarrow B \) we can extend it by variable pattern \( x \). The corresponding case tree is function introduction \( \lambda x . Q \).
- **CtCosplit** If the left-hand side is of record type \( R \tilde{v} \) with projections \( \pi_i \), we can do result splitting and extend it by copattern \( .\pi_i \) for all \( i \). We have \( \text{record}\{\pi_1 \mapsto Q_1; \ldots; \pi_n \mapsto Q_n\} \) (where \( n \geq 0 \)) as the corresponding case tree, and we check each sub tree \( Q_i \) for left-hand side \( f \tilde{q} .\pi_i \) in the signature \( \Sigma_{i-1} \) which includes the clauses for the branches \( j < i \). Note that these previous clauses may be needed to check the current case, since we have dependent records (Example 2).
- **CtSplitCon** If left-hand side \( f \tilde{q} \) contains a variable \( x \) of data type \( D \tilde{v} \), we can split on \( x \) and consider all alternatives \( c_i \); the corresponding case tree is \( \text{case}_x \{c_1 \hat{\Delta}_1 \mapsto Q_1; \ldots; c_n \hat{\Delta}_n \mapsto Q_n\} \). The branch \( Q_i \) is checked for a refined left-hand side where \( x \) has been substituted by \( \hat{c}_i \hat{\Delta}_i \) in a context where \( x \) has been replaced by the new pattern variables \( \hat{\Delta}_i \). Note also the threading of signatures as in rule CtCosplit.

It would also be possible to embed case trees into our language as terms instead, as is the case in many other languages. We refrain from doing so in this paper for the sake of simplicity.
When splitting on an equality proof $x : u \equiv_B v$, we get either a case tree case$_x$(refl $\mapsto \cdot$) (rule CtSplitEq) or case$_x$() (rule CtSplitAbsurdEq). To determine whether there should be a case for refl and where to insert forced patterns, we make use of unification.

We recall the definitions of a strong unifier and a disunifier from Cockx et al. [2016], here translated to the language of this paper and specialized to the case of a single equation:

**Definition 21** (Strong unifier). Let $\Gamma$ be a well-formed context and $u$ and $v$ be terms such that $\Gamma \vdash u, v : A$. A strong unifier $(\Gamma', \sigma, \tau)$ of $u$ and $v$ consists of a context $\Gamma'$ and substitutions $\Gamma' \vdash \sigma : \Gamma'(x : u \equiv_A v)$ and $\Gamma' \vdash \tau : \Gamma'$ such that:

1. $\Gamma' \vdash u \sigma = v \sigma : A \sigma$
2. $\Gamma' \vdash x \sigma = \text{refl} : u \sigma \equiv_A v \sigma$
3. $\Gamma' \vdash \tau ; \sigma = \Gamma' \vdash \tau$
4. For any context $\Gamma_0$ and substitution $\sigma_0$ such that $\Gamma_0 \vdash \sigma_0 : \Gamma(x : u \equiv_A v)$ and $\Gamma_0 \vdash x \sigma_0 = \text{refl} : u \sigma_0 \equiv_A v \sigma_0$, we have $\Gamma_0 \vdash \tau ; \sigma ; \sigma_0 = \Gamma_0 \vdash \tau ; \sigma_0 : \Gamma(x : u \equiv_A v)$.

**Definition 22** (Disunifier). Let $\Gamma$ be a well-formed context and $\Gamma \vdash u, v : A$. A disunifier of $u$ and $v$ is a function $\Gamma \vdash f : (u \equiv_A v) \rightarrow \bot$ where $\bot$ is the empty type.

The remaining rules, dealing with splitting equality proofs, are explained in the next section.

### 4.2 Unification: splitting on the identity type

When splitting on an equality proof $x : u \equiv_B v$, we get either a case tree case$_x$(refl $\mapsto \cdot$) (rule CtSplitEq) or case$_x$() (rule CtSplitAbsurdEq). To determine whether there should be a case for refl and where to insert forced patterns, we make use of unification.
In addition to the properties of a strong unifier, we make two more natural assumptions on the output of the unification algorithm. Firstly, since the substitution \( \sigma \) is used for the construction of the left-hand side of clauses, we need it to be not just a substitution but a pattern substitution \( \rho \). The only properly matching pattern in \( \rho \) is \( x \rho = \text{refl} \), and all the other patterns \( y \rho \) are either a forced pattern \([t]\) (if unification instantiates \( y \) with \( t \)) or the variable \( y \) itself (if unification leaves \( y \) untouched). Secondly, during the unification of \( u \) with \( v \), each step either instantiates one variable from \( \Gamma \) (e.g. the solution step) or leaves it untouched (e.g. the injectivity step). We thus have the invariant that the variables in \( \Gamma' \) form a subset of the variables in \( \Gamma \), and \( \tau \) is the weakening substitution \( \Gamma \tau \).

In summary, we assume we have access to a proof relevant unification algorithm given by judgements

\[
\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u =^? v : (x : A) \Rightarrow \text{yes}(\Gamma', \rho, \tau) \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u =^? v : (x : A) \Rightarrow \text{no}
\]

such that:

- If \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u =^? v : (x : A) \Rightarrow \text{yes}(\Gamma', \rho, \tau) \) then \( x \rho = \text{refl} \), the triple \((\Gamma', [\rho], \tau)\) is a strong unifier, the variables of \( \Gamma' \) form a subset of the variables in \( \Gamma \), and \( \tau = \Gamma \Gamma' \). Additionally, \( y \rho = y \) for all variables \( y \in \Gamma' \), and \( y \rho \) is a forced pattern for all variables \( y \in \Gamma \setminus \Gamma' \).
- If \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u =^? v : (x : A) \Rightarrow \text{no} \) then there exists a disunifier of \( u \) and \( v \).

**Remark 23.** The above assumptions fail to hold in a language with \( \eta \)-equality for record types and unification rules for \( \eta \)-expanding a variable such as the ones given by Cockx et al. [2016]. In particular, \( \tau \) may contain not only variables but also projections applied to those variables. We choose to keep \( \tau \) as an arbitrary substitution instead of the specific weakening \( \Gamma \Gamma' \) to make it easier to extend our language with record types satisfying \( \eta \)-equality.

### 4.3 Operational semantics

If a function \( f \) is defined by a case tree \( Q \), then we can compute the application of \( f \) to eliminations \( \hat{e} \) via the judgement \( \Sigma \vdash Q \hat{e} \rightarrow v \).

**Definition 24** (Operational semantics of case trees). Evaluation of case trees \( \Sigma \vdash Q \sigma \hat{e} \rightarrow v \) is defined in Fig. 8.

The substitution \( \sigma \) in the evaluation judgement \( \Sigma \vdash Q \sigma \hat{e} \rightarrow v \) acts as an accumulator, collecting the values for each of the variables introduced by a \( \lambda \) or by the constructor arguments in a \( \text{case}_x[...]. \)
4.4 Properties

If a function $f$ is defined by a well-typed case tree, then it enjoys certain good properties such as type preservation and coverage. The goal of this section is to prove these properties. First, we need some basic lemmata.

Lemma 25. Let $\vdash \Sigma$ be a well-formed signature with definition $f : A$ where $\text{cls}(\overline{f})$ last in $\Sigma$ and let $Q$ be a case tree such that $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \overline{q} : C \vdash \Sigma' | Q$ where $\Sigma \vdash \Gamma$ and $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f : A \vdash \overline{Q} : C$. Then $\Sigma'$ is also a well-formed signature.

Proof. By induction on $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \overline{q} : C \vdash \Sigma' | Q$. \hfill $\square$

Lemma 26 (Simulation lemma). Consider a case tree $Q$ such that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash f \overline{q} : C \vdash \Sigma | Q$, let $\sigma$ be a substitution with domain the pattern variables of $\overline{q}$, and let $\overline{e}$ be some eliminations. If $\Sigma \vdash Q\sigma \overline{e} \rightarrow t$ then there is some pattern substitution $\rho$ and copatterns $\overline{q}'$ such that clause $\Delta \vdash f \overline{q} \overline{q}' \rightarrow v : A$ in $\Sigma$ (but not in $\Sigma_0)$ and $\overline{e} = \overline{e}_1, \overline{e}_2$ and $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$ and $t = v \theta \overline{e}_2$.

Conversely, any clause in $\Sigma \setminus \Sigma_0$ is of the form clause $\Delta \vdash f \overline{q} \overline{q}' \rightarrow v : A$, and for any $\sigma$ and $\overline{e}_1$ and $\overline{e}_2$ such that $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$ we have $\Sigma \vdash Q\sigma \overline{e}_1 \overline{e}_2 \rightarrow v \theta \overline{e}_2$.

This lemma implies that once the typechecker has completed checking a definition, we can replace the clauses of that definition by the case tree. This gives us more efficient evaluation of the function and guarantees that evaluation is deterministic.

Proof. We start by proving the first statement by induction on $Q$:

- In case $Q = v$ we have $\Sigma \vdash Q\sigma \overline{e} \rightarrow v \sigma \overline{e}$, and $\Sigma' = \Sigma$, clause $\Gamma \vdash f \overline{q} \rightarrow v : A$. Thus we take $\rho = \overline{1}_\Gamma$, $\overline{q}' = e$, $v = v$, $\overline{e}_1 = e$ and $\overline{e}_2 = \overline{e}$. We clearly have $\Sigma \vdash [\overline{q}\sigma / \overline{q}] \vdash \sigma$, hence $t = v \sigma \overline{e}$.
- In case $Q = \lambda x. Q'$ we have $\overline{e} = u \overline{e}'$ and $\Sigma \vdash Q(\sigma[u/x]) \overline{e}' \rightarrow t$. From the induction hypothesis we know that clause $\Delta \vdash f (\overline{q} x) \rho \overline{q}' \rightarrow v : A \in \Sigma$ and $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$ and $t = v \theta \overline{e}_2$. Let $\rho = \rho' \cup \{p / x\}$, then we have clause $\Delta \vdash f \overline{q} \rho \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \rightarrow v : A \in \Sigma$ and $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$, so it suffices to take $\rho'$ as the new $\rho$ and $\overline{q}'$ as the new $\overline{q}'$.
- In case $Q = \text{case}_{x}(\Delta_1 \cdots \Delta_n \rightarrow Q_1 ; \cdots ; Q_n)$ we have $\Sigma \vdash x \sigma \Delta \overline{c}_1 \overline{\Delta}_1 \cdots \overline{c}_n \overline{\Delta}_n \rightarrow \Sigma_0 \vdash Q_1(\sigma[x/u] \overline{\Delta}' \overline{\Delta}' e) \rightarrow t$. From the induction hypothesis we know that clause $\Delta \vdash f \overline{q}\rho \overline{q}' \vdash v : A \in \Sigma$ and $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$ and $t = v \theta \overline{e}_2$. Moreover, $\rho_i = \overline{1}_\Gamma \cup \overline{c}_i \overline{\Delta}' / x \sigma[\overline{\Delta}_i / x] \vdash \Sigma_0$. From the definition of matching, it follows that also $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$. Thus we finish this case by taking $\rho_i : \rho$ as the new $\rho$ (and keep $\overline{q}'$ the same).
- In case $Q = \text{record}(\overline{\pi}_1 \rightarrow Q_1 ; \cdots ; \overline{\pi}_n \rightarrow Q_n)$ we have $\overline{e} = \overline{.\pi}_1 \overline{e}'$ and $\Sigma \vdash Q\sigma \overline{e} \rightarrow t$. From the induction hypothesis we know that clause $\Delta \vdash f \overline{q} \rho \overline{q}' \vdash v : A \in \Sigma$ and $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$ and $t = v \theta \overline{e}_2$. Hence it suffices to take $\overline{\pi}_i \overline{q}'$ as the new $\overline{q}'$ (and keep $\rho$ the same).
- In case $Q = \text{case}_{x}(\text{refl} \rightarrow t) Q'$ we have $\Sigma \vdash x \sigma \Delta \vdash \text{refl}$ and $\Sigma \vdash Q'\tau; \sigma \overline{e} \rightarrow t$. From the induction hypothesis we know that clause $\Delta \vdash f \overline{q} \rho \overline{q}' \vdash v : A \in \Sigma$ and $\Sigma \vdash \overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}' \vdash \theta$ and $t = v \theta \overline{e}_2$. Since $\rho'$ and $\tau$ are produced by unification, we have that $x \rho = \text{refl}$ and for each pattern variable $y$ other than $x$, either $y \rho' = [s]$ or $y \rho' = y$ and $y \tau = y$. It then follows from the definition of matching that $\Sigma \vdash [\overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q} \overline{q}' \overline{q}'] \vdash \theta$. Hence we take $\rho' : \rho$ as the new $\rho$ (and keep $\overline{q}'$ the same).
- There are no evaluation rules for $Q = \text{case}_{x}()$ so this case is impossible.

In the other direction, we start again by induction on $Q$:

- In case $Q = v$ we have the single clause clause $\Gamma \vdash f \overline{q} \rightarrow v : A$ which is of the right form with $\rho = \overline{1}_\Gamma$ and $\overline{q}' = e$. If $\Sigma \vdash [\overline{q}\sigma \overline{e}_1 / \overline{q}] \vdash \theta$, then we have $\sigma = \theta$ and $\overline{e}_1 = e$, so $\Sigma \vdash Q\sigma \overline{e}_1 \overline{e}_2 \rightarrow v \theta \overline{e}_2$. 

Definition 27. A signature \( \Sigma \) is respectful for \( \Sigma \vdash u \perp w \) if \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u : A \) implies \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u = w : A \). A signature \( \Sigma \) is respectful if it is respectful for all derivations of \( \Sigma \vdash u \perp w \).

In particular, this means \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash w : A \), so evaluation with signature \( \Sigma \) is type-preserving. It is immediately clear that the empty signature is respectful, since it does not contain any clauses.

Definition 28 (Respectful copatterns). Let \( q \) be a list of copatterns such that \( \Sigma ; \Delta \mid u : A \vdash [q] : C \) where \( u \) and \( A \) are closed (i.e. do not depend on \( \Delta \)). We call \( q \) respectful in signature \( \Sigma \) if the following holds: for any signature extension \( \Sigma \subseteq \Sigma' \) and any eliminations \( \Sigma' ; \Gamma \mid u : A \vdash \bar{e} : C \) such that \( \Sigma' \vdash [\bar{e} / q] \perp \sigma \) and \( \Sigma' \) is respectful for any \( \Sigma' + s \vdash t \) used in the derivation of \( \Sigma' \vdash [\bar{e} / q] \perp \sigma \), we have \( \Sigma' ; \Gamma \mid u : A \vdash \bar{q} \sigma = \bar{e} : C \).

Being respectful is stable under signature extension by definition: if \( \bar{q} \) is respectful in \( \Sigma \) and \( \Sigma \subseteq \Sigma' \), then \( \bar{q} \) is also respectful in \( \Sigma' \).

Lemma 29. If \( \Sigma \) is a well-formed signature such that all clauses in \( \Sigma \) have respectful copatterns in \( \Sigma \), then \( \Sigma \) is respectful.
Lemma 30. Consider a respectful signature $\Sigma_0$ and a case tree $Q$ such that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash f \, \bar{q} : C \mid Q$ and $\bar{q}$ is respectful in $\Sigma_0$. Then all clauses in $\Sigma \setminus \Sigma_0$ have respectful patterns in $\Sigma$.

Proof. By induction on the derivation of $\Sigma \vdash f \, \bar{q} \vdash C \mid Q$.  
\begin{itemize}
  \item In case $Q = \nu$, we have a single new clause $\text{clause} \, \Gamma \vdash f \, \bar{q} \vdash \nu : C$. Since $\bar{q}$ is respectful in $\Sigma_0$ by assumption, it is also respectful in $\Sigma = \Sigma_0$, clause $\Gamma \vdash f \, \bar{q} \vdash \nu : C$.
  \item In case $Q = \lambda x. \, Q'$, we know from the typing rule of $\lambda x. \cdot$ that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash C = (x : A') \rightarrow B' : \text{Set}_\ell$. Consider a respectful signature $\Sigma_0$ such that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash \pi \, \bar{q} : C$.
  \item In case $Q = \text{case}_x \{ c_1 : \Delta_1 \vdash Q_1; \ldots ; c_n : \Delta_n \vdash Q_n \}$, the typing rule for $\text{case}_x \{ \}$ tells us that $\Gamma = \Gamma_1(x : A)\Gamma_2$ and $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_1 \vdash A = D \vdash B' : \text{Set}_\ell$. We also get that $\Sigma_{i-1}; \Gamma_1; \Delta_i \vdash \rho_i \vdash Q_i$, where $\text{constructor} \, c_i \, \Delta_i \vdash D \, \Delta \in \Sigma_0$ and $\Delta_i = \Delta_i[\bar{\nu} / \Delta]$ and $\rho_i = [c_i \, \Delta'_i / x]$. Since $\bar{q}$ is respectful, so is $\bar{q}\rho_i$, and the result follows from the induction hypothesis.
  \item In case $Q = \text{record} \{ \pi_1 \vdash Q_1; \ldots ; \pi_n \vdash Q_n \}$, the typing rule for $\text{record} \{ \}$ tells us that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash C = R \vdash B' : \text{Set}_\ell$. We also get that $\Sigma_{i-1}; \Gamma \vdash \pi \vdash \pi_i : A_i[\bar{\nu} / \Delta, f \, \bar{q}] / x \vdash \Sigma_i \mid Q_i$, where $\text{projection} \, x : R \Delta \vdash \pi_i : A_i \in \Sigma_0$. Since $\bar{q}$ is respectful, so is $\bar{q} \, . \pi_i$, and the result follows from the induction hypothesis.
  \item In case $Q = \text{case}_x \{ \text{refl} \rightarrow Q' \}$, the typing rule tells us that $\Gamma = \Gamma_1(x : A)\Gamma_2$ and $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_1 \vdash A = s \equiv E \, t : \text{Set}_\ell$. We also have that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_1 \vdash s = ? \, t : (x : E) \Rightarrow \text{yes}(\Gamma'_1, \rho, \tau)$ and $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_1 \vdash \rho \vdash C \rho' \vdash \Sigma \mid Q'$ where $\rho' = \rho \cup \Gamma'_1$. Since $\bar{q}$ is respectful and $\rho$ is a strong unifier (Definition 21), $\rho' \bar{q}$ is also respectful, so the result follows from the induction hypothesis.
  \item The typing rule for $Q = \text{case}_x \{ \}$ does not add any new clauses.
\end{itemize}

\begin{theorem}[Type preservation] If all functions in a signature $\Sigma$ are given by well-typed case trees, then $\Sigma$ is respectful.
\end{theorem}

Proof. This is a direct consequence of the previous two lemmata.

Definition 32. A term $u$ is normalising in a signature $\Sigma$ if $\Sigma \vdash u \vdash w$, and additionally, if $w = c \, \bar{v}$ then all $\bar{v}$ are also normalising.

An elimination $e$ is normalising if it is either a projection $\pi$ or a normalising term $u$. A substitution $\sigma$ is normalising if $x \sigma$ is normalising for all variables $x$ in $\text{dom}(\sigma)$.

The definition of a normalising term (and the proof of the following lemma) would be somewhat more complicated for a language with eta-equality for record types, such as the one used by Cockx et al. [2016]. In particular, all projections of a normalising expression of record type should also be normalising.

Lemma 33. Suppose $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u \equiv v : (x : A) \Rightarrow \text{yes}(\Gamma', \rho, \tau)$ and $\Sigma \vdash \sigma_0 : \Gamma$ such that $\Sigma \vdash u\sigma_0 \equiv v\sigma_0 : A\sigma_0$. If $\sigma_0$ is normalising, then so is $\tau; \sigma_0$.

Proof. The substitution $\tau$ is the weakening substitution $1\gamma$, so it follows trivially that $\tau; \sigma_0$ is normalising.
Theorem 34 (Coverage). Let \( Q \) be a case tree such that \( \Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash f \, \bar{q} : C \vdash \Sigma \vdash Q \). Let further \( \Sigma \vdash \sigma_0 : \Gamma \) be a (closed) substitution and \( \Sigma \vdash f \, \bar{q} \sigma_0 : C \sigma_0 \vdash \bar{e} : B \) be (closed) eliminations such that \( \sigma_0 \) and \( \bar{e} \) are normalizing in \( \Sigma \) and \( B \) is not definitionally equal to a function type or a record type. Then
\[
\Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \quad \text{for some } v.
\]
In particular, this theorem tells us that if \( \Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash f \, \bar{q} : C \vdash \Sigma \vdash Q \) and the eliminations \( \Sigma \vdash f : C \vdash \bar{e} : A \) are normalising, then \( \Sigma \vdash Q[] \vdash \bar{e} \rightarrow v \). Thus evaluation of a function defined by a well-typed case tree applied to closed arguments can never get stuck.

Proof. By induction of the case tree \( Q \):

- If \( Q = v \), we have \( \Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \).
- If \( Q = \lambda x. Q' \), we have \( \Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash C = (x : A') \rightarrow B' : \Sigma_\ell \) and \( \Sigma_0; \Gamma(x : A') \vdash f \, \bar{q} \, x : B' \vdash \Sigma \vdash Q' \) from the typing rule of \( \lambda x. \). Hence we have \( \Sigma \vdash C \sigma_0 = (x : A' \sigma_0) \rightarrow B' \sigma_0 : \Sigma_\ell \), so \( \bar{e} = v \, \bar{e}' \) for some term \( \Sigma \vdash w : A' \sigma_0 \) and eliminations \( \Sigma \vdash f \, \bar{q} \sigma_0 \, w : B'(\sigma_0 \uplus [w/x]) \vdash \bar{e}' : B \). By induction we now have that there exists some \( v \) such that \( \Sigma \vdash Q'(\sigma_0 \uplus [w/x]) \, \bar{e}' \rightarrow v \), hence also \( \Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \).
- If \( Q = \text{case}_x \{ c_1 \, A_1 \mapsto Q_1 ; \ldots ; c_n \, A_n \mapsto Q_n \} \), we have \( x : D \, \bar{v} \in \Gamma \), hence \( \Sigma \vdash x \sigma_0 \uplus c_1 \, \bar{u} \) for some constructor \( c_1 \) of \( D \). By induction we have a \( v \) such that \( \Sigma \vdash Q_1(\sigma \uplus [\bar{u} / A_1 \sigma_0]) \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \), hence also \( \Sigma \vdash \bar{Q} \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \).
- If \( Q = \text{record}\{ \pi_1 \mapsto Q_1 ; \ldots ; \pi_n \mapsto Q_n \} \), we have \( \Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash C = R \, \bar{v} : \Sigma_\ell \). Hence we have \( \Sigma_0 \vdash C \sigma_0 = R \, \bar{d} \sigma_0 : \Sigma_\ell \), so \( \bar{e} = \pi_i \, \bar{e}' \) for some field \( \pi_i \) of \( R \). By induction we get a \( v \) such that \( \Sigma \vdash Q_i(\sigma_0 \uplus [\bar{d} / A_1 \sigma_0]) \, \bar{v} \rightarrow v \), hence also \( \Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \).
- If \( Q = \text{case}_x \{ \text{refl} \mapsto f \} \), we have \( x : u \equiv_E v \in \Gamma \), so \( \Sigma \vdash x \sigma_0 \uplus \text{refl} \). Since \( \sigma_0 \) is normalising, \( \tau; \sigma_0 \) is also normalising (see Lemma 33). Now it follows from the inductive hypothesis that \( \Sigma \vdash Q'(\tau; \sigma_0) \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \), hence also \( \Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \, \bar{e} \rightarrow v \).
- If \( Q = \text{case}_x [] \), we have \( x : u \equiv_E v \in \Gamma \), so \( \Sigma \vdash x \sigma_0 \uplus \text{refl} \). But \( u \equiv_E v \) is equivalent to the empty type by unification, so this case is impossible.

\( \square \)

5 ELABORATION

In the previous two sections, we have described a core language with inductive datatypes, coinductive records, identity types, and functions defined by well-typed case trees. On the other hand, we also have a surface language consisting of declarations of datatypes, record types, and functions by dependent (co)pattern matching. In this section we show how to elaborate a program in this surface language to a well-formed signature in the core language.

The main goal of this section is to describe the elaboration of a definition given by a set of (unchecked) clauses to a well-typed case tree, and prove that this translation (if it succeeds) preserves the first-match semantics of the given clauses. Before we dive into this, we first describe the elaboration for data and record types.

5.1 Elaborating data and record types

Figures 9, 10, and 11 give the rules for checking declarations, constructors, and projections. These rules are designed to correspond closely to those for signature extension in Fig. 4. Consequently, if \( \vdash \Sigma \) and \( \Sigma \vdash \text{decl} \rightarrow \Sigma' \), then also \( \vdash \Sigma' \).

5.2 From clauses to a case tree

In Section 2 we showed how our elaboration algorithm works in a number of examples, here we describe it in general. Elaboration of a lhs problem to a well-typed case tree \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \, \bar{q} : C \vdash P \rightarrow \Sigma' \vdash Q \).
\(\Sigma \vdash \text{decl} \Rightarrow \Sigma'\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma \vdash \Delta & \quad (\Sigma, \text{data } D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell) \mid D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \text{con} \Rightarrow \Sigma' \\
\Sigma \vdash (\text{data } D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \text{ where } \text{con}) & \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma \vdash \Delta & \quad (\Sigma, \text{record } R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell) \mid \text{self } : R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \text{field} \Rightarrow \Sigma' \\
\Sigma \vdash (\text{record } \text{self } : R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \text{ where } \text{field}) & \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma \vdash A & \quad (\Sigma, \text{definition } f : A) \mid f : A \vdash P \Rightarrow \Sigma' \mid Q \\
\Sigma \vdash (\text{definition } f : A \text{ where } P) & \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 9. Rules for checking a declaration.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma \mid D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \text{con} & \Rightarrow \Sigma' \\
\Sigma; \Delta \vdash \ell_c & \quad (\Sigma, \text{constructor } c \Delta_c : D \Delta) \mid D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \text{con} \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma; D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \epsilon & \Rightarrow \Sigma \\
\Sigma \mid D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash c \Delta_c, \text{con} & \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 10. Rules for checking a list of data constructors.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma \mid \text{self } : R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \text{field} & \Rightarrow \Sigma' \\
\Sigma; \Delta \vdash \ell' \leq \ell & \quad (\Sigma, \text{projection } \text{self } : R \Delta \vdash \pi : A) \mid \text{self } : R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \text{field} \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma \mid \text{self } : R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \epsilon & \Rightarrow \Sigma \\
\Sigma \mid \text{self } : R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \vdash \pi : A, \text{field} & \Rightarrow \Sigma'
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 11. Rules for checking a list of record fields.

is defined in Fig. 12. This judgement is designed as an algorithmic version of the typing judgement for case trees \(\Sigma; \Gamma \mid f \bar{q} : C \Rightarrow \Sigma' \mid Q\), where the extra user input \(P\) guides the construction of the case tree. Each of the rules in Fig. 12 is a refined version of one of the rules in Fig. 7, so any case tree produced by this elaboration is well-typed by construction.

The inputs to the algorithm are the following:

- \(\Sigma\) is the signature containing previous declarations, as well as clauses for the branches of the case tree that have already been checked.
- \(\Gamma\) is a context containing the types of the pattern variables: \(\text{dom}(\Gamma) = \text{PV}(\bar{q})\).
- \(f\) is the function currently being checked.
- \(\bar{q}\) are the copatterns for the current branch of the case tree.
- \(C\) is the refined target type of the current branch.
- \(P\) is the user input, which is described below.

The outputs of the algorithm are a signature \(\Sigma'\) extending \(\Sigma\) with new clauses and a well-typed case tree \(Q\) such that \(\Sigma; \Gamma \mid f \bar{q} : C \Rightarrow \Sigma' \mid Q\).
We represent the user input \( P \) to the algorithm as an (ordered) list of partially decomposed clauses, called a left-hand side problem or \textit{lhs problem} for short. Each partially decomposed clause is of the form \([E]q \leftarrow \text{rhs}\) where \( E \) is an (unordered) set of constraints \( \{w_k : \pi^i \mid p_k : A_k \mid k = 1 \ldots l\} \) between a pattern \( p_k \) and a term \( w_k, \ \bar{q} \) is a list of copatterns, and \( \text{rhs} \) is a right-hand side. In the special case \( E \) is empty, we have a complete clause written as \( q \leftarrow \text{rhs} \).

To check a definition of \( f : A \) with clauses \( q_i \leftarrow \text{rhs}_i \) for \( i = 1 \ldots n \), the algorithm starts with \( \Gamma = \epsilon, u = \bar{f}, \) and \( P = \{q_i \leftarrow \text{rhs}_i \mid i = 1 \ldots n\} \). If we obtain \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f : A \vdash P \leadsto \Sigma' \mid Q \), then the function \( f \) can be implemented using the case tree \( Q \).

During elaboration, the algorithm maintains the invariants that \( \vdash \Sigma \) is a well-formed signature, \( \Sigma \vdash \Gamma \) is a well-formed context, and \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f [\bar{q}] : C \). It also maintains the invariant that for each constraint \( w_k : \pi^i \mid p_k : A_k \) in the lhs problem, we have \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash w_k : A_k \).

The rules for \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q} : C \vdash P \leadsto \Sigma' \mid Q \) make use of some auxiliary operations for manipulating lhs problems:

- After each step, the algorithm uses \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \text{solved}(\sigma) \) (Fig. 13) to check if the first user clause has no more (co)patterns, and all its constraints are solved. It also constructs a substitution \( \sigma \) assigning a well-typed value to each of the user-written pattern variables.
- After introducing a new variable, the algorithm uses \( P \left(
\begin{array}{c}
\{ x : A \}
\end{array}\right) \) (Fig. 14) to remove the first application pattern from each of the user clauses and to introduce a new constraint between the variable and the pattern.
- After a copattern split on a record type, the algorithm uses \( P \left(
\begin{array}{c}
\pi
\end{array}\right) \) (Fig. 15) to partition the clauses in the lhs problem according to the projection they belong to.
- After a case split on a datatype or an equality proof, the algorithm uses \( \Sigma \vdash P \sigma \Rightarrow \sigma' \) (Fig. 16) to refine the constraints in the lhs problem. It uses judgements \( \Sigma \vdash \nu \pi^i \mid p : A \Rightarrow E_{\bot} \) and \( \Sigma \vdash \nu \pi^j \mid \bar{p} : \Delta \Rightarrow E_{\bot} \) (Fig. 17) to simplify the constraints if possible, and to filter out the clauses that definitely do not match the current branch.
- To check an absurd pattern \( \emptyset \), the algorithm uses \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \emptyset : A \) (Fig. 18) to ensure that the type of the pattern is a \textit{caseless type} [Goguen et al. 2006], i.e. a type that is empty and cannot even contain constructor-headed terms in an \textit{open} context. Our language has two kinds of caseless types: datatypes \( \mathcal{D} \overset{\nu}{\leftarrow} \) with no constructors, and identity types \( u : A \overset{\equiv}{\leftrightarrow} v \) where \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \bar{u} = u : (x : A) \Rightarrow \text{no} \).

The following rules constitute the elaboration algorithm \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q} : C \vdash P \leadsto \Sigma' \mid Q \):

- **DONE** applies when the first user clause in \( P \) has no more copatterns and all its constraints are solved according to \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \text{solved}(\sigma) \). If this is the case, then construction of the case tree is finished, adding the clause \( \text{clause} \ \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q} \leftarrow \sigma \) to the signature.
- **INTRO** applies when \( C \) is a function type and all the user clauses have at least one application copattern. It constructs the case tree \( \lambda x. \ Q \), using \( P \left(\{ x : A \}\right) \) to construct the subtree \( Q \).
- **COSPLIT** applies when \( C \) is a record type and all the user clauses have at least one projection copattern. It constructs the case tree \( \text{record}(\pi_1 \leftarrow Q_1 ; \ldots ; \pi_n \leftarrow Q_n) \), using \( P \left(\pi\right) \) to construct the branch \( Q_1 \) corresponding to projection \( \pi_1 \).
- **COSPLITEMPTY** applies when \( C \) is a record type with no projections and the first clause starts with an absurd pattern. It then constructs the case tree \( \text{record}() \).
- **SPLITCON** applies when the first clause has a constraint of the form \( x \overset{\pi^i}{\leftarrow} c \overset{j}{\leftarrow} \bar{p} \) and the type of \( x \) in \( \Gamma \) is a datatype. For each constructor \( c \) of this datatype, it constructs a pattern substitution \( \rho_1 \) replacing \( x \) by \( c \) applied to fresh variables. It then constructs the case tree \( \text{case}_x(c_1 \overset{\Lambda_1}{\leftarrow} Q_1 ; \ldots ; c_n \overset{\Lambda_n}{\leftarrow} Q_n) \), using \( \Sigma \vdash P \rho_1 \Rightarrow P_i \) to construct the branches \( Q_i \).
\[
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q} : C + P \leadsto \Sigma' \mid Q
\]

In all rules \( P = \{(E_i) \bar{q}_i \leftrightarrow rhs_i \mid i = 1 \ldots m\} \).

Presupposes: \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f [\bar{q}] : C \) and \( \text{dom}(\Gamma) = \text{PV}(\bar{q}) \).

Entails: \( \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q} : C \vdash \Sigma' \mid Q \).

1:26 Jesper Cockx and Andreas Abel

\[
\frac{\bar{q}_1 = e}{\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \text{Solved}(\sigma)} \quad \text{DONE}
\]

\[
\frac{\bar{q}_1 = p \bar{q}'}{\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash C \vdash \Sigma, \text{clause} \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q} \leftrightarrow \nu \sigma : C} \quad \text{INTRO}
\]

\[
\frac{\bar{q}_1 = \pi \bar{q}'}{\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash C \setminus (x : A) \rightarrow B} \quad \Sigma; \Gamma(x : A) \vdash f \bar{q} x : B \vdash P (x : A) \leadsto \Sigma' \mid Q}
\]

Fig. 12. Rules for checking a list of clauses and elaborating them to a well-typed case tree.

\[
\frac{\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash E \Rightarrow \text{Solved}(\sigma)}{(\Sigma + \{w_k / p_k\} \setminus \sigma_k)_{k=1 \ldots n} \quad \sigma = \uplus_k \sigma_k \quad (\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash [p_k] \sigma = w_k : A_k)_{k=1 \ldots n}} \quad \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \{w_k / p_k : A_k \mid k = 1 \ldots n\} \Rightarrow \text{Solved}(\sigma)
\]

Fig. 13. Rule for constructing the final substitution and checking all constraints when splitting is done.

\[
\text{SPLITEQ}
\]

applies when the first clause has a constraint of the form \( x \not\approx \text{refl} \) and the type of \( x \) in \( \Gamma \) is an identity type \( u \equiv_A v \). It tries to unify \( u \) with \( v_i \), expecting a positive success.

If unification succeeds with output \( (\Gamma'_i, \rho, \tau) \), it constructs the case tree \( \text{case}_x[\text{refl} \mapsto \tau' \mid Q] \).
Elaborating dependent (co)pattern matching

\[ P(x : A) \] Replace the first application pattern \( p \) in each clause by the constraint \( x \not\in^? p : A \).

\[ e(x : A) = e \]

\[ (\{E\}p \bar{q} \leftarrow \text{rhs}, P)(x : A) = (\{E \cup \{x \not\in^? p : A\}\} \bar{q} \leftarrow \text{rhs}), P(x : A) \]

Fig. 14. Partially decomposed clauses after introducing a new variable (partial function).

\[ P . \pi \] Keep only clauses with copattern \( .\pi \), with this copattern removed.

\[ e . \pi = e \]

\[ (\{E\}.\pi \bar{q} \leftarrow \text{rhs}, P).\pi = (\{E\} \bar{q} \leftarrow \text{rhs}), P . \pi \]

\[ (\{E\}.\pi' \bar{q} \leftarrow \text{rhs}, P).\pi = P . \pi \quad \text{if } \pi \neq \pi' \]

Fig. 15. Partially decomposed clauses after a copattern split (partial function).

\[ \Sigma \vdash P\sigma \Rightarrow P' \] (\( \Sigma \) fixed, dropped from rules)

\[ \overline{(v /^? p : A)} \in E \quad \overline{v\sigma /^? p : A\sigma} \Rightarrow \bot \quad P\sigma \Rightarrow P' \]

\[ \overline{\{E\} \bar{q} \leftarrow \text{rhs}, P}\sigma \Rightarrow P' \]

\[ E = \{w_k /^? p_k : A_k \mid k = 1 \ldots n\} \quad (w_k\sigma /^? p_k : A_k\sigma \Rightarrow E_k)_{k=1,\ldots,n} \quad P\sigma \Rightarrow P' \]

Fig. 16. Rules for transforming partially decomposed clauses after refining the pattern with a case split.

\[ \Sigma \vdash v /^? p : A \Rightarrow E_\bot \] and \[ \Sigma \vdash \bar{v} /^? \bar{p} : \Delta \Rightarrow E_\bot \] (\( \Sigma \) fixed, dropped from rules)

\[ v \not\in^? c \bar{v} \quad A \not\in^? D \bar{u} \quad \text{constructor } c \Delta_c : D \Delta \in \Sigma \quad \bar{v} /^? \bar{p} : \Delta_c[\bar{u} / \Delta] \Rightarrow E_\bot \]

\[ v /^? c \bar{p} : A \Rightarrow E_\bot \]

\[ v \not\in^? \text{refl} \quad A \not\in^? u \equiv_B v \]

\[ v \not\in^? c' \bar{v} \quad c \neq c' \]

\[ v /^? c \bar{p} : A \Rightarrow \bot \quad v /^? p : A \Rightarrow \{v /^? p : A\} \]

Fig. 17. Rules for simplifying the constraints of a partially decomposed clause.

\[ \Sigma; \Gamma \not\in^? \theta : A \] (\( \Sigma \) fixed, dropped from rules)

\[ A \not\in^? D \bar{v} \quad \text{data } D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \text{ where } e \in \Sigma \quad A \not\in^? u \equiv_B v \quad \Gamma \not\in^? u =^? v : (x : B) \Rightarrow \text{NO} \]

\[ \Gamma \not\in^? \theta : A \]

Fig. 18. Rules for caseless types.
using $\Sigma \vdash P \rho \Rightarrow P'$ to construct the subterm $Q$. Here $\rho'$ and $\tau'$ are lifted versions of $\rho$ and $\tau$
over the part of the context that is untouched by unification.

**SPLITEMPTY** applies when the first clause has a constraint of the form $x \not\in \emptyset$, and the type of $x$ is a caseless type according to $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \emptyset : A$. It then produces the case tree $\text{case}_x \{\}$. 

**Remark 35** (Limitations). The algorithm does not detect unreachable clauses, we left that aspect out of the formal description. Further, **SPLITEMPTY** may leave some user patterns unspected, which may then be ill-typed. However, an easy check whether the whole lhs $f \bar{q}$ is well-typed as term can rule out ill-typed patterns.

### 5.3 Preservation of first-match semantics

Now that we have described the elaboration algorithm from a list of clauses to a well-typed case tree, we can state and prove our main correctness theorem. We already know that elaboration (Theorem 31) and cover all cases (Theorem 34). Now we prove that the case tree we get is the right one, i.e. that it corresponds to the definition written by the user. 

To prove this theorem, we assume that the clauses we get from the user have already been scope checked, i.e. each variable in the right-hand side of a clause is bound somewhere in the patterns on the left.

**Definition 36.** A partially decomposed clause $[E]\bar{q} \hookrightarrow v$ is well-scoped if every free variable in $v$
occur at least once as a pattern variable in either $\bar{q}$ or in $p$ for some constraint $(w \not\in p : A) \in E$.

**Theorem 37.** Let $P = \{\bar{q}_i \hookrightarrow \text{rhs}_i | i = 1 \ldots n\}$ be a list of well-scoped clauses such that $\Sigma_0 \vdash f : C \vdash P \Rightarrow \Sigma \vdash Q$ and let $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f : C \vdash \bar{e} : B$ be eliminations. Suppose there is an index $i$ such that:

- $\Sigma \vdash [\bar{e} / \bar{q}_i] \not\vdash \sigma$
- $\Sigma \vdash [\bar{e} / \bar{q}_i] \not\vdash \sigma$

Then $\text{rhs}_i = u_i$ is not impossible and $\Sigma \vdash Q[\bar{e}] \not\hookrightarrow u_i \sigma$.

For the proof, we first need two basic properties of the auxiliary judgement $\Sigma \vdash v \not\hookrightarrow p : A \Rightarrow E$.

**Lemma 38.** If $\Sigma \vdash v \not\hookrightarrow p : A \Rightarrow E$ where $E = \{w_k \not\hookrightarrow p_k : B_k | k = 1 \ldots l\}$, then for any substitution $\sigma$ we also have $\Sigma \vdash \sigma \not\hookrightarrow p : A \sigma \Rightarrow E'$ where $E' = \{w_k \sigma \not\hookrightarrow p_k : B_k \sigma | k = 1 \ldots l\}$.

**Proof.** This follows directly from the rules of matching in Fig. 6 and simplification of constraints in Fig. 17. 

**Lemma 39.** Let $\sigma$ be a substitution and suppose $\Sigma \vdash v \not\hookrightarrow p : A \Rightarrow E$. Then the following hold:

- $\Sigma \vdash [\sigma \not\hookrightarrow \sigma']$ if and only if for each $(w_k \not\hookrightarrow p_k : A_k) \in E$, we have $\Sigma \vdash [\sigma \not\hookrightarrow \sigma_k]$ and $\sigma = \bigcup_k \sigma_k$.
- $\Sigma \vdash [\sigma \not\hookrightarrow \sigma']$ if and only if for some $(w_k \not\hookrightarrow p_k : A_k) \in E$, we have $\Sigma \vdash [\sigma \not\hookrightarrow \sigma_k]$.

**Proof.** Follows directly from the definitions of matching (Fig. 6) and simplification (Fig. 17). 

The following lemma is the main component of the proof. It generalizes the statement of Theorem 37 to the case where the left-hand side has already been refined to $f \bar{q}$ and the user clauses have been partially decomposed. From this lemma, the main theorem follows directly by taking $\bar{q} = \bar{e}$ and $E_i = \{\}$ for $i = 1 \ldots n$.

**Lemma 40.** Let $P = \{[E_i]\bar{q}_i \hookrightarrow \text{rhs}_i | i = 1 \ldots n\}$ be a list of well-scoped clauses such that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_0 \vdash f \bar{q}_i : C \vdash P \Rightarrow \Sigma \vdash Q$ and suppose $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \sigma_0 : \Gamma_0$ and $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \bar{q}\sigma_0 : C\sigma_0 \vdash \bar{e} : B$. If there is an index $i$ such that:
Then $\mathsf{rhs}_1 = \vartheta_1$ is not impossible and $\Sigma \vdash \mathsf{Q}_\vartheta \ e \longrightarrow \vartheta_1 \theta$ where $\theta = \theta_0 \cup (\vartheta_1 \ \theta_1)$. 

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation of $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_0 \ | \ f \ q : C \ P \rightsquigarrow \Sigma \ | \ Q$: 

- For the **DONE** rule where $Q = \vartheta_1 \sigma$ and $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma$ we have $\vartheta_1 = \epsilon$ and $\mathsf{rhs}_1 = \vartheta_1$ (i.e. $\mathsf{rhs}_1$ is not impossible). We also get that $\sigma = (\cup_{k} \ \sigma_k)$ is a substitution such that $\Sigma; \Gamma_0 \vdash \vartheta_1 \sigma$. 

- Since for each $j = 1 \ldots i - 1$ and each constraint $(w_k / \vartheta p_k : A_k) \in E_j$, either $\Sigma \vdash [w_k \sigma_0 / p_k] \ \bot$ or $\Sigma \vdash [w_k \sigma_0 / p_k] \ \bot$. 

- For each $j = 1 \ldots i - 1$, either $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta q_j] \ \bot_0$ or $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta q_j] \ \bot$. 

- For each $j = 1 \ldots i - 1$, either $\Sigma \vdash [w_k \sigma_0 / p_k] \ \bot$ for some constraint $(w_k / \vartheta p_k : A_k) \in E_j$, or $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta q_j] \ \bot$. 

- For each $(w_k / \vartheta p_k : A_k) \in E_i$, we have $\Sigma \vdash [w_k \sigma_0 / p_k] \ \bot_0$. 

- $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta q_i] \ \bot_0$. 

Since $\vartheta_1$ is well-scoped, for each free variable $x$ in $\vartheta_1$ there is at least one constraint $(w_k / \vartheta p_k : A_k) \in E_i$ such that $x$ is a pattern variable of $p_k$. 

Since we have both $\Sigma \vdash [w_k / p_k] \ \sigma_k$ and $\Sigma \vdash [w_k \sigma_0 / p_k] \ \theta_k$ for each $(w_k / \vartheta p_k : A_k) \in E_i$ and $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta q_i] \ \bot_0$. 

This holds for any free variable $x$ in $\vartheta_1$, so we have $\vartheta_1 \sigma_0 = \vartheta_1 \theta$, finishing the proof for the base case. 

- For the **Intro** rule we have $Q = \lambda x. \ Q'$ where $\Sigma_0 \vdash C \ \vartheta (x : A) \rightarrow B$ and $\vartheta_i = p_i \ \vartheta_i$ for $i = 1 \ldots n$. We also know that $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_0(x : A) \ | \ f \ q : X \rightarrow B \ P' \rightsquigarrow \Sigma \ | \ Q'$ where $P' = P (x : A)$. 

- Since we have either $\Sigma \vdash [e / p_i \ \vartheta_i] \ \bot$ or $\Sigma \vdash [e / p_1 \ \vartheta_1] \ \bot_0$, we have $\vartheta = e \ e'$ for some term $t$. Now we apply the induction hypothesis to show that $\mathsf{rhs}_1 = \vartheta_1$ is not impossible and $\Sigma \vdash Q' (\sigma_0 \cup [t / x]) \ e' \longrightarrow \vartheta_1 \theta$, hence also $\Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \ e \longrightarrow \vartheta_1 \theta$. 

- For the **COSPLIT** rule where $Q = \mathit{record} \{x_1 \mapsto Q_1; \ldots; x_n \mapsto Q_n\}$, we have $\Sigma_0 \vdash C \ \vartheta \ \bar{v}$ and $\vartheta_i = \bar{v}_i$ where $\mathit{projection} \ x : R \Delta \mapsto \vartheta_i : A_i \in \Sigma_0$. We have either $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta_i \ \vartheta_i'] \ \bot_0$ or $\Sigma \vdash [e / \vartheta_i \ \vartheta_i'] \ \bot$, hence also $\Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \ e \longrightarrow \vartheta_1 \theta$. 

- For the **COSPLIT** rule we have $\vartheta_i = \emptyset \ \vartheta_i'$. Since there are no rules for $[\pi / \theta] \ \bot_0$, this case is impossible. 

- For the **SPLIT** rule we know that $Q = \mathit{case}_x \{c_1 \ \bar{\lambda}_i \mapsto Q_1; \ldots; c_n \ \bar{\lambda}_n \mapsto Q_n\}$ where $n \geq 1$, $\Gamma = \Gamma_1(x : A) \Gamma_2$ and $\Sigma_0 \vdash A \ \vartheta \ \bar{v}$. Since $(x \rightarrow^* c \bar{\lambda} : A) \in E_1$, we either have $\Sigma \vdash [x \sigma_0 / c \bar{\lambda}] \ \bot_1$ or $\Sigma \vdash [x \sigma_0 / c \bar{\lambda}] \ \bot$ (this is the case both if $i = 1$ and if $i > 1$). 

- In either case, we have $\Sigma \vdash x \sigma_0 \ \vartheta \ \bar{u}$ for some constructor $c \ \bar{\lambda}_i \ \Delta_i : D \ \Delta \in \Sigma_0$. Let $\Delta_i' = \Delta_i \ (x / [\Delta] \ \rho_i = [c_i \ \bar{\lambda}_i' / x]$), then we have $\Sigma \vdash P \rho_i \Rightarrow P_i$ and $\Sigma_0 \Delta_i' \rho_i : [f \ \rho_i : C \rho_i \Rightarrow P_i \rightsquigarrow \Sigma_0 \ | \ Q_i]$. We now apply the induction hypothesis to get that $\mathsf{rhs}_1 = \vartheta_1$ is not impossible and $\Sigma_0 \vdash Q \sigma_0 \ e \longrightarrow \vartheta_1 \theta$, hence also $\Sigma \vdash Q \sigma_0 \ e \longrightarrow \vartheta_1 \theta$. 

- For the **SPLIT** rule where $Q = \mathit{case}_x \{\mathit{refl} \mapsto^* Q'\}$, we know that $\Gamma = \Gamma_1(x : A) \Gamma_2$ and $\Sigma_0 \vdash A \ \vartheta \ \vartheta \equiv \vartheta A \ \vartheta$. Since $(x \rightarrow^* \mathit{refl} : A) \in E_1$, we either have $\Sigma \vdash [x \sigma_0 / \mathit{refl}] \ \bot_1$ or $\Sigma \vdash [x \sigma_0 / \mathit{refl}] \ \bot$. However, the latter case is impossible since $\mathit{refl}$ is the only constructor of the identity type, so we have $\Sigma \vdash x \sigma_0 \ \vartheta \ \vartheta$ and $\theta_1 = \emptyset$. Moreover we have $\Sigma_0; \Gamma_1 \vdash u = ?$.
1422 \[ v : (x:B) \Rightarrow \text{yes}(\Gamma', \rho, \tau) \text{ and } \Sigma_0; \Gamma_1\Gamma_2\rho \mid f \ q\rho' : C\rho' + P' \leadsto \Sigma | Q' \text{ where } \rho' = \rho \cup \mathbb{I}_{\Gamma_1} \text{ and } \Sigma_0 \vdash P \rho \Rightarrow P'. \] By induction (and using Definition 21 to show that \( \rho'; \tau; \sigma_0 = \sigma_0 \)), we get that \( \text{rhs}_i = v_1 \) is not impossible and \( \Sigma \vdash Q'(\tau; \sigma_0) \theta \rightarrow \theta \), hence also \( \Sigma \vdash Q_0 \theta \rightarrow \theta \).

- For the SPLITEMPTY rule we know that \( Q = \text{case}_x{} \) and \( (x / \emptyset : A) \in E_i \) where \( \Sigma_0; \Gamma \vdash \emptyset : A \).

We either have \( \Sigma \vdash [x\sigma_0 / \emptyset] \searrow \theta_x \) or \( \Sigma \vdash [x\sigma_0 / \emptyset] \searrow \bot \). However, there are no rules for \( \Sigma \vdash [v / \emptyset] \searrow \theta \) so this case is impossible.

\[ \Box \]

6 RELATED WORK

Dependent pattern matching was introduced in the seminal work by Coquand [1992]. It is used in the implementation of various dependently typed languages such as Agda [Norell 2007], Idris [Brady 2013], the Equations package for Coq [Sozeau 2010], and Lean [de Moura et al. 2015].

The translation from a case tree to primitive datatype eliminators was pioneered by McBride [2000] and further detailed by Goguen et al. [2006] for type theory with uniqueness of identity proofs and Cockx [2017] in a theory without.

Forced patterns, as well as forced constructors, were introduced by Brady et al. [2003]. Brady focuses mostly on the compilation process and the possibility to erase arguments and constructor tags, while we focus more on the process of typechecking a definition by pattern matching and the construction of a case tree.

Copatterns were introduced in the simply-typed setting by Abel et al. [2013] and subsequently used for unifying corecursion and recursion in System Fω [Abel and Pientka 2013]. In the context of Isabelle/HOL, Blanchette et al. [2017] use copatterns as syntax for mixed recursive-corecursive definitions. Setzer et al. [2014] give an algorithm for elaborating a definition by mixed pattern/copattern matching to a nested case expression, yet only for a simply typed language. Thibodeau et al. [2016] present a language with deep (co)pattern matching and a restricted form of dependent types. In their language, types can only depend on a user-defined domain with decidable equality and the types of record fields cannot depend on each other, thus, a self value is not needed for checking projections. They feature indexed data and record types in the surface language which are elaborated into non-indexed types via equality types, just as in our core language.

The connection between focusing [Andreoli 1992] and pattern matching has been systematically explored by Zeilberger [2009]. In Licata et al. [2008] also copatterns (“destructor patterns”) appear in the context of simple typing with connectives from linear logic. Krishnaswami [2009] boils the connection to focusing down to usual non-linear types; however, he has no copatterns as he only considers the product type as multiplicative (tensor), not additive. Thibodeau et al. [2016] extend the connection to copatterns for indexed record types.

Elaborating a definition by pattern matching to a case tree [Augustsson 1985] simultaneously typechecks the clauses and checks their coverage, so our algorithm has a lot in common with coverage checking algorithms. For example, Norell [2007] views the construction of a case tree as a part of coverage checking. Oury [2007] presents a similar algorithm for coverage checking and detecting useless cases in definitions by dependent pattern matching.

7 FUTURE WORK AND CONCLUSION

In this paper, we give a description of an elaboration algorithm for definitions by dependent copattern matching that is at the same time elegant enough to be intuitively understandable, simple enough to study formally, and detailed enough to serve as the basis for a practical implementation.

The implementation of our algorithm as part of the Agda typechecker is at the moment of writing still work in progress. In fact, the main reason to write this paper was to get a clear idea
of what exactly should be implemented. For instance, while working on the proof of Theorem 37, we were quite surprised to discover that it first did not hold: matching was performed lazily from left to right, but the case tree produced by elaboration may not agree on this order! This problem was not just theoretical, but also manifested itself in the implementation of Agda as a violation of subject reduction [Agda issue 2018a]. Removing the shortcut rule from the definition of matching removed this behavioral divergence mismatch. The completed formalization of the elaboration algorithm in this paper lets us continue the implementation with confidence.

Agda also has a number of features that are not described in this paper, such as nonrecursive record types with \( \eta \) equality and general indexed datatypes (not just the identity type). The implementation also has to deal with the insertion of implicit arguments, the presence of metavariables in the syntax, and reporting understandable errors when the algorithm fails. Based on our practical experience, we are confident that the algorithm presented here can be extended to deal with all of these features.

REFERENCES


A  INFERENCES RULES

\[ \Gamma \vdash v = A : A \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash u : A \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A \\
\Gamma \vdash u = u : A \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A \\
\Gamma \vdash u_2 = u_1 : A \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A \\
\Gamma \vdash u_2 = u_3 : A \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_3 : A \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A_1 \\
\Gamma \vdash A_1 = A_2 \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A_2 \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash A_1 = A_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\Gamma(x : A_1) \vdash B_1 = B_2 : \text{Set}_{\ell'} \\
\Gamma \vdash (x : A_1) \rightarrow B_1 = (x : A_2) \rightarrow B_2 : \text{Set}_{\text{max}(\ell, \ell')} \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash x : \Delta \in \Sigma \\
\Gamma \vdash x : \Delta \vdash \epsilon \equiv \epsilon_2 : B \\
\Gamma \vdash x \epsilon_1 = x \epsilon_2 : B \\
\Gamma \vdash A_1 = A_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A_1 \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A_1 \\
\Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A_2 \\
\Gamma \vdash (u_1 \equiv A_1 u_1) = (u_2 \equiv A_2 u_2) : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
data D \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \in \Sigma \\
\Gamma \vdash D \bar{u}_1 = D \bar{u}_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\Gamma \vdash D \bar{u}_1 = D \bar{u}_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
record R \Delta : \text{Set}_\ell \in \Sigma \\
\Gamma \vdash R \bar{u}_1 = R \bar{u}_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\Gamma \vdash R \bar{u}_1 = R \bar{u}_2 : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{constructor } c \Delta_c : D \Delta \in \Sigma \\
\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \Delta \\
\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} : \text{Set}_\ell \\
\Gamma \vdash c \bar{v}_1 = c \bar{v}_2 : D \bar{u} \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{definition } f : A \in \Sigma \\
\Gamma \vdash f : A \vdash \bar{e}_1 = \bar{e}_2 : B \\
\Gamma \vdash f \bar{e}_1 = f \bar{e}_2 : B \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{clause } \Delta \vdash f \tilde{q} \leftarrow v : B \in \Sigma \\
\Gamma \vdash \sigma : \Delta \\
\Gamma \vdash \sigma : B \sigma \\
\end{array} \]

Fig. 19. The typing rules for valid contexts.

Fig. 20. The conversion rules for terms.
\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \mid u : A \vdash \bar{e}_1 = \bar{e}_2 : B & \quad \Gamma \vdash v_1 = v_2 : A & \quad \Gamma \mid u \, v_1 : B[x \mapsto v_1] \vdash \bar{e}_1 = \bar{e}_2 : C \\
\Gamma \mid u : A \vdash \epsilon = \epsilon : A & \quad \Gamma \mid u : (x : A) \rightarrow B \vdash v_1 \, \bar{e}_1 = v_2 \, \bar{e}_2 : C \\
\end{align*}
\]

projection \[ x : R \Delta \vdash .\pi : A \in \Sigma \]
\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \mid u : R \bar{\varnothing} \vdash .\pi \, \bar{e}_1 = .\pi \, \bar{e}_2 : C \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \mid u : A \vdash \bar{e}_1 = \bar{e}_2 : B & \quad \Gamma \vdash A = A' & \quad \Gamma \vdash B = B' \\
\Gamma \mid u : A' \vdash \bar{e}_1 = \bar{e}_2 : B' \\
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 21. The conversion rules for eliminations.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \vdash \bar{u} = \bar{\varnothing} : \Delta & \quad \Gamma \vdash u_1 = u_2 : A & \quad \Gamma \vdash \bar{u}_1 = \bar{u}_2 : \Delta[x \mapsto u_1] \\
\Gamma \vdash \epsilon = \epsilon : \epsilon & \quad \Gamma \vdash u_1 \, \bar{u}_1 = u_2 \, \bar{u}_2 : (x : A)\Delta \\
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 22. The conversion rules for lists of terms.