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Varieties of Constructive Mathematics

DOUGLAS BRIDGES and FRED RICHMAN

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Varieties of Constructive Mathematics

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Preface

In Hilary Term, 1981, Douglas Bridges gave a course of lectures on Intuitionism and constructive mathematics in the Mathematical Institute of Oxford University. Shortly afterwards, he invited Fred Richman to join in the writing of a book based (as it turns out, rather loosely) on those lectures. The book now lies in front of the reader, as an introduction to the spirit and practice of modern constructive mathematics.

There are several excellent works such as Beeson's Foundations of Constructive Mathematics and Dummett's Elements of Intuitionism - on the logical and philosophical foundations of constructive mathematics; and there are others, such as Bishop's seminal treatise of Constructive dealing with Foundations Analysis, the detailed development of major portions of mathematics within a constructive framework. The present book is intended to land between those two positions: specifically, we hope that, with a minimum of philosophy and formal logic, and without requiring of the reader too great an investment of time and effort over technical details, it will leave him with a clear conception of the problems and methods of the three most important varieties of modern constructive mathematics.

Since classical mathematics, as practised by all but a tiny minority of mathematicians, appears to offer a much less arduous route to discovery, and a far greater catalogue of successes, than its constructive counterpart, one may well ask: Why should anyone, other than a devotee of a constructivist philosophy, be interested in learning about constructive mathematics? We believe there are several reasons why one might be so interested.

First, there is the richer structure of constructive mathematics that flows from the deepened meaning of existence. In the classical interpretation, an object exists if its non-existence is

contradictory. There is a clear distinction between this meaning of existence and the constructive, algorithmic one, under which an object exists only if we can construct it, at least in principle. As Bishop has said, such 'meaningful distinctions deserve to be maintained'.

Second, there is the unexpected role played by intuitionistic logic and constructive methods in topos theory. Any theorem in constructive mathematics may be interpreted as a classical theorem about a topos; if the topos is suitably chosen, then the theorem may have classical interest outside of topos theory. For example, constructive theorems about diagonalizing matrices over the reals may be interpreted as classical theorems about diagonalizing matrices over the ring of continuous functions on a compact metric space.

Finally, there is the possibility of applications of constructive mathematics to areas such as numerical mathematics, physics, and computer science. For computer science, we refer the reader to Martin-Löf's paper Constructive mathematics and computer programming (in: Logic, Methodology and the Philosophy of Science VI, North-Holland, 1982), and to the recent book Implementing Mathematics with the Nuprl Proof Development System, by Constable et al. (Prentice-Hall, 1986).

We now outline the contents of our book. In Chapter 1 we introduce the three varieties of constructive mathematics with which we shall be concerned: Bishop's constructive mathematics, Brouwer's intuitionistic mathematics, and the constructive recursive mathematics of the Russian school of Markov; we also construct the real line R and examine its basic properties.

In Chapter 2 we discuss, within Bishop's mathematics, a range of topics in analysis. These topics are chosen to illustrate distinctive features of the practice of constructive mathematics, such as the splitting of one classical theorem (for example, Baire's theorem) into several inequivalent constructive ones, and the investigation of important notions, like locatedness, with little or no classical significance. A similar approach to constructive algebra is found in Chapter 4, which culminates in a constructive treatment of the Hilbert basis theorem. Chapter 4 also offers some comparisons between constructive algebra and classical recursive algebra.

Chapter 3 contains the essentials of constructive recursive mathematics, and is based on Richman's axiomatic approach to Church's

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thesis. This approach greatly simplifies the presentation of mathematics within the recursive framework, and leads to particularly perspicuous proofs of Specker's theorem and the existence of a compact subset of \mathbb{R} that is not Lebesgue measurable.

Chapter 5 deals with intuitionistic mathematics, by formulating axioms which capture the mathematical essence of Brouwer's approach. The elements of intuitionistic mathematics are developed, including Brouwer's famous theorem that every real-valued function on a compact interval is uniformly continuous.

In Chapter 6 the three varieties of constructive mathematics are compared by an examination of the status within each of the classical proposition

if f is a uniformly continuous mapping of [0,1] into the positive real line, then the infimum of f is positive.

The final chapter deals with intuitionistic logic and topos models, mainly through the presentation of a few examples. We treat this material somewhat superficially, not wishing to involve the reader in a detailed development of the logic and category theory necessary for a fully rigorous treatment.

A remark about our style of references is in order here. With few exceptions, references are found in the notes at the end of each chapter, in which case they are normally described in detail. There are certain works to which we refer so often, or which are indispensable to the practising constructive mathematician, that we chose to give them special names, printed in bold face; these are

Beeson	Michael J. Beeson, Foundations of Constructive Mathematics (Springer, 1985)	
Bishop	Errett Bishop, Foundations of Constructive Analysis, (McGraw-Hill, 1967)	
Bishop-Bridges	Errett Bishop and Douglas Bridges, Constructive Analysis (Springer, 1985)	
Brouwer	Brouwer's Cambridge lectures on intuitionism, (Dirk Van Dalen ed., Cambridge University Press, 1981)	
Dummett	Michael Dummett, Elements of Intuitionism (Oxford University Press, 1977)	

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Kushner	B.A. Kushner, Lectures on Constructive Mathematical Analysis (American Mathematical Society, 1985)	
MRR	Ray Mines, Fred Richman, Wim Ruitenberg, A Course on Constructive Algebra (Springer, forthcoming)	
Springer 873	Constructive Mathematics (Fred Richman ed., Springer Lecture Notes in Mathematics 873)	

During the writing of this book, we received support from the University of Buckingham and from New Mexico State University. As usual, we have had many hours of stimulating discussion with Bill Julian and Ray Mines. Bill and Nancy Julian kindly provided hospitality when Bridges visited New Mexico to work with Richman. David Tranah, of Cambridge University Press, has been unbelievably patient with us, as deadline after deadline has passed by.

Perhaps the most long-suffering have been our families, who have had to share the birth pangs of this book over an unusually long labour; we dedicate this work to them.

> Douglas S. Bridges Fred Richman

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Chapter 1. Foundations of Constructive Mathematics

In which the reader is introduced to the three varieties of constructive mathematics that will be studied in detail in subsequent chapters; the framework of Bishop's constructive mathematics is erected; and the elementary theory of the real numbers is developed.

1. Existence and omniscience

We engage in constructive mathematics from a desire to clarify the meaning of mathematical terminology and practice – in particular, the meaning of existence in a mathematical context. The classical mathematician, with the freedom of methodology advocated by Hilbert, perceives an object x to exist if he can prove the impossibility of its nonexistence; the constructive mathematician must be presented with an algorithm that constructs the object x before he will recognize that xexists.

What do we mean by an *algorithm*? We may think of an algorithm as a specification of a step-by-step computation, such as a program in some computer language, which can be performed, at least in principle, by a human being or a computer in a finite period of time; moreover, the passage from one step to another should be deterministic. Note that we say 'performed, at least in principle', for it is possible for an algorithm to require an amount of time greater than the age of the universe for its complete execution. We are not concerned here with questions of complexity or efficiency.

In Bishop's constructive mathematics (BISH), and in Brouwer's intuitionism (INT), the notion of an algorithm, or finite routine, is taken as primitive. Russian constructivism (RUSS), on the other hand, operates within a fixed programming language, and an algorithm is a sequence of symbols in that language.

Chapter 1. Foundations of constructive mathematics

While BISH is only one of the three varieties of constructive mathematics that we shall consider, it is the one to which we shall devote the most attention. There are at least two reasons for this. First, BISH is consistent with CLASS, the classical mathematics practised by most mathematicians today. Every proposition P in BISH has an immediate interpretation in CLASS, and a proof of P in BISH is also a proof of P in true in our other two varieties: CLASS. This is not Russian constructivism (RUSS) and Brouwer's intuitionism (INT). For example, in both RUSS and INT it is proved that every real valued function on the interval [0,1] is pointwise continuous.

A second reason for paying particular attention to BISH is that every proof of a proposition P in BISH is a proof of P in RUSS and in INT. Indeed, the last two varieties may be regarded as extensions of BISH. In RUSS, the main principle adjoined to BISH is a form of Church's thesis that all sequences of natural numbers are recursive. In INT, two principles are added which ensure strong continuity properties of arbitrary real-valued functions on intervals of the line.

From a philosophical point of view, there is more to RUSS and INT than the mere adjunction of certain principles to BISH. In RUSS, every mathematical object is, ultimately, a natural number: constructions take place within a fixed formal system, functions are Godel numbers of the algorithms that compute them, and so on. On the other hand, INT is based on Brouwer's intuitionistic philosophy, including an analysis of the notion of an infinitely proceeding, or free choice, sequence. For the most part we shall ignore the philosophical aspects by abstracting in each case the features essential for the development of the associated mathematics; we are writing for mathematicians rather than for philosophers or logicians.

The essential difference between BISH and CLASS is illustrated by considering the simplest kind of statement concerning existence in an infinite context. A binary sequence is a finite routine that assigns to each positive integer an element of $\{0,1\}$. Let α be a binary sequence, and consider the statements

> $P(\alpha) : a_n = 1 \text{ for some } n,$ $\neg P(\alpha) : a_n = 0 \text{ for all } n,$ $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha) : \text{ Either } P(\alpha) \text{ or } \neg P(\alpha),$

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1. Existence and omniscience

 $\forall a(P(a) \lor \neg P(a))$: For all a, either P(a) or $\neg P(a)$.

Note that $\neg P(\alpha)$ is the denial of $P(\alpha)$. A constructive proof of $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha)$ must provide a finite routine which either shows that $\alpha_n = 0$ for all n, or computes a positive integer n with $\alpha_n = 1$. (Note the constructive meaning of disjunction, which follows from the constructive interpretation of existence: $P_1 \lor P_2$ holds if and only if there exists i such that P_i ; to prove $P_1 \lor P_2$, it is not enough to show that P_1 and P_2 cannot both be false.) In particular, if α is the binary sequence defined by setting

$$a_n = 0 \quad \text{if } x^{m+2} + y^{m+2} \neq z^{m+2} \text{ for all}$$

positive integers x,y,z,m $\leq n$,
= 1 otherwise,

then a constructive proof of $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha)$ would give a method for deciding the Fermat conjecture, $\neg P(\alpha)$, by providing a construction that either establishes the Fermat conjecture or produces an explicit counterexample to it; unless we have such a construction, we are not entitled to assert $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha)$ within BISH. We say that α is a **Brouwerian example** of a binary sequence for which $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha)$ does not hold, or that α is a **Brouwerian counterexample** to the statement $\forall \alpha (P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha))$. Note that a Brouwerian counterexample is not an counterexample in the usual sense; it is evidence that a statement does not admit a constructive proof.

The use of Fermat's conjecture in the above example is not essential. If Fermat's conjecture were resolved tomorrow, we could then assert $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha)$; however, by referring to another open problem, such as the Riemann hypothesis or the Goldbach conjecture, we could construct another binary sequence a for which we could not assert $P(\alpha) \lor \neg P(\alpha)$

More generally, a **Brouwerian counterexample** to an assertion A is a proof that A implies some principle that is unacceptable, or at least highly dubious, in the context of constructive mathematics. The two most popular principles were introduced by Brouwer; we present them here under the names given them by Bishop. The first is simply the assertion $\forall a (P(a) \lor \neg P(a));$ the second is a little subtler.

LPO The limited principle of commiscience: If (a_n) is a binary sequence, then either there exists n such that $a_n = 1$, or else $a_n = 0$ for each n.

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LLPO The lesser limited principle of commiscience: If (a_n) is a binary sequence containing at most one 1, then either a_{2n} = 0 for each n, or else a_{2n+1} = 0 for each n.
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A constructive proof of LPO would provide a finite decision procedure for a vast number of unsolved problems in mathematics, including the conjectures of Fermat, Riemann, and Goldbach. The unlikelihood of finding a method of such power and scope is an argument for excluding LPO from constructive mathematics, at least provisionally; were such a method found, our ideas concerning constructive mathematics would have to be drastically revised, especially as LPO and LLPO are provably false within INT and RUSS.

The **law of excluded middle**, which asserts that $P \lor \neg P$ holds for any statement P, implies LPO, and so is rejected in constructive mathematics.

Given a real number r, for each positive integer n compute a rational number r_n such that $|r - r_n| < 1/n$. If $|r_n| \le 1/n$, set $a_n \equiv 0$, and if $|r_n| > 1/n$, set $a_n \equiv 1$. Then the resulting binary sequence $a \equiv (a_1, a_2, \ldots)$ has the property that

(*)
$$|r| > 0$$
 if and only if $\exists n(\alpha_n = 1)$, and $r = 0$ if and only if $\forall n(\alpha_n = 0)$.

Conversely, to each binary sequence α there corresponds a real number $r \equiv \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} \alpha_n$ such that (*) obtains. Thus the limited principle of omniscience is equivalent to the assertion that each real number is either 0 or different from 0. Another assertion equivalent to LPO is the trichotomy law: $[-1,1] = [-1,0] \cup \{0\} \cup \{0,1\}$.

The lesser limited principle of omniscience says that for any binary sequence, either the first nonzero term, if it exists, has even index, or the first nonzero term, if it exists, has odd index. This is equivalent to the assertions

$$[-1,1] = [-1,0] \cup [0,1],$$

and

for each real number r, either
$$r \leq 0$$
 or $r \geq 0$.

Another assertion equivalent to LLPO is that if the product of two real numbers is 0, then one or the other of them is 0.

1. Existence and omniscience

Many other familiar results of CLASS are equivalent to some principle that is rejected in BISH. The intermediate value theorem for uniformly continuous functions is equivalent to LLPO, while LPO is equivalent to the assertion that every real number is either rational or irrational. The law of excluded middle is a consequence of the statement that every ideal in the ring of integers is finitely generated.

It is helpful to formulate omniscience principles in the notation of the (intuitionistic) propositional calculus, in terms of the simplest kind of assertion of existence in an infinite context. Let us call an assertion A **simply existential** if we can construct a binary sequence a such that A holds if and only if there exists n such that $a_n = 1$. For arbitrary simply existential statements A and B, the principles LPO and LLPO take the forms:

LPO: $A \lor \neg A$, LLPO: $\neg (A \land B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \lor \neg B$.

It is easily seen that if A and B are simply existential, then so is $A \wedge B$. Thus LLPO can be extended, by induction on n, to read

$$\neg (A_1 \land A_2 \land \cdots \land A_n) \Leftrightarrow \neg A_1 \lor \neg A_2 \lor \cdots \lor \neg A_n.$$

Two other omniscience principles, stated for an arbitrary simply existential statement A, are the weak limited principle of omniscience

and Markov's Principle

MP:
$$\neg\neg A \Leftrightarrow A$$
.

These two principles were also rejected by Brouwer, and are commonly used by constructive mathematicians for counterexamples. It is not difficult to show that LPO implies WLPO, and that WLPO implies LLPO. These three principles are false in RUSS, unlike Markov's principle, which is used freely by the practitioners of that school.

The reader should not be misled into thinking that constructive mathematics is largely a criticism of classical mathematics by means of Brouwerian counterexamples, although such counterexamples do play an important role in establishing the direction of constructive research. The main task of the constructive mathematician is the positive