

# On Expanding Standard Notions of Constructivity

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## Abstract

Brouwer developed the notion of *mental constructions* based on his view of mathematical truth as experienced truth. These constructions extend the traditional practice of constructive mathematics, and we believe they have the potential to provide a broader and deeper foundation for various constructive theories. We here illustrate mental constructions in two well studied theories – computability theory and plane geometry – and discuss the resulting extended mathematical structures. Further, we demonstrate how these notions can be embedded in an implemented formal framework, namely the constructive type theory of the Nuprl proof assistant. Additionally, we point out several similarities in both the theory and implementation of the extended structures.

## 1 Introduction

Plane geometry and computability theory share a constructive foundation. Since its inception in the Elements, Euclidean *plane geometry* has been conceived of as a theory based on the ruler and compass constructions. Similarly, *computability theory* is founded on functions for which there is an effective method, or computation, for obtaining the values of the function. Just as standard geometric constructions are informally perceived as those of the straightedge and compass, the standard computations are informally perceived as those computable by some pen and paper method.

Intuitionistic mathematics as conceived by Brouwer (see e.g. [12, 25, 32]) extends the standard notions of constructions by admitting also those constructions corresponding to human experiences of mathematical truths. Brouwer adds to the effective, algorithmic constructions mental constructions made by the *idealized mathematician* (or the “*creative subject*”).

According to Brouwer, mathematical truths are experienced, and thus mental constructions are formed, based on temporal, rather than spatial, intuitions:

From this intuition of time, independent of experience, all the mathematical systems, including spaces with their geometries, have been built up, and subsequently some of these mathematical systems are chosen to catalogue the various phenomena of experience. [11]

In computability theory, the notion of infinitely proceeding sequences of freely chosen objects, known as *free choice sequences* (which lay at the heart of intuitionistic mathematics), can only take place when regarding functions as constructed over time. In plane geometry, the construction of *points at infinity*, which are the intersection of infinitely proceeding parallel lines (which are the essence of projective geometry), has no basis in our intuition of space, which is fundamentally Euclidean and thus limits our capacity for experiencing geometric truths.

We here incorporate these two types of objects into their corresponding theories. Even though exploiting the intuitionistic notion of constructions in these theories exceeds their respective standard constructions, we demonstrate how they can be captured in a formal computational framework. Namely, we outline how these ideas can be expressed in the constructive type theory of the Nuprl proof assistant [1, 18].

## 2 Expanding the Function Space

### 2.1 Standard Computability Theory

Church-Turing computability constitutes as the standard notion of computation. This notion defines the computable functions as those for which there is an *effective method* for obtaining the values of the function. For those, Turing used the term ‘purely mechanical’, whereas Church used ‘effectively calculable’.

define the notion ... of an effectively calculable function of positive integers by identifying it with the notion of a recursive function of positive integers (or of a  $\lambda$ -definable function of positive integers). [15]

This notion of computability is the one underlying the computational theories invoked by standard constructive type theories, which in turn are at the base of extent proof assistants such as Nuprl, Agda [8], and Coq [4]. Thus, the elements of the function type  $A \rightarrow B$  are taken to be the *effective (computable)* functions from the type  $A$  to the type  $B$ . The canonical form of elements of this type are therefore terms of the form  $\lambda x.t$ .

### 2.2 The Creative Subject and Choice Sequences

In his exploration of intuitionistic mathematic Brouwer put forward a new notion of computation that exceeds the standard Church-Turing computability. He proposed accepting *non-lawlike* computations, i.e. computations for which there

is no method governing them. This notion was captured using the concept of *free choice sequences* [9, 19, 30].

Choice sequences are never finished sequences of objects created *over time* by a *creative subject*. They can be lawlike in the sense that they are determined by an algorithm (i.e., standard computable functions), or lawless in the sense that they are not subject to any law (i.e., free). Free choice sequences are described as:

new mathematical entities... in the form of infinitely proceeding sequences, whose terms are chosen more or less freely from mathematical entities previously acquired... [9]

Hence, a free choice sequence is infinitely proceeding, i.e. it comes into existence by a never ending process of picking natural numbers. Therefore, it is never fully completed and can always be extended. The choices of values in a free choice sequence are made freely, that is, they are not governed by any rule. For instance, one might think of the results of tossing a dice time and time again as a free choice sequence. While this clearly steps out of the realm of sequences constructed by an algorithm, there is a mental conception of how to create such sequences. The ideal mathematician, or the creative subject, can simply pick numbers as time proceeds.

Choice sequences were originally introduced by Brouwer in order to explain the structure of the continuum. In contrast to Bishop's account of the constructive reals, Brouwer's intuition was that the continuum can not be seen as constructed by discrete elements, rather the continuum should have the property that it cannot be "pulled apart".<sup>1</sup> Brouwer developed the intuitionistic continuum by defining a real number as a choice sequence of nested rational intervals. A key point is that the choice sequence itself is the real number, and not its limit. Brouwer's interpretation of the continuum is then given by the concept of a spread, which can be thought of as a totality of choice sequences. In the spread one is not able to refer to any specific path (i.e., an individual choice sequence) only to a subspread. This is reflected in the central axiom for free choice sequences (known as 'Axiom of Open Data' [31]) which roughly speaking states that if a property holds for a free choice sequence, then there is a finite initial segment of that sequence,  $s$ , such that this property holds for all free choice sequences with  $s$  as initial segment. Thus, the axiom does not provide information on a specific choice sequence, rather on the subspread determined by an initial segment, therefore in a sense constitutes as a continuity principle.

The existence of free choice sequences has major implications which lay at the heart of intuitionistic mathematics. For example, the Axiom of Open Data (more precisely, the continuity principle for numbers which follows from it) was used by Brouwer in order to prove that all real-valued functions

<sup>1</sup>As put nicely in [7]: "In Brouwer's case there seems to have been a nagging suspicion that unless he personally intervened to prevent it, the continuum would turn out to be discrete."

on the unit interval are uniformly continuous [10, Thm.3]. The bar induction principle, which is a powerful intuitionistic induction principle (equivalent to the classical transfinite induction) is another consequence of the introduction of free choice sequences [13, 14], which has also been explored in the context of the Nuprl proof assistant [29].

### 3 Expanding the Point Space

#### 3.1 Standard Constructions for Euclidean Geometry

What does it mean for a geometric proposition to be true? Certainly, a geometric proposition is true if it is validated by a ruler and compass construction. Conviction in geometric truths of this nature requires, for a formal analysis, axioms expressed using the formalization of these traditional tools. Axiomatizations governed by ruler and compass constructions have led to the conception of an abstract *human geometer*, who applies, in an algorithmic way, the traditional geometric tools to "geometric things." This is notably similar to the informal correspondence between computable functions and algorithms that can be carried out by some idealized *human computer* by pen on paper<sup>2</sup>

The analogy between the human computer and the human geometer becomes less apparent when it is necessary to identify what exactly is meant by "geometric things." While the human computer uses only purely mathematical structures as inputs when evaluating functions, the abstract geometer may not be required to carry out constructions on objects with definite mathematical properties. For example, in Euclid's *Elements*, points are defined only as "that which has no part" [20]. Therefore, Euclidean ruler and compass axiomatizations are historically *synthetic* – they do not stipulate what the primitive objects are – and therefore admit both "pre-mathematical" and purely mathematical models [22].

Numerous works have developed axiomatic systems for geometry that rely on straightedge and compass (or similarly familiar) constructions, e.g. [2, 3, 24, 28]. Euclidean geometry based on straightedge and compass constructions has been implemented in the Nuprl proof assistant as well [5].

#### 3.2 Extending the Euclidean Point Space: The Projective Extension

A commonplace extension of the Euclidean plane is the *projective extension*. A projective plane is constructed from the Euclidean plane by adding to the Euclidean points *points at infinity* corresponding to the perception that parallel lines intersect at a point on the horizon.<sup>3</sup> This extension is trivial classically, but requires great effort in an intuitionistic

<sup>2</sup>We borrow this analogy from, e.g. [26].

<sup>3</sup>Actually, one also has to add to the Euclidean lines a line at infinity to which all the points at infinity are incident. The formalization of this line is straightforward once the extension of points is established, therefore we elide this treatment in what follows.

221 setting.<sup>4</sup> The projective extension exceeds the notion of  
 222 standard constructions in Euclidean geometry. Nonetheless,  
 223 the projective extension can be captured within a formal  
 224 computational framework as we outline in the next section.  
 225

226 **Remark.** Note that, even in the Euclidean plane, an intu-  
 227 itionistic treatment admits constructions that exceed the  
 228 ruler and compass [2]. In order to ensure that the intuitionistic  
 229 continuum serves as a model for geometry, it is necessary  
 230 to make use of the *apartness relation* on points (or some  
 231 equivalent notion), see Sec. 4.2.1. Apartness, together with  
 232 its corresponding axiom of co-transitivity on points, provides  
 233 a “global notion” that imposes a continuous behavior on the  
 234 topological space of synthetic points [33]. A result of this  
 235 extension of the traditional ruler and compass constructions  
 236 in the Euclidean plane is a surprisingly concise capturing of  
 237 Euclid’s propositions. Specifically, in our Nuprl implementa-  
 238 tion of Euclidean geometry with the apartness relation, we  
 239 were able to prove a constructive version of Proposition 2  
 240 from Book I of the Elements in its full form. Proposition 2  
 241 constructs the rigid compass from the collapsing compass  
 242 (the collapsing compass is the “axiomatic” compass taken  
 243 by Euclid). In [2], Michael Beeson shows that the full form  
 244 of Proposition 2 is not provable in a system of Euclidean  
 245 geometry using constructive logic without apartness.  
 246

## 247 4 Type Theoretic Account

248 In this section we demonstrate how the aforementioned  
 249 extended notions of constructions can be implemented in a  
 250 formal system, namely the Nuprl proof assistant. We start  
 251 by outlining the key components of the implementation of  
 252 each theory, and then discuss the similarities between them.  
 253

### 254 4.1 Implementation in Nuprl

255 The Nuprl proof assistant implements a type theory called  
 256 *Constructive Type Theory* (CTT), which is a dependent type  
 257 theory, in the spirit of Martin-Löf’s extensional theory [23],  
 258 based on an untyped functional programming language. It  
 259 has a rich type theory including equality types, W types,  
 260 quotient types, set types, union and (dependent) intersec-  
 261 tion types, PER types, approximation and computational  
 262 equivalence types, and partial types.  
 263

264 The quotient type [17, 27] is of particular use to us in this  
 265 work. Given a type  $T$  and an equivalence relation  $E$  on  $T$  we  
 266 can form in Nuprl the quotient type  $T//E$  whose elements  
 267 are the elements of  $T$ , but the underlying equality of the type  
 268 is redefined by  $E$ . That is, two elements  $x, y \in T$  are equal in  
 269 the quotient type  $T//E$  provided  $E(x, y)$ .  
 270

271  
 272 <sup>4</sup>Heyting was the first to publish on the projective extension, and did so  
 273 under the premise of exemplifying the complexities of intuitionistic axiom-  
 274 atizations [21].  
 275

### 276 4.1.1 Choice Sequences

277 Recently we have integrated choice sequences into the con-  
 278 structive type theory implemented by Nuprl proof assistant  
 279 [16], thus showing that CTT is expressive enough to extend  
 280 computation to Brouwer’s broader notion that includes non-  
 281 lawlike computability. The free choice sequences were there  
 282 introduced into the function type  $A \rightarrow B$ , which previously  
 283 exhibited only law-like sequences.  
 284

285 Choice sequences were realized essentially as global top-  
 286 level definitions, whose contents are lists that grow over time.  
 287 This was implemented using the library underlying Nuprl  
 288 as a state in which choice sequences are stored, so that the  
 289 choices of values that have been made to a particular choice  
 290 sequence at a given point in time can be recorded. A choice  
 291 sequence entry in the library is simply a list of terms that can  
 292 be expanded by adding more values. This dynamic nature of  
 293 libraries is accounted for in the extended framework using a  
 294 Beth-like semantics.  
 295

### 296 4.1.2 The Projective Extension

297 Recall that a synthetic axiomatization of geometry does not  
 298 stipulate what the primitive objects are. The constructive  
 299 geometry implemented in the Nuprl proof assistant is syn-  
 300 thetic, and the Euclidean point type,  $P_{eu}$ , therefore retains  
 301 an abstract character.  
 302

303 The new type of points in the projective extension, i.e.  
 304 points at infinity, are formalized using Nuprl’s quotient type.  
 305 Let  $L_{eu}$  be the type of Euclidean lines, which are constructed  
 306 from pairs of distinct elements of  $P_{eu}$ . The standard paral-  
 307 lelism relation,  $Par$ , forms an equivalence relation on this  
 308 type. The type of points at infinity,  $P_{\infty}$ , is then formed by  
 309 the quotient type:  
 310

$$311 P_{\infty} := L_{eu} // Par.$$

312 The extension of the point space is achieved by forming the  
 313 disjoint union of the Euclidean points and points at infinity:  
 314

$$315 P := P_{eu} \sqcup P_{\infty}.$$

316 The computational interpretation of the disjoint union  
 317 type allows us to discriminate between its internal elements,  
 318 i.e. argue by cases (vide infra).  
 319

## 320 4.2 Common Type Theoretic Features

### 321 4.2.1 The Notion of Equality

322 In Nuprl’s type theory, each type comes with its own equal-  
 323 ity relation (extensional equality in the case of functions),  
 324 and the typing rules guarantee that well-typed terms re-  
 325 spect these equalities. However, since free choice sequences  
 326 are non-lawlike infinitely proceeding entities and Euclidean  
 327 points are the atomic, indecomposable elements of the plane,  
 328 this built-in syntactic equality does not suffice for capturing  
 329 the intuitive notion of identity on those types (much like  
 330 in the case for the reals). Having to construct the notion of  
 331

equality for the types is the trade off for the introduction of this new broader notion of constructions.

To constructively build the equality on these types we use another primitive notion associated with the types which is strongly connected to equality: the notion of distinctness. Stating that two choice sequences  $\alpha, \beta$  are distinct can be done in the following way:

$$\alpha \# \beta := \exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \alpha(n) \neq \beta(n)$$

This definition also exhibits constructive content due to the type theoretical interpretation of the existential quantifier. That is, to establish that two choice sequences are distinct an evidence for a position in which their values differ must be constructed.

In geometry, the “distinct” terminology is replaced by “apart”. Recall that the projective points were formed by the disjoint union between two types: Euclidean points ( $P_{eu}$ ) and points at infinity ( $P_{\infty}$ ). The tagging on these types allows us to define the apartness relation on projective points by cases. Firstly, all points at infinity are taken to be apart from all Euclidean points. When both projective points are Euclidean points, the projective apartness relation is the Euclidean apartness relation on points ( $\#_{eu}$ ); and when both projective points are points at infinity, the apartness relation coincides with their corresponding Euclidean lines being non-parallel.

Note that just as the apartness for choice sequences referred to the underlying structure of the natural numbers from which they are constructed (or any other underlying structure of the sequences value type), the apartness of the points at infinity refers to the structure of the Euclidean lines from which they are constructed (which, in turn, is based on Euclidean points).

Instead of a primitive equality, the negation of the distinctness (apartness) relation on choice sequences (projective points), i.e.

$$a \equiv b := \neg a \# b,$$

forms an equivalence relation, which is then respected by the other primitive concepts. This is obviously not the primitive, built-in equality that generally comes with the definition of a type in type theory, but it allows for a practical, meaningful way of reasoning about the relations between the elements of the types.

In the case of choice sequences, note that constructively the negation of the statement that two choice sequences are distinct does not entail a notion of extensional equality on choice sequences. Because free choice sequences come into existence by an infinite, never terminating construction, there is no way in which one could ever determine that for every natural number  $n$ , the  $n$ 'th elements in two given free choice sequences are equal (given that only the extensional data, i.e. the values, of the sequences are available to us). This is another justification for why choice sequences cannot be thought of individually, but only as elements of the totality (or the spread in the Brouwerian account of the continuum).

**Remark on the Euclidean Apartness Relation ( $\#_{eu}$ ).** Euclidean points are primitive, and thus have no underlying notion to refer to. The Euclidean apartness relation on points is therefore also primitive, in contrast to the projective apartness relation. The relation  $a \#_{eu} b$  is realized in the model of the reals by the existence of a natural number  $n$  such that  $a$  and  $b$  are separated by more than  $\frac{1}{2}^n$ . A subtle point of the Euclidean apartness relation is that using the quotient type, i.e using  $P_{eu} // \equiv$ , in order to make equivalence coincide with equality has undesired consequences. If equality and equivalence were to coincide, the co-transitivity of apartness:

$$\forall a, b \in P_{eu}. ((a \#_{eu} b) \rightarrow \forall c \in P_{eu}. (c \#_{eu} a \vee c \#_{eu} b))$$

would be a function that respects the equivalence relation and decides, for any two separated points  $a$  and  $b$  and any other point  $c$ , whether  $c$  it is apart from  $a$  or  $b$ . Any function respecting equivalence, as a corollary of Brouwer's uniform continuity theorem (which is provable in Nuprl), is constant. As a result, we would not be able to prove that the plane constructed from the real numbers satisfies the co-transitivity axiom, which is a salient property of the apartness relation.<sup>5</sup>

#### 4.2.2 The Underlying Computation

A critical component in a constructive type theory is the underlying computation system, which is essentially the untyped programming language underlying the type theory. The data and the programs of the computation system are given by (closed) terms, which can be either canonical or non-canonical. Terms having a canonical operator are called values. Computation is defined as a sequence of rewritings or reductions of terms to other terms according to very explicit rules. Canonical terms, such as  $\lambda x.x$  reduce to themselves. A non-canonical term such as the one corresponding to function application  $(\lambda x.x)y$  reduces in one step to  $y$  using the rule  $(\lambda x.t)a \mapsto t[x := a]$ .

In Nuprl, the only thing one can do with a function is to apply it. This has the consequence that the function type in Nuprl is essentially defined in terms of its deconstructor, the application of a function. To support the existence of free choice sequences a new case to the application rule for a free choice sequence was added. Accordingly, the inference rule for function application has been modified so that  $f(a)$  might be computed to a value also in case  $f$  is a choice sequence, not only if it computes to a  $\lambda$ -term. In the former case the computation was done by looking up the value in the free choice sequence entry in the library. This case-based formulation of the computational rule states that, even though in [16] the extension of the function space was done somewhat differently, it may be perceived as the disjoint

<sup>5</sup>This illustrates Bishop's claim that forming such a quotient is “either pointless or incorrect” [6, p.65]. For models with decidable equality, forming the quotient  $P_{eu} // \equiv$  would be “pointless”. For a model of the reals, forming the quotient is incorrect.

union of the type of law-like choice sequences and the type of free choice sequences.

While functions are governed by their application, points in geometry are governed by their associated constructions. The constructive reading of the Straightedge-Straightedge construction postulate supplies the Skolem term  $SS(a, b, x, y)$  to represent the construction of the point  $z$ . In the case of points at infinity, there are no corresponding  $\lambda$ -terms in constructions; these points are the quotiented elements of the type of projective points and therefore axioms asserting the existence of such points carry no computational content. In this way, constructions on projective points in the case of points at infinity are similar to the computation rule in the case of a free choice sequence, which has to refer to the corresponding entry in the library as it has no underlying  $\lambda$ -term to refer to.

## 5 Conclusions

In this paper we outlined how Brouwer's generalized notion of constructions can be incorporated into the constructive theories of computation and geometry within a formal framework. We show that the extensions of both theories rely on common intuitive notion of mental construction, and compare the main features in their implementations into the Nuprl proof assistant. We aimed to demonstrate that the philosophical idea of mental constructions put forward by Brouwer can be captured within an implemented formal system, and therefore has great potential if further explored in the context of computerized systems.

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