Type theory and category theory

Michael Shulman

http://www.math.ucsd.edu/~mshulman/hottminicourse2012/

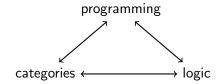
10 April 2012

The three faces of type theory

- 1 A programming language.
- 2 A foundation for mathematics.
- 3 A calculus for category theory.

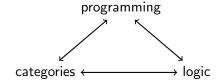
The three faces of type theory

- **1** A programming language.
- 2 A foundation for mathematics.
- 3 A calculus for category theory.
- 1 + 2: A computable foundation for mathematics.
- 2 + 3: A way to internalize mathematics in categories.
- $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{3}$: A categorical description of programming semantics.



The three faces of homotopy type theory

- 1 A programming language.
- 2 A foundation for mathematics based on homotopy theory.
- 3 A calculus for $(\infty, 1)$ -category theory.
- 1 + 2: A computable foundation for homotopical mathematics.
- 2 + 3: A way to internalize homotopical mathematics in categories.
- $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{3}$: A categorical description of programming semantics.



Minicourse plan

- Today: Type theory, logic, and category theory
- Wednesday: Homotopy theory in type theory
- Thursday: Type theory in $(\infty, 1)$ -categories
- Friday: Current frontiers

Outline

- 1 Type theory and category theory
- 2 Type constructors and universal properties
- 3 Type theory and logic
- 4 Predicate logic and dependent types
- 6 Equality types

Typing judgments

Type theory consists of rules for manipulating typing judgments:

$$(x_1: A_1), (x_2: A_2), \ldots, (x_n: A_n) \vdash (b: B)$$

- The x_i are variables, while b stands for an arbitrary expression.
- The turnstile ⊢ and commas are the "outermost" structure.

This should be read as:

In the context of variables x_1 of type A_1 , x_2 of type A_2 , ..., and x_n of type A_n , the expression b has type B.

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The meanings of a typing judgment

$$(x_1: A_1), (x_2: A_2), \dots (x_n: A_n) \vdash (b: B)$$

- 1 Programming: A_i , B are datatypes (int, float, ...); b is an expression of type B involving variables x_i of types A_i .
- **2** Foundations: A_i , B are "sets", b specifies a way to construct an element of B given elements x_i of A_i .
- **3** Category theory: A_i , B are objects, b specifies a way to construct a morphism $\prod_i A_i \to B$.

The rules of type theory come in packages called type constructors. Each package consists of:

- 1 Formation: a way to construct new types.
- 2 Introduction: ways to construct terms of these types.
- 3 Elimination: ways to use them to construct other terms.
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Type theory as programming

```
square := \lambda x.(x * x)
int square(int x) { return (x * x); }
def square(x):
  return (x * x)
square :: Int -> Int
square x = x * x
fun square (n:int):int = n * n
(define (square n) (* n n))
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(define (square n) (* n n))
             square(2) \equiv (\lambda x.(x*x))(2) \rightsquigarrow 2*2
```

Type constructors: as foundations

In type theory as a foundation for mathematics:

- All the rules are just "axioms" that give meaning to undefined words like "type" and "term", out of which we can then build mathematics.
- One usually thinks of "types" as kind of like sets.
- We will consider them as more like "spaces".

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- $(\lambda x.b)(a)$ computes to b with a substituted for x.
 - The exponential transpose, composed with the evaluation map, yields the original map.

As a calculus for a cartesian closed category:

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Exactly the (weak) universal property of an exponential object.

Inference rules

Type theorists write these rules as follows.

$$\frac{(x:A) \vdash (b:B)}{\vdash (\lambda x.b:B^A)}$$

$$\frac{\vdash (f:B^A) \vdash (a:A)}{\vdash (f(a):B)}$$

The horizontal line means "if the judgments above are valid, so is the one below". Wide spaces separate multiple hypotheses.

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Type theorists also write $A \to B$ instead of B^A , but this can be confusing when also talking about arrows in a category.

Internal logic

Basic principle

There is a natural correspondence between

- Programming: ways to build datatypes in a computer
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Therefore, if we can formalize a piece of mathematics inside of type theory, then

- it can be understood and verified by a computer, and
- it can be internalized in many other categories.

Example: Groups

Informal mathematics

- We have the notion of a group: a set G with an element e ∈ G and a binary operation satisfying certain axioms.
- We can prove theorems about groups, such as that inverses are unique: if xy = e = xy', then y = y'.

We can also formalize this in ZFC, or in type theory, or in any other precise foundational system.

Example: Group objects

Internal mathematics

 A group object is a category is an object G with e: 1 → G and m: G × G → G, such that some diagrams commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
G \times G \times G & \xrightarrow{m \times 1} G \times G \\
\downarrow^{1 \times m} & & \downarrow^{m} & \text{etc.} \\
G \times G & \xrightarrow{m} & G
\end{array}$$

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$$1 \times m \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow m \qquad \text{etc.}$$

$$G \times G \xrightarrow{m} G$$

- In sets: a group.
- In topological spaces: a topological group.
- In manifolds: a Lie group.
- In schemes: an algebraic group.
- In rings^{op}: a Hopf algebra.
- In sheaves: a sheaf of groups.

Taking the informal notion of a group and formalizing it in type theory, we have a type G and terms

$$\vdash$$
 $(e:G)$ $(x:G), (y:G) \vdash (x\cdot y:G)$

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- There is an automatic and general method which "extracts" or "compiles" the above formalization into the notion of a group object in a category.
- Any theorem about ordinary groups that we can formalize in type theory likewise "compiles" to a theorem about group objects in any category.

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We can use "set-theoretic" reasoning with "elements" to prove "arrow-theoretic" facts about arbitrary categories.

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Coproduct types

Recall: every type constructor comes with rules for

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Coproduct types: as programming

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    then case(p, c<sub>A</sub>, c<sub>B</sub>): C.

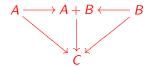
switch(p) {
    if p is inl(x):
        do cA with x
    if p is inr(y):
        do cB with y
}
```

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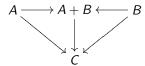
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 - The following triangles commute:



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Exactly the (weak) universal property of a coproduct.

Exercise

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Define the cartesian product $A \times B$.

① If A and B are types, there is a new type $A \times B$.

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- 4 fst(a, b) computes to a, and snd(a, b) computes to b.

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Define the empty type \emptyset .

1 There is a type \emptyset .

Exercise

- **1** There is a type \emptyset .
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Aside: Polarity

- A negative type is characterized by eliminations.
 - We eliminate a term in some specified way.
 - We introduce a term by saying what it does when eliminated.
 - Computation follows the instructions of the introduction.
 - Examples: function types B^A , products $A \times B$
- A positive type is characterized by introductions.
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All universal properties expressible in type theory must be stable under products/pullbacks (i.e. adding unused variables).

Details that I am not mentioning (yet)

- Uniqueness in universal properties
- η -conversion rules
- Function extensionality
- Dependent eliminators
- Some types have both positive and negative versions
- Universe types (unpolarized)
- Eager and lazy evaluation
- Structural rules
- Coherence issues

Some of these will come up later.

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Type theory versus set theory

Set theory

Type theory

Logic

$$\land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \neg, \forall, \exists$$

Sets

$$\times,+,\rightarrow,\prod,\sum$$

 $x \in A$ is a proposition

Types

$$\times,+,\rightarrow,\textstyle\prod,\sum$$

Logic

$$\land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \neg, \forall, \exists$$

x: A is a typing judgment

Basic principle

We identify a proposition P with the subsingleton

$$\{ \star \mid P \text{ is true } \}$$

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- To prove P is equivalently to exhibit an element of it.
- Proofs are just a particular sort of typing judgment:

$$(x_1: P_1), \ldots, (x_n: P_n) \vdash (q: Q)$$

"Under hypotheses P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n , the conclusion Q is provable."

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q is a proof term, which records how each hypothesis was used.

The Curry-Howard correspondence

Restricted to subsingletons, the rules of type theory tell us how to construct valid proofs. This includes:

- 1 How to construct new propositions.
- 2 How to prove such propositions.
- **3** How to use such propositions to prove other propositions.
- (Computation rules are less meaningful for subsingletons.)

\longleftrightarrow	Propositions
\longleftrightarrow	${\it P}$ and ${\it Q}$
\longleftrightarrow	P or Q
\longleftrightarrow	P implies Q
\longleftrightarrow	op (true)
\longleftrightarrow	\perp (false)
	$\begin{array}{c} \longleftrightarrow\\ \longleftrightarrow\\ \longleftrightarrow\\ \longleftrightarrow\\ \end{array}$

Implication

Function types, acting on subsingletons, become implication.

- **1** If *P* and *Q* are propositions, then so is $P \Rightarrow Q$.
- 2 If assuming P, we can prove Q, then we can prove $P \Rightarrow Q$.
- 3 If we can prove P and $P \Rightarrow Q$, then we can prove Q.

Conjunction

Cartesian products, acting on subsingletons, become conjunction.

- ① If P and Q are propositions, so is "P and Q".
- 2 If P is true and Q is true, then so is "P and Q".
- 3 If "P and Q" is true, then P is true. If "P and Q" is true, then Q is true.

The proof term

$$(f: P \Rightarrow (Q \text{ and } R)) \vdash (\lambda x. fst(f(x)): P \Rightarrow Q)$$

encodes the following informal proof:

Theorem

If P implies Q and R, then P implies Q.

- Suppose *P*.
- Then, by assumption, Q and R.
- Hence Q.
- Therefore, P implies Q.

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Theorem

If P implies Q and R, then P implies Q.

Proof.

- Suppose *P*.
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- Hence Q.
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This is how type-checking a program can verify a proof.

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- In Sh(X): open subsets of X.

Supports

Problem

Not all operations preserve subsingletons.

- $A \times B$ is a subsingleton if A and B are
- B^A is a subsingleton if A and B are

But:

• A + B is not generally a subsingleton, even if A and B are.

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Solution

The support of A is a "reflection" of A into subsingletons.

Thus "P or Q" means the support of P+Q. I'll explain the type constructor that does this on Friday.

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What we have is called intuitionistic or constructive logic. By itself, it is weaker than classical logic. But...

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- \mathbf{Set}^D has classical logic $\iff D$ is a groupoid.
- $\mathbf{Sh}(X)$ has classical logic \iff every open set in X is closed.

Exercise #3

Exercise

Write a program that proves $\neg\neg(A \text{ or } \neg A)$.

Details that I am not mentioning

Other ways to interpret logic in type theory:

- Don't require "proposition types" to be subsingletons.
- Keep propositions as a separate "sort" from types.

Outline

- 1 Type theory and category theory
- 2 Type constructors and universal properties
- 3 Type theory and logic
- 4 Predicate logic and dependent types
- 6 Equality types

Predicate logic

For logic we need more than connectives

we need quantifiers:

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First question

Before forming "there exists an $x \in X$ such that P(x)", we need a notion of predicate: a "function" P from X to propositions.

Predicates and dependent types

If propositions are subsingleton types, then predicates must be dependent types: types that vary over some other type.

A dependent type judgment

$$(x: A) \vdash (B(x): \mathsf{Type})$$

means that for any particular x: A, we have a type B(x). If each B(x) is a subsingleton, then this is a predicate.

$$(y: Year), (m: Month) \vdash (Day(y, m): Type)$$

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 $(x : \mathbb{N}) \vdash ((x = 0) : \mathsf{Type})$
 $(x : A), (y : A) \vdash ((x = y) : \mathsf{Type})$
 $(n : \mathbb{N}), (x : \mathbb{N}), (y : \mathbb{N}), (z : \mathbb{N}) \vdash ((x^n + y^n = z^n) : \mathsf{Type})$

Universe types

The syntax

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looks like there is a type called "Type" that B(x) is an element of!

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"Type: Type" leads to paradoxes, but we can have a hierarchy

$$\mathsf{Type}_0 : \mathsf{Type}_1 : \mathsf{Type}_2 : \cdots$$

Dependent types in categories

In category theory, a dependent type " $(x:A) \vdash (B(x): Type)$ " is:

- **1** A map $B \to A$, where B(x) is the fiber over x : A; OR
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(Type is the classifying space of dependent types).

• B is a predicate if $B \to A$ is monic.

Dependent products

A proof of " $\forall x : A, P(x)$ " assigns, to each a : A, a proof of P(a). In general, we have the dependent product:

- 1 If $(x: A) \vdash (B(x): \mathsf{Type})$, there is a type $\prod_{x: A} B(x)$.
- 2 If $(x: A) \vdash (b: B(x))$, then $\lambda x.b: \prod_{x: A} B(x)$.
- 3 If a: A and $f: \prod_{x: A} B(x)$, then f(a): B(a).
- (4) $(\lambda x.b)(a)$ computes to to b with a substituted for x.

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Remark

If B(x) is independent of x, then $\prod_{x \in A} B(x)$ is just B^A .

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If B(x) is independent of x, then $\sum_{x \in A} B(x)$ reduces to $A \times B$.

Predicate logic

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & \text{Types} & \longleftrightarrow & \text{Propositions} \\ & \prod_{x:\;A} B(x) & \longleftrightarrow & \forall x:\;A,P(x) \\ & \sum_{x:\;A} B(x) & \longleftrightarrow & \exists x:\;A,P(x) \end{array}$$

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- $\sum_{x:A} B(x)$ is not, so we use its support, as with "or".
- If B is a subsingleton, $\sum_{x:A} B(x)$ is " $\{x:A \mid B(x)\}$ ".

Dependent sums and products in categories

• Pullback of a dependent type " $(y:B) \vdash (P(y): \mathsf{Type})$ " along $f:A \to B$:

$$\begin{cases}
f^*B \longrightarrow P \\
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is substitution, yielding " $(x: A) \vdash (P(f(x)) : Type)$ ".

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$$\exists_f \dashv f^* \dashv \forall_f$$

(an insight due originally to Lawvere)

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- **6** Equality types

Equality in categories

To formalize mathematics, we need to talk about equality.

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Thinking about fibers leads us to conclude that

Eq_A should be represented by the diagonal $A \rightarrow A \times A$.

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4 $J(d; a, a, refl_a)$ computes to d(a).

(On Friday: a general framework which produces these rules.)

Two Big Important Facts

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