## Type-theoretic foundations

Basics of type theory and Coq

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## Set theory

Type theory


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Types } \\
& \times,+, \rightarrow, \Pi, \sum \\
& \text { Logic } \\
& \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \neg, \forall, \exists \\
& x: A \text { is a typing judgment } \\
& \text { Types } \\
& \text { Logic } \\
& \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \neg, \forall, \exists \\
& x: A \text { is a typing judgment }
\end{aligned}
$$

Type theory is programming

For now, think of type theory as a programming language.

- Closely related to functional programming languages like ML, Haskell, Lisp, Scheme.
- More expressive and powerful.
- Can manipulate "mathematical objects".

Type theory consists of rules for manipulating judgments. The most important judgment is a typing judgment:

$$
x_{1}: A_{1}, x_{2}: A_{2}, \ldots x_{n}: A_{n} \vdash b: B
$$

The turnstile $\vdash$ binds most loosely, followed by commas.
This should be read as:
In the context of variables $x_{1}$ of type $A_{1}, x_{2}$ of type $A_{2}, \ldots$, and $x_{n}$ of type $A_{n}$, the expression $b$ has type $B$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Examples } \begin{aligned}
& \vdash 0: \mathbb{N} \\
& x: \mathbb{N}, y: \mathbb{N} \vdash x+y: \mathbb{N} \\
& f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x: \mathbb{R} \vdash f(x): \mathbb{R} \\
& f: C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}), n: \mathbb{N} \vdash f^{(n)}: C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})
\end{aligned}
\end{gathered}
$$

The basic rules tell us how to construct valid typing judgments, i.e. how to write programs with given input and output types. This includes:
(1) How to construct new types (judgments $\Gamma \vdash A$ : Type).
(2) How to construct terms of these types.
(3) How to use such terms to construct terms of other types.

## Example (Function types)

(1) If $A$ : Type and $B$ : Type, then $A \rightarrow B$ : Type.
(2) If $x: A \vdash b: B$, then $\lambda x^{A} . b: A \rightarrow B$.
(3) If $a: A$ and $f: A \rightarrow B$, then $f(a): B$.

## Derivations in Context

More generally, we allow an arbitrary context $\Gamma=\left(x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}\right)$ of typed variables.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B: \text { Type }} \\
& \frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x^{A} \cdot b: A \rightarrow B} \quad \text { introduction } \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash f: A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash f(a): B} \quad \text { eliminati }
\end{aligned}
$$

We write these rules as follows.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\vdash A \rightarrow B: \text { Type }} \\
\frac{x: A \vdash b: B}{\vdash \lambda x^{A} \cdot b: A \rightarrow B} \\
\frac{\vdash f: A \rightarrow B \quad \vdash a: A}{\vdash f(a): B}
\end{gathered}
$$

This is just a mathematical syntax for programming.

```
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))
    square := \lambdax \mathbb{Z}}.(x*x
```

The rules also tell us how to evaluate or compute terms.
The general rule is:

- introduction plus elimination computes to substitution.

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash b: B \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash\left(\lambda x^{A} . b\right)(a) \rightarrow_{\beta} b[a / x]}
$$

Here $b[a / x]$ means $b$ with a substituted for $x$.
For historical reasons, this is called $\beta$-reduction.

$$
\text { square }(2) \equiv\left(\lambda x^{\mathbb{Z}} .(x * x)\right)(2) \rightarrow_{\beta}(x * x)[2 / x] \equiv 2 * 2
$$

## Functions of many variables

A simplified notation for abstractions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{foo} & :=\lambda x^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot\left(\lambda y^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot(2 * x+y * y)\right) \\
& \equiv \lambda x^{\mathbb{Z}} y^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot(2 * x+y * y)
\end{aligned}
$$

And for types, $\rightarrow$ associates to the right:

$$
A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \text { means } A \rightarrow(B \rightarrow C)
$$

And for application:

$$
\text { foo(3)(1) } \rightsquigarrow \text { foo } 31
$$

That is, juxtaposition means application, which associates to the left:

$$
\text { foo } 31 \text { means (foo 3) } 1
$$

A function of two variables can be represented as a function of one variable which returns a function of another variable.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{foo}: & =\lambda x^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot\left(\lambda y^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot(2 * x+y * y)\right) \\
\mathrm{foo}(3)(1) & \rightarrow_{\beta}\left(\lambda y^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot(2 * x+y * y)\right)[3 / x](1) \\
& \equiv\left(\lambda y^{\mathbb{Z}} \cdot(2 * 3+y * y)\right)(1) \\
& \rightarrow_{\beta}(2 * 3+y * y)[1 / y] \\
& \equiv(2 * 3+1 * 1)
\end{aligned}
$$

This is called currying (after Haskell Curry).

## Another example: disjoint unions

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash A+B: \text { Type }}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{inl}(a): A+B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{inr}(b): A+B}
$$

$$
\left.\begin{array}{c}
\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \\
\Gamma \vdash p: A+B \quad \Gamma, x: A \vdash c_{A}: C
\end{array} \quad \Gamma, y: B \vdash c_{B}: C\right)
$$

```
        \Gamma\vdashC: Type
\Gamma\vdashp:A+B\quad\Gamma,x:A\vdash\mp@subsup{c}{A}{}:C\quad\Gamma,y:B\vdash\mp@subsup{c}{B}{}:C
switch(p) {
    if p is inl(x):
        do cA with x
    if p is inr(y):
        do cB with y
}
```

Don't worry about the exact syntax of "case". Everyone does it differently, and we'll mostly use Coq's syntax (later).

The unit type

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text { unit: Type }} \overline{\Gamma \vdash \mathrm{tt}: \text { unit }} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash p: \text { unit } \quad \Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash c: C}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{triv}(p, c): C}
\end{aligned}
$$

If we know how to produce a $C$ using all the possible inputs that can go into a unit, then we can produce a $C$ from any unit.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash c: C}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{triv}(\mathrm{tt}, c) \rightarrow_{\beta} c}
$$

When we evaluate the eliminator on a term of canonical form, we obtain the data that went into the eliminator associated to that form.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \stackrel{\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \Gamma \vdash p: A+B}{ } \frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash c_{A}: C \quad \Gamma, y: B \vdash c_{B}: C \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{case}\left(\operatorname{inl}(a), x^{A} \cdot c_{A}, y^{B} \cdot c_{B}\right) \rightarrow_{\beta} C_{A}[a / x]} \\
& \quad \Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash p: A+B \\
& \frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash C_{A}: C \quad \Gamma, y: B \vdash c_{B}: C \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{case}\left(\operatorname{inr}(b), x^{A} \cdot c_{A}, y^{B} \cdot c_{B}\right) \rightarrow_{\beta} c_{B}[b / y]}
\end{aligned}
$$

| Negative types | Positive types |
| :---: | :---: |
| $A \rightarrow B$ | $A+B$ |
| $\prod_{x: A} B(x)$ | $A \times B$ |
|  | unit |
|  | empty |
|  | $\sum_{x: A} B(x)$ |

NB: This is an oversimplification; some or all of these "positive types" could also be presented negatively. But for us, they will be positive.

## Exercise \#1

## Exercise

Define the cartesian product $A \times B$ as a positive type.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash A \times B: \text { Type }} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash(a, b): A \times B}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash p: A \times B \quad \Gamma, x: A, y: B \vdash c: C}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}\left(p, x^{A} y^{B} \cdot C\right): C}
$$

Coq uses a type theory called the predicative Calculus of (co)Inductive Constructions. There are only four ways to construct types in Coq.
(1) Dependent product (negative).

- Includes $A \rightarrow B$ as a special case; more later
- Constructed with fun $x$ => ...
- Applied with juxtaposition f x
(2) Inductive type families (positive).
- Built with constructors like inl, inr, tt.
- Eliminated with match.
- More details later.
(3) Universes (sorts) like Type (unpolarized).
(4) Coinductive type families (negative).

For $p: A \times B$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{fst}(p):=\operatorname{unpack}\left(p, x^{A} y^{B} \cdot x\right): A \\
& \operatorname{snd}(p):=\operatorname{unpack}\left(p, x^{A} y^{B} \cdot y\right): B
\end{aligned}
$$

Projections

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B \quad \Gamma, x: A, y: B \vdash c: C}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}\left((a, b), x^{A} y^{B} \cdot c\right) \rightarrow_{\beta} c[a / x, b / y]}
$$

## Exercise

Define the empty type $\emptyset$ as a positive type.


## Now you know something!

Definition
The structural rules plus the type constructor $\rightarrow$ (and nothing else) form the simply typed lambda calculus " $\lambda \rightarrow$ ".

We can of course add other constructors. Sometimes people write $\lambda_{x \rightarrow}$ for $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$ with cartesian products and unit, etc.

We also need a few rules for "how to get going" with typing judgments.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type }}{\Gamma, x: A \vdash x: A} \quad \text { start } \quad(x \notin \Gamma)
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B}{\Gamma, x: A \vdash b: B} \text { weakening }(x \notin \Gamma)
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash A \leftrightarrow_{\beta} B}{\Gamma \vdash a: B} \text { conversion }
$$

( $\leftrightarrow_{\beta}$ is the equivalence relation generated by $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ )

Logic in the style of type theory

We can also read a typing judgment

$$
x_{1}: P_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: P_{n} \vdash q: Q
$$

as a truth judgment
Under hypotheses $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}$, the conclusion $Q$ is provable.

The basic rules tell us how to construct valid truth judgments. This includes:
(1) How to construct new propositions.
(2) How to prove such propositions.
(3) How to use such propositions to prove other propositions.

## Example (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 $Q$.
( $P \wedge Q$ means " $P$ and $Q$ ")

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash P: \operatorname{Prop} \quad \Gamma \vdash Q: \text { Prop }}{\Gamma \vdash(P \wedge Q): \text { Prop }} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash p: P \quad \Gamma \vdash q: Q}{\Gamma \vdash(p, q): P \wedge Q}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash R: \text { Prop } \quad \Gamma \vdash s: P \wedge Q \quad \Gamma, x: P, y: Q \vdash r: R}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}\left(s, x^{P} y^{Q} \cdot r\right): R}
$$

To emphasize this viewpoint, we write Prop rather than Type.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash P: \text { Prop } \quad \Gamma \vdash Q: \text { Prop }}{\Gamma \vdash(P \Rightarrow Q): \text { Prop }} \\
\frac{\Gamma, x: P \vdash q: Q}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x^{P} \cdot q: P \Rightarrow Q} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash f: P \Rightarrow Q \quad \Gamma \vdash p: P}{\Gamma \vdash f(p): Q}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
(P \vee Q \text { means " } P \text { or } Q \text { ") }
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash P: \text { Prop } \quad \Gamma \vdash Q: \text { Prop }}{\Gamma \vdash(P \vee Q): \text { Prop }}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash p: P}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{inl}(p): P \vee Q} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash q: Q}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{inr}(q): P \vee Q}
$$

$$
\Gamma \vdash R: \text { Prop }
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash s: P \vee Q \quad\left\ulcorner, x: P \vdash r_{P}: R \quad \Gamma, y: Q \vdash r_{Q}: R\right.}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{case}\left(s, x^{P} \cdot r_{P}, y^{Q} \cdot r_{Q}\right): R}
$$

The same rules of programming apply to proving.

| Types | $\longleftrightarrow$ Propositions |
| ---: | :--- |
| $A \times B$ | $\longleftrightarrow P$ and $Q$ |
| $A+B$ | $\longleftrightarrow P$ or $Q$ |
| $A \rightarrow B$ | $\longleftrightarrow P$ implies $Q$ |
| unit | $\longleftrightarrow$ T (true) $^{\longleftrightarrow}$ |
| $\emptyset$ | $\longleftrightarrow \perp$ (false) |

The program corresponding to a proof computes the "essence" of that proof.

Cut elimination

Suppose we prove a lemma:

$$
\frac{\frac{\vdots}{\vdash p: P} \quad \frac{\vdots}{\vdash f: P \Rightarrow Q}}{\vdash f(p): Q} \text { (elimination) }
$$

## Lemma

For any $P$ and $Q$, we have $P \Rightarrow(Q \Rightarrow P)$.
Proof
Assume $P$. Now if we assume $Q$, then $P$ by assumption, so $Q \Rightarrow P$. Thus, $P \Rightarrow(Q \Rightarrow P)$.

Cut elimination
But the way to prove $P \Rightarrow Q$ is to assume $P$, then prove $Q$.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\vdots}{\vdash p: P} & \frac{\vdots}{\vdash: P \vdash q: Q} \\
\qquad \lambda x^{P} \cdot q: P \Rightarrow Q \\
\vdash\left(\lambda x^{P} \cdot q\right)(p): Q
\end{array} \text { (elimination) }
$$

And since $\left(\lambda x^{P} . q\right)(p) \rightarrow_{\beta} q[p / x]$, this proof reduces to

$$
\frac{\frac{\vdots}{p: P}}{\frac{\vdots}{q[p / x]: Q}}
$$

We define the negation of $P$ by

$$
\neg P:=(P \Rightarrow \perp) .
$$

Lemma
For any $P$, we have $P \Rightarrow \neg(\neg P)$.
Proof.
Suppose $P$. To prove $\neg(\neg P)$, suppose $\neg P$. Then since $P$ and $\neg P$, we have a contradiction; hence $\neg(\neg P)$.

$$
\frac{x: P, f:(P \Rightarrow \perp) \vdash f(x): \perp}{\frac{x: P \vdash \lambda f^{(P \Rightarrow \perp)} \cdot f(x):((P \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)}{\vdash \lambda x^{P} f^{(P \Rightarrow \perp)} \cdot f(x): P \Rightarrow((P \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp)} \text { (intro) }} \text { (intro) }
$$

BUT the logic we get this way is not quite classical logic:
There is no way to write a program to prove $A \vee(\neg A)$.
What we have is called intuitionistic or constructive logic.
By itself, it is weaker than classical logic. But. . .
(1) Many things are still true, when phrased correctly.
(2) A weaker logic means a wider validity (in more categories).
(3) It is easy to add $A \vee(\neg A)$ as an axiom.
(4) There is also a "double-negation translation"...

## (Back to programming.)

We consider types $A_{i}, B$ as also expressions, of type "Type".
Examples

$$
\vdash \mathbb{N}: \text { Type }
$$

$A$ : Type, $x: A \vdash x: A$
$A:$ Type, $B: A \rightarrow$ Type, $x: A \vdash B(x):$ Type
$n: \mathbb{N} \vdash\{k: \mathbb{N} \mid k<n\}:$ Type
$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \vdash\{x: \mathbb{R} \mid f(x)=0\}:$ Type
A judgment $x: A \vdash B$ : Type, or a term $B: A \rightarrow$ Type, is a dependent type over $A$. (The two are interconvertible by $\lambda$-abstraction.)

We can construct dependent types as terms of type Type.

Example
Let bool := unit + unit, and define

$$
\begin{aligned}
C & :=\lambda b^{\text {bool }} \cdot \text { case }\left(b, x^{\text {unit }} \cdot \mathbb{Z}, y^{\text {unit }} \cdot \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}\right) \\
& : \text { bool } \rightarrow \text { Type }
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C(\operatorname{inl}(\mathrm{tt})) \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbb{Z} \\
& C(\operatorname{inr}(\mathrm{tt})) \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Dependent products

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad\ulcorner, x: A \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \prod_{x: A} B A \rightarrow B: \text { Type }} \\
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x^{A} \cdot b: \prod_{x: A} B A \rightarrow B} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash f: \prod_{x: A} B A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash f(a): B[a / x]} \\
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash b: B \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot b\right)(a) \rightarrow_{\beta} b[a / x]}
\end{gathered}
$$

Given $B: A \rightarrow$ Type, a term $b: \prod_{x: A} B(x)$ can be thought of as (1) An A-tuple $\left(b_{x}\right)_{x: A}$ with each $b_{x}: B(x)$, or
(2) A function $b$ assigning to each $x: A$ an element of $B(x)$.

This is a dependently typed function: its output type (not just its output value) depends on its input value.

Remark
If $B(x)$ is independent of $x$, then $\prod_{x: A} B(x)$ reduces to $A \rightarrow B$.

## Dependent sums

Given $B: A \rightarrow$ Type, a term $p: \sum_{x: A} B(x)$ consists of (1) a term a: $A$, and
(2) a term $b: B(a)$.

We think of $\sum_{x: A} B(x)$ as the disjoint union of the types $B(x)$ over all $x$ : $A$.

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

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma, x: A \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \sum_{x: A} B A \times B: \text { Type }} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B[a / x]}{\Gamma \vdash(a, b): \sum_{x: A} B A \times B} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash p: \sum_{x: A} B A \times B \quad \Gamma, x: A, y: B \vdash c: C}{\Gamma \vdash \text { unpack }\left(p, x^{A} y^{B} . c\right): C} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash C: A: \operatorname{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}\left((a, b), x^{A} y^{B} \cdot c\right) \rightarrow_{\beta} C[a / x, b / y]}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\text { For } p: \sum_{x: A} B:
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{pr}_{1}(p):=\operatorname{unpack}\left(p, x^{A} y^{B} \cdot x\right): A \\
\operatorname{pr}_{2}(p):=\operatorname{unpack}\left(p, x^{A} y^{B} \cdot y\right): B\left[\operatorname{pr}_{1}(p) / x\right] \leftarrow \text { oops! } \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash C: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash p: \sum_{x: A} B \quad \Gamma, x: A, y: B \vdash c: C}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}(p, x y \cdot C): C}
\end{gathered}
$$

We need to allow $C$ to depend on $p$.

## Dependent sums, revised

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma, x: A \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \sum_{x: A} B A \times B: \text { Type }} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B[a / x]}{\Gamma \vdash(a, b): \sum_{x: A} B A \times B}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Gamma, p: \sum_{x: A} B A \times B \vdash C: \text { Type } \\
\Gamma \vdash p: \sum_{x: A} B A \times B \quad \Gamma, x: A, y: B \vdash C: C[(x, y) / p] \\
\hline
\end{gathered}
$$

$\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash b: B[a / x] \quad \Gamma, x: A, y: B \vdash c: C[(x, y) / p]}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}((a, b), x y . c) \rightarrow_{\beta} c[a / x, b / y]}$
With dependent types, we need to revise all the eliminators to allow the output type to depend on the input value.
Example

$$
\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}(p, x y . c): C
$$

$\Gamma, p: \sum_{x: A} B A \times B \vdash C$ : Type

## Strong eliminators

$$
\begin{aligned}
C & :=\lambda b^{\text {bool }} . \text { case }\left(b, x^{\text {unit }} \cdot \mathbb{Z}, y^{\text {unit }} \cdot \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}\right) \\
& : \text { bool } \rightarrow \text { Type }
\end{aligned}
$$

We need the strong eliminator in order to define

$$
\frac{b: \text { bool } \vdash \text { case }\left(b, x^{\text {unit }} \cdot(-3), y^{\text {unit }} \cdot \sqrt{2}\right): C(b)}{\vdash \lambda b^{b o o l} \ldots: \prod_{b: \text { bool }} C(b)}
$$

Dependent types + propositions as types = predicate logic!

| Types | $\longleftrightarrow$ Propositions |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| $\prod_{x: A} B(x)$ | $\longleftrightarrow(\forall x: A) P(x)$ |
| $\sum_{x: A} B(x)$ | $\longleftrightarrow(\exists x: A) P(x)$ |

## Existential quantifiers

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad \Gamma, x: A \vdash P: \text { Prop }}{\Gamma \vdash(\forall x: A) P: \text { Prop }} \\
\frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash p: P}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x^{A} \cdot p:(\forall x: A) P} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash f:(\forall x: A) P \quad\ulcorner\vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash f(a): P[a / x]}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\frac{\ulcorner\vdash A: \text { Type } \quad\ulcorner, x: A \vdash P: \text { Prop }}{\Gamma \vdash(\exists x: A) P: \text { Prop }}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash p: P[a / x]}{\Gamma \vdash(a, p):(\exists x: A) P}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash Q: \text { Prop } \quad \Gamma \vdash s:(\exists x: A) P \quad \Gamma, x: A, p: P \vdash q: Q}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{unpack}\left(s, x^{A} p^{P} . q\right): Q}
$$

Propositions versus types
We now have to face the question:
How do we distinguish the types from the propositions?
Several possibilities:
(1) Keep them separate, but analogous. We have sorts "Type" and "Prop", with separate constructors $\rightarrow$ and $\Rightarrow, \times$ and $\wedge$, $\Pi$ and $\forall$, etc.
(2) Make them identical. Every proposition is a type (whose inhabitants are its proof-terms or "witnesses") and every type is a proposition (the proposition that it is inhabited).
(3) Consider propositions as a subclass of types. Usually, they are the types containing at most one inhabitant ("proof-irrelevance").

## Option 1: Separate, but analogous

The Good:

- Flexible: we can later on interpret Prop to be Type or something else.
- Good for verified programming: can automatically discard the proofs of correctness (those in sort Prop) to obtain a working program.
- Can be internalized in weird places like hyperdoctrines and quasitoposes.
The Bad:
- Some seeming redundancy (can be mostly eliminated).
- Doesn't give precise control over what propositions are.
- Need extra axioms and rules to relate Type and Prop; easy to get wrong.


## Option 3: Propositions $\subsetneq$ Types

The Good:

- Distinguishes constructive and nonconstructive existence.
- Interprets correctly into classical mathematics.
- Internalizes in categories (and homotopy theory).
- Some types are automatically propositions (axiom of unique choice).
- Identifies internally the "irrelevant" types to discard.
- Can be implemented "inside" of options 1 or 2.

The Bad:

- Not maximally flexible (doesn't do hyperdoctrines or quasitoposes).
- All proofs of a proposition are identified (but to distinguish them, we can use the corresponding type).


## Option 2: Propositions $\equiv$ Types

The Good:

- Irreducibly constructive: every existence "proof" comes with a witness.
- In particular, the "axiom of choice" becomes a theorem.
- Good for studying proofs (different proofs remain distinguishable).
The Bad:
- Can't express the distinction between constructive and nonconstructive existence.
- Questionably compatible with classical mathematics.
- Doesn't correctly interpret in most categories (including homotopy theory).
- Coq chooses option 1: separate but analogous.
- Agda (another computer proof assistant) chooses option 2 : make them identical.
- Homotopy type theory uses option 3: propositions are a subclass of types.
Thus, we can do homotopy type theory in Coq or Agda.


## "Definition"

A type is a syntactic object $t$ which can appear on the right-hand side of a typing judgment $x: t$.

## "Definition"

A sort is a syntactic object $s$ which can appear on the right-hand side of a typing judgment $t: s$, where $t$ is a type.
NB

- These "definitions" are not really standard.
- Logicians say "sort" for what type theorists call a "type".


## Simply typed lambda calculus, revisited

## Example

The simply typed lambda calculus is a pure type system with
(1) Two sorts, Type (usually written $*$ ) and $\square$.
(2) One axiom, Type:
(3) One dependency relation (Type, Type, Type):

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type } \quad\ulcorner, x: A \vdash B: \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \prod_{x: A} B A \rightarrow B: \text { Type }}
$$

- With the only relation being (Type, Type, Type), there are no nontrivial dependent types.
- $\square$ is mainly technical here: we need Type:to apply the start rule to type variables. Type is the only inhabitant of $\square$, and $\square$ has (and needs) no type.

A pure type system is specified by
(1) A collection of sorts.
(2) A collection of axioms $s_{1}: s_{2}$, for sorts $s_{1}, s_{2}$.
(3) The structural rules (start, weakening, conversion), with Type replaced by any sort.
(4) A collection of dependency relations ( $s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}$ ), each of which gives a dependent product:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: s_{1} \quad \Gamma, x: A \vdash B: s_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \prod_{x: A} B: s_{3}}
$$

Can add positive types, with similar sorting relations.

## Polymorphism

If we add to ST $\lambda \mathrm{C}$ the relation ( $\square$, Type, Type), we obtain second-order polymorphic type theory (" $\lambda 2$ ").

- Type is still the only inhabitant of
- Now types can involve products over Type, e.g.

$$
\prod_{A: \text { Type }}(A \rightarrow A)
$$

An inhabitant of this type consists of, for every type $A$ (including itself), a function $A \rightarrow A$.

- Seems contradictory in set theory.
- Makes perfect sense in programming, e.g.

$$
\lambda A^{\text {Type }} x^{A} \cdot x: \prod_{A: \text { Type }}(A \rightarrow A)
$$

the polymorphic identity function.

Suppose we add the relation$\square)$.

- Now $\square$ contains other things, like Type $\rightarrow$ Type. We call such things kinds, and their inhabitants constructors.
- For example, the operation constructing $A \rightarrow B$ out of $A$ and $B$ can now be internalized by a function

$$
\lambda A^{\text {Type }} B^{\text {Type }} .(A \rightarrow B): \text { Type } \rightarrow(\text { Type } \rightarrow \text { Type })
$$

With both ( $\square$, Type, Type) and ( $\square, \square, \square$ ), we have higher-order polymorphic type theory ("System $F \omega$ " or " $\lambda \omega$ ").

Finally, adding the relation (Type,gives us dependent

## Universe levels

If we want to form products and sums over Type, but retain set-theoretic (and homotopy-theoretic) models, we can ramify:
(1) Sorts Type ${ }_{0}$, Type $_{1}$, Type $_{2}, \ldots$
(2) Axioms Type ${ }_{n}:$ Type $_{n+1}$
(3) Relations ( Type $_{n}$, Type $_{m}$, Type $_{k}$ ) for $k \geq \max (m, n)$.

We may also want a subtyping rule:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type }_{n}}{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type }_{n+1}}
$$

types. These eight combinations form the lambda cube:

$\lambda C$ is the impredicative Calculus of Constructions.

## Separate but analogous

Back to types vs. propositions.
Simple predicate logic is the pure type system with
(1) Three sorts, Type, Prop, and $\square$.
(2) Two axioms, Type: $\square$ and Prop:
(3) Dependency relations:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { (Type, Type, Type) } & \rightsquigarrow A \rightarrow B \\
\text { (Prop, Prop, Prop) } & \rightsquigarrow P \Rightarrow Q \\
\text { (Type, Prop, Prop) } & \rightsquigarrow(\forall x: A), P(x)
\end{array}
$$

## The Calculus of Constructions

Back to types vs. propositions.
Dependent predicate logic is the pure type system with
(1) Three sorts, Type, Prop, and $\square$.
(2) Two axioms, Type: $\square$ and Prop: $\square$
(3) Dependency relations:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\text { (Type, Type, Type) } & \rightsquigarrow A \rightarrow B \\
\text { (Prop, Prop, Prop) } & \rightsquigarrow P \Rightarrow Q \\
\text { (Type, Prop, Prop) } & \rightsquigarrow(\forall x: A), P(x) \\
(\text { Type, } \square, \square) & \rightsquigarrow \prod_{x: A} P(x)
\end{array}
$$

In either case, adding the extra axiom Prop: Type makes it higher-order.

## Universe polymorphism

When doing homotopy type theory in Coq, we generally ignore Prop and Set, and use only the sorts $\operatorname{Type}_{n}$ for $n \geq 1$.

In Coq, all these sorts Type ${ }_{n}$ are denoted simply "Type". Coq just checks after each proof that there is a consistent way to assign levels to each occurrence of Type.

Coq is not smart enough to automatically "duplicate" a given definition at more than one universe level. This occasionally causes problems in homotopy type theory. Until Coq is smarter, we can circumvent it by just turning off the consistency checks.

Coq's type theory is the predicative Calculus of Constructions:
(1) Sorts Prop and Type ${ }_{n}$ for $n \geq 1$.
(2) Axioms Prop: Type ${ }_{1}$ and Type ${ }_{n}$ : Type $_{n+1}$.
(3) Relations

- $\left(\right.$ Type $_{n}$, Type $_{m}$, Type $\left._{k}\right)$ for $k \geq \max (m, n)$,
- (Prop, Prop, Prop),
- (Type ${ }_{n}$, Prop, Prop), and
- (Prop, Type $_{n}$, Type $_{n}$ ).
(4) Subtyping

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type }_{n}}{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type }_{n+1}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Prop }}{\Gamma \vdash A: \text { Type }_{0}}
$$

Coq notates Type ${ }_{0}$ as "Set". Note Prop $\subseteq$ Set, but Prop $\notin$ Set.

Now you know a lot!

You know basically everything there is to know about Coq's type theory, except for inductive and coinductive types (next time).

