# Univalent Type Theory and Modular Formalization of Mathematics 

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## Content

In the first part, I will try to compare
-set theory
-simple type theory
-(univalent) type theory
and especially the status of extensionality in these systems
Main point: extensionality is important for modularity
The second part will be about the «justification» of extensionality

1940 Church A Formulation of the Simple Theory of Types
Extremely simple and natural
A type bool as a type of 《propositions»
A type $I$ for 《individuals»
Function type $A \rightarrow B$ and we can add product type $A \times B$
Natural semantics of types as sets

## Functions in simple type theory

In set theory，a function is a functional graph
In（this version of）type theory，a function is given by an explicit definition
If $t: B$ ，we can introduce $f$ of type $A \rightarrow B$ by the definition

$$
f x=t
$$

$f a 《$ reduces 》 to $(a / x) t$ if $a$ is of type $A$
We use the notation $f a$ for $f(a)$ ，which comes from combinatory logic
The type $A \rightarrow B$ is 《abstract》：we don＇t state that a function is a graph

Functions in simple type theory

We have two notions of function
-functional graph
-function explicitly defined by a term
What is the connection between these two notions?
Church introduces a special operation $\iota x . P(x)$ and the 《axiom of description»
If $\exists$ ! $x: A . P(x)$ then $P(\iota x \cdot P(x))$

## Rules of equality

Equality can be specified by the following purely logical rules
(1) $a={ }_{A} a$
(2) if $a_{0}={ }_{A} a_{1}$ and $P\left(a_{0}\right)$ then $P\left(a_{1}\right)$

Given (2), the law (1) is equivalent to the fact that $a_{0}={ }_{A} a_{1}$ is implied by $\forall(P: A \rightarrow$ bool $) P\left(a_{0}\right) \rightarrow P\left(a_{1}\right)$

Church uses this to define $a_{0}={ }_{A} a_{1}$

## Equality in mathematics

The first axiom of set theory is the axiom of extensionality stating that two sets are equal if they have the same element

In Church's system we have two forms of the extensionality axiom
(1) two equivalent propositions are equal

$$
((P \rightarrow Q) \wedge(Q \rightarrow P)) \rightarrow P=_{\text {bool }} Q
$$

(2) two pointwise equal functions are equal

$$
\left(\forall(x: A) f x={ }_{B} g x\right) \quad \rightarrow \quad f={ }_{A \rightarrow B} g
$$

The univalence axiom is a generalization of (1)

## Equality in simple type theory

Henkin and P. Andrews (generalizing some previous work of Tarski for propositional logic) reformulated the rules of simple type theory by taking equality as the only logical primitive

## E.g. $\forall(x: A) P x$ is defined as

$$
\lambda(x: A) P x=_{A \rightarrow \text { bool }} \quad \lambda(x: A) \text { true }
$$

where true can be defined as

$$
\lambda(x: \text { bool }) x=\lambda(x: \text { bool }) x
$$

## Equality in mathematics and modularity

These two axioms of extensionality are important for modularity of reasoning
If we prove something about a function $f$ and another function $g$ is pointwise equal to $f$ we can replace $f$ by $g$ and conclude that the property also holds for $g$

Similarly if we prove $P$ logically equivalent to $Q$, we can replace $P$ by $Q$ in any context

## Equality in mathematics and modularity

Dependent type theory (without univalence) does not have these principles
However, propositional extensionality holds for propositions represented by Booleans (decidable propositions)

The formalization of the 4 color theorem in dependent type theory (and of Feit-Thompson) uses heavily such a restriction to decidable propositions

Also it relies on the fact that the objects are first-order, so that the problems coming from lack of function extensionality are not too serious
E.g. for functions of finite domain, one represents a function by its graph and equality of graphs corresponds to extensional equality of functions

## Type theory and set theory

In his 1931 paper
On Formally Undecidable Propositions of Principia Mathematica and Related Systems I

Gödel uses a restriction of this system with only the types
$1=I$
$2=I \rightarrow$ bool
$3=(I \rightarrow$ bool $) \rightarrow$ bool

## Type theory and set theory

The atomic formula are of the form $b u$ where $b$ of type $n+1$ and $u$ of type $n$
This can be read as: $u$ belongs to the class $b$
If we start from $I$ empty collection, we get a cumulative hierarchy

## Type theory and set theory

Extensionality axiom
$\left(\forall x_{n}\left(a x_{n} \leftrightarrow b x_{n}\right)\right) \rightarrow a={ }_{n+1} b$
《A class is completely determined by its elements》
Neither pairing，nor function type
－pairs can be defined（N．Wiener 1914，Kuratowski）《variables for binary or n－ary functions（relations）are superflous as basic signs»
－functions can be defined as functional graphs

## Type theory and set theory

In set theory, we usually start with $I$ empty collection
Transfinite iteration and cumulativity
«Types» become ordinals
We can quantify over variable ranging over all 《types»
An infinite type of individuals is obtained at stage $\omega$

## Type theory and set theory

《It is a pity that a system such as Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory is usually presented in a purely formal way, because the conception behind it is quite straightforwardly based on type theory. One has the concept of an arbitrary subset of a given domain and that the collection of all subsets of the given domain can form a new domain (of the next type!). Starting with a domain of individuals (possibly empty), this process of forming subsets is then iterated into the transfinite. Thus, each set has a type (or rank), given by the ordinal number of the stage at which it is first to be found in the iteration.》

Dana Scott, A type-theoretical alternative to ISWIM, CUCH, OWHY, 1969
Note that LCF was introduced to formalize the system described in this paper

## Description of mathematical objects and collections

We will analyse next how to represent 《collections of collections»
Collections of mathematical structures
When two structures should be identified?
The answer provides a new and important modularity principle

This principle is closely connected to what is described in Types, abstraction and parametric polymorphism, J.R. Reynolds and works of Morris, Liskove and Zilles, ... on the importance of representation independence results for modular development of programs

Description of mathematical objects and collections

Algebraic structures, ordered structures, e.g. groups, rings, lattices
Set equipped with some operations and/or relations satisfying some properties
An identification of two structures is provided by an isomorphism
At this level one can talk about 《initial structures》
Uniqueness up to isomorphism
This is the level considered by Bourbaki in his théorie des structures

## Description of mathematical objects

Two isomorphic groups $G$ and $H$ satisfy the same《structural » properties
If $G$ is abelian, so is $H$
If $G$ is solvable, so is $H$
But we can have $\pi \in G$ and $\pi \notin H$
Transportable properties (Bourbaki)
«When two relations have the same structure, their logical properties are identical, except such as depend upon the membership of their fields»

Russell 《relation arithmetic» (1900)

## Description of mathematical objects

Next level: collection of all groups, or all sets (at a fixed universe)
When are two such collections considered to be the «same»?

## Description of mathematical objects

Let $B$ be a given set
In mathematics the two collections $\mathrm{SET}^{B}$ and $\mathrm{SET} / B$ should be《identified»
They satisfy the same《structural》／transportables properties
$\mathrm{SET}^{B}$ contains families of sets $X_{b}, b \in B$
SET $/ B$ contains $Y, f \in B^{Y}$ ，functions of codomain $B$

## Description of mathematical objects

We have two canonical maps $F: \mathrm{SET}^{B} \rightarrow \mathrm{SET} / B$ and $G: \mathrm{SET} / B \rightarrow \mathrm{SET}^{B}$
$F(X)=\Sigma(b: B) X_{b}, \pi_{1}$
$G(Y, f)=\left(f^{-1}(b)\right)_{b \in X}$
$G(F(X))$ and $X$ are only isomorphic (and not equal as sets in general)
$G(F(X))_{b}=\{b\} \times X_{b}$
The two collections (groupoids) $\mathrm{SET}^{B}$ and $\mathrm{SET} / B$ are equivalent
$F$ and $G$ do not define an isomorphism

## Collapsing

We get a new way to identify collections
The collection of all linear orders with 27 elements in a given Grothendieck universe $\mathcal{U}$ is not an element of $\mathcal{U}$

But it can be identified with the groupoid with one object and one morphism
Mathematics is the art of giving the same name to different things. It is enough that these things, though differing in matter, should be similar in form, to permit of their being, so to speak, run in the same mould. When language has been well chosen, one is astonished to find that all demonstrations made for a known object apply immediately to many new objects: nothing requires to be changed, not even the terms, since the names have become the same.

## Description of mathematical objects

This natural stratification of collection of mathematical objects is not directly represented in set theory

A (Grothendieck) universe is a set as any other set with its notion of equality
Similarly for a collection of structures
Bourbaki has a characterisation of transportable properties for his notion of structure

Such a description for the next level is much more complex

## Description of mathematical objects

At the next level we have 2-groupoids
Then $n$-groupoids, then $\infty$-groupoids
More and more complex notions of equivalences/identifications
Less and less clear when a property is transportable along equivalences
This can be done in an uniform way in dependent type theory extended with the univalence axiom

## Universes

Simple type theory is elegant but presents unnatural limitations
First，we cannot express the notion of 《arbitrary》 structures
《Let $X$ be a type，then ．．．》
In set theory，we can quantify over all sets
In type theory，one can introduce variables ranging over types（already suggested in R．Gandy＇s 1952 PhD thesis）

But we cannot form the type of all given groups or rings
In set theory，Grothendieck universes are used to form a collection of mathematical structures as a set

In type theory, a universe is a type the elements of which are types Notion already present in the system AUTOMATH (N.G. de Bruijn)

We can then use sigma types to represent a type of structures, e.g.
$\Sigma(X: U) \quad X \times(X \rightarrow X \rightarrow X)$
This introduces dependent types, e.g. one can form the type $N \rightarrow U$

Universes

The same limitation of simple type theory holds for the notion of elementary topos

This limitation holds also for the notion of sheaves
As soon as one wants to describe a «sheaf» of structures one needs to replace the notion of sheaf by the notion of stack

For instance if we let $F(V)$ be the collection of sheaves over $V$
We have a natural restriction map $F(V) \rightarrow F(W)$ for $W \subseteq V$
This does not define a sheaf but a stack: 3 by 3 condition for glueing and glueing is only unique up to isomorphism

## Dependent types

Logical operations $=$ construction on types following the dictionnary

| $A \wedge B$ | $A \times B=\Sigma(x: A) B$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $A \rightarrow B$ | $A \rightarrow B=\Pi(x: A) B$ |
| $(\forall x: A) B(x)$ | $\Pi(x: A) B(x)$ |
| $(\exists x: A) B(x)$ | $\Sigma(x: A) B(x)$ |
| $A \vee B$ | $A+B$ |

## Dependent types

de Bruijn (1967) notices that this approach is suitable for representation of mathematical proofs on a computer (AUTOMATH)

Proving a proposition is reduced to building an element of a given type
«This reminds me of the very interesting language AUTOMATH, invented by Dijkstra's colleague (and next-door neighbor) N. G. de Bruijn. AUTOMATH is not a programming language, it is a language for expressing proofs of mathematical theorems. The interesting thing is that AUTOMATH works entirely by type declarations, without any need for traditional logic! I urge you to spend a couple of days looking at AUTOMATH, since it is the epitome of the concept of type.》
D. Knuth (1973, letter to Hoare)

Introduce a new type Id $A a_{0} a_{1}$ as the type of ways of identifying $a_{0}$ and $a_{1}$ (de Bruijn's notion of «book equality», Martin-Löf, 1973)

Different identifications for different $A$ (not as in with set theory)
This type formation can be iterated since we can compare two given identifications

So we can form Id (Id $\left.A a_{0} a_{1}\right) p_{0} p_{1}$
Note that this, like universes, introduces dependent types in the language

Type of identifications

We can then stratify types
-proposition $\quad \Pi\left(x_{0} x_{1}: A\right)$ Id $A x_{0} x_{1}$
-set
$\Pi\left(x_{0} x_{1}: A\right)$ isProp (Id $\left.A x_{0} x_{1}\right)$
-groupoid $\quad \Pi\left(x_{0} x_{1}: A\right)$ isSet (Id $\left.A x_{0} x_{1}\right)$
Type theory appears as a generalization of set theory
We also define isContr $A$ to be $A \times$ isProp $A$

Laws of identifications

The logical laws of identifications are
refl $a: \operatorname{ld} A a a$
Id $A a_{0} a_{1} \rightarrow B\left(a_{0}\right) \rightarrow B\left(a_{1}\right)$
Laws formally similar to the ones of equality in simple type theory
The third law is quite mysterious and was found by Martin-Löf in 1973
$\Pi(a: A)$ isContr $(\Sigma(x: A)$ Id $A a x)$

Laws of identifications

The mathematical law of identification is the univalence axiom
The canonical map Id $U A B \rightarrow$ Equiv $A B$ is an equivalence
where
Equiv $A B=\Sigma(f: A \rightarrow B)$ isEquiv $f$
isEquiv $f=\Pi(b: B)$ isContr $(\Sigma(x: A)$ Id $B(f x) b)$
This formally generalizes propositional extensionality
Equiv $A B$ generalizes uniformly logical equivalence (between propositions), bijection (between sets), categorical equivalence (between groupoids), ...

## Abstract data types

The type of groups (in a given universe) will be
$\Sigma(X: U)$ isSet $X \times X \times(X \times X \times X) \times \ldots$
Given a group ( $G, p, e, f, \ldots$ ) it is impossible to have access to the 《internal» of $G$ and form the statement "does 0 belong to $G$ "

We《hide» the internal structure of the group
Invariance by isomorphisms (Tarski-Lindenbaum, Gandy)
Representation independence (Morris, Reynolds, ... )
Type theory is more abstract/modular than set theory

## Extensionality

In simple type theory, one extensionality axiom for each possible type formation (proposition or function type)

Univalence axiom corresponds to the case of equality for universe
Generalization of the propositional extensionality axiom of simple type theory
It implies function extensionality (Voevodsky, 2010)

## Extensionality

In simple type theory, one can give an interpretation of the system with extensionality in the system without extensionality

Russell proves that logical connectives preserve logical equivalence in
«The Theory of Implications»American Journal of Mathematics, Vol. 28, 2, p. 159-202, 1906.

Gandy generalizes this to simple type theory in
«On axiomatic systems in mathematics and theories in physics» PhD thesis, University of Cambridge, 1953.

## Extensionality

For instance, quantifiers are functionals $(I \rightarrow$ bool $) \rightarrow$ bool
They are extensional operations since if $P$ and $Q$ are two extensionaly equal predicates on $I$ then $\forall(x: I) P x$ (resp. $\exists(x: I) P x$ ) and $\forall(x: I) Q x$ (resp. $\exists(x: I) Q x)$ are logically equivalent

The starting point of Gandy's relative consistency proof for extensionality is then that each constant is an extensional operation and to be extensional is preserved by abstraction and application

## Extensionality

Can we do the same for dependent type theory?
It does not seem possible to do it in one step like in simple type theory
Instead, we proceed in two steps: first a 《relational》 model, which can be seen as a higher-order generalization of the reflexive graph model of type theory (cubical sets)

## Extensionality

In this model, the type of 《relations» on a type $A$ can be seen as an exponential $A^{\mathbb{I}}$ where $\mathbb{I}$ is an interval type

We can internalize an approximation of the identification type Path $A a_{0} a_{1}$
Almost all rules of the identification type are satisfied but the transport function

$$
\text { Path } A a_{0} a_{1} \rightarrow P\left(a_{0}\right) \rightarrow P\left(a_{1}\right)
$$

## Extensionality

This is a presheaf model
$\Gamma$ is interpreted by a presheaf
$\Gamma \vdash A$ is interpreted by a presheaf on the category of elements of $\Gamma$
$\Gamma \vdash M: A$ is interpretation by a global section of this presheaf
$\mathcal{U}(X)$ : collection of $\mathcal{U}$-presheafs on the category of elements of $X$

## Equivalence relation

From homotopy theory, we get a suitable generalization of equivalence relation
Lemma: If $A$ subpolyhedra of $B$ then $B \times 0 \cup A \times \mathbb{I}$ is a retract of $B \times \mathbb{I}$
where $\mathbb{I}$ is now the closed unit interval $[0,1]$
On the relation between the fundamental group of a space and the higher homotopy groups
Eilenberg 1939, Fund. Math.

## Extensionality

If $A$ subpolyhedra of $B$
Proposition: Given two homotopic functions $f_{0} f_{1}: A \rightarrow X$ and an extension $f_{0}^{\prime}: B \rightarrow X$ of $f_{0}$ there is an extension $f_{1}^{\prime}$ of $f_{1}$ homotopic to $f_{0}$

Proofs of basic results about homotopy "can be obtained quite neatly by repeated, and sometimes tricky, use of this general lemma" (Bourbaki's notes on homotopy by Eilenberg, 1951)

If we think of $\Gamma \vdash A$ as a higher-order reflexive relation, to satisfy Eilenberg's condition can be thought of as expressing that this relation is an equivalence relation

## Extensionality

Eilenberg's condition can be expressed internally (using the notion of partial element to represent subpolyhedra)

If we have $\gamma \in \Gamma^{\mathbb{I}}$ and $a_{0} \in A \gamma(0)$ and a partial section $a(i) \in A \gamma(i), i \in \mathbb{I}$ with $a(0)=a_{0}$ then can extend this to a total section $\tilde{a}(i) \in A \gamma(i)$

For empty extent we get a transport function $A \gamma(0) \rightarrow A \gamma(1)$
But this condition is expressed in the context $\Gamma^{\mathbb{I}}$ and not in the context $\Gamma$

## Extensionality

For cubical sets we can find a type $R(T)$ such that
the set of terms in $\Gamma^{\mathbb{I}} \vdash T$ is in bijection with the set of terms in $\Gamma \vdash R(T)$
This is a dependent version of a right Kan extension (thanks to discussions with Christian Sattler)
$\Gamma^{\mathbb{I}} \rightarrow \Delta$ naturally isomorphic to $\Gamma \rightarrow R(\Delta)$
For cubical sets, the path functor, which is the right adjoint of the cylinder functor, has itself a right adjoint

This follows from the fact that the cylinder functor preserves representables

## Extensionality

Hence, for cubical sets we can find a type $C(A)$ defined in the same context as $A$ which expresses that $A$ is a higher-order equivalence relation

This defines $C: \mathrm{U}_{i} \rightarrow \mathrm{U}_{i}$ for each universe $\mathrm{U}_{i}$
One can build elements

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \pi_{C}: C(A) \rightarrow(\Pi(x: A) C(B)) \rightarrow C(\Pi(x: A) B) \\
& \sigma_{C}: C(A) \rightarrow(\Pi(x: A) C(B)) \rightarrow C(\Sigma(x: A) B) \\
& u_{C}^{i}: C\left(\Sigma\left(X: \mathrm{U}_{i}\right) C(X)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Interpretation of Extensionality

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
{[x]} & = & x \\
{[M N]} & = & \\
{[\lambda(x: A) M]} & =\lambda(x: \llbracket A \rrbracket)[M] \\
& & \\
{[\Pi(x: A) B]} & =\left(\Pi(x: \llbracket A \rrbracket) \llbracket B \rrbracket, \quad \pi_{C}[A] \cdot 2(\lambda(x: \llbracket A \rrbracket)[B] .2)\right) \\
{[\Sigma(x: A) B]} & =\left(\Sigma(x: \llbracket A \rrbracket) \llbracket B \rrbracket, \quad \sigma_{C}[A] .2(\lambda(x: \llbracket A \rrbracket)[B] .2)\right) \\
{\left[U_{i}\right]} & & \left(\Sigma\left(X: \bigcup_{i}\right) C(X), u_{C}^{i}\right) \\
\llbracket A \rrbracket & & {[A] \cdot 1} \\
\llbracket x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n} \rrbracket & =x_{1}: \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \ldots, x_{n}: \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket
\end{array}
$$

Theorem: If $\Gamma \vdash M: A$ then $\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \vdash[M]: \llbracket A \rrbracket$

## Interpretation of Extensionality

$[A] .2$ computes by induction on $A$ the proof that $[A] .1$ is an equivalence relation, i.e. a proof of $C([A] .1)$

We see that, for getting a model, the exact form of the constants $\pi_{C}, \sigma_{C}, u_{C}$ does not matter

However the exact definition of these constants might be important if we want elegant/efficient computations (and there seems indeed to be significant possible simplifications w.r.t. our published version)

In the simplicial set model, to be an equivalence is a property and not a structure

