

Introduction
to
Homotopy Type Theory

Department of Computer Science
University of Verona

Iosif Petrakis

Summer Term 2017

Overview of this Course

Part I: A homotopic approach to Intensional Type Theory (ITT)

Chapter 1: Basic types and type constructors in ITT

Chapter 2: Applications of path-induction

Part II: Homotopic extensions of Intensional Type Theory

Chapter 3: The Univalence Axiom (UA) of Voevodsky

Chapter 4: Higher Inductive Types (HITS)

(Chapter 5: Path spaces)

ITT

ITT + EXT

ITT + UA

ITT + HITS

ITT + UA + HITS = HoTT

- A seminar talk by Phi Xu is planned on the semantics of HoTT in cubical sets and on implementation issues. (June 17).

- Main literature: HoTT book (<https://homotopytypetheory.org>)
 - may authors
 - one year
 - shorter paths

Brief Explanation of the basic terms

ITT = It's called intensional (vs extensional) because equality is not final (to be explained!)
 or Martin-Löf's ITT
 or constructive IT

a theory of types (Russell, Church...) created by Martin-Löf in order to provide a new foundation for constructive mathematics (Bishop)

- Main characteristics:
- extensive use of inductive definitions
 - no separation between logic and mathematics (like in set-theoretic foundations with 1st order logic)
 - it consists of rules, it has no axioms.

It turned out to be a fundamental functional programming language and was expected more to Computer Science rather than mathematics.

→ it constitutes the U
 HoTT: Through homotopy-theoretic semantics for ITT
 types in ITT are interpreted as homotopical objects

- Awodey - Warren 2009
- Kapulkin - Lumsdaine - Voevodsky 2012
- Coquand, Menni, Hiler et al 2015

So we can use ITT to prove theorems in homotopy theory of ^{pointed} topological spaces

and

we can use homotopy theory to discover things about the types of ITT + (HoTT)

- In this course = Informal ITT (syntax)
- Informal semantics (of) ITT

for other work = Naive Homotopy Type Theory (Hollander)

IMPORTANT = many versions of ITT (v. Axiomatic HoTT (univ. K-theory etc) see notes + links in HoTT-book (also, index website))

Aims of this course

- 0. ^{written} Experience with inductive steps
- 1. At the end you can study the HoTT-book on your own, without help
- 2. -- -- -- research paper on HoTT
- 3. To understand basic issues on the foundations of mathematics
- 4. To realize that foundation of math can influence math and the universe.

Bureaucracy of this course

- email: petra@math.uni.de
www.mathematik.uni-muenchen.de/~petra/
- Room 1.63 B, office hours Thursday 10:30-11:30 AM
Italian email-account ...
- website of the course: you need an email from it
- Weekly exs: Every Thursday you get new exs (this week on Monday?)
-- 1:30-2:30 we discuss the exs of the previous week. You participate in a group of 2-3. It's best if you present the solutions? Start to get used to the language of HoTT.
- Exams: Exs + Oral Exams (+ Tessina)? (Please think about it) and tell me who you want to take. If written exam, then bonus to the test.
Please think out tell me in 2 weeks if you prefer to do oral exams. Late June / early July.
- Mo 06.03 9:30-11:30 not on 08 and 09.03 due to a conference I have to attend.
Room? I'll give you the 603 key!!

Thursday 13.04. I won't be here.

~~My office hours Wed 1.30-2.30, My office: ...~~

4 hours on Wednesday?? We start May $2 \times 45 = 135 \text{ min} = 90 - 20 \text{ min break} = 45$
 $4 \times 45 = 180 \text{ min} = 90 - 30 \text{ min break} = 90$

Again in June. I'll inform you.

Please send me your emails! (or take them from P32)

Questions?

Part I

A homotopic approach to Intensional Type Theory

Chapter 1

Basic types and type constructors in Intensional Type Theory

Section 1.1: Propositions and judgements

- A proposition is a statement that can be proved (eg. in ZFC: $a \in A$), or used as a hypothesis in a proof. implication
negated etc.
- A judgement is a statement that can be used in the ambient context of a proposition, that can be derived, but cannot be negated, used as a hypothesis in a proof etc. (ie. if a judgement \Rightarrow it cannot be treated as a proposition)

- The basic judgements of ITT:
 - $a : A$
 - "a is an object of type A" (the term a is of type A)
 - "a is a proof of A" (You cannot say $\neg a$)
 - "a is a point in space A" (by definition)
 - $a \equiv b : A$
 - "a, b are 'definitionally' equal objects of A 'judgementally'"
 - or $a \equiv b$
 - special case $A \equiv B = U$ (eg.)

(The only judgement & int. value logic: "P has a proof")

$1 \equiv_{\text{in}} \text{succ}(0)$
 $f(3) \equiv_{\text{in}} 6$ if $f(x) \equiv x$, $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$
 if I have a type in ...
 You cannot say $\neg(x \equiv y)$
 propositional equality
 it is a proposition

- Every "term" a of ITT comes with its type A , only $a : A$, for some A . inconsistent. V is more strict
- No terms-points "in isolation" (In ZFC x is a set, and also $x \in V$, and can be considered as a set) (You cannot say $\neg(x \equiv y)$)

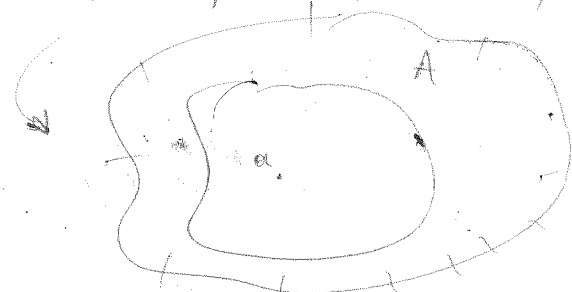
- In Intensional Type Theory (ITT) there is a notion of equality $x \equiv_A y$, for $x, y : A$ other than $x =_A y$, which is responsible for the higher dimensional structure of its types.

- In Extensional Type Theory (ETT) no distinction between $x \equiv_A y$ and $x =_A y$.

(here type-checking is not decidable, as in ITT)
 (with less interesting semantics)

- Both were first studied, and introduced by Per Martin-Löf.

The starting point of the homotopy approach to ITT



U but you could say $a : U$ (only ZFC)
 space, see sets as universe.

Section 1.2 = Universes

and natural from the perspective of a naive notion of set

In set theory was very helpful to talk about a universe V of all sets, and treat it as a set again.

But Russell's paradox = $A = \{x \in V \mid \neg(x \in x)\}$

$$A \in A \Leftrightarrow \neg(A \in A)$$

showed that V cannot be considered a set, only a "class."

In ITT this paradox cannot be reproduced, since $\neg(A = A)$ or $\neg(x = x)$ has no meaning, you cannot negate a judgement.

But also in ITT is extremely helpful and natural to consider, initially a type U , the universe where all other types "are objects of". In ITT

U is a type

(made we discuss this)
 see Hk's proof in ML's paper: An Intuitionistic theory of types II

To avoid circularities (actually a version of the Burali-Forti paradox was formulated in ITT by Girard, which showed the necessity of using) a hierarchy of universes

U_0, U_1, U_2, \dots

In ML of, following G\"{o}tthard's ect's hierarchy of universes !!

all of them behave as types, under the following Rules

(RU1): ~~$U_m = U_n$~~ $U_m = U_n$; some naive notion of equality is used here! (the universes are "cumulative")

(RU2): $A : U_m$ (small type) $U_m \in U_n$ (large type) $U_m \in U_n$ (a type that includes U is lower eg $A \rightarrow U$)
 $A : U_m$
 $A : U_n$
 no unitive typing (unpleasant) "for space-terms"

Usually we work with U_0, U_1 and U_2 , the successors
 Remark 1.2.1 ~~If~~ $A, B : U$ (usually we omit to index) then A, B are points of a type and the equality $A \equiv B = U$ is meaningful.
 $A \equiv B$
 $A \equiv B$
 special cases of the inlud judgement.

(RU3): Conversion rule for types in a universe : $\alpha : A, A : U, B : U, A \equiv_U B$
 $\alpha : B$
 here

(of course we have such a rule for every U^i and U_n)

We can give examples of $A \equiv B$ after introducing type-formals
 if $P: U \rightarrow U$

If $P \equiv \lambda (x:U). A$, then
 $P(A) \equiv A$

If $P: A \rightarrow U_0$, then I cannot get $P: A \rightarrow U_1$, since this is no rule that permits it. What I can say though is that

$[\lambda (a:A). P(a)] : A \rightarrow U_1$

(see notes + ch. 2 from HIT book)

If we wanted show PA, for every A, we would use this induction principle Ind_A

Remark 1.2.2: Usually when we define a type we include an induction axiom which guarantees that the type under definition is the "least" with the required properties. Unions are not defined inductively this way here, there are other versions of IT for which such an axiom is given, since we want to keep U (a U_0, U_1, \dots) open-ended space, so that we can add new types or use new type constructors if necessary. (This was M. Hofmann's original approach to U too.)

OPEN UNIVERSE

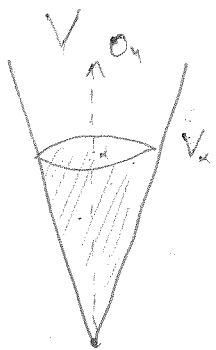
This will be essential in Part II, chapter 4, where HIT are going to be introduced, "new" types.

Remark 1.2.3: In (axiomatic) ZFC the universe V is described as the following cumulative hierarchy of sets:

$V_0 = \emptyset$

$V_{\alpha+1} = P(V_\alpha)$

$V_\lambda = \bigcup_{\alpha < \lambda} V_\alpha$, a limit ordinal



~~With the axiom of foundation every set is well-founded, and hence in V~~

• transfinite induction on $\alpha \in \text{On}$: $P(0), P(\alpha) \Rightarrow P(\alpha+1)$

$(P(\alpha))_{\alpha \in \text{On}} \Rightarrow P(\lambda)$

• to show $\forall x \in V. P(x)$: $\forall \alpha \in \text{On} (\bigvee_{x \in V_\alpha} (P(x)) \wedge C(\alpha))$

• i.e. V in ZFC is not open-ended, it is a CLOSED universe

- Was the set-constructors $A+B$ or $A \times B$
 $A+B \rightarrow AP$

By to local $\{y\}$

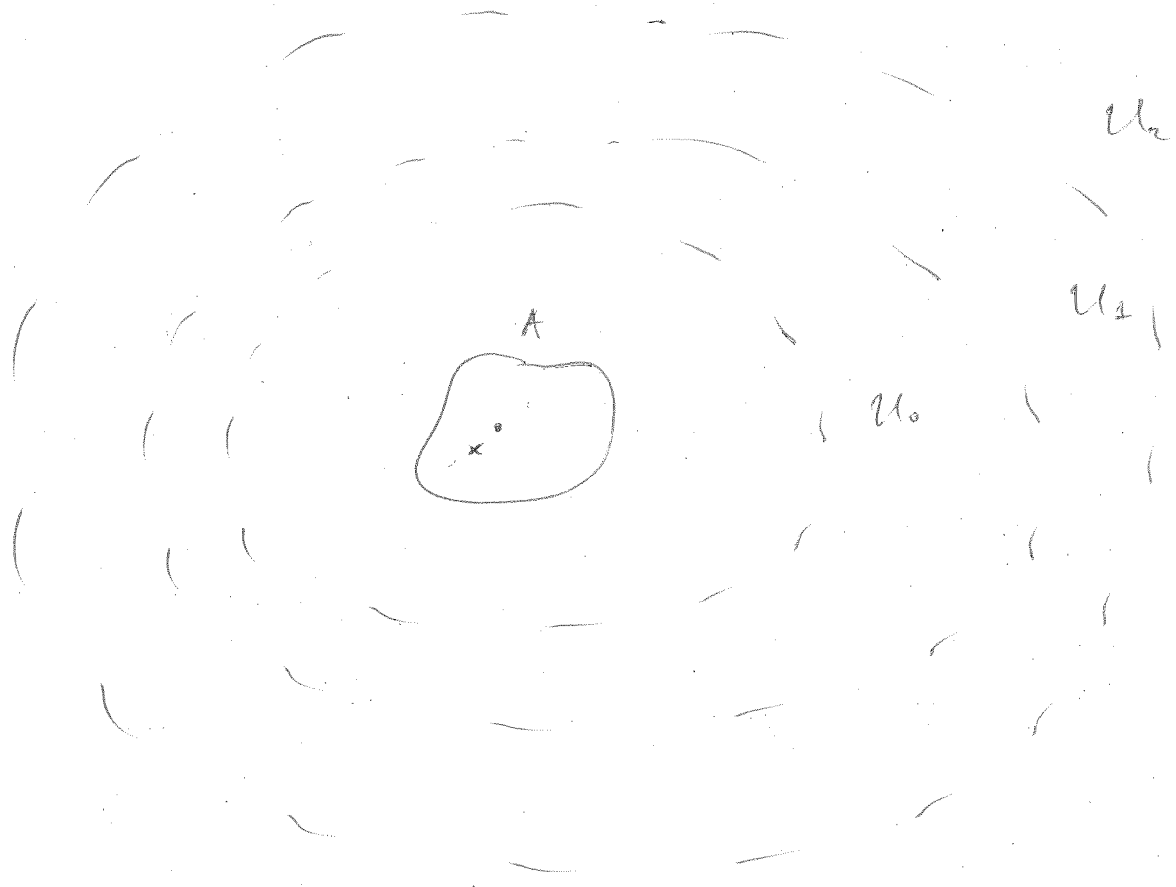
cut with only one basic set $\rightarrow (\emptyset)$ ^{pairing, replacement} ~~separable~~ ~~form~~

infinite set

all ^{basic} T sets with mathematics are going to be defined in V .

In ITT we have many basic types, and we may add more, if we want

- We have more than one universes
- (V can be embedded in HOTT)
- The type constructor of ITT corresponds to the set-constructors of ZFC



• Similarity between ZFC and ITT: first the axioms, then their models.
 (unlike group-axioms, the group models pre-exist)

• $u' = u_{in}$, if $u = u_{in}$ (standard injection)

$\{ u, u', u'', u''', \dots \}$
 $u = u' = u'' = \dots$

can avoid theory of \mathbb{N} ?

No problem for the theory of \mathbb{N} you need the first universe U_0 only
 So, one object \mathbb{N} , outcomes back to P_{U_1}, P_{U_2} .

Section 1.3: Function Types (or non-dependent function types)

Not inductively defined but with the following rules: (so far we can form $U \rightarrow U$, $U \rightarrow U'$, $U \rightarrow (U' \rightarrow U)$ etc) but with the diff of some basic types very soon we'll have more interesting examples at hand.)
but its useful to have equations first, before introducing new basic types.

Form $A \rightarrow B$

$$\frac{A, B : U}{A \rightarrow B : U}$$

Intro $A \rightarrow B$

$$\frac{x : A, b(x) : B}{\lambda x. b(x)} \text{ (for every } x \text{ this means)}$$

by explicit definition

$$\lambda x. (x : A). b(x) : A \rightarrow B$$

definition of an element of $A \rightarrow B$ via λ -abstraction
the rule introduces an element of the new type
"convenient" (obvious)

Elim $A \rightarrow B$

(or Inv)

here we get rid of f since it is no longer used.

$$\frac{f : A \rightarrow B, x : A}{f(x) : B}$$

Implication Introduction

the rule eliminates the element of the new type. It explains how the terms of the type can be used in derivations.

Comp $A \rightarrow B$

$$\frac{(x : A, b(x) : B), a : A}{[\lambda (x : A). b(x)](a) \equiv b(a)}$$

where $b(a) \equiv b[a/x]$

computation is judgemental equality for the rule explains what happens when the elim-rule applies to the introduction-rule. also know this specific one as β -conversion (compatibility between λ + Elim) or β -reduction

Unif $A \rightarrow B$

$$\frac{f : A \rightarrow B}{f \equiv \lambda (x : A). f(x)}$$

η -conversion or η -expansion
this optional uniqueness principle is judgemental equality for explains how every element of the type is uniquely determined by the results of the elim-rule applied to it.

Here: Not from f we elim $\lambda f(x)$ this is needed to construct an element of B from an element of A through the intro $A \rightarrow B$ of this method gives f again.

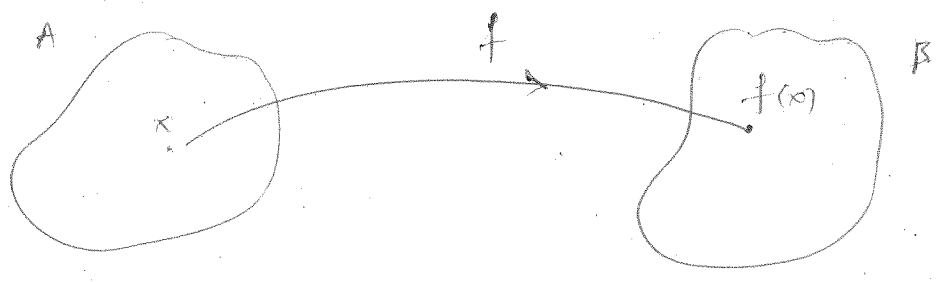
Function we write $\lambda x. b$ for simplicity

This pattern of rules gives for the definitions a type in general.

If the type is defined inductively then λ is replaced by Inl .

clearly Comp and Unif rules are unneeded only when the def is not inductive!!

• $Unif_{A \rightarrow B}$ will be equal in the proof of EXT through the HIT: Interval



• Examples : $\bar{b}_A \equiv \lambda(x:A). b$, where $b \in B$, is the constant function b on A . ($b(x) \equiv b$, for every x)

$id_A : A \rightarrow A$, $id_A \equiv \lambda(x:A). x$

• Remark 1.3.1 : The definition of $A \rightarrow B$, eg $Unif_{A \rightarrow B}$, is not "uncircular", for you have an operation $x \mapsto b(x)$, and though if you write down an element of $A \rightarrow B$. You don't learn what a function is, you rely on a notion of correspondence, (sometimes intuitively given) either in the future.

Definition 1.3.2 :

$f \equiv \lambda(x:A). f(x)$	$f : A \rightarrow B$	$A, B, C = U$	∞ $\lambda(x:A). b(x)$ $\lambda(y:B). c(y)$ $\lambda(x:A). c(f(x))$
$g \equiv \lambda(y:B). g(y)$	$g : B \rightarrow C$		
$g \circ f \equiv \lambda(x:A). g(f(x))$	$: A \rightarrow C$		

• Example : $f : A \rightarrow A$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f \circ id_A &\equiv \lambda(x:A). f(id_A(x)) \\
 &\equiv \lambda(x:A). f(x) \\
 &\equiv f
 \end{aligned}$$

Here we use: $b(x) \equiv c(x)$, for every $x \in A$

then $\lambda(x:A). b(x) \equiv \lambda(x:A). c(x)$

(Judgemental ^{formal} equality), we can add as a rule. (not to be used, as for ω -Kripke, since it's not in $f \circ id_A = f$ law)

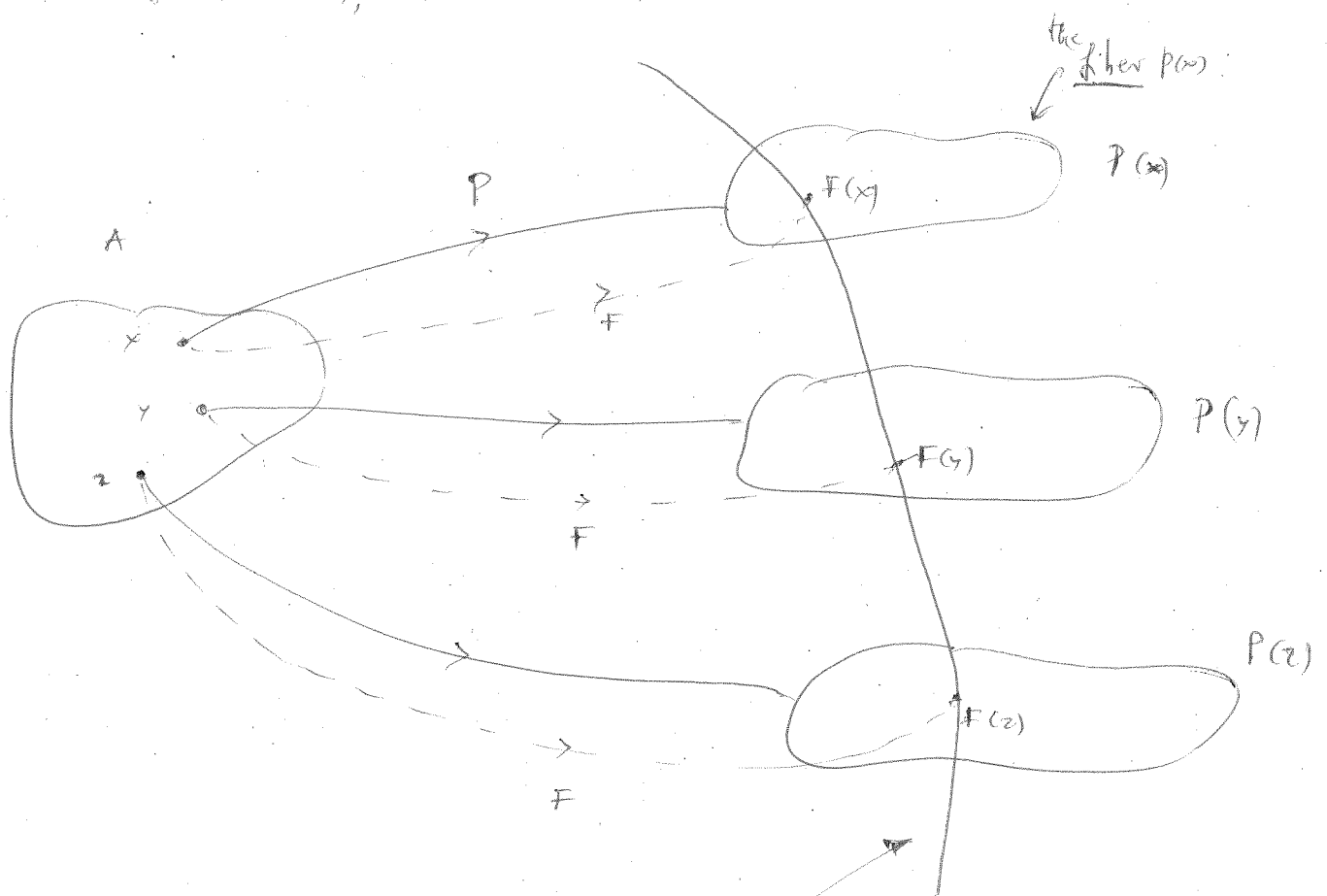
• Conventions : $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \equiv A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

If $g : A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, then $g(x, y) \equiv g(x)(y)$, where $x \in A, y \in B$.

Definition 1.3.3

A function $P: A \rightarrow U$, where $A \in U$, is called a type family, or a predicate [it corresponds to the homotopic notion of fibration, here U is "parameterized" as space by A . In \mathcal{U} it corresponds to a family of sets].

If $u = P(x)$, for some $x \in A$, then "P is true for x".



• One can introduce the judgement " $\Gamma, x: A \vdash P(x): U$ " (cont. this is making the codomain $\mathcal{U} \rightarrow$ in Π)

P can be regarded as a family of types indexed over A

That's why Martin-Lof's ^{Intensional} Type Theory is a dependent type theory (apart from simple types, types dependency is allowed!)

The right picture of $\Gamma \vdash \prod_{x:A} P(x)$ as a section of the fibration $P: A \rightarrow U$

Section 14: Dependent function types

Form $\prod_{x:A} P(x)$

$$\frac{A : \mathcal{U} \quad P : A \rightarrow \mathcal{U}}{\prod_{x:A} P(x) : \mathcal{U}}$$

Intro $\prod_{x:A} P(x)$

$$\frac{P : A \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \quad (x:A, b(x))}{[\lambda(x:A). b(x)] : \prod_{x:A} P(x)}$$

Elim $\prod_{x:A} P(x)$

$$\frac{F : \prod_{x:A} P(x), \quad a : A}{F(a) : P(a)}$$

Comp $\prod_{x:A} P(x)$

$$\frac{F : \prod_{x:A} P(x)}{F \equiv \lambda(x:A). F(x)}$$

Uniq $\prod_{x:A} P(x)$

$$\frac{P : A \rightarrow \mathcal{U}, \quad a : A \quad (x:A, b(x))}{[\lambda(x:A). b(x)](a) \equiv b(a)}$$

where $b(a) \equiv b(x/a) : P(a)$

Go back to figure 2 p.7, for the visualization of F (different colour?)

Some people (Schlichtkrull) object to this use: "these are more formulas rather than types"

How to fully interpret: $F : \prod_{x:A} P(x)$ is a section of the fibration P .

It captures the fact that some things happen "fiberwise", for each $P(x)$.

i.e., P is "fiberwise inhabited". (we'll see many examples of this)

Remark 14.1

If $P : A \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ is \overline{B}_A i.e. $P(x) \equiv B$, for every $x:A$, then

$$\prod_{x:A} P(x) \equiv \prod_{x:A} B \equiv A \rightarrow B$$

i.e., every function $A \rightarrow B$ can be seen as a dependent function w.r.t. the constant type family B . (It will be used in the future)

\hookrightarrow coincides for the usual case of functions

Remark 1.4.2

In the previous definition we used the $A \rightarrow B$ type constructor, in the form of $P : A \rightarrow U$.

One can follow a general principle according to which each (new) type constructor should be introduced independently from all other type constructors, and define

$$\prod_{x:A} P(x) \text{ independently from } A \rightarrow B$$

$$\text{eg } A = U \quad (x:A, P(x) = U)$$

Form \prod

$$\prod_{x:A} B(x) = U$$

defn \prod

$$\frac{x:A \quad b(x) = P(x)}{[\lambda(x:A). b(x)] = \prod_{x:A} P(x)}$$

i.e., we use $x \mapsto P(x)$ in the internal level but not refer to $P : A \rightarrow U$.

Then one can take $A \rightarrow B$ as a special case of $\prod_{x:A} B$.

But we find better for introduction to use both definitions and in literature of univalent general principle (also in HoTT-book. More in the appendix of HoTT, p. 228).

Example

$P : U \rightarrow U$ is defined by $P(A) \equiv A \rightarrow A$, for every $A = U$

$$\text{id}_U : \prod_{A=U} (A \rightarrow A)$$

$$\text{id}_U(A) \equiv \text{id}_A, \text{ for any } A = U$$

(A is small (non-universe))

Remark: Note that if $A = U$ we cannot give now $F = \prod_{x:A} P(x)$, because we have not

defined yet types $P(x)$ that depend on $x : A$.

Though the next introduced equality types $x =_A y$, we'll have many id_P , therefore F , at hand.

Standard Convention of notation

$$\prod_{x,y:A} \equiv \prod_{x:A} \prod_{y:A}$$

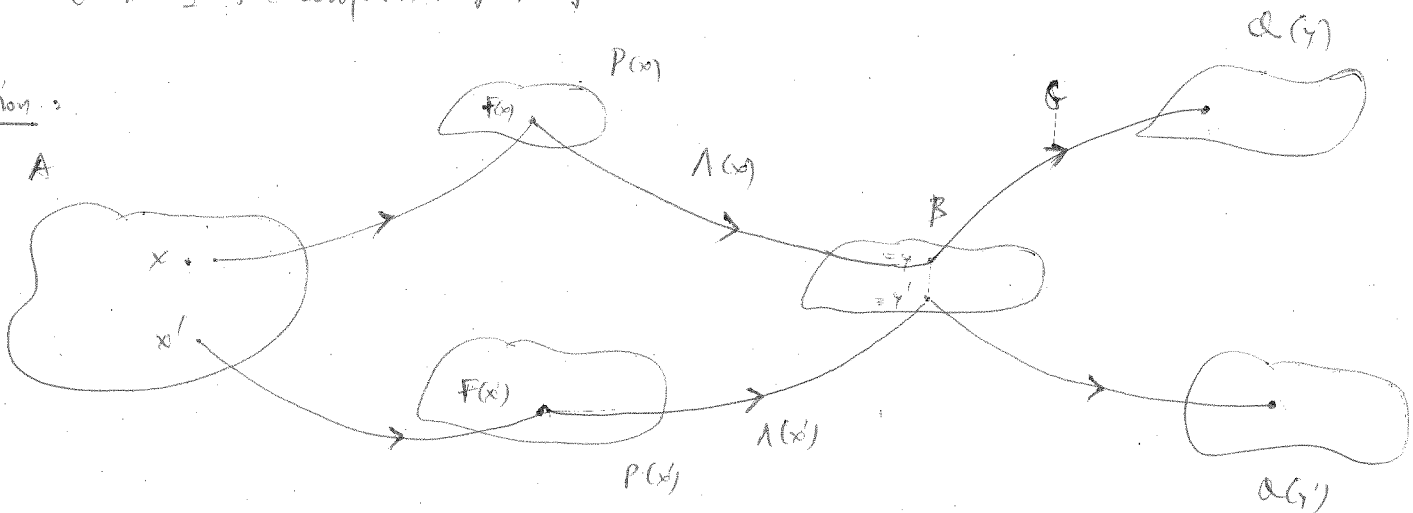
3. Let A, B, C, U

$$P: A \rightarrow U \quad Q: B \rightarrow U$$

$$F = \prod_{x \in A} P(x) \quad G = \prod_{y \in B} Q(y)$$

Given the above data, find extra data and conditions such that an operation $G \circ F = \prod_{x \in A} ()$ can be defined so that $P \equiv \bar{B}_A$ and $Q \equiv \bar{C}_B$, then $G \circ F \equiv$ the composition of the functions $G \circ F: A \rightarrow C$, with these conditions.

Solution:



Let $\Lambda = \prod_{x \in A} (P(x) \rightarrow B)$ i.e. $\Lambda(x) = P(x) \rightarrow B$ being

$$R: A \rightarrow U$$

$$R(x) = Q(\Lambda(x)(F(x)))$$

$$(G \circ_{\Lambda} F)(x) \equiv G(\Lambda(x)(F(x)))$$

$$(G \circ_{\Lambda} F) = \prod_{x \in A} R(x)$$

If $P \equiv \bar{B}_A$ and $Q \equiv \bar{C}_B$, then $F: A \rightarrow B$ and $G: B \rightarrow C$

$$\Lambda = \prod_{x \in A} (B \rightarrow B) \equiv A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow B)$$

define $\Lambda(x) \equiv \text{id}_B$, for every $x \in A$.

then $G \circ_{\Lambda} F = G \circ F$.

1. Let the universes U, U' , and let $A \subseteq U$.

Define a \forall -dependent function over A with the choice data given (if a choice $\prod_{x \in A} P(x)$)

Solution: $P: A \rightarrow U'$
 $P(x) \equiv U$, for every $x \in A$

We want $F = \prod_{x \in A} P(x) \equiv \prod_{x \in A} U \equiv A \rightarrow U$
 $F(x) \equiv A$, for every $x \in A$.

2. Let $A, B \subseteq U$, $C \subseteq U$, $P: B \rightarrow U$

$f: A \rightarrow B$ and $G = \prod_{y \in B} P(y)$

With the data given above
 Define an operation $G \circ f$ s.t. $f \circ f$ is reduced to pointwise composition of functions where $P \equiv \bar{C}_B$
 $x \in A$ for some $C = U$

Solution: let $\alpha: A \rightarrow U$ be defined by $\alpha(x) \equiv P(f(x))$, for every $x \in A$

$$G \circ f = \prod_{x \in A} \alpha(x) \equiv \prod_{x \in A} P(f(x)) \quad \text{where}$$

$$(G \circ f)(x) \equiv G(f(x))$$

If $P = \bar{C}_B$, then $G: B \rightarrow C$ and $f \circ f$ is the pointwise composition of f .

Section 1.5: Equality types (inductively defined)

Relaxed/coarser notion of equality

All the λ A types + type constructors are going to be defined inductively!

IMPORTANCE: (crucial of the concept via the induction principle. (Lecture 10).)

INDUCTIVE MATHEMATICS
construction of concepts - $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \dots$

Form $x =_A y$
better $\rightarrow (=A)$
 $A : U, x, y : A$
 $x =_A y : U$

$x =_{(A)} y$ is also called "identity" type, $(Id_A(x, y))$, or "path" type $(Path_A(x, y))$, of identifications, or paths, between x, y (in A). [Note that "equality of proofs" is \rightarrow rather mysterious]

Info $x =_A x$
better $\rightarrow (=A)$

$refl_{(A)} : \prod_{x:A} (x =_A x)$, usually we write $refl_x$ only, when A is obvious

i.e., $refl(x) : x =_A x$

the standard notation is $refl_x$ for $refl(x)$

- The canonical element $refl_x$ of $x =_A x$ corresponds to the constant path.
- Without, as with λ A one can show that there are paths, elements in $x =_A x$ which are not the $refl_x$. i.e. Π can be interpreted as if all paths are $refl$. But an informal interpretation is that this is not the case in general.

Ind $=_A$

If $C : \prod_{x,y:A} \prod_{p:x=y} U$ (or $C : \prod_{x,y:A} (x =_A y \rightarrow U)$)

is a dependent family of types in U , i.e., $C(x, y, p) : U$

and if

$c : \prod_{x:A} C(x, x, refl_x)$ i.e., $c(x) : C(x, x, refl_x)$, for every $x:A$

is a dependent function, then there is a dependent function

$\exists \prod_{x,y:A} \prod_{p:x=y} c(x, y, p)$

h.t. $\exists (x, x, refl_x) \equiv c(x)$, for every $x:A$.

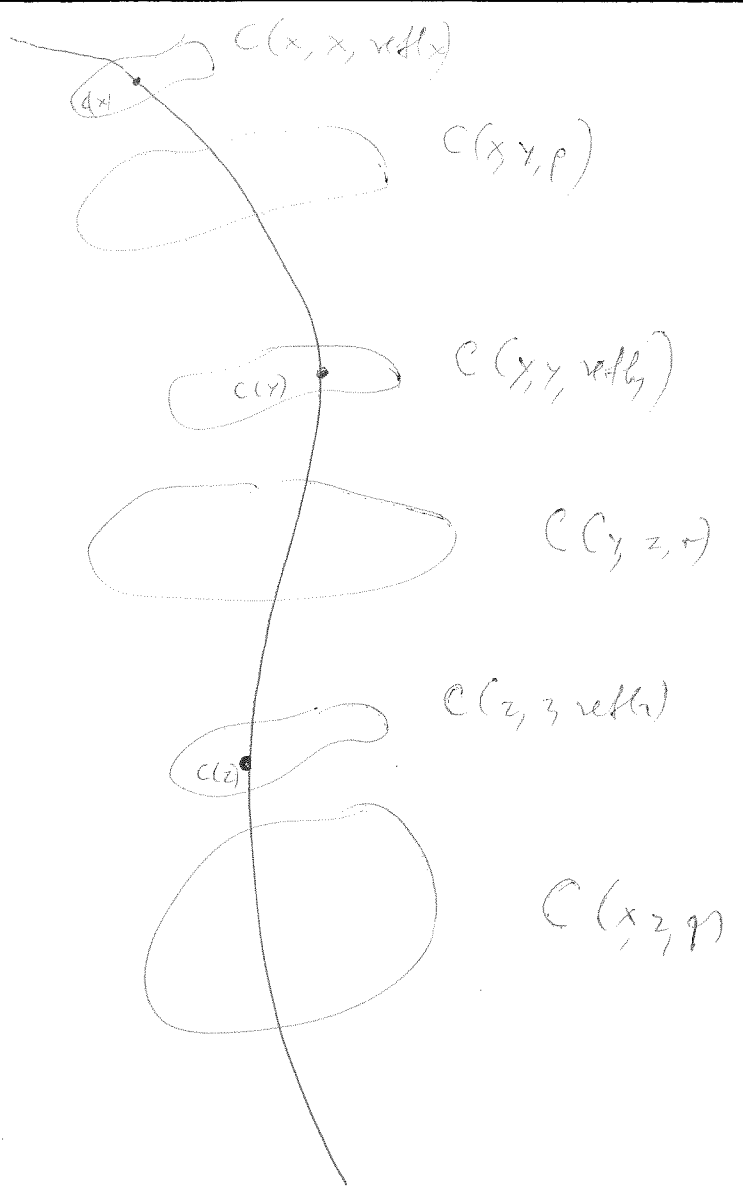
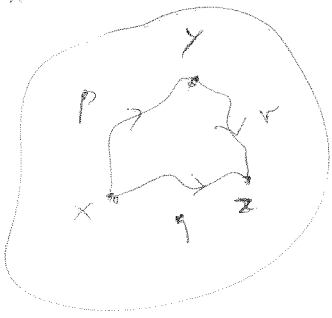
(unbased)

Ind $=_A$ is also called path-induction, or the J-rule

it was introduced by Martin-Lof in 1973 (published 1975). An Int. merge types, pred/paths Logic Colloquium (1973). (in the Π -type - but it is commonly mentioned that Howard in postcard used later in (1978) - at least - see) \rightarrow check this

72 JJ-99

A



$$I \rightarrow A \cong \sum_{x, y \in A} \binom{x}{y}$$

Exercises Let $A, B = U$

1. If $f: A \rightarrow B$, then let $F: \prod_{x, y: A} ((x =_A y) \rightarrow B)$ s.t. $F(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv f(x)$.

Solution:

Let $C: \prod_{x, y: A} \prod_{p: x =_A y} U$ be defined by $C(x, y, p) \equiv B$, for every $x, y: A, p: x =_A y$.

Let $C: \prod_{x: A} C(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv \prod_{x: A} B \equiv A \rightarrow B$ be defined by $C \equiv f$.

By path-induction there is $F: \prod_{x, y: A} \prod_{p: x =_A y} B$ s.t. $F(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv C(x) \equiv f(x)$.

$A:U$

$R: A \rightarrow A \rightarrow U$ $R(x,y):U$ a "relation" on A

Let R be reflexive (i.e., $R(x,x)$ is inhabited (true) for every $x:A$)

∴ there is $r: \prod_{x:A} R(x,x)$ $r(x) = R(x,x)$

Define $C(x,y,p) \equiv R(x,y):U$, for every $p:x=y$.

∴ $C: \prod_{x,y:A} \prod_{p:x=y} U$ is independent from $p:x=y$

and $C(x,x,refl_x) \equiv R(x,x)$, hence

$$r = \prod_{x:A} C(x,x,refl_x)$$

By path-induction there is $F: \prod_{x,y:A} \prod_{p:x=y} R(x,y)$ \forall

$$F(x,x,refl_x) \equiv r(x)$$

∴ "If R is reflexive, then $R(x,y)$ holds for all $x,y:A$ s.t. $x=y$!"

i.e., "~~reflexive~~" is the least reflexive relation on A ."

∴ $\forall (x,y,p): R(x,y)$, for any $x,y:A$ and $p:x=y$.

$\prod_{x,y:A} (x=y \rightarrow R(x,y))$
is inhabited

R is reflexive $\iff \prod_{x:A} R(x,x)$ is inhabited

is equivalent to $\prod_{x,y:A} (R(x,y) \rightarrow R(y,x))$ is inh.

is equivalent to $\prod_{x,y:A} (R(x,y) \rightarrow R(y,x) \rightarrow R(x,y))$ is inhabited

$\equiv_A: A \rightarrow A \rightarrow U$
 $\equiv_A(x,y) \equiv x=y$
 $\forall x,y: \prod_{p:x=y} R(x,y)$

clearly
is not $R(x,y)$:
for $R(x,y) \equiv 0$
empty type

(\equiv)

where $0 \rightarrow \dots$

almost always
⊙ (it is) ^{almost always} not why some equality $p : x =_A y$ is in the data of the theory (Hofmann's Hypothesis)

⊙ For context it's the slow equality!! (not for equality, → coinduction)

Chapter 2

Basic applications of path-induction

In this chapter we present applications of path-induction. The general "technique" of applying path-induction in the proof of a proposition is the following:

Step 1: Create a type $\mathcal{C}(x, y, p)$ out of the given data $A : \mathcal{U}$, $x, y : A$, $p : x =_A y$, and the property to be proven i.e., translate what is to be proven into a type $\mathcal{C}(x, y, p)$.

Step 2: Define the typed family $\mathcal{C} : \prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} \mathcal{U}$ through Step 1.

Step 3: Define $\zeta : \prod_{x : A} \mathcal{C}(x, x, \text{refl}_x)$ by unfolding $\mathcal{C}(x, x, \text{refl}_x)$. Most of the times the definition of $\zeta(x)$ is straightforward after the unfolding.

Step 4: Use the conclusion of path-induction on the previously defined \mathcal{C} and ζ to get the object that proves the proposition.

2.1 Uniqueness

(w density theorem) (x, x, refl_x) "dense" by (x, y, p)

Proposition 2.1.1. Let $\mathcal{C} : \prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} \mathcal{U}$ be a dependent family of types in \mathcal{U} , and $\zeta : \prod_{x : A} \mathcal{C}(x, x, \text{refl}_x)$ be a dependent function. If $F, G : \prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} \mathcal{C}(x, y, p)$ are dependent functions such that

$$F(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv \zeta(x) \equiv G(x, x, \text{refl}_x),$$

for every $x : A$, then the type

$$\prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} F(x, y, p) =_{\mathcal{C}(x, y, p)} G(x, y, p)$$

is inhabited.

Proof. We define the dependent family of types $\mathcal{D} : \prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} \mathcal{U}$ by

$$\mathcal{D}(x, y, p) \equiv F(x, y, p) =_{\mathcal{C}(x, y, p)} G(x, y, p).$$

To define a dependent function $\mathfrak{d} : \prod_{x : A} \mathcal{D}(x, x, \text{refl}_x)$ we need to have

$$\mathfrak{d}(x) : \mathcal{D}(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv F(x, x, \text{refl}_x) =_{\mathcal{C}(x, x, \text{refl}_x)} G(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv \zeta(x) =_{\mathcal{C}(x, x, \text{refl}_x)} \zeta(x).$$

Thus we define

$$\mathfrak{d}(x) \equiv \text{refl}_{\zeta(x)}.$$

$\mathfrak{d}(x) \equiv \int \text{refl} \rightarrow X$

Topal - in terms of extensional theory (see page)

to show (x, y, p)
F-continuous
Can I do the step on A
this step is half?
writes
the loops are dense in the space of paths

- It's the most fundamental proof-tool in ITT ^{and powerful} and among computers
- $\text{Ind}_{=A}$ packaged into a single function:

$$\text{Ind}_{=A} = \prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} C(x, y, p) \quad (1)$$

$$C = \prod_{x : A} \prod_{p : x =_A x} C(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \cup \prod_{x : A} C(x, x, \text{refl}_x)$$

3. $\text{Ind}(C, c) = \prod_{x, y : A} \prod_{p : x =_A y} C(x, y, p)$

s.t., $\text{Ind}_{=A}(C, c, x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv c(x)$ (2)

The function $\text{Ind}_{=A}$ is traditionally called J . (1), $J(C, c)$

Remark 1.5.4: (1) can be understood as $=_A$ -Elim $x=y$ is "eliminated," and F is constructed

(2) $=_A$ -Comp (how to elim $\text{Ind}_{=A}$ as a function is apparent to the inpr-rule, $x=x, \text{refl}_x$)

The same pattern is followed in all the rest inductive definitions: the Ind_{Type} which generally expresses the way to define elements of type $\prod_{x : \text{Type}} P(x)$, can be split into the Ind_{Type} as a packaging function

- computation rule
- Recall that univalence principles are optional.

So all Types introduced will follow the following pattern of rules:

- Form B^R
 - $\text{to } p$ type
 - $\text{Elim}_{\text{Type}}$
 - $\text{Comp}_{\text{Type}}$
 - (Unit_{type})
- did type why Bje's inductive

→ Through nerve's solution (by Capriani 2011) related univalence

- Interpretations of Path-induction:
- (a) Homotopic (in HoTT-book)
 - (b) Categorical (via Yoneda Lemma: § 5.8 in HoTT-book, p. 172)
 - (c) Type-theoretic // via the general theory of inductive definitions

(James Ladyman + Stuart Presnell: Identity in HoTT, part I: The justification of Path Induction 2014, rec'd 2016 paper of them, autonomous foundation for mathematics / no use of extra metatheoretic theory AG homotopy) We'll discuss this later!

(d)? Topological??

Remark 1.5.2: The homotopy interpretation of $\text{Ind}_=$

"How can $F(x, y, t)$ depend only on $F(x, x, \text{reflex})$, when in principle there are more paths between x and x than reflex ? " The basic interpretation is that

$X, Y \in \text{Top}$

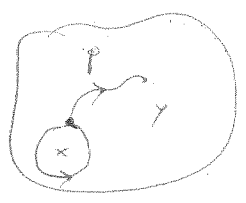
$f, g: X \xrightarrow{\text{cont}} Y$ the standard notation!

$H: f \sim g$ H is a homotopy between f, g

$H: X \times [0, 1] \xrightarrow{\text{cont}} Y$ st.

$H(x, 0) = f(x), \forall x \in X$

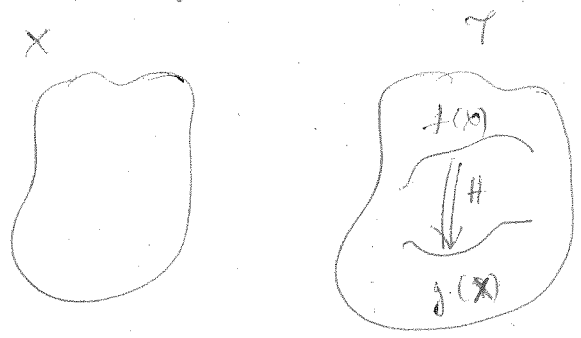
$H(x, 1) = g(x), \forall x \in X$



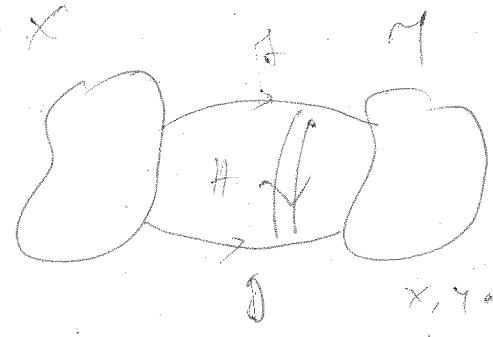
$x =_A y$ is the "set" of paths from x to y .

$x =_A x$ is the set of loops out of x
 $\text{reflex} =$ the constant loop.

later will define a type of \mathbb{I}
 and will show $(x =_A y) = \sum_{\gamma: I \rightarrow A} f(\gamma(0)) * \gamma(1)$
 and get the "spans" picture of a path for an element γ



or better



X, Y as points
 f, g as paths

$X \sim Y$ (homotopy equivalent) if there are $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow X$ st.

$(g \circ f) \sim \text{id}_X$ and $(f \circ g) \sim \text{id}_Y$

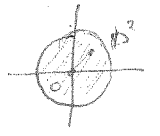
\sim : eqval

$[X]_{\sim} = \{Y \in \text{Top} \mid Y \sim X\}$: the homotopy type of X

Homotopy theory doesn't distinguish between homotopy equivalent spaces, as topology doesn't distinguish between homeomorphic spaces, and hence homotopy types rather than top. spaces are the basic object of the theory.

Ex $\mathbb{D}^2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ not homeomorphic to $\{0, 1\}$ (no bijection from \mathbb{D}^2 to $\{0, 1\}$, but

$\mathbb{D}^2 \sim \{0, 1\}$: $f: \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ $f(x, y) = (0, 0), \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{D}^2$
 $g: \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$ $g(0, 0) = (0, 0)$, or any other point in \mathbb{D}^2



$f \circ g^{(0,0)} = (0, 0) = \text{id}_{\{0,1\}}$ $(g \circ f)(x, y) = (0, 0), \forall (x, y) \in \mathbb{D}^2$ (if f, g are continuous)

$H = (g \circ f) \sim \text{id}_{\mathbb{D}^2}$, $H: \mathbb{D}^2 \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$ st $H(z, 0) = (g \circ f)(z) = (0, 0)$
 $H(z, 1) = \text{id}_{\mathbb{D}^2}(z) = z$

we need

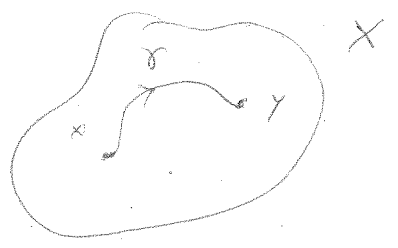
Define $H(z, t) = tz$ if $z \in \mathbb{D}^2$ to $(0, 0)$ or $z \in \{0, 1\}$ to $(0, 0)$

$H: \mathbb{D}^2 \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$
 $H((0, 0), 0) = (f \circ g)(0, 0) = (0, 0)$
 $H((0, 0), 1) = \text{id}_{\mathbb{D}^2}(0, 0) = (0, 0)$
 hence $H((0, 0), t) = (0, 0), \forall t$

$H' = (f \circ g) \sim \text{id}_{\{0,1\}}$

$H': \{0, 1\} \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ st $H'(z, 0) = (f \circ g)(z) = (0, 0)$
 $H'(z, 1) = \text{id}_{\{0,1\}}(z) = (0, 0)$
 Define $H'(z, t) = (0, 0), \forall z, t$

Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow X$ $\gamma(0) = x, \gamma(1) = y$
 $\bar{\gamma}: I \rightarrow X$ $\bar{\gamma}(t) = x, \forall t \in I$



There is $H: \gamma \sim \bar{\gamma}$

We define $H: I \times I \rightarrow X$ s.t. $H(s, 0) = \gamma(s), \forall s \in I$ and $H(s, 1) = x = \bar{\gamma}(s), \forall s \in I$.

Let $H(s, t) = (1-t)\gamma(s) + t\bar{\gamma}(s)$
 $H(s, 0) = \gamma(s) + 0 = \gamma(s), H(s, 1) = 0 + \bar{\gamma}(s) = x$

If one wants to define $H': \bar{\gamma} \sim \gamma$ we $H'(s, t) = \gamma(s, t)$
 $H'(s, 0) = \gamma(0) = x, H'(s, 1) = \gamma(s)$

Hence: Since $\gamma \sim \bar{\gamma}$, a property of $\bar{\gamma}$ that respects homotopy (i.e. it is invariant under homotopy) will hold for γ . Thus to show that γ has such a property it suffices to show it for $\bar{\gamma}$. (This is the homotopy-lemma counterpart to Ind₂)!!

γ can be retracted to $\bar{\gamma}$ (also in figure, 'shrunk to')

Remark 1.5.3: If one adds the following reflection rule:

$$\frac{p = x =_A y}{x =_A y}$$

then one gets extended TT out of ITT.
 (ETT)
 of course, we don't need this rule

Remark 1.5.4: Later will define the HIT interval I and will show that

$$x =_A y \approx \sum_{f: I \rightarrow A} (f(0) =_A x) \times (f(1) =_A y)$$

and we regain the usual topological picture of paths as $\gamma: I \rightarrow A$.

Spivak's Axiom K:

$$\frac{p = x =_A x}{p = \text{ref } x}$$

$x \Rightarrow p = q$, for $q: x \rightarrow y$

$p \circ q^{-1} = \text{ref } x$
 $p = q$

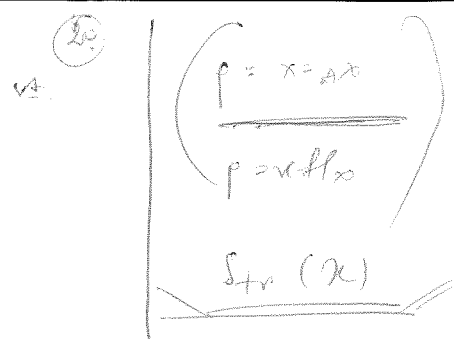
Section 1.6:

Ind =

? ~~is~~ homotopy-invariant
 there is $F: \prod_{x:A} \prod_{p:x \rightarrow x} (p = refl_x)$

(Ex 1.16 from
 HoTT book)

$$F(x, refl_x) = refl_{refl_x}$$



Attempt with Ind₂ strategy: $C(x, y, p)$, no applicable

This F corresponds to the principle:

$$C = \prod_{x:A} \prod_{p:x \rightarrow x} U$$

$$C(x, p) = U$$

Ind =

$$c = \prod_{x:A} C(x, refl_x)$$

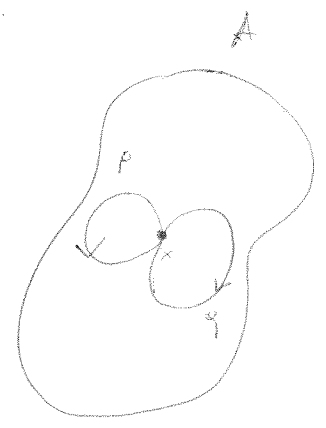
$$c(x) = C(x, refl_x)$$

Then there is

$$F = \prod_{x:A} \prod_{p:x \rightarrow x} C(x, p)$$

vs.

$$F(x, refl_x) \equiv c(x)$$



They define $C(x, p) \equiv (p = refl_x)$

$$C(x, refl_x) \equiv (refl_x = refl_x)$$

$$c(x) \equiv refl = (refl_x = refl_x)$$

and then to represent F following.



W.r.t. the homotopy interpretation the loop p cannot be shrunk to the constant path. (We cannot cut it, starting from a point in the loop, and go to x .)

$$\int_{\text{circles in } S^1 \text{ as a set}} (S^1 \times \mathbb{D})$$

So there is no homotopy reason to accept Ind = (It comes from this fact: question K is incompatible to the homotopy-invariance of Π).

We'll see that this is a broken $\text{HoTT}(A)$ which we $(A \rightarrow \text{Ind}_0)$ doesn't hold.

Also one can actually say towards this direction is the following form of π -induction.

(Pontryagin-Milnor 1953) Based path-inductivity: $A \cong U \cong A$.

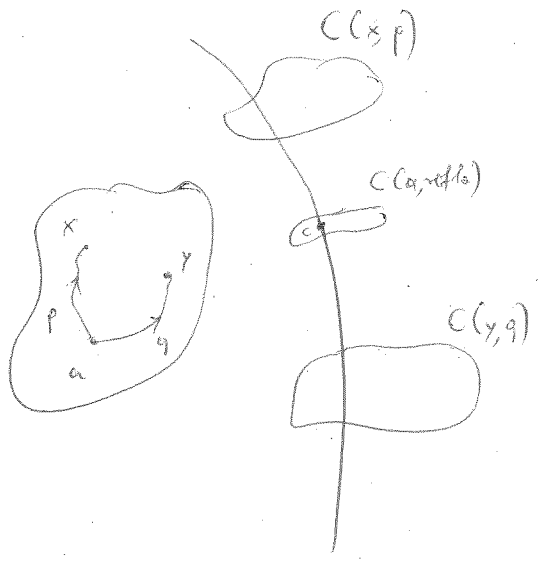
If $C = \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p: a \rightarrow x} U$ via $C(x, p) = U$

and $c = C(a, \text{id}_a)$

then there is $F = \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p: a \rightarrow x} C(x, p)$ s.t.

$F(a, \text{id}_a) \cong c$

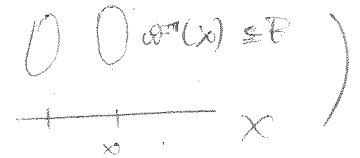
(It's very useful, some times more than Inds, they are quite the same equivalent).



homotopyical Ind/Basis of $b\text{-Ind}_2$: again the path $p: a \rightarrow x$ is substituted (compacted) to the constant path id_a .

Simple idea

$p\text{-Ind}_2$ is the type-theoretic version of Serre's definition (Cognard 2017) of a space X has to have a compatible fiber E over X . (fiber (E, ∂, X) with const and circ maps)



loop-space approach to alg to p . (~1950)

Serre defined $E_a = \{ p: I \rightarrow X \mid p(0) = a, p(1) = x \}$
 $\partial(p) = p(1) = x$

Proposition 6.2:

$b\text{-Ind} \Rightarrow b\text{-Transport}$: where $b\text{-Transport}$ is $P: A \rightarrow U$ there is $f_{a,x}^P: P(a) \rightarrow P(x) \forall x$
 $(\text{id}_a)^P \equiv \text{id}_{P(a)}$

Proof: Define $C(x, p) \equiv P(a) \rightarrow P(x)$

$C(a, \text{id}_a) \equiv P(a) \rightarrow P(a)$

Take $c \equiv \text{id}_{P(a)} \in C(a, \text{id}_a)$

By $p\text{-Ind}$ there is $F: \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p: a \rightarrow x} P(a) \rightarrow P(x) \forall F(a, \text{id}_a) \equiv c$

define $f_a^P \equiv F(x, p)$

Proposition 1.6.3

(as an ex 2)

$b\text{-Ind}_2 \Rightarrow b\text{-Uniformity}$ (i.e. let $F, G: \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p \in \mathcal{C}_x} (C_x, p)$ s.t.

$$d: F(C_x, p) = G(C_x, p)$$

where $C: \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p \in \mathcal{C}_x} U$

then $F(x, p) = G(x, p)$, for every x, p .

Proof:

$$D(x, p) \equiv F(x, p) = G(x, p)$$

$$D(a, \text{refl}_a) \equiv F(a, \text{refl}_a) = G(a, \text{refl}_a)$$

$$d: D(a, \text{refl}_a)$$

By $b\text{-Ind}_2$: $\Phi: \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p \in \mathcal{C}_x} (F(x, p) = G(x, p))$ s.t.

$$\Phi(a, \text{refl}_a) \equiv d$$

Remark 1.6.4

One could read the above result as a form of "density" of $\{d\}$ in the set of $\{S = \{(x, p) \mid p \in \mathcal{C}_x, x\}\}$, since the continuous $F(x, p)$ are determined by $\{d\}$ (existence by $b\text{-Ind}$, in the extension of the constant map c , and uniqueness by the density). But this topological interpretation doesn't correspond to some actual uniformity - formulation of types ≤ 1 top. spaces: If $\{d\}$ is dense, then $\{c\}$ is not closed (if it was, then $\{d\}$ would intersect, in dense, its open complement). i.e. the top. on S is not T_1 , and classically the interesting extension theorem (Taimanov for comp. T_1 , and Baire-Morawka for real comp.) require the space is T_1 , so that $f: D \rightarrow Y$ has a cont. ext. on $X \rightarrow Y$ (i.e. we cannot justify top. by \mathcal{L} -inducting. This why homotopical inference is needed, which is more than topological).

Proposition 1.6.5

$$b\text{-Ind}_2 \Rightarrow \text{Ind}_2$$

(the easy direction)

Proof:

Let $C: \prod_{x, y \in A} \prod_{p \in \mathcal{C}_x} U$ and $c: \prod_{x \in A} C(x, \text{refl}_x)$ be given.

Let $C_x = \prod_{y \in A} \prod_{p \in X \rightarrow A \times Y} U$ be defined by $C_x(y, p) \equiv C(x, y, p)$ (ind)

We want $c_x = C_x(x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv C(x, x, \text{refl}_x)$

Define $c_x \equiv c(x)$

By b-Ind₌ there is $F_x = \prod_{y \in A} \prod_{p \in X \rightarrow A \times Y} C_x(y, p) \equiv \prod_{y \in A} \prod_{p \in X \rightarrow A \times Y} C(x, y, p)$

s.t. $F_x(x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv c_x \equiv c(x)$

We define $F = \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{y \in A} \prod_{p \in X \rightarrow A \times Y} C(x, y, p)$ by

$$F \equiv \lambda(x \in A). F_x = \prod_{y \in A} \prod_{p \in X \rightarrow A \times Y} C(x, y, p)$$

$$F(x, x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv F_x(x, \text{refl}_x) \equiv c(x), \text{ for every } x \in A. \quad \square$$

Theorem 2.6.6 ~~Altenkirch & Coquand~~

other proof by Beilhan (+ K-closure, 93)
 Hofmann: (without universes, see fold-inh)

$\text{Ind}_= \Rightarrow \text{b-Ind}_=$

Proof (Altenkirch and Coquand): Let $C = \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{\forall a \in z} \prod_{x \in A} \prod_{p \in A \times X} U$ and

$c = C(a, \text{refl}_a)$ be given.

We define $D = \prod_{x, y \in A} \prod_{p \in X \rightarrow A \times Y} U$ by

$$D(x, y, p) \equiv \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{\forall x \in z} \left(C(x, \text{refl}_x) \rightarrow C(y, p) \right) \quad (1)$$

$$c = \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{\forall x \in z} U$$

since $c: \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{x \in z} U$ is $C(x, \text{refl}_x)$ and $C(y, p)$ are well-defined (24)

By (1) we get

$$\Phi(C(x, \text{refl}_x)) \equiv \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{x \in z} (C(x, \text{refl}_x) \rightarrow C(x, \text{refl}_x))$$

$$c: \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{x \in z} U$$

We define

$$d: \prod_{x \in A} \Phi(C(x, \text{refl}_x)) \text{ by}$$

$$d(x) \equiv \lambda (c: \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{x \in z} U). \text{id}_{C(x, \text{refl}_x)} \quad (2)$$

$$\left(\text{id}_{C(x, \text{refl}_x)} : C \mapsto \text{id}_{C(x, \text{refl}_x)} \right)$$

By Ind₌ there is $F: \prod_{x, y \in A} \prod_{p: x=y} \Phi(C(x, y, p)) \rightarrow$

$$F(C(x, x, \text{refl}_x)) \equiv d(x)$$

$$\text{ie, } F: \prod_{x, y \in A} \prod_{p: x=y} \prod_{c: \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{x \in z} U} (C(x, \text{refl}_x) \rightarrow C(y, p))$$

Hence

$$F(a, x, p) = \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{a \in z} (C(a, \text{refl}_a) \rightarrow C(x, p))$$

$$c: \prod_{z \in A} \prod_{a \in z} U$$

Hence $F(a, x, p, G', c) = C'(x, p)$

to conclude $F' \equiv \lambda (x \in A, p: a \stackrel{x}{=} x). F(a, x, p, C', c)$ ie,

$$F^1 = \prod_{x=A} \prod_{p=a \rightarrow x} C'(x, p) \quad \text{st.}$$

$$F^1(a, \text{refl}_a) \equiv F(a, a, \text{refl}_a, c', c')$$

$$\equiv F(a, a, \text{refl}_a)(c', c')$$

$$\equiv d(a)(c', c')$$

$$\equiv \text{id}_a(c')(c')$$

$$\equiv \text{id}_{c'(a, \text{refl}_a)}(c'), \quad d = c'(a, \text{refl}_a)$$

$$\equiv c'$$

$d = F^1$ is the required inhabitant for $b\text{-Ind}_2$.

□

• It will be useful to determine the determination of path-spaces, eq_1 , for f -congruence + in many other occasions. (See also § of univalence principle for \Rightarrow).