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A Very Good Title

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Abstract

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Acknowledgements

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Åsmund Aqissiaq Arild Kløvstad

Monday 14th March, 2022

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Related works

In this section we summarize some key papers and their significance to the project.

1.1.1 Patch Theory (Darcs)

Here we discuss several proposed formalisms for a the patch theory employed by Darcs [1]. [7, 12, 5] all attempt to describe Darcs' patch theory. (focus on Lynagh, I think)

Lynagh [7] proposes an “algebra of patches” as a theoretical basis for the Darcs [1] version control system.

In this model a repository state is a set of updates (called *patches*, but we want to avoid that ambiguity) and a patch is a change to this set. For example pulling the repository $\{c\}$ into the repository $\{a, b\}$ results in a new repository $\{a, b\} \cup \{c\} = \{a, b, c\}$.

Patches are only applicable to one repository state, and result in a new state. If they are compatible, we may string them together into a *patch sequence*. Denoting the previous example patch by P and the “do-nothing” patch by Id we have $\{a, b\}P\{a, b, c\}Id\{a, b, c\}$ – pulling $\{c\}$ followed by doing nothing. The repository state may be omitted from sequences.

Finally a notion of *commutation* of patches is defined. We say the patch sequence AB commute if there are patches A' and B' such that the following square commutes:

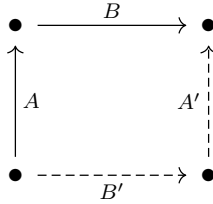


Figure 1.1: Commuting patches

and write $AB \leftrightarrow B'A'$. Note that the initial and final contexts (bottom left and top right, respectively) are the same, but the intermediary contexts need not be.

There are four axioms for patches and commutation:

1. Commutativity (lol) (3.1): $AB \leftrightarrow B'A' \iff B'A' \leftrightarrow AB$
2. Invertibility (3.2): for each A there is an A^{-1} s.t $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = Id$

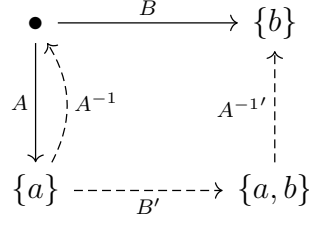


Figure 1.2: Merging A and B by commutation

3. Inv-cong (3.3): $AB \leftrightarrow B'A' \iff A^{-1}B' \leftrightarrow BA'^{-1}$. (we can start in the top left corner of Figure 1.1 if we want)
4. Circular (3.5/6): performing all pairwise commutations in a sequence gets us back to the beginning (or, a horrible equation)

These axioms allow us to define some useful operations on repositories. For example, given a span $\{a\} \xleftarrow{A} \bullet \xrightarrow{B} \{b\}$ we may want to incorporate the results of both patches to get $\{a, b\}$. We call this operation “merge” and proceed in three steps:

1. by invertibility, we can find a patch $\{a\}A^{-1}\bullet$
2. now that we have a sequence $A^{-1}B$, we commute it to get the sequence $B'A^{-1'}$
3. define $\text{merge}(A, B)$ to be the sequence AB' .

This process is shown in Figure 1.2.

Another useful operation on repositories is “cherry picking”. Cherry picking is the act of pulling some, but not all, patches from one repository into another. Consider the patch sequence $\{\}A\{a\}B\{a, b\}C\{a, b, c\}$ and a repository $\{a\}$. We want to incorporate the changes in C , but not the ones in B , but naively combining applying C does not work, since it is only applicable to the context $\{a, b\}$. The solution is to commute $BC \leftrightarrow C'B'$ (Figure 1.3) to obtain C' with the desired endpoints.

Problem: we cannot always commute patches, and Darcs does not have a great solution here.

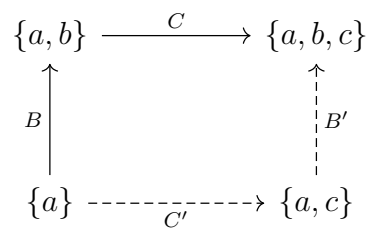


Figure 1.3: Commutation for cherry picking

1.1.2 A Categorical Theory of Patches

A Categorical Theory of Patches [8] defines a category of files and patches, such that a merge is a pushout. To ensure a merge is always possible they first construct the category \mathcal{L} of files and patches, and then its conservative cocompletion \mathcal{P} .

\mathcal{P} contains all finite colimits – and in particular all pushouts – so the merge of a span is always defined. The paper’s chief achievement is the explicit construction of this category and these pushouts.

Interesting insights I’m not sure how to incorporate:

- the construction of \mathcal{P} can be understood as the addition of *partially* ordered files to \mathcal{L} .
- “flattening” these partial orders leads to cyclic graphs. On editing text [4] objects, but maybe not correctly
- the poset structure of \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{P} is given explicitly by \mathcal{G} and the nerve functor N_- (!!).

(maybe mention Pijul [2] (if so, figure out the relationship to [8])) (maybe some figures go here)

1.1.3 Homotopical Patch Theory

Homotopical Patch Theory [3] gives a formulation of patch theory in homotopy type theory. A patch theory is represented by a higher inductive type, and its interpretation by a function out of this type.

By representing repository state as points and patches as paths in a higher inductive type, the groupoid structure of the patch theory comes “for free”. Paths come with composition, and by the groupoid laws this composition is associative, unital, and respects inverses. Additionally, functions (which are functors) respect this structure so any interpretation must also validate the groupoid laws.

Patch laws are represented by paths between paths (squares? disks? 2D-somethings). For example we may want the application of two independent patches to commute – this is done with a patch law.

While the HIT formulation gives a lot “for free”, it also has some drawbacks. In particular, the requirement that all patches have inverses causes some problems. The workaround is to “type” patches with the history they are applicable to. This allows Angiuli et al. to define a merge operation in terms on only the “forward” patches, but leads to a fairly complex theory even for relatively simple settings.

An interesting feature of Angiuli et al.’s patch theories is that the type of repositories must be contractible. Since patches are represented by paths, any point can be retracted along them. As such, all repositories are – in a sense – “the same” and we need better notions of “sub-homotopical” [3] computations to reason about their differences.

1.1.4 Path Spaces of Higher Inductive Types

Path Spaces of Higher Inductive Types in Homotopy Type Theory [6] provides an induction principle for paths in coequalizers. This is extremely useful, since we want to define functions out of spans in HITs. (← rework this sentence)

Summarizing this will be very technical, and may become its own chapter if I successfully formalize the proof in cubical agda. Otherwise it goes here.

Chapter 2

Homotopy Type Theory

It's cool. [13]

The purpose of this section is to give the reader enough prerequisites to follow the ensuing development [pretentious af]. It follows, with numerous omissions, the development in Egbert Rijke's 2019 summer school [11]. For a more thorough treatment see [10] and for a complete textbook see The Book [13].

2.1 (Dependent) Type Theory

1. (dependent) types in computer science
2. type theories in math/foundations (the formal stuff)
3. Agda syntax?

Types are a familiar concept to the computer scientist. We are used to working with data, and this data often has a *data type* either explicitly or implicitly. For example, `42` is an `int`, `'c'` is a `char`, and `['a', 'b', 'c']` is a list of `chars` (henceforth denoted `[char]`). We call `int`, `char` and `[char]` *types* and `42`, `'c'`, `['a', 'b', 'c']` *terms* of those types. While this is a good basis for intuition, Type Theory (tm) is a bit different.

However, let us stick with the programming intuition to introduce a less familiar concept: *dependent* types. First, note that one of the types in the previous paragraph is a bit different than the others: `['a', 'b', 'c']` is a list *of* `chars`. Similarly we could have lists of `ints`, lists of `floats` or even lists of lists! Clearly “lists” comprises many different types, depending on the type of their elements. We could call `list` a family of types *parametrized* by types. Such a family is actually a whole collection of types – one for each other type we can make lists of. Dependent types extend this idea by allowing families to be parametrized by terms. Then we can create new and exciting types like `Vec 3` and `Vec 4` – the types of 3- and 4-dimensional vectors. Again `Vec` is actually a whole collection of types – one for each integer!

We now leave the familiar world of programming behind and venture in to the spooky (but exciting) world of foundational mathematics.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash a : A \quad \Gamma \vdash f : A \rightarrow B}{\Gamma \vdash f(a) : B} \quad (2.1)$$

In this new and wondrous world, a type theory is a system of *inference rules* like 2.1 that can be used to make *derivations*.

This particular inference rule is the elimination rule for function types. It says that if a is a term of type A and f is a function from A to B , then $f(a)$ is a term of type B . Let us take it apart.

The part above the line is a list of hypotheses, and the part below is the conclusion.

Each piece of the rule is called a *judgement*. They consist of a context, some expression and a \vdash separating the two. In this example our judgements are:

$$\Gamma \vdash a : A$$

“In any context Γ , a is a term of type A ”

$$\Gamma \vdash f : A \rightarrow B$$

“In any context Γ , f is a function from A to B ”

$$\Gamma \vdash f(a) : B$$

“In any context Γ , $f(a)$ is a term of type A ”

In fact these are all the same kind of judgement: a particular term $(a, f, f(a))$ is of a particular type $(A, A \rightarrow B, B)$. There are three other kinds of judgements permitted in (Martin-Löf) type theory:

$$\Gamma \vdash A \text{ Type}$$

“ A is a type.”

$$\Gamma \vdash a \equiv b : A$$

“ a and b are judgementally equal terms of type A .”

$$\Gamma \vdash A \equiv B \text{ Type}$$

“ A and B are judgementally equal types.”

When introducing a new type, we do so with a collection of rules.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \text{ Type} \quad \Gamma \vdash B \text{ Type}}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B \text{ Type}} \quad (2.2)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash f : A \rightarrow B}{\Gamma, a : A \vdash f(a) : B} \quad (2.3)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash B \text{ Type} \quad \Gamma, a : A \vdash f(a) : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. f(x) : A \rightarrow B} \quad (2.4)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash f : A \rightarrow B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. f(x) \equiv f : A \rightarrow B} \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash B \text{ Type} \quad \Gamma, a : A \vdash f(a) : B}{\Gamma, a : A \vdash (\lambda y. f(y))(a) \equiv f(a) : B} \quad (2.6)$$

Theses are (respectively, I will find a better way to label them) an introduction rule, an elimination rule, lambda abstraction (what do we call this one in general?) and two computation rules known as β - and η -reduction.

Do some dependent types here, or maybe just do the example for Π instead.

2.2 Types and Propositions (and spaces?)

1. types represent propositions (and spaces)
2. implication and simple and/or ($\rightarrow, \times, +$)
3. quantifiers and dependent types (fibers) (Σ, Π)

In this section we consider an important interpretation of type theory: the Howard-Curry Isomorphism (which isn't an isomorphism, but we're not going into those details).

Under this “isomorphism” types are identified with logical propositions, and terms with proofs of those propositions. The most basic example is the unit type \top . It has exactly one term, denoted tt , and we interpret it as “true”.

Another important type is the empty type \perp which has no terms and is interpreted as “false”. This might seem strange, but will make a lot of sense once we start using it.

Let us make some more elaborate propositions. For example given the types (and hence propositions) A and B what would it mean to prove $A \wedge B$? Well if both A and B are true, we should be able to give a proof of A *and* proof of B . But since proofs are terms of the corresponding type, this is the same as having terms $a : A$ and $b : B$. To keep track of both, let's form the ordered pair (a, b) . This is precisely an element of the product type $A \times B$! Hence this product type represents the proposition $A \wedge B$, since its terms correspond exactly to proofs of A and B .

As a sanity check, consider the truth table of $A \wedge B$ alongside the terms of $A \times B$ using \top and *bottom* to represent true and false. $A \wedge B$ is true when both A and B are true, and similarly $A \times B$ is inhabited exactly when both A and B are inhabited.

A	B	$A \wedge B$
false	false	false
false	true	false
true	false	false
true	true	true

(a) logic

A	B	$A \times B$
\perp	\perp	\perp
\perp	\top	\perp
\top	\perp	\perp
\top	\top	\top

(b) types

2.3 Programs and Proofs

1. if types are propositions, how do we prove them?
2. *terms* of a type are *proofs* of a proposition

2.4 Identity Types

1. what about things that are equal?
2. J-rule (intuition: reflexive closure? groupoid structure?)
3. paths in space

2.5 Higher Inductive Types

1. inductive types: base case(s) and point generator(s)
2. example: $A + B, \mathbb{N}$
3. HIGHER inductive types: terms and identities
4. ie. points and paths between points (and paths between paths (and paths between paths between paths))
5. elimination rules? they need to go somewhere, but this might not be it

2.6 Cubical?

Why not take “= is a path” seriously?

Chapter 3

Version Control Systems

They're not always cool. [9]

Version control systems are ubiquitous in software development, where they help facilitate cooperation and documentation of the development process. Their basic use is to record (*commit*) changes to a codebase (*repository*). Systems may also include ways for the codebase to diverge (*branch*) into different versions, and ways to reunite (*merge*) these versions.

The purpose of this section is to introduce the terminology, requirements and hopes for models of version control systems,

What do we need?

1. terms

- repository
- patch
- merge
- branch?

2. requirements

- repo - accurately represents contents

- patch - applicable in a context, groupoid structure
- merge - “pushout property”/reconcile, symmetric (for distributed systems), (do we need associativity as well?)

3. hopes/goals

- repos - modular/composable, somehow polymorphic
- patches - *semantic* in some sense
- merge - easily definable [sic.], considers semantics of patches

Chapter 4

Conclusion

We did some things and they worked out — or maybe they didn't.

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Appendix A

This is an appendix, if need be