

Johns Hopkins University

Path induction and the indiscernibility of identicals

Algebraic Topology and Topological Data Analysis: A Conference in Honor of Gunnar Carlsson

Plan

- 1. Induction over the natural numbers
- 2. Dependent type theory
- 3. Identity types
- 4. Path induction
- 5. Epilogue: what justifies path induction?



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- 5. Epilogue: what justifies path induction?

Main takeaway:

- natural numbers induction: the natural numbers are freely generated by zero and the successor function
- path induction (substitution for equality): the identity type family is freely generated by the reflexivity proof

Ask me afterwards:

 arrow induction (Yoneda lemma): the hom type family is freely generated by the identity arrow

Induction over the natural numbers

Peano's postulates



In Dedekind's 1888 book "Was sind und was sollen die Zahlen" and Peano's 1889 paper "Arithmetices principia, nova methodo exposita," the natural numbers ${\Bbb N}$ are characterized by:

- There is a natural number $0 \in \mathbb{N}$.
- Every natural number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ has a successor $\operatorname{succ}(n) \in \mathbb{N}$.
- 0 is not the successor of any natural number.
- No two natural numbers have the same successor.
- The principle of mathematical induction:

$$\forall P, P(0) \rightarrow (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(\operatorname{succ}(k))) \rightarrow (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n))$$

By Dedekind's categoricity theorem, all triples given by a set \mathbb{N} , an element $0 \in \mathbb{N}$, and a function succ : $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ satisfying the Peano postulates are isomorphic.

Natural numbers induction

In the statement of the principle of mathematical induction:

$$\forall P, P(0) \rightarrow (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(\operatorname{succ}(k))) \rightarrow (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n))$$

the variable P is a predicate over the natural numbers.

A predicate over the natural numbers is a function

$$P \colon \mathbb{N} \to \{\top, \bot\}$$

that associates a truth value \top or \bot to each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

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Thus, to prove a sentence of the form $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ it suffices to:

- prove the base case, showing that P(0) is true, and
- prove the inductive step, showing for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$ that P(k) implies $P(\operatorname{succ}(k))$.

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- In the base case, when n = 0, $0^2 + 0 = 2 \times 0$, which is even.
- For the inductive step, assume for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ that $k^2 + k = 2 \times m$ is even. Then

$$(k+1)^{2} + (k+1) = (k^{2} + k) + ((2 \times k) + 2)$$

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By the principle of mathematical induction

$$\forall P, P(0) \rightarrow (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(\operatorname{succ}(k))) \rightarrow (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n))$$

this proves that $n^2 + n$ is even for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



The induction proof not only demonstrates for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that $n^2 + n$ is even but also defines a function $m : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ so that $n^2 + n = 2 \times m(n)$.

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so we define m(k+1) := m(k) + k + 1.

By the principle of mathematical recursion, this defines a function $m: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ so that $n^2 + n = m(n)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Induction and recursion

Recursion can be thought of as the constructive form of induction

$$\forall P, P(0) \rightarrow (\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(\operatorname{succ}(k))) \rightarrow (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n))$$

in which the predicate

$$P: \mathbb{N} \to \{\top, \bot\}$$
 such as $P(n) := \exists m \in \mathbb{N}, n^2 + n = 2 \times m$

is replaced by an arbitrary family of sets

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The output of a recursive construction is a dependent function $p \in \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(n)$ which specifies a value $p(n) \in P(n)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\forall P, (p_0 \in P(0)) \rightarrow (p_s \in \prod_{k \in \mathbb{N}} P(k) \rightarrow P(\operatorname{succ}(k))) \rightarrow (p \in \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(n))$$



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The recursive function $p \in \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} P(n)$ satisfies computation rules:

$$p(0) := p_0 \qquad p(\operatorname{succ}(n)) := p_s(n, p(n)).$$





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- There is a type N.
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- For any family of types $P : \mathbb{N} \to \mathsf{Type}$ there is a term

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Note the final two postulates — that 0 is not a successor and succ is injective — are missing because they are provable.

Summary

We summarize the rules

- There is a type N.
- There is a term $0: \mathbb{N}$ and a function succ $: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$.
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• Computation rules $p(0) := p_0$ and $p(\operatorname{succ}(n)) := p_s(n, p(n))$. with the slogan:

The natural numbers type $\mathbb N$ is freely generated by the terms $0:\mathbb N$ and succ: $\mathbb N\to\mathbb N$.



Dependent type theory

Dependent type theory is a formal system for mathematical statements and proofs that has the following primitive notions:

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Types and terms can be defined in an arbitrary context of variables from previously-defined types, all of which are listed before the symbol " \vdash ". Here Γ is shorthand for a generic context, which has the form

$$x_1 : A_1, x_2 : A_2(x_1), x_3 : A_3(x_1, x_2), \dots, x_n : A_n(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

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In a mathematical statement of the form "Let ...be ...then ..." The stuff following the "let" likely declares the names of the variables in the context described after the "be", while the stuff after the "then" most likely describes a type or term in that context.

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- products $A \times B$, coproducts A + B, function types $A \rightarrow B$,
- dependent pairs $\sum_{x:A} B(x)$, dependent functions $\prod_{x:A} B(x)$
- identity types $x, y : A \vdash x =_A y$



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Each type constructor comes with rules:

- (i) formation: a way to construct new types
- (ii) introduction: ways to construct terms of these types
- (iii) elimination: ways to use them to construct other terms
- (iv) computation: the way (ii) and (iii) relate

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The rules suggest a logical naming for certain types:



Product types and function types



Product types are governed by the rules

- \times -form: given types A and B there is a type $A \times B$
- \times -intro: given terms a:A and b:B there is a term $(a,b):A\times B$
- \times -elim: given $p: A \times B$ there are terms $pr_1p: A$ and $pr_2p: B$

plus computation rules that relate pairings and projections.

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Function types are governed by the rules \overset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow}-form: given types A and B there is a type A \to B \overset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow}-intro: if in the context of a variable x:A there is a term b_x:B there is a term \lambda x.b_x:A \to B \overset{\rightarrow}{\rightarrow}-elim: given terms f:A \to B and a:A there is a term f(a):B plus computation rules that relate \lambda-abstractions and evaluations.
```

```
\stackrel{\times}{\text{-form:}} A, B \rightsquigarrow A \times B
\stackrel{\times}{\text{-intro:}} a: A, b: B \rightsquigarrow (a,b): A \times B
\stackrel{\times}{\text{-elim:}} p: A \times B \rightsquigarrow \text{pr}_1 p: A, \text{pr}_2 p: B
\stackrel{\to}{\text{-elim:}} f: A \rightarrow B, a: A \rightsquigarrow f(a): B
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→-form: A \text{ and } B \rightsquigarrow A \rightarrow B

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Proposition. For any types A and B, modus-ponens : $(A \times (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow B$.

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$$\lambda p.\operatorname{pr}_2 p(\operatorname{pr}_1 p): (A \times (A \to B)) \to B.$$

The natural numbers type is governed by the rules:

 $^{\mathbb{N}}$ -form: \mathbb{N} exists in the empty context

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Summary: the natural numbers type $\mathbb N$ is freely generated by $0:\mathbb N$ and succ: $\mathbb N\to\mathbb N$.



In first order logic, the binary relation "=" is governed by the following rules:

- Reflexivity: $\forall x$, x = x.
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The following rules for identity types were developed by Martin-Löf:

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Summary: the identity type family is freely generated by the reflexivity terms.

The homotopical interpretation of dependent type theory

Note that identity types can be iterated:

given
$$x, y : A$$
 and $p, q : x =_A y$ there is a type $p =_{x =_A y} q$.

Does this type always have a term? In other words, are identity proofs unique?

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The total space of the identity type family $\sum_{x,y:A} x =_A y$ is interpreted as the path space of A and a term $p: x =_A y$ may be thought of as a path from x to y in A.

$$\sum_{x,y:A} x =_{A} y$$

$$\lambda x.refl_{x} \qquad pr_{1}$$

$$A \xrightarrow{\lambda x.(x,x)} A \times A$$





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Now that terms $p: x =_A y$ are called paths, we re-brand =-elim as:

Path induction: For any type family $x, y : A, p : x =_A y \vdash P(x, y, p)$, to prove P(x, y, p) for all x, y, p it suffices to assume y is x and p is refl_x.



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Proposition. Paths can be reversed: $(-)^{-1}:\prod_{x,y:A}x=_Ay\to y=_Ax$.

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Construction: It suffices to assume $p: x =_A y$ and then define a term in the type $P(x,y,p) := y =_A x$. By path induction, we may reduce to the case $P(x,x,\text{refl}_x) := x =_A x$, for which we have the term $\text{refl}_x : x =_A x$.

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The ∞ -groupoid structure of A has

- terms x : A as objects
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- constant paths (reflexivity) refl_x: x = x
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and furthermore concatenation is associative and unital, the associators are coherent ...



Path induction proves the (higher) coherences in the ∞ -groupoid of paths:

Proposition. For any type A and terms w, x, y, z : A

assoc :
$$\prod_{p:w=_{A}x}\prod_{q:x=_{A}y}\prod_{r:y=_{A}z}(p*q)*r=_{w=_{A}z}p*(q*r).$$



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By the computation rules for path induction $refl_w *-$ is the identity function. Thus, we must show

$$\prod_{q:w=_{A}y}\prod_{r:y=_{A}z}q*r=_{w=_{A}z}q*r,$$

for which we have the proof $\operatorname{refl}_{q*r}: q*r =_{w=_{\Delta Z}} q*r$.



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Construction: By path induction, it suffices to assume y is x and p is $refl_x$, in which case we have the identity equivalence.





Epilogue: what justifies path induction?

The Curry-Howard-Voevodsky Correspondence



type theory	logic	set theory	homotopy theory
A	proposition	set	space
x : A	proof	element	point
Ø, 1	\perp , $ op$	Ø, {Ø}	Ø,*
$A \times B$	\boldsymbol{A} and \boldsymbol{B}	set of pairs	product space
A + B	A or B	disjoint union	coproduct
$A \rightarrow B$	A implies B	set of functions	function space
$x:A \vdash B(x)$	predicate	family of sets	fibration
$x : A \vdash b : B(x)$	conditional proof	fam. of elements	section
$\prod_{x:A} B(x)$	$\forall x.B(x)$	product	space of sections
$\sum_{x:A} B(x)$	$\exists x.B(x)$	disjoint union	total space
$p: x =_A y$	proof of equality	x = y	path from x to y
$\sum_{x,y:A} x =_A y$	equality relation	diagonal	path space for A

Contractible types



The homotopical perspective on type theory suggests new definitions:

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A type A is contractible if it comes with a term of type

$$is-contr(A) := \sum_{a:A} \prod_{x:A} a =_A x$$

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By $^{\Sigma}$ -elim a proof of contractibility provides:

- a term c: A called the center of contraction and
- a dependent function $h: \prod_{x:A} c =_A x$ called the contracting homotopy, which can be thought of as a continuous choice of paths $h(x): c =_A x$ for each x:A.



Contractible types, those types *A* for which the type

is-contr(A) :=
$$\sum_{a:A} \prod_{x:A} a =_A x$$

has a term, form the bottom level of Voevodsky's hierarchy of types.



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Equivalences



Similarly, homotopy theory suggests definitions of when two types A and B are equivalent or when a function $f:A\to B$ is an equivalence:

An equivalence between types A and B is a term of type:

$$A \simeq B := \sum_{f:A \to B} \left(\sum_{g:B \to A} \prod_{a:A} g(f(a)) =_A a \right) \times \left(\sum_{h:B \to A} \prod_{b:B} f(h(b)) =_B b \right)$$

A term of type $A \simeq B$ provides functions $f: A \to B$ and $g, h: B \to A$ and homotopies α and β relating the composite functions $g \circ f$ and $f \circ h$ to the identities. Using this data, one can define a homotopy from g to h.

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This type is not a proposition and may have non-trivial higher structure.



Path induction: For any type family $x, y : A, p : x =_A y \vdash P(x, y, p)$, to prove P(x, y, p) for all x, y, p it suffices to assume y is x and p is refl_x.

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The equivalence $A \simeq \left(\sum_{x,y:A} x =_A y\right)$ gives rise to an equivalence

$$\left(\prod_{x:A} P(x,x,\mathsf{refl}_x)\right) \simeq \left(\prod_{x,y:A} \prod_{p:x=_{A}y} P(x,y,p)\right).$$

Another notion of sameness between types is provided by the universe $\mathcal U$ of types, which has (small) types A, B, C as its terms.

Q: How do the types $A =_{\mathcal{U}} B$ and $A \simeq B$ compare?

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By path induction, there is a canonical function

id-to-equiv :
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defined by sending $refl_A$ to the identity equivalence id_A .

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Univalence Axiom: The function id-to-equiv: $(A =_{\mathcal{U}} B) \to (A \simeq B)$ is an equivalence.

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Voevodsky's univalence axiom — which is justified by the homotopical model of type theory — captures the common mathematical practice of applying results proven about one object to any other object that is equivalent to it.

Consequences of univalence



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- The structure-identity principle, which specializes to the statement that for set-based structures (monoids, groups, rings) isomorphic structures are identical.
- Function extensionality: for any $f,g:A\to B$, the canonical function defines an equivalence between the identity type and the type of homotopies:

id-to-htpy:
$$(f =_{A \to B} g) \to \left(\prod_{a:A} f(a) =_{B} g(a) \right)$$

• By indiscernibility of identicals, if x, y : A and $x =_A y$ then $P(x) \simeq P(y)$ for any $a : A \vdash P(a)$. By univalence, whenever $A \simeq B$ then $A =_{\mathcal{U}} B$ and thus any type constructed from A is equivalent to the corresponding type constructed from B.

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Happy birthday Gunnar!