

1 Type Theory of Lean

Lean 4 is based on a variant of the *Calculus of Inductive Constructions* (CIC), a dependent type theory that serves as both a programming language and a logical foundation for mathematics. This chapter introduces the key concepts of Lean’s type system.

1.1 The Universe Hierarchy

Lean uses a hierarchy of *type universes* to avoid Russell’s paradox. The fundamental universes are:

- `Prop`: The universe of propositions (also written as `Sort 0`)
- `Type u`: The universe of types at level u (equivalent to `Sort (u+1)`)
- `Sort u`: The general universe at level u

Example 1.1

In Lean:

- `Nat : Type 0`
- `Type 0 : Type 1`
- `Type 1 : Type 2`
- `2 + 2 = 4 : Prop`

Unlike some type theories, Lean’s universes are *non-cumulative*: a term of type `Type u` is not automatically a term of type `Type (u+1)`.

Remark 1.1

The separation between `Prop` and `Type` is significant: `Prop` is *proof-irrelevant*, meaning two proofs of the same proposition are considered equal. This enables computational optimizations where proof terms can be erased.

1.2 Propositions as Types

Lean follows the *Curry-Howard correspondence*, which identifies:

- Propositions with types
- Proofs with terms
- Implication with function types

Definition 1.1 (Curry-Howard Isomorphism)

Under the propositions-as-types paradigm:

Logic	Type Theory
proposition P	type P
proof of P	term $t : P$
$P \implies Q$	function type $P \rightarrow Q$
$P \wedge Q$	product type $P \times Q$
$P \vee Q$	sum type $P \oplus Q$
$\forall x : A, P(x)$	dependent function type $\Pi(x : A), P(x)$
$\exists x : A, P(x)$	dependent pair type $\Sigma(x : A), P(x)$
\top (true)	unit type Unit
\perp (false)	empty type Empty

Example 1.2

The proposition if n is even, then n^2 is even becomes:

$$\text{Even } n \rightarrow \text{Even } (n^2)$$

A proof is a function that transforms a proof of `Even n` into a proof of `Even (n^2)`.

1.3 Function Types and Dependent Types

1.3.1 Simple Function Types

A function type $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ represents functions from type α to type β .

Example 1.3 • $\text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}$: functions from natural numbers to natural numbers

• $\text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}$: curried binary functions

• $\text{List Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}$: functions from lists to numbers

1.3.2 Dependent Function Types (Pi Types)

A *dependent function type* allows the output type to depend on the input *value*.

Notation 1.1

The dependent function type is written:

$$\Pi (x : \alpha), \beta(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \forall (x : \alpha), \beta(x)$$

where β is a type family indexed by $x : \alpha$.

- Example 1.4**
- $\forall (n : \text{Nat}), \text{Vec } \alpha n$: functions that take a natural number n and return a vector of length n
 - $\forall (\alpha : \text{Type}), \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$: the polymorphic identity function
 - $\forall (n : \text{Nat}), \text{Fin } n \rightarrow \alpha$: functions from n -element finite sets

When the output type does *not* depend on the input value, the Pi type reduces to an ordinary function type: $\Pi (x : \alpha), \beta \equiv \alpha \rightarrow \beta$.

1.4 Inductive Types

Inductive types are the primary mechanism for introducing new types in Lean. An inductive type is specified by its *constructors*.

1.4.1 Natural Numbers

Definition 1.2 (Natural Numbers)

The type `Nat` is defined inductively:

- `zero` : `Nat`
- `succ` : `Nat → Nat`

Every natural number is either `zero` or `succ n` for some $n : \text{Nat}$.

Example 1.5

In Lean notation:

- 0 is represented as `.zero`
- 1 is `.succ .zero`
- 2 is `.succ (.succ .zero)`

(Lean provides decimal notation as syntactic sugar.)

Functions on inductive types are defined by *pattern matching* and *recursion*.

Example 1.6 (Addition on Natural Numbers)

```
def add : Nat → Nat → Nat
| m, .zero    => m
| m, .succ n => .succ (add m n)
```

1.4.2 Product Types

Definition 1.3 (Product Type)

The product $\alpha \times \beta$ (or `Prod` $\alpha \beta$) has one constructor:

$$\text{mk} : \alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \alpha \times \beta$$

We write (a, b) for `mk a b`.

Example 1.7

- $(3, \text{hello}) : \text{Nat} \times \text{String}$

- `fst` : $\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha$ extracts the first component
- `snd` : $\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \beta$ extracts the second component

1.4.3 Sum Types

Definition 1.4 (Sum Type)

The sum $\alpha \oplus \beta$ (or `Sum` $\alpha \beta$) has two constructors:

- `inl` : $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \oplus \beta$ (left injection)
- `inr` : $\beta \rightarrow \alpha \oplus \beta$ (right injection)

Example 1.8

To define a function $f : \alpha \oplus \beta \rightarrow \gamma$, pattern match:

```
def f : _ →
| .inl a => ...
| .inr b => ... -- handle case when input is from
```

1.4.4 Lists

Definition 1.5 (List Type)

The type `List α` is defined inductively:

- `nil` : `List α` (empty list)
- `cons` : $\alpha \rightarrow \text{List } \alpha \rightarrow \text{List } \alpha$ (prepend element)

We write `[]` for `nil` and `h :: t` for `cons h t`.

Example 1.9

The list `[1, 2, 3]` is encoded as:

$$1 :: 2 :: 3 :: []$$

1.5 The Three Kinds of Types

Every type in Lean falls into one of three categories:

1. **Function types:** $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ or dependent $\Pi (x : \alpha), \beta(x)$
2. **Inductive types:** Defined by constructors
 - Built-in: Nat, Prop propositions (True, False, And, Or)
 - User-defined: Custom types via `inductive` keyword
3. **Quotient types:** `Quotient R` for equivalence relation $R : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \text{Prop}$
 - Models sets with equivalence (e.g., integers as equivalence classes of pairs of naturals)
 - Provides `Quot.mk : α → Quotient R` and `Quot.sound : R a b → mk a = mk b`

Remark 1.2

Quotient types are unique to Lean among proof assistants: they allow direct encoding of mathematical structures defined up to equivalence, without using setoids.

1.6 Type Class Inference

Lean uses *type classes* for ad-hoc polymorphism. A type class is a structure type marked with the `class` keyword.

Example 1.10

The type class `Add α` specifies that type α supports addition:

```
class Add (α : Type u) where
  add : α → α → α
```

Instances are registered with `instance`, and Lean's elaborator automatically finds instances during type checking.

Example 1.11

- `[Add Nat]`: instance for natural number addition

- `[Add Int]`: instance for integer addition
- $a + b$ desugars to `Add.add a b`, with the instance inferred

1.7 Definitional vs. Propositional Equality

Lean distinguishes two notions of equality:

Definition 1.6 (Definitional Equality)

Two terms are *definitionally equal* (written \equiv) if they reduce to the same normal form by computation (beta-reduction, delta-unfolding, iota-reduction).

Definition 1.7 (Propositional Equality)

Two terms are *propositionally equal* (written $a = b : \text{Prop}$) if there exists a proof term $h : a = b$.

- Example 1.12**
- $2 + 2$ and 4 are definitionally equal
 - $n + 0$ and n are propositionally but not definitionally equal (requires induction)

Definitional equality is checked automatically by Lean's kernel; propositional equality requires explicit proof.

1.8 Summary

The type theory of Lean provides:

- A universe hierarchy with `Prop` and `Type u`
- Propositions-as-types interpretation (Curry-Howard)
- Dependent function types (`Pi` types) for universal quantification
- Inductive types for data structures and propositions
- Quotient types for equivalence classes
- Type classes for overloading and inference
- Two notions of equality: definitional and propositional

This foundation enables Lean to serve simultaneously as a programming language, a theorem prover, and a formalization system for mathematics.