

Type theory in Lean - 7

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It adds three axioms to Lean's type theory:

- Propositional extensionality.
- Quotient types.
- The axiom of choice.

Propositional extensionality

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In particular if P is provable, meaning we can construct $(p : P)$, then $P = \text{True}$. Indeed, any proposition implies True (since we can prove True for free), and if we have $(p : P)$ then $\text{True} \rightarrow P$. Similarly, if $\neg P$ holds, then $P = \text{False}$.

Thinking about proposition as “sets” that are empty when false and singletons when provable, then propositional extensionality says that if we have functions

$$P \rightarrow Q \text{ and } Q \rightarrow P$$

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then $P = Q$.

This is reasonable since the existence of the two functions (that is the existence of the two implications) forces P and Q to be both empty or both singletons.

Quotient types

In set theory, if \sim is an equivalence relation on a set X , one can explicitly build the quotient set X/\sim using equivalence classes:

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where $\mathcal{P}(X)$ is the power set of X .

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How to build X/\sim in type theory?

We only have two ways of building types:

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Lean's type theory adds a new axiom (a function in this case) that allows to build the quotient type.

```
axiom Quot :  
  {X : Sort u} → (X → X → Prop) → Sort u
```

In particular, Quot allows to build a new type $\text{Quot } R$ given any relation $R: X \rightarrow X \rightarrow \text{Prop}$ (we don't even need to assume that R is an equivalence relation).

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We also need the canonical map $X \rightarrow \text{Quot } R$:

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axiom Quot.mk :  
  {X : Sort u} → (R : X → X → Prop) → X →  
    Quot R
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In particular, `Quot` allows to build a new type `Quot R` given any relation $R: X \rightarrow X \rightarrow \text{Prop}$ (we don't even need to assume that R is an equivalence relation).

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At this point this is just any function, we don't know anything about it.

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```
axiom Quot.ind :  
  ∀ {X : Sort u} {R : X → X → Prop}  
  {P : Quot R → Prop},  
  (∀ a, P (Quot.mk R a)) →  
  ∀ q, P q
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```

It implies that `Quot.mk` is surjective in the usual sense.

We also need to lift functions that are constant along the equivalence classes.

```
axiom Quot.lift :  
  {X : Sort u} → {R : X → X → Prop} →  
  {Y : Sort u} → (f : X → Y) →  
  (∀ a b, R a b → f a = f b) →  
  Quot R → Y
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  (∀ a b, R a b → f a = f b) →  
  Quot R → Y
```

Note that, as for inductive types, we can now build terms of type $\text{Quot } R$ (using Quot.mk) and define functions (including proving propositions) out of $\text{Quot } R$.

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These functions are left undefined. In practice we are assuming their existence, but we are not assuming any special property. This existence is not a very strong assumption, for example `Quot R` could be `X`, `Quot.mk` the identity and `Quot.lift f H = f`. In this case `Quot.ind` and the computation rule above trivially hold.

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axiom Quot.sound :  
  ∀ {X : Type u} {R : X → X → Prop} {a b : X},  
    R a b → Quot.mk R a = Quot.mk R b
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It does not follow from the previous axioms (try to prove it!).

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It does not follow from the previous axioms (try to prove it!).

Remark

- *If $\text{Quot } R = X$ then Quot.sound does not hold. It is a genuine new axiom.*
- *Note that we didn't assume R to be an equivalence relation, but this is the situation where the axioms are most useful.*

Functional extensionality

Using quotient types we can now *prove* the following.

Theorem (Functional extensionality)

Let $(A : \text{Sort } u)$ and $(B : \text{Sort } v)$. Given two functions $(f\ g : A \rightarrow B)$ such that

$$\forall (a : A), f\ a = g\ a$$

we have $f = g$.

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we have $f = g$.

In particular, any theorem that uses functional extensionality will depend on `Quot.sound`.

To prove it, let's define a relation on $A \rightarrow B$ via

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It is very easy to show that it is an equivalence relation, but we will not need it.

We now call X the quotient type, so

$$X = \text{Quot } R$$

is the type of functions $A \rightarrow B$ up to being pointwise equal.

If $(a : A)$ and $R f g$, then (by the very definition of $R!$) we have $f a = g a$, so the evaluation at a

$$(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$$
$$f \mapsto f a$$

lifts (mathematically we usually say “descends”) to a function

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This can be done for all $(a : A)$, obtaining via lambda abstraction a function $A \rightarrow B$.

Putting everything together, we obtain a function

$$F: X \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$$

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Here we are simply saying that, since the value at any $(a : A)$ is constant on each equivalence class (by definition!) we can evaluate elements of X , and lambda abstraction allows to build a function $A \rightarrow B$ given $(x : X)$.

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The computation rule says that

$$F (\text{Quot.mk } R f) \equiv \text{fun } a \mapsto f a \equiv f$$

for all $(f : A \rightarrow B)$.

We can now finish the proof. Let $(f \ g : A \rightarrow B)$ be such that $\forall (a : A), f \ a = g \ a$, i.e. such that $R \ f \ g$.

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$$f \equiv F (\text{Quot.mk } R \ f) = F (\text{Quot.mk } R \ g) \equiv g$$

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In particular, since definitional equality implies propositional equality and the latter is transitive, we have $f = g$ as wanted.

There is a (very) subtle point here. The equality $F (\text{Quot.mk } R f) = f$ holds because definitional equality implies propositional equality and it is a consequence of the computation rule

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$$\text{Quot.lift } H (\text{Quot.mk } R x) \equiv f x \quad (1)$$

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When proving $F (\text{Quot.mk } R f) = f$ using (1), unravelling all the definitions we end up with

$$\text{fun } a \mapsto \text{Quot.lift } (\text{fun } f \mapsto f a) _ (\text{Quot.mk } R f) = f$$

Here the underscore $_$ is just the proof that the function $\text{fun } f \mapsto f a$ is constant on any equivalence class.

Since f is (definitionally) equal to $\text{fun } a \mapsto f\ a$ we can prove

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Now, if $(a : A)$ is given, the computation rule says exactly that

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But this is not enough to prove (2), since (3) says exactly that the LHS and the RHS of (2) have *the same value*, and we are precisely proving that this implies that the two functions are equal.

Since f is (definitionally) equal to $\text{fun } a \mapsto f \ a$ we can prove

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Since the computation rule is a definitional equality, this problem does not appear and we can finish the proof.

Remark

An important observation is the following. Suppose that $(f\ g : A \rightarrow B)$ are such that

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Proving that $f = g$ is impossible without a new axiom. But suppose now that $(f, g : A \rightarrow B)$ are such that

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Then we have

$$f \equiv \text{fun } a \mapsto f\ a \equiv \text{fun } a \mapsto g\ a \equiv g$$

so $f \equiv g$. The point is that the \equiv in the middle holds since $f\ a \equiv g\ a$ and so we can replace the former by the latter for free.

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We can now prove *extensionality for sets*. If $(S \ T : \text{Set } A)$, then

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We already proved one implication, and the other is a direct application of functional extensionality and propositional extensionality.

The axiom of choice

Remember the definition of `Nonempty A`

```
inductive Nonempty (A : Sort u) : Prop
| intro (val : A) : Nonempty A
```

It is an inductive *proposition* with only one constructor: if $(a : A)$, then

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It is an inductive *proposition* with only one constructor: if $(a : A)$, then

$$(\langle a \rangle : \text{Nonempty } A)$$

It is easy to prove that

$$\text{Nonempty } A \iff \exists(a : A), \text{ True}$$

We explained that `Nonempty A` does not contain data, and that it is impossible to build a function

$$\text{default} : \text{Nonempty } A \rightarrow A$$

such that

$$\text{default } \langle a \rangle = a$$

for all $(a : A)$.

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The axiom of choice is the following function

```
axiom choice {A : Sort u} : Nonempty A → A
```

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It is important to understand that if, say, $(h : \text{Nonempty } \mathbb{N})$ (something easy to prove), the natural number (choice $h : \mathbb{N}$) is *well defined and fixed once and for all*.

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In practice we have fixed (once and for all) a term $(a : A)$ for all A such that $\text{Nonempty } A$.

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Theorem (Diaconescu)

Let $(P : \text{Prop})$. Using functional extensionality (hence quotient types and propositional extensionality) and the axiom of (global) choice, we have

$$P \vee \neg P$$

We will prove Diaconescu's theorem later, but let's first of all see some consequences.

Theorem

Let $(P : \text{Prop})$. Then $P = \text{True} \vee P = \text{False}$.

Proof.

Using that $P \vee \neg P$ holds we have to consider two cases. In both we will use propositional extensionality.

- If P holds then it is easy to prove that $P \iff \text{True}$ (since both hold), so $P = \text{True}$.
- If $\neg P$ holds, we prove that $P \iff \text{False}$, hence $P = \text{False}$.

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For all $(P : \text{Prop})$ we have

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- If P holds there is nothing to prove.
- Suppose that $\neg P$ holds, so that $P \Rightarrow \text{False}$. To prove P it is enough to prove False (using False.rec). Since we are supposing $\neg\neg P$ we can prove $\neg P$ and we are done.



Corollary

Let $(P\ Q : \text{Prop})$. If both $P \rightarrow Q$ and $\neg P \rightarrow Q$ hold then Q holds.

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To reason by contradiction (i.e. to use $\neg\neg P \rightarrow P$ to prove P) we can use the `by_contra` tactic. Indeed, `by_contra` will create (and simplify) an assumption $(h : \neg P)$, where P is the current goal, and replace the goal with `False`.

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$$U := \text{fun } x \mapsto (x = \text{True}) \vee P$$

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Lemma

If we have $(p : P)$ (i.e. if P holds), then

$$U = V.$$

Proof.

Suppose P holds. By extensionality, to prove $U = V$ we can prove that $(x \in U) = (x \in V)$ for all x .

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$$U \ x \iff V \ x$$

Let $(x : \text{Prop})$ and let's prove the two implications.

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- Let $(h : U \ x)$ be fixed (we will not use it). By definition, $V \ x$ is the proposition $(x = \text{False}) \vee P$. This holds because we supposed that P holds.
- Similarly, supposing $(h : V \ x)$, we can prove $U \ x$, that is $(x = \text{True}) \vee P$, since P holds.



Let's go back to the proof of excluded middle. By reflexivity of $=$, we have

$$U \text{ True and } V \text{ False}$$

In particular,

$$\text{True} \in U \text{ and } \text{False} \in V$$

so we obtain

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Using the axiom of choice, we obtain propositions

$$u := \text{choice ex}U \text{ and } v := \text{choice ex}V$$

such that

$$u \in U \text{ and } v \in V$$

Lemma

Suppose P holds. Then, for all $(hU : \text{Nonempty } U)$ and for all $(hV : \text{Nonempty } V)$ we have

$$\text{choice } hU = \text{choice } hV$$

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If P holds then, by the previous lemma, we have $U = V$. It follows that hU and hV are two proofs of the same proposition, and in particular $hU \equiv hV$. The lemma is now immediate since choice is a well defined function.

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- *The fact that choice always gives the same term is crucial.*

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Remark

- *The fact that choice always gives the same term is crucial.*
- *To use the eliminator for $=$ (in particular to find the motive), we need to state the theorem using “for all hU and for all hV ”. We cannot prove $u = v$ without generalizing them.*

We can now finish the proof. To prove $P \vee \neg P$, since $u \in U$ and $v \in V$, and U and V are defined by disjunction, we have four cases to consider.

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Lemma

We have $u \neq v$.

Proof.

If $u = v$ we have that `True` = `False` (since we are in the case $u = \text{True}$ and $v = \text{False}$). So, to prove `False` we can prove `True`, that always holds. □

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The only problem with this proof is that we treated U and V , that are sets, as types. This is solved as follows. Given $(S : \text{Set } A)$ we can form the type $\uparrow S$ whose terms are pairs $\langle a, h \rangle$ where $(a : A)$ and $(h : a \in S)$ (technically it is defined as an inductive type).

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$$(x.1 : A) \text{ and } (x.2 : x.1 \in S)$$

Replacing U and V with $\uparrow U$ and $\uparrow V$ makes the proof perfectly formal.