

# Dependent Types and Theorem Proving: Introduction to Dependent Types

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- 1 Greetings
- 2 Why
- 3 Examples
- 4 The idea
- 5 First-class types
- 6 Functions
- 7 Records
- 8 Life of Pi

# General info

- The lectures will be held weekly on Fridays.
- Don't worry if you miss a lecture – the slides are pretty massive and the talks are going to be recorded.
- Each lecture ends with some exercises which will help you familiarize yourself with  $F^*$  and better understand the ideas covered in the talk.
- But you don't need to do them if you don't want to.
- This talks repo: <https://github.com/wkolowski/Dependent-Types-and-Theorem-Proving>

# Plan of lectures

- Lecture 1: Programming with dependent types.
- Lecture 2: Proving theorems with dependent types.
- Lecture 3: Differences between programming and proving.
- Lecture 4: Examples of bigger programs and longer proofs.
- Lecture 5: A deeper dive into F\*.

# Learning outcomes

- You won't be scared of all those obscure, scary and mysterious names and notations.
- You will get basic familiarity with the ideas behind dependent types.
- You will begin to see logic and mathematics in a very different light, much closer to your day job (at least if you are a programmer working in F#).
- If you do the exercises, you will gain a basic proficiency in F\*.

# Introducing F\*

- F\* (pronounced “eff star”) is a general-purpose purely functional programming language.
- Member of the ML family, syntactically most similar to F#.
- Aimed at program verification.
- Dependent types.
- Refinement types.
- Effect system.
- Not a .NET language.
- Neither compiled nor interpreted – it’s a proof assistant, i.e. just a typechecker.
- To run a program, it has to be extracted to some other language, like F#, OCaml, C or WASM, and then compiled.

# Don't worry, be happy, ask questions

I KNOW YOU DIDN'T UNDERSTAND THE PREVIOUS SLIDE,  
BUT BY THE END OF THESE TALKS, YOU WILL!

# Useful F\* links

- **You can run F\* inside your browser** (and have a nice tutorial guide you):  
<http://www.fstar-lang.org/tutorial/>
- GitHub: <https://github.com/FStarLang/FStar>
- Homepage: <http://www.fstar-lang.org/>
- Download: <http://www.fstar-lang.org/#download>
- Papers (not approachable for ordinary mortals):  
<http://www.fstar-lang.org/#papers>
- Talks/presentations (more approachable):  
<http://www.fstar-lang.org/#talks> (some of these are quite approachable if you're interested)



# Prerequisites

- To understand what we will be talking about, you should have a working knowledge of  $F\#$  and the basic concepts of functional programming, namely:
- Functions as first-class citizens, including higher-order functions.
- Algebraic data types, including sum types and product types.
- Pattern matching and recursion.
- Even if you know these, you may be unfamiliar with the particular names – for example, “sum types” is a name used in academia and Haskell, but in  $F\#$  they are better known as “tagged unions”.

## Code snippet no 1 - basics of F\*

- We will now see some code that shows how these things look in F\*.
- See the file `Lecture1/Prerequisites.fst`.

# Why should we care about dependent types? 1/3

- Programs written in dynamically typed languages perform a lot of runtime checks.
- Beyond a certain size **dynamically typed software is hard to extend, refactor and maintain because errors manifest very late** in the development process, i.e. at runtime.
- Statically typed languages make the situation better, because they move typechecking to compile time, which means a lot of errors get caught much sooner.
- **Static typing is good.**

## Why should we care about dependent types? 2/3

- But in simple functional languages like F# there's still plenty of runtime checks – division by zero, taking the head of empty list and a lot of user-defined checks which throw exceptions in case of failure.
- With dependent types, all runtime checks can be turned into static checks – **all errors are type errors**.
- This results in more extensible, refactorable and maintainable software (and also better performance – less stuff to do at runtime).
- We can not only get rid of runtime checks, dependent types can also replace most unit tests and property tests.
- **Dependent types bring static typing to its limits.**

# Why should we care about dependent types? 3/3

- And when I say all errors are typing errors, I really mean it – with dependent types, we can express all properties, formulate all specifications and describe all mathematical objects.
- **Dependent types reveal a deep connection between functional programming and logic.**
- Despite their great power, dependent types are easy to understand and significantly simplify the language design.
- Have you ever heard about fancy Haskell stuff like multi-param typeclasses, GADTs, higher-rank types, higher-kinded types, existential types and so on?
- No? No problem – **with dependent types, we get all of that (and much more) for free.**

# Matrix multiplication

- We can only multiply matrices whose dimensions match, i.e. we can multiply an  $n \times m$  matrix by a  $m \times k$  and get an  $n \times k$  matrix as a result.
- How to model this in our favourite programming language without dependent types?
- The best we can do is to have **a type of matrices** `Matrix` and then matrix multiplication has type `matmult : Matrix -> Matrix -> Matrix`.
- What happens when we call it with matrices of the wrong dimensions?

- `matmult`  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$  **is well-typed, but will throw** an `IllegalArgumentException` or some other kind of runtime error, or maybe it will crash even less gracefully.

# Matrix multiplication with dependent types

- In a language with dependent types we can create a **type of  $n \times m$  matrices** `Matrix n m` and give multiplication the type  
`matmult : (n : ℕ) -> (m : ℕ) -> (k : ℕ) ->  
Matrix n m -> Matrix m k -> Matrix n k`
- Now `matmult` is a function which takes five arguments: the three matrix dimensions and the two matrices themselves.
- After giving it the dimensions of the first matrix from the previous slide, `matmult 2 2` has type `(k : ℕ) -> Matrix 2 2 -> Matrix 2 3 -> Matrix 2 3`.

- It is clear that `matmult 2 2 k`  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$  **is not**

**well-typed** for any  $k$ , because the last argument is of type `Matrix 3 3`, but an argument of type `Matrix 2 k` was expected.

# A nice paper

- Dependent types can also be used to keep track of units of measure.
- This is possible in F# too, but it's a built-in feature of the compiler, whereas the dependently typed solution is much more principled.
- It is also composable – we can keep track of both matrix dimensions and units.
- There's a nice paper about this: **Type systems for programs respecting dimensions** available at <https://fredriknf.com/papers/dimensions2021.pdf>



# Array access

- When accessing the  $i$ -th element of an array,  $i$  must be smaller than the length of the array.
- How to model this in our favourite programming language without dependent types?
- We have Array  $A$ , **the type of arrays of  $A$ s**, and we can access its elements with a function `get : Array A -> int -> A`.
- What happens, when  $i$  is greater than the length of the array? Or, what happens when  $i$  is negative?
- `get [ | 'a'; 'b'; 'c' ] 5` is well-typed, but will throw an `IndexOutOfBoundsException` or result in a segmentation fault.

## Array access with dependent types 1/2

- In a language with dependent types we can have `Array A n`, **the type of arrays of As whose length is n**.
- Then we have a few possibilities to model the type of `get`.
- `get : (n : ℕ) -> Array A n -> (i : ℕ) -> i < n -> A`.
- In this variant, the fourth argument of `get` is a proof that the index isn't out of bounds (we will cover proofs in the next lecture).
- We can't prove `5 < 3`, so we don't have any proof to feed into `get 3 [| 'a'; 'b'; 'c' |] 5 : 5 < 3 -> Char`.

## Array access with dependent types 2/2

- $\text{get} : (n : \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow \text{Array } A \ n \rightarrow (i : \mathbb{N}\{i < n\}) \rightarrow A$ .
- In this variant we use refinement types (which we will cover later today) to automatically guarantee that  $i$  isn't out of bounds.
- $\text{get } 3 \ [ \mid 'a'; 'b'; 'c' \ ] \ 5$  is not well-typed, because the typechecker can't prove  $5 < 3$ , and thus 5 is not of type  $\mathbb{N}\{5 < 3\}$ .

# We're getting serious

- The above slides present nice fairy tales. . .
- . . . but how do dependent types actually work?
- And how to use them in F\*?
- And what can ordinary programmers use them for besides number crunching with matrices and arrays?

# Values and types

- To understand dependent types, first we have to understand **dependency**.
- And to understand dependency, we need to be aware of the distinction between **values** and **types**.
- By **values**, we mean the bread-and-butter of programming: numbers, strings, arrays, lists, functions, etc.
- It should be pretty obvious to you that in most languages, **types** are not of the same status as numbers or functions.

# Dependencies

- Dependency is easy to understand. In fact, if you know basic  $F\#$ , then you already know most of it, because in  $F\#$ :
- **Values can depend on values:** we can think that the sum  $n + m$  is a number that depends on the numbers  $n$  and  $m$ . This dependency can be expressed as a function: `fun (n m : int) -> n + m`.
- **Values can depend on types:** for example, the identity function `fun (x : 'a) -> x` depends on the type `'a`.
- **Types can depend on types:** for example, the  $F\#$  type `Set<'a>` depends on the type `'a`.

# Naming the dependencies

- I bet you spotted the pattern in the previous slide, but it's a good idea to also have a name for the feature provided by each kind of dependency.
- Values can depend on values: (first-class) **functions**.
- Values can depend on types: **polymorphism** (i.e. “generics”).
- Types can depend on types: **type operators**.

# Dependent types

- There's yet another kind of dependency, which is not present in  $F\#$ , but is present in  $F^*$  and is the topic of this lecture.
- **Types can depend on values: dependent types.**
- But what are dependent types good for? You have been living your whole life without them, after all!



# The running summary 1

- **Dependent types are types that can depend on values.**

# Juggling dependencies

- Given a functional language like  $F\#$ , how to enable types to depend on values?
- Of course we want to retain the other kinds of dependencies (values on values, values on types, types on types).
- It turns out it's best **throw away all kinds of dependencies besides the basic one** (values on values)...
- ...and then **turn types into values!**

# Values and types

- So now values encompass both old, ordinary values (integers, tuples, functions, etc.) and new values (types).
- This way we get all four kinds of dependencies:
- Ordinary values can depend on ordinary values.
- Ordinary values can depend on type values.
- Type values can depend on type values.
- Type values can depend on ordinary values.

# First-class types

- How do we turn types into values?
- In programming languages' parlance, this process is called **making types first-class citizens of the language**.
- But what does “first-class” mean, anyway?

# What does “first-class” mean?

- In C, we can define functions that take an `int` and return an `int`.
- But we can't define a function that takes a function from `ints` to `ints` and returns an `int`.
- This means that functions from `ints` to `ints` are not treated the same as `ints`.
- As far as C is concerned, we can say that **integers are first-class, but functions are not first-class** (thus, they are “second-class”).
- But C has function pointers, so you may be skeptical when I claim it doesn't have first-class functions.

# Some heuristics

- **The concept of “first-class” is neither precisely defined nor exact.** Rather, it's more of a functional programming folklore that obeys the “I know it when I see it” principle.
- However there are some heuristics that can help you.
- **Something is first-class when it can be:**
  - bound/assigned to variables.
  - stored in data structures.
  - passed to functions as an argument.
  - returned from functions.
  - constructed at runtime.
  - nameless, i.e. it can exist without giving it any name.
- So, which of these is criteria is not fulfilled by C's function pointers?

# A first-class quiz

- Let's have a little quiz to check if you get it.
- **Are the below language features first-class in F# or not?**
- Functions?
- Recursive functions?
- Arrays?
- Modules?
- Records?
- Types?

# A type-based definition of “first-class”

- Heuristics from previous slides are nice. . .
- but I prefer to think about first-class-ness in a different way, which is better from the functional programming point of view.
- For a given programming, **a concept  $X$  is first-class if there is a type of all  $X$ s**, loosely speaking.
- This means that a language has first-class functions if for any two types  $A$  and  $B$  there is a type  $A \rightarrow B$  of all functions from  $A$  to  $B$ .



# A first-class quiz

- Let's have a little quiz to check if you get it.
- **Are the below language features first-class in F# or not?**
- Functions?
- Recursive functions?
- Arrays?
- Modules?
- Records?
- Types?

# A first-class quiz answers

- **Functions?** For any 'a and 'b there's a type of functions 'a  $\rightarrow$  'b.
- **Recursive functions?** There's no separate type of recursive functions, even though there's a syntactic distinction between `let` and `let rec`!
- **Arrays?** For any type 'a there's a type of arrays, namely `array<'a>`.
- **Modules?** Modules don't have types, they have signatures. But signatures are not types, so modules are not first-class.
- **Records?** This one is mixed depending on how you understand it. On the one hand, for any kind of record you can imagine, there's a corresponding type. But on the other hand, there is no type of all record types.
- **Types?** There are types in  $F\#$  and there are type variables `a'`, `b'`, `c'` etc., but we can't assign them any type!

# Computing with first-class types

- Previously we learned that “ $X$  is first-class” means that there is a type of all  $X$ s.
- For types, this means that we need to have a **type of types**.
- And that’s it – we don’t need anything else.
- Note: the phrase “types of types” sounds (and looks) bad, so we will call it **the universe of types**, or in short, just **the universe**.
- Because types are first-class in  $F^*$ , we can assign them to variables, pass them to functions as arguments and return them from functions, and even compute types by recursion.

## Code snippet no 2 - first-class types in F\*

- It might a bit difficult to wrap your head around the idea of first-class types, so let's see how it plays out in F\*.
- The code snippet can be found in `Lecture1/FirstClassTypes.fst`

# The running summary 2

- Dependent types are types that can depend on values.
- **In dependently typed languages:**
- **There is a universe – a type whose elements are themselves types.**

# So far so good

- So far so good, but we still don't know how dependent types work.
- We saw some in the examples, but they were left unexplained.
- We also saw some more in the last code snippet, but those were the crudest and most primitive dependent types in existence.
- **Now that we have learned about first-class types and the universe of types, we can learn dependent types proper.**

# Dependent types by analogy

- We will introduce dependent types by analogy.
- **Each of the various kinds of dependent types out there is just a generalization of an ordinary non-dependent type that is well-known to functional programmers:**
- Dependent function types are a generalization of function types.
- Dependent pair types are a generalization of products.
- Dependent record types are a generalization of records.
- Inductive types are a generalization of algebraic data types.

# Type families

- In the coming slides, we will often refer to **type families**.
- **A family of types indexed by type**  $a$  is just a function  $a \rightarrow \text{Type}$ .
- There can be many indices, like in  $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow \text{Type}$ .
- We have already seen examples in the last code snippet:
- $\text{vec} : \text{Type} \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{Type}$  is a family of types whose members  $\text{vec } a \ n$  are lists of length  $n$  and elements of type  $a$
- $\text{matrix} : \text{Type} \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{Type}$  is a family of types whose members  $\text{matrix } a \ n \ m$  are  $n \times m$  matrices with entries of type  $a$ .



# Non-dependent functions

- Recall how ordinary function types work in  $F\#$ .
- If  $a : \text{Type}$  is a type and  $b : \text{Type}$  is a type, then there is a type  $a \rightarrow b : \text{Type}$  of functions that take an element of  $a$  and return an element of  $b$ .
- We create functions of type  $a \rightarrow b$  by writing `fun (x : a) -> e` where  $e$  is an expression of type  $b$  in which  $x$  may occur.
- If we have a function  $f : a \rightarrow b$  and  $x : a$ , then we can apply  $f$  to  $x$ , written `f x`, to get an element of type  $b$ .

# Dependent functions

- Now, watch the analogy unfold...
- If  $a : \text{Type}$  is a type and  $b : a \rightarrow \text{Type}$  **is a family of types**, then there is a type  $(x : a) \rightarrow b\ x$  **of dependent functions** which take an element of a **named**  $x$  and return an element of  $b\ x$ .
- We create functions of type  $(x : a) \rightarrow b\ x$  by writing `fun (x : a) -> e` where  $e$  is an expression of type  $b\ x$  in which  $x$  may occur.
- If we have a function  $f : (x : a) \rightarrow b\ x$  and  $x : a$ , then we can apply  $f$  to  $x$ , written `f x`, to get an element of type  $b\ x$ .
- Hint: it's probably easiest to pronounce  $(x : a) \rightarrow b\ x$  as "for all  $x$  of type  $a$ ,  $b$  of  $x$ ". Thus is revealed the connection to logic, which we will see in the next lecture.

# More dependent functions

- Of course, we can iterate the dependent function type to get a type of functions whose output type dependent on the value of many inputs.
- $(x : a) \rightarrow b\ x$
- $(x : a) \rightarrow ((y : b\ x) \rightarrow c\ x\ y)$
- Dependent function type associates to the right, just like ordinary function type, so we can drop the parentheses. We can also drop all but the last arrow.
- $(x : a)\ (y : b\ x)\ (z : c\ x\ y) \rightarrow d\ x\ y\ z$
- $(x : a)\ (y : b\ x)\ (z : c\ x\ y)\ (w : d\ x\ y\ z) \rightarrow e\ x\ y\ z\ w$
- etc.

## Code snippet no 3 - dependent functions in $F^*$

- Let's see how to use dependent functions in  $F^*$ .
- See the code snippet `Lecture1/DependentFunctions.fst`

## The running summary 3

- Dependent types are types that can depend on values.
- In dependently typed languages:
- There is a universe – a type whose elements are themselves types.
- **There is a type of dependent functions which are just like ordinary functions, but their output TYPE can depend on the VALUE of their input.**

# Non-dependent pairs

- Recall how ordinary pairs work in  $F\#$ .
- If  $a : \text{Type}$  is a type and  $b : \text{Type}$  is a type, then there is a type  $a * b : \text{Type}$  of pairs.
- To create a pair, we write  $(x, y)$  where  $x$  is of type  $a$  and  $y$  is of type  $b$ .
- To use a pair  $p : a * b$ , we use projections – we have  $\text{fst } p : a$  and  $\text{snd } p : b$ .
- We can also pattern match on pairs.

# Dependent pairs

- Now, watch the analogy unfold...
- If  $a : \text{Type}$  is a type and  $b : a \rightarrow \text{Type}$  **is a family of types**, then there is **a type**  $(x : a) \ \& \ b \ x : \text{Type}$  **of dependent pairs**.
- To create a dependent pair, we write  $(| \ x, \ y \ |)$  where  $x$  is of type  $a$  **and**  $y$  **is of type**  $b \ x$ .
- To use a pair  $p : (x : a) \ \& \ b \ x$ , we use projections – we have  $\text{fst } p : a$  and  $\text{snd } p : b (\text{fst } p)$  (**note that the type of the second projection depends on the value of the first projection**).
- We can also pattern match on dependent pairs.

## More dependent pairs

- **We can iterate the dependent pair type**, while dropping unneeded parentheses – analogously to what we did for dependent functions.
- $(x : a) \ \& \ b \ x$
- $(x : a) \ \& \ (y : b \ x) \ \& \ c \ x \ y$
- $(x : a) \ \& \ (y : b \ x) \ \& \ (z : c \ x \ y) \ \& \ d \ x \ y \ z$
- **But using iterated dependent pairs is very inconvenient!**
- To access component of a dependent quadruple  $p$  we would have to write  $\text{fst } p$ ,  $\text{fst } (\text{snd } p)$ ,  $\text{fst } (\text{snd } (\text{snd } p))$  and  $\text{snd } (\text{snd } (\text{snd } p))$ .



# Dependent record types

- There's a better way than iterating dependent pair types: dependent record types.
- A record is basically a labeled tuple.
- **A dependent record is basically a labeled dependent tuple.**
- This means that the TYPES of later fields in a dependent record can depend on the VALUES of earlier fields.

## Code snippet no 4 - dependent records in $F^*$

- Let's see how dependent records work in  $F^*$ .
- See the code snippet `Lecture1/DependentRecords.fst`

# The running summary 4

- Dependent types are types that can depend on values.
- In dependently typed languages:
- There is a universe – a type whose elements are themselves types.
- There is a type of dependent functions which are just like ordinary functions, but their output TYPE can depend on the VALUE of their input.
- **Dependent record types are just like ordinary records, but the TYPES of later fields can depend on the VALUE of earlier fields.**

# Pi type and multiplication

- The dependent function type **is also known as the Pi type**.
- **This name comes from a notation:**  $(x : a) \rightarrow b\ x$  is sometimes written as  $\prod_{x: a} b(x)$ .
- **This notation comes from an analogy with multiplication.** In math  $\prod_{k=0}^n a_k$  means  $a_0 \cdot a_1 \cdot \dots \cdot a_n$ .
- **We can think about dependent function types in this way too.** For example, the type  $(x : \text{bool}) \rightarrow p\ x$  is equivalent to  $p\ \text{true} * p\ \text{false}$ .
- The result of multiplication is called a product, hence the dependent function type **is also known as the dependent product type**.
- As it turns out, the dependent function type **generalizes both the ordinary function type and the product type**, but in different ways.

# Sigma type and addition

- The dependent pair type **is also known as the Sigma type**.
- **This name comes from a notation:**  $(x : a) \& b\ x$  is sometimes written as  $\sum_{x: a} b(x)$ .
- **This notation comes from an analogy with addition.** In math  $\sum_{k=0}^n a_k$  means  $a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n$ .
- **We can think about dependent pair types in this way too.** For example, the type  $(x : \text{bool}) \& p\ x$  is equivalent to  $p\ \text{true} + p\ \text{false}$  (where  $+$  just means a simple tagged union).
- The result of addition is called a sum, hence the dependent pair type **is also known as the dependent sum type**.
- As it turns out, the dependent pair type **generalizes both the product type and the sum type**, but in different ways.