Mathematical Structures in Dependent Type Theory

Jeremy Avigad

Department of Philosophy Department of Mathematical Sciences Hoskinson Center for Formal Mathematics

Carnegie Mellon University

June 14, 2024

Mathematicians and formalization

In recent years, the mathematical community has embraced the Lean interactive proof assistant.

Two important reasons:

- The ecosystem embraces classical mathematical reasoning.
- It has good support for reasoning about structures.

Systems like Isabelle and HOL Light meet the first requirement.

Systems like Coq and Agda meet the second requirement.

Both are essential.

Classical reasoning

```
\mathtt{def}\ \mathtt{fact}\ \colon \mathbb{N} 	o \mathbb{N}
  | 0 => 1
   | (n + 1) = (n + 1) * fact n
#eval fact 1000
noncomputable section
open Classical
def f (x : \mathbb{R}) : \mathbb{R} := if x \leq 0 then 0 else 1
\operatorname{def} g(x:\mathbb{R}):\mathbb{R}:=\inf \operatorname{Irrational} x \operatorname{then} 0 \operatorname{else} 1
example : \forall x, f x \leq 1 := by
   intro x; simp [f]; split <;> linarith
```

Since the early twentieth century, axiomatically characterized structures have been central to mathematics.

Mathematicians now

- take products of structures,
- take powers of structures,
- take limits of structures,
- build quotients of structures,
- and lots more.

In short, we calculate with structures as easily as we calculate with numbers.

Structures have to be first-class objects in a proof assistant.

This rules out simple type theory as an attractive option.

Set theory is an alternative, but types do a lot of work:

- They allow users to overload notation and leave information implicit.
- They provide better error messages.

Clarification:

- Any foundational framework can be made to work, with enough effort.
- One can add features with additional infrastructure.

Claim: any practical solution will be at least as complicated as dependent type theory.

From Sébastian Gouëzel's web page (c. 2018?):

"Out of curiosity, I have given a try to several proof assistants, i.e., computer programs on which one can formalize and check mathematical proofs, from the most basic statements (definition of real numbers, say) to the most advanced ones (hopefully including current research in a near or distant future). The first one I have managed to use efficiently is Isabelle/HOL. In addition to several facts that have been added to the main library (for instance conditional expectations), I have developed the following theories..."

"However, I have been stuck somewhat by the limitations of the underlying logic in Isabelle (lack of dependent types, making it hard for instance to define the p-adic numbers as this should be a type depending on an integer parameter p, and essentially impossible to define the Gromov-Hausdorff distance between compact metric spaces without redefining everything on metric spaces from scratch, and avoiding typeclasses). These limitations are also what makes Isabelle/HOL simple enough to provide much better automation than in any other proof assistant, but still I decided to turn to a more recent system, Lean, which is less mature, has less libraries, and less automation, but where the underlying logic (essentially the same as in Coq) is stronger (and, as far as I can see, strong enough to speak in a comfortable way about all mathematical objects I am interested in)."

Overview

I will talk about Lean's handling of structures.

- The good: Lean and Mathlib support an extensive network of structures.
- The bad: The complexity poses challenges for library development and maintenance.
- The ugly: It also poses challenges for automation.

Structural reasoning is one of the sources of the impressive power of modern mathematical reasoning.

With great power there must also come great responsibility.

Structures

Quiz:

- Who first gave an axiomatic characterization of a group?
- Who first defined a quotient group?
- Who first defined the notion of an ideal in a ring (and proved unique factorization of ideals)?
- Who first gave the modern definition of a Riemann surface?
- Who first gave an axiomatic characterization of a topological space?
- Who first gave an axiomatic characterization of a Hilbert space?
- Who first gave the modern definition on a measure on a space as a σ -additive function on a σ -algebra?
- Who defined the p-adic integers?

```
def quadraticChar (\alpha : Type) [MonoidWithZero \alpha] (a : \alpha) : \mathbb{Z} := if a = 0 then 0 else if IsSquare a then 1 else -1 def legendreSym (p : \mathbb{N}) (a : \mathbb{Z}) : \mathbb{Z} := quadraticChar (ZMod p) a variable {p q : \mathbb{N}} [Fact p.Prime] [Fact q.Prime] theorem quadratic_reciprocity (hp : p \neq 2) (hq : q \neq 2) (hpq : p \neq q) : legendreSym q p * legendreSym p q = (-1) ^ (p / 2 * (q / 2))
```

```
def Padic (p : N) [Fact p.Prime] :=
  CauSeq.Completion.Cauchy (padicNorm p)
def PadicInt (p : N) [Fact p.Prime] :=
  \{ x : \mathbb{Q}_{p} // \|x\| < 1 \}
variable \{p : \mathbb{N}\} [Fact p.Prime] \{F : Polynomial \mathbb{Z}_{p}\}
  \{a : \mathbb{Z}_{p}\}
theorem hensels lemma
     (hnorm : ||Polynomial.eval a F|| <
       \|Polynomial.eval a (Polynomial.derivative F)\|^2:
  \exists z : \mathbb{Z} [p].
    F.eval z = 0 \land
     \|z - a\| < \|F.derivative.eval a\| \wedge
     \|F.derivative.eval\ z\| = \|F.derivative.eval\ a\| \land
    \forall z', F.eval z' = 0 \rightarrow
       \|z' - a\| < \|F.derivative.eval a\| \rightarrow z' = z
```

```
def FreeAbelianGroup : Type :=
   Additive <| Abelianization <| FreeGroup α

def IsPGroup (p : N) (G : Type) [Group G] : Prop :=
   ∀ g : G, ∃ k : N, g ^ p ^ k = 1

theorem IsPGroup.exists_le_sylow {P : Subgroup G}
   (hP : IsPGroup p P) :
   ∃ Q : Sylow p G, P < Q</pre>
```

```
variable {R S : Type} (K L : Type) [EuclideanDomain R]
variable [CommRing S] [IsDomain S]
variable [Field K] [Field L]
variable [Algebra R K] [IsFractionRing R K]
variable [Algebra K L] [FiniteDimensional K L] [IsSeparable K L]
variable [algRL : Algebra R L] [IsScalarTower R K L]
variable [Algebra R S] [Algebra S L]
variable [ist : IsScalarTower R S L]
variable [iic : IsIntegralClosure S R L]
variable (abv : AbsoluteValue R. Z.)
/-- The main theorem: the class group of an integral closure `S`
of `R` in a finite extension `L` of `K = Frac(R)` is finite
if there is an admissible absolute value. -/
noncomputable def fintypeOfAdmissibleOfFinite :
   Fintype (ClassGroup S) :=
  . . .
```

```
variable \{\alpha \ \beta \ \iota : Type\} \ \{m : MeasurableSpace \ \alpha\}
variable [MetricSpace \beta] {\mu : Measure \alpha}
variable [SemilatticeSup \iota] [Nonempty \iota] [Countable \iota]
variable {f : \iota \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \beta} {g : \alpha \rightarrow \beta} {s : Set \alpha}
/-- Egorov's theorem: A sequence of almost everywhere
convergent functions converges uniformly except on an
arbitrarily small set. -/
theorem tendstoUniformlyOn_of_ae_tendsto
     (hf : ∀ n, StronglyMeasurable (f n))
     (hg : StronglyMeasurable g)
     (hsm : MeasurableSet s) (hs : \mu s \neq \infty)
     (hfg: \forall^m x \partial \mu, x \in s \rightarrow
       Tendsto (fun n => f n x) atTop (\mathcal{N} (g x)))
     \{\varepsilon : \mathbb{R}\}\ (h\varepsilon : 0 < \varepsilon) :
  \exists (t : _) (_ : t \subseteq s),
     MeasurableSet t ∧
     \mu t \leq ENNReal.ofReal \varepsilon \wedge
     TendstoUniformlyOn f g atTop (s \ t) :=
   . . .
```

```
structure Point where
  x : \mathbb{R}
  v : \mathbb{R}
  z:\mathbb{R}
def myPoint1 : Point where
  x := 2
  y := -1
  z := 4
def myPoint2 : Point := \langle 2, -1, 4 \rangle
#check myPoint1.x
#check myPoint1.y
#check myPoint1.z
def add (a b : Point) : Point :=
  \langle a.x + b.x, a.y + b.y, a.z + b.z \rangle
```

```
structure StandardTwoSimplex where
  \mathbf{x}: \mathbb{R}
  y : \mathbb{R}
  z:\mathbb{R}
  x_nonneg : 0 < x
  v_nonneg : 0 < v
  z_nonneg : 0 < z
  sum_eq : x + y + z = 1
def midpoint (a b : StandardTwoSimplex) : StandardTwoSimplex
    where
  x := (a.x + b.x) / 2
  y := (a.y + b.y) / 2
  z := (a.z + b.z) / 2
  x_nonneg :=
    div_nonneg (add_nonneg a.x_nonneg b.x_nonneg) (by norm_num)
  v_nonneg := ...
  z_nonneg := ...
  sum_eq := by field_simp; linarith [a.sum_eq, b.sum_eq]
```

```
structure Group where
  carrier : Type
  mul : carrier \rightarrow carrier \rightarrow carrier
  one : carrier
  inv : carrier \rightarrow carrier
  mul_assoc : \forall x y z : carrier,
    mul (mul x y) z = mul x (mul y z)
  mul_one : \forall x : carrier, mul x one = x
  one_mul : \forall x : carrier, mul one x = x
  mul_left_inv : \forall x : carrier, mul (inv x) x = one

variable (G : Group) (g1 g2 : G.carrier)
```

```
structure Group (\alpha: Type) where  \begin{array}{l} \text{mul} : \alpha \to \alpha \to \alpha \\ \text{one} : \alpha \\ \text{inv} : \alpha \to \alpha \\ \text{mul\_assoc} : \forall \text{ x y z} : \alpha, \text{ mul (mul x y) z = mul x (mul y z)} \\ \text{mul\_one} : \forall \text{ x} : \alpha, \text{ mul x one = x} \\ \text{one\_mul} : \forall \text{ x} : \alpha, \text{ mul one x = x} \\ \text{mul\_left\_inv} : \forall \text{ x} : \alpha, \text{ mul (inv x) x = one} \\ \end{array}
```

Design specifications

Doing mathematics requires:

- defining algebraic structures and reasoning about them (groups, rings, fields, . . .)
- defining instances of structures and recognizing them as such $(\mathbb{R} \text{ is an ordered field, a metric space, } \dots)$
- overloading notation (x + y, "f" is continuous")
- inheriting structure: every normed additive group is a metric space, which is a topological space.
- defining functions and operations on structures: we can take products, powers, limits, quotients, and so on.

Design specifications

Structure is inherited in various ways:

- Some structures extend others by adding more axioms (a commutative ring is a ring, a Hausdorff space is a topological space).
- Some structures extend others by adding more data (a module is an abelian group with a scalar multiplication, a normed field is a field with a norm).
- Some structures are defined in terms of others (every metric space is a topological space, there are various topologies on function spaces).

We have seen how to define the group structure Group α on a type α .

We can define instances of Group $\,\alpha$ the same way we define instances of Point and StandardTwoSimplex.

```
def permGroup {α : Type} : Group (Perm α) where
  mul f g := Equiv.trans g f
  one := Equiv.refl α
  inv := Equiv.symm
  mul_assoc f g h := (Equiv.trans_assoc _ _ _).symm
  one_mul := Equiv.trans_refl
  mul_one := Equiv.refl_trans
  mul_left_inv := Equiv.self_trans_symm
```

We are not there yet. We need:

- Notation: given g_1 g_2 : Perm α , we want to write $g_1 * g_2$ and g_1^{-1} for the multiplication and inverse.
- Definitions: we want to use defined notions like g₁^n and conj g₁ g₂.
- Theorems: we want to apply theorems about arbitrary groups to the permutation group.

The magic depends on three things:

- 1. *Logic.* A definition that makes sense in any group takes the type of the group and the group structure as arguments.
 - A theorem about the elements of an arbitrary group quantifies over the type of the group and the group structure.
- 2. *Implicit arguments*. The arguments for the type and the structure are generally left implicit.
- 3. Type class inference.
 - Instance relations are registered with the system.
 - The system uses this information to resolve implicit arguments.

Notation

We overload notation by associating it to trivial structures.

```
class Add (\alpha : Type u) where add : \alpha \to \alpha \to \alpha #check @Add.add -- @Add.add : \{\alpha : Type \ u\_1\} \to [self : Add \ \alpha] \to \alpha \to \alpha infix1:65 " + " => Add.add instance : Add Point where add := Point.add
```

Notation

```
variable (p q : Point)
\#check p + q
--p+q: Point
set_option pp.notation false
#check p + q
-- Add.add p q
set_option pp.explicit true
\#check p + q
-- @Add.add Point instPointAdd p q
-- This is a slight simplification! We also have `HAdd`.
```

Classes and instances

The class command is a variant of the structure command that makes the structure a target for *type class inference*.

The <u>instance</u> command registers particular instances for type class inference.

We can register concrete instances ($\mathbb R$ is a field, the permuations of α form a group), as well as generic instances (every field is a ring, every metric space is a topological space, every normed abelian group is a metric space.)

```
class Group (\alpha : Type) :=
instance \{\alpha : Type\} : Group (Perm \alpha) :=
  . . .
instance : Ring \mathbb{R} :=
  . . .
instance {M : Type} [MetricSpace M] :
    TopologicalSpace M :=
  . . .
-- Again, this is a simplification.
```

```
#check @Add.add
-- @Add.add: \{\alpha: Type\ u\_1\} \rightarrow [self: Add\ \alpha] \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha
#check @add comm
-- @add_comm : \forall {G : Type u_1} [inst : AddCommSemigroup G]
-- (a b : G), a + b = b + a
#check @abs_add
-- @abs\_add : \forall \{\alpha : Type u\_1\}
-- [inst : LinearOrderedAddCommGroup \alpha] (a b : \alpha),
-- |a + b| < |a| + |b|
#check @Continuous
-- @Continuous : {$\alpha$ : Type u_2} \rightarrow {$\beta$} : Type u_1} \rightarrow $$}
-- [inst : TopologicalSpace \alpha] \rightarrow
-- [inst : TopologicalSpace \beta] \rightarrow
-- (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow Prop
```

```
variable (f g : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})

#check f + g
-- f + g : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}

example : f + g = g + f := by rw [add_comm]

#check Continuous f
-- Continuous f : Prop
```

```
set_option pp.explicit true
#check Continuous f
@Continuous (\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}) \mathbb{R}
  (@instTopologicalSpaceProd \mathbb{R} \mathbb{R}
     (@UniformSpace.toTopologicalSpace \mathbb{R}
     (@PseudoMetricSpace.toUniformSpace \mathbb R
     Real.pseudoMetricSpace))
     (@UniformSpace.toTopologicalSpace \mathbb R
     (@PseudoMetricSpace.toUniformSpace \mathbb R
     Real.pseudoMetricSpace)))
  (@UniformSpace.toTopologicalSpace \mathbb R
     (@PseudoMetricSpace.toUniformSpace \mathbb R
     Real.pseudoMetricSpace)) f : Prop
-/
```

Defining a hierarchy of structures

Currently, Mathlib has roughly:

- 1,520 classes
- 26,143 instances.

I will pause here to show you:

- some graphs
- how to look up the (direct) instances of a class in the Mathlib documentation
- how to look up the classes that an object is an instance of.

Defining a hierarchy of structures

What are all these classes?

- Notation (Add, Mul, Inv, Norm, ...)
- Algebraic structures (Group, OrderedRing, Lattice, Module, ...)
- Computation and bookkeeping: Inhabited, Decidable
- Mixins and add-ons: LeftDistribClass, Nontrivial
- Unexpected generalizations: GroupWithZero, DivInvMonoid

Defining a hierarchy of structures

To bundle or not to bundle?

A group consists of a carrier type and a structure on that type.

We have seen that we can represent that as one object or two.

Choices like this come up often:

- A monoid morphism is a function that preserves multiplication and 1.
- A subgroup is a subset of the carrier closed under the group operations.

To bundle or not to bundle?

```
variable (G H : Type) [Monoid G] [Monoid H]
{	t structure} is Monoid Hom (f : G 
ightarrow H) : Prop where
  map\_one : f 1 = 1
  map\_mul : \forall g g', f (g * g') = f g * f g'
structure MonoidHom : Type where
  toFun : G \rightarrow H
  map\_one : toFun 1 = 1
  map_mul : \forall g g', toFun (g * g') = toFun g * toFun g'
structure Subgroup (G : Type) [Group G] where
  carrier : Set G
  mul\_mem \{a b\} : a \in carrier \rightarrow b \in carrier \rightarrow
    a * b \in carrier
  one\_mem : (1 : G) \in carrier
  inv_mem \{x\} : x \in carrier \rightarrow x^{-1} \in carrier
```

To bundle or not to bundle?

The bundled and unbundled approaches each have advantages and drawbacks.

Mathlib has ways of handling subobjects and morphisms that tries to get the best of both worlds.

You can read about it in Chapter 7 of Mathematics in Lean.

See also Anne Baanen, "Use and abuse of instance parameters in the Lean mathematical library."

Consider the following facts:

- The product of metric spaces is a metric space.
- The product of topological spaces is a topological space.
- Every metric space is a topological space.

Suppose M_1 and M_2 are metric spaces.

 $M_1 \times M_2$ can be viewed as a topological space in two ways:

- A product of the induced topological spaces.
- The topological space induced by the product of the metric spaces.

Fortunately, they come out the same.

Another example:

- Every ring R is an R-module, equipped with a scalar multiplication.
- Every abelian group is a \mathbb{Z} module.

Given $u, x \in \mathbb{Z}$, which structure does $u \cdot x$ refer to?

Once again, fortunately, they come out the same.

Why diamonds are problematic:

- The multiple pathways slow down searches.
- The results may not be the same (an ambiguity in the mathematics).
- The results may be provably the same, but not syntactically (definitionally) the same.

Here's how you know things have gone wrong:

```
tactic 'apply' failed, failed to unify
  Continuous f
with
  Continuous f
```

Diamond problems come up surprisingly often.

Mathematics in Lean explains how to resolve them, and the community has gotten good at it.

See also Affeldt et al, "Competing inheritance paths in dependent type theory" and Wieser, "Multiple-inheritance hazards in dependently-typed algebraic hierarchies."

A philosophical question:

- Mathematicians are good at inferring canonical structure.
- A priori, there is no guarantee that our conventions yield coherent assignments.
- Why don't we get in trouble more often?

Clarifications

I am not claiming that Lean's ways of using dependent type theory is not the only one:

- There are variations (canonical structures, unification hints).
- Implementation details and engineering matter.

I am not even claiming that dependent type theory is the only solution.

• Mizar used "soft typing" mechanisms with some success.

Conclusions

Claims:

- Structural and algebraic reasoning is fundamental to contemporary mathematics.
- Structures are mathematical objects.
- A deep understanding of structures and their relationships is even need to parse an expression like "x + y."
- The ability of Lean and Mathlib to support structural mathematics is one of the most impressive successes.
- Any solution will have to be at least as complicated as dependent type theory.

Conclusions

A lot of the power of modern mathematics stems from the mechanisms it offers to think in structural terms.

Implementing a formal library requires thinking about how it works.

Thinking about how it works is interesting, even if you don't care about formal mathematics.