# A Generalization of Takeuti-Gandy Interpretation 

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## Introduction

The goal of this paper is to present an explanation of the axiom of function extensionality in dependent type theory. This extends naturally to a model of type theory where a type is interpreted by a Kan semisimplicial set and we also present this generalization. The technique for explaining extensionality for simple type theory goes back to Takeuti [24] and Gandy [7]. The basic idea is already present in the introduction of the second edition of Principia Mathematica [20] and an earlier explanation of extensionality can be found in [21]. In general a function may fail to be extensional, i.e. to send equal elements to equal elements; for instance an operator on propositions may fail to preserve logical equivalence. The idea is to consider a relativized model where we quantify over extensional elements.

The paper is organized as follows. We first present the Takeuti-Gandy interpretation of simple type theory. Roughly speaking, this interprets a type as a type with an equivalence relation, which is reminiscent of Bishop's notion of set in constructive mathematics [5]. One can see the notion of Kan simplicial set as a generalization of the notion of type with equivalence relation. We explain some effectivity problems that occur when using the notion of Kan simplicial set as a generalization of type with an equivalence relation. We present then a first semantics, where a type is interpreted as a truncated Kan semisimplicial set of level $\leqslant 1$. The correctness of this semantics has been formally verified in the system Coq V8.4. The system we interpret is close to the first published version of Martin-Löf type theory [15]. After giving some applications of this semantics, we present a generalization where a type is interpreted as a Kan semisimplicial set. This gives a formal system together with an effective way of transporting structures and properties along any equivalences.

## 1 Takeuti-Gandy interpretation

Takeuti-Gandy interpretation [7,24] was developed for simple type theory. It is important to analyze the computational interpretation in this case, before considering dependent type theory. We assume a type $o$ of propositions and function types $A \rightarrow B$. The idea is to define (extensional) equality at type $A$ by induction on $A$. However at the same time, we may need to "restrict" the type $A$ since it may contain non extensional elements.

Using the language of dependent type theory, we can describe this interpretation as follows. For any simple type $A$ we define a corresponding type $[A]$ and an equality relation $=_{A}$ on the type $[A]$. Since we are using dependent type theory this relation is of type $[A] \rightarrow[A] \rightarrow$ Type. The type $[o]$ is an universe, and $=_{o}$ is logical equivalence. The type $[A \rightarrow B]$ is defined as a sigma type

$$
[A \rightarrow B]=\sum_{f:[A] \rightarrow[B]} \prod_{x:[A]} \prod_{u:[A]} x={ }_{A} u \rightarrow f x={ }_{B} f u
$$

An element of type $[A \rightarrow B]$ is thus a pair $f, f^{\prime}$ where $f$ is of type $[A] \rightarrow[B]$ and $f^{\prime}$ is a proof that this function is extensional. We define $\left(f, f^{\prime}\right)=_{A \rightarrow B}\left(g, g^{\prime}\right)$ to be

$$
\prod_{x:[A]} \prod_{u:[A]} x={ }_{A} u \rightarrow f x={ }_{B} g u
$$

A context $\Gamma$ is then interpreted by a type $[\Gamma]$ with a relation $=_{\Gamma}$, and a term $\Gamma \vdash t: A$ is interpreted by a function $t \rho:[A]$ for $\rho:[\Gamma]$ together with a proof $t \alpha$ of $t \rho_{0}={ }_{A} t \rho_{1}$ whenever $\alpha$ is a proof of $\rho_{0}={ }_{\Gamma} \rho_{1}$. $\rho_{0}={ }_{\Gamma} \rho_{1}$ implies $t \rho_{0}={ }_{A} t \rho_{1}$. The equality relation $=_{\Gamma}$ is an equivalence relation on $[\Gamma]$ and in particular,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash}{1: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Delta}{\sigma \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Gamma} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash t: A \quad \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash t \sigma: A \sigma} \\
& \overline{() \vdash} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash}{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash}{\mathrm{p}: \Gamma \cdot A \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash}{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash \mathrm{q}: A} \\
& \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \Delta \vdash u: A}{(\sigma, u): \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \cdot A} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash b: B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda b: A \rightarrow B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash w: A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash u: A}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{app}(w, u): B} \\
& 1 \sigma=\sigma \quad(\sigma \delta) \nu=\sigma(\delta \nu) \quad(\sigma, u) \delta=(\sigma \delta, u \delta) \quad \mathrm{p}(\sigma, u)=\sigma \quad \mathrm{q}(\sigma, u)=u \\
& \operatorname{app}(w, u) \delta=\operatorname{app}(w \delta, u \delta) \quad \operatorname{app}((\lambda b) \sigma, u)=b(\sigma, u)
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 1: Rules of Simple Type Theory with Explicit Substitution
for each $\rho:[\Gamma]$ we have a proof $1_{\rho}: \rho=_{\Gamma} \rho$. The interpretation of $(\lambda t) \rho$, for $\Gamma . A \vdash t: B$, is the pair $f, f^{\prime}$ where $f u=t(\rho, u)$ and $f^{\prime} x u \omega=t\left(1_{\rho}, \omega\right)$.

Figure 1 presents some key rules of simple type theory.
In general a simple type $A$ is interpreted by a type $[A]$ with a proof relevant relation $=_{A}$ on this type. We now give another description of this semantics, using informal set theory instead. It should be clear how to go back and forth between the two presentations.

This pair $[A],=_{A}$ can be presented also as a set $X[0]$, intuitively a set of "points", together with a set of "lines" $X[1]$ and two maps $d_{0}, d_{1}: X[1] \rightarrow X[0]$; a proof $p$ of $a_{0}={ }_{A} a_{1}$ corresponds to a line $p$ in $X[1]$ with $d_{i} p=a_{i}$. Given $X=X[0], X[1]$ and $Y=Y[0], Y[1]$ the function space $Y^{X}$ is then defined by taking $Y^{X}[0]$ to be the set of pairs $f, \eta f$ with $f: X[0] \rightarrow Y[0]$ and $\eta f: X[1] \rightarrow Y[1]$ such that $d_{i} \eta f=f d_{i}$ for $i=0,1$. We can define $\operatorname{app}((f, \eta f), u)=f u: Y[0]$ if $u: X[0]$. We define $Y^{X}[1]$ to be the set of elements $\lambda, f_{0}, f_{1}, \eta f_{0}, \eta f_{1}$ with $f_{i}: X[0] \rightarrow Y[0]$ and $\lambda: X[1] \rightarrow Y[1]$ such that $d_{i} \lambda=f_{i}$ and $d_{j} \eta f_{i}=f_{i}$. We define then $d_{i}\left(\lambda, f_{0}, \eta f_{0}, f_{1}, \eta f_{1}\right)=f_{i}, \eta f_{i}$. We can define app $\left(\left(\lambda, f_{0}, f_{1}, \eta f_{0}, \eta f_{1}\right), \omega\right)=\lambda \omega: Y[1]$ if $\omega: X[1]$. With this definition we have $d_{i} \operatorname{app}(\alpha, \omega)=\operatorname{app}\left(d_{i} \alpha, d_{i} \omega\right)$. A type $A$ is then interpreted by a pair of sets $A[0], A[1]$ with two maps $d_{0}, d_{1}: A[1] \rightarrow A[0]$. Similarly, a context $\Gamma$ is then interpreted by a pair of sets $\Gamma[0], \Gamma[1]$ with two maps $d_{0}, d_{1}: \Gamma[1] \rightarrow \Gamma[0]$. If $\Gamma \vdash t: A$, we should define $t \rho: A[0]$ for $\rho: \Gamma[0]$, and $t \alpha: A[1]$ for $\alpha: \Gamma[1]$ in such a way that $d_{i}(t \alpha)=t\left(d_{i} \alpha\right)$ for $i=0.1$.

We get the following operational semantics

$$
\begin{gathered}
(t \sigma) \rho=t(\sigma \rho) \quad(\sigma \delta) \rho=\sigma(\delta \rho) \quad 1 \rho=\rho \quad(t \sigma) \alpha=t(\sigma \alpha) \quad(\sigma \delta) \alpha=\sigma(\delta \alpha) \quad 1 \alpha=\alpha \\
(\sigma, t) \rho=\sigma \rho, t \rho \quad \mathrm{q}(\rho, u)=u \quad \mathrm{q}(\alpha, \omega)=\omega \\
\operatorname{app}\left(t_{1}, t_{0}\right) \rho=\operatorname{app}\left(t_{1} \rho, t_{0} \rho\right) \quad \operatorname{app}\left(t_{1}, t_{0}\right) \alpha=\operatorname{app}\left(t_{1} \alpha, t_{0} \alpha\right) \\
\operatorname{app}((\lambda t) \rho, u)=t(\rho, u) \quad \operatorname{app}((\lambda t) \alpha, \omega)=t(\alpha, \omega) \quad \operatorname{app}(\eta(\lambda t) \rho, \omega)=t\left(1_{\rho}, \omega\right) \\
d_{i}(\eta f)=f \quad d_{i} \operatorname{app}(\lambda, \omega)=\operatorname{app}\left(d_{i} \lambda, d_{i} \omega\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

A logically equivalent definition of $\left(f, f^{\prime}\right)=_{A \rightarrow B}\left(g, g^{\prime}\right)$ would be

$$
\forall x:[A] . f x=_{B} g x
$$

however, this definition would not provide the right definitional equality. In particular it would not validate $\beta$-conversion

$$
\Gamma \vdash t(1, u)=\operatorname{app}(\lambda t, u): B
$$

for $\Gamma . A \vdash t: B$ and $\Gamma \vdash u: A$. With both definitions we get the equality

$$
\operatorname{app}(\lambda t, u) \rho=t(1, u) \rho=t(\rho, u \rho):[B]
$$

for $\rho: \Gamma$, while it is only with our definition that we get the equality

$$
\operatorname{app}(\lambda t, u) \alpha=t(1, u) \alpha=t(\alpha, u \alpha): \quad t\left(\rho_{0}, u \rho_{0}\right)={ }_{B} t\left(\rho_{1}, u \rho_{1}\right)
$$

for $\alpha: \rho_{0}={ }_{\Gamma} \rho_{1}$.
We do not interpret all the laws of cartesian closed category: the law

$$
(\lambda t) \sigma=\lambda t(\sigma \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})
$$

is not valid in this model. This is because the second component of $(\lambda t) \sigma \rho$ and $(\lambda t(\sigma \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})) \rho$ do not coincide in general since $1_{\sigma \rho}$ may not coincide with $\sigma 1_{\rho}$. However all the equations of Figure 1 are valid in this model. (We explain later why this set of laws is satisfactory for representing dependent type theory.)

For the interpretation of the universal quantification $\forall:(A \rightarrow o) \rightarrow o$ we first have to define a function $F:[A \rightarrow o] \rightarrow[o]$ and to show that this function is extensional. Given $\left(f, f^{\prime}\right):[A \rightarrow o]$ we define $F\left(f, f^{\prime}\right)$ to be $\forall x:[A] . f x$. (We need the universe which interprets the type of proposition to be impredicative; otherwise we can however interpret a predicative version of simple type theory.) Given $\left(f, f^{\prime}\right):[A \rightarrow o]$ and $\left(g, g^{\prime}\right):[A \rightarrow o]$ that are equivalent we have then to prove that $\forall x:[A] . f x$ and $\forall x:[A] . g x$ are equivalent. This follows from the fact that for any $x:[A]$, we have $f x=_{o} g x$, which means precisely that $f x$ and $g x$ are equivalent.

The original motivation of this interpretation was the consistency problem of higher-order arithmetic [24, 7]. Simple type theory without function extensionality is a simpler system, and the intuitionistic version of this system, presented in natural deduction, has good proof theoretic properties [16].

## 2 Effectivity problems with the Kan simplicial set model

One can see the Kan simplicial set model of type as a generalization of the previous interpretation of simple type theory, where a simplicial set generalizes the notion of set with a relation, and a Kan simplicial set generalizes the notion of set with an equivalence relation.

When analyzing the Kan simplicial set model of type theory [28, 22, 4], one effectivity problem relies in the use of the decidability of the notion of degeneracy and the fact that simplicial maps have to commute with the degeneracy functions. Let us write $[n]$ for the linear poset $\{0, \ldots, n\}$. Let $\Delta$ be the category of such linear poset $[n]$ with morphisms all monotone map. The category of simplicial sets if the presheaf category $\Delta^{o p}$ Set. A simplicial set is thus a sequence of sets $X[n]$ together with maps $X[n] \rightarrow X[m], u \longmapsto u f$ for $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ satisfying $u 1=u$ and $(u f) g=u(f g): X[p]$ if $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$. We write $\epsilon_{i}:[n-1] \rightarrow[n]$ for the injective map that omits $i$; this is the $i$ th face map, and we may write $d_{i} u$ instead of $u \epsilon_{i}$. An element $u: X[n]$ is called degenerate if, and only if, there is a non trivial surjective map $g:[n] \rightarrow[m]$ and an element $v: X[m]$ such that $u=v g$. In a constructive setting, to be degenerate is not a decidable property. However the theory of simplicial set and of Kan simplicial set uses this decidability at crucial points.

We give here a simple example of the use of this decidability. If $p: B \rightarrow A$ is a Kan fibration, given two points $a u: A[0]$ with a path $\omega: A[1]$ connecting $a$ and $u$, one expects the fibers $B(a)$ and $B(u)$ to be equivalent Kan simplicial sets. In order to define the map $f_{0}: B(a)[0] \rightarrow B(u)[0]$ one simply uses the Kan condition: given a point $b: B[0]$ such that $p(b)=a: A[0]$ one can lift the path $\omega$ to a path $\omega^{\prime}$ in $B$ such that $d_{0} \omega^{\prime}=b$ and one define $f_{0} b=d_{1} \omega^{\prime}$. But in order to define $f_{1}: B(a)[1] \rightarrow B(u)[1]$ it seems necessary to define $f_{1} \alpha$ by case whether $\alpha$ is degenerate or not.

Similar problems are found when analyzing various proofs $[17,11]$ that $B^{A}$ is a Kan simplicial set if $B$ is a Kan simplicial set.

These effectivity problems make it impossible to use the Kan simplicial set model for a computational interpretation of the axiom of univalence. Because of these problems, we interpret a type not as a Kan simplicial set, but as a Kan semisimplicial set.

## 3 Takeuti-Gandy interpretation for dependent type theory

### 3.1 Identity type

The first predicative version of type theory [13] did not have identity types. Over the type of natural numbers for instance, equality was defined recursively using a universe. This version [13] stayed unpublished for a long time and the identity type was introduced in the first published version of type theory [15].

Proposition 3.1 In the [15] version of type theory, function extensionality stating that $\operatorname{ld}_{A \rightarrow B} f g$ follows from

$$
\prod_{x: A} \operatorname{Id}_{B} \operatorname{app}(f, x) \operatorname{app}(g, x)
$$

is not provable.
Proof. This follows from the fact that if $\operatorname{Id}_{T} a u$ is provable in the empty context, then $a$ and $u$ are convertible [15], and the fact that we can have two functions that are not convertible but pointwise equal e.g. the functions $\lambda n . n+0$ and $\lambda n .0+n$ on natural numbers.

To have function extensionality seems however important for representing mathematical arguments. Voevodsky for instance has shown how to define internally the notion of homotopy level in type theory [28]. The definition itself does not require function extensionality, but in order for this notion to have the expected properties (like closure under product) we need function extensionality. Similarly, for representing intuitions from homotopy theory, and even basic mathematical notions (e.g. category theory) we need at least function extensionality. The univalence axiom furthermore provides a general principle of transport of structures along equivalences.

It is remarkable that the explanation of CZF in Type Theory [1], interpreting a set as a well-founded tree up to bisimulation, does not use the identity type, so it is an interpretation of CZF in the 1972 version of type theory.

The model we present in the next section is a generalization of Takeuti's and Gandy's interpretation [7] of extensional simple type theory in intensional simple type theory. It can be seen as a translation of type theory with the extensionality axiom in the 1972 version of type theory.

### 3.2 Type theory as a formal system and definitional equality

All rules of type theory are justified following the pattern:

1. The introduction rules give the meaning to the logical connectives (they are represented by constructors, following the terminology of functional programming).
2. The elimination rules are justified w.r.t. the introduction rules (they are represented by defined functions).
3. These justifications take the form of computation rules (the function is defined by case analysis).

A prooft of a type/proposition $A$ is supposed to be a method to produce a canonical proof of $A$. The method to produce a canonical proof is quite uniform: given a term $t$ of type $A$, we unfold the definitions until we reach a canonical proof. In functional programming terminology, such a proof is represented as a term starting with a constructor, and the method of computation is head reduction.

An important point is that computation rules can all be seen as unfolding definitions. For instance, if we have a type $N$ of natural numbers, an empty type $N_{0}$ we can define $\neg: U \rightarrow U$ by $\neg A=A \rightarrow N_{0}$. This definition of $\neg$ can be seen as a computation rule (unfolding of definitions).

The situation is similar if we define a function $f: \Pi x: N . C(x)$ by the equations

$$
f 0=a: C(0) \quad f(n+1)=g n(f n): C(n+1)
$$

These equations define a function $f$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash}{1: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Delta}{\sigma \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Gamma} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash A \sigma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t: A \quad \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash t \sigma: A \sigma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type } \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash F \sigma:(A \sigma) \text { Type }} \\
& \overline{() \vdash} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\mathrm{p}: \Gamma \cdot A \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash \mathrm{q}: A \mathrm{p}} \\
& \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A \quad \Delta \vdash u: A \sigma}{(\sigma, u): \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma . A} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \cdot A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda B:(A) \text { Type }} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{app}(F, a)} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \text { Fun } A F} \quad \frac{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash b: \operatorname{app}(F \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda b: \operatorname{Fun} A F} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash w: \operatorname{Fun} A F}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{app}(w, u): \operatorname{app}(F, u)} \\
& 1 \sigma=\sigma=\sigma 1 \quad(\sigma \delta) \nu=\sigma(\delta \nu) \quad 1=(\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q}) \\
& (\sigma, u) \delta=(\sigma \delta, u \delta) \quad \mathrm{p}(\sigma, u)=\sigma \quad \mathrm{q}(\sigma, u)=u \\
& (A \sigma) \delta=A(\sigma \delta) \quad A 1=A \quad(a \sigma) \delta=a(\sigma \delta) \quad a 1=a \\
& \operatorname{app}(w, u) \delta=\operatorname{app}(w \delta, u \delta) \quad \operatorname{app}(F, u) \delta=\operatorname{app}(F \delta, u \delta) \quad(\text { Fun } A F) \sigma=\operatorname{Fun}(A \sigma)(F \sigma) \\
& \operatorname{app}((\lambda b) \sigma, u)=b(\sigma, u) \quad \operatorname{app}((\lambda B) \sigma, u)=B(\sigma, u)
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 2: Rules of WMLTT

A related point is that the typing/provability relation $t: A$ is decidable [15]. To decide this relation reduces to the problem of comparing two given terms of the same type. This can be done by unfolding definitions, which can be interpreted as "computing" the meaning of the two terms, and comparing the result. For instance, if we define

$$
F 0=A, \quad F(n+1)=\neg(F n)
$$

then $F 2=\left(A \rightarrow N_{0}\right) \rightarrow N_{0}: U$ since $F 2$ is by definition $\neg(F 1)$ which is by definition $(F 1) \rightarrow N_{0}$ and $F 1$ is by definition $\neg(F 0)$ which is $F 0 \rightarrow N_{0}$ and $F 0$ is $A$. This means that if $t$ is of type $F 2$ and $u$ is of type $\neg A$ then $\operatorname{app}(t, u)$ is well-typed.

This notion of definitional equality is analyzed in [14]. An early use of this notion can be found in the paper [16]. It appeared also before in the work on Automath [6] and in Tait's analysis of Gödel's dialectica interpretation [23].

Figure 3.2 presents the rules of a version of type theory using explicit substitution. One can argue that the conversion rule $(\lambda t) \sigma=\lambda t(\sigma \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})$, which expresses the law of substitution under abstraction, is not compatible with this idea of unfolding definition [15, 14]. On the other hand, the rules in Figure 3.2 can be seen as a formal description of basic rules of definitional equality.

## The rules of weak type theory

The type theory we interpret is a variation of the one presented in the references [15, 14, 26]. Besides the usual judgment $\Gamma \vdash, \Gamma \vdash A$ and $\Gamma \vdash a: A$, we also have the judgment $\Gamma \vdash F:(A)$ Type for families of types over a given type.

The rules for equality that we validate in our formalized model are

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\Gamma \vdash A & \Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash u: A \\
\Gamma \vdash \mathrm{Eq}_{A} a u
\end{array} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash \mathrm{ref} a: \mathrm{Eq}_{A} a a}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \mathrm{Eq}_{A} \text { a } u \quad \Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash p: \operatorname{app}(F, a)}{\Gamma \vdash \mathrm{J} e p: \operatorname{app}(F, u)}
$$

These rules express the rules of identity type (where the computation rule is expressed as propositional equality). We have also the extensionality rule (formulated in a name-free way)

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash p: \text { Fun } A\left(\lambda \mathrm{Eq}_{\mathrm{app}(F \mathrm{p}, \mathbf{q})} \operatorname{app}(f \mathrm{p}, \mathbf{q}) \operatorname{app}(g \mathrm{p}, \mathbf{q})\right)}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{ext} p: \mathrm{Eq}_{\mathrm{Fun}} A F}
$$

The substitution rules are then

$$
(\mathrm{Eq} A a u) \sigma=\mathrm{Eq} A \sigma a \sigma u \sigma \quad(\operatorname{ext} u) \sigma=\operatorname{ext} u \sigma \quad(\mathrm{~J} e) \sigma=\mathrm{J} e \sigma
$$

We can add rules for sigma types. The typing rules are

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{Sum} A F} & \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash(a, b): \operatorname{Sum} A F} \frac{\Gamma \vdash c: \operatorname{Sum} A F}{\Gamma \vdash \mathrm{p} c: A} & \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash c: \operatorname{Sum} A F}{\Gamma \vdash \mathrm{q} c: \operatorname{app}(F, \mathrm{p} c)}
\end{array}
$$

and the computation rules

$$
\mathrm{p}(a, b)=a \quad \mathrm{q}(a, b)=b \quad(\text { Sum } A F) \sigma=\operatorname{Sum} A \sigma F \sigma
$$

This version of type theory is called weak type theory, by analogy with the notion of weak conversion in lambda-calculus [14], since we do not include the conversion rule

$$
(\lambda t) \sigma=\lambda t(\sigma \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})
$$

The first published version of type theory [15] did not have this rule. Not having this rule actually simplifies type checking since the conversion

$$
(\lambda B) \sigma=(\lambda C) \delta
$$

is only possible if $B=C$ and $\sigma=\delta$, while with the rule of substitution under abstraction, this may happen because $B(\sigma \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})=C(\delta \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})$. Not having this rule furthermore does not appear to be a problem for representing proofs. Assume for instance that we have

$$
c: \text { Fun } A(\lambda B) \sigma
$$

then the $\eta$-expansion of this term $\lambda \operatorname{app}(c \mathrm{p}, \mathbf{q})$ is of type Fun $A(\lambda C) \delta$.

## 4 A first version of the model

In this section, we present a model where a type is interpreted by a Kan semisimplicial set of level $\leqslant 1$. The collection of all such types is interpreted by a Kan semisimplicial set of level $\leqslant 2$. Similarly contexts are interpreted by Kan semisimplicial sets of level $\leqslant 2$. This model has been formally verified in the system Coq 8.4.

In the usual (set-based) presentation of semisimplicial sets, there is a single set for each level (points, edges, etc.), and there are face maps that, for instance, return the three edges forming the boundary of a given triangle.

It is not clear whether this presentation can be adapted in a type-theoretical setting, since it would make heavy use of propositional equality and coherence conditions between provably but not definitionally equal types. Rather, dependent types can be used to definitionally express the relation between a semisimplicial set and its faces. In this settings, points are the objects of a type. Let us call this type $X_{0}$. Edges are represented by a type $X_{1}$ parameterized by two points: given $a, b: X_{0}$, the type $X_{1} a b$ is the type of edges between $a$ and $b$. At level 3 , we need to give three points $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}: X_{0}$ and three edges $a_{01}: X_{1} a_{0} a_{1}, a_{02}: X_{1} a_{0} a_{2}$ and $a_{12}: X_{1} a_{1} a_{2}$ to form the type of triangles $X_{2} a_{0} a_{1} a_{2} a_{01} a_{02} a_{12}$. We generally omit to mention the points since they can be recovered from the edges types, and simply write $X_{2} a_{01} a_{02} a_{12}$.

### 4.1 Kan completion

First we define Kan completion operations at each level. At level $n$, given $n$ faces of level $n-1$ forming a "horn", they produce the face of level $n-1$ omitted in the horn.

Definition 4.1 At level 1, given two types $A$ and $B$, we write $A \leftrightarrow B$ for the type of pair of functions (comp $\left.{ }_{0}^{1}, c o m p_{1}^{1}\right)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{comp}_{0}^{1}: A \rightarrow B \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{comp}_{1}^{1}: B \rightarrow A .
$$

At level 2, given three types $A_{0}, A_{1}, A_{2}$, and three heterogeneous relations $R_{01}, R_{02}$ and $R_{12},{ }^{1}$ we write $R_{01} \leftrightarrow R_{02} \leftrightarrow R_{12}$ for the type of the following three operations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{comp}_{0}^{2}: R_{01} a_{0} a_{1} \rightarrow R_{02} a_{0} a_{2} \rightarrow R_{12} a_{1} a_{2} \\
& \operatorname{comp}_{1}^{2}: R_{01} a_{0} a_{1} \rightarrow R_{12} a_{1} a_{2} \rightarrow R_{02} a_{0} a_{2} \\
& \operatorname{comp}_{2}^{2}: R_{02} a_{0} a_{2} \rightarrow R_{12} a_{1} a_{2} \rightarrow R_{01} a_{0} a_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $a_{0}: A_{0}, a_{1}: A_{1}$ and $a_{2}: A_{2}$.
At level 3, given four types $A_{i}(0 \leqslant i<4)$, six relations $R_{i j}(0 \leqslant i<j<4)$ and four types of triangles $T_{i j k}(0 \leqslant i<j<k<4)$, we write $T_{012} \leftrightarrow T_{013} \leftrightarrow T_{023} \leftrightarrow T_{123}$ for the type of the following four operations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{comp}_{0}^{3}: T_{012} a_{01} a_{02} a_{12} \rightarrow T_{013} a_{01} a_{03} a_{13} \rightarrow T_{023} a_{02} a_{03} a_{23} \rightarrow T_{123} a_{12} a_{13} a_{13} \\
& \operatorname{comp}_{1}^{3}: T_{012} a_{01} a_{02} a_{12} \rightarrow T_{013} a_{01} a_{03} a_{13} \rightarrow T_{123} a_{12} a_{13} a_{13} \rightarrow T_{023} a_{02} a_{03} a_{23} \\
& \operatorname{comp}_{2}^{3}: T_{012} a_{01} a_{02} a_{12} \rightarrow T_{023} a_{02} a_{03} a_{23} \rightarrow T_{123} a_{12} a_{13} a_{13} \rightarrow T_{013} a_{01} a_{03} a_{13} \\
& \operatorname{comp}_{3}^{3}: T_{013} a_{01} a_{03} a_{13} \rightarrow T_{023} a_{02} a_{03} a_{23} \rightarrow T_{123} a_{12} a_{13} a_{13} \rightarrow T_{012} a_{01} a_{02} a_{12}
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $a_{i}: A_{i}$ and $a_{i j}: R_{i j} a_{i} a_{j}$.
Next, we define Kan filler that, given the same input as the Kan completion above, returns a simplex which boundary is the completed horn described in the previous paragraph.

Definition 4.2 At level 1 , given two types $A$ and $B$, the coherence between a relations $R$ on $A$ and $B$, and completion operations $\left(\operatorname{comp} p_{0}^{1}, \operatorname{comp} p_{1}^{1}\right): A \leftrightarrow B$, written $\operatorname{Coh}\left(R, c o m p^{1}\right)$ is defined by the following operations:

$$
\operatorname{Comp}_{0}^{1}: \forall x: A . R x\left(\operatorname{comp}_{0}^{1} x\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{Comp}_{1}^{1}: \forall y: B . R\left(c o m p_{1}^{1} y\right) y .
$$

At level 2, given three types, and three types of edges $R_{01}, R_{02}$ and $R_{12}$ between these types, the coherence between a type of triangles $T$ and $c o m p^{2}$ a completion operation at level $2\left(R_{01} \leftrightarrow R_{02} \leftrightarrow R_{12}\right)$, written $\operatorname{Coh}\left(T, c o m p^{2}\right)$ is defined as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Comp}_{0}^{2}: \forall a_{01}: R_{01} a_{0} a_{1} . \forall a_{02}: R_{02} a_{0} a_{2} . T a_{01} a_{02}\left(\operatorname{comp}_{0}^{2} a_{01} a_{02}\right) \\
& \operatorname{Comp}_{1}^{2}: \forall a_{01}: R_{01} a_{0} a_{1} \cdot \forall a_{12}: R_{12} a_{1} a_{2} \cdot T a_{01}\left(\operatorname{comp}_{1}^{2} a_{01} a_{12}\right) a_{12} \\
& \operatorname{Comp}_{2}^{2}: \forall a_{02}: R_{02} a_{0} a_{2} \cdot \forall a_{12}: R_{12} a_{1} a_{2} \cdot T\left(\operatorname{comp}_{2}^{2} a_{02} a_{12}\right) a_{02} a_{12}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the conjunction of these two operations at a given level can be reformulated. comp ${ }^{1}$ and $C o m p^{1}$ is equivalent to the statement: for any point of $A$, there exists a point in $B$ that is related by a relation $R$ to the former point, and conversely for any point of $B$, there exists a point in $A$ related by $R$ to the former. This is the usual specification of transport between types $A$ and $B$. At level 2 , it says that for every pair of connected edges, there exists a third edge forming a triangle. And so on at higher levels.

However, our formulation makes it clear that we have actual operations that builds the witnesses of the existential statements. The reason for splitting this condition will appear in the definitions of truncated Kan semisimplicial sets below.

[^0]
### 4.2 Small types

Definition 4.3 (Small types) A small type $A$ is a Kan semisimplicial set of level $\leqslant 1$. It consists of the following types and operations:

- a small (Coq) type of points written simply $A$ when not ambiguous,
- a small (Coq) type of edges $\eta A a_{0} a_{1}$ for any $a_{0}, a_{1}: A$,
- Kan edge completion comp ${ }^{1}: A \leftrightarrow A$,
- Kan edge filling operation at level $1 \operatorname{Comp}^{1}: \operatorname{Coh}\left(\eta A, c o m p^{1}\right)$.
- Kan triangle completion comp ${ }^{2}: \eta A \leftrightarrow \eta A \leftrightarrow \eta A$.

Note that this truncated version does not require the Kan filling operation at level 2.
Such a structure can be seen as another presentation of the notion of "proof-relevant" equivalence relation on a type. This can also be seen as a type-theoretic representation of Bishop's notion of set [5, 18]. Let us make more precise how this definition is equivalent to setoids. First, setoids can be derived from a Kan semisimplicial set of level $\leqslant 1$ :

- $\eta A$ is a proof-relevant relation, but none of the requirements discriminate between witnesses of $\eta A x y$; it can be thought of as the equality on the set $A$, in the sense of Bishop;
- $c^{2} m p^{2}$ implies symmetry and transitivity of $\eta A$, and
- further assuming $c o m p^{1}$ and $C o m p^{1}$, we can derive reflexivity of $\eta A$.

Conversely, setoids allow to derive the completion operations above.
However, even though the two notions are mutually derivable, we believe that the Kan semisimplicial approach provides more uniform notations and generalizes better to higher dimensions.

From now on, to alleviate the overloading of the term type, setoid will refer to the structure given in Def. 4.3.

Setoid morphisms are functions from one setoid to another preserving edges. Let us give a more formal definition.

Definition 4.4 (Type morphisms) Let $A$ and $B$ be two setoids. A morphism from $A$ to $B$ is a pair of functions $(f, \eta f)$ such that

- $f a: B$ for all $a: A$ and
- $\eta f a_{01}: \eta B\left(f a_{0}\right)\left(f a_{1}\right)$ for all $a_{0}, a_{1}: A$ and $a_{01}: \eta A a_{0} a_{1}$.

We proceed to define the notion of equality on setoids. Again, as in Bishop's interpretation, it can be described as the graph of isomorphisms between the (Bishop) sets $A$ and $B$.

Definition 4.5 (Isomorphisms) Let $A$ and $B$ be two setoids. An isomorphism between $A$ and $B$ is a structure $I$ formed of a relation (written $I$ ) such that we have:

- a Kan completion of level $1, c o m p^{1}: A \leftrightarrow B$ and $\operatorname{Comp}{ }^{1}: \operatorname{Coh}\left(I, c o m p^{1}\right)$, and
- two degenerate triangles

$$
\eta_{0} I: \eta A \leftrightarrow I \leftrightarrow I \quad \text { and } \quad \eta_{1} I: I \leftrightarrow \eta B \leftrightarrow I .
$$

The two triangles ensure that the relation respects the equality on both ends of the relation.

### 4.3 Contexts

Definition 4.6 (Contexts) A context $\Gamma$ is a Kan semisimplicial set of level $\leqslant 2$. It consists of all the fields of small types (with the difference that types are not required to be small), and

- a (Coq) type of triangles $\eta_{1} \eta \Gamma a_{01} a_{02} a_{12}$, for all $a_{i}: \Gamma$ and $a_{i j}: \eta \Gamma a_{i} a_{j}$,
- Kan triangle filling operations $\operatorname{Comp}^{2}: \operatorname{Coh}^{2}\left(\eta_{1} \eta \Gamma, c o m p^{2}\right)$, and
- Kan tetrahedron completion $c o m p^{3}: \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \leftrightarrow \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \leftrightarrow \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \leftrightarrow \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma$.

Note that this truncated version does not require the Kan tetrahedron filling operation.
Context morphisms are functions from one context to another preserving edges and triangles.
Definition 4.7 (Context morphism) Let $\Delta$ and $\Gamma$ be two contexts. A morphism from $\Delta$ to $\Gamma$ is a triple $\left(f, \eta f, \eta_{1} \eta f\right)$ such that:

- $f \rho: \Gamma$ for all $\rho: \Delta$ and
- $\eta f \rho_{01}: \eta \Gamma\left(f \rho_{0}\right)\left(f \rho_{1}\right)$ for all $\rho_{0}, \rho_{1}: A, \rho_{01}: \eta \Delta \rho_{0} \rho_{1}$.
- $\eta_{1} \eta f \theta_{012}: \eta_{1} \eta \Delta\left(\eta f \rho_{01}\right)\left(\eta f \rho_{02}\right)\left(\eta f \rho_{12}\right)$ for all $\theta_{012}: \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \rho_{01} \rho_{02} \rho_{12}$.

Lemma 4.8 Any setoid can be turned into a context by introducing exactly one triangle for each triple of connected edges.

### 4.4 Interpretation of the universe

Theorem 4.9 There exists a context $U$ such that:

- The points of $U$ are setoids,
- $\eta U A B$ is the set of isomorphisms between $A$ and $B$,
- $\eta_{1} \eta U I_{01} I_{02} I_{12}$ is $I_{01} \leftrightarrow I_{02} \leftrightarrow I_{12}$.

Proof. We have to show that the semisimplicial set in the statement of the theorem satisfies the Kan extension property. At level 1, we use the fact that a setoid is isomorphic to itself. Level 2 completions involve the composition of isomorphisms. Given three setoids $A_{0}, A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$, and two isomorphisms $I_{01}, I_{02}$, it suffices to compose them and obtain an isomorphism between $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$. The third level is tedious but straightforward. Given four types, six morphisms and three triangles, we can form the fourth triangle of the tetrahedron.

### 4.5 Interpretation of the judgments

The judgment $\Gamma \vdash$ of Section 3 is represented in Coq as an expression $\Gamma$ of the type of structures of Definition 4.6. The other judgments are described below.

### 4.5.1 Types

Types of a context $\Gamma$ (written $T y(\Gamma)$ ) are mappings from $\Gamma$ to Kan semisimplicial types of level $\leqslant 1$ (setoids), with additional requirements ensuring that equal contexts yield isomorphic setoids, and similarly for triangles. In other words, an element of $T y(\Gamma)$ is simply a context morphism between $\Gamma$ and $U$.

Then, a judgment of the form $\Gamma \vdash A$ is represented in Coq as an expression $A$ of type $T y(\Gamma)$.

### 4.5.2 Elements

Given a context $\Gamma$ and a type $A: T y(\Gamma)$, an element $t$ of $A$ is a function that returns an element of $A \rho$ for each element $\rho$ of the context. This function is also required to map equal contexts to equal elements.

Definition 4.10 Given a context $\Gamma$ and $A: T y(\Gamma)$, an element of $A$ is a function $t$ such that:

- $t \rho: A \rho$ for any $\rho: \Gamma$,
- $\eta t \rho_{01}: A \rho_{01}\left(t \rho_{0}\right)\left(t \rho_{1}\right)$ for any $\rho_{i}: \Gamma$ and $\rho_{01}: \eta \Gamma \rho_{0} \rho_{1}$.

We define $\operatorname{Elt}(\Gamma, A)$ to be the type of elements of $A$.
Formally, a judgment of the form $\Gamma \vdash t: A$ is represented by an expression $t$ of type $E l t(\Gamma, A)$.

### 4.5.3 Substitutions

Substitutions are represented by context morphisms. A judgment $\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma$ is encoded in Coq as a term $\sigma$ which is a morphism from context $\Delta$ to context $\Gamma$.

The construction of the identity morphism and the composition of morphisms justify the rules

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash}{1: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Delta}{\sigma \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Gamma} .
$$

It is also straightforward to derive the rules

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash A \sigma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t: A \quad \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash t \sigma: A \sigma}
$$

as a form of composition of $A$ (resp. $t$ ) with $\sigma$.
Definition 4.11 (Context extension $\Gamma . A$ ) Given $\Gamma$ a context and $A$ a type of $\Gamma$, we can build a context $\Gamma$. $A$, defined by:

- the type of points of $\Gamma . A$ is $\Sigma \rho: \Gamma . A \rho$;
- the edges between two points $\left(\rho_{0}, a_{0}\right)$ and $\left(\rho_{1}, a_{1}\right)$ is a dependent pair of edges, of type $\Sigma \omega$ : $\eta \Gamma \rho_{0} \rho_{1} . A \omega a_{0} a_{1}$;
- a triangle between three edges $\left(\omega_{01}, a_{01}\right),\left(\omega_{02}, a_{02}\right)$ and $\left(\omega_{12}, a_{12}\right)$ is simply a triangle between $\omega_{01}, \omega_{02}$ and $\omega_{12}$. This follows the idea that small types are injected in contexts by equipping them with trivial triangles.
- The Kan operations are defined straightforwardly.

This definition interprets the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \quad \Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash}
$$

The definition of $\Gamma . A$ suggests that an element of this context can be projected to obtain either an element of $\Gamma$ or an element of $A$, and conversely, an element of $\Gamma . A$ can be formed from a context of $\Gamma$ and an element of $A$. Hence the definition of $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q}$ and $(-,)_{-}$is justifying the rules

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\mathrm{p}: \Gamma \cdot A \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash \mathrm{q}: A \mathrm{p}} \quad \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash u: A \sigma}{(\sigma, u): \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \cdot A}
$$

### 4.5.4 Definitional equality

The definitional equality of WMLTT is represented by the definitional equality of Coq. Note however that equalities justified by our model are typed. Although the rules given in Section 3 are presented in an untyped style, they should actually be presented as a judgment. More precisely, the equality judgment $t=u$ omits the context and type of this judgment in the informal notation, but they do appear in the formal presentation, and some typing premises are required, as we shall see below.

The definitional equality of Coq can be represented within Coq using the following meta-theoretical result: if $t=u$ (where $=$ denotes here the usual Leibniz equality of Coq) is provable by reflexivity, then $t$ and $u$ are definitionally equal.

The rule $\mathfrak{p}(\sigma, u)=\sigma$ is represented in Coq by the fact that the lemma $\mathbf{p}(\sigma, u)=\sigma$ (equation between morphisms from $\Delta \rightarrow \Gamma$ ) for all $\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma$ and $u: E l t(\Gamma, A \sigma)$ is proved by reflexivity. In the same way, the following equations are proved

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{1 \sigma=\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \sigma 1=\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma} & \frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Delta \quad \nu: \Psi \rightarrow \Theta}{(\sigma \delta) \nu=\sigma(\delta \nu): \Psi \rightarrow \Gamma} \\
\frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{} \frac{\Gamma \vdash u: A \sigma}{\mathrm{p}(\sigma, u)=\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma} \quad \Delta \vdash \mathrm{q}(\sigma, u)=u: A \sigma \\
\frac{\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma \quad \Delta \vdash u: A \sigma}{} \quad \delta: \Theta \rightarrow \Delta \\
(\sigma, u) \delta=(\sigma \delta, u \delta): \Theta \rightarrow \Gamma \cdot A
\end{array}
$$

The latter rule needs $(A \sigma) \delta=A(\sigma \delta)$ to type-check because $u \delta$ has $(A \sigma) \delta$ while it is expected to have type $A(\sigma \delta)$.

We have now fully defined a type theory with explicit substitutions. Next, we introduce the usual type constructors of MLTT: product and sum types.

### 4.5.5 Type families

This section is dedicated to what corresponds to the notion of family of sets used in constructive mathematics $[5,18,19]$, where objects $A: U$ correspond to Bishop sets. A family of setoids indexed by a type $A$ is written $(A)$ Type.

However, since we need to model expressions with free variables, we also need to define families in a context $\Gamma$. In our model, this needs further definitions, as we need to explain when two families are isomorphic, and also when three family isomorphisms form a triangle.

As suggested above, a setoid family indexed by $A$ is simply a context morphism from $A$ (a setoid viewed as a context) to $U$.

Definition 4.12 (Setoid family isomorphism) Given an isomorphism $I: \eta U A_{0} A_{1}$ and two setoid families $F_{0}$ and $F_{1}$ with $F_{i}$ indexed by $A_{i}$, an isomorphism $J$ between $F_{0}$ and $F_{1}$ consists of a triple $\left(J, \eta_{0} J, \eta_{1} J\right)$ specified by:

- $J a_{01}$ is an isomorphism from $F_{0} a_{0}$ to $F_{1} a_{1}$ for all $a_{i}: A_{i}$ and $a_{01}: I a_{0} a_{1} ;$
- $\eta_{0} J\left(a_{00^{\prime}}, a_{01}, a_{0^{\prime} 1}\right): \eta F_{0} a_{00^{\prime}} \leftrightarrow J a_{01} \leftrightarrow J a_{0^{\prime} 1}$ for all $a_{i}: A_{i}, a_{0^{\prime}}: A_{0}, a_{00^{\prime}}: \eta A_{0} a_{0} a_{0^{\prime}}$ and $a_{i j}: I a_{i} a_{j} ;$
- $\eta_{1} J\left(a_{01}, a_{01^{\prime}}, a_{11^{\prime}}\right): J a_{01} \leftrightarrow J a_{01^{\prime}} \leftrightarrow \eta F_{1} a_{11^{\prime}}$ for all $a_{i}: A_{i}, a_{1^{\prime}}: A_{1}, a_{11^{\prime}}: \eta A_{1} a_{1} a_{1^{\prime}}$ and $a_{i j}: I a_{i} a_{j}$.

Quite naturally, three setoid family isomorphisms form a triangle if any triangle in the index types can be mapped to a triangle in $U$ between the resulting setoid isomorphisms.

Definition 4.13 (Type family triangle) Given three setoids, three isomorphisms $A_{01}, A_{02}$ and $A_{12}$ between them, three families $F_{0}, F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ (with $F_{i}$ indexed by $A_{i}$ ), a triple of type family isomorphisms $F_{01}, F_{02}$ and $F_{12}$ forms a triangle when we have $F_{01} a_{01} \leftrightarrow F_{02} a_{02} \leftrightarrow F_{12} a_{12}$ for all $a_{i}: A_{i}$ and $a_{i j}$ : $A_{i j} a_{i} a_{j}$.

This condition is indeed equivalent to the fact that two isomorphisms $\eta F a_{01}$ and $\eta F a_{01}^{\prime}$ are extensionally equal for any two proofs $a_{01}, a_{01}^{\prime}$ of $\eta A a_{0} a_{1}$.

Informally, a type family (in a context) should simply be a morphism from the context to the structure for which we have define the points, edges and triangles. However, since the index type may depend on its context, we cannot reuse as is the notion of context morphism. Instead we make a similar definition:

Definition 4.14 (Type families) Given a context $\Gamma$, and $A: T y(\Gamma)$, a type family over $A$ is a tuple of functions ( $F, \eta F, \eta_{1} \eta F$ ) such that:

- $F \rho$ is a context morphism from $A \rho$ to $U$ for any $\rho: \Gamma$,
- $\eta F \rho_{01}$ is a setoid family isomorphism from $F \rho_{0}$ to $F \rho_{1}$ for all $\rho_{i}: \Gamma$ and $\rho_{01}: \eta \Gamma \rho_{0} \rho_{1}$; the isomorphism between index setoids $A \rho_{0}$ and $A \rho_{1}$ is, without surprise, $\eta A \rho_{01}$;
- $\eta_{1} \eta F \rho_{012}$ is a setoid family triangle between $\eta F \rho_{01}, \eta F \rho_{02} a_{02}$ and $\eta F \rho_{12} a_{12}$ for all $\rho_{i}: \Gamma, \rho_{i j}$ : $\eta \Gamma \rho_{i} \rho_{j}$ and $\rho_{012}: \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \rho_{01} \rho_{02} \rho_{12}$.
We define $\operatorname{Fam}(\Gamma, A)$ as the type of families over $A$.
The reader should be careful about the ambiguity there may be between the field $\eta_{1}$ of $\eta F$ and $\eta_{1} \eta F$. This will be addressed by writing simply $\eta_{1} F$ for the former (and for consistency of notations, we will also write $\eta_{0} F$ ).

In the current setting, a judgment of the form $\Gamma \vdash F:(A)$ Type is interpreted by an expression $F$ of type $\operatorname{Fam}(\Gamma, A)$.

Ideally, following the informal explanation above, type families should be defined independently of the ambient context $\Gamma$ : a context F of all setoid families $(A)$ Type would be defined, and then $\operatorname{Fam}(\Gamma, A)$ would be the set of context morphisms $f$ from $\Gamma$ to F such that the index type of $f \rho$ is $A \rho$. This lends itself better to a generalization, as explained in Section 7. Dealing with the dependency of the index on the context is the key difficulty.

Definition 4.15 (Type application) Given a family of types $F$ indexed by $A$ in context $\Gamma$ and $a$ an element of $A$, we can define $\operatorname{app}(F, a)$, a type which corresponds to the element of the family at $a$, by:

$$
\operatorname{app}(F, a) \rho=F \rho a \rho \quad \eta \operatorname{app}(F, a) \rho_{01}=\eta F \rho_{01} \eta a \rho_{01} \quad \eta_{1} \eta \operatorname{app}(F, a) \rho_{012}=\eta_{1} \eta F \rho 012\left(\eta a \rho_{01}, \eta a \rho_{02}, \eta a \rho_{12}\right)
$$

with the usual typing convention.
This definition interprets the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type } \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{app}(F, a)}
$$

Substitution of type families is defined in the same style as before, and we can prove that substitution commutes with application:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type } \quad \sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma}{\Delta \vdash F \sigma:(A \sigma) \text { Type }} \quad \text { app }(F, a) \sigma=\operatorname{app}(F \sigma, a \sigma)
$$

Again, this equation is a simplification of the formal result, which requires well-typedness conditions.
The introduction rule for type families is more tedious and less canonical as it depends on auxiliary definitions that may be implemented in different ways.

Definition 4.16 (Type-level $\lambda$-abstraction) Given a type $A$ in context $\Gamma$ and a type $B$ in $\Gamma . A$, then we can define $\lambda B$, a family indexed by $A$ in $\Gamma$ by:

- $\lambda B \rho a=B(\rho, a)$
- $\eta(\lambda B \rho) a_{01}=\eta B\left(\phi(\rho), \psi\left(\rho, a_{01}\right)\right)$
- $\eta_{1} \eta(\lambda B \rho) a_{012}=\eta_{1} \eta B\left(\phi^{\prime}(\rho),\left(\psi\left(\rho, a_{01}\right), \psi\left(\rho, a_{02}\right), \psi\left(\rho, a_{12}\right)\right)\right)$
- $\eta(\lambda B) \rho_{01} a_{01}=\eta B\left(\rho_{01}, a_{01}\right)$
- $\eta_{0}(\lambda B) \rho_{01}\left(a_{00^{\prime}}, a_{01}, a_{0^{\prime} 1}\right)=\eta_{1} \eta B\left(\phi_{0}\left(\rho_{01}\right),\left(\psi\left(\rho_{0}, a_{00^{\prime}}\right), a_{01}, a_{0^{\prime} 1}\right)\right)$
- $\eta_{1}(\lambda B) \rho_{01}\left(a_{01}, a_{01^{\prime}}, a_{11^{\prime}}\right)=\eta_{1} \eta B\left(\phi_{1}\left(\rho_{01}\right),\left(a_{01}, a_{01^{\prime}}, \psi\left(\rho_{1}, a_{11^{\prime}}\right)\right)\right)$
- $\eta_{1} \eta(\lambda B) \rho_{012}\left(a_{01}, a_{02}, a_{12}\right)=\eta_{1} \eta B\left(\rho_{123},\left(a_{01}, a_{02}, a_{12}\right)\right)$
with the following auxiliary definitions
- $\phi(\rho): \eta \Gamma \rho \rho$ (reflexivity)
- $\phi_{0}\left(\rho_{01}\right): \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \phi\left(\rho_{0}\right) \rho_{01} \rho_{01}$ (degenerate triangle where one edge is the reflexivity)
- $\phi_{1}\left(\rho_{01}\right): \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \rho_{01} \rho_{01} \phi\left(\rho_{1}\right)$ (idem)
- $\phi^{\prime}(\rho): \eta_{1} \eta \Gamma \phi(\rho) \phi(\rho) \phi(\rho)$ (degenerate triangle where all three edges are reflexivity)
- $\psi\left(\rho, a_{i j}\right): \eta A \phi(\rho) a_{i} a_{j}$ (remember that $\left.a_{i j}: \eta(A \rho) a_{i} a_{j}\right)$

The auxiliary definitions are easily derivable from the Kan completion operations of $\Gamma$ up to level 3 (tetrahedron completion), and those of $A$.

Substitution does not commute with $\lambda$-abstraction for reasons similar to what is explained in Section 1. Nevertheless, the type level $\beta$-reduction property can be derived:

$$
\operatorname{app}((\lambda B) \sigma, a)=B(\sigma, a)
$$

### 4.6 Interpretation of the product

The goal of this section is to define the interpretation of Fun $A F$, given a context $\Gamma$, a type $A: T y(\Gamma)$ and a type family $F: \operatorname{Fam}(\Gamma, A)$. We first deal with the case when there is no ambient context $\Gamma$ and define a setoid Fun $A F: U$ given a setoid $A: U$ and a family of setoids $F$ indexed by $A$. Once we establish that this morphism preserves isomorphisms and triangles, we can extend the definition of Fun $A F$ in a context $\Gamma$.

Consider $A: U$ and $F$ a context morphism from $A$ (seen as a context) to $U$. The type of dependent functions from $A$ to $F$ does not always form a setoid: reflexivity fails for functions that do not map equal objects of $A$ to equal images in $F$. The obvious fix is to consider only functions that respect equality.

Lemma 4.17 (Product of setoids) Given $A$ a setoid and $F$ a setoid family indexed by $A$, there exists a setoid Fun $A F: U$ such that:

- Fun $A F=\Sigma(f: \Pi a: A . F a) . \Pi a_{0}, a_{1}: A . \Pi a_{01}: \eta A a_{0} a_{1} \cdot \eta F a_{01}\left(f a_{0}\right)\left(f a_{1}\right)$,
- $\eta($ Fun $A F)\left(f_{0}, f_{0}^{\prime}\right)\left(f_{1}, f_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ holds when $\eta F a_{01}\left(f_{0} a_{0}\right)\left(f_{1} a_{1}\right)$ for all $a_{0}, a_{1}: A$ and $a_{01}: \eta A a_{0} a_{1}$.

Proof. Completing the setoid definition is straightforward. The most noticeable fact is that level 1 composition derives from the second component of the elements of Fun $A F$.

Lemma 4.18 (Isomorphic products) Given an isomorphism $A_{01}: \eta U A_{0} A_{1}$ and a setoid family isomorphism $F_{01}$ (with the usual indexing conventions), there exists an isomorphism $\eta$ Fun $A_{01} F_{01}$ between Fun $A_{0} F_{0}$ and Fun $A_{1} F_{1}$ such that $\eta$ Fun $A_{01} F_{01}\left(f_{0}, f_{0}^{\prime}\right)\left(f_{1}, f_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ produces an object of $F_{01} a_{01}\left(f_{0} a_{0}\right)\left(f_{1} a_{1}\right)$ for all $a_{i}: A_{i}$ and $a_{01}: A_{01} a_{0} a_{1}$.

Proof. We refer to the formal development.
Lemma 4.19 Given three isomorphisms $A_{01}, A_{02}, A_{12}$ and $A_{012}: A_{01} \leftrightarrow A_{02} \leftrightarrow A_{12}$ (a triangle of $U$ ), and a setoid family isomorphism triangle $F_{012}$ between $F_{01}, F_{02}$ and $F_{12}$, then there exists

$$
\eta_{1} \eta \text { Fun } A_{012} F_{012}: \text { Fun } A_{01} F_{01} \leftrightarrow \text { Fun } A_{02} F_{02} \leftrightarrow \text { Fun } A_{12} F_{12} .
$$

Proof. We refer to the formal development.

Definition 4.20 (Product) Given a context $\Gamma$, a type $A: T y(\Gamma)$ and a type family $F: F a m(\Gamma, A)$, we define the type Fun $A F: T y(\Gamma)$ by:

- (Fun $A F) \rho=$ Fun $(A \rho)(F \rho)$
- $\eta($ Fun $A F) \rho_{01}=\eta$ Fun $\left(\eta A \rho_{01}\right)\left(\eta F \rho_{01}\right)$
- $\eta_{1} \eta($ Fun $A F) \rho_{012}=\eta_{1} \eta$ Fun $\left(\eta_{1} \eta A \rho_{012}\right)\left(\eta_{1} \eta F \eta_{012}\right)$

This definition interprets the rules

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash F:(A) \text { Type }}{\Gamma \vdash \text { Fun } A F} \quad(\text { Fun } A F) \sigma=\text { Fun } A \sigma F \sigma \text {. }
$$

As in the case of type level application, the term level application is straightforward:

$$
\operatorname{app}(w, u) \rho=\pi_{1}(w \rho) u \rho \quad \eta \operatorname{app}(w, u) \rho_{01}=\eta w \rho_{01} \eta u \rho_{01}
$$

where $\pi_{1}$ is the first projection of $\Sigma$-types.
The term level $\lambda$-abstraction is more interesting: one obviously defines the first component of the $\Sigma$-type by

$$
\pi_{1}((\lambda b) \rho) a=b(\rho, a)
$$

but the definition of the second component requires the Kan completion operations of the domain and co-domain types. The level 2 part of $\lambda b$ is easy:

$$
\eta(\lambda b) \rho_{01} a_{01}=\eta b\left(\rho_{01}, a_{01}\right)
$$

These definitions interpret the following typing rules:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash w: \text { Fun } A F \quad \Gamma \vdash u: A}{\Gamma \vdash \operatorname{app}(w, u): \operatorname{app}(F, u)} \quad \frac{\Gamma \cdot A \vdash b: \operatorname{app}(F \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda b: \operatorname{Fun} A F}
$$

The overloading of type level notations at the term level is justified by the fact that the same definitional equalities apply, including the failure of the propagation of substitutions across $\lambda$-expressions.

### 4.7 Interpretation of the sum types

The definition of sum types follows the same scheme as for the product types. It is nonetheless more straightforward, since the dependent sum of a setoid with a family of setoids does form a setoid. An isomorphism between two sum types is defined as a pair of an isomorphism between the first components, and a type family isomorphism between the second components, and similarly for the triangles.

Given a setoid $A$ and a setoid family $F$ in $A$, the setoid Sum $A F: U$ is defined as:

- Sum $A F=\Sigma(a: A) \cdot F a$
- $\eta(\operatorname{Sum} A F)\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)=\Sigma\left(a_{01}: \eta A a_{0} a_{1}\right) . \eta F a_{01} b_{0} b_{1}$

The isomorphism $\eta$ Sum $A_{01} F_{01}$ between Sum $A_{0} F_{0}$ and Sum $A_{1} F_{1}$ is defined as:

$$
\eta \text { Sum } A_{01} F_{01}\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right)=\Sigma\left(a_{01}: A_{01} a_{0} a_{1}\right) \cdot F_{01} a_{01} b_{0} b_{1}
$$

All other requirements are fulfilled without surprise.
Last auxiliary definition is the triangle

$$
\eta_{1} \eta \text { Sum } A_{012} F_{012}: \text { Sum } A_{01} F_{01} \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Sum} A_{02} F_{02} \leftrightarrow \operatorname{Sum} A_{12} F_{12}
$$

given two triangles $A_{012}$ and $F_{012}$.
Definition 4.21 (Sum) Given a context $\Gamma$, a type $A: T y(\Gamma)$ and a type family $F: F a m(\Gamma, A)$, we define Sum $A F: T y(\Gamma)$ as:

- (Sum $A F) \rho=\operatorname{Sum}(A \rho)(F \rho)$
- $\eta(\operatorname{Sum} A F) \rho_{01}=\eta \operatorname{Sum}\left(\eta A \rho_{01}\right)\left(\eta F \rho_{01}\right)$
- $\eta_{1} \eta($ Sum $A F) \rho_{012}=\eta_{1} \eta$ Sum $\left(\eta_{1} \eta A \rho_{012}\right)\left(\eta_{1} \eta F \rho_{012}\right)$

The constructors and projections of sum types are defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
(a, b) \rho & =(a \rho, b \rho) & \mathrm{p} c \rho & =\pi_{1}(c \rho) \\
a, b) \rho_{01} & =\left(\eta a \rho_{01}, \eta b \rho_{01}\right) & \eta \mathbf{p} c \rho_{01} & =\pi_{1}(\eta c \rho)
\end{aligned} \quad \eta \mathbf{q} c \rho=\pi_{2}(c \rho)
$$

The following definitional equalities hold:

$$
(\operatorname{Sum} A F) \sigma=\operatorname{Sum} A \sigma F \sigma \quad(a, b) \sigma=(a \sigma, b \sigma) \quad(\mathrm{p} c) \sigma=\mathrm{p}(c \sigma) \quad(\mathrm{q} c) \sigma=\mathrm{q}(c \sigma)
$$

Our model validates both equalities $\mathrm{p}(a, b)=a$ and $\mathrm{q}(a, b)=b$. This is not the case for the model described in [9] (which on the other hand validates the rule of substitution under abstraction). Other attempts to explain function extensionality [2, 3] use extensions of Type Theory. Our model is close to Erik Palmgren's representation of Bishop sets in dependent type theory [19], but we have a different representation of function spaces which interprets more definitional equality.

## 5 Applications of the model

We have a direct representation of $(\times): U \times U \rightarrow U$ and $(\rightarrow): U \times U \rightarrow U$. For instance $A \rightarrow B$ is the type of extensional functions between $A$ and $B$. If $P: \eta U P_{0} P_{1}$ and $Q: \eta U Q_{0} Q_{1}$ then $P \rightarrow Q$ represents the relation $(P \rightarrow Q) f_{0} f_{1}$ which holds exactly when $P x_{0} x_{1}$ implies $Q\left(f_{0} x_{0}\right)\left(f_{1} x_{1}\right)$. This is then a graph of an isomorphism between the sets $P_{0} \rightarrow Q_{0}$ and $P_{1} \rightarrow Q_{1}$. We can define as well the operations $(\leftrightarrow): U \times U \rightarrow U$.

All the applications we present have been formally verified in the system Coq V8.4.

### 5.1 A small type of propositions

This subsection can be seen as a generalization of Russell's work on implication [21]. We assume that the type theory we are working with has at least two universes Type ${ }_{0}$, Type $_{1}$ (as introduced in [15]). We define $U$ to be Type ${ }_{1}$.

We define $\Omega=$ Type $_{0}$ and $\eta \Omega X_{0} X_{1}$ to be the type $X_{0} \leftrightarrow X_{1}$.
We define a semisimplicial map $T: \Omega \rightarrow U$ by taking

$$
T X=X, \eta T h x_{0} x_{1}=N_{1}
$$

where $N_{1}$ is the unit type. This interprets the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash a: \Omega}{\Gamma \vdash T a}
$$

If $X$ is Kan semisimplicial set we define $e q_{X}: X \times X \rightarrow \Omega$. We take $e q_{X} a u$ to be the type $\eta X a u$. If $P: \eta U X Y$ and we have $P a b$ and $P u v$ then $e q_{X} a u$ and $e q_{Y} b v$ are logically equivalent. We define then $E q_{X} a u$ to be the type $T\left(e q_{X} a u\right)$.

It is then possible to show that

$$
\prod_{a: X} \prod_{u: X} E q_{X} a u
$$

is provable in this model if, and only if, any two elements of $X$ are related by the equality relation $\eta X$. Furthermore, the type $\Omega$ satisfies the following weak form of univalence.

Proposition 5.1 In the model, the following type is inhabited

$$
\prod_{a: \Omega} \prod_{u: \Omega}(T a \leftrightarrow T u) \rightarrow E q_{\Omega} a u
$$

This model interprets also the operation of quotient. If $X$ is a type and we have a relation $R$ : $X \times X \rightarrow \Omega$ which is an equivalence relation in the model then it is possible to define a new type $X / R$ with an operation $a \longmapsto[a], X \rightarrow X / R$, such that $\mathrm{Eq}_{X / R}[a][u]$ is equal to $R a u$.

We interpret existential quantification in the following way. The rules are

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \text { Type }_{0} \quad \Gamma \vdash \varphi: A \rightarrow \Omega}{\Gamma \vdash \exists \varphi: \Omega}
$$

with introduction rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \text { Type }_{0} \quad \Gamma \vdash \varphi: A \rightarrow \Omega}{} \quad \Gamma \vdash a: A \quad \Gamma \vdash p: T(\operatorname{app}(\varphi, a)),
$$

and elimination rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash u: T(\exists \varphi) \quad \Gamma \vdash \psi: \Omega \quad \Gamma \cdot A \vdash v: T(\operatorname{app}(\varphi \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})) \rightarrow T \psi \mathrm{p}}{\Gamma \vdash E u v: T(\psi)}
$$

and computation rule $E(a, p) v=\operatorname{app}(v a, p)$.
Here is the interpretation of $\exists \varphi$. If $\rho: \Gamma[0]$ we define $(\exists \varphi) \rho$ to be the set of pairs $u, p$ with $u: A \rho$ and $p: \operatorname{app}(\varphi \rho, u)$. If $\alpha: \Gamma[1]$ with $d_{i} \alpha=\rho_{i}$ we have to show the logical equivalence of $(\exists \varphi) \rho_{0}$ and $(\exists \varphi) \rho_{1}$. This follows from the fact that $A \alpha$ is a relation between $A \rho_{0}$ and $A \rho_{1}$ satisfying the Kan condition and that $\varphi \alpha$ shows that $\operatorname{app}\left(\varphi \rho_{0}, u_{0}\right)$ and $\operatorname{app}\left(\varphi \rho_{1}, u_{1}\right)$ are logically equivalent if $u_{0}: A \rho_{0}$ and $u_{1}: A \rho_{1}$ are related by $A \alpha$.

### 5.2 Isomorphisms of setoids

Using a notation with variables for readability, our model interprets contexts of the form $X: U$ or $X: U, Y: U$ with variable ranging over small Kan semisimplicial types. For instance, we can interpret the judgment

$$
X: U \vdash(X \rightarrow X) \times X
$$

or

$$
X: U \vdash \Sigma(f, a):(X \rightarrow X) \times X \cdot E q_{X}(f a) a
$$

which intuitively represents the structure of having an endofunction with a fixpoint over a set $X$. If we have such a judgment $X: U \vdash T(X)$ we can use our model and compute for any given set $A$ a corresponding set $T(A)$. In this model $X: U \vdash T(X)$ is interpreted by a function $U \rightarrow U$. We can thus use this interpretation to transform any graph of an isomorphism $P: \eta U A B$ between two sets $A$ and $B$ to a graph of an isomorphism between $T(A)$ and $T(B)$. In particular, in a case like

$$
X: U \vdash(X \rightarrow X) \times X
$$

this allows us to transport any structure on $A$ to a structure on $B$, and in a case like

$$
X: U \vdash \Sigma(f, a):(X \rightarrow X) \times X \cdot E q_{X}(f a) a
$$

this shows that any proof of a property on a structure on $A$ (to be a fixpoint) can be transported to a proof of the corresponding property on the isomorphic structure $B$. We can cover in this way examples similar to the ones in [8] but also with computations on open terms.

We have another stronger form of univalence in this model, which transforms any isomorphism between two sets to a proof that these two sets are equal.

Proposition 5.2 If $f: A \rightarrow B$ is an isomorphism between the (Bishop) set $A$ and the (Bishop) set $B$, the relation $P(a, b)$ defined by $\eta B(f a) b$ is the graph of the isomorphism and we have that $P: U[1]$.

## 6 The semisimplicial set model

Before presenting the Kan semisimplicial set model, we describe the (simpler) semisimplicial set model of type theory. This model justifies not only the rules of Figure 3.2 but also the rule $(\lambda t) \sigma=\lambda t(\sigma \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})$.

We let $\Delta_{+}$be the category of objects of the form $[n]$ and the morphism are injective monotone maps. We have an inclusion $i: \Delta_{+} \rightarrow \Delta$. A semisimplicial set is a presheaf $\Delta_{+}^{o p}$ Set.

We define a semisimplicial set $W$. An element of $W[n]$ is a family of sets $A f$ indexed by $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective, with maps $A f \rightarrow A f g, u \longmapsto u g$ for $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ injective such that $u=u 1: A f$ and $u g h=(u g) h: A f g h$. If $A: W[n]$ and $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is injective we have $A g: W[m]$ by $(A g) h=A(g h)$. If $A: W[n]$ we may write the set $A 1$ simply as $A$.

If $A: W[n]$ we interpret $(A)$ Type to be the set of families $F f$ for $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective such that $\operatorname{app}(F f, u): W[m]$ if $u: A f$ and such that $\operatorname{app}(F f, u) g=\operatorname{app}(F(f g), u g): W[p]$ if $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ is injective. If $A: W[n]$ and $F:(A)$ Type we define Fun $A F$ to be the set of family $\varphi f$ for $f:[m] \rightarrow$ $[n]$ injective such that $\operatorname{app}(\varphi f, u): \operatorname{app}(F f, u)$ if $u: A f$ and $\operatorname{such}$ that $\operatorname{app}(\varphi f, u) g=\operatorname{app}(\varphi f g, u g):$ $\operatorname{app}(F(f g), u g)$ if $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ is injective.

A context $\Gamma$ is interpreted by a semisimplicial set, so we have a collection of sets $\Gamma[n]$ and functions $\Gamma[n] \rightarrow \Gamma[m], \rho \longmapsto \rho f$ for any $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective, with $\rho 1=\rho: \Gamma[n]$ and $\rho f g=\rho(f g): \Gamma[p]$ if $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ is injective. A substitution $\sigma: \Delta \rightarrow \Gamma$ is interpreted by a function $\sigma \rho: \Gamma[n]$ for $\rho: \Delta[n]$ in such a way that $(\sigma \rho) f=\sigma(\rho f): \Gamma[m]$ if $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is injective.

A judgment $\Gamma \vdash A$ will be interpreted by giving $A \rho: W[n]$ for any $\rho: \Gamma[n]$ in such a way that $A \rho f=$ $A(\rho f)$ if $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is injective. If $\Gamma \vdash A$ we define $(\Gamma . A)[n]$ to be the set of pairs $\rho, u$ with $\rho: \Gamma[n]$ and $u: A \rho$ and $(\rho, u) f=(\rho f, u f)$ if $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is injective. A judgment $\Gamma \vdash F:(A)$ Type is interpreted by giving $F \rho:(A \rho)$ Type for any $\rho: \Gamma[n]$ in such a way that $\operatorname{app}(F \rho f, u f)=\operatorname{app}(F \rho, u) f: W[m]$ for any $u: A \rho$ and any $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective.

A judgment $\Gamma \vdash t: A$ is interpreted by giving an element $t \rho: A \rho$ for each $\rho: \Gamma[n]$ in such a way that $t \rho f=t(\rho f): A \rho f$ if $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is injective.

All the rules of type theory are validated by this interpretation, even the rule

$$
(\lambda t) \sigma=\lambda t(\sigma \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})
$$

## 7 The Kan semisimplicial set model

### 7.1 General lemmas about semisimplicial sets

We let $I, J, K, \ldots$ denote nonempty finite linear orders. If $I$ is such a nonempty finite linear order, it is isomorphic exactly to one unique $[n]$ in an unique way. We define $W(I)$ to be $W[n]$. If $P$ is in $W(I)$ and $f: J \rightarrow I$ is an injection it corresponds to exactly one injection $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ and we define $P f$ to be $P g$ and the map $u \longmapsto u f, P \rightarrow P f$ to be the map $u \longmapsto u g$. If $f$ is an inclusion, we may write $P(J)$ instead of $P f$ and similarly $u(J)$ instead of $u f$. If $a$ is an element of $I$ and $f$ is the inclusion $I-a \rightarrow I$ we may write $\partial_{a} P$ instead of $P f$ and similarly $\partial_{a} u$ instead of $u f$ if $u: W(I)$. Note that we leave $I$ implicit as it can be inferred from the context $u: W(I)$. This deviates from the usual notation for face maps but simplifies the notation in what follows. Also, note that the semisimplicial identities become $\partial_{a} \partial_{b}=\partial_{b} \partial_{a}$ for $a \neq b$ elements of $I$.

For instance if $P: W[1]$ we have three sets $P=P 1$ and $P(0)$ and $P(1)$ and two maps $u \longmapsto u(0), P \rightarrow$ $P(0)$ and $u \longmapsto u(1), P \rightarrow P(1)$. We also have $P(0)=\partial_{1} P$ and $P(1)=\partial_{0} P$.

If $J \subseteq I$ and $a$ is an element of $J$, we can define $P\left(\Lambda^{a}(J)\right)$ as the set of compatible families $u_{b}: \partial_{b} P(J)$ for $b \neq a$, i.e. such that $\partial_{c} u_{b}=\partial_{b} u_{c}$ for $b, c$ distinct from $a$. We have a canonical map $P(J) \rightarrow P\left(\Lambda^{a}(J)\right)$. We say that $P$ is in $V(I)$ iff each canonical map $P(J) \rightarrow P\left(\Lambda^{a}(J)\right)$ has a section.

If $L$ is a nonempty subset of $I$ and $P: W(I)$ we define a $L$-compatible family of $P$ to be a family of elements $u_{b}: P(I-b)$ for each $b$ in $L$ such that $\partial_{c} u_{b}=\partial_{b} u_{c}$ for all $b$ and $c$ in $L$. We say that $P$ has compositions iff for any $a$ not in $L$ and $a, L, M \subseteq I$ we have an operation comp $u: P(L, M)$ which takes a $L$-compatible family $u_{b}: P(a, L-b, M)$ and produces an element $u_{a}=\operatorname{comp} u: P(L, M)$ satisfying $\partial_{b} u_{a}=\partial_{a} u_{b}$ for all $b$ in $L$. Furthermore all these operations should be compatible, in the sense that we
have $\partial_{c}(\operatorname{comp} u)=\operatorname{comp}\left(\partial_{c} \circ u\right)$ for all $c$ in $M$, where we write $\partial_{c} \circ u$ for the family $\partial_{c} u_{b}: P(a, L-b, M-c)$ with $b$ in $L$.

A stronger notion is to have extension operations. Given a compatible family of elements $u_{b}: P(L-$ $b, a, M)$ these operations produce an element $u=\operatorname{Comp}\left(u_{b}\right): P(L, a, M)$. This element should satisfy $\partial_{b} u=u_{b}: P(L-b, a, M)$ for all $b$ in $L$, and we should have $\partial_{c} u=\operatorname{Comp}\left(\partial_{c} u_{b}\right): P(L, a, M-c)$ for all $c$ in $M$. If $P$ has extension operations, then it also has composition operations by defining comp $=\partial_{a}$ Comp. To have extension operations for $P$ in $W(I)$ is a priori a stronger condition than being in $V(I)$, by taking $L=I-a$. However the two properties are actually equivalent.

Lemma 7.1 If $P: V(I)$ then $P$ has extension operations, and hence has compositions.
Proof. Given a compatible family $u_{b}: P(L-b, a, M), b \in L$, we define the extension $u: P(L, a, M)$ by induction on the cardinality of $M$. By induction we have defined the extensions $u_{c}: P(L, a, M-c)$ of all the $\partial_{c} u_{b}$ 's for each $c$ in $M$ in a compatible way. We use then the Kan extension operation to define $u: P(L, a, M)$ such that $\partial_{b} u=u_{b}$ for all $b$ in $L$ and $\partial_{c} u=u_{c}$ for all $c$ in $M$.

A special case of Lemma 7.1 will be important.
Corollary 7.2 If $P: V(I)$ and $a, b$ are two elements of $I$ there exists an operation Ext $u: P(a, b, M)$ which takes an element $u: P(b, M)$ and satisfies $\partial_{a} \operatorname{Ext} u=u$ and $\partial_{c} \operatorname{Ext} u=\operatorname{Ext} \partial_{c} u$ for all $c$ in $M$.

To have composition operations can be seen as a generalization of the notion of partial equivalence relations, while to have extension operations generalizes the notion of equivalence relations.

One basic example of composition is the composition of two binary relations. The following result generalizes this notion.

Lemma 7.3 The semisimplicial set $W$ has compositions.
Proof. Assume given $a, L$ subset of $I$ and a compatible family $Q_{b}: W(I-b)$ for $b$ in $L$. We define $Q_{a}=\operatorname{comp}\left(Q_{b}\right): W(I-a)$. An element of $Q_{a}$ is a compatible family $v=\left(u_{b}\right)$ where $u_{b}: Q_{b}$ for $b$ in $L$ i.e. a family satisfying $\partial_{c} u_{b}=\partial_{b} u_{c}$ for all $b, c$ in $L$. We define then $\partial_{c} v$ to be the family $\partial_{c} u_{b}, b: L$ for $c$ in $I-L, a$ and $\partial_{b} v$ to be $\partial_{a} u_{b}$ for $b$ in $L$.

In the case $n=2$ and $I=J=0,1,2$ and $a=1$ we get back the usual notion of composition of relations.

Lemma 7.4 The semisimplicial set $V$ is closed under the compositions of $W$.
Proof. To simplify the notation, we describe the argument in the case where we compose $P: V(01 M)$ and $Q: V(02 M)$ obtaining a relation $R: W(12 M)$. An element in $R$ is a pair $u(01 M), v(02 M)$ such that $u(0 M)=v(0 M)$ and we have

$$
\partial_{1}(u, v)=v(2 M) \quad \partial_{2}(u, v)=u(1 M)
$$

and $\partial_{b}(u, v)=\partial_{b} u, \partial_{b} v$ for all $b$ in $M$. We show that $R$ is in $V(12 M)$. We have three cases.
The first case is if we have $a$ in $M$ and we have a compatible family consisting of an element ( $u_{b}, v_{b}$ ) in $R\left(12 M_{b}\right)$ for all $b$ in $M_{a}=M-a$ and we have an element $v_{0}$ in $Q(2 M)$ and an element $u_{0}$ in $P(1 M)$. We have a compatible family $u_{b}$ in $P\left(01 M_{b}\right)$ for $b \neq a$ and $u_{0}$ in $P(1 M)$. By Lemma 7.1 we can find $u: P(01 M)$ such that $\partial_{0} u=u_{0}$ and $\partial_{b} u=u_{b}$ for all $b$ in $M-a$. The family consisting of $v_{b}: Q\left(02 M_{b}\right)$ for $b$ in $M-a$ and $v_{0}: Q(2 M)$ and $u(0 M): P(0 M)=Q(0 M)$ is then compatible and since $Q: V(02 M)$ we can find $v: Q(02 M)$ such that $\partial_{b} v=v_{b}$ for $b$ in $M-a$ and $\partial_{0} v=v_{0}$ and $v(0 M)=u(0 M)$. The element $u, v$ in $R(12 M)$ is the required filling.

The second case is if we have a compatible family consisting of an element $u_{b}, v_{b}$ in $R\left(12 M_{b}\right)$ for each $b$ in $M$ and an element $u_{0}$ in $P(1 M)$. Since the family $u_{b}: P\left(01 M_{b}\right)$ and $u_{0}: P(1 M)$ is compatible and $P: V(01 M)$ we find a filling $u: P(01 M)$. We have then a compatible family $v_{b}: Q\left(02 M_{b}\right)$ and
$u(0 M): P(0 M)=Q(0 M)$. Since $Q: V(02 M)$ we have a filling $v: Q(02 M)$. The element $u, v$ in $R(12 M)$ is the required filling.

The third case is if we have a compatible family consisting of an element $u_{b}, v_{b}$ in $R\left(12 M_{b}\right)$ for each $b$ in $M$ and an element $v_{0}$ in $Q(2 M)$. This case is similar to the second case.

Let $X$ be a semisimplicial set. We can associate a simplicial set $\bar{X}$ by defining $\bar{X}[n]$ to be the set of families $u_{f}: X[m]$ for $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ monotone (but not necessarily strictly) such that $u_{f} g=u_{f g}: X[k]$ whenever $g:[k] \rightarrow[m]$ is strictly monotone. This defines a simplicial set. We can reformulate this definition as follows. The inclusion $i: \Delta_{+} \rightarrow \Delta$ defines a functor $i^{*}: \Delta^{o p}$ Set $\rightarrow \Delta_{+}^{o p}$ Set which has a right adjoint $i_{R}: \Delta_{+}^{o p}$ Set $\rightarrow \Delta^{o p}$ Set and we have $\bar{X}=i_{R} X$ so that $i_{R} X[n]$ can also be defined as all natural transformations $i^{*} \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$, where $\Delta^{n}$ is the simplicial set represented by $[n]$.

If $X$ is a semisimplicial set, then each restriction $X(I)$ defines an element of $W(I)$. A Kan semisimplicial set is a semisimplicial set $Y$ such that each restriction $Y(I)$ is in $V(I)$.

Lemma 7.5 If the semisimplicial set $X$ has compositions then $Y=\bar{X}$ is a Kan simplicial set.
Proof. To simplify the notations, we consider only the case where we have compatible $u_{2}: Y(01)$ and $u_{1}: Y(02)$ and we explain how to build the extension $u: Y(012)$. We give an algorithm for computing $u f: X(I)$ for any map $f: I \rightarrow 012$ such that we have $u f i=u(f i)$ for strictly monotone $i: J \rightarrow I$. We let $z_{1}<\cdots<z_{n}<a_{1}<\cdots<a_{p}<b_{1}<\cdots<b_{q}$ be $I$, with $f\left(z_{i}\right)=0$ and $f\left(a_{j}\right)=1$ and $f\left(b_{k}\right)=2$. The definition is by induction on $p+q$. We first treat the case $p=0$ or $q=0$ separate; if $p=0$, i.e. 1 is not in the image of $f$, we can write $f=\partial_{1} f^{\prime}$ for a uniquely determined $f^{\prime}: I \rightarrow 02$, and define $u f=u_{1} f^{\prime}$. Note that by the uniqueness of the decomposition and $f i=\partial_{1} f^{\prime} i$ we have $u(f i)=u_{1} f^{\prime} i$, and thus $u(f i)=u f i$. Similarly, if $q=0$, we write $f=\partial_{2} f^{\prime}$ and set $u f=u_{2} f^{\prime}$. Note that if both $p=q=0$, we have $f=\partial_{1} \partial_{2} f^{\prime \prime}$ for some $f^{\prime \prime}$, and then $\partial_{1} u_{2}=\partial_{2} u_{1}$ yields $u_{2}\left(\partial_{1} f^{\prime \prime}\right)=u_{1}\left(\partial_{2} f^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and hence both definitions of $u f$ coincide.

In case both $p$ and $q$ are $\neq 0$, we consider the linear order $J$ obtained by adding one element $z$ exactly before $a_{1}$. Let $f^{\prime}: J \rightarrow 012$ be the extension of $f$ defined by $f^{\prime}(z)=0$. Let $f_{1}$ be the restriction of $f^{\prime}$ on $J_{1}=J-a_{p}$ and $f_{2}$ be the restriction of $f^{\prime}$ on $J_{2}=J-b_{q}$. By induction hypothesis, the elements $u f_{1}: X\left(J_{1}\right)$ and $u f_{2}: X\left(J_{2}\right)$ are defined and are compatible since $\partial_{z}\left(u f_{1}\right)=u\left(f_{1} \partial_{z}\right)=$ $u\left(f_{2} \partial_{z}\right)=\partial_{z}\left(u f_{2}\right)$. We define $u f$ to be their composition. In order to check $(u f) i=u(f i)$ for injective $i$, we distinguish cases: in case 1 or 2 are not in the image of $i$, say 1 , we have that $i=\partial_{1} i^{\prime}$ and thus $(u f) i=\left(\partial_{z}\left(u f_{1}\right)\right) i^{\prime}=u\left(f_{1} \partial_{z} i^{\prime}\right)=u\left(f \partial_{1} i^{\prime}\right)=u(f i)$. Otherwise, we can assume $i=\partial_{0}$; by the compatibility condition for compositions, $\partial_{0}(u f)$ is the composition of $\partial_{0}\left(u f_{\nu}\right)$ (for $\nu=0,1$ ), and $\partial_{0}\left(u f_{\nu}\right)=u\left(f_{\nu} \partial_{0}\right)$; using $f_{\nu} \partial_{0}=\left(f \partial_{0}\right)_{\nu}$ yields that this composition is $u\left(f \partial_{0}\right)$ by definition.

It remains to check $\partial_{1} u=u_{1}$ and $\partial_{2} u=u_{2}$. But $\left(\partial_{1} u\right) f=u\left(\partial_{1} f\right)=u_{1} f$, and similarly for the other face.

### 7.2 Interpretation of the universe

We define $U$ to be $\bar{V}$. So an element of $U[n]$ is a natural transformation $i^{*} \Delta^{n} \rightarrow V$.
Theorem 7.6 $U$ has the structure of a Kan simplicial set.
Proof. This follows from Lemma 7.4 and 7.5.
To give an element of $U[n]$ is to give a family of sets $P=\left(P_{f}\right)$ indexed by $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ together with restriction maps $P_{f} \rightarrow P_{f g}, u \longmapsto u g$ for $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ injective, satisfying $u 1=u$ and $(u g) h=u(g h)$. Furthermore, for any $f$ the family $P_{f g}, g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ defines an element $P f$ of $V[m]$. We write $u: P$ for $u: P_{1}$. There is a canonical map $i^{*} U \rightarrow V$.

### 7.3 Interpretation of the product

For the semisimplicial set model, we have defined Fun $A F: W[n]$ if $A: W[n]$ and $F:(A)$ Type. In general if $A: V[n]$ and $\operatorname{app}(F f, u): V[m]$ for all $u: A f$ and $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective, we may not have Fun $A F: V[n]$. However Fun $A F: W[n]$ always has composition operations.

Lemma 7.7 If $A: V[n]$ and $F:(A)$ Type is such that $\operatorname{app}(F f, u): V[m]$ for all $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective then Fun $A F: W[n]$ has composition operations.

Proof. For instance we assume that we have $A$ in $V(012 M)$ and $F$ in $(A)$ Type and $t_{1}$ in (Fun $\left.A F\right)(02 M)$ and $t_{2}$ in (Fun $\left.A F\right)(01 M)$ and we show how to define $t_{0}$ in (Fun $\left.A F\right)(12 M)$. We take $u_{0}$ in $A(12 M)$ and we define $\operatorname{app}\left(t_{0}, u_{0}\right)$ in $\operatorname{app}\left(F(12 M), u_{0}\right)$. Using the fact that $A$ is in $V(012 M)$ and Corollary 7.2 we an extend $u_{0}$ to an element $u$ in $A(012 M)$ so that we have $\partial_{0} u=u_{0}$. We can then consider $u_{1}=\operatorname{app}\left(t_{1}, u(02 M)\right)$ and $u_{2}=\operatorname{app}\left(t_{2}, u(01 M)\right)$ that are compatible. Since $\operatorname{app}(F, u)$ is in $V(012 M)$ these two elements have a composition $v$ in $\operatorname{app}\left(F(12 M), u_{0}\right)$ and we define $\operatorname{app}\left(t_{0}, u_{0}\right)$ to be this element $v$.

If $P: U[n]$ an element $F:(A)$ Type is a family $F f$ indexed by monotone functions $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ such that $\operatorname{app}(F f, u): U[m]$ if $u: A f$. Furthermore we should have app $(F f, u) g=\operatorname{app}(F f g, u g): U[p]$ if $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ is injective. If $F:(A)$ Type and $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is monotone, then we can define $F f:(A f)$ Type by $(F f) g=F(f g)$ for $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ monotone.

If $A: U(I)$ and $F:(A)$ Type, we define Fun' $A F$ to be the set of families $t f$ indexed by monotone functions $f: J \rightarrow I$ such that $\operatorname{app}(t f, u): \operatorname{app}(F f, u)$ if $u: A f$. Furthermore we should have app $(t f, u) g=$ $\operatorname{app}(t f g, u g): \operatorname{app}(F f g, u g): U(K)$ if $g: K \rightarrow J$ is injective.

If $f: J \rightarrow I$ is a monotone map, we have a restriction map Fun' $A F \rightarrow$ Fun $^{\prime} A f F f$ defined by $(t f) h=t(f h)$ for $h: K \rightarrow J$ monotone. In this way, given $A: U[n]$ and $F:(A)$ Type we have defined an element Fun $A F$ in $i_{R} W[n]=i^{*} \Delta^{n} \rightarrow W$.

By reasoning like for Lemma 7.5 we deduce the following result.
Theorem 7.8 If $A: U[n]$ and $F:(A)$ Type then Fun $A F: U[n]$.
Proof. To simplify notations, let us assume $A: U(012)$ and that we have compatible elements $t_{1}$ : (Fun $A F)(02)$ and $t_{2}:($ Fun $A F)(01)$; we explain how to build an element $t:($ Fun $A F)(012)$. We give an algorithm for computing $\operatorname{app}(t f, u): \operatorname{app}(F f, u)$ for any map $f: I \rightarrow 012$ and any $u: A f$ satisfying $\operatorname{app}(t f, u) i=\operatorname{app}(t(f i), u i)$ for injective $i$. We let $z_{1}<\cdots<z_{n}<a_{1}<\cdots<a_{p}<b_{1}<\cdots<b_{q}$ be $I$, with $f\left(z_{i}\right)=0$ and $f\left(a_{j}\right)=1$ and $f\left(b_{k}\right)=2$. The definition is by induction on $p+q$. If $p=0$, we define $t f$ to be $t_{1} f^{\prime}$ where $f=\partial_{1} f^{\prime}$; and likewise, if $q=0$, we define $t f$ to be $t_{2} f^{\prime}$ where $f=\partial_{2} f^{\prime}$. If $p$ and $q$ are $\neq 0$, we consider the linear ordering $J$ obtained by adding one element $z$ exactly before $a_{1}$. Let $g: J \rightarrow 012$ be the extension of $f$ defined by $g(z)=0$. Let $g_{1}$ be the restriction of $g$ on $J_{1}=J-a_{p}$ and $g_{2}$ be the restriction of $g$ on $J_{2}=J-b_{q}$. For an element $u: A f$, Corollary 7.2 yields Ext $u$ in $A g$ such that $\partial_{z}(\operatorname{Ext} u)=u$ and $\partial_{c}(\operatorname{Ext} u)=\operatorname{Ext}\left(\partial_{c} u\right)$ for $c \neq z, a_{p}, b_{q}$. The elements $\operatorname{app}\left(t g_{1},(\operatorname{Ext} u)\left(J_{1}\right)\right): \operatorname{app}\left(F g_{1},(\operatorname{Ext} u)\left(J_{1}\right)\right)$ and $\operatorname{app}\left(t g_{2},(\operatorname{Ext} u)\left(J_{2}\right)\right): \operatorname{app}\left(F g_{2},(\operatorname{Ext} u)\left(J_{2}\right)\right)$ are defined and are compatible by induction. We define $\operatorname{app}(t f, u)$ to be their composition.

### 7.4 Interpretation of WMLTT

A context $\Gamma$ is interpreted as a Kan semisimplicial set. A dependent type $\Gamma \vdash A$ is interpreted as a semisimplicial map $A: \Gamma \rightarrow i^{*} U$. So for any $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ we have an element $A \alpha: U[n]$, which itself is a family $A \alpha f: V[m], f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$, such that $(A \alpha) g=A(\alpha g)$ for injective $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$.

A section $\Gamma \vdash a: A$ is given by a family $a \alpha: A \alpha$ for each $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ satisfying $a \alpha g=a(\alpha g)$ for each $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ injective.

The empty context () is interpreted by the Kan semisimplicial set which has exactly one element at each dimension. Context extension is interpreted as follows. If $\Gamma \vdash A$ then we define $(\Gamma . A)[n]$ to be the set of pairs $\alpha, u$ where $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ and $u: A \alpha$. Notice that for defining $\Gamma . A$ we need only to know the composition of $A: \Gamma \rightarrow i^{*} U$ and $i^{*} U \rightarrow V$.

We interpret $\Gamma \vdash F:(A)$ Type by giving for each $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ an element $F \alpha:(A \alpha)$ Type such that $(F \alpha) g=F(\alpha g)$ for injective $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$. We can then take (Fun $A F) \alpha=$ Fun $(A \alpha)(F \alpha)$ which interprets the rule $\Gamma \vdash$ Fun $A F$ if $\Gamma \vdash A$ and $\Gamma \vdash F:(A)$ Type.

If $\Gamma \vdash F:(A)$ Type and $\Gamma \vdash u: A$ and $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ we define $\operatorname{app}(F, u) \alpha=\operatorname{app}(F \alpha 1, u \alpha): U[n]$ and if $\Gamma \vdash t:$ Fun $A F$ and $\Gamma \vdash u: A$ and $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ we define $\operatorname{app}(t, u) \alpha=\operatorname{app}(t \alpha 1, u \alpha): \operatorname{app}(F \alpha, u \alpha)$.

Given $\Gamma \vdash A$ and $\Gamma . A \vdash B$ we explain how to define $\Gamma \vdash \lambda B:(A)$ Type. For this we have to define for any $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ and any $f: I \rightarrow[n]$ and any element $\omega: A \alpha f$ an element $\operatorname{app}(((\lambda B) \alpha) f, \omega): U(I)$. If $f$ is an injection, we take $\operatorname{app}(((\lambda B) \alpha) f, \omega)$ to be $B(\alpha f, \omega)$. If $f$ is not injective we look at the first fiber of $f$ of cardinal $>1$, of elements $a_{0}<\cdots<a_{m}$ with $m>0$. The complexity of $f$ will then be the tuples of cardinal of fibers that have more than one element, ordered lexicographically. We let $K$ be the extension of [ $n$ ] obtained by adding an element $p^{\prime}$ just after $p=f\left(a_{0}\right)$ and $J$ be the extension of $I$ obtained by adding one element $a^{\prime}$ just after $a_{m}$. We let $f^{\prime}: J \rightarrow K$ be the extension of $f$ defined by sending $a^{\prime}$ to $p^{\prime}$. Using Lemma 7.2 we can extend $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ to $\alpha^{\prime}: \Gamma(K)$ using $p$. We can then use Lemma 7.2 again to extend $\omega:(A \alpha) f$ to $\omega^{\prime}:\left(A \alpha^{\prime}\right) f^{\prime}$ using $a_{n}$. We present an algorithm for computing app $\left.\left((\lambda B) \alpha^{\prime}\right) f^{\prime}, \omega^{\prime}\right)$ by a side induction on the cardinality of $I$; then $\operatorname{app}((\lambda B) \alpha) f, \omega)$ can be defined as the restriction to $I$. We have to compute an element of $U(J)$. Using Theorem 7.6 it is enough to define a compatible family of elements of $U(J-b)$ for each $b \neq a^{\prime}$. But for each $b \neq a^{\prime}$ consider the function $f^{\prime} \partial_{b}: J-b \rightarrow K$, for which the element $\operatorname{app}\left(\left((\lambda B) \alpha^{\prime}\right) f^{\prime} \partial_{b}, \omega^{\prime}(J-b)\right)$ is already defined, since either $b$ is one $a_{i}$ and then $f^{\prime} \partial_{b}$ is less complex than $f$; or $b$ is in $I-a_{0}, \ldots, a_{m}$ and then we have defined this element by the side induction hypothesis as we have $f^{\prime} \partial_{b}=\left(f \partial_{b}\right)^{\prime}$ and $\omega^{\prime}(J-b)=\left(\partial_{b} \omega\right)^{\prime}$. Also by induction, these elements form a compatible family.

The definition is such that

$$
\operatorname{app}((\lambda B) \alpha, \omega)=B(\alpha, \omega)
$$

which justifies the definitional equality app $((\lambda B) \sigma, u)=B(\sigma, u)$.
The definition of $\operatorname{app}((\lambda b) \alpha f, \omega): \operatorname{app}(F \alpha f, \omega)$ if $\Gamma . A \vdash b: \operatorname{app}(F \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{q})$ and $\alpha: \Gamma[n]$ and $f: I \rightarrow[n]$ and $\omega: A \alpha f$ is similar. The definition is such that

$$
\operatorname{app}((\lambda b) \alpha, \omega)=b(\alpha, \omega): \operatorname{app}(F \alpha, \omega)
$$

which justifies the definitional equality $\operatorname{app}((\lambda b) \sigma, u)=b(\sigma, u)$.

### 7.5 More general shapes

We let $\Delta_{+}^{n}$ be the contravariant functor on $\Delta_{+}$represented by $[n]$ and we define $\Delta_{+}^{I}=\Delta_{+}^{n}$ if $I$ is isomorphic to $[n]$. If $X$ is a semisimplicial set, we can identify $X[n]$ and $\Delta_{+}^{n} \rightarrow X$ by the Yoneda Lemma. We shall need to consider more general "shapes". We define $\left(\Delta_{+}^{n} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{m}\right)[p]$ to be the set of monotone injective maps $[p] \rightarrow[n] \times[m]$. If $f: K \rightarrow I$ and $g: L \rightarrow J$ are injective there is a canonical map

$$
f \otimes g: \Delta_{+}^{K} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{L} \rightarrow \Delta_{+}^{I} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{J}
$$

We can think of an element $w: \Delta_{+}^{1} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{n} \rightarrow X$ as a "prism" connecting the elements $w\left(c_{0} \otimes 1\right)$ and $w\left(c_{1} \otimes 1\right)$ where $c_{i}:[0] \rightarrow[1], c_{i} 0=i$. Such a prism has faces $w(1 \otimes g)$ for each injection $g: I \rightarrow[n]$.

Following the proofs in [11] on anodyne extensions, we can prove the following results constructively.
Lemma 7.9 If a map has the right lifting property w.r.t. any inclusion $\Lambda_{k}^{n} \rightarrow \Delta_{+}^{n}$ then it has the right lifting property w.r.t. any inclusion

$$
\left(\Delta_{+}^{1} \otimes \partial \Delta_{+}^{n}\right) \cup\left(\{e\} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{n}\right) \rightarrow \Delta_{+}^{1} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{n}
$$

for $e=0,1$, and also w.r.t. any inclusion

$$
\left(\Delta_{+}^{1} \otimes \Lambda_{k}^{n}\right) \cup\left(\partial \Delta_{+}^{1} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{n}\right) \rightarrow \Delta_{+}^{1} \otimes \Delta_{+}^{n}
$$

### 7.6 Interpretation of equality

The interpretation of the equality type relies on the following result.
Proposition 7.10 If $X$ is a Kan semisimplicial set, then we can extend the operations $X[n] \rightarrow X(I), x \longmapsto$ $x f$ a priori defined only for injective $f: I \rightarrow[n]$ to any monotone map $f: I \rightarrow[n]$ in such a way that $(x f) g=x(f g): X(J)$ whenever $g: J \rightarrow I$ is injective.

This is the constructive part of one result in [12], which states that any Kan semisimplicial set can be given a simplicial set structure. Constructively we can only ensure $(x f) g=x(f g): X[p]$ for $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ injective. (For instance there does not seem to be any way in general to build operations $x \eta_{0}: X[1]$ for $x: X[0]$ and $u \eta_{0}, u \eta_{1}: X[2]$ for $u: X[1]$ satisfying the equality $x \eta_{0} \eta_{1}=x \eta_{0} \eta_{0}$, which is required for defining a simplicial set structure on $X$.)

Proof. If $f$ is injective, $x f$ is defined as an element of $X(I)$ since $X$ is a semisimplicial set. If $f$ is not injective we look at the last fiber of $f$ which is of cardinal $>1$, and write $a_{0}<\cdots<a_{n}$ this fiber. Let $M$ be the complement of $a_{n-1}, a_{n}$ in $I$ so that we can write $I=M, a_{n-1}, a_{n}$. We let $J$ be the extension $M, a_{n-1}, a_{n}, a^{\prime}$ of $I$ where we add one element $a^{\prime}$ after $a_{n}$. Let $g: M, a_{n-1} \rightarrow[n]$ be the restriction of $f$ on $M, a_{n-1}$. By induction hypothesis we have defined an element $x g: X\left(M, a_{n-1}\right)$. Using Lemma 7.2 we can extend this element to an element $u: X\left(M, a_{n-1}, a^{\prime}\right)$. By swapping $a_{n}$ and $a_{n-1}$ we also have $u: X\left(M, a_{n}, a^{\prime}\right)$. By Lemma 7.1, we can compose the elements $u: X\left(M, a_{n-1}, a^{\prime}\right)$ and $u: X\left(M, a_{n}, a^{\prime}\right)$ and obtain an element $x f: X\left(M, a_{n-1}, a_{n}\right)=X(I)$.

Given $A$ in $U[n]$ and $a, b$ in $A 1$ we define a set $\mathrm{Eq}_{A} a b$ and restriction maps $v \longmapsto v g, \mathrm{Eq}_{A} a b \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{Eq}_{A g} a g$ bg if $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is an injection. We let $p:[n] \times[1] \rightarrow[n]$ be the first projection. An element of $\mathrm{Eq}_{A} a b$ is a family of elements $v f: A p f$ where $f: I \rightarrow[n] \times[1]$ is an injection and which satisfies $v i_{0}=a: A$ and $v i_{1}=b: A$ where $i_{0}$ is the injection $a \longmapsto(a, 0),[n] \rightarrow[n] \times[1]$ and $i_{1}$ the injection $a \longmapsto(a, 1),[n] \rightarrow[n] \times[1]$. Intuitively, we can think of such a family as a "prism" of faces $a$ and $b$. If $v$ is such a family and $g:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is an injection we let $(v g) f$ be $v((g \times 1) f): A p(i \times 1) f=A i f$ if $f: I \rightarrow[m] \times[1]$ is an injection. The fact that this defines an element of $V[n]$ follows from Lemma 7.9.

Using Proposition 7.10, we can define $\left(\mathrm{Eq}_{A} a b\right) f$ to be $\mathrm{Eq}_{A f}$ af bf:V[m] if $f:[m] \rightarrow[n]$ is a monotone, not necessarily injective, map. This defines $\mathrm{Eq}_{A} a b$ as an element of $U[n]$.

For the interpretation of reflexivity, we also use Proposition 7.10. If $A$ is in $U[n]$ and $a: A$ we can consider the family $v f$ : Apf by defining $v f=a p f$ which satisfies $v i_{0}=a p i_{0}=a$ and $v i_{1}=a p i_{1}=a$.

### 7.7 Univalence

We explain how to use our interpretation to transform any equivalence $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ between two Kan semisimplicial sets in a proof of equality of $A$ and $B$ in $U$. More generally we explain how to transform any map $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ between two semisimplicial sets into an element $E(\varphi)$ of $i_{R} W[1]$. This element $E(\varphi)$ can be thought of as the graph of the map $\varphi$. If $A$ and $B$ are Kan semisimplicial and $\varphi$ is an equivalence than $E(\varphi)$ is in $i_{R} V[1]=U[1]$.

We have to define for each $f:[m] \rightarrow[1]$ a set $E(\varphi) f$ together with restriction maps $E(\varphi) f \rightarrow E(\varphi) f g$ if $g:[p] \rightarrow[m]$ is injective. An element $f: I \rightarrow[1]$ is either the constant 0 , or the constant 1 or is 0 on an initial segment $I_{0}$ and 1 on $I-I_{0}$. We define $E(\varphi) f$ as follows

1. if $f$ is 0 then it is $A(I)$
2. if $f$ is 1 then it is $B(I)$
3. if $f$ is 0 on $I_{0}$ and 1 on $I-I_{0}$ then it is the set of pairs $(u, v)$ with $u$ in $A\left(I_{0}\right)$ and $v$ in $B(I)$ such that $v\left(I_{0}\right)=\varphi u$.

If we have $g: J \rightarrow I$ which is injective and $w$ in $E(\varphi) f$ we define $w g$ in $E(\varphi) f g$. If $g f$ is 0 we have $w=u$ in $A(I)$ or $w=(u, v)$ with $u$ in $A\left(I_{0}\right)$ and we take $w g=u\left(J_{0}\right)$. If $g f$ is 1 we have $w=v$ in $B(I)$ or $w=(u, v)$ with $u$ in $A\left(I_{0}\right)$ and we take $w g=v(J)$. Otherwise, we can write $g=g_{0}+g_{1}: J_{0}+J_{1} \rightarrow I_{0}+I_{1}$ with $I_{1}=I-I_{0}, J_{1}=J-J_{0}$ and we take $w g=\left(u\left(J_{0}\right), v(J)\right)$. We define in this way an element $E(\varphi)$ in $i_{R} W[1]$.

A Kan semisimplicial set $A$ is contractible iff the interpretation of the type $\Sigma x: A . \Pi y: A \cdot \mathrm{Eq}_{A} x y$ is inhabited.

Lemma 7.11 If $A$ is a contractible Kan semisimplicial set, there exists $a: A[0]$ and any $\alpha: A(I)$ can be extended to an element $\bar{\alpha}: A(I, u)$ such that $\bar{\alpha}(u)=a$, with $i<u$ for all $i$ in $I$, and in such a way that we have $\overline{\alpha(J)}=\bar{\alpha}(J, u)$ for all $J \subseteq I$.

A map $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ between Kan semisimplicial set is an equivalence if all its fibers are contractible. Using Lemma 7.11, we have the following property of equivalences.

Lemma 7.12 If $A$ and $B$ are Kan semisimplicial set and $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is an equivalence, then each pair of elements $\beta: B(I, u)$ and $\alpha: A(I)$ such that $\beta(I)=\varphi \alpha$ can be extended to a pair $\bar{\beta}: B\left(I, u^{\prime}, u\right)$ and $\bar{\alpha}: A\left(I, u^{\prime}\right)$ satisfying $\bar{\beta}\left(I, u^{\prime}\right)=\varphi \bar{\alpha}$, with $i<u^{\prime}<u$ for each $i$ in $I$. Furthermore we have $\overline{\beta(J, u)}=\bar{\beta}\left(J, u^{\prime}, u\right)$ and $\overline{\alpha(J)}=\bar{\alpha}\left(J, u^{\prime}\right)$ for each $J \subseteq I$.

The following result can be seen as a generalization of Proposition 5.2.
Proposition 7.13 If $A$ and $B$ are Kan semisimplicial set and $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is an equivalence then $E(\varphi)$ is in $i_{R} V[1]=U[1]$.

Proof. We show that any horn in $E(\varphi) f, f:[n] \rightarrow[1]$ can be filled. If $f$ is 0 this follows from the fact that $A$ has the Kan filling property. If $f^{-1}(1)$ has more than one element, this follows from the fact that $B$ has the Kan filling property. The remaining case is if $f^{-1}(1)$ is a singleton. For instance, for $n=3$ we are given $a(0), a(1), a(2)$ in $A[0]$ and $b(4)$ in $B[0]$ and we have $a(i, j)$ in $A[1]$ and $b(i, j, 4)$ in $B[2]$ such that $b(i, j)=\varphi a(i, j)$ for $i<j<3$. The problem is to find an extension $b(0,1,2,4)$ in $B[3]$ and $a(0,1,2)$ in $A[3]$ such that $b(0,1,2)=\varphi a(0,1,2)$. Using Lemma 7.12 we can find $a(i, j, 3)$ and $b(i, j, 3,4)$ such that $b(i, j, 3)=\varphi a(i, j, 3)$. Since $A$ is a Kan semisimplicial set, we can find an extension $a(0,1,2,3)$ in $A[3]$. We can then consider the compatible elements $\varphi a(0,1,2,3)$ and $b(i, j, 3,4)$ for $i<j<3$. Since $B$ satisfies the Kan property we obtain $b(0,1,2,3,4)$ such that $b(0,1,2,3)=\varphi a(0,1,2,3)$ and the element $(a(0,1,2), b(0,1,2,4))$ is the required filling in $E(\varphi) f$.

## Conclusion

We have given an explanation of functional extensionality and the transport of structures and properties along equivalences. This generalizes Takeuti's and Gandy's interpretation of extensional simple type theory in intensional simple type theory. For the truncated model at level $\leqslant 1$, this can be seen as a representation in type theory of Bishop's notion of sets and dependent families [5, 18].

Our work suggests several research directions. First it would be interesting to provide concrete examples where we effectively compute the transport of structures along equivalence of groupoids, generalizing our computation of transport of structures along isomorphisms. The computation should then proceed as given by Proposition 7.13. Another research direction is about Voevodsky resizing axiom [29]. Using a type system with Type : Type it is possible to give computational meaning to a set of propositions, with impredicative quantifications and unique choice operator, following what is presented in Section 5. We conjecture that this extension still has normalization property: we should only use in this translation a normalizing fragment of Type : Type. Another possible project would be to extend the formalization in the case of Kan semisimplicial types of level $\leqslant 2$. Yet another issue would be the computational interpretation of higher-order inductive types, which seems possible in our framework. The type $S^{2}$ for instance will be described as the free Kan semisimplicial set $X$ generated by a point $b: X[0]$ and a self loop between the constant path on $b$. The notion of truncation should have a direct description; for instance if $A$ is a Kan semisimplicial set, we can define a Kan semisimplicial set $A^{*}[n]=A[0]^{n+1}$ and this should be a way to build the $(-1)$-truncation of $A$. Finally, it might be interesting, even in the truncated versions, to give an operational semantics of the computation underlying our interpretation together with an implementation.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The indices suggest the domain and range type of the relations.

