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An experimental library of formalized Mathematics based on the univalent foundations

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1. Introduction

This is a short overview of an experimental library of Mathematics formalized in the Coq proof assistant using the univalent interpretation of the underlying type theory of Coq. I started to work on this library in February 2010 in order to gain experience with formalization of Mathematics in a constructive type theory based on the intuition gained from the univalent models (see Kapulkin *et al.* 2012).

Univalent models interpret types not as sets but as homotopy types. Their use in formalization of general Mathematics (as opposed to just homotopy theory) is based on the following consideration. First note that we can stratify mathematical constructions by their ‘level.’ There is element-level Mathematics – the study of element-level objects such as numbers, polynomials or various series. Then one has set level Mathematics – the study of sets with structures such as groups, rings etc., which are invariant under isomorphisms. The next level is traditionally called category-level, but this is misleading. A collection of set-level objects naturally forms a groupoid since only isomorphisms are intrinsic to the objects one considers, while more general morphisms can often be defined in a variety of ways. Thus the next level after the set level is the groupoid-level – the study of properties of groupoids with structures which are invariant under the equivalences of groupoids. From this perspective a category is an example of a groupoid with structure which is rather similar to a partial ordering on a set.

Extending this stratification we may further consider 2-groupoids with structures, n -groupoids with structures and ∞ -groupoids with structures. Thus a proper language for formalization of Mathematics should allow one to directly build and study groupoids of various levels and structures on them.

A major advantage of this point of view is that unlike ∞ -categories, which can be defined in many substantially different ways the world of ∞ -groupoids is determined by Grothendieck correspondence (see Grothendieck 1997), which asserts that ∞ -groupoids are ‘the same’ as homotopy types. Combining this correspondence with the previous considerations we come to the view that not only homotopy theory but *the whole of Mathematics* is the study of structures on homotopy types.

[†] Work on this paper was supported by NSF grant 1100938.

36 The univalent models of constructive type theories enable one to use such type theories
37 to reason directly about homotopy types with structures. This is the main idea of the
38 univalent foundations of Mathematics – to use constructive type theory together with the
39 intuition coming from its univalent homotopy-theoretic semantics to write and to prove
40 theorems about mathematical objects of all ‘levels’ formally.

41 Univalent Foundations can be seen as a realization of the vision of Michael Makkai
42 whose paper Makkai (1995) was very important for me in my search for a formal language
43 for contemporary Mathematics.

44 At the moment, there are two actively supported proof assistants based on constructive
45 type theories – Coq and Agda. Both proof assistants continue to be developed by
46 teams which consist mainly of computer scientists who are actively experimenting with
47 new features which are introduced into the systems without a formal verification of
48 their consistency. Of these two systems Coq has been in development longer and is more
49 conservative. To further minimize the possibility of accidentally using a feature which may
50 later be found to be inconsistent the library described here was written using a restricted
51 subset of the type theory underlying Coq. For another approach in Coq, we suggest the
52 reader to look at the HoTT project library at <https://github.com/HoTT/HoTT>. The
53 version of the library which this text refers to was checked to compile with a patched
54 version of Coq 8.4p13. For instructions on how to get this version of Coq and how to
55 patch it, see the file `Coq_patch/README`.

56 The type theory of Coq is, roughly speaking, a combination of three components. The
57 first component is a version of the Thierry Coquand’s calculus of constructions (CC)
58 (see Coquand and Huet 1988). This is a type system with two universes, Prop and Type,
59 dependent products and abstraction/application constructions satisfying β -reduction. The
60 second component is a universe management system which replaces two universes of
61 CC with an infinite hierarchy of universes which is due to Z. Luo (see Luo 1994). The
62 third component is a machinery for creating strictly positive ‘inductive types’ described in
63 Paulin-Mohring (1993).

64 In our library, we use a small subset of a modified version of the Coq type system. The
65 modifications are introduced through a patch contained in the subdirectory `Coq_patch`.
66 Some information on the content of this patch and on its history can be found in the
67 README file of that subdirectory.

68 The main modification turns off the universe consistency verification system of Coq.
69 This, of course, makes the type system inconsistent (any type, including the empty type, can
70 be shown to have an object). The proper solution is instead to use universe polymorphism
71 together with either resizing rules (see Voevodsky 2011) or higher inductive types (see
72 Univalent Foundations Project 2013). However, these modifications are highly non-trivial
73 and for the experimental purposes of the current library it seemed reasonable to rely on
74 careful tracing of universe levels ‘by hand.’ This issue becomes important only starting
75 with the file `hProp.v`. The first major file of the library, `uu0.v`, can be compiled without
76 the patch.

77 The main restriction which we impose on the constructions of the library concerns the
78 use of the inductive types machinery of Coq. In a rather ingenious way this machinery
79 is normally used in Coq both to define standard ingredients of constructive type theories

80 such as identity types, dependent sums, the one point type, disjoint unions, the empty
 81 type, Booleans and natural numbers and also to define a multitude of other constructs
 82 such as, for example, inequalities between natural numbers. In the current library we use
 83 this machinery only to introduce the standard constructions listed above. No further use
 84 of inductive types is made except in one place in the file `hnat.v` where we show that our
 85 approach to comparisons between natural numbers is equivalent to the approach taken
 86 in the standard library of Coq.

87 Another restriction is that we do not use the universe `Prop`. Associated with this
 88 universe there is a ‘singleton elimination’ rule which is inconsistent with the univalent
 89 model. To avoid accidental use of this rule by tactics the patch file modifies the way the
 90 universe level of inductive constructions (most notably of identity types) is computed.
 91 During the compilation of the first file of the library, `uuu.v`, the compiler should display
 92 ‘`paths 0 0:UUU.`’ Without proper application of the patch the compiler would display
 93 ‘`paths 0 0:Prop.`’

94 The distribution of Coq includes an extensive ‘standard library.’ Our library uses only
 95 the first and most basic subdivision of the Coq’s standard library, namely `Coq.Init`. In
 96 fact some of the files of the standard library may take very long to compile with the
 97 ‘-no-sharing’ option which is introduced by the patch and which we use to overcome a
 98 bug in Coq’s normalization algorithm. See the file `Coq_patch/README` for instructions of
 99 how to compile Coq without compiling most of the standard library.

100 2. File `uuu.v`

101 The first several lines of `uuu.v` introduce new notations for some of the constructions that
 102 are defined in Coq’s standard library. The part of the library where these constructions
 103 are introduced is located in ‘`coqlocation/theories/Init/`’ where ‘`coqlocation`’ is the
 104 directory where the Coq distribution is. Files of this part of the library are automatically
 105 loaded by Coq while to load other parts of the standard library (located in other
 106 subdirectories of ‘`coqlocation/theories/`’) requires an explicit instruction.

107 In the first new definition in ‘`uuu.v`’ we introduce the version of *dependent sum* used
 108 in our library. It is called ‘`total2`’ due on the one hand to its semantic meaning as the
 109 total space of a fibration and on the other to its function as a generic record of length
 110 2.[†] Several important features of Coq formalization can be illustrated with this definition
 111 and the following definitions of ‘`pr1`’ and ‘`pr2`.’

112 The first parameter of the construction, the type ‘`T`,’ is shown in the definition in braces.
 113 This means that this is an *implicit* parameter, i.e., when ‘`total2`’ is used one writes ‘`total2`
 114 `P`’ instead of ‘`total2 T P.`’ Types of expressions are computable in Coq from expressions
 115 themselves and since the type of ‘`P`’ must be ‘`T->Type`’ the system can infer ‘`T`’ from ‘`P`.’

116 The second parameter ‘`P`’ is of the type ‘`T->Type.`’ Here ‘`Type`’ is a generic notation
 117 which Coq uses for universes. The universe management in Coq is rather baroque and
 118 well hidden from user control so for simplicity one may think that ‘`Type`’ is synonymous

[†] In the first version of the library there was also ‘`total3`’ corresponding to the generic record of length 3.

119 with the name of some fixed universe ‘ \mathcal{U} .’ A function ‘ $T \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ ’ is intuitively a way to assign
 120 to any object of ‘ T ’ an object of ‘ \mathcal{U} ,’ i.e., a type which is contained in ‘ \mathcal{U} .’ In other words,
 121 it is a family of types in ‘ \mathcal{U} ’ parametrized by ‘ T .’ The semantics of this is as follows. If we
 122 use the univalent model with values in the category of simplicial sets then ‘ T ’ is mapped
 123 to a (Kan) simplicial set and ‘ \mathcal{U} ’ is mapped to the base of the universal Kan fibration
 124 which classifies Kan fibrations whose fibres belong to ‘ \mathcal{U} .’ Thus ‘ P ’ corresponds to a Kan Q2
 125 fibration over ‘ T ’ and ‘ $\text{total2 } P$ ’ is the total space of this fibration.

126 In the informal semantics with values in ∞ -groupoids ‘ T ’ is mapped to an ∞ -groupoid
 127 while ‘ \mathcal{U} ’ is mapped to the ∞ -groupoid of ∞ -groupoids in ‘ \mathcal{U} ’ and their equivalences.
 128 The function ‘ P ’ then can be viewed as a functor and ‘ $\text{total2 } P$ ’ is the ∞ -groupoid of
 129 pairs (x, y) where x is an object of ‘ T ’ and y an object of $P(x)$.

130 The next definition is that of ‘ pr1 .’ It takes three parameters and returns an object
 131 of ‘ T ’ where ‘ T ’ is the first parameter. In general, when one has a definition of some
 132 ‘ C ’ in Coq with parameters ‘ $x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ ’ one can write not only ‘ $C a_1 \dots a_n$ ’ but
 133 also *partially applied* versions such as ‘ $C a_1 \dots a_{(n-1)}$ ’ or just ‘ C .’ The type of such a
 134 partially applied definition will be a function type or more generally a *dependent product*
 135 type.

136 In the case of ‘ pr1 ’ the first two parameters are implicit and supposed to be inferred
 137 from the third. If one wants to use a partially applied version of ‘ pr1 ’ one has
 138 to provide the first two parameters explicitly. To tell Coq that a definition will be
 139 used as if all its parameters were explicit one uses prefix ‘ $@$ ’ and writes, for example,
 140 ‘ $@\text{pr1 } T P$.’ The type of this expression is the function type ‘ $(\text{total2 } T P) \rightarrow T$ ’ and
 141 its semantical meaning is the projection from the total space of a fibration to its
 142 base.

143 An extremely important feature of dependent type theories which is unavailable in the
 144 theories without dependent types and which at the first may seem confusing is that we
 145 also have ‘ $@\text{pr2 } T P$.’ Obviously not any fibration is trivial so we do not normally have
 146 a projection from the total space to a fibre *as a function*. However we always have it as a
 147 *dependent function*. By writing something like

```
148 Variable T:Type.
149 Variable P:T -> Type.
150 Check ( @pr2 T P ).
```

151 one will see that the type of ‘ $@\text{pr2 } T P$ ’ is ‘ $\text{forall } tp:\text{total2 } P, P (\text{pr1 } tp)$.’ The
 152 semantic meaning of the later expression is as follows. ‘ forall ’ is the name of the
 153 dependent product construction in Coq. Its general format is ‘ $\text{forall } x:T_1, T_2$ ’ where
 154 ‘ T_1 ’ is a type expression and ‘ T_2 ’ is a type expression which may have a parameter ‘ x ’ of
 155 type ‘ T_1 .’ Such an expression with a parameter semantically is the same as a function ‘ T_1
 156 $\rightarrow \mathcal{U}$,’ i.e., the ‘ forall ’ construction has essentially the same parameters as ‘ total2 ’ - a
 157 type and a family of types parametrized by this type. As was explained above such a pair
 158 corresponds in the univalent model in simplicial sets to a Kan fibration. The type ‘ forall
 159 $x:T_1, T_2$ ’ is the (Kan) simplicial set of *sections* of this fibration.

160 If ‘ T_2 ’ does not actually depend on ‘ x ’ then one abbreviates the expression ‘ forall
 161 $x:T_1, T_2$ ’ to ‘ $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$.’ Semantically it corresponds to the case of a constant fibration
 162 whose sections are just functions from the base ‘ T_1 ’ to the fibre ‘ T_2 .’

163 Returning to the case of ‘@pr2 T P’ we see that semantically it is a section of the
 164 fibration over ‘@total2 T P’ whose fibre over ‘tp’ is the fibre of ‘P’ over ‘pr1 tp.’ In
 165 mathematical notation, if our fibration is $p : E \rightarrow B$ then ‘@pr2 T P’ is the diagonal
 166 section of $E \times_B E$ over E .

167 3. File uu0.v

168 This file contains the results of the library which are applicable to *all* types.

169 The first three lines of the file are also repeated with some obvious changes in all the
 170 rest of the files of the library. These are commands to the Coq program.

171 The first one tells Coq not to do a certain type of steps automatically at the start of
 172 every proof but to leave the choice of whether or not to do these steps to the user.

173 The second and the third lines address the mechanism which loads other library files.
 174 They are discussed in more detail in the appendix.

175 Let me now use some of the first proofs given in ‘uu0.v’ to illustrate how the proof
 176 system of Coq works. Note first that a line such as

177 ‘Definition name1:expr1.’

178 tells Coq that a constant called ‘name1’ of type ‘expr1’ will be provided by the user. In
 179 the case of ‘Definition’ there are two ways to provide the value of this constant. One
 180 can write

181 ‘Definition name1:expr1:= expr2.’

182 in that case ‘expr2’ should be an expression which has type ‘expr1’ which will be the
 183 value of the constant ‘name1.’ Alternatively, one can write ‘Proof.’ after ‘Definition
 184 name1:expr1.’ and then use various commands of Coq proof mode to construct the
 185 value of the constant. When Coq says ‘Proof completed’ in the ‘response’ window one
 186 writes either ‘Qed.’ or ‘Defined.’ The difference between the two is that when ‘Qed.’ is
 187 used the actual structure of the constructed expression becomes hidden (opaque) while
 188 when ‘Defined.’ is used the structure remains accessible.

189 The keywords ‘Theorem,’ ‘Lemma’ and ‘Proposition’ are strictly equivalent and are
 190 equivalent to ‘Definition’ except that one must use the proof mode to provide the value
 191 of the corresponding constant, i.e., one cannot simply provide the value after ‘:=.’

192 More generally Coq can be told that a constant with the name ‘name1’ is going to be
 193 introduced by a line of the form

194 ‘Definition name1 (x1:texpr1)... (xn:texprn):expr.’

195 which is essentially equivalent to

196 ‘Definition name1:forall x1:texpr1,..., forall xn:texprn, expr’

197 with the only difference being that the first form allows one to say that some of the
 198 parameters will be implicit by using curly brackets.

199 The first proof of the library is that of ‘Definition fromempty.’ The sentence which
 200 starts with the word ‘Definition’ tells Coq that a constant with the name ‘fromempty’
 201 of type ‘forall X:UU, empty -> X’ will be provided and that the type parameter ‘X’ is
 202 implicit. The value for this constant is constructed inside the proof mode through the use
 203 of two tactics ‘intros’ and ‘destruct.’ We will not discuss here how the tactics language
 204 of Coq is working referring the reader instead to Coq reference manual.

205 Detailed information about the mathematical content of the file uu0.v can be obtained
 206 from the comments in this file. We will only discuss here a few fundamental constructions
 207 the meaning of which might not be immediately obvious.

208 The first such construction is `'iscontr T'` where `'T'` is a type. It introduces the concept
 209 from which almost everything else is build – the concept of a contractible type. By
 210 definition, a proof of contractibility of a type `'T'` is an object of the type `'iscontr T'`.
 211 There are two ways to argue that this is a 'correct' way to define contractibility. The
 212 first one is to point out that the more complex homotopy-theoretic notions defined with
 213 the use of this notion of contractibility are proved further in this file to satisfy a large
 214 number of expected properties.

215 Another is to analyse the univalent semantics of this construction. Consider for example
 216 a univalent model with values in Kan simplicial sets. Then `'T'` is a simplicial set. A point
 217 of `'iscontr T'` is a pair `'(cntr, s)'` where `'cntr'` is a point of `'T'` and `'s'` is an object
 218 of `'forall t:T, paths cntr t.'` The family of types `'t \mapsto paths cntr t'` is the paths
 219 bundle corresponding to the point `'cntr'` and as explained above `'s'` is a section of this
 220 bundle. But the total space of the paths bundle is contractible and if it has a section
 221 then `'T'` is a retract of a contractible simplicial set and therefore it is contractible. In
 222 the opposite direction if `'T'` is contractible then it is in particular non-empty and we can
 223 choose a point `'cntr'` in `'T.'` Any fibration over a contractible s.s. is trivial and if it has
 224 a non-empty fibre it has a section. The fibre of the paths fibration defined by `'cntr'`
 225 over `'cntr'` is non-empty and therefore it has a section `'s'` which gives us a point in
 226 `'iscontr T.'`

227 The next fundamental definition is the property `'isweq'` of a function `'f'` to be
 228 a (weak) equivalence which is defined as the condition that all (homotopy) fibres
 229 of `'f'` are contractible. Along with `'isweq f'` we introduce `'weq X Y'` – the type of
 230 (weak) equivalences from `'X'` to `'Y'`, i.e., of pairs `'(f, is)'` where `'f:X \rightarrow Y'` and
 231 `'is:isweq f.'`

232 Theorem `'gradth'` shows that for a homotopy equivalence, i.e., a quadruple `'f:X \rightarrow`
 233 `Y,' g:Y \rightarrow X,' egf,' efg'` where `'egf'` is a homotopy from `'funcomp f g'` to the identity
 234 of `'X'` and `'efg'` is a homotopy from `'funcomp g f'` to the identity of `'Y,'` the function `'f'`
 235 is a (weak) equivalence. The difference between the notions of a homotopy equivalence
 236 and a weak equivalence is somewhat subtle but important. Let `'X'` and `'Y'` be types
 237 and `'homeq X Y'` the type of quadruples `'(f, (g, (egf, efg)))'`. Theorem `'gradth'` (or
 238 rather definition `'weqgradth'`) defines a function `'(homeq X Y) \rightarrow (weq X Y).'` Using
 239 definitions `'homotweqinvweq'` and `'homotinvweqweq'` one gets a function `'(weq X Y) \rightarrow`
 240 `(homes X Y)'` and it is not difficult to show that these functions make `'weq X Y'` into
 241 a retract of `'homeq X Y.'` In general however this retraction is not an equivalence. The
 242 reason why `'weq'` is 'better' than `'homeq'` is related to the difference between *properties* and
 243 *structures* which is explained below.

244 Corollary `'iscontrweqf'` and definition `'wequnittocontr'` show that a type is contract-
 245 ible iff it is weakly equivalent to `'unit'` and in particular that up to weak equivalence there
 246 is only one contractible type. Corollary `'isweqmaponpaths'` shows that a weak equivalence
 247 defines a weak equivalence on `'paths'` types. Theorems `'twooutof3a,' 'twooutof3b'` and
 248 `'twooutof3c'` establish the 2-out-of-3 property of weak equivalences – if two out of three

249 functions f , g , $\text{funcomp } f \ g$ are weak equivalences then so is the third. All these results
 250 are proved using gradth .

251 Then there follows a series of simple results which assert that various natural func-
 252 tions such as the ones defining associativity and commutativity of direct products or
 253 distributivity of direct products and binary coproducts are weak equivalences.

254 The next tool-box which we introduce contains the type-theoretic versions of the results
 255 and definitions related to homotopy fibre sequences. Our approach to fibre sequences
 256 differs somewhat from the usual approaches. A fibre sequence structure fibseqstr on
 257 a triple $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$, $z : Z$ is defined as a homotopy from $\text{funcomp } f \ g$ to the
 258 constant function $\text{fun } x : X \Rightarrow z$ such that the associated function ezmap from X to
 259 the homotopy fibre $\text{hfiber } f \ z$ is a weak equivalence.

260 For any fibre sequence structure fs on (f, g, z) and any object $y : Y$ we construct
 261 a function $d1 : \text{paths } (g \ y) \ z \rightarrow X$ and the *derived* fibre sequence structure fibseq1
 262 on the triple $(d1, f, y)$. This construction can be iterated leading to a type theoretic
 263 construction of long homotopy exact sequences of fibrations.

264 We then investigate three standard situations where fibre sequences arise.

265 For any family of types $P : Z \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ over a type Z and an object $z : Z$ we construct
 266 in fibseqpr1 a fibre sequence structure on the triple $(\text{iz}, \text{pr1}, z)$ where iz is the
 267 inclusion of the fibre $P \ z$ to $\text{total2 } P$ and pr1 the projection $\text{total2 } P \rightarrow Z$.
 268 Applying to it the construction of the derived fibre sequence we get a family of weak
 269 equivalence ezweq1pr1 which connect the homotopy fibres of iz with paths types on
 270 Z .

271 For a function $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ and an object $z : Z$ we define in fibseqg the obvious structure
 272 of a fibre sequence on the triple $(\text{hfiberpr1}, g, z)$ where $\text{hfiberpr1} : \text{hfiber } g \ z$
 273 $\rightarrow Y$ is the standard function and give explicit descriptions of its first, second and third
 274 derived sequences.

275 Finally we construct a fibre sequence fibseqhf of homotopy fibres of a composable
 276 pair of functions $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ for $z : Z$ and $ye : \text{hfiber } g \ z$ with the underlying
 277 sequence of morphisms of the form $\text{hfiber } f \ (\text{pr1 } ye) \rightarrow \text{hfiber } (\text{comp } g \ f) \ z \rightarrow$
 278 $\text{hfiber } g \ z$.

279 The next fundamental notion which we introduce is the notion of h-levels. The
 280 definition $\text{isofhlevel } n$ uses the type nat of natural numbers which is introduced
 281 in $\text{Coq.Init.Datatypes}$ as the inductive type with two constructors O of type nat
 282 (corresponding to 0) and S of type $\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$ (corresponding to the successor function
 283 $n \mapsto n + 1$). Semantically we have that T is of h-level 0 iff it is contractible and of h-level
 284 $1 + n$ iff for any x, y in T the paths space $\text{paths } x \ y$ is of h-level n .

285 A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be of h-level n if all its (homotopy) fibres are of h-level
 286 n . In particular, a function is of h-level 0 iff it is a weak equivalence.

287 Types of h-level 1 are called *propositions* and we write isaprop instead of isofhlevel
 288 1 . A homotopy type T is of h-level 1 iff for any $x, y \in T$ the paths space between x and
 289 y is contractible. In the world of classical homotopy types there are only two homotopy
 290 types with this property – the empty type and the contractible type. If T is of h-level
 291 1 and it is inhabited, i.e., there is an object $t : T$ then, as iscontraprop1 shows T is
 292 contractible. However, there are many non-equivalent types of h-level 1 which have no

293 objects. This discrepancy between the model side and the syntactic side is the univalent
 294 form of the first Goedel's incompleteness theorem.

295 It is of a fundamental importance for the univalent approach to distinguish types
 296 which are propositions from more general types. In particular, if one wants to formalize
 297 univalently non-constructive proofs then one should add the axiom of excluded middle
 298 to the environment. Adding it in the form 'forall T:Type, coprod T (T-> empty)'
 299 would be incompatible with the univalent models (and with the univalence axiom). This
 300 however does not mean that univalent semantics is incompatible with classical logic – the
 301 correct univalent formulation of the theorem of excluded middle is 'forall T:hProp,
 302 coprod T (T-> empty)' where 'hProp := total2 (fun T:Type => isaprop T)'.

303 A function between classical homotopy types $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is of h-level 1 iff it is homotopy
 304 equivalent to the inclusion of a union of connected components of Y into Y . On the type
 305 theoretic side we define inclusions as functions of h-level 1 ('isincl').

306 Inclusions correspond to *predicates* or *properties* – functions 'P:T->UU' such that 'forall
 307 t:T, isaprop (P t).' Given such 'P' we can form the type 'total2 P' whose objects
 308 are pairs '(x,p)' where 'x:T' and 'p:P x.' By 'isweqzmappr1' the homotopy fibre
 309 of the projection 'pr1:total2 P -> T' over 'x:T' is weakly equivalent to 'P x.' By
 310 'isofhlevelweqf' the h-levels are invariant under weak equivalences. We conclude that
 311 the projection 'total2 P -> T' is a (homotopy) inclusion iff for all 'x:T' the type 'P x'
 312 is of h-level 1. If the h-level of 'P x' is greater than 1 for some 'x:T' then 'P' defines a
 313 *structure* on objects of 'T.'

314 One of the important naming conventions in our library is that any name which starts
 315 with 'is' such as 'isontr' or 'isweq' corresponds to a *property*. For further discussion of
 316 propositions and properties in the univalent approach see Section 4.

317 Types of h-level 2 are called sets (or, sometimes, h-sets) and we write 'isaset' instead
 318 of 'isofhlevel 2.' A classical homotopy type T is of h-level 2 iff the path space between
 319 any two points is either empty or contractible – one can easily see that this is equivalent
 320 to the condition that T is a disjoint union of contractible components, i.e., that it is
 321 homotopy equivalent to a set. On the type-theoretic side, due to the constructive nature of
 322 the theory, sets need not be disjoint unions of points. More precisely it is not necessarily
 323 true that for a set 'T' and an object 't:T' there is an equivalence between 'T' and 'coprod
 324 (compl T t) unit' where 'compl T t' is the complement to 't' in 'T.' Types which satisfy
 325 the later property for all objects are called *types with decidable equality* (see 'isdeceq').
 326 We show that any type with decidable equality is an h-set in 'isasetifdeceq' and use
 327 it to prove that Booleans ('isasetbool') and natural numbers ('isasetnat') are h-sets
 328 but not all h-sets can be proved to have decidable equality. A simple example of an h-set
 329 which does not have decidable equality is the type of functions 'nat -> Bool.' Such
 330 types as Dedekind reals or p-adic numbers are also h-sets with undecidable equality.

331 Most of Mathematics as we know it deals with structures of h-level 2 on types of h-level
 332 2. For example, a group is a pair '(T,S)' where 'T' is an h-set and 'S' is an object of the
 333 h-set of group structures on 'T'. For further discussion of h-sets see Section 5.

334 For higher n the notion of h-level coincides with the well-known notion of n -types up
 335 to a shift of index by 2, i.e., a type T is of h-level $n + 2$ iff for any x in T and $i > n$
 336 one has $\pi_i(T, x) = 0$. The best known area of Mathematics whose univalent formalization

requires types of h-level 3 is *category theory*. For a univalent approach to category theory see Ahrens *et al.*

The file `uu0.v` contains three axioms – ‘`funextempty`,’ ‘`etacorrection`’ and ‘`funextfunax`’ and the third one implies both the first and the second. Axioms are generally undesirable in constructive type theory even if, as is the case for these three axioms, they are semantically justified. The reason is that they tend to break a very important property of constructive type theories which is called *canonicity*. In its simplest form canonicity asserts that any object ‘`o`’ of type ‘`nat`’ (natural numbers) in the empty context which is in the *normal form* is of the form ‘`S ... S 0`,’ i.e., is a *numeral*. We will come back to this property in the discussion of the files `finitesets.v`, `hz.v` and `hq.v`.

For example, ‘`funextfunax`’ can be used to define an object of type ‘`nat`’ which is in the normal form but which is not a numeral as follows. Consider the transport along a path ‘`transportf.`’ Let ‘`T`’ be any type constant defined in the empty context (e.g. ‘`unit`’ or even ‘`empty`’). Let ‘`f:=fun t:T => t`’ be the identity function on ‘`T`.’ Let ‘`e: paths f f`’ be the path obtained by applying ‘`funextfunax`’ to the homotopy ‘`fun t:T => idpath t t.`’ Set ‘`x := transportf (fun g:T -> T => nat) e 0.`’ By doing this construction in Coq and typing ‘`Eval Compute in x`’ – the command which displays the normal form of expression ‘`x`’ – one immediately sees that ‘`x`’ does not normalize to a numeral. For a further discussion of this phenomenon and its relation to the problem of constructive interpretation of the univalence axiom see Section 9.

Note that while an object of type ‘`nat`’ defined with the use of axioms *may* happen not to normalize to a numeral, it is not necessarily so. In particular many of the test computations in files `finitesets.v`, `hz.v` and `hq.v` use theorems and definitions which include ‘`funextfunax.`’

Axiom ‘`funextfunax`’ is known as the *functional extensionality* axiom. In its original form it is not even an ‘`axiom`,’ i.e., the type of ‘`funextfunax`’ cannot be proved to be a proposition. More precisely, one can show that the homotopy type corresponding to the type of ‘`funextfunax`’ under a univalent model has more than one connected component. To deal with this issue we use everywhere not ‘`funextfunax`’ itself but its corollary ‘`funcontr`’ which can be shown to be a proposition.

In the following parts of the library we use ‘`funcontr`’ to show that the dependent product construction interacts in the expected way with weak equivalences (see ‘`isweqmaponsec`’ and ‘`isweqmaponsec1`’) and with h-levels (see ‘`impred`’). We also prove a number of results which justify our use of ‘`is`’ prefix in the names of constructions such as ‘`iscontr`,’ ‘`isweq`’ and ‘`isofhlevel`’ by showing that the types of corresponding constants are indeed of h-level 1.

4. File `hProp.v`

This is the only (so far) file in the folder ‘`hlevel1.`’ It contains basic results related to types of h-level 1, i.e., to propositions. First we introduce the type ‘`hProp`’ which relates to types of h-level 1 in the same way as the universe ‘`UU`’ relates to all types. In fact we should consider the universe ‘`UU`’ as a parameter of ‘`hProp`’ writing ‘`hProp UU`’ for the type of propositions in a universe ‘`UU`.’ Unfortunately the universe management system

379 does not allow universe parameters and we are forced to consider ‘hProp’ with respect to
 380 a fixed universe ‘UU.’

381 In the univalent model a type is a proposition iff it is empty or contractible. Therefore,
 382 the model of ‘hProp UU’ is the simplicial subset of the model of ‘UU’ which consists of two
 383 connected components – the component of the empty type which is a 1-point simplicial
 384 set and the component of contractible types which is a large (relative to ‘UU’) contractible
 385 simplicial set.

386 This creates problems with the next construction in ‘hProp’ which we call ‘ishinh_UU’
 387 and which is also known as the bracket type or squash type construction. The idea is
 388 that for a type ‘T’ there should be a proposition ‘ishinh_UU T’ which is true iff ‘T’ is
 389 inhabited. This is equivalent to saying that ‘ishinh_UU T’ should be defined together with
 390 a function ‘hinhpr T : T -> ishinh_UU T’ which is universal among functions from ‘T’
 391 to propositions. Using the fact that h-levels are stable under the formation of dependent
 392 products (‘impred’ from uu0.v) we show in ‘isapropisinh’ that ‘ishinh_UU T’ is indeed
 393 a proposition and in ‘hinhuniv’ that the function ‘hinhpr’ it is universal.

394 However, there is an element of cheating here. In fact this part of hProp.v would not
 395 go through in un-patched Coq. The only reason it works in Coq is that we use the patched
 396 version which does not check universe consistency.

397 The problem is that ‘ishinh_UU T’ is a proposition in a bigger universe than ‘UU’ which
 398 is universal with respect to functions from ‘T’ to propositions in ‘UU.’

399 How can this problem be fixed without introducing potential inconsistency? There are
 400 currently three ideas. The first two have to do with *resizing rules* and the third with *higher*
 401 *inductive types*. All three are associated with interesting unsolved problems. Note that
 402 the issue is particular to the constructive setting. If we did not care about computation
 403 and added the excluded middle axiom then we could use a double negation version
 404 ‘isinhdneg’ of ‘ishinh’ which does not lead to any issues with universe levels.

405 In the following part of the library we define an interpretation of intuitionistic logic on
 406 ‘hProp.’ The construction of ‘ishinh_UU’ is a necessary prerequisite for the construction
 407 of the disjunction – the disjoint union of two propositions considered as types is not
 408 in general a proposition and one has to apply ‘ishinh_UU’ to obtain disjunction as an
 409 operation on propositions.

410 In the last part of the file, we introduce the univalence axiom for ‘hProp’ and consider
 411 some of its corollaries.

412 5. File hSet.v

413 This file contains basic results related to sets, i.e., types of h-level 2. The first brief section
 414 discusses types which satisfy axiom of choice, i.e., which are ‘projective objects.’ It is later
 415 used in stnfsets.v and fintesets.v to show that the axiom of choice holds for families
 416 over finite sets.

417 Then we introduce a series of definitions and results about relations on types. Many
 418 of these results are later used to prove standard properties of comparisons on natural
 419 numbers and later on integers and rational numbers.

420 The most important part of this file deals with set-quotients of types. The theory
 421 of quotients is well known to be one of the difficult points of the usual constructive
 422 type theory. The univalent model provides an explanation for this fact – since types
 423 are homotopy types rather than sets the quotients need to be understood as homotopy
 424 quotients which are often very complicated.

425 The set-quotients are, from homotopy-theoretical point of view, quotients with respect
 426 to ‘homotopy-invariant equivalence relations.’ The finest such relation is given by the
 427 condition ‘ a is path-connected to b ’ with the corresponding quotient being π_0 . Quotients
 428 with respect to stronger equivalence relations on T are quotients of $\pi_0(T)$. The quotient
 429 with respect to the strongest relation, i.e., the one where any two points are equal is
 430 equivalent to ‘`ishinh.UU T`.’

431 While in classical setting such quotients create no problems in the constructive setting
 432 things are more complicated. One problem is the increase in the universe level when one
 433 passes to a quotient. It is similar to the problem which we discussed in the context of
 434 ‘`ishinh.UU`.’

435 Another problem can be seen in the way in which taking quotients interact with
 436 taking sub-objects. Let ‘ X ’ be a type, ‘ R ’ an equivalence relation on ‘ X ’ and ‘ P :`setquot`
 437 `R -> hProp`’ a predicate on the quotient of ‘ X ’ with respect to ‘ R ’. The composition
 438 ‘ Q ’ of ‘ P ’ with the projection ‘`setquotpr R:X -> setquot R`’ is a predicate on ‘ X ’.
 439 Let ‘ U :`carrier P`’ and ‘ X ’:`carrier Q`’ be they sub-objects of ‘`setquot R`’ and
 440 ‘ X ’ respectively corresponding to ‘ P ’ and ‘ Q .’ The restriction ‘ R ’ of ‘ R ’ to ‘ X ’ is an
 441 equivalence relation and we may consider two types ‘`setquot R`’ and ‘ U ’. As is proved
 442 in ‘`weqsubquot`’ these two types are equivalent. However the equivalence ‘ $U -> setquot$
 443 R ’, the obvious function ‘ $X -> U$ ’ and the projection ‘`setquotpr R`: $X -> setquot$
 444 R ’ do not commute *computationally*.

445 This leads for example to the use of somewhat unnatural constructions to define the
 446 inverse on non-zero elements of fields of fractions since the straightforward definition
 447 ‘does not compute.’

448 A possible way to deal with this issue by extending the type theory of Coq with a
 449 new component called *tfc*-terms (from the trivial fibration/cofibration axiom of model
 450 categories) is briefly discussed in the comments after ‘`weqsubquot`.’

451 At the end of the file `hSet.v` we describe another approach to set-quotients. Originally
 452 this part was written because I thought that the computational behaviour of this
 453 alternative construction will be better. However, it turned out to have very similar
 454 (and probably equivalent) problems as the first one.

455 6. Files `algebra1*.v`

456 These files introduce the standard notions of abstract algebra including the interaction
 457 between algebraic operations and partial orderings.

458 The file `algebra1a.v` introduces basic definitions related to binary operations and pairs
 459 of binary operations on *h*-sets. A few definitions where the generalizations from *h*-sets to
 460 all types are straightforward are given for arbitrary types.

461 The file `algebra1b.v` is about monoids, abelian monoids, groups and abelian groups
 462 including the construction of monoids of fractions in the abelian case.

463 The file `algebra1c.v` is about rigs (semi-rings with a unit such that $0 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 0 = 0$),
 464 commutative rigs, rings and commutative rings. It includes the construction of the ring of
 465 differences from a rig and of localization of a commutative ring by a multiplicative system
 466 of elements. We also prove the basic results about the behaviour of partial orderings and
 467 equivalence relations with respect to these constructions.

468 The file `algebra1d.v` is the first one which contains material which is probably unusual
 469 for an average mathematician. It deals with the notions of an integral domain and of a field
 470 in constructive framework. Unlike the notions considered above the notions of an integral
 471 domain and of a field acquire additional distinctions in constructive Mathematics relative
 472 to the classical one. For example the condition ‘every non-zero element is invertible’ in the
 473 definition of a field has three non-equivalent constructive formulations – one can require
 474 that any element which is non-invertible is zero or that any element which is non-zero is
 475 invertible or that any element is either invertible or equals zero.

476 In `algebra1d.v` we consider the later definition (any element is either invertible or
 477 equals zero). It is the strongest (most restrictive) one and it immediately implies that the
 478 equality on a field is a decidable relation. This is clearly unsatisfactory for many purposes
 479 – for example real numbers or the ‘field’ of power series do not satisfy this condition. To
 480 deal with this problem one needs to introduce the notion of apartness relations and study
 481 their interactions with algebraic structures. Some information on the subject as well as
 482 further formalizations in the style of this library can be found in Pelayo *et al.*

483 In `algebra1d.v` we restrict ourselves to the case of decidable equality and give in that
 484 case a constructive definition of a field of functions of a (decidable) integral domain.

485 All constructions in the algebra files have non-trivial extensions from h-sets to arbitrary
 486 types. For example, the notion of a monoid generalizes to as yet undefined notion
 487 of an H-type which should include all the higher coherence structures associated with
 488 associativities. The notion of a partially ordered set generalizes to the notion of $(\infty, 1)$ -
 489 category and the notion of a partially ordered monoid generalizes to the notion of a
 490 monoidal $(\infty, 1)$ -category. I do not know what is the classical name for the higher
 491 analogues of rigs and commutative rigs (going from rigs to rings is straightforward since
 492 the only axiom involved is the invertibility of addition which has a formulation common
 493 for types of all levels) and whether such objects been considered. None of these have as
 494 yet been defined in terms of type theory.

495 7. File `hnat.v`

496 In this file, we provide basic constructions and results related to the arithmetic operations
 497 and comparisons on natural numbers. The type ‘`nat`’ is introduced in `Coq.Init`. We use this
 498 definition for natural numbers and also standard definitions for the addition, subtraction
 499 (which is defined such that for $n < m$ one has $n - m = 0$) and multiplication on ‘`nat`.’

500 Our approach to comparisons is different from the one used in `Coq.Init`. There the
 501 main comparison is ‘`le`’ which is introduced through an inductive definition based on the
 502 principle that ‘`le`’ is a family of types whose objects are either ‘reflexivity’ comparisons in

503 ‘le n n’ or successor comparisons obtained from constructor of the form ‘le n m -> le
504 n (S m).’

505 Since our library uses only those inductive constructions in Coq which are necessary
506 for the definition of the standard ingredients of the Martin-Löf type theory we do not use
507 ‘le.’ Instead we start with Boolean ‘greater’ which we call ‘natgtb’ defined by induction
508 on ‘nat’ as a function ‘nat -> nat -> Bool,’ define ‘natgth n m’ as ‘paths (natgtb n
509 m) true’ and then define the three other comparisons ‘natlth,’ ‘natleh’ and ‘natgeh’
510 in terms of ‘natgth.’ This has the advantage that the same definitions of ‘less,’ ‘less or
511 equal’ and ‘greater or equal’ in terms of ‘greater’ work for integers and rationals and the
512 proofs of the main properties of these comparisons from the main properties of ‘greater’
513 can be directly copied from the ‘nat’ case to the cases of ‘hz’ and ‘hq.’

514 After this choice of how to define the comparisons and prove their properties is made,
515 the rest is rather straightforward.

516 At the end of the file, we analyse the Coq.Init construction of ‘le’-types showing that
517 ‘le n m’ is always a proposition (i.e., has h-level 1).

518 8. File stnfsets.v

519 This is the first of the two files where we introduce constructions related to finite sets. In
520 this file, we deal only with ‘standard’ finite sets which are defined such that ‘stn n’ is the
521 type of natural numbers which are less than ‘n.’

522 Most of the file is occupied by constructions of various weak equivalences involving
523 standard finite sets. For example, we construct a weak equivalence between ‘weq (stn n)
524 (stn n)’ and ‘stn (factorial n).’

525 At the end of the file, we use the notion of a standard finite set to formulate and prove
526 results on bounded quantification and then to give a univalent proof of the accessibility
527 theorem for natural numbers.

528 9. File finitesets.v

529 We define the structure of having n elements on a type ‘T’ as a weak equivalence from
530 the standard set with n elements to ‘T’. A type ‘T’ is called a finite set if there exists (or, in
531 terminology of Univalent Foundations Project (2013), if there merely exists) a pair ‘tpair
532 _ n s’ where ‘n:nat’ and ‘s’ is a structure of having n elements on ‘T.’ We then use the
533 results of stnfsets.v to show that various constructions on finite sets produce finite sets.

534 An important property of our approach is that despite the fact that we use ‘mere’
535 existence in the definition of what it means to be finite, there is a function ‘fincard’
536 which computes the cardinality of a finite set.

537 Related to this function are several examples of computation which are included at
538 the end of the file finitesets.v. The property of Martin-Löf type theory which makes
539 automatic computation possible is known as *canonicity*. In its simplest form, the *canonicity*
540 *theorem* asserts that any object ‘o’ of type ‘nat’ defined in the empty context which is in
541 the normal form is a numeral, i.e., a sequence ‘S . . . S 0’ (recall that ‘0’ is the notation
542 for $0 \in \mathbf{N}$ and ‘S’ is the notation for the successor function $n \mapsto 1 + n$).

543 The possibility of automatic terminating computation is a corollary of this property
 544 combined with *strong normalization* – the assertion that any sequence of reductions starting
 545 with a given well-formed expression is finite[†].

546 By definition, an expression is said to be in the normal form if there are no reduction
 547 steps starting with this expression. Therefore, in a theory with strong normalization for
 548 any well-formed expression there is a finite sequence of reductions which results in an
 549 expression in the normal form. If the expression in question is an object of type ‘nat’
 550 we conclude that applying any normalization algorithm to this expression, we will obtain
 551 after finitely many step a numeral, i.e., we will *compute* this expression.

552 Consider now Martin-Löf type theory together with an added axiom ‘A:T.A.’ While
 553 in Martin-Löf type theory strong normalization holds over any context (i.e., after the
 554 addition of any number of axioms) the canonicity theorem usually fails over most non-
 555 empty contexts.

556 For example, if we obtain an object ‘o’ of type ‘nat’ using axiom ‘funextempty’ then
 557 there is no guarantee that its normal form will be a numeral or, as we say, there is
 558 guarantee that ‘it will compute.’ However, many expressions which contain an axiom will
 559 compute since the subexpressions containing the axiom get eliminated at some stage of
 560 the normalization process.

561 In Coq, there are two main normalization algorithms which can be called by the
 562 commands ‘Eval compute’ and ‘Eval lazy’ respectively. Theoretically these algorithm
 563 are equivalent in the sense that both are supposed to always terminate and the answers
 564 produced should coincide. In practice, I have encountered many cases when ‘Eval lazy’
 565 terminates in a reasonable amount of time while ‘Eval compute’ applied to the same
 566 expression takes too much time for me to wait it out.

567 The lines in the file `finitesets.v` which start with ‘Eval compute’ or ‘Eval lazy’ are
 568 tests to verify that the use of the axioms in various proofs of finiteness does not interfere
 569 with the computability of the cardinality function ‘fincard.’

570 Note that all of the axioms which we use in this library are corollaries of the general
 571 univalence axiom. So if or when the main conjecture on constructive interpretation of
 572 the univalence will be proved, we will have an algorithm which, when applied to any
 573 well-formed expression ‘o’ of type ‘nat’ which uses any of the axioms of the library will
 574 return an expression ‘o’ without any axioms in it and a proof that the new expression is
 575 pathsequal to ‘o.’ This algorithm will however be of a different kind than the normalization
 576 algorithms[‡].

577 **10. Files `hz.v` and `hq.v`**

578 In these two files, we define first integers ‘hz’ and then rational numbers ‘hq.’ In both
 579 cases we follow Bourbaki approach. In the file `hnat.v` we have defined a commutative rig

[†] Strong normalization is a difficult theorem. In particular, using a variant of Goedel’s argument, it can be shown that it cannot be proved unconditionally. In practice, all known proofs of strong normalization for Martin-Löf type theory require one to assume that a substantial portion of ZFC is consistent.

[‡] For a recent advance in solving this problem see <https://github.com/simhu/cubical>.

of natural numbers. To get ‘hz’ we apply the general construction ‘commrigtocommring’ of the ring of differences of a commutative rig from algebra1c.v. To get ‘hq’ we apply to the integral domain ‘hz’ the general construction ‘fldfrac’ of the field of fractions from algebra1d.v. Note that this construction requires the equality on the integral domain to be decidable. This is due to our definition ‘isafield’ of what a field is.

At the end of both files hz.v and hq.v are more test computations.

11. File funextfun.v

In this file, we introduce the univalence axiom and prove that it implies the functional extensionality axiom ‘funextfunax’ from uu0.v. The rest of the library does not depend on this file.

12. Appendix: On the Coq System for Naming and Loading Libraries

I am grateful to Dan Grayson for figuring out the answers to many questions which I had while writing this appendix.

At the top of the files of the foundations library (other than ‘uuu.v’) there are lines starting with ‘Add LoadPath’ and ‘Require.’ These are commands which tell Coq where to look for ‘libraries’ which are needed to compile the given file. For the purpose of this explanation I will use the file ‘uu0.v.’

Understanding why a particular combination of these commands, the ‘-R’ options in the ‘Makefile,’ and the ‘-R’ options in the emacs variable ‘coq-prog-args’ used by the ‘Proof General’ when starting ‘Coq’ works, while a slightly different one does not, can be very confusing. Below, I will try to describe the minimum that I believe is sufficient to understand why the particular choices made in foundations library work as they do and to be able to predict the effect of possible small modifications of these choices.

The ‘Require’ command in the file ‘uu0.v’ tells Coq to load a ‘library’ that is called ‘Foundations.Generalities.uuu.’ The word ‘Export,’ as opposed to the word ‘Import,’ means that ‘Foundations.Generalities.uuu’ will also be loaded every time the ‘Foundations.Generalities.uu0’ (the name of the library in the file ‘uu0.vo’) is loaded.

Two issues contribute to the complexity of the behaviour of these commands. One is how the name of the library which is contained in a given ‘.vo’ file is determined and another one is which files and directories Coq will look through when it tries to execute the ‘Require’ command and what will be the name of the library it will look for in each of these files (which will, as we will see below, be usually different from the name specified in the ‘Require.’)

The ‘.vo’ files are created by ‘coqc,’ the non-interactive mode of Coq, using as the input a ‘.v’ file, i.e., a file which contains the humanly readable Coq code. This is what the Makefile in the top directory of foundations library does: it calls the program ‘coqc’ for each of the ‘.v’ files in the library to produce the corresponding ‘.vo’ files. One cannot, for example, experiment with ‘uu0.v’ in ‘Proof General’ until ‘uuu.vo’ has been created by running ‘coqc’ on ‘uuu.v.’

620 If no, ‘-R’ option is given when ‘coqc’ command is called then the name of the library
 621 in the ‘.vo’ file created by this call is the name of the (main part of) the ‘.v’ file *as*
 622 *given to the ‘coqc.’* In the case of ‘uu0.v’ the command ‘coqc uu0,’ run in the directory
 623 ‘Foundations/Generalities/,’ will put the name ‘uu0’ to the library in the ‘uu0.vo’
 624 which it will produce. The command ‘coqc Generalities/uu0’ ran in the directory
 625 ‘Foundations’ will put into the ‘uu0.vo’ a ‘library’ called ‘Generalities.uu0.’

626 What will happen if an arbitrary ‘-R’ option is given to the ‘coqc’ command I do
 627 not know. If the option is of the form ‘-R ".’ "name"’ then the name of the library
 628 in the ‘.vo’ file will be the name one would expect without the ‘-R’ option with ‘name.’
 629 appended in front of it. The ‘name’ may itself consist of several components, e.g., it can
 630 be ‘Foundations.Generalities.’

631 Suppose now that we want to run coq on the ‘uu0.v’ file. When Coq reads the command
 632 ‘Require Export Foundations.Generalities.uu0’ it will start looking for a file whose
 633 name is ‘uu0.vo’ ‘on the ‘LoadPath.’”.

634 The latter expression means the following. ‘LoadPath’ is represented by a list of pairs
 635 where the second component of the pair is the actual name of a directory and the first
 636 component is an expression of the form ‘n1.n2...nk’ (where ‘ni’ are names) which
 637 Coq will use instead of the directory name internally.

638 One can find the content of this list from ‘Proof General’ by running Coq over the
 639 command ‘Print LoadPath.’

640 The ‘Add LoadPath’ command adds to this list the line which you would expect from the
 641 arguments of the ‘Add LoadPath.’ A version of this command ‘Add Rec LoadPath’ will
 642 also add the lines corresponding to all of the subdirectories of the directory mentioned
 643 in the arguments (except possibly some whose names contain symbols which are not
 644 permitted in identifiers).

645 If the Coq program was given ‘-R name namedir’ as an argument it will have the same
 646 effect on the ‘LoadPath’ as the command ‘Add Rec LoadPath "namedir" name.’

647 When Coq encounters the line ‘Require Export n1.n2...nk.n’ it does the following.
 648 First it looks for the file ‘n.vo’ in the directories ‘dirname’ which appear in ‘LoadPath’ in
 649 pair with ‘n1.n2...nk.’ It will take the first such file it finds and will check whether it
 650 contains library ‘n1...nk.n.’ If it does not it will not look for another possible match
 651 and will give an error message. If it does it will load the library.

652 The content of the ‘LoadPath’ can also be modified by using ‘-R’ option when calling
 653 Coq, e.g., by customizing the variable ‘coq-prog-args’ in ‘Proof General.’ One can
 654 experiment with the results of such modifications using the ‘Print LoadPath’ command.

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