SIGNATURES AND INDUCTION PRINCIPLES FOR HIGHER INDUCTIVE-INDUCTIVE TYPES

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Abstract. Higher inductive-inductive types (HIITs) generalize inductive types of dependent type theories in two ways. On the one hand they allow the simultaneous definition of multiple sorts that can be indexed over each other. On the other hand they support equality constructors, thus generalizing higher inductive types of homotopy type theory. Examples that make use of both features are the Cauchy real numbers and the well-typed syntax of type theory where conversion rules are given as equality constructors. In this paper we propose a general definition of HIITs using a small type theory, named the theory of signatures. A context in this theory encodes a HIIT by listing the constructors. We also compute notions of induction and recursion for HIITs by using variants of syntactic logical relation translations. Building full categorical semantics and constructing initial algebras is left for future work. The theory of HIIT signatures was formalised in Agda together with the syntactic translations. We also provide a Haskell implementation, which takes signatures as input and outputs translation results as valid Agda code.

1. Introduction

Many dependent type theories support some form of inductive types. An inductive type is given by its constructors, along with an elimination principle which expresses that it is enough to consider the constructors when defining a function out of the inductive type.

For example, the inductive type of natural numbers \( \text{Nat} \) is given by the constructors \( \text{zero} : \text{Nat} \) and \( \text{suc} : \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat} \), and has the well-known induction principle:

\[
\text{ElimNat} : (P : \text{Nat} \to \text{Type})(pz : P \text{zero})(ps : (n : \text{Nat}) \to P n \to P (\text{suc} n))(n : \text{Nat}) \to P n
\]

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$P$ is a family of types (i.e. a proof-relevant predicate) over natural numbers, which is called the induction motive. The arguments $pz$ and $ps$ are called the induction methods. The behavior of induction is described by a computation rule ($\beta$-rule) for each constructor and induction method:

$$\text{ElimNat } P\, pz\, ps\, \text{zero} \equiv pz$$
$$\text{ElimNat } P\, pz\, ps\, (\text{suc}\, n) \equiv ps\, n\, (\text{ElimNat } P\, pz\, ps\, n)$$

Indexed families of types can be also considered, such as length-indexed vectors of $A$-elements $\text{Vec}_A : \text{Nat} \to \text{Type}$. Mutual inductive types are yet another generalization, but they can be reduced to indexed families where indices classify constructors for each mutual type. Inductive-inductive types [37] are mutual definitions where this reduction does not work: here a type can be defined together with a family indexed over it. An example is the following fragment of a well-typed syntax of a type theory, where the second $\text{Ty}$ type constructor is indexed over $\text{Con}$, but constructors of $\text{Con}$ also refer to $\text{Ty}$:

$$\begin{align*}
\text{Con} & : \text{Type} & \text{contexts} \\
\text{Ty} & : \text{Con} \to \text{Type} & \text{types in contexts} \\
\bullet & : \text{Con} & \text{constructor for the empty context} \\
\triangleright & : (\Gamma : \text{Con}) \to \text{Ty}\, \Gamma \to \text{Con} & \text{constructor for context extension} \\
\iota & : (\Gamma : \text{Con}) \to \text{Ty}\, \Gamma & \text{constructor for a base type} \\
\Pi & : (\Gamma : \text{Con})(A : \text{Ty}\, \Gamma) \to \text{Ty}\, (\Gamma \triangleright \text{A}) \to \text{Ty}\, \Gamma & \text{constructor for dependent functions}
\end{align*}$$

There are two eliminators for this type: one for $\text{Con}$ and one for $\text{Ty}$. Both take the same arguments: two motives ($P : \text{Con} \to \text{Type}$ and $Q : (\Gamma : \text{Con}) \to P\, \Gamma \to \text{Ty}\, \Gamma \to \text{Type}$) and four methods (one for each constructor, which we omit).

$$\begin{align*}
\text{ElimCon} & : (P : \ldots)(Q : \ldots) \to \ldots \to (\Gamma : \text{Con}) \to P\, \Gamma \\
\text{ElimTy} & : (P : \ldots)(Q : \ldots) \to \ldots \to (A : \text{Ty}\, \Gamma) \to Q\, \Gamma \, (\text{ElimCon}\, \Gamma\, \text{A})
\end{align*}$$

Note that the type of $\text{ElimTy}$ refers to $\text{ElimCon}$; for this reason this elimination principle is sometimes called “recursive-recursive” (analogously to “inductive-inductive”).

Higher inductive types (HITs, [41, Chapter 6]) generalize inductive types in a different way: they allow constructors expressing equalities of elements of the type being defined. This enables, among others, the definition of types quotiented by a relation. For example, the type of integers $\text{Int}$ can be given by a constructor $\text{pair} : \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat} \to \text{Int}$ and an equality constructor $\text{eq} : (a\, b\, c\, d : \text{Nat}) \to a + d =_{\text{Nat}} b + c \Rightarrow \text{pair}\, a\, b\, d =_{\text{Int}} \text{pair}\, c\, d\, d$ targeting an equality of $\text{Int}$. The eliminator for $\text{Int}$ expects a motive $P : \text{Int} \to \text{Type}$, a method for the $\text{pair}$ constructor $p : (a\, b : \text{Nat}) \to P\, (\text{pair}\, a\, b)$ and a method for the equality constructor $\text{path}$. This method is a proof that given $e : a + d =_{\text{Nat}} b + c$, $p\, a\, b\, d$ is equal to $p\, c\, d$ (the types of which are equal by $e$). Thus the method for the equality constructor ensures that all functions defined from the quotiented type respect the relation. Since the integers are supposed to be a set (which means that any two equalities between the same two integers are equal), we would need an additional higher equality constructor $\text{trunc} : (y : \text{Int}) \to (p\, q : x =_{\text{Int}} y) \Rightarrow p =_{x =_{\text{Int}} y} q$. HITs may have constructors of iterated equality types as well. With the view of types as spaces in mind, point constructors add points to spaces, equality constructors add paths and higher constructors add homotopies between higher-dimensional paths.

Not all constructor expressions make sense. For example [41, Example 6.13.1], given an $f : (X : \text{Type}) \to X \to X$, suppose that an inductive type $\text{Ival}$ is generated by the point...
constructors \(a : \text{Ival}\), \(b : \text{Ival}\) and a path constructor \(\sigma : f\text{Ival} a = \text{Ival} f\text{Ival} b\). The eliminator for this type should take a motive \(P : \text{Ival} \to \text{Type}\), two methods \(p_a : P a\) and \(p_b : P b\), and a path connecting elements of \(P(f\text{Ival} a)\) and \(P(f\text{Ival} b)\). However it is not clear what these elements should be: we only have elements \(p_a : P a\) and \(p_b : P b\), and there is no way in general to transform these to have types \(P(f\text{Ival} a)\) and \(P(f\text{Ival} b)\).

Another invalid example is an inductive type \(\text{Neg}\) with a constructor \(\text{con} : (\text{Neg} \to \bot) \to \text{Neg}\) where \(\bot\) is the empty type. An eliminator for this type should (at least) yield a projection function \(\text{proj} : \text{Neg} \to (\text{Neg} \to \bot)\). Given this, we can define \(u := \text{con}(\lambda x. \text{proj} x x) : \text{Neg}\) and then derive \(\bot\) by \(\text{proj} u u\). The existence of \(\text{Neg}\) would make the type theory inconsistent.

A common restriction to avoid such situations is strict positivity. It means that the type being defined cannot occur on the left hand side of a function arrow in a parameter of a constructor. This excludes the above constructor \(\text{con}\).

In this paper we propose a notion of signatures for higher inductive-inductive types (HIITs) which includes the above valid examples and excludes the invalid ones. Our signatures allow any number of inductive-inductive type constructors, possibly infinitary higher constructors of any dimension and restricts constructors to strictly positive ones. It also allows equalities between type constructors, free usage of \(J\) (path induction) and \(\text{refl}\) in HIIT signatures, and allows mixing type, point and path constructors in any order.

The core idea is to represent HIIT specifications as contexts in a domain-specific type theory which we call the theory of signatures. Type formers in the theory of signatures are restricted in order to enforce strict positivity. For example, natural numbers are defined as the three-element context

\[
\text{Nat} : \text{U}, \quad \text{zero} : \text{Nat}, \quad \text{suc} : \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat}
\]

where \(\text{Nat}, \text{zero}\) and \(\text{suc}\) are simply variable names, and underlining denotes \(\text{El}\) (decoding) for the Tarski-style universe \(\text{U}\).

We also show how to derive induction and recursion principles for each signature. We use variants of syntactic logical relation translations to compute notions of algebras, homomorphisms, displayed algebras and displayed algebra sections, and then define induction and recursion in terms of these notions.

To our knowledge, this is the first proposal for a definition of HIITs. However, we do not provide complete (higher) categorical semantics for HIITs, nor do we show that initial algebras exist for specified HIITs.

The present paper is an expanded version of our conference paper [31]. In this version, we extend signatures with paths between type constructors, and in Section 7 we also compute notions of homomorphisms from signatures. We also explain a coherence problem in interpreting syntaxes of type theories, and how it influenced the current paper, in Section 4 and Section 9.

1.1. Overview of the Paper. We start by describing the theory of HIIT signatures in Section 2. Here, we also describe the syntax for an external type theory, which serves as the source of constants which are external to a signature, like natural numbers in the case of length-indexed vectors. In Section 3, we give a general definition of induction and recursion. In Section 4 we explain the choice of using syntactic translations in the rest of the paper. In Sections 5 to 8, we describe four syntactic translations from the theory of signatures to the syntax of the external type theory, respectively computing algebras, displayed algebras, homomorphisms, and sections of displayed algebras. In Section 9, we consider extending the
previous translations with additional components of a categorical semantics (e.g. identity and composition for homomorphisms), and explain why the approach in this paper does not make this feasible. Section 10 describes the Agda formalization and the Haskell implementation. We conclude in Section 11.

1.2. Related Work. Schemes for inductive families are given in [21, 39], and for inductive-recursive types in [22]. A symmetric scheme for both inductive and coinductive types is given in [9]. Basold et al. [10] define a syntactic scheme for higher inductive types with only 0-constructors and compute the types of induction principles. In [46] a semantics is given for the same class of HITs but with no recursive equality constructors. Dybjer and Moenclaey define a syntactic scheme for finitary HITs and show their existence in a groupoid model [23].

Internal codes for simple inductive types such as natural numbers, lists or binary trees can be given by containers which are decoded to W-types [1]. Morris and Altenkirch [36] extend the notion of container to that of indexed container which specifies indexed inductive types. Codes for inductive-recursive types are given in [24]. Inductive-inductive types were introduced by Forsberg [37]. Sojakova [44] defines a subset of HITs called W-suspensions by a coding scheme similar to W-types. She proves that the induction principle is equivalent to homotopy initiality.

Quotient types [29] are precursors of higher inductive types (HITs). The notion of HIT first appeared in [41], however only through examples and without a general definition. Lumsdaine and Shulman give a general specification of models of type theory supporting higher inductive types [35]. They introduce the notion of cell monad with parameters and characterize the class of models which have initial algebras for a cell monad with parameters. [18] develop semantics for several HITs (sphere, torus, suspensions, truncations, pushouts) in certain presheaf toposes, and extend the syntax of cubical type theory [17] with these HITs. Kraus [33] and Van Doorn [19] construct propositional truncation as a sequential colimit. The schemes mentioned so far do not support inductive-inductive types.

Cartmell’s generalized algebraic theories (GATs) [15] pioneered a type-theoretic notion of algebraic signature. GATs can be viewed as a variant of finitary quotient inductive-inductive signatures (QIITs), although GATs also support equations between sorts (type constructors), which so far have not been considered in QIIT and HIT literature.

The article of Altenkirch et al. [5] gives specification and semantics of QIITs in a set-truncated setting. Signatures are given as lists of functors which can be interpreted as complete categories of algebras, and completeness is used to talk about notions of induction and recursion. However, no strict positivity restriction is given, nor a construction of initial algebras.

Closely related to the current work is the paper by the current authors and Altenkirch [32], which also concerns QIITs. There, signatures for QIITs are essentially a restriction of the signatures given here, but in contrast to the current work, the restricted set-truncated setting enables building initial algebras and detailed categorical semantics.

The logical predicate syntactic translation was introduced by Bernardy et al. [11]. The idea that a context can be seen as a signatures and the logical predicate translation can be used to derive the types of induction motives and methods was described in [6, Section 5.3]. Logical relations are used to derive the computation rules in [30, Section 4.3], but only for closed QIITs. Syntactic translations in the context of the calculus of inductive constructions
are discussed in [13]. Logical relations and parametricity can also be used to justify the existence of inductive types in a type theory with an impredicative universe [8].

2. Signatures for HIITs

In this section we define signatures for HIITs. First, we list the main considerations behind our definition.

• Ubiquitous type dependencies. Recall the inductive-inductive Con-Ty example from Section 1: there, types of constructors may refer back to previous constructors. Additionally, Ty is indexed over the previously declared Con type constructor. This suggests that we should not attempt to stratify signatures, and instead use a fully dependent type theory. At this level of generality, stratification seems to complicate matters and remove the syntax further from familiar type theories.

• Referring to external types. We would like to mention types which are external to the signature. For example, length-indexed vectors refer to natural numbers which are supposed to already exist. Hence, we also assume a syntax for an external type theory, which is the source of such types, and constructions in the theory of signatures may depend on a context in the external type theory.

• Strict positivity. In prior literature, schemes for inductive types usually include structural restrictions for this. In our case, a universe is used to make size restrictions which also entail strict positivity.

• Iterated equalities and type constructor equalities, with path induction. We support iterated equalities by closing the universe under equality type formation of point and path constructors, together with a standard (although size-restricted) definition of path induction. We also introduce an additional type former for equalities between type constructors.

2.1. Theory of Signatures. We list typing rules for the theory of signatures in Figures 1 and 2. We consider the following judgments:

\[ \Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad \text{\( \Delta \) is a context in the external context \( \Gamma \)} \]
\[ \Gamma ; \Delta \vdash A \quad \text{\( A \) is a type in context \( \Delta \) and external context \( \Gamma \)} \]
\[ \Gamma ; \Delta \vdash t : A \quad \text{\( t \) is a term of type \( A \) in context \( \Delta \) and external context \( \Gamma \)} \]

We have the convention that constructions in the external type theory are notated in brick red color. Although every judgement is valid up to a context in the external type theory, note that none of the rules in (1)–(4) depend on or change these assumptions, and even after that, we do not refer to any particular type former from the external theory. We describe the external theory in more detail in Section 2.2. Also, the rules presented here are informal and optimized for readability; we describe the Agda formalizations in Section 10. We explain the rules for the theory of signatures in order below.

(1) The rules for context formation and variables are standard. We build signatures in a well-formed external context. We assume fresh names everywhere to avoid name capture, and leave weakenings implicit.

(2) There is a universe \( U \), with decoding written as an underline instead of the usual \( \El \), to improve readability. With this part of the syntax, we can already define contexts
(1) Contexts and variables

\[ \Gamma \vdash \Delta \vdash A \quad \Gamma ; \Delta , x : A \vdash A \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash A \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash x : A \quad \Gamma \vdash x : A \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash B \]

(2) Universe

\[ \Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash a : U \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash a \]

(3) Inductive parameters

\[ \Gamma , \Delta \vdash a : U \quad \Gamma , \Delta , x : a \vdash B \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash t : (x : a) \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash u : a \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash t u : B[x \mapsto u] \]

(4) Paths between point and path constructors

\[ \Gamma , \Delta \vdash t : a \quad \Gamma , \Delta , x : a, z : t \vdash = a x \mapsto p : U \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash pr : p[x \mapsto t, z \mapsto \text{refl}] \quad \Gamma , \Delta \vdash eq : t \mapsto u \]

\[ \Gamma , \Delta \vdash J_{a t} (x, z : p) pr u eq : p[x \mapsto u, z \mapsto \text{eq}] \]

(5) Paths between type constructors

\[ \Gamma \vdash a : U \quad \Gamma \vdash b : U \quad \Gamma \vdash a = U b \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{refl} : a = U a \]

\[ \Gamma , \Delta \vdash \Delta , x : U, z : a = U x \mapsto p : U \quad \Gamma \vdash b : U \quad \Gamma \vdash pr : p[x \mapsto a, z \mapsto \text{refl}] \quad \Gamma \vdash eq : a = U b \]

\[ \Gamma , \Delta \vdash J_{a (x, z : p) pr b eq : p[x \mapsto b, z \mapsto eq]} \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash J_{\beta a (x, z : p) pr a \text{refl}} : (J_{a (x, z : p) pr a \text{refl}}) = p[x \mapsto a, z \mapsto \text{refl}] \]

Figure 1: The theory of HIT signatures, parts (1)–(5). Weakens are implicit, we assume fresh names everywhere and consider \(\alpha\)-convertible terms equal. The \(\Gamma\) assumptions are only used in parts (6)–(7), see Figure 2.
(6) External parameters

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A : \text{Type}_0}{\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash (x : A) \to B} \quad \frac{\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash t : (x : A) \to B \quad \Gamma \vdash u : A}{\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash tu : B[x \mapsto u]}
\]

(7) Infinitary parameters

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A : \text{Type}_0}{\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash (x : A) \to U} \quad \frac{\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash t : (x : A) \to U \quad \Gamma \vdash u : A}{\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash tu : U[x \mapsto u]}
\]

Figure 2: The theory of HIIT signatures, parts (6)–(7). Parts (1)–(5) are given in Figure 1.

specifying the empty type, unit type and booleans, or in general, finite sets of finite sets:

\[
\bullet, \text{Empty} : U \quad \bullet, \text{Unit} : U, \quad \text{tt} : \text{Unit} \quad \bullet, \text{Bool} : U, \quad \text{true} : \text{Bool}, \quad \text{false} : \text{Bool}
\]

(3) We have a function space with small domain and large codomain, which we call the inductive function space. This can be used to add inductive parameters to all kinds of constructors. As U is not closed under this function space, these function types cannot (recursively) appear in inductive arguments, which ensures strict positivity. When the codomain does not depend on the domain, \(a \to B\) can be written instead of \((x : a) \to B\).

Now we can specify the natural numbers as a context:

\[
\bullet, \text{Nat} : U, \quad \text{zero} : \text{Nat}, \quad \text{suc} : \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat}
\]

We can also encode inductive-inductive definitions such as the fragment of the well-typed syntax of a type theory mentioned in the introduction:

\[
\bullet, \text{Con} : U, \quad \text{Ty} : \text{Con} \to U, \quad \bullet : \text{Con}, \quad \cdot : \text{Con} \to \text{Con}, \quad \cdot : \text{Con} \to \text{Con}, \quad \Pi : (\Delta : \text{Con})(A : \text{Ty} \Delta)(B : \text{Ty} \Delta) \to \text{Ty} \Delta
\]

Note that this notion of inductive-inductive types is more general than the one considered in previous works [37], as we allow any number of type constructors, and arbitrary mixing of type and point constructors.

(4) U is closed under the equality type, with eliminator J and a weak (propositional) \(\beta\)-rule. Weakness is required because the translations in Sections 7 and 8 do not preserve this \(\beta\)-rule strictly. We explain this in more detail in Sections 4 and 9. Adding equality to the theory of signatures allows higher constructors and inductive equality parameters as well. We can now define the higher inductive circle as the following context:

\[
\bullet, \text{S}^1 : U, \quad \text{base} : \text{S}^1, \quad \text{loop} : \text{base} =_{\text{S}^1} \text{base}
\]

The J rule allows constructors to mention operations on paths as well. For instance, the definition of the torus depends on path composition, which can be defined using J: given \(p : t =_a u\) and \(q : u =_a v\), \(p \cdot q\) abbreviates \(J_{a \cdot z. \cdot (t=x)} p v q : t =_a v\). The torus is given as follows.

\[
\bullet, \text{T}^2 : U, \quad b : \text{T}^2, \quad p : b =_{\text{T}^2} b, \quad q : b =_{\text{T}^2} b, \quad t : p \cdot q =_{(b=_{\text{T}^2} b)} q \cdot p
\]

With the equality type at hand, we can define a full well-typed syntax of type theory as given e.g. in [6] as an inductive type. Also, see the examples in the Agda formalization described in Section 10.


The question may arise whether our \( J \) is sufficient to define all constructions on paths which we want to express, as we do not have \( \Sigma \)-types in signatures, and we only have a weak version of \( \Pi \). First, as far as we know, all path constructions which occur in HITs in the literature are expressible using our \( J \), so it is certainly adequate in this sense. Second, we provide a sketch in our Agda formalization (see Section 10) that a Frobenius variant of \( J \) (first considered by Garner in [26, p. 13]) is derivable from the \( J \) given in Figure 1, which suggests that our \( J \) does not lose expressiveness because of the lack of \( \Sigma \) and \( \Pi \)-types.

(5) There is a different equality type former, which can be used to express paths between type constructors. To our knowledge, this has not been considered in previous HIT literature, although Cartmell considered equations between sorts in generalized algebraic theories [15]. For an example, paths between type constructors allow a compact definition of integers:

\[
\cdot, \ \text{Int} : U, \ \text{zero} : \text{Int}, \ p : \text{Int} =_U \text{Int}
\]

Here, successor and predecessor functions can be recovered from the \( p : \text{Int} =_U \text{Int} \) equality, by transporting an \( \text{Int} \) along \( p \) or \( p^{-1} \). This signature could be unfolded to a larger one, by replacing \( p : \text{Int} =_U \text{Int} \) with an explicit \( \text{suc} : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \) constructor and additional constructors expressing that \( \text{suc} \) is an equivalence. The definition of \( \text{Int} \) with a successor equivalence was previously suggested by Altenkirch and Pinyo [40] and Cavallo and Mörtberg [16].

For another example, we may have a HIIT definition for a type theory where Russell-style universes are compactly specified with an equality:

\[
..., \ \text{russell} : (\Gamma : \text{Con}) \rightarrow \text{Tm} \Gamma U =_U \text{Ty} \Gamma, \ ...
\]

In the presence of the univalence axiom, type constructor equations can be always equivalently represented using (4) path constructors, by adding explicit equivalences to a signature. In this case, type constructor equations serve as a shorthand for equivalences.

So far we were only able to define closed HIITs, which do not refer to external types. We add rules which include external types into signatures. A context \( \Delta \) for which \( \Gamma \vdash \Delta \) holds can be seen as a specification of an inductive type which depends on an external \( \Gamma \) signature. For example, in the case of lists for arbitrary external element types, \( \Gamma \) will be \( A : \text{Type}_0 \).

(6) is a function space where the domain is a type in the external theory. We distinguish it from (3) by using red brick color in the domain specification. We specify lists and integers as follows, with integers now given as quotients of pairs of natural numbers:

\[
A : \text{Type}_0 \vdash \cdot, \ \text{List} : U, \ \text{nil} : \text{List}, \ \text{cons} : (x : A) \rightarrow \text{List} \rightarrow \text{List}
\]

\[
\Gamma \vdash \cdot, \ \text{Int} : U, \ \text{pair} : (x y : \text{Nat}) \rightarrow \text{Int}, \ 
\text{eq} : (a b c d : \text{Nat})(p : a + d =_\text{Nat} b + c) \rightarrow \text{pair} a b =_\text{Int} \text{pair} c d,
\]

\[
\text{trunc} : (x y : \text{Int})(p q : a =_\text{Int} b) \rightarrow p =_x =_\text{Int} y q
\]

In the case of integers, \( \Gamma \) is \( \text{Nat} : \text{Type}_0, \ -++ : \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \), or alternatively, we could require natural numbers in the external theory. As another example, propositional truncation for a type \( A \) is specified as follows.

\[
A : \text{Type}_0 \vdash \cdot, \ \text{tr} : U, \ \text{emb} : (x : A) \rightarrow \text{tr}, \ \text{eq} : (x y : \text{tr}) \rightarrow x =_\text{tr} y
\]

The smallness of \( A \) is required in (6). It is possible to generalize signatures to arbitrary universe levels, but it is not essential to the current development.
Note that we can assume arbitrary structures in the external $\Gamma$ context, which in particular allows us to specify HIITs depending on other (external) HIITs. We can do this by first specifying a HIIT, then using the translations in Sections 5-8 to compute notions of algebras and induction, then assume the HIIT in the external context of another HIIT signature.

The (6) function space preserves strict positivity, since in the external theory there is no way to recursively refer to the inductive type being defined. The situation is analogous to the case of $W$-types [1], where shapes and positions can contain arbitrary types but they cannot recursively refer to the $W$-type being defined. This setup rules out some signatures; for example, rose trees cannot be specified as follows, because we cannot apply the external List to the inductive $T$:

$$A : \text{Type}_0, \; \text{List} : \text{Type}_0 \to \text{Type}_0 \vdash \cdot, \; T : U, \; \text{node} : A \to \text{List} T \to T$$

Analogously nested HIT examples are the “hubs and spokes” definitions in [41, Section 6.7]. To allow such definitions, we would have to analyze external constructions to check whether they preserve strict positivity. This is out of the scope of the current paper.

(7) $U$ is also closed under a function space where the domain is an external type and the codomain is a small source theory type. We overload the application notation for external parameters, as it is usually clear from context which application is meant. The rules allow types with infinitary constructors, for example, trees branching by a possibly infinite external type $A$:

$$A : \text{Type}_0 \vdash \cdot, \; T : U, \; \text{leaf} : T, \; \text{node} : ((x : A) \to T) \to T$$

Here, node has a function type (3) with a function type (7) in the domain. More generally, we can define $W$-types [1] as follows. $S$ describes the “shapes” of the constructors and $P$ the “positions” where recursive arguments can appear.

$$S : \text{Type}_0, P : S \to \text{Type}_0 \vdash \cdot, \; W : U, \; \text{sup} : (s : S) \to ((p : P s) \to W) \to W$$

For a more complex infinitary example, see the definition of Cauchy reals in [41, Definition 11.3.2]. It can be also found as an example file in our Haskell implementation.

Note that we do not include a $\lambda$ for infinitary function types, although we could possibly use it when describing paths between such functions. The reason is that $\lambda$ can be always represented in signatures by introducing additional function parameters which are constrained by pointwise equalities. For example, consider adding the following path constructor to the previously described $A$-branching trees:

$$\text{eq} : \text{node}(\lambda x. \text{leaf}) =_T \text{leaf}$$

This can be rewritten without $\lambda$ as follows:

$$\text{eq} : (f : A \to T) \to ((x : A) \to fx =_T \text{leaf}) \to \text{node} f =_T \text{leaf}$$

The benefit of supporting $\lambda$ would be less encoding noise in signatures. However, we observe that such usage of $\lambda$ is rather rare in HITs in practice, and hence omit $\lambda$ for the sake of simplicity.

The invalid examples $\text{ival}$ and $\text{Neg}$ from Section 1 cannot be encoded by the theory of signatures. For $\text{ival}$, we can go as far as

$$\cdot, \; \text{ival} : U, \; a : \text{ival}, \; b : \text{ival}, \; \sigma : ? =_{\text{ival}}?$$

The first argument of the function $f : (X : \text{Type}) \to X \to X$ is an external type, but we only have $\text{ival} : U$ in the theory of signatures. $\text{Neg}$ cannot be typed because the first parameter
of the constructor `con` is a function from a small type to an external type, and no such functions can be formed.

2.2. External Type Theory. The external syntax serves two purposes: it is a source of types external to a HIIT signature, and it also serves as the target for the syntactic translations described in Sections 5 to 8. It is not essential that we use the same theory for both purposes; we do so only to simplify the presentation by skipping an additional translation or embedding step. Also, we do not specify the external theory in formal detail, since it is a standard type theory. We only make some assumptions about supported type formers. We generally keep the notation close to Agda, and use brick red color to distinguish from constructions in the theory of signatures.

There is a cumulative Russell-style hierarchy of universes `Type_i`, with universes closed under \( \Pi, \Sigma, \) equality and unit types. Importantly, we do not assume uniqueness of identity proofs.

The unit type is denoted `\( \mathbb{1} \)` with constructor `tt`.

Dependent function space is denoted \( (x : A) \to B \). We write \( A \to B \) if \( B \) does not depend on \( x \), and \( \to \) associates to the right, \( (x : A)(y : B) \to C \) abbreviates \( (x : A) \to (y : B) \to C \) and \( (xy : A) \to B \) abbreviates \( (x : A)(y : A) \to B \). We write \( \lambda x.t \) for abstraction and \( tu \) for left-associative application.

\( (x : A) \times B \) stands for \( \Sigma \) types, \( A \times B \) for the non-dependent version. We sometimes use a short re-associated notation for left-nested iterated \( \Sigma \) types, for example \( (A : Type_0) \times A \times A \) may stand for the left-nested \( (x : (A : Type_0) \times A) \times \text{proj}_1 A \). The constructor for \( \Sigma \) is denoted \( (t, u) \) with eliminators `\( \text{proj}_1 \)` and `\( \text{proj}_2 \)`.

Both \( \Pi \) and \( \Sigma \) have definitional \( \beta \) and \( \eta \) rules.

The equality type for a type \( A \) and elements \( t : A, u : A \) is denoted \( t =_A u \), and we have the constructor `refl` and the eliminator \( J \) with definitional \( \beta \)-rule. The notation is \( \text{J}_{A, P, pr_u, eq} t \to P \to t =_A x \to Type, P_r : P \text{refl} \) and \( eq : t =_A u \). Sometimes we omit parameters in subscripts.

We will use the following functions defined using \( J \) in the standard way. We write \( \text{tr}_P e : P u \) for transport of \( t : P u \) along \( e : u = v \) and `\( \text{coe}_t : B \)` for coercion of \( t : A \) along \( e : A =_{\text{Type}} B \). We write `\( \text{ap}_f e : f u = f v \)` where \( f : A \to B \) and \( e : u = v \), also `\( \text{apd}_f e : \text{tr}_P e (f u) = f v \)` where \( f : (x : A) \to B \) and \( e : u = v \). Borrowing notation from the homotopy type theory book [41], we write \( p \cdot q \) for transitivity and \( p^{-1} \) for symmetry. We also make use of the groupoid law `\( \text{inv}_p : p^{-1} \cdot p = \text{refl} \)`.

3. General Definitions for Induction and Recursion

Armed with a definition for HIIT signatures, we would like to have of notions of induction and recursion for each signature. However, instead of trying to directly extract them from signatures, it is more helpful to have more fundamental (categorical) semantic concepts: algebras, homomorphisms, displayed algebras and sections of displayed algebras. Then, we can express induction and recursion using these.

Let us first consider natural numbers, and see how the usual definition of induction arises. For `Nat`, algebras are simply a triple consisting of a type, a value and an endofunction. Below, we leave universe indices explicit, and we use the notation of the external type theory.
described in Section 2.2.

\[
\text{Alg} : \text{Type} \\
\text{Alg} \equiv (N : \text{Type}) \times N \times (N \to N)
\]

Displayed \text{Nat}-algebras (sometimes called fibered algebras, as in [44]) are likewise triples, but each component depends on the corresponding components of a \text{Nat}-algebra. We borrow the term “displayed” from Ahrens and Lumsdaine [4], as our displayed algebras generalize their displayed categories.

\[
\text{DisplayedAlg} : \text{Alg} \to \text{Type} \\
\text{DisplayedAlg} (N, z, s) \equiv \\
(N^D : N \to \text{Type}) \times (z^D : N^D z) \times ((n : N) \to N^D n \to N^D (s n))
\]

Homomorphisms, as usual in mathematics, are structure-preserving functions:

\[
\text{Morphism} : \text{Alg} \to \text{Alg} \to \text{Type} \\
\text{Morphism} (N_0, z_0, s_0) (N_1, z_1, s_1) \equiv \\
(N^M : N_0 \to N_1) \times (z^M : N^M z_0 = z_1) \times ((n : N_0) \to N^M (s_0 n) = s_1 (N^M n))
\]

Sections of displayed algebras can be viewed as a dependently typed analogue of homomorphisms:

\[
\text{Section} : (\alpha : \text{Alg}) \to \text{DisplayedAlg} \alpha \to \text{Type} \\
\text{Section} (N, z, s) (N^D, z^D, s^D) \equiv \\
(N^S : (n : N) \to N^D n) \times (z^S : N^S z = z^D) \times ((n : N) \to N^S (s n) = s^D n (N^S n))
\]

Now, we can reformulate induction for \text{Nat}. First, we assume that there exists a distinguished \text{Nat}-algebra, named \text{Nat}*. The induction principle for this algebra has the following type:

\[
\text{Induction} : (M : \text{DisplayedAlg} \text{Nat}^*) \to \text{Section} M
\]

Unfolding the definitions, it is apparent that this is the same notion of \text{Nat}-induction as we gave before. The initial algebra consists of type and value constructors, the induction motives and methods are bundled into a displayed algebra, and as result we get a section, containing an eliminator function together with its \(\beta\)-rules. Additionally, we can define recursion using homomorphisms:

\[
\text{Recursion} : (\alpha : \text{Alg}) \to \text{Morphism} \text{Nat}^* \alpha
\]

This corresponds to \textit{weak initiality} in the sense of category theory: for each algebra, there is a morphism from the weakly initial algebra to it. Strong initiality in the setting of higher inductive types is called \textit{homotopy initiality} [44], and it is defined as follows for \text{Nat}:

\[
\text{Initiality} : (\alpha : \text{Alg}) \to \text{isContr} (\text{Morphism} \text{Nat}^* \alpha)
\]

where \text{isContr} \(A \equiv (a : A) \times (a' : A) \to a = a'). Hence, there is a unique morphism from the initial algebra, but in the setting of homotopy type theory, unique inhabitation can be viewed instead as contractibility.

Observe that the definitions for \text{Induction}, \text{Recursion} and \text{Initiality} need not refer to natural numbers, and can be used similarly in cases of other structures. Thus, the task in the following is to derive algebras, homomorphisms, displayed algebras and sections from HIIT signatures, in a way which generalizes beyond the current \text{Nat} example to indexed
types, induction-induction and higher constructors. But even in the general case, displayed algebras yield induction motives and methods, and homomorphisms and sections yield a function for each type constructor and a $\beta$-rule for each point or path constructor.

We compute algebras and the other notions by induction on the syntax of the theory of signatures. However, first we need to clarify the formal foundations of these computations.

4. The Coherence Problem and Syntactic Translations

The next task would be to define a computation which takes as input a $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ signature, and returns the corresponding type of algebras in some type theory. This would behave as a "standard" model of signatures, which simply maps each construction in the syntax to its counterpart: types to types, universe to universe, functions to functions, and so on.

However, it is important to interpret signatures into a theory without uniqueness of identity proofs (UIP), because we are considering higher inductive types, and hence must remain compatible with higher-dimensional interpretations. In particular, we need to interpret type constructors in signatures into type universes which are not truncated to any homotopy level. In this setting, even the mundane $\alpha : (N : \text{Type}) \times N \times (N \to N)$ natural number algebras may have arbitrary higher-dimensional structure.

On first look, we might think that the simplest way to formalize the algebra interpretation is the following:

1. Assume as metatheory a type theory without UIP.
2. In this setting, define a formal syntax of the theory of signatures.
3. Give a standard interpretation of signatures into the UIP-free metatheory.

It may come as a surprise that realizing the above steps is an open problem, for any syntax of a dependent type theory. We call the problem of interpreting syntaxes of type theories into a UIP-free metatheory a coherence problem.

This issue appears to arise with all known ways of defining syntaxes for dependent type theories. Shulman previously discussed this problem in [43]. It is also related to the problem of constructing semisimplicial types in homotopy type theory; as explained in [43] solving our coherence problem enables a construction of semisimplicial types.

In the following, we first consider the coherence problem in two settings: with intrinsically typed higher inductive-inductive syntaxes, then with conventional syntaxes involving preterms and inductively defined typing and conversion relations. Then, we present syntactic translations as a partial solution to the coherence problem.

4.1. Interpreting Intrinsic Syntax. Following Altenkirch and Kaposi [6], one might define the syntax of a type theory as a category with families (CwF) [20] extended with additional type formers, which supports an induction principle. The CwF part provides a calculus and equational theory for explicit substitutions, upon which one can build additional type structure. We present an excerpt below:
This notion of syntax is much more compact and often more convenient to use than extrinsic syntaxes. It is in essence “merely” a formalization of CwFs, which are often used in categorical semantics of type theory. However, its rigorous metatheory is subject to ongoing research (including the current paper). In a set-truncated setting, the current authors and Altenkirch have previously developed semantics and constructed initial algebras [32], but here we need to work in a non-truncated theory.

4.1.1. Set-truncation. Additionally, we prefer to set-truncate the syntax by adding the following constructors, for reasons shortly explained:

\[
\text{setTy} : (A \, B : \text{Ty} \, \Gamma) (p \, q : A = B) \rightarrow p = q
\]
\[
\text{setTm} : (t \, u : \text{Tm} \, \Gamma \, A) (p \, q : t = u) \rightarrow p = q
\]
\[
\text{setSub} : (\sigma \, \delta : \text{Sub} \, \Gamma \, \Delta) (p \, q : \sigma = \delta) \rightarrow p = q
\]

We can omit the rule for contexts, as it is derivable from the above ones. Set truncation forces definitional equality of the syntax (as defined by equality constructors in the HIIT signature) to be proof irrelevant. If we omit set-truncation, then the defined HIIT becomes very different from what we expect the syntax to be.

We can easily show that the non-truncated syntax does not form sets. For example, \(U[]\) and \([\text{id}]\) are two proofs of \(U[\text{id}] = U\), and they are not forced to be equal. Assuming univalence, we can give a model where types are interpreted as closed metatheoretic types, \(U\) is interpreted as metatheoretic \(\text{Bool}\), \([\text{id}]\) is interpreted as \(\text{refl} : A = A\) for some metatheoretic \(A\) type, and \(U[]\) is interpreted as the \(\text{Bool}\) negation equivalence, thereby formally distinguishing \(U[]\) and
Hence, by Hedberg’s theorem [27], the syntax does not have decidable equality, and hence it does not support decidable type checking. This also implies that the non-truncated intrinsic syntax is not constructible from set quotients of extrinsic terms (since those always form sets). The non-truncated syntax just does not seem to be a sensible notion. This situation is similar to how categories in homotopy type theory need to have set-truncated morphisms [3].

Unfortunately, set-truncation makes it impossible to directly interpret syntactic types as elements of a UIP-free metatheoretic Type_i universe. This is because we must provide interpretations for all set-truncation constructors, which amounts to showing that the interpretations of Ty, Tm, and Sub are all sets. However, we cannot show Type_i to be a set without UIP.

A possible solution would be to add all higher coherences instead of set-truncating, which would yield something like an (ω, 1)-CwF, but this is also an open research problem [7, 25].

4.2. Interpreting Extrinsic Syntax. An extrinsic syntax for type theory is defined the following way:

(1) We inductively define a presyntax: sets of preterms, pretypes, precontexts, and possibly presubstitutions. These are not assumed to be well-formed, and only serve as raw material for expressions.

(2) We give mutual inductive definitions for the following relations on presyntax: well-formedness, typing and conversion.

This is the conventional way of presenting the syntax; see e.g. [47] for a detailed machine-checked formalization in this style. The main advantage compared to the intrinsic syntax is that this only requires conservative inductive definitions in the metatheory, which are also natively supported in current proof assistants, unlike HIITs. The main disadvantage is verbosity, lower level of abstraction, and a difficulty of pinning down a notion of model for the syntax.

What about interpreting extrinsic syntax into a UIP-free universe? It is widely accepted that extrinsic syntaxes have standard interpretations in set-truncated metatheories, although carrying this out in formal detail is technically challenging. Streicher’s seminal work [45] laid out a template for doing this: first we construct a family of partial functions from the presyntax to the semantic domain, then we prove afterwards that these functions are total on well-formed input.

However, the coherence problem arises still: it is required that definitional equality is proof irrelevant. In a type-theoretic setting, this means that we need to propositionally truncate the conversion relation. This again prevents us from interpreting the syntax into a UIP-free universe. We have to interpret definitional equality in the syntax as propositional equality in the metatheory, but since the former is propositionally truncated, we can only eliminate it into propositions, and metatheoretic equality types are not generally propositions in the absence of UIP.

Could we define a conversion relation which is propositional, but not truncated? For example, conversion could be defined in terms of a deterministic conversion checking algorithm. But then a complication is that we do not have a proof that conversion checking is total and stable under substitution, while still in the process of defining the syntax.
Alternatively, we could first define a normalization algorithm for an extrinsic syntax in a UIP-free metatheory, and then try to interpret only normal forms. Abel, Ohman and Vezzosi demonstrated a UIP-free conversion checking algorithm in type theory [2], which suggests that UIP-free normalization may be possible as well. But since this normal form interpretation is a major technical challenge, and it has not been carried out yet, we cannot use it to justify constructions in the current paper.

4.3. Syntactic Translations. We can circumvent the coherence problem in the following way:

1. Define a source and a target syntax in any suitable metatheory, where the target theory does not have UIP. The source and target theories do not necessarily need to differ.
2. Interpret the source syntax into the target syntax.

For extrinsic syntaxes, it is generally understood that a syntactic translation has to preserve definitional equalities in the source syntax. For intrinsic syntaxes, preservation of definitional equality is automatically enforced by the equality constructors. See Boulier et al. [13] for a showcase of syntactic translations.

Now, we can take the source syntax to be the theory of signatures from Section 2.1, and the target syntax to be the external syntax from Section 2.2. Truncation in the source syntax is not an issue here, because the target syntax is likewise truncated.

However, using syntactic translations is also a significant restriction. As always, we must map equal inputs to equal outputs, but now the notion of equality for outputs coincides with definitional equality in the syntax of the target theory, which is far more restrictive than propositional equality. Recall the weak $\beta$-rule for $J$ in the theory of signatures in Section 2.1: if we instead used a strict equality, then the translations in Sections 7 and 8 would not work, because they map $J_{a t \ (x,z,p)} \text{pr}_t \text{refl}$ and $\text{pr}$ to terms which are equal propositionally, but not definitionally. This restriction also prevents us from defining more translations which cover other parts of the categorical semantics, e.g. composition of homomorphisms. We return to this topic in Section 9.

In the following three sections we present syntactic translations yielding algebras, homomorphisms, displayed algebras and their sections. The presentation here, like in Section 2.1, is informal and focuses on readability. In particular, we omit interpretations for substitutions and preservation proofs for definitional equalities.

5. Algebras

We use $-^A$ to denote the translation which computes algebras. It is specified as follows, for contexts, types and terms in the theory of signatures.

$$
\Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash A \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash t : A
$$

$$
\Gamma \vdash \Delta^A : \text{Type}_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash A^A : \Delta^A \to \text{Type}_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t^A : (\gamma : \Delta^A) \to A^A \gamma
$$

The $-^A$ translation is essentially the standard interpretation of signatures, where every construction in the source syntax is interpreted with a corresponding brick red construction in the target syntax. The only notable change is in the interpretation of contexts: a source context is interpreted as an iterated $\Sigma$-type.
\( (\Delta, x : A)^{A} \equiv (\gamma : \Delta^{A}) \times A^{\gamma} \)
\( x^{A} \gamma \equiv x^{th} \text{ component in } \gamma \)

(2) \( U^{A} \gamma \equiv \text{Type}_0 \)
\( (a)^{A} \gamma \equiv a^{A} \gamma \)

(3) \( ((x : a) \rightarrow B)^{A} \gamma \equiv (x : a^{A} \gamma) \rightarrow B^{\gamma} (\gamma, x) \)
\( (t u)^{A} \gamma \equiv (t^{A} \gamma)(u^{A} \gamma) \)

(4) \( (t = a u)^{A} \gamma \equiv t^{A} \gamma = u^{A} \gamma \)
\( (\text{refl})^{S} \gamma \equiv \text{refl} \)
\( (J_{a t(x,z,p) \text{pr} u \text{eq}})^{A} \gamma \equiv J_{a^{A} \gamma}(t^{A} \gamma)(\lambda x z p^{A}(\gamma, x, z)) (\text{pr}^{A} \gamma)(u^{A} \gamma)(\text{eq}^{A} \gamma) \)
\( (J^{\beta_{a t(x,z,p) \text{pr} u \text{eq}}}^{A} \gamma \equiv \text{refl} \)

(5) \( (a = b)^{A} \gamma \equiv a^{A} \gamma = b^{A} \gamma \)
\( (\text{refl}_{a})^{A} \gamma \equiv \text{refl} \)
\( (J_{a(x,z,p) \text{pr} b \text{eq}})^{A} \gamma \equiv J_{\text{Type}_0}(a^{A} \gamma)(\lambda x z p^{A}(\gamma, x, z)) (\text{pr}^{A} \gamma)(u^{A} \gamma)(\text{eq}^{A} \gamma) \)
\( (J^{\beta_{a(x,z,p) \text{pr} b \text{eq}}}^{A} \gamma \equiv \text{refl} \)

(6) \( ((x : A) \rightarrow B)^{A} \gamma \equiv (x : A) \rightarrow B^{\gamma} \)
\( (t u)^{A} \gamma \equiv (t^{A} \gamma) u \)

(7) \( ((x : A) \rightarrow b)^{A} \gamma \equiv (x : A) \rightarrow t^{A} \gamma \)
\( (t u)^{A} \gamma \equiv (t^{A} \gamma) u \)

For example, \( -^{A} \) acts as follows on signature for circles:
\( (\cdot, S^{1} : U, b : S^{1}, \text{loop} : b = b)^{A} \equiv \top \times (S^{1} : \text{Type}_0) \times (b : S^{1}) \times (\text{loop} : b = b) \)

Note that the resulting \( \Sigma \) type is left-nested, and we use the reassociated notation for readability. The result could be written without syntactic sugar the following way:
\( (x'' : (x' : (x : \top) \times \text{Type}_0) \times \text{proj}_2 x') \times (\text{proj}_2 x'' = \text{proj}_2 x'') \)

We shall keep to the short notation from now on.

### 6. Displayed Algebras

The \(-^{D}\) translation computes displayed algebras for a signature, which can be viewed as bundles of induction motives and methods. \(-^{D}\) is an unary logical predicate translation over the \(-^{A}\) translation. It is related to the logical predicate translation of Bernardy et al. [12], but our implementation differs by interpreting contexts as \(\Sigma\)-types instead of extended contexts.
We fix a universe level \( i \) for the translation. For each context \( \Delta \), \( \Delta^D \) is a predicate over the standard interpretation \( \Delta^A \). For a type \( \Delta \vdash A \), \( A^D \) is a predicate over \( A^A \), which also depends on \( \gamma : \Delta^A \) and a witness of \( \Delta^D \gamma \). All of these may refer to a target theory context \( \Gamma \).

\[
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \Delta^D : \Delta^A \rightarrow \text{Type}_{i+1}} \quad \frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash A}{\Gamma; \Delta^D : (\gamma : \Delta^A) \rightarrow \Delta^D \gamma \rightarrow A^A \gamma \rightarrow \text{Type}_{i+1}}
\]

For a term \( t \), \( t^D \) witnesses that the predicate corresponding to its type holds for \( t^A \); this can be viewed as a \textit{fundamental theorem} for the predicate interpretation.

\[
\frac{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash t : A}{\Gamma; \Delta \vdash t^D : (\gamma : \Delta^A)(\gamma^D : \Delta^D \gamma) \rightarrow A^D \gamma \gamma^D (t^A \gamma)}
\]

The implementation of \( -^D \) is given below. We leave \( \gamma \)-s mostly implicit, marking only \( \gamma^D \) witnesses.

\[
\begin{align*}
(1) \quad \gamma^D & : \equiv \top \\
(\Delta, x : A)^D (\gamma, t) & : \equiv (\gamma^D : \Delta^D \gamma) \times A^D \gamma^D t \\
x^D \gamma^D & : \equiv x^\text{th} \text{ component in } \gamma^D \\
(2) \quad U^D \gamma^D A & : \equiv A \rightarrow \text{Type}_i \\
(\varnothing)^D \gamma^D t & : \equiv a^D \gamma^D t \\
(3) \quad ((x : a) \rightarrow B)^D \gamma^D f & : \equiv (x : a^A \gamma)(x^D : a^D \gamma^D x) \rightarrow B^D (\gamma, x)(\gamma^D, x^D) (f x) \\
(t u)^D \gamma^D & : \equiv (u \gamma^D g) (u^A \gamma) (u^D \gamma^D) \\
(4) \quad (t =_a u)^D \gamma^D e & : \equiv \text{tr}_{(a^D \gamma^D g)} e (t^D \gamma^D) = u^D \gamma^D \\
(refl_t)^D \gamma^D & : \equiv \text{refl}_{(a^D \gamma^D g)} \\
(J_{at(x,z,p)} pr u \ \text{eq})^D \gamma^D & : \equiv \text{II} (\text{II}^D \gamma^D g) (\text{eq}^D \gamma^D) \\
(J_{\beta at(x,z,p)} pr) pr^D \gamma^D & : \equiv \text{refl} \\
(5) \quad (a =_b b)^D \gamma^D e & : \equiv \text{tr}_{(\lambda \gamma \rightarrow \text{Type}_i)} e (a^D \gamma^D) = b^D \gamma^D \\
(refl_{a^D}) \gamma^D & : \equiv \text{refl}_{(a^D \gamma^D g)} \\
(J_{a(x,z,p)} pr \ \text{eq})^D \gamma^D & : \equiv \text{II} (\text{II}^D \gamma^D g) (\text{eq}^D \gamma^D) \\
(J_{\beta at(x,z,p)} pr) pr^D \gamma^D & : \equiv \text{refl} \\
(6) \quad ((x : A) \rightarrow B)^D \gamma^D f & : \equiv (x : A) \rightarrow B^D \gamma^D (f x) \\
(t u)^D \gamma^D & : \equiv t^D \gamma^D u \\
(7) \quad ((x : A) \rightarrow b)^D \gamma^D f & : \equiv (x : A) \rightarrow b^D \gamma^D (f x) \\
(t u)^D \gamma^D & : \equiv t^D \gamma^D u
\end{align*}
\]

The predicate for a context is given by iterating \( -^D \) for its constituent types. For a variable, the corresponding witness is looked up from \( \gamma^D \).

The translation of the universe, given an element of \( A : U^A \gamma \) (with \( U^A \gamma \equiv \text{Type}_0 \)) returns the predicate space over \( A \). For \( a \)-types, we just return the translation of \( a \).

The predicate for a function type for inductive parameters expresses preservation of predicates. Witnesses of application are given by recursive application of \( -^D \). The definitions
for the other (non-inductive) function spaces are similar, except there is no predicate for the domain types, and thus no witnesses are required.

The translation for paths between \(a : U\) elements \(t =_a u\), for each \(e : (t =_a u)^A \gamma\), i.e. \(e : t^A \gamma = u^A \gamma\), witnesses that \(t^D\) and \(u^D\) are equal. As these have different types, we have to transport over the original equality \(e\). Hence, induction methods for path constructors will be paths over paths in the sense of homotopy type theory.

\(\text{refl}\) is interpreted with just reflexivity in the target syntax. The interpretation of \(J\) is given by a double \(J\) application, borrowing the definition from Lasson [34]. Here, we use a shortened \(J\) notation; see the formalization (Section 10) for details.

For \(a =_U b\) paths, the interpretation is essentially the same as with the other path type. Again, let us consider the circle example:

\[
(\cdot, S^1 : U, b : S^1, \text{loop} : b = b)^D (\text{tt}, S^1, b, \text{loop})
\]

\[
\equiv \top \times (S^{1D} : S^1 \to \text{Type}_i) \times (b^D : S^{1D} b) \times (\text{loop}^D : \text{tr}_{S^{1D}} \text{loop} b^D = b^D)
\]

The inputs of \(\neg D\) here are the signature for the circle (the context in black) and an \(S^1\)-algebra consisting of three non-\(\top\) components. It returns a family over the type \(S^1\), an element of this family \(b^D\) at index \(b\), and a path between \(b^D\) and \(b^D\) which lies over \text{loop}. This is the same as the usual induction motives and methods for the circle, e.g. as described in [41].

7. FROM LOGICAL RELATIONS TO HOMOMORPHISMS

In this section, we specify the \(\neg^M\) translation, which computes homomorphisms of algebras. We do so by first considering a logical relation interpretation, and then refining it towards homomorphisms. For dependent type theories, logical relation models are well-known (see e.g. [8]), so they are certainly applicable to our restricted syntax as well.

Below, we list induction motives for \(\neg^M\); these remain the same as we move from logical relations to homomorphisms. The universe level \(i\) was chosen previously for the \(\neg D\) translation.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma & \vdash \Delta \\
\Gamma & \vdash \Delta^M : \Delta^A \to \Delta^A \to \text{Type}_i \\
\Gamma & \vdash A^M : (\gamma_0 \gamma_1 : \Delta^A) \to \Delta^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \to A^A \gamma_0 \to A^A \gamma_1 \to \text{Type}_i \\
\Gamma & \vdash A : A \\
\Gamma & \vdash t^M : (\gamma_0 \gamma_1 : \Delta^A)(\gamma^M : \Delta^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1) \to A^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M (t^A \gamma_0)(t^A \gamma_1)
\end{align*}
\]

Contexts are mapped to (proof-relevant) relations and types to families of relations depending on interpreted contexts. For terms, we again get a fundamental theorem: every term has related standard interpretations in related semantic contexts.

We present below the logical relation interpretation only for contexts, variables, the universe and the inductive function space.

\[
\begin{align*}
(1) & \quad \cdot^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 & \quad \equiv & \quad \top \\
& & & \quad (\Delta, x : A)^M (\gamma_0, \alpha_0)(\gamma_1, \alpha_1) & \quad \equiv & \quad (\gamma^M : \Delta^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1) \times A^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M \alpha_0 \alpha_1 \\
& & & \quad x^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M & \quad \equiv & \quad x^\text{th} \text{ component in } \gamma^M \\
& & & \quad U^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M A_0 A_1 & \quad \equiv & \quad A_0 \to A_1 \to \text{Type}_0 \\
& & & \quad (a)^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M t_0 t_1 & \quad \equiv & \quad a^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M t_0 t_1
\end{align*}
\]
(3) \( ((x : a) \to B)^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M f_0 f_1 \equiv (x_0 : (a)^A \gamma_0)(x_1 : (a)^A \gamma_1)(x^M : (a)^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M) \to B^M (\gamma_0, x_0)(\gamma_1, x_1)(\gamma^M, x^M)(f_0 x_0)(f_1 x_1) \)

We interpret the universe as relation space, and function types as relations expressing pointwise relatedness of functions. This interpretation would work the same way for unrestricted (non-strictly positive) function types as well. For an example, this yields the following definition of logical relations between natural number algebras:

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \cdot, \text{Nat} : \text{U}, \text{zero} : \text{Nat}, \text{suc} : \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat} \rangle^M (\text{tt}, N_0, z_0, s_0) (\text{tt}, N_1, z_1, s_1) \\
\equiv \top \times (N^M : N_0 \to N_1 \to \text{Type}) \\
\times (z^M : N^M z_0 z_1) \\
\times (s^M : (x_0 : N_0)(x_1 : N_1)(x^M : N^M x_0 x_1) \to N^M (s_0 x_0)(s_1 x_1))
\end{align*}
\]

However, we would like to have underlying functions instead of relations in homomorphisms. We take hint from the fact that for classical (simply-typed and single-sorted) algebraic theories, a logical relation is equivalent to a homomorphism if and only if the underlying relation is the graph of a function [28, pg. 5]. Thus we make the following change:

\[
\begin{align*}
U^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M A_0 A_1 & \equiv A_0 \to A_1
\end{align*}
\]

This requires us to change \((a)^M\) as well, since we need to produce a type as result, but \(a^M\) now yields a function. We can view the result of \(a^M\) as a functional relation, and use its graph to relate \(t_0\) and \(t_1\):

\[
(a)^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M t_0 t_1 \equiv (a^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M t_0 = t_1)
\]

At this point we have merely restricted relations to functions, and left the rest of the interpretation unchanged. However, this is not strictly the desired notion of homomorphism. Consider now again the \(\_^M\) interpretation for natural numbers:

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle \cdot, \text{Nat} : \text{U}, \text{zero} : \text{Nat}, \text{suc} : \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat} \rangle^M (\text{tt}, N_0, z_0, s_0) (\text{tt}, N_1, z_1, s_1) \\
\equiv \top \times (N^M : N_0 \to N_1) \\
\times (z^M : N^M z_0 z_1) \\
\times (s^M : (x_0 : N_0)(x_1 : N_1)(x^M : N^M x_0 x_1) \to N^M (s_0 x_0) = s_1 x_1)
\end{align*}
\]

In \(s^M\), there is a superfluous \(x^M\) equality proof. Fortunately, in the translation of the inductive function space, we can just singleton contract \(x^M\) away, yielding an equivalent, but stricter definition:

\[
\begin{align*}
((x : a) \to B)^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M f_0 f_1 & \equiv \\
(x_0 : a^A \gamma_0) & \to B^M (\gamma_0, x_0)(\gamma_1, a^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M x_0)(\gamma^M, \text{refl})(f_0 x_0)(f_1 (a^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M x_0))
\end{align*}
\]

Now, the \(\beta\)-rule for successors is as expected:

\[
\begin{align*}
\gamma^M \to \gamma^M N^M (s_0 x_0) = s_1 (N^M x_0)
\end{align*}
\]

Note that this singleton contraction is not possible for a general non-strictly positive function space. We rely on the domain being small: \((a)^M\) yields an equation, but for general \(\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash A\) types, \(A^M\) only yields an unknown relation.

\(_{\tau}^M\) is similar to the translation to displayed algebra sections, which is discussed in the next Section. We will discuss in more detail the interpretations of equalities and the other
function types there. A full listing for the homomorphism translation can be found in Appendix A.

8. Displayed Algebra Sections

The operation \( -^{S} \) yields displayed algebra sections. Sections can be viewed as dependent homomorphisms: while homomorphisms are structure-preserving families of functions, sections are structure-preserving families of dependent functions.

Contexts are interpreted as dependent relations between algebras and displayed algebras. We again fix a universe level \( i \).

\[
\Gamma \vdash \Delta \\
\Gamma ; \Delta^{S} : (\gamma : \Delta^{A}) \rightarrow \Delta^{D} \gamma \rightarrow \text{Type}_{i}
\]

Types are interpreted as dependent relations which additionally depend on \( \gamma, \gamma^{D}, \gamma^{S} \) interpretations of the context.

\[
\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash A \\
\Gamma ; \Delta^{S} : (\gamma : \Delta^{A})(\gamma^{D} : \Delta^{D} \gamma)(\gamma^{S} : \Delta^{S} \gamma \gamma^{D})(x : A^{A} \gamma) \rightarrow A^{D} \gamma \gamma^{D} x \rightarrow \text{Type}_{i}
\]

For a term \( t \), \( t^{S} \) again witnesses a fundamental theorem.

\[
\Gamma ; \Delta \vdash t : A \\
\Gamma ; \Delta^{S} : (\gamma : \Delta^{A})(\gamma^{D} : \Delta^{D} \gamma)(\gamma^{S} : \Delta^{S} \gamma \gamma^{D}) \rightarrow A^{S} \gamma \gamma^{D} \gamma^{S} (t \gamma^{A}) (t^{D} \gamma^{D})
\]

We present the implementation below. Here, we make \( \gamma \)-s and \( \gamma^{D} \)-s implicit and mostly notate \( \gamma^{S} \) parameters and applications.

1. \( \gamma^{S} \gamma^{D} \quad \equiv \top \)

   \((\Delta, x : A)^{S} (\gamma, t) (\gamma^{D}, t^{D}) \equiv (\gamma^{S} : \Delta^{S} \gamma^{2}) \times A^{S} \gamma^{S} t \gamma^{D} \)

\(x^{S} \gamma^{S} \quad \equiv \text{xth component in } \gamma^{S} \)

2. \( U^{S} \gamma^{S} A A^{D} \quad \equiv (x : A) \rightarrow A^{D} x \)

\((a)^{S} \gamma^{S} t \gamma^{D} \quad \equiv a^{S} \gamma^{S} t = t^{D} \)

3. \(((x : a) \rightarrow B)^{S} \gamma^{S} f \gamma^{D} \quad \equiv (x : a^{A} \gamma) \rightarrow B^{S} (\gamma, x) (\gamma^{D}, a^{S} \gamma^{S} x) (\gamma^{S}, \text{refl}) \)

\((f x) (f^{D} x (a^{S} \gamma^{S} x)) \)

\((t u)^{S} \gamma^{S} \quad \equiv J (t^{S} \gamma^{S} (u^{A} \gamma)) (u^{S} \gamma^{S}) \)

4. \((t =_{a} u)^{S} \gamma^{S} e \quad \equiv \text{tr} (t^{S} \gamma^{S}) (\text{tr} (u^{S} \gamma^{S}) (\text{apd} (a^{S} \gamma^{S} e))) \)

\((\text{refl})^{S} \gamma^{S} \quad \equiv J \text{refl} (t^{S} \gamma^{S}) \)

\((J_{\alpha t} (x, z) \equiv pr u \text{eq})^{S} \gamma^{S} \quad \equiv \)

\[ J \left( J \left( J \left( J \left( \lambda \frac{p^{D} \gamma^{S} pr^{D} pr^{S}, pr^{S}}{pr^{D} \gamma^{2}} \right) (t^{S} \gamma^{S}) \right) (\text{uncurry} p^{D} \gamma^{2}) (\text{uncurry} p^{S} \gamma^{S}) (pr \gamma^{S} \gamma^{2}) (pr^{S} \gamma^{S}) \right) (\text{eq}^{A} \gamma) \right) (u^{S} \gamma^{S}) \right) (\text{eq}^{S} \gamma^{S}) \]

\((J_{\beta t} (x, z, p) \equiv pr)^{S} \gamma^{S} \quad \equiv \)
\[
(5) \quad (\text{refl}_a)^S \gamma^S \quad \equiv \quad \text{refl}
\]

\[
(6) \quad ((x : A) \to B)^S \gamma^S f \cdot f^{D_s} \quad \equiv \quad (x : A) \to B^S \gamma^S (f \cdot x)
\]

\[
(7) \quad (t u)^S \gamma^S \quad \equiv \quad \text{ap} (\lambda f. f \circ u) (t^S \gamma^S)
\]

The interpretations follow the same pattern as in the case of \(\sim^M\) up until \((x : A) \to B)^S\), with \(U^S\) defined as a dependent function instead of a non-dependent one. Also, \(U^S \gamma^S \ A \ A^D\) is precisely the type of sections of the \(A^D\) type family.

Let us consider now the translation in the corresponding induction principles in mind, defined as induction in Section 3.

The \(U^S\) rule yields the type of the eliminator function for a type constructor. For natural numbers, the non-indexed \(Nat : U\) is interpreted as \(Nat^S : (x : Nat) \to Nat^{D_s} x\). For indexed types, the indices are first processed by the \(\sim^S\) cases for inductive and external function parameters, until the ultimate \(U\) return type is reached. Hence, we always get an eliminator function for a type constructor.

Analogously, the \(\sim^S\) result type for a point or path constructor is always a \(\beta\)-rule, i.e. a function type returning an equality. That is because \((\_)^S\) expresses that applications of \(a^S\) eliminators must be equal to the corresponding \(f^D\) induction methods. Hence, for path and point constructor types, \(\sim^S\) works by first processing all inductive and external parameters, then finally returning an equality type.

In the case of \(t =_a u\) equalities, we only provide abbreviated definitions for the \(t u, t =_a u, \text{refl}, J\) and \(J\beta\) cases. In the \(J\) case, we write \(\text{uncurry}^D\) for \(\lambda \gamma. \gamma^{D_s} \circ x^{D_s} z^{D_s}\). \(\circ (\gamma, x, z) (\gamma^{D_s}, x^{D_s}, z^{D_s})\) and analogously elsewhere, to adjust for the fact that \(p\) abstracts over additional \(x\) and \(z\) variables. The full definitions can be found in the Agda formalization. The definitions are highly constrained by the required types, and not particularly difficult to implement with the help of a proof assistant: they all involve doing successive path induction on all equalities available from induction hypotheses, with appropriately generalized induction motives.

The full \((J_{at(x, z, p)} pr u eq)^S\) definition is quite large, and, for instance, yields a very large \(\beta\)-rule for the higher inductive torus definition (the reader can confirm this using the Haskell implementation). One could have an implementation with specialized cases for commonly used operations such as path compositions and inverses, in order to produce smaller translation output.
The circle example is a bit more interesting here:
\[(\ast, S^1 : U, b : S^1, \text{loop} : b = b)^S (\text{tt}, S^1, b, \text{loop})(\text{tt}, S^{1D}, b^D, \text{loop}^D)\]
\[\equiv \top \times (S^{1S} : (x : S^1) \to S^{1D} x) \times (b^S : S^{1S} b = b^D)\]
\[\times (\text{loop}^S : \text{tr}(\lambda x. \text{tr}_{S^{1D}} \text{loop} x = b^D) b^S (\text{tr}(\lambda x. \text{tr}_{S^{1D}} \text{loop}(S^{1S} b) = x) b^S (\text{apd} S^{1S} \text{loop})) = \text{loop}^D)\]

In homotopy type theory, the \(\beta\)-rule for \text{loop} is usually just \text{apd} \(S^{1E} \text{loop} = \text{loop}^D\), but here all \(\beta\)-rules are propositional, so we need to transport with \(b^S\) to make the equation well-typed. When computing the type of \text{loop}^S, we start with \((b = b)^S \gamma^3 \text{loop} \text{loop} \text{loop}^D\). Next, this evaluates to \((b = b)^S \gamma^3 \text{loop} = \text{loop}^D\), and then we unfold the left hand side to get the doubly-transported expression in the result.

For \(a =_U b\) equalities, let us examine here only the \((a =_U b)^S\) case. The interpretation is inspired by the univalence axiom, although the translation does not require it. If we assume univalence in the external theory, then \(a =_{\text{Type}} b\) equalities are equivalent to equivalences, which contain \(f : a \to b\) functions together with \text{isEqv} \(f\) proofs. Hence, we can view the \(e : a^A \gamma = b^A \gamma\) and \(e^D : \text{tr}(\lambda A. A \to_{\text{Type}} a) e (a^D \gamma^D) = b^D \gamma^D\) proofs as functions bundled together with witnesses of equivalence. Since \text{isEqv} is proof irrelevant, we only need to relate the underlying functions in the translation. For \(e\), the underlying function is given just by \text{coe} \(e\). For \(e^D\), the underlying function is a bit more complicated, since \(e^D\) is a path over a path. We can observe this in the example for higher inductive integers:
\[(\ast, \text{Int} : U, \text{zero} : \text{Int}, p : \text{Int} =_U \text{Int}^S)(\text{tt}, \text{Int}, z, p)(\text{tt}, \text{Int}^D, z^D, p^D)\]
\[\equiv \top \times (\text{Int}^S : (x : \text{Int}) \to \text{Int}^D x) \times (z^S : \text{Int}^S z = z^D)\]
\[\times (p^S : (\lambda x. \text{Int}^S (\text{coe} p x)) = (\lambda x. \text{tr} p^D (1 (\text{Int}^S x) p)))\]

In Appendix B, we additionally show how the type of displayed algebra sections is computed for the two-dimensional sphere. In Appendix C, we show the same for indexed W-types.

9. Possible Extensions to Categorical Semantics

So far, we were able to compute algebras, displayed algebras, morphisms and sections, and this allows us to state recursion and induction principles. Reiterating Section 3, for a signature \(\Gamma \vdash \Delta\) and assuming \(\Gamma \vdash \Delta^* : \Delta^A\) as a candidate algebra for the HIIT, we have the following types for induction and recursion:
\[
\Gamma \vdash \text{Induction} : (\gamma^D : \Delta^D \Delta^*) \to \Delta^S \Delta^* \gamma^D
\]
\[
\Gamma \vdash \text{Recursion} : (\gamma : \Delta^A) \to \Delta^M \Delta^* \gamma
\]

However, this is not the full picture. We would also like to have a category of algebras, with homomorphisms as morphisms. This is not without difficulties.

We are working in an UIP-free setting. In such setting, standard definitions of categories feature set-truncated morphisms [41]. But we have non-truncated notions of algebras and homomorphisms, so we cannot use the standard definitions. One solution is to simply use non-truncated categories; these have been previously called “precategories” or “wild categories” [14]. Sojakova demonstrated [44] that working with wild categories internally to type theory is enough to prove equivalence of induction and homotopy initiality for a class
of higher inductive types, which suggests that the same might be possible for HIITs. Still, it would be desirable to build semantics of HIITs in a richer \((\omega, 1)\)-categorical setting.

However, our current approach does not scale to the point where we have to worry about higher categories. We explain in the following. The natural next step towards a categorical semantics would be defining a \(-\text{ID}\) translation, which computes identity homomorphisms:

\[
\Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma \vdash A^{\text{ID}} : (\gamma : \Delta^A) \rightarrow \Delta^M \gamma \quad \Gamma ; \Delta \vdash A^{\text{ID}} : (\gamma : \Delta^A)(t : A^\Delta \gamma) \rightarrow A^M \gamma \gamma (\Delta^{\text{ID}} \gamma) \ t \ t
\]

Here, the interpretation of terms witnesses functoriality: \(t^M\) maps identity morphisms in \(\Delta\) to displayed identity morphisms in \(A\). We translate \(U\) to identity functions:

\[
U^{\text{ID}} \gamma A \equiv \lambda (x : A). x
\]

Assume that \(\sigma\) is a parallel substitution, and note that \(U\) and \(U[\sigma]\) are definitionally equal in the theory of signatures. The translation of the latter would be the following (omitting many details, including the handling of substitutions in the translation):

\[
(U[\sigma])^{\text{ID}} \gamma A \equiv \text{tr}_{\lambda x A \rightarrow A} (\sigma^{\text{ID}} \gamma) (\lambda x. x)
\]

Here, \(\sigma^{\text{ID}} \gamma\) yields an equation for functoriality of \(\sigma\). Since the transport is constant, the result is propositionally equal to \(\lambda x.x\). However, that is not enough, since we need to preserve \(U = U[\sigma]\) up to definitional equality.

Alternatively, we could try changing the \(-\text{ID}\) interpretation of terms and substitutions to get *definitional* equalities, instead of propositional equalities internal to the target syntax. This would not be a purely syntactic translation anymore, since for each \(\Gamma; \Delta \vdash t : A\) we would get a universally quantified metatheoretic statement expressing that for each \(\gamma\) term, \(t^M \gamma (\Delta^{\text{ID}} \gamma)\) is definitionally equal to \(A^{\text{ID}} \gamma (t^A \gamma)\). This would solve the strictness problem in the case of \(U[\sigma]\), since there would be no need to transport over definitional equalities.

Unfortunately, while this approach repairs \(-\text{ID}\) in some cases, other cases become unfeasible, because we are not able to produce definitional equations. For example, the interpretation of the identity type would be as follows:

\[
(t =_a u)^{\text{ID}} \gamma : (t =_a u)^M \gamma \gamma (\Gamma^{\text{ID}} \gamma) ((t =_a u)^A \gamma) \equiv U^{\text{ID}} \gamma ((t =_a u)^A \gamma)
\]

The goal type can be reduced along definitions, and using \(t^{\text{ID}}\) and \(u^{\text{ID}}\), to

\[
(\lambda e. \text{refl} \bullet \text{ap} (\lambda x. x) e \bullet \text{refl}) \equiv (\lambda e. e)
\]

This definitional equality is clearly not provable, although \((t =_a u)^{\text{ID}}\) does work when we interpret terms with weak internal equalities. Hence, there are strictness problems both with weak and strict equations for functoriality.

We consider three potential solutions:

1. Solving the coherence problem. This would allow us to interpret signatures into the metatheory, allowing preservation of definitional equality up to propositional metatheoretic equality.
(2) Reformulating the syntax of signatures so that definitional equalities become weak propositional equalities. We already use weak $\beta$ for $J$, can we do so elsewhere? However, this would result in an unusual and very inconvenient syntax of signatures, because we would need to weaken even basic substitution rules. In contrast, weak $\beta$ for $J$ seems harmless, because we are not aware of any HIIT signature in the literature that involves any $J$ computation.

(3) Instead of interpreting signatures into an UIP-free type theory, we interpret them into classical combinatorial structures for higher groupoids and categories, e.g. into simplicial sets. The drawback is that now we do not have the convenient synthetic notion of higher structures, provided by the syntax of type theory, and instead we have to manually build up these structures. Needless to say, this makes machine-checked formalization much more difficult. We have found mechanized formalization invaluable for the current paper, and it would be painful to abandon it in further research.

In summary, solutions for the strictness problems require significant deviation from the approach of the current paper, or require significant further research.

10. FORMALIZATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

There are additional development artifacts to the current work: a Haskell implementation, two Agda formalizations of the syntactic translations (a shallow and a deeper version) and an Agda formalization for deriving a Frobenius $J$ rule from $J$. All are available from https://github.com/akaposi/hiit-signatures.

The Haskell implementation takes as input a file which contains a of a $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ signature. Then, it checks the input with respect to the rules in Figures 1 and 2, and outputs an Agda-checkable file which contains algebras, homomorphisms, displayed algebras and sections for the input signature.

It comes with examples, including the ones in this paper, the inductive-inductive dense completion [37, Appendix A.1.3] and several HITs from [41] including the definition of Cauchy reals. It can be checked that our implementation computes the expected elimination principles in these cases.

The shallow Agda formalization embeds both the source and target theories shallowly into Agda: it represents types as Agda types, functions as Agda functions, and so on. We also leave the $-A$ operation implicit. We state each case of translations as Agda functions from all induction hypotheses to the result type of the translation, which lets us “typecheck” the translation. We have found that this style of formalization is conveniently light, but remains detailed enough to be useful. We also generated some of the code of the Haskell implementation from this formalization.

The deep Agda formalization deeply embeds the theory of signatures as a CwF with additional structure, in the style of [6]. However, it embeds the external type theory shallowly as Agda, and we model dependency on external $\Gamma$ contexts with Agda functions. We formalize $-A$, $-D$, $-M$ and $-S$ translations as a single model construction in Agda. This setup greatly simplifies formalization, since we do not have to reason explicitly about definitional equality in the external syntax, but we can still reason directly about preservation of definitional equalities in the theory of signatures. This semi-deep formalization can be in principle converted into a fully formal syntactic translation, because we prove all preservations of definitional equalities by refl. Due to technical issues and performance issues in Agda, this
deeper formalization uses transport instead of J for \( t =_a u \) equalities, and it does not cover elimination for \( a =_U b \) equalities.

11. Conclusions

Higher inductive-inductive types are useful in defining the well-typed syntax of type theory in an abstract way [6]. From a universal algebraic point of view, they provide initial algebras for multi-sorted algebraic theories where the sorts can depend on each other. From the perspective of homotopy type theory, they provide synthetic versions of homotopy-theoretic constructions such as higher-dimensional spheres or cell complexes. So far, no general scheme of HIITs have been proposed. To quote Lumsdaine and Shulman [35]:

“The constructors of an ordinary inductive type are unrelated to each other. But in a higher inductive type each constructor must be able to refer to the previous ones; specifically, the source and target of a path-constructor generally involve the previous point-constructors. No syntactic scheme has yet been proposed for this that covers all cases of interest while remaining meaningful and consistent.”

In this paper we proposed such a syntactic scheme which also includes inductive-inductive types. We tackled the problem of complex dependencies on previous type formation rules and constructors by a well-known method of describing intricate dependencies: the syntax of type theory itself. We had to limit the type formers to only allow strictly positive definitions, but these restrictions are the only things that a type theorist has to learn to understand our signatures. Our encoding is also direct in the sense that notions of induction and recursion are computed exactly as required and not merely up to equivalences or isomorphisms, and we also demonstrated that this computation is feasible to implement in computer programs.

We developed an approach where syntactic translations are used to provide semantics for HIIT signatures. Our approach seems to be a sweet spot for computing notions of induction and recursion in a formally verifiable and relatively simple way.

However, there is a coherence problem in the formal treatment of syntaxes and models of type theories internally to type theory. We sidestepped this by considering syntactic translations, but the problem remains, and it prevents extending the current approach to categorical semantics. Our impression is that the true solution will be the development of higher syntaxes and models of type theory in type theory. This may also require adding new features to the meta type theory. In particular, convenient formalization of higher categories seems elusive in conventional homotopy type theory, and we may need two-level type theories [14], or directed type-theories with native notions of higher categories [38, 42].

References


The specification of the $\mathcal{M}$ interpretation is as following.

$$\Gamma \vdash \Delta \quad \Gamma; \Delta \vdash A$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \Delta^M : \Delta^A \to \Delta^A \to \text{Type}_i$$

$$\Gamma \vdash A^M : (\gamma_0 \gamma_1 : \Delta^A) \to \Delta^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \to \Delta^A \gamma_0 \to A^A \gamma_1 \to \text{Type}_i$$

APPENDIX A. THE HOMOMORPHISM TRANSLATION


\[\Gamma; \Delta \vdash t : A\]

\[\Gamma \vdash t^M : (\gamma_0 \gamma_1 : \Delta^A)(\gamma^M : \Delta^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1) \rightarrow A^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma^M\ (t^A \gamma_0)(t^A \gamma_1)\]

We list below the implementation of \(\gamma^M\) on the full syntax. For brevity, we mostly leave \(\gamma_0\) and \(\gamma_1\) implicit, notating only \(\gamma^M\) where necessary. We also omit some subscript parameters from \(J\) applications. The interpretation follows the same pattern as in the case of \(-S\); the main difference is the interpretation of the universe as non-dependent function space. Additionally, the equality type former and reflexivity admit slightly nicer translations, since the lack of type dependency allows us to use composition and \(\text{inv}\) (which was noted in Section 2.2) instead of raw transports and path induction.

\[\begin{align*}
(1) \quad \gamma^M_0 \gamma_1 & \quad \equiv \top \\
(\Delta, x : A)^M (\gamma_0, \alpha_0) (\gamma_1, \alpha_1) & \equiv (\gamma^M : \Delta^M \gamma_0 \gamma_1) \times A^M \gamma^M \alpha_0 \alpha_1 \\
x^M \gamma^M & \equiv \text{the } x^{th} \text{ component in } \gamma^M \\
(2) \quad U^M \gamma^M A_0 A_1 & \equiv A_0 \rightarrow A_1 \\
(a)^M \gamma^M t_0 t_1 & \equiv a^M \gamma^M t_0 = t_1 \\
(3) \quad ((x : a) \rightarrow B)^M \gamma^M f_0 f_1 & \equiv \\
(x_0 : a^A \gamma_0) \rightarrow B^M (\gamma_0, x_0) (\gamma_1, a^M \gamma^M x_0) (\gamma^M, \text{refl}) (f_0 x_0) (f_1 (a^M \gamma^M x_0)) \\
t u^M \gamma^M & \equiv J (t^M \gamma^M (u^A \gamma_0)) (u^M \gamma^M) \\
(4) \quad (t =_a u)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \lambda c. (t^M \gamma^M) \cdot \text{ap} (a^M \gamma^M) c \cdot u^M \gamma^M \\
(\text{refl}_t)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \text{inv} (t^M \gamma^M) \\
(J_{a t (x.z.p)} pr u eq)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \\
\quad J \left( J (J (\lambda p_1 p^M pr_1 pr^M, pr^M) (t^M \gamma^M)) \cdot \text{uncurry} p^A \gamma_1 \cdot \text{uncurry} p^M \gamma^M \cdot \text{pr}^A \gamma_1 \cdot \text{pr}^M \gamma^M \right) (\text{eq}^A \gamma_0) (u^M \gamma^M) (eq^M \gamma^M) \\
(\beta_{at (x.z.p)} pr)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \\
\quad J (J (\lambda p_1 p^M, \text{refl}) (t^M \gamma^M) \cdot \text{uncurry} p^A \gamma_1 \cdot \text{uncurry} p^M \gamma^M) (pr^M \gamma^M) \gamma^M \\
(5) \quad (a =_u b)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \lambda e_0 e_1. (\lambda x. b^M \gamma^M (\text{coe} e_0 x)) = (\lambda x. \text{coe} e_1 (a^M \gamma^M x)) \\
(\text{refl}_a)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \text{refl} \\
(J_{a (x.z.p)} pr b eq)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \\
\quad J \left( J (\lambda b^M eq^M, J (\lambda P^M pr^M, pr^M) eq^M \cdot \text{uncurry} p^M \gamma^M \cdot pr^M \gamma^M) \right) (eq^A \gamma_0) (eq^A \gamma_0) (b^M \gamma^M) (eq^M \gamma^M) \\
(\beta_{at (x.z.p)} pr)^M \gamma^M & \equiv \text{inv} (pr^M \gamma^M) \\
(6) \quad ((x : A) \rightarrow B)^M \gamma^M f_0 f_1 & \equiv (x : A) \rightarrow B^M \gamma^M (f_0 x) (f_1 x)
\end{align*}\]
\[ (tu)^M \gamma^M \]
\[ ((x : A) \to b)^M \gamma^M \]
\[ (tu)^M \gamma^M \]
\[ \equiv t^M \gamma^M u \]
\[ \equiv \lambda f x. b^M \gamma^M (fx) \]
\[ \equiv ap (\lambda f. f u) (t^M \gamma^M) \]

Appendix B. Displayed algebra sections for the two-dimensional sphere

The two-dimensional sphere is given by the following signature:

\[ \Gamma : \equiv (\cdot, S^2 : U, b : S^2, surf : refl_b = (b = S^2 b) refl_b) \]

The sphere-algebras are computed as follows.

\[ \Gamma^A \equiv T \times (S^2 : Type_0) \times (b : S^2) \times (surf : refl_b = (b = S^2 b) refl_b) \]

Given a sphere-algebra and fixing a universe level \( i \), the displayed algebra is the following.

\[ \Gamma^D (tt, S^2, b, surf) \equiv T \times (S^{2D} : S^2 \to Type_i) \]
\[ \times (b^D : S^{2D} b) \]
\[ \times (surf^D : tr(tr_{S^{2D} - b^D = b^D} surf refl_{b^D} = refl_{b^D})) \]

Given a sphere-algebra and a displayed algebra over it, we get the type of sections:

\[ \Gamma^S (tt, S^2, b, surf) (tt, S^{2D}, b^D, surf^D) \equiv T \times (S^{2S} : (x : S^2) \to S^{2D} x) \]
\[ \times (b^S : S^{2S} b = b^D) \]
\[ \times \left( surf^S : tr (J refl b^S) \left( tr (J refl b^S) (apd (\lambda x. tr b^S (tr b^S (apd S^{2S} x))) surf) \right) = surf^D \right) \]

Note that if \( b^S \) is a definitional equality (that is, we have \( S^{2S} b \equiv b^D \)), the occurrences of \( b^S \) in the type of \( surf^S \) can be replaced by \( refl \). In this case the type of \( surf^S \) becomes the more usual \( apd (apd S^{2S}) surf = surf^D \).

Appendix C. Displayed algebra sections for indexed W-types

Indexed W-types can describe a large class of inductive definitions [36]. Suppose we have the external context \( I : Type_0, S : Type_0, P : S \to Type_0, out : S \to I, in : (s : S) \to P s \to I \). Then, the signature for the corresponding indexed W-type is the following:

\[ W : \equiv (\cdot, w : (i : I) \to U, sup : (s : S) \to ((p : P s) \to w (in s p)) \to w (out s)) \]
We pick a universe level $j$ for elimination. The $-^A$, $-^D$ and $-^S$ interpretations of $W$ are the following, omitting leading $\top$ components:

\[
W^A \equiv (w : I \to \text{Type}_0) \times ((s : S) \to ((p : P s) \to w (in \ s \ p)) \to w (out \ s))
\]

\[
W^D (w, sup) \equiv (w^D : (i : I) \to w i \to \text{Type}_j)
\]

\[
\times ((s : S)(f : (p : P s) \to w (in \ s \ p)) \to ((p : P s) \to w^D (in \ s \ p) (f p)) \to w^D (out \ s) (sup \ s \ f))
\]

\[
W^S (w, sup) (w^D, sup^D) \equiv
\]

\[
(w^S : (i : I)(x : w i) \to w^D i x)
\]

\[
\times ((s : S)(f : (p : P s) \to w (in \ s \ p)) \to w^S (out \ s) (sup \ s \ f) = sup^D s f (\lambda p. w^S (in \ s \ p) (f p)))
\]