Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq
Matthieu Sozeau, Yannick Forster, Meven Lennon-Bertrand, Jakob Botsch Nielsen, Nicolas Tabareau, Théo Winterhalter

To cite this version:
Matthieu Sozeau, Yannick Forster, Meven Lennon-Bertrand, Jakob Botsch Nielsen, Nicolas Tabareau, et al.. Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq. 2023. hal-04077552

HAL Id: hal-04077552
https://inria.hal.science/hal-04077552
Preprint submitted on 21 Apr 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L’archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire HAL, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d’enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

MATTHIEU SOZEAU, Inria, France
YANNICK FORSTER, Inria, France
MEVEN LENNON-BERTRAND, University of Cambridge, United Kingdom
JAKOB BOTSCH NIELSEN, Concordium Blockchain Research Center, Denmark
NICOLAS TABAREAU, Inria, France
THÉO WINTERHALTER, Inria, France

Coq is built around a well-delimited kernel that performs type checking for definitions in a variant of the Calculus of Inductive Constructions (CIC). Although the metatheory of CIC is very stable and reliable, the correctness of its implementation in Coq is less clear. Indeed, implementing an efficient type checker for CIC is a rather complex task, and many parts of the code rely on implicit invariants which can easily be broken by further evolution of the code. Therefore, on average, one critical bug has been found every year in Coq.

This paper presents the first implementation of a type checker for the kernel of Coq (without the module system, template polymorphism and η-conversion), which is proven sound and complete in Coq with respect to its formal specification. Note that because of Gödel’s second incompleteness theorem, there is no hope to prove completely the soundness of the specification of Coq inside Coq (in particular strong normalization), but it is possible to prove the correctness and completeness of the implementation assuming soundness of the specification, thus moving from a trusted code base (TCB) to a trusted theory base (TTB) paradigm. Our work is based on the MetaCoq project which provides meta-programming facilities to work with terms and declarations at the level of the kernel. We verify a relatively efficient type checker based on the specification of the typing relation of the Polymorphic, Cumulative Calculus of Inductive Constructions (PCUIC) at the basis of Coq. It is worth mentioning that during the verification process, we have found a source of incompleteness in Coq’s official type checker, which has then been fixed in Coq 8.14 thanks to our work. In addition to the kernel implementation, another essential feature of Coq is the so-called extraction mechanism: the production of executable code in functional languages from Coq definitions. We present a verified version of this subtle type and proof erasure step, therefore enabling the verified extraction of a safe type checker for Coq in the future.

CCS Concepts: • Theory of computation → Type theory.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: proof assistants, type checker, certification

Authors’ addresses: Matthieu Sozeau, Gallinette, Inria, France, matthieu.sozeau@inria.fr; Yannick Forster, Gallinette, Inria, France, yannick.forster@inria.fr; Meven Lennon-Bertrand, University of Cambridge, United Kingdom, mgapb2@cam.ac.uk; Jakob Botsch Nielsen, Concordium Blockchain Research Center, Denmark, jakob.botsch.nielsen@gmail.com; Nicolas Tabareau, Gallinette, Inria, France, nicolas.tabareau@inria.fr; Théo Winterhalter, Inria, Saclay, France, theo.winterhalter@inria.fr.

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1  Introduction</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  PCUIC: Coq’s core calculus specification</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Definition of the Syntax and Environments</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Universes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Cumulativity</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Dealing with the Guard Condition</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Definition of Typing</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Well-Formed Environments</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Equivalent Algorithmic Specification of PCUIC</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Universes: Valuation vs Acyclicity</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Conversion: Algorithmic presentation with equality and reduction</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Bidirectional Typing</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 Fixing Cumulativity for Pattern Matching on Cumulative Inductive Types</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Metatheory of PCUIC</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Accessibility and Well-Founded Induction</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Substitution and Weakening</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Confluence</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 Subject Reduction</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 Strong Normalization</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 Weak Call-by-Value Standardization</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7 Canonicity</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8 Consistency</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  A Sound and Complete Checker for PCUIC</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Technical Insight</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Abstract Computational Environment</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Conversion and Cumulativity Without Fuel</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 A Typechecking Algorithm for PCUIC</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  Type and Proof Erasure for PCUIC</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 The Target Calculus $\lambda_\square$</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Definition of an Erasure Function</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Correctness of Erasure</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 Optimizations</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Related Work</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  Conclusion and Future Work</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgments</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 INTRODUCTION

Even Proof Assistants Have Bugs. Since the introduction of the Calculus of Inductive Constructions (CIC) and the first implementation of the Coq proof assistant, very few issues have been found in the underlying theory of Coq. There have been several debates on what should be the core type theory, because making it stronger can turn it inconsistent with common axioms, but the

---

1For instance, the fact that the sort Set of sets was impredicative by default has been changed to maintain compatibility with the axiom of excluded middle.
type theory supporting the Coq proof assistant is overall very stable and reliable. This is however far from being the case for the implementation of the kernel of Coq, for which on average one critical bug is found every year. The interested reader can directly jump to https://github.com/coq/coq/blob/master/dev/doc/critical-bugs, where the list of critical bugs that have been found in the Coq proof assistant is maintained. For instance, one can find there that for some time, there was a substitution missing in the body of a let in the definition of match, somewhere in the code, which could lead to a proof of \( \bot \).

Fortunately, all those critical bugs are very tricky to exhibit, and would be very unlikely to happen by accident, but still a malicious developer could exploit them to produce very hard to detect fake formalizations. At a time when certificates obtained from proof assistants such as Coq are gaining traction in the safety & security industry,\(^2\) this looks like a bad joke.

However, implementing and maintaining an efficient and bug free type checker for CIC is a very complex task, due to its size and the fact that the implementation relies on many invariants which are not always explicit and easy to break by modifying the code or adding new functionality. In this paper, we describe the first implementation of a type checker for the core language of Coq, which is proven sound and complete in Coq with respect to an entirely formal specification of the calculus.

Certifying Proof Assistants using Proof Assistants. We would like to mention right away that we are not claiming to prove the consistency of Coq in Coq, which would obviously contradict Gödel’s second incompleteness theorem stating that no consistent axiomatic system which includes Peano arithmetic can prove its own consistency.\(^3\) Prior work by Barras [2012] went as far as possible in this direction, proving in Coq that an idealized variant of the calculus of inductive constructions with \( n \) universes is relatively consistent to an internalization of ZFC with \( n \) Grothendieck universes. Similarly, Abel et al. [2018a] prove in Agda with inductive-recursive types the strong normalization of Martin-Löf Type Theory with natural numbers and two universes. However, although it is not possible to prove the consistency of the kernel of Coq using Coq, it is perfectly possible to prove the correctness of an implementation of a type checker assuming the consistency of the theory. Our work requires much less logical strength than for instance the existence of inductive-recursive definitions, involving only inductive families on decidable types and structurally recursive definitions. In practice, our formalization assumes strong normalization of the reduction of CIC, although most of the meta-theory is developed without using that axiom. Indeed, it is mainly used as a basis for the implementation of algorithmic conversion, which is defined by recursion on the strong normalization assumption. Barras [1999] constructed the first formalization of the Calculus of Constructions (with 2 universes) in Coq, we extend this to the full theory of Coq including the full cumulative universe hierarchy, universe polymorphism and cumulative (co)inductive type families.

Note that the strong normalization assumption is intimately related to the so-called guard condition, the restriction on (co)fixpoint definitions which makes it impossible to define non-terminating functions, and therefore to prove \( \bot \). Our point of view on the guard condition is abstract: we formalize it as a parameter of the theory which implies strong normalization, and we collect on the way the syntactic requirements it should fulfill for the meta-theory to satisfy important properties such as subject reduction. For instance, the guard condition has to be stable under reduction, otherwise some accepted fixpoints may not type-check after reduction.

---

\(^2\)For instance, the French National Cybersecurity Agency (ANSSI) has defined requirements on the use of Coq in the context of Common Criteria Evaluations [ANSSI 2021].

\(^3\)Gödel’s orginal proof was done in the setting of Peano arithmetic (which is classical). But it can also be performed using Heyting arithmetic, which lets us think that it is applicable to CIC even if no precise result have been stated in the literature.
From a Trusted Code Base to a Trusted Theory Base Paradigm. Thus, the assumed normalization with its accompanying requirements on the guard condition is the only Achilles heel of our formalization: if it holds, then there is no error in the implementation. So, this paper proposes to switch from a trusted code base to a trusted theory base paradigm! Moreover, if one of the assumed properties were false, the implementation might be wrong, but there would be a much more serious problem to fix in Coq’s meta-theory. Without getting into philosophical debates, we argue that this work provides important assurances about the correctness of the system, that is complimentary to the many theoretical studies of variants of the Calculus of Constructions and Martin-Löf Type Theory from the literature [Coquand and Huet 1988; Martin-Löf 1998], of which none is as close to the calculus actually implemented in Coq as our work. True believers in computation and type theory might actually enjoy the relatively small, formal specification of the calculus implemented in Coq (a few pages for the typing and cumulativity rules). Our work also sheds light on the many formal properties of the calculus that are used by the implementation, are probably known by most developers of proof assistants, but are seldom spelled out in detail, and formally. We believe that getting a better understanding of those properties can serve as a guide for better and more efficient implementations in the near future.

To avoid unnecessary complications, we work with a mildly simplified version of Coq’s core language we call PCUIC (for Predicative Calculus of CUmulative Inductive Constructions4), and show an equivalence with the implemented version (up to representation of strings and arrays). Note that the kernel of Coq also includes a module system, template polymorphism, 𝜂-conversion and efficient conversion algorithms, and primitive integers as well as arrays that we exclude for now.

From Specification to Implementation. We start by providing an entirely declarative version of the specification, as close as possible to its mathematical presentation on paper. For instance, the definition of the consistency of a polymorphic universe hierarchy via a valuation in natural numbers is very direct, without resorting to notions such as graphs of universes or acyclicity. Similarly, the specification of the cumulativity and conversion relations is a proper inductive judgmental equality judgment, which does not even mention a notion of reduction.

From this, we proceed by separating the specification of the type system of PCUIC from its implementation—in two steps. First, we provide an intermediate “algorithmic” specification, that is much closer to the implementation, and which we show equivalent to the declarative specification. This algorithmic specification uses acyclic graphs to represent universe constraints, equality up to reduction for conversion and a bidirectional version of typing [Lennon-Bertrand 2021; Pierce and Turner 2000] in order to constrain the use of the conversion rule to specific places, and get canonical typing derivations. The proof that the declarative and algorithmic presentations of PCUIC are equivalent requires strong meta-theoretical properties on the algorithmic version, such as confluence of reduction, or subject reduction, that are all formally proven. Note that this part of our work does not rely on normalization, thus the equivalence between the declarative and algorithmic presentations of PCUIC is axiom free.

Second, to move from the algorithmic specification to an actual implementation, we rely on the (iterated) comparison of weak-head normal forms (whnfs) to test cumulativity and conversion. Therefore, our proofs of soundness and completeness show that the abstract declarative specification can be decided this way, providing on the way a form of standardization theorem for reduction. Of course, termination of reduction to whnfs only holds if the system is strongly normalizing, and this is actually the only place where we need to use this axiom. This axiom is propositional, so we also know that none of the programs we develop can rely on its computational content, and it can

4Despite the “Predicative” in the name, the calculus includes an impredicative sort Prop.
be safely erased by extraction. The rest of the meta-theoretical properties have been developed entirely independently of it.

A Type-checking algorithm parametrized with decision procedures. The type-checking algorithm is written in the form of proof-carrying code, because we are only able to call the conversion algorithm on well-typed terms (otherwise conversion checking may not terminate), and we thus cannot separate the correctness of the type checker from its definition. In practice, this means that the type checker is a complex interleaving of decision procedures (such as universe consistency checking or lookup in the global environment), and proof obligations saying that those checks are actually correct. So some extra care is needed to make sure that all decision procedures actually lead to pieces of code that can be run. To do so, we have parametrized the type checker by the various decision procedures and proofs that they are correct. This has two main advantages. First, we can later instantiate one decision procedure with a more efficient one, as long as it meets the specification. For instance, we can replace our current naive implementation of acyclicity and constraint checking with a more efficient one, such as the incremental cycle detection algorithm of Bender et al. [2015] actually used in the Coq kernel, while being sure not to break anything in the type checker, as soon as we know that the efficient implementation fulfills the same specification. The second interest of dealing with an interface for decision procedures is that we can make sure not to use any other inlined decision procedure in the type-checking algorithm by putting all remaining pieces of information in Prop.

Towards a Certified Extraction. Finally, to get a reasonably fast implementation, we need to extract to an efficient language such as OCaml. In order to maintain the correctness guarantees on the extracted code, we also implement a proven correct type and proof erasure algorithm based on the work by Letouzey [2004]. Note that during the development of the type checking algorithm, we experienced difficulties to extract it because extraction was producing an ill-typed term, which supports our claim that a certified extraction is needed.

Outline of the Paper. §2 presents the abstract specification of universes, cumulativity/conversion as well as typing for PCUIC. §3 describes the equivalent algorithmic presentation of PCUIC, where universes are described using an acyclic graph, cumulativity is defined by reduction and typing is bidirectional. §4 presents the meta-theoretical properties of PCUIC—such as confluence and subject reduction—that are required to define the correct and complete type checking algorithm, whose definition is deferred to §5. §6 explains type and proof erasure for PCUIC. §7 discusses related work and §8 concludes and discusses future work.

The complete Coq formalization can be found on the Metacoq project page\(^5\). The whole project is more than 300kloc of Coq code and a thin layer of 10kLoC of OCaml to interoperate with Coq’s implementation. It takes around 15 min to compile on a standard recent machine. The current article describes the 1.2 version of Metacoq, available for Coq 8.16 [The Coq Development Team 2022] as an opam package.\(^6\) In the remainder of the text, we refer to PCUIC: MyFile to indicate the file PCUICMyFile.v in the development. The electronic version has links to the coqdoc documentation on the web.

Prior publication. This paper is a substantial extension of a prior conference publication [Sozeau et al. 2019b]. The main addition is the proof of completeness, which is done by considering bidirectional type checking as an intermediate specification. Contrarily to this previous work, we present the certification of the type checker in two steps, first an equivalence between the

\(^5\)https://github.com/MetaCoq/metacoq/tree/v1.2-8.16
\(^6\)See the installation instructions for details
Inductive term: Set :=
| tRel (n : \mathbb{N})
| tSort (u : universe)
| tProd (na : name) (A B : term)
| tLambda (na : name) (A t : term)
| tLetIn (na : name) (b B t : term)
| tApp (u v : term)
| tConst (k : kername) (ui : universe_instance)
| tInd (ind : inductive) (ui : universe_instance)
| tConstruct (ind : inductive) (n : \mathbb{N}) (ui : universe_instance)
| tCase (indn : case_info) (p : predicate term) (c : term) (brs : list (branch term))
| tProj (p : projection) (c : term)
| tFix (mfix : mfixpoint term) (idx : \mathbb{N})
| tCoFix (mfix : mfixpoint term) (idx : \mathbb{N})

Fixpoint mkApps (t : term) (us : list term) : term :=
match us with
| [] => t
| u :: us => mkApps (tApp t u) us
end.

Fig. 1. Syntax of PCUIC

mathematical specification of the system and its algorithmic specification, and then the equivalence with the decision procedure. This led us to the discovery of a completeness bug in Coq itself, which has then been corrected in Coq (since version 8.14) thanks to our work.

This paper also contains the first formal treatment of cumulative inductive types, in particular a proof of subject reduction for the resulting calculus. To date, only a semantic work over a simplified fragment was covered in the literature [Timany and Sozeau 2018]. Finally, we provide a complete and more precise formal proof of correctness for erasure, which was relying on conjectures in the conference version.

2 PCUIC: COQ’S CORE CALCULUS SPECIFICATION

As a type system, PCUIC is an extension of the Predicative Calculus of (Co)-Inductive Constructions, a Pure Type System with an infinite hierarchy of universes Type_\iota and an impredicative sort Prop, extended with cumulative inductive and coinductive type families. The system also includes universe polymorphism [Harper and Pollack 1991; Sozeau and Tabareau 2014], making it flexible in handling constructions that are generic in universes and cumulative inductive types as introduced and justified by Timany and Sozeau [2017] with a pen and paper proof (for a variant of the calculus with eliminators).

As a programming language, PCUIC is a standard pure dependent \lambda-calculus extended with a let-in construct for local definitions, case analysis and projections of datatypes and mutual (co)recursion operators.

The specification of PCUIC in Coq follows the pattern of the specification of the kernel of Coq inside Coq itself, as already described by Anand et al. [2018] and Sozeau et al. [2019a]. We now explain the syntax, universes, (untyped) cumulativity and typing judgments of PCUIC.
2.1 Definition of the Syntax and Environments

The syntax of PCUIC is defined in Fig. 1. This inductive type is a direct representation of the constr datatype used in the implementation of Coq terms in OCaml. The only difference is that PCUIC’s application \( \text{tApp} \) is binary—while it is \( n \)-ary in the OCaml implementation—and that PCUIC has no type cast construct\(^7\). We can define \( n \)-ary application \text{a posteriori} as the fixpoint \( \text{mkApps} \), but this \( n \)-ary application is not primitive in PCUIC. The constructor \( \text{tRel} \) represents variables—using de Bruijn indices implemented as natural numbers—bound by abstractions (introduced by \( \text{tLambda} \)), dependent products (introduced by \( \text{tProd} \)) and local definitions (introduced by \( \text{tLetIn} \)). The type name is a printing annotation. Sorts are represented with \( \text{tSort} \), which takes a universe as argument. A universe can be either \( \text{lProp} \) or a more complex expression representing one of the \( \text{lType} \) universes. More details are given in §2.2.

The three constructors \( \text{tConst}, \text{tInd} \) and \( \text{tConstruct} \) represent references to constants declared in a global environment. The first is for definitions or axioms, the second for (co)inductive types or record types, and the last for constructors of inductive types. Because we handle universe polymorphism, those three constructors take a universe_instance, which is a list of Level.

The constructor \( \text{tCase} \) represents pattern matching, where \( p \) is the return predicate, \( c \) is an inhabitant of the inductive type corresponding to \( \text{indn} \) and \( \text{brs} \) is the list of branches corresponding to each possible constructor of the inductive type.

The constructor \( \text{tProj} \) represents primitive projections for records, the argument \( p \) contains the name of the record type and a natural number indicating which field of the record type is projected. The term \( c \) is the inhabitant of the record type that is projected.

The constructors \( \text{tFix} \) and \( \text{tCoFix} \) respectively represents (mutual) fixpoints and cofixpoints. A mutual (co)fixpoint is a list of (co)fixpoint definitions, each containing a type (given by the field dtype) and a body (given by the field dbody). The natural number idx corresponds to the term focused on in the mutual definition. In other words, if \( \text{mf1}x \) mutually defines \( f_{i_1}, \ldots, f_n \), then \( \text{tFix} \text{mf1}x \text{k} \) corresponds to \( f_k \). This focusing is needed because in its absence we would have a list of terms with a list of types, rather than a single term with a single type.

In PCUIC, the meaning of a term is relative to a global environment which is constant throughout a typing derivation, and to a local context which may increase when going under binders.

The local context consists of a list of declarations written in snoc order: we use the notation \( \Gamma, d \) for adding \( d \) at the head of \( \Gamma \). We write \( x : A \) for a declaration without a body (as introduced by \( \text{tLambda} \)) and \( x := t : A \) for a declaration with a body (as introduced by \( \text{tLetIn} \)). The global environment consists of three parts: a list of declarations, properly ordered according to dependencies, a global universe context representing the global constraints and possibly some additional local universe declarations used to type-check the body of a universe polymorphic declaration. A declaration is either the declaration of a constant (a definition or an axiom, depending on the presence or absence of a body) or of a block of mutual inductive types, which brings both the inductive types and their constructors to the context. We defer the presentation of the (co-)inductive type structure to §2.6.

2.2 Universes

The universe hierarchy is used in PCUIC to avoid the so-called “Type-in-Type” paradox of MLTT—originally due to Girard [1972] and later simplified by Hurkens [1995]—which is the type-theoretic counterpart of Russell’s paradox in set theory. The standard mathematical representation of the

\(^7\)Casts are only necessary to inform the kernel about which conversion algorithm to use, while we only implement one such algorithm. The implementation actually also includes constructors for existential variables instantiated at a given term substitution and named variables (hypothesis names in goals): we do not present them in this paper as they are dismissed by typing for the moment. They are not present in terms stored by Coq, but only used by higher layers.
Inductive ConstraintType : Set := Le (z : Z) | Eq.

Definition UnivConstraint : Set := Level • ConstraintType • Level.

Record valuation :={valuation_mono : string → positive; valuation_poly : N → N}.

Definition val (v : valuation) (l : Level) : Z :=
match l with
| lzero ⇒ 0
| level s ⇒ Zpos (v.(valuation_mono) s)
| lvar x ⇒ Z.ofN (v.(valuation_poly) x)
end.

Fig. 2. Definition of constraints and valuations

hierarchy is done by indexing occurrences of the universe Type with a natural number expressing its level in the hierarchy. In a practical setting, however, this presentation would be too rigid for a user. PCUIC therefore features monomorphic universes, which provide a way to refer to levels more abstractly with names, and polymorphic universes, which provide a way to quantify over those universes.

PCUIC features three kinds of level for a universe.

Inductive Level : Set := lzero | level (s : string) | lvar (n : N).

The constructor lzero refers to the smallest level, and corresponds to the encoding of the universe printed as Set in Coq. Constructor level s encodes a monomorphic universe with name s (i.e., traditional global universes), while lvar n represents a polymorphic universe, where n is the de Bruijn level of the corresponding variable in the universe context.

Definition UnivExpr := Level × N.

Inductive universe := lProp | lType (ls : nonEmptyUnivExprSet).

Then, a UnivExpr is a pair (l,n) of a level l and a natural number n, meaning intuitively that we are talking about the universe l+n. Finally, a universe is either lProp or lType ls, where ls is a non-empty set of UnivExpr. The non-empty set ls of UnivExpr is interpreted as an encoding for the maximum of its elements, representing so-called "algebraic" universes. For instance, the term tSort (lType {(u,0) ; (v,1)}) encodes the universe that is usually written Type max(u,v+1) in the literature. In the remainder, we write tProp for the term tSort lProp.

Constraints and Valuations. To allow for a flexible and modular account of universes, Coq implements typical ambiguity and universe polymorphism. The universe hierarchy is hence not fixed but rather maintained using an extensible ("elastic", as coined by its original designer Gérard Huet [1988]) set of universe levels and associated constraints (UnivConstraint) which say that a level is at least z times smaller or equal (Le z) or equal (Eq) to another level, as described in Fig. 2. Universe polymorphism [Harper and Pollack 1991; Sozeau and Tabareau 2014] further adds the possibility to make definitions and inductive types polymorphic in the set of universe levels and constraints, so that they can be reused at different levels. This is akin to bounded prenex polymorphism à la ML. In the Coq type checker, consistency of the universe hierarchy is checked using an acyclicity criterion on the graph induced by the constraints. However, this characterization of consistency is quite far from the mathematical model, which says that universe levels are natural numbers. To keep the specification as close as possible to the meta-theory, we therefore introduce the notion of valuation
on universe levels, which associates 0 to lzero, a positive number to monomorphic universes (a monomorphic universe cannot be lzero) and a natural number to polymorphic universes.

Then a valuation satisfies a set of constraints when:

\[
\text{Inductive satisfies0 } (v : \text{valuation}) : \text{UnivConstraint} \rightarrow \text{Prop} := \\
| \text{satisfies0_Le } (l \ x \ y) : \text{val} \ x \ l \ \text{le} \ y \ \text{val} \ x \ y \ l \ \rightarrow \ \text{satisfies0 } v \ (l \ \text{Le} \ y \ l) \\
| \text{satisfies0_Eq } (l \ x \ y) : \text{val} \ x \ l \ = \ \text{val} \ x \ y \ l \ \rightarrow \ \text{satisfies0 } v \ (l \ \text{Eq} \ y l).
\]

\[
\text{Definition satisfies } v : \text{UnivConstraintSet} \rightarrow \text{Prop} := \text{For_all } (\text{satisfies0 } v).
\]

The universe hierarchy is consistent when there exists a valuation which satisfies its set of constraints:

\[
\text{Definition consistent ctrs } := \exists \ v, \ \text{satisfies } v \ \text{ctrs}.
\]

Note that this definition of consistency is not \textit{a priori} decidable, and this is the point of §3.1 to provide an alternative specification using acyclicity of a graph, which is a checkable and modular property.

\textit{Cumulativity on universes.} The notion of subtyping on types is defined as definitional equality up to cumulativity on universes, which states that tSort 1 is a subtype of tSort 1’ as soon as 1 is smaller than 1’. Comparison of universes depends on the set of constraints under consideration. Indeed, a universe \( u \) is smaller than a universe \( u’ \) for a given set of constraints \( \varphi \) when for any valuation which satisfies \( \varphi \), the value of \( u \) is smaller than the value of \( u’ \). Formally, it is defined as follows:

\[
\text{Definition leq_universe } (\varphi : \text{UnivConstraintSet}) : (u \ u’) := \\
\forall v : \text{valuation}, \ \text{satisfies } v \varphi \ \rightarrow \ \text{val} \ v \ u \leq \text{val} v u’.
\]

Similarly, \texttt{eq_universe} defines when two universes are equal. The notion of comparison is extended to \texttt{tProp} by stating that it is smaller than any other universe if the flag governing the \texttt{Prop \leq Type} rule is set, and incomparable otherwise. We will see in §4 and 6 that correctness of erasure holds only in a theory without this rule.

Finally, the function \texttt{global_ext_constraints} collects the universe constraints appearing in a global environment \( \Sigma \).

\subsection{Cumulativity}

Conversion is one of the key ingredient for the definition of dependent type theories. It implements a syntactic notion of equality that can be used during typing to use a term of type \( A \) when a term of \( B \) was expected, under the condition that \( A \) and \( B \) are convertible. In the case of Coq and of PCUIC, this notion of conversion is untyped, \textit{i.e.}, it relates terms without making use of the types of those terms, in contrast with the typed definitional equality judgment which is customary in Martin–Löf Type Theory [Martin-Löf 1984]. Moreover, conversion further refines to a notion of cumulativity that extends it with a subtyping rule: Type\( i \) is a subtype of Type\( j \) when \( i \leq j \) in the hierarchy, as described in §2.2.

The specification of cumulativity between two terms \( t \) and \( u \), written \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{\Rle} u \), is relative to a global context \( \Sigma \) and a local context \( \Gamma \) and is parametrized by a relation \( \Rle \) between universes. We use the s subscript (for \textit{specification}) to distinguish it later on from the algorithmic presentation of cumulativity, written \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{a} u \). When \( \Rle \) is instantiated with \texttt{leq_universe} (\texttt{global_ext_constraints} \( \Sigma \)), this gives rise to the notion of cumulativity (written \( \leq_{a} \)), and when it is instantiated with \( \Re := \texttt{eq_universe} (\texttt{global_ext_constraints} \( \Sigma \)) \), it boils down to conversion (written \( \approx_{s} \)).
The complete definition has 24 rules which can be found in the Appendix (Figs. 19 and 20). To avoid clutter, we prefer to describe the rules grouped by their purpose, dealing with ordering, cumulativity, computation or congruence. Note also that in the definition of Figs. 19 and 20, we take the liberty of directly using the notation in the header, which is possible in systems such as Agda, but not in Coq. We believe this makes the definition easier to read and avoids the need to introduce an auxiliary useless name. We will do so for several inductive definitions in this paper.

2.3.1 Ordering Rules. There are three rules to enforce the specification of cumulativity to be a pre-order and conversion to be an equivalence relation.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cumul_Refl: } & \forall t, \quad \text{cumul_Sym: } \forall t u v, \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \leq^\text{Rle} t & \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \approx^\text{Rle} u & \rightarrow \quad \text{is_closed_context } \Gamma \rightarrow \text{is_open_term } \Gamma u \rightarrow \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u \leq^\text{Rle} t & \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \leq^\text{Rle} u & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u \leq^\text{Rle} v & \rightarrow & \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \leq^\text{Rle} v
\end{align*}
\]

Rules \text{cumul_Trans} and \text{cumul_Refl} state that cumulativity is transitive and reflexive, and Rule \text{cumul_Sym} states that only conversion is symmetric. Note that the Rule \text{cumul_Sym} can also be used to show that conversion is included in cumulativity (by using the rule twice).

We would like to mention a technical difficulty here, in presence of untyped cumulativity and conversion. The transitivity rule need to be restricted to introduce only a term \( u \) whose free variables appear in a closed context \( \Gamma \), as ensured by the \text{is_closed_context } \Gamma and \text{is_open_term } \Gamma u conditions. This is necessary to maintain the invariant that a proof of conversion between two well-scoped terms only involves well-scoped terms. This invariant is important because reduction of non-well-scoped terms is not confluent (this is explained in §4.3.1) and thus the correspondence with algorithmic conversion (see §3.2.2) only works on well-scoped terms.

2.3.2 Cumulativity Rules. There are three rules to enforce the specification of cumulativity to be a pre-order and conversion to be an equivalence relation.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cumul_Ind: } & \forall i u u' \text{ args args}', \\
\text{R_global_instance } \Sigma & \text{ Re Rle } (\text{IndRef } i) #\text{args} | u u' \rightarrow \\
\text{All2 (fun } t u & \Rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \leq^\text{Rle} u) \text{ args args}' \rightarrow \\
\Sigma; \Gamma & \vdash \text{mkApps } (\text{tInd } i u) \text{ args } \leq^\text{Rle} \text{ mkApps } (\text{tInd } i u') \text{ args}'
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cumul_Construct: } & \forall i k u u' \text{ args args}', \\
\text{R_global_instance } \Sigma & \text{ Re Rle } (\text{ConstructRef } i k) #\text{args} | u u' \rightarrow \\
\text{All2 (fun } t u & \Rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \leq^\text{Rle} u) \text{ args args}' \rightarrow \\
\Sigma; \Gamma & \vdash \text{mkApps } (\text{tConstruct } i k u) \text{ args } \leq^\text{Rle} \text{ mkApps } (\text{tConstruct } i k u') \text{ args}'
\end{align*}
\]

Rule \text{cumul_Construct} is the direct expression of the subtyping rule on universes, while Rules \text{cumul_Ind} and \text{cumul_Construct} deal with cumulativity for inductive types. Following Timany and Sozeau [2017], \text{cumul_Ind} states that two fully applied inductive types are in the cumulativity relation when their arguments are convertible, and when their universe levels are related according to the variance of \( i u \) registered in the global environment \( \Sigma \). Rule \text{cumul_Construct} ensures similarly that the two fully applied constructors live in inductive types which are in the cumulativity relation. We will explain cumulativity of inductive types in more detail in §2.6.2.

2.3.3 Computation Rules. There are 9 rules representing computation in PCUIC of various kinds (functions, pattern-matching, (co)fixpoints, definitions, projections).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cumul_beta: } & \forall n a t b a, \\
\Sigma; \Gamma & \vdash \text{tApp } (\text{tLambda } n a t b) a \leq^\text{Rle} b \{0 := a\} & \text{cumul_zeta: } & \forall n a b t b', \\
\Sigma; \Gamma & \vdash \text{tLetIn } n a b t b' \leq^\text{Rle} b' \{0 := b\}
\end{align*}
\]

\(^8\)This condition on the list of arguments is ensured using the \text{All2} predicate which requires that the elements of the list are pointwise related, here by conversion.
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

Rules \texttt{cumul\_beta} and \texttt{cumul\_zeta} encode usual computation of function application and of the let-binding construct. They make use of \texttt{substitution} \( b[0 := a] \) which is a shorthand for the use of the capture-avoiding de Bruijn instantiation function.

\texttt{cumul\_rel}: \forall i \text{ body},
\texttt{option\_map decl\_body (nth\_error \Gamma\ i) = Some (Some body)} \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash tRel i \preceq_{Rle} \text{lift}_0 (S i) \text{ body}

Rule \texttt{cumul\_rel} deals with variables in the local context that have a body, corresponding to definitions as introduced by \texttt{tLetIn}. The body is lifted to be well scoped in \( \Gamma \).

\texttt{cumul\_iota}: \forall ci c u args p brs br,
\texttt{nth\_error brs c = Some br} \rightarrow \#|args| = (ci.(ci.npar) + context\_assumptions br.(bcontext)) \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash tCase ci p (mkApps (tConstruct ci.(ci.ind) c u) args) brs \preceq_{Rle} \text{iota\_red} ci p args br

Rule \texttt{cumul\_iota} corresponds to computation of pattern-matching, ensuring that the constructor is fully applied and selecting the right branch. The function \texttt{iota\_red} computes the right substitution of the selected branch \( br \).

\texttt{cumul\_fix}: \forall mfix idx args narg fn,
\texttt{unfold\_fix mfix idx = Some (narg, fn)} \rightarrow \text{is\_constructor narg args = true} \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps (tFix mfix idx)} args \preceq_{Rle} \text{mkApps fn args}

Rule \texttt{cumul\_fix} corresponds to fixpoint unfolding when the fixpoint is applied to a constructor of the corresponding inductive type. This restriction ensures that fixpoints cannot be unfolded forever, so as to preserve termination.

\texttt{cumul\_cofix\_case}: \forall ip p mfix idx args narg fn brs,
\texttt{unfold\_cofix mfix idx = Some (narg, fn)} \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash tCase ip p (mkApps (tCoFix mfix idx) args) brs \preceq_{Rle} \text{tCase ip p (mkApps fn args) brs}

\texttt{cumul\_cofix\_proj}: \forall p mfix idx args narg fn
\texttt{unfold\_cofix mfix idx = Some (narg, fn)} \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash tProj p (mkApps (tCoFix mfix idx) args) \preceq_{Rle} \text{tProj p (mkApps fn args)}

Dually, Rules \texttt{cumul\_cofix\_case} and \texttt{cumul\_cofix\_proj} describe how cofixpoints can also be unfolded when forced by a pattern-matching or projection, that is when they are the scrutinee of \texttt{tCase} or \texttt{tProj}.

\texttt{cumul\_delta}: \forall c decl body (isdecl : declared\_constant \Sigma c decl) u,
\texttt{decl.(cst\_body) = Some body} \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash tConst c u \preceq_{Rle} body@u

Rule \texttt{cumul\_delta} represents constant unfolding from the global environment \( \Sigma \). In case the definition is universe polymorphic, its universes are instantiated, which is written \( \text{body@u} \).

\texttt{cumul\_proj}: \forall i pars narg args u arg,
\texttt{nth\_error args (pars + narg) = Some arg} \rightarrow
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash tProj (i, pars, narg) (mkApps (tConstruct i 0 u) args) \preceq_{Rle} arg

Finally, Rule \texttt{cumul\_proj} describes projection of record types, relating the projection of the constructor of a record to the corresponding field.
2.3.4 Congruence Rules. The last set of rules deals with congruence closure of the cumulativity relation. There is one rule per term constructor of PCUIC, which basically amounts to checking recursively that the arguments are in the cumulativity relation. There is a minor subtlety however, because cumulativity of PCUIC is only equivariant on the left-hand side of an arrow,\(^9\) which means that in the following rule for products, while \(b\) and \(b'\) are recursively compared for cumulativity, \(a\) and \(a'\) are only compared for conversion.

\[
\text{cumul$_{Prod}$: } \forall na na' a a' b b',
\]
\[
eq_{\text{eq} \text{ binder annot}} \quad \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash a \leq_{\text{Conv}} a' \quad \rightarrow
\]
\[
\Sigma ; \Gamma . na : a \vdash b \leq_{s[pb]} b' \quad \rightarrow
\]
\[
\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tProd} na a b \leq_{s[pb]} \text{tProd} na' a' b'
\]

The complete set of congruence rules can be found in Fig. 20.

2.4 Dealing with the Guard Condition

Before giving the specification of typing, we need to introduce two guard conditions that determine when recursive and corecursive definitions are valid. Those conditions are used in the typing rules of fixpoints and cofixpoints, ensuring strong normalization of PCUIC. We defer the discussion on strong normalization to §4.5, but we can already say that strong normalization is treated as an axiom in our framework that depends on the notion of guard condition.

To make apparent that the guard conditions for fixpoints and cofixpoints share many properties, we parametrize the definition of the guard condition by the two-valued type \(\text{FixCoFix}\), thus having only one predicate, dealing with fixpoints when the value is \(\text{Fix}\), and cofixpoints otherwise. We thus postulate (in PCUIC: Typing) the existence of a guard condition checker as follows:

\[
\text{Inductive FixOrCoFix: Type := Fix | CoFix.}
\]

\[
\text{Axiom guard: FixOrCoFix } \rightarrow \text{global_env_ext } \rightarrow \text{context } \rightarrow \text{mfixpoint term } \rightarrow \text{Prop.}
\]

\[
\text{Definition fix_guard := guard Fix.}
\]

\[
\text{Definition cofix_guard := guard CoFix.}
\]

This presentation has two main advantages. First, it makes it clear that our meta-theoretic study of reduction and typing (§4), and in particular our proof of subject reduction, does not depend on a particular guard condition. Rather, it only relies on a few stability properties (e.g., stability by reduction or substitution). These conditions are listed in PCUIC: GuardCondition, and §4.2.2 describes in more details the axiom of stability under reduction and substitution. Second, it makes explicit that while we need the guard condition to imply strong normalization in order to implement a terminating type checker, this normalization axiom is not necessary for most of the meta-theoretic development, and it indeed appears very late in the formalization. As we cannot prove strong normalization anyway due to Gödel’s incompleteness theorem, we believe that our axiomatic presentation makes more sense as it sheds light on the exact syntactic properties that must be satisfied by any guard condition on (co)fixpoints.

In CoQ, the guard condition for fixpoints that is implemented is based on recursive calls which must be done on strict sub-terms.\(^{10}\) We do not enter into those details in this section, and they are not useful for the definition of typing; all that matters is that the typing rules of fixpoints and cofixpoints make use of this guard condition.

\(^9\)This restriction comes from the fact that it is difficult to model contravariant cumulativity in set-theoretic models [Timany and Sozeau 2018]. Whether cumulativity could be contravariant on the left-hand side of an arrow or not is still the subject of ongoing theoretical investigations.

\(^{10}\)Actually the condition is slightly more general, but this is beyond the scope of this paper.
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

2.5 Definition of Typing

The typing rules of PCUIC are defined as an inductive family, written \( \Sigma : \Gamma \vdash t : \tau \), where \( \Sigma \) is a global environment, \( \Gamma \) is a local context and \( t \) and \( \tau \) are terms. The pointwise extension of typing to local context \( \Gamma \) is written \( \text{wf}_\text{local} \Sigma \Gamma \), and all the rules that are leaves \( \text{i.e.}, \) that do not mention typing in their premises) require the local context to be well formed. The rule are mostly standard in the context of the Calculus of Inductive Constructions or Martin-Löf Type Theory. As we did for cumulativity, we now explain them one by one. The complete definition can be found in the Appendix (Fig. 21).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type}_\text{Rel} &: \forall n \ \text{decl}, \\
\text{wf}_\text{local} \Sigma \Gamma &: \rightarrow \text{nth_error} \Gamma n = \text{Some} \ \text{decl} \rightarrow \text{wf}_\text{local} \Sigma \Gamma \rightarrow \text{wf}_\text{universe} \Sigma s \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tRel} n : \text{lift}_\text{t} (S n) \ \text{decl}(\text{decl}_\text{type}) & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tSort} s : \text{tSort} \ (\text{super} \ s)
\end{align*}
\]

The constructor \( \text{type}_\text{Rel} \) corresponds to the case of variables, it just amounts to recovering the type of the variable stored in the local context (when it is defined). \( \text{type}_\text{Sort} \) is the rule for typing universes. Here \( \text{super} \) is the function that takes a universe \( 1 \) and returns the smallest universe larger than \( 1 \), and \( \text{wf}_\text{universe} \) is a function that checks that the levels appearing in \( s \) are defined in \( \Sigma \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type}_\text{Lambda} &: \forall A \ t s1 B, \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash A : \text{tSort} s1 \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma, n : A \vdash t : B & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t : \text{Prod} na A B \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash u : A \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tLambda} na A : \text{tProd} na A B & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tApp} t u : B[u := 0]
\end{align*}
\]

\( \text{type}_\text{Lambda} \) is the introduction of dependent functions, it checks that \( A \) is a type and that \( t \) is a term of type \( B \) in the local context extended with the variable \( na \) of type \( A \). \( \text{type}_\text{App} \) is the usual application rule. It makes use of substitution and in general, the typing rules use substitution \( (B[0 := u]) \) and lifting \( (\text{lift}_\text{t}) \) operations of de Bruijn indexes, whose definitions are standard.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type}_\text{LetIn} &: \forall a b B t s1 A, \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash b : B \vdash t : A & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tLetIn} na b B t s1 A \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tLetIn} na b B t : \text{tLetIn} na b B A & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tProd} na A B : \text{tSort} \ (\text{sort}_\text{of}_\text{product} s1 s2)
\end{align*}
\]

\( \text{type}_\text{LetIn} \) is the typing rule for let-binding, which is somehow a mix of \( \text{type}_\text{Lambda} \) and \( \text{type}_\text{App} \). Note that the body \( t \) is typed in a context extended by a \text{definition} \( na := b : B \), rather than a mere assumption, making it possible to use the value of that variable when typing \( t \), as expressed by rule \( \text{cumul}_\text{rel} \) for cumulativity. In the typing rule \( \text{type}_\text{Prod} \) for products, \( \text{sort}_\text{of}_\text{product} \) is the maximum of the two levels (encoded as a non-empty set of levels) when \( s2 \) is not \( \text{tProp} \) and \( \text{tProp} \) otherwise. This rule makes \( \text{tProp} \) impredicative, as it is possible to remain in \( \text{tProp} \) even when quantifying over an arbitrary type, including \( \text{tProp} \) itself.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type}_\text{Cumul} &: \forall A B s, \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t : A & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tSort} s \rightarrow \text{wf}_\text{local} \Sigma \Gamma \rightarrow \text{declared_constant} \Sigma \ \text{cst} \ d \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash A \leq s \ B & \rightarrow \text{consistent}_\text{instance}_\text{ext} \Sigma d(\text{cst}_\text{universes}) u \\
\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t : B & \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tConst} \ c u : d(\text{cst}_\text{type}@u)
\end{align*}
\]

The Rule \( \text{type}_\text{Cumul} \) is the rule for cumulativity, which directly uses the definition of \( §2.3 \). Because cumulativity is untyped, we explicitly impose here that the target type \( B \) is a valid type. This is necessary to prove the \text{validity} theorem and we will later show in §4 that the two types are necessarily in the same universe hierarchy, \( \text{i.e.}, \) that the sorts of \( A \) and \( B \) are related (both are \text{Prop} or both are \text{Type}). The Rule \( \text{type}_\text{Const} \) for typing a constant requires that it is declared in the global environment, and that the provided universe instance \( u \) respects the universe constraints \( d(\text{cst}_\text{universe}) \) from that declaration.
The two main parts are that the universe instance must be consistent and that the elimination must
be allowed (in the case of Prop, elimination is restricted to subsingleton elimination, see §2.6.3).
Case analysis is forbidden for coinductive types because it is known to break subject reduction (see §2.6). Since the three typing rules type_Const, type_Ind, and type_Construct are very similar, they could be unified with a single construction, as done for instance in Coq-Elpi [Tassi 2018].

The Rule type_Case represents typing of pattern matching. It basically asks for the scrutinee c, the
return type p.(return) and each branch to be well typed, and for the inductive type of the scrutinee
to be declared; but there are also side conditions imposed by the predicate case_side_conditions.
The two main parts are that the universe instance must be consistent and that the elimination must
be allowed (in the case of Prop, elimination is restricted to subsingleton elimination, see §2.6.3).

Rule type_Proj is the typing rule for projection of record types (which are described using the
constructor tInd as for (co-)inductive types). It checks that p is a well-declared projection of the
record fst (fst p). If this is the case, the projection’s type is snd pdecl substituted by the list of
arguments c :: List.rev args (as defined by the operation subst_0).
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{wf}_\text{local} & \Sigma \Gamma \rightarrow \text{cofix\_guard} \Sigma \Gamma \text{mfix} \rightarrow \text{nth\_error} \text{mfix} n = \text{Some decl} \rightarrow \\
\text{wf}_\text{cofix} & \Sigma \text{mfix} \rightarrow \text{All} (\text{fun} d \Rightarrow \{s \& \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash d.\text{dtype} : t\text{Sort} s\}) \text{mfix} \rightarrow \\
& \text{All} (\text{fun} d \Rightarrow \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash + \text{fix\_context} \text{mfix} + d.\text{dbody} : \text{lift}_0 \# |\text{fix\_context} \text{mfix}| d.\text{dtype}) \text{mfix} \rightarrow \\
& \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tCoFix} \text{mfix} n : \text{decl}.\text{dtype}
\end{align*}
\]

Finally, Rules type\_Fix and type\_CoFix are the typing rules for mutual fixpoints and cofixpoints. The typing hypotheses are similar, and enforce for each of the mutually defined (co)fixpoints that its type dtype is a valid type, in the sense that it has a sort, and that its body dbody has type dtype in the local context extended by the fixpoint definition (so as to allow for recursive calls). What sets these rules apart are the guard conditions fix\_guard and cofix\_guard, which remain abstract as explained in §2.4, and the well-formedness conditions wf\_fix and wf\_cofix. These mainly check that the type of the recursive argument of a fixpoint is an inductive type, and that the codomain of a cofixpoint is a coinductive type.

In the Coq development, the typing relation is parametrized by a record of flags. The flags are also used in the verified type-checking algorithm we explain later, and the type is thus called checker\_flags. We show it here with comments to explain what every flag stands for:

```coq
Class checker\_flags := {
  (* default true, setting to false adds the (inconsistent) Type : Type rule *)
  check\_univ\$ : B;
  (* default true, false for extraction, enables Prop <: Type *)
  prop\_sub\_type : B;
  (* default false, lets indices matter for the type universe of an inductive *)
  indices\_matter : B;
  (* default true, allows constructor types to contain lets *)
  lets\_in\_constructor\_types : B}.
```

2.6 Well-Formed Environments

The definition of the typing judgment is relative to a global environment that contains the global constants and inductive definitions. For typing to be well behaved, this global environment must be well formed. Beyond enforcing that all definitions are well typed, this well-formation condition also contains constraints about universes and cumulativity, and in the case of inductive types, allowed eliminations of its inhabitants, and the (strict) positivity criterion.

More precisely, an environment is represented as a record of a global universe context (a set of levels and a set of universe constraints) and an association list of (unique) kernel names to constant or inductive declarations.

```coq
Inductive global\_decl :=
| ConstantDecl : constant\_body \rightarrow global\_decl
| InductiveDecl : mutual\_inductive\_body \rightarrow global\_decl.
```

Definition global\_declarations := list (kername \* global\_decl).

Record global\_env :=
{ universes : LevelSet \* UnivConstraintSet; declarations : global\_declarations }.

Note that this is the specification of a global environment, but Coq’s algorithm uses a more efficient representation. In §5, we describes a type checker that is abstract with respect to a particular choice of representation, as long as it is equivalent to the specification.
Constant declarations (\texttt{constant\_body}) record the type (\texttt{cst\_type}) and optional body (\texttt{cst\_body}) of said constant, and a universe declaration (\texttt{cst\_universes}). The presence or absence of a body discriminates between a \texttt{Definition} and an \texttt{Axiom}.

\begin{verbatim}
Record constant\_body := {
  cst\_type : term;
  cst\_body : option term;
  cst\_universes : universes\_decl}.
\end{verbatim}

The universe declaration is either monomorphic or polymorphic:

\begin{verbatim}
Inductive universes\_decl : Type :=
| Monomorphic\_ctx
| Polymorphic\_ctx (cst : list name • UnivConstraintSet).
\end{verbatim}

Monomorphic declarations do not introduce universes or constraints, they instead rely on those already declared in the global universe context. Polymorphic definitions come with an abstract universe context: a list of variables and constraints on them that are instantiated at each use of a polymorphic construction.

Inductive types have more structure. In full generality, they are represented as a mutual inductive block. Actually, the same representation is used to encode inductive, co-inductive or record types (with potentially primitive projections). This common representation allows us to factorize the many similarities in the specification of those types.

\begin{verbatim}
Record mutual\_inductive\_body := {
  ind\_finite : recursivity\_kind; ind\_npars : N; ind\_params : context;
  ind\_universes : universes\_decl; ind\_variance : option (list Variance);
  ind\_bodies : list one\_inductive\_body}.
\end{verbatim}

Mutual inductive blocks have a \texttt{recursivity\_kind} annotation to distinguish between inductive, co-inductive and non-recursive types—as introduced with the \texttt{Variant} keyword in Coq. Note in particular that it is not possible to mix inductive and co-inductive definitions in the same mutual inductive block. All inductive types in a block share a context of parameters \texttt{ind\_params}, whose number of assumptions is recorded in \texttt{ind\_npars}, a universe declaration and an optional universe variance annotation (discussed in §2.6.2). Finally, there is a (non-empty) list of inductive bodies representing each (co-)inductive type in the mutual block:

\begin{verbatim}
Record one\_inductive\_body := {
  ind\_name : ident; ind\_indices : context; ind\_sort : Universe; ind\_type : term;
  ind\_kelim : allowed eliminations;
  ind\_ctors : list constructor\_body; ind\_projs : list projection\_body}.
\end{verbatim}

Each inductive type has a name \texttt{ind\_name} and an arity \texttt{ind\_type} which should decompose into a dependent product starting with the shared parameters, the indices \texttt{ind\_indices} and a sort \texttt{ind\_sort} as conclusion.\(^\text{11}\) The allowed elimination sorts of its inhabitants is described by the \texttt{ind\_kelim} parameter (see §2.6.3 for a detailed explanation). The (possibly empty) list \texttt{ind\_ctors} records for each constructor their name, context of arguments, and the indices at which they instantiate the conclusion’s inductive type (the parameters are fixed for a whole mutual family). Finally, the projections (for primitive records) record the name and type of each projection.

\begin{verbatim}
Record constructor\_body := { cstr\_name : ident; cstr\_args : context; cstr\_indices : list term}.
\end{verbatim}

\(^{11}\)Arities are the subset of n-ary dependent products and let-ins whose final codomain is a sort
Record projection_body := { proj_name : ident; proj_type : term }.

Altogether, this data forms the raw structure of global environments of PCUIC. Well-formed global environments impose strict restrictions on this data.

- First, all names should be globally unique.\textsuperscript{12}
- For constants, the declared type should be typeable by a sort and the optional constant body should be typeable using the declared type, in the universe context associated with \texttt{cst_universes}.
- For inductive blocks, the inductive types, constructors and projections should all be well typed, but this is not enough: various extra properties are imposed on these blocks. We will describe them in the remainder of this section.

### 2.6.1 Positivity criterion

Allowing arbitrary recursive types breaks strong normalization, as the untyped \( \lambda \)-calculus can easily be expressed using such arbitrary recursive types. Hence, Coq restricts the class of definable inductive types to strictly-positive ones. Coarsely, strict positivity ensures that one can always derive a meaningful elimination rule with induction hypotheses for each recursive argument of each constructor [Coquand and Paulin 1990].

We formalize the strict positivity condition as a predicate on the shapes of constructors of an inductive declaration (Fig. 3). It relies on an auxiliary predicate that checks positivity of each type argument of a constructor. A constructor argument \( ty \) is positive with respect to a mutual inductive declaration \( m \) in context \( \Gamma \), written \( m@i ; \Gamma \vdash_+ ty \), when its weak \( \zeta \)-normal form (meaning let-in are reduced away) either:

- does not mention the inductive block, or
- is of shape \( \texttt{mkApps (tRel k) l} \) where \( k \) refers to an inductive in the block (checked using \( \texttt{mdecl_at_i} \)) and \( l \) does not refer to the inductive block, or
- is of shape \( \texttt{tProd na ty ty'} \) where \( ty \) does not mention the inductive block and \( ty' \) is inductively positive in the context extended with \( na : ty \).

The context \( \Gamma \) tracks the parameters and arguments of the constructor, while de Bruijn references above \( \#|\Gamma| \) represent the inductive types in the block.

Then, a constructor type \( ty \) is strictly positive, written \( m@i ; \Gamma \vdash_+ ty \), with respect to a mutual inductive declaration \( m \) and inductive \( i \) in this block in context \( \Gamma \) when its weak \( \zeta \)-normal form is of shape \( \texttt{tProd na_1 ty_1 (tProd na_2 ty_2 (tProd ... concl))} \) where moreover:

- all the arguments in \( ty_i \) are positive; and
- the conclusion \( concl \) is of shape \( \texttt{mkApps (tRel k) args} \) where \( k \) refers to the current inductive \( i \) and \( args \) do not mention any of the inductive types in the block.

We (weakly) \( \zeta \)-normalize types (as Coq does), so this definition allows unused let-bindings to mention the inductive type, potentially in a non-strictly positive way. It is however clear that the same inductive type without the unused let-bindings is equivalent for all purposes.

This definition is a simplification of the actual criterion of Coq which additionally handles nested inductive types [Abbott et al. 2004], i.e., inductive types where a constructor can take as argument another inductive type applied to one of the mutually defined ones. A typical example is that of rose trees: a tree where the single node constructor takes a \textit{list} of subtrees.

### 2.6.2 Cumulative Inductive Types

Coq additionally features cumulative inductive types, which extends the cumulativity relation through polymorphic inductive families. Intuitively, this allows “smaller” instances of an inductive family to be used where a larger one is expected. A typical

\textsuperscript{12}Technically in Coq, there is a notion of namespace to be able to use the same name in different modules or files, so globally is to be understood up to name space.
example is given by the type of lists: an object of type list@Set N can be used anywhere a list@[i] N is expected, without introducing an explicit coercion. Another useful intuition is that such a subtyping is justified because we could automatically introduce identity coercions in such places, which do not change the computational content of the objects, but only their universe annotations.

In the original presentation [Timany and Sozeau 2018], inductive types do not have parameters and the cumulativity relation is extended by a general judgement asserting that two inductive families I and Γ are in the cumulativity relation when:

- they have the same number of constructors
- for each pair of types of corresponding constructors ty and ty', each constructor argument type pairs are in the cumulativity relation, assuming I ≤ Γ inductively.

For two universe instantiations of the polymorphic list@[i] datatype on carrier type A, e.g., corresponding to types list@[k] A and list@[l] A in the theory with parameters, this requires to consider only the cons_A : A → list@[i] A → list@[i] A case and check that A ≤ A and list@[k] A ≤ list@[l] A. The first one holds by reflexivity while the second one is our induction hypothesis. In this case we can see that actually no particular relationship should hold on the universe levels 1 and k, meaning that all list@[l] A types are convertible.

More interestingly, inductive families that actually embed universes lift to the cumulativity relation. In particular all types-with-structure records fall into this subset. Suppose we define the type of monoids as a record:

```
Record monoid@[u] := { carrier : Type@[u]; unit : carrier; op : carrier → carrier → carrier }
```

In that case, the universe u is used covariantly in the inductive definition, and cumulativity enables the use of a monoid@[Set] (e.g., natural numbers with addition) where a monoid at any higher type is expected. More generally monoid@[i] ≤ monoid@[j] whenever i ≤ j. In general, we can let Coq infer the variance of universes for cumulative inductive types (it is then printed using the About or Print commands), but there is also surface syntax to specify it. The inference performs a cumulativity test between two instances of the inductive type and gathers the necessary constraints for the first to be a subtype of the other, marking universe variables as irrelevant, covariant or invariant. As we are extending the Type cumulativity relation which is not contravariant on function domains, there is also no contravariant status here.

Variance. The notion of variance was introduced in Coq together with polymorphic cumulative inductive types to describe the status of each universe variable of an inductive declaration with a
variance annotation that specifies how the universe variable behaves with respect to cumulativity, as exemplified above with *list* and *monoid*. However, variance has never been considered before from a formal point of view, and our work is the first place where this notion is formalized, and crucially so: we need specific properties of cumulative inductive types to complete the subject reduction proof (§4.4). The specification of cumulative inductive types ensures that the declared variances of a cumulative inductive type give rise to the expected subtyping relations between the types of inductives and each constructor. Variance is defined as a simple enumeration:

\[
\text{Inductive Variance.t := Irrelevant | Covariant | Invariant.}
\]

A variance annotation is simply a list of variances, one for each bound universe in a polymorphic definition.

In the remainder of this section, we consider a fixed cumulative inductive definition. From a variance annotation, along with the polymorphic universe context of the definition, we can generate a new context *univs* consisting of two copies of the polymorphic universe context instantiated at universe levels *u* and *v* (*variance_universes*), in addition to constraints witnessing the variance relationship between *u* and *v*, *i.e.*, no relationship for irrelevant universes, equality for invariant ones and inequality for covariant ones. This context is proven to be consistent, starting from a consistent inductive universe context.

From this data, we specify when the cumulative inductive type under consideration respects the variance annotations using two conditions.

**Inductive types.** Recall that the cumulative inductive type declaration is composed of a context of parameters, a context of indices and a conclusion sort. We write \( \Gamma_{\text{param}} \) (resp. \( \Gamma_{\text{ind}} \)) for the context of parameters (resp. indices) where let-bindings have been expanded. The first condition expresses that \( \Gamma_{\text{ind}} \) instantiated at *u* is in the cumulativity relation with \( \Gamma_{\text{ind}} \) instantiated at *v*, under the context of parameters at the “lower” instance of the universes, and that the constraints in *univs* are sufficient to derive this.

\[
\Sigma, \text{univs}; \Gamma_{\text{param}}[u] \vdash \Gamma_{\text{ind}}[u] \preceq_s \Gamma_{\text{ind}}[v].
\]

We consider contexts where let-bindings have been expanded to avoid potentially useless constraints on let-bound variables. There is only one parameter context involved: it models the fact that cumulativity of inductive types in Coq only allows to subsume one instance of an inductive type by another when they share convertible parameters, as explained above. The only sensible choice here is to use the “lower” universe instance for the parameters here as the indices at levels *u* might not be typeable if parameters are at a higher level *v*, but the converse holds (this is proven in PCUIC: InductiveInversion).

**Constructor types.** Following the intuition that cumulative inductive types simply extend the usual Type cumulativity, the judgment for constructors ensures that, for each constructor declaration *cs*, the two (let-expanded) argument contexts (written \( \Gamma_{\text{args}} \)) are in the cumulativity relation pointwise.

\[
\Sigma, \text{univs}; \Gamma_{\text{ar}} \gg \Gamma_{\text{param}}[u] \vdash \Gamma_{\text{args}}[u] \preceq_s \Gamma_{\text{args}}[v].
\]

Note that due to the encoding of constructors where recursive references to the current inductive block are modeled using de Bruijn indices, we also put the arities (\( \Gamma_{\text{ar}} \)) in the local context, along with the parameters. Of course, this also models that \( \mathbb{I}[u] \leq \mathbb{I}[v] \) is assumed when checking the cumulativity, as both constructors will have the same variable in place of references to the inductive type.

Finally, we must also check that the specific list of indices \( \text{indices} \) for each pair of constructors stay in the convertibility relation rather than cumulativity, otherwise this would lead to unsoundness (Timany and Sozeau [2018] give more details).
These invariants are sufficient to show that reduction preserves typing. In the verified type checker, we also need to develop a decision procedure based on the conversion test to check that these judgments hold when checking inductive type declarations. They follow rather directly from this specification.

2.6.3 Allowed Elimination. The sort Prop of Coq is meant to be computationally irrelevant: objects in sort Type (i.e., terms t : T with T : Type) should not depend in any relevant way on objects in sorts Prop (i.e., terms t : P with P : Prop). This is crucial for three reasons. First, because Prop is compatible with the axiom of proof irrelevance. Second, because due to the impredicativity of Prop, the type theory would otherwise be inconsistent [Coquand 1989; Geuvers 2007]. And third, for extraction to programming languages to safely erase propositional content, computational content should not depend on it in any non-trivial manner.

To enforce this irrelevance, Coq restricts the elimination of inductive types defined in the sort Prop to types in the sort Type. For inductive types in Prop, such an elimination is only allowed if the so-called subsingleton elimination criterion applies. An inductive in sort P is considered a subsingleton when it has at most one constructor, where all arguments have sort Prop again, i.e., are of type P : Prop for some P.

As explained above, in PCUIC, each inductive type in a mutual block contains a field ind_kelim expressing the sort in which an inhabitant of said inductive type is allowed to be eliminated. It is of type allowed_eliminations defined as follows:

\[
\text{Inductive allowed_eliminations : Set := IntoProp | IntoAny.}
\]

The functions elim_sort_prop_ind computes the minimal elimination sort allowed for an inductively defined proposition, given as input the list of lists of sort arguments of each constructor:

\[
\text{Fixpoint elim_sort_prop_ind (ind_ctors_sort : list (list Universe)) :=}
\]

\[
\text{match ind_ctors_sort with}
\]

\[
\text{| [] ⇒ IntoAny}
\]

\[
\text{| [ tProp :: s ] ⇒ elim_sort_prop_ind [s]}
\]

\[
\text{| _ ⇒ IntoProp}
\]

end.

For an inductive definition to be valid, its allowed eliminations, recorded in the field ind_kelim, should be at least as restrictive as the minimal one computed using elim_sort_prop_ind.

3 EQUIVALENT ALGORITHMIC SPECIFICATION OF PCUIC

In order to fill the gap between the abstract declarative specifications of universes, cumulativity and typing given in §2 and the candidate implementation, this section introduces an equivalent but more algorithmic specification.

For universes, the notion of consistent universe hierarchy based on valuations into natural numbers is shown to be equivalent to an acyclicity criterion on the induced graph. The notion of cumulativity between t and u is shown to be equivalent to the fact that both terms reduce respectively to terms which are syntactically equal (up to cumulativity on universe levels). In particular, this definition removes the transitivity rule, and we show instead that transitivity is admissible thanks to the confluence of reduction. Finally, the typing judgement is shown to be

---

Coq's official terminology is "empty or singleton elimination".

Actually, the current development also mentions the sort SProp but this is beyond the scope of this paper.
Definition Edge := V × Z × V.

Definition RootedGraph := (VSet × EdgeSet × V).

Definition EdgeOf (G : RootedGraph) x y := {n : Z & EdgeSet.In (x, n, y) (E G)}.

Inductive PathOf G : V → V → Type :=
| pathOf_refl x ⇒ 0 |
| pathOf_step e p ⇒ e.1 + weight p |

Fixpoint weight {x y} (p : PathOf G x y) :=
match p with
| pathOf_refl x ⇒ 0 |
| pathOf_step e p ⇒ e.1 + weight p |
end.

Definition acyclic G := ∀ x (p : PathOf G x x), weight G p ≤ 0.

Fig. 4. Definition of acyclicity for a graph

equivalent to a bidirectional presentation, where the cumulativity rule corresponding to type_cumul is only used in a restricted way, giving rise to canonical typing derivations.

3.1 Universes: Valuation vs Acyclicity

The specification of universe consistency (§2.2) as the existence of a valuation into natural numbers which respects the constraints on the universes does not directly give rise to a decision procedure. In Coq, the implementation of this consistency check is performed using an acyclicity check on the weighted graph induced by the constraints. We thus formalize this notion of weighted graph, the acyclicity condition, and show its equivalence with consistency defined using a valuation.

Our formalization uses finite sets, which we represent using AVL trees from the standard library. Given a type A, we write ASet for the type of finite sets with elements in A.

Our notion of weighted graph (Fig. 4) is parametrized by a type V of nodes (assumed fixed in this explanation, for simplicity). An edge between x and y of (possibly negative) weight z is represented as a tuple (x, z, y). Such an edge encodes the constraint Le z between x and y, i.e., the fact that the valuation should satisfy x + z ≤ y.

Then, a rooted graph G is a weighted graph (whose set of edges is written E G) with a distinguished node s G in V, the root of the graph. We need our weighted graphs to be rooted because a graph representing a universe hierarchy always contains Izero, a level smaller than all the others (apart from tProp which is treated separately and not represented in the graph), and this plays a particular role as we thus know that the graph has a single connected component.

The type of edges between the two nodes x and y is written EdgeOf G x y. And the type of paths between two nodes x and y is written PathOf G x y. It is inductively defined and can either be the reflexive path (using pathOf_refl) or the concatenation of an edge in EdgeOf x y and a path in PathOf G y y (using pathOf_step). The notion of weight is extended to paths by simply taking the sum of the weight of each edge it is composed of.

15https://coq.inria.fr/stdlib/Coq.MSets.MSetAVL.html
Acyclicity of a weighted graph can then be stated as the fact that every reflexive path has a negative weight. This is more relaxed than asking that every reflexive path is of weight 0, because it allows for strictly negative reflexive paths, but it actually captures all valid inequations. For instance, consider the constraints \( x \leq y + 2 \) and \( y + 1 \leq x \). These two constraints correspond to edges \((x, -2y)\) and \((y, 1, x)\), which give rise to reflexive path of weight \(-1\) on \( x \), encoding the constraint \( x - 1 \leq x \), which is perfectly valid, although useless.

Now, we turn to the formalization that the acyclicity of the graph induced by the constraints is equivalent to the existence of a valuation respecting the constraints. First, it is easy to define a notion of correct labeling of a graph (where \( \text{labeling} := V \to \mathbb{N} \)), which corresponds to the notion of a valuation satisfying the constraints.

**Definition** correct_labeling (l : labeling) :=
\[
\text{l}(s G) = 0 \land \forall x n y, \text{EdgeSet.In}(x, n, y) (E G) \to 1 x + n \leq 1 y.
\]

We now turn to show that acyclicity is equivalent to the existence of a correct labeling. To do so, we use the notion of longest simple path between two nodes, which provides at the same time a characterization of acyclicity and a decision procedure to check acyclicity.

A simple path in \( \text{SPath \ s \ x \ y} \) is a path from \( x \) to \( y \) going only through the nodes in \( s \), without visiting twice the same node, except for the last one which can appear twice (thus forming a loop).\(^\text{16}\)

\[\text{Inductive \ SPath : VSet \to V \to V \to Type :=}\]
\[| \text{spath_refl : V \ s \ x \ s \ x} | \text{spath_step : V \ s \ s' \ x \ y \ z, DisjointAdd \ x \ s \ s' \to \text{EdgeOf} \ G \ x \ y \to \text{SPath} \ s \ y \ z \to \text{SPath} \ s' \ x \ z}.\]

Fixpoint \( \text{lsp} \ s \ (x z) : \text{option} \ \mathbb{Z} :=\)
\[
\begin{cases}
\text{let base := if V.eq_dec x z then Some 0 else None in} \\
\text{match fuel with} \\
\text{| 0 \Rightarrow base} \\
\text{| S fuel \Rightarrow} \\
\text{match mem x s with} \\
\text{| true \Rightarrow let ds := map (fun (n, y) \Rightarrow Some n + \text{lsp} \ s \ n y z) (\text{succs} x) \in} \\
\text{fold_left max ds base} \\
\text{| false \Rightarrow base} \\
\text{end} \\
\text{end.}
\end{cases}
\]

**Definition** \( \text{lsp} \ s := \text{lsp} \ s \ (\text{cardinal} \ s) \) \( s \).

where \( \text{succs} \ x \) computes the list of edges with source \( x \). Note that the function goes to option \( \mathbb{Z} \) because there may not be any path between \( x \) and \( y \). Thus, the constructor \( \text{None} \) of option \( \mathbb{Z} \) corresponds to \(-\infty\) when extending addition, maximum, and comparison to option \( \mathbb{Z} \).

We then show that \( \text{lsp} \ s \ x \ y \) is equal to the maximum of weights of simple paths from \( x \) to \( y \).

\(^{16}\)The usual notion of simple path does not allow such a repetition, but we need it to handle constraints between a level and itself.
Lemma lsp_spec_le s x y (p : SPath s x y) : Some (weight p) ≤ lsp s x y.
Lemma lsp_spec_eq s x y n : lsp s x y = Some n → ∃ p : SPath s x y, weight p = n.

With this notion of lsp, we can prove that acyclicity is equivalent to the existence of a correct labeling, by showing that acyclicity implies that the weight of the longest simple reflexive path on x is 0. This allows us to derive the fact that the labeling induced by the weight of the longest simple path from the root is correct when the graph is acyclic.

Lemma acyclic lsp s x : acyclic G → lsp s x x = Some 0.
Lemma lsp_correctness : acyclic G → correct_labeling (fun x ⇒ option_get 0 (lsp V (s G) x)).

Conversely, we can show that the property of a correct labeling extends to paths, from which we directly conclude that the existence of a correct labeling implies acyclicity of the graph.

Lemma correct_labeling_PathOf l : correct_labeling l → ∀ x y (p : PathOf G x y), x + weight p ≤ l y.
Lemma acyclic_labeling l : correct_labeling l → acyclic G.

In particular, it gives us a decision procedure to check that a graph is acyclic, by simply checking that lsp V x x is 0 for every node x in the graph (see §5.2.3). To conclude, we just need to remark that the existence of a correct labeling is equivalent to the existence of a valuation that satisfies the constraints of the graph.

3.2 Conversion: Algorithmic presentation with equality and reduction

The specification of cumulativity and conversion of §2.3 is quite far from a decision procedure. First, the transitivity rule cumul_Trans can be applied at any time, making an intermediate term appear out of thin air. Second, when looking at conversion, the symmetry rule can always be applied twice, without any progress in the comparison. Finally, when comparing inductive types and constructors, for instance mkApps (tInd i u) args and mkApps (tInd i u') args', several rules can be applied and in particular cumul_Ind which compares them up to cumulativity and cumul_App which compares them as standard constants. Thus, we have some kind of critical pairs in the definition of a cumulativity derivation.

To remedy this issue, it is common to decide conversion by using reduction instead. The idea is that two terms are convertible if and only if they can both be reduced to the same term. In the presence of universe polymorphism and cumulativity, the notion of "same term" needs to be relaxed to syntactical equality up to universes.

In this section we define an algorithmic notion of cumulativity based on reduction and show that it is indeed equivalent to cumulativity defined in §2.3 and given in full in Figs. 19 and 20. The main technical ingredient of the proof is confluence of reduction.

3.2.1 Reduction and Syntactical Equality up to Universes. Single step reduction of PCUIC terms is defined in Fig. 5, and written Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ↝ u. We only show representative cases, as the definition shares a lot with the definition of cumulativity. Basically, reduction corresponds to the computation and congruence rules of cumulativity. For computation rules, they are literally the same, as the reader can check on red_beta and red_iota. Congruence rules however are slightly different because we do not want the reduction to be parallel, so we need a rule per argument of a constructor. For instance, in the case of tLambda, there are two rules: abs_red_l which reduces the type annotation, and abs_red_r which reduces the body of the lambda.

From this single step reduction, general reduction is simply defined as its reflexive and transitive closure.

Notation "Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ↝∗ u" := clos_refl_trans (fun t u : term ⇒ Σ; Γ ⊢ t ↝ u).
The fundamental property that reduction satisfies is confluence. Its proof is involved and requires several auxiliary notions, so we defer its explanation to §4. However, let us just state the relevant result for this section: reduction is confluent on well-scoped terms (that is terms whose variables are bound in the local context $\Gamma$).

**Lemma red_confluence** $\Gamma(\text{t :) open_term } \Gamma) \vdash \nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:\nu:$

Syntactical equality up to universes is also defined in Fig. 5, and written $\Sigma \vdash \text{t \refl u u}$. Basically, it contains the cumulativity and congruence rules of cumulativity. Note that syntactical equality does not depend on a local context because variables are compared syntactically (Rule \text{eq_Rel}), but it depends on a relation $\text{Rle}$ comparing universes and a natural number $\text{napp}$. The index $\text{Rle}$ is used in the exact same way as for cumulativity, to compare universes and inductive types up to cumulativity. The index $\text{napp}$ deserves more explanation.

Because we want the algorithmic specification to be closer to a decision procedure, we do not want to have the critical pairs that we have for the specification of cumulativity/conversion. This means that to compare $\text{mkApps (tInd i u)}\text{ args}$ and $\text{mkApps (tInd i u')}\text{ args}$ we always want to use...
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

Inductive \( "\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash _{\leq_{Rle}} \" : \text{term} \to \text{term} \to \text{Type} :=
\)
| cumul_syntactical_eq \( : \forall t u, \Sigma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^0 u \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^a u \)
| cumul_red_l \( : \forall t u v, \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \Rightarrow v \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash v \leq_{Rle}^a u \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^a u \)
| cumul_red_r \( : \forall t u v, \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^a v \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u \Rightarrow v \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^a u. \)

Fig. 6. Algorithmic cumulativity

congruence of application (Rule eq_App). As such, the congruence rule eq_Ind for tInd needs to account for cumulativity. However, we have an issue here because the cumulativity rule only applies to fully applied inductive types. This is why we need to store the number of applications that we have traversed during the syntactic equality check: this is the exact purpose of the \( n_{app} \) index.

Indeed, Rule eq_App increments the index in the premise of the the applied functions (here \( \Sigma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^{n_{app}} t' \)). Note that the index is reset to 0 for the premise on the arguments of the application.

For other congruence rules, such as eq_Lambda, \( n_{app} \) is reset to 0 in the premise to account for the fact that we are not under an \( n \)-ary application.

Is it not difficult to show that syntactical equality up to universes is reflexive, symmetric and transitive as soon as the relations \( Re \) and \( Rle \) comparing universes are as well.

3.2.2 Algorithmic cumulativity and its properties. Algorithmic cumulativity between two terms is defined as the fact these two terms reduce to terms that are syntactically equal up to universes (see Fig. 6).

We now turn to the proof that this algorithmic presentation of cumulativity is equivalent to the abstract specification. Thus, algorithmic cumulativity provides a crucial intermediate point between the abstract specification and the concrete implementation of cumulativity/conversion.

To show that algorithmic cumulativity implies the abstract specification, we only have to show that all the rules of reduction and syntactic equality up to universes are admissible rules of the abstract specification.

For reduction, this is fairly straightforward, as the computation rules are literally the same, the only remaining work is to use reflexivity of the abstract specification to be able to encode the non-parallel congruence rule of reduction.

Proposition red_cumulSpec \( \Gamma ; t u : \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \Rightarrow u \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \approx_s u. \)

The proof that the rules of syntactic equality up to universes are admissible requires to state a more general lemma that essentially checks that the \( n_{app} \) index of syntactic equality is computing the number of applications in the right way.

Proposition eq_term_upto_univ_cumulSpec \( (\Gamma : \text{context}) \{ \text{Re} \ \text{Rle} \} t u \text{args} \text{args}' : \Sigma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^{n_{app}} u \to \text{All2} (\text{fun} t u \Rightarrow \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leq_{Rle}^s u) \text{args} \text{args}' \to \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps} t \text{args} \leq_{Rle}^s \text{mkApps} u \text{args}'. \)

Then, the fact that syntactic equality up to universes implies the abstract specification of cumulativity is a direct consequence, when \( \text{args} \) and \( \text{args}' \) are the empty list.

From this, we can conclude directly that algorithmic cumulativity is correct, using transitivity of the abstract specification.
Proposition cumulAlgo_cumulSpec Rle Γ (t u : term) : Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⪯_{Rle} u → Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⪯_{Rle} u.

For the opposite direction, the situation is more complicated as we need to show that some rules, such as reflexivity, transitivity or symmetry, which are not at all present in the definition of algorithmic cumulativity, are nevertheless admissible. As already mentioned, this strongly relies on the fact the reduction is confluent, but only on well-scoped terms (see §4.3 for a counter-example of unconditional confluence). This means that completeness of algorithmic cumulativity only holds for well-scoped terms, but not for arbitrary ill-scoped terms. Fortunately, type checking only calls cumulativity checking on well-typed terms, which are in particular well scoped, so this conditional completeness is enough for our purpose.

To understand why confluence is a key property, consider three (well-scoped in Γ) terms t, u and v, such that Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⪯_{Rle} u and Σ ; Γ ⊢ u ⪯_{Rle} v. But then, as the reduction is not deterministic, there is no reason for t and v to be syntactically equal (up to universes) (for instance, one reduction could use Rule cumul_red_l while the other could come from Rule cumul_red_r), so the only sensible way to show transitivity in this case is to have confluence and get a common reduct 𝜌(u) from t and v. This way, in our example Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⪯_{Rle} v holds by using Rules cumul_red_l, cumul_red_r and reflexivity on 𝜌(u).

In fact, we have been able to show that this particular situation generalizes to the arbitrary case, so that confluence of reduction is enough to deduce transitivity of algorithmic cumulativity (on well-scoped terms). Beyond confluence, we also need that reduction and syntactic equality up to universes behave well with respect to each other. More precisely, we show that the latter is a simulation with respect to the former:

Lemma red1_eq_term_upto_univ_l {Σ Σ’ : global_env} Re Rle napp Γ u v u’:
Σ’ ⊢ u ⪯_{Rle} u’ → Σ ; Γ ⊢ u → v → ∃ v’, Σ ; Γ ⊢ u’ → v’ × Σ’ ⊢ v ⪯_{Rle} u’.

For the rest of the rules of the abstract specification of cumulativity, things are a bit simpler. Computation rules are directly mimicked by the corresponding rules for the reduction, and cumulativity rules are directly related to corresponding rules for the syntactic equality up to universes. Finally, congruence rules are obtained by using corresponding congruence rules for both reduction and syntactic equality up to universes. Of course, to prove that all those rules are admissible, there is a fair amount of bureaucratic proof obligations popping up, but they are not particularly informative and we refer the curious reader to the formalization for details.

Armed with all those admissible rules, it is now easy to prove completeness of algorithmic cumulativity.

Proposition cumulSpec_cumulAlgo Rle Γ (t u : open_term Γ) : Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⪯_{Rle} u → Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⪯_{Rle} u.

3.3 Bidirectional Typing

The last step to go from the abstract specification to an algorithmic specification is to deal with typing derivations (§2.5). We will call them undirected when needing to distinguish it from the other judgments we are about to introduce.

The main difficulty here is Rule type_Cumul. Indeed, similarly to transitivity for cumulativity, it can be used at any point in a typing derivation and involve a completely arbitrary type that cannot be directly “invented” by an algorithm. However, we cannot completely remove the rule, as we still need to retain the possibility to use computation on types inside derivation trees. Instead, we distribute computation in two ways: we keep the possibility to use cumulativity between types, but only at specific places where both types are known; and when not, we still allow reduction in some other places in order to expose the head constructor of a type when this is required.
The precise design of the structure of this type system takes a lot of inspiration from the actual kernel. In particular, we introduce a separation between the checking judgment, which expects a type as input, and the inference one, which instead outputs a type. This separation is the characteristic of so-called bidirectional typing algorithms, see the survey by Dunfield and Krishnaswami [2021] for an overview, and so this is also the name we adopt for this judgment.

Moreover, the kernel of Coq maintains the invariant that inputs to the type checker are always well formed—apart, of course, for the term whose well-formedness is under scrutiny. Conversely, outputs of type inference, and in particular inferred types, are always well formed. Those principles manifest in the proof of equivalence between the bidirectional and undirected system, as we will explain in §3.3.2.

Standalone work [Lennon-Bertrand 2021, 2022], centered mainly around bidirectional typing in the context of CIC/PCUIC, has already appeared. We present here the most interesting points for MetaCoq, but more details and general intuitions pertaining to this section can be found there.

\[
\text{Inductive "}\Sigma \ ; \ \Gamma \vdash _\rightarrow _:\text{term} \rightarrow \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Type} :=
\]

| infer_Rel n decl : \
| nth_error \Gamma n = \text{Some} decl \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash tRel n \rightarrow \text{lift}_{0} (S n) (\text{decl}_\text{type} \ \text{decl}) \
| infer_Sort s : \
| \text{wf_universe} \Sigma s \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash tSort s \rightarrow \text{tSort} (\text{Universe}.\text{super} s) \
| infer_Lambda na A t s B : \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow s \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma : \text{na} \ A \vdash t \rightarrow B \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash tLambda na A t \rightarrow \text{tProd} \ \text{na} \ A \ B \
| infer_App t na A B u : \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow \Pi (\text{na}, A, B) \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u \rightarrow A \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash tApp t u \rightarrow B[\{0 := u\}] \
| \ldots (**Other inference rules are similar**) \

\[
\text{with "}\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash _\rightarrow _\Pi (_-, _, _)" : \text{term} \rightarrow \text{name} \rightarrow \text{term} \rightarrow \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Type} :=
\]

| infer_prod_Prod t T na A B : \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow T \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash T \rightarrow \text{tProd} \ \text{na} \ A \ B \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow \Pi (\text{na}, A, B) \

\[
\text{with... (**Other constrained inference judgments are similar**)}
\]

\[
\text{with "}\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash _\rightarrow _\Pi (_-,_,_)" : \text{term} \rightarrow \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Type} :=
\]

| check_Cumul t T T' : \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow T \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash T \rightarrow _\text{a} T \rightarrow \
| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow T.
\]

Fig. 7. Bidirectional typing rules (excerpt)
3.3.1 The Bidirectional Typing Judgement. Some rules of the bidirectional typing judgment are presented in Fig. 7. They are at the same time quite similar to the rules of §2.5 but with subtle albeit important differences, let us go through those.

First, it is an important feature of PCUIC that terms contain enough information to always infer a type—this is not true of e.g., MLTT as implemented in Agda. In particular, our \( \lambda \)-abstractions are always annotated with their types. This is reflected here by the fact that each typing rule from §2.5—apart from type_Cumul that we will treat separately later—gives rise to a type inference rule. Rules for variables, sorts, abstractions and application should be enough to give a feel of how we adapt §2.5. We write inference \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \Downarrow T \), and think of \( T \) as an output, even though the relation is not a function.

None of the rules for inference, however, play the role that Rule type_Cumul plays in undirected typing. This is why we define, mutually with inference, other inductive judgments. Together, those rules will cover what can be achieved in undirected typing using Rule type_Cumul, but in a more controlled way.

The first of these judgments is checking, written \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \Downarrow T \). This gives the full power of (algorithmic) cumulativity to compare the type inferred for \( t \) and the type \( T \), but the price to pay is that the type \( T \) should be considered an input, and not an output as in inference. Thus, care is taken that this judgment is used only in places where no type has to be invented. For instance, in Rule infer_App, the argument can be checked against the domain that has been previously inferred for the function. More generally, checking is only used with a type known from previous hypotheses.

The last kind of judgments we call constrained inference, and it is itself divided into three judgments respectively for sorts, product types and inductive types. These stand between inference and checking. They are similar to inference as they output rather than take an input. But they are similar to checking as they constrain the type to have a certain shape: it should respectively be a sort, a product, or an inductive type (applied to a list of arguments). In Fig. 7 we for instance show constrained inference for products, written \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \Downarrow \prod (\mathbf{na}, A, B) \), and its use in Rule infer_App to check whether the function inhabits a product type, and if so output a domain type used to further check the argument. Constrained inference for (co)inductive types is similarly used in destructors (pattern-matching and projections) to see whether the destructed term’s type has the right shape. Finally, constrained inference for sorts is used in all places where we want to verify that a term is a type, but do not know what its universe level should be, as for instance in Rule infer_Lambda.

3.3.2 Correctness: Bidirectional Typing Implies Undirected Typing. For the first direction of the equivalence between the two forms of typing (PCUIC: BDToPCUIC), a bidirectional derivation can be directly erased to an undirected one: inference rules are mapped to their undirected counterparts, and the rules for constrained inference and checking are subsumed by the more flexible type_Cumul.

**Theorem** inferring_typing \( \Sigma \Gamma t T : \text{wf} \) \( \Sigma \Gamma \rightarrow \Sigma \Gamma t \Downarrow T \rightarrow \Sigma \Gamma t : T \).

There is however one subtlety: the bidirectional judgment follows the information flow of the algorithm, which never re-checks inputs to be valid, as this invariant is maintained throughout the recursive calls. Thus, the bidirectional derivations lack information that is required in the undirected one. For instance, Rule check_Cumul in Fig. 7 does not require the target \( T \) to be a well-formed type, while Rule type_Cumul in §2.5 does. Similarly, Rule infer_Rel does not demand the context to be well formed, contrarily to Rule type_Rel.

Thus, the bulk of the work to prove the correctness theorem inferring_typing above is to derive the extra hypotheses of the undirected rules, effectively ensuring that the well-formation invariant of the algorithm is maintained. This appears in the statement, as the fact that \( \Sigma ; \Gamma t \Downarrow T \) implies \( \Sigma ; \Gamma t : T \) only when \( \Gamma \) is well formed. This relies in turn on important meta-theoretical properties of
the system. For instance, in rules for constrained inference such as infer_prod_Prod, the induction hypothesis gives some $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t : T$, and we must use validity and subject reduction to ensure that $tProd \, \text{na} \, A \, B$, a reduct of $T$, is a well-formed type.

3.3.3 Completeness: Undirected Typing Implies Bidirectional Typing. In the other direction of the equivalence (PCUI: BDFromPCUI), we cannot keep the structure of the undirected proof. Indeed, Rule type_Cumul can appear at any place in such an undirected proof, which is not allowed in a bidirectional derivation. Thus, the aim here is to ensure that computation can be moved in the typing derivation to places where it is allowed in the bidirectional system. More precisely, we show that uses of cumulativity via Rule type_Cumul can be commuted down with the other rules.

**Theorem** typing_infering $\Sigma \Gamma \vdash T : \text{wf} \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t : \exists T', \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \triangleright T' \times \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash T \leq T$.

Let us for instance consider the case of a cumulativity rule on the function in type_App, i.e., suppose we have $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f : \exists A \, B$ and $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash T \leq A$ $tProd \, \text{na} \, A \, B$ and two cumulativities $\Sigma; \Gamma + A' \approx A$ and $\Sigma; \Gamma', \, \text{na} \, A + B' \leq B$, respectively between domains and codomains. This key point is a strong form of injectivity for type constructor $tProd$, and its proof relies crucially upon confluence. To show that the cumulativity rule can indeed be commuted with type_App, we need to show that the three components of the considered cumulativity rule can be integrated into the premises of infer_App. The reduction is incorporated into the constrained inference premise of infer_App, the conversion on domains goes into the checking premise, and the cumulativity on codomains is propagated further down.

3.3.4 Reaping the Benefits of the Equivalence. In the end, composing completeness with correctness gives a form of “normalization” of typing derivations to somewhat canonical ones, where computation is delayed as long as possible and is used only in a principled way. More precisely, the structure of a derivation is completely fixed by the term, but because we do not fix a strategy for reduction (see e.g., Rule infer_prod_Prod in Fig. 7) we can potentially have derivations that have the same structure but differ in how much they reduce types.

The structure of these canonical derivations entails that they have better properties than the undirected ones, and the possibility to obtain one from any undirected derivation consequently ensure meta-theoretical properties of the undirected system that would be much harder to obtain directly.

The first is principality of typing, a version of type uniqueness relaxed to account for cumulativity.\(^{17}\) A caveat here: as already mentioned, since we do not impose a reduction strategy in constrained inference, inferred types are not unique up to equality, i.e., inference is not a functional relation. However, we show in (PCUI: BDUnique) that two inferred types $T$ and $T'$ for a given term $t$ can always be reduced to a common reduct $T''$, implying in particular that $T$ and $T'$ are always convertible. As a consequence, any typeable term $t$ has a principal type— one that is minimal with respect to cumulativity amongst all types for $t$—namely (any of) its inferred type.

**Theorem** infering_unique $\Sigma \Gamma \vdash T$:

$\text{wf} \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash T \rightarrow \exists T'; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash T \rightarrow T' \rightarrow T''$.

**Corollary** infering_unique $\Sigma \Gamma \vdash T$:

$\text{wf} \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash T \rightarrow \exists T'; \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash T \rightarrow T' \rightarrow T''$.

This property is crucial for the work on erasure, as it ensures we can unambiguously assign ‘its’ sort to a term, so erasing all terms whose sort is $tProp$ is properly defined. While it was already

---

\(^{17}\)Or, more generally, subtyping.
proven before bidirectional typing was added to META\textsc{Coq}, the proof was quite involved. And
indeed, for some time only a weaker version could be obtained, asserting that if a term had two
different types $T$ and $T'$ then there existed a third one $T''$ smaller than both $T$ and $T'$.

Another valuable property is strengthening (PCUI: BDStrengthening) which says that if $\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t : T$ and $\Delta$ is a well-formed sub-context of $\Gamma$ containing all variables of $t$, then $t$ is still well typed in the smaller $\Delta$. Although it is not directly used in the rest of the development as of now, it should be
a useful stepping stone for proving correctness of various optimizations and tactics. Strengthening
is difficult to prove in the undirected setting because a type\_Cumul rule might introduce a type using
arbitrary variables, the whole point of a proof being to show this kind of types can be avoided.
In the bidirectional setting, the proof is much simpler as a derivation naturally only uses allowed
variables, so that strengthening can be proven by a direct induction.

### 3.4 Fixing Cumulativity for Pattern Matching on Cumulative Inductive Types

Representing pattern matching. Coq’s typing rule for \texttt{match} is notoriously difficult and obscure,
as it has to account for the full generality of inductive types and dependent elimination. In all
generality, a pattern-matching node in Coq’s kernel language is presented to the user with the following syntax:\footnote{See the reference manual.}

\begin{verbatim}
match s in I \ldots \_ x \ldots as s' return P with \\
| c1 y1 \ldots yn1 \Rightarrow b1 \\
\ldots \\
| ck \ldots ynk \Rightarrow bk \\
end
\end{verbatim}

The scrutinee $s$ is the value being matched, which should be of an inductive type $I$, $P$ is the return
type of the whole pattern matching, and $b_1$ to $b_k$ are the branches, one per constructor. The return
type $P$ can depend on both the indices of the inductive type $I$ and the scrutinee, corresponding
respectively to the \texttt{in} and \texttt{as} clauses, introducing variables that $P$ can use. Similarly, branch $b_i$
binds the variables $y_1$ to $y_{n_i}$, corresponding to the arguments of the constructor.

Historically, these binders had been respectively represented as iterated $\Pi$-types and $\lambda$-abstractions.
This is the natural way they are specified in a setting with eliminators, and was kept when transi-
tioning from those to pattern matching in Coq 6.1. This meant that, contrarily to this user-facing
syntax, $P$ was actually internally represented as some iterated product type

\begin{verbatim}
tProd x1 X1 \ldots tProd xn Xn
(\texttt{mkApps I ([A1 ; \ldots ; An]++[X1 ; \ldots ; Xn]++[s'])}) P...)
\end{verbatim}

and similarly for branches.

The completeness issue. Our work on the proof of completeness of the type checker (§\ref{sec:completeness}) led
to the discovery of a bug not only in our formalization, but also in the kernel of Coq.\footnote{A precise description of the problem in the kernel is given in issue \#13495 in the Coq bug tracker on GitHub.} This bug
affected cumulative inductive types from their introduction in Coq 8.11 until its discovery and fix
in Coq 8.14. It came from an incorrect implementation of the pen and paper development \cite{timany2017} which used eliminators rather than pattern matching. This incompleteness in the
implementation in turn led to a subject reduction failure: the kernel was unable to recognize that
the reduct of a well-typed term was well typed. An example of this is given in Appendix.

In brief, the issue was that the representation of binders using $\Pi$-types and $\lambda$-abstractions led
to a comparison of domain types that was wrongly using conversion (as is natural for product
types in equivariant cumulativity, see §\ref{sec:equi-cumul}). However, the correct cumulativity check for pattern
matching on cumulative inductive types permits the inferred type of the scrutinee to be strictly
smaller than the expected type of the argument of the return type. Thus, using a generic encoding of the return type as a \( \Pi \)-type was incorrect.

**The change in Coq.** The easy fix, which simply replaced conversion by cumulativity in this particular function, was quickly implemented once the issue was found.\(^\text{20}\)

However, the more principled solution in the long run was to change the case representation to store the parameters and universe instance separately from the return predicate and branches, completely removing the usage of \( \Pi \) and \( \lambda \) binders that caused the issue in the first place. In this new representation, corresponding to the typing rules given in §2.5, the return type \( P \) is directly represented as a term, implicitly well defined in an extended context which is computed from the information stored in the pattern-matching node. This representation of cases, is more efficient, as the context of the predicate and branches no longer need to be stored, since they can canonically be derived from the inductive declaration and the stored parameters and universe instance. Only the user-specified binding annotations for these contexts are kept for pretty-printing.

This change had already been proposed by Herbelin,\(^\text{21}\) but was only finally implemented in Coq’s kernel by Pédrot\(^\text{22}\) for Coq 8.14, following our discovery of the bug. The kernel representation moreover becomes closer to user syntax in which the types in these contexts are never displayed. This also fixes unintuitive behaviors of occurrence selection in tactics, since before the change tactics could find occurrences in parts of the term that the user couldn’t see, namely the type of binders that were removed. Overall, the typing rule for \texttt{match} becomes simpler and closer to its bidirectional version, making explicit the flow of information between the inferred type of the scrutinee and the stored parameters and universe instance.

### 4 Metatheory of PCUIC

To implement a type checker for PCUIC and prove it correct, it is necessary to also formalize most of its metatheory. Indeed, the certified checker relies for instance on confluence, subject reduction, and strong normalization of the reduction.

In this section, we explain how confluence of the conversion can be derived using the Tait–Martin-Löf–Takahashi methodology [Takahashi 1989] extended to cover not only \( \beta \)-reduction, but also pattern-matching, (co)fixpoints and let-bindings. In particular, parallel reduction in our setting can also reduce contexts. From this confluence proof, we derive many important properties, such as validity (the fact that the type in a typing derivation can itself be typed, sometimes called presupposition), as well as subject reduction and canonicity.

As already mentioned in the introduction, because of Gödel’s second incompleteness theorem, strong normalization (SN) of PCUIC cannot be proven inside Coq. Barras [2012] went as far as possible in this direction, showing that one can prove in Coq, for the Calculus of Constructions extended with natural numbers and a sized-typing discipline, both a relative consistency proof with Intuitionistic Zermelo-Fraenkel Set Theory with Grothendieck universes, and SN using a reducibility candidates technique. The generalization of this method to the full CIC remains a research problem. Alternatively, Abel et al. [2018a] prove SN for a (predicative) restriction of the same system in Agda extended with inductive-recursive types, whose logical strength is \textit{a priori} much higher. We see these rather strong results as evidence that it is consistent to \textit{assume strong normalization} for PCUIC, and use it to derive consistency of PCUIC and standardization theorems which are useful for erasure.

\(^\text{20}\)In Coq PR #13501.
\(^\text{21}\)In the Coq enhancement proposal #34.
\(^\text{22}\)In Coq PR #13563
4.1 Accessibility and Well-Founded Induction

In our development, we heavily rely on well-foundedness, both to state and use normalization, and to define functions by well-founded induction when structural induction as available natively in Coq’s guard checking is not enough.

While well-foundedness of a relation is classically stated as the absence of infinite descending chain, this negative statement is too weak in a constructive setting. Instead, we use the usual constructive reformulation [Paulson 1986], which says that all descending paths are finite. This is expressed using the accessibility predicate \( \text{Acc} \) associated with a relation, defined as follows:

\[
\text{Inductive Acc } (A : \text{Type}) (R : A \to A \to \text{Prop}) (x : A) : \text{Prop} :=
\]

\[\text{Acc_intro} : (\forall y : A, R y x \to \text{Acc} R y) \to \text{Acc} R x.\]

In words, an element \( x \) of \( A \) is accessible whenever all \( R \)-smaller elements are themselves accessible. A relation \( R : A \to A \to \text{Prop} \) is well-founded whenever every element of \( A \) is accessible, i.e., whenever \( \forall a : A, \text{Acc} R a \). However, accessibility is more precise, as it is 'local' in the sense that it asserts a property of a single element of a type.

This inductive accessibility predicate directly translates to well-founded recursion: its eliminator says that to define a function \( f \) on an accessible \( x : A \), one can access recursive calls on all \( R \)-smaller elements. Crucially, while accessibility is a \( \text{Prop} \)-valued relation, Coq’s subsingleton criterion allows to eliminate it into the \( \text{Type} \) sort. This means we can define functions by well-founded recursion, but have this proof of termination erased during extraction, providing an extracted function which is guaranteed to terminate\(^{23}\) but does not compute an uninformative proof of accessibility, avoiding a huge performance loss.

4.2 Substitution and Weakening

The implemented calculus uses standard de Bruijn lifting and (parallel) substitution operations. As a first step towards formalizing the metatheory of PCUIC, we need to show that reduction, cumulativity and typing are all closed by lifting (a property usually called weakening or thinning) and substitution operations.

Working with this traditional presentation of de Bruijn indices goes a long way, however we hit a difficulty when formalizing more complex operations on syntax, such as parallel reduction for proving confluence. To alleviate the difficulties associated with reasoning on the primitive operations, we provide a version of the \( \sigma \)-calculus operations [Abadi et al. 1991; Schäfer et al. 2015] on terms.

The \( \sigma \)-calculus operations enjoy a rich, clean and decidable equational theory, equivalent to an explicit substitution calculus, and are able to express complex commutations neatly—compared to the tricky lifting and substitution lemmas of “traditional” de Bruijn representations.

4.2.1 The \( \sigma \)-calculus. The two primitives of the \( \sigma \)-calculus correspond to generalizations of lifting and substitution to an infinitary setting whose corresponding types are:

\[
\text{Definition renaming} := \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}.
\]

\[
\text{Definition substitution} := \mathbb{N} \to \text{term}.
\]

Renaming corresponds to a generalization of lifting where the action of a renaming \( f \), written \( \text{rename } f \), on a de Bruijn variable \( \text{tRel} n \) is defined by \( \text{tRel} (f n) \). Similarly, the action of an infinitary substitution \( \sigma \), written \( _\sigma \) and called instantiation, on a de Bruijn variable \( \text{tRel} n \) is defined by \( \sigma n \). In both cases, this action on variables is lifted to arbitrary terms by congruence.

\(^{23}\)To be precise, this only applies to inputs that satisfy potentially erased preconditions. For instance, our weak-head reduction machine is only guaranteed to terminate on well-typed terms.
Class GuardCheckerCorrect := {  
guard_red b Σ Γ mfix mfix' idx:  
Σ;Γ ⊢ tFixCoFix b mfix idx → tFixCoFix b mfix' idx →  
guard b Σ Γ mfix → guard b Σ Γ mfix';  
guard_extends b Σ Σ' Γ mfix:  
extends Σ Σ' →  
guard b Σ Γ mfix → guard b Σ' Γ mfix;  
guard_inst b Σ Γ Δ mfix σ:  
Σ;Γ ⊢ σ : Δ →  
guard b Σ Δ mfix → guard b Σ(Γ inst_mfix mfix σ);  
guard_rename b P Σ Γ Δ mfix f:  
renaming P Γ Δ f →  
guard b Σ Δ mfix → guard b Σ Γ (rename_mfix mfix f)}.  

Fig. 8. Correctness of the guard checker with respect to the calculus (excerpt)

In the σ-calculus, a renaming can be turned into a substitution by post-composition with the variable constructor tRel, both having the same action on terms. Moreover, the theory enjoys nice properties such as the fact that the action of renaming commutes with composition. This lets us prove stability of typing under a closed renaming (that is, when the renaming maps each variable in the source context to one with the same type in the target context) and under instantiation with a well-typed substitution (where well-typedness of a substitution is defined pointwise on the context with the additional check that let-binding are preserved).  

Lemma typing_rename Σ Γ Δ f t A:  
wf Σ → wf_local Σ Δ →  
renaming_closed Γ Δ f →  
Σ;Γ ⊢ t : A →  
Σ;Δ ⊢ rename f t : rename f A.  

Lemma typing_inst Σ Γ Δ σ t A:  
wf Σ → wf_local Σ Δ →  
Σ;Γ ⊢ σ : Δ →  
Σ;Δ ⊢ t : A →  
Σ;Δ ⊢ t[σ] : A[σ].  

The weakening and substitution theorems, formulated without the σ-calculus primitives, are direct consequences of their more abstract counterparts, but more directly usable. The global environment also induces a form of weakening by the addition of new inductive or constant declarations (PCUIC: WeakeningEnv), simpler from the point of view of typing but trickier w.r.t. universe instantiation (PCUIC: UnivSubstitutionTyp). Still, in both cases we show that typing is also stable by these operations.

4.2.2 Correctness of the Guard Checker. Stability of typing under renaming and substitution actually depends on correctness properties of the guard condition. Indeed, for those metatheoretical properties to hold, the guard condition needs to satisfy corresponding stability properties. This can be seen as a guideline on how to implement a guard condition properly. Indeed, we want the guard condition to imply normalization of the theory, but we also want it not to break subject reduction for instance.

The class GuardCheckerCorrect (Fig. 8) summarizes the properties that a guard condition needs to satisfy to preserve good metatheoretical properties. It says that the guard condition must be stable by reduction, context extension, instantiation and renaming. There are also conditions of stability by α-renaming, cumulativity (at the level of contexts) and universe substitution, but those condition are mainly technical.
Inductive \( \Gamma, \_ \Rightarrow \Delta : \_ : \text{term} \rightarrow \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Type} := \)

| pred_beta na t_0 t_1 b_0 b_1 a_0 a_1 : 
| \( \Gamma, t_0 \Rightarrow \Delta, t_1 \rightarrow (\Gamma, na \triangleright t_0), b_0 \Rightarrow (\Delta, na \triangleright t_1), b_1 \rightarrow \Gamma, a_0 \Rightarrow \Delta, a_1 \rightarrow \) 
| \( \Gamma, \text{tApp}(\text{tLambda na} t_0 b_0) a_0 \Rightarrow \Delta, b_1 \{0 := a_1\} \)

| pred_zeta na d_0 t_0 t_1 b_0 b_1 : 
| \( \Gamma, t_0 \Rightarrow \Delta, t_1 \rightarrow t_0 \rightarrow \Delta, d_1 \rightarrow (\Gamma, na \triangleright t_0), b_0 \Rightarrow (\Delta, na \triangleright d_1), b_1 \rightarrow \) 
| \( \Gamma, \text{tLetIn na} d_0 t_0 b_0 b_1 \Rightarrow \Delta, b_1 \{0 := d_1\} \)

| pred_rel_def_unfold i body : 
| \( \Gamma \Rightarrow^{cfx} \Delta \rightarrow \text{option_map decl_body (nth_error} \Delta i) = \text{Some (Some body)} \rightarrow \) 
| \( \Gamma, \text{tRel i} \Rightarrow \Delta, \text{lift}(0)\{S i\} \text{body} \)

| pred_rel_refl i : 
| \( \Gamma \Rightarrow^{cfx} \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma, \text{tRel i} \Rightarrow \Gamma, \text{tRel i} \)

| pred_delta c decl body (isdecl : declared_constant \( \Sigma \) c decl) u : 
| \( \Gamma \Rightarrow^{cfx} \Delta \rightarrow \text{decl(cst_body)} = \text{Some body} \rightarrow \Gamma, \text{tConst c u} \Rightarrow \Delta, \text{body}@[u] \)

| pred_app M_0 M_1 N_0 N_1 : 
| \( \Gamma, M_0 \Rightarrow \Delta, M_1 \rightarrow \Delta, N_0 \Rightarrow \Delta, N_1 \rightarrow \Gamma, \text{tApp M_0 N_0} \Rightarrow \Delta, \text{tApp M_1 N_1} \)

(* other cases are omitted *)

Inductive \( \Gamma, \_ \Rightarrow \text{subst} \) \( \Gamma', \_ : \text{list term} \rightarrow \text{context} \rightarrow \text{list term} \rightarrow \text{context} \rightarrow \text{Type} := \)

| psubst_empty : \( \Gamma, [], [] \Rightarrow \text{subst} \) \( \Gamma', [], [], [] \)

| psubst_\( \Delta \Delta' s s' na \rangle t t' \) \( T T' \) : 
| \( \Gamma, s, \Delta \Rightarrow \text{subst} \) \( \Gamma', s', \Delta', (\rightarrow (\Gamma + + \Delta), T) \Rightarrow (\Gamma' + + \Delta'), T' \rightarrow \Gamma, t \Rightarrow \Gamma', t' \rightarrow \) 
| \( \Gamma, (t :: s), (\Delta, na :: T) \Rightarrow \text{subst} \) \( \Gamma', (t' :: s'), (\Delta', na' :: T) \)

| psubst_\( \Delta \Delta' s s' na \rangle t t' \) \( T T' \) : 
| \( \Gamma, s, \Delta \Rightarrow \text{subst} \) \( \Gamma', s', \Delta', (\rightarrow (\Gamma + + \Delta), T) \Rightarrow (\Gamma' + + \Delta'), T' \rightarrow \Gamma, (\text{subst}_0 t s) \Rightarrow \Gamma', (\text{subst}_0 s' t') \rightarrow \) 
| \( \Gamma, (\text{subst}_0 s :: t :: s), (\Delta, na :: T) \Rightarrow \text{subst} \) \( \Gamma', (\text{subst}_0 s' :: t'), (\Delta', na' :: T) \).

Fig. 9. Definition of parallel reduction (assuming a global environment \( \Sigma \))

### 4.3 Confluence

Following the Tait-Martín Löf method [Takahashi 1989], we define parallel reduction for PCUID, written as \( \Gamma, t \Rightarrow \Delta, t' \) in Fig. 9. This reduction is just a variant of reduction \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightsquigarrow t' \) where already present redexes can all be reduced together in one single step. Note that the global environment \( \Sigma \) is a parameter of the reduction and not an index because it is fixed during the reduction. Note that a \( \beta \)-redex can be reduced or not, depending on whether the reduction rule \( \text{pred\_beta} \) or congruence rule \( \text{pred\_app} \) is used. We also add a reflexivity rule for atoms (variables which may not be reduced, universes, inductive types and constructors), thus ensuring that parallel reduction is reflexive.

#### 4.3.1 Well-Scoped Terms

The correct representation of pattern matching for cumulative inductive types (§3.4) introduces a subtle issue which has to do with confluence. The term

```coq
tCase ... (tApp (tConstruct <T> 0 []) (tInd <N> []))
[( (\_ decl_name := \{ binder_name := "x" ; binder_relevance := Relevant \};
    decl_body := Some (tRel 0); ... ]),
  tRel 0 ]
```
corresponds to \( \text{match} @C \ N \ \text{with} \ @C \ X \ (x := X) \Rightarrow x \ \text{end} \) but the new PCUI representation now also allows \( \text{let} \ Y := \ N \ \text{in} \ \text{match} @C \ N \ \text{with} \ @C \ X \ (x := Y) \Rightarrow x \ \text{end} \) which breaks confluence. The root of the problem comes from the fact that the reduction rule for pattern matching implicitly assumes that the contexts of the branches are well formed, \textit{i.e.}, have the right number of binders. On terms where this is not the case, we can encounter the pathological behavior above.

Thus, we need a property on untyped terms that is enough to regain confluence. A sufficient property is well scoping, which in the case where the term is a pattern-matching node ensures that contexts are properly closed, and forbids the ill-scoped example above. Under this restriction, reduction and substitution properly commute, and confluence is recovered. In what follows, we implicitly assume that all terms are well scoped, although in the Coq formalization, this introduces a significant amount of additional assumption in the theorems and definitions. For instance, this is the technical reason why transitivity of conversion is only allowed to go through a well-scoped term (§2.3.1), as this ensures we can use our confluence property on well-scoped terms.

### 4.3.2 Dealing with Dependent Let-Bindings

Note that because of let-bindings, we need to take the context explicitly into account during the reduction. This is obtained by adding the `A112_local_env` (on `decl pred1`) \( \Gamma \Gamma' \) predicate in the premises of basic parallel reduction steps (such as the rule `pred_rel_def_unfold` for instance) in order to allow for parallel reduction in the context too.

Thanks to the generalization to contexts, we can prove a strong substitution lemma which says that the parallel reduction satisfies the property that the reductions performed on two terms \( M \) and \( N \) can also be done in one step on \( M \) where its first de Bruijn variable is substituted by \( N' \), where \( N \) reduces to \( N' \) in parallel as well.

**Lemma** substitution\(_{\text{pred1}} \) \( \Gamma \Delta M M' na A A' N N' : \text{wf} \Sigma \rightarrow \)
\[
\Gamma, N \Rightarrow \Delta, N' \rightarrow \\
(\Gamma, na : A), M \Rightarrow (\Delta, na : A'), M' \rightarrow \\
\Gamma, M[0 := N] \Rightarrow \Delta, M'[0 := N'].
\]

We actually need a generalized version of this lemma for well-typed substitutions: \( \Gamma \vdash s : \Delta \), where \( \Delta \) is the context we are substituting into and \( \Gamma \) represents the variables needed to type the substitution \( s \). However, as we are doing things in parallel, we need a notion of parallel substitution. To account for let-ins correctly, we need these well-typed substitutions to coherently \textit{preserve} the definiti

The parallel substitution structure \( \Gamma, \Delta, s \Rightarrow \text{subst} \Gamma', \Delta', t \) represents two substitutions \( s \) and \( t \) typed respectively in \( \Gamma \) and \( \Gamma' \) and instantiating respectively contexts \( \Delta \) and \( \Delta' \) (Fig. 9).

Rule `psubst_d` simply ensures that the two terms \( t \) and \( t' \) are in the parallel reduction relation, to instantiate two assumptions, the `psubst_d` rule rather \textit{forces} the substitution to be equal to the appropriately substituted bodies of let-ins. This still allows the reduction of the substituted versions of let-in definiti

**Theorem 4.1 (Parallel Substitution)**. The stability by substitution of parallel reduction extends to parallel substitution in the following way:
\[
\Gamma, \Delta, s \Rightarrow \text{subst} \Gamma', \Delta', t \rightarrow \\
(\Gamma ++ \Delta ++ \Gamma'), M \Rightarrow (\Gamma_1 ++ \Delta_1 ++ \Gamma_1'), N \rightarrow \\
(\Gamma ++ \Gamma'[s]), (\text{subst} s \#[\Gamma'] M) \Rightarrow (\Gamma_1 ++ \Gamma_1'[s']) \rightarrow (\text{subst} s' \#[\Gamma_1'] N)
\]
\begin{verbatim}
Fixpoint \( \rho \Gamma \cdot \text{term} := \\
match t \text{with} \\
| \text{tApp (tLambda na T b) u} \Rightarrow (\rho (\text{na} : (\rho \Gamma T) :: \Gamma) b) \{ 0 := \rho \Gamma u \} \\
| \text{tLetIn na d t b} \Rightarrow (\rho (\text{na} := (\rho \Gamma d) : (\rho \Gamma t) :: \Gamma) b) \{ 0 := \rho \Gamma d \} \\
| \text{tRel i} \Rightarrow \text{match \( \text{option_map decl\_body} (\text{nth\_error} \Gamma i) \) \text{with} \\
| \text{Some (Some body)} \Rightarrow (\text{lift} 0 (\text{S i}) \text{body}) \\
| \text{Some None} \Rightarrow \text{tRel i} \\
| \text{None} \Rightarrow \text{tRel i} \\
end \\
| \text{tApp t u} \Rightarrow \text{tApp} (\rho \Gamma t) (\rho \Gamma u) \\
| \text{tLambda na t u} \Rightarrow \text{tLambda na} (\rho \Gamma t) (\rho (\text{na} : (\rho \Gamma t) :: \Gamma) u) \\
| \text{tProd na t u} \Rightarrow \text{tProd na} (\rho \Gamma t) (\rho (\text{na} : (\rho \Gamma t) :: \Gamma) u) \\
| \text{tVar i} \Rightarrow \text{tVar i} \\
(* \text{other cases are similar} *)
end.

Fig. 10. Definition of the optimal reduction function \( \rho \)
\end{verbatim}

4.3.3 The Triangle Method. Parallel reduction induces a relation which is larger than one-step reduction, but smaller than the reflexive transitive closure of one-step reduction.

\[ \rightarrow \subseteq \Rightarrow \subseteq \rightarrow^* \]

Therefore, confluence of parallel reduction is equivalent to confluence of one-step reduction.

But what is crucial for parallel reduction is that it satisfies the property that there is an optimal reduced term \( \rho \cdot \text{term} \) for every term \( \text{term} \) (Smolka [2015] provides a detailed exposition of this). Technically, this term is defined by well-founded recursion (§4.1) and views (§5.1), performing as many reductions as possible during its traversal, but for simplicity we here include a simplified description using a fixpoint on the syntax, (see Fig. 10). This definition is extended on contexts pointwise. The fact that it is optimal is expressed by the triangle property (for readability, we express the following two properties using commutative diagrams).

Theorem 4.2 (Triangle property). For every term \( \text{term} \) and context \( \Gamma \), we have \( \text{term} \) and for every \( \Delta, u \) such that \( \Gamma, \text{term} \equiv \Delta, u \), the following triangle commutes

Note that the optimal reduction needs to be computed in the optimally reduced context, because parallel reduction also reduces terms in the context.

Parallel reduction is confluent because it is confluent in exactly one step, by using the triangle property twice.

Corollary 4.2.1 (Confluence of Parallel Reduction). Parallel reduction is confluent.
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

It is easy to get confluence of the transitive closure of one-step reduction from confluence of parallel reduction by forgetting the target contexts.

Once confluence is proven, we can show the no-confusion properties of type constructors: dependent products, (co-)inductive types and sorts are injective with respect to cumulativity and different from each other. The proofs are standard. For example, if two products are in the cumulativity relation, then they are reducible to two products in the syntactical equality up to universes \( \Sigma \vdash t \text{Prod} \alpha T U \leq^{\text{Rle}}_0 t \text{Prod} \alpha' T' U' \), which by a direct inversion gives us that \( \Sigma \vdash T \leq^{\text{Re}}_0 T' \) and \( \Sigma \vdash U \leq^{\text{Rle}}_0 U' \). The cases of syntactical equality outside the diagonal give us the proofs that e.g., sorts and inductive types are incomparable.

4.3.4 Context Conversion and Cumulativity. Due to the complex interaction with the reduction of let-in definitions that can be present in the context, it is not possible to get full stability by context conversion of cumulativity and typing directly from the substitution lemma.

However, once confluence is proven, we can prove that for two contexts \( \Gamma \) and \( \Delta \), if \( \Gamma \leadsto \Delta \) (where the notion of reductions of contexts is the pointwise extension of one-step reduction) and \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leadsto u \) then there exists a common reduct of \( t \) and \( u \) in the context \( \Delta \). From this, we derive a confluence lemma for contexts: convertible contexts have a common reduct. This is the crucial property to show that cumulativity (hence typing) is preserved by context conversion. Actually, we show an even stronger version where we weaken the assumption to context cumulativity (defined pointwise, like conversion).

**Lemma ws_cumul_pb_ws_cumul_ctx**

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \leq^{\text{pb}'} \Gamma & \rightarrow \\
\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash T \leq^{\text{pb}} U & \rightarrow \\
\Sigma ; \Gamma' \vdash U & \leq^{\text{pb}'} U.
\end{align*}
\]

As contexts are on the left of the turnstile, context cumulativity has a contravariant action on cumulativity and typing: if a judgement holds in the larger context, then it also holds in the more precise one. We can derive a context conversion lemma as a specialization of this lemma where \( \text{pb} := \text{Conv} \). The generality of this lemma is necessary in the subject reduction proof below: in presence of cumulative inductive types we will indeed need to move an hypothetical judgment from a larger context, coming from the type-checking of a case analysis to a smaller context corresponding to the scrutinee.

4.4 Subject Reduction

The subject reduction property is standard for the Pure Type System fragment of PCUIC: it follows the usual schema of induction on the typing derivation and inversion of the one-step reduction of the subject of the typing judgment. As we use untyped conversion, the case of the conversion rule is trivial, following directly by induction, and we can use the no-confusion properties of type constructors for elimination rules. In contrast, no direct subject reduction proof is known in presence of typed conversion [Abel et al. 2018a], as injectivity of type constructors cannot be proved directly in this formulation.

The meat and originality of our proof is to deal with case analysis on cumulative inductive families in all their generality. The paper proofs of Timany and Sozeau [2017, 2018] did not include a type preservation proof: they are concerned with a consistency proof of a variant of the system with typed conversion rules using a set-theoretical model, for the more elementary eliminator presentation of cumulative inductive types. Here we show that “real-world” mutual cumulative inductive families, with parameters, indices and let-bindings appearing anywhere, together with the rather complex case analysis construct, are behaving correctly with respect to reduction.
Without going into too many details the gist of the proof is as follows. Consider the most interesting case of a term \texttt{tCase ci (mkApps (tConstruct ind c u) args) p br} performing a case analysis on a polymorphic datatype where the scrutinee is already a constructor application, hence a \(\iota\)-reduction can be performed. In that case, assuming (among other hypotheses) that

\[ \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps (tConstruct ind c u) args : mkApps (tInd ci (puinst p)) (pparams p ++ indices)} \]

we need to show that

\[ \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{iota_red (ci npar ci) p args br :} \]

\[ \text{mkApps (it_mkLambda_or_LetIn (case_predicate_context ci mdecl idecl p) (preturn p))} \]

\[ (\text{indices ++ [mkApps (tConstruct ind c u) args]}) \]

Here \(br\) is the branch corresponding to constructor \(c\), which by typing must exist. The \(ci\) and \(ind\) information also have to match thanks to the case typing rule. The difficulty lies first in the relationship between the universes \(u\) of the actual constructor and \(puinst p\), the universes that have been used to type-check the case originally. Due to cumulativity, we can have arbitrary relations between these two universe instances, including \textit{no relationship} at all, in case a universe level is actually irrelevant. By validity and inversion lemmas, we can however show that \(args\) can be split into a list of parameters \(pars\) and actual arguments to the constructor \(cargs\) and that the parameters are convertible to \(pparams p\). While they are convertible, they cannot be proven to be a well-typed instance of \texttt{ind_params mdecl} instantiated at \((puinst p)\). However, the invariants on cumulative inductive types in §2.6.2 ensure that the type of the vector of arguments \(args\) is a pointwise subtype of the type of the vector of arguments instantiated at \((puinst p)\), in a context of parameters at level \(u\). This is the key property to ensure that the branch that is selected, which was originally typed with an argument context at levels \((puinst p)\) can indeed be instantiated with the actual arguments at level \(u\) as they are “smaller” according to the subtyping relation, making the reduction type-preserving.

\textit{Positive Coinductive Types.} The subject reduction theorem holds because the case rule is disallowed on coinductive types. Indeed, subject reduction fails for dependent pattern matching on cofixpoints in Coq. This is an explicit design decision: when Giménez [1996] introduced coinductive types in Coq, he faced the problem that his presentation could either provide type preservation or decidability of type checking, but not both at the same time. It is known today how to fix the situation, either by forcing the use of co-pattern-matching and “Mendler-style” presentations of coinductives [Abel et al. 2013] or by restricting the dependent elimination of coinductive “values” to “pure” predicates, as they should rather be seen as computations [Pédrot and Tabareau 2017]. We plan to study the latter treatment in future work.

\textit{Negative Coinductive Types.} Since Coq 8.5 [The Coq Development Team 2016], there is an alternative presentation of coinductive types using primitive projections. A coinductive record type is defined together with its projections, and pattern matching is disallowed on these types. In this case, subject reduction holds for the projection reductions thanks to the restricted shape a projection’s type can take, as projection types are derived from constructor argument types. Take non-zero streams for example:

\texttt{Set Primitive Projections.}
\texttt{CoInductive NZStream : Type := mkNZStream \{ head : N; tail : NZStream; head_nz : head \neq 0 \}.}

Its projections have type:

\texttt{head : NZStream \rightarrow N; tail : NZStream \rightarrow NZStream; head_nz : \forall (s : NZStream), head s \neq 0}
One can see that in `head_nz`’s type, the `head` reference characteristic of dependent records is replaced by the corresponding projection of the record argument of the projection. This is actually the case for all occurrences of the record variable in the type of a projection: they are always projected. This invariant is crucial for the subject reduction proof, and is clearly not enforced for general dependent pattern matching where the eliminated variable can appear anywhere in the result type. To see why, consider the reduction of `head_nz ones : head ones ≠ 0` where `ones` is a cofixpoint expression producing an infinite stream of 1. When we reduce this expression we get a proof of `1 ≠ 0` defined inside `ones`. The crucial property to show for type preservation is then that `head ones` is convertible to 1. This holds because we known that the record is a cofixpoint in this case as we just applied a projection on cofix reduction rule, so we can use the `cumul_cofix_proj` rule to synchronize the two types. With the general pattern-matching construct we do not have such an invariant, so cofixpoint unfolding in the type expressions either have to be made unrestricted which leads to non-terminating type checking, or type preservation fails.

### 4.5 Strong Normalization

As we already said in the abstract, there is no hope to prove strong normalization of PCUIC inside Coq. We thus take is as an assumption that we will use to prove our type checker terminating. Currently, this assumption is implemented in the form of an axiom. While strong normalization is often stated as the absence of infinite reduction paths, we here state it in a more constructive manner to be able to use it in the definition of the type checker. We say that every well-typed term is accessible for the opposite of reduction (§4.1). In other words all reduction paths starting from a given well-typed term are finite.

First, we specify the transitive closure of the opposite of the reduction—which we call coreduction—as the following inductive type `cored`:

\[
\text{Inductive } \text{cored} \Sigma \Gamma : \text{term} \rightarrow \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Prop} :=
\]

\[
| \text{cored}_1 : \forall u v, \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u \leadsto v \rightarrow \text{cored} \Sigma \Gamma v u |
\]

\[
| \text{cored_trans} : \forall u v w, \text{cored} \Sigma \Gamma v u \rightarrow \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash v \leadsto w \rightarrow \text{cored} \Sigma \Gamma w u. \]

Then, the axiom of normalization corresponds to the proposition that every well-typed term of PCUIC is accessible for `cored`. Note that this axiom is only taken to hold in a well-formed global environment, as an ill-formed environment can contain non-positive inductive types which would let one define non-normalizing terms.

\[
\text{Axiom normalization} : \forall \Sigma \Gamma t, \\
\text{wf_ext } \Sigma \rightarrow \\
\text{welltyped } \Sigma \Gamma t \rightarrow \\
\text{Acc (cored } \Sigma \Gamma t). \\
\]

The reduction order is reversed because a term should reduce to a smaller term for the order. So the axiom normalization means that the relation `cored` is well founded for well-typed terms, which corresponds to strong normalization of PCUIC.

### 4.6 Weak Call-by-Value Standardization

Reduction in PCUIC does not commit to a reduction order and can go under arbitrary binders. When extracting code to a programming language, it is important that the evaluation in the programming language can compute the same values as reduction in PCUIC. In this section, we prepare such a result to be later used in the correctness proof of type and proof erasure (§6), the first phase of an anticipated future verified extraction process. Precisely, we prove that whenever `Σ ; [] \vdash t \leadsto^* v`
where $v$ is irreducible, then this value can actually be found using weak call-by-value evaluation (up to some remaining silent reduction under binders).

The terminology “evaluation” here refers to a one-shot inductive definition of big-step evaluation, i.e., without relying on one step reduction and reflexive transitive closure, whereas “call-by-value” means that arguments are always fully evaluated before a function or fixpoint application, and “weak” refers to the fact that abstraction and fixpoint are treated as values, without evaluating their bodies first.

We prove the result for closed terms and use the strong normalization assumption in the proof to obtain a simple proof. We remark however that this choice is solely for proof engineering reasons—more general results with less assumptions are possible, but at the cost of significantly more complicated proof methods.

We first define a one-step weak call-by-value reduction predicate $\Sigma \vdash t \rightsquigarrow \text{wcbv} t'$ in Figure 11, which is a restriction of $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \rightsquigarrow t'$ for closed terms $t$. Since we only care about closed terms in this section, there is no need for a context $\Gamma$ in the definition of the weak call-by-value reduction, since weak call-by-value reduction ensures that reduction of closed term will never have to consider open terms. Weak call-by-value reduction relies on the notion of value (Figure 12), which characterizes closed terms that are irreducible. We do not consider global definitions without bodies (i.e., axioms) in the definition, and thus our results only apply to axiom-free global environments.

**Definition axiom_free** $\Sigma := \forall c \ decl, \ declared_constant \Sigma c decl \rightarrow \text{cst_body} decl \neq \text{None}$.

A natural first step to prove the standardization theorem is to prove a progress theorem for weak call-by-value reduction, as usual by induction on the typing derivation:

**Lemma progress** : $\forall \Sigma t T, \text{wf} \Sigma \rightarrow \text{axiom_free} \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma; [] \vdash t : T \rightarrow \{ \text{value} \Sigma t \} + (\text{value} \Sigma t)$. 

Fig. 11. Weak call-by-value reduction (excerpt)
Definition atom t := match t with | tInd _ _ | tConstruct _ _ _ | tFix _ _ | tCoFix _ _ | tLambda _ _ _ | tSort _ | tProd _ _ _ | tPrim _ ⇒ true | _ ⇒ false end.

Variant value_head (nargs : N) : term → Type := | value_head_cstr ind c mdecl idecl cdecl : declared_constructor Σ (ind, c) mdecl idecl cdecl → nargs ≤ cstr arity mdecl idecl cdecl → value_head nargs (tConstruct ind c u) | value_head_ind ind u : value_head nargs (tInd ind u) | value_head_cofix mfix idx : value_head nargs (tCoFix mfix idx) | value_head_fix mfix idx rarg fn : 
  cunfold_fix mfix idx = Some (rarg, fn) → 
  nargs ≤ rarg → 
  value_head nargs (tFix mfix idx).

Inductive value : term → Type := | value_atom t : atom t → value t | value_app_nonnil f args : value_head #| args | f → args != [] → 
  All value args → value (mkApps f args).

Fig. 12. Weak call-by-value values

The standardization result actually talks about a weak call-by-value evaluation predicate \( \Sigma \vdash t \triangleright v \). Since it is entirely standard to derive the definition from the definition of reduction, we omit it in the paper and refer the reader to the Coq code. Standardization relies on auxiliary results such as the fact that weak call-by-value reduction steps do not change the value under evaluation; that evaluation is included in the reflexive transitive closure of reduction; and also that subject reduction applies to evaluation. Furthermore, it relies on the fact that results of evaluation are values, and values evaluate to themselves.

From those auxiliary lemmas, it is easy to conclude that strongly normalizing terms are weakly normalizing, in the sense that they evaluate to a value.

Lemma SN_to_WN : ∀ Σ A t, wf Σ → axiom_free Σ → 
  Acc (cored Σ []) t → 
  \( \Sigma : [] \vdash t : A \) → 
  (v & Σ ⊢ t \triangleright v).

The proof is by induction on the assumption that t is strongly normalizing. We use progress to either obtain \( t' \) such that \( \Sigma \vdash t \Rightarrow_{wcbv} t' \) or have that t is a value. In the first case, there is \( v \) such that \( \Sigma \vdash t' \Rightarrow v \) by induction hypothesis, and we can use that a reduction step preserves evaluation to conclude. In the second case, we can pick \( v \) as \( t \).

By using the axiom that every well typed term is normalizing we can then deduce weak normalization and finally deduce weak-call-by-value standardization. This theorem states that if a term t reduces to a non reducible terms, then this term can also be reached by first evaluating t to a value \( v' \) using call-by-value big step evaluation in an empty context, written \( \Sigma \vdash t \Downarrow v \). And then performing the potentially remaining deep reductions (reductions under binders that cannot be performed by weak call-by-value reduction).

Lemma wcbv_standardization : ∀ Σ T t v, wf Σ → axiom_free Σ → 
  \( \Sigma : [] \vdash t : T \) → 
  \( \Sigma : [] \vdash t \Rightarrow v \) → 
  \neg \{ t' & \Sigma ; [] \vdash v \Rightarrow t' \} →
\[
\text{Inductive whn}\Sigma(\Gamma: \text{context}): \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Type} :=
\]
\[
\mid \text{whn}_\text{rel} i: \text{option}\_\text{map} \ \text{decl}_\text{body} (\text{nth}_\text{error} \Gamma i) = \text{Some None} \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Rel} i)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{const} c u \ \text{decl}: \text{lookup}_\text{env} \Sigma c = \text{Some} (\text{ConstantDecl} \ \text{decl}) \rightarrow \text{decl}.(\text{cst}_\text{body}) = \text{None} \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Const} c u)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{app} f v: \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma f \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{App} f v)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{fixapp} m\text{fix} idx \ \text{args} d\ \text{arg}:
\quad \text{nth}_\text{error} m\text{fix} idx = \text{Some d} \rightarrow \text{nth}_\text{error} \ \text{args} (r\text{arg} d) = \text{Some arg} \rightarrow \text{whn} \Gamma arg \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma (\text{mkApps}(t\text{Fix} m\text{fix} idx) \ \text{args})
\mid \text{whn}_\text{case} i p c brs: \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma c \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Case} i p c brs)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{proj} p c: \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma c \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Proj} p c)
\]

\[
\text{Inductive whnf}\Sigma(\Gamma: \text{context}): \text{term} \rightarrow \text{Type} :=
\]
\[
\mid \text{whn}_\text{fne} t: \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma t \rightarrow \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma t
\mid \text{whn}_\text{sort} s: \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Sort} s)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{prod} na A B: \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Prod} na A B)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{lam} na A B: \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma (t\text{Lambda} na A B)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{cstrapp} i n u v: \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma (\text{mkApps}(t\text{Construct} i n u) v)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{indapp} i u v: \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma (\text{mkApps}(t\text{Ind} i u) v)
\mid \text{whn}_\text{fixapp} m\text{fix} idx \ \text{args} d\ \text{arg}:
\quad (\exists d, \text{nth}_\text{error} m\text{fix} idx = \text{Some d} \land \text{nth}_\text{error} \ \text{args} (r\text{arg} d) = \text{Some arg}) \rightarrow \text{whn} \Gamma \text{args} \rightarrow \text{whn} \Sigma \Gamma (\text{mkApps}(t\text{Fix} m\text{fix} idx) \ \text{args})
\mid \text{whn}_\text{cofixapp} m\text{fix} idx v: \text{whnf} \Sigma \Gamma (\text{mkApps}(t\text{CoFix} m\text{fix} idx) v).
\]

Fig. 13. Definition of weak-head normal forms in PCUIC

\[
\{v' \land \Sigma \vdash t \Downarrow v'; \Sigma; [] \vdash v' \rightsquigarrow v\}. \\
\]

To show this, we use weak normalization for \(t\) to obtain \(v'\) such that \(\Sigma \vdash t \Downarrow v'\). Because evaluation entails reduction, we also have that \(\Sigma; [] \vdash t \rightsquigarrow v'\). By the assumption that \(t\) also reduces to \(v\) and confluence, we obtain \(v''\) such that \(\Sigma; [] \vdash v \rightsquigarrow v''\) and \(\Sigma; [] \vdash v' \rightsquigarrow v''\). Since \(v\) is irreducible, we know that in fact \(v = v''\).

### 4.7 Canonicity

Canonicity for PCUIC states that any non-reducible inhabitant of an (co-)inductive type is an applied constructor or a cofixpoint. The proof goes in two steps, first we show that any non-reducible term is in weak-head normal form. A weak-head normal form (Fig. 13) is either a term starting with a constructor (a type constructor, a lambda abstraction, a constructor of an inductive type), a partially applied fixpoint, any cofixpoint, or a neutral term (\text{whn}). A neutral term is either a variable (not associated to a let-in construct), an axiom (\text{i.e.}, a constant with no body) or a destructor (an application, a fixpoint, a pattern matching or a projection) whose evaluation is blocked on a neutral term. We can reuse the \text{progress} lemma of §4.6 to derive the following lemma which states that weak-head normal forms describe all stuck terms.

**Lemma whnf_progress**: \(\forall \Sigma t T,\)
\[
\text{axiom}_\text{free} \Sigma \rightarrow \text{wf} \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma; [] \vdash t : T \rightarrow \neg \{t' \land \Sigma; [] \vdash t' \rightarrow \text{whnf} \Sigma; [] \vdash t'\}.
\]
From this, we can formulate a classification theorem by proving that no neutral terms can exist in an empty context, and then analyzing the potential \( \text{whnf} \) inhabitants of an inductive type (the definition \( \text{construct_cofix_discr}(\text{head } t) \) just says that the head of \( t \) is either a constructor or a cofixpoint).

**Theorem classification**:
\[
\forall \Sigma \ t \ i \ u \ \text{args}, \quad \begin{align*}
\text{axiom\_free } \Sigma & \rightarrow \text{wf } \Sigma \\
\neg \{ t' & \& \Sigma ; [] \vdash t \rightleftharpoons t' \} & \rightarrow \\
\Sigma ; [] \vdash t : \text{mkApps}(\text{tInd } i \ u) \ \text{args} & \rightarrow \\
\text{construct_cofix_discr}(\text{head } t). 
\end{align*}
\]

Finally, thanks to normalization and subject reduction, we can show the usual canonicity statement for PCUIC, saying that any closed inhabitant of an inductive type is convertible to a fully applied constructor, and any closed inhabitant of a coinductive type is convertible either to a fully applied constructor or to a cofixpoint.

**Lemma pcuic_canonicity**:
\[
\forall \Sigma \ t \ i \ u \ \text{args}, \quad \begin{align*}
\text{axiom\_free } \Sigma & \rightarrow \text{wf } \Sigma \\
\Sigma ; [] \vdash t : \text{mkApps}(\text{tInd } i \ u) \ \text{args} & \rightarrow \\
\{ t' : \text{term } & \& \Sigma ; [] \vdash t' : \text{mkApps}(\text{tInd } i \ u) \ \text{args} \times \Sigma ; [] \vdash t \rightleftharpoons s \times \text{construct_cofix_discr}(\text{head } t') \} .
\end{align*}
\]

### 4.8 Consistency

Using canonicity, it is easy to derive the following consistency result for PCUIC. As is standard, consistency is stated as the fact that the empty type cannot be inhabited in the empty context. Because our definition of PCUIC is parametrized by a global environment our statement needs to postulate that this global environment contains the empty type to be able to state the result. \( \bot_{\text{oib}} \) correspond to the \( \text{one\_inductive\_body} \) in \( \text{tProp} \) with no parameter or constructor, and \( \bot_{\text{mib}} \) is the \( \text{mutual\_inductive\_body} \) consisting only of \( \bot_{\text{oib}} \).

**Theorem pcuic_consistent**:
\[
\forall \Sigma \ t \bot_{\text{pcuic}} \quad \begin{align*}
\text{declared\_inductive } \Sigma \bot_{\text{pcuic}} \bot_{\text{mib}} \bot_{\text{oib}} & \rightarrow \\
\text{wf\_ext } \Sigma \rightarrow \text{axiom\_free } \Sigma \\
\Sigma ; [] \vdash t : \text{tInd } \bot_{\text{pcuic}} [] & \rightarrow \bot.
\end{align*}
\]

Technically speaking, this theorem is actually a relative consistency result, as it shows consistency of PCUIC (the formalized theory) for strongly normalizing terms assuming consistency of Coq (the proof assistant).

### 5 A SOUND AND COMPLETE CHECKER FOR PCUIC

We now turn to the definition of a type checker for PCUIC and a proof that it is sound and complete with respect to the specification given in §2. In order to define this type checker, all properties involved in typing judgments must be replaced by actual decision procedures. To make our type checker more modular and independent of a specific implementation, we parametrize type checking by an abstract notion of environment on which only basic decision procedures are postulated. This allows us to define a generic type checker that can be later optimized, by optimizing these basic decision procedures. For instance, the most direct venue for optimization is the decision procedure for consistency of the universe hierarchy.

After giving some technical insights and presenting the abstract interface of an environment used for type checking, we present the generic conversion/cumulativity checking algorithm and type inference. We then discuss a slightly optimized implementation of the abstract environment and finally analyze the performance of the safe checker compared to the one of Coq.
5.1 Technical Insight

Before we delve into the definition of our type checker, let us address some technical points that are either needed as preliminaries or that give insight to the methods that we use for our formalization that are not directly related to our problem at hand.

5.1.1 Enforcing computational irrelevance. Because we want to ultimately obtain a type checker that can be extracted and run efficiently, we are very careful to separate the relevant content used by the algorithm from the computationally irrelevant content pertaining to the invariants it maintains. For this we use the facilities offered by the sort $\text{Prop}$ of Coq, whose inhabitants are erased at extraction time. However, most predicates and relations from the previous sections (for instance typing) are defined in sort $\text{Type}$, in order to avoid having to struggle with the dichotomy between relevant and irrelevant while doing the meta-theoretic proofs. Throughout this section, we thus make extensive use of squashing of a type $X$ into $\text{Prop}$, written $\|X\|$, to make relevant content irrelevant.

5.1.2 Equations. In order to ease the use of the techniques described in this section, we heavily rely on the Equations [Sozeau and Mangin 2019] plugin for Coq. This plugin provides notations and mechanisms to help with the definition of complex, non-structural recursive definitions. In particular, it has built-in support for definitions by well-founded induction (see §4.1). Moreover, its obligation mechanism, which lets users leave holes in the definition of functions and fill them later in proof mode, is crucial to be able to write complex proof-carrying code.

5.1.3 Views. When manipulating datatypes, typically terms, we often wish to inspect them in a way that is not expressible directly by pattern matching. For instance, when considering reduction we want to distinguish exactly three cases: the term is either a $\lambda$-abstraction applied to a list of arguments (i.e., of the form $\text{mkApps} (\text{tLambda} \, \text{na} \, \text{ty} \, b \, l \, a)$), a fixpoint applied to a list of arguments, or any other term.

To express these custom case distinctions, we rely on views, originally introduced by Wadler [1985] and later rephrased in the setting of dependent types by McBride and McKinna [2004]. Examples of such views are given in PCUIC: Views, such as $\text{fix_lambda_app_view}$, corresponding to the case distinction we outlined above:

```coq
Inductive fix_lambda_app_view : term → term → Type :=
| fix_lambda_app_fix mfix i 1 a : fix_lambda_app_view (mkApps (tFix mfix i) l) a |
| fix_lambda_app_lambda na ty b l a : fix_lambda_app_view (mkApps (tLambda na ty b) l) a |
| fix_lambda_app_other t a : ¬ isFixLambda_app (tApp t a) → fix_lambda_app_view t a.
```

Compared to the non-dependent case, however, our views are richer: they not only allow for a convenient case distinction, but embed, either in their indexed type (as for the first two constructors) or extra arguments (as in the last constructor), the meaning of this case distinction. This way, a pattern-matching on a view gives us the logical information corresponding to the case distinction we apply. Another important benefit of this technique is that we get one proof obligation for each case of the view. In a setting where the "default" view case typically corresponds to more than 10 branches in a regular pattern matching, this is important to keep proofs manageable: we get only one obligation to solve instead of 10 very similar ones.

5.1.4 Open Recursion. In order to implement our type checker, we define several functions mutually, involving complex termination measures. Mutually defined fixpoints are painful to reason about so we lighten our burden by using a technique called open recursion. The idea is quite simple: instead of defining a function directly as a (mutual) fixpoint, we define the associated functional and then we take the corresponding fixed point. Concretely, the function takes an extra argument which is a
function to perform the recursive calls, and this function is guarded to only be called on smaller arguments w.r.t. to a previously chosen relation.

Taking a silly example on purpose, we could define functions that test whether a natural number is odd or even as follows:

```
Fixpoint even (n : N) : B :=
match n with
| 0 => true
| S n => odd n
end

with odd (n : N) : B :=
match n with
| 0 => false
| S n => even n
end.
```

The same example in open recursion, using `Inductive` mode := `Even | Odd` to distinguish between the two functions `even` and `odd`, looks as follows:

```
Equations _even n (aux : mode -> ∀ m, m < n -> B) : B :=
  _even 0 aux := true;
  _even (S n) aux := aux Odd n _

Equations _odd n (aux : mode -> ∀ m, m < n -> B) : B :=
  _odd 0 aux := false;
  _odd (S n) aux := aux Even n _
```

We first define `_even` and `_odd` which are functions that are not even recursive yet, but take as argument `aux` to represent recursive calls. This is where the `mode` comes into play, it lets one choose which function to call recursively. Here we use `EQUATIONS` to infer automatically the proof that `n < S n`. Then we can actually perform (well-founded) recursion to close the loop by using a function `even_or_odd` which uses itself as `aux`.

```
Equations even_or_odd (M : mode) (n : N) : B by wf n lt :=
  even_or_odd Even n := _even n even_or_odd;
  even_or_odd Odd n := _odd n even_or_odd.

Definition even := even_or_odd Even.
Definition odd := even_or_odd Odd.
```

While on such an example, it might not appear very interesting, in our case this lets us define all components of a mutual recursive block in isolation and prove things about them without having to worry about recursion or the interaction with the other functions beyond the specification (i.e., the type) of the `aux` function.

5.1.5 Monadic-Style Code. When writing a type checker, we implement several decision procedures that may additionally return extra information such as a type in the case of type inference. In our case we moreover chose a proof-carrying code approach so that these procedures are correct by construction.

In the simple case with no extra returned information, to decide a property `P` we could be using the type `{P} + {¬P}` of informative booleans, i.e., constructive proofs that `P` holds or not. But since we also want to be able to return error messages, we use result types that can also raise errors of the form:

```
Inductive info_result A E :=
| Success (a : A)
| Error (e : E) (h : ¬A).
```

If our goal is to decide proposition `P` then `info_result P E` will do. But if we want to return extra information as is the case for type inference, then we simply use a `Σ`-type. Thus, the type of `infer` looks like the following:

```
infer : ∀ Σ Γ t, info_result (A & Σ ; Γ ⊢ t ⊲ A) || typing_error
```

meaning it either returns a type together with a (squashed) proof that it is indeed a type for `t`, or it returns an error message together with a proof that there doesn’t exist any type for `t`.  

```
When writing such correct-by-construction decision procedures, we also have to examine results of recursive calls that might carry errors that need to be propagated. For this purpose we wish to adopt a monadic style. There is one caveat here: because of the \( \neg A \) proof in the error branch, info_result does not form a monad. But it almost does! Success acts as the return of the monad and for bind we use the following handy notation.

```
Notation "x ← r ; k" := match r with Success a ⇒ k | Error e h ⇒ Error e _ end.
```

The trick comes from the underscore in the notation: we are leaving a hole for the new proof we cannot produce in full generality. Let us see how it works in practice by looking at (a simplified version of) the abstraction case of infer:

```
infer \( \Gamma \) (t\text{Lambda} na A t) :=
'B; hB) ← infer (\( \Gamma, na : A \)) t ;
Success (t\text{Prod} na A B ; _)
```

We recursively call infer on the body of the abstraction, and in case it succeeds with type \( B \) together with correctness proof \( hB \), we can return a new success with \( t\text{Prod} na A B \) for the type. When unfolding the notations, two underscores appear:

```
infer \( \Gamma \) (t\text{Lambda} na A t) :=
match infer (\( \Gamma, na : A \)) t with
| Success (B ; hB) ⇒ Success (tProd na A B ; _)
| Error e h ⇒ Error e _
end
```

They are handled by the obligation mechanism of EQUATIONS and proven interactively.

### 5.2 Abstract Computational Environment

In the specification of the type system for PCUIC, a particular choice has been made for the representation of the global environment. Namely, we use the type global_env containing pairs of a set of universe constraints and a list of declarations, which is appropriate for a formal specification but is inefficient as a data structure. To avoid being devoted to a particular choice of representation, we parametrize the definition of the type checker by an abstract implementation of the global environment abs_env_impl, and a relation \( \sim \) to connect the implementation to the specification.

#### 5.2.1 Interface

Fig. 14 describes the set of operations and decision procedures that must come with the abstract interface of a global environment. The interface is parametrized by two types, abs_env_impl and abs_env_ext_impl, corresponding respectively to the concrete representation of a global environment and a global environment extended with a polymorphic universe declaration. There are four operations to build new environments. Because we want to maintain that all environments that are manipulated are well formed, those operations are prefixed by premises that guarantee their validity. The function abs_env_init creates an empty environment with valid initial universe constraints and no declarations. The function abs_env_add_decl adds a valid new declaration to an already existing environment. Note here how the validity premise is stated. Because we cannot state it directly on the abstract environment, we instead assume that the declaration is valid (using on_global_decls) in any global environment in relation with the abstract environment. Similarly, there is an operation abs_env_add_udecl to add valid universe declarations. Finally, there is also an operation abs_pop_decls to remove the last declaration in an abstract environment. This operation is used during erasure in order to remove propositions from the environment, in order to keep only relevant content in it (§6.4).
Class abs_env_struct (abs_env_impl abs_env_ext_impl : Type):= {
  (∗ Relations that connect an abstract to a concrete environment ∗)
  ∼ : abs_env_impl → global_env → Prop;
  ∼_ext : abs_env_ext_impl → global_env_ext → Prop;

  (∗ Operations on the environment ∗)
  abs_env_init cs : on_global_univs cs → abs_env_impl;
  abs_env_add_decl X kn decl : (∀ Σ, X ∼ Σ → ∥ on_global_decls Σ kn decl ∥) → abs_env_impl;
  abs_env_add_Udecl X udecl : (∀ Σ, X ∼ Σ → ∥ on_udecl Σ.(universes) udecl ∥) → abs_env_ext_impl;
  abs_pop_decls : abs_env_impl → abs_env_impl;

  (∗ Queries on the environment ∗)
  abs_env_lookup : abs_env_ext_impl → kername → option global_decl;

  (∗ Primitive decision procedures ∗)
  abs_env_level_mem : abs_env_ext_impl → Level → ℂ;
  abs_env_leqb_level_n : abs_env_ext_impl → ℤ → Level → Level → ℂ;
  abs_env_is_consistent : abs_env_impl → LevelSet • UnivConstraintSet → ℂ;
  abs_env_guard : abs_env_ext_impl → FixOrCoFix → context → mfixpoint term → ℂ}.

Fig. 14. Definition of an abstract global environment

The interface also has one query function abs_env_lookup that (optionally) returns the global declaration associated to a given name, when the name is declared. This is the only direct access to the abstract environment.

Finally, there are three decision procedures on universes and an abstract version of the guard condition (abs_env_guard). The functions abs_env_level_mem checks that a level belongs to the extended global environment. The functions abs_env_leqb_level_n takes an integer z and two levels l and l’ and checks whether l + z ≤ l’ holds in the extended global environment. Finally, the function abs_env_is_consistent checks that extending the current set of universes and constraints with additional ones remains consistent.

5.2.2 Properties. Fig. 15 shows the properties that a given implementation of an abstract environment interface must fulfill. The first set of properties is about the connection to a global environment. Every abstract environment must be in relation to exactly one well-formed global environment (and similarly for the version extended with polymorphic universe constraints). Note here the use of the squash operator to prevent computational access to the concrete global environment. The correctness properties of operations and queries of the abstract environment are stated using direct correspondence with the specification. Finally, the statement of correctness of decision procedures is done in a similar way, with potentially additional hypotheses to clarify when the correctness property should hold. For instance, correctness of abs_env_is_consistent is stated as an equivalence with a validity predicate under the assumption that the constraints in udecl that are checked are about levels that appear either in udecl or are already in the environment, stated using the declared_cstr_levels predicate. The validity predicate itself states that any valuation

Note that we are using boolean reflection to consider decision procedures as a particular form of predicates.
Class abs_env_prop (abs_env_impl abs_env_ext_impl : Type) : Prop := {
(* connection to an global environment (similar definition for abs_env_ext_impl *)
abs_env ∃ X : {Σ & X ∼ Σ} ||;
abs_env_wf X Σ : X ∼ Σ → || wf Σ ||;
abs_env_irr X Σ Σ' : X ∼ Σ → X ∼ Σ' → Σ = Σ';

(* correctness properties of operations (excerpt *)
abs_env_add_udecl_correct X Σ udecl H :
( X ∼ Σ.1 ∧ Σ.2 = udecl ) ↔ abs_env_add_udecl X udecl H ∼ ext Σ;

(* correctness property of queries *)
abs_env_lookup_correct X Σ kn decl :
( kn, decl ) ∈ declarations Σ ↔ abs_env_lookup X kn = Some decl ;

(* correctness properties of decision procedures *)
abs_env_level_mem_correct X Σ l :
1 ∈ levels Σ ↔ abs_env_level_mem X 1;
abs_env_leqb_level_n_correct X Σ n l l' :
X ∼ ext Σ → 1 ∈ levels Σ → 1' ∈ levels Σ →
( ∀ v : valuation, satisfies v Σ → val v l + n ≤ val v l' ) ↔ abs_env_leqb_level_n X n l l';
abs_env_is_consistent_correct X Σ udecl :
X ∼ Σ → For_all ( declared_cstr_levels ( udecl.1 ∪ levels Σ ) ) udecl.2 →
( ∀ v : valuation, satisfies v Σ → ∃ v', satisfies v' udecl ∧ For_all ( fun l ⇒ val v l = val v' l ) ( levels Σ ) )
↔ abs_env_is_consistent X udecl;
abs_env_guard_correct X Σ fix_cofix Γ mfix :
abs_env_guard X fix_cofix Γ mfix ↔ abs_env_guard X fix_cofix Γ mfix}. Fig. 15. Properties of the abstract global environment (excerpt)

valid for the environment can be extended to a valuation that also validates the constraints in udecl. The correctness properties of other decision procedures is stated in the same way.

5.2.3 Reference Implementation. To show that our primitive decision procedures are indeed dealing with decidable properties, we provide a reference implementation that directly reuses the notion of well-formed global environment and just implements naïve decision procedures on top of it.

Record reference_impl := {
reference_impl_env : global_env;
reference_impl_wf : || wf reference_impl_env ||}.

The correct implementation of all operations and queries is direct. As for decision procedures, the only non-direct part are constraints and consistency checking. Indeed, for those, the specification as the existence of a correct valuation is not obviously decidable.

Fortunately, in § 3.1 we have developed an equivalent description not using the existence of a valuation but rather acyclicity of a corresponding graph of constraints. Concretely, the equivalence between the two notions is proven by mediating with the lsp function, computing the length of a shortest simple path in a graph. Namely, to know that a graph is acyclic, we simply have to check that lsp V x x is 0 for every node x in the graph. We can express this in Coq as a boolean decision procedure:
Definition \texttt{is\_acyclic} (G:RootedGraph) : B :=
    for_all (fun x ⇒ match lsp V x x with | Some 0 ⇒ true | _ ⇒ false end) V.

This \texttt{is\_acyclic} procedure can be directly used to implement \texttt{abs\_env\_is\_consistent}.

To implement the decision procedure checking a constraint between levels, we use a rephrasing using labeling on graph.

Definition \texttt{leq\_vertices} n x y := ∀ l, \texttt{correct\_labeling} l → l x + n ≤ l y.

This characterization is not \textit{a priori} decidable as there is potentially an infinite number of such \texttt{correct\_labeling}. However, using \texttt{lsp} again, we can prove that when the graph is acyclic, this property can just be tested on one correct labeling, namely the one induced by \texttt{lsp}.

Lemma \texttt{leq\_vertices\_charact} n x y \{\texttt{In y V}\} : \texttt{leq\_vertices} G n x y ↔ Some n ≤ lsp G x y.

Using this, we can characterize the statement ”x+n is smaller than y” by either y is in the graph of constraints and \texttt{lsp} G x y is bigger than n, or y is constraint free, and in that case, n must be 0 and \texttt{x} must be at distance 0 from \texttt{Set} (which is the source \texttt{s G} of the graph).

Definition \texttt{leqb\_vertices} n x y : B :=
    if mem y V then le_dec (Some n) (lsp G x y)
    else eqb n 0 && (eq_dec x y || le_dec (Some 0) (lsp G x (s G))).

Because all the (in)equalities involved in the definition are decidable, this gives rise to a boolean decision procedure for constraint checking.

5.2.4 \textbf{More efficient implementations}. Beyond this naïve implementation, we additionally provide a more efficient representation of the environment to perform lookups by using AVL trees (a.k.a. self-balancing binary search tree) in the file \texttt{PCUIC\_WfEnvImpl}. This representation allows additions, removals and lookups in the environment in \textit{O}(\log n).

But the main venue for optimization is of course the decision procedure for consistency. We could for instance use the algorithm proposed by Bender et al. [2015], as recently formalized by Guéneau et al. [2019] (in the particular case where there is no constraint of the form \leq) to check the acyclicity of the graph. Similarly, we could experiment with the proposal of Bezem and Coquand [2022] using join-semilattices.

Note that the performance of the acyclicity checking algorithm is currently a performance bottleneck in \texttt{Coq} too, and our formalization offers the possibility to experiment with more efficient consistency checking and first prove it is correct before deploying it in an official release of \texttt{Coq}.

5.3 \textbf{Conversion and Cumulativity Without Fuel}

Being able to decide conversion and cumulativity is essential for defining a type checker and relies on a lot of the meta-theory. The definition of the conversion algorithm is optimized to be more efficient than just comparing the normal forms up to cumulativity. It has been designed so that it mimics the conversion algorithm implemented in \texttt{Coq} which consists of

1. first weak-head reducing the two terms without \(\delta\)-reductions (i.e., without unfolding definitions);
2. then comparing their heads, and if they match comparing the subterms recursively;
3. if they do not match, checking if some computation (pattern-matching or fixpoint) or even the whole term is blocked by a definition that could unfold to a value, unfolding this definition and comparing again.

From this we can already identify a few requirements. First, weak-head reduction has to be defined as an algorithm, which in turn needs normalization (§4.5) to be proven terminating. Furthermore, as normalization can only be assumed for well-typed terms, the conversion algorithm is only defined
on well-typed terms. This means that we need to know that the term obtained after reduction is still well typed, which is guaranteed by subject reduction (§4.4). Finally, when reducing a term during conversion, we sometimes need to focus on subterms to reduce them to constructors. This is the case for pattern matching but also for fixpoints that only unfold when their recursive argument is a constructor to preserve termination. As the argument is not itself a subterm of the fixpoint, we use the more general notion of position inside the original term to ensure termination. We now describe all these points in more details, leading up to the definition of a decision algorithm for conversion and cumulativity.

### 5.3.1 Term positions

A position in a term can be seen as a path from the root the desired subterm. As our terms have structure this path is described by a sequence of choices one makes at each node. For instance `app_l` goes left in an application `tApp u v` and point to `u`.

```coq
Inductive choice :=
  | app_l | app_r | case_par (n : N) | case_preturn | case_c | case_brsbody (n : N) | proj_c
  | fix_mfix_ty (n : N) | fix_mfix_bd (n : N) | cofix_mfix_ty (n : N) | cofix_mfix_bd (n : N) | lam_ty
  | lam_tm | prod_l | prod_r | let_bd | let_ty | let_in.
```

Definition position := list choice.

Of course, choosing `app_l` when the term is `tLambda` does not make sense. We thus define a boolean predicate `validpos t p` that checks that the position `p` is valid in term `t`. This lets us define the type of valid positions in a term:

```coq
Definition pos (t : term) := {p : position | validpos t p = true}.
```

As advertised, the goal of these positions is to help in the termination proof of our reduction machine and our cumulativity checker. We thus define an order on positions as below:

```coq
Inductive positionR : position → position → Prop :=
  | positionR_app_lr p q : positionR (app_r :: p) (app_l :: q)
  | positionR_deep c p q : positionR p q → positionR (c :: p) (c :: q)
  | positionR_root c p : positionR (c :: p) []
```

The idea is that going deeper inside a term, always yields a smaller position, but crucially going on the right of an application node is smaller than going left. This last point is what lets us inspect and reduce the argument of a fixpoint after inspecting the fixpoint itself.

This order in itself is not well founded, as one could go arbitrarily deep. It becomes well founded when restricted to positions in the same term:

```coq
Definition posR {t} (p q : pos t) : Prop := positionR p.π1 q.π1.
Lemma posR_Acc : ∀ t p, Acc (@posR t) p.
```

In the reduction and cumulativity algorithms, instead of always carrying around the whole term together with a position, we adopt the equivalent approach of having the term currently under scrutiny, together with its evaluation context: the whole term with a hole. We represent those using stacks, defined as follows in a dual manner to positions.

```coq
Variant stack_entry : Type :=
  | App_l (v : term)
  | App_r (u : term)
  | Prod_l (na : aname) (B : term)
  | Prod_r (na : aname) (A : term)
  | Lambda_ty (na : aname) (b : term)
```
Lambda_bd (na : name) (A : term)
(* ... other cases are similar, reflecting the constructors of choice *)

Definition stack := list stack_entry.

A stack is composed of a list of nodes with a hole. The hole might for instance appear in one of the branches of a pattern matching as expressed by branches_hole or inside the motive as described by a predicate_hole.

From a stack \( \pi \), one can do two things: (i) plug a term \( t \) in its hole, written \( \text{zip } t \pi \); (ii) recover the position associated to its hole: stack_position \( \pi \).

5.3.2 Weak-Head Normalization Using a Stack Machine. We are now equipped enough to define weak-head reduction, that is a reduction algorithm which produces a term in weak-head normal form as described in Fig. 13. As we often need to inspect subterms of an expression, the basic input of the algorithm is not just a term but a term under focus as well as its surrounding context, which we called stack in §5.3.1. A reduction step amounts to either reducing the whole expression (term and stack, zipped together with the function `zip`) or focusing on a subterm, and sometimes looking things up on the stack. To prove termination, we use a (dependent) lexicographical order on first coreduction of the whole expression, and then the position order for the positions corresponding to the stacks:

Definition R_aux \( \Gamma \) :=
\[ \text{dlexprod (cored } \Sigma \Gamma) (@posR) \].

Definition \( R \Gamma (u v : \text{term} \times \text{stack}) := \) \( R_{\text{aux }} \Gamma (\text{zip } u ; \text{stack_pos (fst } u)(\text{snd } u)) (\text{zip } v ; \text{stack_pos (fst } v)(\text{snd } v)) \).

We can then define our algorithm by well-founded induction on \( R \). For this, we start by defining a function _reduce_stack in open-recursion style (§ 5.1). It takes as argument a term \( t \), a stack \( \pi \) such that the whole expression is well typed (welltyped \( \Sigma \Gamma (\text{zip } (t, \pi)) \)), as well as a function corresponding to recursive calls that can only be applied on pairs that are smaller than \((t, \pi)\) for \( R \). It returns a new pair \((t', \pi')\) together with a proof that \((t', \pi')\) is smaller than or equal to \((t, \pi)\) for \( R \) so that one can conclude that the resulting whole expression is indeed a reduct of the original one, possibly in zero steps. Additionally, it also provides some technical invariants to ensure that the produced terms are in weak-head normal form.

We can then close the open recursion and obtain a reduce_term function that we prove sound, which is expressed by saying that it indeed computes a term that is in the transitive closure of one-step reduction (\(\rightsquigarrow\)):

Theorem reduce_term_sound X :
\[
\forall \Gamma t (h : \forall \Sigma, X \rightsquigarrow_{\text{ext}} \Sigma \rightarrow \text{welltyped } \Sigma \Gamma t) \Sigma, X_{\text{ext}} \Sigma \rightarrow \| \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightsquigarrow^* \text{reduce_term } \Gamma t h \|.
\]

Note that the theorem is quantified over any abstract environment \( X \), and properties mentioning a concrete environment \( \Sigma \), such as typing, are stated by quantifying over any concrete environment in relation with \( X \). Similarly, we can prove that the reduction is complete, which is expressed by saying that the produced term is in weak-head normal form (Fig. 13):

Theorem reduce_term_complete X :
\[
\forall \Gamma t (h : \forall \Sigma, X_{\text{ext}} \Sigma \rightarrow \text{welltyped } \Sigma \Gamma t) \Sigma, X_{\text{ext}} \Sigma \rightarrow \| \text{whnf } \Sigma \Gamma (\text{reduce_term } \Gamma t h) \|.\]
5.3.3 Safe Conversion. We define safe conversion and cumulativity while proving it sound and complete by having it return either a conversion or cumulativity proof for its inputs, or an error message together with a proof of the negation of conversion or cumulativity, using the monadic style explained in §5.1.

At the beginning of the section, we hinted at the fact that our conversion and cumulativity checker proceeds in different phases. We record the current phase using what we call state, defined below.

\[
\text{Inductive state := Reduction} \mid \text{Term} \mid \text{Args} \mid \text{Fallback}.
\]

Initially, we are in Reduction mode in which we start by weak-head reducing both terms (except for δ-reduction, meaning we do not unfold any definition). In this phase we also decompose each term into a term and a stack, moving all applications nodes to the stack and consuming them when possible, as we described in §5.3.2.

We then move to the Term phase where we inspect the two terms below their respective stacks. Essentially in this phase we check whether the two terms have the same head, in which case we compare the subterms recursively (back to phase Reduction). For instance, when comparing two λ-abstractions, this is sufficient and we can directly raise an error message if subterm comparison fails. The proof of completeness ensures that we are not missing a case. It exploits properties of injectivity of weak-head normal forms (shown in PCUIC: Conversion and PCUIC: ConvCumInversion), which follow from confluence. There are still some special cases to consider. For instance, when comparing two constants, we first check whether they happen to be instances of the exact same constant (i.e., the same global reference with equal universe instances), but in case they are not, it does not necessarily mean that the terms are different. We then unfold one of the constants and resume comparison from the Reduction phase. We need to do similar things for pattern matching, (co)fixpoints and projections.

When the previous phase succeeds (i.e., when the two terms have the same head and convertible subterms), we proceed to verify that the applications present on top of the two stacks are themselves pointwise convertible. This Args phase simply looks through the two stacks and compares the application arguments (in Reduction mode). If this succeeds, we can conclude the whole terms are indeed in the conversion or cumulativity relation.

In the Term phase we may however end up with two terms with different heads. Once again, this does not mean that they are not in the cumulativity relation. We end up in the Fallback case in which we check whether one of the terms could be further reduced by unfolding a constant. This happens when the term is itself a constant, but also when it is a pattern matching or projection applied to a stuck term, or a fixpoint whose recursive argument is stuck. In those cases we reduce the argument to weak-head normal form (including δ-reductions) and check whether we can make progress (e.g., it is a constructor for pattern matching). If progress can be made, we go back to the Term phase (no need to go through Reduction again as the terms are still in weak-head normal form). In case no progress can be made on either side, as a last resort we compare the terms syntactically. This is needed for heads like sorts or variables that have not been considered before, as well as for all neutral expressions (i.e., stuck terms).

These phases are defined respectively in open recursion through the functions _isconv_red, _isconv_prog, _isconv_args, and _isconv_fallback. They are combined together into isconv_full which involves an order slightly more complicated than for reduction as the phase (state) is also taken into account. We also call this order \( R \) and show it is well founded.

Finally, starting from empty stacks, we define conversion checking for well-typed terms, named isconv_term, and show it sound and complete. Again, the theorems are stated for any abstract environment \( \mathcal{X} \).
Theorem isconv_term_sound X:
∀ Σ (wfΣ : X ~ext Σ) Γ Rle t₁ h₁ t₂ h₂,
isconv_term Γ Rle t₁ h₁ t₂ h₂ = ConvSuccess → || Σ ; Γ ⊢ t₁ ≤Rle t₂ ||.

Theorem isconv_term_complete X:
∀ Σ (wfΣ : X ~ext Σ) Γ Rle t₁ h₁ t₂ h₂ e,
isconv_term Γ Rle t₁ h₁ t₂ h₂ = ConvError e → ¬ || Σ ; Γ ⊢ t₁ ≤Rle t₂ ||.

5.4 A Typechecking Algorithm for PCUIC

Given the work already done in §3.3, the definition of a type checking algorithm itself is quite straightforward: it closely follows the structure laid out by the mutually defined bidirectional judgments, and poses no termination issue—as opposed to conversion—since the type checker operates by a simple induction on the structure of the term. Actually, rather than a type checker, the main function we define is type inference, from which we can easily define type checking. In more details, the function takes a term \( t \) in well-formed environment \( Σ \) and context \( Γ \), and returns a type together with a derivation of \( Σ ; Γ ⊢ t \sqsubseteq A \), the inductively defined inference judgment, so the function is correct by construction. We cannot separate the definition from the correctness proof, since the conversion checker that is called as a sub-routine expects a well-typed term as input in order to be terminating. We do not detail the definition of type inference here, as it follows scrupulously the bidirectional representation, we just need to replace propositional assumptions, such as convertibility or universe constraints, by the corresponding decision procedures.

We also provide a retyping algorithm, which takes a term and a proof that this term is well typed and computationally infers an explicit type for it. This is an optimized version of type inference where many conversion and type-checking tests can be elided, because we know they are valid thanks to the assumption that the initial term is well typed. For instance, to retype an application \( \text{tApp} t u \), it is only necessary to retype \( t \) and get a type \( tProd na A B \), and we can directly return \( B[0 := u] \), as we know that \( u \) checks against \( A \) since the term is well typed. This retyping algorithm is used by extraction, to detect types and proofs in the term that can be erased.

Finally, we define a function checking well-formedness of an environment, by iteratively checking each constant or inductive declaration as specified in §2.6.

6 TYPE AND PROOF ERASURE FOR PCUIC

One of the key features of the Coq proof assistant is extraction [Letouzey 2004], used for instance in the CompCert compiler [Leroy 2006]. The current implementation of extraction [Letouzey 2002] consists of a general procedure to erase types and proofs and several different mechanisms to extract these erased terms into industrial programming languages like OCAML, HASKELL, or SCHEME. We verify the type and proof erasure procedure for PCUIC with respect to big-step call-by-value evaluation as introduced in §4.6. In future work, we plan to also verify Coq’s extraction mechanism to OCAML and other languages. Already Letouzey’s work [Letouzey 2004] separates the erasure to pure, untyped \( \lambda \)-calculus (equivalent to ours) from the MiniML extraction that is actually implemented by extraction (inserting \text{Obj.magic} to embed untyped terms and applying optimizations).

In this section, we first introduce the target calculus of erasure, which is a simplified version of PCUIC with one extra constructor \( □ \) denoting erased terms. We then define an erasure function \( E \), using the retyping algorithm from §5.4. Following Letouzey [2004], we introduce an erasure relation extending the erasure function, prove its correctness and deduce the strongest possible correctness

---

25Which is decidable due to our Church-style syntax, \textit{i.e.}, using annotated abstractions, as opposed to a Curry-style one.
result for the erasure function: if a program of first-order inductive type \( (i.e., \) an inductive type containing no proofs or functions) evaluates to a value, its erasure evaluates to the same value. As a corollary, we also get that in case the return type of a function \( f \) is a first-order inductive type, \( f \) can be erased separately to some function which will evaluate to the same value as \( f \) once applied to enough arguments.

Note that, like in the extraction currently implemented in Coq, the rule \( \text{Prop} \leq \text{Type} \) has to be disabled for type checking (using the flag structure explained at the end of §2.5) to ensure that erasability is stable by expansion.

6.1 The Target Calculus \( \lambda_{\square} \)

The target of the type and proof erasure procedure is \( \lambda_{\square} \), an untyped \( \lambda \)-calculus. \( \lambda_{\square} \) is syntactically similar to PCUIC (see syntax in Fig. 16). It has the same constructors, but subterms which can only contain types are left out (because they would be erased anyway). Furthermore, \( \lambda_{\square} \) has an additional constructor \( \square \) denoting computationally meaningless content which was erased. Technically, the code shares the same syntax as that for PCUIC, but inside a different module. To avoid confusion and the additional complexity of considering modules, we have taken the liberty to prefix every term with ‘\( E \).’ in the definition.

The weak call-by-value (big-step) evaluation relation for \( \lambda_{\square} \) is defined like for PCUIC (see §4.6), with three amendments:26

1. If \( \Sigma \vdash a \downarrow \square \) then \( \Sigma \vdash \text{E.tApp} a t \downarrow \square \).
2. If \( \Sigma \vdash a \downarrow \square \) and \( \Sigma \vdash t \downarrow \square \ldots \square \downarrow v \) then \( \Sigma \vdash \text{E.tCase} (i, p) a \underbrace{((n, t))}_{n \text{ times}} \downarrow v \).
3. The \( \text{E.tFix} \) rule is similarly extended to also apply if the principal argument evaluates to \( \square \).

Intuitively, the first rule corresponds to the fact that applying a type or a proof to an argument will be a type or proof. The second rule corresponds to the fact that if a case analysis is not erased to \( \square \), this is because it returns something computational, and consequently the case analysis on the proof which was erased to \( \square \) has to come from a subsingleton elimination (§2.6.3). Due to this, the rule actually covers all possible eliminations from \( \text{tProp} \) to produce a computational value. This will be explicit in the proof of correctness of erasure (§6.3). The third rule allows the unfolding of fixpoints computing a value by recursion on proofs.

\[26\] We present only the changes for big-step evaluation.
Equations $E \Gamma (Ht : \forall \Sigma, X \sim_{\text{ext}} \Sigma \rightarrow \text{welltyped} \Sigma \Gamma t) : E \cdot \text{term} :=$

$| \text{left is$_{\text{er}}$} := \Box; |$

$| \text{right not\_is\_er with } t := \{$

$| t\_Rel i := E.t\_Rel i$

$| t\_Const kn u := E.t\_Const kn$

$| t\_Lambda na b b' := E.t\_Lambda na.(\text{binder\_name}) (E (\Gamma, na : b) b')$

$| t\_App f u := E.t\_App (E \Gamma f _) (E \Gamma u _)$

(* ... *)

Fig. 17. Erasure function (excerpt)

6.2 Definition of an Erasure Function

In the remainder of the section, we assume an abstract environment $X$. Parametrized by this abstract environment, a type and proof erasure function $E$ can be defined from terms of PCUIC to terms of $\lambda \Box$.

Its implementation is based on a decision procedure $\text{is\_erasableb}$ which checks whether a well-typed term is erasable. The implementation relies on the retyping function which correctly reconstructs the type of merely well-typed terms, along with weak-head reduction to inspect types. We leave out the implementation of $\text{is\_erasableb}$ as we only need that it reflects the property $\text{isErasable}$, specifying that a term is erasable when it is typeable with some type $T$ which is either an arity or typeable itself with sort $t\text{Prop}$.

Definition $\text{isErasable} \Sigma \Gamma t := \{ T \& \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t : T \times (\text{isArity} T + \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash T : t\text{Prop}) \}$.

This boolean reflection proof in particular involves proving that if $\text{isErasable} \Sigma \Gamma t \rightarrow \bot$ then $\text{is\_erasableb}$ returns false. This requires meta-theoretic properties beyond those proved already for the system, as it focuses on proof terms specifically (those whose sort is $t\text{Prop}$) and essentially quantifies over all possible types for $T$. In particular, it is necessary to show that if a term is typeable by a type which can have sort $t\text{Prop}$, then for all other terms that are syntactically smaller or equal to it up to universes and are typeable, they must also have sort $t\text{Prop}$. This is a generalization of principality that is particularly tricky to prove in presence of cumulative inductive types, as for example $\text{nil@i} N$ and $\text{nil@j} N$ are in this relation but can have unrelated sorts $\text{Type@i}$ and $\text{Type@j}$. To solve this issue, we devise an alternative, coarser version of the cumulativity relation (in PCUI: $\text{CumulProp}$), named sort quality equivalence, that identifies all $\text{Type@}$ sorts, becoming symmetric. Cumulativity is hence a subrelation of sort quality equivalence. We can then prove a theorem that essentially says that two typeable terms that are in the syntactical inequality up to universes relation have sort quality equivalent types. From this, it follows that if one as sort $t\text{Prop}$, then the other must have it too, establishing a unique sort quality principle.

An excerpt of the definition of the erasure function is depicted in Figure 17. It starts by looking at the result of $\text{is\_erasableb}$. When the decision procedure says that the term is erasable, it simply returns $\Box$. When the term is not erasable, it proceeds by induction on the syntax of the term, coarsely by simply applying the erasure functions on sub-arguments and removing some type information (such as the universe instance $u$ in the $t\text{Const}$ case). Note the use of EQUATIONS to defer the definition of complex arguments such as the proof that a sub-term is well-typed using underscores.
Inductive $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \_ \leadsto E . \_ : \text{term} \to E . \text{term} \to \text{Prop}$ :=
| erases_tRel : $\forall i : N, \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tRel} i \leadsto E . \text{tRel} i$ |
| erases_tLambda : $\forall (\text{na} : \text{name}) (b : \text{t term}) ((t' : E . \text{term}),$
| $\Sigma; (\Gamma', \text{na} : b) \vdash t \rightarrow E . \text{tLambda} \text{na} \text{b} \; t \rightarrow E . \text{tLambda} \text{na} \; t'$ |
| erases_tApp : $\forall (f : \text{t term}) (f' : E . \text{term}),$
| $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash f \rightarrow E . f' \rightarrow E . \Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tApp} \, f \, u \rightarrow E . \text{tApp} \, f' \rightarrow E . \, u'$ |
| erases_tConst : $\forall (\text{kn} : \text{kernel}) (u : \text{universe_instance})$, |
| $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tConst} \, \text{kn} \, u \rightarrow E . \text{tConst} \, \text{kn}$ |
| erases_tCase : $\forall (\text{ci} : \text{case_info}) (p : \text{predicate term})$
| $(c : \text{term}) (\text{brs} : \text{list (branch term)}) (c' : E . \text{term}) (\text{brs'} : \text{list (list name \times E . \text{term})})$, |
| Subsingleton $\Sigma \, \text{ci} (\text{ci \_ ind}) \rightarrow$
| $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash c \rightarrow E . c' \rightarrow$
| All2 (fun (x : \text{branch term}) (x' : \text{list name \times E . \text{term})} \Rightarrow$
| $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{inst-case\_branch\_context} \, p \, x \, \text{bbody} \, x \rightarrow E . \text{snd} \, x' \times E . \text{x} (\text{bcontext} \, x) = \text{fst} \, x') \, \text{brs} \, \text{brs'} \rightarrow$
| $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash \text{tCase} \, \text{ci} \, p \, c \, \text{brs} \rightarrow E . \text{tCase} \, (\text{ci} (\text{ci \_ ind}), \text{ci} (\text{ci \_ npar})) \, c' \, \text{brs'}$
| (* ... *) |
| erases_box : $\forall t : \text{term}, \text{isErasable} \, \Sigma \, \Gamma \rightarrow t \rightarrow E . \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow E . \Box$. |

Fig. 18. Erasure relation (excerpt)

### 6.3 Correctness of Erasure

Ideally, we would like to prove that if $\Sigma \vdash \top \Downarrow v$, then we have $E . \Sigma \vdash \Box \Downarrow E . \Box \Downarrow v$ for a suitable extension of $E$ to global environments. However, this already fails on simple counter-examples: the Coq term $(\text{fun} \, x : \text{Type} \Rightarrow (1, \text{fun} \, x : X \Rightarrow x)) \, \text{Type}$ has type $\text{N} \times (\text{Type} \rightarrow \text{Type})$ and evaluates to the value $(1, \text{fun} \, x : \text{Type} \Rightarrow x)$. Erasing the term yields $(\text{fun} \, x \Rightarrow (1, \text{fun} \, x \Rightarrow x)) \, \Box$, with value $(1, \text{fun} \, x \Rightarrow x)$. Erasing the value however yields $(1, \Box)$, because $\text{fun} \, x : \text{Type} \Rightarrow x$ is a type former of type $\text{Type} \rightarrow \text{Type}$, which is an arity and thus erased to $\Box$. This means intuitively that the erasure function can erase more parts of the term after it has been reduced.

Following Letouzey [2004], we get around this problem by considering a relation $\Sigma; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow E . t'$, as depicted in Fig. 18, extending the erasure function, which will be closed under weak call-by-value evaluation. For normal terms of first-order inductive types like $\text{N}$ or $\text{N} \times \text{N}$, the relation and the function agree and we can still get the strongest result described above on such first-order types.

Essentially, the relation extends the erasure function by nondeterministic rules allowing not to erase a certain part of a term which could be erased. The only exception here is the $\text{tCase}$ rule. If the $\text{tCase}$ matches on a proof of a proposition which is not a Subsingleton (i.e., there is more than one branch in the case analysis), the whole case analysis has to be erased. This is necessary because erased discriminees do not contain any information about which branch to use during evaluation. For subsingleton propositions, there is at most one branch where all arguments are proofs and thus can be erased, they can thus be still evaluated (by picking the one available branch, if any). We can prove global weakening, weakening and substitutivity of the erasure relation.

The erasure relation contains (the graph of) the erasure function:

**Lemma** erases_erase $\Gamma \, t$ (wt : $\forall \Sigma, \, X \sim \text{ext} \, \Sigma \rightarrow \text{welltyped} \, \Sigma \, \Gamma \, t$):

$\forall \Sigma, \, X \sim \text{ext} \, \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \rightarrow E . \Sigma \, \Gamma \, t \, \text{wt}$. 

To state the correctness lemma, we need to extend erasure to global environments $\Sigma$. We write $\Sigma \rightarrow E . \Sigma'$ for this relation. It can be defined in a straightforward way by pointwise extension of
the erasure relation. Concretely, we however use an alternative definition which drops unneeded dependencies in \( \Sigma' \) (e.g., type definitions), we discuss this in detail in §6.4.

Contrarily to the erasure function, the erasure relation satisfies a general correctness lemma.

**Lemma simple_erases_correct**: \( \forall \Sigma \ t \ t' \ v \Sigma', wf \Sigma \rightarrow \text{welltyped} \Sigma \ t \rightarrow \Sigma \vdash v \vdash t \vdash \Sigma; [] \vdash t \rightsquigarrow_E t' \rightarrow \Sigma \rightsquigarrow_E \Sigma' \rightarrow \exists \Sigma' ; [\Sigma ] \vdash v \rightsquigarrow_E v' \wedge \| \Sigma' \vdash t' \downarrow \| v' \| . \)

Note that this lemma is not proven in our development as we directly prove the more complex optimized one instead (§6.4).

To instantiate the erasure correctness theorem to the erasure function, we introduce the notion of first-order inductive types. An inductive \( i \) is first-order in a global context \( \Sigma \), written \( \text{firstorder}_\text{ind} \Sigma i \), if all its parameters, indices, and constructor arguments have a type which is syntactically of the shape \( \text{mkApps} (\text{tInd} i u) \) args where \( i \) is again first-order.

The crucial property is that values of first-order types are just nested constructor applications where neither proofs nor types can occur. Thus, on those terms, the erasure relation and the erasure function coincide, because they both just erase the type information to get an \( E \text{.term} \).

**Lemma firstorder_erases_deterministic**: \( \forall v v' i u args \rightsquigarrow \forall \Sigma , X \rightsquigarrow \text{welltyped} \Sigma []; \Sigma X \rightsquigarrow \Sigma \rightarrow \text{firstorder}_\text{ind} \Sigma i \rightarrow \Sigma ; [\Sigma ] \vdash v : \text{mkApps} (\text{tInd} i u) \) args \( \rightarrow \Sigma \vdash v \downarrow \Sigma ; [] \vdash v \rightsquigarrow_E v' \rightarrow v' = E [\Sigma ] v wv. \)

This brings us to the correctness of the erasure function. Because the proof of correctness is based on progress (§4.6), its statement has to be restricted to axiom free global environments.

**Lemma erase_correct_firstorder**: \( \forall \Sigma t v i u args \Sigma X \rightsquigarrow \text{axiom_free} \Sigma \rightarrow \text{firstorder}_\text{ind} \Sigma i \rightarrow \Sigma ; [\Sigma ] \vdash t : \text{mkApps} (\text{tInd} i u) \) args \( \rightarrow \Sigma ; [\Sigma ] \vdash t \rightsquigarrow^* v \rightarrow \neg \{ v' \& \Sigma ; [\Sigma ] \vdash v \rightsquigarrow v \} \rightarrow \exists wv. \| E \Sigma \vdash E [\Sigma ] t \downarrow w \| E [\Sigma ] v \downarrow wv \| . \)

That is, if a closed term \( t \) of first-order inductive type reduces to a value \( v \), using the non-deterministic reduction \( \rightsquigarrow^* \) defined in §3.2, then the erasure of \( t \) evaluates to the erasure of that value.

In particular, this observation entails that our type and proof erasure function supports separate compilation: Let \( \Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps} f \ L : T \), where \( T \) is a first-order type. Then the value of \( \text{mkApps}(E f)(E L) \) is the erasure of the value of \( \text{mkApps} f \ L \).

### 6.4 Optimizations

The erasure function defined in Letouzey’s PhD thesis [Letouzey 2004] and the definition described by Sozeau et al. [2019b] immediately inline an optimization on case analysis: if the case analysis is on a propositional inductive type, then the case analysis is immediately replaced by the first branch, where an appropriate amount of \( \Box \) is inserted for all arguments of the branch. This is necessary for extraction, because \( \Box \), which would witness this erasable inductive value, cannot be extracted to a constructor application as it must obey rule (1) from Page 54, thus a case analysis on it will fail or get stuck in most target languages.

Thus, the evaluation relation on \( \lambda_\Box \) could have been defined without rule (2) as described on Page 54. However, this direct expansion of cases considerably complicates the correctness proof of erasure, as it relies on typing invariants and inversion principles. We decide not to include it into the erasure function, and instead define it as a second pass. This second pass is done by defining
a function $\text{optimize}$ that is essentially the identity function but for $\text{E.tCase}$ where it performs the optimization discussed above:

$$\text{optimize} \Sigma (\text{E.tCase} \text{ ind c brs}) := \text{let brs' := map (on snd (optimize \Sigma)) brs in}$$

$$\begin{align*}
\text{if isprop_ind \Sigma \text{ ind then}} & \quad \text{match brs' with} \\
& \quad | [(a, b)] \Rightarrow \text{substl (repeat □ #|a|) b} \\
& \quad | \_ \Rightarrow \text{E.tCase ind (optimize c) brs'} \\
\text{end} \\
\text{else E.tCase ind (optimize \Sigma c) brs'}
\end{align*}$$

The function $\text{isprop_ind}$ checks whether an inductive definition lives in $\text{Prop}$, in which case, when there is only one (optimized) branch, it directly returns that branch where every argument is substituted by □ (using the function $\text{substl}$).

In order to express that rule (2) is not needed anymore after this pass, we parametrize the evaluation relation over a record of flags:

$$\text{Class WcbvFlags} := \{ \text{with_prop case} : \mathbb{B} ; (\ast \text{ other flags not described in this paper } \ast) \}.$$  

If $\text{with_prop_case} = \text{true}$, then the rule is enabled, otherwise it is disabled. The correctness theorem for the propositional case expansion pass states that it does not change the evaluation of a term, where $\text{eval}$ is the weak call-by-value evaluation predicate of $\lambda\text{c}$, for which we use no notation to be able to make the flags explicit.

$$\text{Definition disable_prop_cases fl := \{ with_prop_case := \text{false} ; (\ast \ldots \ast) \} }.$$  

$$\text{Lemma optimize_correct \Sigma t v : \text{wf } \Sigma \rightarrow \text{closed } t \rightarrow}$$

$$\text{eval fl } \Sigma t v \rightarrow \text{eval (disable_prop_cases fl) (optimize_env } \Sigma \text{) (optimize } \Sigma t \text{) (optimize } \Sigma v \text{).}$$

Note that technically, we also need to extend $\text{optimize}$ on environments because we need to optimize the body of definitions. The proof is direct as it just inlines the reduction rule (2).

In the same spirit, we plan on including other passes in the future, e.g., optimization passes removing parameters from inductives. If efficiency becomes a concern, we can always inline these passes again in a new erasure function and prove that it yields the same result as first running the erasure function as defined in this paper and then the propagation pass.

Another source of optimization is in the management of the global context. Indeed, the erasure process as explained here is too inefficient to be executed on realistic examples. The reason is that applying the erasure function pointwise to the global environment will perform retyping and yield numerous constants that are erased to □ but not used everywhere. This is because dependency on proofs disappear, as all proof are erased but also because in practice a term usually only depends on a small subset of the global environment it is defined in. The full erasure theorem then reads as follows:

$$\text{Lemma erases_correct } \Sigma t \; \forall : \text{wf } \Sigma \rightarrow \text{welltyped } \Sigma t \rightarrow$$

$$\Sigma \vdash t \downarrow v \rightarrow \Sigma; [] \vdash t \rightarrow E \Sigma' t' \rightarrow \text{erasesdeps } \Sigma \; \Sigma' t' \rightarrow$$

$$\exists v', \Sigma; [] \vdash v \rightarrow E v' \land \| \Sigma' \vdash t' \rightarrow v' \|.}$$

In order not to produce a large environment polluted by irrelevant constants, we use an inductive predicate $\text{erasesdeps } \Sigma \Sigma' t'$ stating that the global environment $\Sigma'$ is obtained from applying erasure recursively and selectively to $\Sigma$ by considering only the dependencies of the $\text{erased}$ term $t'$, in a bottom-up fashion. Note that this is where we need the $\text{abs_pop_decls}$ primitive that removes a declaration from the global context. This models the Recursive Extraction $\langle \text{term} \rangle$ command of
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

Coq. The correctness proof requires fairly involved reasoning with an accumulator to account for these dependencies. It also requires particular inversion lemmas which have to be set up very carefully, accounting for the non-determinism of the erasure relation. We refer the reader to the Coq formalization for details.

7 RELATED WORK

Mechanized meta-theory and certified type-checkers. Barras [1996] proposed the first substantial work in the area of formal correctness of proof assistants by proving subject reduction and strong normalization of a subset of Coq (namely CoC, the Calculus of Constructions) in Coq, together with the correctness of a type checker for this subset, which can then be extracted to Caml Light. Our work is a spiritual successor to this one, but is more focused on verification of an implementation that on proving strong normalization of the system. Furthermore, we deal with a subset of Coq that is almost feature complete, compared to the rather small fragment considered by Barras [1996], which for instance does not contain any inductive types. This work was the inspiration of other metatheoretical studies of extensions to CoC [Sozeau 2008] and general Pure Type Systems [Siles and Herbelin 2012] in Coq, similarly focusing on idealized, small languages.

Abel et al. [2018b] present a normalization-by-evaluation algorithm for deciding definitional equality of an idealized dependent type theory with only one universe and natural numbers, verified in Agda, implemented using a stronger type theory with inductive-recursive types [Dybjer and Setzer 2003]. Their methodology provides soundness and completeness results and deals with \( \eta \)-laws by comparing \( \beta \eta \) normal forms, while we do not handle these. However, their algorithm is rather naive, as it systematically reduces terms to deep normal form, and works directly on the proof of reducibility. On the contrary, our implementation does not necessarily compute deep normal forms, which is crucial for performance in practice. Moreover, we use the Prop/Type distinction of Coq to enable extraction of a reasonably efficient implementation using erasure. Finally, they stop at definitional equality, but do not tackle decidability of type checking.

Strub et al. [2012] provide a methodology to build a self-certifying type checker for a large subset of \( F^* \), whose metatheory is formalized in Coq. Our work is complementary in the sense that it reduces the trusted code base involved in that methodology to the specification of PCUIC, and no longer to its ML kernel implementation. Furthermore, they only tackle soundness of the type checker, while we also prove completeness.

Anand and Rahli [2014] formalize the meta-theory of the Nuprl proof assistant in Coq and prove its consistency, but do not verify programs related to it.

Œuf [Mullen et al. 2018] formalizes a simply typed subset of Coq with predetermined base types and the corresponding eliminators and provide a verified compiler from this language to Assembly code. As such our work is on a much larger scale as it deals with almost all of Coq.

Certified erasure and extraction. Hupel and Nipkow [2018] implement a verified extraction from Isabelle/HOL into CakeML. The first phase of their compiler consists of a proof-producing translation implemented in Standard ML, translating terms of Isabelle/HOL into a deeply embedded term language. The second part of their compiler is a verified translation from the deeply embedded language into CakeML.

Myreen and Owens [2014] implement a certifying extraction from HOL Light code to CakeML. Their approach can translate programs in a state-and-exception monad into stateful ML code and was used by Abrahamsson et al. [2022] to extract a verified HOL Light compiler to CakeML.

Forster and Kunze [2019] report on a certifying translation from a subset of Coq to the weak call-by-value \( \lambda \)-calculus. Their extraction is implemented in the MetaCoq framework as well, but they produce correctness proofs for their extract in Coq’s tactic language Ltac.
Barras and Bernardo [2008] propose the Implicit Calculus of Constructions as an alternative way to specify computationally irrelevant content, whose pen-and-paper metatheory extends that of CIC [Bernardo 2015] and with a complex type inference decidability proof. It could be studied in the present framework.

Glondu [2012] verifies the syntactic proof given by Letouzey [2004] in Coq. They formalize a correctness proof w.r.t. arbitrary small-step reduction, but work in a slightly idealized calculus with no exploitable correspondence to the actual implementation of Coq. They do not consider a verified type checker or the verification of an executable type and proof erasure function.

Work building on MetaCoq. Annenkov et al. [2021] build on MetaCoq’s verified erasure to extend the extraction capabilities of Coq in a verified way to more programming languages such as the web functional language Elm, the Liquidity and CameLIGO smart contract languages, or even Rust as part of the ConCert project [Annenkov et al. 2022; Nielsen et al. 2023]. Olesen [2021] goes further and extends ConCert to obtain certified extraction to the Futhark language.

The CertiCoq project [Anand et al. 2017] is a work-in-progress verified compiler from Coq to C (as specified in CompCert). Before entering a complex compilation chain with various intermediate languages and optimizations, CertiCoq uses the type and proof erasure procedure described in this paper. Consequently, an end-to-end correctness theorem for CertiCoq would be composed of an end-to-end theorem connecting the weak call-by-value evaluation relation of \( \lambda \) to the operational semantics of the compiled C program and our correctness theorem for the erasure function.

8 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

The whole development we presented includes the certified type-preserving translation from Coq’s syntax to PCUIC’s syntax, specification of typing, metatheory, verified checker and conversion and erasure phase. All this is done assuming the existence of a guard condition on fixpoints and cofixpoints that endows the system with strong normalization. From these specifications and implementations, a number of applications are possible. Certified translations and plugins were surveyed by Sozeau et al. [2019a], we focus here on what our contributions bring in addition.

With respect to Coq’s currently implemented type theory, we depart by not considering \( \eta \)-equalities for functions and primitive record types in our specification of definitional equality. We leave these extensions to future work. We also leave out the module system: thankfully, it is orthogonal to the term language and it is unclear if we should not rather explain them through an elaboration, in the style of Rossberg et al. [2014] rather than bake them in the core calculus.

In the future, we want to extend PCUIC and erasure to also handle the sort SProp [Gilbert et al. 2019], implemented since Coq 8.10. Since SProp is a proof-irrelevant analogue to Prop, adapting erasure is almost trivial: SProp can be erased like Prop and eliminations need no special care.

We also want to extend our account of erasure to other evaluation orders (most notably call-by-name evaluation to be able to target lazy languages). Currently, we support axioms which do not block call-by-value evaluation—which is rarely the case. Letouzey [2004] introduces a semantic account of erasure correctness, which would allow the treatment of axioms. We want to verify such a semantic correctness theorem.

Another exciting endeavor is to refine the specification to fit into the standard models of dependent type theory, beginning with the set theoretic model developed by Barras [1999]. A first step towards this goal will be to tackle the difficult guard and productivity conditions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The work described in this paper received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie grant agreement No. 101024493.
REFERENCES


Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq


EXAMPLE OF SUBJECT REDUCTION FAILURE IN COQ 8.14

This example showcases the incompleteness of Coq’s kernel, as described in §3.4. This incompleteness manifests as a subject reduction failure: while the reduct is typeable in PCUIC, the kernel does not find this typing derivation, and wrongly rejects the reduct as ill typed.

Universe u.
(* Constraint Set < u. *)
Polymorphic Cumulative Record pack@[u] := Pack { pack_type : Type@[u] }.
(* u is covariant *)

Polymorphic Definition pack_id@[u] (p : pack@[u]) : pack@[u] :=
match p with
| Pack T ⇒ Pack T
end.
Definition packidN (p : pack@Set) := pack_id@[u] p.
(* No constraints: Set ≤ u *)

Fail Definition sr_breaks := Eval compute in packidN.

COMPLETE SPECIFICATION OF CUMULATIVITY AND TYPING

Fig. 19 and Fig. 20 provide the complete specification of cumulativity in PCUIC while Fig. 21 provides all the typing rules of PCUIC.
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

Inductive "\(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash _\leqarevs \_\) : term \to term \to Type :=

(* Ordering Rules *)
| cumul_Trans : \(\forall t u v, \)
  is_closed_context \(\Gamma \to is_open_term \Gamma u \to \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leqarevs u \to \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leqarevs v \to \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash u \leqarevs v \to \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash t \leqarevs v \)

(* Cumulativity Rules *)
| cumul_Ind : \(\forall i u u' args args', \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps}(\text{tInd} i u) \text{args} \leqarevs \text{mkApps}(\text{tInd} i u') \text{args}' \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps}(\text{tConstruct} i k u) \text{args} \leqarevs \text{mkApps}(\text{tConstruct} i k u') \text{args}' \)

(* Computation Rules *)
| cumul_beta : \(\forall n at b a, \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tApp}(\text{tLambda} n at b) a \leqarevs b \{0 := a\} \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tLetIn} n at b' b \{0 := b\} \)
| cumul_rei
  nth_error brs c = Some br \to \#args = ci.(ci_npar) + \text{context_assumptions} br.(bcontext) \to
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tCase} ci p (\text{mkApps}(\text{tConstruct} ci.(ci.ind) c u) \text{args}) \text{brs} \leqarevs \text{iota_red} ci p \text{args} \text{br} \)
| cumul_fix : \(\forall mfix idx \text{args} \text{narg fn}, \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{mkApps}(\text{tFix} mfix idx) \text{args} \leqarevs \text{mkApps} \text{fn args} \)
| cumul_cofix_case : \(\forall i p i p mfix \text{idx} \text{args} \text{narg fn} \text{brs}, \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tCase} ip (\text{mkApps}(\text{tCofix} mfix \text{idx}) \text{args}) \text{brs} \leqarevs \text{tCase} ip p (\text{mkApps} \text{fn args} \text{brs}) \)
| cumul_cofix_proj : \(\forall p mfix \text{idx} \text{args} \text{narg fn}, \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tProj p (mkApps(tCofix mfix idx) args)} \leqarevs \text{tProj p (mkApps fn args)} \)
| cumul_delta : \(\forall c \text{decl body (isdecl: declared_constant} \Sigma c \text{decl)} u, \)
  \(\text{decl(cst_body)} = \text{Some} \text{body} \to \)
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tConst} c u \leqarevs \text{body}@[u] \)
| cumul_proj : \(\forall i \text{pars narg args u arg}, \)
  nth_error args (pars + narg) = Some arg \to
  \(\Sigma ; \Gamma \vdash \text{tProj}(i, \text{pars}, \text{narg}) (\text{mkApps}(\text{tConstruct} i 0 u) \text{args}) \leqarevs \arg \)

Fig. 19. Cumulativity (Part I)
(* Congruence Rules *)

| cumul_Lambda : ∀ na na' t' ty' t t',
  Σ; Σ; t ty' t' Σ; Γ, na : ty t t ≤ₚ t
  Σ; Σ; t λ t Σ λ t ' Σ; Γ; t u u'
  Σ; Σ; t λ t ' Σ; Γ; t u u'
| cumul_App : ∀ t t u u',
  Σ; Σ; t t' Σ; Γ, na : a a + b b' Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
| cumul_Const : ∀ c u u',
  Σ; Γ; t u u'
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
| cumul_Prod : ∀ na na' a' b' b',
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs
| cumul_LetIn : ∀ na na' t' ty' t t',
  Σ; Γ; t u u'
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs
| cumul_Const : ∀ c u u',
  Σ; Γ; t u u'
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
  Σ; Γ; t Prod Σ a b Σ a b'
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs
| cumul_Pred : ∀ p c c' brs brs',
  Σ; Γ; t u u'
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs'
  Σ; Γ; t Case indn p c brs brs'
| cumul_FIX : ∀ mfix mfix' idx,
  mfix mfix' idx,
  All2 (fun x y ⇒ Σ; Γ; x (dt y) ≤ₚ y (dt y) ×
  Σ; Γ; x (dt y) ≤ₚ y (dt y) ×
  (x (rarg) = y (rarg)) mfix mfix' →
  Σ; Γ; t fix mfix idx ≤ₚ t fix mfix' idx
| cumul_FIX : ∀ mfix mfix' idx,
  mfix mfix' idx,
  All2 (fun x y ⇒ Σ; Γ; x (dt y) ≤ₚ y (dt y) ×
  Σ; Γ; x (dt y) ≤ₚ y (dt y) ×
  (x (rarg) = y (rarg)) mfix mfix' →
  Σ; Γ; t fix mfix idx ≤ₚ t fix mfix' idx.

Fig. 20. Cumulativity (Part II)
Correct and Complete Type Checking and Certified Erasure for Coq, in Coq

Fig. 21. Typing rules