

RECONSIDERING PAIRS AND FUNCTIONS AS SETS

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ABSTRACT. We give representations for ordered pairs and functions in set theory with the property that ordered pairs are functions from the finite ordinal 2. We conjecture that these representations are useful for formalized mathematics since certain isomorphic sets are identified. The definitions, theorems and proofs have been formalized in the proof assistant Coq using only the simply typed features of Coq. We describe the development within the context of an intuitionistic simply typed (higher-order) version of (well-founded) Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory without the axiom of infinity.

1. INTRODUCTION

A foundation for mathematics must support the basic building blocks of the mathematical universe. Among these basic building blocks are numbers, pairs, sets and functions. A common foundation for mathematics is Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory (ZF) [23]. Sets are the only innate basic building blocks in ZF. However, there are well-known constructions for numbers, pairs and functions. The finite von Neumann ordinals in which $n = \{0, \dots, n - 1\}$ give a common representation for natural numbers. Kuratowski's representation of pairs (x, y) as $\{\{x\}, \{x, y\}\}$ is popular and it is common to identify functions with their graphs. For example, these are the representations used in the proof assistants Isabelle-ZF [16] and Mizar [21, 7, 4, 5].

Given sets X and Y , $X \times Y$ is notation for the set of pairs with components from X and Y and X^Y is notation for the set of functions from Y to X . Sometimes the notation for $X \times X$ is simplified to be X^2 . However, if 2 is the finite ordinal $\{0, 1\}$, then we have an ambiguity. Is X^2 notation for the set $X \times X$ of pairs or for the set $X^{\{0,1\}}$ of functions from $\{0, 1\}$ to X ? Mathematically, this is not a serious ambiguity. There is an obvious isomorphism between the sets $X \times X$ and $X^{\{0,1\}}$ that respects the relevant structures. In particular, functions $f \in X^{\{0,1\}}$ can be mapped to pairs $(f0, f1)$ and pairs $(x, y) \in X \times X$ can be mapped to a function $f \in X^{\{0,1\}}$ such that $f0 = x$ and $f1 = y$. Mathematicians are justified in thinking of $X \times X$ and $X^{\{0,1\}}$ as being, essentially, the same sets.

When formalizing mathematics, there are drawbacks to having different isomorphic representations for such a basic operation as pairing. In Mizar's library, Kuratowski pairs are defined in the document giving the axioms of the set theory [21]. Later, finite sequences are defined leading to a different notion of pairing defined as a function from $\{1, 2\}$ [6]. Once one has these two definitions, there is always the question of *which* notion of pairing is appropriate in different situations. An expert will choose one or the

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other depending on the situation. For example, Definition 11 of the Mizar article [3] has the form $[0, \langle a, b \rangle]$ meaning the Kuratowski pair of 0 and the function mapping 1 to a and 2 to b .¹ This also means that theorems may be formulated using the different pairing operations. In order to apply the theorem when the pairing operations do not match, one would need to explicitly apply an isomorphism. The need to apply isomorphisms cannot be altogether avoided, but in cases involving such basic objects as pairs and functions it is worthwhile to consider representations chosen so that many such isomorphic sets will be equal.

We will describe representations for pairs and functions with the property that the set $X \times X$ will be the same as $X^{\{0,1\}}$. That is, pairs will be functions with domain $\{0, 1\}$. A pair u will be equal to $(u0, u1)$ where $u0$ is u applied to 0 and $u1$ is u applied to 1. We will continue to use the representation of natural numbers as finite ordinals. The representation of functions we will use is one due to Aczel [1]. The representation of pairs is similar to one considered by Morse [13] and can be informally described as being the disjoint union of the two sets. Morse ultimately used a different version of ordered pairs in [13].

Our constructions will work with both finite and infinite sets, but we will never need to make explicit use of infinite sets. Consequently, we work with a variant of ZF without the axiom of infinity. Instead of formulating the set theory in first order logic, we formulate it in simple type theory (higher-order logic). We include a description operator at the base type. Our simple type theory is intuitionistic. Since we are working in an intuitionistic setting, the set theory axioms must be chosen carefully. For example, the usual axiom of regularity implies excluded middle, and so it must be replaced by an \in -induction axiom. The axioms we choose are essentially those of ZFI_R as described in [19] (a system first studied by Myhill [14]) except that infinity is omitted and the axioms are translated into the simply typed setting. The representation in simple type theory is similar to the version in Isabelle-ZF [16], but with higher-order aspects similar to those in [2, 15]. One benefit of using simple type theory is that we can quantify over predicates and (meta-level) functions. Consequently, the axioms of replacement, separation and \in -induction can each be stated with a single formula instead of using a schema of formulas. Another advantage of using simple type theory is that we can prove that we can define (meta-level) functions by \in -recursion before defining an object-level notion of pairing. In fact, \in -recursion will be used to define pairing.

In Section 2 we give the simply typed set theory. In Section 3 we give a few basic definitions and results, including an \in -recursion theorem. In Section 4 we specify what we require of our representation of pairs and functions. In Section 5 we define pairing and prove a number of results, and in Section 6 we do the same for functions. In Section 7 we define dependent sums and products (sets of pairs and functions).

The material described here has been formalized in the Coq theorem prover [12] using only the simply typed features of Coq.

¹Actually, in the pdf versions of the Mizar articles, the notation for Kuratowski pairs uses bold \langle and \rangle .

2. INTUITIONISTIC SIMPLY TYPED SET THEORY

We briefly describe an intuitionistic form of Church's simple type theory [8, 9]. We start with two base types ι (the type of sets) and o (the type of propositions). Other (simple) types are function types: given two types σ and τ , the function type $\sigma\tau$ is a type (the type of functions from σ to τ). Let \mathcal{T} be the set of types.

Let $(\mathcal{V}_\sigma)_{\sigma \in \mathcal{T}}$ be a disjoint family of infinite sets of variables. We use metavariables such as x, y, z, \dots to range over variables. We also have a set \mathcal{C}_σ of constants of type σ . We will describe the specific constants in each \mathcal{C}_σ shortly. We use the metavariable c to range over constants.

For each type σ there is a set Λ_σ of all terms of type σ . We use metavariables s, t and u to range over terms. This family of sets is defined inductively as follows:

- If $x \in \mathcal{V}_\sigma$, then $x \in \Lambda_\sigma$.
- If $c \in \mathcal{C}_\sigma$, then $c \in \Lambda_\sigma$.
- If $s \in \Lambda_{\sigma\tau}$ and $t \in \Lambda_\sigma$, then $(st) \in \Lambda_\tau$.
- If $x \in \mathcal{V}_\sigma$ and $t \in \Lambda_\tau$, then $(\lambda x.t) \in \Lambda_{\sigma\tau}$.
- If $s \in \Lambda_o$ and $t \in \Lambda_o$, then $(s \rightarrow t) \in \Lambda_o$.
- If $x \in \mathcal{V}_\sigma$ and $t \in \Lambda_o$, then $(\forall x.t) \in \Lambda_o$.

When $s \in \Lambda_\sigma$, we say s is a *term of type σ* . If s is a term of type o , we say s is a *formula*. When writing terms we omit parentheses whenever possible under the following conventions. Application associates to the left, so that stu means $((st)u)$. Implication associates to the right, so that $s \rightarrow t \rightarrow u$ means $(s \rightarrow (t \rightarrow u))$. Application binds more tightly than implication, so that $st \rightarrow su$ means $((st) \rightarrow (su))$. The scope of binders λ and \forall is as far to the right as possible, so that $\lambda x.st$ means $(\lambda x.(st))$ and $\forall x.s \rightarrow t$ means $(\forall x.(s \rightarrow t))$. We write $\lambda x_1 \dots x_n.s$ for $\lambda x_1. \dots \lambda x_n.s$ and $\forall x_1 \dots x_n.s$ for $\forall x_1. \dots \forall x_n.s$. We will usually not be explicit about the types of variables if the intended type can be determined. Later we will introduce more notational conventions for terms when convenient.

We say two terms are α -equivalent if they are the same up to the names of bound variables. For example, $\lambda xy.xy$ is α -equivalent to $\lambda yx.yx$. We will treat α -equivalent terms as being equal. We assume the usual notion of free variables and let $\mathcal{F}s$ denote the (finite) set of variables that occur free in s . We denote the capture-avoiding substitution of t for the free occurrences of x in s by s_t^x . A β -redex is a term of the form $(\lambda x.s)t$. The β -reduct of $(\lambda x.s)t$ is s_t^x . An η -redex is a term of the form $\lambda x.sx$ where $x \notin \mathcal{F}s$. The η -reduct of $\lambda x.sx$ is s . We say s is a redex with reduct t if either s is a β -redex with β -reduct t or s is an η -redex with η -reduct t . We say s *one-step reduces* to t if there is a redex as a subterm of s and t is the result of replacing the redex with its reduct. *Convertibility* is simply the reflexive, symmetric, transitive closure of one-step reducibility. We write $s \approx t$ if s and t are convertible.

A *context* is a set of formulas. We use Γ to range over contexts. We define $\mathcal{F}\Gamma$ to be $\bigcup_{s \in \Gamma} \mathcal{F}s$. Note that if Γ is finite, then $\mathcal{F}\Gamma$ is also finite. Hence, for a finite Γ and a type σ , there will be infinitely many variables in $\mathcal{V}_\sigma \setminus \mathcal{F}\Gamma$.

The natural deduction calculus given by the rules in Figure 1 define when $\Gamma \vdash s$ holds for a context Γ and formula s .

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash s} s \in \Gamma \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash s}{\Gamma \vdash t} s \approx t \qquad \frac{\Gamma \cup \{s\} \vdash t}{\Gamma \vdash s \rightarrow t} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash s \rightarrow t \quad \Gamma \vdash s}{\Gamma \vdash t} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash s_y^x}{\Gamma \vdash \forall x.s} x \in \mathcal{V}_\sigma, y \in \mathcal{V}_\sigma \setminus \mathcal{F}\Gamma \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \forall x.s}{\Gamma \vdash s_t^x} x \in \mathcal{V}_\sigma, t \in \Lambda_\sigma
\end{array}$$

FIGURE 1. Natural Deduction Calculus

What we have developed so far is a general intuitionistic simple type theory. Since our only interest is a specific instance corresponding to a set theory, we now fix the constants in the sets \mathcal{C}_σ . We will only have seven constants:

- d is a constant of type $(\iota o)\iota$. This will be used as a description operator.
- \in is a constant of type ιo . This will be used to represent membership. We write formulas $\in s t$ using infix notation as $s \in t$. As infix notation, we assume \in binds more tightly than implication but less tightly than application, so that $st \in tu \rightarrow st \in tu$ means $((st) \in (tu)) \rightarrow ((st) \in (tu))$.
- \emptyset is a constant of type ι . This will be used as the empty set.
- \bigcup and \wp are constants of type ι . For $s \in \Lambda_\iota$, the term $\bigcup s$ will correspond to the union of the set s and the term $\wp s$ will correspond to the power set of s .
- s is a constant of type $\iota(\iota o)\iota$. This will correspond to sets formed by separation. We will use the notation $\{x \in s | t\}$ to represent the term $ss(\lambda x.t)$.
- r is a constant of type $\iota(\iota)\iota$. This will correspond to sets formed by replacement. We will use the notation $\{t | x \in s\}$ to represent the term $rs(\lambda x.t)$.

We next define false, negation, conjunction, disjunction, equivalence, equality, existential and unique existential quantification. It is well-known that such operators can be defined in such a type theory. Russell indicated how to make some of the definitions [18], and most of the rest can be found in Prawitz [17].

- Let \perp be the formula $\forall q.q$.
- Let \neg be the term $\lambda p.p \rightarrow \perp$ of type oo .
- Let \wedge be the term $\lambda pq.\forall r.(p \rightarrow q \rightarrow r) \rightarrow r$ of type ooo .
- Let \vee be the term $\lambda pq.\forall r.(p \rightarrow r) \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r) \rightarrow r$ of type ooo .
- Let \equiv be the term $\lambda pq.\wedge (p \rightarrow q)(q \rightarrow p)$ of type ooo .

We use infix notation for \wedge , \vee and \equiv . We assume application and \in bind more tightly than \wedge , \wedge binds more tightly than \vee , \vee binds more tightly than \rightarrow , and \rightarrow binds more tightly than \equiv . We also write $s \notin t$ for $\neg(s \in t)$ and assume \notin has the same binding strength as \in .

Equality can be defined at every type, but we will only need it at the base type ι .

- Let $=$ be the term $\lambda xy.\forall p.px \rightarrow py$ of type ιo .

We use infix notation for $=$, and assume $=$ has the same binding strength as \in . We also write $s \neq t$ for $\neg(s = t)$.

Existential quantification can also be defined at every type. We will only need it at two types: ι and $\iota\iota$.

- Let \mathbf{E} be the term $\lambda q.\forall p.(\forall x.qx \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$ of type $(\iota o)o$.
- Let \mathbf{E}^F be the term $\lambda Q.\forall p.(\forall F.QF \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p$ of type $((\iota)o)o$.

We write $\exists x.s$ for $\mathbf{E}(\lambda x.s)$ when $x \in \mathcal{V}_\iota$ and for $\mathbf{E}^F(\lambda x.s)$ when $x \in \mathcal{V}_\iota$. We also define unique existential quantification at type ι .

- Let $\mathbf{E}^!$ be the term $\lambda q.(\exists x.qx) \wedge \forall xy.qx \rightarrow qy \rightarrow x = y$.

We write $\exists!x.s$ for $\mathbf{E}^!(\lambda x.s)$.

- Let \subseteq be the term $\lambda XY.\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow x \in Y$ of type ιo .

We use infix notation for \subseteq , and assume \subseteq has the same binding strength as \in and $=$.

We can now state the axioms of our intuitionistic simply typed set theory. We give the axioms as a context Γ_a consisting of the following formulas:

- (Description) $\forall P.(\exists!x.Px) \rightarrow P(\mathbf{d}P)$
- (Extensionality) $\forall XY.X \subseteq Y \rightarrow Y \subseteq X \rightarrow X = Y$
- (\in -Induction) $\forall P.(\forall X.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Px) \rightarrow PX) \rightarrow \forall X.PX$
- (Empty) $\neg \exists x.x \in \emptyset$
- (Union) $\forall Xx.x \in \bigcup X \equiv \exists Y.x \in Y \wedge Y \in X$
- (Power) $\forall XY.Y \in \wp X \equiv Y \subseteq X$
- (Separation) $\forall XPx.x \in \{z \in X | Pz\} \equiv x \in X \wedge Px$
- (Replacement) $\forall XFy.y \in \{Fz | z \in X\} \equiv \exists x.x \in X \wedge y = Fx$

We refer to the theory given by Γ_a as $\text{IZF}_\omega^{-\infty}$. The subscript indicates the use of simple type theory (a form of higher-order logic). The superscript indicates that the axiom of infinity is omitted. We say a formula s is a *theorem of* $\text{IZF}_\omega^{-\infty}$ if $\Gamma_a \vdash s$ holds.

From now on, we will only be concerned with theorems of $\text{IZF}_\omega^{-\infty}$. We will state them as formulas, but the intended meta-theorem is that the given formula is a theorem of $\text{IZF}_\omega^{-\infty}$. We will describe the interesting proofs informally, but all the proofs have been formalized in Coq in a way that corresponds to proofs in $\text{IZF}_\omega^{-\infty}$.

The following lemma gives a few theorems which the reader may easily verify.

Lemma 2.1. *We have the following.*

$$\forall X.\emptyset \subseteq X \quad \forall X.\emptyset \in \wp X \quad \forall X.X \in \wp X \quad \forall F.\{Fx | x \in \emptyset\} = \emptyset$$

$$\forall XFG.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx = Gx) \rightarrow \{Fx | x \in X\} = \{Gx | x \in X\}$$

3. BASIC DEFINITIONS AND RESULTS

Now that we have fixed the set theory in question, we make a few basic definitions and indicate a few basic theorems which will be needed in the rest of the paper. In particular, we will define unordered pairs, singletons, binary unions, set difference and unions of families of sets. Also, we give the natural numbers as finite ordinals.

Zermelo included unordered pairs among the axioms of his original set theory [22]. However, once one adds Fraenkel's Replacement Axiom, unordered pairs can be defined. Zermelo points this out in [23]. Suppes gives the easy proof in [20] and Paulson formalized the proof in Isabelle/ZF [16]. The proof in classical ZF constructs the ordered pair $\{y, z\}$ by applying replacement with the two element set $\wp(\wp\emptyset)$ and a function mapping

\emptyset to y and $\wp\emptyset$ to z . The proof is not quite as easy in $\text{IZF}_\omega^{-\infty}$, but is still within reach. First, let \mathbf{T} be

$$\{X \in \wp(\wp\emptyset) \mid \emptyset \in X \vee \emptyset \notin X\}.$$

It is easy to prove both \emptyset and $\wp\emptyset$ are elements of this set. Consider the term

$$t_X := \lambda w. \forall p. (\emptyset \notin X \rightarrow py) \rightarrow (\emptyset \in X \rightarrow pz) \rightarrow pw$$

of type $\iota\omega$. If $\emptyset \notin X$, then y is the unique w such that $t_X w$. If $\emptyset \in X$, then z is the unique w such that $t_X w$. Let F be the term $\lambda X. dt_X$ of type ω . By the description axiom, $\emptyset \notin X \rightarrow FX = y$ and $\emptyset \in X \rightarrow FX = z$. Consequently, $\{FX \mid X \in \mathbf{T}\}$ is a set that contains precisely y and z , as desired. Putting this together (and β -reducing), we define \mathbf{U} to be the term

$$\lambda yz. \{d(\lambda w. \forall p. (\emptyset \notin X \rightarrow py) \rightarrow (\emptyset \in X \rightarrow pz) \rightarrow pw) \mid X \in \mathbf{T}\}$$

of type $\omega\omega$. We write $\{s, t\}$ for the term $\mathbf{U}st$. Formalizing the argument above, one can prove $\forall xyz. x \in \{y, z\} \equiv x = y \vee x = z$.

Once one has unordered pairs, singletons $\{s\}$ can be taken to mean $\{s, s\}$. Unordered pairs also allow us to define binary unions. We take $s \cup t$ to mean $\bigcup\{s, t\}$, and assume \cup binds more tightly than \in . Set difference is definable from separation. Let \mathbf{M} be $\lambda XY. \{x \in X \mid x \notin Y\}$. We write $s \setminus t$ for $\mathbf{M}st$ and assume \setminus binds as tightly as \cup .

We can also describe a union of a family of sets. Let \mathbf{F} be

$$\lambda XF. \bigcup\{Fx \mid x \in X\}$$

of type $\iota(\omega)\iota$. We write $\bigcup_{x \in s} t$ for terms of the form $\mathbf{F}s(\lambda x. t)$ and treat this notation as a binder that binds x and whose scope is as far to the right as possible. Let $y \in \mathcal{V}_\iota$. It is easy to prove the theorem $\forall XFy. y \in (\bigcup_{x \in X} Fx) \equiv \exists x. x \in X \wedge y \in Fx$.

We now describe the finite ordinals. We take 0 to be \emptyset , as usual. The ordinal successor of a set X is taken to be $X \cup \{X\}$. To this end, let s^+ be notation for the term $s \cup \{s\}$. We assume the postfix $^+$ notation binds more tightly than all other notation. We take 1 to be 0^+ and take 2 to be 1^+ . One can easily prove $1 = \{0\}$ and $2 = \{0, 1\}$, as expected.

Using the higher-order aspects of the logic, we can define the natural numbers as the least predicate containing 0 and closed under ordinal successor. (Of course, we would need an axiom of infinity to obtain a *set* of natural numbers, but we do not need such a set.) Let \mathbf{N} be the term $\lambda n. \forall p. p0 \rightarrow (\forall n. pn \rightarrow pn^+) \rightarrow pn$ of type $\iota\omega$. As expected, formulas such as $\mathbf{N}0$ and $\forall n. \mathbf{N}n \rightarrow \mathbf{N}n^+$ are provable. Also, one can prove formulas corresponding to induction and complete induction. Members of finite ordinals are finite ordinals: $\forall n. \mathbf{N}n \rightarrow \forall m. m \in n \rightarrow \mathbf{N}m$. One can also prove $m \in n \vee m \notin n$ for finite ordinals m and n : $\forall n. \mathbf{N}n \rightarrow \forall m. \mathbf{N}m \rightarrow m \in n \vee m \notin n$.

We next describe definitions by \in -recursion. Such definitions are justified by the axiom of \in -induction. Suppose Φ is of type $\iota(\omega)\iota$. Let \mathbf{C}_Φ be the formula

$$\forall XFG. (\forall x. x \in X \rightarrow Fx = Gx) \rightarrow \Phi XF = \Phi XG.$$

If \mathbf{C}_Φ , then the value ΦXF depends only on X and the values Fx for $x \in X$. Under this condition, Φ can be used to define a (meta-level) function $\mathbf{R}\Phi$ such that

$$\forall X. \mathbf{R}\Phi X = \Phi X(\lambda x. \mathbf{R}\Phi x).$$

Since we are working in a higher-order logic, we can define such an operator \mathbf{R} of type $(\iota(\iota)\iota)\iota\iota$ without too much trouble. First let \mathbf{G} of type $(\iota(\iota)\iota)\iota\iota\iota$ be

$$\lambda\Phi XY.\forall R.(\forall XF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Rx(Fx)) \rightarrow RX(\Phi XF)) \rightarrow RXY.$$

The term $\mathbf{G}\Phi$ corresponds to the least relation R such that if $\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Rx(Fx)$, then $RX(\Phi XF)$.² We will prove that $\mathbf{G}\Phi$ is the graph of the function $\mathbf{R}\Phi$ we want to define. This justifies defining \mathbf{R} to be the term $\lambda\Phi X.d(\mathbf{G}\Phi X)$.

Lemma 3.1. *We have the following.*

1. $\forall\Phi XF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx)) \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi X(\Phi XF)$
2. $\forall\Phi R.(\forall XF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx) \wedge Rx(Fx)) \rightarrow RX(\Phi XF)) \rightarrow \forall XY.\mathbf{G}\Phi XY \rightarrow RXY$
3. $\forall\Phi XY.\mathbf{G}\Phi XY \rightarrow \exists F.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx)) \wedge Y = \Phi XF$
4. $\forall\Phi.C_\Phi \rightarrow \forall XYZ.\mathbf{G}\Phi XY \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi XZ \rightarrow Y = Z$
5. $\forall\Phi.C_\Phi \rightarrow \forall X.\mathbf{G}\Phi X(\mathbf{R}\Phi X)$
6. $\forall\Phi.C_\Phi \rightarrow \forall X.\mathbf{G}\Phi X(\Phi X(\mathbf{R}\Phi))$

Proof.

1. This follows easily from the definition of \mathbf{G} .
2. This is an induction principle. Assume

$$(a) \quad (\forall XF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx) \wedge Rx(Fx)) \rightarrow RX(\Phi XF)).$$

Let \hat{R} be $\lambda XY.\mathbf{G}\Phi XY \wedge RXY$.

Claim: $\forall XF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \hat{R}x(Fx)) \rightarrow \hat{R}X(\Phi XF)$.

Proof: Let X and F be such that

$$(b) \quad \forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \hat{R}x(Fx).$$

We must prove $\hat{R}X(\Phi XF)$. We have $\mathbf{G}\Phi X(\Phi XF)$ by Part 1 and (b). We have $RX(\Phi XF)$ by (a) and (b). This proves the claim.

Now assume $\mathbf{G}\Phi XY$. By the definition of \mathbf{G} and the claim proven above, we know $\hat{R}XY$. Hence RXY .

3. Let \hat{R} be $\lambda XY.\exists F.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx)) \wedge Y = \Phi XF$. By Part 2 it suffices to prove

$$\forall XF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx) \wedge \hat{R}x(Fx)) \rightarrow \hat{R}X(\Phi XF).$$

Assume

$$(c) \quad \forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx) \wedge \hat{R}x(Fx).$$

In order to prove $\hat{R}X(\Phi XF)$, we use the witness F . Since $\Phi XF = \Phi XF$, it only remains to prove $\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx)$. This is immediate from (c).

4. Assume C_Φ . We prove

$$\forall XYZ.\mathbf{G}\Phi XY \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi XZ \rightarrow Y = Z$$

²The formalization of \in -recursion could be simplified in Coq by defining \mathbf{G} as an inductive predicate since Coq automatically generates and proves induction principles. We use the definition here to remain within simple type theory.

by \in -recursion. Assume

$$(d) \quad \forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \forall xyz.\mathbf{G}\Phi xy \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi xz \rightarrow y = z$$

and $\mathbf{G}\Phi XY$ and $\mathbf{G}\Phi XZ$. By Part 3 there is an F such that $\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Fx)$ and $Y = \Phi XF$. Also, there exists some G such that $\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(Gx)$ and $Z = \Phi XG$. Using (d) we know $\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx = Gx$. By \mathbf{C}_Φ we have $\Phi XF = \Phi XG$ and so $Y = Z$.

5. Assume \mathbf{C}_Φ . We prove $\forall X.\mathbf{G}\Phi X(\mathbf{R}\Phi X)$ by \in -recursion. Assume $\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow \mathbf{G}\Phi x(\mathbf{R}\Phi x)$. By Part 1 we have $\mathbf{G}\Phi X(\Phi X(\mathbf{R}\Phi))$. Combining this with Part 4 we know $\exists! Y.\mathbf{G}\Phi XY$. Inspecting the definition of \mathbf{R} we conclude $\mathbf{G}\Phi X(\mathbf{R}\Phi X)$ using the description axiom.
6. Part 6 follows easily from Parts 1 and 5. □

Theorem 3.1. $\forall \Phi.\mathbf{C}_\Phi \rightarrow \forall X.\mathbf{R}\Phi X = \Phi X(\mathbf{R}\Phi)$.

Proof. This follows from Parts 4, 5 and 6 of Lemma 3.1. □

Alternatively, one could define $\mathbf{G}\Phi$ to be a fixed point of the monotone operator

$$\lambda RXY.\exists F.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Rx(Fx)) \wedge Y = \Phi XF$$

using the Knaster-Tarski Fixed Point Theorem. Parts 1 and 3 of Lemma 3.1 follow from $\mathbf{G}\Phi$ being a fixed point of the operator. Once one has these parts, Parts 4, 5 and 6 of Lemma 3.1 follow as above.

4. SPECIFICATION OF PAIRS AND FUNCTIONS

We are now in a position to precisely state what we would like an implementation of pairs and functions to satisfy. For $s, t \in \Lambda_\iota$, we need a term (s, t) of type ι . This can be provided by a term \mathbf{P} of type $\iota\iota$ which constructs pairs (s, t) as $\mathbf{P}st$. Similarly, given a term $s \in \Lambda_\iota$ (corresponding to a set) and a term $t \in \Lambda_\iota$ (corresponding to a function from sets to sets), we would like to have a term $\mathbf{L}st$ of type ι that encodes the function t when restricted to the set s . This can be given by a term \mathbf{L} of type $\iota(\iota)\iota$. We use the λ -binder to have the binder notation $\lambda x \in s.t$ for terms of the form $\mathbf{L}s(\lambda x.t)$. One can distinguish the set theory level λ from the type theory level λ by the presence or absence of \in after the bound variable. The basic correctness property for pairing is

$$\forall xywz.(x, y) = (w, z) \equiv x = w \wedge y = z.$$

Similarly, the basic correctness property for \mathbf{L} is

$$\forall XFG.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx = Gx) \equiv (\lambda x \in X.Fx) = \lambda x \in X.Gx.$$

We must choose \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{L} so that these formulas will be theorems.

Note that we will now have two kinds of functions: functions at the level of the type theory are of type $\sigma\tau$ and functions at the level of the set theory are of type ι . Because of this distinction in the types, no confusion should arise. We will exclusively use F and G to range over variables of type ι and f to range over variables of type ι . Note that the operator \mathbf{L} takes a set X and a type theory level function F and returns the set theory level function $\lambda x \in X.Fx$.

In principle this is enough to say we have an encoding of pairs and functions. However, typically we also want to consider *sets* of pairs and functions. We specify this for the dependent case. We want terms Σ and Π of type $\iota(\iota)\iota$. We use binder notation $\Sigma x \in s.t$ for terms of the form $\Sigma s(\lambda x.t)$ and use binder notation $\Pi x \in s.t$ for terms of the form $\Pi s(\lambda x.t)$. Intuitively, $\Sigma x \in s.t$ should be the set of pairs (x, y) where $x \in s$ and $y \in t$ (and t may depend on x). Likewise, $\Pi x \in s.t$ should be the set of functions f taking each $x \in s$ to an element of t (and where the intended domain of f is the set s). We require $\forall XYz.z \in (\Sigma x \in X.Yx) \equiv \exists x.x \in X \wedge \exists y.y \in Yx \wedge z = (x, y)$ and $\forall XYf.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \equiv \exists F.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx \in Yx) \wedge f = \lambda x \in X.Fx$ to be theorems. When $x \notin \mathcal{F}t$, we write $s \times t$ for $\Sigma x \in s.t$ and we write t^s for $\Pi x \in s.t$.

A practical implementation of functions should include an operator for applying a function to an argument. This will be a term \mathbf{A} of type $\iota\iota$. A term $\mathbf{A}st$ corresponds to applying the object-level function to argument t . (For now, let us assume s corresponds to an object-level function and t corresponds to a member of its intended domain.) As usual, we would like to have an infix notation for $\mathbf{A}st$. Since s has type ι (and hence does not have a function type), there is no ambiguity in writing st for $\mathbf{A}st$. We have two basic correctness criteria for application. The first corresponds to β -reduction:

$$\forall XFx.x \in X \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x = Fx.$$

The second has the form of a common typing rule in dependent type theory:

$$\forall XYfx.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \rightarrow x \in X \rightarrow fx \in Yx.$$

We now extend the specification to include extra properties of pairs and functions. Since the intention is that pairs (s, t) are actually functions with domain 2, we require $\forall F.(\lambda x \in 2.Fx) = (F0, F1)$. In addition, we will fix the behavior of application when used outside the domain of an object-level function by using 0 as a default value and requiring $\forall XFx.x \notin X \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x = 0$.

Finally, we will also require that the set $\wp 1$ satisfies certain closure properties. These properties were, in fact, the original motivation for considering alternative representations for pairs and functions. A common way to give a set theoretic (proof irrelevant) semantics for a type theory with an impredicative universe \mathbf{Prop} of propositions is to interpret \mathbf{Prop} as $\wp 1$.³ Since $\wp 1$ is not closed under function spaces when representing functions as graphs, Aczel [1] introduced an alternative representation so that $\wp 1$ is closed under function spaces. We will require $\wp 1$ to be closed under function spaces (where the codomain is in $\wp 1$) and closed under sets of pairs (where the sets containing both components are in $\wp 1$).

All the requirements of the specification are summarized in Figure 2. The last two formulas are the formal versions of closure requirements for $\wp 1$.

If we assume the properties of the specification, then a number of theorems are provable. For example, $\forall X.X \times X = X^2$, $\forall xy.(x, y)0 = x$ and $\forall xy.(x, y)1 = y$ are provable from the specification.

³Note that under classical assumptions, $\wp 1$ is simply 2, in which case 2 has two ‘‘propositions’’ – 0 (false) and 1 (true).

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{P} \in \Lambda_{\iota\iota} \quad \mathbf{L} \in \Lambda_{\iota(\iota)\iota} \quad \mathbf{A} \in \Lambda_{\iota\iota} \quad \mathbf{\Sigma} \in \Lambda_{\iota(\iota)\iota} \quad \mathbf{\Pi} \in \Lambda_{\iota(\iota)\iota} \quad (s, t) := \mathbf{P}st \\
\lambda x \in s.t := \mathbf{L}s(\lambda x.t) \quad st := \mathbf{A}st \quad \Sigma x \in s.t := \mathbf{\Sigma}s(\lambda x.t) \\
s \times t := \Sigma x \in s.t \text{ (if } x \notin \mathcal{F}t) \quad \Pi x \in s.t := \mathbf{\Pi}s(\lambda x.t) \quad t^s := \Pi x \in s.t \text{ (if } x \notin \mathcal{F}t) \\
\forall xywz.(x, y) = (w, z) \equiv x = w \wedge y = z \\
\forall XFG.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx = Gx) \equiv (\lambda x \in X.Fx) = \lambda x \in X.Gx \\
\forall XYz.z \in (\Sigma x \in X.Yx) \equiv \exists x.x \in X \wedge \exists y.y \in Yx \wedge z = (x, y) \\
\forall XYf.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \equiv \exists F.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx \in Yx) \wedge f = \lambda x \in X.Fx \\
\forall XFx.x \in X \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x = Fx \\
\forall XYfx.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \rightarrow x \in X \rightarrow fx \in Yx \quad \forall F.(\lambda x \in 2.Fx) = (F0, F1) \\
\forall XFx.x \notin X \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x = 0 \\
\forall XY.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Yx \in \wp 1) \rightarrow (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \in \wp 1 \\
\forall X.X \in \wp 1 \rightarrow \forall Y.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Yx \in \wp 1) \rightarrow (\Sigma x \in X.Yx) \in \wp 1
\end{aligned}$$

FIGURE 2. Specification of Pairs and Functions

5. PAIRS AS DISJOINT UNIONS

We will define the pair (X, Y) so that

$$(X, Y) = \{(0, x) | x \in X\} \cup \{(1, y) | y \in Y\}.$$

That is, we will define pairing via disjoint union. Of course, this cannot be the definition since it already makes use of pairing. To avoid circularity, we use \in -recursion to define a function \mathbf{I}_1 . We will later prove (after defining pairing) that $\mathbf{I}_1 y = (1, y)$. From \mathbf{I}_1 we can easily define a function \mathbf{I}_0 which will later have the property $\mathbf{I}_0 x = (0, x)$. Once we have \mathbf{I}_1 and \mathbf{I}_0 , we can define pairing as $\{\mathbf{I}_0 x | x \in X\} \cup \{\mathbf{I}_1 y | y \in Y\}$.

We define \mathbf{I}_1 by \in -recursion as on operator that recursively adjoins 0. Let \mathbf{I}_1 be the term $\mathbf{R}(\lambda XF.\{0\} \cup \{Fx | x \in X\})$ of type ι .

Lemma 5.1. $\forall X.\mathbf{I}_1 X = \{0\} \cup \{\mathbf{I}_1 x | x \in X\}$

Proof. This follows from Theorem 3.1 and Lemma 2.1. \square

Let \mathbf{I}_0 be the term $\{\mathbf{I}_1 x | x \in X\}$ of type ι .

We will need to know \mathbf{I}_0 and \mathbf{I}_1 are injective. To this end, we define a one-sided inverse \mathbf{I}^- by \in -recursion. The function \mathbf{I}^- will be a one-sided inverse to both \mathbf{I}_0 and \mathbf{I}_1 simultaneously. Let \mathbf{I}^- be the term $\mathbf{R}(\lambda XF.\{Fx | x \in X \setminus \{0\}\})$.

Lemma 5.2. $\forall X.\mathbf{I}^- X = \{\mathbf{I}^- x | x \in X \setminus \{0\}\}$

Proof. This follows from Theorem 3.1 and Lemma 2.1. \square

Lemma 5.3. *We have $\forall X.\mathbf{I}^-(\mathbf{I}_0X) = X$ and $\forall X.\mathbf{I}^-(\mathbf{I}_1X) = X$.*

Proof. The proof of $\forall X.\mathbf{I}^-(\mathbf{I}_1X) = X$ is by \in -induction using Lemmas 5.1 and 5.2. The proof of $\forall X.\mathbf{I}^-(\mathbf{I}_0X) = X$ uses $\forall X.\mathbf{I}^-(\mathbf{I}_1X) = X$, the definition of \mathbf{I}_0 and Lemma 5.2. \square

From Lemma 5.3 we can conclude that \mathbf{I}_0 and \mathbf{I}_1 are injective functions, as desired. We also want to prove that \mathbf{I}_0 and \mathbf{I}_1 have disjoint images.

Lemma 5.4. $\forall XY.\mathbf{I}_0X \neq \mathbf{I}_1Y$

Proof. It is easy to prove $0 \in \mathbf{I}_1Y$ and $0 \notin \mathbf{I}_0X$. \square

Before moving on to pairs, we establish the following simple result.

Lemma 5.5. $\mathbf{I}_00 = 0$

Proof. This follows immediately from Lemma 2.1 and the definition of \mathbf{I}_0 . \square

We now define pairing. Let \mathbf{P} be the term

$$\lambda XY.\{\mathbf{I}_0x|x \in X\} \cup \{\mathbf{I}_1y|y \in Y\}$$

of type uu . We write (s, t) as notation for the term $\mathbf{P}st$. A number of results follow easily from the lemma above and the definition of \mathbf{P} .

Lemma 5.6. $(0, 0) = 0$, $\forall x.\mathbf{I}_0x = (0, x)$ and $\forall x.\mathbf{I}_1x = (1, x)$.

Due to the equations in Lemma 5.6 we no longer need to consider the functions \mathbf{I}_0 and \mathbf{I}_1 . (This is why \mathbf{I}_0 and \mathbf{I}_1 were not included in the specification in Section 4.) In fact, we can characterize the set encoding the pair as originally intended.

Lemma 5.7.

$$\forall XYz.z \in (X, Y) \equiv (\exists x.x \in X \wedge z = (0, x)) \vee (\exists y.y \in Y \wedge (1, y))$$

Using Lemma 5.7 it is easy to prove the following.

Lemma 5.8. *We have the following.*

$$\forall xy.(0, x) = (0, y) \rightarrow x = y$$

$$\forall xy.(1, x) = (1, y) \rightarrow x = y$$

$$\forall xy.(0, x) \neq (1, y)$$

Using Lemmas 5.7 and 5.8 we obtain Lemma 5.9.

Lemma 5.9. *We have the following.*

$$\forall XYx.(0, x) \in (X, Y) \rightarrow x \in X$$

$$\forall XYy.(1, y) \in (X, Y) \rightarrow y \in Y$$

$$\forall xywz.(x, y) \subseteq (w, z) \rightarrow x \subseteq w$$

$$\forall xywz.(x, y) \subseteq (w, z) \rightarrow y \subseteq z$$

From Lemma 5.9 we can easily prove the following theorem.

Theorem 5.1. $\forall xywz.(x, y) = (w, z) \equiv x = w \wedge y = z.$

Note that Theorem 5.1 corresponds to the first required property in Figure 2.

6. ACZEL REPRESENTATION OF FUNCTIONS

We now turn to the representation of functions. Given X of type ι and a function F of type μ , we will define a set $\lambda x \in X.Fx$ of type ι which will represent the corresponding set theory level function. As a set, $\lambda x \in X.Fx$ will contain precisely the pairs (x, y) where $y \in Fx$. We define \mathbf{L} to be the term

$$\lambda XF. \bigcup_{x \in X} \{(x, y) | y \in Fx\}$$

of type $\iota(\mu)\iota$. We write $\lambda x \in s.t$ as notation for the term $\mathbf{L}s(\lambda x.t)$. The following lemma is clear from the definition.

Lemma 6.1. $\forall XFz.z \in (\lambda x \in X.Fx) \equiv \exists x.x \in X \wedge \exists y.y \in Fx \wedge z = (x, y).$

Using Lemma 6.1 and Theorem 5.1 we have the following.

Lemma 6.2. $\forall XFxy.(x, y) \in (\lambda x \in X.Fx) \equiv x \in X \wedge y \in Fx.$

We next define an application operator \mathbf{A} . Given an object level function f and a potential argument x , $\mathbf{A}fx$ should be the set of all y such that $(x, y) \in f$. Let \mathbf{A} be the term

$$\lambda fx.\{d(\lambda y.z = (x, y)) | z \in \{z \in f | \exists y.z = (x, y)\}\}$$

of type $\mu\mu$. We write st as notation for $\mathbf{A}st$ when s and t are terms of type ι .

Lemma 6.3. $\forall fxy.y \in fx \equiv (x, y) \in f.$

Proof. Note that fx is notation for $\mathbf{A}fx$. Let f and x be given. By the axiom of description and Theorem 5.1, we know $\forall y.(x, y) = (x, d(\lambda w.(x, y) = (x, w)))$ and so

$$(e) \quad \forall y.d(\lambda w.(x, y) = (x, w)) = y.$$

We now prove $\forall y.y \in fx \equiv (x, y) \in f$.

Suppose $y \in fx$. By the definition of \mathbf{A} and the axioms of separation and replacement, there must be some z and v such that $z \in f$, $z = (x, v)$ and $y = d(\lambda y.z = (x, y))$. Hence $y = d(\lambda y.(x, v) = (x, y))$ and so $y = v$ by (e). Since $z \in f$ and $z = (x, v)$, we conclude $(x, y) \in f$.

Suppose $(x, y) \in f$. Clearly $(x, y) \in \{z \in f | \exists w.(x, y) = (x, w)\}$ by separation. Hence $d(\lambda w.(x, y) = (x, w)) \in fx$ by replacement. By (e) we know $y \in fx$. \square

We now have the infrastructure to prove more properties from Figure 2.

Theorem 6.1. *We have $\forall XFx.x \in X \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x = Fx$. Furthermore, we have $\forall XFx.x \notin X \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x = 0$.*

Proof. By Lemmas 6.2 and 6.3, $y \in (\lambda x \in X.Fx)x$ if and only if $(x, y) \in (\lambda x \in X.Fx)$ if and only if $x \in X \wedge y \in Fx$. This suffices to prove both results. \square

Theorem 6.2. $\forall XFG.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx = Gx) \equiv (\lambda x \in X.Fx) = \lambda x \in X.Gx.$

Proof. Lemma 6.1 implies one direction. Theorem 6.1 implies the other. \square

We can now prove that functions from 2 are ordered pairs.

Theorem 6.3. $\forall F.(\lambda z \in 2.Fz) = (F0, F1)$.

Proof. Assume $u \in (\lambda z \in 2.Fz)$. By Lemma 6.1 there exist $z \in 2$ and $y \in Fz$ such that $u = (z, y)$. Either $z = 0$ or $z = 1$. In either case $u \in (F0, F1)$ by Lemma 5.7. Assume $u \in (F0, F1)$. By Lemma 5.7, either $u = (0, x)$ for some $x \in F0$ or $u = (1, y)$ for some $y \in F1$. In either case $u \in (\lambda z \in 2.Fz)$ by Lemma 6.1. \square

We also prove application to 0 and 1 operate as projections on pairs as expected.

Theorem 6.4. *We have the following.*

$$\begin{aligned}\forall xy.(x, y)0 &= x \\ \forall xy.(x, y)1 &= y \\ \forall xyi.i \notin 2 \rightarrow (x, y)i &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Proof. The first two results follow from Lemmas 5.7, 5.9 and 6.3. For the last result, assume $z \in (x, y)i$. By Lemma 6.3 $(i, z) \in (x, y)$ and so $i \in 2$ by Lemma 5.7. \square

7. SUMS AND PRODUCTS

Defining dependent sums (sets of pairs) is trivial. Let Σ be \mathbf{L} . We write $\Sigma x \in s.t$ as notation for $\Sigma s(\lambda x.t)$. Note that $\Sigma x \in s.t$ is the same term as $\lambda x \in s.t$. Lemma 6.1 can now be written as

$$\forall XFz.z \in (\Sigma x \in X.Fx) \equiv \exists x.x \in X \wedge \exists y.y \in Fx \wedge z = (x, y)$$

justifying the property of Σ specified in Figure 2. Lemma 5.6 implies $\wp 1$ is closed under Σ :

$$\forall X.X \in \wp 1 \rightarrow \forall Y.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Yx \in \wp 1) \rightarrow (\Sigma x \in X.Yx) \in \wp 1.$$

Defining dependent products (sets of functions) is not quite as easy, but does not require new ideas. Let Π be the term

$$\lambda XY.\{f \in \wp(\Sigma x \in X. \bigcup(Yx)) \mid \forall x.x \in X \rightarrow fx \in Yx\}$$

of type $\iota(\iota)\iota$. We write $\Pi x \in s.t$ for $\Pi s(\lambda x.t)$, or t^s when $x \notin \mathcal{F}t$. It is straightforward to verify the following (where $Y \in \mathcal{V}_\iota$).

$$\forall XYF.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx \in Yx) \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.Fx) \in \Pi x \in X.Yx$$

$$\forall XYfx.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \rightarrow x \in X \rightarrow fx \in Yx$$

$$\forall XYf.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \rightarrow (\lambda x \in X.fx) = f$$

$$\forall XYf.f \in (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \equiv \exists F.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Fx \in Yx) \wedge f = \lambda x \in X.Fx$$

$$\forall XY.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Yx \in \wp 1) \rightarrow (\Pi x \in X.Yx) \in \wp 1$$

Using Theorem 6.3 we have $\forall X.X \times X = X^2$, where $X \times X$ is $\Sigma x : X.X$, as expected.

8. MONOTONICITY

We additionally consider some monotonicity results which are provable in IZF_ω^- .

Since pairs are disjoint unions and disjoint union is monotone, it is no surprise that pairing is monotone.

$$\forall XYWZ.X \subseteq W \rightarrow Y \subseteq Z \rightarrow (X, Y) \subseteq (X, Z).$$

Sets of pairs are also monotone. This is also as one would expect. We express this as follows (where $Z, W \in \mathcal{V}_u$):

$$\forall XY.X \subseteq Y \rightarrow (\forall ZW.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Zx \subseteq Wx) \rightarrow (\Sigma x \in X.Zx) \subseteq \Sigma y \in Y.Wy)$$

We now turn to monotonicity results for sets of functions. First we have the following unsurprising monotonicity result (where $A, B \in \mathcal{V}_u$).

$$\forall XAB.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Ax \subseteq Bx) \rightarrow (\Pi x \in X.Ax) \subseteq \Pi x \in X.Bx$$

With the usual representation of functions as graphs, one does not expect to obtain $A^X \subseteq A^Y$ if $X \subseteq Y$. After all, if X is a proper subset of Y , then members of A^X will be *partial functions* from Y to A . Given the representation here, partial functions applied outside their domain will return 0. Hence if $0 \in A$, then clearly $X \subseteq Y$ implies $A^X \subseteq A^Y$ classically. To prove this intuitionistically, we will also need to assume that for members y of Y we have $y \in X \vee y \notin X$. The following monotonicity principle for Π is provable (where $A \in \mathcal{V}_u$).

$$\begin{aligned} \forall XYA.X \subseteq Y \rightarrow (\forall y.y \in Y \rightarrow y \in X \vee y \notin X) \\ \rightarrow (\forall y.y \in Y \rightarrow y \notin X \rightarrow 0 \in Ay) \rightarrow (\Pi x \in X.Ax) \subseteq \Pi y \in Y.Ay. \end{aligned}$$

For the simple case in which $A \in \mathcal{V}_i$ we have

$$\forall A.0 \in A \rightarrow \forall XY.X \subseteq Y \rightarrow (\forall y.y \in Y \rightarrow y \in X \vee y \notin X) \rightarrow A^X \subseteq A^Y.$$

We also have a monotonicity result for Π in which both the domain and codomain changes. Here $A, B \in \mathcal{V}_u$.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall XYAB.(\forall x.x \in X \rightarrow Ax \subseteq Bx) \rightarrow X \subseteq Y \rightarrow (\forall y.y \in Y \rightarrow y \in X \vee y \notin X) \\ \rightarrow (\forall y.y \in Y \rightarrow y \notin X \rightarrow 0 \in By) \rightarrow (\Pi x \in X.Ax) \subseteq \Pi y \in Y.By \end{aligned}$$

Also, we have a simpler version with $A, B \in \mathcal{V}_i$.

$$\forall XYAB.0 \in B \rightarrow A \subseteq B \rightarrow X \subseteq Y \rightarrow (\forall y.y \in Y \rightarrow y \in X \vee y \notin X) \rightarrow A^X \subseteq B^Y$$

Since we can prove $m \in n \vee m \notin n$ for finite ordinals, we in particular have

$$\forall A.0 \in A \rightarrow \forall n.\mathbf{N}n \rightarrow \forall m.m \in n \rightarrow A^m \subseteq A^n$$

Note that this means in particular that if $0 \in A$, then

$$A^2 \subseteq A^3 \subseteq A^4 \subseteq \dots$$

9. CONCLUSION

We have shown how one can define pairs and functions so that pairs are functions from 2 and the equation $X \times X = X^{\{0,1\}}$ holds. We conjecture that these representations of pairs and functions are more convenient in the context of formalized mathematics than the usual convention of taking pairs to be Kuratowski pairs and functions to be their graphs. For example, if u is a pair, it is common to write u_0 and u_1 for the two components. With the representation here, this subscript notation can simply be formalized as application of the function u to 0 or 1.

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