

# Type Theory

Lecture 1a: Crash course  $\lambda$ -calculus and natural deduction; Formulas-as-types

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# Outline

Untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus crash course

Natural Deduction

Formulas as Types

# $\lambda$ -abstraction

Defining a function

$$f(x) := x^2 + 2$$

$$f : x \mapsto x^2 + 2$$

$$g(x, y) := x^2 + y + 2$$

In  $\lambda$ -calculus we use  **$\lambda$ -abstraction**:

$$f := \lambda x. x^2 + 2$$

$$g := \lambda x. \lambda y. x^2 + y + 2$$

- ▶ distinguish between **term with a variable**  $x^2 + 2$  and the **function**  $\lambda x. x^2 + 2$  that sends  $x$  to  $x^2 + 2$ .
- ▶ make explicit which variables are abstracted over.
- ▶ clearly distinguish between free and bound (occurrences) of variables.

## Application

We have seen the functions  $f$  and  $g$ :

$$f := \lambda x. x^2 + 2$$

$$g := \lambda x. \lambda y. x^2 + y + 2$$

Application:

$$f(3) \quad \text{no!} \quad f\ 3 \quad \text{or} \quad f \cdot 3 \quad \text{or} \quad (f\ 3)$$

$\Rightarrow$  application is a **binary operator** which is usually not written.

Giving two arguments:

$$(g\ 3)\ 4 \quad \text{or just} \quad g\ 3\ 4$$

because we omit brackets by associating them to the left.

# Untyped $\lambda$ -calculus

Untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus = Variables +  $\lambda$ -abstraction + application

$$\Lambda ::= \text{Var} \mid (\Lambda \Lambda) \mid (\lambda \text{Var}.\Lambda)$$

## Notation

$MNP$  denotes  $(MN)P$  (so not  $M(NP)$ )

$\lambda xyz.M$  denotes  $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.M$  (or more precisely  $\lambda x.(\lambda y.(\lambda z.M))$ )

Examples:

- **I** :=  $\lambda x.x$
- **K** :=  $\lambda x y.x$
- **S** :=  $\lambda x y z.x z(y z)$
- $\omega$  :=  $\lambda x.x x$
- $\Omega$  :=  $\omega \omega$

## Computing with $\lambda$ -terms

Computation is done via the  $\beta$ -rule

$$(\lambda x. x^2 + 2) 3 \rightarrow_{\beta} 3^2 + 2$$

DEFINITION  $\beta$ -equality, written as  $=_{\beta}$  is the **equivalence relation** generated from the  **$\beta$ -reduction rule**:

$$\boxed{(\lambda x. M) P \rightarrow_{\beta} M[x := P]}$$

where  $M[x := P]$  denotes the **substitution** of  $P$  for all occurrences of  $x$  in  $M$ .

That  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  is a **term reduction** means that it is closed under the term-forming-operators. More precisely we have

$$\frac{M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'}{M P \rightarrow_{\beta} M' P} \quad \frac{P \rightarrow_{\beta} P'}{M P \rightarrow_{\beta} M P'} \quad \frac{M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'}{\lambda x. M \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x. M'}$$

## Examples

Remember  $\mathbf{I} := \lambda x.x$ ,  $\mathbf{K} := \lambda x y.x$ ,  $\mathbf{S} := \lambda x y z.x z(y z)$ ,  
 $\omega := \lambda x.x x$ ,  $\Omega := \omega \omega$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{I} P &\rightarrow_{\beta} P \\ \mathbf{K} P Q &\rightarrow_{\beta} \dots \rightarrow_{\beta} P \\ \Omega &\rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(\lambda x y.y x) P &\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y.y P \\ (\lambda x y.y x) y &\overset{??}{\rightarrow}_{\beta} \lambda y.y y\end{aligned}$$

No!

$\lambda y.M$  binds all occurrences of  $y$  in  $M$ . We cannot just substitute a term with a free  $y$  inside  $M$ .

## Free and bound variables, alpha-equivalence

- ▶  $\lambda y.M$  binds all occurrences of  $y$  in  $M$ .
- ▶ We distinguish **bound** variables and **free** variables in a term:  $BV(M)$  and  $FV(M)$ .  
(Better to say: bound and free **occurrences** of variables.)
- ▶ We consider terms **modulo renaming of bound variables** (also called “modulo  $\alpha$ -equality”):

$$\lambda x.M \equiv \lambda y.M[x := y]$$

if  $y$  does not occur in  $M$ .

A more precise definition of  $\rightarrow_\beta$ :

$$(\lambda x.M) P \rightarrow_\beta M[x := P]$$

where the substitution  $M[x := P]$  is defined by:

- (1) rename the bound variables in  $M$  that occur free in  $P$ , obtaining  $M'$ ;
- (2) replace all free occurrences of  $x$  in  $M'$  by  $P$ .

# Alpha equivalence

Two terms  $M, N$  are  $\alpha$ -equal,  $M \equiv N$ , in case they can be obtained from each other via **renaming bound variables**.

## EXAMPLES

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. x y \stackrel{??}{\equiv} \lambda y. \lambda x. y x$$

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. x y \stackrel{??}{\equiv} \lambda x. \lambda y. y x$$

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. x y \stackrel{??}{\equiv} \lambda x. \lambda y. y y$$

$$\lambda x. \lambda x. x x \stackrel{??}{\equiv} \lambda x. \lambda y. y y$$

## Multi-step reduction and $\beta$ -equality

- ▶  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  is the transitive reflexive closure of  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ .  
So  $M \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P$  iff  $M$   $\beta$ -reduces to  $P$  in 0 or more steps.
- ▶  $=_{\beta}$  is the transitive, reflexive, symmetric closure of  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ .  
So  $=_{\beta}$  is the least congruence obtained from  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ .

EXAMPLES of reductions:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{I} P \rightarrow_{\beta} P \\ \mathbf{K} P Q \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P \\ \mathbf{K I} P Q \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} Q \\ \mathbf{S K K} \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{I} \\ \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega \end{array}$$

## Is $\lambda$ -calculus consistent?

Why does  $\lambda$ -calculus “make sense”?

Could it be the case that  $M =_{\beta} P$  for all  $M, P$ ? (Then  $\lambda$ -calculus would be inconsistent...)

**THEOREM**  $\lambda$ -calculus satisfies the Church-Rosser property.

**COROLLARY**  $\mathbf{K} \neq_{\beta} \mathbf{I}$  and so  $\lambda$ -calculus is consistent.

# The computational power of $\lambda$ -calculus

Untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus is **Turing complete**

Its power lies in the fact that you can **solve recursive equations**:

Is there a term  $P$  such that

$$P x =_{\beta} x P x P?$$

Is there a term  $M$  such that

$$M x =_{\beta} \mathbf{if (Zero x) then 1 else Mult x (M (Pred x))}?$$

**Yes**, because we have a fixed point combinator:

-  $\mathbf{Y} := \lambda f. (\lambda x. f(x x))(\lambda x. f(x x))$

Property:

$$\mathbf{Y} f =_{\beta} f(\mathbf{Y} f)$$

## Untyped $\lambda$ -calculus (ctd.)

Solving recursive equations using the fixed point combinator:

- ▶ For  $M$  a  $\lambda$ -term,  $\mathbf{Y} M$  is a **fixed point** of  $M$ , that is

$$M(\mathbf{Y} M) =_{\beta} \mathbf{Y} M$$

- ▶ As a consequence, a question like “Is there a  $P$  such that  $P x =_{\beta} x P x P$  (for all  $x$ )?” can be answered affirmatively:

$$P x =_{\beta} x P x P$$

$\Uparrow$

$$P =_{\beta} \lambda x. x P x P$$

$\Uparrow$

$$P =_{\beta} (\lambda p x. x p x p) P$$

$\Uparrow$

$P$  is a fixed point of  $\lambda p x. x p x p$

$\Uparrow$

$$P := \mathbf{Y}(\lambda p. \lambda x. x p x p)$$

# Representing data in $\lambda$ -calculus

## Booleans

**true** :=  $\lambda x y. x$

**false** :=  $\lambda x y. y$

**if**  $M$  **then**  $P$  **else**  $Q$  :=  $M P Q$

## Natural Numbers via the so-called Church Numerals

$c_0$  :=  $\lambda f x. x$

$c_1$  :=  $\lambda f x. f x$

$c_2$  :=  $\lambda f x. f(f x)$

...

$c_n$  :=  $\lambda f x. f^n x$

$f^n x$  is an  $n$ -times application of  $f$  on  $x$ :  $\underbrace{f(f \dots (f x) \dots)}_{n \times}$

Then, e.g. **Succ** :=  $\lambda n f x. f(n f x)$

**Zero** :=  $\lambda n. n(\lambda y. \text{false}) \text{true}$

# Natural deduction for Proposition logic

The formulas are given by

$$\varphi ::= \text{At} \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \neg \varphi.$$

The **derivation rules** define how to derive a formula  $\varphi$  from a set of formulas  $\Gamma$ , notation

$$\Gamma \vdash \varphi$$

# Derivation rules

$$\frac{\varphi \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi} \text{ax}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, \varphi \vdash \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi} \rightarrow_i$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi \quad \Gamma \vdash \varphi}{\Gamma \vdash \psi} \rightarrow_e$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \vee \psi} \vee_{i1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \vee \psi} \vee_{i2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \vee \psi \quad \Gamma, \varphi \vdash \chi \quad \Gamma, \psi \vdash \chi}{\Gamma \vdash \chi} \vee_e$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \quad \Gamma \vdash \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \wedge \psi} \wedge_i$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \wedge \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi} \wedge_{e1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \wedge \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \psi} \wedge_{e2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, \varphi \vdash \psi \quad \Gamma, \varphi \vdash \neg \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \neg \varphi} \neg_i$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \neg \varphi \quad \Gamma \vdash \varphi}{\Gamma \vdash \psi} \neg_e$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg \varphi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi} \neg_{\text{class}}$$

# Derivation trees with $\Gamma$ as leaves

Just the  $\rightarrow$  and  $\vee$  cases:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} [\varphi]^{\ell} \\ \vdots \\ \psi \end{array}}{\varphi \rightarrow \psi} \rightarrow_i^{\ell}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{cc} \vdots & \vdots \\ \varphi \rightarrow \psi & \varphi \end{array}}{\psi} \rightarrow_e$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \varphi \end{array}}{\varphi \vee \psi} \vee_{i1}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \psi \end{array}}{\varphi \vee \psi} \vee_{i2}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{ccc} [\varphi]^k & & [\psi]^k \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \varphi \vee \psi & \chi & \chi \end{array}}{\chi} \vee_e^k$$

The  $k$  and  $\ell$  are labels to indicate which assumptions are being discharged at which rule application.

## Flag style deductions

Also known as **Fitch** style natural deduction: linear derivations with flags to delimit scope.

1		$\varphi$	
2		...	
3		...	
4		$\psi$	
5		$\varphi \rightarrow \psi$	$\rightarrow_i, 1, 4$
1		...	
2		...	
3		$\varphi \rightarrow \psi$	
4		...	
5		...	
6		$\varphi$	
7		...	
8		$\psi$	$\rightarrow_e, 3, 6$

A rule application refers to **line numbers** to make explicit which hypotheses are used in the rule.

## Example

Convention:  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$  denotes  $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$  etc.

1			$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$
2			$A \rightarrow B$
3			$A$
4			$B \rightarrow C$
5			$B$
6			$C$
7			$A \rightarrow C$
8			$(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$
9			$(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$

# Typed $\lambda$ calculus as the basis for a Proof Assistant

Typed  $\lambda$  calculus forms the basis for a variety of proof Assistants, e.g. Rocq (and Lean, Agda, Nuprl, Matita).

$\lambda$ -term	type
program	specification
proof	formula

Integrated system for proving and programming

## Types are not sets

Types are a bit like sets, but types give **syntactic information**, e.g.

$$3 + (7 \times 8)^5 : \text{nat}$$

whereas sets give **semantic information**, e.g.

$$3 \in \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+ (x^n + y^n \neq z^n)\}.$$

- ▶  $3 + (7 \times 8)^5$  is of type `nat` because 3, 7, 8 are natural numbers and  $\times$ ,  $+$  and power are operations on natural numbers.
- ▶  $3 \in \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+ (x^n + y^n \neq z^n)\}$  because there are no positive  $x, y, z$  such that  $x^3 + y^3 = z^3$ , which is an instance of **Fermat's last Theorem**, proved by Wiles.
- ▶ To establish that 3 is an element of the given set, we need a **proof**, we can't just read it off from the components of the statement.
- ▶ To establish  $3 + (7 \times 8)^5 : \text{nat}$  we don't need a proof but a simple **computation** (the "reading the type of of the term").

## Decidability of $:$ , undecidability of $\in$

- ▶ Membership is undecidable in set theory, as it requires a proof to establish  $a \in A$ .
- ▶ Type checking is decidable: Verifying whether  $M$  is of type  $A$  requires purely syntactic methods, which can be cast into a typing algorithm.

$$3 + (7 \times 8)^5 : \text{nat} \quad \text{versus} \quad \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^{-n} \in \mathbb{N}$$

# Formulas-as-Types embedding

Also called the **Curry-Howard embedding** or **Curry-Howard isomorphism**.

- ▶ Often it is not an isomorphism,
- ▶ Some of the original ideas stem from De Bruijn,
- ▶ The crucial part is more “proof-as-terms” than “formulas-as-types”, so **Curry-Howard-De-Bruijn proofs-as-terms embedding** might be a better name...but we won't use that

Question: Can we turn (e.g.)

$$\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+(x^n + y^n \neq z^n)\}$$

into a (syntactic) type, with decidable type checking?

Phrased differently: can we talk about this set as a “subtype of nat”?

## Formulas are also types; proofs are terms

$$\{n \in \text{nat} \mid \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+(x^n + y^n \neq z^n)\}$$

is a type.

Its terms are **pairs**  $\langle n, p \rangle$  where

- ▶  $n : \text{nat}$
- ▶  $p : \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+(x^n + y^n \neq z^n)$

So  $p$  is a proof, and we view the formula

$\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+(x^n + y^n \neq z^n)$  as the **type of its proofs**.

If we have **decidable proof checking**, then it is decidable whether a given pair  $\langle n, p \rangle$  is typable with the above type or not.

We summarize:

- ▶ proof checking = type checking,
- ▶ type checking is decidable (so proof checking is decidable),
- ▶ proof finding is not decidable (proof finding is required to check an  $\in$ -judgment).

# Formulas-as-types; proofs-as-terms

In the next lectures, we will make **formulas-as-types** and **proofs-as-terms** precise by illustrating it on various logics and type theories.

Questions?