



Introduction to Type Theory — Herman Geuvers

Lecture 1a: Polymorphic Type Theory
OPLSS 2026

1 Untyped lambda-calculus

λ -abstraction is a notation for functions. A term such as $x^2 + 2$ is an expression with a free variable, while $\lambda x. x^2 + 2$ is a function that binds that variable. Application is written by juxtaposition, associates to the left, and supports currying: $g\ 3\ 4$ means $(g\ 3)\ 4$.

The untyped calculus is generated by variables, applications, and abstractions:

$$\Lambda ::= Var \mid (\Lambda\ \Lambda) \mid (\lambda Var. \Lambda).$$

Standard combinators such as

$$I = \lambda x. x, \quad K = \lambda xy. x, \quad S = \lambda xyz. xz(yz), \quad \omega = \lambda x. xx, \quad \Omega = \omega\omega$$

illustrate identity, projection, application structure, self-application, and nontermination.

Computation is β -reduction:

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

The substitution operation must avoid variable capture. Before substituting P for x in M , one renames bound variables in M that also occur free in P . This is why $(\lambda xy. yx)y$ does not reduce naively to $\lambda y. yy$.

The α -equivalence examples have the following answers:

$\lambda x. \lambda y. xy \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y. \lambda x. yx$ is yes;

$\lambda x. \lambda y. xy \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda x. \lambda y. yx$ is no;

$\lambda x. \lambda y. xy \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda x. \lambda y. yy$ is no;

$\lambda x. \lambda x. xx \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda x. \lambda y. yy$ is yes.

A calculus is said to be inconsistent if it is possible to derive $M =_{\beta} P$ for every term M and P , just like an inconsistent logic can derive every formula (including false). The lambda-calculus is in fact consistent, and we can prove this using the fact that it satisfies the Church-Rosser property.

The Church-Rosser property states that if $M =_{\beta} N$ then there exists a term P such that $M \rightarrow_{\beta}^* P$ and $N \rightarrow_{\beta}^* P$. If the lambda-calculus was inconsistent, then we could derive $K =_{\beta} I$. Then, there

would be a term N such that $K \rightarrow_{\beta}^* N$ and $I \rightarrow_{\beta}^* P$, but this is impossible since K and I are normal forms and different. Thus, lambda-calculus is consistent.

Untyped lambda-calculus is nevertheless Turing complete because fixed-point combinators solve recursive equations. With

$$Y := \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)),$$

we have $Yf =_{\beta} f(Yf)$, so recursive definitions can be expressed without a built-in recursion construct.

2 Data as functions

Church encodings represent data by their eliminators. Booleans select a branch:

$$true := \lambda xy.x, \quad false := \lambda xy.y, \quad \text{if } M \text{ then } P \text{ else } Q := MPQ.$$

Church numerals encode n as “apply f to x exactly n times”:

$$c_0 = \lambda fx.x, \quad c_1 = \lambda fx.fx, \quad c_2 = \lambda fx.f(fx), \quad c_n = \lambda fx.f^n x.$$

The successor and zero-test functions can then be represented internally, for example $Succ := \lambda nfx.f(nfx)$.

3 Natural deduction

The propositional formulas are generated from atoms using \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow , and \neg . Natural deduction presents derivability $\Gamma \vdash \varphi$ by introduction and elimination rules. Tree-style proofs mark discharged assumptions by labels; Fitch-style proofs use flags to delimit the scope of temporary assumptions.

For implication, the introduction rule assumes φ , derives ψ , and discharges the assumption to derive $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$. The elimination rule is modus ponens. The example

$$(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$$

is proved by assuming $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, $A \rightarrow B$, and A , deriving $B \rightarrow C$ and B , then C , and discharging the assumptions in reverse order.

Double-negation elimination belongs to classical logic, not intuitionistic logic. As the \neg -class rule, it is deliberately not part of minimal or intuitionistic proof theory.

4 Formulas as types

Typed lambda-calculus supports the proof-assistant view of formulas-as-types:

λ -term	<i>type</i>
<i>program</i>	<i>specification</i>
<i>proof</i>	<i>formula</i>

Types are syntactic classifiers, not sets. Checking that $3 + (7 \times 8)^5$ has type *nat* is a syntactic computation; checking membership in a set such as a Fermat-style subset of \mathbb{N} requires a proof. Thus proof checking can be decidable even when proof finding is not.

Under the Curry-Howard-De Bruijn reading, formulas become types and proofs become terms. For a subtype-like expression

$$\{n : nat \mid \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}^+. x^n + y^n \neq z^n\},$$

a term is a pair $\langle n, p \rangle$ where $n : nat$ and p is a proof of the predicate at n . Thus, proof-checking is equivalent to type-checking, which is decidable. Proof-searching, on the other hand, corresponds to type inhabitation and is decidable for the simply typed lambda-calculus. However, it is very hard (PSPACE-complete). For second-order logic proof-searching even becomes undecidable. Later, we will see that this corresponds to the type inhabitation problem for System F being undecidable.

5 Examples of λ -abstraction

$$f := \lambda x. (x^2 + 2) \quad g := \lambda x. (\lambda y. (x^2 + y + 2))$$

A λ -abstraction is a term with a variable. We apply functions:

$$f \ 3 \quad x$$

The forms $f \ 3$, $(f \ 3)$, $(f \cdot 3)$ are the same; application is a binary operator.

$$(g \ 3) \ 4 \quad (\lambda x. (x^2 + 4 + 2)) \ 3 = 3^2 + 4 + 2 = 15$$

$g \ 3 \ 4$ associated to the left.

6 Backus–Naur Form

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

$$(MN)P \quad \checkmark \quad M(NP) \quad \times$$

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$$\lambda x y z. M \equiv \lambda x. (\lambda y. (\lambda z. M))$$

7 Combinators

$$I = \lambda x. x \quad K = \lambda x. \lambda y. x \quad S = \lambda x y z. x z (y z)$$

(S is a combinator.)

$$\omega := \lambda x. x x \quad \Omega := \omega \omega$$

8 Redex and β -reduction

A **redex** (reducible expression):

$$\underbrace{(\lambda x. x^2 + 2)}_{\text{redex}} \mathfrak{z}_{\text{redex}} \rightarrow_{\beta} 3^2 + 2$$

$=_{\beta}$ is the equivalence relation generated from the β -reduction rule.

$$(\lambda x. M) P \rightarrow_{\beta} M[P/x] \quad (\text{also written } M[x := P])$$

9 Compatible closure of β -reduction

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

$$I P \rightarrow_{\beta} P \quad K P Q \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow_{\beta} P \quad \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega$$

α -equality

$$\lambda x. M \equiv \lambda y. M[x := y] \quad (\text{modulo } \alpha\text{-equality})$$

α -equal: $M \equiv N$, written $M =_{\alpha} N$.

\rightarrow_{β} is the transitive reflexive closure of \rightarrow_{β} .

Proof strategy

Assume they are equal and show on β -reduction they reduce to different terms.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} M & =_{\alpha} & N \\ M P Q & =_{\alpha} & N P Q \\ \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \beta \\ I & & K \end{array}$$

Then $M =_{\alpha} N$.

Church–Rosser property

If $M =_{\beta} N$ then there is some Q with

$$M \rightarrow_{\beta} Q \quad \text{and} \quad N \rightarrow_{\beta} Q$$

(they have a common redex).

10 Simply Typed Lambda Calculus (λ^{\rightarrow})

$$\text{Typ} ::= \alpha \mid \beta \mid \alpha \rightarrow \beta \mid \beta \rightarrow \alpha \quad \text{Tvar} \mid \text{Typ} \rightarrow \text{Typ} \quad \Gamma \vdash M : A$$

Typing rules

$$\frac{x : A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash N : A}{\Gamma \vdash M N : B} \quad \frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash P : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:A. P : A \rightarrow B}$$

(Type checking is PSPACE-complete. Dependent type checking needs to terminate.)

Inferring types

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : ?_0 \rightarrow ?_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash N : ?}{\Gamma \vdash M N : ?_1} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P : A \quad \Gamma \vdash Q : B}{\Gamma \vdash \langle P, Q \rangle : A \times B}$$

(Conformant means it satisfies the Church–Rosser property.)

η -reduction

$$\lambda x. M x \rightarrow_{\eta} M \quad (\text{if } x \notin FV(M))$$

$$(\lambda x. M) P = M P$$

(As functions, they do the same.)

11 Combinator definitions and proof systems

$$M x =_{\beta} x M x ? \quad \text{factorial function}$$

Fixed-point (Y) combinator

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

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

Church numerals

$$c_0 := \lambda f. \lambda x. x \quad c_1 := \lambda f x. f x \quad \dots \quad c_n := \lambda f. \lambda x. f^n x$$

$$\lambda n f x. f (n f x)$$

A propositional logic

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

$$\frac{\Gamma, \varphi \vdash \psi}{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi} (i) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi \quad \Gamma \vdash \varphi}{\Gamma \vdash \psi} (e)$$

Exercises

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

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

Write your own type checker; write your own proof systems; get an answer.

(If an answer out of λ -calculus is received it will be unique, if the λ -term terminates.)

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- [2] R. Milner. *A Theory of Type Polymorphism in Programming*. Journal of Computer and System Sciences, 1978.