# Notes on the simply typed lambda calculus 

Peter Aczel<br>Manchester University

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## Introduction

The simply typed lambda calculus, of these notes, has types built up from atomic types using the function type operation that forms a new type $A \rightarrow B$ from types $A, B$. The calculus can be viewed as a refined version of the purely implicational fragment of intuitionistic logic. The refinement consists in using terms of the untyped lambda calculus to represent formal derivations of the logic.

These notes consist of three sections, the last one being on the simply typed lambda calculus. In that section I focus mainly on the Curry style version for function types, I call $S T T$, that consists of rules for typing terms of the untyped lambda calculus. The middle section is on the untyped lambda calculus itself while the first section is mainly on the three standard styles of inference system for intuitionistic implicational logic; the Hilbert style, the Natural deduction style and the Sequent calculus style.

The notes have been based on earlier notes for part of an M.Sc. course on type theory that I gave at Manchester University in the spring of 1997. Those notes were made available as 'working material' for the lectures on constructive type theory that I gave at the Summer school. The lectures aimed to give a presentation of the ideas of Martin-Löf's type theory using his 'meaning explanations' to justify the rules of inference. For this topic I suggest the references [6, 7, 8], where further references may be found. After the Summer School I became dissatisfied with the approach that I had taken, but did not have enough time to work out an approach that I was satisfied with. With the agreement of the editors I have prepared these notes for the proceedings.

The main purpose of the notes is to act as a tutorial introduction to the three topics it treats and their relationships with each other. The novice reader is advised to read the notes in conjunction with the use of a more thorough text such as [10] or [3], which have more detailed discussions and reference lists than are available here.

Almost all the material and its organisation is fairly standard, so that the expert will find little that is new here. But here are some distinctive features of my presentation.

1. In 1.1 I introduce a precise notion of inference system which is then used throughout the notes.
2. The untyped lambda calculus is motivated set theoretically by postulating an infinite set $U$ that is equal to the set $U^{U}$ of all unary functions on $U$. Of course this is impossible in classical axiomatic set theory. But I believe that it is consistent with an intuitionistic set theory in which non-well-founded sets are allowed, so that reasoning with such a set is not so unreasonable, at least for motivational purposes.
3. I use the method of proof introduced in [9] to prove the Church-Rosser theorem.
4. I set up a general framework for giving normalisation and strong normalisation proofs. This seems to me to be worthwhile, as there are now many proofs explicit or implicit in the literature. As there are now many type theories for which normalisation proofs can be found, and no doubt more to come, I think that efforts to systematise normalisation proofs for the simplest type theory will be useful.

## 1 Deduction

### 1.1 Inference Systems

### 1.1.1 The Definition

An inference system consists of

- a set of statements, $S, S^{\prime}, \ldots$
- a set of steps

$$
\frac{S_{1} \cdots S_{n}}{S}
$$

with $n \geq 0$ premisses $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ and conclusion $S$, these being statements. When $n=0$ then $S$ is an axiom.

Given an inference system a tree-proof is an upward growing finite tree, labelled with statements, such that at each node, labelled with a statement $S$ there is a step with conclusion $S$ whose premisses label the children of the node. A tree-proof is a tree-proof of $S$ if the statement $S$ labels the root of the tree. If $S$ has a tree-proof in an inference system $\Sigma$ then $S$ is a theorem of $\Sigma$, written $\Sigma \vdash S$, or just $\vdash S$ when $\Sigma$ is understood from the context.

## Exercises 1.1

1. Show that the theorems of an inference system form the smallest set $X$ of statements such that, for each step, if the premisses are in $X$ then so is the conclusion.
2. Show that the set of tree-proofs of an inference system form the smallest set $Y$ of finite trees labelled with statements such that for each step

$$
\frac{S_{1} \cdots S_{n}}{S}
$$

if $\tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n}$ are trees in $Y$ whose roots are labelled with $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ respectively then $\tau$ is a tree in $Y$, where $\tau$ is the finite tree whose root is labelled with $S$ that has the trees $\tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n}$ as immediate subtrees.
3. [Linear Proofs]

Given an inference system a linear proof of a statement $S$ is a finite sequence $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{m}$ of statements, with $S_{m}=S$, such that for $i=1, \ldots, m$ there is a step

$$
\frac{S_{i_{1}} \cdots S_{i_{n}}}{S_{i}}
$$

with $1 \leq i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}<i$.
Show that a statement is a theorem of the inference system iff it has a linear proof.

### 1.1.2 Adding extra axioms

If $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ are statements of an inference system $\Sigma$ then we write $\Sigma, S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ for the inference system obtained from $\Sigma$ by adding new axioms $S_{1}, \ldots S_{n}$; i.e. there are new steps

$$
\overline{S_{1}} \cdots \overline{S_{n}}
$$

If $\Sigma$ is understood then we just write

$$
S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n} \vdash S
$$

for $\Sigma, S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n} \vdash S$.

### 1.1.3 Semantics for Inference Systems

Often an inference system will have a semantics. For our purposes we will take a semantics for an inference system to be a collection of interpretations, $I$, each specifying the correct (or true) statements of the interpretation. We write $I \models S$ if $S$ is a correct statement of $I$. An interpretation is sound if, for every step, if the premisses are correct then so is the conclusion. A semantics is sound if every interpretation is sound.

Given a semantics for an inference system, we write

$$
S_{1}, \ldots S_{n} \models S
$$

if for every interpretation in which $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ are correct the statement $S$ is also correct. The semantics is complete if

$$
S_{1}, \ldots S_{n} \models S \text { implies } S_{1}, \ldots S_{n} \vdash S
$$

and is weakly complete if

$$
\vDash S \text { implies } \vdash S
$$

Note that we can formulate a notion of strong completeness by defining ' $X \vdash S$ ' and ' $X \models S$ ', where $X$ is a possibly infinite set of statements.

Exercise 1.2 Show that if a semantics is sound then

$$
S_{1}, \ldots S_{n} \vdash S \text { implies } S_{1}, \ldots S_{n} \models S
$$

### 1.1.4 Formal Systems

A formal system is an inference system for which there is a data type $T$ such that the following holds.

- Every statement can be represented by a value in $T$.
- There is an algorithm to determine whether or not a value in $T$ represents a statement.
- There is an algorithm to determine whether or not a pair of values of $T$ represent the same statement.
- there is an algorithm to determine whether or not a configuration

$$
\frac{v_{1} \cdots v_{n}}{v}
$$

of values in $T$ represents a step of the inference system.
Note the following facts

- Given a formal system there is an algorithm to determine whether or not a finite tree of values of the data type represents a proof-tree or not.
- If $\Sigma$ is a formal system then so is $\Sigma, S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$.


### 1.1.5 Rules of Inference

Usually the steps of an inference sytem are given by rules, each rule determining a set of steps called the instances of the rule. Often each rule is given schematically as a scheme; i.e. a configuration

$$
\frac{\theta_{1} \cdots \theta_{n}}{\theta}
$$

of expressions involving metavariables that can be substituted for. The instances of the rule are then obtained by suitably substituting for the metavariables. What is meant by a suitable substitution has to be specified by an implicit or explicit side condition of the scheme. An axiom scheme is a special case of a schematically given rule in which all instances are steps having no premisses, so that the conclusion of each instance is an axiom.

Often a formal system is given by finitely many schematic rules, each having a syntactically specified matching algorithm for deciding whether or not a configuration of data values is an instance of the rule; i.e. can be obtained from the scheme by a suitable substitution for the metavariables.

### 1.2 Intuitionistic Implication

We assume given a set of atomic formulae $A_{0}, \ldots$. The formulae are generated from the atomic formulae using the rule

$$
\frac{A_{1} A_{2}}{\left(A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}\right)}
$$

i.e. the rule that if $A_{1}, A_{2}$ are formulae then so is $\left(A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}\right)$.

## Abbreviation Conventions

1. Leave out outermost parentheses.
2. Associate to the right.
so, for example

$$
A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2} \rightarrow A_{3} \rightarrow A_{4}
$$

abbreviates

$$
\left(A_{1} \rightarrow\left(A_{2} \rightarrow\left(A_{3} \rightarrow A_{4}\right)\right)\right)
$$

### 1.2.1 A Hilbert-style formal system, $H$

We describe a formal system, $H$, whose statements are the formulae defined above. There are two axiom schemes (K), (S) and the rule of inference (MP) of Modus Ponens

## Axiom Schemes

(K) $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$.
(S) $(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$.
(MP) $\frac{A \rightarrow B \quad A}{B}$.
Each axiom scheme represents infinitely many instances; e.g. for each pair of formulae $A, B$ the formula $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$ is an instance of $(A x 1)$.

A tree-proof of $A \rightarrow A$ : Let $A$ be any formula and let $B$ be $A \rightarrow A$.

$$
\frac{\begin{array}{cc}
(S) & (K) \\
(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A) \xrightarrow{( })(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B & A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A \\
(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B & (M P)
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
(K) \\
\hline(M \rightarrow B
\end{array}(M P)}{\text { (A)B}}
$$

Note the conventions that we use to make the tree-proof more readable. Each leaf is given the name of the axiom scheme it is an instance of and each application of $(M P)$ has been named.

A linear proof of $A \rightarrow A$ : Again let $A$ be any formula and let $B$ be $A \rightarrow A$. Here is a linear proof consisting of five numbered formulae.

1. $(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$
2. $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$
3. $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$
4. $A \rightarrow B$
5. $B$

$$
\begin{equation*}
M P(3,4) \tag{1,2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note some obvious conventions used on the right hand side of each line to justify that line. Note also that both the tree-proof and the linear proof are schematic they apply uniformly to any formula $A$.

Exercise 1.3 (Deduction Theorem) Show that if $A_{1}, \ldots A_{n}, A \vdash B$ then $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \vdash$ $A \rightarrow B$. [This is a standard result whose proof method can be found in many textbooks on logic.]

### 1.2.2 Natural Deduction

The natural way to prove an implication $A \rightarrow B$ is to assume $A$ and try to deduce B , making use of the assumption $A$, when needed. Once $B$ has been successfully deduced from $A$ then we can infer $A \rightarrow B$. Notice that although $A$ was assumed, when trying to deduce $B$ the assumption of $A$ is dropped once the inference step has been made to get $A \rightarrow B$. This kind of inference step involves the discharge of the assumption $A$. This is a new idea, that is not part of the apparatus of inference systems we have been using so far. Nevertheless there is a convenient way to modify the notion of a tree-proof so as to allow for the discharge of assumptions.

In an inference system $\Sigma$ a tree-proof from assumptions $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ is simply a tree-proof in the inference system $\Sigma, S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ so that, at the leaves of the tree any of the assumptions $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ may appear as well as any axioms of $\Sigma$. In natural deduction tree-proofs we allow the possibility of discharging an assumption at an inference step. We will do this by labelling the occurrences of the assumption being discharged and at the same time labelling the inference step where the discharge happens with the same label. Of course the same label should not be used for different examples of assumption discharge in the same tree.

We can now describe the two rules for constructing $N D$ tree-proofs for Intuitionistic Implication.

The Introduction Rule for Implication, abbreviated $(\rightarrow I)$, states that given an $N D$ tree-proof $\tau$ of a formula $B$ we can form an $N D$ tree-proof of $A \rightarrow B$ having $A \rightarrow B$ at the root and having the tree $\tau$ as its only immediate subtree. But any undischarged occurrences of $A$ as an assumption in $\tau$ can become discharged in the new tree.

The Elimination Rule for Implication, abbreviated $(\rightarrow E)$, is simply the familiar modus ponens rule that we have called $(M P)$. These rules are written schematically as follows.

$$
(\rightarrow I) \begin{gathered}
{[A]} \\
\frac{B}{A \rightarrow B}
\end{gathered}(\rightarrow E) \frac{A \rightarrow B A}{B}
$$

Note that in $(\rightarrow I)$ the assumption $A$ has been placed in square brackets above $B$ to indicate that it may be assumed in the proof of $B$, but then discharged at the inference step.

Examples of $N D$ tree-proofs We give $N D$ tree-proofs of the axioms of our Hilbert-style formal system for Intuitionistic Implication.
(K)

$$
\frac{\frac{1}{A}}{A \rightarrow A}(\rightarrow I)(\rightarrow I)[1]
$$



Note the convention for labelling a discharged assumption with a natural number that also labels the step where the assumption gets discharged.

Examples of $N D$ linear proofs Here are two linear $N D$ proofs, where we have used some obvious conventions to indicate where an assumption is made and where it gets discharged.
(K)

| 1. | $A$ | $($ ass $)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. | $B$ | $($ ass $)$ |
| 3. | $B \rightarrow A$ | $(\rightarrow I)[2](1)$ |
| 4. | $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$ | $(\rightarrow I)[1](3)$ |

(S)

| 1. | $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ | $($ ass $)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. | $A \rightarrow B$ | $($ ass $)$ |
| 3. | $A$ | $($ ass $)$ |
| 4. | $B \rightarrow C$ | $(\rightarrow E)(1,3)$ |
| 5. | $B$ | $(\rightarrow E)(2,3)$ |
| 6. | $C$ | $(\rightarrow E)(4,5)$ |
| 7. | $A \rightarrow C$ | $(\rightarrow I)[3](6)$ |
| 8. | $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ | $(\rightarrow I)[2](7)$ |
| 9. | $(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ | $(\rightarrow I)[1](8)$ |

Proofs of $A \rightarrow A$

$$
\frac{1}{A}(\rightarrow I)[1]
$$

1. $A \quad$ (ass)
2. $\quad A \rightarrow A \quad(\rightarrow I)[1](1)$

### 1.2.3 Sequent Formulation, $N D$, of Natural Deduction

In this formulation of natural deduction the use of a special kind of tree-proof is replaced by the use of sequents as the statements of a formal system having standard Hilbert-style rules of inference. A sequent has the form

$$
\Gamma \mapsto A
$$

where $\Gamma$ is a finite sequence $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ of formulae and $A$ is a formula.
Note: In the literature other symbols are often used, instead of $\vdash>$; e.g. ' $\vdash$ ' or $' ~ \Rightarrow$ '. But these symbols are often also used in other ways, leading to ambiguity.

The formal system is specified by the axiom scheme (ass) and the two rules of inference $(\rightarrow I)$ and $(\rightarrow E)$.


Write $\Gamma \mapsto N_{D} A$ if $\Gamma \mapsto A$ is a theorem of this formal system; i.e. if $N D \vdash \Gamma \mapsto A$.
Theorem 1.4 $\Gamma \mapsto N_{N} A$ iff there is an $N D$ tree-proof of $A$, whose undischarged assumptions are all in $\Gamma$.

Write $\Gamma \vdash_{H} A$ if $\Gamma \vdash A$ in the Hilbert style inference system for Implication with the axiom schemes $(K),(S)$ and the rule $(M P)$.

Theorem 1.5 $\Gamma \mapsto{ }_{N D} A$ iff $\Gamma \vdash_{H} A$.
The result in the following exercise expresses that the structural rules of weakening, contraction and permutation are all admissible rules of $N D$.

Exercise 1.6 Show that if every formula in $\Gamma$ also occurs in $\Gamma^{\prime}$ then

$$
\Gamma \mapsto{ }_{N D} A \text { implies } \quad \Gamma^{\prime} \mapsto{ }_{N D} A .
$$

### 1.2.4 Normal $N D$ tree-proofs

A redex in an $N D$ tree-proof is an occurrence of an instance of the rule $(\rightarrow E)$ whose left hand premiss is the conclusion of an instance of the rule $(\rightarrow I)$; i.e. a part of the tree of the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { [A] } \\
& \begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\dot{B}}{A \rightarrow B}(\rightarrow I) & \vdots \\
B & A
\end{array}(\rightarrow E) \\
& \text { : }
\end{aligned}
$$

An $N D$ tree-proof is normal if it contains no redex. Note that a redex is a detour and it is natural to consider 'simplifying' a redex by replacing it by its contractum,
which is the $N D$ tree-proof obtained from the $N D$ tree-proof of $B$, appearing in the redex, by replacing all the occurrences of $A$, as an assumption that gets discharged in the first premiss of the redex, by the $N D$ tree-proof of $A$ occuring in the second premiss of the redex. The result may be pictured

$$
\begin{gathered}
\vdots \\
A \\
\vdots \\
B
\end{gathered}
$$

Theorem 1.7 If $\Gamma \vdash_{N D} A$ then there is a normal $N D$ tree-proof of $A$ whose undischarged assumptions are all in $\Gamma$.

Proof Idea: Given an $N D$ tree-proof, if it is not already normal then choose a redex and replace it by its contractum. Do this repeatedly, until no more redexes remain. It is not obvious that this procedure eventually terminates successfully. Nevertheless it turns out that however the redexes to be contracted are chosen the procedure will indeed terminate. This is the strong normalisation property for Natural Deduction. In fact it turns out to be easier to show that a particular systematic strategy for choosing redexes leads to termination. This is the (weak) normalisation property. We will return to complete this proof later, when we discuss the simply typed lambda calculus.

### 1.2.5 Sequent Calculus $S C$

This formal system uses the same sequents as statements that are used in $N D$, but has slightly different rules. First of all there is the structural rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \mapsto A}{\Gamma^{\prime} \mapsto A}
$$

with the side condition that the same formulae appear in $\Gamma$ as are in $\Gamma^{\prime}$. The effect of having this rule is that the order that assumptions appear in the sequence $\Gamma$ is irrelevent, as is the number of times the same formula appears in the sequence; i.e. $\Gamma$ can be treated as a set of assumptions. The remaining rules are


We write $\Gamma \mapsto S_{S C} A$ if $S C \vdash \Gamma \mapsto A$.
Theorem $1.8 \Gamma \mapsto S_{S C} A$ iff $\Gamma \mapsto{ }_{N D} A$.
Let $S C^{-}$be $S C$ with the cut rule left out.
Theorem 1.9 If $\Gamma \mapsto S_{S C} A$ then $\Gamma \mapsto S_{S C}-A$.

This is the Cut Elimination Theorem for this sequent calculus. It is also called Gentzen's Hauptsatz. Gentzen gave an algorithm for systematically removing cuts from a tree-proof in $S C$. By theorems 1.5 and 1.7 it suffices to show that if there is a normal $N D$ tree-proof of $A$ whose undischarged assumptions are all in $\Gamma$ then $\Gamma \mapsto S C^{-} A$. This is not hard to do by induction on the size of the normal $N D$ tree-proof.

Note that Natural Deduction and the Sequent Calculus are closely related approaches to deduction in which normalisation of $N D$ tree-proofs corresponds to cut-elimination. We will prefer to focus on the natural deduction approach.

Exercise 1.10 Prove theorems 1.4,1.5,1.8 and 1.9 using theorem 1.7 in the proof of theorem 1.9.

### 1.3 Intuitionistic Propositional Logic

In this section we extend the purely implicational logic of the previous section by adding the other logical constants of intuitionistic propositional logic; i.e. we add the two binary connectives $\wedge$ and $\vee$ for conjunction and disjunction and the special constant $\perp$ for absurdity. The other propositional constants $\leftrightarrow$ and $\neg$ of biimplication and negation can be defined in the standard way. So every non-atomic formula has one of the forms

$$
\left(A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}\right), \quad\left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right), \quad\left(A_{1} \vee A_{2}\right), \quad \perp
$$

and we use the definitions

$$
\left(A_{1} \leftrightarrow A_{2}\right)=\left(A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}\right) \wedge\left(A_{2} \rightarrow A_{1}\right)
$$

and

$$
\neg A=(A \rightarrow \perp) .
$$

### 1.3.1 The Hilbert style formulation

We keep the axiom schemes and rule of inference we had for implication and add the axiom schemes

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(A x 3) & A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2} \rightarrow\left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right) \\
(A x 4) & \left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right) \rightarrow A_{1} \\
(A x 5) & \left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right) \rightarrow A_{2} \\
(A x 6) & A_{1} \rightarrow\left(A_{1} \vee A_{2}\right) \\
(A x 7) & A_{2} \rightarrow\left(A_{1} \vee A_{2}\right) \\
(A x 8) & \left(A_{1} \rightarrow C\right) \rightarrow\left(A_{2} \rightarrow C\right) \rightarrow\left(A_{1} \vee A_{2}\right) \rightarrow C \\
(A x 9) & \perp \rightarrow A
\end{array}
$$

### 1.3.2 The Natural Deduction formulation

We first give the schemes for the new forms of $N D$ tree-proofs.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\wedge I) \frac{A_{1} A_{2}}{A_{1} \wedge A_{2}}(\wedge E 1) \frac{A_{1} \wedge A_{2}}{A_{1}}(\wedge E 2) \frac{A_{1} \wedge A_{2}}{A_{2}} \\
& (\vee I 1) \frac{A_{1}}{A_{1} \vee A_{2}}(\vee I 2) \frac{A_{2}}{A_{1} \vee A_{2}}(\vee E) \frac{A_{1} \vee A_{2}}{4} \begin{array}{cc}
{\left[A_{1}\right]} & \left.C A_{2}\right] \\
& C
\end{array} \\
& (\perp E) \frac{\perp}{C}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $(V E)$ involves the discharge of assumption occurrences in the $N D$ treeproofs of the second and third premisses.

The notion of a normal $N D$ tree-proof extends to the full intuitionistic propositional logic after we add the new forms of redex for $\wedge$ and $\vee$ :

where $i=1,2$. Their contracta are

respectively. With these definitions theorem 3 of section 2 and its methods of proof carry over to full intuitionistic propositional logic.

### 1.3.3 The sequent formulation of Natural Deduction

We give the new rules of inference in the sequent formulation.


### 1.3.4 Sequent Calculus Formulation

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\wedge R) \frac{\Gamma \mapsto A_{1} \Gamma \mapsto A_{2}}{\Gamma \mapsto A_{1} \wedge A_{2}} \\
(\wedge L 1) \frac{\Gamma, A_{1} \mapsto C}{\Gamma,\left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right) \mapsto C} \quad(\wedge L 2) \frac{\Gamma, A_{2} \mapsto C}{\Gamma,\left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right) \mapsto C} \\
(\vee R 1) \frac{\Gamma \mapsto A_{1}}{\Gamma \mapsto A_{1} \vee A_{2}} \quad(\vee R 2) \frac{\Gamma \mapsto A_{2}}{\Gamma \mapsto A_{1} \vee A_{2}} \\
(\vee L) \frac{\Gamma, A_{1} \mapsto C \quad \Gamma, A_{2} \mapsto C}{\Gamma,\left(A_{1} \vee A_{2}\right) \mapsto C} \\
(\perp L) \Gamma, \perp \mapsto C
\end{gathered}
$$

Exercise 1.11 Extend your proofs of theorems 1.4,1.5,1.8 and 1.9 of section 2 to the full intuitionistic propositional logic.

## 2 Untyped Lambda Calculus

### 2.1 Preliminaries

### 2.1.1 The notion of a function

Let $A, B$ be sets. As usual we write $f: A \rightarrow B$ if $f$ is a function from $A$ to $B$. So we have the rule of function application:

$$
\frac{f: A \rightarrow B \quad a \in A}{f(a) \in B}
$$

Functions are treated extensionally so that functions $f, g: A \rightarrow B$ are equal if they have the same value on every argument; i.e. if $f, g: A \rightarrow B$ then

$$
f=g \quad \Longleftrightarrow(\forall x \in A) f(x)=g(x) .
$$

A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ can be defined by a definition of the form

$$
f(x)=\cdots x \cdots \text { for } x \in A
$$

where ' $\cdots x \cdots$ ' is an expression involving the variable $x$ that denotes a value in the set $B$ whenever $x$ is assigned a value in the set $A$. It is convenient to write

$$
(\lambda x \in A) \cdots x \cdots
$$

for the unique function $f: A \rightarrow B$ with the above defining equation. So we have the rule of function abstraction:

$$
\begin{gathered}
{[x \in A]} \\
\cdots x \cdots \in B \\
\hline(\lambda x \in A) \cdots x \cdots: A \rightarrow B
\end{gathered}
$$

### 2.1.2 Examples of functions

Let $A, B, C$ be sets.
Identity Let $I_{A}=(\lambda x \in A) x$. Then $I_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ is the unique function defined by

$$
I_{A}(x)=x \text { for } x \in A .
$$

Constant Let $K_{A, b}=(\lambda x \in A) b$, where $b \in B$. Then $K_{A, b}: A \rightarrow B$ is the unique function defined by

$$
K_{A, b}(x)=b \text { for } x \in A
$$

Composition Let $(g \circ f)=(\lambda x \in A)(g(f(x)))$ where $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$. Then $(g \circ f): A \rightarrow C$ is the unique function defined by

$$
(g \circ f)(x)=g(f(x)) \text { for } x \in A
$$

### 2.1.3 Functions as sets

Let $A, B$ be sets. The cartesian product $A \times B$ is the set of all ordered pairs $(a, b)$ with $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. So we have the rule

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a \in A \quad b \in B \\
& \hline(a, b) \in A \times B
\end{aligned}
$$

If $f: A \rightarrow B$ then its graph is the set $G$ of all pairs $(a, f(a))$ with $a \in A$. The set $G$ is a subset of $A \times B$ such that

$$
(\forall x \in A)(\exists!y \in B) \quad(x, y) \in G
$$

Conversely for any subset $G$ of $A \times B$ that satisfies the above condition we can define a function $f: A \rightarrow B$ with the defining equation

$$
f(x)=\text { the unique } y \in B \text { such that }(x, y) \in G
$$

In axiomatic set theory functions are identified with their graphs.

### 2.1.4 Multi-argument functions

Let $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B$ be sets. The cartesian product $A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n}$ is the set of all ordered $n$-tuples $\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ with $a_{1} \in A_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in A_{n}$. If $f: A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n} \rightarrow B$ then we have the rule

$$
\frac{a_{1} \in A_{1} \cdots a_{n} \in A_{n}}{f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in B}
$$

If $\cdots$ is an expression for a value in $B$ when variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ that may occur in $\cdots$ are assigned values in $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ respectively then

$$
\left(\lambda\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n}\right) \quad \cdots
$$

is the unique function $f: A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n} \rightarrow B$ with the defining equation

$$
f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\cdots
$$

### 2.1.5 Currying

Let $A, B, C$ be sets. We write $C^{B}$ for the set of all the functions $B \rightarrow C$. If $f: A \times B \rightarrow C$ then $g: A \rightarrow C^{B}$ where

$$
g=(\lambda x \in A)(\lambda y \in B) f(x, y)
$$

We call $g$ the curried version of $f$. This term is named after the American logician Haskell B Curry, who was the main developer of Combinatory Logic. His name has also been used for the functional programming language Haskell. The function $f$ can be recaptured from $g$ by a process called uncurrying:

$$
f=(\lambda(x, y) \in A \times B) g(x)(y)
$$

### 2.1.6 The problem of variable clashes

Let $A$ be a set and let $f: A \times A \rightarrow A$. The curried version $g: A \rightarrow A^{A}$ has defining equation

$$
\text { (1) } \quad g(x)=(\lambda y \in A) f(x, y) \text { for } x \in A \text {. }
$$

We could use ' $z$ ' instead of ' $y$ ':-
(2) $g(x)=(\lambda z \in A) f(x, z)$ for $x \in A$.

But we cannot use ' $x$ ' instead of ' $y$ ':-
(3) $\quad g^{\prime}(x)=(\lambda x \in A) f(x, x)$ for $x \in A$.

The function $g^{\prime}$ defined in (3) is generally quite different to the function $g$ defined in (1) or in (2). In (3) the variable ' $x$ ' occurs free on the left hand side while it only occurs bound in the lambda expression on the right hand side so that $g^{\prime}$ is a constant function.

If $h: A \rightarrow A$ let $k: A \rightarrow A$ be given by

$$
k(y)=g(h(y)) \text { for } y \in A .
$$

Using (1) to expand the right hand side we get:-

$$
k(y)=(\lambda y \in A) f(h(y), y) \text { for } y \in A
$$

which is wrong! Instead we can use (2) to get

$$
k(y)=(\lambda z \in A) f(h(y), z) \text { for } y \in A
$$

Moral: Before making a textual substitution you must first suitably relabel bound variables so as to avoid variable clashes. This same problem of variable clashes is a familiar feature of quantifiers in the predicate calculus.

### 2.2 An Untyped Universe

The (untyped) Lambda Calculus ( $L C$ ) is a calculus of 'functions' where it 'makes sense' to 'apply' anything to anything. To motivate $L C$ we postulate a non-trivial set $U$ (so $U$ should have more than one element) such that $U=U^{U}$. This will be our universe of functions. For $a, b \in U$ we write $a \cdot b$ or usually just $a b$ for the result of applying the function $a: U \rightarrow U$ to $b \in U$. We use the following abbreviations:-

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
a b_{1} b_{2} \cdots b_{n} & \text { for } & \cdots\left(\left(a b_{1}\right) b_{2}\right) \cdots b_{n} \\
\lambda x . \cdots & \text { for } & (\lambda x \in U) \cdots \\
\lambda x_{1} \cdots x_{n} . \cdots & \text { for } & \lambda x_{1} \cdots \lambda x_{n} . \cdots
\end{array}
$$

Note that if $f: U^{n} \rightarrow U$ and $a=\lambda x_{1} \cdots x_{n} . f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ then $a \in U$ and, for $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in U$

$$
f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=a x_{1} \cdots x_{n}
$$

So $f=\left(\lambda\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in U^{n}\right) a x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$. We call $a$ the curried version of $f$.

### 2.2.1 Some combinators in $U$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
I=\lambda x \cdot x, & I a=a \\
K=\lambda x y \cdot x, & K a b=a \\
B=\lambda x y z \cdot x(y z), & B a b c=a(b c) \\
C=\lambda x y z \cdot x z y, & C a b c=a c b \\
S=\lambda x y z \cdot x z(y z), & S a b c=a c(b c)
\end{array}
$$

The above $\lambda$-expressions are examples of combinators. Following their definitions are their defining equations, where $a, b, c$ are arbitrary elements of $U$. There can be equations connecting the combinators. For example we have the following two results.

Proposition 2.1 $I=S K K$.
Proof: Observe that for any $x \in U$

$$
S K K x=K x(K x)=x .
$$

But $I$ is the unique element of $U$ such that $I x=x$ for all $x \in U$. It follows that $S K K=I$.

Proposition 2.2 $C=S(B B S)(K K)$.
Proof: Observe that for any $x, y, z \in U$

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(B B S)(K K) x y z & =B B S x(K K x) y z \\
& =B(S x)(K K x) y z \\
& =B(S x) K y z \\
& =S x(K y) z \\
& =x z(K y z) \\
& =x z y \\
& =x y z
\end{aligned}
$$

So we get the result.
Combinatory Logic $(C L)$ is concerned with the combinators such as $I, K, B, C, S$ and equations involving them.

### 2.2.2 Some laws of $L C$

( $\beta$ ) $\quad(\lambda x \cdots x \cdots) a=\cdots a \cdots$
$(\eta) \quad \lambda x \cdot(a x)=a$

$$
\text { (ext) } \begin{gathered}
{[x \in A]} \\
\frac{a x=b x}{} \begin{array}{l}
a=b
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

Exercise 2.3 Let $V=C B(S I I)$. Given $a \in U$ let $d=V a$ and let $c=d d$. Show that $c=a c$. Show that $c=Y a$.

We call $c$ a fixed point of $a$ and we call $Y$ a fixed point combinator.

### 2.2.3 Problems with " $U=U^{U}$ "

In the standard axiomatic set theory $Z F C$ it is inconsistent to have a non-trivial set $U$ such that $U=U^{U}$. But it is probably relatively consistent in the variant of $Z F C$ that uses intuitionistic logic instead of clasical logic and drops the Foundation Axiom. We give two proofs of the inconsistency.

First Contradiction in $Z F C$ Suppose that $a \in U \subseteq U^{U}$ and let $b=a(a)$. Then $(a, b) \in a$. So, as $(a, b)=\{\{a\},\{a, b\}\}$,

$$
a \in\{a\} \in(a, b) \in a
$$

contradicting the Foundation Axiom.
Second Contradiction in $Z F C$ This proof uses cardinal numbers. Let $n>1$ be the cardinality of $U$. If $U=U^{U}$ then $n=n^{n}$. But by Cantor's theorem $2^{n}>n$ so that $n^{n} \geq 2^{n}>n$, contradicting $n=n^{n}$.

Note that the reasoning in the first proof is constructive. But a closer examination of the cardinality argument in the second proof will show that the second proof is not constructive.

### 2.2.4 A more general universe

This time we assume that $U$ is a non-trivial set with functions $F: U \rightarrow U^{U}$ and $G: U^{U} \rightarrow U$ such that $F \circ G$ is the identity function on $U^{U}$. We can define

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
a b & =F(a)(b) & \text { for } a, b \in U \\
\lambda x . f(x)=G(f) & & \text { for } f \in U^{U}
\end{array}
$$

We still have

$$
(\beta) \quad(\lambda x . f(x)) a=f(a)
$$

But only have weak versions of $(\eta)$ and (ext). Let

$$
U^{\prime}=\left\{G(f) \mid f \in U^{U}\right\}
$$

Then we have
( $w \eta$ ) If $a \in U^{\prime}$ then $a=\lambda x$.( $a x$ ).
(wext) If $a, b \in U^{\prime}$ and $a x=b x$ for all $x \in U$ then $a=b$.
When $U^{\prime}=U$ then we do get $(\eta)$ and $(e x t)$ and $F$ is a bijection $F: U \cong U^{U}$, with inverse $G$.

### 2.3 Syntax of $L C$

### 2.3.1 Terms

We assume given a set const of constants and an infinite set var of variables. The terms of $L C$ are built up from the constants and variables using application and lambda abstraction. So the terms $M$ are given by the $B N F$ style grammar

$$
M::=x|c|(M M) \mid(\lambda x . M)
$$

where $c$ is used for constants and $x$ for variables. Alternatively the set of terms is inductiveley defined using the following rules.

1. Every constant is a term and every variable is a term.
2. If $M_{1}, M_{2}$ are terms then so is $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)$.
3. If $x$ is a variable and $M$ is a term then $(\lambda x . M)$ is a term.

## Notational Conventions

- Leave off outermost parentheses from terms.
- $M M_{1} M_{2} \cdots M_{n}$ abbreviates $\left(\left(\cdots\left(\left(M M_{1}\right) M_{2}\right) \cdots\right) M_{n}\right)$
- $\lambda x_{1} \cdots x_{n} \cdot M$ abbreviates $\left(\lambda x_{1} \cdot\left(\cdots .\left(\lambda x_{n} \cdot M\right) \cdots\right)\right)$.

Example: $\lambda x y .(a x(b x y))$ abbreviates

$$
(\lambda x \cdot(\lambda y \cdot((a x)((b x) y))) .
$$

### 2.3.2 Construction Trees

Each term is constructed in a unique way using the rules and so has an associated construction tree. For example the term $(\lambda x .(\lambda y .((a x)((b x) y)))$ has the tree


A variable leaf $\bullet y$ is bound if there is a $\lambda$-node $\bullet \lambda y$ in the path from the leaf to the root of the tree. Otherwise the leaf is free. If a leaf $\bullet y$ is bound then the first $\lambda$-node $\bullet \lambda y$, in the path from the leaf to the root, is called the binder of the leaf. The only formal purpose of bound variables is to specify the binders of bound leaf nodes. So, instead of using construction trees with bound variables we may use construction graphs with a pointer up from each bound leaf nodes to their binder. The occurrences of the bound variables can then be removed. So, for example, the previous tree has the following graph.


As another example here is the construction graph of $\lambda y \cdot(x y(\lambda y \cdot y))$.


Such terms are said to be $\alpha$-convertible. Here is yet another example of a construction graph and a pair of $\alpha$-convertible terms for it.


The term 2 can be obtained from the term 1 by simultaneously relabelling $x$ as $w$ and $y$ as $x$. Next we give three alternative notations for the graph.

## Bourbaki $\lambda(\square z(\lambda(\square \square)))$

de Bruijn $\lambda(1 z(\lambda(21)))$
dual de Bruijn $\lambda(1 z(\lambda(12)))$
The de Bruijn index of a bound leaf in a construction tree is the number of $\lambda$ nodes occuring in the path from the leaf up to and including the binder of the leaf node. The dual de Bruijn index is instead the number of $\lambda$-nodes in the path from and including the binder up to the root.

The (dual) de Bruijn term associated with a term is obtained by replacing each variable occuring at a bound leaf by the (dual) de Bruijn index of the leaf and then erasing the variable from each binder.

### 2.3.3 The de Bruijn terms

We first define the de Bruijn pre-terms using the $B N F$-style grammar equation

$$
M::=c|x|(M M)|(\lambda M)| 1|2| 3 \mid \cdots
$$

For each variable $x$ and each pre-term $M$ let $(\lambda x . M)$ be the pre-term obtained from $(\lambda M)$ by simultaneously making the replacements

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \rightarrow 1 \\
& 1 \rightarrow 2 \\
& 2 \rightarrow 3
\end{aligned}
$$

Example: If $M$ is $\lambda(1 z(\lambda(12)))$ then $\lambda z . M$ is $\lambda(\lambda(21(\lambda(23))))$.
Note that we are here preferring to take the dual de Bruijn approach. The set of de Bruijn terms is now defined to be the set of pre-terms inductively defined using the same rules as we used earlier to define the terms of $L C$, except now the lambda abstraction rule has to be understood in the sense we have just explained. So now there is no such thing as a bound variable in a de Bruijn term, only perhaps in our notation to refer to it. Instead the numerical indices are used.

From now on we will use the de Bruijn terms. For each pre-term $M$ let $\operatorname{var}(M)$ be the set of variables that occur in $M$. Also let $M\{y / x\}$ be the result of replacing all occurrences of $x$ in $M$ by $y$.

Proposition $2.4 \lambda x . M=\lambda y .(M\{y / x\})$ if $y \notin \operatorname{var}(M)$.
Proposition 2.5 If $(\lambda N)$ is a (de Bruijn) term and $x \notin \operatorname{var}(N)$ then there is a unique term $M$ such that $(\lambda N)=(\lambda x . M)$.

### 2.3.4 Substitution

Given a variable $y$ and a term $N$ the function $M \mapsto M[N / y]$ from terms to terms is the unique function ( )' such that

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
c^{\prime} & =c & \\
y^{\prime} & =N & \\
x^{\prime} & =x & \text { if } x \neq y \\
\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)^{\prime} & =M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime} & \\
(\lambda x . M)^{\prime} & =\left(\lambda x . M^{\prime}\right) & \text { if } x \notin \operatorname{var}(N) \cup\{y\}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proposition 2.6 The function $M \mapsto M[N / y]$ is well defined.
Note that this is not literal substitution as indices in $N$ get shifted up 1 for each $\lambda$ above it in the construction tree of $N$.

## Lemma 2.7 (The Substitution Lemma)

$$
M[N / x][L / y]=M[L / y][N[L / y] / x]
$$

if $x \neq y$ and $x \notin \operatorname{var}(L)$.
Proof: By induction on the structure of $M$.

### 2.4 Deduction

The $\lambda \beta$-calculus is the formal system, whose statements are equations between terms, having the following axiom schemes and rules of inference.
(1) $M=M$
(2) $\frac{M=N}{N=M}$
(3) $\frac{M=N \quad N=L}{M=L}$
(4) $\frac{M_{1}=N_{2} \quad M_{2}=N_{2}}{M_{1} M_{2}=N_{1} N_{2}}$
( $\xi) \frac{M=N}{\lambda x \cdot M=\lambda x \cdot N}$
( $\beta$ ) $(\lambda x \cdot M) N=M[N / x]$
The $w \lambda \beta$-calculus is just like the $\lambda \beta$-calculus except that the rule $(\xi)$ is left out. The $\lambda \beta \eta$-calculus is obtained from the $\lambda \beta$-calculus by adding the axiom scheme
( $\eta$ ) $\lambda x .(M x)=M$, provided that $x \notin \operatorname{var}(M)$.
We will also consider the following rule.
(ext) $\frac{M x=N x}{M=N}$, provided that $x \notin \operatorname{var}(M) \cup \operatorname{var}(N)$.
There are weak versions $(w \eta)$ and (wext) of $(\eta)$ and (ext), where it is required that $M, N$ have $\lambda$-form; i.e. are terms of the form $\lambda x . L$.

The Consistency Problem: Show that there are terms $M, N$ such that $M=N$ is not a theorem of $(\lambda \beta \eta)$. See section 2.6.

## Exercises 2.8

1. Show that $(\lambda \beta \eta) \equiv(w \lambda \beta)+(e x t)$; i.e. both sides have the same theorems.
2. Show that
(a) $(\lambda \beta) \vdash(w \eta)$,
(b) $(\lambda \beta) \equiv(w \lambda \beta)+($ wext $)$.
3. If $Y=\lambda z \cdot((\lambda x . z(x x))(\lambda x . z(x x)))$ show that for any term $M$

$$
(w \lambda \beta) \vdash M(Y M)=Y M
$$

4. If $S, K, I$ are the terms given in section 2 show that

$$
(\lambda \beta) \vdash I=S K K
$$

Can you show that

$$
(w \lambda \beta) \vdash I=S K K ?
$$

### 2.5 Combinatory Logic

Very roughly, combinatory logic is an approach to the ideas of the lambda calculus that avoids lambda abstraction and bound variables. This means that substitution can be understood literally. The syntax of combinatory logic is given by the grammar

$$
M::=c|K| S|x|(M M)
$$

So, instead of lambda abstraction there are the special symbols $K, S$. It turns out that in the formal system $C L$ for combinatory logic, defined below, we can define a simulation of lambda abstraction so that $(w \lambda \beta)$ can be translated into $C L$. The main axioms for $C L$ are the defining equations for $K$ and $S$. There is an easy translation of $C L$ into $(w \lambda \beta)$, so that these two formal systems are closely related. But the two translations are not exactly inverses of each other. Really $(w \lambda \beta)$ is a conservative extension of a subsystem that is equivalent to $C L$. The rule (ext) also makes sense for combinatory logic and we can show that $C L+(e x t)$ is equivalent to $(\lambda \beta \eta)$. Also we can define a combinatory logic weakening (wext) of (ext) and show that $C L+($ wext $)$ is equivalent to $(\lambda \beta)$.

### 2.5.1 $C L$ and its translation into $(w \lambda \beta)$

The formal system $C L$ consists of the axiom scheme and rules (1)-(4) from section 4 , for equations between terms of combinatory logic, together with the axiom schemes

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(K) & K M N
\end{array}=M=1(N L)
$$

where $M, N, L$ are arbitrary combinatory logic terms. Below we will call such terms $C L$-terms in contrast to the terms of the lambda calculus which we will call $L C$ terms.

The translation $M \mapsto M_{L C}$ from $C L$-terms to $L C$ terms is defined by structural recursion using the equations

$$
\begin{cases}c_{L C} & =c \\ K_{L C} & =\lambda x y \cdot x \\ S_{L C} & =\lambda x y z \cdot x z(y z) \\ x_{L C} & =x \\ (M N)_{L C} & =M_{L C} N_{L C}\end{cases}
$$

It is straightforward to prove the following result.
Proposition 2.9 $C L \vdash M=N \Longrightarrow(w \lambda \beta) \vdash M_{L C}=N_{L C}$.

### 2.5.2 A translation of $(w \lambda \beta)$ into $C L$

In order to give such a translation we need to simulate lambda abstraction in $C L$. For each variable $x$ we define the operation $M \mapsto \lambda^{*} x . M$ on $C L$-terms by structural recursion using the following equations.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
\lambda^{*} x \cdot x & =I & (\text { where } I \text { is } S K K) \\
\lambda^{*} x \cdot M & =K M & (x \notin \operatorname{var}(M)) \\
\lambda^{*} x \cdot(M N) & =S\left(\lambda^{*} x \cdot M\right)\left(\lambda^{*} x . N\right) & (x \in \operatorname{var}(M N))
\end{array}\right.
$$

Lemma 2.10 For all $C L$-terms $M, N$

$$
C L \vdash\left(\lambda^{*} x \cdot M\right) N=M[N / x] .
$$

The translation $M \mapsto M_{C L}$ of $L C$-terms into $C L$-terms is by structural recursion using the equations

$$
\begin{cases}c_{C L} & =c \\ x_{C L} & =x \\ (M N)_{C L} & =M_{C L} N_{C L} \\ (\lambda x . M)_{C L} & =\lambda^{*} x \cdot M_{C L}\end{cases}
$$

Proposition $2.11(w \lambda \beta) \vdash M=N \Longrightarrow C L \vdash M_{C L}=N_{C L}$.

### 2.5.3 The converse of Proposition 6

We have seen translations both ways between $C L$ and $(w \lambda \beta)$. When extensionality is added to both formal systems then the translations carry over and are inverses of each other in a suitable sense, showing that $C L+(e x t)$ is equivalent to $(w \lambda \beta)+(e x t)$; i.e. $(\lambda \beta \eta)$. But the translations between $C L$ and $(w \lambda \beta)$ are not quite inverses. By using a variant of $\lambda^{*}$ we now show that ' $\Longrightarrow$ ' in proposition 6 can be strengthened to ' $\Longleftrightarrow$ '. In the variant definition of $\lambda^{*}$ we use the equation

$$
\lambda^{*} x .(M x)=M \quad(x \notin \operatorname{var}(M))
$$

and only use the third equation in the previous definition of $\lambda^{*}$ when the above equation does not apply.

Exercise 2.12 Show, using this variant definition of $\lambda^{*}$ when defining $M \mapsto M_{C L}$, that

$$
\begin{cases}\left(K_{L C}\right)_{C L} & =K \\ \left(S_{L C}\right)_{C L} & =S\end{cases}
$$

and hence that

$$
\left(M_{L C}\right)_{C L}=M
$$

for all CL-terms $M$. Note that these are syntactic identities and not equalities proved in CL.

## Proposition 2.13

$$
C L \vdash M=N \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad(w \lambda \beta) \vdash M_{L C}=N_{L C}
$$

for all $C L$-terms $M, N$.
Proof: Note that Proposition 2.11 still holds when using the variant definition of $\lambda^{*}$. So if $(w \lambda \beta) \vdash M_{L C}=N_{L C}$ then $C L \vdash\left(M_{L C}\right)_{C L}=\left(N_{L C}\right)_{C L}$. So, by the exercise, $C L \vdash M=N$.

Exercise 2.14 Show that $(w \lambda \beta)$ can be replaced by $(w \lambda \beta)+(\eta)$ in Proposition 2.11 and hence also in Proposition 2.13.
2.5.4 The equivalence between $C L+(e x t)$ and $(\lambda \beta \eta)$

## Proposition 2.15

1. $C L+(e x t) \vdash M=N \quad \Longrightarrow \quad(\lambda \beta \eta) \vdash M_{L C}=N_{L C}$.
2. $(\lambda \beta \eta) \vdash M=N \Longrightarrow C L+(e x t) \vdash M_{C L}=N_{C L}$.
3. $C L+(e x t) \vdash M=\left(M_{L C}\right)_{C L}$ for any CL-term $M$.
4. $(\lambda \beta \eta) \vdash M=\left(M_{C L}\right)_{L C}$ for any LC-term $M$.
5. ' $\Longrightarrow$ ' in 1,2 can be replaced by ' $\Longleftrightarrow$ '.

### 2.5.5 The equivalence between $C L+($ wext $)$ and $(\lambda \beta)$

In combinatory logic the rule (wext) is the weakening of the rule (ext) which requires that $M, N$ are functional in the sense of the following definition.

Definition 2.16 A CL-term is functional if it has one of the forms

$$
K, K M, S, S M, S M N
$$

Observe that, when using the original definition of $\lambda^{*}$, a $C L$-term $\lambda^{*} x . M$ is always functional so that $M_{C L}$ is a functional term for any $L C$-term $M$ that is in $\lambda$-form. But note that this observation does not work with the variant definition of $\lambda^{*}$ !

Exercise 2.17 Show that for each functional CL-term $M$ there is a LC-term $N$ in $\lambda$-form such that

$$
(\lambda \beta) \vdash M_{C L}=N .
$$

Proposition 2.18 The results of Proposition 2.15 hold when (ext) is replaced by (wext) and $(\lambda \beta \eta)$ is replaced by $(\lambda \beta)$.

### 2.5.6 Summary

The main relationships between combinatory logics and lambda calculi are summarised in the following diagram.

| $C L$ | $\subseteq$ | $C L+(w e x t)$ | $\subseteq$ | $C L+(e x t)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\Downarrow \uparrow$ |  | $\hat{\mathbb{}}$ |  | $\hat{\Downarrow}$ |
| $w \lambda \beta$ | $\subseteq$ | $\lambda \beta$ | $\subseteq$ | $\lambda \beta \eta$ |

### 2.6 The Church-Rosser Theorem

The aim of this section is to prove the Church-Rosser theorem for the lambda calculus $(\lambda \beta)$. With some more work it can also be proved for the calculus $(\lambda \beta \eta)$. This result, for each calculus, has the immediate consequence that the calculus is consistent. Here, by the consistency of an equational calculus we mean the property that not all equations can be proved, or equivalently, that for distinct variables $x, y$ the equation $(x=y)$ cannot be proved.

### 2.6.1 The reduction relation

A redex for $(\lambda \beta)$ is a term of the form

$$
(\lambda x . M) N
$$

and its contractum is the term $M[N / x]$. These are the $\beta$-redexes. For $(\lambda \beta \eta)$ there are also the $\eta$-redexes; i.e. terms of the form

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

where $x \notin \operatorname{var}(M)$, having contractum $M$. If $M$ is a redex then we write $M^{\wedge}$ for its contractum.

Exercise 2.19 Show that $N$ contr $N^{\prime}$ if and only if it can be proved using the following rules.

1. $M$ contr $M^{\wedge}$ for each redex $M$.
2. If $M$ contr $M^{\prime}$ then

- $\lambda x . M$ contr $\lambda x . M^{\prime}$,
- (ML) contr $\left(M^{\prime} L\right)$ and ( $L M$ ) contr $\left(L M^{\prime}\right)$ for each term $L$.

The following lemma will be useful.
Lemma 2.20 Let $L$ be a term and let $z$ be a variable. If $M$ is a redex then so is $M[L / z]$ and $M^{\wedge}[L / z]=(M[L / z])^{\wedge}$.

Proof: Let $M$ be the redex $\left((\lambda x . N) M_{0}\right)$. By Proposition 2.4 we may assume that the variables $x, z$ are distinct so that

$$
M[L / z]=\left((\lambda x .(N[L / z]))\left(M_{0}[L / z]\right)\right)
$$

and $M[L / z]$ is a redex. So, by the Substitution Lemma 2.7

$$
\begin{aligned}
M^{\wedge}[L / z] & =N\left[M_{0} / x\right][L / z] \\
& =N[L / z]\left[M_{0}[L / z] / x\right] \\
& =\left(\left((\lambda x .(N[L / z]))\left(M_{0}[L / z]\right)\right)\right)^{\wedge} \\
& =M[L / z]^{\wedge}
\end{aligned}
$$

For either calculus, given terms $M, N$ we write that $M$ contracts to $M^{\prime}$, abbreviated

$$
M \text { contr } M^{\prime}
$$

if $M^{\prime}$ can be obtained from $M$ by replacing an occurrence of a redex in $M$ by its contractum. Also we write that $M$ reduces to $M^{\prime}$, abbreviated

$$
M \operatorname{red} M^{\prime}
$$

if $M^{\prime}$ can be obtained from $M$ by a sequence of zero, one or more contractions

$$
M \text { contr } \cdots \text { contr } M^{\prime}
$$

So the reduction relation red on terms is the reflexive, transitive closure of the contraction relation contr. We can now state the theorem.
Theorem 2.21 (Church-Rosser) For both $(\lambda \beta)$ and $(\lambda \beta \eta)$, if both $M$ red $N$ and $M$ red $K$ then there is a term $L$ such that both $N$ red $L$ and $K$ red $L$.

Note: Call a relation $R$ on a set $A$ confluent on $A$ if

$$
x R y, z \Longrightarrow \exists w \in A(y, z R w)
$$

where $x R y, z$ abbreviates $(x R y \wedge x R z)$ and $y, z R w$ abbreviates $(y R w \wedge z R w)$. Then the above Church-Rosser Theorem states that the reduction relation is confluent for both calculi.

Exercise 2.22 Given a relation $R$ on a set $A$ let $\sim_{R}$ be the relation on $A$ given by

$$
y \sim_{R} z \Longleftrightarrow \exists w \in A(y, z R w)
$$

Show that $R$ is confluent iff $\sim_{R}$ is an equivalence relation. Use the Church-Rosser Theorem to show that for both calculi

$$
M \sim_{r e d} N \Longleftrightarrow \vdash M=N
$$

Hence show that each calculus is consistent.

### 2.6.2 Proof of the Theorem for $(\lambda \beta)$

We will define a relation $\triangleright$ on terms and show that:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { I If } M \text { contr } M^{\prime} \text { then } M \triangleright M^{\prime} \text {. } \\
& \text { II If } M \triangleright M^{\prime} \text { then } M \text { red } M^{\prime} . \\
& \text { III } \triangleright \text { is confluent. }
\end{aligned}
$$

We can deduce the theorem from these three properties in the following way. Let $M$ red $N, K$. This means that there are sequences of zero, one or more contractions

$$
M \text { contr } \cdots \text { contr } N \text { and } M \text { contr } \cdots \text { contr } K
$$

so that, by I,

$$
M \triangleright \cdots \triangleright N \text { and } M \triangleright \cdots \triangleright K .
$$

By repeated use of III we can fill in the following rectangle by working from the top left hand corner to the bottom right hand corner.

$$
\begin{array}{ccccc}
M & \triangleright & \cdots & \triangleright & N \\
\nabla & & \cdots & & \nabla \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
\nabla & & \cdots & & \nabla \\
K & \triangleright & \cdots & \triangleright & L
\end{array}
$$

In this way we eventually get a term $L$ such that

$$
N \triangleright \cdots \triangleright L \text { and } K \triangleright \cdots \triangleright L
$$

By II and the transitivity of red we get that $N, K$ red $L$.
It remains to define the relation $\triangleright$ and prove I,II,III.
Definition 2.23 We define ' $M \triangleright M^{\prime}$ ' by recursion on the structure of $M$. There are three cases, depending on the form of $M$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x \triangleright M^{\prime} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad\left[x=M^{\prime}\right] \\
& \lambda x . N \quad M^{\prime} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad\left(\exists N^{\prime}\right)\left[N \triangleright N^{\prime} \text { and } \lambda x . N^{\prime}=M^{\prime}\right] \\
& \begin{aligned}
\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right) \triangleright M^{\prime} \Longleftrightarrow & \left(\exists M_{1}^{\prime}\right)\left(\exists M_{2}^{\prime}\right)\left[M_{1} \triangleright M_{1}^{\prime} \& M_{2} \triangleright M_{2}^{\prime} \&\left(M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right)\right. \text { or } \\
& \left.M \text { and }\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right) \text { are redexes and } M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}\right]
\end{aligned} \\
& \left.M \text { and }\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right) \text { are redexes and } M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

It is immediate from this definition that we have the following lemma.

## Lemma 2.24

1. $x \triangleright x$.
2. If $N \triangleright N^{\prime}$ then $\lambda x . N \triangleright \lambda x . N^{\prime}$.
3. If $M_{1} \triangleright M_{1}^{\prime}$ and $M_{2} \triangleright M_{2}^{\prime}$ then $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right) \triangleright\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ and if $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)$ is a redex then so is $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right) \triangleright\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}$.

## Exercises 2.25

1. Show that, for any term $M, M \triangleright M$ and if $M$ is a redex then $M \triangleright M^{\wedge}$. Hence prove I, using the previous lemma.
2. Prove II by induction on the structure of $M$.

In the proof of III we will need the following result.
Lemma 2.26 If $M \triangleright M^{\prime}$ and $L \triangleright L^{\prime}$ then $M[L / z] \triangleright M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]$.
Proof: Let $M \triangleright M^{\prime}$ and $L \triangleright L^{\prime}$.
$M=z$ : Then $M^{\prime}=z$ so that

$$
M[L / z]=L \triangleright L^{\prime}=M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right] .
$$

$M=y$ with $y \neq z$ : Then $M[L / z]=y$ and $M^{\prime}=y$ so that $M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]=y$.

$$
M[L / z]=y \triangleright y=M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]
$$

$M=\lambda x . N:$ By Proposition 2.4 we may assume that $M[L / z]=\lambda x .(N[L / z])$. As $M \triangleright M^{\prime}, M^{\prime}=\lambda x . N^{\prime}$ for some $N^{\prime}$ such that $N \triangleright N^{\prime}$. By the induction hypothesis $N[L / z] \triangleright N^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]$ so that

$$
M[L / z]=\lambda x .(N[L / z]) \triangleright \lambda x .\left(N^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]\right)=M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right] .
$$

$M=\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right):$ As $M \triangleright M^{\prime}$ there are $M_{1}^{\prime}, M_{2}^{\prime}$ such that $M_{1} \triangleright M_{1}^{\prime}$ and $M_{2} \triangleright M_{2}^{\prime}$ and either (i) or (ii) below.
(i) $M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$.
(ii) Both $M$ and $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ are redexes and $M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}$.

By the induction hypothesis
$(*) \quad M_{1}[L / z] \triangleright M_{1}^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]$ and $M_{2}[L / z] \triangleright M_{2}^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]$
If (i) then

$$
\begin{aligned}
M[L / z] & =\left(\left(M_{1}[L / z]\right)\left(M_{2}[L / z]\right)\right) \\
& \triangleright\left(\left(M_{1}^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]\right)\left(M_{2}^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]\right)\right) \\
& =M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

If (ii) then

$$
\begin{aligned}
M[L / z] & =\left(\left(M_{1}[L / z]\right)\left(M_{2}[L / z]\right)\right) \\
& \triangleright\left(\left(M_{1}^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]\right)\left(M_{2}^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]\right)\right)^{\wedge} \\
& =\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]^{\wedge} \\
& =\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right] \quad \text { by Lemma } 2.20 \\
& =M^{\prime}\left[L^{\prime} / z\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 2.27 If $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)$ is a redex and $M_{1} \triangleright M_{1}^{\prime}, M_{1} \triangleright M_{2}^{\prime}$ then $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ is a redex and $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)^{\wedge} \triangleright\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}$.

Proof of III We must show that $\triangleright$ is confluent. This is a consequence of the lemma below that uses the following definition. For if $M \triangleright N, K$ then, by the lemma, $N, K \triangleright M^{*}$ and we are done.

Definition 2.28 We define $M^{*}$, for each term $M$, by recursion on the structure of M. There are three cases.

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{*} & =x \\
(\lambda x . N)^{*} & =\lambda x . N^{*} \\
\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)^{*} & = \begin{cases}\left(M_{1}^{*} M_{2}^{*}\right) & \text { if }\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right) \text { is not a redex } \\
\left(M_{1}^{*} M_{2}^{*}\right)^{\wedge} & \text { if }\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right) \text { is a redex }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that in the last equation if $\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)$ is a redex then so is $\left(M_{1}^{*} M_{2}^{*}\right)$.
Lemma 2.29 If $M \triangleright M^{\prime}$ then $M^{\prime} \triangleright M^{*}$.
Proof: By induction on the structure of $M$. Let $M \triangleright M^{\prime}$. There are three cases.
$M=x:$ Then $M^{\prime}=x \triangleright x=M^{*}$.
$M=\lambda x . N$ : Then $M^{\prime}=\lambda x . N^{\prime}$ for some $N^{\prime}$ such that $N \triangleright N^{\prime}$ and, by the induction hypothesis, $N^{\prime} \triangleright N^{*}$ so that

$$
M^{\prime}=\lambda x . N^{\prime} \triangleright \lambda x \cdot N^{*}=M^{*} .
$$

$M=\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right):$ Then there are $M_{1}^{\prime}, M_{2}^{\prime}$, with $M_{1} \triangleright M_{1}^{\prime}$ and $M_{2} \triangleright M_{2}^{\prime}$, such that either (i) or (ii) below.
(i) $M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$.
(ii) Both $M$ and $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ are redexes and $M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}$.

By the induction hypothesis $M_{1}^{\prime} \triangleright M_{1}^{*}$ and $M_{2}^{\prime} \triangleright M_{2}^{*}$. If $M$ is not a redex then

$$
M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right) \triangleright\left(M_{1}^{*} M_{2}^{*}\right)=M^{*} .
$$

It remains to consider the case when $M$ is a redex. Then $\left(M_{1}^{*} M_{2}^{*}\right)$ is also a redex and $M^{*}=\left(M_{1}^{*} M_{2}^{*}\right)^{\wedge}$ so that $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right) \triangleright M^{*}$. Also, as $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ is a redex, $\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge} \triangleright M^{*}$. If (i) above then $M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ and if (ii) above then $M^{\prime}=\left(M_{1}^{\prime} M_{2}^{\prime}\right)^{\wedge}$. In either case $M^{\prime} \triangleright M^{*}$.

### 2.7 Normalisation

The definitions in this section apply to each of the calculi $(\lambda \beta)$ and $(\lambda \beta \eta)$. A term is normal if no subterm is a redex. If $M$ red $M^{\prime}$ and $M^{\prime}$ is normal then we call $M^{\prime}$ a normal form of $M$. A term $M$ is (weakly) normalisable if $M$ has a normal form and is strongly normalisable if every contraction path

$$
M \text { contr } M^{\prime} \text { contr } M^{\prime \prime} \ldots
$$

is finite.

Some Examples: Trivially all normal terms are normalisable and strongly normalisable. Examples of normal terms are

$$
I=\lambda x \cdot x, K=\lambda x y . x, S=\lambda x y z . x z(y z), \Omega_{0}=\lambda x \cdot(x x) .
$$

Note that $\Omega=\Omega_{0} \Omega_{0}$ is not normal. In fact $\Omega$ contr $\Omega$ so that $\Omega$ is not normalisable or strongly normalisable. Note that if $K^{\prime}=K K \Omega$ then $K^{\prime}$ is not normal, but is normalisable as $K^{\prime}$ contr $K$. In contrast, as $K^{\prime}$ contr $K^{\prime}$, the term $K^{\prime}$ is not strongly normalisable.

## Exercises 2.30

1. Show that a term is normal in the $(\lambda \beta)$ calculus iff it has the form

$$
\lambda x_{1} \cdots x_{n} \cdot a N_{1} \cdots N_{k}
$$

where $n, k \geq 0, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ are variables, $a$ is a constant or variable and $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{k}$ are normal terms. What happens in the $(\lambda \beta \eta)$ calculus?
2. Show that every normalisable term has a unique normal form.
3. Show that every strongly normalisable term is normalisable.
4. Show that if $M$ is strongly normalisable then the set of its contraction paths

$$
M \text { contr } M^{\prime} \text { contr } M^{\prime \prime} \ldots
$$

is finite. [Hint: Use König's Lemma]
5. Show that, for each of the two calculi, it is decidable whether or not an equation ( $M=N$ ) between normalisable terms $M, N$, is provable.

## 3 Simply Typed Lambda Calculus

### 3.1 The Simple Type Theory STT

We assume given a set of atomic types and generate the types from the atomic types using the rule

$$
\text { If } A_{1}, A_{2} \text { are types then so is }\left(A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2}\right)
$$

The typing judgments have the form $M: A$ where $M$ is a term of the untyped lambda calculus and $A$ is a type. In particular a variable declaration is a typing judgment of the form $x: A$ where $x$ is a variable. A sequence

$$
x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}
$$

of zero, one or more variable declarations, for a non-repeating list $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ of variables, is called a context.

The type theory $S T T$ is a formal system whose statements have the form

$$
\Gamma \mapsto M: A
$$

where $\Gamma$ is a context and $M: A$ is a typing judgment. The axioms and rules of $S T T$ are given by the following schemes.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
(\text { ass }) & \Gamma \mapsto x: A & (x: A \text { in } \Gamma) \\
(\text { appl }) & \frac{\Gamma \mapsto M:(B \rightarrow C)}{\Gamma \mapsto(M N): C} \\
(\text { abstr }) & \frac{\Gamma \mapsto y: B \mapsto M: C}{\Gamma \mapsto \lambda y \cdot M:(B \rightarrow C)} &
\end{array}
$$

## Exercises 3.1

1. In this exercise identify the (atomic) formulae of Intuitionistic Implicational Logic with the (atomic) types of STT. Let $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots$ be an infinite non-repeating list of variables. Show that

$$
A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \mapsto_{N D} A \Longleftrightarrow \exists M\left[x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n} \mapsto_{S T T} M: A\right] .
$$

Moreover show that for all sequents $A_{1}, \ldots A_{n} \mapsto A$ there is a one-one correspondence between the $N D$ tree-proofs of $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \mapsto A$ and pairs consisting of $a$ term $M$ and an STT tree-proof of the sequent $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n} \mapsto M: A$.
2. In the following let $\Gamma$ be a context $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}$. Prove the following results.
(a) If $\Gamma \mapsto S_{S T T} M: A$ then $\operatorname{var}(M) \subseteq\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$.
(b) If $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is a context that includes every variable declaration of $\Gamma$ then

$$
\Gamma \mapsto \mapsto_{S T T} M: A \Longrightarrow \Gamma^{\prime} \mapsto \mapsto_{S T T} M: A
$$

(c) If $\Delta \mapsto \operatorname{STT} N_{i}: A_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$ then

$$
\Gamma \mapsto S_{S T T} M: A \Longrightarrow \Delta \mapsto \mapsto_{S T T} M\left[N_{1}, \ldots N_{n} / x_{1}, \ldots x_{n}\right]: A
$$

(d) If $M$ red $M^{\prime}$ then

$$
\Gamma \mapsto \mapsto_{S T T} M: A \Longrightarrow \Gamma \not \mapsto_{S T T} M^{\prime}: A
$$

### 3.2 The variant $S T T^{\prime}$

The terms of $S T T^{\prime}$ are like the untyped terms except that lambda abstractions have to include a typing of the variable being bound and so have the form $\lambda x: A . M$, where $A$ is a type. The rules of $S T T^{\prime}$ are just as the rules of $S T T$ except that the rule (abstr) has to be replaced by the following rule.

$$
(\text { abstr })^{\prime} \frac{\Gamma, y: B \mapsto M: C}{\Gamma \mapsto \lambda y: B \cdot M:(B \rightarrow C)}
$$

## Exercises 3.2

1. If $M$ is a term of $S T T^{\prime}$ then let $M^{-}$be the untyped term obtained by erasing〔 A' from each abstraction subterm $\lambda x: A . N$. Show that

$$
\Gamma \mapsto{ }_{S T T} M: A \Longleftrightarrow \exists M^{\prime}\left[M=M^{\prime-} \text { and } \Gamma \mapsto{ }_{S T T^{\prime}} M^{\prime}: A\right]
$$

2. Show that if there is a type $A$ such that $\Gamma \mapsto S_{S T T^{\prime}} M: A$ then there is a unique such $A$ and for that $A$ there is a unique tree-proof in $S T T^{\prime}$ of $\Gamma \mapsto M: A$.

By the result of the second exercise we may write $\operatorname{type}_{\Gamma}(M)$ for the unique type $A$ such that $\Gamma \mapsto S T T^{\prime} M: A$, when it exists. Also note that if $\Gamma$ is the context $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}$ then the terms $M$ of $S T T^{\prime}$ such that $\Gamma \mapsto S T T^{\prime} M: A$ are in one-one correspondence with the $N D$ tree-proofs of $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n} \mapsto A$. So these terms $M$ can be viewed as formal expressions that represent the corresponding $N D$ tree-proofs.

### 3.2.1 Standard Set Theoretical Models of $S T T^{\prime}$

Given an assignment of a set $\llbracket A_{0} \rrbracket$ to each atomic type $A_{0}$ we may define a standard set theoretical model for $S T T^{\prime}$ in the following way. Define $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ for each type $A$ by structural recursion using the equation

$$
\llbracket A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2} \rrbracket=\llbracket A_{2} \rrbracket^{\llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket}
$$

where, for sets $X, Y, Y^{X}$ is the set of all the functions from $X$ to $Y$. Also, if $\Gamma$ is the context $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}$ then let

$$
\llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket=\llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket \times \cdots \times \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket .
$$

Now, by structural recursion on $M$, whenever $\Gamma \mapsto{ }_{S T T^{\prime}} M: A$ we may assign a function

$$
\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\Gamma}: \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket A \rrbracket
$$

using the following equations, where we let $\vec{a}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \llbracket \Gamma \rrbracket$.

$$
\begin{cases}\llbracket x_{i} \rrbracket_{\Gamma}(\vec{a}) & =a_{i} \quad(i=1, \ldots, n) \\ \llbracket(M N) \rrbracket_{\Gamma}(\vec{a}) & =\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\Gamma}(\vec{a})\left(\llbracket N \rrbracket_{\Gamma}(\vec{a})\right) \\ \llbracket \lambda y: B \cdot M \rrbracket_{\Gamma}(\vec{a}) & =(\boldsymbol{\lambda} b \in \llbracket B \rrbracket) \llbracket M \rrbracket_{\Gamma, y: B}(\vec{a}, b)\end{cases}
$$

where, in the last equation the right hand side is the function $f: \llbracket B \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket C \rrbracket$ such that for all $b \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$

$$
f(b)=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\Gamma, y: B}(\vec{a}, b) .
$$

Note that it would not be so easy to formulate a notion of set theoretical model for the type theory $S T T$.

### 3.3 Standard Term Models of STT

The notion of a standard term model of $S T T$ will be a useful tool in describing a variety of constructions for proving that every $S T T$-term is in a set $S$, for various sets $S$ such as the set $\mathcal{N}$ of normalisable terms or the set $\mathcal{S N}$ of strongly normalisable terms.

Call an untyped term $M$ an $S T T$-term if $\Gamma \mapsto S_{S T T} M: A$ for some context $\Gamma$ and some type $A$. In this section we introduce a useful notion of term model for $S T T$. Let $\mathcal{T}$ be the set of untyped terms. For subsets $X, Y$ of $\mathcal{T}$ let $X \rightarrow Y$ and $X \rightarrow^{w} Y$ be given by the following definitions.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
X \rightarrow Y & =\{M \mid \forall N \in X(M N) \in Y\} \\
X \rightarrow^{w} Y & =\{\lambda x \cdot M \mid \forall N \in X M[N / x] \in Y\}
\end{array}
$$

Definition 3.3 $A$ standard term model of STT is an assignment of a subset $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ of $\mathcal{T}$ to each type $A$ such that for all types $A_{1}, A_{2}$

$$
\llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket \rightarrow^{w} \llbracket A_{2} \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2} \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket A_{2} \rrbracket .
$$

Given such a model let $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots x_{n}: A_{n} \models M: A$ if

$$
M\left[N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n} / x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \in \llbracket A \rrbracket
$$

for all $N_{1} \in \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \ldots, N_{n} \in \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket$.
Theorem 3.4 (Soundness) Given a standard term model of STT

$$
\Gamma \mapsto{ }_{S T T} M: A \Longrightarrow \Gamma \vDash M: A
$$

Proof: This is by a straightforward induction on the size of an $S T T$ tree-proof of $\Gamma \mapsto M: A$. The base case, for the axioms (ass), is trivial. The induction step for the rule (appl) uses

$$
\llbracket B \rightarrow C \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket B \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket C \rrbracket
$$

The induction step for the rule (abstr) uses

$$
\llbracket B \rrbracket \rightarrow^{w} \llbracket C \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket B \rightarrow C \rrbracket .
$$

But some care is needed to relabel the variable $y$, given an instance of the rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma, y: B \mapsto M: C}{\Gamma \mapsto \lambda y \cdot M:(B \rightarrow C)} .
$$

The induction hypothesis is $\Gamma, y: B \mid=M: C$. If $\Gamma$ is the context $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ : $A_{n}$ then this means that for all $N_{1} \in \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \ldots, N_{n} \in \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket$

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\forall N \in \llbracket B \rrbracket) M\left[N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n}, N / x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y\right] \in \llbracket C \rrbracket . \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can rewrite $(*)$ as

$$
(\forall N \in \llbracket B \rrbracket) M^{\prime}\left[N / y^{\prime}\right] \in \llbracket C \rrbracket
$$

where

$$
M^{\prime}=M\left[y^{\prime} / y\right]\left[N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n} / x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]
$$

provided that $y^{\prime}$ is a fresh variable (i.e. distinct from each of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, y$ and not occurring in any of $\left.M, N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n}, N\right)$. So we get from (*) that

$$
\lambda y^{\prime} \cdot M^{\prime} \in \llbracket B \rrbracket \rightarrow^{w} \llbracket C \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket B \rightarrow C \rrbracket .
$$

Now observe that

$$
\lambda y^{\prime} \cdot M^{\prime}=(\lambda y \cdot M)\left[N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n} / x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]
$$

It follows that for all $N_{1} \in \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \ldots, N_{n} \in \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket$

$$
\left.(\lambda y \cdot M)\left[N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n} / x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\right) \in \llbracket B \rightarrow C \rrbracket
$$

so that we have $\Gamma \models \lambda y \cdot M:(B \rightarrow C)$ as required.

Definition 3.5 A non-empty collection $\mathcal{C}$ of sets of terms is defined to be an STTcollection if there is a binary operation $m$ on $\mathcal{C}$ such that for all $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$

$$
X \rightarrow^{w} Y \subseteq m(X, Y) \subseteq X \rightarrow Y
$$

We call such an opeartion $m$ an implication operation for $\mathcal{C}$. Call an STTcollection $\mathcal{C}$ variable rich if every variable is in every set in $\mathcal{C}$.

Theorem 3.6 Let $S$ be a set of terms such that there is a variable rich STT-collection of subsets of S. Then every STT-term is in $S$.

Proof: Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a variable rich $S T T$-collection of subsets of $S$ and choose any $X_{0} \in \mathcal{C}$. We may define a standard term model of $S T T$ as follows. We recursively define $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ for all types $A$ by letting $\llbracket A_{0} \rrbracket=X_{0}$ for each atomic type $A_{0}$ and letting

$$
\llbracket A_{1} \rightarrow A_{2} \rrbracket=m\left(\llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \llbracket A_{2} \rrbracket\right) .
$$

Now if $M$ is an $S T T$-term then there is a context $\Gamma$ and a type $A$ such that $\Gamma \vdash$ ${ }^{-}{ }_{S T T} M: A$. So, by the previous theorem, $\Gamma \vDash M: A$. If $\Gamma$ is the context $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}$ then $M \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, as $x_{1} \in \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket, \ldots, x_{n} \in \llbracket A_{n} \rrbracket$, and hence $M \in S$.

### 3.4 The 'Normal Relation' method for $S T T$

We will define the notion of a 'regular' set of terms $S$ and the notion of a 'normal relation' for a set of terms $S$ and prove the result that if a regular set $S$ has a normal relation then we can define a simple variable rich $S T T$-collection of subsets of $S$ so that every $S T T$-term is in $S$. We will apply this result to both the sets $\mathcal{N}$ and $\mathcal{S} \mathcal{N}$. In this way we cover a variety of constructions that give normalisation proofs for STT.

For each set $S$ of terms let $S^{*}$ be the set of terms that have the form

$$
x N_{1} \cdots N_{k}
$$

where $x \in \operatorname{Var}, k \geq 0$ and $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{k} \in S$. Observe that we always have $S^{*} \subseteq$ $\left(S \rightarrow S^{*}\right)$. We define $S$ to be a regular set if $S^{*} \subseteq S$ and also whenever $(M x) \in S$, with $x \notin \operatorname{var}(M)$ then $M \in S$.

Exercise 3.7 Show that both the set $\mathcal{N}$ of normalisable terms and the set $\mathcal{S} \mathcal{N}$ of strongly normalisable terms are regular.

Lemma 3.8 If $S$ is a regular set then

$$
S^{*} \subseteq X, Y \subseteq S \Longrightarrow S^{*} \subseteq(X \rightarrow Y) \subseteq S
$$

Proof: Let $S$ be a regular set. First observe that $\left(S^{*} \rightarrow S\right) \subseteq S$. For if $M \in\left(S^{*} \rightarrow S\right)$ then choose a variable $x$ that is not in $\operatorname{var}(M)$. Then, as $x \in S^{*}$, $(M x) \in S$ so that $M \in S$, as $S$ is regular. Now let $S^{*} \subseteq X, Y \subseteq S$. Then, as the binary operation $\rightarrow$ on sets of terms is antimonotone in its first argument and monotone in its second,

$$
S^{*} \subseteq\left(S \rightarrow S^{*}\right) \subseteq(X \rightarrow Y) \subseteq\left(S^{*} \rightarrow S\right) \subseteq S
$$

Let $S$ be a set of terms. A relation $\mathcal{R}$ on terms is defined to be $S$-invariant if

$$
M \mathcal{R} M^{\prime} \Longrightarrow(M N) \mathcal{R}\left(M^{\prime} N\right)
$$

for all $N \in S$. Note that the reduction relation red is always $S$-invariant.
Lemma 3.9 Let $X, Y$ be sets of terms. If $\mathcal{R}$ is an $X$-invariant relation then

$$
Y \text { is } \mathcal{R} \text {-closed } \Longrightarrow(X \rightarrow Y) \text { is } \mathcal{R} \text {-closed. }
$$

Proof: Let $\mathcal{R}$ be an $X$-invariant relation and let $Y$ be $\mathcal{R}$-closed. Given $M \mathcal{R} M^{\prime} \in$ $(X \rightarrow Y)$ we must show that $M \in(X \rightarrow Y)$. So let $N \in X$. Then $(M N) \mathcal{R}\left(M^{\prime} N\right) \in$ $Y$, as $\mathcal{R}$ is $X$-invariant, so that $(M N) \in Y$, as $Y$ is $\mathcal{R}$-closed.

Call a redex $((\lambda x . M) N)$ an $S$-redex if $N \in S$. Let $\mathcal{R}_{S}$ be the relation on terms

$$
\mathcal{R}_{S}=\left\{\left(M, M^{\wedge}\right) \mid M \text { is an } S \text {-redex }\right\}
$$

Given a relation $\mathcal{R}$ on terms, $S$ is $\mathcal{R}$-closed if, whenever $M \mathcal{R} M^{\prime}$,

$$
M^{\prime} \in S \Longrightarrow M \in S
$$

Lemma 3.10 If $X, Y$ are sets of terms such that $Y$ is $\mathcal{R}_{X}$-closed then $\left(X \rightarrow^{w} Y\right) \subseteq(X \rightarrow Y)$.

Proof: Let $Y$ be $\mathcal{R}_{X}$-closed and let $\lambda x . M \in\left(X \rightarrow^{w} Y\right)$. If $N \in X$ then $L=((\lambda x \cdot M) N)$ is an $X$-redex, so that $L \mathcal{R}_{X} L^{\wedge}$. But $L^{\wedge}=M[N / x] \in Y$ so that $L \in Y$ as required.

We call a relation $\mathcal{R}$ on terms normal for a set $S$ of terms if the following conditions hold.

1. $\mathcal{R}_{S} \subseteq \mathcal{R}$,
2. $\mathcal{R}$ is $S$-invariant,
3. $S$ is $\mathcal{R}$-closed.

Call an $S T T$-collection $\mathcal{C}$ simple if $(X \rightarrow Y) \in \mathcal{C}$ for all $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$. It follows that $m_{\max }(X, Y)=(X \rightarrow Y)$ defines an implication operation for $\mathcal{C}$, the maximum possible one.
Theorem 3.11 If $S$ is a regular set having a normal relation $\mathcal{R}$ then the collection

$$
\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)=\left\{X \mid X \text { is } \mathcal{R} \text {-closed and } S^{*} \subseteq X \subseteq S\right\}
$$

is a simple variable rich STT-collection of subsets of $S$.
Proof: As $S$ is $\mathcal{R}$-closed, $S \in \mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$, so that $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$ is non-empty. For $X, Y \in$ $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$ let $m_{\text {max }}(X, Y)=(X \rightarrow Y)$. By Lemma $3.8, S^{*} \subseteq m_{\max }(X, Y) \subseteq S$. As $X \subseteq S, \mathcal{R}$ is $X$-invariant, so that, by Lemma $3.9, m_{\max }(X, Y)$ is $\mathcal{R}$-closed, as $Y$ is $\mathcal{R}$-closed. Thus $m_{\max }(X, Y) \in \mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$. Finally, as $X \subseteq S, \mathcal{R}_{X} \subseteq \mathcal{R}_{S} \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ so that $Y$ is $\mathcal{R}_{X}$-closed and hence, by Lemma 3.10,

$$
\left(X \rightarrow^{w} Y\right) \subseteq m_{\max }(X, Y)=(X \rightarrow Y)
$$

Thus $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$ is a simple $S T T$-collection. It is variable rich because $\operatorname{Var} \subseteq S^{*} \subseteq X$ for any $X \in \mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$.

Note: Another possible implication operation for $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(S)$ is given by

$$
m_{\min }(X, Y)=\left(S^{*} \cup\left(X \rightarrow^{w} Y\right)\right)^{\mathcal{R}}
$$

where, for any set $X$ of terms, $X^{\mathcal{R}}$ is the smallest $\mathcal{R}$-closed set that includes $X$. It is the set of those terms $M$ such that there is an $\mathcal{R}$-path

$$
M \mathcal{R} M^{(1)} \mathcal{R} M^{(2)} \mathcal{R} \cdots \mathcal{R} M^{(n)} \in X
$$

with $n \geq 0$.
Corollary 3.12 If $S$ is a regular set that has a normal relation then every STTterm is in $S$.

Given any relation on terms $\mathcal{R}$, we may form the smallest $S$-invariant relation, $\mathcal{R}^{S}$, that includes $\mathcal{R}$. In fact it consists of all pairs ( $M N_{1} \cdots N_{k}, M^{\prime} N_{1} \cdots N_{k}$ ) such that $M \mathcal{R} M^{\prime}$ and $N_{1}, \ldots N_{k}, \in S$ with $k \geq 0$.

Exercises 3.13 If $S$ is a regular set show that

1. If $S$ has a normal relation then $\left(\mathcal{R}_{S}\right)^{S}$ is its smallest normal relation.
2. $S$ has a normal relation if and only if $S$ is $\left(\mathcal{R}_{S}\right)^{S}$-closed.
3. If $\mathcal{R}$ is a normal relation for $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ is a regular subset of $S$ that is $\mathcal{R}$-closed then $\mathcal{R}$ is also a normal relation for $S^{\prime}$

## Theorem 3.14

1. red is a normal relation for the regular set $\mathcal{N}$.
2. $\left(\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{N}}\right)^{S}$ is a normal relation for $\mathcal{N}$ whenever $\mathcal{N} \subseteq S$.
3. $\left(\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{S N}}\right)^{S}$ is a normal relation for the regular set $\mathcal{S N}$ whenever $\mathcal{S N} \subseteq S$.

By applying the corollary to this result we get several constructions that give the normalisation theorem for $S T T$, some of them also giving the stronger result for strong normalisation.

Exercise 3.15 The left-most redex of a non-normal term is that redex that starts furthest to the left among all redexes. The left-most contraction is the contraction of the left-most redex. A left-most reduction is a sequence of left-most contractions. Let $\mathcal{L N}$ be the set of those terms having a left-most reduction to normal form. Show that $\mathcal{L \mathcal { N }}$ is regular and has a normal relation.

### 3.5 Girard's method

Girard's 'candidate de reducibilité' method for proving strong normalisation involves a slightly different simple variable rich $S T T$-collection of subsets of $\mathcal{S N}$ than those of the form $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(\mathcal{S N})$ used in the previous section. We leave the details as exercises.

Definition 3.16 We define a set of terms $X$ to be a $C R$-set if the following three conditions hold.
(CR1) $X \subseteq \mathcal{S N}$,
(CR2) If $M \in X$ then $[M$ contr $N \Longrightarrow N \in X]$,
(CR3) If $M$ does not have the form $\lambda x \cdot M_{0}$ and $\forall N[M$ contr $N \Longrightarrow N \in X]$ then $M \in X$.

Let $\mathcal{C R}=\{X \mid X$ is a $C R$-set $\}$.

## Exercises 3.17

1. $\mathcal{S N} \in \mathcal{C} \mathcal{R}$,
2. $\mathcal{C R}$ is a simple variable rich $S T T$-collection of subsets of $\mathcal{S N}$,
3. If $\mathcal{R}=\left(\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{S N}}\right)^{\mathcal{T}}$ then $\mathcal{C R} \subseteq \mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}(\mathcal{S N})$.

### 3.6 Another method for strong normalisation

We describe a method for proving strong normalisation for $S T T$-terms that uses an $S T T$-collection of sets of variable free terms. Let $\mathcal{T}^{0}$ be the set of all variable free terms and for any set $S$ of terms let $S^{0}=\mathcal{T}^{0} \cap S$.

Theorem 3.18 Let $S$ be a set of terms such that

$$
\lambda x . M \in S \Longrightarrow M \in S .
$$

If there is an STT-collection of subsets of $S$ then every STT-term is in $S$.

Theorem 3.19 Let $S$ be a set of terms such that for all terms $\lambda x . M$
$(*) \quad \exists N(M[N / x] \in S) \Longrightarrow \lambda x \cdot M \in S$.
If $S$ has a normal relation $\mathcal{R}$ then

$$
\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{R}}^{\prime}(S)=\{X \subseteq S \mid X \text { is a non-empty } \mathcal{R} \text {-closed set }\}
$$

is an STT-collection of subsets of $S$.
Proof: We define the implication operation for this collection by

$$
m(X, Y)=S \cap(X \rightarrow Y)
$$

and apply the following result.

## Lemma 3.20

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. } Y \neq \emptyset \Longrightarrow\left(X \rightarrow^{w} Y\right) \neq \emptyset \\
& \text { 2. If }\left(^{*}\right) \text { then }[X \neq \emptyset \text { and } Y \subseteq S] \Longrightarrow\left(X \rightarrow^{w} Y\right) \subseteq S .
\end{aligned}
$$

Exercise 3.21 Show that $\left(\mathcal{R}_{\mathcal{S N}^{0}}\right)^{S}$ is a normal relation for $\mathcal{S N}^{0}$ whenever $\mathcal{S N}^{0} \subseteq$ $S$.

By this exercise $\mathcal{S} \mathcal{N}^{0}$ has a normal relation so that, as $\mathcal{S \mathcal { N } ^ { 0 }}$ is a set $S$ satisfying $\left(^{*}\right)$, by the theorem there is an $S T T$-collection of subsets of $\mathcal{S N}{ }^{0}$. This is an $S T T$ collection of subsets of $\mathcal{S N}$ so that, by Theorem 3.6, as $\lambda x . M \in \mathcal{S N} \Longrightarrow M \in \mathcal{S N}$, every $S T T$-term is in $\mathcal{S N}$.

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