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# Type theory and logic

Lecture IV: meta-theoretical reasoning

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# Meta-language vs object language

Types and programs form a language, which are talked about by a separate language of judgements and derivations. In this case we call the former the *object language*, and the latter the *meta-language*.

What we write down as types and programs are nothing more than certain syntax trees by themselves; then, at a higher level, we organise and relate these syntax trees with judgements and derivations.

For example, equality judgements are a meta-theoretic notion and cannot be used inside the theory to state equations as provable propositions — we need identity types instead.

### Type theory should eat itself

Judgements and derivations can also be regarded as syntax trees to be reasoned about. For example, consistency is a statement in which judgements and derivations are the object language and English is the meta-language. (Canonicity is another example.)

We can also use Agda as the meta-language!

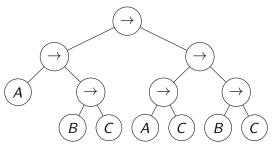
# Implicational fragment of propositional logic

Today we consider only propositions formed with implication.

Each of these propositions is a finite tree whose internal nodes are implications and whose leaves are atomic propositions, which are elements of a given set  $Var = \{A, B, C, ...\}$ .

**Example.** The proposition

(A 
ightarrow B 
ightarrow C) 
ightarrow (A 
ightarrow C) 
ightarrow B 
ightarrow C is represented as



#### Natural deduction

Natural deduction is the type part of simple type theory (and we are considering only the implicational fragment).

### Untyped $\lambda$ -calculus

A  $\lambda$ -term is either a variable, an abstraction, or an application.

We usually assume  $\alpha$ -equivalence of  $\lambda$ -terms, i.e., the names of bound variables do not matter.

- Change of bound variable names is called  $\alpha$ -conversion, which has to be *capture-avoiding*, i.e., *free variables* must not become bound after a name change.
- In formalisation, we prefer not to deal with  $\alpha$ -equivalence explicitly, and one way is to use de Bruijn indices  $\lambda$ 's are nameless, and a bound variable is represented as a natural number indicating to which  $\lambda$  it is bound.

# Simply typed $\lambda$ -calculus (à la Curry)

 $\lambda$ -calculus was designed to model function abstraction and application in mathematics. In untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus, however, we can write nonsensical terms like  $\lambda x$ . x.

We can use the implicational fragement of propositional logic as a type language for  $\lambda$ -calculus, ruling out nonsensical terms.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \overline{\Gamma \vdash x:p} & \text{(var)} & \text{when } x:p \in \Gamma \\ \\ & \frac{\Gamma, \, x:p \, \vdash \, t:q}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. \, t:p \rightarrow q} & \text{(abs)} \\ \\ & \frac{\Gamma \vdash t:p \rightarrow q}{\Gamma \vdash t \, u:q} & \text{(app)} \end{array}$$

#### Curry-Howard isomorphism

Derivations in natural deduction and well-typed  $\lambda$ -terms are in one-to-one correspondence.

That is, we can write two functions,

- one mapping a logical derivation in natural deduction to a  $\lambda$ -term and its typing derivation, and
- the other mapping a  $\lambda$ -term with a typing derivation to a logical derivation in natural deduction,

and can prove that the two functions are inverse to each other.

This result is historically significant: two formalisms are developed separately from logical and computational perspectives, yet they coincide perfectly.

# Simply typed $\lambda$ -calculus à la Church

The Curry–Howard isomorphism points out that derivations in natural deduction are actually  $\lambda$ -terms in disguise.

These  $\lambda$ -terms are intrinsically typed, so every term we are able to write down is necessarily well-behaved, whereas in simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus à la Curry, we can write arbitrary  $\lambda$ -terms, and only rule out ill-behaved ones via typing later.

#### Semantics

After defining a language (like the implicational fragment of propositional logic), which consists of a bunch of syntax trees, we need to specify what these trees mean.

Judgements and derivations (which form a *deduction system*) assign meaning to the propositional language by specifying how it is used in formal reasoning.

We can also translate the syntax trees into entities in a well understood semantic domain. In the case of propositional logic, we can translate propositional trees to functions on truth values. (This is the classical treatment.)

# Two-valued semantics of propositional logic

- Define Bool  $:= \{ false, true \}.$
- An *assignment* is a function of type  $V \rightarrow Bool$ .
- A proposition p is translated into a function  $\llbracket p \rrbracket : (V \to \mathsf{Bool}) \to \mathsf{Bool}$  mapping assignments to truth values.
- An assignment  $\sigma$  models a proposition p exactly when  $[\![p]\!]$   $\sigma$  is true, and models a context  $\Gamma$  exactly when it models every proposition in  $\Gamma$ .

# Two-valued semantics of propositional logic

- A proposition p is satisfiable exactly when there exists an assignment that models p, and is valid exactly when every assignment models p.
- A proposition p is a semantic consequence of a context  $\Gamma$  (written  $\Gamma \models p$ ) exactly when every assignment that models  $\Gamma$  also models p.

**Exercise.** Show that  $(p \to p \to q) \to (p \to q)$  is valid for any propositions p and q.

**Exercise.** Show that a proposition p is valid if and only if p is a semantic consequence of the empty context.

# Relationship between deduction systems and semantics

Natural deduction is *sound* with respect to the two-valued semantics: whenever we can deduce  $\Gamma \vdash p$ , it must be the case that  $\Gamma \models p$ .

The implicational fragment of propositional logic is also (semantically) complete with respect to the two-valued semantics: if  $\Gamma \models p$ , then we can construct a derivation of  $\Gamma \vdash p$ .