

# A Report of *Type Theory and Formal Proof*

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# 1 Introduction

This report is going to provide a summary over the book [NG14]. Alongside the different chapters of the book I am going to describe briefly the most important parts of each chapter and, at the same time, I am going to solve 1 or 2 of the exercises proposed by the authors.

The organization of the report is going to be the same as the chapters of the book.

# 2 Untyped lambda calculus

In this first chapter the authors define and describe Lambda Calculus ( *$\lambda$ -calculus*) system which encapsulates the formalization of basic aspects of mathematical functions, in particular construction and use. In  *$\lambda$ -calculus* formalization system there are *typed* and *untyped* formalization of the same system. In this first case authors introduced the first basic and simple formalization which is *untyped*.

## 2.1 Definition

There are *two constructions principles* and *one evaluation rule*

### Construction principles:

- *Abstraction*: Given an expression  $M$  and a variable  $x$  we can construct the expression:  $\lambda x.M$ . This is abstraction of  $x$  over  $M$  Example:  $\lambda y.(\lambda x.x - y)$  Abstraction of  $y$  over  $\lambda x.x - y$
- *Application*: Given 2 expressions  $M$  and  $N$  we can construct the expression:  $M N$ . This is the application of  $M$  to  $N$ . Example:  $(\lambda x.x^2 + 1)(3)$  Application of 3 over  $\lambda x.x^2 + 1$

**Evaluation Rule:** Formalization of this process is called Beta Reduction ( *$\beta$ -reduction*).  *$\beta$ -reduction*: An expression  $(\lambda x.M)N$  can be rewritten to  $M[x := N]$ , which means every  $x$  should be replaced by  $N$  in  $M$ . This process is called  *$\beta$ -reduction* of  $(\lambda x.M)N$  to  $M[x := N]$ .

Example:  $(\lambda x.x^2 + 1)(3)$  reduces to  $(x^2 + 1)[x := 3]$ , which is  $3^2 + 1$ .

In this book, functions on  *$\lambda$ -calculus* notation are *Curried*.

### 2.1.1 Lambda-terms

Expressions in  $\lambda$ -calculus are called Lambda Terms ( $\lambda$ -term)

**Definition 1.** *The set  $\Lambda$  of all  $\lambda$ -term*

1. (Variable) If  $u \in V$ , then  $u \in \Lambda$   
Example:  $x, y, z$
2. (Application) If  $M$  and  $N \in \Lambda$ , then  $(MN) \in \Lambda$   
Example:  $(xy), (x(xy))$
3. (Abstraction) If  $u \in V$  and  $M \in \Lambda$ , then  $(\lambda u.M) \in \Lambda$   
Example:  $(\lambda x.(xz)), (\lambda y.(\lambda z.x))$

**Definition 2.** *Multiset of subterms  $Sub$*

1. (Basis)  $Sub(x) = \{x\}$ , for each  $x \in V$
2. (Application)  $Sub((MN)) = Sub(M) \cup Sub(N) \cup \{(MN)\}$
3. (Abstraction)  $Sub((\lambda x.M)) = Sub(M) \cup \{(\lambda x.M)\}$

**Lemma 1.** (1) (*Reflexivity*) For all  $\lambda$ -term  $M$ , we have  $M \in Sub(M)$ . (2) (*Transitivity*) If  $L \in Sub(M)$  and  $M \in Sub(N)$ , then  $L \in Sub(N)$ .

**Definition 3** (Proper subterm).  $L$  is a proper subterm of  $M$  if  $L$  is a subterm of  $M$ , but  $L \neq M$

- Parenthesis can be omitted
- Application is left-associative,  $MNL$  is  $((MN)L)$
- Application takes precedence over Abstraction

## 2.2 Free and bound variables

Variables can be *free*, *bound* and *binding*. A variable  $x$  which is *free* in  $M$  becomes *bound* in  $\lambda x.M$ .  $M$  is called a *binding* variable occurrence.

**Definition 4** (FV, set of free variables of a  $\lambda$ -term).

1. (Variable)  $FV(x) = \{x\}$
2. (Application)  $FV(MN) = FV(M) \cup FV(N)$
3. (Abstraction)  $FV(\lambda x.M) = FV(M) \setminus \{x\}$

**Definition 5** (Closed  $\lambda$ -term; combinator;  $\Lambda^0$ ). *The  $\lambda$ -term  $M$  is closed if  $FV(M) = \emptyset$ . This is also called a combinator. The set of all closed  $\lambda$ -term is denoted by  $\Lambda^0$*

### 2.2.1 Alpha conversion

It is based on the possibility of renaming bound and binding variables.

**Definition 6** (Renaming;  $M^{x \rightarrow y}$ ;  $=_\alpha$ ). *Let  $M^{x \rightarrow y}$  denote the result of replacing every free occurrence of  $x$  in  $M$  by  $y$ . Renaming, expressed by  $=_\alpha$  is defined as:  $\lambda x.M =_\alpha \lambda y.M^{x \rightarrow y}$ , provided that  $y \notin FV(M)$  and  $y$  is not binding in  $M$*

**Definition 7** ( $\alpha$ -conversion or  $\alpha$ -equivalence;  $=_\alpha$ ).

1. (Renaming) same as 6
2. (Compatibility) If  $M =_\alpha N$ , then  $ML =_\alpha NL$ ,  $LM =_\alpha LN$  and, for any arbitrary  $z$ ,  $\lambda z.M =_\alpha \lambda z.N$
3. (Reflexivity)  $M =_\alpha M$
4. (Symmetry) If  $M =_\alpha N$  then  $N =_\alpha M$
5. (Transitivity) If both  $L =_\alpha M$  and  $M =_\alpha N$ , then  $L =_\alpha N$

## 2.3 Substitution

**Definition 8** (Substitution).

1.  $x[x := N] \equiv N$
2.  $y[x := N] \equiv y$  if  $x \neq y$
3.  $(PQ)[x := N] \equiv (P[x := N])(Q[x := N])$
4.  $(\lambda y.P)[x := N] \equiv \lambda z.(P^{y \rightarrow z}[x := N])$ , if  $\lambda z.P^{y \rightarrow z}$  is  $\alpha$ -variant of  $\lambda y.P$  such that  $z \notin FV(N)$

## 2.4 Beta reduction

**Definition 9** (One-step  $\beta$ -reduction,  $\rightarrow_\beta$ ).

1. (Basis)  $(\lambda x.M)N \rightarrow_\beta M[x := N]$ ,
2. (Compatibility) If  $M \rightarrow_\beta N$ , then  $ML \rightarrow_\beta NL$ ,  $LM \rightarrow_\beta LN$  and  $\lambda x.M \rightarrow_\beta \lambda x.N$

In 1 the left part of  $\rightarrow_\beta$  is called *redex* (reducible expression), and the right side is called *contractum* (of the redex).

**Definition 10** ( $\beta$ -reduction (zero-or-more-step),  $\rightarrow_\beta$ ).  $M \rightarrow_\beta N$  if there is an  $n \geq 0$  and there are terms  $M_0$  to  $M_n$  such that  $M_0 \equiv M$ ,  $M_n \equiv N$  and for all  $i, 0 \leq i < n$ :

$$M_i \rightarrow_\beta M_{i+1}$$

Hence, if  $M \rightarrow_\beta N$ , there exists a chain of single-step  $\beta$ -reductions, starting with  $M$  and ending with  $N$ :

$$M \equiv M_0 \rightarrow_\beta M_1 \rightarrow_\beta M_2 \rightarrow_\beta \dots \rightarrow_\beta M_{n-2} \rightarrow_\beta M_{n-1} \rightarrow_\beta M_n \equiv N$$

**Definition 11** ( $\beta$ -conversion,  $\beta$ -equality;  $=_\beta$ ).  $M =_\beta N$  if there is an  $n \geq 0$  and there are terms  $M_0$  to  $M_n$  such that  $M_0 \equiv M$ ,  $M_n \equiv N$  and for all  $i, 0 \leq i < n$ :

$$\text{either } M_i \rightarrow_\beta M_{i+1} \text{ or } M_{i+1} \rightarrow_\beta M_i$$

## 2.5 Fixed Point Theorem

**Theorem 1.** For all  $L \in \Lambda$  there is  $M \in \Lambda$  such that  $LM =_\beta M$

*Proof.* For given  $L$ , define  $M := (\lambda x.L(xx))(\lambda x.L(xx))$  This  $M$  is a redex, so we have:

$$M \equiv (\lambda x.L(xx))(\lambda x.L(xx)) \tag{1a}$$

$$\rightarrow_\beta L((\lambda x.L(xx))(\lambda x.L(xx))) \tag{1b}$$

$$\equiv LM \tag{1c}$$

Therefore,  $LM =_\beta M$  □

## 2.6 Exercises

### 2.6.1 1.10 Church numerals

Having that:

- $zero := \lambda f x.x$
- $one := \lambda f x.fx$
- $two := \lambda f x.f(fx)$
- $add := \lambda m n f x.mf(nfx)$
- $mult := \lambda m n f x.m(nf)x$

(a). Show that:  $(add\ one\ one \rightarrow_{\beta} two)$

*Proof.* Replacing by lambda expressions

$$add\ one\ one := (\lambda mnfx.mf(nfx))(\lambda fx.fx)(\lambda fx.fx) \quad (2a)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda nfx.(\lambda fx.fx)f(nfx))(\lambda fx.fx) \quad (2b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.(\lambda fx.fx)f((\lambda fx.fx)fx)) \quad (2c)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.(\lambda fx.fx)f(fx)) \quad (2d)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.f(fx)) \quad (2e)$$

$$:= two \quad (2f)$$

□

(b). Show that:  $(add\ one\ one \neq_{\beta} mult\ one\ zero)$

*Proof.* We need to reduce  $(mult\ one\ zero)$  and show that is not  $two$

$$mult\ one\ zero := (\lambda mnfx.m(nf)x)(\lambda fx.fx)(\lambda fx.x) \quad (3a)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda nfx.(\lambda fx.fx)(nf)x)(\lambda fx.x) \quad (3b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.(\lambda fx.fx)((\lambda fx.x)f)x) \quad (3c)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.(\lambda x.((\lambda fx.x)f)x)x) \quad (3d)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.(\lambda x.(\lambda x.x)x)x) \quad (3e)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.(\lambda x.x)x) \quad (3f)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.x) \quad (3g)$$

$$:= zero \quad (3h)$$

□

## 2.6.2 1.11 - Successor

Having that  $suc := \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ . Check the following

(a).  $suc\ zero =_{\beta} one$

*Proof.*

$$suc\ zero =_{\beta} (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda fx.x) \quad (4a)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.f((\lambda fx.x)fx)) \quad (4b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.f((\lambda x.x)x)) \quad (4c)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda fx.fx) \quad (4d)$$

$$:= one \quad (4e)$$

□

(b).  $\text{suc one} =_{\beta} \text{two}$ *Proof.*

$$\text{suc one} =_{\beta} (\lambda m f x. f(m f x))(\lambda f x. f x) \quad (5a)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda f x. f((\lambda f x. f x) f x)) \quad (5b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda f x. f((\lambda x. f x) x)) \quad (5c)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda f x. f(f x)) \quad (5d)$$

$$:= \text{two} \quad (5e)$$

□

### 2.6.3 1.12 - If then else

The term 'If  $x$  then  $u$  else  $v$ ' is represented by  $\lambda x. xuv$ . Check this by calculating  $\beta$ -normal forms of  $(\lambda x. xuv)\text{true}$  and  $(\lambda x. xuv)\text{false}$ , having that:

- $\text{true} := \lambda xy. x$
- $\text{false} := \lambda xy. y$

$(\lambda x. xuv)\text{true}.$

$$:= (\lambda x. xuv)(\lambda xy. x) \quad (6a)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda xy. x)uv \quad (6b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. u)v \quad (6c)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} u \quad (6d)$$

$$(6e)$$

□

$(\lambda x. xuv)\text{false}.$

$$:= (\lambda x. xuv)(\lambda xy. y) \quad (7a)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda xy. y)uv \quad (7b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. y)v \quad (7c)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} v \quad (7d)$$

$$(7e)$$

□

### 3 Simply typed lambda calculus

In this chapter authors introduce **Types** to  $\lambda$ -calculus Formalization system. When we are acting on mathematical functions, the natural thing is to restrict over some domain, both the image and the pre-image. The addition of types to the formalization system prevents some anomalies that are present in the regular  $\lambda$ -calculus model.

#### 3.1 Simple types

It is done adding type *variables* with an infinite set  $\mathbb{V} = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots\}$

**Definition 12** (The set  $\mathbb{T}$  of all simple types).

1. (Type variable) If  $\alpha \in \mathbb{V}$ , then  $\alpha \in \mathbb{T}$
2. (Arrow type) If  $\sigma, \tau \in \mathbb{T}$ , then  $(\sigma \rightarrow \tau) \in \mathbb{T}$

Also,  $\mathbb{T} = \mathbb{V} \mid \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$ .

Parenthesis in *arrow types* are right-associative

##### 3.1.1 Remarks

- *Type variable* represent simple types like *Nat*, *Lists*, etc.
- *Arrow types* represent functions such as *nat*  $\rightarrow$  *real*
- '*term*  $M$  *has type*  $\sigma$ ' (typing statement) is represented as  $M : \sigma$
- '*variable*  $x$  *has type*  $\sigma$ ' is represented as  $x : \sigma$
- If  $x : \sigma$  and  $x : \tau$  then  $\sigma \equiv \tau$
- *Application*: If  $M : \sigma \rightarrow \tau$  and  $N : \sigma$ , then  $MN : \tau$
- *Abstraction*: If  $x : \sigma$  and  $M : \tau$ , then  $\lambda x.M : \sigma \rightarrow \tau$

#### 3.2 Church-typing and Curry-typing

##### 3.2.1 Typing à la Church

Unique type for each variable upon its introduction [Chu40].

**Example:** If  $x$  has type  $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$  and  $y$  has type  $(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \beta$ , then  $yx$  has type  $\beta$ .



If  $z$  has type  $\beta$  and  $u$  has type  $\gamma$ , then  $\lambda zu.z$  has type  $\beta \rightarrow \gamma \rightarrow \beta$ . Therefore application  $(\lambda zu.z)(yx)$  is permitted.

### 3.2.2 Typing à la Curry

Not give the types of variables, leave them *implicit*, therefore is called *implicit typing*.

**Example:** Suppose we have  $M \equiv (\lambda zu.z)(yx)$  but types are not given. Guessing we have  $\lambda zu.z$  should have some type  $A \rightarrow B$ , so  $(yx)$  must be of type  $A$ , then  $M$  is of type  $B$ . If we continue with the guessing assigning type variables after replacing we end up with the same expression as explicit typing.

Most of the book use *Typing a la Church* because in math and logic types are usually fixed and known beforehand.

## References

- [Chu40] Alonzo Church. A formulation of the simple theory of types. *The Journal of Symbolic Logic*, 5(2):56–68, 1940.
- [NG14] Rob Nederpelt and Herman Geuvers. *Type Theory and Formal Proof*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge CB2 8BS, United Kindom, 2014.