Proof And Types: Assignment 1

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1.8

Prove the Weak Church Rosser Theorem. For all $M_1, M_2, M_3 \in \Lambda$, if $M_1 \to_{\beta} M_2$ and $M_1 \to_{\beta} M_3$ then there is a term $M_4 \in \Lambda$ such that $M_2 \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M_4$ and $M_3 \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M_4$.

Proof. We first prove a sequence a lemmas.

Lemma 1: If $x \neq y$ and $x \notin FV(L)$ then

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

Proof. By induction on M.

• Case: M = x, since $x \neq y$

$$\begin{split} M[x := N][y := L] &= & x[x := N][y := L] \\ &= & N[y := L] \\ &= & x[x := N[y := L]] \\ &= & x[y := L][x := N[y := L]] \\ &= & M[y := L][x := N[y := L]] \end{split}$$

• Case: M = y

$$\begin{split} M[x := N][y := L] &= & L \\ &= & M[y := L][x := N[y := L]] \end{split}$$

• Case: M = x where $z \neq x$ and $z \neq y$

$$M[x := N][y := L] = z$$

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

• Case: $M = \lambda z.P$ where $z \neq x$ and $z \neq y$

$$M[x := N][y := L]$$
 = $\lambda z.P[x := N][y := L]$
 = $\lambda z.P[y := L][x := N[y := L]]$
 = $M[y := L][x := N[y := L]]$

• Case: M = PQ

$$\begin{split} M[x := N][y := L] &= & (PQ)[x := N][y := L] \\ &= & (P[x := N][y := L])(Q[x := N][y := L]) \\ &= & (P[y := L][x := N[y := L]])(Q[y := L][x := N[y := L]]) \\ &= & (PQ)[y := L][x := N[y := L]] \\ &= & M[y := L][x := N[y := L]] \end{split}$$

Lemma 2: Assume that $P, P' \in \Lambda$ are such that $P \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P'$ then for all $x \in V$ and $Q \in \Lambda$:

- (i) $\lambda x.P \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.P'$
- (ii) $PQ \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P'Q$
- (iii) $QP \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} QP'$

Proof. By induction on the derivation of $P \rightarrow_{\beta} P'$.

- Case: $P \to_{\beta} P'$ then clearly, $\lambda x.P \to_{\beta} \lambda x.P'$ and $PQ \to_{\beta} P'Q$ and $QP \to_{\beta} QP'$
- Case: there exists P'' such that $P \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P''$ and $P'' \to_{\beta} P'$ then by inductive hypothesis, $\lambda x.P \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.P'$ and $\lambda x.P'' \to_{\beta} \lambda x.P'$ and so $\lambda x.P \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.P'$.

 Again, by inductive hypothesis, $PQ \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P''Q$ and $P''Q \to_{\beta} P'Q$ and so $PQ \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P'Q$.

 Similarly, by inductive hypothesis, $QP \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} QP''$ and $QP'' \to_{\beta} QP'$ and so $QP \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} QP'$.
- Case: P = P' then clearly, $\lambda x.P = \lambda x.P'$ and PQ = P'Q and QP = QP'

Lemma 3: For all $P, P', Q \in \Lambda$ if $P \to_{\beta} P'$ then also $P[x := Q] \to_{\beta} P'[x := Q]$ *Proof.* By induction on the derivation of $P \to_{\beta} P'$.

• Case: $P = (\lambda y.R)S$ and P' = R[y := S]. Then we get

$$P[x := Q] = ((\lambda y.R)S)[x := Q]$$

$$= (\lambda y.R[x := Q])(S[x := Q])$$

$$\to_{\beta} R[x := Q][y := S[x := Q]]$$

$$= R[y := S][x := Q]$$
 (by lemma 1)
$$= P'[x := Q]$$

• Case: $P = \lambda y.R$ and $P' = \lambda y.R'$ such that $R \to_{\beta} R'$. Then we get

$$P[x := Q] = (\lambda y.R)[x := Q]$$

$$= \lambda y.R[x := Q]$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y.R'[x := Q]$$

$$= (\lambda y.R')[x := Q]$$

$$= P'[x := Q]$$

• Case: P = RS and P' = R'S such that $R \to_{\beta} R'$. Then we get

$$P[x := Q] = (RS)[x := Q]$$

$$= R[x := Q]S[x := Q]$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} R'[x := Q]S[x := Q]$$

$$= (R'S)[x := Q]$$

$$= P'[x := Q]$$

• Case: P = RS and P' = RS' such that $S \to_{\beta} S'$. Then we get

$$P[x := Q] = (RS)[x := Q]$$

$$= R[x := Q]S[x := Q]$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} R[x := Q]S'[x := Q]$$

$$= (RS')[x := Q]$$

$$= P'[x := Q]$$

Lemma 4: For all $P, Q, Q' \in \Lambda$ if $Q \to_{\beta} Q'$ then also $P[x := Q] \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} P[x := Q']$ *Proof.* By induction on structure of P.

- Case: P = x then $P[x := Q] = Q \rightarrow_{\beta} Q' = P[x := Q']$
- Case: P = y then $P[x := Q] = y \rightarrow_{\beta} y = P[x := Q']$
- Case: $P = \lambda y.P'$ then

$$P[x := Q] = (\lambda y.P')[x := Q]$$

$$= \lambda y.P'[x := Q]$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y.P'[x := Q']$$

$$= (\lambda y.P')[x := Q']$$

$$= P[x := Q']$$

• Case: $P = P_1 P_2$ then

$$P[x := Q] = (P_1P_2)[x := Q]$$

$$= (P_1[x := Q])(P_2[x := Q])$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (P_1[x := Q'])(P_2[x := Q])$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (P_1[x := Q'])(P_2[x := Q'])$$

$$= (P_1[x := Q'])(P_2[x := Q'])$$

$$= (P_1P_2)[x := Q']$$

$$= P[x := Q']$$

Now, we can finally present the proof of Weak Church Rosser property. We proceed by induction on derivation of $M_1 \to_{\beta} M_2$.

- Case: $M_1 = (\lambda x.P)Q$ and $M_2 = P[x := Q]$. Then Either $M_3 = (\lambda x.P')Q$ such that $P \to_{\beta} P'$. Then set $M_4 = P'[x := Q]$ and note that both $M_2 \to_{\beta} M_4$ (by Lemma 3) and $M_3 \to_{\beta} M_4$ (by Lemma 2). Or either $M_3 = (\lambda x.P)Q'$ such that $Q \to_{\beta} Q'$. Then set $M_4 = P[x := Q']$ and note that both $M_2 \to_{\beta} M_4$ (by Lemma 4) and $M_3 \to_{\beta} M_4$ (by substitution).
- Case: $M_1 = \lambda x.P$ and $M_2 = \lambda x.P'$ because $P \to_{\beta} P'$. Then M_3 must be of the form $\lambda x.P''$ such that $P \to_{\beta} P''$. Then by inductive hypothesis, there exists a term Q such that $P' \to_{\beta} Q$ and $P'' \to_{\beta} Q$. Hence setting $M_4 = \lambda x.Q$ we get the sought term.
- Case: $M_1 = PQ$ and $M_2 = P'Q$ such that $P \to_{\beta} P'$ then Either $M_3 = P''Q$ such that $P \to_{\beta} P''$. By inductive hypothesis, there exists a term R such that $P' \to_{\beta} R$ and $P'' \to_{\beta} R$. Hence $M_4 = RQ$ is the sought term. Or $M_3 = PQ'$ such that $Q \to_{\beta} Q'$. Then note that both $M_2 \to_{\beta} P'Q'$ and $M_3 \to_{\beta} P'Q'$. Hence $M_4 = P'Q'$ as desired.

1.14

Consider the fixed point combinator

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

Show that $F(YF) =_{\beta} YF$ holds for all F.

Proof.

$$YF = (\lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))F$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))[f := F]$$

$$= (\lambda x.F(xx))(\lambda x.F(xx))$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} (F(xx))[x := (\lambda x.F(xx))]$$

$$= F((\lambda x.F(xx))(\lambda x.F(xx))$$

And also,

$$F(YF) = F((\lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))F)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} F(((\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))[f := F])$$

$$= F((\lambda x.F(xx))(\lambda x.F(xx)))$$

Hence,
$$YF =_{\beta} F(YF)$$

2.5

Show that intuitionistic propositional logic is consistent, that is $\not\vdash \bot$.

Proof. Suppose not, that is $\vdash \bot$.

Now, using soundness theorem for Natural Deduction logic system, we know that for every Heyting Algebra \mathcal{H} and every valuation v on \mathcal{H} , $v(\bot) = 1$.

But consider, the usual boolean algebra on (0,1) (which is a Heyting algebra) and the valuation $v: PV \to \mathcal{H}$ where $v(x) = 0 \ \forall x \in PV$.

According to the definition, $\widetilde{v}(\perp) = 0$, where \widetilde{v} is the extension of v to all the well-formed formulas. But that leads to a contradiction.

2.6

Let (A, \vee, \wedge) be an algebra with two binary operations (written in infix notation). Assume that the equations (i)-(iv) of Lemma 2.3.4 hold for all elements of A. Define a < b by $a \vee b = b$. Prove that (A, \leq) is a lattice, where suprema and infima are given by \vee and \wedge .

Proof. Lemma 2.3.4 says that the following are valid:

- $a \lor a = a$ and $a \land a = a$
- $a \lor b = b \lor a$ and $a \land b = b \land a$
- $(a \lor b) \lor c = a \lor (b \lor c)$ and $(a \land b) \land c = a \land (b \land c)$
- $(a \lor b) \land a = a$ and $(a \land b) \lor a = a$

Define \leq relation on A as: $a \leq b$ if $a \vee b = b$.

Using these, we shall first show that our (A, \leq) is a poset:

Reflexive: since we have $a \lor a = a$ (from the lemma) $\implies a \le a$

Anti-symmetric: Suppose $a \le b$ and $b \le a$ then we have $a \lor b = a$ and $b \lor a = a$. Using the lemma, $a = b \lor a = a \lor b = b$

Transitive: Suppose $a \le b$ and $b \le c$ then we have $a \lor b = b$ and $b \lor c = c$. Hence, $b \lor c = (a \lor b) \lor (b \lor c) \implies c = a \lor (b \lor b) \lor c = a \lor (b \lor c) = a \lor c \implies a \le c$

Now, we show that the operation

 \vee is suprema: Suppose c is an upper bound on a and b then $a \leq c$ and $b \leq c \implies a \vee c = c$ and $b \vee c = c$ then we get $(a \vee b) \vee c = a \vee (b \vee c) = a \vee c = c$. Hence $a \vee b \leq c$

Before proving infima, we show that $a \lor b = b$ and $a \land b = a$ are equivalent.

$$b = a \lor b \implies a \land b = a \land (a \lor b) = (a \lor b) \land a = a$$
$$a = a \land b \implies a \lor b = (a \land b) \lor b = (b \land a) \lor b = b$$

 \wedge **is infima:** Suppose c is a lower bound on a and b then $c \leq a$ and $c \leq b \implies c \wedge a = c$ and $c \wedge b = c$ then we get $c \wedge (a \wedge b) = (c \wedge a) \wedge b = c \wedge b = c$. Hence $c \leq a \wedge b$

2.8

Let A be a lattice satisfying $(a \lor b) \land c \le (a \land c) \lor (b \land c)$, for all a, b, c. Show that A is distributive.

Proof. We shall first show that:

$$(a \land c) \lor (b \land c) \le (a \lor b) \land c$$

Then from anti-symmetric property of \leq , the result follows.

For that, we recall the following two properties:

Property 1: $a \le c$ and $b \le c \implies a \lor b \le c$

Property 2: $c \le a$ and $c \le b \implies c \le a \land b$

Observe

$$a \land c \le a \le a \lor b \& a \land c \le c \implies a \land c \le (a \lor b) \land c \text{ (using property 2)}$$

Similarly,

$$b \wedge c \leq b \leq a \vee b \& b \wedge c \leq c \implies b \wedge c \leq (a \vee b) \wedge c \text{ (using property 2)}$$

Now using, property 1 on the above two inequalities, we get our desired result.

Now we show the other distributive lattice property holds, namely:

$$(a \wedge b) \vee c = (a \vee c) \wedge (b \vee c)$$

First note that, $a \wedge b \leq a \leq a \vee c$ and $a \wedge b \leq b \leq b \vee c$. Hence $a \wedge b \leq (a \vee c) \wedge (b \vee c)$. Next, $c \leq a \vee c$ and $c \leq b \vee c$ and so $c \leq (a \vee c) \wedge (b \vee c)$. Therefore, we have established. $(a \wedge b) \vee c \leq (a \vee c) \wedge (b \vee c)$.

For the other inequality, note that, $(a \wedge b) \vee c = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge c) \vee c \geq (a \wedge (b \vee c)) \vee c = (a \wedge (b \vee c)) \vee (c \wedge (b \vee c)) \geq (a \vee c) \wedge (b \vee c)$, where both the inequalities follow from the assumption given in the problem.

2.13

Assume that $\mathcal{B}, v \not\vDash \varphi$, for some Boolean algebra \mathcal{B} and some φ and v. Show that there exists a prime filter F in \mathcal{B} , with $v(\neg \varphi) \in F$. Then define a binary valuation by w(p) = 1 iff $v(p) \in F$ and show that $w(\varphi) = 0$.

Proof. Recall the following result:

Theorem: Let F be a proper filter in \mathcal{H} and $a \notin F$. There exists a prime filter G such that $F \subseteq G$ and $a \notin G$

Now, we state and prove another result regarding prime filters.

Proposition: Let G be a prime filter of a boolean algebra. Then $\alpha \in G$ iff $-\alpha \notin G$

Proof.: Let $\alpha \in G$. Then since $\alpha \cap -\alpha = 0$ and $0 \notin G$ (as G is proper), we get that $-\alpha \notin G$. Now suppose, $-\alpha \notin G$. Since $-\alpha \cup \alpha = 1$ and $1 \in G$, by the property of prime filters we get that $\alpha \in G$.

Now we note that, since $v \not\models \varphi \implies v(\varphi) \neq 1 \implies -v(\varphi) \neq 0$ as \mathcal{B} is a Boolean algebra so $v(\varphi) \vee -v(\varphi) = 1$

Let $F = \{a : -v(\varphi) \le a\}$. Then F is a proper filter because:

- if $a, b \in F$ then $-v(\varphi) \leq a$ and $-v(\varphi) \leq b \implies -v(\varphi) \leq a \wedge b \implies a \wedge b \in F$
- if $a \in F$ then $-v(\varphi) < a$ and so $-v(\varphi) < b$, $\forall a < b$
- Since $-v(\varphi) \neq 0 \implies 0 \notin F$

We can apply this theorem to F and a=0 to get a prime filter G such that $-v(\varphi) \in F \subseteq G$. Now,

$$v(\neg\varphi) = v(\varphi \to \bot) = v(\varphi) \implies v(\bot) = v(\varphi) \implies 0 = -v(\varphi) \in G$$

Claim: $v(\varphi) \notin G$

Proof.: Suppose $v(\varphi) \in G \implies v(\varphi) \land -v(\varphi) = 0 \in G$ But G being a filter, $0 \le a \in G$ $\forall a \in G$. Thus $G = \mathcal{H}$ and so G is not a proper filter hence is not a prime filter, which is a contradiction.

Now, to show that $w(\varphi) = 0$, we induct on the size of the formula φ :

- For $\varphi = p$, we have w(p) = 0 by definition of w as $v(p) \notin G$ (by the above claim).
- For $\varphi = \alpha \vee \beta$, we note that $\alpha \leq \alpha \vee \beta$ and so if $\alpha \in G \implies \alpha \vee \beta = \varphi \in G$. Thus, $\alpha \notin G$. By inductive hypothesis, $w(\alpha) = 0$. Similarly, $w(\beta) = 0$. Hence, $w(\varphi) = w(\alpha \vee \beta) = w(\alpha) \vee w(\beta) = 0 \vee 0 = 0$
- For $\varphi = \alpha \wedge \beta$. If $v(\alpha) \in G$ and $v(\beta) \in G$ then $v(\alpha) \wedge v(\beta) \in G \implies v(\varphi) \in G$. Hence we can assume WLOG $v(\alpha) \notin G$. So, by inductive hypothesis $w(\alpha) = 0$. Thus, $w(\varphi) = w(\alpha) \wedge w(\beta) = 0 \wedge w(\beta) = 0$
- For $\varphi = \alpha \to \beta$. So, $w(\varphi) = w(\alpha) \Rightarrow w(\beta)$. But for boolean algebras, we know that $c \Rightarrow d = -c \lor d$. So $w(\varphi) = -w(\alpha) \lor w(\beta)$. Similarly, $v(\varphi) = -v(\alpha) \lor v(\beta) \implies -v(\alpha) \notin G$ and $v(\beta) \notin G$ as $v(\varphi) \notin G$. Hence $v(\alpha) \in G$ (by above proposition) $\implies w(\alpha) = 1 \implies -w(\alpha) = 0$ and $w(\beta) = 0$ (by inductive hypothesis).

Hence,
$$w(\varphi) = 0$$

2.14

Let \mathcal{B}_0 be a Boolean algebra with $0 \neq 1$, and let \mathbb{B} be the two-element Boolean algebra of truth values. Show that the following three conditions are equivalent:

- (i) $\mathbb{B} \models \varphi$
- (ii) $\mathcal{B}_0 \vDash \varphi$
- (iii) $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi$, for all Boolean algebras \mathcal{B}

Proof. We show the following sequence:

 $(i) \implies (iii)$:

We prove the contrapositive. Suppose there exists some Boolean algebra \mathcal{B} and a valuation v in \mathcal{B} such that $\mathcal{B}, v \not\models \varphi$, then using the previous exercise, there exists a 0-1 valuation w such that $w \not\models \varphi$. Hence $\mathbb{B} \not\models \varphi$.

 $(iii) \implies (ii)$:

Since $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi \ \forall \mathcal{B}$, setting $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_0$, gives us the desired result.

 $(ii) \implies (i)$:

Consider any valuation v in \mathbb{B} . We want to show that $v \models \varphi$. But since $\mathbb{B} \subseteq \mathcal{B}_0$, we can regard v as \mathcal{B}_0 valuation. But since $\mathcal{B}_0, w \models \varphi$ for all valuations w, in particular, setting w = v, we get the desired result.

2.21 (i)

$$((p \to q) \to p) \to \neg \neg p \text{ is VALID}$$

Proof.

2.21 (ii)

$$((((p \to q) \to p) \to p) \to q) \to q$$
 is VALID

Proof. Let $\Gamma = \{(((p \to q) \to p) \to p) \to q, (p \to q) \to p\}$. Then

Furthermore, here is a lambda term of the given type:

$$\lambda x^{(((p \to q) \to p) \to p) \to q} . x(\lambda y^{(p \to q) \to p} . y(\lambda z^p . x(\lambda u^{(p \to q) \to p} . z)))$$

2.21 (iii)

 $\neg p \lor \neg \neg p$ is NOT VALID

Proof. In the subsequent sections, we shall consider the Heyting algebra $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{R}$ with all open subsets.

Consider the valuation v on \mathcal{H} defined as follows: $v(p) = (0, \infty)$. Then we get that

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
v(\neg p) & = & (-\infty, 0) \\
v(\neg p) & = & (0, \infty) \\
v(\neg p \lor \neg p) & = & \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}
\end{array}$$

2.21 (iv)

 $\neg p \lor \neg q \to \neg (p \land q)$ is VALID

Proof. Consider any valuation v on \mathcal{H} . Let $v(p) = P \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $v(q) = Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then we get that

2.21 (v)

 $(p \to p \land q) \lor (q \to p \land q)$ is NOT VALID

Proof. Consider the valuation v on \mathcal{H} defined as follows: $v(p) = (0, \infty)$ and $v(q) = (-\infty, 0)$. Then we get that

$$v(p \wedge q) = \phi$$

$$v(p \rightarrow p \wedge q) = (-\infty, 0)$$

$$v(q \rightarrow p \wedge q) = (0, \infty)$$

$$v((p \rightarrow p \wedge q) \vee (q \rightarrow p \wedge q)) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

2.21 (vi)

$$(p \to q \lor r) \to (p \to q) \lor r$$
 is NOT VALID

Proof. Consider the valuation v on \mathcal{H} defined as follows: $v(p) = (0, \infty)$ and $v(q) = \phi$ and v(r) = (0, 1). Then we get that

$$\begin{array}{cccc} v(q\vee r) & = & & & & & & & \\ v(p\rightarrow q\vee r) & = & & & & & & \\ v(p\rightarrow q) & = & & & & & & \\ v(p\rightarrow q) & = & & & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & & & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = & \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee r) & = \\ v((p\rightarrow q)\vee$$

2.21 (vii)

$$(p \to q \lor r) \to (p \to q) \lor (p \to r)$$
 is NOT VALID

Proof. Consider the valuation v on \mathcal{H} defined as follows: $v(p) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and $v(q) = (-\infty, 0)$ and $v(r) = (0, \infty)$. Then we get that

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} v(p \rightarrow q \vee r) & = & Int[\{0\} \cup \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}] & = & \mathbb{R} \\ v(p \rightarrow q) & = & Int[\{0\} \cup (-\infty,0)] & = & (-\infty,0) \\ v(p \rightarrow r) & = & Int[\{0\} \cup (0,\infty)] & = & (0,\infty) \\ v((p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r)) & = & \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \\ v((p \rightarrow q \vee r) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r)) & = & Int[\phi \cup \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}] & = & \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \end{array}$$

2.21 (viii)

 $((p \vee \neg p) \rightarrow \neg q) \rightarrow \neg q$ is VALID

Proof.

2.21 (ix)

 $(p \to \neg p) \to \neg (\neg p \to p)$ is VALID

Proof.

2.23 (i)

$$\neg\neg(\varphi \to \psi) \to (\neg\neg\varphi \to \neg\neg\psi)$$
 is VALID

Proof. Let $\Gamma = \{ \neg \neg (\varphi \to \psi), \neg \neg \varphi, \neg \psi \}$. Suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash \bot$.

2.23 (ii)

$$\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi) \rightarrow (\neg\neg\varphi \wedge \neg\neg\psi)$$
 is VALID

Proof.

$$\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\varphi, \varphi \wedge \psi \qquad \vdash \qquad \varphi \qquad (\wedge E)
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\varphi, \varphi \wedge \psi \qquad \vdash \qquad \bot \qquad (\to E)
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\varphi \qquad \vdash \qquad \bot \qquad (\to E)
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\varphi \qquad \vdash \qquad \bot \qquad (\to E)
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi) \qquad \vdash \qquad \neg\neg\varphi \qquad (\to I)$$

Similarly,

$$\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\psi, \varphi \wedge \psi \qquad \vdash \qquad \psi \qquad (\wedge E) \\
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\psi, \varphi \wedge \psi \qquad \vdash \qquad \bot \qquad (\to E) \\
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\psi \qquad \vdash \qquad \neg(\varphi \wedge \psi) \qquad (\to I) \\
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi), \neg\psi \qquad \vdash \qquad \bot \qquad (\to E) \\
\neg\neg(\varphi \wedge \psi) \qquad \vdash \qquad \neg\psi \qquad (\to I)$$

Hence,
$$\neg\neg(\varphi \land \psi) \vdash \neg\neg\varphi \land \neg\neg\psi \implies \neg\neg(\varphi \land \psi) \rightarrow (\neg\neg\varphi \land \neg\neg\psi)$$

2.23 (iii)

$$\neg\neg(\varphi\vee\psi)\to(\neg\neg\varphi\vee\neg\neg\psi)$$
 is NOT VALID

Proof. Take $\varphi = (-\infty, 0)$ and $\psi = (0, \infty)$. Then we get:

$$v(\varphi \lor \psi) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

$$v(\neg(\varphi \lor \psi)) = \varphi$$

$$v(\neg\neg(\varphi \lor \psi)) = \mathbb{R}$$

$$v(\neg\neg\varphi) = (-\infty,0)$$

$$v(\neg\neg\psi) = (0,\infty)$$

$$v(\neg\neg\varphi \lor \neg\neg\psi) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

$$v(\neg\neg(\varphi \lor \psi) \to (\neg\neg\varphi \lor \neg\neg\psi)) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

2.23 (iv)

 $(\neg\neg\varphi\rightarrow\neg\neg\psi)\rightarrow\neg\neg(\varphi\rightarrow\psi)$ is VALID

Proof. Let $\Gamma = \{ \neg \neg \varphi \rightarrow \neg \neg \psi, \neg (\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \}$. Suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash \bot$.

Furthermore,

Hence, $\Gamma \vdash \bot$.

2.23 (v)

 $(\neg\neg\varphi\wedge\neg\neg\psi)\rightarrow\neg\neg(\varphi\wedge\psi)$ is VALID

Proof. Let $\Gamma = \{ \neg \neg \varphi \land \neg \neg \psi, \neg (\varphi \to \psi) \}$. Suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash \bot$.

2.23 (vi)

 $(\neg\neg\varphi\vee\neg\neg\psi)\rightarrow\neg\neg(\varphi\vee\psi)$ is VALID

Proof. Let $\Gamma = \{ \neg \neg \varphi \lor \neg \neg \psi, \neg (\varphi \to \psi) \}$. Suffices to show $\Gamma \vdash \bot$. For that, we show the following two derivations:

$$\Gamma, \neg \neg \varphi \vdash \bot$$

$$\Gamma, \neg \neg \psi \vdash \bot$$

Then by $(\vee E)$, it follows that, $\Gamma \vdash \bot$.

2.32

A state c in a Kripke model C determines p iff either $c \Vdash p$ or $c \Vdash \neg p$. Define a binary valuation v_c by $v_c(p) = 1$ iff $c \Vdash p$. Show that if c determines all propositional variables in φ then $v_c(\varphi) = 1$ implies $c \Vdash \varphi$. Conclude that a formula is a classical tautology if and only if it is forced in all one-element models.

Proof. We proceed by induction on structure of φ :

- $\varphi = p$. Then since c determines all the propositional variables in φ , we get: $v_c(\varphi) = 1 \implies c \Vdash p \implies c \Vdash \varphi$
- $\varphi = \alpha \vee \beta$. Then $v_c(\varphi) = v_c(\alpha \vee \beta) = v_c(\alpha) \vee v_c(\beta) = 1 \implies v_c(\alpha) = 1$ or $v_c(\beta) = 1$, so by inductive hypothesis, $c \Vdash \alpha$ or $c \Vdash \beta$ respectively. And hence, $c \Vdash \varphi$
- $\varphi = \alpha \wedge \beta$. Then $v_c(\varphi) = v_c(\alpha \wedge \beta) = v_c(\alpha) \wedge v_c(\beta) = 1 \implies v_c(\alpha) = 1$ and $v_c(\beta) = 1$, so by inductive hypothesis, $c \Vdash \alpha$ and $c \Vdash \beta$. And hence, $c \Vdash \varphi$
- $\varphi = \alpha \to \beta$. So, $v_c(\varphi) = v_c(\alpha \to \beta) = v_c(\alpha) \Rightarrow v_c(\beta)$. But since, v_c is a valuation in a boolean algebra, $v_c(\alpha) \Rightarrow v_c(\beta) = -v_c(\alpha) \lor v_c(\beta) = v_c(\neg \alpha) \lor v_c(\beta)$. Thus, $v_c(\varphi) = v_c(\neg \alpha) \lor v_c(\beta) = 1$. Now suppose, $v_c(\beta) = 1 \implies c \Vdash \beta$ and so by monotonicity property, $\forall c' \geq c, c' \Vdash \beta$, so for any $c' \geq c$ with $c' \Vdash \alpha$, we have that $c' \Vdash \beta$. Hence $c \Vdash \alpha \to \beta \implies c \Vdash \varphi$. Now suppose $v_c(\beta) \neq 1$, then $v_c(\neg \alpha) = 1 \implies c \Vdash \neg \alpha \implies \forall c' \geq c$, we have $c' \not\models \alpha$. Hence, the statement $\forall c' \geq c$ with $c' \Vdash \alpha \implies c' \Vdash \beta$ holds vacuously true. Therefore, we get $c \Vdash \varphi$.

Now, we show that a formula is a classical tautology iff it is forced in every one-element model.

For that, we first show that every one-element model uniquely determines a valuation.

Suppose $(C = \{c\}, \leq, \Vdash)$ is a one-element model. Let P be the set of all those propositional variables which are forced in c. Consider $q \notin P$. Then note that the statement $\forall c' \geq c$ describes only c and $c \not\Vdash q$. Hence $c \Vdash \neg q$. Thus, $v_c(p) = 1$ iff $p \in P$, defines a unique valuation.

Now, let φ be a classical tautology. Let $(\mathcal{C} = \{c\}, \leq, \Vdash)$ be a one-element model. Then it defines a unique valuation v_c . Hence, $v_c \vDash \varphi \implies v_c(\varphi) = 1 \implies c \Vdash \varphi$

Conversely, suppose φ is a formula which is forced in all one-element models. Then consider any valuation v. Define $(\mathcal{C} = \{c\}, \leq, \Vdash)$ such that $c \Vdash p$ iff v(p) = 1 for all propositional variables p. This is a clearly valid Kripke model. Hence, $c \Vdash \varphi$. Now, we observe that $v_c = v$ as they agree on all propositional variables. Suppose that $v_c(\varphi) = 0 \implies v_c(\neg \varphi) = 1 \implies c \Vdash \neg \varphi$ which is a contradiction. Hence $v(\varphi) = 1$. And thus $v \models \varphi$.

2.34

Prove Glivenko's Theorem: A double negation of a classical tautology is intuitionistically valid.

Proof. Let φ be a classical tautology. We want to show that $\neg\neg\varphi$ is an intuitionistic tautology. For that, let $(\mathcal{C}, \leq, \Vdash)$ be any Kripke model. Let P be the set of all propositional variables appearing in φ . Consider $c \in \mathcal{C}$. Suppose c doesn't determine some propositional variable $p \in P$ so in particular, since $c \not\models \neg p$ implies that there exists a state $c' \geq c$ such that $c' \Vdash p$. Since P is finite, we can find a state $c' \geq c$ which determines $p \forall p \in P$. Now consider the valuation $v_{c'}$, defined by c'. Since φ is a tautology, $v_{c'}(\varphi) = 1$ and hence $c' \Vdash \varphi$ by the previous result. Thus $c \not\models \neg \varphi$.

Therefore, given $c \in \mathcal{C}$, $\forall c' \geq c$, since $c' \not\models \neg \varphi$, we conclude that $c \vdash \neg \neg \varphi$.

3.12

What is wrong with the following reduction of problem (vi) to problem (i): To answer $? \vdash M : \tau$ ask the question $? \vdash \lambda yz.y(zM)(zt_{\tau})$

Proof. This only guarantees that the type of M is an instance of τ .

3.15

Show that strong normalization for (λ_{\rightarrow}) a la Curry implies strong normalization for (λ_{\rightarrow}) a la Church, and conversely.

Proof. Suppose strong normalization holds for (λ_{\rightarrow}) a la Curry. For the sake of contradiction assume it doesn't hold for (λ_{\rightarrow}) a la Church. That implies there is a term M such that it admits an infinite reduction sequence:

$$M \to_{\beta} M_1 \to_{\beta} M_2 \to_{\beta} \cdots \to_{\beta} M_n \to_{\beta} \cdots$$

But now, we can replace, each variable x_{σ} by a fresh variable x and consider the above sequence in Curry-typed lambda calculus, which gives us a contradiction.

Conversely, suppose strong normalization holds for (λ_{\rightarrow}) a la Church. For the sake of contradiction assume it doesn't hold for (λ_{\rightarrow}) a la Curry. That implies there is a term M such that it admits an infinite reduction sequence:

$$M \to_{\beta} M_1 \to_{\beta} M_2 \to_{\beta} \cdots \to_{\beta} M_n \to_{\beta} \cdots$$

Fix a type for the term M. Then each M_n inhabits the same type. But now, we can replace, each variable x by a type-annotated variable x_{σ} where σ is the type of the variable x. and we get an infinite sequence in Church-typed lambda calculus, which gives us a contradiction. \square