Normalization by Evaluation

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What is "evaluation"?

The process which obtains a *value* of an *expression*. E g evaluation of an arithmetic expression in primary school: Suppose we are given

$$(11+9) \times (2+4)$$

We can rewrite this expression in two ways, simplifying either the first bracket or the second. Simplifying the first bracket, we have

$$20 \times (2+4) = 20 \times 6 = 120$$

Simplifying the second gives

$$(11+9) \times 6 = 20 \times 6 = 120.$$

The value of $(11 + 9) \times (2 + 4)$ is 120.

What is "normalization"?

15 different meanings in Wikipedia, including

Normalization (Czechoslovakia) the restoration of the conditions prevalent before the reform in Czechoslovakia, 1969

Normalization property used in Raymond's term rewriting systems Simplification in secondary school.

$$(a+b)(a-b) = a(a-b) + b(a-b)$$

= $a^2 - ab + ba - b^2$
= $a^2 - b^2$

Normalization by evaluation?

To do secondary school simplification through primary school simplification ...?? Yes! But there is more to say.

Normalization of a term by evaluation of its meaning ...

Normalization by evaluation in a model

Normalization by "evaluation" in a model.

$$syntax \xrightarrow{\llbracket - \rrbracket} model$$

reify is a left inverse of [-] - the "inverse of the evaluation function":

nbe
$$a = reify [a]$$

Moreover, we are doing *metaprogramming*: both syntax and model are represented as data structures in a computer! We are doing *constructive metamathematics* - it looks like maths but is actually programming ...

Example of a model

Let Exp be a type of arithmetic expressions

$$\textit{Exp} \xrightarrow{ \llbracket - \rrbracket} (\textit{Var} \rightarrow \textit{Int}) \rightarrow \textit{Int}$$

We would like perform some magic! Write a function *reify* which extracts a normal form from the meaning:

$$Exp \xrightarrow{\llbracket - \rrbracket} (Var \rightarrow Int) \rightarrow Int$$

Is this really possible?? Perhaps not ...

Before explaining the magic, let's look at more examples!

Partial evaluation - program simplification

Let us define power $m n = m^n$.

$$power: Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat$$

power
$$m \ 0 = 1$$

power $m (n+1) = m*(power m n)$

Let n = 3. Simplify by using the reduction rules for *power*, *, and +:

power
$$m 3 = m * (m * m)$$

m*(m*m) is the normal form (the "residual program") of power m 3.

Normalization of types in dependent type theory

In Martin-Löf type theory we can define the type-valued function *Power a* $n = a^n$. Let *U* be the *universe*, that is, the type of *small types*:

Power :
$$U \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow U$$

Power a
$$0 = 1 - a$$
 one element type
Power a $(n+1) = a \times (Power \ a \ n) - a$ product type

Let n = 3. Simplify by using the reduction rules for Power:

Power
$$a 3 = a \times (a \times (a \times 1))$$

 $a \times (a \times (a \times 1))$ is the normal form of the type *Power a* 3; it is a *normal type*.

Can we simplify further?

Normalization during type-checking

To check that

we need to normalize the type:

$$(2007, (2, (22, ()))) : Nat \times (Nat \times (Nat \times 1))$$

Normalization (by evaluation) is used in proof assistants for constructive type theory (Coq, Agda, Epigram, ...). An important application!

Evaluation, partial evaluation and normalization

Evaluation: to simplify a closed term, a complete program where all inputs are given.

Partial evaluation: (from programming languages) to simplify code using the knowledge that some of the inputs are known. The purpose is to get more efficient code.

Normalization: (from proof theory) to simplify a proof or a term, including open terms. Normalization is among other things used during type-checking in proof assistants based on intensional type theory such as *Agda* and *Coa*.

Plan for the lectures

- Normalization in monoids. A simple yet "deep" example, connection with algebra and category theory.
- Normalization in typed combinatory logic. Historically, the first example of nbe, simpler because no variables.

 Curry-Howard. Program extraction from constructive proof.
- Normalization in untyped combinatory logic. Computing lazy Böhm trees. Neighbourhoods of programs.
- Normalization in the simply typed lambda calculus. The Berger-Schwichtenberg algorithm. Higher-order abstract syntax.
- Normalization in the dependently typed lambda calculus.
- Normalization and foundations.

I. Monoids

- A warm-up example: how to normalize monoid expressions!
- A very simple program with some interesting mathematics (algebra, category theory)
- Illustrates some of the underlying principles behind the normalization by evaluation technique.

Monoid (Wikipedia)

- In abstract algebra, a branch of mathematics, a monoid is an algebraic structure with a single, associative binary operation and an identity element.
- Monoids occur in a number of branches of mathematics. In geometry, a monoid captures the idea of function composition; indeed, this notion is abstracted in category theory, where the monoid is a category with one object.
- Monoids are also commonly used to lay a firm algebraic foundation for computer science; in this case, the transition monoid and syntactic monoid are used in describing a finite state machine, whereas trace monoids and history monoids provide a foundation for process calculi and concurrent computing.

Monoid expressions

The set *Exp* a of *monoid expressions* with atoms in a set a is generated by the following grammar:

$$e ::= (e \circ e) \mid id \mid x$$

where x is an atom. Cf Lisp's S-expressions:

$$e ::= (e.e) \mid NIL \mid x$$

The free monoid

The *free monoid* is obtained by identifying expressions which can be proved to be equal from the associativity and identity laws:

$$(e \circ e') \circ e'' \sim e \circ (e' \circ e'')$$
 $id \circ e \sim e$
 $e \circ id \sim e$

We call the relation \sim convertibility or provable equality. Note that it is a congruence relation (equivalence relation and substitutive under the \circ sign).

The distinction between *real* and *provable* equality is crucial to our enterprise!

(Strictly speaking we should say a free monoid, since any monoid isomorphic to the above is a free monoid.)

Normalization of monoid expressions

What does it mean to normalize a monoid expression?

Traditional reduction-based view: Use the equations as simplification/rewrite rules replacing subexpressions matching the LHS by the corresponding RHS.

Nbe/reduction-free view: Find unique representative from each \sim -equivalence class! A way to solve the decision problem, write a program which decides whether $e \sim e'!$

How to solve the decision problem?

The mathematician's answer: "Just shuffle the parentheses to the right, remove the identities and check whether the resulting expressions are equal".

The programmer's question: "Yes, but how do you implement this in an elegant way, so that the correctness proof is clear?"

The programmer's answer

$$[-]: Exp \ a \rightarrow [a]$$

$$[e \circ e'] = [e] ++ [e']$$

$$[id] = []$$

$$[x] = [x]$$

$$reify : [a] \rightarrow Exp \ a$$

$$reify [] = id$$

$$reify (x :: xs) = x \circ (reify \ xs)$$

Seams like cheating: syntax is a tree, meaning is a list ...

A real interpretation - no cheating!

Alternatively, we can interpret monoid expressions as functions (the "intended" meaning!)

$$\llbracket -
rbracket : Exp \ a
ightharpoonup (Exp \ a
ightharpoonup Exp \ a)$$
 $\llbracket e \circ e'
rbracket e'' = \llbracket e
rbracket (\llbracket e'
rbracket e'')$
 $\llbracket id
rbracket e'' = e''$
 $\llbracket x
rbracket e'' = x \circ e''$
 $reify : (Exp \ a
ightharpoonup Exp \ a)
ightharpoonup Exp \ a$
 $reify \ f = f \ id$

Correctness property

The aim of the function

$$nbe : Exp \ a \rightarrow Exp \ a$$

$$nbe e = reify [e]$$

is to pick out unique representatives from each equivalence class:

$$e \sim e'$$
 iff nbe $e = nbe$ e' !

Prove this!

Correctness proof

if-direction. Prove that

 $e \sim e'$ implies $nbe\ e = nbe\ e'!$

Lemma: prove that

$$e \sim e'$$
 implies $\llbracket e \rrbracket = \llbracket e' \rrbracket$.

Straightforward proof by induction on \sim (convertibility).

only if-direction. It suffices to prove

$$e \sim nbe e$$
.

Because if we assume $nbe\ e = nbe\ e'$, then

$$e \sim nbe \ e = nbe \ e' \sim e'$$

Correctness proof, continued

To prove

$$e \sim nbe \ e$$
.

we prove the following lemma

$$e \circ e' \sim \llbracket e \rrbracket e'.$$

(Then put e' = id). Proof by induction on e! All cases are easy, the identity follows from the identity law, atoms are definitional identities, composition follows from associativity.

What makes the proof work?

- A "representation theorem": "Each monoid is isomorphic to a monoid of function" (cf Cayley's theorem in group theory and the Yoneda lemma in category theory).
- The monoid of functions is "strict" in the sense that equal elements are extensionally equal functions, whereas the syntactic monoid has a conventionally defined equality. The functions are sort of "normal forms".

Cayley's theorem in group theory

Theorem (Cayley). Every group is isomorphic to a group of permutations.

"The theorem enables us to exhibit any abstract group in terms of something more concrete, namely, as a group of mappings." (Herstein, Topics in Algebra, p 61).

Cayley's theorem for monoids

Theorem. Every monoid is isomorphic to a monoid of functions. **Proof.** Let M be a monoid. Consider the homomorphic embedding

$$M \xrightarrow{e \mapsto \lambda e'.e \circ e'} M \to M$$

Thus M is isomorphic to the submonoid of functions which are in the image of the embedding.

Nbe and Cayley's theorem for monoids

Consider now the special case that $M = Exp\ a/\sim$, the free monoid of monoid expressions up to associativity and identity laws. In this case we proved that

$$e \circ e' \sim \llbracket e \rrbracket e'$$
.

Hence, the embedding that we used for nbe

$$M \xrightarrow{reify} M \to M$$

is the same as the one in Cayley's theorem for monoids!

$$M \xrightarrow{e \mapsto \lambda e'.e \circ e'} M \rightarrow M$$

A role for constructive glasses

Answer: no, because

$$e \circ e' \sim \llbracket e \rrbracket e'$$
.

does not mean that the results are *identical* expressions, they are only *convertible*, that is, *equal up to associativity and identity laws*. But this fact is invisible if we render the free monoid as a quotient in the classical sense! The equivalence classes hide the representatives.

Classical quotients and constructive setoids

- In constructive mathematics (at least in type theory) one does not form quotients.
- Instead one uses *setoids*, that is, pairs (M, \sim) of *constructive* sets and equivalence relations \sim . And constructive "sets" are the same as data types in functional languages (more or less).
- Constructively, one defines a *monoid* as a setoid (M, \sim) together with a binary operation \circ on M which preserves \sim and which has an identity and is associative up to \sim .
- Note that some setoids (and monoids) are "strict" in the sense that ~ is the underlying (extensional) identity on the underlying sets. The monoid of functions is strict in this sense, and this is what makes the nbe-technique work!! This is reminiscent of a "coherence theorem" in category theory: each monoidal category is equivalent to a strict monoidal category (Gordon, Power, Street)

Strict and non-strict monoids

 $(M \to M, =)$ is a *strict* monoid. (M, \sim) and $(M \to M, \sim)$ are *non-strict*. Suggestive terminology?

~	=
non-strict	strict
abstract	concrete
syntactic	semantic
formal	real
static	dynamic

Compare category theory: \cong vs =!

The Yoneda lemma - special case for monoids

The Yoneda lemma is a theorem about categories which is similar to Cayley's theorem for monoids. But it says more: it characterizes the submonoid of functions.

A monoid is a category with one object. In this case the Yoneda embedding is essentially the same as the Cayley embedding:

$$M \xrightarrow[f \mapsto f \ id]{e \mapsto \lambda e'.e \circ e'} \{f : M \to M | f \ natural\}$$

Naturality is here simply the following condition

$$f(e' \circ e'') = (f e') \circ e''$$

The general condition in category theory is that f is a natural transformation. (Warning: this slide is a classical account of the Yoneda lemma! Exercise: rewrite it using setoids and \sim !)

What did we learn from this?

- The mathematics of a simple program for "shuffling parentheses".
- The normalization algorithm exploits the fact that monoid expressions really denote functions. The expressions are in one-to-one correspondence with certain well-behaved "endo-functions" (in fact the "natural transformations").
- The situation is more complex but fundamentally analogous for the simply typed lambda calculus, when analyzed categorically as a representation of the free cartesian closed category. Cf Cubric, Dybjer, Scott 1997: "Normalization and the Yoneda embedding".

Exercises

- 1 Execute the algorithm. Strict and lazy evaluation.
- Write out the proof in detail!
- Ohange the algorithm so that it normalizes left leaning.
- **4** Change the type of the model so that it is $[a] \rightarrow [a]$
- Work out in detail what happens with normalization of expressions for categories! What is the connection with the Yoneda lemma for categories? Prove the Yoneda lemma for monoids!
- Term-rewriting analysis. Are there "critical pairs"? Termination?

II. Typed combinators

- Typed combinatory logic; historically the first version of nbe (Martin-Löf 1973).
- Simpler than lambda calculus because variable-free
- Add natural numbers and primitive recursion and we get Gödel system T, an expressive language where all programs terminate
- Discuss the traditional approach to normalization via rewriting and the "reduction-free" approach of nbe
- Program extraction from constructive proof

The power example in the typed lambda calculus with natural numbers (Gödel system T)

Recall the program power:

$$power m 0 = 1$$

$$power m (n+1) = m * (power m n)$$

This can be written in *Gödel system T* - the simply typed lambda calculus with natural numbers and a primitive recursion combinator *rec*:

$$power = \lambda m.\lambda n.rec \ 1 \ (\lambda xy.m * y) \ n$$

Gödel system T based on the lambda calculus

A grammar for the types and terms of Gödel system T:

$$a ::= a \rightarrow a \mid Nat$$
 $e ::= x \mid e \mid kx.e \mid 0 \mid succ \mid rec$

We have the typing and reduction rules (β and η reduction) for the simply typed lambda calculus. The natural number constructors have the following types:

$$0$$
 : Nat \rightarrow Nat

Types and recursion equations for the primitive recursion combinator:

$$rec: Nat
ightarrow (Nat
ightarrow a
ightarrow a)
ightarrow Nat
ightarrow a$$

$$rec \ e \ f \ 0 \ \sim \ e$$

$$rec \ e \ f \ (n+1) \ \sim \ f \ n \ (rec \ e \ f \ n)$$

History of nbe

We will postpone the treatment of lambda calculus version of Gödel's T and instead begin with a combinatory version. Historically earlier and conceptually simpler:

- Martin-Löf 1973: combinatory version of intuitionistic type theory (variation of Tait's reducibility method)
- Berger and Schwichtenberg 1991: simply typed lambda calculus with eta long normal forms. Used for the Minlog system implemented in Scheme.
- Coquand and Dybjer 1993: implementation of combinatory nbe in Alf system, data types, formal correctness proof.
- Danvy 1994: application of nbe to type-directed partial evaluation; nbe for non-terminating programs
- Coquand: application of nbe to type-checking dependent types
- ... variety of systems, categorical aspects, ...

Gödel system T based on combinators

A grammar for the types and terms of combinatory Gödel system T:

$$a ::= a \rightarrow a \mid Nat$$

 $e ::= e e \mid K \mid S \mid 0 \mid succ \mid rec$

Types and reduction rules for k and s:

$$K : a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a$$

 $S : (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$

$$K \times y \sim x$$

 $S \times y z \sim x z (y z)$

Note that these are *type schemata*, we have no type variables! (Types and reduction rules for 0, *succ*, and *rec* as before.)

Schönfinkel and Curry

Schönfinkel 1924 introduced combinators S, K, I, B, C,(and U) to show that it was possible to eliminate variables from logic.

$$K : a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a$$

 $S : (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$
 $I : a \rightarrow a$
 $B : (b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$
 $C : (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$

He also showed that I, B, C could be defined in terms of S and K. We have

$$g \circ f = B g f$$

Curry developed combinatory logic during several decades from the 1930s and onwards. In 1957 noticed that the types of the combinators corresponded to axioms of minimal logic:



The Curry-Howard correspondence

- type proposition
- combinator name of axiom; term proof
- expression reduction proof simplification ("normalization")

Howard 1969 introduced dependent types and extended this correspondence to formulas in predicate logic.

Martin-Löf 1971, 1972 (cf also Scott 1970) extended this correspondence to inductively defined sets and predicates. This is the basis for his *intuitionistic type theory*.

Bracket abstraction

T[x] = x

An algorithm for translating lambda calculus to combinatory logic:

```
T[(e_1 \ e_2)] = (T[e_1] \ T[e_2])
T[\lambda x.E] = (K \ T[E]) \ (if \ x \ is \ not \ free \ in \ E)
T[\lambda x.x] = I
T[\lambda x.\lambda y.E] = T[\lambda x.T[\lambda y.E]] \ (if \ x \ is \ free \ in \ E)
T[\lambda x.(e_1 \ e_2)] = (S \ T[\lambda x.e_1] T[\lambda x.e_2]) \ (if \ x \ is \ free \ in \ both \ e_1 \ and \ e_2
T[\lambda x.(e_1 \ e_2)] = (C \ T[\lambda x.e_1] \ T[e_2]) \ (if \ x \ is \ free \ in \ e_1 \ but \ not \ e_2)
T[\lambda x.(e_1 \ e_2)] = (B \ T[e_1] \ T[\lambda x.e_2]) \ (if \ x \ is \ free \ in \ e_2 \ but \ not \ e_1)
```

The power function in combinatory system T

```
add \ m \ n = rec \ m \ (K \ succ) \ n
mult \ m \ n = rec \ 0 \ (K \ (add \ m)) \ n
power \ m \ n = rec \ 1 \ (K \ (mult \ m)) \ n
```

Hence:

power =
$$\lambda m.rec\ 1\ (K\ (mult\ m))$$

= $(rec\ 1) \circ (\lambda m.K\ (mult\ m))$ - compose rule
= $(rec\ 1) \circ (K \circ mult)$ - compose rule + eta

Exercise: reduce power m 3 using the reduction rules for power!

Normalization and normalization by evaluation

We shall now normalize expressions (programs) in Gödel system T! As for monoids we have two approaches

Traditional reduction-based view: Use the equations as simplification/rewrite rules replacing subexpressions matching the LHS by the corresponding RHS.

Nbe/reduction-free view: Find unique representative from each \sim -equivalence class! A way to solve the decision problem, write a program which decides whether $e \sim e'!$

Normalization as analysis of a binary relation of one step reduction

Note: Turing-machines have a next state *function* but lambda calculus and combinatory logic have next state *relations* because several possible reduction strategies.

History of normalization in logic:

- Proof simplification: (Gentzen) cut-elimination; consistency proofs
- Normalization of lambda terms (Church)
- The simply typed lambda calculus (Church 1940), weak normalization theorem (Turing)

Reduction to normal form - some terminology

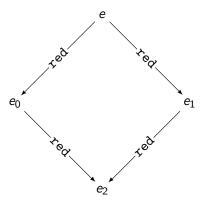
- e is a normal form iff e is irreducible: there is no e' such that e red₁ e'.
- e has normal form e' iff e red e' and e' is a normal form, where red is n-step reduction, the transitive and reflexive closure of red₁.
- red₁ is weakly normalizing if all terms have normal form.
- red₁ is strongly normalizing if red₁ is a well-founded relation, that is, there is no infinite sequence:

$$e \operatorname{red}_1 e_1 \operatorname{red}_1 e_2 \operatorname{red}_1 \cdots$$

ad infinitum.

Confluence

red is Church-Rosser iff $e \text{ red } e_0$ and $e \text{ red } e_1$ implies that there is e_2 such that



Church-Rosser implies uniqueness of normal forms: If e has normal forms e_0 and e_1 , then $e_0 = e_1$.

The decision problem for conversion

- Convertibility ∼ is the least congruence relation containing red₁.
- Weak normalization plus Church-Rosser of red yields solution of decision problem for convertibility (provided there is an effective reduction strategy which always reaches the normal form).

The weak normalization theorem

A normalization by evaluation algorithm can be extracted from a constructive reading of a proof of weak normalization.

$$\forall e : a.WN_a(e)$$

where

$$WN_a(e) = \exists e' : a.e \ red \ e' \& \ Normal(e')$$

Constructive reading (via the BHK-interpretation, constructive axiom of choice), states that a constructive proof of this theorem is an algorithm which given an e:a computes an e':a and proofs that $e \ red \ e'$ and Normal(e'). (This algorithm simultaneously manipulates terms and proof objects, but we can perform program extraction from this constructive proof and eliminate the proof objects.)

Tait's reducibility method

There is a well-known technique for proving normalization due to Tait 1967: the *reducibility method*. If one tries to prove the theorem directly by induction on the construction of terms one runs into a problem for application. Tait therefore found a way to strengthen the induction hypothesis.

$$Red_{Nat}(e) = WN_{Nat}(e)$$

 $Red_{a \rightarrow b}(e) = WN_{a \rightarrow b}(e) \& \forall e' : a.Red_a(e') \supset Red_b(e e')$

One then proves that

$$\forall e : a.Red_a(e)$$

by induction on e.

Normalization by evaluation from Tait's reducibility method

The constructive proof of

$$\forall e : a.Red_a(e)$$

is an algorithm which for all e computes a proof-object for $Red_a(e)$.

- In the base case a = Nat such a proof object consists of a normal term e' of type Nat and a proof that e red e' and e' normal.
- In the function case a = b → c such a proof object consists of a normal term (as above) and a function mapping proofs for the reducibility of an argument e" to the reducibility of the result e e".

Martin-Löf's version of Tait's proof

To any term e associate three things:

- \bullet the normal form e' of the term
- \bigcirc a proof p that $e \ red \ e'$
- $oldsymbol{\circ}$ a proof q that e is reducible in the sense of Tait

Constructively, we get a program which maps e to a triple (e', p, q).

Extracting a program from Tait's proof

One can now *extract* a program *nbe* which just returns a normal form (and no proof object) from the Tait/Martin-Löf style constructive proof of weak normalization. One deletes all intermediate proof objects which do not contribute to computing the result (the normal form) but are only there to witness some property.

Tait's definition

$$Red_{Nat}(e) = WN_{Nat}(e)$$

 $Red_{a \rightarrow b}(e) = WN_{a \rightarrow b}(e) \& \forall e' : a.Red_a(e') \supset Red_b(e e')$

is thus simplified to

where Exp_a is the type of expressions of type a_a

Formalizing typed combinatory logic in Martin-Löf type theory

Note that the evaluation function $[\![-]\!]_a: Exp_a \to [\![a]\!]$ is indexed by the type a of the object language (typed combinbatory logic). It is a dependent type! Let's program it in Martin-Löf type theory. We have a small type Ty: U of object language types. Its constructors are.

Nat :
$$Ty$$

(\Rightarrow) : $Ty \rightarrow Ty \rightarrow Ty$

We here use \Rightarrow for object language (Gödel's T) function space to distinguish it from meta language (Martin-Löf type theory) function space \rightarrow .

The inductive family of expressions indexed by types

Constructors for $Exp: Ty \rightarrow Set$:

$$K : (a, b : Ty) \rightarrow Exp (a \Rightarrow b \Rightarrow a)$$

$$\mathsf{S} \ : \ (\mathsf{a},\mathsf{b},\mathsf{c} : \mathsf{Ty}) \to \mathsf{Exp} \left((\mathsf{a} \Rightarrow \mathsf{b} \Rightarrow \mathsf{c}) \Rightarrow (\mathsf{a} \Rightarrow \mathsf{b}) \Rightarrow \mathsf{a} \Rightarrow \mathsf{c} \right)$$

App :
$$(a, b : Ty) \rightarrow Exp (a \Rightarrow b) \rightarrow Exp a \rightarrow Exp b$$

In this way we only generate well-typed terms. *Exp* is often called an *inductive family*.

Exercise. Add constructors for 0, succ, rec!

Intended semantics

Just translate object language notions into corresponding meta language notions:

$$[\![\mathsf{Nat}]\!] = \mathsf{Nat}$$
 $[\![a \Rightarrow b]\!] = [\![a]\!] o [\![b]\!]$

$$[\![K]\!] = \lambda xy.x$$

$$[\![S]\!] = \lambda xyz.x \ z \ (y \ z)$$

$$[\![App f e]\!] = [\![f]\!] [\![e]\!]$$

$$[\![Zero]\!] = 0$$

$$[\![Succ]\!] = succ$$

$$[\![Rec]\!] = rec$$

Note that we have omitted the type arguments of K, S, \dots

Glueing and reification

$$\llbracket a\Rightarrow b \rrbracket = \operatorname{\mathsf{Exp}} (a\Rightarrow b) imes (\llbracket a \rrbracket o \llbracket b \rrbracket)$$
 $\llbracket \operatorname{\mathsf{Nat}} \rrbracket = \operatorname{\mathsf{Exp}} \operatorname{\mathsf{Nat}}$
 $reify: (a:Ty) o \llbracket a \rrbracket o \operatorname{\mathsf{Exp}} a$
 $reify: (a\Rightarrow b) (c,f) = c$
 $reify: (a\Rightarrow b) (c,f) = c$

Interpretation of terms

where

$$appsem (c,f) q = f q$$

A decision procedure for convertibility

$$nbe \ a \ e = reify \ a \ [e]_a$$

Let $e, e' : Exp \ a$.

- Prove that $e \sim e'$ implies $[e]_a = [e']_a!$
- It follows that $e \sim e'$ implies $nbe\ a\ e = nbe\ a\ e'$
- Prove that e ~ (nbe a e) using the glueing (reducibility) method!
- Hence $e \sim e'$ iff $nbe\ a\ e = nbe\ a\ e'$

Exercises

- Reduce combinatory power m 3 by hand
- Rewrite the algorithm so that it has standard natural numbers, and not natural number expressions as semantics of the type Nat!
- O Do some more combinators I, B, C ...
- Prove C-R for combinatory logic
- O the correctness proof.
- Add weak products and coproducts to the nbe algorithm
- What would an nbe version of SN be?

III. Untyped combinators

- What happens if we consider untyped combinatory logic?
- Some programs fail to terminate
- Nbe-program computes combinatory Böhm trees under lazy evaluation
- Correctness of untyped nbe is correspondence between an operational and denotational definition of Böhm trees (computational adequacy theorem). Nbe gives the denotational definition
- Proof uses Scott domain theory in a presentation due to Martin-Löf 1983 (in the style of "formal topology")

Motivation

- What happens if we remove the type restriction and try to normalize arbitrary terms with the algorithm? This is important for type-directed partial evaluation, where one wants to treat languages with non-termination.
- We shall now show that (an extension of) the nbe-algorithm produces lazily evaluated combinatory Böhm trees, a generalization of the notion of normal form which includes infinite and partial normal forms. If the program does not have a "head" normal form, then the Böhm tree is undefined, if it has a normal form, then the Böhm tree is that normal form (drawn as a tree), if an infinite regress of head normal forms are computed then we get an infinite Böhm tree.
- (The usual notion of Böhm tree is for lambda calculus. Here we use the combinatory analogue.)

Formalizing syntax and semantics in Haskell

The Haskell type of untyped combinatory expressions:

(We will later use e@e' for App e e'.)

Note that Haskell types contain programs which do not terminate at all or lazily compute infinite values, such as

The untyped glueing model as a Haskell type:

data
$$D = G1 Exp (D \rightarrow D)$$

A reflexive type!

The nbe program in Haskell

```
nbe : Exp -> Exp nbe e = reify (eval e)
reify : D -> Exp
reify (Gl e f) = e
eval : Exp -> D
eval K = Gl K (\x -> Gl (App K (reify x))
              (\v -> x))
eval S = Gl S (\x -> Gl (App S (reify x))
              (\y -> Gl (App (App S (reify x)) (reify y))
              (\z \rightarrow appD (appD x z) (appD y z))))
eval (App e e') = appD (eval e) (eval e')
```

Exercise. Add clauses for Zero, Succ, Rec!

Application in the model

appD : D
$$\rightarrow$$
 D \rightarrow D appD (Gl e f) x = f x

The nbe program computes the Böhm tree of a term

Theorem. nbe e computes the combinatory Böhm tree of e. In particular, nbe e computes the normal form of e iff it exists.

- What is the combinatory Böhm tree of an expression? An operational notion: the Böhm tree is defined by repeatedly applying the inductively defined head normal form relation.
- Note that nbe gives a *denotational* (*computational*) definition of the Böhm tree of *e*
- The theorem is to relate an operational (inductive) and a denotational (computational) definition.

Combinatory head normal form

Inductive definition of relation between terms in Exp

Formal neighbourhoods

To formalize the notion of combinatory Böhm tree we make use of Martin-Löf 1983 - the domain interpretation of type theory (cf intersection type systems). Notions of

- formal neighbourhood = finite approximation of the canonical form of a program (lazily evaluated); in particular Δ means no information about the canonical form of a program.
- The denotation of a program is the set of all formal neighbourhoods approximating its canonical form (applied repeatedly to its parts).
- Remark. Two possibilities: operational neighbourhoods and denotational neighbourhoods. Different because of the full abstraction problem, Plotkin 1976.

Expression neighbourhoods

An expression neighbourhood U is a finite approximation of the canonical form of a program of type Exp. Operationally, U is the set of all programs of type Exp which approximate the canonical form of the program. Notions of $inclusion \supseteq and intersection \cap of$ neighbourhoods.

A grammar for expression neighbourhoods:

$$U := \Delta \mid K \mid S \mid U@U$$

A grammar for the sublanguage of normal form neighbourhoods:

$$U := \Delta \mid \mathsf{K} \mid \mathsf{K}@U \mid \mathsf{S} \mid \mathsf{S}@U \mid (\mathsf{S}@U)@U$$

Approximations of head normal forms

The Böhm tree of a combinatory expression

The Böhm tree of an expression e in Exp is the set

$$\alpha = \{ U \mid e \triangleright^{\mathrm{Bt}} U \}$$

One can define formal inclusion and formal intersection and prove that α is a *filter* of normal form neighbourhoods:

- $U \in \alpha$ and $U' \supseteq U$ implies $U' \in \alpha$;
- $\Delta \in \alpha$;
- $U, U' \in \alpha$ implies $U \cap U' \in \alpha$.

Denotational semantics: the neighbourhoods the nbe program

nbe $e \in U$ iff U is a finite approximation of the canonical form of nbe e when evaluated lazily. For example,

- nbe $e \in \Delta$, for all e
- $nbe K \in K$
- $nbe(Y@K) \in K@\Delta$
- nbe $(Y@K) \in K@(K@\Delta)$, etc

Y is a fixed point combinator.

One can define the neighbourhoods of an arbitrary Haskell program, but we will not do that here. (This is a way of defining the *denotational semantics* of Haskell, following the style of Martin-Löf 1983 and Scott 1981, 1982.) In this way we will define what the neighbourhoods of the nbe program are.

Untyped normalization by evaluation computes Böhm trees

One can now prove, using a variation of Tait reducibility (or glueing) that

$$e
ightharpoonup^{\operatorname{Bt}} U$$
 iff $\mathsf{nbe}\, e \in U$

The main difficulty is to deal with the reflexive domain

data
$$D = G1 Exp (D \rightarrow D)$$

Remark. This theorem relates an "operational" notion (Böhm tree obtained by repeated head reduction) and a "denotational" notion (the approximations of the nbe program). An operational adequacy theorem!

Summary

- Nbe-algorithm for typed combinatory logic generalizes immediately to one for untyped combinatory logic.
- In the typed case it computes normal forms. In the untyped case it computes Böhm trees
- In the typed case the proof falls out naturally in the setting of constructive type theory (a framework for total functions). In the untyped case we need domain theory.
- In the typed case we prove correctness by "glueing" a variant of Tait-reducibility. In the untyped case we need to adapt the glueing method to work on a "reflexive" domain.

IV. Typed lambda terms

- Simply typed lambda calculus with $\beta\eta$ -conversion
- The Berger-Schwichtenberg 1991 algorithm, the most famous of nbe-algorithms, performs η -expansion
- Add natural numbers and primitive recursion and we get another version of Gödel system T
- Haskell implementation uses de Bruijn indices and term families
- Correctness proof using types as partial equivalence relations (pers)

Gödel system T based on the lambda calculus

A grammar for the types and terms of Gödel system T:

$$a ::= a \rightarrow a \mid Nat$$
 $e ::= x \mid e e \mid \lambda x : a.e \mid 0 \mid succ e \mid rec_a e e e$

Remark. This grammar differs from the one given earlier

- it is a Church-style definition $(\lambda x : a.e)$ rather than Curry-style $(\lambda x.e)$;
- succ is not a constant, it is a unary operation;
- rec is not a constant, it takes 4 arguments;
- the first argument of *rec* is the return *type* of the function.

Gödel system T based on the lambda calculus - continued

The natural number constructors have the following types:

$$0 : Nat$$
 $succ : Nat \rightarrow Nat$

Types and recursion equations for the primitive recursion combinator:

$$rec_a$$
: $Nat
ightarrow (Nat
ightarrow a
ightarrow a)
ightarrow Nat
ightarrow a$ $rec_a \ e \ f \ 0 \ \sim \ e$ $rec_a \ e \ f \ (n+1) \ \sim \ f \ n \ (rec_a \ e \ f \ n)$

The power example in the lambda calculus version of Gödel system T

Recall the program power:

$$power m 0 = 1$$

$$power m (n + 1) = m * (power m n)$$

This can be written in *Gödel system T* - the simply typed lambda calculus with natural numbers and a primitive recursion combinator *rec*:

power
$$m$$
 $n = rec_{Nat} 1 (\lambda x : Nat.\lambda y : Nat.m * y) n$

$\beta\eta$ -conversion and η -long normal forms

We shall consider the simply typed lambda calculus with β and η conversion.

$$(\lambda x : a.e) e' \sim e[x := e']$$
 (β)
 $e \sim \lambda x : a.e x$ (η)

We shall use η expansion and produces η -long normal forms, where a normal form of type $a \rightarrow b$ always has the form

$$\lambda x$$
 : a.e

where e is a normal form of type b.

Note that $\beta\eta$ -conversion is stronger than the weak conversion of combinatory logic (translated into lambda calculus via bracket abstraction). In fact, $\beta\eta$ -conversion is *complete* with respect to certain set-theoretic models (Friedman's theorem).

The history of the Berger-Schwichtenberg algorithm

Schwichtenberg discovered nbe when implementing his proof system MINLOG. "It was just a very easy way to write a normalizer for the simply typed lambda calculus with $\beta\eta$ -conversion". He used the untyped programming language SCHEME and the GENSYM function.

- "An inverse of the evaluation functional" by Berger and Schwichtenberg 1991 is about the pure simply typed lambda calculus with no extra constants and reduction rules.
- Berger 1993 showed how to formally extract the algorithm from a Tait-style normalization proof. Berger used *realizability* semantics of intuitionistic logic.
- Berger, Eberl, Schwichtenberg 1997 showed how to extend the Berger-Schwichtenberg algorithm if you extend the lambda calculus with new constants and reduction rules, like in Gödel system T.

The Berger-Schwichtenberg algorithm

Use the following semantics of types:

$$\llbracket a \Rightarrow b \rrbracket = \llbracket a \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket b \rrbracket$$

 $\llbracket Nat \rrbracket = Exp Nat$

Note that this is the *standard meaning* of a function space, but a *non-standard meaning* of the base type! Why?

Remark. We had the opposite situation for combinatory logic.

Why?

We can then write a meaning function for terms

$$[\![\]\!]_a: Env o Exp \ a o [\![a]\!]$$

where *Env* assigns an element $d_i \in [a_i]$ to each variable $x_i : a_i$ which may occur free in the expression.

We will define this meaning function ("evaluation functional")

Reification: the inverse of the "evaluation functional"

Let's perform some magic! Let's build code from input-output behaviour!

$$reify_a$$
 : $\llbracket a \rrbracket \to Exp\ a$
 $reify_{Nat}\ e = e$
 $reify_{a\Rightarrow b}\ f = \lambda x$: $a.reify_b$ $(f (reflect_a\ x))$

Since $f \in [a \Rightarrow b] = [a] \to [b]$, we need an element of the set [a] to produce an element of [b]! But we only have a term of type a: the variable x. We thus need an auxiliary "dual" function

$$reflect_a$$
 : $Exp \ a \rightarrow \llbracket a \rrbracket$
 $reflect_{Nat} \ e = e$
 $reflect_{a \Rightarrow b} \ e = \lambda d : \llbracket a \rrbracket . reflect_b \left(e \left(reify_a \ x \right) \right)$

Note however ...



Two issues

- Note that the codes of *reify* and *reflect* are the same except that the roles of terms and values have been exchanged! Note also that we have used the same notation for λ and application in the object and in the metalanguage.
- Note also that we need a GENSYM function for generating the variable x!

$$reify_a$$
 : $\llbracket a \rrbracket \to Exp \ a$
 $reify_{Nat} \ e = e$
 $reify_{a\Rightarrow b} \ f = \lambda x : a.reify_b \left(f \left(reflect_a x \right) \right)$
 $reflect_a$: $Exp \ a \to \llbracket a \rrbracket$
 $reflect_{Nat} \ e = e$
 $reflect_{a\Rightarrow b} \ e = \lambda d : \llbracket a \rrbracket .reflect_b \left(e \left(reify_a x \right) \right)$

Let's resolve these issues by writing the nbe program in Haskell. (Alternatively, we could use a dependently typed language.)

De Bruijn indices

We shall follow de Bruijn and represent lambda terms using "nameless dummies". The idea is to replace a variable x by a number counting the number of λ -signs one needs to cross (in the abstract syntax tree) before getting to the binding occurrence. If we write v_i for the variable with de Bruijn index i, we represent the lambda term

$$power = \lambda m$$
 : $Nat.\lambda n$: $Nat.rec_{Nat} \ 1 \ (\lambda x$: $Nat.\lambda y$: $Nat.m * y) \ n$

by the de Bruijn term

$$\lambda Nat.\lambda Nat.rec_{Nat} \ 1 \ (\lambda Nat.\lambda Nat.v_3 * v_0) \ v_0$$

Nbe for Gödel System T written in Haskell

```
Syntax of types

data Type = NAT | FUN Type Type

Syntax of terms

data Term = Var Integer | App Term Term | Lam Type Term

| Zero | Succ Term | Rec Type Term Term Term

where Var i is the de Bruijn variable v_i.
```

An element of the type of Terms

For example:

```
\lambda Nat.\lambda Nat.rec_{Nat} \ 1 \ (\lambda Nat.\lambda Nat.v_3 * v_0) \ v_0
```

is represented by the Haskell expression

```
Lam NAT
(Lam NAT
(Rec NAT
(Succ Zero)
(Lam NAT (Lam NAT (times (Var 3) (Var 0))))
(Var 2)))
```

:: Term

where times :: Term -> Term -> Term represents *.

The GENSYM problem and term families

We will deal with the GENSYM problem by working with *term* families rather than terms. A term family $(a_k)_k$: $Int \rightarrow Term$, is a family de Bruijn terms a_k with indices beginning with k.

A semantic domain

We would really like to interpret terms of type Nat as normal terms (families) and and terms of function type as functions. If we have dependent types, we can build an appropriate semantic domain for each type. However, when working in Haskell, we need to put all semantic values together in one type (a "universal semantic domain"):

```
data D = LamD Type (D -> D) -- semantic function
| ZeroD -- normal 0
| SuccD D -- normal successor
| NeD TERM -- neutral term family
```

Term families

```
type TERM = Integer -> Term
```

If t :: TERM, then t k is a de Bruijn term with indices beginning with k.

The semantic domain as normal forms in higher order abstract syntax

Grammar for normal (irreducible terms)

$$t ::= \lambda x : a.t \mid 0 \mid succ \ t \mid s$$

where s ranges over the neutral terms:

$$s ::= x \mid s t \mid rec_a t t s$$

Note that the semantic domain can be viewed as the normal terms in higher order abstract syntax:

```
data D = LamD Type (D -> D) -- semantic function
| ZeroD -- normal 0
| SuccD D -- normal successor
| NeD TERM -- neutral term family
```

Reification and reflection

We can actually omit the type a in $reify_a$ e:

```
reify :: D -> TERM
reify (LamD a f) k
  = Lam a (reify (f (reflect a (freevar (-(k+1))))) (k+1))
reify ZeroD k = Zero
reify (SuccD d) k = Succ (reify d k)
reify (NeD t) k = t k
reflect :: Type -> TERM -> D
reflect (FUN a b) t
  = LamD a (\d -> reflect b (app t (reify d)))
reflect NAT t = NeD t
```

Interpretation of terms

```
eval :: Term -> (Integer -> D) -> D
eval (Var k) xi = xi k
eval (App r s)
                  xi = appD (eval r xi)(eval s xi)
eval (Lam a r) xi = LamD \ a \ (\d \rightarrow eval \ r \ (ext \ xi \ d))
eval (Zero) xi = ZeroD
eval (Succ r) xi = SuccD (eval r xi)
eval (Rec c r s t) xi = recD c
                             (eval r xi)
                             (eval s xi)
                             (eval t xi)
```

where we need to define appD and recD, application and primitive recursion in the model.

Application and primitive recursion in the model

```
appD :: D -> D -> D
appD (LamD a f) d = f d
appD (NeD t) d = NeD (app t (reify d))
app :: TERM -> TERM -> TERM
app r s k = App (r k) (s k)
recD :: Type -> D -> D -> D
recD c ZeroD z s = z
recD c (SuccD d) z s = s 'appD' d 'appD' (recD c d z s)
recD c d z s = reflect c (Rec c
                                   (reify d)
                                   (reify z)
                                 (reify s))
```

Correctness of the nbe-function

We finally define the normalization function

nbe
$$t = reify (eval t) 0$$

Correctness means, as usual, that the nbe-function picks unique representatives from each convertibility class:

$$t \sim_a t'$$
 iff $nbe t = nbe t'$

And as usual we prove this as a consequence of two lemmas:

Convertible terms have equal normal forms

$$t \sim_a t'$$
 implies nbe $t = \text{nbe } t'$

A term is convertible to its normal form

$$t \sim_a \mathrm{nbe}\ t$$

Typed equality of semantic values

Both lemmas are proved by reasoning about the values in the semantic domain D. We need for example to prove that

$$t \sim_a t'$$
 implies eval $a t = \text{eval } a t'$

But what does "=" mean here? It turns out that we need a typed notion of equality \approx_a . This equality will be a partial equivalence relation (per) on D. Hence we prove

$$t \sim_a t'$$
 implies eval $a t \approx_a \text{eval } a t'$

Partial equivalence relations (pers) as types

A per is a symmetric and transitive relation.

A per R does not need to be reflexive. If a R a then a is in the domain of R.

A partial setoid is a pair (A,R) where A is a set and R is a per. Pers and partial setoids are useful for representing "sub-quotients" (quotients on a subset).

Convertibility and syntactic identity of terms

We also use two families of partial equivalence relations on syntactic terms:

- $t \equiv_a t'$, t and t' are identical totally defined terms of type a, where a is a totally defined type. (The per is also indexed by a context Γ which assigns types to the free variables; i e de Bruijn indices, but we omit this.)
- $t \sim_a t'$, t and t' are convertible totally defined terms of type a, where a is a totally defined type.

We can lift these pers to term families.

Semantic types as partial equivalence relations

We introduce a family of partial equivalence relations \approx_a on D such that a term of type a will be interpreted as an element of the domain of \approx_a and two convertible terms of type a will be interpreted as related elements of \approx_a .

- The partial equivalence relation for natural numbers is $d \approx_{Nat} d'$ iff there are equivalent normal term families $t \equiv_{Nat} t'$ such that d = NoD t and d' = NoD t'.
- The partial equivalence relation for functions is defined by

$$\texttt{LamD} \ \textit{a} \ \textit{f} \approx_{\textit{a} \rightarrow \textit{b}} \texttt{LamD} \ \textit{a} \ \textit{f}' \ \text{iff} \ \forall \textit{d}, \textit{d}' \in \textit{D}.\textit{d} \approx_{\textit{a}} \textit{d}' \supset \textit{f} \ \textit{d} \approx_{\textit{b}} \textit{f}' \ \textit{d}'$$

(Although we can define partial elements of any type in Haskell we here require that a and b are total elements of the type Type of types.)

Nbe maps convertible terms to equal normal forms

We first show that nbe maps convertible terms to equal normal forms (cf Church-Rosser):

$$t \sim_a t'$$
 implies nbe $t \equiv_a$ nbe t'

which is an immediate consequence of the following lemmas:

$$t \sim_a t'$$
 implies $\xi \approx_{\Gamma} \xi'$ implies eval $t \notin \approx_a$ eval $t' \notin (1)$

$$d \approx_a d'$$
 implies reify $d \equiv_a \text{reify } d'$ (2)

$$t \equiv_{a} t'$$
 implies reflect $a t \approx_{a} \text{reflect } a t'$ (3)

where t and t' are neutral term families in (3). Note that \equiv_a is a relation between term families in (2) and (3).

(1) is proved by induction on the convertibility relation, and (2) and (3) are proved simultaneously by induction on (total) types a.

Nbe preserves convertibility

To prove that

$$t \sim_a \text{nbe } t$$

we use the method of *logical relations*. We define a family of relations

$$R_a \subseteq TERM \times D$$

by induction on a, such that we can prove

- \bullet $t R_a$ (reflect a t), for neutral t
- 2 $t R_a d$ implies $t \sim_a (reify d)$
- **3** $ts R_{\Gamma} \xi$ implies *lift* $t[ts] R_a$ (*eval* $t \xi$)

Soundness follows by combining 2 and 3.

V. Dependent types

- Martin-Löf type theory a dependently typed lambda calculus with $\beta\eta$ -conversion
- Now we must normalize both types and terms!
- The nbe-algorithm here is novel research (Martin-Löf 2004; Abel, Aehlig, Dybjer 2007; Abel, Coquand, Dybjer 2007)
- Haskell implementation uses de Bruijn indices and term families
- Towards a transparent correctness proof for the type-checking algorithm for dependent types

Normalization of types in dependent type theory

In Martin-Löf type theory we can define the type-valued function Power $a \ n = a^n$. Let U be the type of *small types*:

Power :
$$U \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow U$$

Power a
$$0 = 1 - a$$
 one element type
Power a $(n+1) = a \times (Power \ a \ n) - a$ product type

In Martin-Löf type theory 1972 the *Power* program will be represented by the term

$$\lambda a : U.\lambda n : Nat.rec U \hat{1} (\lambda x; Nat.\lambda y : U.a \hat{\times} y) n$$

Syntax of a our version of Martin-Löf type theory

We have some new types (for simplicity we omit unit types and product types):

dependent function types (also called Π -types) $(x:a) \to a$; the type of small types U; small types T e

We also have some new terms: the codes for small types codes for small types $(x:a) \hat{\rightarrow} a$, $|\hat{Nat}|$; code for the natural number type N

The new grammar is

$$a ::= (x:a) \rightarrow a \mid a \times a \mid Nat \mid 1 \mid U \mid T e$$

$$e ::= x \mid (ee) \mid \lambda x : a.e \mid 0 \mid succ \ e \mid rec \ a \ e \ e$$

$$\mid (x:e) \hat{\rightarrow} e \mid \mid a \hat{\times} a \mid \hat{Nat} \mid \hat{1}$$

Nbe for Martin-Löf type theory written in Haskell

Syntax of types (types may now depend on term variables)

```
data Type = NAT | FUN Type Type -- Pi-type | U | T Term -- new types
```

Syntax of terms

```
data Term = Var Integer | App Term Term | Lam Type Term | Zero n| Succ Term | Rec Type Term Term Term | Nat | Fun Term Term -- new terms (small types)
```

Type and term families

Definition of the judgements

We need to define typing and equality judgements. Probably not untyped convertibility. Should equality of terms be indexed by two types?

An element of the type of Types

```
If we enlarge our universe by adding some more small types
```

```
data Term = ...
            | Unit | Times Term Term -- even more small type:
then we can represent
        Power m n = T (rec U \hat{1} (\lambda x : Nat.\lambda y : U.m \hat{*} y)n)
by
Lam NAT
     (Lam NAT
           (T (Rec U
                    Unit
                     (Lam NAT (Lam NAT (Times (Var 3) (Var 0))
                     (Var 2))))
:: Type
```

Semantic domain for types

```
data DT = FUND DT (D -> DT) -- semantic function types
| NATD -- normal Nat type
| UD -- normal U type
| NED TYPE -- neutral type family
```

Neutral types have the form T t, where t is a neutral term. In mathematical notation:

$$DT = DT \times (D \rightarrow DT) + 1 + 1 + TYPE$$

Semantic domain for terms

In mathematical notation:

$$D = DT \times (D \rightarrow D) + 1 + D + 1 + D \times (D \rightarrow D) + TERM$$

Reification

Reifying terms, also two new clauses for reifying small types

Reflection

Same as before but we have dependent function types

```
reflect :: DT -> TERM -> D

reflect (FUND a f) t =
   LamD a (\ d -> reflect (f d) (app t (reify d)))
reflect _ t = NeD t
```

Reification for types

If we want to normalize type expressions we must be able to reify semantic types.

Interpretation of types

```
evalT :: Type -> Valuation -> DT
evalT (U) xi = UD
evalT (FUN a b) xi = FUND (evalT a xi)
                        (\d -> evalT b (ext xi d))
evalT (T t)  xi = semt (eval t xi)
where
semt :: D \rightarrow DT
semt (FunD a f) = FUND (semt a) (\d -> semt (f d))
semt NatD
           = NATD
```

Interpretation of terms

As before, but we must also interpret the small types

Semantic types as partial equivalence relations

- As for the case of Gödel System T, we represent semantic types as partial equivalence relations on D.
- However, not all elements of the datatype Type of type expressions are well-formed types, and we will only define partial equivalence relations for the well-formed ones. We therefore define by a simultaneous inductive-recursive definition the well-formed types.
- We will not only define the well-formed types, but also the partial equivalence relation of equivalent well-formed types.
 This is again given by an inductive-recursive definition together with equivalence of terms of two given equivalent types.

VI. Nbe and foundations

Constructive foundations build on the notion of *evaluation* and *not* on *normalization*. BHK-semantics as refined and extended by Martin-Löf. Type soundness as foundation!

Extensional type theory (Martin-Löf 1979) can be justified by Martin-Löfian semantics (meaning explanations). But it does not have the normalization property and its judgements are not decidable. (Cf NuPRL system)

Intensional type theory (Martin-Löf 1972, 1986; Coquand and Huet 1984) has the normalization property and its judgements (in normal form) are decidable. (Cf Agda, Epigram and Coq)

Nbe and foundations

- Normalization by evaluation is related to Martin-Löfian semantics, but it provides meanings as normal forms also for open expressions. This is not part of the usual 1979/1984 Martin-Löfian meaning explanations.
- The big issue is whether intensional or extensional type theory provides the proper foundation. Decidability is considered important by Martin-Löf and Coquand. It is also a cornerstone of the proof assistants Coq, Agda and Epigram. It makes it possible to use the reflexive tactic.
- Prerequisite: what is Martin-Löfian semantics? What is BHK-semantics?