# A PROOF OF STRONG NORMALISATION USING DOMAIN THEORY 

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#### Abstract

Ulrich Berger presented a powerful proof of strong normalisation using domains, in particular it simplifies significantly Tait's proof of strong normalisation of Spector's bar recursion. The main contribution of this paper is to show that, using ideas from intersection types and Martin-Löf's domain interpretation of type theory one can in turn simplify further U. Berger's argument. We build a domain model for an untyped programming language where U . Berger has an interpretation only for typed terms or alternatively has an interpretation for untyped terms but need an extra condition to deduce strong normalisation. As a main application, we show that Martin-Löf dependent type theory extended with a program for Spector double negation shift is strongly normalising.


## Introduction

In 1961, Spector [23] presented an extension of Gödel's system $T$ by a new schema of definition called bar recursion. With this new schema, he was able to give an interpretation of Analysis, extending Gödel's Dialectica interpretation of Arithmetic, and completing preliminary results of Kreisel [15]. Tait proved a normalisation theorem for Spector's bar recursion, by embedding it in a system with infinite terms [25]. In [9], an alternative form of bar recursion was introduced. This allowed to give an interpretation of Analysis by modified realisability, instead of Dialectica interpretation. The paper [9] presented also a normalisation proof for this new schema, but this proof, which used Tait's method of introducing infinite terms, was quite complex. It was simplified significantly by U. Berger [11, 12], who used instead a modification of Plotkin's computational adequacy theorem [19], and could prove strong normalisation. In a way, the idea is to replace infinite terms by elements of a domain interpretation. This domain has the property that a term is strongly normalisable if its semantics is $\neq \perp$

The main contribution of this paper is to show that, using ideas from intersection types [3, 6, 7, 18] and Martin-Löf's domain interpretation of type theory [16], one can in turn simplify further U. Berger's argument. Contrary to [11], we build a domain model for an

[^0]DOI:10.2168/LMCS-3 (4:12) 2007
untyped programming language. Compared to [12], there is no need of an extra hypothesis to deduce strong normalisation from the domain interpretation. A noteworthy feature of this domain model is that it is in a natural way a complete lattice, and in particular it has a top element which can be seen as the interpretation of a top-level exception in programming languages. We think that this model can be the basis of modular proofs of strong normalisation for various type systems. As a main application, we show that MartinLöf dependent type theory extended with a program for Spector double negation shift [23] similar to bar recursion, has the strong normalisation property.

## 1. An Untyped Programming Language

Our programming language is untyped $\lambda$-calculus extended with constants, and has the following syntax.

$$
M, N::=x|\lambda x . M| M N|c| f
$$

There are two kinds of constants: constructors $c, c^{\prime}, \ldots$ and defined constants $f, g, \ldots$ We use $h, h^{\prime}, \ldots$ to denote a constant which may be a constructor or defined. Each constant has an arity, but can be partially applied. We write $\mathrm{FV}(M)$ for the set of free variables of $M$. We write $N(x=M)$ the result of substituting the free occurences of $x$ by $M$ in $N$ and may write it $N[M]$ if $x$ is clear from the context. We consider terms up to $\alpha$-conversion.

The computation rules of our programming language are the usual $\beta$-reduction and $\iota$-reduction defined by a set of rewrite rules of the form

$$
f p_{1} \ldots p_{k}=M
$$

where $k$ is the arity of $f$ and $\mathrm{FV}(M) \subseteq \mathrm{FV}\left(f p_{1} \ldots p_{k}\right)$. In this rewrite rule, $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are constructor patterns i.e. terms of the form

$$
p::=x \mid c p_{1} \ldots p_{l}
$$

where $l$ is the arity of $c$. Like in [11], we assume our system of constant reduction rules to be left linear, i.e. a variable occurs at most once in the left hand side of a rule, and mutually disjoint, i.e. the left hand sides of two disjoint rules are non-unifiable. We write $M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$ if $M$ reduces in one step to $M^{\prime}$ by $\beta, \iota$-reduction and $M={ }_{\beta, \iota} M^{\prime}$ if $M, M^{\prime}$ are convertible by $\beta, \iota$ conversion. It follows from our hypothesis on our system of reduction rules that $\beta, \iota$-reduction is confluent [14]. We write $\rightarrow(M)$ for the set of terms $M^{\prime}$ such that $M \rightarrow M^{\prime}$.

We work with a given set of constants, that are listed in section 3, but our arguments are general and make use only of the fact that the reduction system is left linear and mutually disjoint. We call UPL, for Untyped Programming Language, the system defined by this list of constants and $\iota$-reduction rules. The goal of the next section is to define a domain model for UPL that has the property that $M$ is strongly normalizing if $\llbracket M \rrbracket \neq \perp$.

[^1]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla \cap U & =\nabla \\
c U_{1} \ldots U_{k} \cap c^{\prime} V_{1} \ldots V_{l} & =\nabla \\
c U_{1} \ldots U_{k} \cap V \rightarrow W & =\nabla \\
\left(U \rightarrow V_{1}\right) \cap\left(U \rightarrow V_{2}\right) & =U \rightarrow\left(V_{1} \cap V_{2}\right) \\
c U_{1} \ldots U_{k} \cap V_{1} \ldots V_{k}=c & \left(U_{1} \cap V_{1}\right) \ldots\left(U_{k} \cap V_{k}\right) \\
\frac{U_{1} \subseteq U_{2} \quad U_{2} \subseteq U_{3}}{U_{1} \subseteq U_{3}} & \frac{U_{1} \subseteq V_{1} \ldots U_{k} \subseteq V_{k}}{c U_{1} \ldots U_{k} \subseteq c V_{1} \ldots V_{k}} \\
\overline{U \subseteq U} & \frac{U \subseteq V_{1} U \subseteq V_{2}}{U \subseteq V_{1} \cap V_{2}} \\
\overline{V_{1} \cap V_{2} \subseteq V_{1}} \overline{V_{1} \cap V_{2} \subseteq V_{2}} & \frac{U_{2} \subseteq V_{1} \subseteq V_{1} \subseteq V_{2}}{U_{1} \rightarrow V_{1} \subseteq U_{2} \rightarrow V_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Figure 1: Formal inclusion

## 2. A DOMAIN FOR STRONG NORMALIZATION

### 2.1. Formal Neighbourhoods.

Definition 2.1. The Formal Neighbourhoods are given by the following grammar:

$$
U, V::=\nabla\left|c U_{1} \ldots U_{k}\right| U \rightarrow V \mid U \cap V
$$

On these neighbourhoods we introduce a formal inclusion $\subseteq$ relation defined inductively by the rules of Figure 1 . In these rules we use the formal equality relation $U=V$ defined to be $U \subseteq V$ and $V \subseteq U$. We let $\mathcal{M}$ be the set of neighbourhoods quotiented by the formal equality. The terminology "formal neighbourhoods" comes from [15, 21, 16].
Lemma 2.2. The formal inclusion and equality are both decidable relations, and $\mathcal{M}$ is a poset for the formal inclusion relation, and $\cap$ defines a binary meet operation on $\mathcal{M}$. We have $c U_{1} \ldots U_{k} \neq c^{\prime} V_{1} \ldots V_{l}$ if $c \neq c^{\prime}$ and $c U_{1} \ldots U_{k}=c V_{1} \ldots V_{k}$ if and only if $U_{1}=V_{1}, \ldots, U_{k}=V_{k}$. An element in $\mathcal{M}$ is either $\nabla$ or of the form $c U_{1} \ldots U_{k}$ or of the form $\left(U_{1} \rightarrow V_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap\left(U_{n} \rightarrow V_{n}\right)$ and this defines a partition of $\mathcal{M}$. Furthermore the following "continuity condition" holds: if $I$ is a (nonempty) finite set and $\bigcap_{i \in I}\left(U_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}\right) \subseteq U \rightarrow V$ then the set $J=\left\{i \in I \mid U \subseteq U_{i}\right\}$ is not empty and $\bigcap_{i \in J} V_{i} \subseteq V$. Note that there is no maximum element, where there usually is one. This is linked to the fact that we are aiming to prove strong normalisation, not weak normalisation.

Similar results are proved in [5, 3, 7, 6, 16].
Proof. We introduce the set of neighbourhoods in "normal form" by the grammar

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
W, W^{\prime} & ::=\nabla\left|c W_{1} \ldots W_{k}\right| I \\
I & ::=\left(W_{1} \rightarrow W_{1}^{\prime}\right) \cap \cdots \cap\left(W_{n} \rightarrow W_{n}^{\prime}\right)
\end{array}
$$

and define directly the operation $\cap$ and the relation $\subseteq$ on this set. An element in normal form $W$ is of the form $\nabla$ or $c W_{1} \ldots W_{k}$ or is a finite formal intersection $\cap X$ where $X$ is a nonempty finite set of elements of the form $W \rightarrow W^{\prime}$. The definition of $\cap$ and $\subseteq$ will be recursive, using the following complexity measure: $|\nabla|=0,\left|c W_{1} \ldots W_{k}\right|=$ $1+\max \left(\left|W_{1}\right|, \ldots,\left|W_{k}\right|\right)$ and $\left|\cap_{i}\left(W_{i} \rightarrow W_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right|=1+\max _{i}\left(\left|W_{i}\right|,\left|W_{i}^{\prime}\right|\right)$.

We define

$$
\nabla \cap W=W \cap \nabla=\nabla
$$

$c W_{1} \ldots W_{k} \cap c W_{1}^{\prime} \ldots W_{k}^{\prime}=c\left(W_{1} \cap W_{1}^{\prime}\right) \ldots\left(W_{k} \cap W_{k}^{\prime}\right)$
$c W_{1} \ldots W_{k} \cap c^{\prime} W_{1}^{\prime} \ldots W_{l}^{\prime}=\nabla$
$c W_{1} \ldots W_{k} \cap(\cap X)=(\cap X) \cap c W_{1} \ldots W_{k}=\nabla$
$(\cap X) \cap(\cap Y)=\cap(X \cup Y)$.
Notice that we have $\left|W_{1} \cap W_{2}\right| \leq \max \left(\left|W_{1}\right|,\left|W_{2}\right|\right)$.
We have furthermore $\nabla \subseteq W$ and $c W_{1} \ldots W_{k} \cap c W_{1}^{\prime} \ldots W_{k}^{\prime}$ iff $W_{i} \subseteq W_{i}^{\prime}$ for all $i$ and finally $\cap X \subseteq \cap Y$ iff for all $W \rightarrow W^{\prime}$ in $Y$ there exists $W_{1} \rightarrow W_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, W_{k} \rightarrow W_{k}^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $W \subseteq W_{1}, \ldots, W \subseteq W_{k}$ and $W_{1}^{\prime} \cap \cdots \cap W_{k}^{\prime} \subseteq W^{\prime}$. This definition is well founded since $\left|W_{1}^{\prime} \cap \cdots \cap W_{k}^{\prime}\right|<|\cap X|$ and $\left|W^{\prime}\right|<|\cap Y|$. One can then prove that relation $\subseteq$ and the operation $\cap$ satisfies all the laws of Figure $\mathbb{1}$ on the set of neighbourhoods of complexity $<n$ by induction on $n$.

Since all the laws of Figure $\mathbb{1}$ are valid for this structure we get in this way a concrete representation of the poset $\mathcal{M}$, and all the properties of this poset can be directly checked on this representation.

We associate to $\mathcal{M}$ a type system defined in Figure 2 (when unspecified, $k$ is the arity of the related constant). It is a direct extension of the type systems considered in [3, 5, 6, 7, 16]. The typing rules for the constructors and defined constants appear to be new however. Notice that the typing of the function symbols is very close to a recursive definition of the function itself. Also, we make use of the fact that, as a consequence of Lemma 2.2, one can define when a constructor pattern matches an element of $\mathcal{M}$.

Lemma 2.3. If $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} \lambda x . N: U$ then there exists a family $U_{i}, V_{i}$ such that $\Gamma, x: U_{i} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N$ : $V_{i}$ and $\cap_{i}\left(U_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}\right) \subseteq U$.

Proof. Direct by induction on the derivation.
Lemma 2.4. If $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} \lambda x . N: U \rightarrow V$ then $\Gamma, x: U \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N: V$.
Proof. We have a family $U_{i}, V_{i}$ such that $\Gamma, x: U_{i} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N: V_{i}$ and $\cap_{i}\left(U_{i} \rightarrow V_{i}\right) \subseteq U \rightarrow V$. By Lemma 2.2 there exists $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}$ such that $U \subseteq U_{i_{1}}, \ldots, U \subseteq U_{i_{k}}$ and $V_{i_{1}} \cap \cdots \cap V_{i_{k}} \subseteq V$. This together with $\Gamma, x: U_{i} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N: V_{i}$ imply $\Gamma, x: U \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N: V$.
Lemma 2.5. If $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N M: V$ then there exists $U$ such that $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N: U \rightarrow V$ and $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U$.
Proof. Direct by induction on the derivation.

### 2.2. Reducibility candidates.

Definition 2.6. $\mathcal{S}$ (the set of simple terms) is the set of terms that are neither an abstraction nor a constructor headed term, nor a partially applied destructor headed term (i.e. $f M_{1} \ldots M_{n}$ is simple if $n$ is greater or equal to the arity of $f$ ).
Definition 2.7. A reducibility candidate $X$ is a set of terms with the following properties:
(CR1): $X \subseteq$ SN
(CR2): $\rightarrow(M) \subseteq X$ if $M \in X$
(CR3): $M \in X$ if $M \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\rightarrow(M) \subseteq X$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{x: U \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} x: U} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} c: U_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow U_{k} \rightarrow c U_{1} \ldots U_{k}}{} \\
\frac{\Gamma, x: U \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: V}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} \lambda x . M: U \rightarrow V} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N: U \rightarrow V \quad \Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} N M: V} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U \quad \Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: V}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U \cap V} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: V \quad V \subseteq U}{\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U} \\
f p_{1} \ldots p_{k}=M \quad p_{i}\left(W_{1}, \ldots, W_{n}\right)=U_{i} \\
\Gamma, x_{1}: W_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: W_{n} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: V \\
\hline \Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} f: U_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow U_{k} \rightarrow V \\
\text { for any } U_{1}, \ldots, U_{k} \text { such that } \\
\text { no rewrite rule of } f \operatorname{matches} U_{1}, \ldots, U_{k} \\
\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} f: U_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow U_{k} \rightarrow \nabla
\end{gathered}
$$

Figure 2: Types with intersection in $\mathcal{M}$
It is clear that the reducibility candidates form a complete lattice w.r.t. the inclusion relation. In particular, there is a least reducibility candidate $R_{0}$, which can be inductively defined as the set of terms $M \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $\rightarrow(M) \subseteq R_{0}$. For instance, if $M$ is a variable $x$, then we have $M \in R_{0}$ since $M \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\rightarrow(M)=\emptyset$.

We define two operations on sets of terms, which preserve the status of candidates. If $c$ is a constructor of arity $k$ and $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are sets of terms then the set $c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$ is inductively defined to be the set of terms $M$ of the form $c M_{1} \ldots M_{k}$, with $M_{1} \in X_{1} \ldots M_{k} \in$ $X_{k}$ or such that $M \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\rightarrow(M) \subseteq c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$. If $X$ and $Y$ are sets of terms, $X \rightarrow Y$ is the set of terms $N$ such that $N M \in Y$ if $M \in X$.

Lemma 2.8. If $X$ and $Y$ are reducibility candidates then so are $X \cap Y$ and $X \rightarrow Y$. If $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{k}$ are reducibility candidates then so is $c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$.

Definition 2.9. The function $[-]$ associates a reducibility candidate to each formal neighbourhood.

- $[\nabla] \triangleq R_{0}$
- $\left[c U_{1} \ldots U_{k}\right] \triangleq c\left[U_{1}\right] \ldots\left[U_{k}\right]$
- $[U \rightarrow V] \triangleq[U] \rightarrow[V]$
- $[U \cap V] \triangleq[U] \cap[V]$

Lemma 2.10. If $U \subseteq V$ for the formal inclusion relation then $[U] \subseteq[V]$ as sets of terms.
This follows from the fact that all the rules of Figure Tare valid for reducility candidates.
Theorem 2.11. If $\vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U$ then $M \in[U]$. In particular $M$ is strongly normalising.
As usual, we prove that if $x_{1}: U_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: U_{n} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U$ and $M_{1} \in\left[U_{1}\right], \ldots, M_{n} \in\left[U_{n}\right]$ then $M\left(x_{1}=M_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}=M_{n}\right) \in[U]$. This is a mild extention of the usual induction on derivations. We sketch the extra cases:

- Subtyping: direct from Lemma 2.10.
- Constructor: direct from the definition of $\left[c U_{1} \ldots U_{k}\right]$.
- Defined constant (case with a rewrite rule): we need a small remark: since $c^{\prime} M_{1} \ldots M_{l} \notin$ $\mathcal{S}$ for any $l$, we have that $c^{\prime} M_{1} \ldots M_{l} \in c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$ implies $c^{\prime}=c$ and $l=k$ by definition of $c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$. Knowing this we get that if $\left.N_{i} \in p_{i}\left(\left[W_{1}\right], \ldots,\left[W_{n}\right]\right)\right)$, then $f N_{1} \ldots N_{k}$ can only interract with one rewrite rule (remember that there is no critical pair). The definition of $c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$ also tells us that if the $N_{i}$ are equal to $p_{i}\left(M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}\right)$, then $M_{j} \in W_{j}$. From this the result follows easily.
- Defined constant (case with no rewrite rule): we need the same remark as in the previous case: $c^{\prime} M_{1} \ldots M_{l} \in c X_{1} \ldots X_{k}$ implies that $c^{\prime}=c$ and $l=k$. Additionally, $[\nabla]$ does not contain any constructor-headed term (since $[\nabla] \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ ). A consequence of these two remarks is that there cannot be any fully applied constructor-headed term in $[U \rightarrow V]$, by simple induction. In particular there is no term matched by a pattern in $[U \rightarrow V]$. Thus, since there is no rule matching the $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{k}$, we know that for any $N_{1} \in\left[U_{1}\right], \ldots, N_{k} \in\left[U_{k}\right], f N_{1} \ldots N_{k}$ is not matched by any rewrite rule; it is, however, a simple term. It follows easily that $f N_{1} \ldots N_{k} \in[\nabla]$.


### 2.3. Filter Domain.

Definition 2.12. An I-filter $\sqrt{2}^{2}$ over $\mathcal{M}$ is a subset $\alpha \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ with the following closure properties:

- if $U, V \in \alpha$ then $U \cap V \in \alpha$
- if $U \in \alpha$ and $U \subseteq V$ then $V \in \alpha$

It is clear that the set D of all I-filters over $\mathcal{M}$ ordered by the set inclusion is a complete algebraic domain. The finite elements of D are exactly $\emptyset$ and the principal I-filters $\uparrow U \triangleq$ $\{V \mid U \subseteq V\}$. The element $\top=\uparrow \nabla$ is the greatest element of D and the least element is $\perp=\emptyset$.

We can define on D a binary application operation

$$
\alpha \beta \triangleq\{V \mid \exists U, U \rightarrow V \in \alpha \wedge U \in \beta\}
$$

We have always $\alpha \perp=\perp$ and $\mathrm{T} \beta=\mathrm{T}$ if $\beta \neq \perp$. We write $\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n}$ for $\left(\ldots\left(\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}\right) \ldots\right) \alpha_{n}$.

[^2]2.4. Denotational semantics of UPL. As usual, we let $\rho, \nu, \ldots$ range over environments, i.e. mapping from variables to $D$.

Definition 2.13. If $M$ is a term of UPL, $\llbracket M \rrbracket \rrbracket_{\rho}$ is the I-filter of neighbourhoods $U$ such that $x_{1}: V_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: V_{n} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: U$ for some $V_{i} \in \rho\left(x_{i}\right)$ with $\operatorname{FV}(M)=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$.

A direct consequence of this definition and of Theorem 2.11 is then
Theorem 2.14. If there exists $\rho$ such that $\llbracket M \rrbracket \rho \neq \perp$ then $M$ is strongly normalising.
Notice also that we have $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\nu}$ as soon as $\rho(x)=\nu(x)$ for all $x \in \mathrm{FV}(M)$. Because of this we can write $\llbracket M \rrbracket$ for $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}$ if $M$ is closed. If $c$ is a constructor, we write simply $c$ for $\llbracket c \rrbracket$.
Lemma 2.15. We have $c \alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{k} \neq c^{\prime} \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{l}$ if $c \neq c^{\prime}$ and $c \alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{k}=c \beta_{1} \ldots \beta_{k}$ if and only if $\alpha_{1}=\beta_{1} \ldots \alpha_{k}=\beta_{k}$, whenever $\alpha_{i} \neq \perp, \beta_{j} \neq \perp$. An element of D is either $\perp$, or $\top$ or of the form $c \alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{k}$ with $c$ of arity $k$ and $\alpha_{i} \neq \perp$ or is a sup of elements of the form $\uparrow(U \rightarrow V)$. This defines a partition of D .
Proof. Follows from Lemma 2.2.
As a consequence of Lemma 2.15, it is possible to define when a constructor pattern matches an element of D. The next result expresses the fact that we have defined in this way a strict model of UPL.

Theorem 2.16.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\llbracket x \rrbracket_{\rho} & =\rho(x) \\
\llbracket N M \rrbracket_{\rho} & =\llbracket N \rrbracket_{\rho} \llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho} \\
\llbracket \lambda x . M \rrbracket_{\rho} \alpha & =\llbracket M \rrbracket_{(\rho, x:=\alpha)} \quad \text { if } \alpha \neq \perp
\end{array}
$$

If $f p_{1} \ldots p_{k}=M$ and $\alpha_{i}=\llbracket p_{i} \rrbracket_{\rho}$ then $\llbracket f \rrbracket \alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{k}=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}$. If there is no rule for $f$ which matches $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ and $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ are $\neq \perp$ then $\llbracket f \rrbracket \alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{k}=\top$. Finally, if for all $\alpha \neq \perp$ we have $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{(\rho, x:=\alpha)}=\llbracket N \rrbracket_{(\nu, y:=\alpha)}$ then $\llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{\rho}=\llbracket \lambda y \cdot N \rrbracket_{\nu}$.
Proof. The second equality follows from Lemma 2.5 and the third equality follows from Lemma 2.4.

Corollary 2.17. $\llbracket N(x=M) \rrbracket_{\rho}=\llbracket N \rrbracket_{\left(\rho, x=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}\right)}$

## 3. Application to Spector's Double Negation Shift

The goal of this section is to prove strong normalisation for dependent type theory extended with Spector's double negation shift [23]. The version of type theory we present is close to the one in [17]: we have a type of natural numbers Nat: $U$, where $U$ is an universe. It is shown in [17], using the propositions-as-types principle, how to represent intuitionistic higher-order arithmetic in type theory. It is then possible to formulate Spector's double negation shift as

$$
(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } \neg \neg B n) \rightarrow \neg \neg \Pi n: \text { Nat. } B n
$$

where $\neg A$ is an abreviation for $A \rightarrow \mathrm{~N}_{0}$ and $B:$ Nat $\rightarrow \mathrm{U}$. Spector showed [23] that it is enough to add this schema (Axiom F in [23]) to intuitionistic analysis in order to be able to interpret classical analysis via a negative translation. We show how to extend dependent type theory with a constant of this type in such a way that strong normalisation is preserved.

It follows then from [23] that the proof theoretic strength of type theory is much stronger with this constant and has the strength of classical analysis.
3.1. General Rules of Type Theory. We have a constructor Fun of arity 2 and we write $\Pi x: A . B$ instead of Fun $A(\lambda x . B)$, and $A \rightarrow B$ instead of Fun $A(\lambda x . B)$ if $x$ is not free in $B$. We have a special constant U for universe. (We recall that we consider terms up to $\alpha$-conversion.) A context is a sequence $x_{1}: A_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: A_{n}$, where the $x_{i}$ are pairwise distinct.

They are three forms of judgements

$$
\Gamma \vdash A \Gamma \vdash M: A \Gamma \vdash
$$

The last judgement $\Gamma \vdash$ expresses that $\Gamma$ is a well-typed context. We may write $J[x: A]$ for $x: A \vdash J$.

The typing rules are in figure 3.1

$$
\begin{gathered}
\digamma \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma, x: A \vdash} \\
\frac{(x: A) \in \Gamma \Gamma \vdash}{\Gamma \vdash x: A} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A: U}{\Gamma \vdash U} \quad \frac{\Gamma, x: A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash \Pi x: A \cdot B} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash x: A \vdash M: B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x \cdot M: \Pi x: A \cdot B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash N: \Pi x: A \cdot B \Gamma \vdash M: A}{\Gamma \vdash N M: B[M]} \\
\\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash M: A \Gamma \vdash B A={ }_{\beta, l} B}{\Gamma \vdash M: B}
\end{gathered}
$$

We express finally that the universe U is closed under the product operation.

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A: \cup \Gamma, x: A \vdash B: \mathrm{U}}{\Gamma \vdash \Pi x: A \cdot B: \mathrm{U}}
$$

Figure 3: Typing Rules of Type Theory
The constants are the ones of our language UPL, described in the next subsection.
3.2. Specific Rules. We describe here both the untyped language UPL (which will define the $\iota$ reduction) and the fragment of type theory that we need in order to express a program for Spector double negation shift. The constant of form ( $o p$ ) are used as infix operators.

The constructors are U, Nat, $\mathrm{N}_{0}, \mathrm{~N}_{1}, 0$ (arity 0 ), $\mathrm{S}, \operatorname{Inl}, \operatorname{Inr}($ arity 1$)$ and $(+),(\times)$, Fun, Pair (arity 2). To define the domain D as in the previous sections, it is enough to know these constructors.

The defined constants of the language UPL are vec, get, trim, $T$, head, tail, $(\leq)$, less, Rec, $\neg$, exit, $\Phi, \Psi$. The arities are clear from the given $\iota$-rules. From these $\iota$-rules it is then possible to interpret each of these constants as an element of the domain $D$.

At the same time we introduce these constants (constructors or defined constants) we give their intended types.

First we have the type of natural numbers Nat with two constructors:
Nat: U
|| 0 : Nat
We also add the natural number recursor Rec so that the language contains Heyting airthmetic:

Rec : $C 0 \rightarrow(\Pi n:$ Nat. $C n \rightarrow C(\mathrm{~S} n)) \rightarrow \Pi n:$ Nat. $C n[C:$ Nat $\rightarrow \mathrm{U}]$
$\mid \operatorname{Rec} P Q \quad 0=N$
$\| \operatorname{Rec} P Q(\mathrm{~S} x)=M x(\operatorname{Rec} N M x)$
In addition we add type connectives. ( + ) stands for the type disjunction, and $(\times)$ for the pair type:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (+): \mathrm{U} \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \\
& \| \mathrm{Inl}: \quad A \rightarrow A+B[A, B: \mathrm{U}] \\
& \mathrm{Inr}: \quad B \rightarrow A+B[A, B: \mathrm{U}] \\
& (\times): \mathrm{U} \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \\
& \| \text { Pair }: A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A \times B[A, B: \mathrm{U}]
\end{aligned}
$$

We write $(x, y)$ instead of Pair $x y$, and $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ for $\left(\ldots\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), \ldots, x_{n}\right)$.
We also need the empty type $\mathrm{N}_{0}$ (with no constructor):
$\mathrm{N}_{0}$ : U
with which we can define exit, its elimination rule, also known as ex falsum quod libet and the negation $\neg$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { exit : } \mathrm{N}_{0} \rightarrow A[A: \mathrm{U}] \\
& \neg: \mathrm{U} \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \\
& \| \neg A=A \rightarrow \mathrm{~N}_{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that the constant exit has no computation rule.
The last type we need to define is $\mathrm{N}_{1}$, the unit type (i.e. with only one trivial constructor), in other word the type "true":

$$
\begin{aligned}
& N_{1}: U \\
& \| 0: N_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that 0 is polymorphic and is a constructor of both $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ and Nat .
We can now start defining the more specific functions of our language. First comes $(\leq)$. It decides if its first argument is less or equal to its second one. Note that it returns either $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ or $\mathrm{N}_{0}$ which are types. This is an example of strong elimination, i.e defining a predicate using a recursive function.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (\leq): \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { Nat } \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \\
& \begin{aligned}
0 \leq n & =\mathrm{N}_{1} \\
(\mathrm{~S} x) \leq 0 & =\mathrm{N}_{0} \\
(\mathrm{~S} x) \leq(\mathrm{S} n) & =x \leq n
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently we have the function less which proves essentially that $(\leq)$ is a total ordering:

```
less : \(\Pi x\) : Nat. \(\Pi n\) : Nat. \((\mathrm{S} x \leq n)+(n \leq x)\)
| less \(x \quad 0=\operatorname{lnr} 0\)
less \(0 \quad(\mathrm{~S} n)=\operatorname{Inl} 0\)
less \((\mathrm{S} x)(\mathrm{S} n)=\) less \(x n\)
```

In order to write the proof of the shifting rule it is convenient to have a type of vectors vec $B n$, which is intuitively $\left(\ldots\left(\mathrm{N}_{1} \times B 0\right) \ldots\right) \times B(n-1)$ and an access function of type $\Pi n$ : Nat. $\Pi x$ : Nat. $(S x \leq n) \rightarrow \operatorname{vec} B n \rightarrow B x$
Notice that this access function requires as an extra argument a proof that the index access is in the right range. To have such an access function is a nice exercise in programming with dependent types.

This has to be seen as the type of finite approximations of proofs of $\Pi n$ : Nat. $B n$. And the access function is the respective elimination rule (i.e. a finite version of the forall elimination rule of natural deduction).

The type of vectors vec is defined recursively

```
vec : \((\mathrm{Nat} \rightarrow \mathrm{U}) \rightarrow \mathrm{Nat} \rightarrow \mathrm{U}\)
\(\operatorname{vec} B \quad 0 \quad=\mathrm{N}_{1}\)
\(\| \operatorname{vec} B(\mathrm{~S} x)=(\operatorname{vec} B x) \times B x\)
```

With vec come two simple functions head and tail accessing respectively the two component of the pair (any non-0-indexed vector is a pair of an "element" and a shorter vector):

```
head : \(\Pi x\) : Nat.(vec \(B(\mathrm{~S} x)) \rightarrow B x\)
\(\|\) head \(x(v, u)=u\)
tail : \(\Pi x\) : Nat. \((\operatorname{vec} B(\mathrm{~S} x)) \rightarrow \operatorname{vec} B x\)
\(\|\) tail \(\quad x(v, u)=v\)
```

In order to build the access function for type vec (which is supposed to extract the element of type $B x$ from a vector of a length longer than $x$ ) we introduce a function trim which shortens a vector of type vec $B n$ into a vector of type vec $B x$ by removing the $n-x$ first elements. The reason why such a function is useful is because we are trying to read the vector from the inside to the outside.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T:(\mathrm{Nat} \rightarrow \mathrm{U}) \rightarrow \mathrm{U} \\
& \| T P=\Pi k: \text { Nat. } P(\mathrm{~S} k) \rightarrow P k \\
& \text { trim : Пn : Nat. } \Pi m: \text { Nat. }(n \leq m) \rightarrow \Pi P: \text { Nat } \rightarrow \mathbf{U} . T P \rightarrow P m \rightarrow P n \\
& \text { |trim } 0 \quad 0 \quad p P h v=v \\
& \operatorname{trim} 0 \quad(\mathrm{~S} m) p P h v=\operatorname{trim} 0 m P h(h m v) \\
& \operatorname{trim}(\mathrm{S} n) \quad 0 \quad p P h v=\text { exit } p \\
& \operatorname{trim}(\mathrm{~S} n)(\mathrm{S} m) p P h v=\operatorname{trim} n m p(\lambda x . P(\mathrm{~S} x))(\lambda x . h(\mathrm{~S} x)) v
\end{aligned}
$$

As a consequence of the function trim we can define in a rather simple way the access function get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { get : } \Pi B: \text { Nat } \rightarrow \text { U. } \Pi n: \text { Nat. } \Pi x: \text { Nat. }(\mathrm{S} x \leq n) \rightarrow \operatorname{vec} B n \rightarrow B x \\
& \| \text { get } B n x p v=\text { head } x(\operatorname{trim}(\mathrm{~S} x) n p(\text { vec } B) \text { tail } v)
\end{aligned}
$$

We need the following result on the domain interpretation of this function get. To simplify the notations we write $h$ instead of $\llbracket h \rrbracket$ if $h$ is a constant of the language. We also write $\bar{l}$ for $S^{l} 0$.

Lemma 3.1. Let $v \neq \perp, y \neq \perp$ and $B$ such that for any $l, B\left(\underline{S^{l} T}\right) \neq \perp$ and $B \bar{l} \neq \perp$ (in particular, $B \neq \perp$ ). If $x=\bar{q}$ with $q<p$ then get $\bar{p} x 0 v=$ get $\overline{p+1} x 0(v, y)$. If $x=\mathrm{S}^{q} \mathrm{\top}$ with $q<p$ then get $\bar{p} x 0 v=\mathrm{T}$.
Proof. Let us prove that if $x=\bar{q}$ with $q<p$ then get $\bar{p} x 0 v=$ get $\overline{p+1} x 0(v, y)$. The proof of the second part of the Lemma is similar. It is proved by the following sequence of propositions

- If $h=\llbracket \lambda x . f(\mathrm{~S} x) \rrbracket_{(f=h)} \neq \perp$ and $h m u=h \top u$ for any $m, u, q \leq p, t \neq \perp, v \neq \perp$ and $P\left(\mathrm{~S}^{l} \mathrm{~T}\right) \neq \perp$ for any $l$ (in particular, $P \neq \perp$ ), then $\operatorname{trim} \bar{q} \bar{p} t P v=(h \mathrm{~T})^{p-q} v$.

This is proved by simple induction on $q$ and $p$. Using the definition of trim together with Theorem 2.16 and the fact that $P\left(\mathrm{~S}^{l} \mathrm{~T}\right) \neq \perp$ implies that $\llbracket \lambda f . f(\mathrm{~S} x) \rrbracket_{(f=P)}\left(\mathrm{S}^{l} \mathrm{~T}\right)=$ $P\left(\mathrm{~S}^{l+1} \mathrm{~T}\right) \neq \perp$ for any $l$.

- tail $=\llbracket \lambda x$.f $(\mathrm{S} x) \rrbracket_{(f=\text { tail })} \neq \perp$ and tail $m u=$ tail $\top u$. By Theorem 2.16.
- If $B\left(S^{l} \top\right) \neq \perp$ and $B \bar{l} \neq \perp$, then for all $l$ vec $B\left(\mathrm{~S}^{l} \mathrm{~T}\right) \neq \perp$. It is direct by induction on $l$ using the definition of vec and Theorem 2.16.
- Finally

$$
\text { get } \begin{aligned}
\overline{p+1} x 0(v, y) & =\text { head } x(\operatorname{trim}(\mathrm{~S} x) \overline{p+1} 0(\text { vec } B) \text { tail }(v, y)) \\
& =\text { head } x\left((\text { tail } \mathrm{T})^{p-q}(v, y)\right) \\
& =\text { head } x\left((\text { tail } \mathrm{T})^{p-q-1} v\right) \\
& =\text { head } x(\text { trim }(\mathrm{S} x) \bar{p} 0(\text { vec } B) \text { tail } v) \\
& =\operatorname{get} \bar{p} x 0 v
\end{aligned}
$$

We can now introduce two functions $\Phi$ and $\Psi$, defined in a mutual recursive way. They define a slight generalisation of the double negation shift:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi: \Pi B: \text { Nat } \rightarrow \mathrm{U} .(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } \neg \neg B n) \rightarrow \neg(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } B n) \rightarrow \Pi n: \text { Nat. } \neg \text { vec } B n \\
& \Psi: \Pi B: \text { Nat } \rightarrow \mathrm{U} .(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } \neg \neg B n) \rightarrow \neg(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } B n) \rightarrow \\
& \Pi n \text { : Nat.vec } B n \rightarrow \Pi x: \text { Nat. }(\mathrm{S} x \leq n)+(n \leq x) \rightarrow B x \\
& \text { | } \Phi \text { BHKnv } \quad=K(\lambda x . \Psi B H K n v x(\operatorname{less} x n)) \\
& \Psi B H K n v x(\operatorname{lnl} p)=\text { get } B n x p v \\
& \text { \| } \Psi \text { B HKnvx }(\operatorname{lnr} p)=\operatorname{exit}(H n(\lambda y . \Phi B H K(\mathrm{~S} n)(v, y)))
\end{aligned}
$$

The program that proves Spector's double negation shift

$$
\Pi B: \text { Nat } \rightarrow \mathrm{U} .(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } \neg \neg B n) \rightarrow \neg \neg(\Pi n: \text { Nat. } B n)
$$

is then $\lambda B . \lambda H . \lambda K . \Phi B H K 00$.

## 4. Model of type theory and strong normalisation

4.1. Model. We let $\operatorname{Pow}(\mathrm{D})$ be the collection of all subsets of D . If $X \in \operatorname{Pow}(\mathrm{D})$ and $F: X \rightarrow \operatorname{Pow}(\mathrm{D})$ we define $\Pi(X, F) \in \operatorname{Pow}(\mathrm{D})$ by $v \in \Pi(X, F)$ if and only if $u \in X$ implies $v u \in F(u)$.

A totality predicate on D is a subset $X$ such that $\perp \notin X$ and $T \in X$. We let TP(D) be the collection of all totality predicates.

Lemma 4.1. If $X \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ and $F: X \rightarrow \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ then $\Pi(X, F) \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$.

Proof. We have $\top \in X$. If $v \in \Pi(X, F)$ then $v \top \in F(\top)$ and so $v \top \neq \perp$ and $v \neq \perp$ hold. If $u \in X$ then $u \neq \perp$ so that $\top u=\top \in F(u)$. This shows $\top \in \Pi(X, F)$.
Definition 4.2. A model of type theory is a pair $T, E l$ with $T \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ and $E l: T \rightarrow \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ satisfying the property: if $A \in T$ and $u \in E l(A)$ implies $F u \in T$ then Fun $A F \in T$. Furthermore $E l($ Fun $A F)=\Pi(E l(A), \lambda u \cdot E l(F u))$.

If we have a collection of constants with typing rules $\vdash h: A$ we require also $\llbracket A \rrbracket \in T$ and $\llbracket h \rrbracket \in E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket)$.

Finally, for a model of type theory with universe $\mathbf{U}$ we require also: $\mathbf{U} \in T, E l(\mathbf{U}) \subseteq T$ and Fun $A F \in E l(\mathbf{U})$ if $A \in E l(\mathbf{U})$ and $F u \in E l(\mathbf{U})$ for $u \in E l(A)$.

The intuition is the following: $T \subseteq \mathrm{D}$ is the collection of elements representing types and if $A \in T$ the set $E l A$ is the set of elements of type $A$. The first condition expresses that $T$ is closed under the dependent product operation. The last condition expresses that $\mathbf{U}$ is a type and that $E l(\mathbf{U})$ is a subset of $T$ which is also closed under the dependent product operation.

The next result states the soundness of the semantics w.r.t. the type system.
Theorem 4.3. Let $\Delta$ be a context. Assume that $\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho} \in T$ and $\rho(x) \in E l\left(\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho}\right)$ for $x: A$ in $\Delta$. If $\Delta \vdash A$ then $\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho} \in T$. If $\Delta \vdash M: A$ then $\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho} \in T$ and $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho} \in E l\left(\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho}\right)$.
Proof. Direct by induction on derivations, using Theorem 2.16 and Corollary [2.17, For instance, we justify the application rule. We have by induction $\llbracket N \rrbracket_{\rho} \in \operatorname{EI}$ (Fun $\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho} \llbracket \lambda x . B \rrbracket_{\rho}$ ) and $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho} \in E l\left(\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho}\right)$. It follows that we have

$$
\llbracket N M \rrbracket_{\rho}=\llbracket N \rrbracket_{\rho} \llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho} \in E l\left(\llbracket \lambda x . B \rrbracket_{\rho} \llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}\right)
$$

Since $E l\left(\llbracket A \rrbracket_{\rho}\right) \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ we have $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho} \neq \perp$. Hence by Theorem 2.16 and Corollary 2.17 we have

$$
\llbracket \lambda x . B \rrbracket_{\rho} \llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}=\llbracket B \rrbracket_{\rho, x=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{\rho}}=\llbracket B[M] \rrbracket_{\rho}
$$

and so $\llbracket N M \rrbracket_{\rho} \in E l\left(\llbracket B[M] \rrbracket_{\rho}\right)$ as expected.

### 4.2. Construction of a model.

Theorem 4.4. The filter model D of UPL can be extended to a model $T \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D}), E l$ : $T \rightarrow \mathrm{TP}(\mathrm{D})$.

Proof. The main idea is to define the pair $T, E l$ in two inductive steps, using Lemma 2.15 to ensure the consistency of this definition. We define first $T_{0}, E l$. We have $T \in T_{0}$ and $\mathrm{T} \in E l(A)$ if $A \in T_{0}$. Furthermore, we have

- $\mathrm{N}_{0} \in T_{0}$
- $\mathrm{N}_{1} \in T_{0}$ and $0 \in E l\left(\mathrm{~N}_{1}\right)$
- Nat $\in T_{0}$ and $0 \in E l($ Nat $)$ and $\mathbf{S} x \in E l(\mathrm{Nat})$ if $x \in E l(\mathrm{Nat})$
- $A+B \in T_{0}$ if $A, B \in T_{0}$ and $\operatorname{lnl} x \in E l(A+B)$ if $x \in E l(A)$ and $\operatorname{lnr} y \in E l(A+B)$ if $y \in E l(B)$
- $A \times B \in T_{0}$ if $A, B \in T_{0}$ and $(x, y) \in E l(A \times B)$ if $x \in E l(A)$ and $y \in E l(B)$
- Fun $A F \in T_{0}$ if $A \in T_{0}$ and $F x \in T_{0}$ for $x \in E l(A)$. Furthermore $w \in E l$ (Fun $A F$ ) if $w x \in E l(F x)$ whenever $x \in E l(A)$
We can then define $T \supseteq T_{0}$ and the extension $E l: T \rightarrow \mathrm{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ by the same conditions extended by one clause
- $\mathrm{N}_{0} \in T$
- $\mathbf{N}_{1} \in T$ and $0 \in E l\left(\mathbf{N}_{1}\right)$
- Nat $\in T$ and $0 \in E l(\mathrm{Nat})$ and $\mathrm{S} x \in E l(\mathrm{Nat})$ if $x \in E l(\mathrm{Nat})$
- $A+B \in T$ if $A, B \in T$ and $\operatorname{Inl} x \in E l(A+B)$ if $x \in E l(A)$ and $\operatorname{Inr} y \in E l(A+B)$ if $y \in E l(B)$
- $A \times B \in T$ if $A, B \in T$ and $(x, y) \in E l(A \times B)$ if $x \in E l(A)$ and $y \in E l(B)$
- Fun $A F \in T$ if $A \in T$ and $F x \in T$ for $x \in E l(A)$. Furthermore $w \in E l($ Fun $A F)$ if $w x \in E l(F x)$ whenever $x \in E l(A)$
- $\mathbf{U} \in T$ and $E l(\mathbf{U})=T_{0}$

The definition of the pair $T, E l$ is a typical example of an inductive-recursive definition: we define simulatenously the subset $T$ and the function $E l$ on this subset. The justification of such a definition is subtle, but it is standard [2, 8, 22]. It can be checked by induction that $T \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ and $E l(A) \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ if $A \in T$. The next subsection proves that $\llbracket h \rrbracket \in E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket)$ if $\vdash h: A$ is a typing rule for a constant $h$.
4.3. Strong normalisation via totality. It is rather straightforward to check that we have $\llbracket h \rrbracket \in E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket)$ for all the constants $h: A$ that we have introduced except the last two constants $\Phi$ and $\Psi$. For instance $\llbracket$ exit $\rrbracket \in E l\left(\mathrm{~N}_{0} \rightarrow A\right)$ for any $A \in T$ since $E l\left(\mathrm{~N}_{0}\right)=\{T\}$ and $\llbracket \mathrm{exit} \mathrm{\rrbracket} \top=\mathrm{T}$ is in $E l(A)$. To check $\llbracket h \rrbracket \in E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket)$ is more complex for the last two functions.

Theorem 4.5. For all constants $h: A$ that we have introduced, we have $\llbracket h \rrbracket \in E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket)$.
Proof. To simplify the notations we write $h$ instead of $\llbracket h \rrbracket$ if $h$ is a constant of the language, and we say simply that $h$ is total instead of $h \in E l(A)$. The only difficult cases are for the constants $\Phi$ and $\Psi$. It is the only place where we use classical reasoning. We only write the proof for $\Phi$, the case of $\Psi$ is similar.

Assume that $\Phi$ is not total. We can then find total elements $B \in E l(N a t \rightarrow \mathbf{U})$, $H \in E l($ Fun Nat $(\lambda x . \neg \neg(B x))), K \in E l(\neg($ Fun Nat $B)), n \in E l($ Nat $)$ and $v \in E l(B n)$ such that $\Phi B H K n v$ does not belong to $E l\left(\mathrm{~N}_{0}\right)=\{\top\}$. Since

$$
\Phi B H K n v=K(\lambda x . \Psi B H K n v x(\text { less } x n))
$$

and $K$ is total, there exists $x \in E l(\mathrm{Nat})$ such that $\Psi B H K n v x$ (less $x n$ ) is not total at type $B x$. Given the definition of $\Psi$ this implies that less $x n$ is of the form Inr $h$. It follows from the definition of less that $n$ is of the form $\bar{p}$. Furthermore

$$
\Psi B H K n v x(\text { less } x n)=\operatorname{exit}(H \bar{p}(\lambda y . \Phi H K \overline{p+1}(v, y)))
$$

is not total. Since $H$ is total, there exists $y_{p} \in E l(B \bar{p})$ such that $\Phi B H K \overline{p+1}\left(v, y_{p}\right)$ is not total. Reasoning in the same way, we see that there exists $y_{p+1} \in E l(B \overline{p+1})$ such that $\Phi B H K \overline{p+2}\left(v, y_{p}, y_{p+1}\right)$ is not total. Thus we build a sequence of elements $y_{m} \in E l(B \bar{m})$ for $m \geq p$ such that, for any $m$

$$
\Phi B H K \bar{m}\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m-1}\right) \neq \top
$$

Consider now an element $x=\bar{q}$. For $m>q$ we have $\mathrm{S} x \leq \bar{m}=\mathrm{N}_{1}$ and we take $f x$ to be get $\bar{m} x 0\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m-1}\right)$. This is well defined since we have for $m_{1}, m_{2}>q$ by Lemma 3.1

$$
\text { get } B \overline{m_{1}} x 0\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m_{1}-1}\right)=\text { get } B \overline{m_{2}} x 0\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m_{2}-1}\right)
$$

We take also $f\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} \mathrm{~T}\right)=\mathrm{T}$. This defines a total element $f$ in $E l$ (Fun Nat $(\lambda x . E l(B x))$ ). Since $K$ is total, $K f$ is total and belongs to $E l\left(\mathrm{~N}_{0}\right)=\{T\}$. Hence $K f=\mathrm{T}$. Since $T$ is a finite element of D we have by continuity $K f_{0}=\mathrm{T}$ for some finite approximation $f_{0}$ of $f$. In particular there exists $m$ such that if $g_{m}\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} 0\right)=f\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} 0\right)$ and $g_{m}\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} \top\right)=f\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} \top\right)$, for all $q<m$, then $K g_{m}=\mathrm{T}$. If we define

$$
g_{m} x=\Psi B H K \bar{m}\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m-1}\right) x(\text { less } x \bar{m})
$$

we do have $g_{m}\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} 0\right)=f\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} 0\right)$ and $g_{m}\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} \mathrm{~T}\right)=f\left(\mathrm{~S}^{q} \top\right)$ for all $q<m$. Hence $K g_{m}=\mathrm{T}$. But then

$$
\Phi B H K \bar{m}\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m-1}\right)=K g_{m}=\top
$$

which contradicts the fact that the element $\Phi$ BHK $\bar{m}\left(v, y_{p}, \ldots, y_{m-1}\right)$ is not total.
Like in [11, it is crucial for this argument that we are using a domain model. These constants make also the system proof-theoretically strong, at least the strength of secondorder arithmetic.
Corollary 4.6. If $\vdash A$ then $\llbracket A \rrbracket \neq \perp$. If $\vdash M: A$ then $\llbracket M \rrbracket \neq \perp$.
Proof. If $\vdash A$ we have by Theorem 4.3 that $\llbracket A \rrbracket \in T$. By Theorem 4.4 we have $T \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$. Hence $\llbracket A \rrbracket \neq \perp$. Similarly, if $\vdash M: A$ we have by Theorem 4.3 that $\llbracket A \rrbracket \in T$ and $\llbracket M \rrbracket \in$ $E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket)$. By Theorem 4.4 we have $T \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$ and $E l(\llbracket A \rrbracket) \in \operatorname{TP}(\mathrm{D})$. Hence $\llbracket A \rrbracket \neq \perp$ and $\llbracket M \rrbracket \neq \perp$.

By combining Corollary 4.6 with Theorem 2.14 we get
Theorem 4.7. If $\vdash A$ then $A$ is strongly normalisable. If $\vdash M: A$ then $M$ is strongly normalisable.

## Conclusion

We have built a filter model D for an untyped calculus having the property that a term is strongly normalisable whenever its semantics is $\neq \perp$, and then used this to give various modular proofs of strong normalization. While each part uses essentially variation on standard materials, our use of filter models seems to be new and can be seen as an application of computing science to proof theory. It is interesting that we are naturally lead in this way to consider a domain with a top element. We have shown on some examples that this can be used to prove strong normalisation theorem in a modular way, essentially by reducing this problem to show the soundness of a semantics over the domain D . There should be no problem to use our model to give a simple normalisation proof of system F extended with bar recursion. It is indeed direct that totality predicates are closed under arbitrary non empty intersections. By working in the D-set model over D [24, 4], one should be able to get also strong normalisation theorems for various impredicative type theories extended with bar recursion.

For proving normalisation for predicative type systems, the use of the model D is prooftheoretically too strong: the totality predicates are sets of filters, that are themselves sets of formal neighbourhoods, and so are essentially third-order objects. For applications not involving strong schemas like bar recursion, it is possible however to work instead only with the definable elements of the set D , and the totality predicates become second-order objects, as usual. It is then natural to extend our programming language with an extra element $\top$
that plays the role of a top-level error. As suggested also to us by Andreas Abel, it seems likely that Theorem 2.11 has a purely combinatorial proof, similar in complexity to the one for simply typed $\lambda$-calculus. He gave such a proof for a reasonable subsystem in [1].

A natural extension of this work would be also to state and prove a density theorem for our denotational semantics, following [13]. The first step would be to define when a formal neighbourhood is of a given type.

In [6, 18], for untyped $\lambda$-calculus without constants, it is proved that a term $M$ is strongly normalizing if and only if $\llbracket M \rrbracket \neq \perp$. This does not hold here since we have for instance 0 Nat strongly normalizing, but $\llbracket 0 \mathrm{Nat} \rrbracket=\perp$. However, it may be possible to find a natural subset of terms $M$ for which the equivalence between $M$ is strongly normalizing and $\llbracket M \rrbracket \neq \perp$ holds. Additionally, Colin Riba showed this result for a system where the neighbourhoods are closed by union but were the rewrite rules are weaker [20].

Most of our results hold without the hypotheses that the rewrite rules are mutually disjoint. We only have to change the typing rules for a constant $f$ in Figure 2 by the uniform rule: $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} f: U_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow U_{k} \rightarrow V$ if for all rules $f p_{1} \ldots p_{k}=M$ and for all $W_{1}, \ldots, W_{n}$ such that $p_{i}\left(W_{1}, \ldots, W_{n}\right)=U_{i}$ we have $\Gamma, x_{1}: W_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: W_{n} \vdash_{\mathcal{M}} M: V$. (This holds for instance trivially in the special case where no rules for $f$ matches $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{n}$.) For instance, we can add a constant + with rewrite rules

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
+ & n & 0 & = \\
+ & n \\
+ & 0 & n & = \\
+ & n & (\mathrm{~S} m) & = \\
+ & \mathrm{S}(+n m) \\
+ & (\mathrm{S} n) & m & = \\
\mathrm{S}(+n m)
\end{array}
$$

and Theorem 2.14 is still valid for this extension.

## Acknowledgement

Thanks to Mariangiola Dezani-Ciancaglini for the reference to the paper 6]. The first author wants also to thank Thomas Ehrhard for reminding him about proofs of strong normalisation via intersection types.

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[^0]:    1998 ACM Subject Classification: F.4.1.
    Key words and phrases: strong normalisation, $\lambda$-calculus, double-negation shift, Scott domain, $\lambda$-model, rewriting, denotational semantics.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is the schema $(\forall x . \neg \neg P(x)) \rightarrow \neg \neg \forall x . P(x)$. Spector 23 remarked that it is enough to add this schema to intuitionistic analysis in order to be able to interpret classical analysis via negative translation.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ This terminology, coming from [6], stresses the fact that the empty set is also an I-filter.

