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# A Logic Identifying Isomorphic Propositions ${ }^{\dagger}$ 

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We define a fragment of propositional logic where isomorphic propositions, such as $A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$, or $A \Rightarrow(B \wedge C)$ and $(A \Rightarrow B) \wedge(A \Rightarrow C)$ are identified. We define System I, a proof language for this logic, and prove the strong normalisation of proof-reduction in this system.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Identifying isomorphic propositions

Mathematical structures are defined by operations and properties of these operations. For instance, addition in a field is associative, commutative, etc. In contrast, conjunction in logic is neither associative nor commutative, implication does not distribute over conjunction, etc. So, the propositions form a free algebra defined by operations, but no properties. For instance, the propositions $A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$ are different, and they have different proofs: if $A \wedge B$ has a proof, then so does $B \wedge A$, but if $r$ is a proof of $A \wedge B$, then it is not a proof of $B \wedge A$.

A first step towards considering $A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$ as the same proposition has been made by Rittri [1990], Bruce, Di Cosmo, and Longo [1992], and Di Cosmo [1995, 2005], who have defined a notion of isomorphic propositions and characterised them. Two propositions $A$ and $B$ are isomorphic if there exists two proofs of $A \Rightarrow B$ and $B \Rightarrow A$ whose composition, in both ways, is the identity.

For the fragment of propositional logic restricted to the operations $\Rightarrow$ and $\wedge$, all the isomorphisms are consequences of the following four:

$$
\begin{align*}
A \wedge B & \equiv B \wedge A  \tag{1}\\
A \wedge(B \wedge C) & \equiv(A \wedge B) \wedge C  \tag{2}\\
A \Rightarrow(B \wedge C) & \equiv(A \Rightarrow B) \wedge(A \Rightarrow C)  \tag{3}\\
(A \wedge B) \Rightarrow C & \equiv A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow C \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

[^0]For example, $(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow C) \equiv(B \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow C)$ is a consequence of (4) and (1).
In this paper, we go one step further and define a proof language, System I, for the fragment $\Rightarrow, \wedge$, such that when $A \equiv B$, then any proof of $A$ is also a proof of $B$, so the propositions $A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$, for instance, are really identical, as they have the same proofs.

The idea of identifying some propositions has already been investigated, for example, in Martin-Löf's type theory [Martin-Löf, 1984], in the Calculus of Constructions [Coquand and Huet, 1988], and in Deduction modulo [Dowek et al., 2003, Dowek and Werner, 2003], where definitionally equivalent propositions, for instance $x \subseteq y, x \in P(y)$, and $\forall z(z \in x \Rightarrow z \in y)$ can be identified. But definitional equality does not handle all the isomorphisms. For example, $A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$ cannot be identified in these logics. Beside definitional equality, identifying isomorphic types in type theory, is also a goal of the univalence axiom [The Univalent Foundations Program, 2013].

### 1.2. Lambda-calculus

The proof-language of the fragment of propositional logic restricted to the operations $\Rightarrow$ and $\wedge$ is simply typed lambda-calculus extend with Cartesian product. So, System I is an extension of simply typed lambda-calculus where, for example, a pair of functions $\langle r, s\rangle$ can be applied to an argument $t$, yielding a term $\langle r, s\rangle t$ that is itself identified with the term $\langle r t, s t\rangle$. To stress the associativity and commutativity of the notion of pair, we write $r \times s$ the term $\langle r, s\rangle$ and thus write this equivalence

$$
(r \times s) t=r t \times s t
$$

Several similar equivalence rules on terms are introduced: one related to the isomorphism (1), the commutativity of the conjunction, $r \times s \rightleftarrows s \times r$; one related to the isomorphism (2), the associativity of the conjunction, $(r \times s) \times t \rightleftarrows r \times(s \times t)$; four to the isomorphism (3), the distributivity of implication with respect to conjunction, e.g. $(r \times s) t \rightleftarrows r t \times s t$; and one related to the isomorphisms (4), the currification, $r s t \rightleftarrows r(s \times t)$.

One of the main difficulties in the design of System I is the design of the elimination rule for the conjunction. A rule like "if $r: A \wedge B$ then $\pi_{1}(r): A$ ", would not be consistent. Indeed, if $A$ and $B$ are two arbitrary types, $s$ a term of type $A$ and $t$ a term of type $B$, then $s \times t$ has both types $A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$, thus $\pi_{1}(s \times t)$ would have both type $A$ and type $B$. A solution is to consider explicitly typed (Church style) terms, and parametrise the projection by the type: if $r: A \wedge B$ then $\pi_{A}(r): A$ and the reduction rule is then that $\pi_{A}(s \times t)$ reduces to $s$ if $s$ has type $A$.

This rule makes reduction non-deterministic. Indeed, in the particular case where $A$ happens to be equal to $B$, then both $s$ and $t$ have type $A$ and $\pi_{A}(s \times t)$ reduces both to $s$ and to $t$. Notice that although this reduction rule is non-deterministic, it preserves typing, just like the calculus developed in [Dowek and Jiang, 2011], where the reduction is non-deterministic, but verifies subject reduction.

### 1.3. Non-determinism

Therefore, System I is one of the many non-deterministic calculi in the sense, for instance, of [Boudol, 1994, Bucciarelli et al., 2012, de'Liguoro and Piperno, 1995, DezaniCiancaglini et al., 1998, Pagani and Ronchi Della Rocca, 2010] and our pair-construction operator $\times$ is also the parallel composition operator of a non-deterministic calculus.

In non-deterministic calculi, the non-deterministic choice is such that if $r$ and $s$ are two $\lambda$-terms, the term $r \oplus s$ represents the computation that runs either $r$ or $s$ nondeterministically, that is such that $(r \oplus s) t$ reduces either to $r t$ or $s t$. On the other hand, the parallel composition operator $\mid$ is such that the term $(r \mid s) t$ reduces to $r t \mid$ st and continue running both $r t$ and st in parallel. In our case, given $r$ and $s$ of type $A \Rightarrow B$ and $t$ of type $A$, the term $\pi_{B}((r \times s) t)$ is equivalent to $\pi_{B}(r t \times s t)$, which reduces to $r t$ or $s t$, while the term $r t \times s t$ itself would run both computations at the same time. Hence, our $\times$ is equivalent to the parallel composition while the non-deterministic choice $\oplus$ is decomposed into $\times$ followed by $\pi$.

In System I, the non-determinism comes from the interaction of two operators, $\times$ and $\pi$. This is similar to quantum computing where the non-determinism comes from the interaction of two operators, the fist allowing to build a superposition, that is a linear combination, of two terms $\alpha . r+\beta . t$, and the measurement operator $\pi$. In addition, in such calculi, the distributivity rule $(r+s) t \rightleftarrows r t+s t$ is seen as the point-wise definition of the sum of two functions.

More generally, the calculus developed in this paper is also related to the algebraic calculi [Arrighi and Díaz-Caro, 2012, Arrighi et al., 2017, Arrighi and Dowek, 2008, 2017, Vaux, 2009, Díaz-Caro and Petit, 2012, Díaz-Caro and Dowek, 2017], some of which have been designed to express quantum algorithms. There is a clear link between the pair constructor $\times$ and the projection $\pi$, with the superposition constructor + and the measurement $\pi$ on these calculi. In these cases, the pair $s+t$ is not interpreted as a non-deterministic choice but as a superposition of two processes running $s$ and $t$, and the operator $\pi$ is the projection related to the measurement, which is the only non-deterministic operator.

## Outline

In Section 2, we define the notion of type isomorphism and prove elementary properties of this relation. In Section 3, we introduce System I. In Section 4, we prove its subject reduction, and its termination in Section 5. In Section 6, we prove that termination implies the consistency of the logic. Finally, in Section 7, we discuss how to use System $I$ as a programming language.

## 2. Type isomorphisms

Types are defined by the following grammar

$$
A, B, C, \ldots::=\tau|A \Rightarrow B| A \wedge B
$$

where $\tau$ is the only atomic type.

The Isomorphisms (1), (2), (3), and (4) are made explicit by a congruence on types

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \wedge B & \equiv B \wedge A \\
(A \wedge B) \wedge C & \equiv A \wedge(B \wedge C) \\
A \Rightarrow(B \wedge C) & \equiv(A \Rightarrow B) \wedge(A \Rightarrow C) \\
(A \wedge B) \Rightarrow C & \equiv A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow C
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 2.1 (Canonical form). A canonical form is inductively defined as follows: if $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ for $n>0$ are either canonical forms or the empty multiset, then the multiset $\left[S_{1} \Rightarrow \tau, \ldots, S_{n} \Rightarrow \tau\right]$ is a canonical form. We may write $\tau$ for $\emptyset \Rightarrow \tau$. The size of a canonical form is defined by induction as: size $\left[S_{1} \Rightarrow \tau, \ldots, S_{n} \Rightarrow \tau\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\operatorname{size}\left(S_{i}\right)+1\right)$ where $\operatorname{size}(\emptyset)=0$.

Definition 2.2 (Canonical forms of a type). We associate to each type a canonical form as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{can}(\tau)= & {[\tau] } \\
\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)= & \text { let } \operatorname{can}(B)=\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i=1}^{n} \\
& \text { in }\left[\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{i}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i=1}^{n} \\
\operatorname{can}(A \wedge B)= & \operatorname{can}(A) \uplus \operatorname{can}(B)
\end{aligned}
$$

We also define the inverse function as

$$
\operatorname{nac}\left(\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i}\right)=\bigwedge_{i} \operatorname{nac}^{\prime}\left(S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right)
$$

for some fixed order, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{nac}^{\prime}(\tau) & =\tau \\
\text { If } S \neq \emptyset \text { then } \operatorname{nac}^{\prime}(S \Rightarrow \tau) & =\operatorname{nac}(S) \Rightarrow \tau
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 2.3.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{can}(\tau \Rightarrow(\tau \wedge \tau)) & =[[\tau] \Rightarrow \tau,[\tau] \Rightarrow \tau] \\
\operatorname{nac}(\operatorname{can}(\tau \Rightarrow(\tau \wedge \tau))) & =(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \wedge(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \\
\operatorname{can}((\tau \wedge \tau) \Rightarrow \tau) & =[[\tau, \tau] \Rightarrow \tau] \\
\operatorname{nac}(\operatorname{can}((\tau \wedge \tau) \Rightarrow \tau)) & =(\tau \wedge \tau) \Rightarrow \tau
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 2.4. If $A \equiv B$, then $\operatorname{can}(A)=\operatorname{can}(B)$.
Proof. By structure on the derivation of the equivalence.
Lemma 2.5. $\forall A, A \equiv \operatorname{nac}(\operatorname{can}(A))$.
Proof. By induction on $A$.
In simply typed lambda-calculus, the size of a type verifies the property that the size of $A$ and $B$ are smaller than the size of $A \Rightarrow B$ and $A \wedge B$. Unfortunately, this notion of size is not preserved by equivalence. For instance the type $\tau \Rightarrow(\tau \wedge \tau)$ is equivalent to the bigger type $(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \wedge(\tau \Rightarrow \tau)$. Thus, we define the measure $m(A)$ as size $(\operatorname{can}(A))$.

Notice that, by Lemma 2.4 , if $A \equiv B$, then $m(A)=m(B)$. In addition, the following lemma shows that the measure $m(A)$ verifies the usual properties.

## Lemma 2.6.

$1 m(A \wedge B)>m(A)$
$2 m(A \Rightarrow B)>m(A)$
Proof.
1 It suffices to note that $\operatorname{can}(A)$ is a strict submultiset of $\operatorname{can}(A \wedge B)$.
2 Let $\operatorname{can}(B)=\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i=1}^{n}$. Then, $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)=\left[\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{i}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i=1}^{n}$. Hence, $m(A \Rightarrow B) \geq \operatorname{size}\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{1}\right)+1>\operatorname{size}\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{1}\right) \geq \operatorname{size}(\operatorname{can}(A))=m(A)$.

In simply typed lambda calculus, the implication and the conjunction are constructors, that is $A \Rightarrow B$ is never equal to $C \wedge D$, and if $A \Rightarrow B=A^{\prime} \Rightarrow B^{\prime}$, then $A=A^{\prime}$ and $B=B^{\prime}$, and the same holds for conjunction. This is, of course, not the case in System I where, for example, $\tau \Rightarrow(\tau \wedge \tau) \equiv(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \wedge(\tau \Rightarrow \tau)$, but the connectors still have some coherence properties such that
— If $A \Rightarrow B \equiv C_{1} \wedge C_{2}$, then there exists $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ such that $B \equiv B_{1} \wedge B_{2}$.

- If $(A \Rightarrow B) \equiv\left(A^{\prime} \Rightarrow B^{\prime}\right)$ and $A \equiv A^{\prime}$, then $B \equiv B^{\prime}$.
- If $A \Rightarrow B \equiv(A \Rightarrow C) \wedge D$, then there exists $E$ such that $D \equiv A \Rightarrow E$ and $B \equiv C \wedge E$.
- If $A \Rightarrow \tau \equiv B \Rightarrow C$ then $C \equiv A^{\prime} \Rightarrow \tau$ and $A \equiv A^{\prime} \wedge B$.
- If $A \wedge B \equiv C \wedge D$, then either $C \equiv A_{1} \wedge B_{1}$ and $D \equiv A_{2} \wedge B_{2}$, with $A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$ and $B \equiv B_{2}$, or similar cases.
We prove these properties in Lemmas 2.7, 2.8, 2.9, 2.10, and 2.12.
Lemma 2.7. If $A \Rightarrow B \equiv C_{1} \wedge C_{2}$, then there exists $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ such that $B \equiv B_{1} \wedge B_{2}$.
Proof. By Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)=\operatorname{can}\left(C_{1} \wedge C_{2}\right)=\operatorname{can}\left(C_{1}\right) \uplus \operatorname{can}\left(C_{2}\right)$. Thus, the cardinality of $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)$ is at least 2 . Notice that the cardinality of $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)$ is equal to the cardinality of $\operatorname{can}(B)$. Therefore, the cardinality of $\operatorname{can}(B)$ is at least 2 , and we conclude by Lemma 2.5.

Lemma 2.8. If $(A \Rightarrow B) \equiv\left(A^{\prime} \Rightarrow B^{\prime}\right)$ and $A \equiv A^{\prime}$, then $B \equiv B^{\prime}$.
Proof. Let $\operatorname{can}(B)=\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i}$ and $\operatorname{can}\left(B^{\prime}\right)=\left[S_{j}^{\prime} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{j}$. By Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow$ $B)=\operatorname{can}\left(A^{\prime} \Rightarrow B^{\prime}\right)$. That is, $\left[\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{i}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i}=\left[\left(\operatorname{can}\left(A^{\prime}\right) \uplus S_{j}^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{j}$. Since, by Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{can}(A)=\operatorname{can}\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, we have $\operatorname{can}(B)=\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{j}=\left[S_{j}^{\prime} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{j}=\operatorname{can}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 2.9. If $A \Rightarrow B \equiv(A \Rightarrow C) \wedge D$, then there exists $E$ such that $D \equiv A \Rightarrow E$ and $B \equiv C \wedge E$.

Proof. Let $\operatorname{can}(B)=\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i=1}^{n}$. Then, $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)=\left[\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{i}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i=1}^{n}$. By Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)=\operatorname{can}((A \Rightarrow C) \wedge D)=\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow C) \uplus \operatorname{can}(D)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{can}(D) \subseteq \operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow B)$ and $\operatorname{can}(D)=\left[\left(\operatorname{can}(A) \uplus S_{i}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i \in R}$ for some $R \subseteq\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Let $E=\operatorname{nac}\left(\left[S_{i} \Rightarrow \tau\right]_{i \in R}\right)$. Therefore, $D \equiv A \Rightarrow E$. So, $A \Rightarrow B \equiv(A \Rightarrow C) \wedge(A \Rightarrow E)$, and by Lemma $2.8, B \equiv C \wedge E$.

Lemma 2.10. If $A \Rightarrow \tau \equiv B \Rightarrow C$, then $C \equiv A^{\prime} \Rightarrow \tau$ and $A \equiv A^{\prime} \wedge B$.

Proof. Without lost of generality, let $C=C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D$ where $D \not \equiv D_{1} \Rightarrow D_{2}$, and let $A^{\prime}=\bigwedge_{i} C_{i}$. We have $C \equiv A^{\prime} \Rightarrow D$, hence, $A \Rightarrow \tau \equiv\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow D$. If $D \equiv D_{1} \wedge D_{2}$, then, $\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow D \equiv\left(\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow D_{1}\right) \wedge\left(\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow D_{2}\right)$, and hence, by Lemma 2.9, $\tau$ would be a conjunction. Hence, $D$ is not a conjunction. Since $D$ is neither a conjunction nor an implication, it has to be $\tau$, and so we have $C \equiv A^{\prime} \Rightarrow \tau$ and $A \Rightarrow \tau \equiv\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow \tau$. Thus, by Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{can}(A \Rightarrow \tau)=\operatorname{can}\left(\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right)$. Hence, $[\operatorname{can}(A) \Rightarrow \tau]=\left[\operatorname{can}\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right) \Rightarrow \tau\right]$, so $\operatorname{can}(A)=\operatorname{can}\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right)$, and therefore $\operatorname{nac}(\operatorname{can}(A))=\operatorname{nac}\left(\operatorname{can}\left(B \wedge A^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Hence, by Lemma 2.5 , we have $A \equiv B \wedge A^{\prime}$.

Lemma 2.11. Let $R, S, T$ and $U$ be four non-empty multisets such that $R \uplus S=T \uplus U$ then either

- there exists non-empty multisets $R_{1}, R_{2}, S_{1}, S_{2}$ such that $R=R_{1} \uplus R_{2}, S=S_{1} \uplus S_{2}$, $T=R_{1} \uplus S_{1}, U=R_{2} \uplus S_{2}$,
— there exists a non-empty multiset $S_{2}$ such that $S=T \uplus S_{2}, U=R \uplus S_{2}$,
- there exists a non-empty multiset $S_{1}$ such that $S=S_{1} \uplus U, T=R \uplus S_{1}$,
— there exists a non-empty multiset $R_{2}$ such that $R=T \uplus R_{2}, U=R_{2} \uplus S$,
— there exists a non-empty multiset $R_{1}$ such that $R=R_{1} \uplus U, T=R_{1} \uplus S$,
$-R=T, S=U$
- $R=U, S=T$

Proof. Let $R_{1}=R \cap T, R_{2}=R \cap U, S_{1}=S \cap T, S_{2}=S \cap U$.
We have $R_{1} \uplus R_{2}=R \cap(T \uplus U)=R \cap(R \uplus S)=R$. Similarly, $S_{1} \uplus S_{2}=S, R_{1} \uplus S_{1}=T$, $R_{2} \uplus S_{2}=U$.

If none of the multisets $R_{1}, R_{2}, S_{1}, S_{2}$ is empty, we get the first case.
If exactly one is empty, we get the four following cases. For instance if $R_{1}=\emptyset$ then we get: there exists non-empty multisets $R_{2}, S_{1}, S_{2}$ such that $R=R_{2}, S=S_{1} \uplus S_{2}, T=S_{1}$, $U=R_{2} \uplus S_{2}$, that is, there exists a non-empty multiset $S_{2}$ such that $S=T \uplus S_{2}$ and $U=R \uplus S_{2}$. The three other cases are similar.

If two of them are empty, as the multisets $R_{1} \uplus R_{2}, S_{1} \uplus S_{2}, R_{1} \uplus S_{1}$, and $R_{2} \uplus S_{2}$ are non-empty the only possibilities are $R_{2}=S_{1}=\emptyset$ and $R_{1}=S_{2}=\emptyset$.

In the first case we get $R=R_{1}, S=S_{2}, T=R_{1}, U=S_{2}$, that is $R=T$ and $S=U$. In the second, we get $R=U$ and $S=T$.

As the multisets $R_{1} \uplus R_{2}, S_{1} \uplus S_{2}, R_{1} \uplus S_{1}$, and $R_{2} \uplus S_{2}$ are non-empty, it is not possible that three or four of these sets are empty.

Lemma 2.12. If $A \wedge B \equiv C \wedge D$ then either
$-A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}, B \equiv B_{1} \wedge B_{2} C=A_{1} \wedge B_{1}, D=A_{2} \wedge B_{2}$,
$-B \equiv C \wedge B_{2}, D \equiv A \wedge B_{2}$,
$-B \equiv B_{1} \wedge D, C \equiv A \wedge B_{1}$,
$-A \equiv C \wedge A_{2}, D \equiv A_{2} \wedge B$,
$-A \equiv A_{1} \wedge D, C \equiv A_{1} \wedge B$,
$-A \equiv C, B \equiv D$,
$-A \equiv D, B \equiv C$.
Proof. Let $R=\operatorname{can}(A), S=\operatorname{can}(B), T=\operatorname{can}(C)$, and $U=\operatorname{can}(D)$. By Lemma 2.3,


Fig. 1. Seven cases on the equivalence $A \wedge B \equiv C \wedge D$ as prescribed by Lemma 2.12.
we have $\operatorname{can}(A \wedge B)=\operatorname{can}(C \wedge D)$, that is $R \uplus S=T \uplus U$. We apply Lemma 2.11 leading to seven cases. In the first case, we call $A_{1}=\operatorname{nac}\left(R_{1}\right), A_{2}=\operatorname{nac}\left(R_{2}\right), B_{1}=\operatorname{nac}\left(S_{1}\right)$, $B_{2}=\operatorname{nac}\left(S_{2}\right)$. By Lemma 2.4, we have $A_{1} \wedge A_{2}=\operatorname{nac}\left(R_{1}\right) \wedge \operatorname{nac}\left(R_{2}\right) \equiv \operatorname{nac}\left(R_{1} \uplus R_{2}\right)=$ $\operatorname{nac}(R)=\operatorname{nac}(\operatorname{can}(A)) \equiv A$. Similarly, $B_{1} \wedge B_{2} \equiv B, A_{1} \wedge B_{1} \equiv C$ and $A_{2} \wedge B_{2} \equiv D$. The other cases are similar.

The seven cases prescribed by this lemma are graphically represented in Fig. 1.

## 3. System I

### 3.1. Syntax

We associate to each type $A$ an infinite set of variables $\mathcal{V}_{A}$ such that if $A \equiv B$ then $\mathcal{V}_{A}=\mathcal{V}_{B}$ and if $A \not \equiv B$ then $\mathcal{V}_{A} \cap \mathcal{V}_{B}=\emptyset$, and we use a presentation of typing rules without explicit context following Geuvers et al. [2010] and Park et al. [2014].

The set of terms is defined inductively by the grammar

$$
r, s, t, u, v, w::=\quad x|\lambda x . r| r s|r \times s| \pi_{A}(r)
$$

We may write $x^{A}$ when $x \in \mathcal{V}_{A}$.
We define the set of free and bound variables of a term $t$ as usual, denoted by $B V(t)$ and $F V(t)$. We say that a term $r$ is closed whenever $F V(r)=\emptyset$. We consider implicit $\alpha$-equivalence on terms where bound variables can be replaced by other variables of the same type. The substitution on terms is defined as usual in the $\lambda$-calculus.

The type system is given in Table 1. Typing judgments are of the form $r: A$. We write the preconditions of a typing rule, at its left.

The operational semantics of the calculus is defined by two relations, the first is an equivalence relation, and the second is a reduction relation.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\hline \frac{x^{A}: A}{}(a x) & {[A \equiv B] \frac{r: A}{r: B}(\equiv)} \\
\frac{r: B}{\lambda x^{A} \cdot r: A \Rightarrow B}\left(\Rightarrow_{i}\right) & \frac{r: A \Rightarrow B \quad s: A}{r s: B}\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right) \\
\frac{r: A B: B}{r \times s: A \wedge B}\left(\wedge_{i}\right) & \frac{r: A \wedge B}{\pi_{A}(r): A}\left(\wedge_{e}\right)
\end{array}
$$

Table 1. The type system.

| $r \times s \rightleftarrows s \times r$ | (COMm) |
| :---: | :---: |
| $(r \times s) \times t \rightleftarrows r \times(s \times t)$ | (ASSO) |
| $\lambda x .(r \times s) \rightleftarrows \lambda x . r \times \lambda x . s$ | ( $\operatorname{DIST}_{i i}{ }^{\text {) }}$ |
| $(r \times s) t \rightleftarrows r t \times s t$ | ( $\operatorname{DIST}_{i e}$ ) |
| $\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot r\right) \rightleftarrows \lambda x^{A} \cdot \pi_{B}(r)$ | ( $\mathrm{DIST}_{e i}$ ) |
| If $\left\{\begin{array}{l}r: A \Rightarrow(B \wedge C) \\ s: A\end{array}\right\}, \pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r) s \rightleftarrows \pi_{B}(r s)$ | $\left(\operatorname{DIST}_{e e}\right)$ |
| $r s t \rightleftarrows r(s \times t)$ | (CURRY) |
| If $A \equiv B, \pi_{A}(r) \rightleftarrows \pi_{B}(r)$ | (EQUIV) |
| $r \rightleftarrows s$ |  |
| $\overline{C[r] \rightleftarrows C[s]}$ | $(\mathrm{C} \rightleftarrows)$ |

Table 2. Symmetric relation.


Fig. 2. Graphical representation of the symmetric relation $\rightleftarrows$ from Table 2.

### 3.2. Equivalence relation

The symmetric relation $\rightleftarrows$ is defined in Table 2 where the set of contexts is defined by the grammar

$$
C[\cdot]::=[\cdot]|\lambda x . C[\cdot]| C[\cdot] r|r C[\cdot]| C[\cdot] \times r|r \times C[\cdot]| \pi_{A}(C[\cdot])
$$

Each isomorphism, taken as equivalence between types, induces an equivalence between terms. Four possible rules exist however for the isomorphism (3), depending on which distribution is taken into account: elimination or introduction of conjunction, and elimination or introduction of implication.

In Fig. 2, the symmetric relation is graphically represented, taking into account the symbol in head position on each rule.

Because of the associativity property of $\times$, the term $r \times(s \times t)$ is the same as the term $(r \times s) \times t$, so we can just express it as $r \times s \times t$.

We write $\rightleftarrows^{*}$ for the transitive and reflexive closure of $\rightleftarrows$. Note that $\rightleftarrows^{*}$ is an equivalence relation.

In Table 3 we introduce measures on terms $P$ and $M$.
We want to prove that the equivalence class of a term is a finite set (Lemma 3.3). To do so, we need the following two auxiliary lemmas (Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2), showing that $P(t)$ and $M(t)$ are invariant with respect to $\rightleftarrows$.

| $P(x)$ | $=0$ | $M(x)$ | $=1$ |
| ---: | :--- | ---: | :--- |
| $P(\lambda x \cdot r)$ | $=P(r)$ | $M(\lambda x \cdot r)$ | $=1+M(r)+P(r)$ |
| $P(r s)$ | $=P(r)$ | $M(r s)$ | $=M(r)+M(s)+P(r) M(s)$ |
| $P(r \times s)$ | $=1+P(r)+P(s)$ | $M(r \times s)$ | $=M(r)+M(s)$ |
| $P\left(\pi_{A}(r)\right)$ | $=P(r)$ | $M\left(\pi_{A}(r)\right)$ | $=1+M(r)+P(r)$ |

Table 3. Measure on terms.

Lemma 3.1. If $r \rightleftarrows s$ then $P(r)=P(s)$.

Proof. By structural induction on relation $\rightleftarrows$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r \times s \rightleftarrows s \times r: \quad P(r \times s)=1+P(r)+P(s)=P(s \times r) . \\
& (r \times s) \times t \rightleftarrows r \times(s \times t): \quad P((r \times s) \times t)=2+P(r)+P(s)+P(t)=P(r \times(s \times t)) \text {. } \\
& \lambda x .(r \times s) \rightleftarrows \lambda x . r \times \lambda x . s: P(\lambda x .(r \times s))=P(r \times s) \\
& =1+P(r)+P(s)=1+P(\lambda x . r)+P(\lambda x . s) \\
& =P(\lambda x . r \times \lambda x . s) \\
& (r \times s) t \rightleftarrows r t \times s t: P((r \times s) t)=P(r \times s) \\
& =1+P(r)+P(s)=1+P(r t)+P(s t) \\
& =P(r t \times s t) \\
& \pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(\lambda x . r) \rightleftarrows \lambda x . \pi_{B}(r): P\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(\lambda x . r)\right)=P(\lambda x . r) \\
& =P(r)=P\left(\pi_{B}(r)\right) \\
& =P\left(\lambda x . \pi_{B}(r)\right) \\
& \pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r) s \rightleftarrows \pi_{B}(r s): P\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r) s\right)=P\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r)\right) \\
& =P(r)=P(r s) \\
& =P\left(\pi_{B}(r s)\right) \\
& (r s) t \rightleftarrows r(s \times t): \quad P((r s) t)=P(r s)=P(r)=P(r(s \times t)) \text {. } \\
& \pi_{A}(r) \rightleftarrows \pi_{B}(r), \text { with } A \equiv B: P\left(\pi_{A}(r)\right)=P(r)=P\left(\pi_{B}(r)\right) \text {. } \\
& C[r] \rightleftarrows C[s] \text { with } r \rightleftarrows s \text { : Straightforward induction on the structure of } C[\cdot] \text {. For exam- } \\
& \text { ple, let } C[\cdot]=C^{\prime}[\cdot] \times t \text {, then } P(C[r])=1+P\left(C^{\prime}[r]\right)+P(t) \text {, which, by the induction } \\
& \text { hypothesis, is equal to } 1+P\left(C^{\prime}[s]\right)+P(t)=P(C[s]) \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 3.2. If $r \rightleftarrows s$ then $M(r)=M(s)$.

Proof. By structural induction on relation $\rightleftarrows$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r \times s \rightleftarrows s \times r: M(r \times s)=M(r)+M(s)=M(s \times r) \\
& (r \times s) \times t \rightleftarrows r \times(s \times t): M((r \times s) \times t)=M(r)+M(s)+M(t)=M(r \times(s \times t)) . \\
& \begin{aligned}
\lambda x .(r \times s) \rightleftarrows \lambda x . r \times \lambda x . s: & M(\lambda x .(r \times s)) \\
& =2+M(r)+M(s)+P(r)+P(s) \\
& =M(\lambda x . r \times \lambda x . s)
\end{aligned}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
(r s) t \rightleftarrows r(s \times t): M((r s) t)
$$

$$
=M(r s)+M(t)+P(r s) M(t)
$$

$$
=M(r)+M(s)+P(r) M(s)+M(t)+P(r) M(t)
$$

$$
=M(r)+M(s \times t)+P(r) M(s \times t)
$$

$$
=M(r(s \times t))
$$

$\pi_{A}(r) \rightleftarrows \pi_{B}(r)$, with $A \equiv B: M\left(\pi_{A}(r)\right)=1+M(r)+P(r)=M\left(\pi_{B}(r)\right)$.
$C[r] \rightleftarrows C[s]$ with $r \rightleftarrows s$ : Straightforward case by case on the structure of $C[\cdot]$. For example, let $C[\cdot]=\lambda x . C^{\prime}[\cdot]$, then $M(C[r])=1+M\left(C^{\prime}[r]\right)+P\left(C^{\prime}[r]\right)$, which, by the induction hypothesis and Lemma 3.1, is equal to $1+M\left(C^{\prime}[s]\right)+P\left(C^{\prime}[s]\right)=M(C[s])$.

Lemma 3.3. For any term $r$, the set $\left\{s \mid s \rightleftarrows^{*} r\right\}$ is finite (modulo $\alpha$-equivalence and type equivalence).

Proof. As $\left\{s \mid s \rightleftarrows^{*} r\right\} \subseteq\{s \mid F V(s)=F V(r)$ and $M(s)=M(r)\} \subseteq\{s \mid F V(s) \subseteq$ $F V(r)$ and $M(s) \leq M(r)\}$ all we need to prove is that for all natural numbers $n$, for all finite sets of variables $F$, the set $H(n, F)=\{s \mid F V(s) \subseteq F$ and $M(s) \leq n\}$ is finite.

We first prove by induction on $s$ that $M(s) \geq 1$ and then the property by induction on $n$. For $n=1$ the set $\{s \mid F V(s) \subseteq F$ and $M(s) \leq 1\}$ contains only the variables of $F$. Assume the property holds for $n$, then $H(n+1, F)$ is a subset of the finite set containing the variables of $F$, some abstractions ( $\lambda x . r$ ) for $r$ in $H(n, F \cup\{x\})$, some applications (rs) for $r$ and $s$ in $H(n, F)$, some products $r \times s$ for $r$ and $s$ in $H(n, F)$, some projections $\pi_{A}(r)$ for $r$ in $H(n, F)$.

In Lemma 3.4, we characterise the terms equivalent to a product. The first item of such a lemma is analogous to the seven cases depicted in Fig. 1. In Lemma 3.5, we

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (r \times s) t \rightleftarrows r t \times s t: M((r \times s) t) \\
& =M(r \times s)+M(t)+P(r \times s) M(t) \\
& =M(r)+M(s)+2 M(t)+P(r) M(t)+P(s) M(t) \\
& =M(r t)+M(s t) \\
& =M(r t \times s t) \\
& \pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(\lambda x . r) \rightleftarrows \lambda x . \pi_{B}(r): M\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(\lambda x . r)\right) \\
& =1+M(\lambda x . r)+P(\lambda x . r) \\
& =2+M(r)+2 P(r) \\
& =M\left(\lambda x . \pi_{B}(r)\right) \\
& \pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r) s \rightleftarrows \pi_{B}(r s): M\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r) s\right) \\
& =M\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r)\right)+M(s)+P\left(\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}(r)\right) M(s) \\
& =1+M(r)+P(r)+M(s)+P(r) M(s) \\
& =1+M(r s)+P(r s) \\
& =M(\pi(r s))
\end{aligned}
$$

characterise the terms equivalent to a projection and, in Lemma 3.6, the terms equivalent to an abstraction.

Lemma 3.4. If $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} t$ then one of the following cases happen
$1 t=u \times v$ where either
(a) $u \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{21}$ and $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} \times t_{22}$ with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{12}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{21} \times t_{22}$, or
(b) $v \rightleftarrows^{*} w \times s$ with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u \times w$, or any of the three symmetric cases, or
(c) $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} v$, or the symmetric case.
$2 \quad t=\lambda x . a$ and $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$ with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . a_{1}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . a_{2}$.
$3 \quad t=a v$ and $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$, with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} v$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{2} v$.
Proof. By a double induction, first on $M(t)$ and then on the length of the relation $\rightleftarrows^{*}$. Consider an equivalence proof $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows t$ with a shorter proof $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime}$. By the second induction hypothesis, the term $t^{\prime}$ has the form prescribed by the lemma. We consider the three cases and in each case, the possible rules transforming $t^{\prime}$ in $t$.
1 Let $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} u \times v \rightleftarrows t$. The possible equivalences from $u \times v$ are - $t=u^{\prime} \times v$ or $u \times v^{\prime}$ with $u \rightleftarrows u^{\prime}$ and $v \rightleftarrows v^{\prime}$, and so we are in case 1 .

- Associativity and commutativity preserve the conditions of case 1.
- $t=\lambda x .\left(u^{\prime} \times v^{\prime}\right)$, with $u=\lambda x . u^{\prime}$ and $v=\lambda x \cdot v^{\prime}$. By the first induction hypothesis (since $M(u)<M(t)$ and $M(v)<M(t)$ ), one of the following cases happen
(a) $u \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} \times w_{21}$ and $v \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{12} \times w_{22}$, by the first induction hypothesis, $w_{i j} \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $\lambda x . t_{i j}$ for $i=1,2$ and $j=1,2$, with $u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{21}$ and $v^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} \times t_{22}$, so $u^{\prime} \times v^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{12} \times t_{21} \times t_{22}$. Hence, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x .\left(t_{11} \times t_{12}\right)$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x .\left(t_{21} \times t_{22}\right)$, and hence we are in case 2 .
(b) $v \rightleftarrows^{*} w \times s$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u \times w$. Since $v \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x \cdot v^{\prime}$, by the first induction hypothesis, $w \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{1}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{2}$, with $v^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} \times t_{2}$. Hence, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x .\left(u^{\prime} \times t_{1}\right)$, and hence we are in case 2 .
(c) $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . u^{\prime}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . v$, and hence we are in case 2 .
(the symmetric cases are analogous).
$-t=\left(u^{\prime} \times v^{\prime}\right) t^{\prime}$, with $u=u^{\prime} t^{\prime}$ and $v=v^{\prime} t^{\prime}$. By the first induction hypothesis (since $M(u)<M(t)$ and $M(v)<M(t))$, one of the following cases happen
(a) $u \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} \times w_{21}, v \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{12} \times w_{22}, r \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} \times w_{12}$, and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{21} \times w_{22}$. By the first induction hypothesis (since $\left.M\left(w_{i j}\right)<M(t)\right), w_{i j} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{i j} t^{\prime}$, for $i=1,2$ and $j=1,2$, where $u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{21}, v^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} \times t_{22}, r \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} \times w_{12}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{21} \times w_{22}$. Therefore, $u \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} t^{\prime} \times t_{21} t^{\prime}$ and $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} t^{\prime} \times t_{22} t^{\prime}$ with $r \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(t_{11} \times t_{12}\right) t^{\prime}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(t_{21} \times t_{22}\right) t^{\prime}$, and hence we are in case 3 .
(b) $v^{\prime} t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} w \times s$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u^{\prime} t^{\prime} \times w$. By the first induction hypothesis on $v^{\prime} t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $w \times s$ (since $M(w)<M(t)$ and $M(s)<M(t))$, we have $w \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} t^{\prime}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{2} t^{\prime}$ with $t_{1} \times t_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime}$. Therefore, $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} t^{\prime} \times t_{2} t^{\prime}$ with $r \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(u \times t_{1}\right) t^{\prime}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{2} t^{\prime}$, and $u^{\prime} \times v^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} u^{\prime} \times t_{1} \times t_{2}$, hence we are in case 3 .
(c) $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u^{\prime} t^{\prime}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime} t^{\prime}$, and hence we are in case 3 .
(the symmetric cases are analogous).
2 Let $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x$. $a \rightleftarrows t$, with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}, r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . a_{1}$, and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x$. $a_{2}$. Hence, possible equivalences from $\lambda x . a$ to $t$ are
- $t=\lambda x . a^{\prime}$ with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a^{\prime}$, hence $a^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$, and so we are in case 2 .
— $t=\lambda x . u \times \lambda x . v$, with $a_{1} \times a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} a=u \times v$. Hence, by the first induction hypothesis (since $M(a)<M(t)$ ), either
(a) $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} v$, and so $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . u$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . v$, or
(b) $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} \times t_{2}$ with $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u \times t_{1}$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{2}$, and so $\lambda x . v \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{1} \times \lambda x . t_{2}$, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . u \times \lambda x . t_{1}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{2}$, or
(c) $u \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{21}$ and $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} \times t_{22}$ with $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{12}$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{21} \times t_{22}$, and so $\lambda x . u \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{11} \times \lambda x . t_{21}, \lambda x . v \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{12} \times \lambda x . t_{22}, r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{11} \times \lambda x . t_{12}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . t_{21} \times \lambda x . t_{22}$.
(the symmetric cases are analogous), and so we are in case 1.
- Notice that rule ( DIST $_{e i}$ ) cannot apply because by the first induction hypothesis, $a \not \nrightarrow^{*} \pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$.
3 Let $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} a w \rightleftarrows t$, with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}, r \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} w$, and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{2} w$. The possible equivalences from $a w$ to $t$ are
- $t=a^{\prime} w$ with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a^{\prime}$, hence $a^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$, and so we are in case 3 .
- $t=a w^{\prime}$ with $w \rightleftarrows^{*} w^{\prime}$ and so we are in case 3 .
- $t=u w \times v w$, with $a_{1} \times a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} a=u \times v$. Hence, by the first induction hypothesis (since $M(a)<M(t)$ ), either
(a) $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} v$, and so $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u w$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} v w$, or
(b) $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} \times t_{2}$ with $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u \times t_{1}$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{2}$, and so $v w \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} w \times t_{2} w$, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u w \times t_{1} w$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{2} w$, or
(c) $u \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{21}$ and $v \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} \times t_{22}$ with $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} \times t_{12}$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{21} \times t_{22}$, and so $u w \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} w \times t_{21} w, v w \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{12} w \times t_{22} w, r \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{11} w \times t_{12} w$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{21} w \times t_{22} w$.
(the symmetric cases are analogous), and so we are in case 1 .
$-t=a^{\prime}(v \times w)$ with $a=a^{\prime} v$, thus $a^{\prime} v=a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$. Hence, by the first induction hypothesis, $a^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1}^{\prime} \times a_{2}^{\prime}$, with $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1}^{\prime} v$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{2}^{\prime} v$. Therefore, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1}^{\prime}(v \times w)$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{2}^{\prime}(v \times w)$, and so we are in case 3 .
- Notice that rule ( DIST $_{e e}$ ) cannot apply because by the first induction hypothesis, $a \not \not 一^{*} \pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$.
Lemma 3.5. If $\pi_{A}(r) \not \rightleftarrows^{*} s$, then one of the following cases happens:
$1 \quad s=\pi_{B}(t)$, where $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t$ and $A \equiv B$.
$2 s=\lambda x^{B}$.t, where $t \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}(u), r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} . u$, and $A \equiv B \Rightarrow C$.
$3 \quad s=t u$, where $t \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}(v)$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} v u$, with $C \equiv B \Rightarrow A$.
Proof. By a double induction, first on $M(s)$ and then on the length of the relation $\rightleftarrows^{*}$. Consider an equivalence proof $\pi_{A}(r) \rightleftarrows^{*} s^{\prime} \rightleftarrows s$ with a shorter proof $\pi_{A}(r) \rightleftarrows^{*} s^{\prime}$.

By the second induction hypothesis, the term $s^{\prime}$ has the form prescribed by the lemma. We consider the three cases and in each case, the possible rules transforming $s^{\prime}$ in $s$.

- If $s^{\prime}=\pi_{B}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$, where $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime}$ and $A \equiv B$, then the possible equivalences from $\pi_{B}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ to $s^{\prime}$ are
$-s=\pi_{B}(t)$, with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows t$, hence we are in case 1 .
- $s=\pi_{C}(r)$, with $A \equiv B \equiv C$, hence we are in case 1 .
$-s=\lambda x^{C} \cdot \pi_{D}(u)$, with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime}=\lambda x^{C} . u$ and $A \equiv B \equiv C \Rightarrow D$, hence, we are in case 2 .
- $s=\pi_{C \Rightarrow B}(v) u$, with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime}=v u, C \Rightarrow A \equiv C \Rightarrow B$, hence we are in case 3 .
— If $s^{\prime}=\lambda x^{B} \cdot t^{\prime}$, where $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}(u), r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} . u$, and $A \equiv B \Rightarrow C$. Hence, by the first induction hypothesis (since $M\left(t^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$ ), the possible equivalences from $\lambda x^{B} . t^{\prime}$ are $-s=\lambda x^{B} . t$, with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows t$, hence we are in case 2 .
$-s=\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot u^{\prime}\right)$, where $t^{\prime}=\pi_{C}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}(u)$, hence, since $M\left(t^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$, we have $u \rightleftarrows^{*} u^{\prime}$, and so $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} . u^{\prime}$, hence we are in case 1 .
— If $s^{\prime}=t^{\prime} u^{\prime}$, where $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime} u^{\prime}$, with $C \equiv B \Rightarrow A$, then the possible equivalences from $t^{\prime} u^{\prime}$ are
$-s=t u^{\prime}$ where $\pi_{C}\left(v^{\prime}\right) \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows t$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime} u^{\prime}$, with $C \equiv B \Rightarrow A$, hence we are in case 3 .
$-s=t^{\prime} u$ where $u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows u, t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}\left(v^{\prime}\right), r \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime} u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows v^{\prime} u$, with $C \equiv B \Rightarrow A$, hence we are in case 3 .
$-s=\pi_{D}\left(v u^{\prime}\right)$, where $t^{\prime}=\pi_{C}(v)$ with $C \equiv F \Rightarrow D$, hence, since $M\left(t^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$, we have $v \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime}$, and so $r \rightleftarrows^{*} v^{\prime} u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows v u^{\prime}$, and by Lemma $4.2, D \equiv A$. Hence, we are in case 1 .
$-s=t_{1}\left(t_{2} \times u^{\prime}\right)$, with $t^{\prime}=t_{1} t_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}\left(v^{\prime}\right)$. Since $M\left(t^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$, we have $t_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $\pi_{D}\left(v_{1}\right)$ and $v^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} v_{1} t_{2}$, with $D \equiv E \Rightarrow C \equiv E \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A \equiv(E \wedge B) \Rightarrow A$, hence we are in case 3 .
Lemma 3.6. If $\lambda x^{A} . r \rightleftarrows^{*} s$ then one of the following cases happens:
$1 s=\lambda x^{A} . u$ where $u \rightleftarrows^{*} r$.
$2 s=s_{1} \times s_{2}$ where $s_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} . r_{1}, s_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} . r_{2}$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$.
$3 s=\pi_{C}(u)$ where $C \equiv A \Rightarrow B, u \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} \cdot v$, and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{B}(v)$.
Proof. By a double induction, first on $M(s)$ and then on the length of the relation $\rightleftarrows^{*}$. Consider an equivalence proof $\lambda x^{A} . r \not \rightleftarrows^{*} s^{\prime} \rightleftarrows s$ with a shorter proof $\lambda x^{A} . r \rightleftarrows^{*} s^{\prime}$. By the second induction hypothesis, the term $s^{\prime}$ has the form prescribed by the lemma. We consider the three cases and in each case, the possible rules transforming $s^{\prime}$ in $s$.
— If $s^{\prime}=\lambda x^{A} . u$ where $u \rightleftarrows^{*} r$, then the possible equivalences from $\lambda x^{A} . u$ are
$-s=\lambda x^{A} \cdot u^{\prime}$ with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u \rightleftarrows u^{\prime}$, hence we are in case 1 .
$-s=\lambda x^{A} \cdot u_{1} \times \lambda x^{A} \cdot u_{2}$, with $u=u_{1} \times u_{2}$, then take $s_{1}=\lambda x^{A} \cdot u_{1}, s_{2}=\lambda x^{A} \cdot r_{2}$, and we have $r \rightleftarrows^{*} u \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{1} \times u_{2}$, so we are in case 2 .
- $s=\pi_{C}\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot v\right)$ with $C \equiv A \Rightarrow B, r \rightleftarrows^{*} u=\pi_{B}(v)$, hence we are in case 3 .
— If $s^{\prime}=s_{1}^{\prime} \times s_{2}^{\prime}$ where $s_{1}^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} . r_{1}, s_{2}^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} . r_{2}$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$. Hence, by the first induction hypothesis (since $M\left(s_{1}^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$ and $M\left(s_{2}^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$ ), the possible equivalences from $s_{1}^{\prime} \times s_{2}^{\prime}$ are
$-s=s_{1} \times s_{2}^{\prime}$ with $\lambda x^{A} . r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1}^{\prime} \rightleftarrows s_{1}$, so we are in case 2 .
$-s=s_{1}^{\prime} \times s_{2}$ with $\lambda x^{A} \cdot r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{2}^{\prime} \rightleftarrows s_{2}$, so we are in case 2 .
$-s=s_{2} \times s_{1}$, with $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2} \rightleftarrows r_{2} \times r_{1}$, so we are in case 2 .
$-s=s_{1} \times\left(s_{2} \times s_{2}^{\prime}\right)$, with $\lambda x^{A} . r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1}^{\prime}=s_{1} \times s_{2}$. Then, since $M\left(s_{1}^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$, we have $r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{11} \times r_{12}$, and so $s_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} . r_{11}$ and $s_{2} \times s_{2}^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} .\left(r_{12} \times r_{2}\right)$. Hence, we are in case 2 .
$-s=\lambda x^{A} \cdot\left(r_{1} \times r_{2}\right)$, so we are in case 1.
— If $s^{\prime}=\pi_{C}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ where $C \equiv A \Rightarrow B, u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{A} . v$ and $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{B}(v)$. Hence, by the first induction hypothesis, (since $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)<M(s)$ ), the possible equivalences from $\pi_{C}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ are
$-s=\pi_{C}(u)$, where $\lambda x^{A} . v \rightleftarrows{ }^{*} u^{\prime} \rightleftarrows u$, then we are in case 3 .
$-s=\pi_{D}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$, where $A \Rightarrow B \equiv C \equiv D$, then we are in case 3 .
$-s=\lambda x^{A} \cdot \pi_{B}(v)$, hence we are in case 1 .


### 3.3. Reduction relation

The reduction relation $\hookrightarrow$ is given in Table 4. It contains a $\beta$ reduction rule and a projection rule $\pi$ for pairs.

We write $\hookrightarrow^{*}$ for the transitive and reflexive closure of $\hookrightarrow$. We write $\rightsquigarrow$ for the relation $\hookrightarrow$ modulo $\rightleftarrows^{*}$ (i.e. $r \rightsquigarrow s$ iff $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r^{\prime} \hookrightarrow s^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} s$ ), and $\rightsquigarrow^{*}$ for its reflexive and transitive closure.

In Lemma 3.7, we characterise the reducts of a product.
Lemma 3.7. If $r_{1} \times r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} s \hookrightarrow t$, there exists $u_{1}, u_{2}$ such that $t \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{1} \times u_{2}$ and either $\left(r_{1} \rightsquigarrow u_{1}\right.$ and $\left.r_{2} \rightsquigarrow u_{2}\right)$, or ( $r_{1} \rightsquigarrow u_{1}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{2}$ ), or ( $r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{1}$ and $r_{2} \rightsquigarrow u_{2}$ ).

Proof. By induction on $M\left(r_{1} \times r_{2}\right)$. By Lemma 3.4, $s$ is either a product, an abstraction or an application with the conditions given in the lemma. The different terms $s$ reducible by $\hookrightarrow$ are

- $(\lambda x . a) s^{\prime}$ that reduces by the $(\beta)$ rule to $a\left[s^{\prime} / x\right]$.
- $s_{1} \times s_{2}, \lambda x . a, a s^{\prime}$, with a reduction in the subterm $s_{1}, s_{2}, a$, or $s^{\prime}$.

Notice that rule ( $\pi$ ) cannot apply since $s \not \mp^{*} \pi_{C}\left(s^{\prime}\right)$.
We consider each case:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { If } s: A,\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot r\right) s \hookrightarrow r[s / x] \\
& \text { If } r: A, \pi_{A}(r \times s) \hookrightarrow r \\
& \frac{r}{C[r]} \hookrightarrow C[s]
\end{align*}
$$

Table 4. Reduction relation.

- $s=(\lambda x . a) s^{\prime}$ and $t=a\left[s^{\prime} / x\right]$. Using twice Lemma 3.4, we have $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}, r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $\left(\lambda x . a_{1}\right) s^{\prime}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(\lambda x . a_{2}\right) s^{\prime}$. Since $t \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1}\left[s^{\prime} / x\right] \times a_{2}\left[s^{\prime} / x\right]$, we take $u_{1}=a_{1}\left[s^{\prime} / x\right]$ and $u_{2}=a_{2}\left[s^{\prime} / x\right]$.
- $s=s_{1} \times s_{2}, t=t_{1} \times s_{2}$ or $t=s_{1} \times t_{2}$, with $s_{1} \hookrightarrow t_{1}$ and $s_{2} \hookrightarrow t_{2}$. We only consider the first case since the other is analogous. One of the following cases happen
(a) $r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} \times w_{21}, r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{12} \times w_{22}, s_{1}=w_{11} \times w_{12}$ and $s_{2}=w_{21} \times w_{22}$. Hence, by the induction hypothesis, either $t_{1}=w_{11}^{\prime} \times w_{12}$, or $t_{1}=w_{11} \times w_{12}^{\prime}$, or $t_{1}=w_{11}^{\prime} \times w_{12}^{\prime}$, with $w_{11} \hookrightarrow w_{11}^{\prime}$ and $w_{12} \hookrightarrow w_{12}^{\prime}$. We take, in the first case $u_{1}=w_{11}^{\prime} \times w_{21}$ and $u_{2}=w_{12} \times w_{22}$, in the second case $u_{1}=w_{11} \times w_{21}$ and $u_{2}=w_{12}^{\prime} \times w_{22}$, and in the third $u_{1}=w_{11}^{\prime} \times w_{21}$ and $u_{2}=w_{12}^{\prime} \times w_{22}$.
(b) We consider two cases, since the other two are symmetric.
$-r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1} \times w$ and $s_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} w \times r_{2}$, in which case we take $u_{1}=t_{1} \times w$ and $u_{2}=r_{2}$.
$-r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} w \times s_{2}$ and $s_{1}=r_{1} \times w$. Hence, by the induction hypothesis, either $t_{1}=r_{1}^{\prime} \times w$, or $t_{1}=r_{1} \times w^{\prime}$ or $t_{1}=r_{1}^{\prime} \times w^{\prime}$, with $r_{1} \hookrightarrow r_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w \hookrightarrow w^{\prime}$. We take, in the first case $u_{1}=r_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}=w \times s_{2}$, in the second case $u_{1}=r_{1}$ and $u_{2}=w^{\prime} \times s_{2}$, and in the third case $u_{1}=r_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}=w^{\prime} \times s_{2}$.
(c) $r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{2}$, in which case we take $u_{1}=t_{1}$ and $u_{2}=s_{2}$.
- $s=\lambda x . a, t=\lambda x . t^{\prime}$, and $a \hookrightarrow t^{\prime}$, with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x . a_{1} \times \lambda x . a_{2}$. Therefore, by the induction hypothesis, there exists $u_{1}^{\prime}, u_{2}^{\prime}$ such that either ( $a_{1} \rightsquigarrow u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $\left.a_{2} \rightsquigarrow u_{2}^{\prime}\right)$, or ( $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $a_{2} \rightsquigarrow u_{2}^{\prime}$ ), or ( $a_{1} \rightsquigarrow u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{2}^{\prime}$ ). Therefore, we take $u_{1}=\lambda x . u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}=\lambda x . u_{2}^{\prime}$.
$-s=a s^{\prime}, t=t^{\prime} s^{\prime}$, and $a \hookrightarrow t^{\prime}$, with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} s^{\prime} \times a_{2} s^{\prime}$. Therefore, by the induction hypothesis, there exists $u_{1}^{\prime}, u_{2}^{\prime}$ such that either ( $a_{1} \rightsquigarrow u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $a_{2} \rightsquigarrow u_{2}^{\prime}$ ), or ( $a_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $a_{2} \rightsquigarrow u_{2}^{\prime}$ ), or ( $a_{1} \rightsquigarrow u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $a_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} u_{2}^{\prime}$ ). Therefore, we take $u_{1}=u_{1}^{\prime} s^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}=u_{2}^{\prime} s^{\prime}$.
$-s=a s^{\prime}, t=a t^{\prime}$, and $s^{\prime} \hookrightarrow t^{\prime}$, with $a \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} \times a_{2}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} s^{\prime} \times a_{2} s^{\prime}$. By Lemma 3.4 several times, one the following cases happen
(a) $a_{1} s^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} s^{\prime} \times w_{12} s^{\prime}, a_{2} s^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{21} s^{\prime} \times w_{22} s^{\prime}, r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{11} s^{\prime} \times w_{21} s^{\prime}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $w_{12} s^{\prime} \times w_{22} s^{\prime}$. We take $u_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(w_{11} \times w_{21}\right) t^{\prime}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(w_{12} \times w_{22}\right) t^{\prime}$.
(b) $a_{2} s^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{1} s^{\prime} \times w_{2} s^{\prime}, r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} s^{\prime} \times w_{2} s^{\prime}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} w_{2} s^{\prime}$. So we take $u_{1}=\left(a_{1} \times w_{1}\right) t^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}=w_{2} t^{\prime}$, the symmetric cases are analogous.
(c) $r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{1} s^{\prime}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} a_{2} s^{\prime}$, in which case we take $u_{1}=a_{1} t^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}=a_{2} t^{\prime}$ the symmetric case is analogous.


### 3.4. Examples

Example 3.8. Let $s: A$ and $t: B$. Then,

This term reduces as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{B \Rightarrow A}\left(\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} \cdot x\right) s\right) t & \rightleftarrows \pi_{A}\left(\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} \cdot x\right) s t\right) \\
& \rightleftarrows \pi_{A}\left(\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} \cdot x\right)(s \times t)\right) \\
& \hookrightarrow \pi_{A}(s \times t) \\
& \hookrightarrow s
\end{aligned}
$$

or, equivalently, as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{B \Rightarrow A}\left(\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} . x\right) s\right) t & \rightleftarrows \pi_{A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A}\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} . x\right) s t \\
& \rightleftarrows \pi_{(A \wedge B) \Rightarrow A}\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} . x\right) s t \\
& \rightleftarrows \lambda x^{A \wedge B} \pi_{A}(x) s t \\
& \rightleftarrows \lambda x^{A \wedge B} \pi_{A}(x)(s \times t) \\
& \hookrightarrow \pi_{A}(s \times t) \\
& \hookrightarrow s
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 3.9. Let $r: A$ and $s: B$. Then $\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot x\right)(r \times s): A$ and

$$
\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot x\right)(r \times s) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot x\right) r s \hookrightarrow^{*} r
$$

However, if $A \equiv B$, it is also possible to reduce in the following way
$\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot x\right)(r \times s) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right)(r \times s) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right)(s \times r) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right) s r \hookrightarrow^{*} s$

Hence, the classical encoding of the projector also behaves non-deterministically.

Example 3.10. Let $s: A$ and $t: B$, and let $\mathbf{T F}=\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot(x \times y)$. Then

This term reduces as follows:

$$
\pi_{A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A}(\mathbf{T F}) s t \rightleftarrows \pi_{B \Rightarrow A}(\mathbf{T F} s) t \rightleftarrows \pi_{A}(\mathbf{T F} s t) \hookrightarrow{ }^{*} \pi_{A}(s \times t) \hookrightarrow s
$$

Example 3.11. Let $\mathbf{T}=\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot x$ and $\mathbf{F}=\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} \cdot y$. Then
$\frac{\frac{\mathbf{T}: A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A \quad \mathbf{F}: A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow B}{\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{F}:(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A) \wedge(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow B)}{ }^{\left(\wedge_{i}\right)} \quad \mathbf{T F}:(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A) \wedge(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow B)}{\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{T F}:((A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A) \wedge(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow B)) \wedge((A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A) \wedge(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow B))}\left(\wedge_{i}\right)$
So, $\pi_{(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow A) \wedge(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow B)}(\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{T F})$ is well typed and reduces non-deterministically either to $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{F}$ or to $\mathbf{T F}$. Moreover, notice that $\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{T F}$ are equivalent. Hence, in this very particular case, the non-deterministic choice does not play any role. We will come back to the encoding of booleans in System I on Section 7.2.

## 4. Subject Reduction

System I has the subject reduction property, that is, the set of types assigned to a term is preserved under $\rightleftarrows$ and $\hookrightarrow$. Before proving such a property, we need to prove the unicity of types (Lemma 4.1), a generation lemma (Lemma 4.2), and a substitution lemma (Lemma 4.3).

The following lemma states that a term can be typed only by equivalent types.
Lemma 4.1 (Unicity). If $r: A$ and $r: B$, then $A \equiv B$.
Proof.

- If the last rule of the derivation of $r: A$ is $(\equiv)$, then we have a shorter derivation of $r: C$ with $C \equiv A$, and, by the induction hypothesis, $C \equiv B$, hence $A \equiv B$.
- If the last rule of the derivation of $r: B$ is $(\equiv)$ we proceed in the same way.
- All the remaining cases are syntax directed.


## Lemma 4.2 (Generation).

1 If $x^{A}: B$, then $A \equiv B$.
2 If $\lambda x^{A} . r: B$, then $B \equiv A \Rightarrow C$ and $r: C$.
3 If $r s: B$, then $r: A \Rightarrow B$ and $s: A$.
4 If $r \times s: A$, then $A \equiv B \wedge C$ with $r: B$ and $s: C$.

5 If $\pi_{A}(r): B$, then $A \equiv B$ and $r: B \wedge C$.
Proof. Each of the statement is proved by induction on the typing derivation. For the statement 1 , we have $x^{A}: B$. The only way to type this term is either by the rule ( $a x$ ) or ( $\equiv$ ).

- In the first case, we have $A=B$.
- In the second case, there exists $B^{\prime}$ such that $x^{A}: B^{\prime}$ has a shorter derivation, and $B \equiv B^{\prime}$. By the induction hypothesis $A \equiv B^{\prime} \equiv B$.
For the statement 2 , we have $\lambda x^{A} \cdot r: B$. The only way to type this term is either by rule $\left(\Rightarrow_{i}\right),(\equiv)$.
- In the first case, we have $B=A \Rightarrow C$ for some, $C$ and $r: C$.
- In the second, there exists $B^{\prime}$ such that $\lambda x^{A} . r: B^{\prime}$ has a shorter derivation, and $B \equiv$ $B^{\prime}$. By the induction hypothesis, $B^{\prime} \equiv A \Rightarrow C$ and $r: C$. Thus, $B \equiv B^{\prime} \equiv A \Rightarrow C$.
The three other statements are similar.
Lemma 4.3 (Substitution). If $r: A$ and $s: B$, then $r\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
Proof. By structural induction on $r$.
— Let $r=x$. By Lemma $4.2, A \equiv B$, thus $s: A$. We have $x\left[s / x^{B}\right]=s$, so $x\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
- Let $r=y$, with $y \neq x$. We have $y\left[s / x^{B}\right]=y$, so $y\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
- Let $r=\lambda y^{C} . r^{\prime}$. By Lemma 4.2, $A \equiv C \Rightarrow D$, with $r^{\prime}: D$. By the induction hypothesis $r^{\prime}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: D$, and so, by rule $\left(\Rightarrow_{i}\right), \lambda y^{C} \cdot r^{\prime}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: C \Rightarrow D$. Since $\lambda y^{C} \cdot r^{\prime}\left[s / x^{B}\right]=$ $\left(\lambda y^{C} \cdot r^{\prime}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]$, using rule $(\equiv),\left(\lambda y^{C} \cdot r^{\prime}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
- Let $r=r_{1} r_{2}$. By Lemma 4.2, $r_{1}: C \Rightarrow A$ and $r_{2}: C$. By the induction hypothesis $r_{1}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: C \Rightarrow A$ and $r_{2}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: C$, and so, by rule $\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right),\left(r_{1}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right)\left(r_{2}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right): A$. Since $\left(r_{1}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right)\left(r_{2}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right)=\left(r_{1} r_{2}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]$, we have $\left(r_{1} r_{2}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
- Let $r=r_{1} \times r_{2}$. By Lemma 4.2, $r_{1}: A_{1}$ and $r_{2}: A_{2}$, with $A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$. By the induction hypothesis $r_{1}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A_{1}$ and $r_{2}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A_{2}$, and so, by rule $\left(\wedge_{i}\right)$, $\left(r_{1}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right) \times\left(r_{2}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right): A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$. Since $\left(r_{1}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right) \times\left(r_{2}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right)=\left(r_{1} \times r_{2}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]$, using rule ( $\equiv$ ), we have $\left(r_{1} \times r_{2}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
- Let $r=\pi_{A}\left(r^{\prime}\right)$. By Lemma 4.2, $r^{\prime}: A \wedge C$. Hence, by the induction hypothesis, $r^{\prime}\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A \wedge C$. Hence, by rule $\wedge_{e}, \pi_{A}\left(r^{\prime}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right): A$. Since $\pi_{A}\left(r^{\prime}\left[s / x^{B}\right]\right)=$ $\pi_{A}\left(r^{\prime}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]$, we have $\pi_{A}\left(r^{\prime}\right)\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.

Theorem 4.4 (Subject reduction). If $r: A$ and $r \hookrightarrow s$ or $r \rightleftarrows s$ then $s: A$.
Proof. By induction on the rewrite relation.
$r \times s \rightleftarrows s \times r:$ If $r \times s: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2} \equiv A_{2} \wedge A_{1}$, with $r: A_{1}$ and $s: A_{2}$. Then,

$$
\frac{s: A_{2} r: A_{1}}{\frac{s \times r: A_{2} \wedge A_{1}}{s \times r: A}}{ }_{\left(\wedge_{i}\right)}^{(\equiv)}
$$

$(r \times s) \times t \rightleftarrows r \times(s \times t):$
$(\rightarrow)$ If $(r \times s) \times t: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv\left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right) \wedge A_{3} \equiv A_{1} \wedge\left(A_{2} \wedge A_{3}\right)$, with $r: A_{1}, s: A_{2}$ and $t: A_{3}$. Then,

$$
\frac{r: A_{1} \frac{s: A_{2} \quad t: A_{3}}{s \times t: A_{2} \wedge A_{3}}}{\left(\wedge_{i}\right)}\left({ }^{r \times(s \times t): A_{1} \wedge\left(A_{2} \wedge A_{3}\right)} \underset{r \times(s \times t): A}{(\equiv)}\right.
$$

$(\leftarrow)$ Analogous to $(\rightarrow)$.
$\lambda x^{B} .(r \times s) \rightleftarrows \lambda x^{B} . r \times \lambda x^{B} . s:$
$(\rightarrow)$ If $\lambda x^{B} .(r \times s): A$, then by Lemma 4.2, $A \equiv\left(B \Rightarrow\left(C_{1} \wedge C_{2}\right)\right) \equiv\left(\left(B \Rightarrow C_{1}\right) \wedge(B \Rightarrow\right.$ $\left.C_{2}\right)$ ), with $r: C_{1}$ and $s: C_{2}$. Then,
$(\leftarrow)$ If $\lambda x^{B} . r \times \lambda x^{B} . s: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv\left(\left(B \Rightarrow C_{1}\right) \wedge\left(B \Rightarrow C_{2}\right)\right) \equiv(B \Rightarrow$ $\left.\left(C_{1} \wedge C_{2}\right)\right)$, with $r: C_{1}$ and $s: C_{2}$. Then,

$$
\frac{\frac{r: C_{1} s: C_{2}}{r \times s: C_{1} \wedge C_{2}} \wedge_{i}}{\frac{\lambda x^{B} \cdot(r \times s): B \Rightarrow\left(C_{1} \wedge C_{2}\right)}{\lambda x^{B} \cdot(r \times s): A}}\left({ }_{(\neq)}\right)
$$

$(r \times s) t \rightleftarrows r t \times s t:$
$\left.{ }^{\rightarrow}\right)$ If $(r \times s) t: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, r \times s: B \Rightarrow A$, and $t: B$. Hence, by Lemma 4.2 again, $B \Rightarrow A \equiv C_{1} \wedge C_{2}$, and so by Lemma $2.7, A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$, with $r: B \Rightarrow A_{1}$ and $s: B \Rightarrow A_{2}$. Then,

$$
\frac{r: B \Rightarrow A_{1} \quad t: B}{\frac{r t: A_{1}}{\frac{r t \times s t: A_{1} \wedge A_{2}}{r t \times s t: A}}(\equiv)}\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right) \frac{s: B \Rightarrow A_{2} \quad t: B}{s t: A_{2}}\left(\wedge_{i}\right) \quad\left({ }_{e}\right)
$$

$(\leftarrow)$ If $r t \times s t: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$ with $r: B \Rightarrow A_{1}, s: B^{\prime} \Rightarrow A_{2}$, $t: B$ and $t: B^{\prime}$. By Lemma 4.1, $B \equiv B^{\prime}$. Then

$$
\frac{{\frac{s: B^{\prime} \Rightarrow A_{2}}{r: B \Rightarrow A_{1}}(\equiv)}_{\frac{r \times s:\left(B \Rightarrow A_{1}\right) \wedge\left(B \Rightarrow A_{2}\right)}{\left(\wedge_{i}\right)}}^{{\frac{r(\equiv)}{r \times s: B \Rightarrow\left(A_{1} \wedge A_{2}\right)}}_{\frac{(r \times s) t: A_{1} \wedge A_{2}}{(r \times s) t: A}}(\equiv)}\left({ }^{\left.\frac{r}{2}\right)}\right.}{\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right)}
$$

$\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}\left(\lambda x^{B} . r\right) \rightleftarrows \lambda x^{B} . \pi_{C}(r):$
$(\rightarrow)$ If $\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot r\right): A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv(B \Rightarrow C)$ and $\lambda x^{B} . r:(B \Rightarrow C) \wedge D$.

Thus, by Lemma $4.2,(B \Rightarrow C) \wedge D \equiv B \Rightarrow F$, and $r: F$. Hence, by Lemma 2.9, $D \equiv B \Rightarrow D^{\prime}$, and $F \equiv C \wedge D^{\prime}$. Hence, $r: C \wedge D^{\prime}$. Therefore, by rule ( $\wedge_{e}$ ), $\pi_{C}(r): C$, so

$$
\frac{\pi_{C}(r): C}{\frac{\lambda x^{B} \cdot \pi_{C}(r): B \Rightarrow C}{\lambda x^{B} \cdot \pi_{C}(r): A}}\left({ }_{(\equiv)}^{(\equiv)}\right.
$$

$(\leftarrow)$ If $\lambda x^{B} \cdot \pi_{C}(r): A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv B \Rightarrow C$ and $\pi_{C}(r): C$, so by Lemma 4.2 again, $r: C \wedge D$. Hence,

$$
\frac{\frac{r: C \wedge D}{\lambda x^{B} \cdot r: B \Rightarrow(C \wedge D)}}{\frac{\lambda^{B} \cdot r:(B \Rightarrow C) \wedge(B \Rightarrow D)}{\left(\Rightarrow_{i}\right)}}{\frac{\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot r\right): B \Rightarrow C}{\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot r\right): A}}_{(\equiv)}^{\left(\wedge_{e}\right)}
$$

$\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}(r) s \rightleftarrows \pi_{C}(r s)$ with $r: B \Rightarrow(C \wedge D)$ and $s: B$ :
$(\rightarrow)$ If $\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}(r) s: A$, then by Lemma 4.1, $A \equiv C$.

$$
{\frac{r: B \Rightarrow(C \wedge D)}{\frac{r s: C \wedge D}{\frac{\pi}{C}(r s): C}}\left(\wedge_{e}\right)}_{(\equiv)}^{\pi_{C}(r s): A}\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right)
$$

$(\leftarrow)$ If $\pi_{C}(r s): A$, then by Lemma $4.1, A \equiv C$.

$$
\frac{\frac{r: B \Rightarrow(C \wedge D)}{r:(B \Rightarrow C) \wedge(B \Rightarrow D)}}{\frac{\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}(r): B \Rightarrow C}{\frac{\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}(r) s: C}{\pi_{B \Rightarrow C}(r) s: A}}(\equiv)}\left(\wedge_{e}\right) \quad s: B{ }_{\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right)}
$$

$r s t \rightleftarrows r(s \times t):$
$(\rightarrow)$ If $r s t: A$, then by Lemma 4.2, $r: B \Rightarrow C \Rightarrow A \equiv((B \wedge C) \Rightarrow A), s: B$ and $t: C$. Then,

$$
\frac{\frac{r: B \Rightarrow C \Rightarrow A}{r:(B \wedge C) \Rightarrow A}(\equiv) \quad \frac{s: B \quad t: C}{s \times t: B \wedge C}}{r(s \times t): A}\left(\wedge_{e}\right)
$$

$(\leftarrow)$ If $r(s \times t): A$, then by Lemma 4.2, $r:(B \wedge C) \Rightarrow A \equiv(B \Rightarrow C \Rightarrow A), s: B$ and $t: C$. Then

$$
\frac{\frac{r:(B \wedge C) \Rightarrow A}{r: B \Rightarrow C \Rightarrow A}(\equiv) \quad s: B}{\frac{r s: C \Rightarrow A}{r s t: A}}\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right) \quad t: C\left(\Rightarrow_{e}\right)
$$

$\pi_{B}(r) \rightleftarrows \pi_{C}(r)$ with $B \equiv C:$ If $\pi_{B}(r): A$, then by Lemma $4.2, C \equiv B \equiv A$ and $r: A \wedge D$.

Then

$$
\frac{\frac{r: A \wedge D}{r: C \wedge D}_{\frac{\pi}{C}(r): C_{\pi_{C}(r): A}^{(\equiv)}}^{(\equiv)}}{(\equiv)}
$$

$\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot r\right) s \hookrightarrow r[s / x]$ with $s: B$ : If $\left(\lambda x^{B} . r\right) s: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, \lambda x^{B} . r: B \Rightarrow A$, and by Lemma 4.2 again, $r: A$. Then by Lemma 4.3, $r\left[s / x^{B}\right]: A$.
$\pi_{B}(r \times s) \hookrightarrow r$ with $r: B$ : If $\pi_{B}(r \times s): A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv B$, and so, by rule $(\equiv), r: A$.
Contextual cases: Let $t \rightarrow r$, where $\rightarrow$ is either $\rightleftarrows$ or $\hookrightarrow$.
$\lambda x^{B} . t \rightarrow \lambda x^{B} . r:$ If $\lambda x^{B} . t: A$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv(B \Rightarrow C)$ and $t: C$, hence by the induction hypothesis, $r: C$ and so $\lambda x^{B} . r: B \Rightarrow C \equiv A$.
$t s \rightarrow r s$ : If $t s: A$ then by Lemma $4.2, t: B \Rightarrow A$ and $s: B$, hence by the induction hypothesis, $r: B \Rightarrow A$ and so $r s: A$.
$s t \rightarrow s t:$ If $s t: A$ then by Lemma $4.2, s: B \Rightarrow A$ and $t: B$, hence by the induction hypothesis $r: B$ and so $s r: A$.
$t \times s \rightarrow r \times s$ : If $t \times s: A$ then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}, t: A_{1}$, and $s: A_{2}$, hence by the induction hypothesis, $r: A_{1}$ and so $r \times s: A_{1} \wedge A_{2} \equiv A$.
$s \times t \rightarrow s \times r$ : Analogous to previous case.
$\pi_{B}(t) \rightarrow \pi_{B}(r):$ If $\pi_{B}(t): A$ then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv B$ and $t: B \wedge C$, hence by the induction hypothesis $r: B \wedge C$. Therefore, $\pi_{B}(r): B \equiv A$.

## 5. Strong Normalisation

Now we prove the strong normalisation of reduction $\rightsquigarrow$. That is, that every reduction sequence fired from a typed term eventually terminates. The set of strongly normalising terms with respect to reduction $\rightsquigarrow$ is written SN. The size of the longest reduction issued from $t$ is written $|t|$.

### 5.1. Reducibility

To prove that every term is in SN, we associate, as usual, a set $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ of strongly normalising terms to each type $A$. A term $r: A$ is said to be reducible if $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$. We then prove an adequacy theorem stating that every term is reducible.

In Simply Typed Lambda Calculus we can either define $\llbracket A_{1} \Rightarrow A_{2} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow A_{n} \Rightarrow \tau \rrbracket$ as the set of terms $r$ such that for all $s \in \llbracket A_{1} \rrbracket$, $r s \in \llbracket A_{2} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow A_{n} \Rightarrow \tau \rrbracket$ or, equivalently, as the set of terms $r$ such that for all $s_{i} \in \llbracket A_{i} \rrbracket, r s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \llbracket \tau \rrbracket=$ SN. To prove that a term of the form $\lambda x^{A} . t$ is reducible, we need to use the so-called CR3 property [Girard et al., 1989], in the first case, and the property that a term whose all one-step reducts are in SN is in SN , in the second case. In System I an introduction can be equivalent to an elimination e.g. $\pi_{A \Rightarrow B}\left(\lambda x^{A} . r\right) \rightleftarrows \lambda x^{A} \cdot \pi_{B}(r)$, hence, we cannot define a notion of neutral term and have an equivalent to the CR3 property. Therefore, we use the second definition.

Because, in System I, projection is also an elimination operator, the definition of reducibility should be: for all reducible terms $s_{i}$, the term $\left(\pi_{B_{n}}\left(\ldots\left(\pi_{B_{1}}(r)\right)\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}\right.$ is in SN (note that we do not need to consider terms where applications and projections are interleaved, such as $\left(\pi_{B}\left(r s_{1}\right)\right) s_{2}$, because this term is equivalent to $\left.\pi_{C \Rightarrow B}(r) s_{1} s_{2}\right)$.

For instance, to prove that the term

$$
\left(\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot \lambda x^{\tau} \cdot x\right) w^{\tau}\right) \times\left(\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\prime \tau \Rightarrow \tau} \cdot y\right) w^{\tau}\right)
$$

is reducible, we must prove, among other things, that for all $s_{1} \in \llbracket \tau \rrbracket$ and $s_{2} \in \llbracket \tau \Rightarrow \tau \rrbracket$, we have

$$
\pi_{\tau \Rightarrow(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow \tau}\left(\left(\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot \lambda x^{\tau} \cdot x\right) w^{\tau}\right) \times\left(\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\prime \tau \Rightarrow \tau} \cdot y\right) w^{\tau}\right)\right) s_{1} s_{2} \in \mathrm{SN}
$$

The usual proof would proceed by proving that all the one-step reducts of this term are in SN, considering two cases: first the projection and then the reduction in a subterm, for which an induction hypothesis applies. But the situation in System I is more complex, as before reducing one of the subterms, we can move $s_{1}$ inside and also move $w$ outside the projection. Fig. 3 shows a fragment of the one-step $\rightsquigarrow$-reduction tree of this term where the dashed arrows are $\rightleftarrows^{*}$-equivalences and the full arrow $\hookrightarrow$-reductions.


Fig. 3. One-step reductions of $\pi_{\tau \Rightarrow(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow \tau}\left(\left(\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot \lambda x^{\tau} \cdot x\right) w^{\tau}\right) \times\left(\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\prime \tau \Rightarrow \tau} \cdot y\right) w^{\tau}\right)\right) s_{1} s_{2}$.

To circumvent this problem, rather than $\left(\pi_{B_{n}}\left(\ldots\left(\pi_{B_{1}}(r)\right)\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}\right.$, we prove the strong normalisation of terms of the form

$$
r s_{1} \ldots s_{n}
$$

Although this choice simplifies the adequacy proof in general, it creates a difficulty in the case of projection. To address this issue, we prove a strengthened adequacy theorem where, instead of using a simple induction, we use a course of values induction on the size $M(r)$ of $r$.

Finally, the lemma according to which if $r$ and $s$ are in SN then $r \times s$ also, that is often trivial, is more challenging in System I, because $r \times s$ may have many $\rightleftarrows^{*}$-equivalent terms. For example, a product can be transformed to an application: $r t \times s t \rightleftarrows(r \times s) t$. Hence, to prove this property, we need Lemma 3.7, which characterise the reducts of a product.

Definition 5.1 (Reducibility). Let $A$ be a type. The set of terms $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ is defined by induction on $m(A)$ as follows:

The term $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$ if and only if $r: A$ and for all $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}, C$ such that $A \equiv B_{1} \Rightarrow$ $\cdots \Rightarrow B_{n} \Rightarrow C$ where $C \not \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow C_{2}$, and for all $s_{i} \in \llbracket B_{i} \rrbracket$, we have

$$
r s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}
$$

The following three lemmas are direct consequences from the definition, and the fourth a consequence from Lemma 3.7.

Lemma 5.2 (CR1). For all $A, \llbracket A \rrbracket \subseteq \mathrm{SN}$.
Lemma 5.3 (CR2). If $r \rightleftarrows^{*} s$ or $r \rightsquigarrow^{*} s$, and $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, then $s \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.
Lemma 5.4. If $A \equiv B$, then $\llbracket A \rrbracket=\llbracket B \rrbracket$.
Lemma 5.5. If $r_{1} \in \mathrm{SN}$ and $r_{2} \in \mathrm{SN}$, then $r_{1} \times r_{2} \in \mathrm{SN}$.
Proof. By Lemma 3.7, from a reduction sequence starting from $r_{1} \times r_{2}$ we can extract one starting from $r_{1}$, or $r_{2}$ or both. Hence, this reduction sequence is finite.

### 5.2. Prime terms

Because of rule (curry) we shall need in the normalisation proof properties such as $u_{1}, \ldots u_{n}$ are reducible if and only if $\prod_{i=1}^{n} u_{i}$ is reducible. The direct sense is a consequence of the adequacy of the product, and the converse should be a consequence of the adequacy of projection and Lemma 5.3. Unfortunately, this very property is needed in the proof of the adequacy of the projection. To circumvent this problem, we introduce the notion of prime term as a term which is not equivalent to a product, and we shall prove that if all prime factors of $\prod_{i=1}^{n} u_{i}$ are reducible, then $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$ are product of reducible terms (Lemma 5.13).

Definition 5.6 (Prime term). A term $p$ is prime if there are no terms $r_{1}, r_{2}$ such that $p \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$.

Lemma 5.7 (Factorisation). For every term $r$ there exists a multiset of prime terms $\left[p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right]$ such that $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{i} p_{i}$.

Proof. By induction on $M(r)$ considering the cases where $r$ is prime and where $r$ is a product.

Lemma 5.8 (Simplification). If $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} r \times t$ then $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t$.
Proof. By induction on $M(r)$. We consider the seven cases of the item 1 of Lemma 3.4 (cf. Fig. 1). Two cases are impossible, in two other cases we get $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t$ directly, in the three remaining ones we get $s \rightleftarrows^{*} t$ as a consequence of the induction hypothesis.

Lemma 5.9 (Euclid's lemma). If $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} t \times p$ where $p$ is a prime term, then either $r \rightleftarrows^{*} p$, or $r \rightleftarrows^{*} p \times r^{\prime}$, or $s \rightleftarrows^{*} p$, or $s \rightleftarrows^{*} p \times r^{\prime}$.

Proof. As $p$ is prime, only four cases out of the seven of item 1 of Lemma 3.4 are possible.

Corollary 5.10. If $p \times r \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{q \in Q} q$ where $Q$ is a multiset of prime terms. Then, there exists $q^{\prime} \in Q$ such that $p \rightleftarrows^{*} q^{\prime}$.

Proof. By induction on the number of elements of $Q$.
Definition 5.11 (Equivalence of multisets). We write $\left[r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right] \rightleftarrows^{*}\left[s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m}\right]$ if there exists terms $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m}$ such that $s_{i} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{i}$ and $\left[t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m}\right]=\left[r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}\right]$.

Lemma 5.12 (Unique factorisation). If $P$ and $Q$ are two multisets of prime terms such that $\prod_{p \in P} p \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{q \in Q} q$, then $P \rightleftarrows^{*} Q$.

Proof. By induction on the number of elements in $P$. If $P=[p]$, then as $p$ is prime, $Q=[q]$ and $p \rightleftarrows^{*} q$. Otherwise, we have $\left(\prod_{p \in P \backslash\left\{p^{\prime}\right\}} p\right) \times p^{\prime}=\prod_{q \in Q} Q$. By Corollary 5.10, there exists $q^{\prime} \in Q$, such that $p^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} q^{\prime}$. Thus, by Lemma $5.8 \prod_{p \in P \backslash\left\{p^{\prime}\right\}} p \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{q \in Q \backslash\left\{q^{\prime}\right\}} q$. We conclude with the induction hypothesis.

Now we can prove the lemma announced in the beginning of this section.
Lemma 5.13. If $r \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{p \in P} p$ where $P$ is a multiset of reducible prime terms, then $r$ is equivalent to a product of reducible terms.

Proof. By Lemma 5.7, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{r^{\prime} \in R} r^{\prime}$ and $s \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{s^{\prime} \in S} s^{\prime}$ where the $R$ and the $S$ are multisets of prime terms. By Lemma 5.12, $R \uplus S \rightleftarrows^{*} P$, hence the elements of $R$ are reducible.

To be able to use Lemma 5.13, we need some times to restrict the $s_{i}$ in the definition of reducibility (Definition 5.1) to be prime terms. The next lemma shows that this can be done without lost of generality.

Lemma 5.14. Let $r: A$. If for all $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n}, C$ such that $A \equiv B_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow B_{n} \Rightarrow C$ and $C \not \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow C_{2}$, for all $s_{i}$ prime such that $s_{i} \in \llbracket B_{i} \rrbracket$, we have $r s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$ then, $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.

Proof. We need to prove that for all $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ such that $t_{i} \in \llbracket B_{i} \rrbracket$, we have that $r t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$. By Lemma 5.7, each $t_{i}$ can be written as $\prod_{j=1}^{m_{i}} s_{i j}$ with $s_{i j}$ prime. Thus, by Lemma $4.2, B_{i} \equiv \bigwedge_{j=1}^{m_{i}} D_{i j}, A \equiv D_{11} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow D_{n m_{n}} \Rightarrow C$, and $r \in$ $\llbracket D_{11} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow D_{n m_{n}} \Rightarrow C \rrbracket$. Hence, $r t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \rightleftarrows^{*} r s_{11} \ldots s_{n m_{n}} \in \mathrm{SN}$.

### 5.3. Adequacy

We finally prove the adequacy theorem (Theorem 5.22) showing that every typed term is reducible and the strong normalisation theorem (Theorem 5.24) as a consequence of it.

The adequacy of product is a consequence of Lemma 5.5. The adequacy of projection uses the course of values induction scheme. The adequacy of abstraction, as usual, uses the substitution $\sigma$ from the adequacy theorem. The adequacy of application is a direct consequence of the definition.

Definition 5.15 (Adequate substitution). A substitution $\sigma$ is adequate if for all $x^{A}$, we have $\sigma\left(x^{A}\right) \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.

Lemma 5.16 (Adequacy of product). If $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$ and $s \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$, then $r \times s \in \llbracket A \wedge B \rrbracket$.
Proof. Let $A \wedge B \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D$ where $D \not \equiv D_{1} \Rightarrow D_{2}$. We must show that for all $t_{i} \in \llbracket C_{i} \rrbracket$, we have $(r \times s) t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$. By Lemma 2.7, $D \equiv D_{1} \wedge D_{2}$, $A \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D_{1}$, and $B \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D_{2}$. From $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, we deduce $r t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$. From $s \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$, we deduce $s t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in$ SN. Therefore, by Lemma 5.5, we have $r t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \times s t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \rightleftarrows^{*}(r \times s) t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$.

The next lemma characterises the terms equivalent to $\pi_{A}\left(t s_{1}^{\prime} \ldots s_{m}^{\prime}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$, which is needed for the adequacy of projection.

Lemma 5.17. If $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{A}\left(t s_{1}^{\prime} \ldots s_{m}^{\prime}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$ where $t$ is not equivalent to an application, then, either
$-r=\pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, where $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t u_{1}^{\prime} \ldots u_{q}^{\prime}$ and $\prod_{k} u_{k}^{\prime} \times \prod_{h} u_{h} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} s_{j}^{\prime} \times \prod_{i} s_{i}$; or
—r $=\left(\lambda x^{B} . t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, where $t \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} . t^{\prime \prime}, t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and $\prod_{h} u_{h} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} s_{j}^{\prime} \times \prod_{i} s_{i}$.
Proof. We show that if $r$ is in one of the two cases and $r \rightleftarrows r^{\prime}$, then $r^{\prime}$ is also in one of those cases.
— Let $r=\pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$ with $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t u_{1}^{\prime} \ldots u_{q}^{\prime}$, with $t$ is not equivalent to an application.

- If $r^{\prime}$ is obtained by an equivalence on one of the $u_{j}$, or $t^{\prime}$, or by rule (curry), then $r^{\prime}$ is in the same category.
- If $r^{\prime}$ is obtained by rule ( $\operatorname{DisT}_{e e}$ ), hence it is in the same category.
- If $r^{\prime}$ is obtained by rule ( $\operatorname{DIST}_{e i}$ ), hence, by Lemma 3.6, $q=0$, thus, $r^{\prime}$ is in the second category.
- If $r^{\prime}$ is obtained by rule (equiv), hence it is in the same category.
— Let $r=\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, where $t \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} \cdot t^{\prime \prime}, t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and $\prod_{h} u_{h} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} s_{j}^{\prime} \times$ $\prod_{i} s_{i}$.
- If $r^{\prime}$ is obtained by an equivalence on one of the $u_{j}$, or $t^{\prime}$, or by rule (curry), then $r^{\prime}$ is in the same category.
- Rule ( $\operatorname{DIST}_{i i}$ ) cannot be applied since, by Lemma 3.5, $t^{\prime}$ is not equivalent to a product.
- If $r^{\prime}$ is obtained by applying rule ( (IST $_{e i}$ ), then $t^{\prime}=\pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)$. By Lemma 3.5, $t^{\prime \prime \prime} \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $t^{\prime \prime}$, then $r^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{D}\left(\lambda x^{B} \cdot t^{\prime \prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{D}(t) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, where $D \equiv B \Rightarrow C$, hence we are in the first category.

Lemma 5.18 (Adequacy of projection). If $r \in \llbracket A \wedge B \rrbracket$ and all the terms $t$, such that $M(t) \leq M(r)$, are reducible, then $\pi_{A}(r) \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.

Proof. Let $A \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D$ where $D \not \equiv D_{1} \Rightarrow D_{2}$. Using Lemma 5.14, we must show that, for all $s_{i}$ prime such that $s_{i} \in \llbracket C_{i} \rrbracket$, we have $\pi_{A}(r) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$. We prove that all the one-step reducts of this term are in SN. Consider $\pi_{A}(r) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \rightleftarrows^{*} u \hookrightarrow$ $v$ where $r \rightleftarrows^{*} t s_{1}^{\prime} \ldots s_{m}^{\prime}$, with $t$ not equivalent to an application. Then, by Lemma 5.17, the possible $u$ are:

- $\pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, where $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t u_{1}^{\prime} \ldots u_{q}^{\prime}$ and $\prod_{k} u_{k}^{\prime} \times \prod_{h} u_{h} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} s_{j}^{\prime} \times \prod_{i} s_{i}$. By Lemma 5.7, each $s_{j}^{\prime}$ decomposes into products of prime factors. Since these factors have a size smaller than $M\left(s_{j}^{\prime}\right)<M(r)$, the hypothesis applies and each of them is reducible. Hence, $\prod_{k} u_{k}^{\prime} \times \prod_{h} u_{h}$ is equivalent to a product of reducible prime terms. By Lemmas 5.13 and 5.16, each $u_{k}^{\prime}$ and $u_{h}$ is reducible. Since $M(t) \leq M(r), t$ is also reducible, and so $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t u_{1}^{\prime} \ldots u_{q}^{\prime} \in \mathrm{SN}$. Also, by Lemma 5.16 and 5.2, $\prod_{h} u_{h} \in \mathrm{SN}$. We show by induction on $\left|t^{\prime}\right|+\left|\prod_{h} u_{h}\right|$ that all the one-step reducts of $\pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$ are in SN. The possible reductions are:
- A projection of $\pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ to $t_{1}^{\prime}$. Then $t^{\prime}=t_{1}^{\prime} \times t_{2}^{\prime}$. Then, by Lemma 3.4, $t \rightleftarrows^{*}$ $t_{1} \times t_{2}$ and $t_{1}^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} u_{1}^{\prime} \ldots u_{q}^{\prime}$. Since $M\left(t_{1}\right) \leq M(t) \leq M(r)$, it is reducible, and so $t_{1} u_{1}^{\prime} \ldots u_{q}^{\prime} u_{1} \ldots u_{p} \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1}^{\prime} u_{1} \ldots u_{p} \in \mathrm{SN}$.
- A reduction on any of $t^{\prime}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}$ (possibly using rule (curry) before reducing), then the induction hypothesis applies.
- $\left(\lambda x^{B} . t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, where $t \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} . t^{\prime \prime}, t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C}\left(t^{\prime \prime}\right)$, and $\prod_{h} u_{h} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} s_{j}^{\prime} \times \prod_{i} s_{i}$.

Every $\hookrightarrow$-reduct of this term, is equivalent to a $\hookrightarrow$-reduct of $\pi_{C}\left(\left(\lambda x^{B} . t^{\prime \prime}\right) u_{1}\right) u_{2} \ldots u_{p}$, which in the previous item has been shown to be in SN.

The next lemma characterises the terms equivalent to $r \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot p\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$, which is needed for the adequacy of abstraction.

Lemma 5.19. If $r \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot p\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$ where $p$ is a prime term, then $r$ is either - $\left(\lambda x^{A} . q\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, with $\prod_{i} s_{i} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} u_{j}$ and $p \rightleftarrows^{*} q$, or
$-\pi_{B_{1}}\left(\ldots\left(\pi_{B_{m}}\left(t^{\prime}\right) u_{h+1} \ldots u_{k}\right) \ldots\right) u_{l+1} \ldots u_{p}$, with $B_{i} \equiv A \Rightarrow C_{i}, \prod_{i} s_{i} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} u_{j}$, $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(\lambda x^{A} . t\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{h}$, and $p \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C_{1}}\left(\ldots \pi_{C_{m}}(t)\right)$, with $m>0$.

Proof. Since $p$ is a prime term, the only rules that can be applied are either (curry), ( Dist $_{e i}$ ), ( Dist $_{e e}$ ), (Equiv), or equivalences over $p, s_{1}, \ldots s_{n}$.

Lemma 5.20 (Adequacy of abstraction). If for all $\rho$ adequate, $\rho r \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$, then for all $\sigma$ adequate, we have $\lambda x^{A} . \sigma r \in \llbracket A \Rightarrow B \rrbracket$.

Proof. Let $A \Rightarrow B \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D$ where and $D \not \equiv D_{1} \Rightarrow D_{2}$. Using Lemma 5.14, we need to prove that for all $s_{i}$ prime such that $s_{i} \in \llbracket C_{i} \rrbracket$, we have $\left(\lambda x^{A} . \sigma r\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$.

By Lemma 5.2 and Lemma 5.5, we have $\prod_{i=1}^{n} s_{i} \in$ SN. Also, by Lemma 5.2, we have $\sigma r \in \mathrm{SN}$. We proceed by induction on the lexicographic order of $\langle | \sigma r\left|+\left|\prod_{i=1}^{n} s_{i}\right|, M(\sigma r)\right\rangle$.
— If $\sigma r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$, then we can use rules ( $\left.\operatorname{DisT}_{i i}\right)$ and ( $\left.\operatorname{DIST}_{i e}\right)$ to obtain $\left(\lambda x^{A} . r_{1}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \times$ $\left(\lambda x^{A} . r_{2}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$, since $\left|r_{1}\right| \leq|\sigma r|,\left|r_{2}\right| \leq|\sigma r|, M\left(r_{1}\right)<M(\sigma r)$, and $M\left(r_{2}\right)<M(\sigma r)$, the induction hypothesis applies so $\left(\lambda x^{A} . r_{1}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$ and $\left(\lambda x^{A} . r_{2}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$. So, by Lemma 5.5, $\left(\lambda x^{A} . r_{1}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \times\left(\lambda x^{A} . r_{2}\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in \operatorname{SN}$.

- If $\sigma r$ is a prime term, then we prove that all the one-step reductions starting in $\left(\lambda x^{A} . \sigma r\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$ are in SN. Consider the reduction $\left(\lambda x^{A} . \sigma r\right) s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \rightleftarrows^{*} u \hookrightarrow v$. Then, by Lemma 5.19, the possible $u$ are:
$-\left(\lambda x^{A} . t^{\prime}\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}$, with $\sigma r \rightleftarrows^{*} t^{\prime}$ and $\prod_{i} s_{i} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} u_{j}$. By Lemmas 5.13 and 5.16, the $u_{j}$ are reducible. Then, $v$ is obtained either by reducing $t^{\prime}$ or any of $u_{1}$, $\ldots, u_{p}$, in which case the induction hypothesis applies, or, $\beta$-reduce obtaining $t^{\prime}\left[u_{1} / x\right] u_{2} \ldots u_{p} \rightleftarrows^{*} \sigma r\left[u_{1} / x\right] u_{2} \ldots u_{p}$. Therefore, $\rho=\left[u_{1} / x\right] \circ \sigma$ is adequate, and since $\rho r \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$, then $\sigma r\left[u_{1} / x\right] u_{2} \ldots u_{p} \in$ SN.
$-\pi_{B_{1}}\left(\ldots\left(\pi_{B_{m}}\left(t^{\prime}\right) u_{h+1} \ldots u_{k}\right) \ldots\right) u_{l+1} \ldots u_{p}$, with $B_{i} \equiv A \Rightarrow C_{i}, \prod_{i} s_{i} \rightleftarrows^{*} \prod_{j} u_{j}$, $t^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*}\left(\lambda x^{A} . t\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{h}$, and $p \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{C_{1}}\left(\ldots \pi_{C_{m}}(t)\right)$, with $m>0$. Every $\hookrightarrow$-reduct of this term, is equivalent to a $\hookrightarrow$-reduct of $\left(\lambda x^{A} . \pi_{C_{1}}\left(\ldots\left(\pi_{C_{m}}(t)\right) u_{1} \ldots u_{p}\right.\right.$, which in the previous item has been shown to be in SN.

Lemma 5.21 (Adequacy of application). If $r \in \llbracket A \Rightarrow B \rrbracket$, and $s \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, then $r s \in$ $\llbracket B \rrbracket$.

Proof. Let $B \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D$ where $D \not \equiv D_{1} \Rightarrow D_{2}$. Hence, since $r \in \llbracket A \Rightarrow B \rrbracket$, we have that for all $s^{\prime} \in \llbracket A \rrbracket, t_{i} \in \llbracket C_{i} \rrbracket$, $r s^{\prime} t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$. Since $s \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, we have $r s t_{1} \ldots t_{n} \in \mathrm{SN}$, and so $r s \in \llbracket C_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow C_{n} \Rightarrow D \rrbracket=\llbracket B \rrbracket$.

Theorem 5.22 (Adequacy). If $r: A$, then for all $\sigma$ adequate, we have $\sigma r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.
Proof. By course of values induction on $M(r)$.
— If $r$ is a variable $x^{A}$, then, since $\sigma$ is adequate, we have $\sigma r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.

- If $r$ is a product $s \times t$, then by Lemma 4.2, $s: B, t: C$, and $A \equiv B \wedge C$, then $M(s)<M(r)$ and $M(t)<M(r)$, hence by the induction hypothesis, $\sigma s \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$ and $\sigma t \in \llbracket C \rrbracket$. By Lemma 5.16, $(\sigma s \times \sigma t) \in \llbracket B \wedge C \rrbracket$, hence by Lemma 5.4, $\sigma r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.
- If $r$ is a projection $\pi_{A}(s)$, then by Lemma 4.2, $s: A \wedge B$, and since $M(s)<M(r)$, by the induction hypothesis, $\sigma s \in \llbracket A \wedge B \rrbracket$ and for all terms $s^{\prime}$ such that $M\left(s^{\prime}\right) \leq$ $M(s)<M(r), \sigma s^{\prime}$ is reducible. By Lemma 5.18, $\pi_{A}(\sigma s) \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, hence $\sigma r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.
- If $r$ is an abstraction $\lambda x^{B} . s$, with $s: C$, then by Lemma $4.2, A \equiv B \Rightarrow C$, then $M(s)<M(r)$, hence by the induction hypothesis, for all $\rho, \rho s \in \llbracket C \rrbracket$. Hence, by Lemma 5.20, $\lambda x^{B} . \sigma s \in \llbracket B \Rightarrow C \rrbracket$, hence, by Lemma 5.4, $\sigma r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.
- If $r$ is an application $s t$, then by Lemma $4.2, s: B \Rightarrow A$ and $t: B$, then since $M(s)<M(r)$ and $M(t)<M(r)$, by the induction hypothesis, $\sigma s \in \llbracket B \Rightarrow A \rrbracket$ and $\sigma t \in \llbracket B \rrbracket$. Hence, by Lemma 5.21 , we have $\sigma s \sigma t \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$, so $\sigma r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.

Lemma 5.23 (Inhabitation). For all $x \in \mathcal{V}_{A}, x \in \llbracket A \rrbracket$.
Proof. Let $A \equiv B_{1} \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow B_{n} \Rightarrow C$ where $C \not \equiv C_{1} \Rightarrow C_{2}$. We need to prove that for all $s_{i} \in \llbracket C_{i} \rrbracket$, we have $x s_{1} \ldots s_{n} \in$ SN. By Lemma $5.5, \prod_{i=1}^{n} s_{i} \in \operatorname{SN}$, Therefore, we proceed by induction on $\left|\prod_{i=1}^{n} s_{i}\right|$. Each of the reducts of $x s_{1} \ldots s_{n}$ is equivalent to $x r$ where $\prod_{i=1}^{n} s_{i} \rightsquigarrow r$. Therefore, the induction hypothesis applies.

Theorem 5.24 (Strong normalisation). If $r: A$, then $r \in \mathrm{SN}$.
Proof. By Lemma 5.23, the identity substitution is adequate. Thus, by Theorem 5.22 and Lemma 5.2, $r \in \llbracket A \rrbracket \subseteq$ SN.

## 6. Consistency

To prove that there is no closed term of type $\tau$ we introduce the notion of simple term, prove that every closed term can be translated to a closed simple term of the same type, and that there is no closed simple term of type $\tau$.

Definition 6.1 (Simple terms). A term is simple if all its variables have a type $A \not \equiv$ $A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$.

Definition 6.2 (Measure $N$ ). We introduce a new measure $N$ on terms counting the number of conjunctions in the types of bound variables, as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
N(x) & =0 \\
N\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot r\right) & =\# \operatorname{can}(A)-1+N(r) \\
N(r s) & =N(r)+N(s) \\
N(r \times s) & =N(r)+N(s) \\
N\left(\pi_{A}(r)\right) & =N(r)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\# \operatorname{can}(A)$ is the cardinal of the non-empty multiset $\operatorname{can}(A)$.
Lemma 6.3. $N\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} \cdot r\right)=1+N\left(\lambda y^{A} \cdot \lambda z^{B} . r[y \times z / x]\right)$
Proof. First we prove by induction on $M(r)$ that $N(r)=N(r[y \times z / x])$. The only interesting case is the case $r=x$, in which case $N(x)=0=N(y \times z)$.

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
N\left(\lambda x^{A \wedge B} r\right) & =\# \operatorname{can}(A)+\# \operatorname{can}(B)-1+N(r) \\
& =1+\# \operatorname{can}(A)-1+\# \operatorname{can}(B)-1+N(r[y \times z / x]) \\
& =1+N\left(\lambda y^{A} \cdot \lambda z^{B} \cdot r[y \times z / x]\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 6.4 (Translation). We define the following translation from closed terms to closed simple terms by induction on the lexicographic order on $\langle N(r), M(r)\rangle$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
|x| & =x \\
\text { If } A \not \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2},\left|\lambda x^{A} \cdot r\right| & =\lambda x^{A} \cdot|r| \\
|r s| & =|r||s| \\
|r \times s| & =|r| \times|s| \\
\left|\pi_{A}(r)\right| & =\pi_{A}(|r|)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 6.5. If $r: A \wedge B$ is a simple normal term, then $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$ where $r_{1}: A$ and $r_{2}: B$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $M(r)$.

- $r$ cannot be a variable, since it has type $A \wedge B$ and it is simple.
— Let $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{C} . r^{\prime}$. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $r^{\prime}: D$ with $C \Rightarrow D \equiv A \wedge B$. So, by Lemma 2.9, $D \equiv D_{1} \wedge D_{2}$, and so, by the induction hypothesis, $r^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$. Therefore, $\lambda x^{C} . r^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{C} . r_{1} \times \lambda x^{C} . r_{2}$.
— Let $r \rightleftarrows^{*}$ st. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $s: C \Rightarrow(A \wedge B)$, so $s:(C \Rightarrow A) \wedge(C \Rightarrow B)$. Therefore, by the induction hypothesis, $s \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1} \times s_{2}$, and so $s t \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1} t \times s_{2} t$.
— Let $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $r_{1}: C$ and $r_{2}: D$, with $A \wedge B \equiv C \wedge D$. By Lemma 2.12 (cf. Fig. 1), either
- $C \equiv A_{1} \wedge B_{1}$ and $D \equiv A_{2} \wedge B_{2}$, with $A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$ and $B \equiv B_{1} \wedge B_{2}$, or
- $C \equiv A_{1}$ and $D \equiv A_{2} \wedge B$, with $A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$, or
- $D \equiv A_{1}$ and $C \equiv A_{2} \wedge B$, with $A \equiv A_{1} \wedge A_{2}$, or
- $C \equiv B_{1}$ and $D \equiv B_{2} \wedge A$, with $B \equiv B_{1} \wedge B_{2}$, or
- $D \equiv B_{1}$ and $C \equiv B_{2} \wedge A$, with $B \equiv B_{1} \wedge B_{2}$, or
- $C \equiv A$ and $D \equiv B$, or
$-C \equiv B$ and $D \equiv A$.
In the first case, by the induction hypothesis, $r_{1} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1} \times t_{1}$ and $r_{2} \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{2} \times t_{2}$, with $s_{i}: A_{i}$ and $t_{i}: B_{i}$. Thus, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} s_{1} \times s_{2} \times t_{1} \times t_{2}$. We take $s=s_{1} \times s_{2}$ and $t=t_{1} \times t_{2}$. The other cases are similar.
— Let $r \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{A \wedge B}\left(r^{\prime}\right)$. Then, by Lemma 4.2, $r^{\prime}:(A \wedge B) \wedge C$, and hence, by the induction hypothesis, $r^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$ where $r_{1}: A \wedge B$, hence $r$ is not in normal form.
Lemma 6.6. There is not closed normal simple term of type $\tau$.
Proof. We proceed by cases:
- A variable is not closed.
- By Lemma 4.2, an abstraction has a type equivalent to an arrow, so it cannot be $\tau$.
- Let $r s: \tau$. Without lost of generality, let $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r^{\prime} r_{1} \ldots r_{n}$ where $r^{\prime}$ is not an application, where, by Lemma 4.2, $r_{i}^{\prime}: A_{i}, s: A_{n+1}$, and $r: A \Rightarrow \tau$ with $A \equiv \bigwedge_{i=1}^{n+1} A_{i}$.
We proceed by cases on $r^{\prime}$ :
- $r^{\prime}$ cannot be a variable, since the term is closed.
- Let $r^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \lambda x^{B} . r^{\prime \prime}$, with $r^{\prime \prime}$ of type $C$, then, by Lemma $4.2, A \Rightarrow \tau \equiv B \Rightarrow C$, therefore, by Lemma $2.10 C \equiv A^{\prime} \Rightarrow \tau$, with $A \equiv A^{\prime} \wedge B$. In this case, $\prod_{i} r_{i} \times s$ : $A^{\prime} \wedge B$. So by Lemma $6.5, \prod_{i} r_{i} \times s \rightleftarrows^{*} t_{1} \times t_{2}$ with $t_{1}: B$. Therefore, $r$ is not normal.
- $r^{\prime}$ cannot be an application, by hypothesis.
$-r^{\prime}$ cannot by a projection. Indeed, if $r^{\prime} \rightleftarrows^{*} \pi_{A \Rightarrow \tau}\left(r^{\prime \prime}\right)$, then by Lemma 4.2, $r^{\prime \prime}$ has type $(A \Rightarrow \tau) \wedge B$, and so, by Lemma 6.5, $r^{\prime \prime}$ is equivalent to a product. Therefore, $r^{\prime}$ is not normal.
- $r^{\prime}$ cannot be a product, since it has type $A \Rightarrow \tau$ and Lemma 4.2 prescribe a conjunction.
- By Lemma 4.2, a product has a type equivalent to a conjunction, so it cannot be $\tau$.
— By Lemma 4.2, if $\pi_{\tau}(r): \tau$, then $r: \tau \wedge B$, and so, by Lemma 6.5, $r \rightleftarrows^{*} r_{1} \times r_{2}$ with $r_{1}: \tau$. Therefore, $\pi_{\tau}(r)$ is not normal.

Theorem 6.7. There is no closed term of type $\tau$.
Proof. It is easy to see that the translation from terms to simple terms preserves the types, and reduction preserves simplicity. Hence, if there is a close term of type $\tau$, there must be a simple close term of type $\tau$, however, by Theorem 5.24, Theorem 4.4, and Lemma 6.6, we arrive to a contradiction.

Notice that, although we do not have closed terms of type $\tau$, we do not have the usual property that every closed normal terms is equivalent to an introduction corresponding to its head symbol. For example, the term

$$
\left(\lambda x^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} \cdot x\right)\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot z\right): \tau \Rightarrow \tau
$$

is in normal form, although it is an application and not an abstraction, and the term

$$
\lambda x^{\tau \wedge \tau} \cdot x:((\tau \wedge \tau) \Rightarrow \tau) \wedge((\tau \wedge \tau) \Rightarrow \tau)
$$

is in normal form, although it is an abstraction and not a product. However, with extra $\eta$ and $\delta$ rules [Díaz-Caro and Martínez López, 2015], the first term would expand to

$$
\lambda w^{\tau} \cdot\left(\left(\lambda x^{\tau} \cdot \lambda y^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} \cdot x\right)\left(\lambda z^{\tau} \cdot z\right) w\right) \rightsquigarrow^{*} \lambda w^{\tau} \cdot w
$$

and the second term would expand to

$$
\left.\lambda x^{\tau \wedge \tau} .\left(\pi_{\tau}(x) \times \pi_{\tau}(x)\right) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{\tau \wedge \tau} . \pi_{\tau}(x)\right) \times\left(\lambda x^{\tau \wedge \tau} . \pi_{\tau}(x)\right)\right)
$$

## 7. Computing with System I

### 7.1. Pairs (and lists)

Because the symbol $\times$ is associative and commutative, System I does not contain the usual notion of pairs. However, it is possible to encode a deterministic projection, even if we have more than one term of the same type. An example, although there are various possibilities, is given in the following table:

| Standard | Encoding |
| :---: | :---: |
| $r \times s: A \wedge A$ | $\lambda x^{\mathbb{1}} . r \times \lambda x^{\mathbb{L}} . s: \mathbb{1} \Rightarrow A \wedge \mathcal{Z} \Rightarrow A$ |
| $\pi_{1}(r \times s)$ | $\pi_{\mathbb{1} \Rightarrow A}\left(\lambda x^{\mathbb{1}} . r \times \lambda x^{\mathcal{D}} . s\right) y^{\mathbb{1}}$ |

where types $\mathbb{1}$ and $\mathscr{D}$ are any two different types. This example uses free variables, but it is easy to close it, e.g. use $\lambda y . y$ instead of $y^{\mathbb{1}}$ in the second line.

Moreover, this technique is not limited to pairs. Due to the associativity nature of $\times$, the encoding can be easily extended to lists.

### 7.2. Booleans

Example 3.11 on booleans overlooks an interesting fact: If $A \equiv B$, then both $\mathbf{T}$ and $\mathbf{F}$ behaves as a non-deterministic projector. Indeed, $\mathbf{T} r s \hookrightarrow^{*} r$, but also $\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{B} . x\right) r s \rightleftarrows$ $\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right) r s \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right)(r \times s) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right)(s \times r) \rightleftarrows\left(\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot x\right) s r \hookrightarrow^{*} s$.

Similarly, $\mathbf{F r s} \hookrightarrow^{*} s$ and also $\mathbf{F r s} \rightsquigarrow^{*} r$. Hence, $A \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow A$ is not suitable to encode the type Bool. The type $A \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow A$ has only one term in the underlying equational theory.

Fortunately, there are ways to construct types with more than one term. First, let us define the following notation. For any $t$, let write $[t]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}$, the canon of $t$, that is, the term $\lambda z^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} . t$, where $z^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}$ is a fresh variable not appearing in $t$. Also, for any term $t$ of type $(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow A$, we write $\{t\}^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}$, the cocanon, which is the inverse operation, that is, $\left\{[t]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}\right\}^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} \hookrightarrow t$ for any $t$ of type $A$. For the cocanon it suffices to take $\{t\}^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}=$ $t\left(\lambda x^{\tau} . x\right)$. Therefore, the type $((\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow A$ has the following two different terms:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{tt}:=\lambda x^{A} \cdot \lambda y^{(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow A} \cdot x \\
\mathbf{f}:=\lambda x^{(\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow A} \cdot \lambda y^{A} \cdot\{x\}^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}
\end{gathered}
$$

Hence, it is possible to encode an if-then-else conditional expression in the following way:

$$
\text { If } c \text { then } r \text { else } s:=\operatorname{cr}[s]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}
$$

So, $\mathbf{t t r}[s]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} \hookrightarrow^{*} r$, while $\mathbf{f} r[s]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} \rightleftarrows^{*} \mathbf{f}[s]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} r \hookrightarrow^{*}\left\{[s]^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau}\right\}^{\tau \Rightarrow \tau} \hookrightarrow s$.

### 7.3. A deterministic subsystem

In section 7.1 we have seen how to encode a pair, transforming the non-deterministic projection into a deterministic one via an encoding. Another possibility, is to remove the non-deterministic behaviour of this calculus by dropping the isomorphisms (1) and (2), as well as rules (сомм) and (asso).

Despite that such a modification would simplify the calculus-indeed, the projection can be taken as the standard projection - the resulting calculus would still count with distribution of application over conjunction and currification, two interesting features, in particular, for programming languages. The former allows to execute a function only partially, when not all its results are needed. The latter can also be used to optimise
programs when there are multiple calls to the same function, but one of its arguments is fixed.

## 8. Conclusion, Discussion and Future Work

In this paper we defined System I, a proof system for propositional logic with an associative and commutative conjunction, and a distributive implication with respect to it, where equivalent propositions get the same proofs.

### 8.1. Other Related Work

Apart from the related work already discussed in the introduction, in a work by Garrigue and Aït-Kaci [1994], the selective $\lambda$-calculus has been presented, where only the isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow C) \equiv(B \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow C) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

has been treated, which is complete with respect to the function type. In System I we also consider the conjunction, and hence four isomorphisms. Isomorphism (5) is a consequence of currification and commutation, that is $A \wedge B \equiv B \wedge A$ and $(A \wedge B) \Rightarrow C \equiv(A \Rightarrow B \Rightarrow$ C).

The selective $\lambda$-calculus includes labellings to identify which argument is being used at each time. Moreover, by considering the Church encoding of pairs, isomorphism (5) implies isomorphism (1) (commutativity of $\wedge$ ). However, their proposal is different to ours. In particular, we track the term by its type, which is a kind of labelling, but when two terms have the same type, then we leave the system to non-deterministically choose any proof. One of our main novelties is, indeed, the non-deterministic projector. However, we can also get back determinism, by encoding a labelling, as discussed in Section 7, or by dropping some isomorphisms (namely, associativity and commutativity of conjunction).

### 8.2. Future Work

8.2.1. Adding more connectives A subtle question is how to add a neutral element of the conjunction, which will imply more isomorphisms, e.g. $A \wedge \top \equiv A, A \Rightarrow \top \equiv \top$ and $\top \Rightarrow A \equiv A$. In System I adding the equation $\top \Rightarrow \top \equiv \top$ would make it possible to derive $\left(\lambda x^{\top} . x x\right)\left(\lambda x^{\top} . x x\right): \top$, however this term is not the classical $\Omega$, it is typed by $\top$, and imposing some restrictions on the beta reduction, it could be forced not to reduce to itself but to discard its argument. For example: "If $A \equiv \top$, then $\left(\lambda x^{A} . r\right) s \hookrightarrow \lambda x^{A} . r$, in other case, do the standard beta-reduction".
8.2.2. Probabilistic and quantum computing A second line is the probabilistic interpretation of the non-determinism in our calculus. In [Díaz-Caro and Dowek, 2014] a probability space over the set of non-deterministic execution traces is defined. This way, System I is transformed into a probabilistic calculus instead of just a non-deterministic one, providing an alternative way for more complex constructions. Moreover, the original motivation
behind the linear algebraic extension of lambda calculus [Arrighi and Dowek, 2017] and its vectorial type system [Arrighi et al., 2017] was to encode quantum computing on it by considering not only non-deterministic superpositions, but formal linear combinations of terms. A projection depending on scalars could lead to a measurement operator in a future design. This is a promising future direction.

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