# Introduction to Barendregt's Lambda Cube 

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## Lecture 1

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Figure: Lambda cube

- $\lambda$ Untyped Lambda calculus
- $\lambda \rightarrow$ Simple types
- $\lambda 2$ Polymorphic types
- $\lambda \underline{\omega}$
- $\lambda P$ Dependent types
- Lambda cube
- Logic cube


## Roadmap

## Lambda Calculus

$\lambda \rightarrow$ - Simple types

## Roadmap

Lambda Calculus
$\lambda \rightarrow$ - Simple types

## $\lambda$-calculus, untyped lambda calculus

Decision Problem - Background

- Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz - Characteristica universalis
- David Hilbert and Wilhelm Ackerman (1928)
- Entscheidungsproblem, or Decision Problem:
"Given all the axioms of math, is there an algorithm that can tell if a proposition is universally vali i.e. deducable from the axioms?"
- Negative answers (1935/36):
- Alonzo Church - $\lambda$-calculus (equality)
- Alan Turing - Turing Machines (halting problem)
- Kurt Gödel - Incompleteness theorems (1931)


## $\lambda$-calculus - 1930s

- Alonzo Church:
theory of functions - formalisation of mathematics (inconsistent)
- successful model for computable functions - $\lambda$-calculus
- simply typed $\lambda$-calculus
- Haskell Curry:
- elimination of variables in logic - Moses Schönfinkel (1921)
- successful model for computable functions - Combinatory logic
- Combinatory logic with types
- Alan Turing :
- formalisation of the concepts of algorithm and computation
- Turing Machines


## $\lambda$-calculus - expressiveness

- Expressiveness - Effective computability (mid 1930s)
- (Curry) Equivalence of $\lambda$-calculus and Combinatory Logic
- (Kleene) Equivalence of $\lambda$-calculus and recursive functions
- (Turing) Equivalence of $\lambda$-calculus and Turing machines


## Syntax

$$
M::=x|c|(M M) \mid(\lambda x . M)
$$

$x$ ranges over $V$, a countable set of variables $c$ ranges over $C$, a countable set of constants

Pure $\lambda$-calculus, if $C=\emptyset$
Conventions for minimizing the number of the parentheses:

- $M_{1} M_{2} M_{3}$ stands for $\left(\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right) M_{3}\right)$ application associates to left
- $\lambda x . y . M$ stands for $(\lambda x .(\lambda y .(M))$ abstraction associates to right
- $\lambda x \cdot M_{1} M_{2} \equiv \lambda x .\left(M_{1} M_{2}\right)$; application has priority over abstraction


## Running example

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
x y z x & \\
\lambda x \cdot z x & \text { combinator } \mathbf{I} \\
\mathbf{I} \equiv \lambda x \cdot x & \text { combinator } \mathbf{K} \\
\mathbf{K} \equiv \lambda x y \cdot x & \text { combinator } \mathbf{S} \\
\mathbf{S} \equiv \lambda x y z \cdot x z(y z) & \text { selfapplication } \\
\Delta \equiv \lambda x \cdot x x & \text { fixed point combinator } \\
\mathbf{Y} \equiv \lambda f \cdot(\lambda x \cdot f(x x))(\lambda x \cdot f(x x)) & \text { higher-order function }
\end{array}
$$

## Free and bound variables

## Definition

(i) The set $F V(M)$ of free variables of $M$ is defined inductively:

- $F V(x)=\{x\}$
- $F V(M N)=F V(M) \cup F V(N)$
- $F V(\lambda x \cdot M)=F V(M) \backslash\{x\}$
(ii) A variable in M is bound if it is not free
- $x$ is bound in $M$ if it appears in a subterm of the form $\lambda x . N$
(ii) $M$ is a closed $\lambda$-term (or combinator) if $F V(M)=\emptyset$ $\Lambda^{0}$ denotes the set of closed $\lambda$-terms.


## Example

- In $\lambda x . z x$, variable $z$ is free, $F V(M)=\{z\}$
- Term $\lambda x y . x x y$ is closed, $F V(M)=\emptyset$


## Reduction rules - operational semantics

$\alpha$-reduction:

$$
\lambda x \cdot M \longrightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda y \cdot M[x:=y], \quad y \notin F V(M)
$$

$\beta$-reduction:

$$
(\lambda x \cdot M) N \longrightarrow_{\beta} M[x:=N]
$$

$\eta$-reduction:

$$
\lambda x .(M x) \longrightarrow_{\eta} M, \quad x \notin F V(M)
$$

## $\alpha$-conversion

Formalisation of the principal that the name of the bound variable is irrelevant
$\alpha$-reduction:

$$
\lambda x \cdot M \longrightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda y \cdot M[x:=y], \quad y \notin F V(M)
$$

In math, $f(x)=x^{2}+1$ and $f(y)=y^{2}+1$ same, $f(5)=26$ $\lambda x \cdot\left(x^{2}+1\right)$ and $\lambda y \cdot\left(y^{2}+1\right)$ must be considered as equal

Proposition $\longrightarrow \alpha$ is an equivalence relation, notation $={ }_{\alpha}$ Proof.
Symmetry, the interesting case

## $\beta$-reduction

Formalisation of function evaluation

$$
(\lambda x \cdot M) N \longrightarrow_{\beta} M[x:=N]
$$

- $M[x:=N]$ represents an evaluation of the function $M$ with $N$ being the value of the parameter $x$.
- $(\lambda x \cdot M) N$ is a redex and $M[x:=N]$ is a contractum
$\checkmark \beta$-conversion is the symmetric closure of $\longrightarrow_{\beta}$ is an equivalence (with $\alpha$-reduction), notation $\equiv_{\beta}$
- Barendregt's variable convention: If a term contains a free variable which would become bound after beta-reduction, that variable should be renamed.
- Renaming could be done also by using De Bruijn name free notation.


## Example

$$
\left(\lambda x \cdot x^{2}+1\right) 5 \longrightarrow_{\beta} 5^{2}+1 \rightarrow 26
$$

## $\eta$-conversion

Formalisation of extensionality

## Definition

$\eta$-reduction:

$$
\lambda x .(M x) \longrightarrow_{\eta} M, x \notin F V(M)
$$

- This rule identifies two functions that always produce equal results if taking equal arguments.


## Example

$$
\begin{gathered}
\lambda x . \boldsymbol{s u c c} x \longrightarrow_{\eta} \text { succ } \\
(\lambda x . \boldsymbol{s u c c} x) 2 \longrightarrow_{\beta} \text { succ } 2 \quad \text { succ } 2
\end{gathered}
$$

## Properties

- confluence
- normal forms
- normalisation
- strong normalisation
- fixed point theorem
- expressiveness


## Properties - Confluence

Theorem (Church-Rosser theorem)
If $M \longrightarrow N$ and $M \longrightarrow P$, then there exists $S$ such that $N \longrightarrow S$ and $P \longrightarrow S$

The proof is deep and involved.

Corollary

- If $M \longrightarrow N$ and $M \longrightarrow P$, then $N=P$
- The order of the applied reductions is arbitrary and always leads to the same result
- Reductions can be executed in parallel (parallel computing)

Proof.

## Normal forms

- $N \in \Lambda$ is a normal form (NF) if there is no $S$ such that $N \longrightarrow S$
- $P \in \Lambda$ is normalising (has a normal form) if $P \longrightarrow N$ and $N$ is a normal form, then $N$ is a NF of $P$
- $P \in \Lambda$ is strongly normalising (SN) if all reductions of $P$ are finite

Notation: $\longrightarrow$ will denote $\longrightarrow \beta \cup \longrightarrow_{\alpha}$

Theorem (uniqueness of NF)
Every lambda term has at most one normal form
Proof.
Exercise

## Running example: $\beta$-normal forms

| xyzx | normal form NF |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{I} \equiv \lambda x \cdot x$ | normal form NF |
| $\mathbf{K} \equiv \lambda x y \cdot x$ | normal form NF |
| $\mathbf{S} \equiv \lambda x y z . x z(y z)$ | normal form NF |
| Kl(KII) | strongly normalizing SN |
| $\Omega \equiv \Delta \Delta \equiv(\lambda x . x x)(\lambda x . x x)$ | unsolvable |
| Kı $\Omega$ | normalizing N |
|  | head normalizing HN (solvable) |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{KI}(\mathrm{KII}) \rightarrow \mathbf{K I I} \rightarrow \mathbf{I} \\ & \mathrm{Kl}(\mathrm{KII}) \rightarrow \mathbf{I} \end{aligned}$ |  |

## Logic, conditionals, pairs

- Propositional logic in $\lambda$-calculus:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\top:=\lambda x y \cdot x \quad \perp:=\lambda x y \cdot y \quad \neg:=\lambda x \cdot x \perp \top \\
\wedge:=\lambda x y \cdot x y \perp \quad \vee:=\lambda x y \cdot x \top y
\end{gathered}
$$

Example
$\top \vee A \longrightarrow(\lambda x y . x \top y)(\lambda z u . z) A \longrightarrow(\lambda z u . z) \top A \longrightarrow \top$

- Conditionals and pairs in $\lambda$-calculus:

$$
\text { if } A \text { then } P \text { else } Q:=A P Q
$$

$$
\mathbf{f s t}:=\lambda x \cdot x \top, \quad \text { snd }:=\lambda x \cdot x \perp, \quad(P, Q):=\lambda x \cdot x P Q
$$

Example
if $T$ then $P$ else $Q \equiv \top P Q \rightarrow(\lambda x y . x) P Q \rightarrow P$

## Arithmetic

- Church's numerals (arithmetics on the Nat set):

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\underline{0} & :=\lambda f x \cdot x \\
\underline{1} & :=\lambda f x \cdot f x \\
\underline{n} & :=\lambda f x \cdot f^{n} x \\
\text { add } & :=\lambda x y p g \cdot x p(y p q) \\
\text { mult } & :=\lambda x y z \cdot x(y z) \\
\text { succ } & :=\lambda x y z \cdot y(x y z) \\
\text { exp } & :=\lambda x y \cdot y x \\
\text { iszero } & :=\lambda n \cdot n(\top \perp) \top
\end{array}
$$

- add $\underline{n} \underline{m}={ }_{\beta} \underline{n+m}$
- mult $\underline{n} \underline{m}=\beta \underline{n \times m}$

Exercise.

## Expressiveness

In the mid 1930s

- (Kleene) Equivalence of $\lambda$-calculus and recursive functions
- (Turing) Equivalence of $\lambda$-calculus and Turing machines
- (Curry) Equivalence of $\lambda$-calculus and Combinatory Logic


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## Roadmap

## Lambda Calculus

$\lambda \rightarrow$ - Simple types

## $\lambda \rightarrow$ simple (functional) types

## Motivation

- "Disadvantages" of the untyped $\lambda$-calculus:
- infinite computation - there exist $\lambda$-terms without a normal form
- meaningless applications - it is allowed to create terms like sin log
- Types are syntactical objects that can be assigned to $\lambda$-terms
- Reasoning with types was present in the early work of Church on untyped lambda calculus
- two typing paradigms:
- à la Church - explicit type assignment (typed lambda calculus).
- à la Curry - implicit type assignment (lambda calculus with types)


## $\lambda \rightarrow$ syntax of types

$$
\sigma::=\alpha \mid(\sigma \rightarrow \sigma)
$$

$\alpha$ ranges over TVar, a countable set of type variables
Conventions for minimising the number of the parentheses:

- $\sigma_{1} \rightarrow \sigma_{2} \rightarrow \sigma_{3}$ stands for $\left(\sigma_{1} \rightarrow\left(\sigma_{2} \rightarrow \sigma_{3}\right)\right)$


## $\lambda \rightarrow$ - the language

## $M: \sigma$

## Definition

- Type assignment is an expression of the form $M: \sigma$, where $M$ is a $\lambda$-term and $\sigma$ is a type
- Declaration $x: \sigma$ is a type assignment in which the term is a variable
- Basis (context, environment) $\Gamma=\left\{x_{1}: \sigma_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: \sigma_{n}\right\}$ is a set of declarations in which all term variables are different
- Statement (sequent) $x_{1}: \sigma_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}: \sigma_{n} \vdash M: \sigma$
$(\Gamma \vdash M: \sigma)$


## $\lambda \rightarrow$ - the type system

à la Church and à la Curry

- Axiom
(Ax)

$$
\overline{\Gamma, x: \sigma \vdash x: \sigma}
$$

- Rules

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\rightarrow \text { elim }) \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash M: \sigma \rightarrow \tau}{\Gamma \vdash M N: \tau} \overline{\Gamma \vdash N: \sigma \vdash M: \tau} \\
\text { à la Church }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Running example: types

| $M$ | Type |
| :--- | :--- |
| $x y z$ | $x: \sigma \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \rho, y: \sigma, z: \tau \vdash x y z: \rho$ |
| $\lambda x \cdot z x$ | $z: \sigma \rightarrow \rho \vdash \lambda x \cdot z x: \sigma \rightarrow \rho$ |
| $\mathbf{I} \equiv \lambda x \cdot x$ | $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma$ |
| $\mathbf{K} \equiv \lambda x y \cdot x$ | $\sigma \rightarrow \rho \rightarrow \sigma$ |
| $\mathbf{S} \equiv \lambda x y z \cdot x z(y z)$ | $\sigma \rightarrow \rho \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow(\sigma \rightarrow \tau) \rightarrow(\sigma \rightarrow \rho)$ |
| $\Delta \equiv \lambda x \cdot x x$ | NO |
| $\mathbf{Y} \equiv \lambda f \cdot(\lambda x \cdot f(x x))(\lambda x \cdot f(x x))$ | NO |
| $\Omega \equiv \Delta \Delta \equiv(\lambda x \cdot x x)(\lambda x \cdot x x)$ | NO |

## I. $\lambda \rightarrow$ Fundamental properties

- Uniqueness of types If $\Gamma \vdash M: \sigma$ and $\Gamma \vdash M: \tau$, then $\sigma=\tau$
- Church-Rosser property holds in $\lambda \rightarrow$
- Subject reduction, type preservation under reduction If $M \longrightarrow P$ and $M: \sigma$, then $P: \sigma$.
- Broader context: evaluation of terms (expressions, programs, processes) does not cause the type change.
- type soundness
- type safety = progress and preservation


## II. $\lambda \rightarrow$ Strong normalisation

- Strong normalization

If $M: \sigma$, then $M$ is strongly normalizing.

- Tait 1967
- reducibility method (reducibility candidates, logical relations)
- arithmetic proofs


## III. $\lambda \rightarrow$ expressiveness

Selfapplication is not typable $\forall \lambda x . x x: \sigma$
Numerals are typeable
$\underline{n} \equiv \lambda f . \lambda x . f^{n} x:(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \quad$ (exercise)
$\underline{n} \equiv \lambda x . \lambda f . f^{n} x: \alpha \rightarrow(\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \quad$ (exercise)
Definition (Extended polynomials)
The smallest class of functions over $\mathbb{N}$

- constant functions 0 and 1
- projections
- addition
- multiplication
- ifzero( $n, m, p$ ) $:=$ if $n=0$ then $m$ else $p$
closed under composition


## Theorem

$M$ is typeable in $\lambda \rightarrow$ if and only if $M$ is an extended polynomial

## $\lambda \rightarrow$ and logic

Intuitionistic logic (minimal) - Natural deduction, Gentzen 1930s

- Axiom
(Ax)

$$
\overline{\Gamma, \sigma \vdash \sigma}
$$

- Rules
$\left(\rightarrow_{\text {elim }}\right)$

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash \sigma \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash \tau}
$$

$\left(\rightarrow_{\text {intr }}\right)$

$$
\frac{\Gamma, \sigma \vdash \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \sigma \rightarrow \tau}
$$

## $\lambda \rightarrow$ and logic

Intuitionistic logic (minimal) - Natural deduction, Gentzen 1930s

- Axiom
(Ax)

$$
\overline{\Gamma, x: \sigma \vdash x: \sigma}
$$

- Rules

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\left(\rightarrow_{\text {elim }}\right) & \frac{\Gamma \vdash M: \sigma \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash N: \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash M N: \tau} \\
\left(\rightarrow_{\text {intr }}\right) & \frac{\Gamma, x: \sigma \vdash M: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x \cdot M: \sigma \rightarrow \tau}
\end{array}
$$

IV. $\lambda \rightarrow$ Curry-Howard correspondence Intuitionistic logic vs computation

$$
\vdash \sigma \Leftrightarrow \vdash M: \sigma
$$

A formula is provable in minimal intuitionistic logic if and only if it is inhabited in $\lambda \rightarrow$.

- 1950s Curry
- 1968 (1980) Howard formulae-as-types
- 1970s Lambek - CCC Cartesian Closed Categories
- 1970s de Bruijn AUTOMATH
- 1970s Martin-Löf Type Theory

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\text { formulae (propositions) } & - \text { as- } & \text { types } \\
\text { proofs } & - \text { as }- & \text { terms } \\
\text { proofs } & - \text { as- } & \text { programs } \\
\text { proof normalisation } & \text {-as- } & \text { term reduction }
\end{array}
$$

- BHK - Brouwer, Heyting, Kolmogorov interpretation of logical connectives is formalized by the Curry-Howard correspondence


## 3 Type?

Type checking: given $M$ and $\sigma$

$$
(M: \sigma) ?
$$

Type inference (typability, type synthesis): given $M$

## M ?

Type inhabitation (term, program synthesis) : given $\sigma$
? : $\sigma$

## $\lambda \rightarrow 3$ Type?

Theorem
$\ln \lambda \rightarrow$

- Type checking ((M: $\sigma$ )?) is decidable
- Type inference ( $M$ :?) is decidable
- Type inhabitation (?: $\sigma$ ) is decidable


## $\lambda \rightarrow$ sum up

## Advantages

- All terms are SN
- Typability, inhabitation, type checking decidable
- Types exactly all extended polynomials


## Shortcomings

- no self-application
- no recursion
- no factorial
- no total functions
- not Turing complete


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