

# Functional Programming in Coq

Yuxin Deng

*East China Normal University*

[https://faculty.ecnu.edu.cn/\\_s43/dyx/main.psp](https://faculty.ecnu.edu.cn/_s43/dyx/main.psp)



September 1, 2022

## Reading materials

1. Lecture Notes on Functional Programming (in Chinese).  
[https://faculty.ecnu.edu.cn/\\_upload/article/files/0b/e3/ed18bad24dd9b9d44a7251fc3d1c/faa8ee9a-0273-465c-80bb-10e05427f8a4.pdf](https://faculty.ecnu.edu.cn/_upload/article/files/0b/e3/ed18bad24dd9b9d44a7251fc3d1c/faa8ee9a-0273-465c-80bb-10e05427f8a4.pdf)
2. The Coq proof assistant. <http://coq.inria.fr>
3. Benjamin C. Pierce et al. Software Foundations.  
<https://softwarefoundations.cis.upenn.edu>
4. Yves Bertot, Pierre Casteran. Coq'Art: The Calculus of Inductive Constructions. Springer-Verlag, 2004.

## FP Designers



Alonzo Church:  
lambda calculus  
1930's



Guy Steele & Gerry Sussman:  
Scheme  
late 1970's



Xavier Leroy:  
Ocaml  
1990's



John McCarthy:  
LISP  
1958



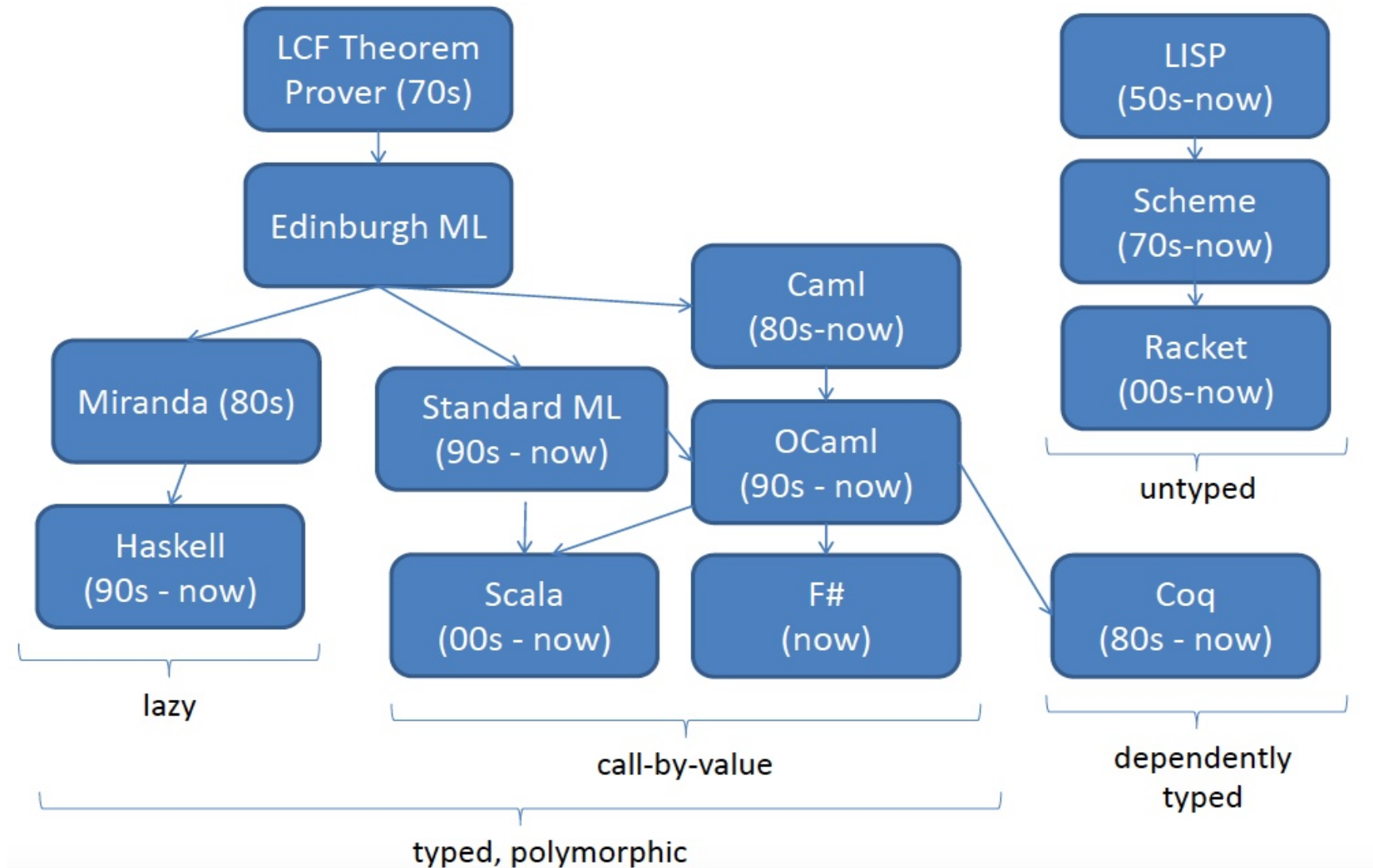
Robin Milner, Mads Tofte, & Robert Harper  
Standard ML  
1980's



Don Syme:  
F#  
2000's

from D. Walker's notes

## FP Geneology



## Coq Designers

- Started from an implementation of the Calculus of Constructions by Thierry Coquand and Gerard Huet in 1984.



- Extended to the Calculus of Inductive Constructions by Christine Paulin in 1991.



- Contributed by 50 people in 30 years.
- Received the 2013 ACM Software System Award

# The lambda calculus

# Computability

A question in the 1930's: what does it mean for a function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  to be computable?

Informally, there should be a **pencil-and-paper method** allowing a trained person to calculate  $f(n)$ , for **any given**  $n$ .

- Turing defined a **Turing machines** and postulated that a function is computable if and only if it can be computed by such a machine.
- Gödel defined the class of **general recursive functions** and postulated that a function is computable if and only if it is general recursive.
- Church defined the **lambda calculus** and postulated that a function is computable if and only if it can be written as a lambda term.

Church, Kleene, Rosser, and Turing proved that all three computational models were equivalent to each other.

## The untyped lambda calculus

**Def.** Assume an infinite set  $\mathcal{V}$  of **variables**, denoted by  $x, y, z, \dots$ . The set of lambda terms are defined by the Backus-Naur Form:

$$M, N ::= x \mid (MN) \mid (\lambda x.M)$$

Alternatively, the set of lambda terms is the smallest set  $\Lambda$  satisfying:

- whenever  $x \in \mathcal{V}$  then  $x \in \Lambda$  (**variables**)
- whenever  $M, N \in \Lambda$  then  $(MN) \in \Lambda$  (**applications**)
- whenever  $x \in \mathcal{V}$  and  $M \in \Lambda$  then  $(\lambda x.M) \in \Lambda$  (**lambda abstractions**)

E.g.  $(\lambda x.x)$        $((\lambda x.(xx))(\lambda y.(yy)))$        $(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f(fx))))$



## Convention

- Omit outermost parentheses. E.g., write  $MN$  instead of  $(MN)$ .
- Applications associate to the left, i.e.  $MNP$  means  $(MN)P$ .
- The body of a lambda abstraction (the part after the dot) extends as far to the right as possible. E.g,  $\lambda x.MN$  means  $\lambda x.(MN)$ , and not  $(\lambda x.M)N$ .
- Multiple lambda abstractions can be contracted; E.g., write  $\lambda xyz.M$  for  $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.M$ .

## Free and bound variables

An occurrence of a variable  $x$  inside  $\lambda x.N$  is said to be **bound**. The corresponding  $\lambda x$  is called a **binder**, and the subterm  $N$  is the **scope** of the binder. A variable occurrence that is not bound is **free**.

E.g. in  $M \equiv (\lambda x.xy)(\lambda y.yz)$ ,  $x$  is bound,  $z$  is free, variable  $y$  has both a free and a bound occurrence.

The set of free variables of term  $M$  is  $FV(M)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} FV(x) &= \{x\} \\ FV(MN) &= FV(M) \cup FV(N) \\ FV(\lambda x.M) &= FV(M) \setminus \{x\} \end{aligned}$$

## Renaming

Write  $M\{y/x\}$  for the renaming of  $x$  as  $y$  in  $M$ .

$$x\{y/x\} \equiv y$$

$$z\{y/x\} \equiv z, \quad \text{if } x \neq z$$

$$(MN)\{y/x\} \equiv (M\{y/x\})(N\{y/x\})$$

$$(\lambda x.M)\{y/x\} \equiv \lambda y.(M\{y/x\})$$

$$(\lambda z.M)\{y/x\} \equiv \lambda z.(M\{y/x\}), \quad \text{if } x \neq z$$

## $\alpha$ -equivalence

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{}{M = M} \\ M = N \\ \hline N = M \\ M = N \quad N = P \\ \hline M = P \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} M = M' \quad N = N' \\ \hline MN = M'N' \\ M = M' \\ \hline \lambda x.M = \lambda x.M' \\ y \notin V(M) \\ \hline \lambda x.M = \lambda y.M\{y/x\} \end{array}$$

$V(M)$  represents the set of variables in  $M$ .

## Substitution

The capture-avoiding substitution of  $N$  for free occurrences of  $x$  in  $M$ , in symbols  $M[N/x]$  is defined below:

$$x[N/x] \equiv N$$

$$y[N/x] \equiv y, \quad \text{if } x \neq y$$

$$(MP)[N/x] \equiv (M[N/x])(P[N/x])$$

$$(\lambda x.M)[N/x] \equiv \lambda x.M$$

$$(\lambda y.M)[N/x] \equiv \lambda y.(M[N/x]), \quad \text{if } x \neq y \text{ and } y \notin FV(N)$$

$$(\lambda y.M)[N/x] \equiv \lambda y'.(M\{y'/y\}[N/x]), \quad \text{if } x \neq y, y \in FV(N), \text{ and } y' \text{ fresh.}$$

## $\beta$ -reduction

**Convention:** we identify lambda terms up to  $\alpha$ -equivalence.

A term of the form  $(\lambda x.M)N$  is  $\beta$ -redex. It reduces to  $M[N/x]$  (the reduct).

A lambda term without  $\beta$ -redex is in  $\beta$ -normal form.

$$\begin{aligned}(\lambda x.y)(\underline{(\lambda z.zz)(\lambda w.w)}) &\longrightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x.y)(\underline{(\lambda w.w)(\lambda w.w)}) \\ &\longrightarrow_{\beta} \underline{(\lambda x.y)(\lambda w.w)} \\ &\longrightarrow_{\beta} y\end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{(\lambda x.y)(\lambda z.zz)(\lambda w.w)} \longrightarrow_{\beta} y$$

## Observation

- reducing a redex can create new redexes,
- reducing a redex can delete some other redexes,
- the number of steps that it takes to reach a normal form can vary, depending on the order in which the redexes are reduced.

## Evaluation

Write  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  for  $\rightarrow_{\beta}^*$ , the reflexive transitive closure of  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ . If  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'$  and  $M'$  is in normal form, then we say  $M$  evaluates to  $M'$ .

Not every term has a normal form.

$$\begin{aligned}(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} \dots\end{aligned}$$



## Formal definition of $\beta$ -reduction

The **single-step  $\beta$ -reduction** is the smallest relation  $\longrightarrow_\beta$  satisfying:

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x.M)N \longrightarrow_\beta M[N/x]}$$
$$\frac{M \longrightarrow_\beta M'}{MN \longrightarrow_\beta M'N}$$
$$\frac{N \longrightarrow_\beta N'}{MN \longrightarrow_\beta MN'}$$
$$\frac{M \longrightarrow_\beta M'}{\lambda x.M \longrightarrow_\beta \lambda x.M'}$$

Write  $M =_\beta M'$  if  $M$  can be transformed into  $M'$  by zero or more reductions steps and/or inverse reduction steps. Formally,  $=_\beta$  is the reflexive symmetric transitive closure of  $\longrightarrow_\beta$ .

## Programming in the untyped lambda calculus

Booleans: let  $\mathbf{T} = \lambda xy.x$  and  $\mathbf{F} = \lambda xy.y$ .

Let  $\mathbf{and} = \lambda ab.ab\mathbf{F}$ . Then

$$\mathbf{and\ TT} \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{T}$$

$$\mathbf{and\ TF} \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{F}$$

$$\mathbf{and\ FT} \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{F}$$

$$\mathbf{and\ FF} \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{F}$$

The above encoding is not unique. The “and” function can also be encoded as  $\lambda ab.bab$ .

## Other boolean functions

$$\mathbf{not} = \lambda a.a\mathbf{FT}$$

$$\mathbf{or} = \lambda ab.a\mathbf{T}b$$

$$\mathbf{xor} = \lambda ab.a(b\mathbf{FT})b$$

$$\mathbf{if-then-else} = \lambda x.x$$

$$\mathbf{if-then-else} \mathbf{T}MN \rightarrow_{\beta} M$$

$$\mathbf{if-then-else} \mathbf{F}MN \rightarrow_{\beta} N$$

## Natural numbers

Write  $f^n x$  for the term  $f(f(\dots(fx)\dots))$ , where  $f$  occurs  $n$  times. The  $n$ th Church numeral  $\bar{n} = \lambda f x. f^n x$ .

$$\bar{0} = \lambda f x. x$$

$$\bar{1} = \lambda f x. f x$$

$$\bar{2} = \lambda f x. f(fx)$$

...

## The successor function

Let **succ** =  $\lambda n f x. f(n f x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{succ} \bar{n} &= (\lambda n f x. f(n f x))(\lambda f x. f^n x) \\ &\longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda f x. f((\lambda f x. f^n x) f x) \\ &\twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda f x. f(f^n x) \\ &= \lambda f x. f^{n+1} x \\ &= \overline{n + 1} \end{aligned}$$

## Addition and multiplication

Let **add** =  $\lambda nmfx.nf(mfx)$  and **mult** =  $\lambda nmf.n(mf)$

**Exercises:** show that

$$\mathbf{add} \ \bar{n}\bar{m} \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \overline{n + m}$$

$$\mathbf{mult} \ \bar{n}\bar{m} \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \overline{n \cdot m}$$

**Exercise:** Let **iszero** =  $\lambda nxy.n(\lambda z.y)x$  and verify **iszero**(0) = **T** and **iszero**( $n + 1$ ) = **F**.

## Fixed points and recursive functions

**Thm.** In the untyped lambda calculus, every term  $F$  has a fixed point.

**Proof.** Let  $\Theta = AA$  where  $A = \lambda xy.y(xxy)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\Theta F &= AAF \\ &= (\lambda xy.y(xxy))AF \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} F(AAF) \\ &= F(\Theta F)\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\Theta F$  is a fixed point of  $F$ .

The term  $\Theta$  is called Turing's fixed point combinator.

## The factorial function

**fact**  $n$  = **if-then-else** (**iszero**  $n$ )( $\bar{1}$ )(**mult**  $n$ (**fact** (**pred**  $n$ )))

**fact** =  $\lambda n$ .**if-then-else** (**iszero**  $n$ )( $\bar{1}$ )(**mult**  $n$ (**fact** (**pred**  $n$ )))

**fact** = ( $\lambda f$ . $\lambda n$ .**if-then-else** (**iszero**  $n$ )( $\bar{1}$ )(**mult**  $n$ ( $f$ (**pred**  $n$ )))**fact**

**fact** =  $\Theta(\lambda f$ . $\lambda n$ .**if-then-else** (**iszero**  $n$ )( $\bar{1}$ )(**mult**  $n$ ( $f$ (**pred**  $n$ )))



## Other data types: pairs

Define  $\langle M, N \rangle = \lambda z. zMN$ . Let  $\pi_1 = \lambda p. p(\lambda xy. x)$  and  $\pi_2 = \lambda p. p(\lambda xy. y)$ .  
Observe that

$$\pi_1 \langle M, N \rangle \rightarrow_{\beta} M$$

$$\pi_2 \langle M, N \rangle \rightarrow_{\beta} N$$

## Tuples

Define  $\langle M_1, \dots, M_n \rangle = \lambda z. z M_1 \dots M_n$  and the  $i$ th projection  $\pi_1^n = \lambda p. p(\lambda x_1 \dots x_n. x_i)$ . Then

$$\pi_i^n \langle M_1, \dots, M_n \rangle \rightarrow_\beta M_i$$

for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

## Lists

Define  $\mathbf{nil} = \lambda xy.y$  and  $H :: T = \lambda xy.xHT$ . Then the function of adding a list of numbers can be:

$$\mathbf{addlist} \ l = l(\lambda ht.\mathbf{add} \ h(\mathbf{addlist} \ t))(\bar{0})$$

## Trees

A binary tree can be either a leaf, labeled by a natural number, or a node with two subtrees. Write **leaf**( $n$ ) for a leaf labeled  $n$ , and **node**( $L, R$ ) for a node with left subtree  $L$  and right subtree  $R$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{leaf}(n) &= \lambda xy.xn \\ \mathbf{node}(L, R) &= \lambda xy.yLR\end{aligned}$$

A program that adds all the numbers at the leaves of a tree:

$$\mathbf{addtree} \ t = t(\lambda n.n)(\lambda lr.\mathbf{add} \ (\mathbf{addtree} \ l)(\mathbf{addtree} \ r))$$

## $\eta$ -reduction

$$\lambda x.Mx \longrightarrow_{\eta} M, \text{ where } x \notin FV(M).$$

Define the single-step  $\beta\eta$ -reduction  $\longrightarrow_{\beta\eta} = \longrightarrow_{\beta} \cup \longrightarrow_{\eta}$  and the multi-step  $\beta\eta$ -reduction  $\twoheadrightarrow_{\beta\eta}$ .

## Church-Rosser Theorem

**Thm.** (Church and Rosser, 1936). Let  $\rightarrow\!\!\rightarrow$  denote either  $\rightarrow_\beta$  or  $\rightarrow_{\beta\eta}$ . Suppose  $M$ ,  $N$  and  $P$  are lambda terms such that  $M \rightarrow\!\!\rightarrow N$  and  $M \rightarrow\!\!\rightarrow P$ . Then there exists a lambda term  $Z$  such that  $N \rightarrow\!\!\rightarrow Z$  and  $P \rightarrow\!\!\rightarrow Z$ .

This is the Church-Rosser property or confluence.

See Section 4.4 of the  $\lambda$ -calculus lecture notes for the detailed proof.

## Some consequences of confluence

**Cor.** If  $M =_{\beta} N$  then there exists some  $Z$  with  $M, N \rightarrow_{\beta} Z$ . Similarly for  $\beta\eta$ .

**Cor.** If  $N$  is a  $\beta$ -normal form and  $M =_{\beta} N$ , then  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} N$ , and similarly for  $\beta\eta$ .

**Cor.** If  $M$  and  $N$  are  $\beta$ -normal forms such that  $M =_{\beta} N$ , then  $M =_{\alpha} N$ , and similarly for  $\beta\eta$ .

**Cor.** If  $M =_{\beta} N$ , then neither or both have a  $\beta$ -normal form, and similarly for  $\beta\eta$ .

## Simply-typed lambda calculus

Simple types: assume a set of basic types, ranged over by  $\iota$ . The set of simple types is given by

$$A, B ::= \iota \mid A \longrightarrow B \mid A \times B \mid 1$$

- $A \longrightarrow B$  is the type of functions from  $A$  to  $B$ .
- $A \times B$  is the type of pairs  $\langle x, y \rangle$
- $1$  is a one-element type, considered as “void” or “unit” type in many languages: the result type of a function with no real result.

**Convention:**  $\times$  binds stronger than  $\longrightarrow$  and  $\longrightarrow$  associates to the right.  
E.g.  $A \times B \longrightarrow C$  is  $(A \times B) \longrightarrow C$ , and  $A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C$  is  $A \longrightarrow (B \longrightarrow C)$ .



## Raw typed lambda terms

$$M, N ::= x \mid MN \mid \lambda x^A.M \mid \langle M, N \rangle \mid \pi_1 M \mid \pi_2 M \mid *$$

## Typing judgment

Write  $M : A$  to mean “ $M$  is of type  $A$ ”. A **typing judgment** is an expression of the form

$$x_1 : A_1, x_2 : A_2, \dots, x_n : A_n \vdash M : A$$

The meaning is: under the assumption that  $x_i$  is of type  $A_i$ , for  $i = 1 \dots n$ , the term  $M$  is a well-typed term of type  $A$ . The free variables of  $M$  must be contained in  $x_1, \dots, x_n$

The sequence of assumptions  $x_1 : A_1, x_2 : A_2, \dots, x_n : A_n$  is a **typing context**, written as  $\Gamma$ . The notations  $\Gamma, \Gamma'$  and  $\Gamma, x : A$  denote the concatenation of typing contexts, assuming the sets of variables are disjoint.

## Typing rules

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{}{\Gamma, x : A \vdash x : A} \\[1em] \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A \longrightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash N : A}{\Gamma \vdash MN : B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \pi_1 M : A} \\[1em] \frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash M : B}{\lambda x^A. M : A \longrightarrow B} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A \times B}{\Gamma \vdash \pi_2 M : B} \\[1em] \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A \quad \Gamma \vdash N : B}{\Gamma \vdash \langle M, N \rangle : A \times B} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash * : 1} \end{array}$$

## Typing derivation

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{x : A \rightarrow A, y : A \vdash x : A \rightarrow A} \quad \frac{}{x : A \rightarrow A, y : A \vdash y : A} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{x : A \rightarrow A, y : A \vdash x : A \rightarrow A} \quad \frac{}{x : A \rightarrow A, y : A \vdash xy : A} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{x : A \rightarrow A, y : A \vdash x(xy) : A} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{x : A \rightarrow A \vdash \lambda y^A. x(xy) : A \rightarrow A} \\
 \hline
 \frac{}{\vdash \lambda x^{A \rightarrow A}. \lambda y^A. x(xy) : (A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A \rightarrow A}
 \end{array}$$

## Reductions in the simply-typed lambda calculus

$\beta$ - and  $\eta$ -reductions:

$$(\lambda x^A.M)N \longrightarrow_{\beta} M[N/x]$$

$$\pi_1 \langle M, N \rangle \longrightarrow_{\beta} M$$

$$\pi_2 \langle M, N \rangle \longrightarrow_{\beta} N$$

$$\lambda x^A.Mx \longrightarrow_{\eta} M$$

$$\langle \pi_1 M, \pi_2 M \rangle \longrightarrow_{\eta} M$$

$$M \longrightarrow_{\eta} *, \quad \text{if } M : 1$$

## Subject reduction

**Thm.** If  $\Gamma \vdash M : A$  and  $M \longrightarrow_{\beta\eta} M'$ , then  $\Gamma \vdash M' : A$ .

**Proof:** By induction on the derivation of  $M \longrightarrow_{\beta\eta} M'$ , and by case distinction on the last rule used in the derivation of  $\Gamma \vdash M : A$ . □

## Church-Rosser

The Church-Rosser theorem does **not** hold for  $\beta\eta$ -reduction in the simply-typed  $\lambda^{\rightarrow, \times, 1}$ -calculus.

E.g. if  $x$  has type  $A \times 1$ , then

$$\langle \pi_1 x, \pi_2 x \rangle \longrightarrow_{\eta} x$$

$$\langle \pi_1 x, \pi_2 x \rangle \longrightarrow_{\eta} \langle \pi_1 x, * \rangle$$

Both  $x$  and  $\langle \pi_1 x, * \rangle$  are normal forms.

If we omit all the  $\eta$ -reductions and consider only  $\beta$ -reductions, then the Church-Rosser property does hold.

## Sum types

Simple types:

$$A, B ::= \dots \mid A + B \mid 0$$

Sum type is also known as “union” or “variant” type. The type  $0$  is the empty type, corresponding to the empty set in set theory.

Raw terms:

$$\begin{aligned} M, N, P \quad ::= \quad & \dots \mid in_1 M \mid in_2 M \\ & \mid \text{case } M \text{ of } x^A \Rightarrow N \mid y^B \Rightarrow P \\ & \mid \Box_A M \end{aligned}$$



## Typing rules for sums

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A}{\Gamma \vdash in_1 M : A + B}$$
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : B}{\Gamma \vdash in_2 M : A + B}$$
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A + B \quad \Gamma, x : A \vdash N : C \quad \Gamma, y : B \vdash P : C}{\Gamma \vdash (case\ M\ of\ x^A \Rightarrow N \mid y^B \Rightarrow P) : C}$$
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : 0}{\Gamma \vdash \Box_A M : A}$$

The booleans can be defined as  $1 + 1$  with  $\mathbf{T} = in_1*$ ,  $\mathbf{F} = in_2*$ , and **if-then-else**  $MNP = case\ M\ of\ x^1 \Rightarrow N \mid y^1 \Rightarrow P$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  don't occur in  $N$  and  $P$ . The term  $\Box_A M$  is a simple type cast.

## Weak and strong normalization

**Def.** A term  $M$  is **weakly normalizing** if there exists a finite sequence of reductions  $M \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow M_n$  such that  $M_n$  is a normal form. It is **strongly normalizing** if there does not exist an infinite sequence of reductions starting from  $M$ , i.e., if every sequence of reductions starting from  $M$  is finite.

- $\Omega = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$  is neither weakly nor strongly normalizing.
- $(\lambda x.y)\Omega$  is weakly normalizing, but not strongly normalizing.
- $(\lambda x.y)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))$  is strongly normalizing.
- Every normal form is strongly normalizing.

## Strong normalization

**Thm.** In the simply-typed lambda calculus, all terms are strongly normalizing.

A proof is given in the following book: J.-Y.Girard, Y.Lafont, and P.Taylor. *Proofs and Types*. Cambridge University Press, 1989.