

THEORY AND MODELS OF LAMBDA CALCULUS: UNTYPED AND TYPED

Session 1: *Introduction to Combinators and Lambda Calculus*

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The Key Questions

Is it possible to have a consistent
type-free theory of functions,
where no difference is made between
operators and ***arguments*** ?



And if so, what use is it?

And how would types be appropriate?

Combinatory Algebra

Constants:	S, K, I
Variables:	x, y, z, \dots
Combinations:	expressions built up from constants and variables using a binary <i>application operation</i> $M(N)$.
Combinators:	combinations <i>without</i> variables.
Interpretation:	<p>A combination $F(x)$ is meant to indicate the <i>evaluation</i> of a function F at an argument x.</p> <p>A combinator C applied to a list of combinations, such as $C(M_0)(M_1)\dots(M_{(n-1)})$, is meant to give us a <i>way</i> of making a <i>compound combination</i> from a number of given expressions.</p>

Note: When we construct **models**, we will add to these **logical combinators** additional basic **arithmetic combinators**.

The Combinatory Axioms

$$\exists x, y. [x \neq y]$$

$$K(x)(y) = x$$

$$I(x) = x$$

$$S(x)(y)(z) = x(z)(y(z))$$

$$\forall z. [x(z) = y(z)] \Rightarrow x = y$$

Note: In our first model, the last axiom will hold only for certain **special elements** x, y .

Easy Exercises: (1) Prove: $S(K)(K) = I$.

(2) Prove: $S \neq K$. (A better axiom?)

(3) Prove: $S(K)(K(I))(x)(y) = x(y)$.

Eliminating Variables

Metatheorem: Let M be a given combination with all variables in the set $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{(n-1)}\}$. Then we can find a **combinator** C for which it is provable that

$$C(x_0)(x_1)(x_2) \dots (x_{(n-1)}) = M.$$

Proof Idea: Given **one** variable x , define a mapping $M \mapsto (\lambda x.M)$ by structural recursion on combinations by:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.M) &= K(M) && \text{if } M \text{ does not contain } x; \\ (\lambda x.M) &= I && \text{if } M \text{ is the variable } x; \\ (\lambda x.M) &= S((\lambda x.P))((\lambda x.Q)) && \text{if otherwise } M = P(Q). \end{aligned}$$

Then, $C = (\lambda x.M)$ is a combination **not** containing x
for which $C(x) = M$ is **provable**.

Church Numerals

$$\underline{n}(f)(x) = f(f(f(\dots f(x)\dots)))$$

n-fold iteration

Beginning of arithmetic by Church and Rosser:

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{0} &= \lambda f. \lambda x. x \\ \underline{n+1} &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f(\underline{n}(f)(x)) \\ \underline{n+m} &= \lambda f. \lambda x. \underline{n}(f)(\underline{m}(f)(x)) \\ \underline{n \times m} &= \lambda f. \underline{n}(\underline{m}(f)) \\ \underline{m^n} &= \underline{n}(\underline{m})\end{aligned}$$

Key problem solved in Kleene's Ph.D.:

**How to define n-1 and all
primitive-recursive functions.**

Kleene Arithmetic

Paring by Combinators:

$\text{pair} = \lambda x . \lambda y . \lambda f . f (x) (y)$
 $\text{fst} = \lambda p . p (\lambda x . \lambda y . x)$
 $\text{snd} = \lambda p . p (\lambda x . \lambda y . y)$

Defining Predecessor:

$\text{succ} = \lambda n . \lambda f . \lambda x . f (n (f) (x))$
 $\text{shft} = \lambda s . \lambda p . \text{pair} (s (\text{fst} (p))) (\text{fst} (p))$
 $\text{pred} = \lambda n . \text{snd} (n (\text{shft} (\text{succ})) (\text{pair} (\underline{0}) (\underline{0})))$

Why It Works:

<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>...</u>	<u>n-1</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>n+1</u>	<u>...</u>
0	0	1	2	...	n-2	n-1	n	...

Reviewing Recursion

Some history: *Primitive recursive arithmetic* was first proposed by Thoralf Skolem in 1923. Our current terminology comes from Rózsa Péter in 1934, after Ackermann had found in 1928 a computable function which was **not** primitive recursive, an event which prompted the need to rename what until then were simply called recursive functions.

Definition. *Primitive recursive functions* are those generated from **constant** functions, **projection** functions, and the **successor** function by **composition** and **simple recursion**:

$$h(0, x) = f(x)$$

$$h(n+1, x) = g(n, x, h(n, x)),$$

where f and g are previously obtained functions.

Recursively enumerable sets (RE) are those of the form

$\{ m \mid \exists n. p(n) = m+1 \}$, with p primitive recursive.

Programming Primitive Recursion

$$\begin{aligned}h(\underline{0})(x) &= f(x) \\ h(\underline{n+1})(x) &= g(\underline{n})(x)(h(\underline{n})(x))\end{aligned}$$

Finding a Combination:

step = $\lambda x. \lambda p. \text{pair}(\text{succ}(\text{fst}(p)))(g(\text{fst}(p))(x)(\text{snd}(p)))$
h = $\lambda n. \lambda x. \text{snd}(n(\text{step}(x))(\text{pair}(\underline{0})(f(x))))$

- Exercises:**
- (1) Why does this work?
 - (2) Explain how to program this recursion:

$$\begin{aligned}k(\underline{0})(x) &= f(x) \\ k(\underline{1})(x) &= g(x) \\ k(\underline{n+2})(x) &= h(\underline{n})(x)(k(\underline{n})(x))(k(\underline{n+1})(x))\end{aligned}$$

- (3) Use combinators to eliminate mention of the extra variable.

The Fixed-Point Operator

Definition: $Y = \lambda f. (\lambda x. f(x(x))) (\lambda x. f(x(x)))$

Theorem: $Y(f) = f(Y(f))$

Exercises:

(1) Let $L = Y(K)$. Show $L(L) = L$.

(2) Does $L = K$?

Definitions:

$\text{test} = \lambda n. \lambda u. \lambda v. \text{snd}(n(\text{shft}(\lambda x. x))(\text{pair}(v)(u)))$

$\text{mult} = \lambda n. \lambda m. \lambda f. n(m(f))$

$\text{fact} = Y(\lambda f. \lambda n. \text{test}(n)(1)(\text{mult}(n)(f(\text{pred}(n)))))$

(3) Prove: $\text{fact}(\underline{n}) = \underline{n}!$.

Metatheorem: Combinatory Algebra, as a first-order theory,
is essentially undecidable.

Axioms for λ -Calculus

- Constants:** none
- Variables:** x, y, z, \dots
- Terms:** expressions built up from variables using a binary **application operation** $M(N)$ and a variable-binding operation of **λ -abstraction** $(\lambda x.M)$.
- Substitutions:** $M[N/x]$ is defined for each variable x by replacing all **free** occurrences of x in M by a copy of N — **provided that** no free variables in N get captured by a variable binder in M .

Axioms: *(provided the substitutions are defined)*

$$(\lambda x.M) = (\lambda y.M[y/x])$$

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

$$(\lambda x.f(x)) = f$$

Metatheorem: With suitable combinator definitions the two first-order theories are logically equivalent.