Functional Programming in Coq

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Reading materials

- 1. The Coq proof assistant. http://coq.inria.fr
- 2. Benjamin C. Pierce et al. Software Foundations. https://softwarefoundations.cis.upenn.edu
- 3. 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



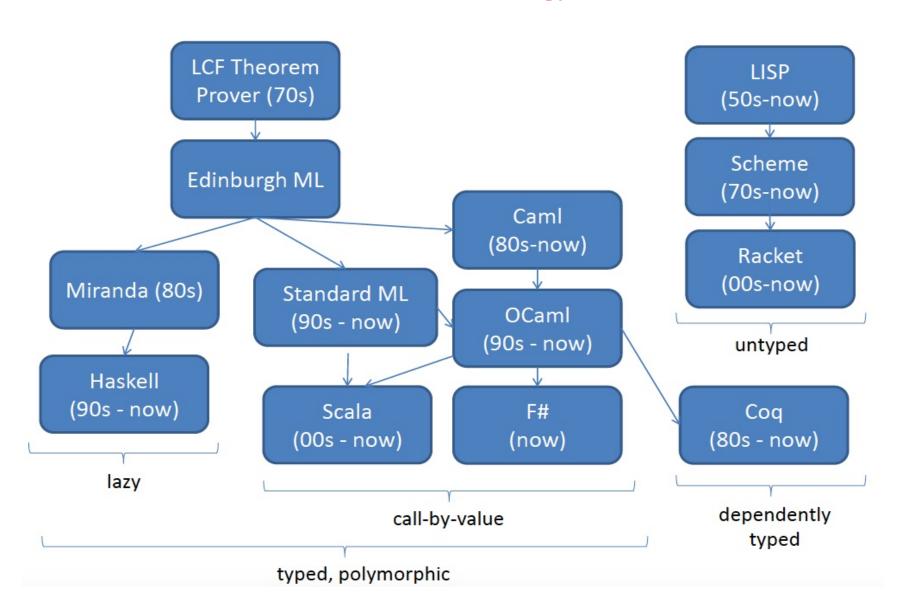
Robin Milner, Mads Tofte, & Robert Harper Standard ML 1980's



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 $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ 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.

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

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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 λx 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):

$$FV(x) = \{x\}$$

$$FV(MN) = FV(M) \cup FV(N)$$

$$FV(\lambda x.M) = FV(M) \setminus \{x\}$$

Renaming

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

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

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

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

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

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

α -equivalence

$$M = M'$$
 $N = N'$
 $M = M$
 $MN = M'N'$
 $M = N$
 $N = M'$
 $N = M'$

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.}
```

β -reduction

Convention: we identify lambda terms up to α -equivalence.

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

A lambda term without β -redex is in β -normal form.

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

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

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

Not every term has a normal form.

$$(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) \longrightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)$$
$$\longrightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)$$
$$\longrightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

Formal definition of β -reduction

The single-step β -reduction is the smallest relation \longrightarrow_{β} satisfying:

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

$$M \longrightarrow_{\beta} M'$$

$$MN \longrightarrow_{\beta} M'N$$

$$N \longrightarrow_{\beta} N'$$

$$MN \longrightarrow_{\beta} MN'$$

$$M \longrightarrow_{\beta} M'$$

$$\lambda x.M \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.M'$$

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_{β} .

Programming in the untyped lambda calculus

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

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

and TT $\rightarrow \beta$ T

and TF \rightarrow_{β} F

and FT \rightarrow_{β} F

and FF \rightarrow_{β} F

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

Other boolean functions

$$not = \lambda a.aFT$$

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

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

if-then-else =
$$\lambda x.x$$

if-then-else
$$TMN \rightarrow_{\beta} M$$

if-then-else
$$FMN \rightarrow_{\beta} N$$

Natural numbers

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

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

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

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

The successor function

Let $\mathbf{succ} = \lambda n f x. f(n f x)$.

succ
$$\bar{n}$$
 = $(\lambda n f x. f(n f x))(\lambda f x. f^n x)$
 $\longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda f x. f((\lambda f x. f^n x) f x)$
 $\longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda f x. f(f^n x)$
= $\lambda f x. f^{n+1} x$
= $\overline{n+1}$

Addition and mulplication

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

Exercises: show that

add
$$\bar{n}\bar{m} \longrightarrow_{\beta} \overline{n+m}$$

mult
$$\bar{n}\bar{m} \longrightarrow_{\beta} \overline{n \cdot m}$$

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 $A = \lambda xy.y(xxy)$.

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

Thus ΘF is a fixed point of F.

The term Θ is called Turing's fixed point combinator.

The factorial function

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

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

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

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

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

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

Tuples

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

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

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

Lists

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

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

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.

$$\mathbf{leaf}(n) = \lambda xy.xn$$

$$\mathbf{node}(L,R) = \lambda xy.yLR$$

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

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

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η -reduction

 $\lambda x.Mx \longrightarrow_{\eta} M$, 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 denote either \rightarrow_{β} or $\rightarrow_{\beta\eta}$. Suppose M, N and P are lambda terms such that $M \rightarrow N$ and $M \rightarrow P$. Then there exists a lambda term Z such that $N \rightarrow Z$ and $P \rightarrow Z$.

This is the Church-Rosser property or confluence.

See Section 4.4 of the λ -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 β -normal form and $M =_{\beta} N$, then $M \to_{\beta} N$, and similarly for $\beta \eta$.

Cor. If M and N are β -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 β -normal form, and similarly for $\beta \eta$.

Simply-typed lambda calculus

Simple types: assume a set of basic types, ranged over by ι . 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

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

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

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

Typing rules

Typing derivation

$$x: A \to A, y: A \vdash x: A \to A \qquad x: A \to A, y: A \vdash y: A$$

$$x: A \to A, y: A \vdash xy: A$$

$$x: A \to A, y: A \vdash x(xy): A$$

$$x: A \to A \vdash \lambda y^A. x(xy): A \to A$$

$$\vdash \lambda x^{A \to A}. \lambda y^A. x(xy): (A \to A) \to A$$

Reductions in the simply-typed lambda calculus

 β - and η -reductions:

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

$$\pi_{1}\langle M, N \rangle \longrightarrow_{\beta} M$$

$$\pi_{2}\langle M, N \rangle \longrightarrow_{\beta} N$$

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

$$\langle \pi_{1}M, \pi_{2}M \rangle \longrightarrow_{\eta} M$$

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

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 $\Gamma \vdash M : A$.

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Church-Rosser

The Church-Rosser theorem does not hold for $\beta\eta$ -reduction in the simply-typed $\lambda^{\to,\times,1}$ -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 η -reductions and consider only β -reductions, then the Church-Rosser property does hold.

Sum types

Simple types:

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

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:

$$M, N, P ::= ... \mid in_1 M \mid in_2 M$$

$$\mid case \ M \ of \ x^A \Rightarrow N \mid y^B \Rightarrow P$$

$$\mid \Box_A M$$

Typing rules for sums

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A}{\Gamma \vdash in_{1}M : A + B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : B}{\Gamma \vdash in_{2}M : A + B}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : A + B}{\Gamma \vdash (case\ M\ of\ x^{A} \Rightarrow N\ | y^{B} \Rightarrow P) : C}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash M : 0}{\Gamma \vdash \Box_{A}M : A}$$

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

Weak and strong normalization

Def. A term M is weakly normalizing if there exists a finite sequence of reductions $M \to M_1 \to ... \to M_n$ 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.