The Lambda Calculus, its Syntax and Semantics 40 years later

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Introduction

Theoretical Foundations of Computer Science

Turing Machines

Alan Turing \simeq 1936 Manipulating symbols via primitive instructions.



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The Lambda Calculus

Church \simeq 1932 Based on a primitive notion of function.

- variable: x
- abstraction: $\lambda x.P$, read f(x) = P
- application: PQ, read P(Q)

Computation becomes substitution: $(\lambda x.P)Q \rightarrow_{\beta} P[x := Q]$

Self-reference

Russell's paradox. Let $R = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$, then $R \in R \iff R \notin R$.

Turing Machines and the Halting Problem



Key point: Encode programs with natural numbers: P(n) where n = #P

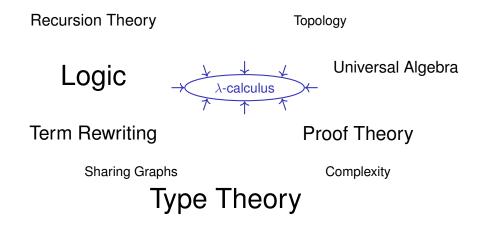
Lambda calculus

Programs can be seen both as functions and as arguments.

$$\Omega = (\lambda x. xx)(\lambda x. xx) \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \cdots$$

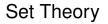
A wealth of techniques are employed



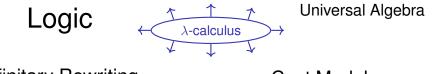


Lambda calculus has many applications

Programming Languages



Proof Assistants



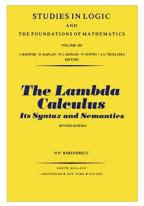
Infinitary Rewriting

Cost Models

Type Systems

Introduction

The "Bible" of Lambda Calculus — 1981/84



The Lambda Calculus Its Syntax and Semantics



by Henk Barendregt

Best seller, translated in

- Russian (MIR),
- Chinese (Nanjing University Press).
- > 11 000 copies sold.

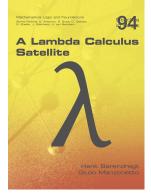
Problems & conjectures:

- Complexity of $\lambda \omega$,
- Range property for \mathcal{H} ,
- Sallé's conjecture,
- Bijectivity in $\lambda \eta$

o . . .

Introduction

The "New Testament" of λ -calculus?



A Lambda Calculus Satellite



by Henk Barendregt



& Giulio Manzonetto

Contents in short

About λ -calculus xv
About this book xxvii
Acknowledgements xxxvii
General notations xxxix

I Preliminaries

1	The λ -calculus in a nutshell
2	Böhm trees and variations
3	Theories and models of λ -calculus55

II Reduction

4	Leaving a β -reduction plane
5	Optimal lambda reduction93
6	Infinitary lambda calculus
7	Starlings
11	I Conversion

8	Perpendicular	Lines	Property	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	21	5
---	---------------	-------	----------	-----	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	---

9 Bijectivity and invertibility in $\lambda \eta \dots 227$

IV Theories

10 Sensible theories	l
11 The kite	,

V Models

12 Ordered models and theories
13 Filter models
14 Relational models
15 Church algebras for λ -calculus411

VI Open Problems

VII Appendix

Α	Mathen	natical	ba	ckg	rou	nd	••	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	465
Re	ferences						•••	• •		• •		• •	526
Inc	dices												527

Overview of this talk

- 1. The plane conjecture
- 2. Bijectivity and invertibility in $\lambda \eta$
- 3. Dance of the starlings

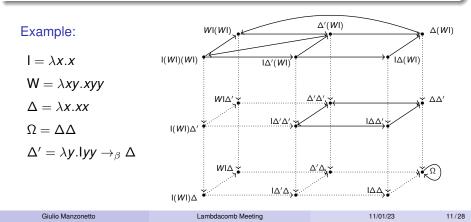
[Reduction] [Conversion] [Combinatory Logic]

- Reduction - Leaving a β -reduction plane

A β -reduction plane

Definition

- (i) Define an equivalence relation: $M \circ N \iff M \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} N \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M$.
- (ii) Planes = the equivalence classes $[M]_{\odot}$.
- (iii) *M* is an exit (of its plane) if $M \rightarrow_{\beta} N$ and $N \notin [M]_{\circlearrowright}$.



The Plane Conjecture

"If a plane has an exit point, then every point of the plane is an exit." Klop's conjecture (1980)

Theorem (Mulder 1984 / Sekimoto-Hirokawa 1986)

The plane conjecture is invalid.

PROOF (MULDER). Define

 $H = \lambda fg.ff(\lambda y.g(gy)),$ $P = (\lambda x.l)z, \text{ for a variable } z,$ $P^{\eta} = \lambda x.Px.$

Then $M = HH(\lambda y.P(Py))$ is not an exit, but reduces to one. so the variable *z* is erased forever,

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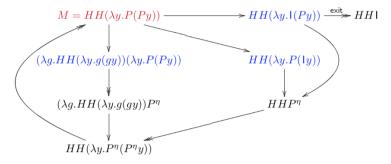
One has $P \rightarrow_{\beta} I$, so the variable *z* is erased forever, $P^{\eta} = \lambda x.Px \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.Ix \rightarrow_{\beta} I$ $P^{\eta}X \rightarrow_{\beta} PX \rightarrow_{\beta} IX \rightarrow_{\beta} X$

Mulder's Proof (continues...)

Consider $M = HH(\lambda y. P(Py))$. The only three 1-step reducts are the following

 $(\lambda g.HH(\lambda y.g(gy))(\lambda y.P(Py)), HH(\lambda y.I(Py)), HH(\lambda y.P(Iy)))$

These all three flow back to M and hence are in its plane:



Hence M is not an exit. But $N = HH(\lambda y. \mathbf{1}(Py)) \rightarrow HH(\lambda y. \mathbf{1}(|y|)) \twoheadrightarrow HH\mathbf{1}$, and the latter misses the free variable z, so cannot be in the plane of M. So N is an exit. \Box

— Conversion —

Does bijectivity correspond to invertibility modulo $\beta\eta$?

Bijectivity vs Invertibility

In Set Theory:

```
f is bijective \iff f is invertible
```

More precisely:

- (i) *f* is injective \iff *f* is left-invertible (assuming the excluded middle).
- (ii) *f* is surjective \iff *f* is right-invertible (assuming AC).

In λ -calculus:

A (closed) λ -term F is bijective if it is

- injective: $\forall X, Y \in \Lambda^o$. $FX = FY \Rightarrow X = Y;$
- and surjective: $\forall Y \in \Lambda^o, \exists X \in \Lambda^o . FX = Y.$

A (closed) λ -term *F* is invertible if it is

- left-invertible: $\exists L \in \Lambda^o . L \circ F = I;$
- and right-invertible: $\exists R \in \Lambda^o$. $I = F \circ R$.

Bijectivity vs Invertibility

In Set Theory:

f is bijective $\iff f$ is invertible

More precisely:

- (i) *f* is injective \iff *f* is left-invertible (assuming the excluded middle).
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In λ -calculus:

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A (closed) λ -term F is invertible if it is

- left-invertible: $\exists L \in \Lambda^o . L \circ F = I;$
- and right-invertible: $\exists R \in \Lambda^o$. $I = F \circ R$.

Does bijectivity correspond to invertibility for $=_{\beta\eta}$?

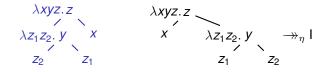
For set-theoretic reasons:

F invertible \Rightarrow F bijective

Question: *F* bijective \Rightarrow *F* invertible?

Theorem [Dezani 1974 & Bergstra-Klop 1982]

F is invertible \iff *F* is a hereditary permutation of a finite η -expansion of I.



Proposition [Batenburg-Velmans 1983]

F is injective and right-invertible \Rightarrow *F* invertible

Giulio Manzonetto

Lambdacomb Meeting

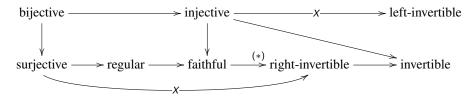
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A positive answer by Folkerts

Theorem [Folkerts 1995]

Modulo $\beta\eta$: *F* bijective \iff *F* invertible.

PROOF. The usual (injective \Rightarrow L-invertible, surjective \Rightarrow R-inv) doesn't work.



where

- *F* is regular if $F =_{\beta\eta} \lambda x \vec{y} \cdot x P_1 \cdots P_k$.
- *F* is faithful if $F =_{\beta\eta} \lambda x \vec{y} \cdot x P_1 \cdots P_k$, such that the P_i 's are unsolvable or have one of the *y*'s as free head-variable.

Interesting analysis of unsolvables...

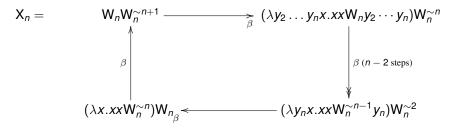
The most difficult part is to prove

surjective & faithful \Rightarrow right-invertible

Folkerts needs infinitely many unsolvables remaining essentially different. This happens when they have a different 'unsolvable core':

$$X_n = W_n W_n^{\sim n+1}$$
, where
 $W_n = \lambda y_1 \dots y_n x . x x y_1 \dots y_n$

Their looping reduction graph is:



Dance of the starlings

Combinatory logic

Curry&Schönfinkel's combinatory logic is based on two 'combinators':

In Smullyan's beautiful fable about combinators figuring as birds in an enchanted forest, S is the starling.

Theorem

Combinatory logic is (almost) as powerful as λ -calculus.

Idea: Every λ -term is expressible as a combination of K and S.

The S-fragment of CL

What about the fragment S containing exclusively S?

$$Sxyz \rightarrow_w xz(yz)$$

Examples:

 $S, SSS(SSS)S, SS(SS)(SSS), \ldots$

Some properties:

- Not as powerful as the λ -calculus (no cancellation).
- Reduction \rightarrow_w is confluent.
- The anti-reduction $_{w} \leftarrow$ is strongly normalizable.
- S-terms tends to grow in size along reduction.
- (S, \rightarrow_w) is acyclic: $\forall P \in S, \nexists Q \in S . P \rightarrow_w Q \twoheadrightarrow_w P$.

Is there a non-terminating S-term?

How to construct a non-terminating term?

Look for a 'spiralling' term P, i.e.: $P \rightarrow^+_w C[P]$, for some context C[].

Waldmann 2000

There is no spiralling $P \in S$.

Property

For every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a $P_k \in S$ such that

 $k < \operatorname{growth}(P_k) < \infty.$

where

$$\operatorname{growth}(\boldsymbol{P}) = \begin{cases} \frac{\operatorname{size}(nf_w(\boldsymbol{P}))}{\operatorname{size}(\boldsymbol{P})}, & \text{if } \boldsymbol{P} \text{ has a } \boldsymbol{w}\text{-nf;} \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Non-terminating S-terms

P	Year found	Ву
(SSS)(SSS)(SSS)	1975	Barendregt
S(SS)SSSS	1976	Dubou&Baron
S(SSS)(SSS)(S(SSS)(SSS))	1976	Pettorossi
S(SS)(SS)(S(SS)(SS))	1978	Zachos

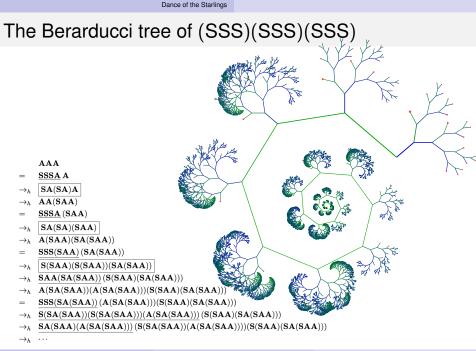
$$\begin{array}{l} A = SSS \quad ; \quad A \times Y = \times Y(GT(Y) \\ A = A A (SAA) = A(BAA)(SA(SAA)) \geq SAA(SA(SAAAAA)(SC(SAA)(SA(SAA)))) \geq A(FA(SAA))(A(SA(SAA))) \\ \geq SA(SAA)(A(SA(SAA))) (S(SA(SAA))) (S(SA(SAA))(A(SA(SAA)))) (S(SAA)(SA(SAA)))) \geq A(FA(SAA))) \\ \geq A(SA(SAA))(SAA(A(SA(SAA)))) - - \geq SA(SAA)(SA(SAA)(SA(SAA)))) = A(SAA) \\ \geq SAA(A(SA(SAA))(SAA(A(SA(SAA))))) - - \geq A^{2}(SA(SAA))(A^{2}(SA(SAA)))) \geq A(SAA) \\ \geq SAA(A(SA(SAA))(A^{2}(A(SAA)))) \geq SA(SAA)(A^{2}(SA(SAA))) \geq A^{2}(SA(SAA))) \geq A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SAA))) = A^{2}(SA(SAA)) = A^{2}(SA(SA)) = A^{2}(SA(SA)) = A^{2}(SA(SA)) = A^{2$$

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S(SS)(SS)(S(SS)(SS))	1978	Zachos

It makes sense to define the Berarducci tree BeT(P) of an S-term. Idea:

- 'push' the reduction into infinity;
- collect the 'stable pieces' of the term in a tree-like structure.



Decidable properties

Theorem (Waldmann 1998)

(Strong) normalization of S-terms is decidable in linear time.

Proof: Waldmann constructed a finite state automaton accepting the normalizing S-terms only.

Theorem (Padovani 2020)

Head normalization of S-terms is decidable.

Proof: Padovani gave a criterion characterizing head-normalizable terms.

Berarducci trees equality

Define:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{S}_1 & = & \mathsf{S}, \\ \mathsf{S}_{n+1} & = & \mathsf{S}(\mathsf{S}_n), & \mathrm{for} \; n > 1. \end{array}$$

Theorem (Padovani 2020)

Let

$$\begin{array}{rcl} A & = & S(S_4(S_4S_3))(S(S_2S_3)S_3), \\ B & = & S(S_3S_3)(S_4S_3). \end{array}$$

Then

- $AA \neq_w BB$, but
- BeT(AA) = BeT(BB).

Open problem

The word problem: Is w-conversion decidable for S-terms?

Padovani's example shows that $=_{W}$ is not the equality of Berarducci trees.

THE END

(THANKS)