

Introduction to Theoretical Computer Science

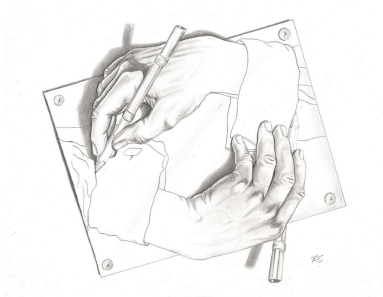
Lecture 15: Recursion and Typed λ -Calculus

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Puzzle



Puzzle

Find a λ -term $\mathcal{Y}$ such that

$$\mathcal{Y} f \mapsto_{\beta}^{\star} f (\mathcal{Y} f)$$

The Y Combinator

The term we are looking for is called a **fixed point combinator**.
They are the way we achieve **recursion** in the λ -calculus.

Example (Recursive functions)

Exercise: Assuming a definition for $\mathcal{Y}$, as well as If, Equal, Add and Suc, define a recursive function to compute the sum of every natural number in the interval $[a, b]$.

To find $\mathcal{Y}$, we can draw inspiration from our previous diverging example:

$$(\lambda x. (x\ x)) (\lambda x. (x\ x))$$

and define $\mathcal{Y}$ as follows:

$$\mathcal{Y} \equiv (\lambda f. (\lambda x. f\ (x\ x)) (\lambda x. f\ (x\ x)))$$

Exercise: Let's demonstrate that $\mathcal{Y}\ g \equiv_{\beta} g\ (\mathcal{Y}\ g)$

Higher Order Logic

Originally, λ -calculus was intended for use as a term language for a logic, called *higher-order logic*. The existence of terms like $\mathcal{Y}$ poses a problem for this, as, for example:

$$\mathcal{Y} \neg \equiv_{\beta} \neg (\mathcal{Y} \neg)$$

It certainly isn't good to have a logical term that is equal to its own negation! Church solves this with *types*.

Adding Types

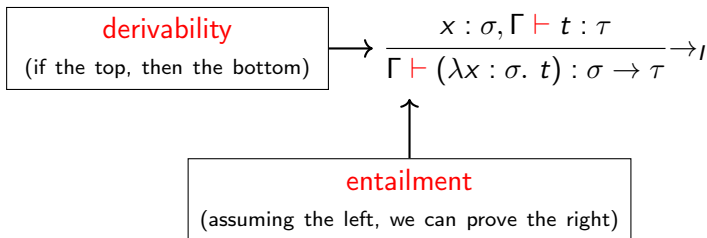
- Fix a set of *base types* (nat, bool, etc.)
- If σ and τ are types, then $\sigma \rightarrow \tau$ is a type of a *function* from σ to τ . Like Haskell, it is right-associative: $\sigma \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \rho = \sigma \rightarrow (\tau \rightarrow \rho)$
- A λ -abstraction now additionally specifies the type of the parameter:
 $\lambda x : \tau. t$

Natural Deduction

Logic and Types

We can specify a logical system as a *deductive system* by providing a set of *rules* and *axioms* that describe how to prove various connectives. We can specify typing the same way!

For example, to prove a λ -abstraction $\lambda x : \sigma. t$ has type $\sigma \rightarrow \tau$, we must show that the function body t has type τ assuming x has type σ . This rule is written as:



Typing

The full set of rules for the *simply typed λ -calculus* is as follows:

$$\frac{x : \tau \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau} A \qquad \frac{x : \sigma, \Gamma \vdash t : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : \sigma. t) : \sigma \rightarrow \tau} \rightarrow I$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \sigma \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash u : \sigma}{\Gamma \vdash t u : \tau} \rightarrow E$$

Example (Typing)

- By drawing a *proof tree*, and assuming `Add` has type `nat  $\rightarrow$  nat  $\rightarrow$  nat`, show that `( $\lambda x : \text{nat}. \text{Add } x \ x$ )` has type `nat  $\rightarrow$  nat`
- Show that our non-terminating term `( $\lambda x. x \ x$ )( $\lambda x. x \ x$ )` cannot be typed. Similarly show that `$\mathcal{Y}$` cannot be typed.

General Types

- The most general type of a λ -term is the type that makes the **least assumptions**, e.g., a generic type name τ is more general than nat , since it is possible that $\tau = \text{nat}$, but τ could also be something else.
- Similarly, type α is more general than $\tau \rightarrow \tau$. (Since α could be anything, and need not be a function type.)
- Similarly $\tau \rightarrow \tau'$ is more general than $\tau \rightarrow \text{nat}$ or $\text{nat} \rightarrow \tau'$.
- Similarly $\tau \rightarrow \tau'$ is more general than $\tau \rightarrow \tau$, since τ' could be different from τ .
- The most general type can be found using the inference rules for typing terms and using generic general type names in the base cases.

Some Results

Uniqueness of types In a given context (types for free variables), any simply typed λ -terms has at most one type. Deciding this is in **P**.

Subject reduction (type safety) Typing respects $\equiv_{\alpha\beta\eta}$, i.e. reduction does not affect a term's type.

Strong normalisation Any well-typed term evaluates in finitely many reductions to a unique irreducible term. If the type is a base type, this term is a constant.

We lost recursion!

We have seen that $\mathcal{Y}$ cannot be typed, and **strong normalisation** means that no such combinator could exist in simply typed λ -calculus.

Adding recursion back in

If we want to do general computation in our λ -calculus, we need recursion back. So, we just extend the typed λ -calculus with a new built-in feature, called **fix**:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \tau \rightarrow \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fix} \ t : \tau}$$

And we extend β -reduction to unroll our recursion one step:

$$\mathbf{fix} \ (\lambda x : \tau. \ t) \quad \mapsto_{\beta} \quad t[\mathbf{fix} \ (\lambda x : \tau. \ t) / x]$$

Now we can use **fix** as we used $\mathcal{Y}$ in our untyped setting.

Total Programming

Some type-theoretic languages (Agda, Idris) **avoid** adding general recursion to their underlying λ -calculus. Let's talk about why they did that!

Product Types

Lets extend our simple lambda calculus with some other **composite types**, such as **product types** or tuples:

$$\tau_1 \times \tau_2$$

We won't have type declarations, named fields or anything like that. More than two values can be combined by nesting products, for example a three dimensional vector:

$$\text{nat} \times (\text{nat} \times \text{nat})$$

Constructors and Elimimators

We can **construct** a product type similarly to Haskell tuples:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 \times \tau_2} \times_I$$

The only way to extract each component of the product is to use the `fst` and `snd` eliminators:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } e : \tau_1} \times_{E1} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } e : \tau_2} \times_{E2}$$

Semantics

We extend our notion of β -reduction to describe how these new built-in features evaluate:

$$\text{fst } (v_1, v_2) \mapsto_{\beta} v_1 \qquad \text{snd } (v_1, v_2) \mapsto_{\beta} v_2$$

Unit Types

Currently, we have no way to express a type with just **one** value. This may seem useless at first, but it becomes useful in combination with other types. We'll introduce a new base type, **1**, pronounced *unit*, that has exactly one inhabitant, written `()`:

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash () : \mathbf{1}}$$

Disjunctive Composition

We can't, with just our product types, express a type with exactly **three** values.

Example (Trivalued type)

```
data TrafficLight = Red | Amber | Green
```

In general we want to express data that can be **one** of multiple **alternatives**, that contain different bits of data.

Example (More elaborate alternatives)

```
type Length = Int
type Angle = Int
data Shape = Rect Length Length
           | Circle Length | Point
           | Triangle Angle Length Length
```

Sum Types

We will use *sum types* to express the possibility that data may be one of two forms.

$$\tau_1 + \tau_2$$

This is similar to the Haskell `Either` type.

Our `TrafficLight` type can be expressed (grotesquely) as a sum of units:

$$\text{TrafficLight} \simeq \mathbf{1} + (\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{1})$$

Constructors and Elimimators for Sums

To make a value of type $\tau_1 + \tau_2$, we invoke one of two **constructors**:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{InL } e : \tau_1 + \tau_2} +I1 \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{InR } e : \tau_1 + \tau_2} +I2$$

We can branch based on which alternative is used using **pattern matching**:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \quad x : \tau_1, \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad y : \tau_2, \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{case } e \text{ of InL } x \rightarrow e_1; \text{InR } y \rightarrow e_2) : \tau} +E$$

Examples

Example (Traffic Lights)

Our traffic light type has three values as required:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{TrafficLight} &\simeq \mathbf{1} + (\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{1}) \\ \text{Red} &\simeq \text{InL } () \\ \text{Amber} &\simeq \text{InR } (\text{InL } ()) \\ \text{Green} &\simeq \text{InR } (\text{InR } ())\end{aligned}$$

Semantics

$(\text{case } (\text{InL } v) \text{ of } \text{InL } x \rightarrow e_1; \text{InR } y \rightarrow e_2) \mapsto_{\beta} e_1[v/x]$

$(\text{case } (\text{InR } v) \text{ of } \text{InL } x \rightarrow e_1; \text{InR } y \rightarrow e_2) \mapsto_{\beta} e_2[v/y]$

The Empty Type

We add another type, called **0**, that has **no** inhabitants. Because it is empty, there is no way to construct it.

We do have a way to eliminate it, however:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbf{0}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{absurd } e : \tau} \mathbf{0}_E$$

If I have a variable of the **empty** type in scope, we must be looking at an expression that will **never** be evaluated. Therefore, we can assign any type we like to this expression, because it will never be executed.

Examining our Types

Lets look at the rules for typed lambda calculus extended with sums and products:

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : 0}{\Gamma \vdash \text{absurd } e : \tau} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash () : 1} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{lnL } e : \tau_1 + \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{lnR } e : \tau_1 + \tau_2} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \quad x : \tau_1, \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad y : \tau_2, \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{case } e \text{ of lnL } x \rightarrow e_1; \text{lnR } y \rightarrow e_2) : \tau} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 \times \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fst } e : \tau_1} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{snd } e : \tau_2} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ e_2 : \tau_2} \qquad \frac{x : \tau_1, \Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \end{array}$$

Squinting a Little

Lets remove all the **terms**, leaving just the types and the contexts:

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{\Gamma \vdash 0}{\Gamma \vdash \tau} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash 1} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 + \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 + \tau_2} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 + \tau_2 \quad \tau_1, \Gamma \vdash \tau \quad \tau_2, \Gamma \vdash \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \tau} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \times \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \times \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_2} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\tau_1, \Gamma \vdash \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \end{array}$$

Does this resemble anything you've seen before?

A surprising coincidence!

Types are exactly the same structure as *intuitionistic logic*:

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{\Gamma \vdash \perp}{\Gamma \vdash P} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \top} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_1}{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \vee P_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_2}{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \vee P_2} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \vee P_2 \quad P_1, \Gamma \vdash P \quad P_2, \Gamma \vdash P}{\Gamma \vdash P} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash P_2}{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \wedge P_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \wedge P_2}{\Gamma \vdash P_1} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \wedge P_2}{\Gamma \vdash P_2} \\[10pt] \frac{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \rightarrow P_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash P_1}{\Gamma \vdash P_2} \qquad \frac{P_1, \Gamma \vdash P_2}{\Gamma \vdash P_1 \rightarrow P_2} \end{array}$$

This means, if we can construct a **program** of a certain **type**, we have also created a constructive **proof** of a certain **proposition**.

The Curry-Howard Correspondence

This correspondence goes by many names, but is usually attributed to **Haskell Curry** and **William Howard**.

It is a *very deep* result:

Programming	Logic
Types	Propositions
Programs	Proofs
Evaluation	Proof Simplification

It turns out, no matter what logic you want to define, there is always a corresponding λ -calculus, and vice versa.

Constructive Logic	Typed λ -Calculus
Classical Logic	Continuations
Modal Logic	Monads
Linear Logic	Linear Types, Session Types
Separation Logic	Region Types

Examples

Example (Commutativity of Conjunction)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{andComm} &: A \times B \rightarrow B \times A \\ \text{andComm} &= \lambda p. (\text{snd } p, \text{fst } p) \end{aligned}$$

This proves $A \wedge B \rightarrow B \wedge A$.

Example (Transitivity of Implication)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{transitive} &: (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C) \\ \text{transitive} &= \lambda f \ \lambda g \ \lambda x. g \ (f \ x) \end{aligned}$$

Transitivity of implication is just **function composition**.

Caveats

All functions we define have to be **total and terminating**.

Otherwise we get an **inconsistent** logic that lets us prove false things:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{proof}_1 &: P = \text{NP} \\ \text{proof}_1 &= \text{proof}_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{proof}_2 &: P \neq \text{NP} \\ \text{proof}_2 &= \text{proof}_2 \end{aligned}$$

This is why Agda and Idris avoid adding **fix**.

Most common calculi correspond to **constructive** logic, not **classical** ones, so principles like the **law of excluded middle** or **double negation elimination** do **not** hold:

$$\neg\neg P \rightarrow P$$