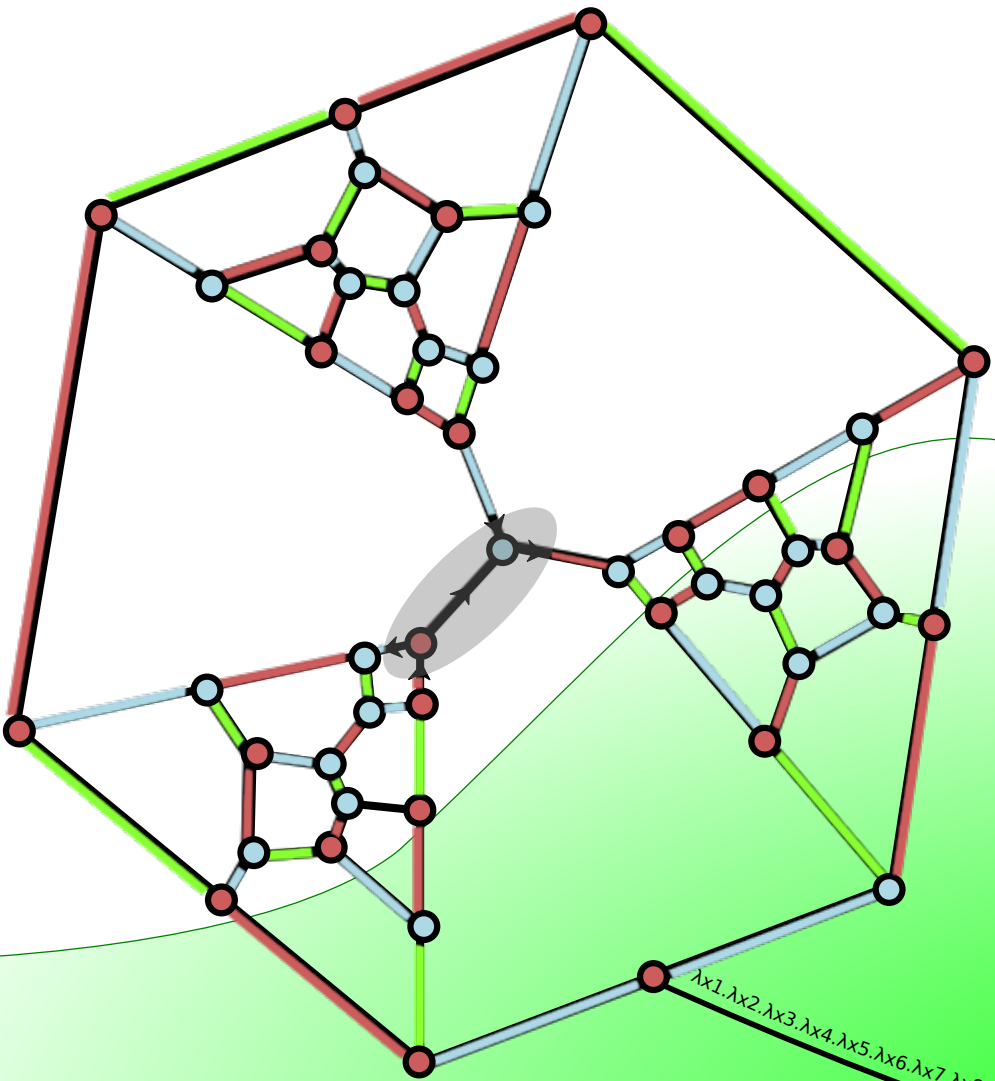
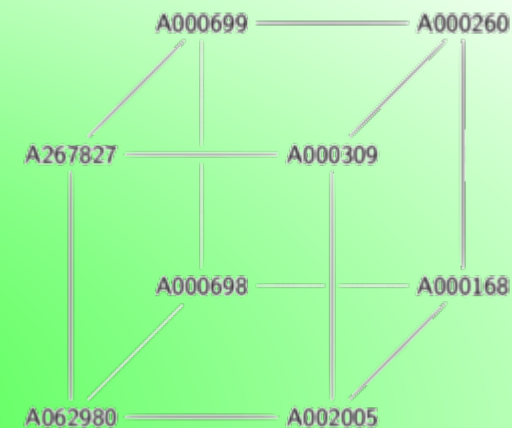


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slides: [noamz.org/talks/expmath.2020.06.18.pdf](http://noamz.org/talks/expmath.2020.06.18.pdf)



# From **Lambda Calculus** to the **Four Color Theorem** (via experimental math)



Noam Zeilberger  
Rutgers ExpMath Seminar  
18 June 2020 @ 6PM UTC

$\lambda x1.\lambda x2.\lambda x3.\lambda x4.\lambda x5.\lambda x6.\lambda x7.\lambda x8.\lambda x9.x1(\lambda x10.\lambda x11.(\lambda x12.\lambda x13.\lambda x14.x2(\lambda x15.x3(\lambda x16.x4(x12(x13(x14(x15)(x16)))))))))(\lambda x17.\lambda x18.\lambda x19.x5(\lambda x20.x6(\lambda x21.x7(x17(x18(x19(x20)(x21)))))))(\lambda x22.\lambda x23.x8(\lambda x24.x9(x10(x11(x22)(x23)(x24))))))$

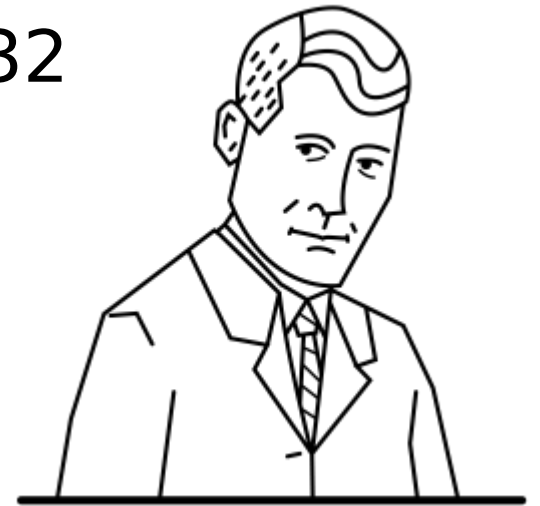
# 1. Lambda calculus

$x_6.\lambda x_7.\lambda x_8.\lambda x_9.x_1(\lambda x_{10}.\lambda x_{11}.\lambda x_{12}.\lambda x_{13}.\lambda x_{14}.x_2(\lambda x_{15}.x_3(\lambda x_{16}.x_4(x_{12}(x_{13}(x_{14}(x_{15})(x_{16})))))))(\lambda x_{17}.\lambda x_{18}.\lambda x_{19}.x_5(\lambda x_{20}.x_6(\lambda x_{21}.x_7(x_{17}(x_{18}(x_{19}(x_{20})))))))))$

# Lambda calculus: a very brief history\*

Invented by Alonzo Church around 1928, published in 1932

Original goal: a foundation for logic, more natural than Russell's type theory and Zermelo's set theory



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One small problem: *inconsistency!*

Resolution: isolate an **untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus** for computation, and a **typed  $\lambda$ -calculus** for logic

Since then:  $\lambda$ -calculus (both typed and untyped) has served as the foundation and inspiration for countless PLs and proof assistants

\*Source: Cardone & Hindley's "History of Lambda-calculus and Combinatory Logic"

# Untyped lambda calculus: definition sketch (part 1)

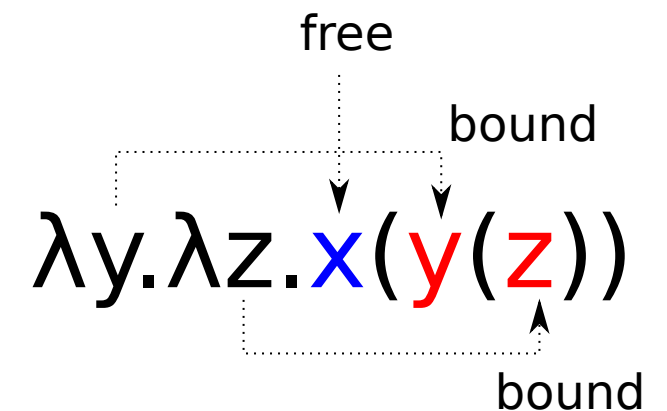
Formally, the set of **lambda terms** is closed under three constructs:

$t ::= x, y, \dots$	variables
$t(u)$	application
$\lambda x.t$	abstraction

Quotient terms by "alpha-equivalence" (renaming of variables), e.g.:

$$\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y)(y) \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda f.\lambda a.f(a)(a)$$

Distinguish **free variables** from **bound variables**:



# Untyped lambda calculus: definition sketch (part 2)

Computation is encoded in the rule of **beta-reduction**:

$$(\lambda x.t)(u) \rightarrow_{\beta} t[u/x]$$

Example:  $(\lambda f.\lambda a.f(a)(a)) (\lambda x.x) y$   
 $\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda a.(\lambda x.x)(a)(a)) y$   
 $\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x.x)(y)(y)$   
 $\rightarrow_{\beta} y(y)$

Fact: the beta-normal form of a term is unique if it exists, but in general it is uncomputable (Church, 1936).

# Fixed-point combinators and (non-)linearity

A **fixed-point combinator** is a closed term  $Y$  such that  $Yx \equiv_{\beta} x(Yx)$ .

The first FP combinator in print (1937) was Turing's:

$$Y := (\lambda x. \lambda y. y(xxy))(\lambda x. \lambda y. y(xxy))$$



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Observe the doubled uses of  $\lambda$ -bound variables  $x$  and  $y$ . By contrast, a term is said to be **linear** if every variable is used exactly once.

Fact: determining the beta-normal form of a linear term is complete for polynomial time (Mairson, 2004).

# Combinatory logic: an ancestor to $\lambda$ -calculus



Moses Schönfinkel

A var-free system,  
invented by Schönfinkel  
rebirthed by Curry.



Haskell Curry

# Combinatory logic and untyped $\lambda$ -calculus

There exists a basis of *particularly powerful terms*:

$$B := \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x(yz)$$

$$K := \lambda x. \lambda y. x$$

$$C := \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. (xz)y$$

$$W := \lambda x. \lambda y. (xy)y$$

$$I := \lambda x. x$$

The set  $\{B, C, K, W, I\}$  forms a *basis* meaning any (closed)  $\lambda$ -term is in the closure of these terms under application and  $\beta$ -reduction.\*

\*In fact,  $I$  is redundant since  $W(K) \rightarrow_{\beta} I$

The set  $\{B, C, I\}$  is a basis in the same sense for linear  $\lambda$ -terms.



# Combinatory logic and types

The combinators can be assigned *types* corresponding to basic axioms of implication:

$$B : (\beta \supset \gamma) \supset ((\alpha \supset \beta) \supset (\alpha \supset \gamma))$$

$$K : \alpha \supset (\beta \supset \alpha)$$

$$C : (\alpha \supset (\beta \supset \gamma)) \supset (\beta \supset (\alpha \supset \gamma))$$

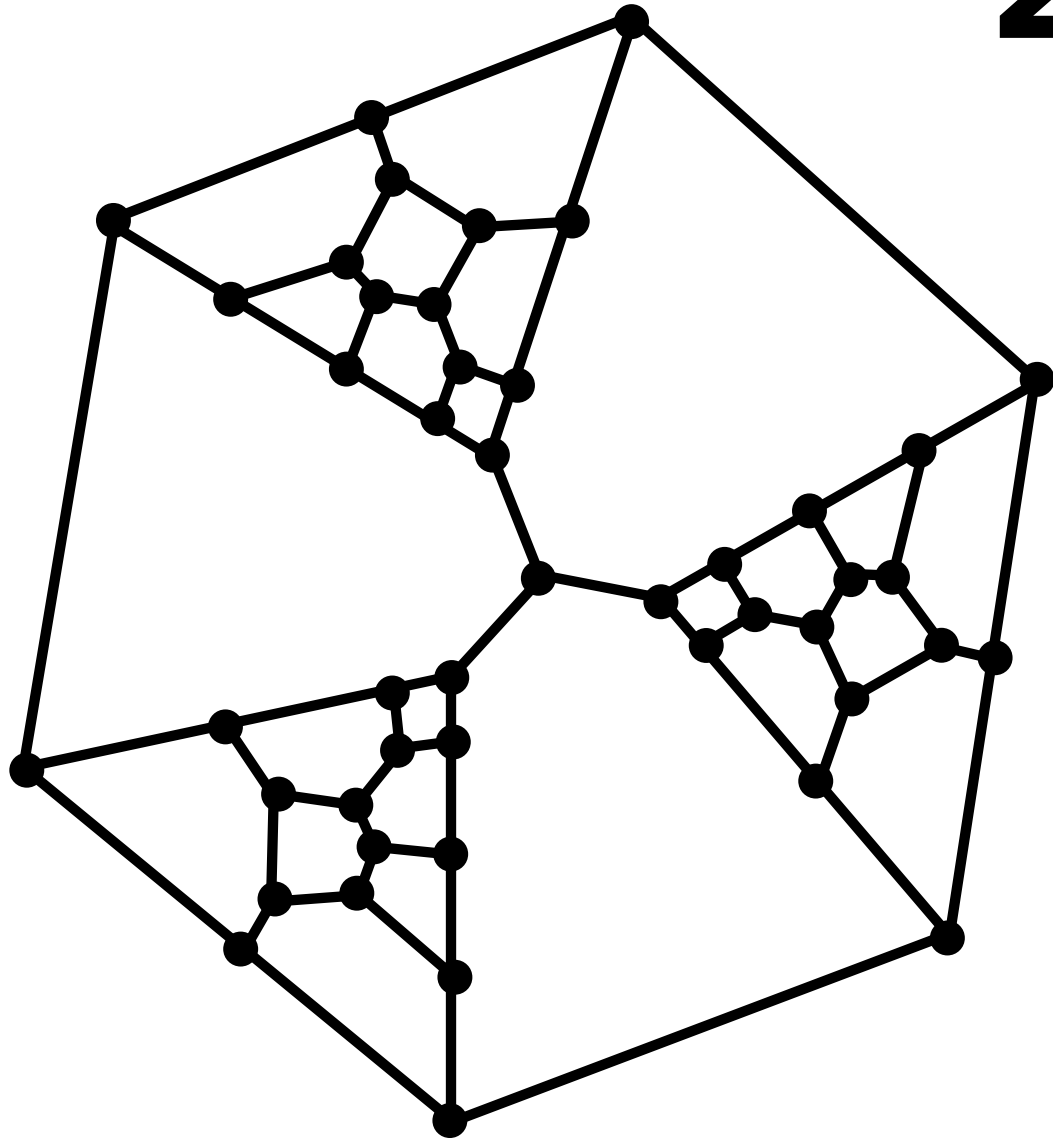
$$W : (\alpha \supset (\alpha \supset \beta)) \supset (\alpha \supset \beta)$$

$$I : \alpha \supset \alpha$$

More generally, terms can be seen as proofs in (purely implicative, intuitionistic) logic, although not every term can be assigned a type or the logic would be inconsistent ( $Y : (\alpha \supset \alpha) \supset \alpha$ ).

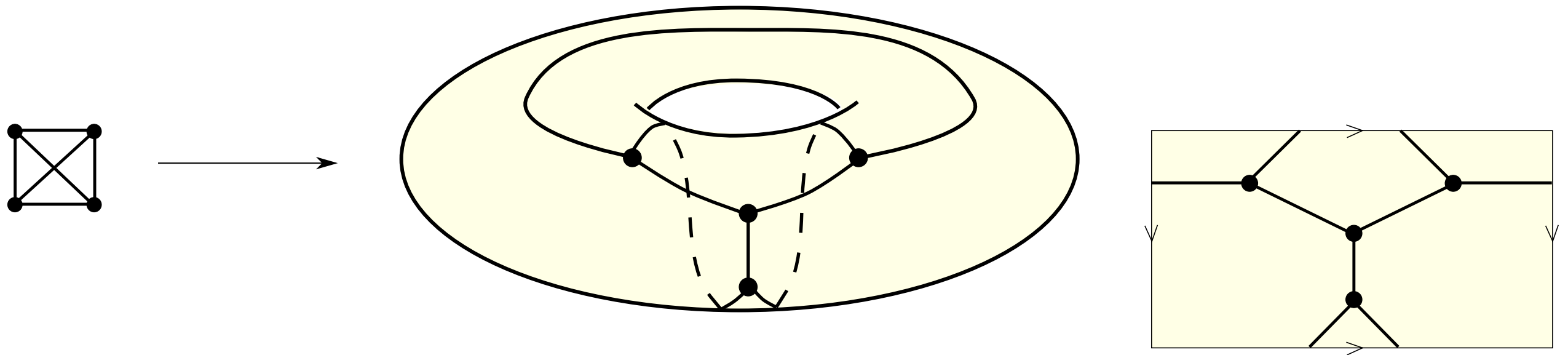
This forms part of the so-called "Curry-Howard correspondence".

## 2. What is a map?



# Topological definition

**map** = 2-cell embedding of a graph into a surface<sup>\*</sup>



considered up to deformation of the underlying surface.

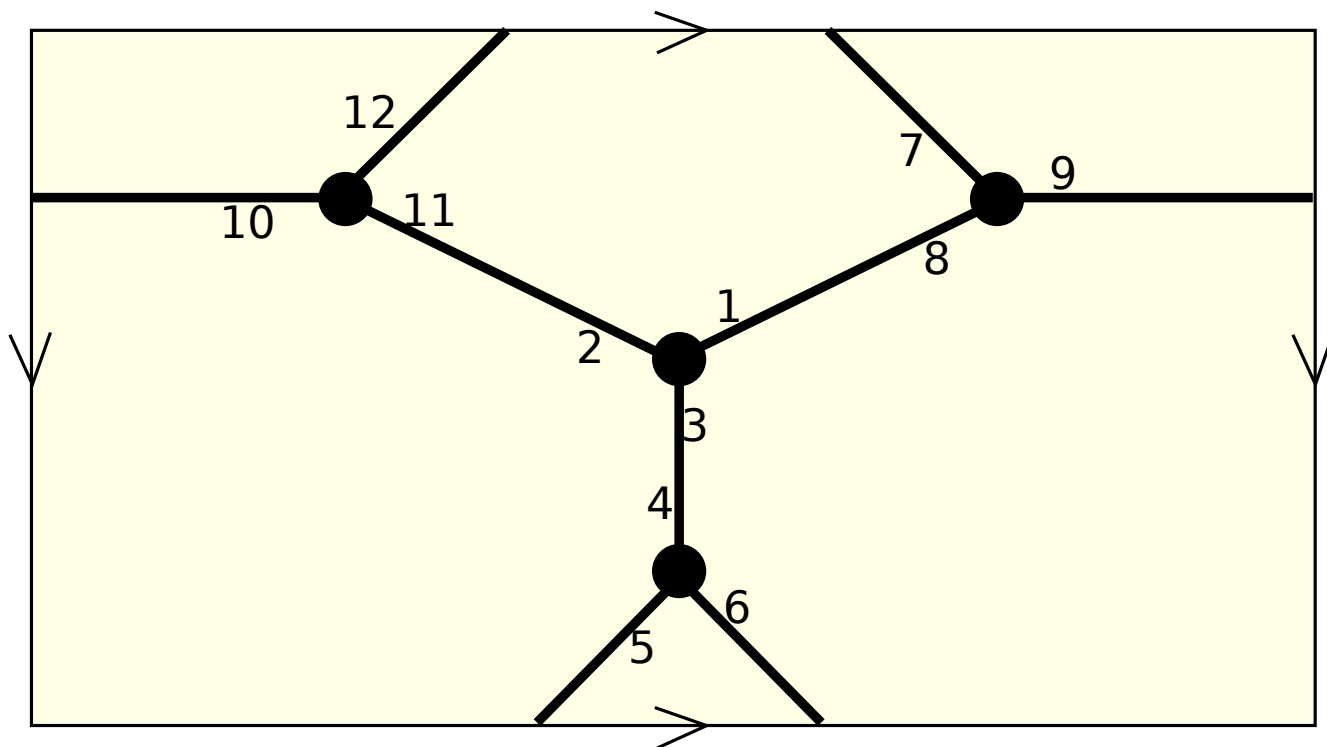
<sup>\*</sup>All surfaces are assumed to be connected and oriented throughout this talk

# Algebraic definition

**map** = transitive permutation representation of the group

$$G = \langle v, e, f \mid e^2 = vef = 1 \rangle$$

considered up to  $G$ -equivariant isomorphism.



$$v = (1\ 2\ 3)(4\ 5\ 6)(7\ 8\ 9)(10\ 11\ 12)$$

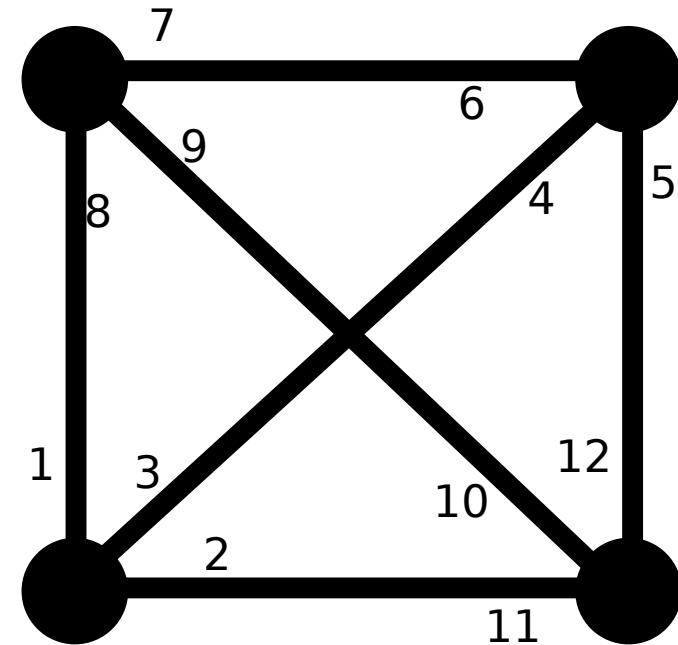
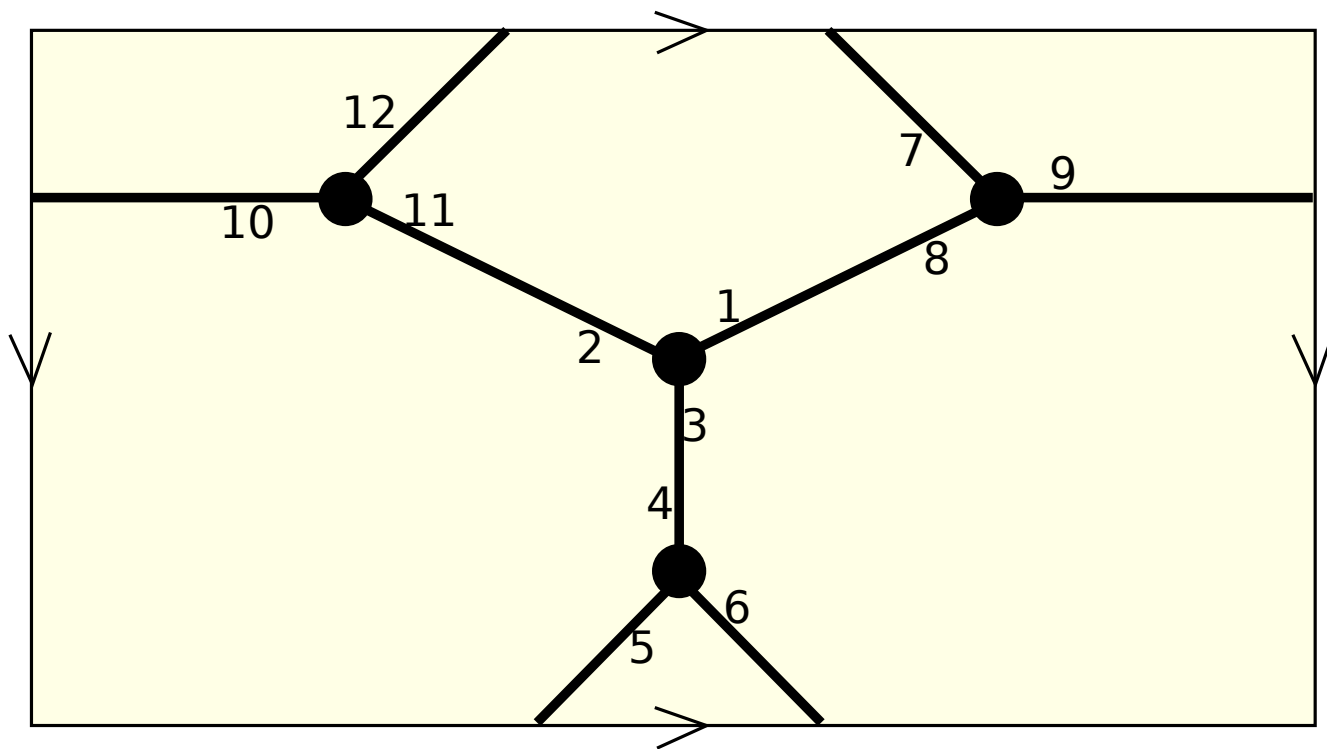
$$e = (1\ 8)(2\ 11)(3\ 4)(5\ 12)(6\ 7)(9\ 10)$$

$$f = (1\ 7\ 5\ 11)(2\ 10\ 8\ 3\ 6\ 9\ 12\ 4)$$

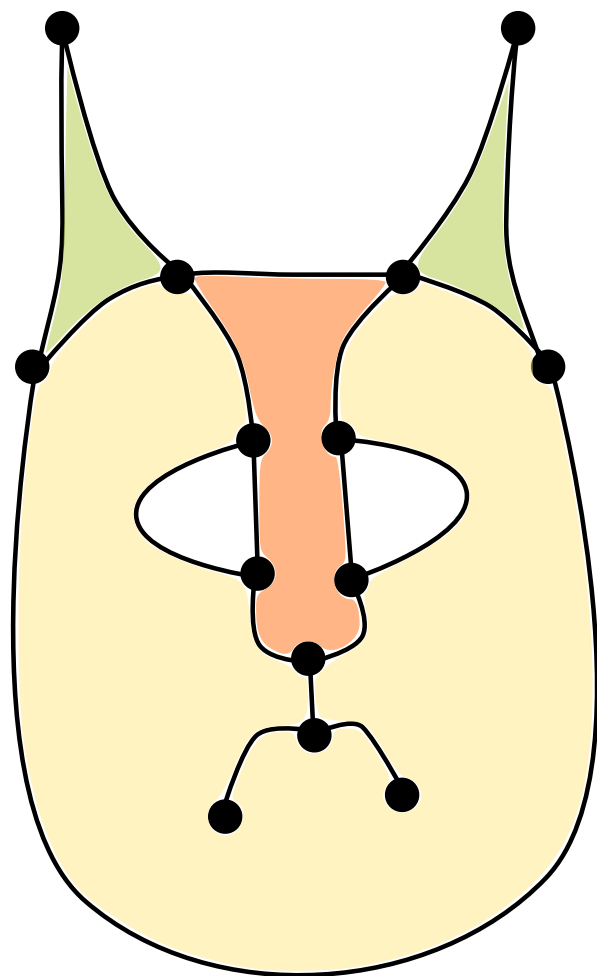
$$c(v) - c(e) + c(f) = 2 - 2g$$

# Combinatorial definition

**map** = connected graph + cyclic ordering of the half-edges around each vertex (say, as given by a planar drawing with "virtual crossings").

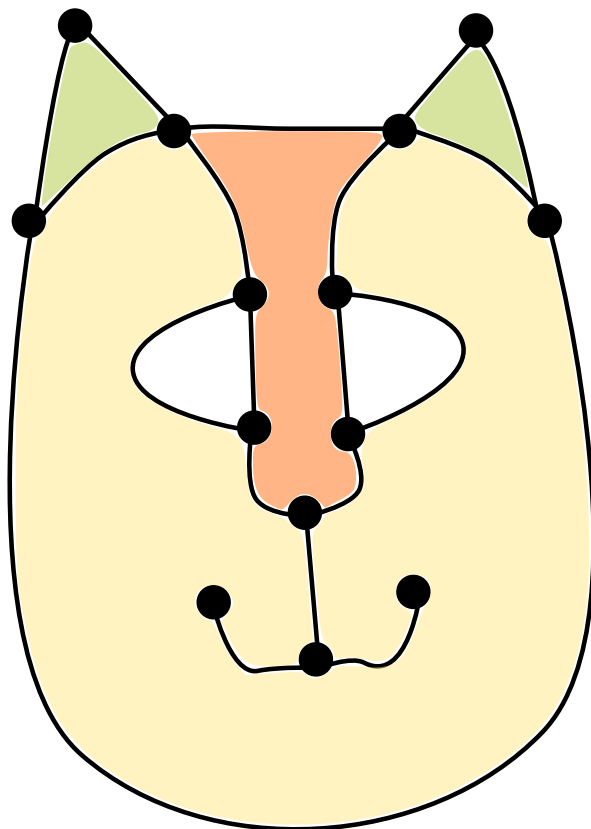


# Graph versus Map



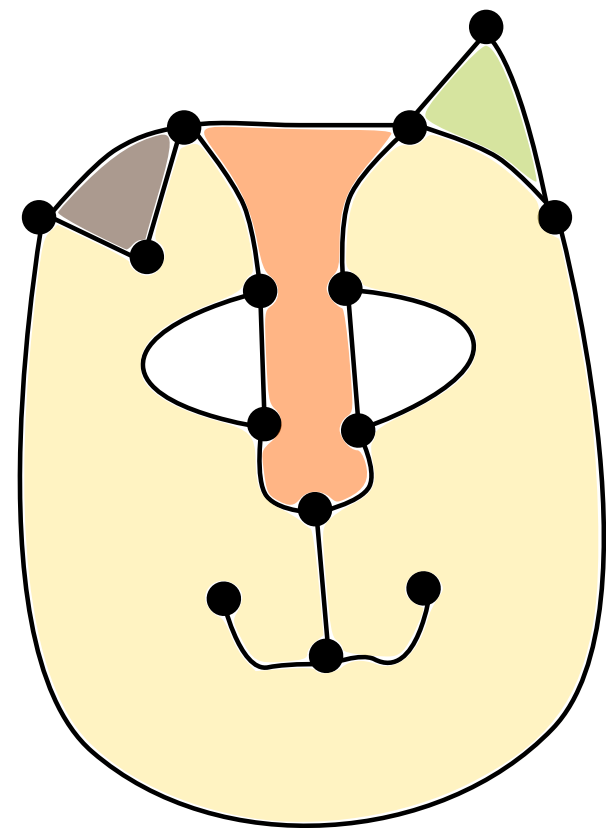
$\equiv$   
map

$\equiv$   
graph

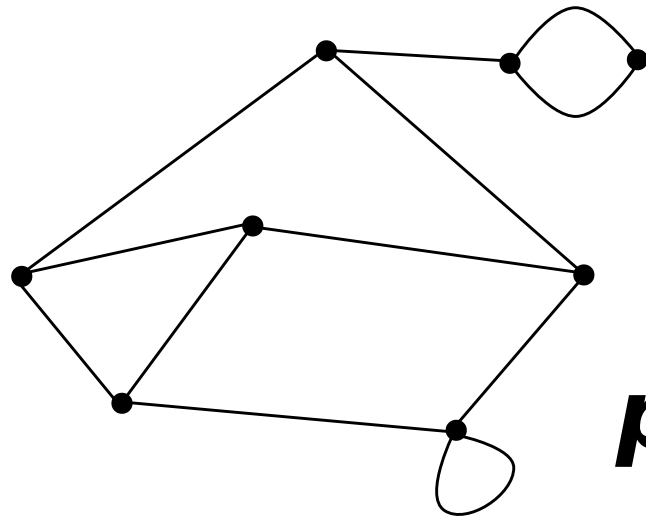


$\not\equiv$   
map

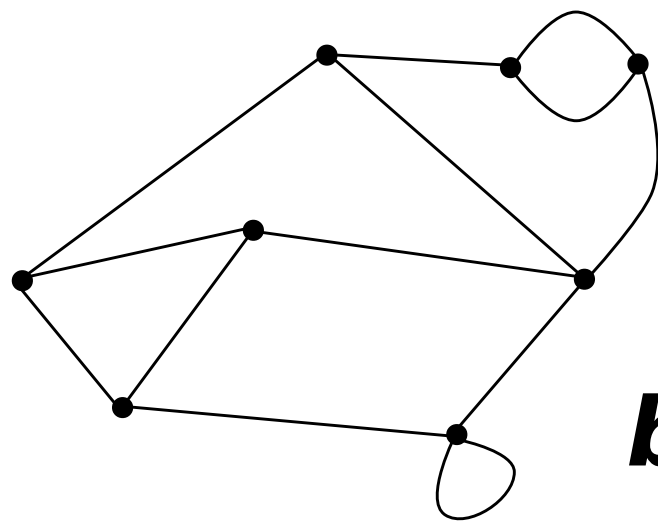
$\equiv$   
graph



# Some special kinds of maps

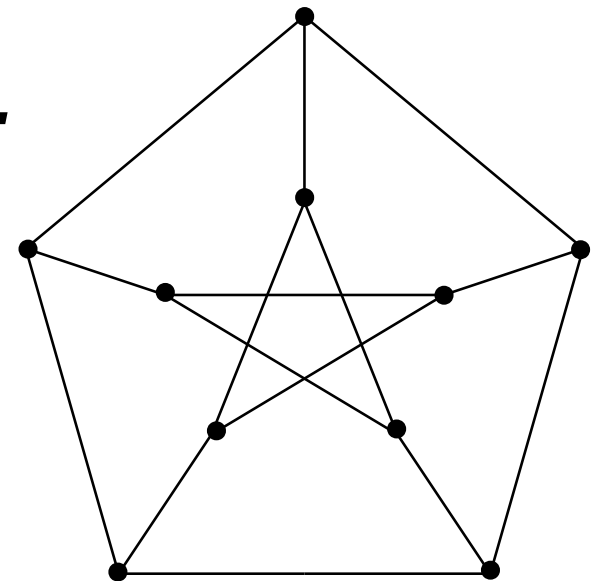


***planar***



***bridgeless***

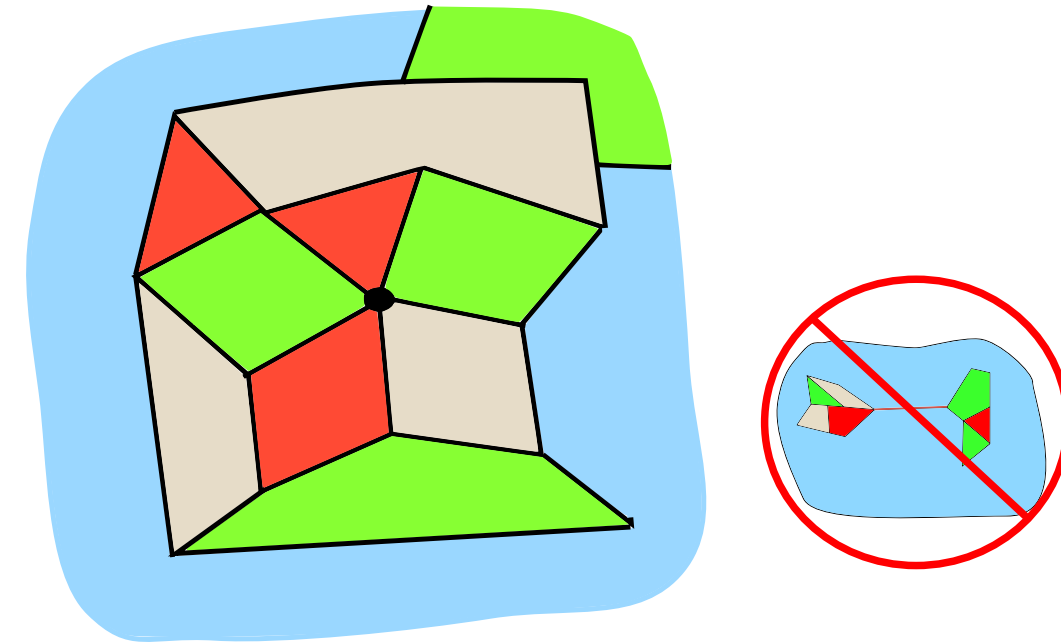
***3-valent***



# Four Color Theorem

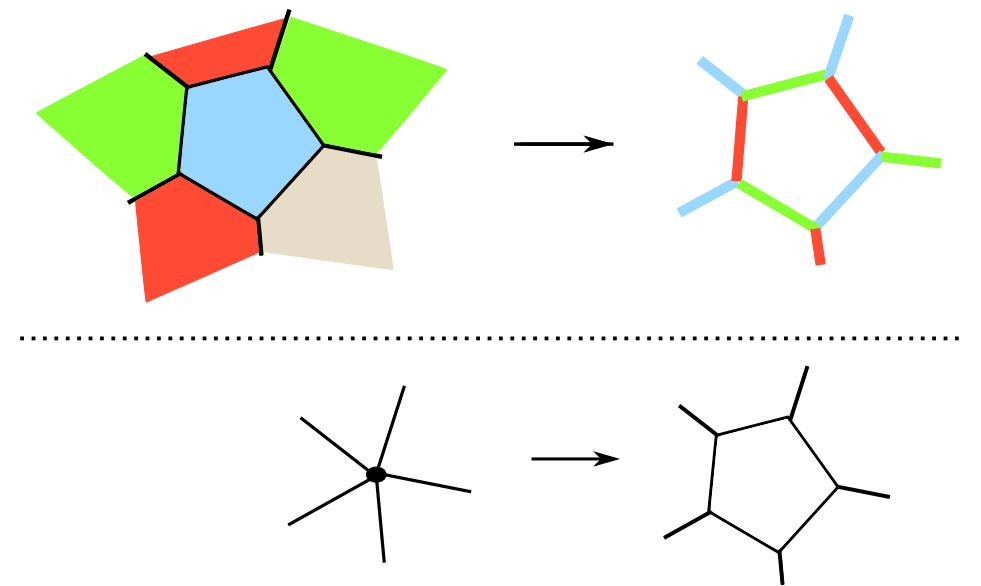
The 4CT is a statement about maps.

*every bridgeless planar map has a proper face 4-coloring*



By a well-known reduction (Tait 1880), 4CT is equivalent to a statement about 3-valent maps

*every bridgeless planar 3-valent map has a proper edge 3-coloring*





# Map enumeration

*From time to time in a graph-theoretical career one's thoughts turn to the Four Colour Problem. It occurred to me once that it might be possible to get results of interest in the theory of map-colourings without actually solving the Problem. For example, it might be possible to find the average number of colourings on vertices, for planar triangulations of a given size.*

*One would determine the number of triangulations of  $2n$  faces, and then the number of 4-coloured triangulations of  $2n$  faces. Then one would divide the second number by the first to get the required average. I gathered that this sort of retreat from a difficult problem to a related average was not unknown in other branches of Mathematics, and that it was particularly common in Number Theory.*

W. T. Tutte, Graph Theory as I Have Known It

# Map enumeration

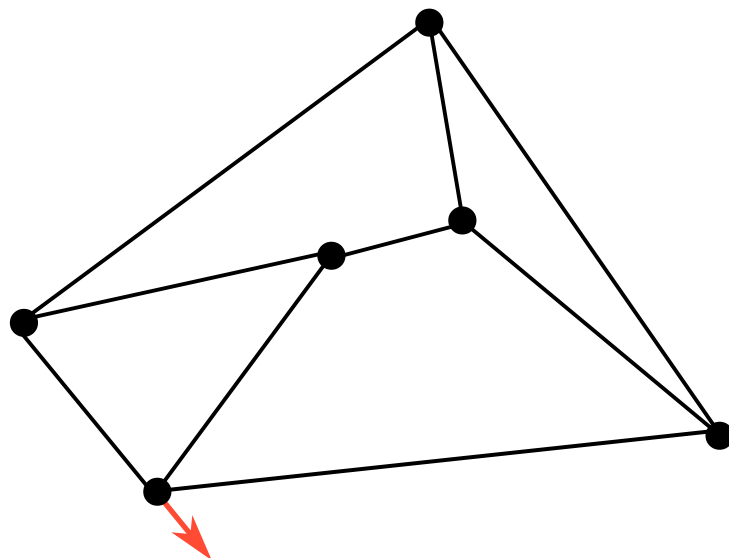
Tutte wrote a germinal series of papers (1962-1969)



bust by Gabriella Bollobás

- W. T. Tutte (1962), A census of planar triangulations. Canadian Journal of Mathematics 14:21-38
- W. T. Tutte (1962), A census of Hamiltonian polygons. Can. J. Math. 14:402-417
- W. T. Tutte (1962), A census of slicings. Can. J. Math. 14:708-722
- W. T. Tutte (1963), A census of planar maps. Can. J. Math. 15:249-271
- W. T. Tutte (1968), On the enumeration of planar maps. Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society 74:64-74
- W. T. Tutte (1969), On the enumeration of four-colored maps. SIAM Journal on Applied Mathematics 17:454-460

One of his insights was to consider ***rooted*** maps



*Key property: rooted maps have no non-trivial automorphisms*

# Map enumeration

Ultimately, Tutte obtained some remarkably simple formulas for counting different families of rooted planar maps, e.g.:

*The number  $a_n$  of rooted maps with  $n$  edges is*

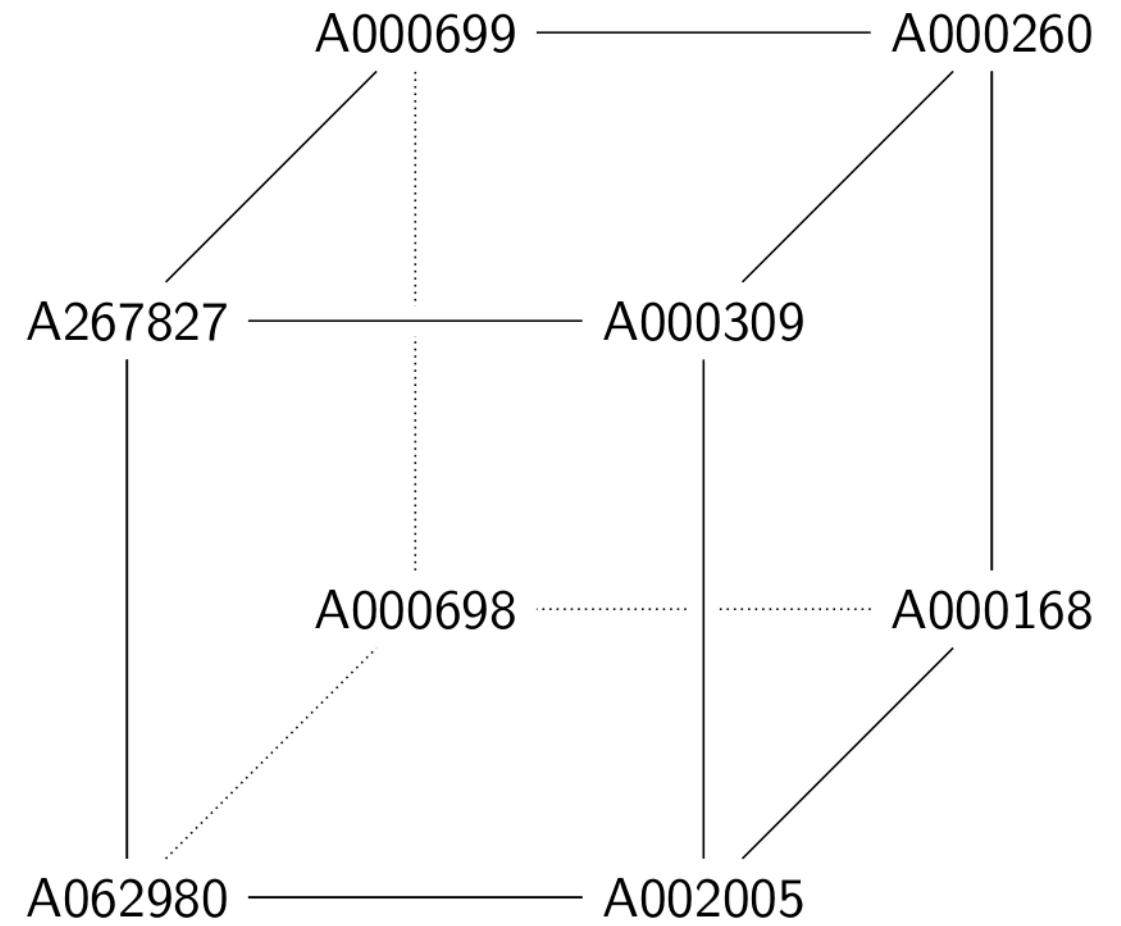
$$\frac{2(2n)! 3^n}{n! (n+2)!}.$$

For more on map-counting see:

Mireille Bousquet-Mélou, [Enumerative Combinatorics of Maps](#) (recorded lecture series)

Gilles Schaeffer, "Planar maps", in Handbook of Enumerative Combinatorics (ed. Bóna)

Bertrand Eynard, *Counting Surfaces*, Birkhäuser, 2016



**3. How on Earth are these topics related??**

# An innocent idea

In May 2014, for some reason\* I thought it could be interesting to count linear lambda terms with the added restriction that terms are both  *$\beta$ -normal* and *ordered* (variables used not just once, but also in the order they are bound).

\*related to certain categorical models of typing.

# Counting $\beta$ -normal ordered linear $\lambda$ -terms

Let  $F(n,k) = \#$   $\beta$ -normal ordered terms w/ $n$  subterms and  $k$  free vars.

Let  $G(n,k) =$  same thing but restricting to terms that are not  $\lambda$ s.

F and G satisfy the following mutual recurrence:

$$F(n,k) = F(n-1,k+1) + G(n,k)$$

$$G(n,k) = [n=1 \ \& \ k=1] + \sum_{m,j} G(m,j) * F(n-1-m,k-j)$$

Consider the sequence  $F(3*n+2,0)$  for  $n=0,1,\dots$

**λx.x.x**

**1**

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

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

2



$\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y(\lambda z.z))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y(z))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y)(\lambda z.z)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y(\lambda z.z))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.y(z))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.z)(y)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y)(\lambda z.z)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(z))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y)(z)$

$\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y(\lambda z.z(\lambda w.w)))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y(\lambda z.\lambda w.z(w)))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y(\lambda z.z)(\lambda w.w))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y(z(\lambda w.w)))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y(\lambda w.z(w)))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y(\lambda w.w)(z))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y(z)(\lambda w.w))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.\lambda w.y(z(w)))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.\lambda w.y(z)(w))$

$\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y)(\lambda z.z(\lambda w.w))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y)(\lambda z.\lambda w.z(w))$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y(\lambda z.z))(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y(z))(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y)(\lambda z.z)(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y(\lambda z.z(\lambda w.w)))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y(\lambda z.\lambda w.z(w)))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y(\lambda z.z)(\lambda w.w))$   
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$\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.y(\lambda w.z(w)))$   
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 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.\lambda w.y(z(w)))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.\lambda w.y(z)(w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.z)(y(\lambda w.w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.z)(\lambda w.y(w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.z(\lambda w.w))(y)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.\lambda w.z(w))(y)$

$\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.z)(\lambda w.w)(y)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y)(\lambda z.z(\lambda w.w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y)(\lambda z.\lambda w.z(w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y(\lambda z.z))(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.y(z))(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.z)(y)(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y)(\lambda z.z)(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(z(\lambda w.w)))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(\lambda w.z(w)))$

$\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(\lambda w.w)(z))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(z)(\lambda w.w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(\lambda w.y(z(w)))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(\lambda w.y(z)(w))$   
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 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y)(\lambda w.z(w))$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(\lambda w.w))(z)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(\lambda w.y(w))(z)$

$\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(\lambda w.w)(y)(z)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y)(\lambda w.w)(z)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y(z))(\lambda w.w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(y)(z)(\lambda w.w)$   
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 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.\lambda w.x(y(z))(w)$   
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.\lambda w.x(y)(z)(w)$

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(Greetings from [The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences!](#))

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page 1

Sort: relevance | [references](#) | [number](#) | [modified](#) | [created](#)    Format: long | [short](#) | [data](#)

[A000168](#)

$2 \cdot 3^n \cdot (2 \cdot n)! / (n! \cdot (n+2)!)$ .  
(Formerly M1940 N0768)

+20  
18

**1, 2, 9, 54, 378, 2916, 24057,** 208494, 1876446, 17399772, 165297834, 1602117468,  
15792300756, 157923007560, 1598970451545, 16365932856990, 169114639522230,  
1762352559231660, 18504701871932430, 195621134074714260, 2080697516976506220,  
22254416920705240440, 239234981897581334730, 2583737804493878415084 ([list](#); [graph](#); [refs](#); [listen](#); [history](#);  
[text](#); [internal format](#))

OFFSET            0,2

COMMENTS

Number of rooted planar maps with  $n$  edges. - [Don Knuth](#), Nov 24 2013

Number of rooted 4-regular planar maps with  $n$  vertices.

Also, number of doodles with  $n$  crossings, irrespective of the number of loops.

# One piece of a larger puzzle

With Alain Giorgetti, we gave a bijection between  $\beta$ -normal ordered\* linear  $\lambda$ -terms and rooted planar maps, albeit not so easy to interpret.

Independently (and a few years earlier), another group of people (Olivier Bodini, Danièle Gardy, and Alice Jacquot) studied linear lambda calculus coming from the completely different angle of analytic combinatorics, and found a natural bijection between general linear  $\lambda$ -terms and rooted *3-valent maps* of arbitrary genus.

Looking at this pair of connections, one may wonder whether they form part of a bigger picture...and it turns out they do!

\*our bijection went via "skew-ordered" terms, which is part of what made it difficult to interpret.

# One piece of a larger puzzle

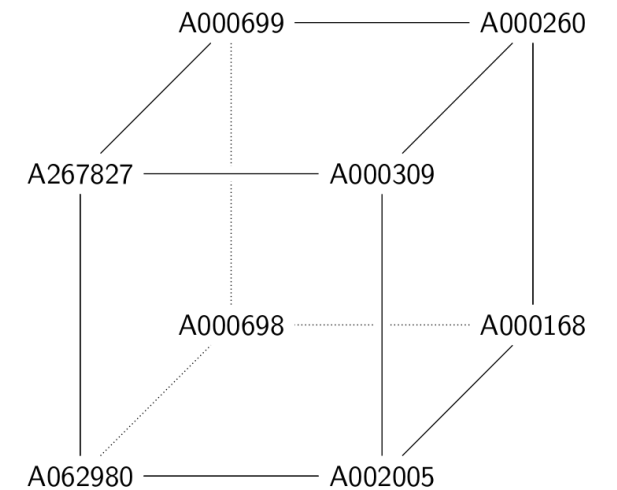
family of rooted maps	family of lambda terms	sequence	OEIS
trivalent maps (genus $g \geq 0$ )	linear terms	1,5,60,1105,27120,...	A062980
planar trivalent maps	ordered terms	1,4,32,336,4096,...	A002005
bridgeless trivalent maps	unitless linear terms	1,2,20,352,8624,...	A267827
bridgeless planar trivalent maps	unitless ordered terms	1,1,4,24,176,1456,...	A000309
<hr/>			
maps (genus $g \geq 0$ )	normal linear terms (mod $\sim$ )	1,2,10,74,706,8162,...	A000698
planar maps	normal ordered terms	1,2,9,54,378,2916,...	A000168
bridgeless maps	normal unitless linear terms (mod $\sim$ )	1,1,4,27,248,2830,...	A000699
bridgeless planar maps	normal unitless ordered terms	1,1,3,13,68,399,...	A000260

ordered vs. non-ordered  
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(yz)$  vs.  $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.(xz)y$

unitless vs. non-unitless  
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(y)$  vs.  $\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y)$

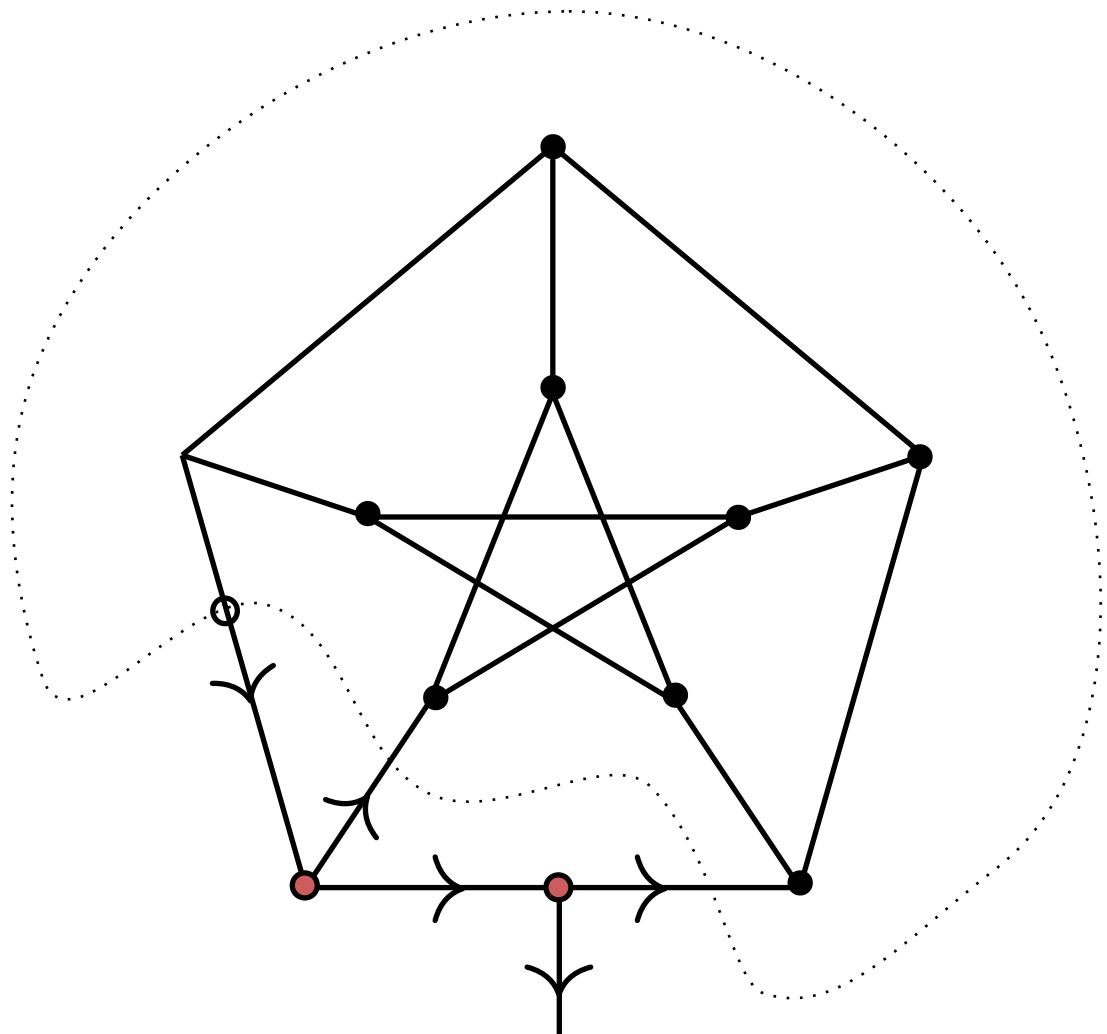
normal vs. non-normal  
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x(\lambda z.yz)$  vs.  $\lambda x.\lambda y.(\lambda z.xz)y$

$\lambda x.\lambda y.t \sim \lambda y.\lambda x.t$



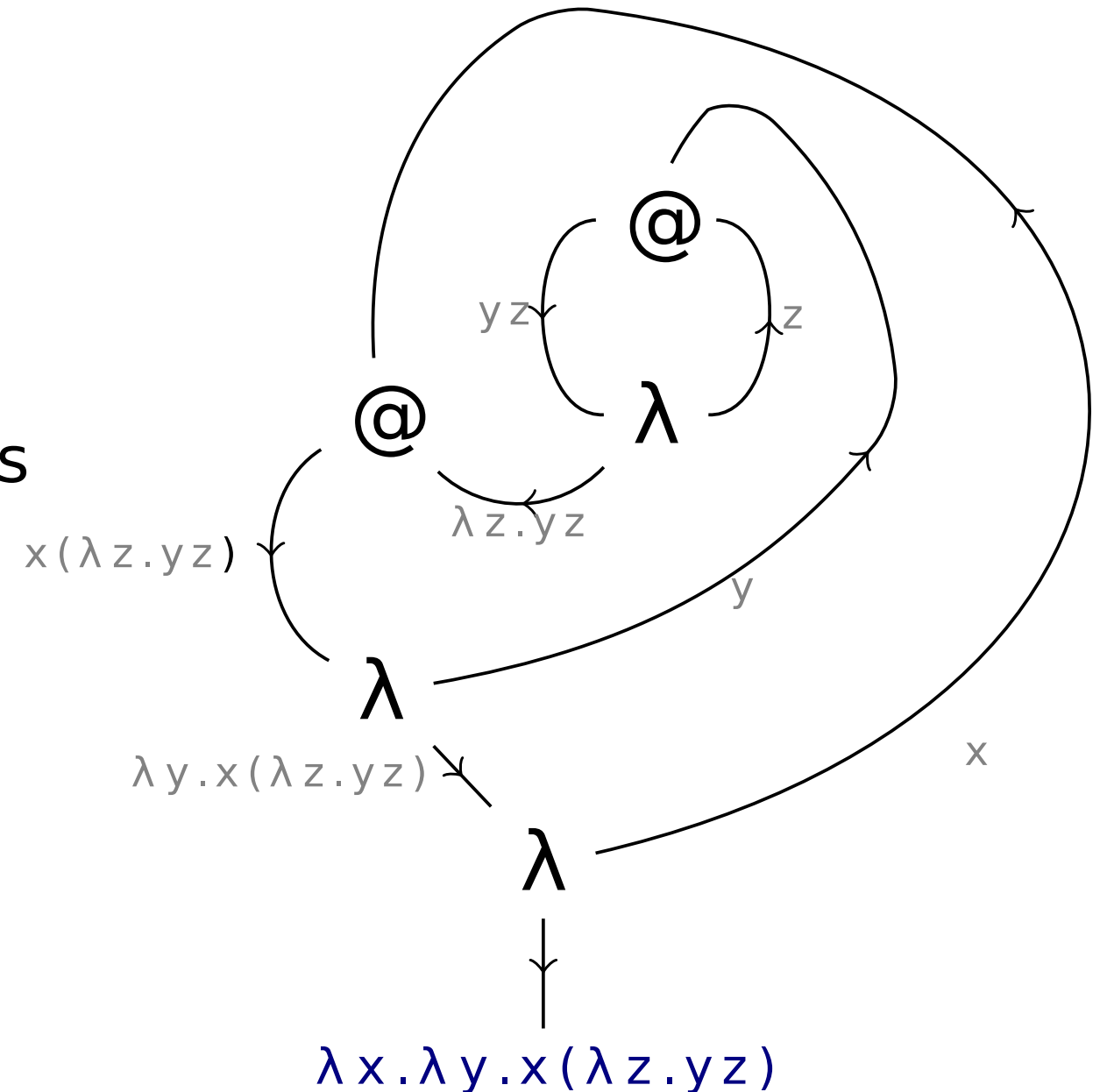
# 4. Between linear $\lambda$ -terms and rooted 3-valent maps

(a bijection by Bodini et al 2013, as analyzed by Z 2016)



# Idea (folklore\*): representing $\lambda$ -terms as graphs

A  $\lambda$ -term can be represented as a "tree w/pointers", either with  $\lambda$ -nodes pointing to the occurrences of bound variables, or conversely with variables pointing to their binders. This idea is especially natural for linear terms.



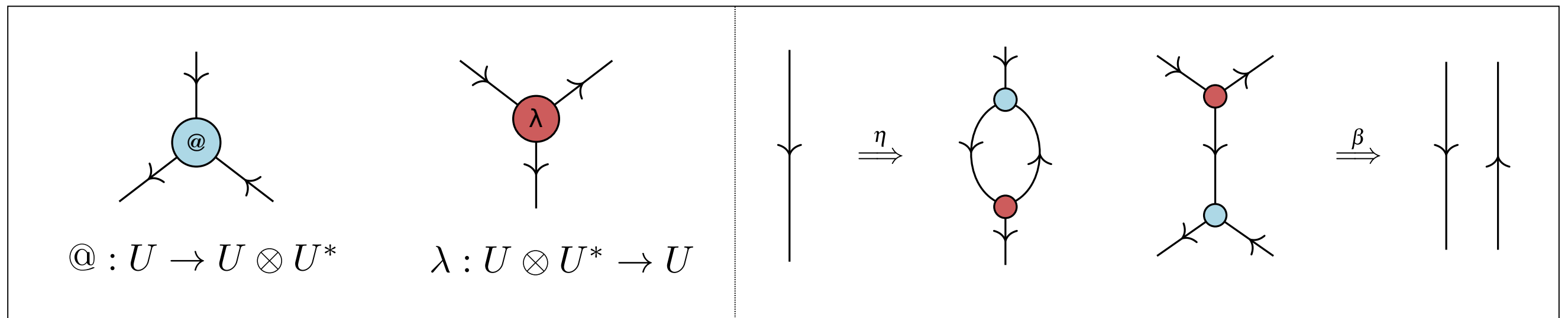
\*The idea itself is natural and should probably be called folklore. The earliest explicit description I know of (currently) is in Knuth's "Examples of Formal Semantics" (1970), but it was developed more deeply and independently from different perspectives in the PhD theses of C. P. Wadsworth (1971) and R. Statman (1974).

# $\lambda$ -graphs as string diagrams

This idea can also be understood within the categorical framework of "string diagrams", by interpreting  $\lambda$ -terms (after D. Scott) as *endomorphisms of a reflexive object*

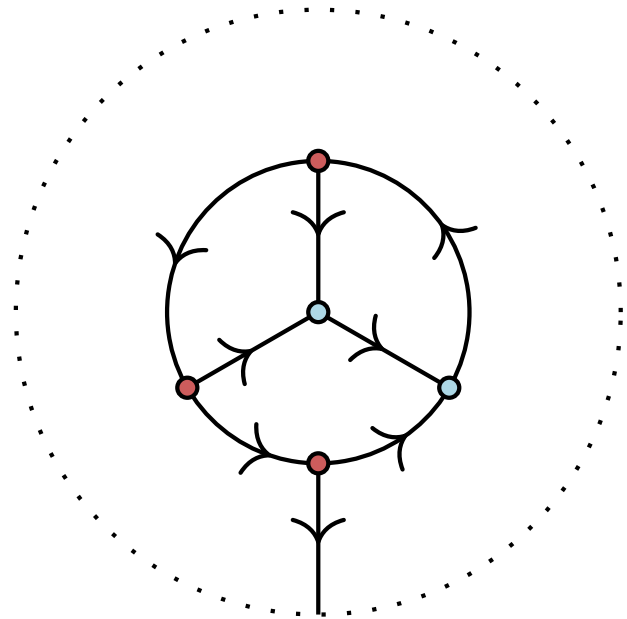
$$U \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\textcircled{a}} \\ \xleftarrow{\lambda} \end{array} U \text{---} \circ U$$

in a symmetric monoidal closed bicategory.



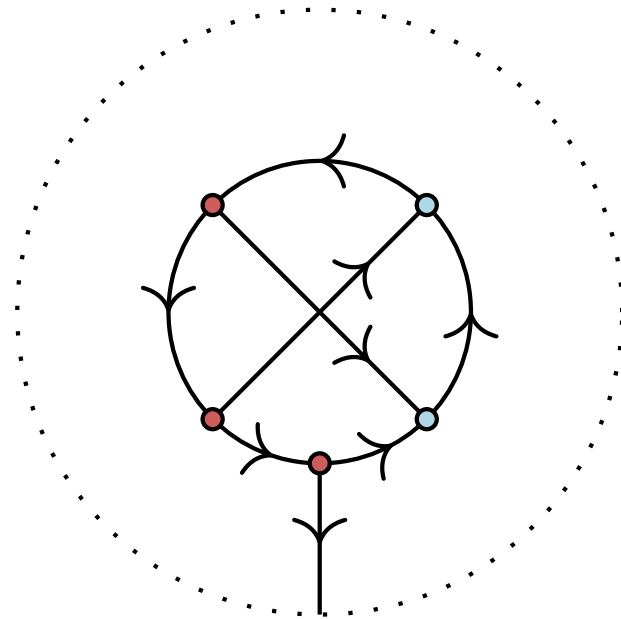


# From linear $\lambda$ -terms to rooted 3-valent maps



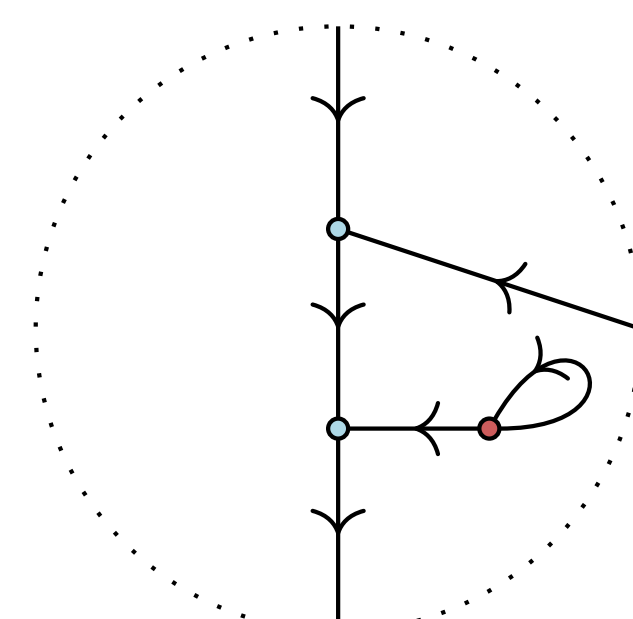
$\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x(yz)$

**(B)**

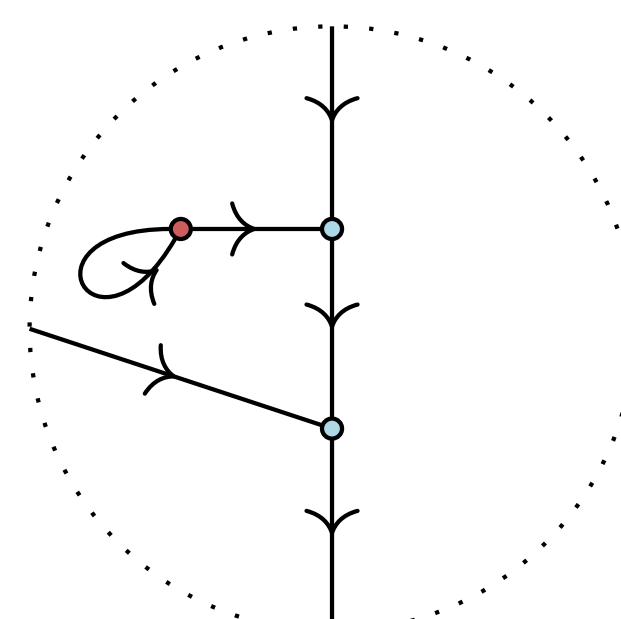


$\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.(xz)y$

**(C)**

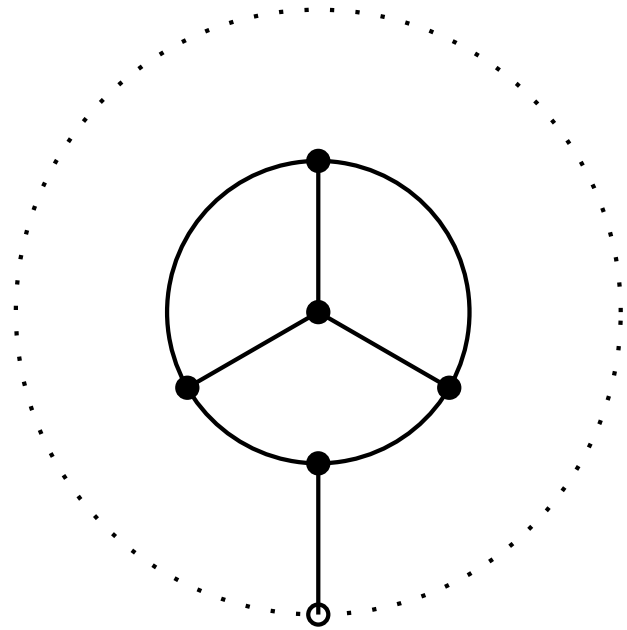


$x,y \vdash (xy)(\lambda z.z)$



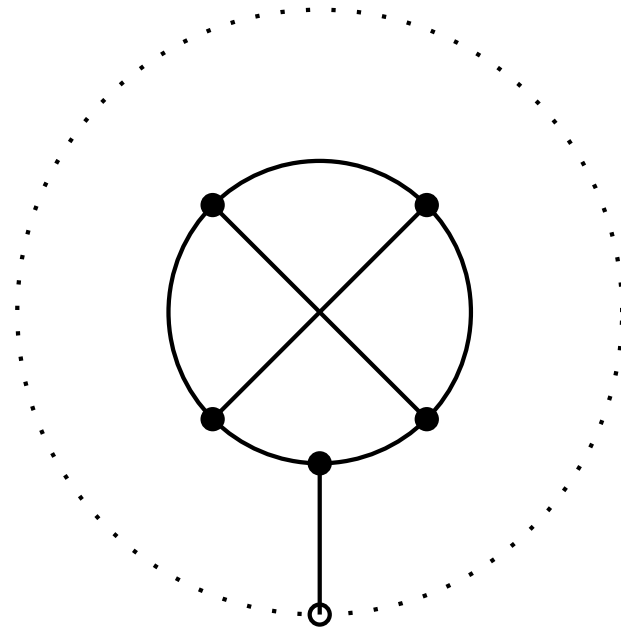
$x,y \vdash x((\lambda z.z)y)$

# From linear $\lambda$ -terms to rooted 3-valent maps



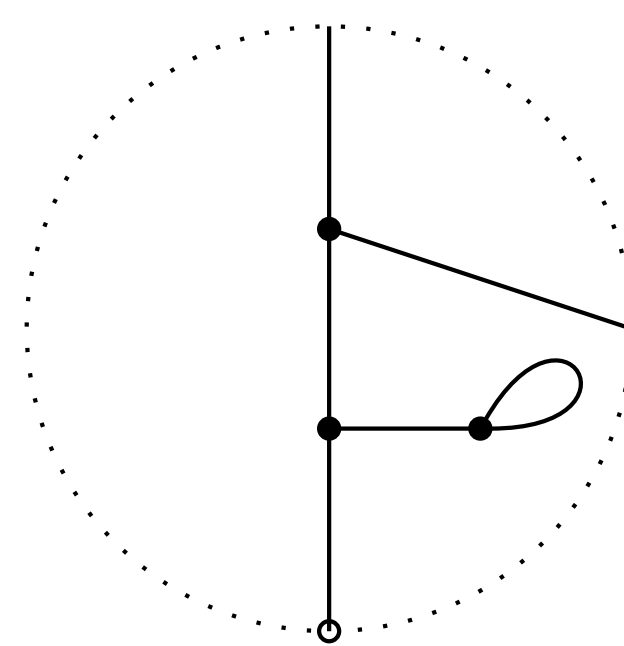
$\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x(yz)$

**(B)**

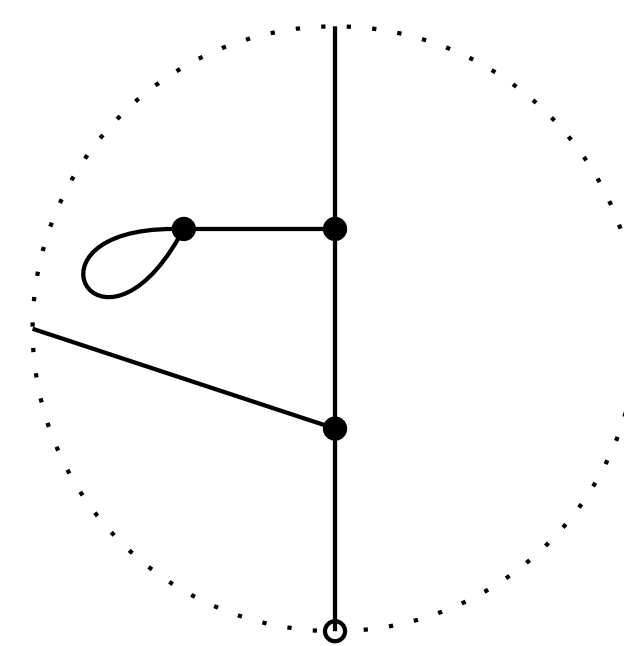


$\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. (xz)y$

**(C)**



$x, y \vdash (xy)(\lambda z. z)$

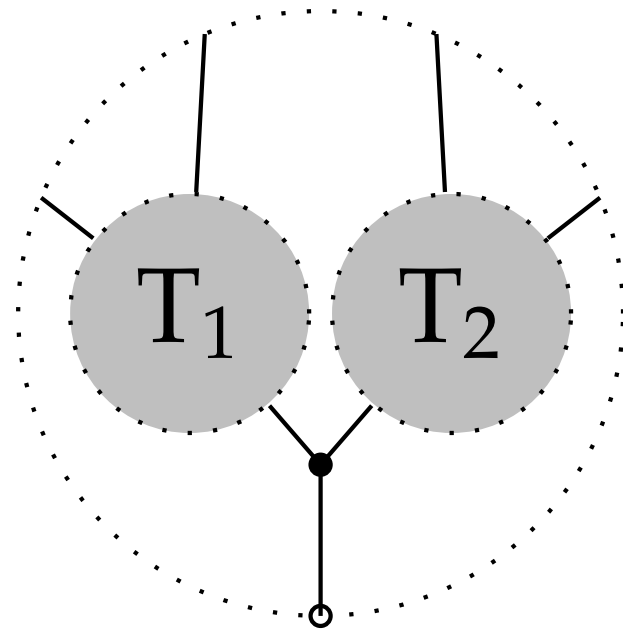


$x, y \vdash x((\lambda z. z)y)$

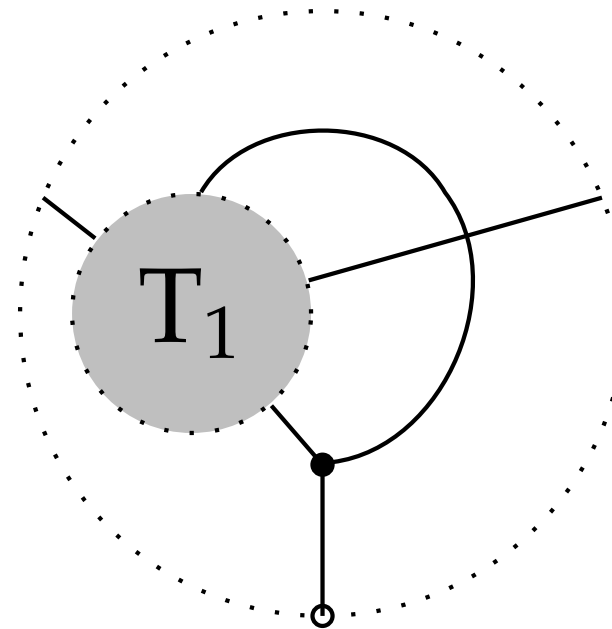
# From rooted 3-valent maps to linear $\lambda$ -terms

Step #1: generalize to 3-valent maps w/ $\partial$  of "free" edges, one marked as root.

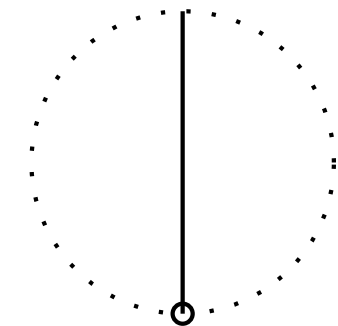
Step #2: observe any such map must have one of the following forms:



disconnecting  
root vertex



connecting  
root vertex

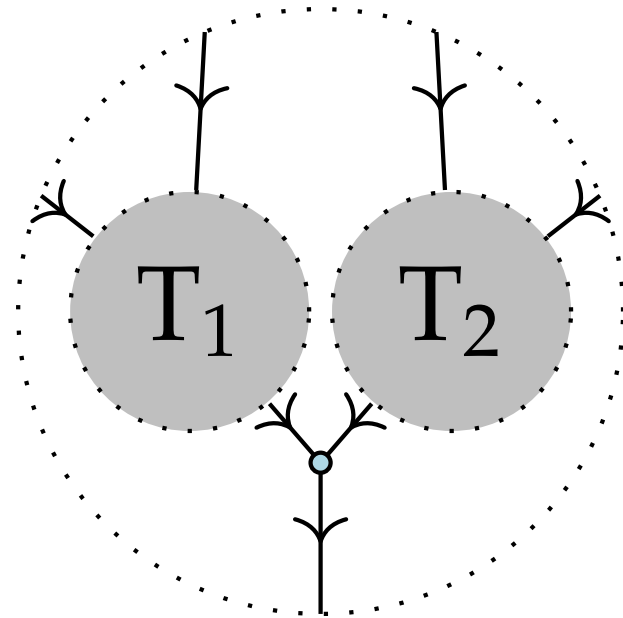


no  
root vertex

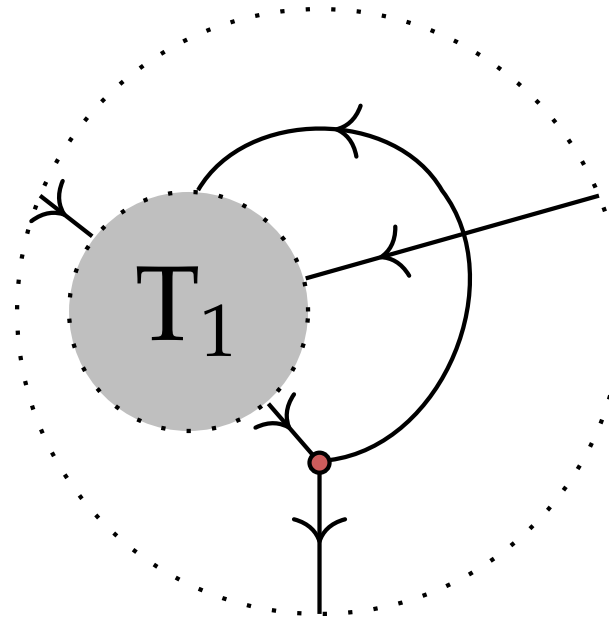
# From rooted 3-valent maps to linear $\lambda$ -terms

⋮

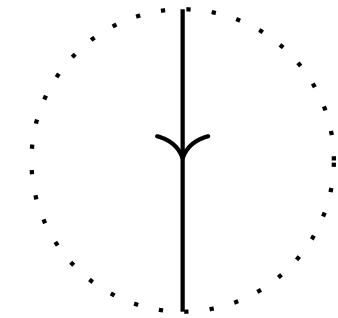
Step #3: observe this is exactly the inductive definition of linear  $\lambda$ -terms!



application

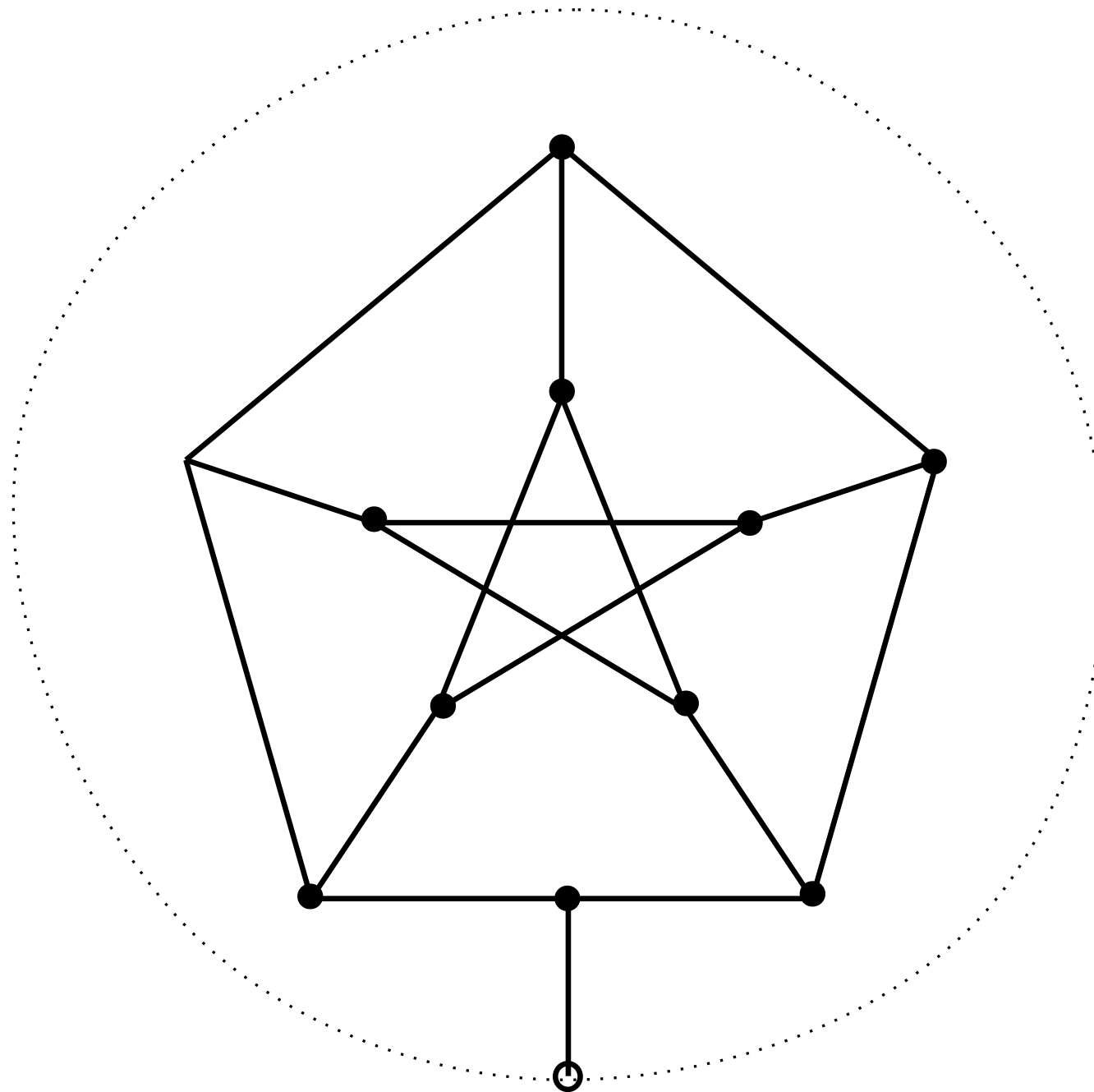


abstraction

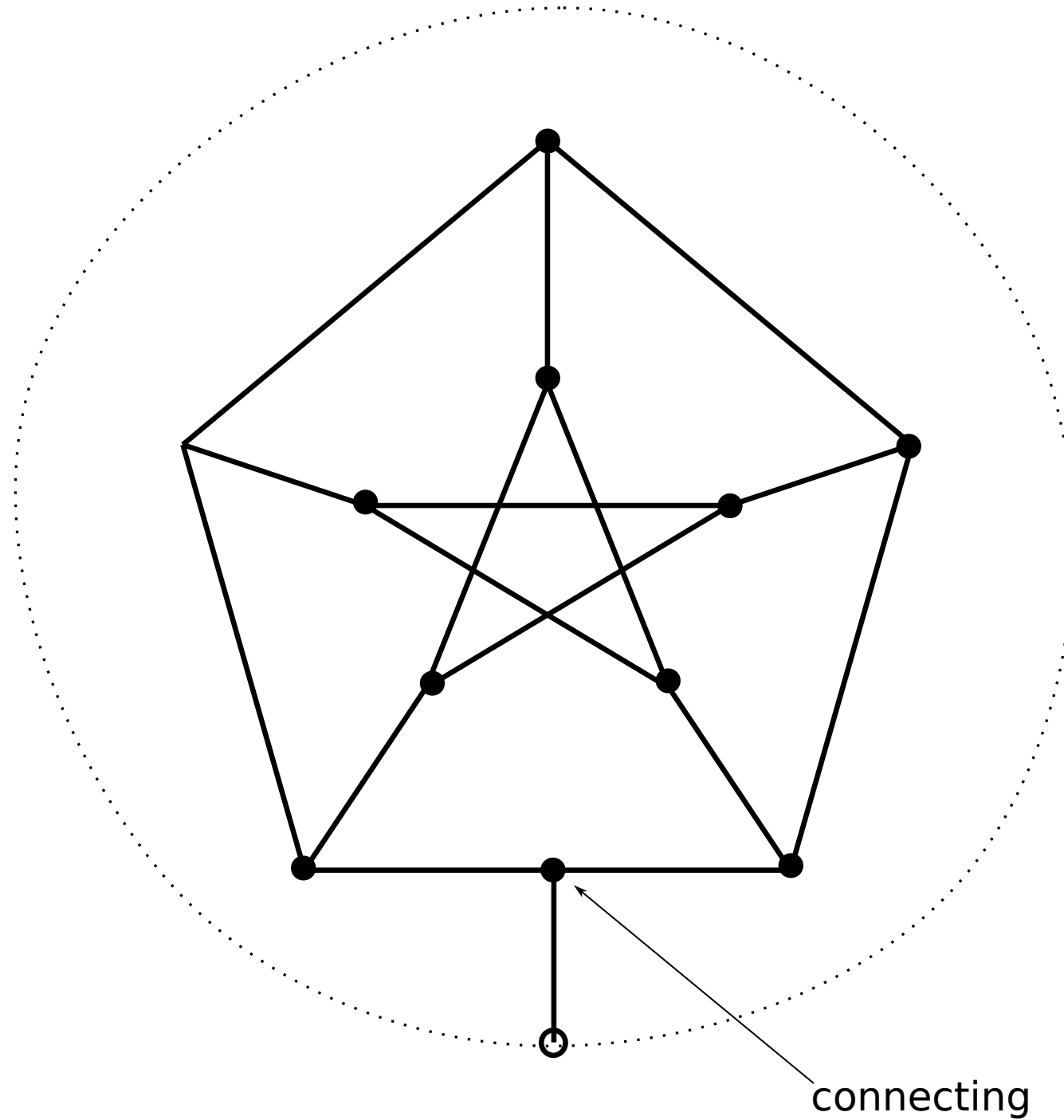


variable

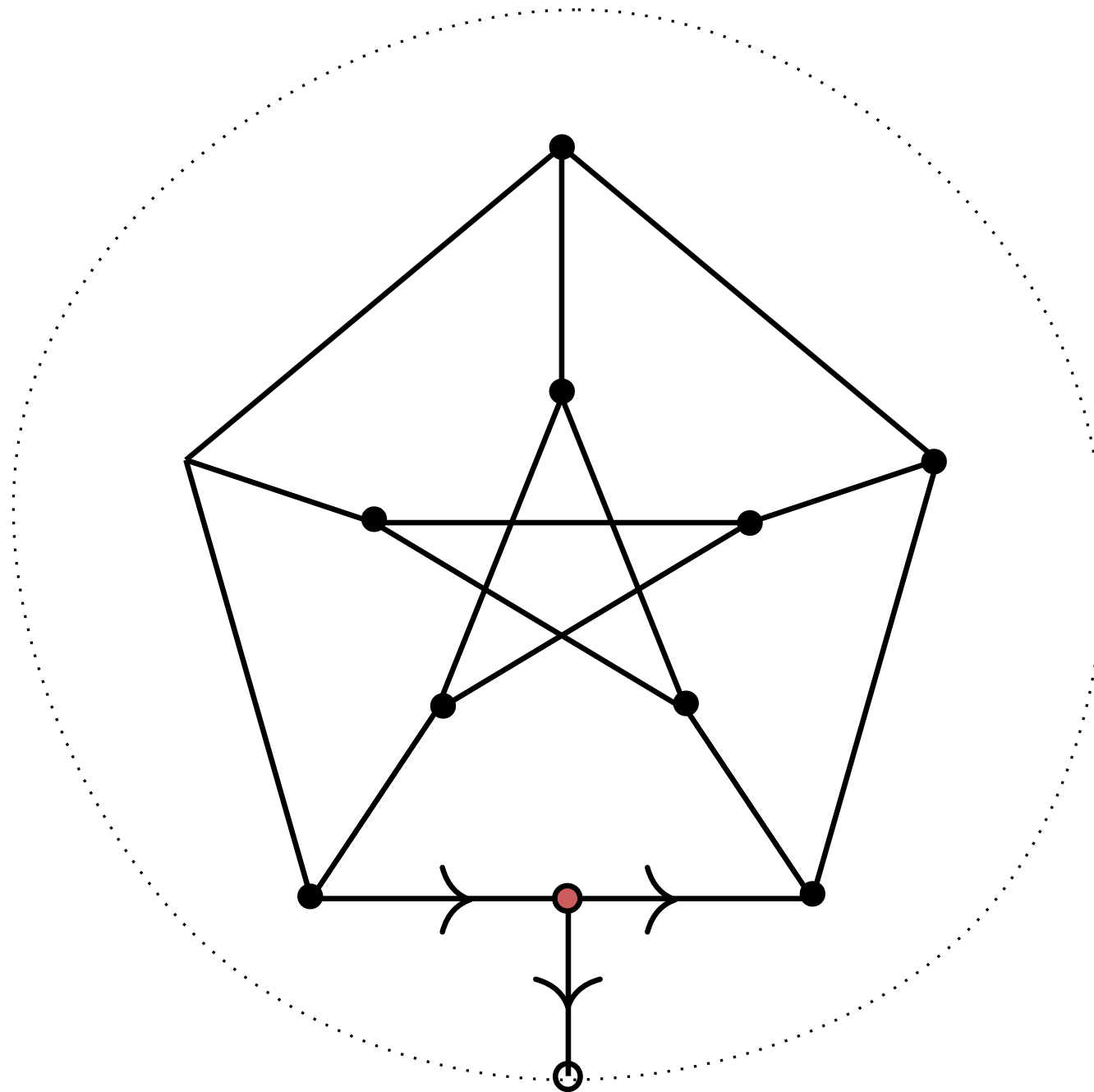
# An example



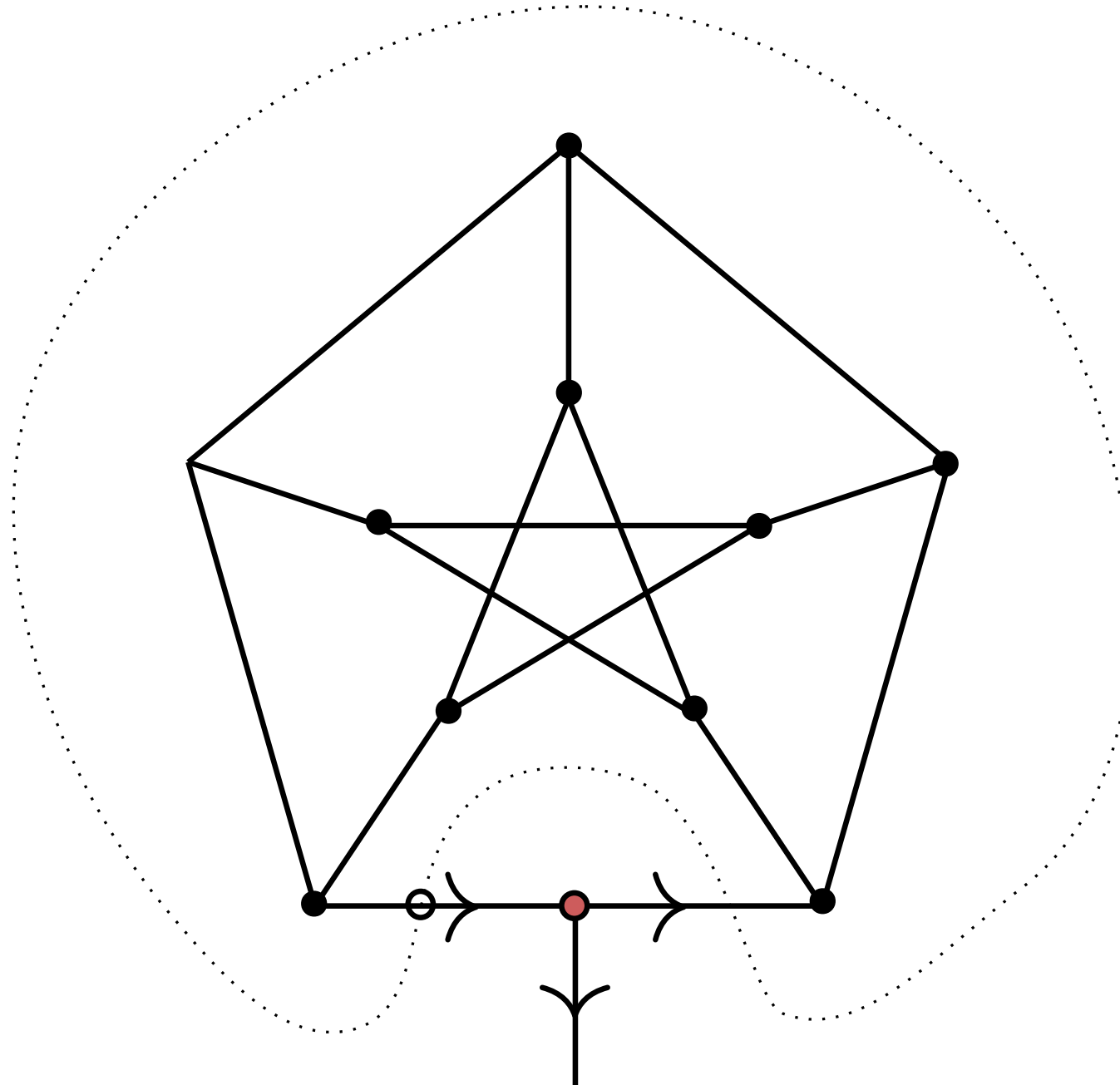
# An example



# An example

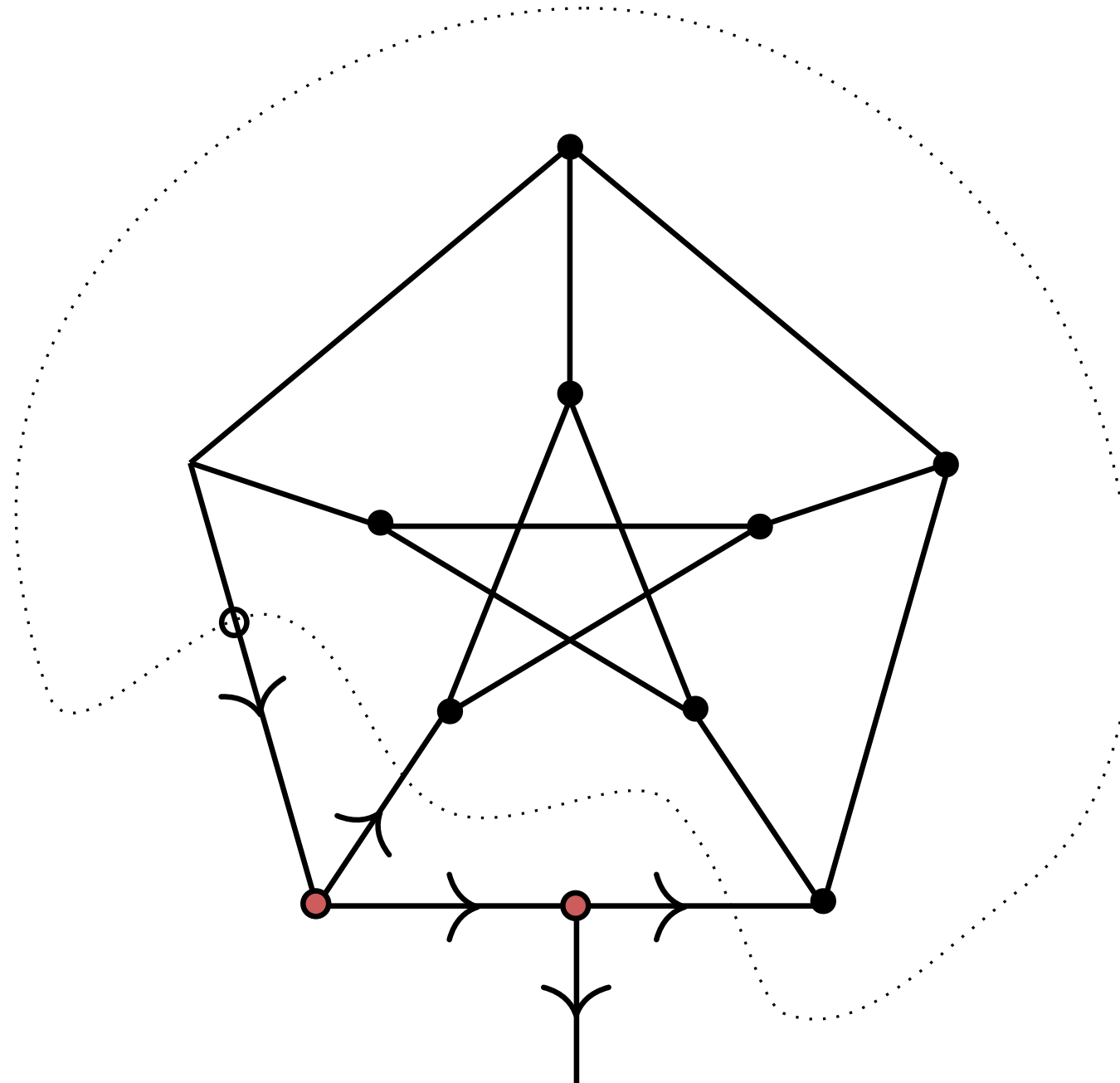


# An example

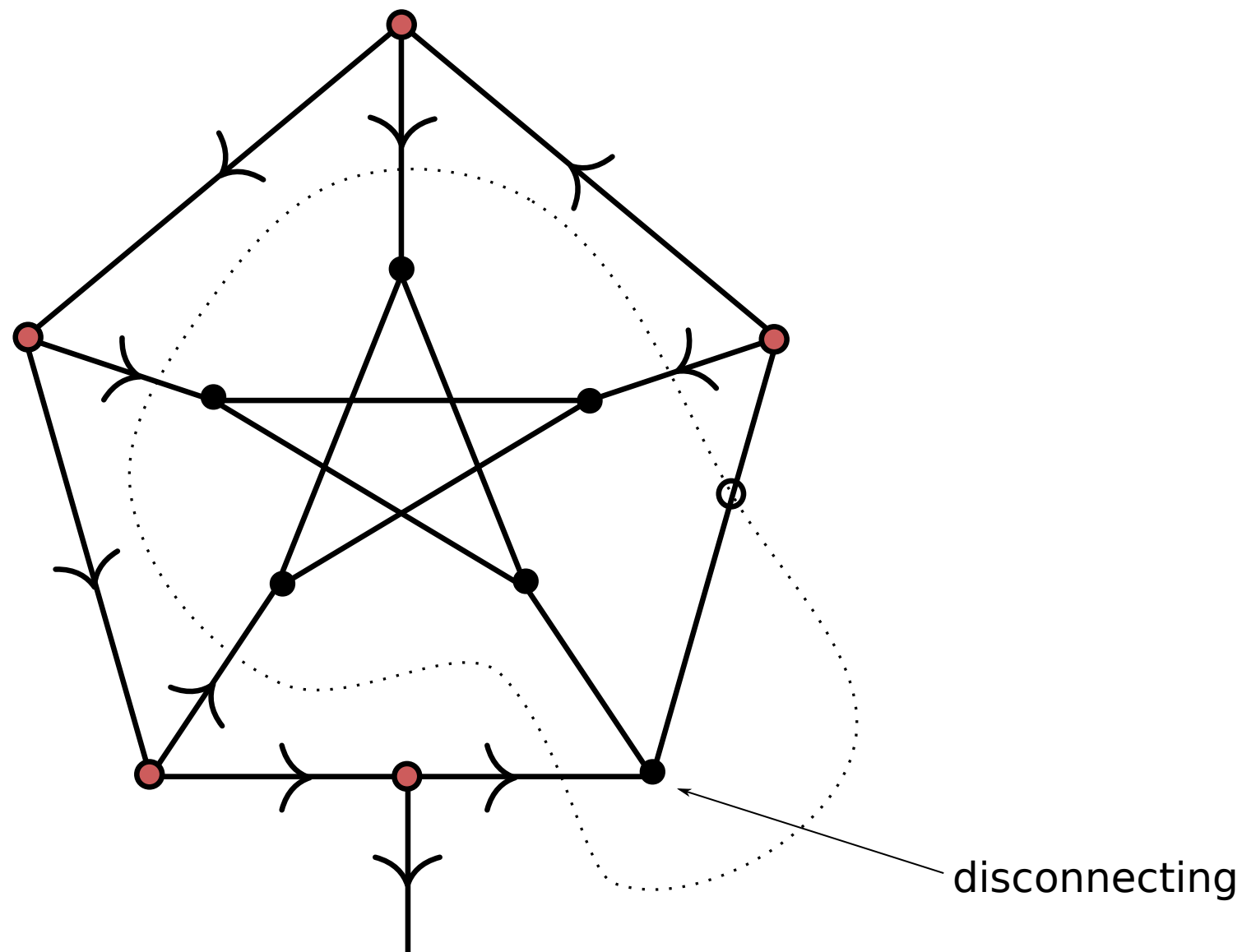




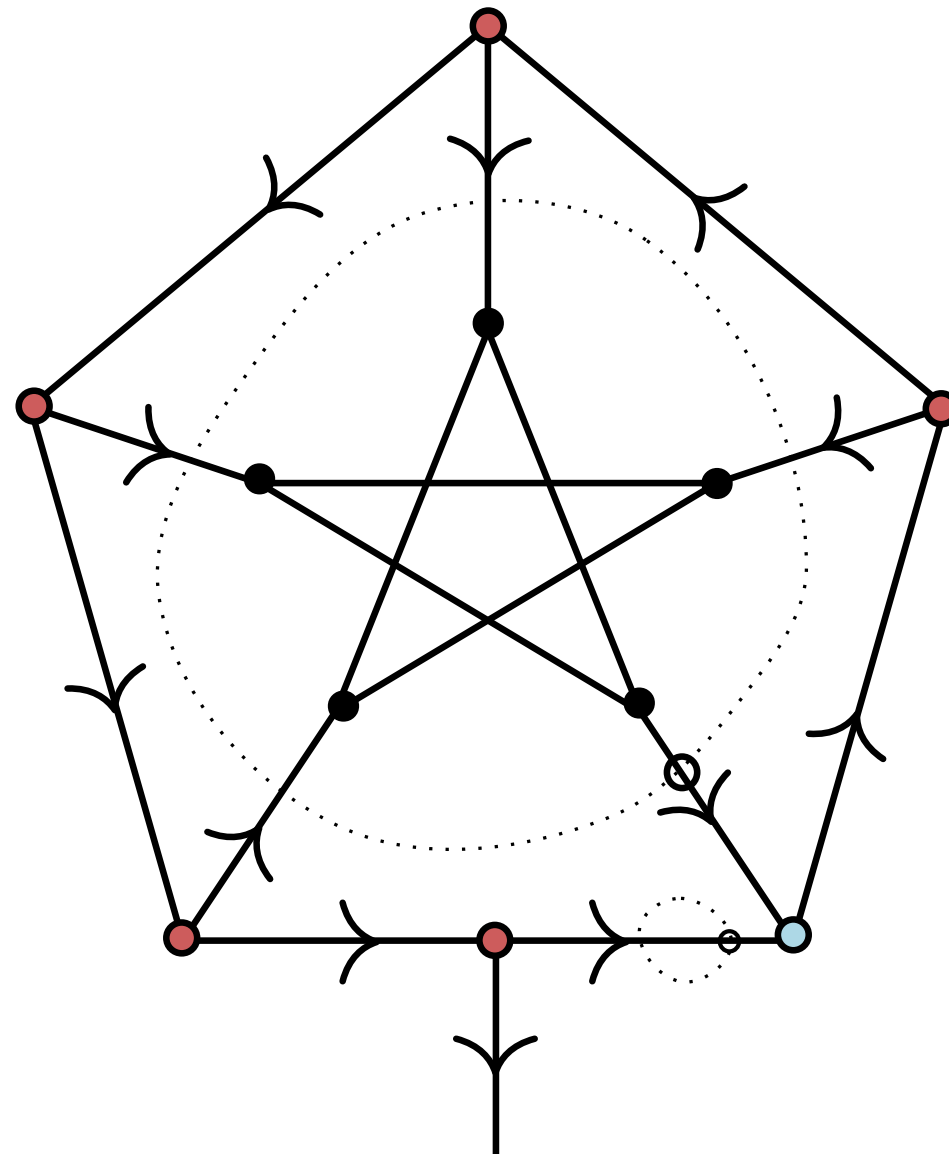
# An example



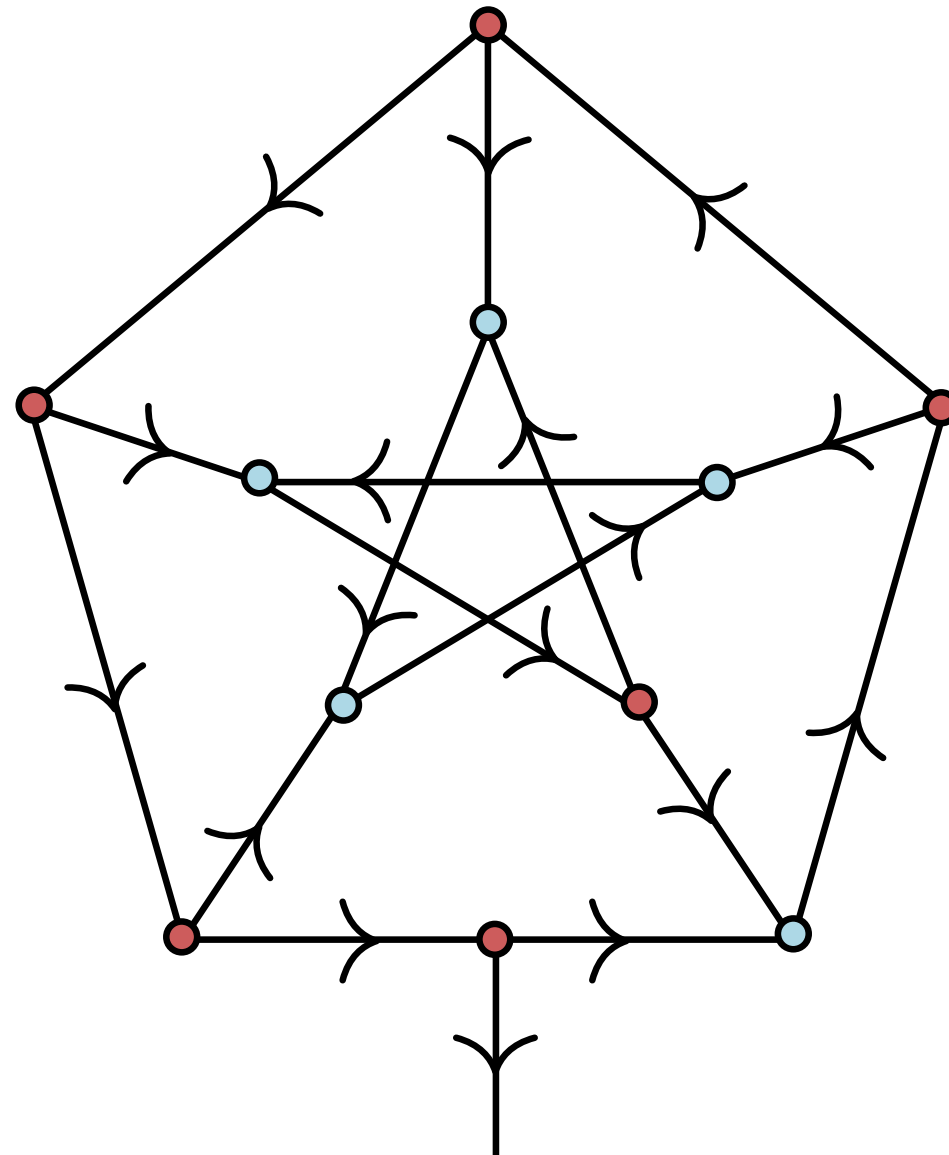
# An example



# An example



# An example



$\lambda a.\lambda b.\lambda c.\lambda d.\lambda e.a(\lambda f.c(e(b(df))))$

# Some tools for further exploring the bijection

## George Kaye's $\lambda$ -term visualiser and gallery

<https://www.georgejkaye.com/lambda-visualiser/visualiser.html>

<https://www.georgejkaye.com/lambda-visualiser/gallery>

### Filtering options

Crossings  Abstractions  Applications  Variables   $\beta$ -redexes  Sort

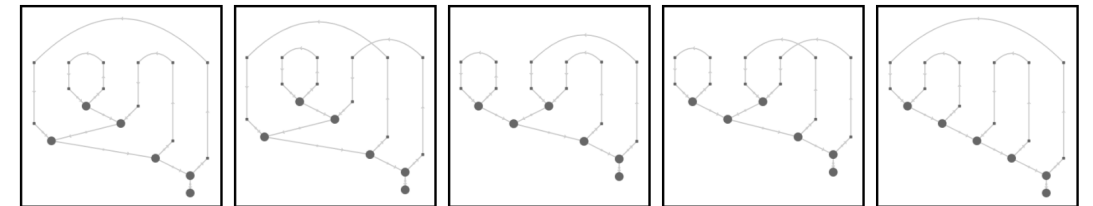
### Generation options

Write out terms  Draw maps (costly)  Use de Bruijn notation

Show crossings  Show  $\beta$ -reductions

There are 60 linear terms for  $n = 8$  and  $k = 0$   
29/60 terms match the filtering criteria: 48.33%

Click on a term to learn more about it.



$\lambda x. \lambda y. x ((\lambda z. z) y)$   
 $\times 0 \quad \beta 1$

$\lambda x. \lambda y. y ((\lambda z. z) x)$   
 $\times 1 \quad \beta 1$

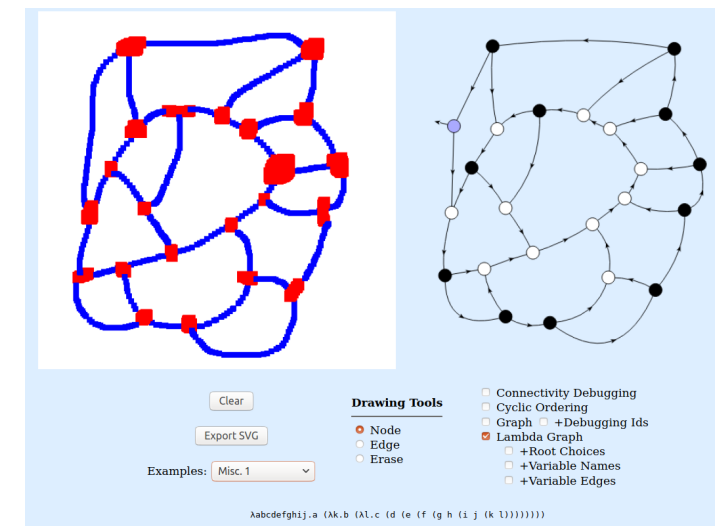
$\lambda x. \lambda y. (\lambda z. z) (x y)$   
 $\times 0 \quad \beta 1$

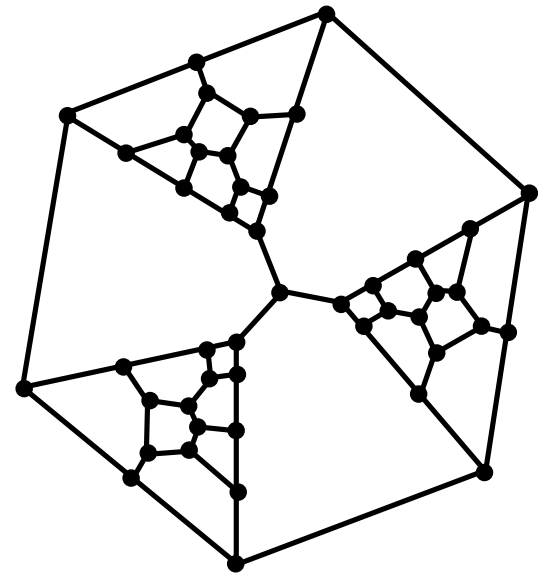
$\lambda x. \lambda y. (\lambda z. z) (y x)$   
 $\times 1 \quad \beta 1$

$\lambda x. \lambda y. (\lambda z. x z) y$   
 $\times 0 \quad \beta 1$

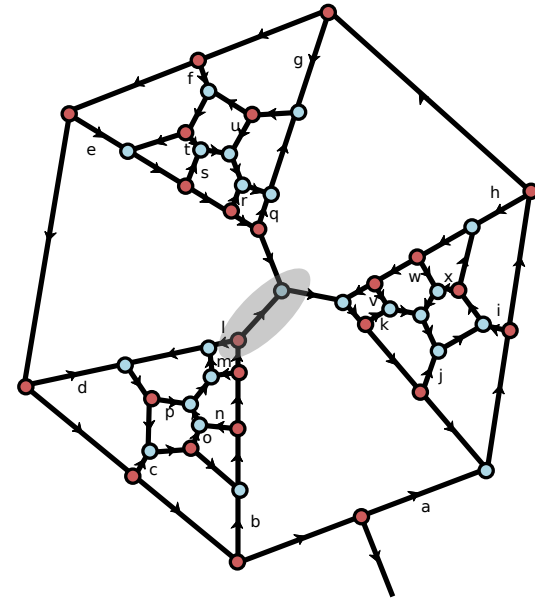
## Jason Reed's Interactive Lambda Maps Toy

<https://jcreedcmu.github.io/demo/lambda-map-drawer/public/index.html>

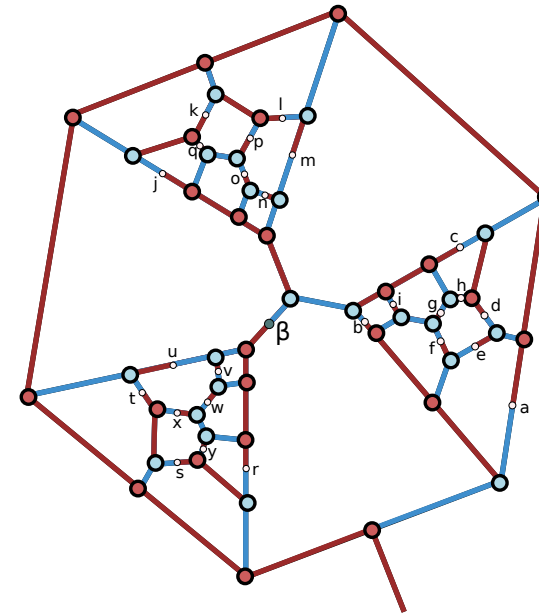




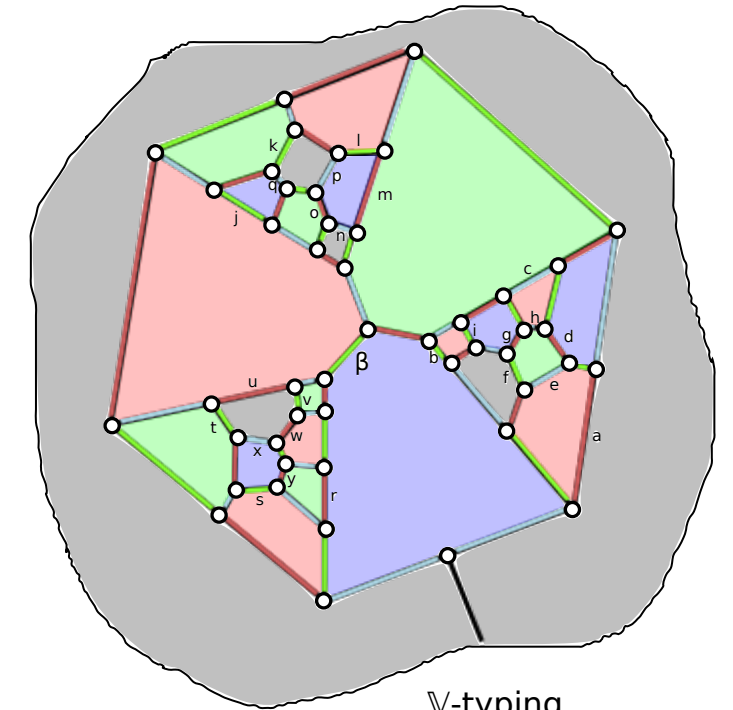
3-valent map



linear lambda term



principal typing

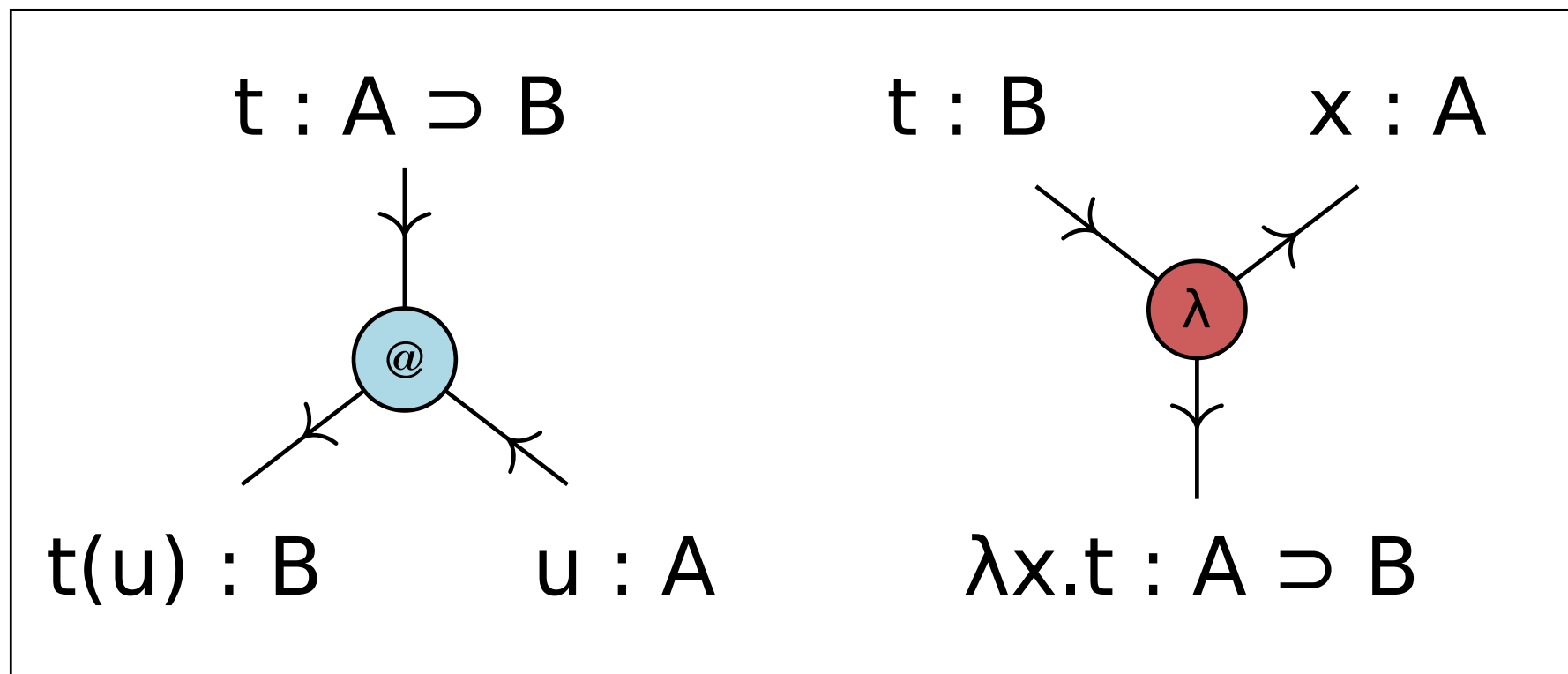


$\mathbb{V}$ -typing

# 5. From Lambda Calculus to the Four Color Theorem

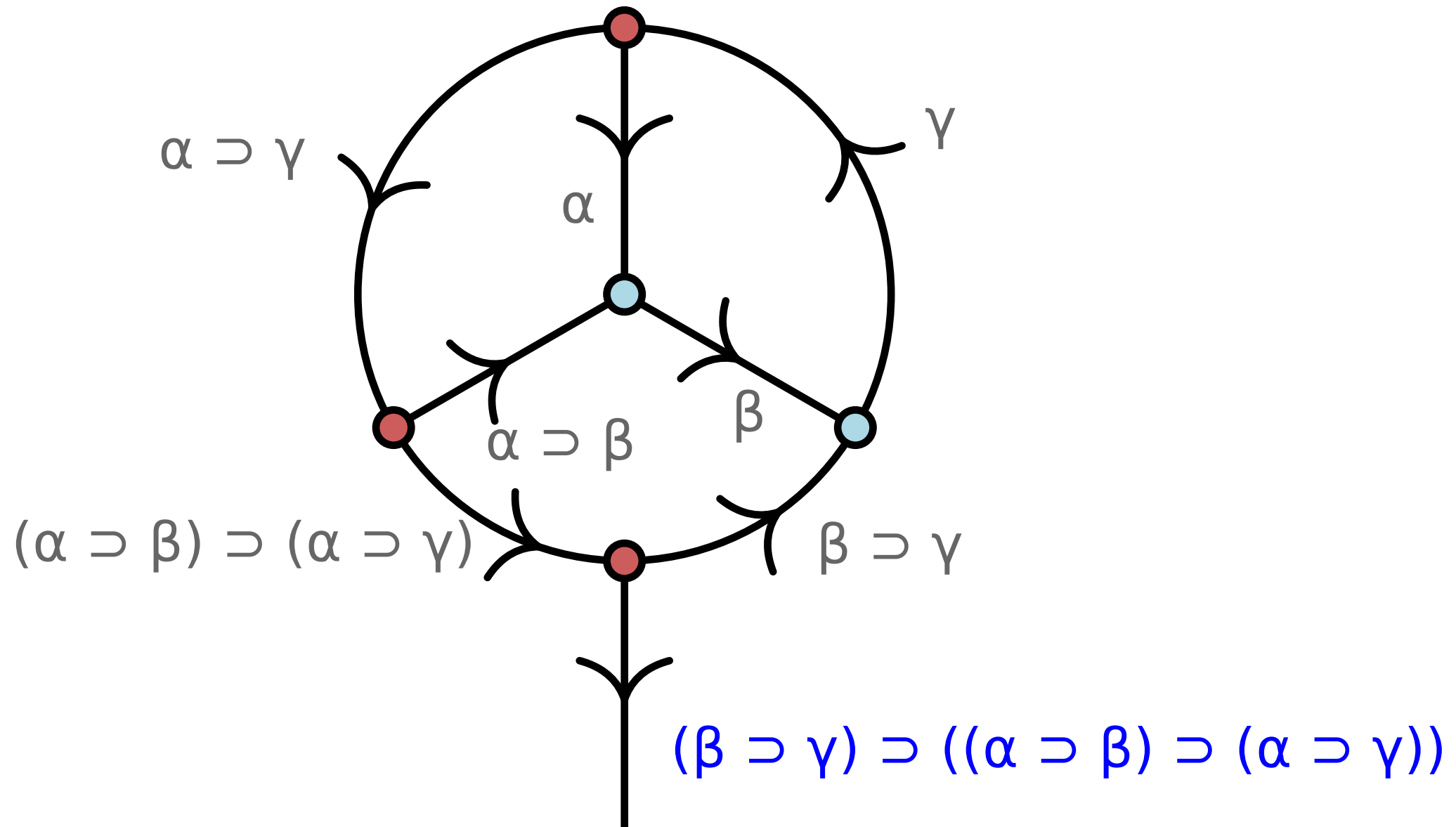
# Typing as edge-coloring

Under this correspondence, typing is just an *edge-coloring problem*...



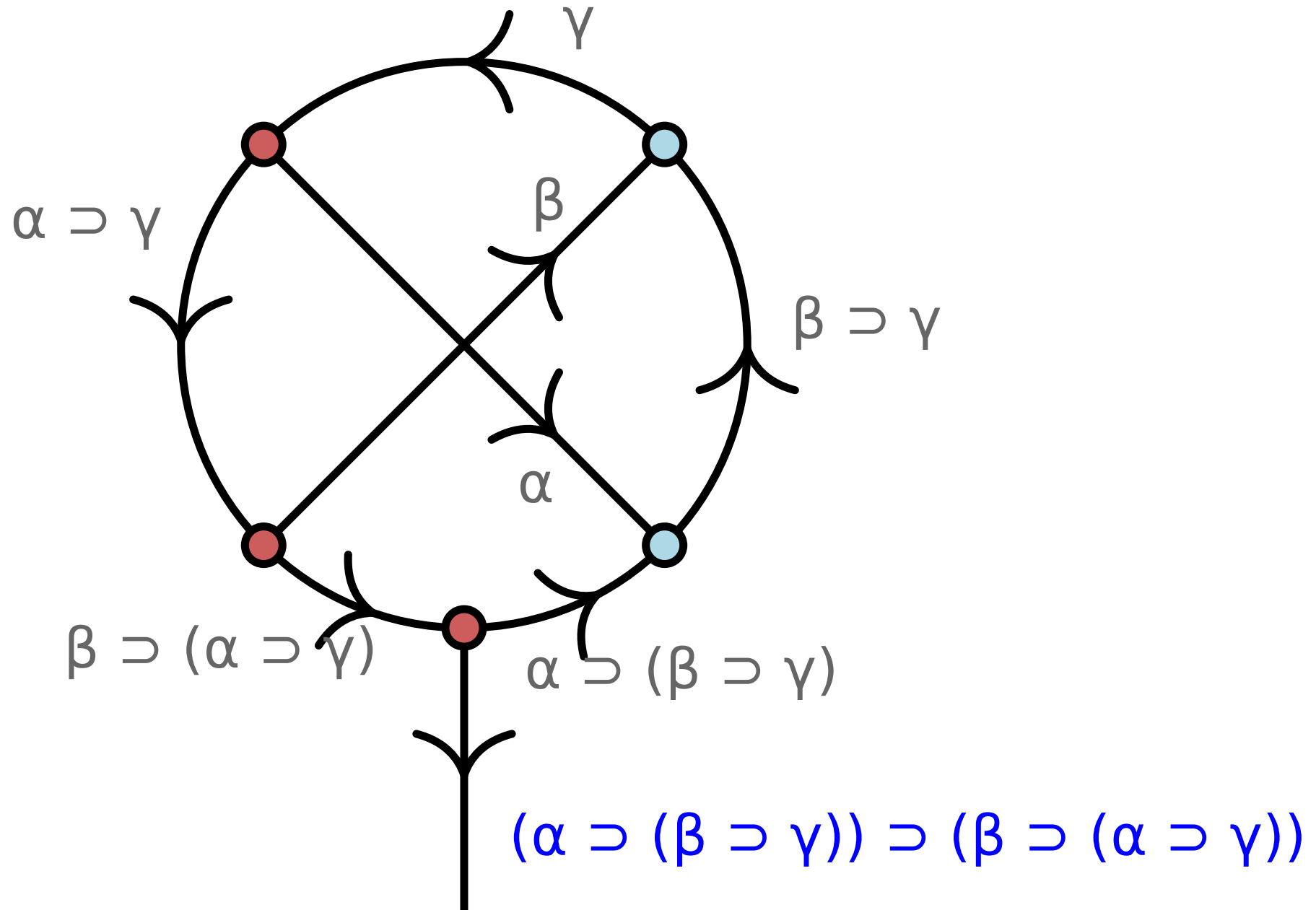
...for a liberal notion of "color"

# Typing as edge-coloring





# Typing as edge-coloring

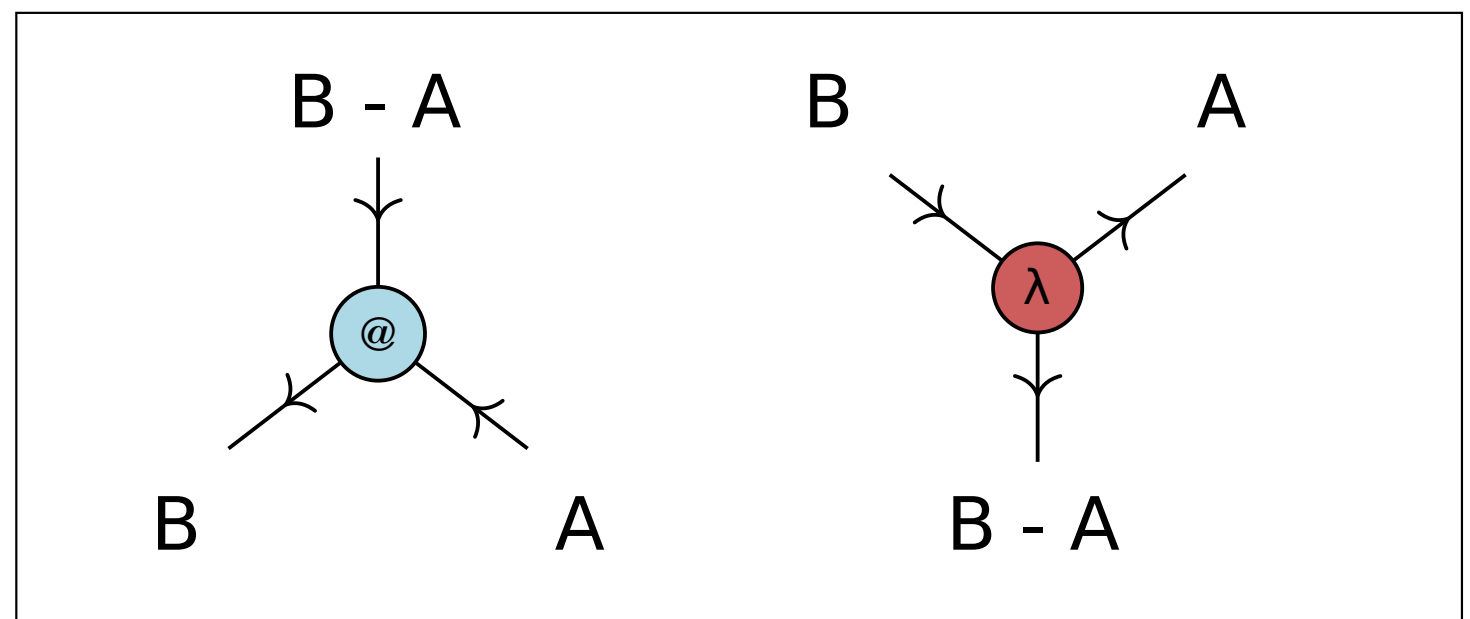


# Typing in a group

Abstractly, types can be drawn from any algebraic structure satisfying the laws of linear implication (essentially, the BCI axioms).

In particular, an abelian group!  $A \supset B := -A + B$

In this case, a typing of a linear  $\lambda$ -term is the same thing as a *flow*\* over the corresponding 3-valent graph.



\*Tutte, "A contribution to the theory of chromatic polynomials", 1954

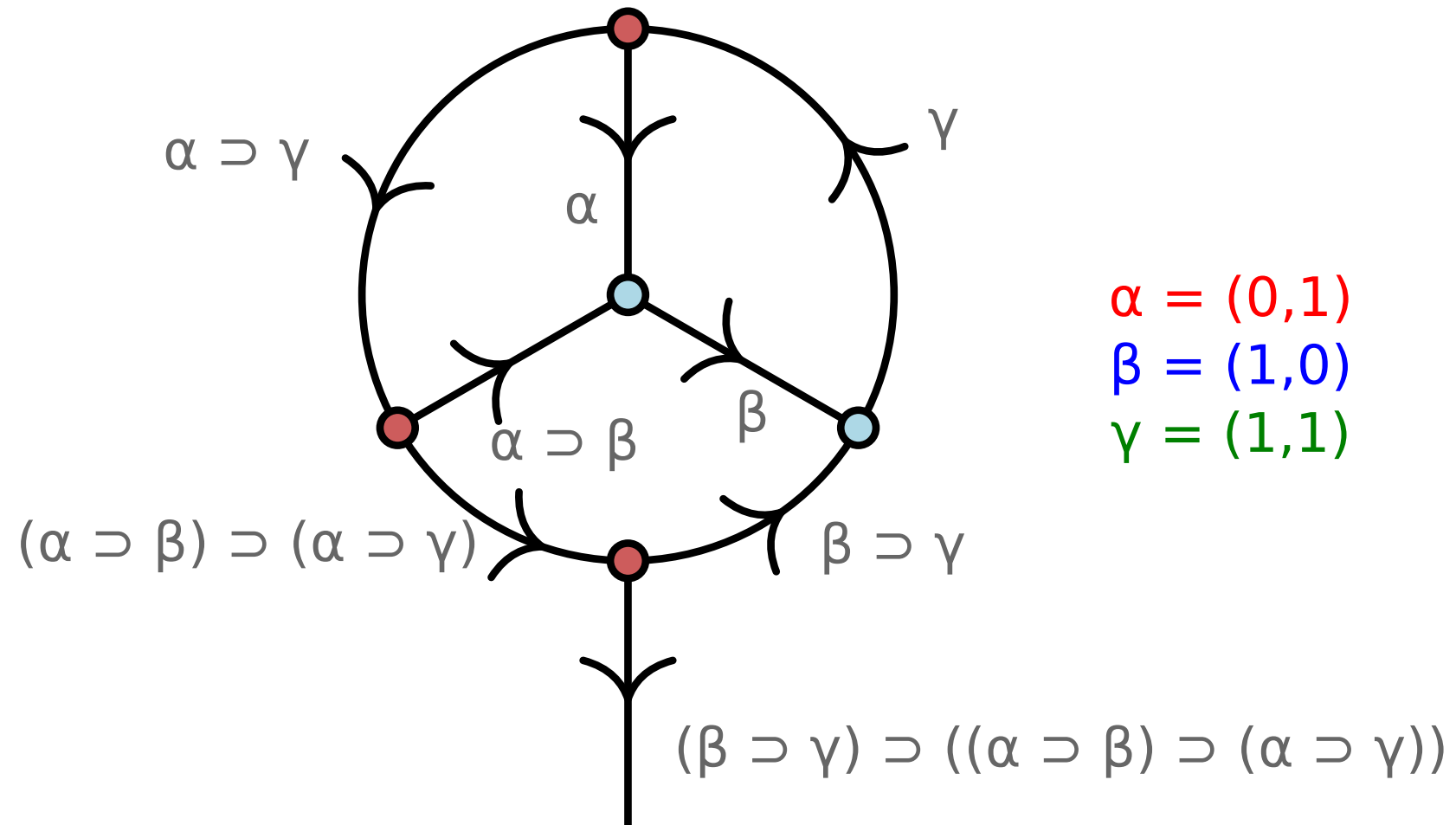
# Exercise

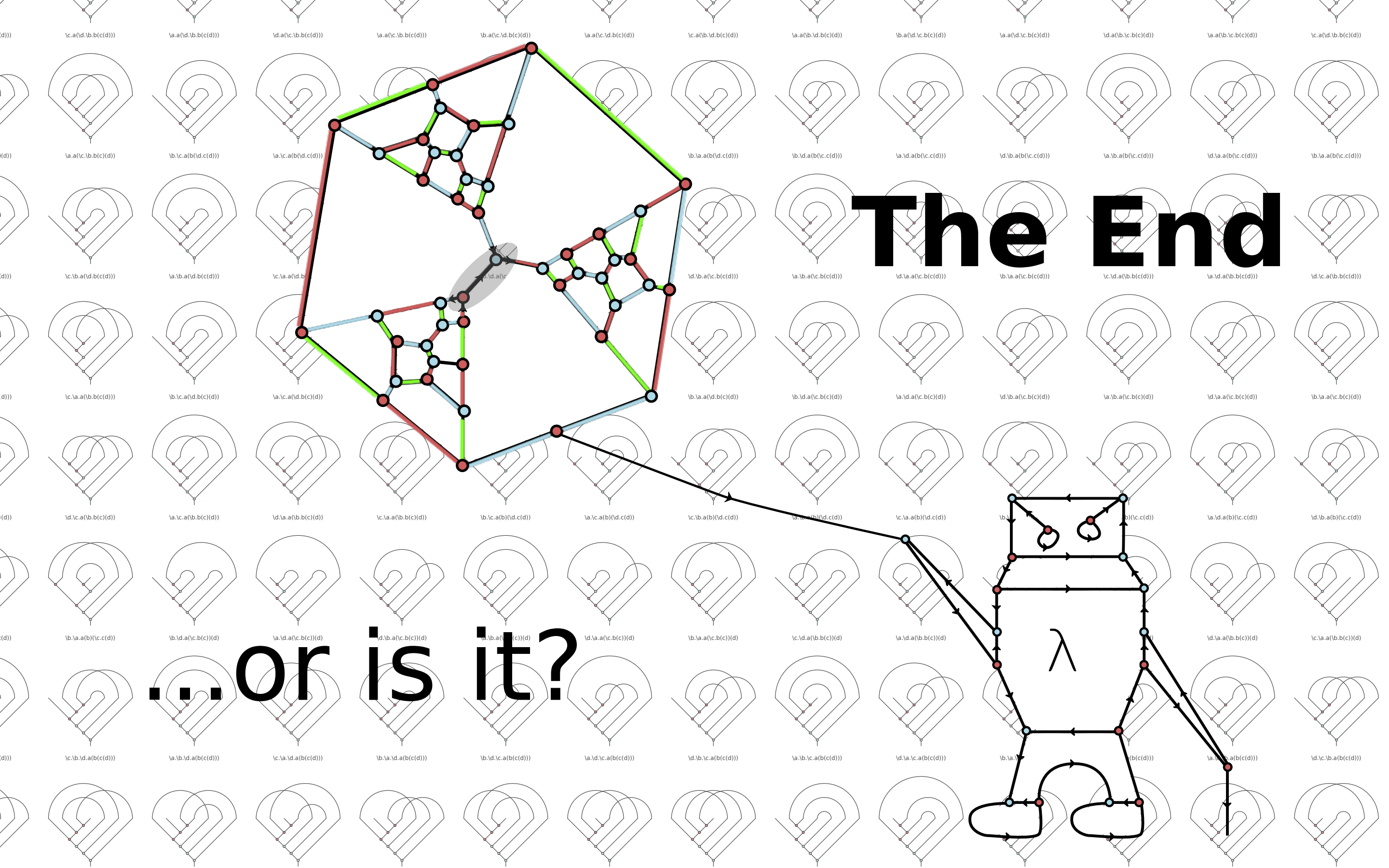
Let  $\mathbb{V} = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  be the Klein Four Group.

Prove: every ordered linear  $\lambda$ -term with no closed subterms has a  $\mathbb{V}$ -typing such that no subterm gets the type  $(0,0)$ .

# Exercise

Example:





The End

...or is it?