

COSE212: Programming Languages

Lecture 13 — Untyped Lambda Calculus

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Origins of Computers and Programming Languages



- What is the original model of computers?
- What is the original model of programming languages?
- Which one came first?

cf) Church-Turing thesis:

Lambda calculus = Turing machine

Lambda Calculus

- The first, yet turing-complete, programming language
- Developed by Alonzo Church in 1936
- The core of functional programming languages (e.g., Lisp, ML, Haskell, Scala, etc)

Syntax of Lambda Calculus

e	\rightarrow	x	variables
		$\lambda x.e$	abstraction
		$e e$	application

- Examples:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & x & y & z \\ & & \lambda x.x & \lambda x.y & \lambda x.\lambda y.x \\ x y & (\lambda x.x) z & x \lambda y.z & ((\lambda x.x) \lambda x.x) \end{array}$$

- Conventions when writing λ -expressions:
 - 1 Application associates to the left, e.g., $s t u = (s t) u$
 - 2 The body of an abstraction extends as far to the right as possible, e.g., $\lambda x.\lambda y.x y x = \lambda x.(\lambda y.((x y) x))$

Bound and Free Variables

- An occurrence of variable x is said to be *bound* when it occurs inside λx , otherwise said to be *free*.
 - ▶ $\lambda y.(x y)$
 - ▶ $\lambda x.x$
 - ▶ $\lambda z.\lambda x.\lambda x.(y z)$
 - ▶ $(\lambda x.x) x$
- Expressions without free variables is said to be *closed expressions* or *combinators*.

Evaluation

To evaluate λ -expression e ,

- 1 Find a sub-expression of the form:

$$(\lambda x.e_1) e_2$$

Expressions of this form are called “redex” (reducible expression).

- 2 Rewrite the expression by substituting the e_2 for every free occurrence of x in e_1 :

$$(\lambda x.e_1) e_2 \rightarrow [x \mapsto e_2]e_1$$

This rewriting is called β -reduction

Repeat the above two steps until there are no redexes.

Evaluation

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

Evaluation Strategy

- In a lambda expression, multiple redexes may exist. Which redex to reduce next?

$$\lambda x.x (\lambda x.x (\lambda z.(\lambda x.x) z)) = id (id (\lambda z.id z))$$

redexes:

$$\underline{id (id (\lambda z.id z))}$$

$$id (\underline{id (\lambda z.id z)})$$

$$id (id (\lambda z.\underline{id z}))$$

- Evaluation strategies:
 - ▶ Full beta-reduction
 - ▶ Normal order
 - ▶ Call-by-name
 - ▶ Call-by-value

Full beta-reduction strategy

Any redex may be reduced at any time:

$$\begin{aligned} & id (id (\lambda z. id z)) \\ \rightarrow & id (id (\lambda z. z)) \\ \rightarrow & id (\lambda z. z) \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z. z \\ \not\rightarrow & \end{aligned}$$

or,

$$\begin{aligned} & id (id (\lambda z. id z)) \\ \rightarrow & id (\lambda z. id z) \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z. id z \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z. z \\ \not\rightarrow & \end{aligned}$$

The evaluation is non-deterministic.

Normal order strategy

Reduce the leftmost, outermost redex first:

$$\begin{aligned} & id (id (\lambda z.id z)) \\ \rightarrow & \frac{id (id (\lambda z.id z))}{id (\lambda z.id z)} \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z.id z \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z.z \\ \not\rightarrow & \end{aligned}$$

The evaluation is deterministic (i.e., partial function).

Call-by-name strategy

Follow the normal order reduction, not allowing reductions inside abstractions:

$$\begin{aligned} & id (id (\lambda z.id z)) \\ \rightarrow & \frac{id (id (\lambda z.id z))}{id (\lambda z.id z)} \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z.id z \\ \not\rightarrow & \end{aligned}$$

The call-by-name strategy is *non-strict* (or *lazy*) in that it evaluates arguments that are actually used.

Call-by-value strategy

Reduce the outermost redex whose right-hand side has a *value* (a term that cannot be reduced any further):

$$\begin{aligned} & id (id (\lambda z.id z)) \\ \rightarrow & \frac{id (id (\lambda z.id z))}{id (\lambda z.id z)} \\ \rightarrow & \lambda z.id z \\ \not\rightarrow & \end{aligned}$$

The call-by-name strategy is *strict* in that it always evaluates arguments, whether or not they are used in the body.

Programming in the Lambda Calculus

- boolean values
- natural numbers
- pairs
- recursion
- ...

Church Booleans

- Boolean values:

$$\text{true} = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$

$$\text{false} = \lambda t. \lambda f. f$$

- Conditional test:

$$\text{test} = \lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. l \ m \ n$$

- Then,

$$\text{test } b \ v \ w = \begin{cases} v & \text{if } b = \text{true} \\ w & \text{if } b = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

- Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{test true } v \ w &= (\lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. l \ m \ n) \ \text{true } v \ w \\ &= (\lambda m. \lambda n. \text{true } m \ n) \ v \ w \\ &= \text{true } v \ w \\ &= (\lambda t. \lambda f. t) \ v \ w \\ &= (\lambda f. v) \ w \\ &= v \end{aligned}$$

Church Booleans

Logical operators:

- Logical “and”:

and = $\lambda b.\lambda c.(b\ c\ \text{false})$

and true true = true

and true false = false

and false true = false

and false false = false

- (exercise) Logical “or” and “not”?

or true true = true

or true false = true

or false true = true

or false false = false

not true = false

not false = true

Pairs

Using booleans, we can encode pairs of values.

$\text{pair } v \ w$: create a pair of v and w

$\text{fst } p$: select the first component of p

$\text{snd } p$: select the second component of p

- Definition:

$$\text{pair} = \lambda f. \lambda s. \lambda b. b \ f \ s$$
$$\text{fst} = \lambda p. p \ \text{true}$$
$$\text{snd} = \lambda p. p \ \text{false}$$

- Example:

$$\text{fst} (\text{pair } v \ w) = \text{fst} ((\lambda f. \lambda s. \lambda b. b \ f \ s) \ v \ w)$$
$$= \text{fst} (\lambda b. b \ v \ w)$$
$$= (\lambda p. p \ \text{true}) (\lambda b. b \ v \ w)$$
$$= (\lambda b. b \ v \ w) \ \text{true}$$
$$= \text{true } v \ w$$
$$= v$$

Church Numerals

$$\begin{aligned}c_0 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. z \\c_1 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. (s z) \\c_2 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z) \\&\vdots \\c_n &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s^n z\end{aligned}$$

Church Numerals

- Successor:

$$\text{succ } c_i = c_{i+1}$$

Definition:

$$\text{succ} = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{succ } c_0 &= \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. (s (n s z)) c_0 \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. (s (c_0 s z)) \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. (s z) \\ &= c_1 \end{aligned}$$

Church Numeral

- Addition:

$$\text{plus } c_n c_m = c_{n+m}$$

Definition:

$$\text{plus} = \lambda n. \lambda m. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{plus } c_1 c_2 &= \lambda s. \lambda z. c_2 s (c_1 s z) \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. c_2 s (s z) \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z)) \\ &= c_3 \end{aligned}$$

Church Numerals

- Multiplication:

$$\text{mult } c_n c_m = c_{n*m}$$

Definition:

$$\text{mult} =$$

Church Numerals

- Multiplication:

$$\text{mult } c_n c_m = c_{n*m}$$

Definition:

$$\text{mult} =$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mult } c_1 c_2 &= (\lambda m. \lambda n. m \text{ (plus } n) c_0) c_1 c_2 \\ &= c_1 \text{ (plus } c_2) c_0 \\ &= \text{(plus } c_2) c_0 \\ &= (\lambda m. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (c_2 s z)) c_0 \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. c_0 s (c_2 s z) \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. c_2 s z \\ &= \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z) \end{aligned}$$

- Other definition:

$$\text{mult2} = \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m (n s) z$$

- Power (n^m):

$$\text{power} = \lambda m. \lambda n. m (\text{mult } n) c_1$$

Church Numerals

- Testing zero:

$\text{zero? } c_0 = \text{true}$

$\text{zero? } c_1 = \text{false}$

Definition:

$\text{zero?} =$

Example:

$\text{zero? } c_0 =$

Recursion

- In lambda calculus, recursion is magically realized via Y-combinator:

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

- For example, the factorial function

$$f(n) = \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n - 1)$$

is encoded by

$$\text{fact} = Y(\lambda f.\lambda n.\text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n - 1))$$

Then, $\text{fact } n$ computes $n!$.

- Recursive functions can be encoded by composing non-recursive functions!

Recursion

Let $F = \lambda f.\lambda n.\text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n - 1)$ and
 $G = \lambda x.F(x x)$.

fact 1

$$= (Y F) 1$$

$$= (\lambda f.((\lambda x.f(x x))(\lambda x.f(x x)))) F) 1$$

$$= ((\lambda x.F(x x))(\lambda x.F(x x))) 1$$

$$= (G G) 1$$

$$= (F (G G)) 1$$

$$= (\lambda n.\text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * (G G)(n - 1)) 1$$

$$= \text{if } 1 = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 1 * (G G)(1 - 1)$$

$$= \text{if false then } 1 \text{ else } 1 * (G G)(1 - 1)$$

$$= 1 * (G G)(1 - 1)$$

$$= 1 * (F (G G))(1 - 1)$$

$$= 1 * (\lambda n.\text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * (G G)(n - 1))(1 - 1)$$

$$= 1 * \text{if } (1 - 1) = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } (1 - 1) * (G G)((1 - 1) - 1)$$

$$= 1 * 1$$

Summary

- λ -calculus is a simple and minimal language.
 - ▶ Syntax: $e \rightarrow x \mid \lambda x.e \mid e e$
 - ▶ Semantics: β -reduction
- Yet, λ -calculus is Turing-complete.
 - ▶ E.g., ordinary values (e.g., boolean, numbers, pairs, etc) can be encoded in λ -calculus (see in the next class).
- Church-Turing thesis:

$$\begin{array}{l} e \rightarrow x \\ | \\ \lambda x.e \\ | \\ e e \end{array} =$$

