
CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Lambda Calculus

Quiz #7

Beta reducing the following term produces what result?

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

- a) $\lambda x. w w z$
- b) $\lambda x. w z$
- c) $w z$
- d) Does not reduce

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Lambda Calc, Impl in OCaml

► $e ::= x$
| $\lambda x.e$
| $e e$

```
type id = string  
type exp = Var of id  
| Lam of id * exp  
| App of exp * exp
```

y	<code>Var "y"</code>
$\lambda x.x$	<code>Lam ("x", Var "x")</code>
$\lambda x.\lambda y.x y$	<code>Lam ("x", (Lam ("y", App (Var "x", Var "y"))))</code>
$(\lambda x.\lambda y.x y) \lambda x.x x$	<code>App</code> <code>(Lam ("x", Lam ("y", App (Var "x", Var "y"))),</code> <code>Lam ("x", App (Var "x", Var "x")))</code>

Quiz #8

What is this term's AST?

$\lambda x. x \ x$

```
type id = string
type exp =
    Var of id
  | Lam of id * exp
  | App of exp * exp
```

- A. *App (Lam ("x", Var "x"), Var "x")*
- B. *Lam (Var "x", Var "x", Var "x")*
- C. *Lam ("x", App (Var "x", Var "x"))*
- D. *App (Lam ("x", App ("x", "x")))*

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- C. *Lam ("x", App (Var "x", Var "x"))*
- D. *App (Lam ("x", App ("x", "x")))*

OCaml Implementation: Substitution

```
(* substitute e for y in m -- m[y:=e] *)
let rec subst m y e =
  match m with
  | Var x ->
    if y = x then e (* substitute *)
    else m          (* don't subst *)
  | App (e1,e2) ->
    App (subst e1 y e, subst e2 y e)
  | Lam (x,e0) -> ...
```

OCaml Impl: Substitution (cont'd)

```
(* substitute e for y in m -- m[y:=e] *)
let rec subst m y e = match m with ...
  | Lam (x, e0) ->
    if y = x then m                               Shadowing blocks
    else if not (List.mem x (fvs e)) then           substitution
      Lam (x, subst e0 y e)                         Safe: no capture possible
    else      Might capture; need to  $\alpha$ -convert
      let z = newvar() in (* fresh *)
      let e0' = subst e0 x (Var z) in
      Lam (z, subst e0' y e)
```


CBV, L-to-R Reduction with Partial Eval

let rec reduce e =

match e with

Straight β rule

App (Lam (x,e), e2) -> subst e x e2

| App (e1,e2) ->

let e1' = reduce e1 in

Reduce lhs of app

if e1' != e1 then App(e1',e2)

else App (e1,reduce e2)

Reduce rhs of app

| Lam (x,e) -> Lam (x, reduce e)

| _ -> e

Reduce function body

nothing to do

Another Way to Avoid Capture

- ▶ Another way to avoid accidental variable capture is to use the “Barendregt Convention”: gives everything ‘fresh’ names.
 - If every name is unique, no chance of variable capture
 - Simple, but not great for performance as you have to do it after every beta-reduction!

Quick Recap on LC

- ▶ Despite its simplicity (3 AST nodes and a handful of small-step rules), LC is **Turing Complete**
- ▶ Any function that can be evaluated on a Turing machine can be **encoded** into LC (and vice-versa)
 - But we'll have to come up with the **encodings**!
- ▶ To *prove* that it is Turing Complete we have to map every possible Turing Machine to LC
 - We won't be doing that

The Power of Lambdas

- ▶ To give a sense of how one can encode various constructs into LC we'll be looking at some concrete examples:
 - Let bindings
 - Booleans
 - Pairs
 - Natural numbers & arithmetic
 - Looping

Let bindings

- ▶ Local variable declarations are like defining a function and applying it immediately (once):

- $\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 = (\lambda x. e2) e1$

- ▶ Example

- $\text{let } x = (\lambda y. y) \text{ in } x x = (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda y. y)$

where

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

Booleans

► Church's encoding of mathematical logic

- $\text{true} = \lambda x. \lambda y. x$
- $\text{false} = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$
- $\text{if } a \text{ then } b \text{ else } c$
 - Defined to be the expression: $a \ b \ c$

► Examples

- $\text{if true then } b \text{ else } c = (\lambda x. \lambda y. x) \ b \ c \rightarrow (\lambda y. b) \ c \rightarrow b$
- $\text{if false then } b \text{ else } c = (\lambda x. \lambda y. y) \ b \ c \rightarrow (\lambda y. y) \ c \rightarrow c$

Booleans (cont.)

► Other Boolean operations

- $\text{not} = \lambda x.x \text{ false true}$

- $\text{not } x = x \text{ false true} = \text{if } x \text{ then false else true}$

- $\text{not true} \rightarrow (\lambda x.x \text{ false true}) \text{ true} \rightarrow (\text{true false true}) \rightarrow \text{false}$

- $\text{and} = \lambda x.\lambda y.x y \text{ false}$

- $\text{and } x y = \text{if } x \text{ then } y \text{ else false}$

- $\text{or} = \lambda x.\lambda y.x \text{ true } y$

- $\text{or } x y = \text{if } x \text{ then true else } y$

► Given these operations

- Can build up a logical inference system

Quiz #9

What is the lambda calculus encoding of **xor x y**?

▶ xor true true = xor false false = false

▶ xor true false = xor false true = true

▶ $x\ x\ y$

▶ $x\ (y\ \text{true}\ \text{false})\ y$

▶ $x\ (y\ \text{false}\ \text{true})\ y$

▶ $y\ x\ y$

$\text{true} = \lambda x.\lambda y.x$

$\text{false} = \lambda x.\lambda y.y$

$\text{if } a \text{ then } b \text{ else } c = a\ b\ c$

$\text{not} = \lambda x.x\ \text{false}\ \text{true}$

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What is the lambda calculus encoding of **xor x y**?

- ▶ xor true true = xor false false = false
- ▶ xor true false = xor false true = true

- ▶ $x\ x\ y$
- ▶ $x\ (y\ \text{true}\ \text{false})\ y$
- ▶ **$x\ (y\ \text{false}\ \text{true})\ y$**
- ▶ $y\ x\ y$

true = $\lambda x.\lambda y.x$

false = $\lambda x.\lambda y.y$

if a then b else c = $a\ b\ c$

not = $\lambda x.x\ \text{false}\ \text{true}$

Pairs

- ▶ Encoding of a pair a, b
 - $(a,b) = \lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } a \text{ else } b$
 - $\text{fst} = \lambda f. f \text{ true}$
 - $\text{snd} = \lambda f. f \text{ false}$
- ▶ Examples
 - $\text{fst } (a,b) = (\lambda f. f \text{ true}) (\lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } a \text{ else } b) \rightarrow$
 $(\lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } a \text{ else } b) \text{ true} \rightarrow$
 $\text{if true then } a \text{ else } b \rightarrow a$
 - $\text{snd } (a,b) = (\lambda f. f \text{ false}) (\lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } a \text{ else } b) \rightarrow$
 $(\lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } a \text{ else } b) \text{ false} \rightarrow$
 $\text{if false then } a \text{ else } b \rightarrow b$

Natural Numbers (Church* Numerals)

► Encoding of non-negative integers

- $0 = \lambda f. \lambda y. y$
- $1 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f\ y$
- $2 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f\ (f\ y)$
- $3 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f\ (f\ (f\ y))$

i.e., $n = \lambda f. \lambda y. \text{<apply } f \text{ } n \text{ times to } y\text{>}$

- Formally: $n+1 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f\ (n\ f\ y)$

*(Alonzo Church, of course)

Quiz #10

$n = \lambda f. \lambda y. \langle \text{apply } f \text{ } n \text{ times to } y \rangle$

What OCaml type could you give to a Church-encoded numeral?

- ▶ $('a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b$
- ▶ $('a \rightarrow 'a) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'a$
- ▶ $('a \rightarrow 'a) \rightarrow 'b \rightarrow \text{int}$
- ▶ $(\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

Quiz #10

$n = \lambda f. \lambda y. \langle \text{apply } f \text{ } n \text{ times to } y \rangle$

What OCaml type could you give to a Church-encoded numeral?

- ▶ ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b
- ▶ ('a -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a
- ▶ ('a -> 'a) -> 'b -> int
- ▶ (int -> int) -> int -> int

Operations On Church Numerals

► Successor

- $\text{succ} = \lambda z. \lambda f. \lambda y. f (z f y)$

- $0 = \lambda f. \lambda y. y$

- $1 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f y$

► Example

- $\text{succ } 0 =$

$$(\lambda z. \lambda f. \lambda y. f (z f y)) (\lambda f. \lambda y. y) \rightarrow$$

$$\lambda f. \lambda y. f ((\lambda f. \lambda y. y) f y) \rightarrow$$

$$\lambda f. \lambda y. f ((\lambda y. y) y) \rightarrow$$

$$\lambda f. \lambda y. f y$$

$$= 1$$

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

Operations On Church Numerals (cont.)

► IsZero?

- $\text{iszero} = \lambda z.z (\lambda y.\text{false}) \text{true}$

This is equivalent to $\lambda z.((z (\lambda y.\text{false})) \text{true})$

► Example

- $\text{iszero } 0 =$

$(\lambda z.z (\lambda y.\text{false}) \text{true}) (\lambda f.\lambda y.y) \rightarrow$

$(\lambda f.\lambda y.y) (\lambda y.\text{false}) \text{true} \rightarrow$

$(\lambda y.y) \text{true} \rightarrow$

true

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

- $0 = \lambda f.\lambda y.y$

Arithmetic Using Church Numerals

- ▶ If M and N are numbers (as λ expressions)
 - Can also encode various arithmetic operations
- ▶ Addition
 - $M + N = \lambda f. \lambda y. M \ f \ (N \ f \ y)$
Equivalently: $+ = \lambda M. \lambda N. \lambda f. \lambda y. M \ f \ (N \ f \ y)$
 - In prefix notation (+ M N)
- ▶ Multiplication
 - $M * N = \lambda f. M \ (N \ f)$
Equivalently: $* = \lambda M. \lambda N. \lambda f. \lambda y. M \ (N \ f) \ y$
 - In prefix notation (* M N)

Arithmetic (cont.)

► Prove $1+1 = 2$

- $1+1 = \lambda x.\lambda y.(\lambda x.(\lambda y.f y) x) (1 x y) =$
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.((\lambda f.\lambda y.f y) x) (1 x y) \rightarrow$
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.(\lambda y.x y) (1 x y) \rightarrow$
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.x (\lambda x.(\lambda y.f y) x y) \rightarrow$
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.x ((\lambda f.\lambda y.f y) x y) \rightarrow$
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.x ((\lambda y.x y) y) \rightarrow$
- $\lambda x.\lambda y.x (x y) = 2$

- $1 = \lambda f.\lambda y.f y$
- $2 = \lambda f.\lambda y.f (f y)$

► With these definitions

- Can build a theory of arithmetic

Arithmetic Using Church Numerals

- ▶ What about subtraction?
 - Easy once you have ‘predecessor’, but...
 - Predecessor is very difficult!
- ▶ Story time:
 - One of Church’s students, Kleene (of Kleene-star fame) was struggling to think of how to encode ‘predecessor’, until it came to him during a trip to the dentists office.
 - Take from this what you will
- ▶ Wikipedia has a great derivation of ‘predecessor’, not enough time today.

Looping+Recursion

- ▶ So far we have avoided self-reference, so how does recursion work?
- ▶ We can construct a lambda term that ‘replicates’ itself:
 - Define $D = \lambda x.x\ x$, then
 - $D\ D = (\lambda x.x\ x)\ (\lambda x.x\ x) \rightarrow (\lambda x.x\ x)\ (\lambda x.x\ x) = D\ D$
 - $D\ D$ is an infinite loop
- ▶ We want to generalize this, so that we can make use of looping

The Fixpoint Combinator

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

► Then

$$Y F =$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))) F \rightarrow$$

$$(\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x)) \rightarrow$$

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

$$= F (Y F)$$



► $Y F$ is a *fixed point* (aka *fixpoint*) of F

► Thus $Y F = F (Y F) = F (F (Y F)) = \dots$

- We can use Y to achieve recursion for F

Example

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

- The second argument to `fact` is the integer
- The first argument is the function to call in the body
 - We'll use `Y` to make this recursively call `fact`

$(Y \text{ fact}) 1 = (\text{fact } (Y \text{ fact})) 1$

→ $\text{if } 1 = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 1 * ((Y \text{ fact}) 0)$

→ $1 * ((Y \text{ fact}) 0)$

$= 1 * (\text{fact } (Y \text{ fact}) 0)$

→ $1 * (\text{if } 0 = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 * ((Y \text{ fact}) (-1)))$

→ $1 * 1 \rightarrow 1$

Factorial 4=?

```
(Y G) 4
G (Y G) 4
(λr.λn.(if n = 0 then 1 else n × (r (n-1)))) (Y G) 4
(λn.(if n = 0 then 1 else n × ((Y G) (n-1)))) 4
if 4 = 0 then 1 else 4 × ((Y G) (4-1))
4 × (G (Y G) (4-1))
4 × ((λn.(1, if n = 0; else n × ((Y G) (n-1)))) (4-1))
4 × (1, if 3 = 0; else 3 × ((Y G) (3-1)))
4 × (3 × (G (Y G) (3-1)))
4 × (3 × ((λn.(1, if n = 0; else n × ((Y G) (n-1)))) (3-1)))
4 × (3 × (1, if 2 = 0; else 2 × ((Y G) (2-1))))
4 × (3 × (2 × (G (Y G) (2-1))))
4 × (3 × (2 × ((λn.(1, if n = 0; else n × ((Y G) (n-1)))) (2-1))))
4 × (3 × (2 × (1, if 1 = 0; else 1 × ((Y G) (1-1)))))
4 × (3 × (2 × (1 × (G (Y G) (1-1)))))
4 × (3 × (2 × (1 × ((λn.(1, if n = 0; else n × ((Y G) (n-1)))) (1-1)))))
4 × (3 × (2 × (1 × (1, if 0 = 0; else 0 × ((Y G) (0-1)))))
4 × (3 × (2 × (1 × (1))))
24
```

Discussion

- ▶ Lambda calculus is Turing-complete
 - Most powerful language possible
 - Can represent pretty much anything in “real” language
 - Using clever encodings
- ▶ But programs would be
 - Pretty slow ($10000 + 1 \rightarrow$ thousands of function calls)
 - Pretty large ($10000 + 1 \rightarrow$ hundreds of lines of code)
 - Pretty hard to understand (recognize 10000 vs. 9999)
- ▶ In practice
 - We use richer, more expressive languages
 - That include built-in primitives

The Need For Types

- ▶ Consider the **untyped** lambda calculus
 - $\text{false} = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$
 - $0 = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$
- ▶ Since everything is encoded as a function...
 - We can easily misuse terms...
 - $\text{false } 0 \rightarrow \lambda y. y$
 - if 0 then ...
 - ...because everything evaluates to some function
- ▶ The same thing happens in assembly language
 - Everything is a machine word (a bunch of bits)
 - All operations take machine words to machine words

Simply-Typed Lambda Calculus (STLC)

- ▶ $e ::= n \mid x \mid \lambda x:t.e \mid e e$
 - Added integers n as primitives
 - Need at least two distinct types (integer & function)...
 - ...to have type errors
 - Functions now include the type t of their argument
- ▶ $t ::= \text{int} \mid t \rightarrow t$
 - int is the type of integers
 - $t_1 \rightarrow t_2$ is the type of a function
 - That takes arguments of type t_1 and returns result of type t_2

Types are limiting

- ▶ STLC will reject some terms as ill-typed, even if they will not produce a run-time error
 - Cannot type check Y in STLC
 - Or in OCaml, for that matter, at least not as written earlier.
- ▶ Surprising theorem: All (well typed) simply-typed lambda calculus terms are **strongly normalizing**
 - A normal form is one that cannot be reduced further
 - A **value** is a kind of normal form
 - Strong normalization means STLC terms **always** terminate
 - Proof is *not* by straightforward induction: Applications “increase” term size

Summary

- ▶ Lambda calculus is a core model of computation
 - We can encode familiar language constructs using only functions
 - These encodings are enlightening – make you a better (functional) programmer
- ▶ Useful for understanding how languages work
 - Ideas of types, evaluation order, termination, proof systems, etc. can be developed in lambda calculus,
 - then scaled to full languages