

equational programming

2019 10 28

lecture 1

# overview

- practical issues
- introductory remarks
- lambda terms
- material

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## who and when

### lectures:

Mondays 11.00-12.45 and Thursday 13.30-15.15

### exercise classes:

Tuesdays 09.00-10.45 and Fridays ??

### Haskell labs:

Group A: Tuesdays 11.00-12.45 and Fridays 15.30-17.15

Group B: Tuesdays 13.30-15.15 and Fridays 13.30-15.15

Geoffrey Frankhuizen and George Karlos

## material via canvas

### theory page:

course notes lambda calculus

course notes equational specifications

slides and exercise sheets

### practical work page:

Haskell assignments

and: some additional material via links in slides

## exam and grade

**exam** in week 8 of the course

**resit** of the exam in January

3 sets of Haskell exercises (obligatory)

4 sets of theory exercises (not obligatory)

**mimimun** 5,5 both for Haskell and for exam

**final grade** 25% Haskell exercises, 75% written exam

**bonus** of at most 0.5 on the exam grade for theory exercises

## contact

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refer to the course in the subject

no email via canvas

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equational programming

foundations of functional programming

# functional programming

a functional program is an **expression**,  
and is executed by **evaluating** the expression  
(use definitions from left to right)  
focus on **what** and not so much on **how**  
the functions are **pure** (or, mathematical)  
an input always gives the same output

## example functional programming style

in Haskell: applying functions to arguments

```
sum [1 .. 100]
```

in Java: changing stored values

```
total = 0;  
for (i = 1; i <= 100; ++i)  
    total = total + i;
```

# taste of Haskell

definition of sum:

```
sum [] = 0
sum (n:ns) = n + sum ns
```

type of sum:

```
Num a => [a] -> a
```

that is:

for any type `a` of numbers, `sum` maps a list of elements of `a` to a

use of sum: application of the function `sum` to the argument `[1,2,3]`

```
sum [1,2,3]
```

## evaluation by equational reasoning

**definition:** `double x = x + x`

**evaluation:**

`double 2`

`= { unfold definition double }`

`2 + 2`

`= { applying + }`

`4`

`double (double 2)`

`= { unfold definition inner double }`

`double (2 + 2)`

`= {unfold definition double }`

`(2 + 2) + (2 + 2)`

`= {apply first +}`

`4 + (2+2)`

`= {apply last +}`

`4 + 4`

`= {apply +}`

# functional programming: properties

high level of abstraction

concise programs

more confidence in correctness

(read, check, prove correct)

higher-order functions

foundations: equational reasoning and  $\lambda$ -calculus

# Haskell: properties

lazy evaluation strategy

powerful type system

# functional programming: some history



Lisp John McCarthy (1927–2011), Turing Award 1971

FP John Backus (1924–2007), Turing Award 1977

ML Robin Milner (1934–2010), Turing Award 1991, et al

Miranda David Turner (born 1946)



# Haskell



Haskell

a group containing also Philip Wadler and Simon Peyton Jones

# functional programming languages

	typed	untyped
strict	ML	Lisp
lazy	Haskell	

See also **F#** (Microsoft), **Erlang** (Ericsson), **Scala** (Java plus ML)

# functional programming and lambda calculus

Based on the lambda calculus, Lisp rapidly became ...

(from: wikipedia page John McCarthy)

Haskell is based on the lambda calculus, hence the lambda we use as a logo.

(from: the Haskell website)

Historically, ML stands for metalanguage: it was conceived to develop proof tactics in the LCF theorem prover (whose language, pplambda, a combination of the first-order predicate calculus and the simply typed polymorphic lambda calculus, had ML as its metalanguage).

(from: wikipedia page of ML)

# course equational programming (EP)

lambda calculus

equational specifications

exercises functional programming: Haskell

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# lambda calculus



**inventor:** Alonzo Church (1936)

a language expressing functions or algorithms

concept of computability and basis of functional programming

a language expressing proofs

untyped and typed

## historical note: notation for functions

Frege defined the graph of a function (1893)

Russell and Whitehead and Russell (1910)

Schönfinkel defined function calculus (1920)

Curry defined combinatory logic (1920)

# notation for (anonymous) functions

mathematical notation:

$$f : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$$
$$f(x) = \text{square}(x)$$

or also:

$$f : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$$
$$f : x \mapsto \text{square}(x)$$

lambda notation:

$$\lambda x. \text{square } x$$

we start with the **untyped**  $\lambda$ -calculus



## lambda terms: intuition

### abstraction:

$\lambda x. M$  is the function mapping  $x$  to  $M$

$\lambda x. x$  is the function mapping  $x$  to  $x$

$\lambda x. \text{square } x$  is the function mapping  $x$  to  $\text{square } x$

### application:

$F M$  is the application of the function  $F$  to its argument  $M$

(not the result of applying)

## lambda terms: inductive definition

we assume a countably infinite set of variables  $(x, y, z \dots)$

sometimes we in addition assume a set of constants

the set of  $\lambda$ -terms is defined inductively by the following clauses:

a **variable**  $x$  is a  $\lambda$ -term

a **constant**  $c$  is a  $\lambda$ -term

if  $M$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, then  $\lambda x. M$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, called an **abstraction**

if  $F$  and  $M$  are  $\lambda$ -terms, then  $F M$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, called an **application**

## famous terms

$$I = \lambda x. x$$

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

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

$$\Omega = (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$$

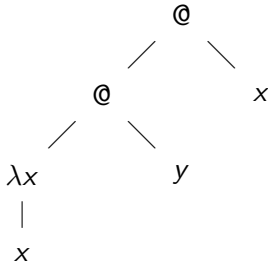
omit outermost parentheses

application is associative to the left

abstraction is associative to the right

lambda extends to the right as far as possible

terms as trees: example



terms as trees: general



a subterm corresponds to a subtree

subterms of  $\lambda x.y$  are  $\lambda x.y$  and  $y$

## parentheses

application is associative to the left

$(M\ N\ P)$  instead of  $((M\ N)\ P)$

outermost parentheses are omitted

$M\ N\ P$  instead of  $(M\ N\ P)$

lambda extends to the right as far as possible

$\lambda x. M\ N$  instead of  $\lambda x. (M\ N)$

sometimes we combine lambdas

$\lambda x_1 \dots x_n. M$  instead of  $\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_n. M$

## more notation

$(\lambda x. \lambda y. M)$  instead of  $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. M))$

$(M \lambda x. N)$  instead of  $(M (\lambda x. N))$

$\lambda xy. M$  instead of  $\lambda x. \lambda y. M$

# inductive definition of terms

definitions recursively on the definition of terms

example: definition of the free variables of a term

proofs by induction on the definition of terms

example: every term has finitely many free variables



## bound variables: definition

$x$  is bound by the first  $\lambda x$  above it in the term tree

examples: the underlined  $x$  is bound in

$\lambda x. \underline{x}$

$\lambda x. \underline{x} \underline{x}$

$(\lambda x. \underline{x}) x$

$\lambda x. y \underline{x}$

$\lambda x. \lambda \textcolor{red}{x}. \underline{x}$

## free variables: definition

a variable that is not bound is free

alternatively: define recursively the set  $FV(M)$  of free variables of  $M$ :

$$FV(x) = \{x\}$$

$$FV(c) = \emptyset$$

$$FV(\lambda x. M) = FV(M) \setminus \{x\}$$

$$FV(F P) = FV(F) \cup FV(P)$$

a term is **closed** if it has no free variables

# currying

reduce a function with several arguments to functions with single arguments

example:

$f : x \mapsto x + x$  becomes  $\lambda x. x + x$

$g : (x, y) \mapsto x + y$  becomes  $\lambda x. \lambda y. x + y$ , not  $\lambda(x, y). \text{plus } x y$

$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x + y) 3$  is an example of **partial application**

history:

due to Frege, Schönfinkel, and Curry

related to the isomorphism between  $A \times B \rightarrow C$  and  $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

## towards computation

we will use terms to compute, as for example in

$$(\lambda x. f\ x)\ 5 \rightarrow_{\beta} (f\ x)[x := 5] = f\ 5$$

the definition of substitution requires more preparation

intuitive meaning of  $M[x := N]$  :

the result of replacing in  $M$  all free occurrences of  $x$  by  $N$

## bound variables: definition

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a term is **closed** if it has no free variables

## substitution: recursive definition

substitution in a variable or a constant:

$$x[x := N] = N$$

$$a[x := N] = a \text{ with } a \neq x \text{ a variable or a constant}$$

substitution in an application:

$$(P Q)[x := N] = (P[x := N]) (Q[x := N])$$

substitution in an abstraction:

$$(\lambda x. P)[x := N] = \lambda x. P$$

$$(\lambda y. P)[x := N] = \lambda y. (P[x := N]) \text{ if } x \neq y \text{ and } y \notin \text{FV}(N)$$

$$(\lambda y. P)[x := N] = \lambda z. (P[y := z][x := N])$$

if  $x \neq y$  and  $z \notin \text{FV}(N) \cup \text{FV}(P)$  and  $y \in \text{FV}(N)$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] =$$



## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] =$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := x] =$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := x] = \lambda z. x$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := x] = \lambda z. x$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda w. v w x))[x := u v] =$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := x] = \lambda z. x$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda w. v w x))[x := u v] = \lambda y. u v (\lambda w. v w (u v))$$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := x] = \lambda z. x$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda w. v w x))[x := u v] = \lambda y. u v (\lambda w. v w (u v))$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda x. x))[x := \lambda y. x y] =$$



## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := x] = \lambda z. x$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda w. v w x))[x := u v] = \lambda y. u v (\lambda w. v w (u v))$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda x. x))[x := \lambda y. x y] = \lambda y. (\lambda y. x y) (\lambda x. x)$$

# alpha conversion

intuition:

bound variables may be renamed

example:

$$\lambda x. x =_{\alpha} \lambda y. y$$

definition  $\alpha$ -conversion axiom:

$$\lambda x. M =_{\alpha} \lambda y. M[x := y] \text{ with } y \notin FV(M)$$

definition  $\alpha$ -equivalence relation  $=_{\alpha}$ : on terms

$P =_{\alpha} Q$  if  $Q$  can be obtained from  $P$

by finitely many 'uses' of the  $\alpha$ -conversion axiom

that is: by finitely many renamings of bound variables in context

## alpha equivalence classes

we identify  $\alpha$ -equivalent  $\lambda$ -terms

just as we identify  $f : x \mapsto x^2$  and  $f : y \mapsto y^2$

and  $\forall x. P(x)$  is  $\forall y. P(y)$

we work with equivalence classes modulo  $\alpha$

## alpha-conversion and substitution: intuitive approach

we defined first substitution  $[x := P]$  and then  $\alpha$  using substitution  $[x := y]$

an alternative intuitive approach:

define  $\alpha$  as renaming of bound variables

work modulo  $\alpha$

define substitution  $M[x := N]$  using renaming of bound variables:

replace all free occurrences of  $x$  in  $M$  by  $N$ ,

rename bound variables if necessary

example:  $(\lambda x.y)[y := x] =_{\alpha} (\lambda x'.y)[y := x] = \lambda x'.x$

now we know the statics of the lambda-calculus

we consider  $\lambda$ -terms modulo  $\alpha$ -conversion

application and abstraction

bound and free variables

currying

substitution

we continue with the dynamics:  $\beta$ -reduction

material

course notes chapter *Terms and Reduction*

Haskell pages