

Test an expression to see if it is c_0 or not: find arguments (for numerals) which yield tru if no successors have been applied, and fls otherwise.
i.e. $\text{iszero} = \lambda m.?$.

- c_0 returns its second argument, make it tru will yield $\text{iszero } c_0 = \text{tru}$
- All other numerals (where we want to return fls) applies s at least once!
- Make $s = \lambda x.\text{fls}$, ignoring its argument.

Putting that together:

$$\text{iszero} = \lambda m.m (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru} \quad (1)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & \underline{\text{iszero } c_0} \\ & (\lambda m.m (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru}) c_0 \\ \rightarrow & c_0 (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru} \\ \rightarrow & (\lambda s.\lambda z.z) (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru} \\ \rightarrow & (\lambda z.z) \text{tru} \\ \rightarrow & \text{tru} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{isZero } c_2 \\ & (\lambda m.m (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru}) c_2 \\ \rightarrow & c_2 (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru} \\ \rightarrow & (\lambda s.\lambda z.s ((\lambda x.\text{fls}) z)) (\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru} \\ \rightarrow & (\lambda z. (\lambda x.\text{fls}) ((\lambda x.\text{fls}) z)) \text{tru} \\ \rightarrow & (\lambda x.\text{fls}) ((\lambda x.\text{fls}) \text{tru}) \\ \rightarrow & \text{fls} \end{aligned}$$

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Predecessor(!)

Testing to see if something is zero is relatively straightforward, but predecessor requires some cleverness.

- In UAE, we defined `pred` as an annihilation operation over successors.
- In λ -Calculus, we essentially need to *reconstruct our numeral*, while keeping a *history of the previous value*.

$$\text{prd} = \lambda m. \text{fst } (m \text{ ss } \text{zz}) \quad (2)$$

Where

$$\text{ss} = \lambda p. \text{pair } (\text{snd } p) \text{ (plus } \text{fst } (\text{snd } p)) \quad (3)$$

$$\text{zz} = \text{pair } c_0 \ c_0 \quad (4)$$

Converting back and forth:

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`realbool = $\lambda b.b$ true false` (5)

`churchbool = $\lambda b.if$ b then true else fls` (6)

`realnat = $\lambda c_n.c_n$ ($\lambda x.succ$ x) 0` (7)

`churchnat = $\lambda n.\lambda s.\lambda z.applyN$ n s z` (8)

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Consider the Ω function:

$$\Omega = (\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x) \quad (9)$$

When you β -reduce Ω , you get Ω right back again!

$$(\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x) \rightarrow (\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x) \quad (10)$$

Because these functions do not converge to a normal form in a finite number of steps, they are known as **divergent**.

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- The Y-Combinator *encodes* general recursion in the λ -Calculus.

$$Y = \lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x)) \quad (11)$$

- Unfortunately, it only works under call by name. The following **fixed-point combinator** solves the problem of general recursion for the call by value evaluation strategy.

$$\text{fix} = \lambda f. (\lambda y. f (\lambda x. y x x y)) (\lambda y. f (\lambda x. y x x y)) \quad (12)$$

The factorial function:

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0 \\ n \times (n-1)! & n > 0 \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

We can encode it as follows.

$$g = \lambda \text{fct} . \lambda n . \text{if } n == 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (\text{fct } (n-1)) \quad (14)$$

$$\text{factorial} = \text{fix } g \quad (15)$$

To save time and energy, we are encoding this using the enriched calculus.

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Let \mathcal{V} be a countable set of variable names. The set of terms is the smallest set \mathcal{T} such that:

- ① $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$
- ② $t_1 \in \mathcal{T} \wedge x \in \mathcal{V} \implies \lambda x. t_1 \in \mathcal{T}$
- ③ $t_1, t_2 \in \mathcal{T} \implies t_1 t_2 \in \mathcal{T}$

- Via this definition, we can define size and depth the same way as we did under UAE.

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The set of *free variables* of a term t , written $FV(t)$ is defined as follows:

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

$$FV(\lambda x. t_1) = FV(t_1) \setminus \{x\}$$

$$FV(t_1 t_2) = FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2)$$

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The intuitive (but *wrong*) definition:

$$\begin{aligned} [x \mapsto s]x &= s \\ [x \mapsto s]y &\equiv y \quad \text{if } x \neq y \\ [x \mapsto s]\lambda y. t_1 &= \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 \\ [x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) &= ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_2) \end{aligned}$$

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Why wrong?

This works reasonably well in most situations, such as the following:

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$$[x \mapsto (\lambda z. z \ w)](\lambda y. x) \rightarrow \lambda y. \lambda z. z \ w \quad (16)$$

Consider the following:

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$$[x \mapsto y](\lambda x. x) \rightarrow \lambda x. y \quad (17)$$

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- This happens because we pass the substitution through lambdas without checking first to see if the variable we're replacing is bound!

Another try

If we fix the bit where we ignore bound vs. free variables...

$$[x \mapsto s]x = s$$

$$[x \mapsto s]y = y \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{if } y \neq x \\ \text{if } y = x \end{array}$$

$$[x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) = \begin{cases} \lambda y. t_1 & \text{if } y = x \\ \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 & \text{if } y \neq x \end{cases}$$

$$[x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) = ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_2)$$

This expression now evaluates the way we expect it to.

$$[x \mapsto y](\lambda x. x) \rightarrow \lambda x. x \quad (18)$$

But the following expression doesn't.

$$[x \mapsto z](\lambda z. x) \rightarrow \lambda z. z \quad (19)$$

- When we sub in z , it becomes bound to λz .
- This is known as **variable capture**.

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In order to avoid having our variables captured, we might add the condition that, in order for a substitution to pass through a λ abstraction, the abstracted variable must not be in the set of free variables contained within the expression we are subbing in

$$\begin{aligned} [x \mapsto s]x &= s \\ [x \mapsto s]y &= y && \text{if } y \neq x \\ [x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) &= \begin{cases} \lambda y. t_1 & \text{if } y = x \\ \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 & \text{if } y \neq x \text{ and } y \notin FV(s) \end{cases} \\ [x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) &= ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_2) \end{aligned}$$

Consider the following example:

$$[x \mapsto y \ z](\lambda y. x \ y) \quad (20)$$

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- No substitution can be performed, even though it would be reasonable to expect one.
- By relabelling y to some other arbitrary label, we can avoid the capture as well. For example:

$$[x \mapsto y \ z](\lambda y. x \ y) \rightarrow [x \mapsto y \ z](\lambda w. x \ w) \rightarrow (\lambda w. y \ z \ w) \quad (21)$$

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By convention in λ -Calculus, terms that differ only in the names of bound variables are interchangeable in all contexts.

This is known as α -equivalence.

By working up to α , we can simplify our rules for substitution:

$$[x \mapsto s]x = s$$

$$[x \mapsto s]y = y \quad \text{if } y \neq x$$

$$[x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) = \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 \quad \text{if } y \neq x \text{ and } y \notin FV(s)$$

$$[x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) = ([x \mapsto s]t_1) [x \mapsto s]t_2$$

Operational Semantics of λ -Calculus

Here is the operational semantics of the CbV (call by value) λ -Calculus

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Syntax

$t ::=$

x

$\lambda x. t$

$t t$

$v ::=$

$\lambda x. t$

terms:

variable

abstraction

application

values:

abstraction value

Evaluation

$t \rightarrow t'$

$$\frac{t_1 \rightarrow t'_1}{t_1 t_2 \rightarrow t'_1 t_2}$$

(E-APP1)

$$\frac{t_2 \rightarrow t'_2}{v_1 t_2 \rightarrow v_1 t'_2}$$

(E-APP2)

$$(\lambda x. t_{12}) v_2 \rightarrow [x \mapsto v_2] t_{12}$$

(E-APPABS)

Note that these are the semantics for the **pure** λ -Calculus.

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- All lambda terms are values (and vice-versa)
- One application rule (E-AppAbs), and two *congruence* rules, (E-App1) and (E-App2).
- Note how the placement of values controls the flow of execution.
 - ▶ We may only proceed with (E-App2) if t_1 is a value, implying that (E-App1) is inapplicable.
 - ▶ The reason this strategy is called “call by value” is because the term being substituted in (E-AppAbs) must be a value.