

CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Lambda Calculus and Types

Introduction

- We've seen that several language conveniences aren't strictly necessary
 - Multi-argument functions: use currying or tuples
 - Loops: use recursion
 - Side-effects: we don't need them either
- Goal: come up with a “core” language that's as small as possible and still Turing-complete
 - This will give a way of illustrating important language features and algorithms
- One solution (there are others) is lambda calculus

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Turing Completeness

- Computational system that can
 - Simulate a Turing machine
 - Compute every Turing-computable function
- A programming language is *Turing complete* if
 - It can map every Turing machine to a program
 - A program can be written to emulate a Turing machine
 - It is a superset of a known Turing-complete language
- Most powerful programming language possible
 - Since Turing machine is most powerful automaton

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Lambda Calculus (λ -calculus)

- Proposed in 1930s by Alonzo Church and Stephen Cole Kleene
- A formal system designed to investigate functions and recursion, and for exploration of foundations of mathematics
- Now used as a tool for investigating computability.
 - It's also the basis of functional programming languages such as Lisp, Scheme, ML, OCaml, Haskell...

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Lambda Calculus

- A lambda calculus expression is defined as

$e \rightarrow x$
| $\lambda x.e$
| $e e$

- $\lambda x.e$ is like `(fun x -> e)` in OCaml
- That's it! Higher-order functions is all there is

Three Conveniences

- Syntactic sugar for local declarations
 - `let x = e1 in e2` is short for $(\lambda x.e2) e1$
- The scope of λ extends as far to the right as possible
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y.x y$ is $\lambda x.(\lambda y.(x y))$
- Function application is left-associative
 - `x y z` is $(x y) z$
 - Same rule as OCaml

Semantics of Function Application

- All we've got are functions, so all we can do is call them
- To evaluate $(\lambda x.e1) e2$, evaluate $e1$ with x bound to $e2$
- This application is called *beta-reduction*, and the rule describing it is:

$(\lambda x.e1) e2 \rightarrow e1[x/e2]$

- $e1[x/e2]$ means $e1$ where occurrences of x are replaced by $e2$
 - This is slightly different than the environments we saw for OCaml- do substitutions to replace formals with actuals, instead of using the environment to map formals to actuals
- Reductions are allowed to occur anywhere in a term

Beta reduction examples

- $(\lambda x.x) z \rightarrow$
- $(\lambda x.y) z \rightarrow$
- $(\lambda x.x y) z \rightarrow$
- $(\lambda x.x y) (\lambda z.z) \rightarrow$
- $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x y) z \rightarrow$
 - Equivalent OCaml code:
`(fun x -> (fun y -> (x y))) z` \rightarrow `fun y -> (z y)`
- $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x y) (\lambda z.z z) x \rightarrow$

Static Scoping

- Lambda calculus uses static scoping
- Consider the following
 - $(\lambda x.x (\lambda x.x)) z \rightarrow ?$
 - The rightmost “x” refers to the second binding (the inner “x” hides or shadows the outer “x”).
 - This is a function that takes its argument and applies it to the identity function
- This function is “the same” as $(\lambda x.x (\lambda y.y))$
 - Renaming bound variables consistently is allowed
 - This is called *alpha-renaming* or *alpha conversion*
 - Ex. $\lambda x.x = \lambda y.y = \lambda z.z$ $\lambda y.\lambda x.y = \lambda z.\lambda x.z$

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Static Scoping (cont'd)

- How about the following?
 - $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x y) y \rightarrow ?$
 - When we replace y inside, we don't want it to be "captured" by the inner binding of y
 - I.e., $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x y) y \neq \lambda y.y y$
- This function is "the same" as $(\lambda x.\lambda z.x z)$

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Beta-Reduction, Again

- Whenever we do a step of beta reduction (using the rule $(\lambda x.e1) e2 \rightarrow e1[x/e2]$), alpha-convert variables as necessary
- Examples:
 - $(\lambda x.x (\lambda x.x)) z = (\lambda x.x (\lambda y.y)) z \rightarrow z (\lambda y.y)$
 - $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x y) y = (\lambda x.\lambda z.x z) y \rightarrow \lambda z.y z$

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Encodings

- It turns out that this language is Turing complete
- That means we can encode any computation we want in it, if we're sufficiently clever.

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Encoding Booleans

- Booleans and conditionals can be encoded or represented, using only the lambda calculus, as follows:

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

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

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

- Examples:
 - $\text{if true then } b \text{ else } c \rightarrow$
 - $\text{if false then } b \text{ else } c \rightarrow$

Booleans (cont.)

- Other Boolean operations
 - $\text{not} = \lambda x. ((x \ \text{false}) \ \text{true})$
 - $\text{not true} \rightarrow (\lambda x. (x \ \text{false}) \ \text{true}) \ \text{true} \rightarrow ((\text{true} \ \text{false}) \ \text{true}) \rightarrow \text{false}$
 - $\text{and} = \lambda x. \lambda y. ((x \ y) \ \text{false})$
 - $\text{or} = \lambda x. \lambda y. ((x \ \text{true}) \ y)$
- Given these operations we can build up a logical inference system

Encoding Pairs

$(a, b) = \lambda x. \text{if } x \text{ then } a \text{ else } b$

$\text{fst} = \lambda x. x \ \text{true}$ (returns first component)

$\text{snd} = \lambda x. x \ \text{false}$ (returns second component)

Encoding Natural Numbers (Church*)

*(Named after Alonzo Church)

$0 = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$

$1 = \lambda x. \lambda y. x \ y$

$2 = \lambda x. \lambda y. x \ (x \ y)$

i.e., $n = \lambda x. \lambda y. \langle \text{apply } x \text{ to } y \ n \ \text{times} \rangle$

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

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

– Recall that this is equivalent to $\lambda z. ((z \ (\lambda y. \text{false})) \ \text{true})$

Arithmetic Using Church Numerals

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

Arithmetic (cont.)

- Prove $1+1 = 2$

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

 - $1+1 = \lambda x. \lambda y. (1\ x)((1\ x)\ y) =$
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y. ((\lambda x. \lambda y. x\ y)\ x)((\lambda x. \lambda y. x\ y)\ x)\ y \rightarrow$
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y. (\lambda y. x\ y)((\lambda x. \lambda y. x\ y)\ x)\ y \rightarrow$
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y. (\lambda y. x\ y)(\lambda y. x\ y)\ y \rightarrow$
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y. x\ ((\lambda y. x\ y)\ y) \rightarrow$
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y. x\ (x\ y) = 2$ many implicit alpha conversions
- With these definitions we can build a theory of arithmetic

Repetition

- Define $D = \lambda x. x\ x$
- Then
 - $D\ D = (\lambda x. x\ x)\ (\lambda x. x\ x) \rightarrow (\lambda x. x\ x)\ (\lambda x. x\ x) = D\ D$
- So $D\ D$ is an infinite loop
 - In general, *self application* is how we get repetition

The "Paradoxical" Combinator

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

- Then
 - $Y\ F =$
 - $(\lambda f. (\lambda x. f\ (x\ x))\ (\lambda x. f\ (x\ x)))\ F \rightarrow$
 - $(\lambda x. F\ (x\ x))\ (\lambda x. F\ (x\ x)) \rightarrow$
 - $F\ ((\lambda x. F\ (x\ x))\ (\lambda x. F\ (x\ x)))$
 - $= F\ (Y\ F)$
- Thus $Y\ F = F\ (Y\ F) = F\ (F\ (Y\ F)) = \dots$

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

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

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

Discussion

- Using encodings we can represent pretty much anything we have in a “real” language
 - But programs would be pretty slow if we really implemented things this way
 - In practice, we use richer languages that include built-in primitives
- Lambda calculus shows all the issues with scoping and higher-order functions
- It's useful for understanding how languages work