

Lecture 8 – Lambda Calculus

COSE212: Programming Languages

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2024 Fall

- FVAE – VAE with First-Class Functions
 - First-Class Functions
 - Concrete and Abstract Syntax
 - Interpreter and Natural Semantics with Closures
 - Static and Dynamic Scoping

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 - First-Class Functions
 - Concrete and Abstract Syntax
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 - Static and Dynamic Scoping
- In this lecture, we will learn **syntactic sugar** and **lambda calculus**

1. Syntactic Sugar

- No More `val`

- F_{AE} – Removing `val` from FVAE

- Syntactic Sugar and Desugaring

2. Lambda Calculus

- Definition

- Church Encodings

- Church-Turing Thesis

1. Syntactic Sugar

No More `val`

FAE – Removing `val` from FVAE

Syntactic Sugar and Desugaring

2. Lambda Calculus

Definition

Church Encodings

Church-Turing Thesis

```
/* FVAE */  
val x = 1; x + 2
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It assigns a **value** 1 to the **variable** x , and then evaluates the **body expression** $x + 2$ with the environment $[x \mapsto 1]$.

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It is same as:

```
/* FVAE */  
(x => x + 2)(1)
```

It assigns a **value** (argument) 1 to the **parameter** x , and then evaluates the **body expression** $x + 2$ with the environment $[x \mapsto 1]$.

In general, the following two expressions are equivalent:

$\text{val } x = e_1; e_2$ is equivalent to $(\lambda x. e_2)(e_1)$

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Why?

The following inference rule for the semantics of $\text{val } x = e_1; e_2$:

$$\text{VAL} \frac{\sigma \vdash e_1 \Rightarrow v_1 \quad \sigma[x \mapsto v_1] \vdash e_2 \Rightarrow v_2}{\sigma \vdash \text{val } x = e_1; e_2 \Rightarrow v_2}$$

is equivalent to the following inference rule for the semantics of the combination $(\lambda x.e_2)(e_1)$ of an anonymous function and an application:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Fun} \\ \text{App} \end{array} \frac{\frac{}{\sigma \vdash \lambda x.e_2 \Rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e_2, \sigma \rangle} \quad \sigma \vdash e_1 \Rightarrow v_1 \quad \sigma[x \mapsto v_1] \vdash e_2 \Rightarrow v_2}{\sigma \vdash (\lambda x.e_2)(e_1) \Rightarrow v_2}$$

Then, we can define a smaller language FAE

Expressions	$e ::= n$	(Num)
	$ e + e$	(Add)
	$ e * e$	(Mul)
	$ x$	(Id)
	$ \lambda x. e$	(Fun)
	$ e(e)$	(App)

by removing val from FVAE using the following equivalence:

$\text{val } x = e_1; e_2$ is equivalent to $(\lambda x. e_2)(e_1)$

Definition (Syntactic Sugar)

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$$\mathcal{D}[\text{val } x = e_1; e_2] = (\lambda x. e_2)(e_1)$$

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Is it correct? **No!** Why?

$$\mathcal{D}[\text{val } x = e_1; e_2] = (\lambda x. e_2)(e_1)$$

For example,

$$\mathcal{D}[\text{val } x = 1; 2 + (\text{val } y = 3; x * y)] = \lambda x. (2 + (\text{val } y = 3; x * y))(1)$$

Without desugaring rule for addition, the expression $(\text{val } y = 3; x * y)$ in the right-hand side of the addition cannot be desugared.

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So, we need to **recursively desugar** sub-expressions of the given expression even if they are not syntactic sugars.

$$\mathcal{D}[\text{val } x = e_1; e_2] = (\lambda x. \mathcal{D}[e_2])(\mathcal{D}[e_1])$$

$\mathcal{D}[n]$	$=$	n	$\mathcal{D}[x]$	$=$	x
$\mathcal{D}[e_1 + e_2]$	$=$	$\mathcal{D}[e_1] + \mathcal{D}[e_2]$	$\mathcal{D}[\lambda x. e]$	$=$	$\lambda x. \mathcal{D}[e]$
$\mathcal{D}[e_1 * e_2]$	$=$	$\mathcal{D}[e_1] * \mathcal{D}[e_2]$	$\mathcal{D}[e_1(e_2)]$	$=$	$\mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2])$

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$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{D}[n] &= n \\ \mathcal{D}[e_1 + e_2] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1] + \mathcal{D}[e_2] \\ \mathcal{D}[e_1 * e_2] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1] * \mathcal{D}[e_2] \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{D}[x] &= x \\ \mathcal{D}[\lambda x. e] &= \lambda x. \mathcal{D}[e] \\ \mathcal{D}[e_1(e_2)] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2]) \end{array}$$

Then, it can be desugared as follows:

$$\mathcal{D}[\text{val } x = 1; 2 + (\text{val } y = 3; x * y)] = \lambda x. (2 + (\lambda y. x * y)(3))(1)$$

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We can also implement **desugaring** in Scala:

```
def desugar(expr: Expr): Expr = expr match
  case Val(x, i, b) => App(Fun(x, desugar(b)), desugar(i))
  case Num(n)      => Num(n)
  case Add(l, r)    => Add(desugar(l), desugar(r))
  case Mul(l, r)    => Mul(desugar(l), desugar(r))
  case Id(x)        => Id(x)
  case Fun(p, b)     => Fun(p, desugar(b))
  case App(f, e)     => App(desugar(f), desugar(e))
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```

Then, we can desugar the example FVAE expression as follows:

```
val expr: Expr = Expr("val x = 1; 2 + (val y = 3; x * y)")
desugar(expr) == Expr("(x => 2 + (y => x * y)(3))(1)")
```

Most programming languages have **syntactic sugar**:

- Scala

<code>for (x <- list) yield x * 2</code>	\equiv	<code>list.map(x => x * 2)</code>
---	----------	--------------------------------------

- C++

<code>arr[i] + obj->field</code>	\equiv	<code>*(arr + i) + (*obj).field</code>
-------------------------------------	----------	--

- JavaScript¹

<code>x = y; x &&= y;</code>	\equiv	<code>x (x = y); x && (x = y);</code>
--	----------	--

- Haskell

<code>do x <- f; g x</code>	\equiv	<code>f >>= (\x -> g x)</code>
--------------------------------	----------	---

- ...

¹<https://babeljs.io/repl>

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We already showed that the **variable definition** can be desugared to a combination of a **function definition** and an **application**:

$$\mathcal{D}[\text{val } x = e_1; e_2] = (\lambda x. \mathcal{D}[e_2])(\mathcal{D}[e_1])$$

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Let's learn the **Church encodings**!

Church encodings are ways to encode **data** and **operations** in the **lambda calculus (LC)**.

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The key idea is to encode a **natural number** n as a **function** that takes another function f and an argument x and applies f to x n times:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[0] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. x \\ \mathcal{D}[1] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f(x) \\ \mathcal{D}[2] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f(f(x)) \\ \mathcal{D}[3] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f(f(f(x))) \\ &\vdots\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[e_1 + e_2] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. \mathcal{D}[e_1](f)(\mathcal{D}[e_2](f)(x)) \\ \mathcal{D}[e_1 * e_2] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2](f))(x)\end{aligned}$$

For example,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[\![1 + 1]\!] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. \mathcal{D}[\![1]\!](f)(\mathcal{D}[\![1]\!](f)(x)) \\ &= \lambda f. \lambda x. (\lambda f. \lambda x. f(x))(f)((\lambda f. \lambda x. f(x))(f)(x)) \\ &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f((\lambda f. \lambda x. f(x))(f)(x)) \\ &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f(f(x)) \\ &= \mathcal{D}[\![2]\!]\end{aligned}$$

²https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Church_encoding

For example,

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We can represent other data or operations in the **LC** using **Church encodings**, such as **integers**, **booleans**, **pairs**, **lists**, and so on.²

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For example,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[\![1 + 1]\!] &= \lambda f. \lambda x. \mathcal{D}[\![1]\!](f)(\mathcal{D}[\![1]\!](f)(x)) \\ &= \lambda f. \lambda x. (\lambda f. \lambda x. f(x))(f)((\lambda f. \lambda x. f(x))(f)(x)) \\ &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f((\lambda f. \lambda x. f(x))(f)(x)) \\ &= \lambda f. \lambda x. f(f(x)) \\ &= \mathcal{D}[\![2]\!]\end{aligned}$$

We can represent other data or operations in the **LC** using **Church encodings**, such as **integers**, **booleans**, **pairs**, **lists**, and so on.²

Let's see one more example of **Church encoding** for **booleans** and **logical operations** (i.e., **Church booleans**).

²https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Church_encoding

The key idea is to encode a **boolean** b as a **function** that takes two arguments t and f and applies t if b is true or f if b is false:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[\text{true}] &= \lambda t. \lambda f. t & \mathcal{D}[\text{if}(e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2])(\mathcal{D}[e_3]) \\ \mathcal{D}[\text{false}] &= \lambda t. \lambda f. f & \mathcal{D}[e_1 \ \&\& \ e_2] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2])(\mathcal{D}[e_1]) \\ & & \mathcal{D}[e_1 \ || \ e_2] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_1])(\mathcal{D}[e_2]) \\ & & \mathcal{D}[\text{! } e] &= \lambda t. \lambda f. \mathcal{D}[e](f)(t)\end{aligned}$$

The key idea is to encode a **boolean** b as a **function** that takes two arguments t and f and applies t if b is true or f if b is false:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[\text{true}] &= \lambda t. \lambda f. t & \mathcal{D}[\text{if}(e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2])(\mathcal{D}[e_3]) \\ \mathcal{D}[\text{false}] &= \lambda t. \lambda f. f & \mathcal{D}[e_1 \ \&\& \ e_2] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_2])(\mathcal{D}[e_1]) \\ & & \mathcal{D}[e_1 \ || \ e_2] &= \mathcal{D}[e_1](\mathcal{D}[e_1])(\mathcal{D}[e_2]) \\ & & \mathcal{D}[\text{! } e] &= \lambda t. \lambda f. \mathcal{D}[e](f)(t)\end{aligned}$$

For example,

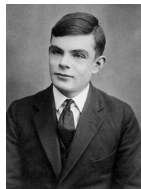
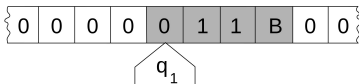
$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{D}[\text{true} \ \&\& \ \text{false}] &= \mathcal{D}[\text{true}](\mathcal{D}[\text{false}])(\mathcal{D}[\text{true}]) \\ &= (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)(\mathcal{D}[\text{false}])(\mathcal{D}[\text{true}]) \\ &= \mathcal{D}[\text{false}]\end{aligned}$$



Alonzo Church invented **lambda calculus** in 1930s, and it became the foundation of **programming languages**:

$$e ::= e \mid \lambda x.e \mid e(e)$$

Alan Turing invented **Turing machines (TM)** in 1936, and it became the foundation of **computers**:



Church-Turing Thesis: Lambda Calculus is Turing complete.

*Any real-world computation can be translated into an equivalent computation involving a **Turing machine** or can be done using **lambda calculus**.*

<https://github.com/ku-plrg-classroom/docs/tree/main/cose212/cobalt>

- Please see above document on GitHub:
 - ① Implement `interp` function.
 - ② Implement `subExpr1` and `subExpr2` functions.
- The due date is 23:59 on Oct. 14 (Mon.).
- Please only submit `Implementation.scala` file to [Blackboard](#).

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- Recursive Functions

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