

PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES RECITATION

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Agenda

- Lambda Calculus
- Lambda Calculus –Free and Bound Variables
- Lambda Calculus – Reduction
- Lambda Calculus – Evaluation Strategy
- Scheme Programming
- Tail Recursion
- Resources

Lambda Calculus

- Introduced by the mathematician ‘Alonzo Church’ in the 1930s.
- Definition: a mathematical logic for expressing computation based on function abstraction and application using variable binding and substitution.
- It is a Turing complete language.

Lambda Calculus Syntax

- The lambda calculus consists of a language of lambda terms, which is defined by a certain formal syntax, and a set of transformation rules, which allow manipulation of the lambda terms.
- A valid lambda term:
 - A *variable*, x , is itself a valid lambda term.
 - If M is a lambda term, and x is a variable, then $(\lambda x.M)$ is a lambda term (called an **abstraction**).
 - If M and N are lambda terms, then (MN) is a lambda term (called an **application**).
- Every abstraction in lambda calculus takes a single argument.

Precedence and associative

- Precedence: application has higher precedence than lambda abstraction.
- Associative:
 - Applications are *left* associative
 - Abstractions are *right* associative

Shorthand
 $\lambda x y . t = \lambda x . (xy . t)$

$$\rightarrow t_1 t_2 t_3 \Rightarrow (t_1 t_2) t_3$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda x y . t_1 t_2 \Rightarrow (\lambda x y . t_1) t_2$$

$$\lambda x y . xy (\lambda x . y) \Rightarrow (\lambda x y . ((xy) (\lambda x . y)))$$

Free and Bound Variables

- The free variables of a term are those variables that are not bound by an abstraction. The set of free variables of an expression is defined inductively:
 - *The free variables of x are just x .*
 - *The set of free variables of $\lambda x.M$ is the set of free variables of M , but with x removed*
 - *The set of free variables of MN is the union of the set of free variables of M and the set of free variables of N .*

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda x . (xy - x(\lambda y)))y$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda x . (\lambda x . (\lambda y . xy - x)y)z x$$

Reduction

α -conversion

- α conversion states that any bound variable is a placeholder and can be replaced (renamed) with a different variable, provided there are no clashes.
- Renaming rules:
 - Only bound variables can be renamed, not free variables.
 - Renaming consistency: if we rename x in a term $\lambda x. M$, all occurrences of x in M must be replaced by y .
$$\lambda x. M \text{ <rename } x \text{ to } y \rightarrow \lambda y. M[y/x]$$
 - Renaming capture-avoiding: if we rename x in a term $\lambda x. M$, for every sub term M' inside M , if M' has a variable x that is bound to by current $\lambda x. M$, then y must be free in term M' by the renaming. Otherwise, you should do renaming for y firstly to free y .

β -reduction

- Definition - A technique to evaluate lambda expression or to reduce it to a simplified one.
- Reduction rule: $(\lambda x. t) s = t[s/x]$
- $t[s/x]$: for the term t , substitute all occurrences of x that are bounded by current $\lambda x. t$ to the term s .

η -reduction

- We use η -reduction to eliminate useless variables:
 - Since:
 - $(\lambda x. Mx) \rightarrow \eta M$
 - $(\lambda x. Mx)N \Leftrightarrow MN$
- This type of reduction is mostly for notational convenience and does not add any expressive power to the calculus.

Evaluation strategy

- Normal order: reduce the outermost “redex” first.
- Applicative order: arguments to a function application are evaluated first, from left to right before the function application itself is evaluated.

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. xy)) ((\lambda x. x) z) = \lambda y. ((\lambda x. x) z)y \\ = \lambda y. zy$$

$$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. xy)) ((\lambda x. x) z) = (\lambda x. (\lambda y. xy))z \\ = \lambda y. zy$$

- An expression that can't be β -reduced any further is a normal form.
- Not everything has a normal form.
- If a lambda reduction terminates, it terminates to the same reduced expression regardless of reduction order.
- If a terminating lambda reduction exists, normal order evaluation will terminate.

\Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow

$$(\lambda z.zz)(\lambda z.zz)$$

- $\text{iszero} = (\lambda n. n (\lambda x. \text{false}) \text{ true})$
- $0 = (\lambda s z. z)$
- $1 = (\lambda s z. s z)$
- $\text{true} = (\lambda x y. x)$
- $\text{false} = (\lambda x y. y)$
- Question: How do we compute $\text{iszero } 1$ to get false via beta reduction?

```

      iszero 1                                #|Evaluate by normal order|#
=> iszero 1                                ; by def of iszero
=> (\lambda n. n (\lambda x. false) true) 1   ; do one step reduction for λ n
=> 1 (\lambda x. false) true                 ; by def of 1
=> (\lambda s z. s z) (\lambda x. false) true   ; application are left associative
=> ((\lambda s z. s z) (\lambda x. false)) true ; do one step reduction for λ s
=> (\lambda z. (\lambda x. false) z) true       ; do one step reduction for λ z
=> (\lambda x. false) true                   ; do one step reduction for λ x
=> false

```

Scheme Programming

Syntax

- For scheme, an expression is either an atom or a list. All expressions use prefix notation.
- Atom: constants (numbers and Booleans) or symbols (variables and inbuilt functions)
- List: be nested to form trees.



```
; single line comment  
#|  
comment multiple lines  
|#  
  
; Constants  
1 ; integer  
#t; boolean  
  
; Symbols  
(define x 1)  
> x  
1  
> (let ((x 1)) x)  
1
```

'() → empty list
List → construct
a list
from
given
data

Semantics

The rules for evaluating Scheme programs:

- A constant evaluates to itself
- A symbol evaluates to its current binding
- A list must be:
 - A *form* (e.g. *if*, *lambda*), or
 - A *function application*:
 - the first element of the list must evaluate to a function
 - the remaining elements are the actual parameters

List manipulation

$\Rightarrow (\text{cons}\ 1\ (\text{cons}\ 2\ (\text{cons}\ 3\ '())))$
 $(1\ 2\ 3)$

- cons: prepend an element to a list
- car: get the head of a list
- cdr: get the tail of a list

$\rightarrow (\text{car}\ ('(1\ 2\ 3)))$
1
 $\rightarrow (\text{cdr}\ '(1\ 2\ 3))$
 $(2\ 3)$

Lambda expression

- Scheme supports implementing anonymous functions that are similar to lambda terms in the lambda calculus.
 - $(lambda (x y) (* x y))$

Control constructs

$\Rightarrow (\text{if condition} \quad \text{expr1} \quad \text{expr2})$

$\Rightarrow (\text{cond}$
 $\quad (\text{pred1} \quad \text{expr1})$
 $\quad (\text{pred2} \quad \text{expr2})$
 $\quad \dots$
 $\quad (\text{else} \quad \text{exprn}))$

Locals

Basic `let` skeleton:

```
(let
  ((v1 init1) (v2 init2) ... (vn initn))
  body)
```

To declare locals, use one of the `let` variants:

- `let` : Evaluate all the *inits* in the current environment; the *vs* are bound to fresh locations holding the results.
- `let*` : Bindings are performed sequentially from left to right, and each binding is done in an environment in which the previous bindings are visible.
- `letrec` : The *vs* are bound to fresh locations holding undefined values, the *inits* are evaluated in the resulting environment (in some unspecified order), each *v* is assigned to the result of the corresponding *init*. This is what we need for mutually recursive functions.

Tail Recursion

- Def. it is a recursion in which no additional computation ever follows a recursive call.
- The recursive function returns what the next recursive call returns. **No more computations** after the recursive call.

```
(define (factorial n) ; standard recursion
  (if (= n 0)
      1                      ; return 1
      (* n (factorial (- n 1))) ; return n * factorial (n - 1)
  )
(factorial 100000)
```

```
(define (fac x) ; tail recursion
  (letrec
    ( ; rec param
      (fac-tr (lambda (x acc)
                  (if (zero? x) acc ; return acc
                      (fac-tr (- x 1) (* x acc)))))) ; return fac-tr(x - 1, x * acc)
    )
    (fac-tr x 1) ; rec body
  )
  (fac 100000) ; This one is faster than standard recursion
```

- The most benefit for tail recursion is that the compiler can reuse the current activation record at the time of the recursive call, eliminating the need to allocate a new one, i.e. constant stack space.
- The Scheme compiler will detect the tail recursion fact and performs [tail-call elimination](#) to ensure that fact will run in constant stack space.
- Effectively, tail call elimination yields an implementation that is equivalent to one that uses a loop:

```
(define (fact x)
  (let
    (
      (fact_loop (lambda (x acc)
        (do ((i x (- i 1))           ; for (i = x; i != 0; i--)
              (acc acc (* acc i)))     ;       acc = acc * i;
              ((zero? i) acc)         ; return acc;
            )))
      )
      (fact_loop x 1)
    )
  )
```

Resources

- Installation: follow [this link](#) to download DrRacket.
- If you want to learn more about scheme programming, here is [an online wiki](#) you could take a look.