

CS442 Notes

1 Functional Programming

- to begin: Functional Programming in general, not a particular language
- need a model
 - simple
 - powerful enough to be useful

Church-Turing Thesis: Any algorithm can be simulated on a Turing machine.

Alan Turing

- Turing machine
- not an inspiring model for programming

Alonzo Church

- λ -calculus
- equivalent to Turing Machines
- the basis for all of functional programming

1.1 Untyped Lambda-Calculus

Calculus

- a system or method of calculation
- syntax + rules for manipulating syntax

Lambda-Calculus (1934) - "a calculus of functions"

Syntax: Abstract Syntax

variable, abstraction, application

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{expr} \rangle &::= \langle \text{var} \rangle \mid \langle \text{abs} \rangle \mid \langle \text{app} \rangle \\ \langle \text{var} \rangle &::= a \mid b \mid c \\ &\text{variable and body} \\ \langle \text{abs} \rangle &::= \lambda \langle \text{var} \rangle . \langle \text{expr} \rangle \\ &\text{rator and rand} \\ \langle \text{app} \rangle &::= \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Use parenthesis to disambiguate parses

Conventions:

1. Abstractions extend as far to the right as possible

e.g. $\lambda x.y\ z = \lambda x.(y\ z) \neq (\lambda x.y)\ z$

2. Applications associate left-to-right

e.g. $x\ y\ z = (x\ y)\ z \neq x\ (y\ z)$

Interpretation

- Var: Self explanatory
- Abs: $\lambda x.E$ = "function" taking argument x and returning expr E
- App: $M\ N$ - result of applying "function" M to argument N

Consider:

$\lambda x.x$ - Here the first x is a binding occurrence and second x is a bound occurrence.

$\lambda x.x\ y\ x$ - The y is a free occurrence (fully parenthesized function is $\lambda x.((x\ y)\ x)$)

$\lambda x.x\ (\lambda x.x)\ x$ - Same variable name might be bound in different places as long as the scope is not clashing

$x\ \lambda x.x$ - The x in the front is free while the other one is bound

Informally:

A variable is bound if it has a bound occurrence.

A variable is free if it has a free occurrence

The same variable can be used in both bound and free occurrences

Formally:

Definition: Let E be an expression. The bound variables of E , $B \cup [E]$ are given by

$$B \cup [x] = \emptyset$$

$$B \cup [\lambda x.E] = B \cup [E] \cup \{x\}$$

$$B \cup [M\ N] = B \cup [M] \cup B \cup [N]$$

x is bound in E if $x \in B \cup [E]$

The free variables of E , $F \cup [E]$ are given by

$$F \cup [x] = \{x\}$$

$$F \cup [\lambda x.E] = F \cup [E] \setminus \{x\}$$

$$F \cup [M N] = F \cup [M] \cup F \cup [N]$$

x is free in E if $x \in F \cup [E]$

A variable can be both bound and free: $F \cup [x \lambda x.x] = B \cup [x \lambda x.x] = \{x\}$

But each occurrence is either bound or free, not both

Two occurrences of a variable x "mean the same thing" if

1. they are both free occurrences
2. OR they have the same binding occurrence

$\lambda x.\lambda y.y x$ and $\lambda a.\lambda b.b a$ these should mean the same thing

$\lambda x.y x$ and $\lambda x.w x$ should not mean the same thing because y and w do not have to be the same free variable

You can change the names of bound variables, but not free ones.

Formally:

Definition (α -conversion): For all x, y, M , $\lambda x.M =_\alpha \lambda y.M[y/x]$ if $y \notin F \cup [M]$

$M[N/x] =$ "substitute N for x in M "

More generally, if $C[\lambda x.M]$ denotes an expr in which $\lambda x.M$ occurs as a subexpression, then $C[\lambda x.M] =_\alpha C[\lambda y.M[y/x]]$ if $y \notin F \cup [M]$.

e.g.

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

$$x \lambda x.x =_\alpha x \lambda a.a$$

$$\lambda a.b a =_\alpha \lambda c.b c \neq_\alpha \lambda b.b b \neq_\alpha \lambda a.d a$$

Computation:

Expr. $(\lambda x.M) N$ is called a (β) -redex (reducible expression)

We expect: $(\lambda x.M) N \Rightarrow$ evaluate M , with N substituted for x i.e. $M[N/x]$

Definition (β -reduction): For all M, N, x , $(\lambda x.M) N \rightarrow_\beta M[N/x]$

More generally - for all contexts C , $C[(\lambda x.M) N] \rightarrow_\beta C[M[N/x]]$

\rightarrow_β is a binary relation on terms

$A \rightarrow_\beta B$: A beta reduces to B in one step

$A \rightarrow_\beta^n B$: A beta reduces to B in n steps

$A \rightarrow_\beta^* B$: A beta reduces to B in 0 or more steps

$A \rightarrow_\beta^+ B$: A beta reduces to B in 1 or more steps

Evaluating $M[N/x]$

Want: Substitute N for all free occurrences of x in M

Definition (substitution, naive(wrong)):

$$x[E/x] = E$$

$$y[E/x] = y, y \neq x$$

$$(M N)[E/x] = M[E/x] N[E/x]$$

$$(\lambda x.P)[E/x] = \lambda x.P$$

$$(\lambda y.P)[E/x] = \lambda y.P[E/x], y \neq x$$

E.g.

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.x y) z &\rightarrow_\beta (x y)[z/x] \\ &= x[z/x] y[z/x] \\ &= z y \end{aligned}$$

$$(\lambda x.x) a \rightarrow_\beta x[a/x] = a$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.\lambda y.x) a b &\rightarrow_\beta (\lambda y.x)[a/x] b \\ &= (\lambda y.x[a/x]) b \\ &= (\lambda y.a) b \\ &\rightarrow_\beta a[b/y] \\ &= a \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.\lambda y.y) a b &\rightarrow_\beta (\lambda y.y)[a/x] b \\ &= (\lambda y.y[a/x]) b \\ &= (\lambda y.y) b \\ &\rightarrow_\beta y[b/y] \\ &= b \end{aligned}$$

Consider:

$$\begin{aligned}
(\lambda x. \lambda y. x) y w &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. x)[y/x] w \\
&= (\lambda y. x[y/x]) w \\
&= (\lambda y. y) w \\
&\rightarrow_{\beta} y[w/y] \\
&= w
\end{aligned}$$

We can see from this that the last rule of $(\lambda y. P)[E/x] = \lambda y. P[E/x]$, $y \neq x$ must be wrong.

What happened? Free variable y became bound after substitution

As a result, the binding occurrence of x changed

$\lambda x. \lambda y. x \leftarrow$ the inner x is bound to the λx on the outside.

This is called **Dynamic binding** - meaning of variables uncertain until runtime

We want **static binding** - meanings of variables fixed before runtime

Definition (substitution, fixed):

$$\begin{aligned}
x[E/x] &= E \\
y[E/x] &= y, y \neq x \\
(M N)[E/x] &= M[E/x] N[E/x] \\
(\lambda x. P)[E/x] &= \lambda x. P \\
(\lambda y. P)[E/x] &= \lambda y. P[E/x], y \notin F \cup [E] \\
(\lambda y. P)[E/x] &= \lambda z. (P[z/y][E/x]), y \in F \cup [E], z \text{ a "fresh" variable}
\end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
(\lambda x. \lambda y. x) y w &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. x)[y/x] w \\
&= (\lambda z. x[z/y][y/x]) w \\
&= (\lambda z. x[y/x]) w \\
&= (\lambda z. y) w \\
&\rightarrow_{\beta} y[w/z] \\
&= y
\end{aligned}$$

Computation: β -reduction until you reach a **Normal Form**.

Definition (β -Normal Form): An expr is in β Normal Form if it has no β -redices.

Definition (Weak Normal Form): An expr is in Weak Normal Form if the only β -redices are inside abstractions. e.g. $\lambda z.(\lambda x.x) y$.

Usually, "Normal Form" will mean β -Normal Form.

Consider:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.x)((\lambda y.y) z) &\rightarrow_{\beta} x[(\lambda y.y) z/x] \\ &= (\lambda y.y) z \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} y[z/y] \\ &= z \end{aligned}$$

Or

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.x)((\lambda y.y) z) &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x.x)(y[z/y]) \\ &= (\lambda x.x) z \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} x[z/x] \\ &= z \end{aligned}$$

- two difference reduction sequences. Does it matter which we take?

Theorem (Church-Rosser): Let E_1, E_2, E_3 be expressions such that $E_1 \rightarrow_{\beta}^* E_2$ and $E_1 \rightarrow_{\beta}^* E_3$. Then there is an expression E_4 such that (up to α -equivalence) $E_2 \rightarrow_{\beta}^* E_4$ and $E_3 \rightarrow_{\beta}^* E_4$.

Immediate Consequence - An expr E can have at most one β -Normal Form (modulo α -equivalence)

Do all expressions have a β -NF? No!

Consider:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.x x)(\lambda x.x x) &\rightarrow_{\beta} (x x)[(\lambda x.x x)/x] \\ &= (\lambda x.x x)(\lambda x.x x) \end{aligned}$$

It does not have a β -NF because it always reduces to itself.

Which exprs have a β -NF? - undecidable - equivalent to Halting Problem

Consider:

$$(\lambda x.y)((\lambda x.x x)(\lambda x.x x)) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x.y)((\lambda x.x x)(\lambda x.x x)) \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

Or, the alternate way of reducing this

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.y)((\lambda x.x x)(\lambda x.x x)) &\rightarrow_{\beta} y[(\lambda x.x x)(\lambda x.x x)/x] \\ &= y \end{aligned}$$

∴ Order does matter when ∞-reductions are possible.

Reduction Strategies - "plans" for choosing a redex to reduce.

Applicative Order Reductions (AOR): Choose the leftmost, innermost redex.

- Innermost = not containing any other redex
- This is called "eager evaluation"

Normal Order Reduction (NOR): Choose the leftmost, outermost

- outermost = not contained in any other redex
- "lazy evaluation"

To the example earlier, the one that results in infinite reduction is AOR and the one that goes to the β -NF form is NOR.

e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.x)((\lambda y.y) z) &\xrightarrow{\text{AOR}}_{\beta} (\lambda x.x) z \xrightarrow{\text{AOR}}_{\beta} z \\ (\lambda x.x)((\lambda y.y) z) &\xrightarrow{\text{NOR}}_{\beta} (\lambda y.y) z \xrightarrow{\text{NOR}}_{\beta} z \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Standardization): If an expr is a β -NF, then NOR is guaranteed to reach it.

But most programming languages use applicative order, including Scheme.

η -reduction: Consider $(\lambda x.y x) z \rightarrow_{\beta} (y x)[z/x] = y z$

So $\lambda x.y x$ behaves exactly like y

Definition (η -reduction): $\lambda x.M x \rightarrow_{\eta} M$ if $x \notin F \cup [M]$

More generally, $C[\lambda x.M x] \rightarrow_{\eta} C[M]$ if $x \notin F \cup [M]$

So we have $\lambda x.y x \rightarrow_{\eta} y$

1.2 Programming in the λ -Calculus

Shorthand for convenience: $[[\cdot]]$: (real-world programming language) \rightarrow λ -calculus

For a real-world expr E , $[[E]]$ is our representation of E in the λ -calculus

e.g. $[[id]] = \lambda x.x$

Note: $[[\cdot]]$ is just shorthand. An expression containing $[[\cdot]]$ is not λ -calculus until all $[[\cdot]]$ s have been replaced with what they represent.

Booleans: Let $[[\text{true}]] = \lambda x.\lambda y.x$ and $[[\text{false}]] = \lambda x.\lambda y.y$.

if $[\text{bool}]_i$ then $[\text{true-part}]_i$ else $[\text{false-part}]_i$

$\text{if}(b, t, f) = \text{if } b \text{ then } t \text{ else } f$

$[[\text{if}]] = \lambda b.\lambda t.\lambda f.b \ t \ f$

Note that $\lambda b.\lambda t.\lambda f.b \ t \ f \rightarrow_{\eta}^2 \lambda b.b$

Alternatively, $[[\text{if } B \text{ then } T \text{ else } F]] = [[B]][[T]][[F]]$

Does it work?

$$\begin{aligned} [[\text{if true then } P \text{ else } Q]] &= [[\text{true}]] [[P]] [[Q]] \\ &= (\lambda x.\lambda y.x) [[P]] [[Q]] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} [[P]] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} [[\text{if false then } P \text{ else } Q]] &= [[\text{false}]] [[P]] [[Q]] \\ &= (\lambda x.\lambda y.y) [[P]] [[Q]] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} [[Q]] \end{aligned}$$

Now, for the definition of **Not**:

$$\begin{aligned} [[\text{not}]] &= \lambda b. [[\text{if } b \text{ then false else true}]] \\ &= \lambda b.b [[\text{false}]] [[\text{true}]] \\ &= \lambda b.b (\lambda x.\lambda y.y) (\lambda x.\lambda y.x) \end{aligned}$$

We can test it:

$$\begin{aligned} [[\text{not true}]] &= (\lambda b.b [[\text{false}]] [[\text{true}]])) [[\text{true}]] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} [[\text{true}]] [[\text{false}]] [[\text{true}]] \\ &= (\lambda x.\lambda y.x) [[\text{false}]] [[\text{true}]] \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta}^2 [[\text{false}]] \end{aligned}$$

For the definition of **And**:

$$\begin{aligned}
[[and]] &= \lambda p. \lambda q. [[\text{if } p \text{ then } q \text{ else false}]] \\
&= \lambda p. \lambda q. p \ q \ [[false]]
\end{aligned}$$

For the definition of **Or**:

$$\begin{aligned}
[[and]] &= \lambda p. \lambda q. [[\text{if } p \text{ then true else } q]] \\
&= \lambda p. \lambda q. p \ [[true]] \ q
\end{aligned}$$

Storage: Use lists. Scheme - lists based on pairs.

(cons a b) creates the pair

(cons a (cons b c)) creates the list

∴ nested pairs create lists

Need to implement:

- cons
- nil - empty list
- null? - is the list empty?
- car - first component of the pair
- cdr - 2nd component of the pair

Modelling pairs: pair - function that takes a **selector** as a parameter

If the selector is true - return the first component

If the selector is false - return the second component

i.e. $[[pair]] = \lambda s. [[\text{if } s \text{ then } h \text{ else } t]]$ where s is the selector, h is the head, t is the tail.

So $[[pair]] = \lambda s. s \ h \ t$

Then $[[cons]] = \lambda h. \lambda t. \lambda s. s \ h \ t$

e.g.

$$\begin{aligned}
[[cons \ a \ (cons \ b \ nil)]] &= [[cons]] \ a \ ([[cons]] \ b \ [[nil]]) \\
&= (\lambda h. \lambda t. \lambda s. s \ h \ t) \ a \ ([[cons]] \ b \ [[nil]]) \\
&\rightarrow_{\beta}^2 \lambda s. s \ a \ ([[cons]] \ b \ [[nil]]) \\
&= \lambda s. s \ a \ ((\lambda h. \lambda t. \lambda s. s \ h \ t) \ b \ [[nil]]) \\
&\rightarrow_{\beta}^2 \lambda s. s \ a \ (\lambda s. s \ b \ [[nil]])
\end{aligned}$$

car: return the head \Rightarrow pass the selector "true"

$$[[car]] = \lambda l.l [[true]] = \lambda l.l (\lambda x.\lambda y.x)$$

Similarly, **cdr:** return the tail \Rightarrow pass the selector "false"

$$[[cdr]] = \lambda l.l [[false]] = \lambda l.l (\lambda x.\lambda y.y)$$