

CSc 520

Principles of Programming Languages

23: Lambda Calculus — Pure

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Pure vs. Impure Lambda Calculus

- The version of lambda calculus we have looked at so far has been **impure** —it has contained constants such as $\langle 1, 2, 3, \dots \rangle$ and `add`, `sqr`, etc.
- **Church's Thesis** says that lambda calculus can define every computable function.
- If we're going to believe Church's Thesis we are going to have to define the natural numbers, arithmetic operations, booleans, pairs, conditional expressions and recursion, directly in the calculus.
- A lambda calculus so defined contains no constants, and is said to be **pure**.

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Church's Numerals

- We can encode a natural number as the number of times a function parameter is applied:

$$0 \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda x.x))$$

$$1 \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f\ x)))$$

$$2 \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f\ (f\ x))))$$

$$3 \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f\ (f\ (f\ x)))))$$

- We can now define arithmetic operations:

$$\text{succ} \equiv (\lambda n.(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f\ ((n\ f)\ x))))$$

$$\text{add} \equiv (\lambda m.(\lambda n.(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(((m\ f)\ ((n\ f)\ x))))))$$

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Church's Numerals — succ

- `succ`'s first argument is n , the number to be incremented. `succ` just adds one more application of the f function (its second argument). The third argument (x) is the “base case”, that is, zero.

$$2 \equiv (\lambda g.(\lambda y.(g\ (g\ y))))$$

$$\text{succ} \equiv (\lambda n.(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f\ ((n\ f)\ x))))$$

$$(\text{succ}\ 2) \Rightarrow$$

$$(((\lambda n.(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f\ ((n\ f)\ x)))) (\lambda g.(\lambda y.(g\ (g\ y))))))$$

⋮

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Church's Numerals — succ...

$$\text{succ} \equiv (\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f ((n f) x))))))$$

$$2 \equiv (\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y))))$$

$$3 \equiv (\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f (f (f x)))))$$

(succ 2) \Rightarrow

$$((\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f ((n f) x)))))) (\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f (((\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y)))) f) x)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f ((\lambda y. (f (f y))) x)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f (f (f x))))) \equiv 3$$

Church's Numerals — add

- add takes two numbers n and m as arguments.
- $(m f)$ simply plugs in f as the function used to represent numbers in the expression for m , $(n f)$ does the same for the second number.
- $(\text{add } f(f(x)) g(g(g(x))))$ (representing $2 + 3$) constructs a new function $h(h(h(h(h(x)))))$ (representing 5).

$$2 \equiv (\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y))))$$

$$3 \equiv (\lambda h. (\lambda z. (h (h (h z)))))$$

$$\text{add} \equiv (\lambda m. (\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((m f) ((n f) x))))))$$

(add 2 3) \Rightarrow

$$(((\lambda m. (\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((m f) ((n f) x)))))) (\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y)))))) 3$$

Church's Numerals — add...

$$2 \equiv (\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y))))$$

$$3 \equiv (\lambda h. (\lambda z. (h (h (h z)))))$$

$$\text{add} \equiv (\lambda m. (\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((m f) ((n f) x))))))$$

(add 2 3) \Rightarrow

$$(((\lambda m. (\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((m f) ((n f) x)))))) (\lambda g. (\lambda y. (g (g y)))))) 3 \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((\lambda y. (f (f y))) ((n f) x)))))) 3 \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((\lambda y. (f (f y))) ((n f) x)))))) (\lambda h. (\lambda z. (h (h (h z))))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((\lambda y. (f (f y))) (((\lambda h. (\lambda z. (h (h (h z))))) f) x)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((\lambda y. (f (f y))) ((\lambda z. (f (f (f z)))) x)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((\lambda y. (f (f y))) (f (f (f x))))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f (f (f (f (f x))))) = 5$$

Church's Numerals — mult

- Multiplying $m * n$ is like adding m copies of n together:

$$\text{add} \equiv (\lambda m. (\lambda n. (\lambda f. (\lambda x. ((m f) ((n f) x))))))$$

$$\text{mult} \equiv (\lambda m. (\lambda n. (m ((\text{plus } n) \text{ zero}))))$$

Pairs

- Just like in Scheme, we can define pairs —these allow us to construct data structures such as lists and trees.
- The definition of Pair below is similar to a **dotted pair** notation (or `cons`) in Scheme.
- Head and Tail correspond to `car` and `cdr`, Nil is a special constant.

$$\text{Pair} \equiv (\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b))))$$

$$\text{Head} \equiv (\lambda g.(g \ (\lambda a.(\lambda b.a))))$$

$$\text{Tail} \equiv (\lambda g.(g \ (\lambda a.(\lambda b.b))))$$

$$\text{Nil} \equiv (\lambda x.(\lambda a.(\lambda b.a)))$$

Pairs...

- We can construct a pair (p, q) (or $(p.q)$ in Scheme notation) like this:

$$\text{Pair} \equiv (\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b))))$$

$$((\text{Pair} \ p) \ q) =$$

$$(((\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b)))) \ p) \ q) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ p) \ b))) \ q) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f.((f \ p) \ q))$$

Pairs...

- We can construct the list $[2]$ like this:

$$\text{Pair} \equiv (\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b))))$$

$$\text{Nil} \equiv (\lambda x.(\lambda a.(\lambda b.a)))$$

$$((\text{Pair} \ 2) \ \text{Nil}) =$$

$$(((\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b)))) \ 2) \ \text{Nil}) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ 2) \ b))) \ \text{Nil}) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f.((f \ 2) \ \text{Nil})) = (\lambda f.((f \ 2) \ (\lambda x.(\lambda a.(\lambda b.a))))$$

- We can go even further and substitute in the definition of 2.

Pairs...

- We can construct the list $[1, 2]$ like this:

$$\text{Pair} \equiv (\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b))))$$

$$\text{Nil} \equiv (\lambda x.(\lambda a.(\lambda b.a)))$$

$$((\text{Pair} \ 1) \ ((\text{Pair} \ 2) \ \text{Nil})) =$$

$$((\text{Pair} \ 1) \ (\lambda f.((f \ 2) \ \text{Nil}))) =$$

$$(((\lambda a.(\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ a) \ b)))) \ 1) \ (\lambda g.((g \ 2) \ \text{Nil}))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda b.(\lambda f.((f \ 1) \ b))) \ (\lambda g.((g \ 2) \ \text{Nil}))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda f.((f \ 1) \ (\lambda g.((g \ 2) \ \text{Nil}))))$$

Pairs...

- We can verify that Head works as specified:

$$\text{Pair} \equiv (\lambda a. (\lambda b. (\lambda f. ((f \ a) \ b))))$$
$$\text{Head} \equiv (\lambda g. (g \ (\lambda a. (\lambda b. a))))$$

$$((\text{Pair } p) \ q) = (((\lambda a. (\lambda b. (\lambda f. ((f \ a) \ b)))) \ p) \ q) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda b. (\lambda f. ((f \ p) \ b))) \ q) \Rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda f. ((f \ p) \ q))$$

$$(\text{Head } ((\text{Pair } p) \ q)) = (\text{Head } (\lambda f. ((f \ p) \ q))) =$$

$$((\lambda g. (g \ (\lambda a. (\lambda b. a)))) \ (\lambda f. ((f \ p) \ q))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda f. ((f \ p) \ q)) \ (\lambda a. (\lambda b. a))) \Rightarrow_{\beta} (((\lambda a. (\lambda b. a)) \ p) \ q) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^* p$$

Church's Booleans

- We define two constants for true and false, and a function if for selection:

$$\text{true} \equiv (\lambda t. (\lambda f. t))$$

$$\text{false} \equiv (\lambda t. (\lambda f. f))$$

$$\text{if} \equiv (\lambda l. (\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((l \ m) \ n))))$$

- We can now write programs with control flow!

Church's Booleans...

- We can verify that if works as expected:

$$\text{true} \equiv (\lambda t. (\lambda f. t))$$
$$\text{if} \equiv (\lambda l. (\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((l \ m) \ n))))$$

$$(((\text{if } \text{true}) \ v) \ w) = (((\lambda l. (\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((l \ m) \ n)))) \ \text{true}) \ v) \ w) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(((\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((\text{true} \ m) \ n))) \ v) \ w) =$$

$$(((\lambda m. (\lambda n. (((\lambda t. (\lambda f. t)) \ m) \ n))) \ v) \ w) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(((\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((\lambda f. m) \ n))) \ v) \ w) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(((\lambda m. (\lambda n. m)) \ v) \ w) \Rightarrow_{\beta} ((\lambda n. v) \ w) \Rightarrow_{\beta} v$$

Church's Booleans...

- and can be defined like this:

$$\text{false} \equiv (\lambda t. (\lambda f. f))$$

$$\text{if} \equiv (\lambda l. (\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((l \ m) \ n))))$$

$$\text{and} \equiv (\lambda a. (\lambda b. (((\text{if } a) \ b) \ \text{false}))) =$$

$$(\lambda a. (\lambda b. (((\lambda l. (\lambda m. (\lambda n. ((l \ m) \ n)))) \ a) \ b) \ \text{false}))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^*$$

$$(\lambda a. (\lambda b. ((a \ b) \ \text{false})))$$

Church's Booleans...

- iszero can be defined like this:

false $\equiv (\lambda t.(\lambda f.f))$

if $\equiv (\lambda l.(\lambda m.(\lambda n.((l\ m)\ n))))$

iszero $\equiv (\lambda m.((m\ (\lambda x.false))\ true))$

Recursion

Recursive Functions

- If lambda calculus is going to allow us to compute any function, we need for it to handle recursion.

- Example:

fact $\equiv (\lambda n.if\ (zero\ n)\ 1\ (mult\ n\ (fact\ (pred\ n))))$

- Unfortunately, the name fact appears in the expression itself. Remember that we defined \equiv -operator as *macro-expansion*, and recursive macros make no sense.
- Recursion is defined in normal programming languages, but not in lambda calculus.

Fixed Points

- A **fixed point** is a value x in the domain of a function that is the same in the range $f(x)$.
- In other words, a fixed point of a function is a value left **fixed** by that function; for example, 0 and 1 are fixed points of the squaring function.
- Formally, a value x is a fixed point of a function f if

$$f(x) = x$$

Fixed Points — Examples

- Every value in the domain of the identity function is a fixed point: $((\lambda x.x))$
- $\text{factorial}(1) = 1$
- $\text{fibonacci}(0) = 0$
- $\text{fibonacci}(1) = 1$
- $\text{square}(0) = 0$
- $\text{square}(1) = 1$
- $\frac{de^x}{dx} = e^x$

Fixed Points — Examples...

f	fixed point
$(\lambda x.6)$	6
$(\lambda x.6 - x)$	3
$(\lambda x.x^2 + x - 4)$	2,-2
$(\lambda x.x)$	every value
$(\lambda x.x + 1)$	no value

- I.e., a fixed point is where you get back whatever you put in!

Fixed Point Combinators

- A **combinator** is a lambda-expression with no free variables.
- A **fixed point combinator** is a function Y which, given another function f , computes a fixed point of f , so that

$$f(Y(f)) = Y(f)$$

for all functions f .

- Let's look at the `fact` function again:

$$\text{fact} \equiv (\lambda n.)if \text{ (zero } n) \text{ 1 (mult } n \text{ (fact (pred } n)))}$$

Fixed Point Combinators...

- Let's turn

$$\text{fact} \equiv (\lambda n.if \text{ (zero } n) \text{ 1 (mult } n \text{ (fact (pred } n)))}$$

into a higher-order function, by replacing the call to `fact` with a function f

$$\text{ffact} \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda n.if \text{ (zero } n) \text{ 1 (mult } n \text{ (f (pred } n))))))$$

- Now, pass `fact` to `ffact` as a parameter, and do a β -reduction:

$$(\text{ffact fact}) \Rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda n.if \text{ (zero } n) \text{ 1 (mult } n \text{ (fact (pred } n)))}$$

Fixed Point Combinators...

- But, the right-hand side of

$$(\text{ffact fact}) \Rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda n. \text{if } (\text{zero } n) \text{ 1 } (\text{mult } n \text{ (fact (pred } n))))$$

is just the body of fact

$$\text{fact} \equiv (\lambda n. \text{if } (\text{zero } n) \text{ 1 } (\text{mult } n \text{ (fact (pred } n))))$$

so we can write the identity:

$$(\text{ffact fact}) = \text{fact}$$

- Thus, fact is a fixed point for ffact.

Fixed Point Combinators...

- In lambda calculus, the fixed point combinator Y is defined as

$$Y \equiv (\lambda h. ((\lambda x. (h (x x))) (\lambda x. (h (x x)))))$$

- Let's see what happens when we apply that to an expression E :

$$\begin{aligned} (Y E) &= \\ & ((\lambda h. ((\lambda x. (h (x x))) (\lambda x. (h (x x))))) E) \Rightarrow_{\beta} \\ & ((\lambda x. (E (x x))) (\lambda x. (E (x x)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta} \\ & (E ((\lambda x. (E (x x))) (\lambda x. (E (x x)))) = \\ & (E (Y E)) \end{aligned}$$

Fixed Point Combinators...

- So, we saw that

$$(Y E) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^* (E (Y E))$$

- In other words,

$$E(YE) = YE$$

or for any expression E , YE is a fixed point for E .

Fixed Point Combinators — Example

- Let's get back to our definition of fact:

$$\text{fact} \equiv (\lambda n. \text{if } (\text{zero } n) \text{ 1 } (\text{mult } n \text{ (fact (pred } n))))$$

and the **beta abstracted** version ffact (we'll call it F for brevity)

$$F \equiv (\lambda f. (\lambda n. \text{if } (\text{zero } n) \text{ 1 } (\text{mult } n \text{ (f (pred } n)))))$$

- And, so we can define

$$\text{fact} \equiv (Y F)$$

- Let's try to evaluate

$$(\text{fact } 3)$$

Fixed Point Combinators — Example...

$$F \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n))))$$

$$\text{fact} \equiv (Y \ F)$$

$$Y \equiv (\lambda h.((\lambda x.(h \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x.(h \ (x \ x))))$$

$$(\text{fact } 3) = ((Y \ F) \ 3) =$$

$$(((\lambda h.((\lambda x.(h \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x.(h \ (x \ x)))) \ F) \ 3) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(((\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x)))) \ 3) =$$

$$((K \ K) \ 3) = \dots$$

- Where we've used the abbreviation

$$K \equiv (\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x)))$$

Fixed Point Combinators — Example...

$$F \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n))))$$

$$K \equiv (\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x)))$$

$$((K \ K) \ 3) =$$

$$(((\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x))) \ K) \ 3) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((F \ (K \ K)) \ 3) =$$

$$(((\lambda f.(\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n)))) \ (K \ K)) \ 3) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } n)))) \ 3) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$\text{if } (\text{zero } 3) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3))) \Rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

Fixed Point Combinators — Example...

$$F \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n))))$$

$$K \equiv (\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x)))$$

$$\text{if} \equiv (\lambda l.(\lambda m.(\lambda n.((l \ m) \ n))))$$

$$\text{false} \equiv (\lambda t.(\lambda f.f))$$

$$((K \ K) \ 3) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^* \text{if } (\text{zero } 3) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$((\lambda l.(\lambda m.(\lambda n.((l \ m) \ n)))) \ (\text{zero } 3) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^*$$

$$(\text{zero } 3) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3))) \Rightarrow_{\delta}$$

$$\text{false } 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3))) =$$

$$((\lambda t.(\lambda f.f)) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3)))) \Rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

Fixed Point Combinators — Example...

$$F \equiv (\lambda f.(\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n))))$$

$$K \equiv (\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x)))$$

$$((K \ K) \ 3) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^* ((\lambda t.(\lambda f.f)) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3))) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ (\text{pred } 3)) \Rightarrow_{\delta}$$

$$\text{mult } 3 \ ((K \ K) \ 2) =$$

$$\text{mult } 3 \ (((\lambda x.(F \ (x \ x))) \ K) \ 2) \Rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$\text{mult } 3 \ ((F \ (K \ K)) \ 2) =$$

$$\text{mult } 3 \ (((\lambda f.(\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{mult } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n)))) \ (K \ K)) \ 2) \Rightarrow_{\beta}^* 6$$

Fixed Point Functions in Haskell

```
fix :: (a -> a) -> a
fix f = f (fix f)

fact :: Integer->Integer
fact = fix (factfn)

factfn :: Num a => (a -> a) -> a -> a
factfn f n = if n==0 then 1 else n*f(n-1)
```

```
> fact 3
6
```

Fixed Point Functions in Haskell...

```
fix f = f (fix f)
fact = fix (factfn)
factfn f n = if n==0 then 1 else n*f(n-1)

fact 3 =>
  (\ f n -> if n==0 then 1
    else n*f(n-1)) (fix f) 3 =>
  (if 3==0 then 1 else 3*(fix f)(3-1)) =>
  (3*((\f n -> if n==0 then 1
    else n*f(n-1))(fix f)(3-1)) =>
    ... =>
  (3*(2*(1*1))) => 6
```

Readings and References

- Read pp. 156–157, in *Syntax and Semantics of Programming Languages*, by Ken Slonneger and Barry Kurtz, <http://www.cs.uiowa.edu/~slonnegr/plf/Book>.
- Read pp. 618–621, in Scott.

Acknowledgments

- Much of the material in this lecture on Lambda Calculus is taken from the book *Syntax and Semantics of Programming Languages*, by Ken Slonneger and Barry Kurtz, <http://www.cs.uiowa.edu/~slonnegr/plf/Book>.