

Computer Science 131

Programming Languages

November 14, 2000

b-reduction and Combinators

Syntax

$M, N ::= x$	<i>variables</i>
$\lambda x.M$	<i>functions</i>
$M N$	<i>applications</i>

- Application associates leftward

$$xyzw = ((xy)z)w$$

- Function bodies as as large as possible.

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda x.\lambda y.fyx &= \lambda x.(\lambda y.fyx) = \lambda x.(\lambda y.(fyx)) \\ &= \lambda x.(\lambda y.((fy)x))\end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda x.\lambda y.f(yx) = \lambda x.(\lambda y.(f(yx)))$$

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

Review

- The relation \rightarrow_b is defined by:

$$\frac{}{(l \mathbf{x} . M)N \rightarrow_b M[\mathbf{x} \rightarrow N]}$$

$$\frac{M \rightarrow_b M'}{M N \rightarrow_b M' N}$$

$$\frac{N \rightarrow_b N'}{M N \rightarrow_b M N'}$$

$$\frac{M \rightarrow_b M'}{l \mathbf{x} . M \rightarrow_b l \mathbf{x} . M'}$$

Review

(l b . l x . l y . b y x) (l w . l z . w) *(not tt)*

\rightarrow_b l x . l y . (l w . l z . w) y x

\rightarrow_b l x . l y . (l z . y) x

\rightarrow_b l x . l y . y

(l b . (l x . (l y . ((b y) x)))) (l w . (l z . w))

\rightarrow_b l x . (l y . (((l w . (l z . w))) y) x))

\rightarrow_b l x . (l y . ((l z . y)) x))

\rightarrow_b l x . (l y . y)

Factorial Revisited

FACT := `ln.(iszero n) 1`
`(times n (f (pred n)))`

f₀ := `ln.0`

f₁ := `FACT(f0)`

\leftrightarrow_b^* `ln.(iszero n) 1`
`(times n (f0 (pred n)))`

f₂ := `FACT(f1)`

\leftrightarrow_b^* `ln.(iszero n) 1`
`(times n (f1 (pred n)))`

Factorial Revisited

1. Every time we apply **FACT**, we get a better approximation to the factorial function.
2. If the argument to **FACT** was *already* the factorial function, we'd get the same thing back.
3. Thus the factorial function is a fixed point of **FACT**.
4. We have a λ -term **Y** such that **Y(FACT)** is a fixed point of **FACT**.
5. Hence **Y(FACT)** is the factorial function. (!?)

Factorial Revisited

```
FACT := λf.λn.(iszero n) 1  
      (times n (f (pred n)))
```

```
fact := Y(FACT)
```

```
fact(N)
```

```
= (Y(FACT))(N)
```

```
 $\leftrightarrow_b^*$  FACT(Y(FACT))(N)
```

```
= FACT(fact)(N)
```

```
 $\leftrightarrow_b^*$  (iszero N) 1  
      (times N (fact (pred N)))
```

Fibonacci

```
FIB := λf.λn.(iszero n) 0
      (iszero (pred n) 1
       (plus (f (pred n))
             (f (pred (pred n)))))

fib := Y(FIB)
```

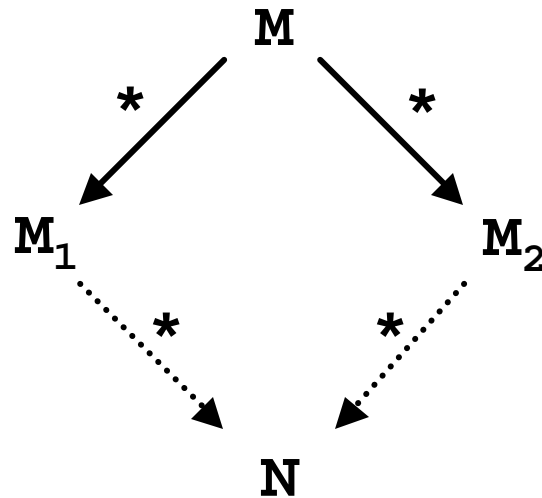
Fixed Points

- Every term has at least one fixed point.
 - Even **succ** and **not**.
- Some terms have many fixed points
 - For example, **ln.n**
 - Or, **FIB**
 - Recall the **fib** and **intfib** functions from Assignment 1!
 - **Y** picks out the unique *least* fixed point.
 - Which turns out to be the one we expect.

Confluence

Theorem

If $\mathbf{M} \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{M}_1$ and $\mathbf{M} \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{M}_2$ then there exists \mathbf{N} such that $\mathbf{M}_1 \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{N}$ and $\mathbf{M}_2 \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{N}$.



β -Normal Forms

Definitions

A term \mathbf{M} is said to be ***b**-normal* (or to be a β -normal form) if there is no \mathbf{N} such that $\mathbf{M} \rightarrow_b \mathbf{N}$.

For example, $\mathbf{1n.n}$ or $\mathbf{x(ly.z)}$ are β -normal.

If $\mathbf{M} \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{N}$ and \mathbf{N} is β -normal then we say that \mathbf{N} is a ***b**-normal form of \mathbf{M}* .

Not every term has a normal form: $(\mathbf{1x.xx})(\mathbf{1x.xx})$

β -Normal Forms

Corollary

A term has at most one β -normal form.

Proof?

Church-Rosser Property

Theorem

$\mathbf{M}_1 \leftrightarrow_b^* \mathbf{M}_2$ if and only if there exists \mathbf{N} such that $\mathbf{M}_1 \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{N}$ and $\mathbf{M}_2 \rightarrow_b^* \mathbf{N}$.

If: By definition of conversion.

Only if: By induction on the proof that $\mathbf{M}_1 \leftrightarrow_b^* \mathbf{M}_2$

Consistency

Corollary

- There are terms that are not convertible.
- A term might be convertible to tt or ff but not both.
- A term is convertible to at most one Church numeral.

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Reduction Strategies

- Depending on choice of reductions, may or may not reach a normal form.

$$(1 \mathbf{x} . \underline{0}) ((1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}) (1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx})) \rightarrow_b \underline{0}$$

$$(1 \mathbf{x} . \underline{0}) ((1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}) (1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}))$$

$$\rightarrow_b (1 \mathbf{x} . \underline{0}) ((1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}) (1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}))$$

$$\rightarrow_b (1 \mathbf{x} . \underline{0}) ((1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}) (1 \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{xx}))$$

$$\rightarrow_b \dots$$

Reduction Strategies

- In general, undecidable whether a term has a normal form.
- However, there is a *semi-decision* procedure
 - Method which (eventually) finds a normal form if one exists.
 - Never terminates otherwise.

Call-by-Name

- Also known as
 - Normal-order reduction
 - Leftmost reduction.
- Rule: always reduce "leftmost" application.

$$\frac{(l\ x.\underline{0})\ (\underline{(l\ x.\mathbf{xx})\ (l\ x.\mathbf{xx})})}{\text{(leftmost)}}$$

- Guaranteed to find a normal form if one exists.

Example

- Let $\mathbf{I} := \lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{x}$
- Reduce $(\lambda \mathbf{y}. \mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{I}\mathbf{I})$ via call-by-name

Call-by-Value

- Also known as
 - Applicative reduction
- Rule: apply β only when argument is a value.
 $(\lambda x. \underline{0}) (\lambda x. \mathbf{xx}) (\lambda x. \mathbf{xx})$
_____ (non-value argument)

- Not guaranteed to find normal forms
 - But often more efficient than call-by-name
 - If normal form reached, same as call-by-name.

Example

- Let $\mathbf{I} := \lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{x}$
- Reduce $(\lambda \mathbf{y}. \mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y})(\mathbf{I}\mathbf{I})$ via call-by-value

Call-by-Need

- Also known as
 - Lazy reduction
- Cannot be formalized in the framework we have, but easy to describe:
 - Like Call-by-Name (don't evaluate function arguments until actually used by the function.)
 - But, remember the argument's result and re-use.
 - If there are no side-effects, indistinguishable from call-by-name.

Reduction Order in PLs

- Call-by-value
 - FORTRAN, LISP, C, Java, ML, ...
- Call-by-name
 - Algol 60
- Call-by-need
 - Miranda, Gofer, Haskell

Part 2

Combinatory Logic

Syntax

- Pure Combinatory Logic

a, b, c, d ::=	K	<i>a constant</i>
	S	<i>another constant</i>
	a b	<i>application</i>

- That's it!
 - Typical term: **K (S K K) K S**

One-step Reduction

- The relation \rightarrow_{CL} is defined by:

$$\frac{}{(\mathbf{K} \mathbf{a}) \mathbf{b} \rightarrow_{CL} \mathbf{a}}$$

$$\frac{}{((\mathbf{S} \mathbf{a}) \mathbf{b}) \mathbf{c} \rightarrow_{CL} (\mathbf{a} \mathbf{c})(\mathbf{b} \mathbf{c})}$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{a} \rightarrow_{CL} \mathbf{a}'}{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b} \rightarrow_{CL} \mathbf{a}' \mathbf{b}}$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{b} \rightarrow_{CL} \mathbf{b}'}{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b} \rightarrow_{CL} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}'}$$

One-step Reduction

- Using the left-associativity of application

$$\frac{}{\mathbf{K} \ a \ b \rightarrow_{CL} \ a}$$

$$\frac{}{\mathbf{S} \ a \ b \ c \rightarrow_{CL} \ (a \ c)(b \ c)}$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{a} \rightarrow_{CL} \ \mathbf{a}'}{\mathbf{a} \ b \rightarrow_{CL} \ \mathbf{a}' \ b}$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{b} \rightarrow_{CL} \ \mathbf{b}'}{\mathbf{a} \ b \rightarrow_{CL} \ \mathbf{a} \ \mathbf{b}'}$$

Correspondence with λ -Calculus

$$\frac{}{\mathbf{K} \ a \ b \rightarrow_{\text{CL}} \ a}$$

$$\frac{}{\mathbf{S} \ a \ b \ c \rightarrow_{\text{CL}} \ (a \ c)(b \ c)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{K} &\approx \lambda x. \lambda y. x \\ &= \lambda x. (\lambda y. x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{S} &\approx \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. (xz)(yz) \\ &= \lambda x. (\lambda y. (\lambda z. ((xz)(yz)))) \end{aligned}$$

Exercises

1. What does **SKKS** reduce to?
2. And **S(KK)S** ?
3. How about **SKKa**?
4. Put **I := SKK**.
How does **SII(SII)** reduce?

Combinatory Completeness

- Claim: For every λ -term, there are terms in combinatory logic with the "same meaning"
 - For example, **SKK** acts like the identity function:

$$\mathbf{SKKa} \rightarrow_{\text{CL}}^* \mathbf{a}$$

- **SII = S(SKK)(SKK)** acts like $\lambda x.xx$

$$(\mathbf{S(SKK)(SKK)})\mathbf{a} \rightarrow_{\text{CL}}^* \mathbf{aa}$$

- Thus combinatory logic is as powerful as the λ -calculus

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Extending CL with variables

$a, b, c, d ::= x \mid y \mid \dots$ *variables*
 $\mid K$ *a constant*
 $\mid S$ *another constant*
 $\mid a \ b$ *application*

- Typical term: $K(SKxK)KyS$
- No bound variables
 - All variables are free
 - Substitution is really easy
- Evaluation rules unchanged.

Bracket Abstraction

- For every extended-CL term \mathbf{a} and every variable \mathbf{x} , there is an extended-CL term $[\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{a}$ such that

1. \mathbf{x} is not free in $[\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{a}$.

2. $([\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{a})\mathbf{b} \rightarrow_{\text{CL}}^* \mathbf{a}[\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{b}]$

- For example, $([\mathbf{x}]\mathbf{xx})(\mathbf{SK}) \rightarrow_{\text{CL}}^* (\mathbf{SK})(\mathbf{SK})$

Bracket Abstraction

$[x]K =$

$[x]S =$

$[x]x =$

$[x]y =$

$(x^1 y)$

$[x](ab) =$

Examples

- $[\mathbf{x}] (\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}) =$

- $[\mathbf{x}] (S\mathbf{K}\mathbf{x}) =$

Combinatory Completeness

- We can then translate every λ -term into an equivalent extended CL-term.

$$\mathbf{CL}(x) \quad := \quad x$$

$$\mathbf{CL}(\lambda x.e) \quad := \quad [\mathbf{x}](\mathbf{CL}(e))$$

$$\mathbf{CL}(e_1 e_2) \quad := \quad (\mathbf{CL}(e_1))(\mathbf{CL}(e_2))$$

- Every *closed* λ -term translates into a variable-free CL-term.

Examples

$$\text{CL}(lx.ly.x) =$$

$$\text{CL}(lx.ly.y) =$$