

# Models of computation

Week 11

## More on $\lambda$ -calculus

### $\lambda$ -calculus for computation

- facilities that it supports
  - using functions as parameters
  - conditions, *"first-class citizens"* iteration, recursion
  - types

Steve Vickers

## More

- $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{adding constants} \\ \text{pure } \lambda\text{-calculus} \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{l} * \quad + \\ 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \end{array}$
- $\beta$ -reduction is computation
- computed value = normal form (unique, by Church-Rosser)
- say  $M=N$  if they have the same normal form (or none)

## Higher order terms

- use functions as parameters

example not higher order yet

$$Q \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. * x x$$

squares  
its parameter  
 $x \mapsto x^2$

$$P_4 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. Q(Qx)$$

squares 2 times  
 $x \mapsto x^4$

$$P_8 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. Q(Q(Qx))$$

squares 3 times  
 $x \mapsto x^8$

## Digression

$Q, P_4, P_8$  etc give efficient way to compute powers  $x^n$

e.g.  $27 = \text{binary } 11011$

$$x^{27} = x^{16} * x^8 * x^2 * x$$

$$= P_{16} x * P_8 x * Qx * x$$

3 multiplications here

+ 4 more to calculate  $Qx, P_4x$  etc

Very efficient for large  $n$ !

$$Q \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. * x x$$

$$P_4 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. Q(Qx)$$

$$P_8 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. Q(Q(Qx))$$

$x^{16}$	$x^8$	$x^4$	$x^2$	$x$
$x^{16}$	$x^8$		$x^2$	$x$

## Can do this for any f, not just Q

Want  $T f x = f(f(f x))$   
Define  $T \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda f x. f(f(f x))$   
P<sub>8</sub>  $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} T(Q)$   
parameter is a function  
T is higher order  
result is a function too

## Conditionals

Add a constant zero? that has the effect of doing conditionals

zero?  $n \ x \ y$  ( $n == 0 ? x : y$ )  
 $= \begin{cases} x & \text{if } n = 0 \\ y & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$   
if  $n == 0$  value is  $x$   
otherwise value is  $y$   
(not defined for  $n < 0$ )

## Iteration

e.g. apply  $f$   $n$  times  
Can we define  $I$  so that  
 $I \ n \ f \ x = f^n(x)$ ?  
not  $\lambda$ -notation

for loops

```
double a = x;  
for (int i = 0;  
     i < n; i++) {  
    a = f(a);  
}  
return a;
```

Recursion base case  $I \ 0 \ f \ x = x$   
if  $n > 0$   $I \ n \ f \ x = I \ (n-1) \ f \ (f \ x)$

## Java (almost)

```
/* requires n >= 0 */  
public static double I(int n, not java function f, double x) {  
    if (n == 0) {  
        return x;  
    } else {  
        return I(n-1, f, f(x));  
    }  
} //  $f^n(x) = f^{n-1}(f(x))$ 
```

# (How to do it in Java?)

```

// requires n >= 0
public static double I(int n, function f, double x) {
    if (n == 0) {
        return x;
    } else {
        return I(n-1, f, f(x));
    }
}
// f^n(x) = f^n(f(x))
    
```

Function  $\circ$   
 $\circ$   $\circ.f(x)$

```

public interface Function {
    public double f(double x);
}
    
```

recursion basecase  $I 0 f x \sim x$   
 $f n \rightarrow 0 I n f x \sim I (n-1) f (f x)$

$$I n f x = \text{zero? } n \ x \ (I \text{ (pred } n) f (f x))$$

pred  $n = n - 1$   
 predecessor

$$I = \lambda n f x. \text{zero? } n \ x \ (I \text{ (pred } n) f (f x))$$

not a definition

can't write  $I \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \dots$

recursion

## Fixpoints

$$Z \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda z x. x (z z x)$$

$$Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Z Z$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y M &= Z Z M \\
 &= (\lambda z x. x (z z x)) Z M \\
 &\rightarrow_{\beta} M (Z Z M) \\
 &= M (Y M)
 \end{aligned}$$

Def<sup>n</sup> a is a fixpoint of M if

$$M a = a$$

Have just shown whatever M is,

$Y M$  is a fixpoint of it

$Y$  is a fixpoint combinator  $\circ \circ$  found by Turing

Problem find a fixpoint

Solution apply  $Y$

Sometimes fixpoint can mean never get an answer - no normal form

## Careless reduction

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma M &\rightarrow_{\beta} M(\gamma M) \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} M(M(\gamma M)) \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} M(M(M(\gamma M))) \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} \dots \end{aligned}$$

reduces forever

To get a normal form, must use our knowledge of what  $M$  is.

## Some examples

$M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x. x$  - everything is a fixpoint

$$M a \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda x. x) a = a$$

$$\gamma M \rightarrow_{\beta} M(\gamma M) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda x. x)(\gamma M) \rightarrow_{\beta} \gamma M$$

no normal form

## Some examples

$$N \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n. \text{zero? } n \mid 0 \quad N 0 = 1$$

$$\gamma N = N(\gamma N) = \text{zero? } (\gamma N) \mid 0 \quad N 1 = N 2 = \dots = 0$$

No fix points

Suppose  $\gamma N$  has normal form  $a$  (an integer).

If  $a = 0$  then

$$\gamma N = 0 \quad \text{zero? } (\gamma N) \mid 0 = 1$$

If  $a > 0$  then

$$\gamma N > 0 \quad \text{zero? } (\gamma N) \mid 0 = 0$$

$\therefore \gamma N$  has no normal form like that.

## Solving a fixpoint equation:

$$I = \lambda n f x. \text{zero? } n \mid n (I(\text{pred } n) f(fx))$$

$\lambda$ -term  $M$  applied to  $I$

We want fixpoint of  $M$

$$M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda I. \lambda n f x. \text{zero? } n \mid n (I(\text{pred } n) f(fx))$$

$$\text{Want } I = M I$$

$$\text{Solution is } I \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \gamma M$$

## Example

Reduce  $I\ 2\ g\ y$  should be  $g(g\ y)$

$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Y\ M\ 2\ g\ y$

$\rightarrow_{\beta} M\ (Y\ M)\ 2\ g\ y$

$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda I. \lambda n. f\ x. \text{zero? } n\ n\ (I\ (\text{pred } n)\ f\ (f\ x)))\ (Y\ M)\ 2\ g\ y$   $I\ n\ f\ x$

$\rightarrow_{\beta} \text{zero? } 2\ y\ (Y\ M)\ (\text{pred } 2)\ g\ (g\ y)$

$\rightarrow (Y\ M)\ (\text{pred } 2)\ g\ (g\ y)$   $2 > 0$

$\rightarrow (Y\ M)\ 1\ g\ (g\ y)$   $\text{pred } 2 = 2 - 1 = 1$

## Continuing

$Y\ M\ 1\ g\ (g\ y) \rightarrow_{\beta} M\ (Y\ M)\ 1\ g\ (g\ y)$   
 $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda I. \lambda n. f\ x. \text{zero? } n\ n\ (I\ (\text{pred } n)\ f\ (f\ x)))\ (Y\ M)\ 1\ g\ (g\ y)$   $I\ n\ f\ x$

$\rightarrow_{\beta} \text{zero? } 1\ (g\ y)\ (Y\ M)\ (\text{pred } 1)\ g\ (g\ (g\ y))$

$\rightarrow (Y\ M)\ (\text{pred } 1)\ g\ (g\ (g\ y))$

$\rightarrow (Y\ M)\ 0\ g\ (g\ (g\ y))$

$\rightarrow_{\beta} M\ (Y\ M)\ 0\ g\ (g\ (g\ y))$

$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda I. \lambda n. f\ x. \text{zero? } n\ n\ (I\ (\text{pred } n)\ f\ (f\ x)))\ (Y\ M)\ 0\ g\ (g\ (g\ y))$   
 $\rightarrow_{\beta} \text{zero? } 0\ (g\ (g\ y))\ (Y\ M)\ (\text{pred } 0)\ g\ (g\ (g\ (g\ y)))$   
 $\rightarrow g\ (g\ y)$   $I\ 2\ g\ y$  should be  $g(g\ y)$

## $\lambda$ -calculus as a model of computation

Definition Suppose some calculus has an effective way of computing the results of functions it can define -  $\lambda$ -calculus uses reduction

Then it is Turing complete if it can define all the functions from natural numbers to natural numbers that are computable on Turing machines

## Is the $\lambda$ -calculus Turing complete?

Answer ①: Yes

- if you add constants for predecessor  
successor

$\text{pred } n = \begin{cases} n-1 & \text{if } n > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases}$  ,  $\text{succ } n = n+1$   
 and all natural numbers  $0, 1, 2, \dots$

Essentially: arithmetic -  $\text{pred}, \text{succ}$   
 enough to write: program constructs  $\text{zero?}$  - conditionals  
 $\lambda$ -recursion



## Arithmetic: pred

$$\text{pred} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n f x. n (\lambda g h. h (g f)) (\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u)$$

$$= \lambda n f x. n T (\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u)$$

where  $T = \lambda g h. h (g f)$

$$O T (\lambda u. x) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda u. x$$

$$I T (\lambda u. x) \rightarrow_{\beta} T (\lambda u. x)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda h. h (\lambda u. x) f \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda h. h x$$

different, but

$(\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u) \rightarrow_{\beta} x$

$(\lambda h. h x) (\lambda u. u) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda u. u) x \rightarrow_{\beta} x$

## More ...

where  $T = \lambda g h. h (g f)$

$O T (\lambda u. x) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda u. x$

$I T (\lambda u. x) \rightarrow_{\beta} T (\lambda u. x)$

$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda h. h (\lambda u. x) f \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda h. h x$

$$2 T (\lambda u. x) \rightarrow_{\beta} T (T (\lambda u. x))$$

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

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda h. h ((\lambda h. h x) f) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda h. h (f x)$$

$$n T (\lambda u. x) \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots \lambda h. h (f^{n-1} x)$$

$\text{pred} = \lambda n f x. n T (\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u)$

informally - come back to this in exercises

$$\therefore \text{pred } n \sim \lambda f x. (\lambda h. h (f^{n-1} x)) (\lambda u. u)$$

$$\sim \lambda f x. (\lambda u. u) (f^{n-1} x) \sim \lambda f x. f^{n-1} x$$

## Types

Pure  $\lambda$ -calculus "everything is a function & it can be applied to anything"

- not always sensible e.g.  $\log(\sin)$

Typing Keep track of -

- what are functions?
- what types are their parameters & results?

## Function types

If  $\sigma, \tau$  are types:

$\sigma \rightarrow \tau$  is type for functions with

- parameter of type  $\sigma$
- result of type  $\tau$

e.g.

With constants for arithmetic

0, 1, 2, ... of type nat

succ, pred of type nat

natural numbers

function nat  $\rightarrow$  nat  
parameter of type nat  $\rightarrow$  result of type nat

zero? - depends on type of alternatives  
if x, y of type  $\sigma$ , so is zero?  $n \times y$

zero? of type nat  $\rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma$   
first parameter  $n$  2nd param  $x$  3rd param  $y$  result

### Bracketing?

zero? of type nat  $\rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma$   
first parameter  $n$  2nd param  $x$  3rd param  $y$  result

$\sigma \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \upsilon$  means  $\sigma \rightarrow (\tau \rightarrow \upsilon)$   
parameter - type  $\sigma$  result - type  $\tau \rightarrow \upsilon$   
Another function: parameter  $\tau$  result  $\upsilon$

- Just how we dealt with multiple parameters  
In general for types without brackets

$\sigma_1 \rightarrow \sigma_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \sigma_n \rightarrow \tau$  or:  $\sigma_1 \rightarrow (\sigma_2 \rightarrow (\dots \rightarrow (\sigma_n \rightarrow \tau) \dots))$   
parameter types result type

### Higher order types

parameter is a function

e.g.  $\lambda f x. f(f(f x))$

If  $x$  is type  $\sigma$ ,  $f$  must be  $\sigma \rightarrow \sigma$

$\therefore \lambda f x. f(f(f x))$  has type

must have brackets

$(\sigma \rightarrow \sigma) \rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma$   
type of  $f$  type of  $x$  type of result

or  $(\sigma \rightarrow \sigma) \rightarrow (\sigma \rightarrow \sigma)$

### Context free grammar for types $\tau$

$\tau ::= c \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$

Ambiguous! Leaves out brackets

constants  
e.g. nat, int, real

function types

## "Well typed"

A term is "well typed" if can say what its type is.

Use annotations to say what types variables are  
 $x:\sigma$  - "x has type  $\sigma$ "

Then the variable is well typed.

## Abstractions

Abstractions always get a function type

If  $M$  is well typed, type  $\tau$   
and all uses of  $x$  in  $M$  are  $x:\sigma$

then  $\lambda x:\sigma. M$  is well typed, type  $\sigma \rightarrow \tau$

Applications If  $M, N$  both well typed

$M$  - type  $\sigma \rightarrow \tau$

$N$  - type  $\sigma$

formal } parameter  
actual } types must match

then  $MN$  is well typed, type  $\tau$

## Is a term well typed?

Use type variables to stand for types while you work out constraints.

e.g.  $\lambda f x. f x$       Say  $x:A, f:B$

For  $f x$  to be well typed:

$B$  a function type  $A \rightarrow C$ , some  $C$

$x:A$        $f:A \rightarrow C$        $f x : C$

$\lambda x. f x : A \rightarrow C$

$\lambda f x. f x : (A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$

In full:

$\lambda f:A \rightarrow C. \lambda x:A. f:A \rightarrow C \quad x:A$

## Refining the types

$\lambda f:A \rightarrow C. \lambda x:A. f x$

Suppose term was in a bigger term

$(\lambda f x. f x) (\lambda u. u) \text{ ?}$       Say  $u:D$   
 $(A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$        $D \rightarrow D$        $\text{int}$

for application,  $A \rightarrow C = D \rightarrow D \quad \therefore A = C = D$

$(\lambda f x. f x) (\lambda u. u) \text{ ?}$       for this application  
 $(D \rightarrow D) \rightarrow (D \rightarrow D)$        $D \rightarrow D$        $\text{int}$  must have  $D = \text{int}$   
 $D \rightarrow D$

$(\lambda f:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}. \lambda x:\text{int}. f x) (\lambda u:\text{int}. u) \text{ ?}$

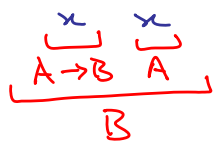
## Some terms aren't well typed!

e.g.  $x x$

if  $x: A$

for application  $x x$ ,

$A = A \rightarrow B$ , some  $B$



But can't find types  
 $A, B$  with  $A = A \rightarrow B$

e.g.  $Y = (\lambda z. x (z z x)) (\lambda z. x (z z x))$

- similar reason

## Simply typed $\lambda$ -calculus

Same as  $\lambda$ -calculus, except

- every variable has a type
- only allow terms that are well typed

Very well behaved, because -

Theorem

Every well typed term has a normal form

## PCF

"programming computable functions"

- Scott, Plotkin

Turing completeness with well typed  $\lambda$ -terms

- $\text{nat}$  as a type natural numbers
- constants for all natural numbers
- $\text{succ}, \text{pred} : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$
- $\text{zero?}_\sigma : \text{nat} \rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma \rightarrow \sigma$  for each  $\sigma$

BUT  $Y$  not well typed  $\therefore$  need special symbols

- $Y_\sigma : (\sigma \rightarrow \sigma) \rightarrow \sigma$  for each type  $\sigma$

+ reduction rule  $Y_\sigma f \rightarrow f (Y_\sigma f)$

Theorem PCF is Turing complete