## CSC\_51051\_EP: Pure $\lambda$ -calculus

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## Part I

## Introduction

You are mostly used to **imperative** programming languages where programs consist in sequences of instructions and modify a state.

```
public long factorial(int n) {
    int result = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
        result = result * i;
    }
    return result;
}</pre>
```

In **functional** programming, we manipulate functions, which can even be created on the fly:

```
let rec map f l =
  match l with
    [] -> []
    | x::l' -> (f x)::(map f l')
```

```
let double_list l = map (fun x -> 2 * x) l
```

So that

- # double\_list [1; 2; 3];;
- -: int list = [2; 4; 6]

We can define the multiplication function by

let mult x y = x \* y

and then define doubling with

```
let double = mult 2
```

this is thanks to Curryfication which allows partial application: the above definition is equivalent to

```
let mult = fun x \rightarrow fun y \rightarrow x * y
```

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How can we define this for functional programming languages?

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How can we define this for functional programming languages?

The  $\lambda$ -calculus is the core of a functional programming language: we focus on the functional part.

It is a subject of study per se, but it can be mixed with imperative features (e.g. OCaml).

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the name of the variable  $\mathbf{x}$  does not matter:

 $f(y) = 2 \times y$ 

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We say that  $\mathbf{x}$  is **bound** in the expression.

The relation which identifies two expressions differing only in renaming of bound variable is called  $\alpha$ -conversion.

There are many places where this phenomenon occurs in mathematics:

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{y}{x} \qquad \qquad \int_0^1 t x \, \mathrm{d}t \qquad \qquad \sum_{i=0}^n i x$$

This looks like a detail, but it is quite important: consider

 $f(y) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{y}{x}$ 

Clearly, if I replace y by any arbitrary expression t (say,  $t = \ln(sin(z))^{\sqrt{2}}$ ),

 $f(t) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{t}{x} = 0$ 

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In mathematics, this is generally implicit, but when implementing we have to explicitly take care of  $\alpha$ -conversion: there is no easy way of automatically taking care of this.

Believe it or not, this is one of the most error prone issues to correctly handle.

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where x might occur in the term t, e.g.

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Moreover, we will always write

 $f = \lambda x.t$  instead of f(x) = t

The "squaring" function can be defined as

square =  $\lambda x.(x \times x)$ 

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We can then apply the function to an argument

square 3

which will reduce to

3 imes 3

as expected.

We can also consider the function

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For this reason, application is always implicitly bracketed on the left: mult 3 4 = (mult 3) 4  $\neq$  mult (3 4)

#### $\lambda\text{-calculus}$

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## Part II

# $\lambda$ -calculus

This notation was invented by Church in the 1930s, looking for new foundations of mathematics based on functions instead of sets.

The set of  $\lambda$ -terms is defined by the following grammar:

 $t, u ::= x \mid t u \mid \lambda x.t$ 

A  $\lambda$ -term is thus either

- a variable x,
- an *application* t u,
- an abstraction  $\lambda x.t$ .

For instance,

 $(\lambda x.(xx))(\lambda y.(yx))$ 

 $\lambda x.(\lambda y.(x(\lambda z.y)))$ 



### Conventions

By convention,

• application is associative on the left, i.e.

tuv = (tu)v

and not t(uv),

• application binds more tightly than abstraction, i.e.

 $\lambda x.xy = \lambda x.(xy)$ 

and not (λx.x)y (this says that abstraction extends as far as possible on the right),
we sometimes group abstractions, i.e.

 $\lambda xyz.xz(yz)$  is read as  $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.xz(yz)$ 

## Bound and free variables

We write FV(t) for the set of free variables of t, i.e. those which are not bound by a  $\lambda$ .

For instance,

$$FV(\lambda x.x y z) = FV((\lambda x.x)x) = FV((\lambda x.x)(\lambda y.y)) =$$

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Formally,

$$FV(x) =$$
$$FV(t u) =$$
$$FV(\lambda x.t) =$$

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 $FV(x) = \{x\}$  $FV(t u) = FV(t) \cup FV(u)$  $FV(\lambda x.t) =$ 

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Formally,

 $FV(x) = \{x\}$  $FV(t u) = FV(t) \cup FV(u)$  $FV(\lambda x.t) = FV(t) \setminus \{x\}$ 

Two terms are  $\alpha$ -equivalent when they only differ by renaming of bound variables.

In a subterm, of the form  $\lambda x.t$ , we can rename x to y only if  $y \notin FV(t)$ .

For instance,

$$(\lambda x.xxy)t = _{\alpha} (\lambda z.zzy)t \neq _{\alpha} (\lambda y.yyy)t$$

In the following terms are always considered up to  $\alpha\text{-equivalence.}$ 

### Substitution

We write t[u/x] for the term t where all free occurrences of x have been replaced by u.

$$x[u/x] = u$$
  

$$y[u/x] = y$$
  

$$(t_1 t_2)[u/x] = (t_1[u/x])(t_2[u/x])$$
  

$$(\lambda y.t)[u/x] = \lambda y.(t[u/x])$$

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$$(\lambda y.yx)[y/x]$$

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$$(\lambda x.t)[u/x] = \lambda x.t$$
  

$$(\lambda y.t)[u/x] = \lambda y.(t[u/x])$$

if  $y \neq x$ 

(simple but useful optimization) if  $y \neq x$  and  $y \notin FV(u)$ 

$$(\lambda x.x)[y/x] \stackrel{\alpha}{=} (\lambda z.z)[y/x] = \lambda z.z \stackrel{\alpha}{=} \lambda x.x$$

The notion of "execution" for  $\lambda$ -terms is given by  $\beta$ -reduction.

A  $\beta$ -reduction step consists in replacing a subterm

$$(\lambda x.t) u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t[u/x]$$

Such a subterm is called a  $\beta$ -redex.

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 $(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.y) \longrightarrow_{\beta}$ 



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• Reduction can create  $\beta$ -redexes:

```
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• Reduction can duplicate  $\beta$ -redexes:

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x  $x(\lambda y.\lambda z.y)$  ...

• Some terms reduce infinitely:

$$(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) \longrightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

• Some terms reduce in multiple ways:

 $_{\beta} \longleftarrow (\lambda xy.y)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x)) \longrightarrow_{\beta}$


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 $\lambda y. y_{\beta} \longleftarrow (\lambda xy. y)((\lambda x. x)(\lambda x. x)) \longrightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda xy. y)(\lambda x. x)$ 

A  $\beta$ -reduction path is a sequence of  $\beta$ -reduction steps:

$$t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u = t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t_1 \longrightarrow_{\beta} t_2 \longrightarrow_{\beta} \ldots \longrightarrow_{\beta} u$$

(by which we mean that there exists terms  $t_i$  with the above reductions)

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(by which we mean that there exists terms  $t_i$  with the above reductions)

The number of  $\beta$ -reduction steps is called the **length** of the path.

A reasonable programming language should be "deterministic" or at least "reasonably predictable".

How can we formalize this property?

## Confluence

A fundamental property of  $\beta$ -reduction is that we can always make two reductions from the same term converge.

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**Theorem (Confluence)** Given a term t such that  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$  and  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} v$ there exists a term w such that  $u \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} w$  and  $v \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} w$ :



For instance,

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

For instance,



The  $\beta$ -equivalence  $=_{\beta}$  is the smallest equivalence relation containing  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ .

Two terms t and u are  $\beta$ -equivalent if there exists a sequence of reductions

$$t = _{\beta} u = t \xleftarrow{*} t_1 \xrightarrow{*} t_2 \xleftarrow{*} t_3 \xrightarrow{*} t_4 \xleftarrow{*} \ldots \xrightarrow{*} u$$

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From confluence,

**Theorem (Church-Rosser)** *Two terms* t *and* u *are*  $\beta$ *-equivalent iff*  The  $\beta$ -equivalence  $=_{\beta}$  is the smallest equivalence relation containing  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ .

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From confluence,

Theorem (Church-Rosser)

Two terms t and u are  $\beta$ -equivalent iff there exists v such that  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} v$  and  $u \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} v$ :



This is not the only interesting notion of equivalence.

The  $\eta$ -equivalence  $=_{\eta}$  is the smallest congruence such that, for every term t,

 $t = \eta \quad \lambda x.tx$ 

when  $x \notin FV(t)$ .

For instance, in OCaml

 $\sin = \eta$  fun x ->  $\sin x$ 

We will not insist much on it in the following, but we will see that two such functions can behave differently in languages such as OCaml (but not in  $\lambda$ -calculus).

How difficult is it do decide whether two terms are  $\beta$ -equivalent?

## Part III

# Expressive power

Let's see what we can compute within the pure  $\lambda\text{-calculus.}$ 

I =

 $I = \lambda x.x$ 

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 $|t \longrightarrow_{\beta}$ 

It satisfies

31

 $I = \lambda x.x$ 

It satisfies

 $|t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t$ 

The **booleans** can be encoded as the two projections

 $T = \lambda x y. x$ 

$$F = \lambda x y. y$$

Conditional branching can be encoded as

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Namely,

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We can the implement usual boolean operations:

and = 
$$or = not =$$

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and  $= \lambda xy \text{.if } x y F$  or  $= \lambda xy \text{.if } x T y$  not  $= \lambda x \text{.if } xFT$  $= \lambda xy x y F$   $= \lambda xy x T y$   $= \lambda xy x FT$  We can the implement usual boolean operations:

and  $= \lambda xy.if x y F$  or  $= \lambda xy.if x T y$  not  $= \lambda x.if x F T$  $= \lambda xy.x y F$   $= \lambda xy.x T y$   $= \lambda xy.x F T$ 

There are other possible implementations, e.g.

and =  $\lambda xy.x y x$ 

(not  $\beta$ -equivalent, note that behavior is only specified on booleans)

pair =

pair =  $\lambda xyb$ .if b x y

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Namely,

pair 
$$t u \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} \lambda b$$
.if  $b t u$ 

and we have

(pair  $t \ u$ ) T  $\overset{*}{\longrightarrow}_{eta}$ 

(pair t u)  $\mathsf{F} \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$ 

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(pair t u) T  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} t$ 

(pair t u) F  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ 

We can thus define

$$fst = snd =$$

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$$\mathsf{fst} = \lambda p.p \mathsf{T} \qquad \qquad \mathsf{snd} = \lambda p.p \mathsf{F}$$

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Namely,

pair  $t u \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} \lambda b$ .if b t u

and we have

 $(\operatorname{pair} t \, u) \, \mathsf{T} \stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} t$ 

(pair t u)  $\mathsf{F} \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ 

We can thus define

 $fst = \lambda p.p T$   $snd = \lambda p.p F$ 

which behaves as expected

fst (pair t u)  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$ 

snd (pair t u)  $\stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta}$ 

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It is not much more difficult to encode tuples.

snd (pair 
$$t u$$
)  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ 

The *n*-th **Church numeral** is the  $\lambda$ -term

 $\underline{n} = \lambda f x. f^n x = \lambda f x. f(f(\dots(fx)))$ 

so that

$$\underline{0} = \lambda f x. x \qquad \underline{1} = \lambda f x. f x \qquad \underline{2} = \lambda f x. f(f x) \qquad \underline{3} = \lambda f x. f(f(f x)) \qquad \dots$$

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and the test at zero:

iszero =  $\lambda n.n(\lambda z.F)T$ 

We can also program the predecessor

 $\mathsf{pred} =$ 

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 $pred = \lambda nfx.n(\lambda gh.h(gf))(\lambda y.x)(\lambda y.y)$ 

(see in TD) and thus subtraction by

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 $sub = \lambda mn.n \operatorname{pred} m$ 

In order to be able to program more full-fledged programs, we need to be able to define recursive functions.

For instance,

```
let rec fact n =
    if n = 0 then 1 else n * fact (n-1)
```

In mathematics, a fixpoint of a function  $f : A \rightarrow A$  is an element  $a \in A$  such that

f(a) = a

In mathematics, a **fixpoint** of a function  $f : A \rightarrow A$  is an element  $a \in A$  such that

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A distinguishing feature of  $\lambda\text{-calculus}$  is that

- every program admits a fixpoint,
- this fixpoint can be computed within  $\lambda$ -calculus.

This means that there is a term  ${\sf Y}$  such that

 $t(Y t) = _{\beta} Y t$ 

This can be used to program recursive functions!

How do we program a fixpoint operator in OCaml?

 $t(Y t) = _{\beta} Y t$ 

How do we program a fixpoint operator in OCaml?

 $Y t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t (Y t)$ 

How do we program a fixpoint operator in OCaml?

fix t = t(fix t)

In OCaml, we can program a fixpoint operator with (by definition)

```
let rec fix f = f (fix f)
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For instance fact 1 is

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let fact = fix fact\_fun

For instance fact 1 is

```
1 * fix fact_fun 0
```

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If we actually try to define **fact**, we get:
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If we actually try to define **fact**, we get:

Stack overflow during evaluation (looping recursion?).

In OCaml, we can program a fixpoint operator with (by definition)

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The factorial can then be programmed with

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```

```
let fact = fix fact_fun
```

Problem solved:

```
# fact 5;;
```

-: int = 120

(by an  $\eta$ -expansion!...)

This translates directly as

 $fact = Y(\lambda fn.if (iszero n) \underline{1} (mul n (f (pred n))))$ 

The factorial of 2 computes as

fact 2 = (YF) 2 $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} F(YF) 2$  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$  if (iszero 2) 1 (mul 2 ((YF) (pred 2)))  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$  if false 1 (mul 2 ((YF) (pred 2)))  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$  mul 2 ((YF) (pred 2))  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$  mul 2 ((YF) 1)  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$  mul 2 (mul 11)  $\xrightarrow{*}_{\beta}$  2

- $\hookrightarrow (\lambda p.(((\lambda x.(\lambda y.(\lambda b.((((\lambda b.(\lambda x.(\lambda y.((b x) y)))) b) x) y)))) ((\lambda p.(p (\lambda x.(\lambda y.y)))) p)) ((\lambda n.(\lambda f.(\lambda x.((n f) (f x))))))))))$
- $\hookrightarrow ((\lambda p.(p (\lambda x.(\lambda y.y))) p)))) (((\lambda x.(\lambda y.(\lambda b.((((\lambda x.(\lambda y.((b x) y))) b) x) y))) (\lambda f.(\lambda x.x))) (\lambda f.(\lambda x.x))))))$
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```
-> (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f((((\lambda x.x)(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f x)))) f) x))))
```

- $\rightarrow$  ( $\lambda$ f.( $\lambda$ x.(f ((( $\lambda$ f.( $\lambda$ x.(f x))) f) x))))
- $\rightarrow$  ( $\lambda$ f.( $\lambda$ x.(f (( $\lambda$ x.(f x)) x))))
- $\rightarrow$  ( $\lambda$ f.( $\lambda$ x.(f (f x))))

#### 333 steps

We can also write unbounded loops:

```
let rec min_from p n =
    if p n then n else min_from p (n+1)
```

```
let min p = min_from p 0
```

let  $x = \min (fun n \rightarrow n - 10 = 0)$ 

We can also write unbounded loops:

```
let min_from_fun f p n =
    if p n then n else f p (n+1)
```

let min\_from = fix min\_from\_fun

```
let min p = min_from p 0
```

let  $x = \min (fun n \rightarrow n - 10 = 0)$ 

We thus have

- natural numbers,
- the successor function,
- tuples and projections,
- composition,
- conditional branching with test to zero,
- recursion.

We thus have

- natural numbers,
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- tuples and projections,
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- conditional branching with test to zero,
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We thus have recursive functions!

This should convince you that the  $\lambda$ -calculus is **Turing complete**.

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**Theorem** *The following decision problems are undecidable:* 

- whether two  $\lambda$ -terms are  $\beta$ -equivalent,
- whether a  $\lambda$ -term can reduce to a normal form.

... excepting

... excepting that we have not explained how to define a fixpoint combinator Y yet.

... excepting that we have not explained how to define a **fixpoint combinator** Y yet.

The OCaml implementation

```
let rec fix f x = f (fix f) x
```

does not translate to  $\lambda$ -calculus because it is not an anonymous function:

let fix = fun f  $\rightarrow$  ???

Any guess?

We can start by recalling that we had a non-terminating term:

 $\Omega = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) \longrightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \ldots$ 

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 $\mathsf{Y} =$ 

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$$\uparrow$$

$$f(Y f)$$

i.e.

 $\mathsf{Y} f = _{\beta} f(\mathsf{Y} f)$ 

Note that computing fixpoints can loop:

$$\forall f \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} f(\forall f) \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} f(f(\forall f)) \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} \dots$$

So that our implementation of factorial can loop (this is what was happening in OCaml).

However, programming languages implement a reduction strategy, i.e. a particular way of  $\beta$ -reducing programs.

If we choose a decent one, the factorial will compute the factorial.

Does this work in practice (= OCamI)?

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```
let fix = fun f \rightarrow (fun x \rightarrow f (x x)) (fun x \rightarrow f (x x))
```

Does this work in practice (= OCamI)?

let fix = fun f -> (fun x -> f (x x)) (fun x -> f (x x))

Error: This expression has type 'a -> 'b
 but an expression was expected of type 'a
 The type variable 'a occurs inside 'a -> 'b

Does this work in practice (= OCamI)?

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Error: This expression has type 'a -> 'b
but an expression was expected of type 'a
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Namely,  $\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}$  means that

- x is a function: of type 'a -> 'b,
- that  $a = a \rightarrow b$

i.e. the type of  ${\color{black} x}$  should be

There are ways to get around this, one being to use the option -rectypes of OCaml (which allows types such as ('a -> 'b) as 'a):

let fix = fun f -> (fun x -> f (x x) ) (fun x -> f (x x) ) has type

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('a -> 'a) -> 'a
```

and we define

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

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let fact_fun f n = if n = 0 then 1 else n * f (n - 1)
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Problem:

Stack overflow during evaluation (looping recursion?).We can use the same trick as before.

There are ways to get around this, one being to use the option -rectypes of OCaml (which allows types such as ('a -> 'b) as 'a):

```
let fix = fun f -> (fun x y -> f (x x) y) (fun x y -> f (x x) y)
has type
```

```
(('a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b
and we define
```

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

Problem solved:

# fact 5;;

```
-: int = 120
```

If you (understandably) don't feel comfortable with -rectypes:

```
type 'a t = Arr of ('a t \rightarrow 'a)
```

```
let arr (Arr f) = f
```

```
let fix = fun f -> (fun x y -> f (arr x x) y)
(Arr (fun x y -> f (arr x x) y))
```

let fact\_fun f n = if n = 0 then 1 else n \* f (n - 1)

```
let fact = fix fact_fun
```

let n = fact 5

In practice (= OCaml), one does not encode everything in *pure*  $\lambda$ -calculus, but rather adds more primitives. For instance, **products** can be added with

 $t, u ::= x \mid t u \mid \lambda x.t \mid \langle t, u \rangle \mid \pi_{\mathsf{I}} \mid \pi_{\mathsf{r}}$ 

with additional reduction rules

 $\pi_{\mathsf{I}}\langle t, u \rangle \longrightarrow_{\beta} t \qquad \qquad \pi_{\mathsf{r}} \langle t, u \rangle \longrightarrow_{\beta} u$ 

and similarly for other constructions.

We have seen that the way reduction is implemented has an influence.

```
The main choice roughly is, for
```

 $(\lambda x.t)u$ 

to either

- reduce u to  $\hat{u}$  and then reduce  $t[\hat{u}/x]$  (*call-by-value*):
- reduce t[u/x] (*call-by-name*):

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   more efficient since we compute arguments once,
- reduce t[u/x] (*call-by-name*):

We have seen that the way reduction is implemented has an influence.

```
The main choice roughly is, for
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 $(\lambda x.t)u$ 

to either

- reduce u to û and then reduce t[û/x] (call-by-value):
   more efficient since we compute arguments once,
- reduce t[u/x] (call-by-name): not sensitive to divergence of arguments, e.g. (λxy.y)Ωl.
# Part IV

# Confluence

#### Confluence

We have announced the confluence theorem:

**Theorem (Confluence)** Given a term t such that  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$  and  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} v$ there exists a term w such that  $u \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} w$  and  $v \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} w$ :



#### What could be a proof strategy to show confluence?

(clearly, we cannot consider all coinitial pairs of reduction paths)

Maybe we can show that has the **diamond property**:



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For instance,



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We can then easily conclude to confluence:



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Excepting that  $\lambda$ -calculus does <u>not</u> satisfy the diamond property:

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 $(\lambda x.xx)(II)$  $(\lambda x.xx)$ (II)(II)

Excepting that  $\lambda$ -calculus does <u>not</u> satisfy the diamond property:



By case analysis, we can show local confluence:



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By case analysis, we can show local confluence:



from which we <u>cannot</u> deduce confluence. Why?

By case analysis, we can show local confluence:



but this does not imply confluence.

Namely, the following situation



is locally confluent but not confluent.













The idea is to use an auxiliary reduction, which does have the diamond property and whose confluence implies the one of  $\beta$ -reduction.



The  $\beta$ -reduction consists in replacing a subterm

 $(\lambda x.t) u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t[u/x]$ 

The  $\beta$ -reduction consists in replacing a subterm

$$(\lambda x.t) u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t[u/x]$$

This thus is the smallest relation such that

$$\frac{t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t'}{(\lambda x.t)u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t[u/x]} \qquad \frac{t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t'}{\lambda x.t \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.t'} \qquad \frac{t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t'}{tu \longrightarrow_{\beta} t'u} \qquad \frac{u \longrightarrow_{\beta} u'}{tu \longrightarrow_{\beta} tu'}$$

We would like to allow multiple reductions in parallel, e.g.



 $(\lambda x.xx)t$  $(\lambda x.xx)t'$ tt Y t'tt't'

We would like to allow multiple reductions in parallel, e.g.



 $(\lambda x.xx)t$  $(\lambda x.xx)t'$ tt Y t't

We would like to allow multiple reductions in parallel, e.g.





We define the **parallel**  $\beta$ -reduction as

$$\frac{t \longrightarrow t' \quad u \longrightarrow u'}{(\lambda x.t)u \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]} \qquad \frac{t \longrightarrow t' \quad u \longrightarrow u'}{t \ u \longrightarrow t'u'} \qquad \frac{t \longrightarrow t'}{\lambda x.t \longrightarrow \lambda x.t'}$$

The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction thus allows to perform multiple reductions in parallel:

#### Lemma

If  $t \longrightarrow u$  then  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ .

The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction thus allows to perform multiple reductions in parallel:

#### Lemma

If  $t \longrightarrow u$  then  $t \stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} u$ .

Note that this does not mean that we can always go to a normal form in one step, because some reductions are created by other:

 $(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.y) \longrightarrow (\lambda y.y)(\lambda y.y)$
#### Lemma

If  $t \longrightarrow u$  then  $t \stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} u$ .

Conversely, any  $\beta$ -reduction step is in particular, one  $\beta$ -reduction step in "parallel":

#### Lemma If $t \longrightarrow_{\beta} u$ then $t \longrightarrow u$ .

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Therefore,

Lemma

We have  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$  iff  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$ .

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#### Lemma

We have 
$$t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$$
 iff  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ .

**Proof.**  

$$t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u = t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t_1 \longrightarrow_{\beta} t_2 \longrightarrow_{\beta} \dots \longrightarrow_{\beta} u$$
  
 $= t \xrightarrow{} t_1 \xrightarrow{} t_2 \xrightarrow{} \dots \xrightarrow{} u$ 

#### Lemma

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### Therefore,

#### Lemma

We have 
$$t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$$
 iff  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ 

Proof.  

$$t \xrightarrow{*} u = t \longrightarrow t_1 \longrightarrow t_2 \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow u$$
  
 $= t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} t_1 \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} t_2 \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} \dots \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$ 

Our goal is to show:

#### Theorem

The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction is confluent: if  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$  and  $t \xrightarrow{*} v$  then there exists w such that  $u \xrightarrow{*} w$  and  $u \xrightarrow{*} w$ .



Our goal is to show:

#### Theorem

The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction is confluent: if  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$  and  $t \xrightarrow{*} v$  then there exists w such that  $u \xrightarrow{*} w$  and  $u \xrightarrow{*} w$ .



**Corollary** *The*  $\beta$ *-reduction is confluent.* 

Our goal is to show:

#### Theorem

The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction is confluent: if  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$  and  $t \xrightarrow{*} v$  then there exists w such that  $u \xrightarrow{*} w$  and  $u \xrightarrow{*} w$ .



**Corollary** The  $\beta$ -reduction is confluent.

We first need some lemmas.

**Lemma** For every term t, we have  $t \rightarrow t$ .

**Proof.** By induction on the term *t*:

$$\frac{t \longrightarrow t' \quad u \longrightarrow u'}{(\lambda x.t)u \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]} \qquad \frac{t \longrightarrow t' \quad u \longrightarrow u'}{t \ u \longrightarrow t'u'} \qquad \frac{t \longrightarrow t'}{\lambda x.t \longrightarrow \lambda x.t'}$$

#### Lemma

If  $t \longrightarrow t'$  and  $u \longrightarrow u'$  then  $t[u/x] \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]$ .

#### Proof.

By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ .

We recall that the rules defining parallel  $\beta\text{-reduction}$  are

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1 \quad t_2 \longrightarrow t'_2}{(\lambda x.t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow t'_1[t'_2/x]} \qquad \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1 \quad t_2 \longrightarrow t'_2}{t_1 t_2 \longrightarrow t'_1 t'_2} \qquad \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\lambda x.t_1 \longrightarrow \lambda x.t'_1}$$

Lemma If  $t \longrightarrow t'$  and  $u \longrightarrow u'$  then  $t[u/x] \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]$ .

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation of  $t \rightarrow t'$ . If t = x and we used

 $x \longrightarrow x$ 

we have

$$t[u/x] = u \longrightarrow u' = t'[u'/x]$$

Lemma If  $t \longrightarrow t'$  and  $u \longrightarrow u'$  then  $t[u/x] \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]$ .

Proof. By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ .

If  $t = y \neq x$  and we used

 $V \longrightarrow V$ 

we have

$$t[u/x] = y \longrightarrow y = t'[u'/x]$$

### Lemma If $t \longrightarrow t'$ and $u \longrightarrow u'$ then $t[u/x] \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]$ .

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ .

If  $t = (\lambda y.t_1)t_2$  with  $y \neq x$  and we used

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1' \qquad t_2 \longrightarrow t_2'}{(\lambda y. t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow t_1'[t_2'/y]}$$

we have  $t[u/x] = (\lambda y.t_1[u/x])t_2[u/x] \longrightarrow t'_1[u'/x][t'_2[u'/x]/y] = t'[u'/x]$ since, using induction hypothesis,

$$\frac{t_1[u/x] \longrightarrow t'_1[u'/x] \qquad t_2[u/x] \longrightarrow t'_2[u'/x]}{(\lambda y.t_1[u/x])t_2[u/x] \longrightarrow t'_1[u'/x][t'_2[u'/x]/y]}$$

### Lemma If $t \longrightarrow t'$ and $u \longrightarrow u'$ then $t[u/x] \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]$ .

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ .

If  $t = t_1 t_2$  and we used

$$rac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1' \qquad t_2 \longrightarrow t_2'}{t_1 \ t_2 \longrightarrow t_1' \ t_2'}$$

we have  $t[u/x] = (t_1[u/x])(t_2[u/x]) \longrightarrow (t'_1[u'/x])(t'_2[u'/x]) = t'[u'/x]$ since, using the induction hypothesis,

$$\frac{t_1[u/x] \longrightarrow t'_1[u'/x]}{(t_1[u/x])(t_2[u/x]) \longrightarrow (t'_1[u'/x])(t'_2[u'/x])}$$

### Lemma If $t \longrightarrow t'$ and $u \longrightarrow u'$ then $t[u/x] \longrightarrow t'[u'/x]$ .

**Proof.** By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ .

If  $t = \lambda y \cdot t_1$  with  $y \neq x$  and we used

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'}{\lambda y.t_1 \longrightarrow \lambda y.t_1'}$$

we have  $t[u/x] = \lambda y \cdot t_1[u/x] \longrightarrow \lambda y \cdot t'_1[u'/x] = t'[u'/x]$ since, using the induction hypothesis,

$$\frac{t_1[u/x] \longrightarrow t'_1[u'/x]}{\lambda y.t_1[u/x] \longrightarrow \lambda y.t'_1[u'/x]}$$

#### Theorem

The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction has the **diamond property**: if  $t \longrightarrow u$  and  $t \longrightarrow v$  then there exists w such that  $u \longrightarrow w$  and  $v \longrightarrow w$ .



#### Proof.

By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow u$ . We recall that the rules defining parallel  $\beta$ -reduction are

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{x \longrightarrow x} \qquad \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{(\lambda x.t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow t'_1[t'_2/x]} \qquad \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1 t_2 \longrightarrow t'_1} \frac{t_2 \longrightarrow t'_2}{t_1 t_2} \qquad \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\lambda x.t_1 \longrightarrow \lambda x.t'_1}$$

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The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction has the **diamond property**: if  $t \longrightarrow u$  and  $t \longrightarrow v$  then there exists w such that  $u \longrightarrow w$  and  $v \longrightarrow w$ .



#### Proof.

By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow u$ .

If the reduction is  $t = x \longrightarrow x = u$  then we conclude immediately with





Theorem The parallel  $\beta$ -reduction has the **diamond property**: if t  $\longrightarrow$  u and t  $\longrightarrow$  v then there exists w such that  $u \longrightarrow w$  and  $v \longrightarrow w$ . Proof. By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow u$ . If the reduction is  $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow u_1}{(\lambda x.t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow u_1[u_2/x]}$  and the other is  $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow v_1}{(\lambda x.t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow v_1[v_2/x]}$  then  $(\lambda x.t_1)t_2$ and  $u_2 \bigvee_{v_2} v_2$  thus  $u_1[u_2/x]$  $v_1[v_2/x]$ . *u*<sub>1</sub>

70

#### Theorem

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# u v v w

#### Proof.

By induction on the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow u$ .

If 
$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow u_1}{(\lambda x.t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow u_1[u_2/x]}$$
 and  $\frac{\lambda x.t_1 \longrightarrow \lambda x.v_1}{(\lambda x.t_1)t_2 \longrightarrow (\lambda x.v_1)v_2}$  then  
 $u_1 \bigvee_{w_1} v_1$  and  $u_2 \bigvee_{w_2} v_2$  thus  $u_1[u_2/x] \bigvee_{w_1[w_2/x]} (\lambda x.v_1)v_2$ .  
70

### Theorem

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### Theorem

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#### Proof.

By induction on the length of the reduction  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$ .

• If the length is zero then this is immediate:



#### Theorem

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### Proof.

By induction on the length of the reduction  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$ .

• Otherwise,



#### Theorem

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### Proof.

By induction on the length of the reduction  $t \xrightarrow{*} u$ .

• Otherwise,



# $\mathsf{Part}\ \mathsf{V}$

# De Bruijn indices

Again,  $\alpha$ -conversion (renaming of bound variables) is one of the greatest source of bugs and problems.

An idea to eliminate the need for renaming is consists in having a convention for naming variables.

In a closed term, such as

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

every variable is bound by some  $\lambda$ -abstract above:





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

every variable is bound by some  $\lambda$ -abstract above:



The de Bruijn convention: replace every variable by the number of  $\lambda$ s to jump over



 $\lambda.0(\lambda.01)$ 

# De Bruijn indices

We now consider  $\lambda\text{-terms}$  generated by the grammar

```
t, u ::= i \mid t u \mid \lambda.t
```

where  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  is a **de Bruijn index**.

Again, an index *i* means the variable declared by the *i*-th  $\lambda$  above.

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where  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  is a **de Bruijn index**.

Again, an index *i* means the variable declared by the *i*-th  $\lambda$  above.

If there are not enough  $\lambda$ s, then it is a free variable:

 $\lambda x. x x_0 x_2$  becomes  $\lambda.013$ 

(we can assume that the free variables are  $\{x_0, \ldots, x_{k-1}\}$ )

The rule for  $\beta$ -reduction is the usual one:

 $(\lambda.t)u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t[u/0]$ 

excepting that the substitution now has to take care of properly handling indices.

The reduction

 $\lambda x.(\lambda y.\lambda z.y)(\lambda t.t) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.(\lambda z.y)[\lambda t.t/y] = \lambda x.\lambda z.y[\lambda t.t/y] = \lambda x.\lambda z.\lambda t.t$  corresponds to

 $\lambda.(\lambda.\lambda.1) \lambda.0 \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda.(\lambda.1)[\lambda.0/0] = \lambda.\lambda.1[\lambda.0/1] = \lambda.\lambda.\lambda.0$ 

and we are tempted to define substitution by

i[u/i] = u j[u/i] = jfor  $j \neq i$  (t t')[u/i] = (t[u/i]) (t'[u/i])  $(\lambda t)[u/i] = \lambda t[u/i+1]$ 

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Incorrect: in the last case, *t* might contain free variables.

The reduction

$$\lambda x.(\lambda y.\lambda z.y) x \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.(\lambda z.y)[x/y] = \lambda x.\lambda z.y[x/y] = \lambda x.\lambda z.x$$

corresponds to

$$\lambda.(\lambda.\lambda.1) \, 0 \longrightarrow_eta \lambda.(\lambda.1)[0/0] = \lambda.\lambda.1[1/1] = \lambda.\lambda.1$$

and the last case of substitution should actually be

 $(\lambda.t)[u/i] = \lambda.t[\uparrow_0 u/i+1]$ 

where  $\uparrow_0 u$  is u with all free variables increased by 1 (and other unchanged).

The reduction

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and the last case of substitution should actually be

 $(\lambda t)[u/i] = \lambda t[\uparrow_0 u/i+1]$ 

where  $\uparrow_0 u$  is u with all free variables increased by 1 (and other unchanged). Still incorrect:  $\beta$ -reduction removes abstractions!

The reduction

$$\lambda x.(\lambda y.x)(\lambda t.t) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.x[\lambda t.t/y] = \lambda x.x$$

corresponds to

$$\lambda.(\lambda.1) (\lambda.0) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda.1[\lambda.0/0] = 0$$
#### Reduction

The reduction

$$\lambda x.(\lambda y.x) (\lambda t.t) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x.x[\lambda t.t/y] = \lambda x.x$$

corresponds to

$$\lambda.(\lambda.1)(\lambda.0) \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda.1[\lambda.0/0] = 0$$

and the first case of substitution should actually be, for  $j \neq i$ ,

 $j[u/i] = \downarrow_i j$ 

with

$$\downarrow_{l} i = \begin{cases} i-1 & \text{if } i > l \\ i & \text{if } i < l \end{cases}$$

In summary, the  $\beta$ -reduction can be defined as

 $(\lambda.t)u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t[u/0]$ 

for  $i \neq i$ 

with

i[u/i] = u  $j[u/i] = \downarrow_i j$  (t t')[u/i] = (t[u/i]) (t'[u/i]) $(\lambda t)[u/i] = \lambda t[\uparrow_0 u/i+1]$  We are only left to define  $\uparrow_0 u$  which is u with all free variables increased by 1.

For instance,

 $\uparrow_0(0(\lambda.01)) =$ 

Note that, under the  $\lambda$ , we should only increase free variables of index  $\geq 1$ .

We are only left to define  $\uparrow_0 u$  which is u with all free variables increased by 1.

For instance,

 $\uparrow_0(0(\lambda.01)) = 1(\lambda.02)$ 

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Given a "cutoff level" I, we define

#### *↑<sub>1</sub> u*

which is u with all free variables of index  $\ge I$  increased by 1:

$$\uparrow_{I} i = \begin{cases} i & \text{if } i < I \\ i+1 & \text{if } i \ge I \end{cases}$$
$$\uparrow_{I}(t u) = (\uparrow_{I} t) (\uparrow_{I} u)$$
$$\uparrow_{I}(\lambda.t) = \lambda.(\uparrow_{I+1} t)$$

We can define a translation from  $\lambda\text{-terms}$  to de Bruijn and back.

**Theorem** The  $\beta$ -reduction is compatible with translations.

## Part VI

# Combinatory logic

It begins with the observation that all the  $\lambda\text{-terms}$  can be generated by composing a finite number of those:

$$S = \lambda xyz.(xz)(yz)$$
  $K = \lambda xy.x$ 

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$$S = \lambda xyz.(xz)(yz)$$
  $K = \lambda xy.x$ 

For instance,  $I = \lambda x \cdot x$  can be implemented as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{S}\,\mathsf{K}\,\mathsf{K} &= & (\lambda xyz.(xz)(yz))(\lambda xy.x)(\lambda xy.x) & \longrightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda z.((\lambda xy.x)z)((\lambda xy.x)z) \\ & \longrightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda z.(\lambda y.z)(\lambda y.z) \\ & \longrightarrow_{\beta} & \lambda z.z \end{aligned}$$

It begins with the observation that all the  $\lambda$ -terms can be generated by composing a finite number of those:

$$S = \lambda xyz.(xz)(yz)$$
  $K = \lambda xy.x$ 

Note that

- S allows the duplication of a variable which is given to two terms in an application,
- K allows the erasure of a variable given as argument.

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$$S = \lambda xyz.(xz)(yz)$$
  $K = \lambda xy.x$ 

Note that these terms satisfy:

 $\mathsf{S} t u v \longrightarrow_{\beta} (t v) (u v) \qquad \qquad \mathsf{K} t u \longrightarrow_{\beta} t$ 

Combinatory logic

The terms are defined as

 $T, U ::= x \mid T U \mid S \mid K$ 

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is a variable.

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The reduction rules are

 $\overline{\mathsf{S} \, T \, U \, V} \longrightarrow (T \, V) \, (U \, V) \qquad \overline{\mathsf{K} \, T \, U} \longrightarrow T$   $\frac{T \longrightarrow T'}{T \, U \longrightarrow T' \, U} \qquad \frac{U \longrightarrow U'}{T \, U \longrightarrow T \, U'}$ 

Combinatory logic

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 $T, U ::= x \mid T \mid U \mid S \mid K$ 

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 $\overline{S T U V} \longrightarrow (T V) (U V) \qquad \overline{K T U} \longrightarrow T$   $\frac{T \longrightarrow T'}{T U \longrightarrow T' U} \qquad \frac{U \longrightarrow U'}{T U \longrightarrow T U'}$ 

For instance,

 $\mathsf{S}\mathsf{K}\mathsf{K}\mathsf{T}\longrightarrow(\mathsf{K}\mathsf{T})(\mathsf{K}\mathsf{T})\longrightarrow\mathsf{T}$ 

We define a translation from combinatory terms to  $\lambda\text{-terms}$  by

 $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{\lambda} = x \qquad \llbracket T \ U \rrbracket_{\lambda} = \llbracket T \rrbracket_{\lambda} \llbracket U \rrbracket_{\lambda} \qquad \llbracket K \rrbracket_{\lambda} = \lambda xy.x \qquad \llbracket S \rrbracket_{\lambda} = \lambda xyz.(xz)(yz)$ 

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**Proposition** Given combinatory terms T and T', we have

$$T \longrightarrow T'$$
 implies  $\llbracket T \rrbracket_{\lambda} \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} \llbracket T' \rrbracket_{\lambda}$ 

Given a combinatory term T and a variable x, we define the term  $\Lambda x.T$  by

 $\begin{aligned} \Lambda x.x &= \mathsf{I} = \mathsf{S} \,\mathsf{K} \,\mathsf{K} \\ \Lambda x.T &= \mathsf{K} \,T & \text{if } x \not\in \mathsf{FV}(T), \\ \Lambda x.(T \, U) &= \mathsf{S} \,(\Lambda x.T) \,(\Lambda x.U) & \text{otherwise.} \end{aligned}$ 

Given a combinatory term T and a variable x, we define the term  $\Lambda x.T$  by  $\Lambda x.x = I = S K K$   $\Lambda x.T = K T$  if  $x \notin FV(T)$ ,  $\Lambda x.(T U) = S(\Lambda x.T)(\Lambda x.U)$  otherwise.

We can finally translate a  $\lambda$ -term t by

 $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{cl} = x$  $\llbracket t \ u \rrbracket_{cl} = \llbracket t \rrbracket_{cl} \llbracket u \rrbracket_{cl}$  $\llbracket \lambda x.t \rrbracket_{cl} = \Lambda x.\llbracket t \rrbracket_{cl}$ 

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For instance,

 $[\![\lambda x.\lambda y.x]\!]_{\rm cl}$ 

Given a combinatory term T and a variable x, we define the term  $\Lambda x.T$  by  $\Lambda x.x = I = S K K$   $\Lambda x.T = K T$  if  $x \notin FV(T)$ ,  $\Lambda x.(T U) = S(\Lambda x.T)(\Lambda x.U)$  otherwise.

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For instance,

$$\begin{split} \llbracket \lambda x.\lambda y.x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} &= \Lambda x.\llbracket \lambda y.x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} \\ &= \Lambda x.\Lambda y.\llbracket x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} \end{split}$$

Given a combinatory term T and a variable x, we define the term  $\Lambda x.T$  by  $\Lambda x.x = I = S K K$   $\Lambda x.T = K T$  if  $x \notin FV(T)$ ,  $\Lambda x.(T U) = S(\Lambda x.T)(\Lambda x.U)$  otherwise.

For instance,

 $\llbracket \lambda x.\lambda y.x \rrbracket_{cl} = \Lambda x.\llbracket \lambda y.x \rrbracket_{cl}$  $= \Lambda x.\Lambda y.\llbracket x \rrbracket_{cl}$  $= \Lambda x.\Lambda y.x$ 

Given a combinatory term T and a variable x, we define the term  $\Lambda x.T$  by  $\Lambda x.x = I = S K K$   $\Lambda x.T = K T$  if  $x \notin FV(T)$ ,  $\Lambda x.(T U) = S(\Lambda x.T)(\Lambda x.U)$  otherwise.

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For instance,

 $[\![\lambda x.\lambda y.x]\!]_{cl} = \Lambda x.[\![\lambda y.x]\!]_{cl}$  $= \Lambda x.\Lambda y.[\![x]\!]_{cl}$  $= \Lambda x.\Lambda y.x$  $= \Lambda x.\mathsf{K} x$  $= \mathsf{S} (\Lambda x.\mathsf{K}) (\Lambda x.x)$ 

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For instance,

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Lemma For any  $\lambda$ -term t,  $\llbracket \llbracket t \rrbracket_{cl} \rrbracket_{\lambda} \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} t$ .

For instance,

 $\llbracket \llbracket \lambda x.x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} \rrbracket_{\lambda} = \llbracket \mathsf{S} \mathsf{K} \mathsf{K} \rrbracket_{\lambda} = (\lambda x y z.(x z)(y z))(\lambda x y.x)(\lambda x y.x) \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} \lambda x.x$ 

Lemma For any  $\lambda$ -term t,  $\llbracket \llbracket t \rrbracket_{cl} \rrbracket_{\lambda} \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} t$ .

For instance,

$$\llbracket \llbracket \lambda x.x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} \rrbracket_{\lambda} = \llbracket \mathsf{S} \mathsf{K} \mathsf{K} \rrbracket_{\lambda} = (\lambda x y z.(xz)(yz))(\lambda x y.x)(\lambda x y.x) \stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} \lambda x.x$$

**Corollary** Every closed  $\lambda$ -term can be obtained by composing the  $\lambda$ -terms S and K.

#### Limitations of the translations

It is not true that  $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} u$  implies  $\llbracket t \rrbracket_{cl} \xrightarrow{*} \llbracket u \rrbracket_{cl}$ .

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For instance,

$$[\![\lambda x.(\lambda y.y) x]\!]_{cl} = \mathsf{S}(\mathsf{K} \mathsf{I}) \mathsf{I} \qquad [\![\lambda x.x]\!]_{cl} = \mathsf{I}$$

(both are normal forms!)

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For instance,

$$\llbracket \lambda x.(\lambda y.y) \, x \rrbracket_{cl} = \mathsf{S} \, (\mathsf{K} \, \mathsf{I}) \, \mathsf{I} \qquad \qquad \llbracket \lambda x.x \rrbracket_{cl} = \mathsf{I}$$

(both are normal forms!)

However, it gets true if we apply them to enough arguments:

 $\mathsf{S}(\mathsf{K}\mathsf{I})\mathsf{I}\, T \longrightarrow \mathsf{K}\mathsf{I}\, T\,(\mathsf{I}\, T) \longrightarrow \mathsf{I}\,(\mathsf{I}\, T) \longrightarrow \mathsf{I}\, T \longrightarrow T \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathsf{I}\, T \longrightarrow T$ 

#### The translation of a combinatory term in normal form is not necessarily a normal form:

$$\llbracket \mathsf{K} x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} = (\lambda x y. x) x \longrightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. x$$

## A combinatory term T is not convertible with $[[T]_{\lambda}]_{cl}$ in general

$$\llbracket\llbracket \mathsf{K} \rrbracket_{\lambda} \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} = \llbracket \lambda x y. x \rrbracket_{\mathrm{cl}} = \mathsf{S} \left(\mathsf{K} \mathsf{K}\right) \mathsf{I} \neq \mathsf{K}$$

(they are both normal forms and combinatory logic can be shown to be confluent)

All those defects are due to the fact that combinatory terms might be stuck (compared to  $\lambda$ -terms) if they don't have enough arguments.

The translation is still quite useful.

The system

 $T, U ::= x \mid T U \mid S \mid K$ 

with rules

 $\overline{S \ T \ U \ V} \longrightarrow (T \ V) (U \ V) \qquad \overline{K \ T \ U} \longrightarrow T$   $\frac{T \longrightarrow T'}{T \ U \longrightarrow T' \ U} \qquad \frac{U \longrightarrow U'}{T \ U \longrightarrow T \ U'}$ 

simulates  $\lambda$ -calculus and is thus undecidable!

We have reduced  $\lambda$ -calculus to 2 combinators, can we do 1?

We have reduced  $\lambda\text{-calculus}$  to 2 combinators, can we do 1?

Yes,

 $\iota = \lambda x. x \,\mathsf{S}\,\mathsf{K}$ 

#### Namely,

$$I = \iota \iota \qquad \qquad \mathsf{K} = \iota \left( \iota \left( \iota \iota \right) \right) \qquad \qquad \mathsf{S} = \iota \left( \iota \left( \iota \iota \iota \right) \right)$$

The reduction is

 $\iota T \longrightarrow T \left( \iota \left( \iota \left( \iota \left( \iota \iota \right) \right) \right) \right) \left( \iota \left( \iota \left( \iota \iota \right) \right) \right)$
The terms are generated by the grammar

 $t, u ::= \iota \mid t u$ 

A term t can be encoded as a binary word [t] defined by

 $[\iota] = 1$   $[t \ u] = 0[t][u]$ 

so that  $\iota(\iota(\iota\iota))$  is encoded as 0101011.

We thus get an interesting binary encoding of  $\lambda$ -terms.