## Computing in the $\lambda$ -calculus

Samuel Mimram samuel.mimram@lix.polytechnique.fr http://lambdacat.mimram.fr

## November 16, 2020

We recall that  $\lambda$ -terms t are of the form x (a variable) or  $\lambda x.t$  (an abstraction) or tu (an application). The  $\beta$ -reduction is the closure under context of the relation  $(\lambda x.t)u \rightarrow t[u/x]$ , i.e. the relation generated by

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

We write  $\stackrel{*}{\rightarrow}$  (resp.  $\stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow}$ ) for the reflexive and transitive (resp. and symmetric) closure of  $\rightarrow$ .

## 1 Reduction graphs

The reduction graph of a  $\lambda$ -term t is the graph, whose vertices are  $\lambda$ -terms, defined as the smallest graph such that t is a vertex and there is an arrow between two vertices t and t' whenever  $t \to t'$ .

- 1. Write the respective reduction graphs of  $(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.y)z$  and  $(\lambda xy.x)((\lambda x.xx)(\lambda xy.xy))$ .
- 2. Can a reduction graph have loops? be infinite? be infinitely branching?

Solution. Yes (take  $\Omega = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$ ), yes (take  $(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx))$ ) and no.

## 2 Computing in pure $\lambda$ -calculus

We encode the booleans true and false as the  $\lambda\text{-terms}$ 

$$op = \lambda x. \lambda y. x \qquad \qquad \perp = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$$

1. Define a  $\lambda$ -term if encoding conditional branching: we should have

$$\text{if } \top t \, u \xrightarrow{*} t \qquad \qquad \text{if } \bot t \, u \xrightarrow{*} u$$

Solution. We define if  $= \lambda btu.btu$ .

2. Define  $\lambda$ -terms encoding conjunction, disjunction and negation of booleans.

Solution. We define

and  $= \lambda ab$  if  $a b \perp$  or  $= \lambda ab$  if  $a \top b$  not  $= \lambda a$  if  $a \perp \top$ 

3. Define an encoding of pairs of terms in  $\lambda$ -calculus, as well as projections.

Solution. We define

pair = 
$$\lambda xyb$$
. if  $b x y$   $\pi_1 = \lambda p.p \top$   $\pi_2 = \lambda p.p \bot$ 

The Church encoding of a natural number n in  $\lambda$ -calculus is

$$\lambda f x. \underbrace{f(f \dots (f x))}_{n \text{ times}} x)$$

4. Define the interpretation of the successor, addition, multiplication and exponential functions.

Solution. We can define

 $suc = \lambda nfx.f(nfx) \quad add = \lambda mnfx.mf(nfx) \quad mul = \lambda mnfx.m(nf)x \quad \exp = \lambda mn.nm$  or

$$add = \lambda mn.m \operatorname{suc} n$$
  $mul = \lambda mn.m(add n)0$   $exp = \lambda mn.n(mul m)1$ 

5. Define a function which tests whether its argument, a natural number, is 0 or not.

Solution. We define

iszero = 
$$\lambda nxy.n(\lambda z.y)x$$

6. Assuming given the predecessor function, define the subtraction function. Can you see how to define the predecessor?

Solution. We define

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

A *fixpoint combinator* is a term Y such that

 $Y t \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} t (Y t)$ 

7. Recall Russell's paradox in naive set theory.

Solution. Consider the set  $r = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$ . If  $r \in r$  then  $r \notin r$  and if  $r \notin r$  then  $r \in r$ . In other words,  $r \in r \Leftrightarrow r \notin r$ .

8. Encoding a set t as a predicate which indicates whether an element belongs to it, we can write t u instead of  $u \in t$ , and  $\lambda x.t$  instead of  $\{x \mid t\}$ . Assuming given a term  $\neg$  for negation, translate Russell's paradox in  $\lambda$ -calculus, and generalize it in order to obtain a fixpoint combinator Y.

Solution. We write  $r = \lambda x . \neg(xx)$  and we have  $rr = \neg(rr)$ . Otherwise said, rr is a fixpoint for  $\neg$ . Generalizing this to any function f instead of  $\neg$ , we define

$$Y = \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx))$$

9. Given a term t, show that the  $\beta$ -equivalence class of Y t is always infinite.

Solution. We have

$$Y t \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} t (Y t) \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} t (t (Y t)) \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} \dots$$

10. Program the factorial function in OCaml. Modify your implementation in order not to use the rec keyword, but you can use the function fix defined by

let rec fix f = f (fix f)

In practice, what happens when you evaluate this definition? Fix fix.

Solution. We define the auxiliary function

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

from which we can deduce the implementation of factorial by

let fact = fix fact\_fun

If we try to evaluate it, we obtain

Stack overflow during evaluation (looping recursion?).

but we can fix this with an  $\eta$ -expansion of the fix function:

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

which is due to the particular evaluation strategy we have in OCaml.

11. Assuming given predecessor, define the factorial function in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

Solution. We define

fact = Y ( $\lambda f n$ . if (iszero n) 1 (f (pred n)))

12. The Fibonacci sequence  $(\phi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is defined by  $\phi_0 = 0$ ,  $\phi_1 = 1$  and  $\phi_n = \phi_{n-1} + \phi_{n+2}$ . Give a naive OCaml implementation of this function. What is (roughly) its complexity? Provide a saner implementation.

Solution. The naive implementation is

```
let rec fib n =
if n = 0 then 0
else if n = 1 then 1
else fib (n-1) + fib (n-2)
```

whose complexity is exponential. A saner version is obtained by computing two successive values of fib:

```
let fib n =
let rec aux i (p,q) =
    if i = 0 then (p,q) else aux (i-1) (q,p+q)
    in
    fst (aux n (0,1))
```

13. Implement the predecessor function in OCaml and in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

Solution. For the predecessor, we can similarly compute the result by iterating n times the function  $\phi = (m, n) \mapsto (n, n + 1)$  to (0, 0):

```
let pred n =
let rec aux i (p,q) =
    if i = 0 then (p,q) else aux (i-1) (q,q+1)
    in
    fst (aux n (0,0))
```

This easily translates into a  $\lambda$ -term.

14. Show that  $\Theta = (\lambda x f. f(xxf))(\lambda x f. f(xxf))$  is also a fixpoint combinator (due to Turing). What is the advantage over Y?

Solution. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \Theta t &= (\lambda x f. f(xxf))(\lambda x f. f(xxf))t \\ &\to (\lambda f. f((\lambda x f. f(xxf))(\lambda x f. f(xxf))f))t \\ &\to t((\lambda x f. f(xxf))(\lambda x f. f(xxf))t) \\ &= t(\Theta t) \end{aligned}$$

If we look precisely at the situation with Y, we have

$$Y t = (\lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))t \rightarrow (\lambda x.t(xx))(\lambda x.t(xx)) \rightarrow t((\lambda x.t(xx))(\lambda x.t(xx))) \leftarrow t(Yt)$$

So the situation is slightly simpler: we have  $\Theta t \xrightarrow{*} t(\Theta t)$  as opposed to only  $Y t \stackrel{*}{\leftrightarrow} t(Y t)$ .