

Lecture 11

Theory of Combinators

- Combinators are an alternative theory of functions to the λ -calculus
- Originally introduced by logicians as a way of studying the process of substitution
- More recently, Turner has argued that combinators provide a good ‘machine code’ into which functional programs can be compiled
- Several experimental computers have been built based on Turner’s ideas
- Combinators also provide a good intermediate code for conventional machines
 - several of the best compilers for functional languages are based on them

Formulations of theory of combinators

- Two equivalent ways of formulating the theory of combinators:
 - (i) within the λ -calculus, or
 - (ii) as a completely separate theory.
 - approach (i) taken here
 - approach (ii) was the original one
- It will be shown that *any* λ -expression is equal to an expression built from variables and two particular expressions, K and S, using only function application
- This is done by mimicking λ -abstractions using combinations of K and S
- β -reductions can be simulated by simpler operations involving K and S
 - it is these simpler operations that combinator machines implement directly in hardware

S and K

- The definitions of K and S are:

$$\text{LET } K = \lambda x y. x$$

$$\text{LET } S = \lambda f g x. (f x) (g x)$$

- By β -reduction, for all E_1 , E_2 and E_3 :

$$K E_1 E_2 = E_1$$

$$S E_1 E_2 E_3 = (E_1 E_3) (E_2 E_3)$$

Combinators

- Any expression built by application (i.e. combination) from K and S is called a *combinator*
 - K and S are the *primitive combinators*

- **Combinators have the following syntax:**

$\langle \text{combinator} \rangle ::= K \mid S \mid (\langle \text{combinator} \rangle \langle \text{combinator} \rangle)$

- A *combinatory expression* is an expression built from K , S and zero or more variables
 - a combinator is a combinatory expression not containing variables

- **Syntax of combinatory expressions:**

$\langle \text{combinatory expression} \rangle$

$::= K \mid S$

$\mid \langle \text{variable} \rangle$

$\mid (\langle \text{combinatory expression} \rangle \langle \text{combinatory expression} \rangle)$

The identity combinator I

- The identity function I is often taken as a primitive combinator, but this is not necessary as it can be defined from K and S
- Define I by:

$$\text{LET } I = \lambda x. x$$

- Then $I = S K K$
 - exercise!

Combinator reduction

- If E and E' are combinatory expressions then $E \xrightarrow{c} E'$ means:

- $E \equiv E'$

- or E' can be got from E by a sequence of rewritings of the form:

(i) $K E_1 E_2 \xrightarrow{c} E_1$

(ii) $S E_1 E_2 E_3 \xrightarrow{c} (E_1 E_3) (E_2 E_3)$

(iii) $I E \xrightarrow{c} E$

- Example: for any E

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 S K K E \xrightarrow{c} K E (K E) & \text{by (ii)} \\
 \xrightarrow{c} E & \text{by (i)}
 \end{array}$$

- thus (iii) is derivable from (i) and (ii)

- Any sequence of combinatory reductions can be expanded into a sequence of β -conversions

- $K E_1 E_2 \longrightarrow E_1$

- $S E_1 E_2 E_3 \longrightarrow (E_1 E_3) (E_2 E_3)$

Functional completeness

- Every λ -expression is equal to some combinatory expression
 - called the functional completeness of combinators
 - basis for compilers for functional languages to the machine code of combinator machines
- Key idea:
 - for variable V and combinatory expression E a combinatory expression $\lambda^*V. E$ will be defined
 - $\lambda^*V. E$ uses K and S to simulate adding ' λV ' to an expression
 - $\lambda^*V. E = \lambda V. E$

Bracket abstraction $\lambda^*V. E$

- If V a variable and E a combinatory expression, then $\lambda^*V. E$ is defined inductively on the structure of E as follows:
 - (i) $\lambda^*V. V = \mathbf{I}$
 - (ii) $\lambda^*V. V' = \mathbf{K} V' \quad (\text{if } V \neq V')$
 - (iii) $\lambda^*V. C = \mathbf{K} C \quad (\text{if } C \text{ is a combinator})$
 - (iv) $\lambda^*V. (E_1 E_2) = \mathbf{S} (\lambda^*V. E_1) (\lambda^*V. E_2)$
- Note that $\lambda^*V. E$ is a combinatory expression not containing V
- Example: if f and x are variables and $f \neq x$, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda^*x. f x &= \mathbf{S} (\lambda^*x. f) (\lambda^*x. x) \\ &= \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} f) \mathbf{I}\end{aligned}$$

Proof of functional completeness

- **THEOREM:**

- $(\lambda^*V. E) = \lambda V. E$

- **PROOF:**

- show $(\lambda^*V. E) V = E$

- follows immediately that $\lambda V. (\lambda^*V. E) V = \lambda V. E$

- and hence by η -reduction that $\lambda^*V. E = \lambda V. E$

Proof that $(\lambda^*V. E) V = E$

- **Mathematical induction on the ‘size’ of E :**

(i) if $E = V$ then:

$$(\lambda^*V. E) V = \mathbf{I} V = (\lambda x. x) V = V = E$$

(ii) if $E = V'$ where $V' \neq V$ then:

$$(\lambda^*V. E) V = \mathbf{K} V' V = (\lambda x y. x) V' V = V' = E$$

(iii) if $E = C$ where C is a combinator, then:

$$(\lambda^*V. E) V = \mathbf{K} C = (\lambda x y. x) C V = C = E$$

(iv) if $E = (E_1 E_2)$ then we can assume by induction that:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda^*V. E_1) V &= E_1 \\ (\lambda^*V. E_2) V &= E_2 \end{aligned}$$

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda^*V. E) V &= (\lambda^*V. (E_1 E_2)) V \\ &= (\mathbf{S} (\lambda^*V. E_1) (\lambda^*V. E_2)) V \\ &= (\lambda f g x. f x (g x)) (\lambda^*V. E_1) (\lambda^*V. E_2) V \\ &= (\lambda^*V. E_1) V ((\lambda^*V. E_2) V) \\ &= E_1 E_2 \quad (\text{by induction assumption}) \\ &= E \end{aligned}$$

Translation to combinators

- The notation

$$\lambda^*V_1 V_2 \cdots V_n. E$$

is used to mean

$$\lambda^*V_1. \lambda^*V_2. \cdots \lambda^*V_n. E$$

- Define the translation of λ -expression E to a combinatory expression $(E)_c$:
 - (i) $(V)_c = V$
 - (ii) $(E_1 E_2)_c = (E_1)_c (E_2)_c$
 - (iii) $(\lambda V. E)_c = \lambda^*V. (E)_c$

$$E = (E)_c$$

● **THEOREM:**

- for every λ -expression E we have: $E = (E)_c$

● **PROOF:** induction on the size of E

(i) If $E = V$ then $(E)_c = (V)_c = V$

(ii) If $E = (E_1 E_2)$ we can assume by induction that

$$E_1 = (E_1)_c$$

$$E_2 = (E_2)_c$$

hence

$$(E)_c = (E_1 E_2)_c = (E_1)_c (E_2)_c = E_1 E_2 = E$$

(iii) If $E = \lambda V. E'$ then we can assume by induction that

$$(E')_c = E'$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} (E)_c &= (\lambda V. E')_c \\ &= \lambda^* V. (E')_c && \text{(by translation rules)} \\ &= \lambda^* V. E' && \text{(by induction assumption)} \\ &= \lambda V. E' && \text{(by previous theorem)} \\ &= E \end{aligned}$$

Consequences of last theorem

- Every λ -expression is equal to a λ -expression built up from K and S and variables by application

- the class of λ -expressions E defined by:

$$E ::= V \mid K \mid S \mid E_1 E_2$$

is equivalent to the full λ -calculus

- A collection of n combinators C_1, \dots, C_n is called an n -element *basis*
 - if every λ -expression E is equal to an expression built from C_i s and variables by function applications
 - theorem above shows K and S form a 2-element basis
- There exists a 1-element basis!

Exercise

Find a combinator, X say, such that any λ -expression is equal to an expression built from X and variables by application.

Hint: Let $\langle E_1, E_2, E_3 \rangle = \lambda p. p E_1 E_2 E_3$ and consider $\langle K, S, K \rangle \langle K, S, K \rangle \langle K, S, K \rangle$ and $\langle K, S, K \rangle \langle \langle K, S, K \rangle \langle K, S, K \rangle \rangle$

Examples

- Part of Y:

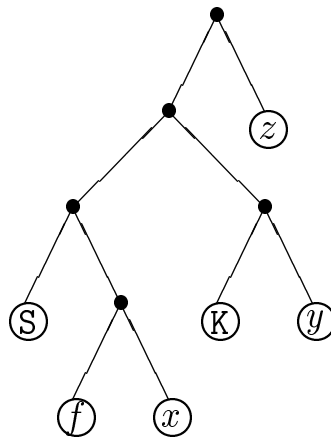
$$\begin{aligned}
& \lambda^* f. \lambda^* x. f (x x) \\
&= \lambda^* f. (\lambda^* x. f (x x)) \\
&= \lambda^* f. (\mathbf{S} (\lambda^* x. f) (\lambda^* x. x x)) \\
&= \lambda^* f. (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} f) (\mathbf{S} (\lambda^* x. x) (\lambda^* x. x))) \\
&= \lambda^* f. (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} f) (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I})) \\
&= \mathbf{S} (\lambda^* f. \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} f)) (\lambda^* f. \mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I}) \\
&= \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{S} (\lambda^* f. \mathbf{S}) (\lambda^* f. \mathbf{K} f)) (\mathbf{K} (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I})) \\
&= \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{S}) (\mathbf{S} (\lambda^* f. \mathbf{K}) (\lambda^* f. f))) (\mathbf{K} (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I})) \\
&= \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{S}) (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{K}) \mathbf{I})) (\mathbf{K} (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I}))
\end{aligned}$$

- Y:

$$\begin{aligned}
(\mathbf{Y})_{\mathbf{c}} &= (\lambda f. (\lambda x. f(x x)) (\lambda x. f(x x)))_{\mathbf{c}} \\
&= \lambda^* f. ((\lambda x. f(x x)) (\lambda x. f(x x)))_{\mathbf{c}} \\
&= \lambda^* f. ((\lambda x. f(x x))_{\mathbf{c}} (\lambda x. f(x x))_{\mathbf{c}}) \\
&= \lambda^* f. (\lambda^* x. (f(x x))_{\mathbf{c}}) (\lambda^* x. (f(x x))_{\mathbf{c}}) \\
&= \lambda^* f. (\lambda^* x. f(x x)) (\lambda^* x. f(x x)) \\
&= \mathbf{S} (\lambda^* f. \lambda^* x. f(x x)) (\lambda^* f. \lambda^* x. f(x x)) \\
&= \mathbf{S} (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{S}) (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{K}) \mathbf{I})) (\mathbf{K} (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I}))) (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{S}) (\mathbf{S} (\mathbf{K} \mathbf{K}) \mathbf{I})) (\mathbf{K} (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I})))
\end{aligned}$$

Reduction machines

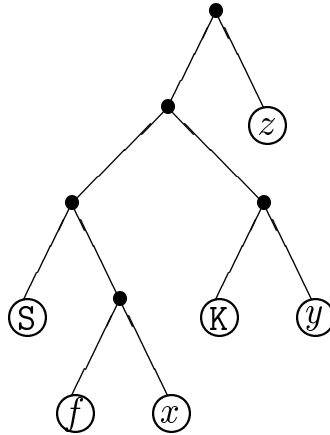
- Represent combinatory expressions by trees
- Example: $S (f x) (K y) z$ represented by:



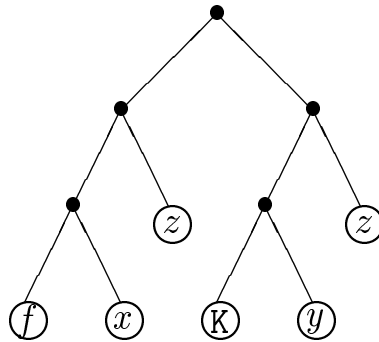
- Such trees are represented as pointer structures in memory
 - special hardware or firmware can then be implemented to transform such trees according to the rules of combinator reduction defining \xrightarrow{c}

Examples of tree reduction

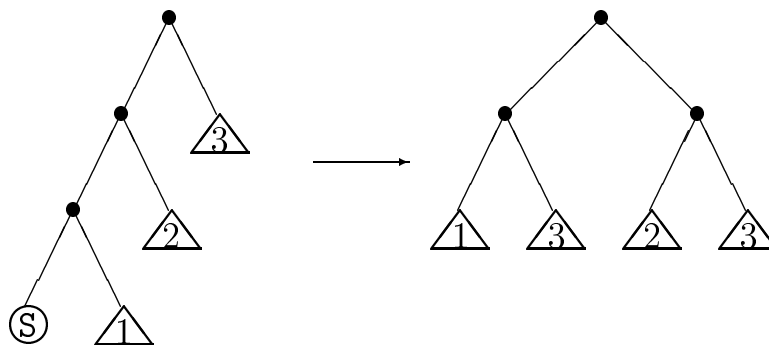
- The tree:



Could be transformed to:



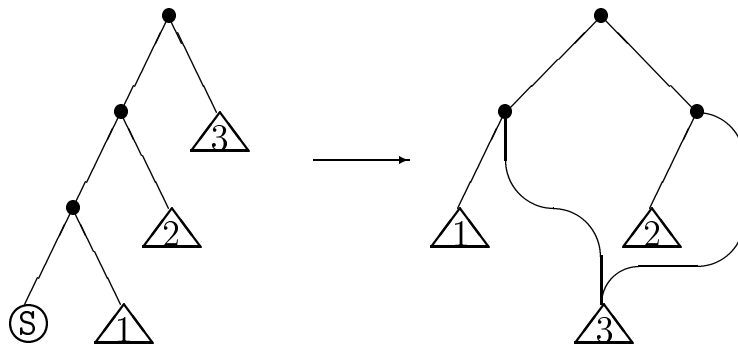
Using the transformation:



- Implements: $S E_1 E_2 E_3 \xrightarrow{c} (E_1 E_3) (E_2 E_3)$

Graph reduction

- Tree transformation for S just given duplicates a subtree
 - wastes space
 - a better transformation would be to generate one subtree with two pointers to it:



- Generates a *graph* rather than a tree

Using combinators for evaluation

- Valid way of reducing λ -expressions is:

(i) translating to combinators

- i.e. $E \mapsto (E)_c$

(ii) applying the rewrites

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{K } E_1 E_2 \xrightarrow{c} E_1 \\ \text{S } E_1 E_2 E_3 \xrightarrow{c} (E_1 E_3) (E_2 E_3) \end{array}$$

until no more rewriting is possible

- If $E_1 \longrightarrow E_2$ in the λ -calculus

- then *not* necessarily $(E_1)_c \xrightarrow{c} (E_2)_c$

- for example, take

$$E_1 = \lambda y. (\lambda z. y) (x y)$$

$$E_2 = \lambda y. y$$

Combinatory normal form

- A combinatory expression is in *combinatory normal form* if it contains no subexpressions of the form $K E_1 E_2$ or $S E_1 E_2 E_3$
- Normalization theorem holds for combinatory expressions
 - i.e. always reducing the leftmost combinatory redex will find a combinatory normal form if it exists
- If E is in combinatory normal form, then it does not necessarily follow that it is a λ -expression in normal form
 - $S K$ is in combinatory normal form, but it contains a β -redex, namely:

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

Improving translation to combinators

- Simple λ -expressions can translate to complex combinatory expressions
- To make the ‘code’ executed by reduction machines more compact, various optimizations have been devised
- Let E be a combinatory expression and x a variable not occurring in E

- then:

$$S (K E) I x \xrightarrow{c} (K E x) (I x) \xrightarrow{c} E x$$

- hence $S (K E) I x = E x$ (because $E_1 \xrightarrow{c} E_2$ implies $E_1 \longrightarrow E_2$)
- so by extensionality:

$$S (K E) I = E$$

- Whenever $S (K E) I$ is generated
 - it can be ‘peephole optimized’ to just E

Another optimisation

- Let E_1, E_2 be combinatory expressions and x a variable not occurring in either of them

- then:

$$S (K E_1) (K E_2) x \xrightarrow{c} K E_1 x (K E_2) x \xrightarrow{c} E_1 E_2$$

- thus

$$S (K E_1) (K E_2) x = E_1 E_2$$

- now

$$K (E_1 E_2) x \xrightarrow{c} E_1 E_2$$

- hence $K (E_1 E_2) x = E_1 E_2$

- thus

$$S (K E_1) (K E_2) x = E_1 E_2 = K (E_1 E_2) x$$

- it follows by extensionality that:

$$S (K E_1) (K E_2) = K (E_1 E_2)$$

- Whenever $S (K E_1) (K E_2)$ is generated

- it can be optimized to $K (E_1 E_2)$

Example optimisation

- **Example:** showed earlier that:

$$\lambda^* f. \lambda^* x. f(x x) = S (S (K S) (S (K K) I)) (K (S I I))$$

- **Using the optimization**

$$S (K E) I = E$$

- **This simplifies to:**

$$\lambda^* f. \lambda^* x. f(x x) = S (S (K S) K) (K (S I I))$$

More combinators

- Easy to recognize applicability of optimization
 $S (K E) I = E$ if I has not been expanded to $S K K$
 - i.e. if I is taken as a primitive combinator

- Other combinators similarly useful

- Define B and C by:

$$\text{LET } B = \lambda f g x. f (g x)$$

$$\text{LET } C = \lambda f g x. f x g$$

- These have the following reduction rules:

$$B E_1 E_2 E_3 \xrightarrow{c} E_1 (E_2 E_3)$$

$$C E_1 E_2 E_3 \xrightarrow{c} E_1 E_3 E_2$$

- It follows that:

$$S (K E_1) E_2 = B E_1 E_2$$

$$S E_1 (K E_2) = C E_1 E_2$$

(E_1, E_2 are any two combinatory expressions)

Curry's algorithm

- Combining the various optimizations yields *Curry's algorithm* for translating λ -expressions to combinatory expressions
- Use the definition of $(E)_C$
- Whenever an expression of the form $S E_1 E_2$ is generated, try to apply the following rewrite rules:
 1. $S (K E_1) (K E_2) \longrightarrow K (E_1 E_2)$
 2. $S (K E) I \longrightarrow E$
 3. $S (K E_1) E_2 \longrightarrow B E_1 E_2$
 4. $S E_1 (K E_2) \longrightarrow C E_1 E_2$
- Always use earliest applicable rule
- $S (K E_1) (K E_2)$ is translated to $K (E_1 E_2)$
- Y is translated to $S (C B (S I I)) (C B (S I I))$