

lambda calculus

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History

- A formal system designed to investigate function definition, function application, and recursion.
- Introduced by Alonzo Church in 1930s.
- The calculus can be used to cleanly define what a computable function is.
- Lambda calculus influenced Lisp.
- It is the smallest universal programming language
 - Smallest: simple syntax and transformation rule
 - Universal: any computable function can be expressed and evaluated using this formalism.
 - Equivalent to Turing machine (Church-Turing Thesis)

syntax

• Syntax

– variable

 $\langle \text{expr} \rangle ::= \langle \text{variable} \rangle$

– lambda abstraction

 $\langle \text{expr} \rangle ::= \lambda \langle \text{variable} \rangle. \langle \text{expr} \rangle$

– lambda application

 $\langle \text{expr} \rangle ::= \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{expr} \rangle$

• Example

lambda abstraction: $\lambda x. x * x$
 $f(x) = x * x$ lambda application: $(\lambda x. x * x) 3$
 $f(3)$ • Whether the following are λ expressions? x $\lambda x. x$ xy $x.x$ $(\lambda x. x)xy$ $\lambda x. xx$

Correspondence to java program

```
int f ( int x) { return x - 2;}
```

```
λ x . - x 2
```

```
int f ( int x, int y ) { return x - y;}
```

```
λ x . λ y . - x y
```

```
int f ( int x, int y ) { return x - y; } f(2,3)
```

```
(λ x . λ y . - x y) 2 3
```

- Two notational conventions
 - The scope of λ extends as far as possible to the right
 - $\lambda x. - x 2$ is $\lambda x . (- x 2)$
 - $\lambda x. xx$ is $\lambda x.(xx)$
 - Association to the left
 - $(\lambda x. \lambda y. - x y) 2 3$ is $((\lambda x. \lambda y. - x y) 2) 3$
- How to reduce (calculate) $f(2, 3)$,
or $(\lambda x. \lambda y. - x y) 2 3$?
- Alpha, beta, eta conversions

β reduction

- β Rule

$$(\lambda x. E) E' \rightarrow E[E'/x]$$

$$(\lambda x. x) 3$$

$$\rightarrow x[3/x]$$

$$= 3$$

$$(\lambda x. x * x) 3$$

$$\rightarrow (x * x)[3/x]$$

$$\rightarrow 3 * 3$$

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x - y) 5 2$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda y. 2 - y) 5$$

$$\rightarrow 2 - 5$$

Notice the left association convention

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x - y) 5 2$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda y. 5 - y) 2$$

$$\rightarrow 5 - 2$$

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

$$\rightarrow (xx)[\lambda y. y/x]$$

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

$$\rightarrow y[\lambda y. y/y]$$

$$= \lambda y. y$$

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. yx) 3 (\lambda x. x)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda y. yx) [3/x] (\lambda x. x)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda y. y3) (\lambda x. x)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. x) 3$$

$$\rightarrow 3$$

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

$$\rightarrow (\lambda y. xy) [y/x]$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda y. yy) ?$$

α conversion

α conversions allow us to rename bound variables.

A bound name x in the lambda abstraction $(\lambda x.e)$ may be substituted by any other name y , as long as there are *no free occurrences of y in e* :

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. xy \rightarrow \lambda x. \lambda z. xz$$

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. xy \rightarrow \lambda z. \lambda y. zy$$

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

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. \lambda z. x z) y \quad \alpha \text{ conversion}$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda z. x z) [y/x] \quad \beta \text{ reduction}$$

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

$$= y \quad \eta \text{ reduction}$$

η reduction

$\lambda x . f x \rightarrow f$

η reductions allow one to remove “redundant lambdas”.

Suppose that f is a *closed expression* (i.e., there are no free variables in f).

Then:

$$(\lambda x . f x) y \quad \rightarrow \quad f y \quad \beta \text{ reduction}$$

So, $(\lambda x . f x)$ behaves the same as f !

η reduction says, *whenever x does not occur free in f* , we can rewrite $(\lambda x . f x)$ as f .

More example

- $\lambda x y . E$ is a shorthand notation for $\lambda x . \lambda y . E$

$(\lambda x y . x y) (\lambda x . x y) (\lambda a b . a b)$

$\rightarrow (\lambda x z . x z) (\lambda x . x y) (\lambda a b . a b)$ *α conversion*

$\rightarrow (\lambda z . (\lambda x . x y) z) (\lambda a b . a b)$ *β reduction*

$\rightarrow (\lambda x . x y) (\lambda a b . a b)$ *β reduction*

$\rightarrow (\lambda a b . a b) y$ *β reduction*

$\rightarrow (\lambda b . y b)$ *β reduction*

$\rightarrow y$ *η reduction*

There can be more than one path of reductions

$(\lambda x y . x y) (\lambda x . x y) (\lambda a b . a b)$

$\rightarrow (\lambda x z . x z) (\lambda x . x y) (\lambda a b . a b)$

α conversion

$\rightarrow (\lambda z . (\lambda x . x y) z) (\lambda a b . a b)$

β reduction

$\rightarrow (\lambda z . z y) (\lambda a b . a b)$

β reduction

$\rightarrow (\lambda a b . a b) y$

β reduction

$\rightarrow (\lambda b . y b)$

β reduction

$\rightarrow y$

η reduction

Normal form

A lambda expression is in normal form *if it can no longer be reduced by beta or eta reduction rules.*

Not all lambda expressions have normal forms!

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

$$\rightarrow [(\lambda x . x x) / x] (x x)$$

$$= (\lambda x . x x) (\lambda x . x x) \quad \beta \text{ reduction}$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x . x x) (\lambda x . x x) \quad \beta \text{ reduction}$$

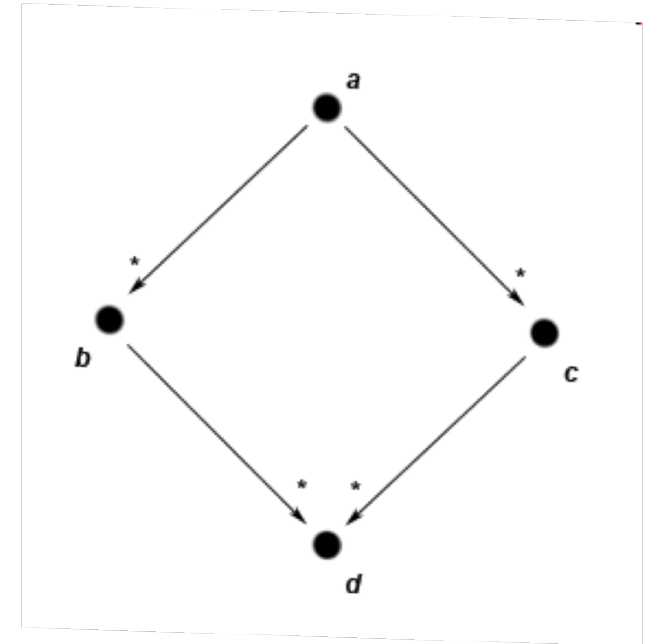
$$\rightarrow (\lambda x . x x) (\lambda x . x x) \quad \beta \text{ reduction}$$

$$\rightarrow \dots$$

Reduction of a lambda expression to a normal form is analogous to a *Turing machine halting* or a *program terminating*.

Church-Rosser Theorem

- There is only one normal form for any Lambda term, if it exists
- if term a can be reduced to both b and c , then there must be a further term d to which both b and c can be reduced.
 - d is possibly equal to either b or c



Arithmetics

- Church Numbers

0 $\lambda sz.z$

1 $\lambda sz.s(z)$

2 $\lambda sz.s(s(z))$

3 $\lambda sz.s(s(s(z)))$

...

- Successor function

S $\lambda w y x.y(w y x)$

S0 = $(\lambda w y x.y(w y x)) (\lambda sz.z)$

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

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

= 1

S1 = 2

...

- Plus

+ $\lambda mn.mSn$

+ 2 3 = $(\lambda mn.mSn) 2 3$

= 2 S 3

= $\lambda sz.s(s(z)) S 3$

= S(S(3))

...

= 5