

INF 212

ANALYSIS OF PROG. LANGS

LAMBDA CALCULUS

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History

- Formal mathematical system
- Simplest programming language
- Intended for studying functions, recursion
- Invented in 1936 by Alonzo Church (1903-1995)
 - ▣ Same year as Turing's paper

Warning

- May seem trivial and/or irrelevant **now**
- May remind you of brainf*^&
- Had a tremendous influence in PLs
 - ▣ λ -calculus \rightarrow Lisp \rightarrow everything
- Context in the early 60s:
 - ▣ Assembly languages
 - ▣ Cobol
 - ▣ Unstructured programming

What is Calculus?

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Calculus is a branch of mathematics that deals with limits and the differentiation and integration of functions of one or more variables

Real Definition

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- A *calculus* is just a bunch of rules for manipulating symbols.
- People can give meaning to those symbols, but that's not part of the calculus.
- Differential calculus is a bunch of rules for manipulating symbols. There is an interpretation of those symbols corresponds with physics, slopes, etc.

Syntax

$M ::= x$

(variable)

| $\lambda x.M$

(abstraction)

| MM

(application)

Nothing else!

- ▣ No numbers
- ▣ No arithmetic operations
- ▣ No loops
- ▣ No etc.

Symbolic computation

Syntax reminder

$\lambda x.M$



anonymous functions
↓
function(x) { M }

LM, e.g. $\lambda x.N \ y$
 └─┬─┘ └─┬─┘
 L M



apply L to M

Terminology – bound variables

$\lambda x.M$

The *binding operator* λ ***binds*** the variable x in the λ -term $x.M$

- M is called the *scope of* x
- x is said to be a *bound variable*

Terminology – free variables

Free variables are all symbols that aren't bound (duh)

$$\text{FV}(x) = \{x\}$$

$$\text{FV}(MN) = \text{FV}(M) \cup \text{FV}(N)$$

$$\text{FV}(x.M) = \text{FV}(M) - x$$

Renaming of bound variables

$$\lambda x.M = \lambda y.([y/x]M) \quad \text{if } y \text{ not in } FV(M)$$

i.e. you can replace x with y
aka “renaming”

α -conversion

Operational Semantics

- Evaluating function application: $(\lambda x.e_1) e_2$
 - ▣ Replace every x in e_1 with e_2
 - ▣ Evaluate the resulting term
 - ▣ Return the result of the evaluation
- Formally: “ β -reduction” (aka “substitution”)
 - ▣ $(\lambda x.e_1) e_2 \rightarrow_{\beta} e_1[e_2/x]$
 - ▣ A term that can be β -reduced is a *redex* (*reducible expression*)
 - ▣ We omit β when obvious

Note again

- Computation = pure symbolic manipulation
 - ▣ Replace some symbols with other symbols

Scoping etc.

- Scope of λ extends as far to the right as possible
 - $\lambda x. \lambda y. xy$ is $\lambda x. (\lambda y. (x y))$
- Function application is left-associative
 - xyz means $(xy)z$
- Possible syntactic sugar for declarations
 - $(\lambda x. N)M$ is **let** $x = M$ **in** N
 - $(\lambda x. (x + 1))10$ is **let** $x=10$ **in** $(x+1)$

Multiple arguments

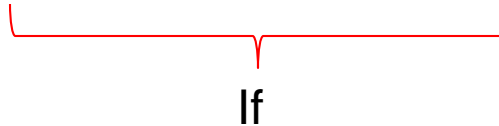
- $\lambda(x,y).e$???
 - Doesn't exist
- Solution: $\lambda x.\lambda y.e$ [remember, $(\lambda x.(\lambda y.e))$]
 - A function that takes x and returns another function that takes y and returns e
 - $(\lambda x.\lambda y.e) a b \rightarrow (\lambda y.e[a/x]) b \rightarrow e[a/x][b/y]$
 - “Currying” after Curry: transformation of multi-arg functions into higher-order functions
- Multiple argument functions are nothing but syntactic sugar

Boolean Values and Conditionals

- True = $\lambda x.\lambda y.x$
- False = $\lambda x.\lambda y.y$
- If-then-else = $\lambda a.\lambda b.\lambda c. a\ b\ c = a\ b\ c$
- For example:
 - If-then-else true b c
 $\rightarrow (\lambda x.\lambda y.x)\ b\ c \rightarrow (\lambda y.b)\ c \rightarrow b$
 - If-then-else false b c
 $\rightarrow (\lambda x.\lambda y.y)\ b\ c \rightarrow (\lambda y.y)\ c \rightarrow c$

Boolean Values and Conditionals

□ If True M N = $(\lambda a.\lambda b.\lambda c.abc)$ True M N


If

$\rightarrow (\lambda b.\lambda c.True\ b\ c)\ M\ N$

$\rightarrow (\lambda c.True\ M\ c)\ N$

$\rightarrow True\ M\ N$


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

$\rightarrow (\lambda y.M)\ N$

$\rightarrow M$

Numbers...

- Numbers are counts of things, any things. Like function applications!

- $0 = \lambda f. \lambda x. x$

- $1 = \lambda f. \lambda x. (f\ x)$

- $2 = \lambda f. \lambda x. (f\ (f\ x))$

- $3 = \lambda f. \lambda x. (f\ (f\ (f\ x)))$

- ...

- $N = \lambda f. \lambda x. (f^N\ x)$

Church numerals

Successor

□ $\text{succ} = \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. f (n f x)$

□ Want to try it on $\text{succ}(1)$?

□ $\lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. f (n f x) (\lambda f. \lambda x. (f x))$

$\rightarrow \lambda f. \lambda x. f ((\lambda f. \lambda x. (f x)) f x)$ 1

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

2!

There's more



- Reading materials

Recursion ???

```
(λn.  
  (if (zero? n)  
      1  
      (* n (f (sub1 n)))))
```

???

Free variable

Recursion – The Y Combinator

$$Y = \lambda t. (\lambda x. t (x x)) (\lambda x. t (x x))$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y \ a &= \lambda t. (\lambda x. t (x x)) (\lambda x. t (x x)) \ a \\ &= (\lambda x. a (x x)) (\lambda x. a (x x)) \\ &= a ((\lambda x. a (x x)) (\lambda x. a (x x))) \\ &= a (Y \ a) \end{aligned}$$

$Y \ a = a$ applied to itself!

$$Y \ a = a (Y \ a) = a (a (Y \ a)) = a (a (a (Y \ a))) = \dots$$

Factorial again

~~$\lambda n.$
 (if (zero? n)
 1
 (* n (f (sub1 n)))))~~

$\lambda \mathbf{f}.\lambda n.$
 (if (zero? n)
 1
 (* n (**f** (sub1 n)))))

Now it's bound!

F

Y F

Does it work?

F takes one function and one number as arguments

```
(Y F) 2 = F (Y F) 2
        = λf.λn.(if (zero? n) 1 (* n (f (sub1 n))))
          ((λt.(λx.t (x x)) (λx.t (x x))
            (λf.λn.(if (zero? n) 1 (* n (f (sub1 n))))))
           2
        = if (zero? 2) 1 (* 2 (Y F (sub1 2)))
        = (* 2 (Y F (sub1 2)))
        = (* 2 (Y F 1))
        = ...
        = (* 2 1)
        = 2
```

F
(Y F)

Points to take home

- Model of computation completely different from Turing Machine
 - ▣ pure functions, no commands
- Church-Turing thesis: the two models are equivalent
 - ▣ What you can compute with one can be computed with the other
- Inspiration behind Lisp (late 1950s)
- Foundation of all “functional programming” languages