

Lambda Calculus

Introduction and completeness

27 de enero de 2016

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“I don’t believe in empirical
science. I only believe in a
priori truth”

Kurt Gödel



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- ▶ λ calculus invented by Church in 1928 and first published in 1932.
- ▶ Formal system:
 - ▶ Designed to investigate functions and recursion (foundations of mathematics)
 - ▶ The original system was shown to be logically inconsistent in 1935 by Stephen Kleene and J. B. Rosser who developed the Kleene–Rosser paradox.
 - ▶ In 1936 Church published just the portion relevant to computation, what is now called the untyped lambda calculus.
 - ▶ In 1940, he also introduced a computationally weaker, but logically consistent system, known as the simply typed lambda calculus.

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$$e ::= x \mid \lambda x. e \mid ee$$

Being:

- ▶ x a variable
- ▶ $\lambda x. e$ is a λ abstraction (function). x is the argument and e is the body.
- ▶ ee is a λ application.

We call the set of all λ -terms Λ

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Which of these expressions are right?

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

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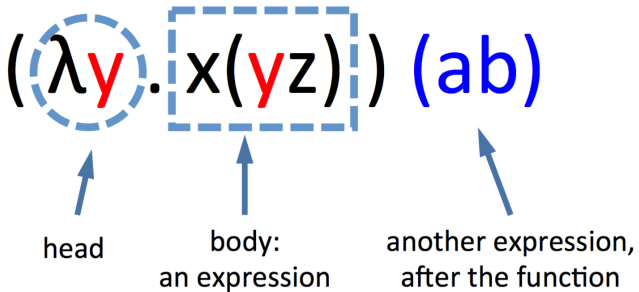
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$$(\lambda x. e1) e2 \rightarrow e1[x/e2]$$

This reduction describes the function application rule.
 $e2$ is passed to the function.

Example:

Assume sqr and 3 are defined:

- ▶ $((((\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f(f(x)))))) sqr) 3)$
- ▶ $((\lambda x. (sqr(sqr(x)))) 3)$
- ▶ $(sqr(sqr 3))$
- ▶ $(sqr 9)$
- ▶ 81

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A simple β reduction

- ▶ $(\lambda x.(\lambda z(xz)))y$
- ▶ $\lambda z.(yz)$

A curried function

- ▶ $(\lambda x.\lambda y.xy)z$
- ▶ $\lambda y.zy \rightarrow$ this is like currying in haskell!



Static Scope

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λ -calculus uses static scoping:

Question:

Does $(\lambda x.x(\lambda x.x))z$ equals to $(\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y))z$?

Yes, both x 's are bound to a λ . x can be anything.

Alfa conversion: $\lambda x.x = \lambda y.y$

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α conversion

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This is simply renaming a bound variable.

$$\lambda v.E \rightarrow \lambda w.E[v \rightarrow w]$$

Examples

$$\lambda y.(\lambda f.fx)y \xrightarrow{a} \lambda z.(\lambda f.fx)z \xrightarrow{a} \lambda z.(\lambda g.gx)z$$

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Looking at λ terms can be very hard to decipher, so we will omit outer parenthesis whenever possible and we will use association to the left.

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

And instead of that, we will write:

$$\blacktriangleright \lambda xy. yx$$

Example

$$(\lambda x. xy)(\lambda z. z)w = (\lambda z. z)yw = yw$$

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Combinators

A λ -term M is called a combinator if $FV(M) = \emptyset$.

Example

- ▶ $I = \lambda x.x$
- ▶ $K = \lambda xy.x$
- ▶ $S = \lambda xyz.xz(yz)$
- ▶ $\omega = \lambda x.xx$
- ▶ $\Omega = \omega\omega$
- ▶ $Y = \lambda f.(\omega(\lambda x.f(xx)))$



β normal form

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We say that a term λ is in β normal form if it cannot be β -reduced. A term has a β normal form if it β reduces to a term that has a β normal form.

Example

I is in β -nf. Ω does not have a β -nf.

$KI\Omega$ not in β -nf but it has one, namely I

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Let's define true and false values:

$$\blacktriangleright T = \lambda t f. t$$

$$\blacktriangleright F = \lambda t f. f$$

T is a function that takes 2 arguments and returns the first one
F is a function that takes 2 arguments and returns the last one

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Let's see an example of T and F

- ▶ if T then e1 else e2 = T e1 e2 = $(\lambda t f. t)$ e1 e2 = e1
- ▶ if F then e1 else e2 = F e1 e2 = $(\lambda t f. f)$ e1 e2 = e2

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Examples - Definition of Logical gates

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► $\text{AND} = \lambda xy . xyF$

► $\text{OR} = \lambda xy . xTy$

► $\text{NOT} = \lambda x . xFT$

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Assume $e1 = T$

- ▶ $AND\ e1\ e2 \Rightarrow e1\ e2\ F \Rightarrow T\ e2\ F \Rightarrow e2$
- ▶ $OR\ e1\ e2 \Rightarrow e1\ T\ e2 \Rightarrow T\ T\ e2 \Rightarrow T$
- ▶ $NOT\ e1 \Rightarrow e1\ F\ T \Rightarrow T\ F\ T \Rightarrow F$

Assume $e1 = F$

- ▶ $AND\ e1\ e2 \Rightarrow e1\ e2\ F \Rightarrow F\ e2\ F \Rightarrow F$
- ▶ $OR\ e1\ e2 \Rightarrow e1\ T\ e2 \Rightarrow F\ T\ e2 \Rightarrow e2$
- ▶ $NOT\ e1 \Rightarrow e1\ F\ T \Rightarrow F\ F\ T = T$

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How can we represent a tuple?

- ▶ $\text{pair} = \lambda xyb . b \ x \ y$
- ▶ $\text{fst} = \lambda p . p \ T$
- ▶ $\text{snd} = \lambda p . p \ F$



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- ▶ $\text{fst} = \lambda p. p \ T$
- ▶ $\text{snd} = \lambda p. p \ F$
- ▶ $\text{fst} (\text{pair } e1 \ e2) \Rightarrow (\text{pair } e1 \ e2) \ T \Rightarrow (\lambda b . b \ e1 \ e2) \ T \Rightarrow T$
 $e1 \ e2 \Rightarrow e1$

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There are many ways to represent numbers using λ calculus.
We will use the following:

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

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There are many ways to represent numbers using λ calculus.
We will use the following:

► $0 = \lambda f x . x$

► $1 = \lambda f x . fx$

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There are many ways to represent numbers using λ calculus.
We will use the following:

- ▶ $0 = \lambda f x . x$
- ▶ $1 = \lambda f x . fx$
- ▶ $2 = \lambda f x . f(fx)$



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How can we obtain the successor of a number?

$\text{SUCC} := \lambda nfx.f (n f x)$

Let's try it out:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SUCC } 0 &= \text{SUCC } (\lambda f x. x) = (\lambda n f x. f (n f x)) (\lambda f x. x) = \lambda f x \\ &\quad . f ((\lambda f x. x) f x) = \lambda f x . f (x) = 1 \end{aligned}$$



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How can we obtain the successor of a number?

$\text{SUCC} := \lambda nfx.f (n f x)$

Let's try it out:

- ▶ $\text{SUCC } 0 = \text{SUCC } (\lambda f x. x) = (\lambda n f x. f (n f x)) (\lambda f x. x) = \lambda f x . f ((\lambda f x. x) f x) = \lambda f x . f (x) = 1$
- ▶ $\text{SUCC } 1 = \text{SUCC } (\lambda fx.fx) = (\lambda n f x. f (n f x)) (\lambda f x.fx) \Rightarrow \lambda f x . f ((\lambda f x.fx) f x) = \lambda f x.f (f x) = 2$



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Predecessor function

We need the auxiliary function next.

- ▶ $\text{next} = \lambda p . \text{pair} (\text{snd } p) (\text{add} (\text{snd } p) 1)$
- ▶ $\text{next} (\text{pair } a \ b) = \text{pair } b \ (b+1)$
- ▶ It can be shown that by applying next to pair 0 0 exactly n times, we obtain pair (n-1) n

$\text{PRED} := \lambda n . \text{fst} (\text{next}^n (\text{pair } 0 \ 0))$

$\text{PRED } 1 = (\lambda n . \text{fst} (\text{next}^n (\text{pair } 0 \ 0))) \ 1 = \text{fst} (\text{pair } 0 \ 1) = 0$



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Zero? function

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

Example

- ▶ Zero? 0 = $(\lambda nxy . n (\lambda z.y) x) (\lambda fx . x) = \lambda xy. (\lambda fx. x) (\lambda z.y) x$
 $= \lambda xy. x = T$
- ▶ Zero? 1 = $(\lambda nxy . n (\lambda z.y) x) (\lambda fx . fx) = \lambda xy. (\lambda fx. fx) (\lambda z.y)$
 $x = \lambda xy. (\lambda z.y) x = \lambda xy. y = F$

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Let's see it with an example:
If x does not appear in f , then
 $(\lambda x. f x) g = f g$

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Pointfree Programming

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It is very common for functional programmers to write functions as a composition of other functions, never mentioning the actual arguments they will be applied to. For example, compare:

`sum = foldr (+) 0`

with:

`sum' xs = foldr (+) 0 xs`

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Fixed Points: Recursion

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Fixed Points Exist

For every $M \in \Lambda$ there exists $X \in \Lambda$ such that $M X = X$, that is X is a fixed point of M .

Proof

We claim that YM is a fixed point of M .

$$\begin{aligned} YM &= (\lambda x . M (xx))(\lambda x . M (xx)) \\ &= M ((\lambda x . M (xx))(\lambda x . M (xx))) \\ &= M (YM) \end{aligned}$$

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Let's see an application.

$$\text{add } n \ m = \begin{cases} m & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \text{add}(n-1)(m+1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\text{ADD} = \lambda xy. (\text{Zero? } x) (y) (\text{ADD } (\text{Pred } x) (\text{Succ } y))$

There is a problem here. In the definition of add we are referencing add so let's abstract out add.

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New definition of ADD

$$\text{ADD} = \lambda pxy. (\text{Zero? } x) (y) (p (\text{Pred } x) (\text{Succ } y)) \text{ ADD}$$
$$Q = \lambda pxy. (\text{Zero? } x) (y) (p (\text{Pred } x) (\text{Succ } y))$$

ADD is a fixed point of Q

$$\text{ADD} = YQ$$

Now, ADD is not used in its definition.

Let's check its behaviour

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ADD } n \ m &= YQ \ n \ m = Q(YQ) \ n \ m = Q(\text{ADD}) \ n \ m = (\text{Zero? } n) \\ &\quad (m) (\text{ADD } (\text{Pred } n) (\text{Succ } m)) \end{aligned}$$

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More Fixed Points Theorems

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Godel Numbering

There exists an effect enumeration of λ -terms. For $M \in \lambda$ we write $\#M$ to denote the Godel number of M . We write $[\#M]$ to stand for the λ -term representing $\#M$.



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Theorem

For every $F \in \Lambda$ there is an $X \in \Lambda$ such that $F \text{ \# } X = X$.

Proof

All recursive functions are λ -definable by the Church-Turing Thesis. By the effectiveness of our numbering, there is a term N such that:

$$N[\text{\#}M] = [\text{\#}[\text{\#}M]]$$

Furthermore, there is a term A such that

$$A[\text{\#}M][\text{\#}N] = [\text{\#}(M \ N)]$$

Now, let's take $W = \lambda n. F(A n (N \ n))$

$$\begin{aligned} X &= W[\text{\#}W] = F(A [\text{\#}W](N[\text{\#}W])) = F(A[\text{\#}W]([\text{\#}[\text{\#}M]])) = F(\\ &[\text{\#}(W[\text{\#}W])]) = F([\text{\#}X]) \end{aligned}$$

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Alonzo Church proved that there is no term that decides whether two terms have the same normal form.

He reduced this problem to asking whether a given term has a normal form, and then showed this problem can't be answered using a λ -term. We will only show this proof

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Theorem

There is no lambda term, M , such that

$$M\ n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if term with Godel number } n \text{ has a } \beta nf \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Proof

Let's suppose there is such M.

Let's define $G = \lambda n. \text{Zero?}(M\ n) \ \Omega \mid$

As we shown before, there is an X such that:

$$G[\#X] = X$$

Let's suppose x has a β -nf.

$$M[\#X] = 0 \Rightarrow G[\#X] = \text{Zero? } (0) \ \Omega \mid = \Omega = X \Rightarrow X \text{ has no } \beta\text{-nf.}$$

CONTRADICTION!!



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Proof (2nd part)

Let's suppose x has no a β -nf.

$M[\#X] = 1 \Rightarrow G[\#X] = \text{Zero?}$ (1) $\Omega I = I = X \Rightarrow X$ has β -nf.

CONTRADICTION!!

We can conclude that there is no such M .



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We will show the equivalence to μ -recursive functions.

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μ recursive functions

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1. Constant function: $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = n$
2. Successor function: $S(x) = f(x) = x + 1$
3. Projection function: $P(i, k) = f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = x_i$

Operators:

1. Composition operator
2. Primitive recursion
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Constant function and Successor function straightforward.
And the Projection function?

Projection: $f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = x_i$

In lambda terms:

$\lambda x_1, \dots, x_k. x_i$



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Definition 9.5: Composition operation

Given $m > 0$, $k \geq 0$ and the functions:

$$g: \mathbb{N}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

If the Function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is:

$$f(\underline{n}) = g(h_1(\underline{n}), h_2(\underline{n}), \dots, h_m(\underline{n}))$$

then we say that **f is the composition of g with h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m .**

We will denote $f(\underline{n}) = g(h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m)(\underline{n})$, or simply $f = g(h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m)$.



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In terms of lambda calculus:

$\lambda gh1\ h2...hmn1\ n2...nk.$

$g(h1\ n1\ n2...nk)(h2\ n1...nk)...(hm\ n1\ n2...nk)$

The spaces are added for the purpose of understanding the formulae.

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Definition 9.6: *Recursively defined function*

Given $k \geq 0$, and the functions:

$$g : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$h : \mathbb{N}^{k+2} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

The Function $f : \mathbb{N}^{k+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that is defined as:

$$f(\underline{n}, m) = \begin{cases} g(\underline{n}) & \text{if } m = 0 \\ h(\underline{n}, m-1, f(\underline{n}, m-1)) & \text{if } m > 0 \end{cases}$$

we say that **f is defined recursively by g and h .**

We will denote it as $f(\underline{x}) = \langle g/h \rangle(\underline{x})$, or simply $f = \langle g/h \rangle$.



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We will use the previously explained Y combinator.

$\lambda g \ h \ n1 \ n2 \dots nk.$

$Y(\lambda fm.iszero \ m(f \ n1 \ n2 \dots nk))$

$(g \ n1 \ n2 \dots nk)(prec \ m)(f(prec \ m)))$

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Definition 9.7: Unbounded Minimalization

Given $k \geq 0$ and the Function:

$$g: \mathbb{N}^{k+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

If the Function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is:

$$f(\underline{n}) = \begin{cases} \text{minimum}(A) & \text{if } A \neq \emptyset \wedge \forall t \leq \text{minimum}(A) \ g(\underline{n}, t) \in \mathbb{N} \\ \uparrow & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $A = \{ t \in \mathbb{N} \mid g(\underline{n}, t) = 0 \}$ and $\underline{n} \in \mathbb{N}^k$

then we say that f is obtained from g by unbounded minimization.

We will denote it as $f(\underline{n}) = \mu[g](\underline{n})$, or simply $f = \mu[g]$.

Note: The symbol " \uparrow " means that the Function, for that input vector (\underline{n}), verifies that: $\underline{n} \notin \text{Dom}(f)$. That is, the Function diverges ("it is not defined") for that input.



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Again, we'll use the Y combinator.

$$\lambda g \ n1 \ n2 \dots nk.$$
$$(Y.(\lambda h \ x.zero?(g \ x1 \ x2 \dots xk \ x)x(h(succ \ x))))zero)$$



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3. Simple data structures and Church's encoding
4. Recursion in Lambda Calculus
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