



Lambda Calculus

Reading: Scott, Ch. 11 on CD

Lecture Outline

- Lambda calculus, continued
 - Substitution, review
 - Rules of the lambda calculus
 - Normal forms
 - Reduction strategies

Syntax of Pure Lambda Calculus

■ $E ::= x \mid (\lambda x. E_1) \mid (E_1 E_2)$

Convention:

notation f, x, y, z for variables;
 E, M, N, P, Q for expressions

■ A λ -expression is one of

■ Variable: x

■ Abstraction (i.e., function definition): $\lambda x. E_1$

■ Application: $E_1 E_2$

■ λ -calculus formulae (e.g., $(\lambda x. (x y))$) are called **expressions** or **terms**

■ $(\lambda x. (x y))$ corresponds to $(\text{lambda } (x) (x y))$ in Scheme!

Syntactic Conventions

- May drop parenthesis from $(E_1 E_2)$ or $(\lambda x. E)$
 - E.g., $(f x)$ may be written as $f x$
- Function application is left-associative
 - I.e., it groups from left-to-right
 - E.g., $x y z$ abbreviates $((x y) z)$
 - E.g., $E_1 E_2 E_3 E_4$ abbreviates $(((E_1 E_2) E_3) E_4)$
- Application has higher precedence than abstraction
 - Another way to say this is that the scope of the **dot** extends as far to the right as possible
 - E.g., $\lambda x. x y = \lambda x. (x y) = (\lambda x. (x y)) \neq ((\lambda x. x) y)$

Free and Bound Variables

- Abstraction ($\lambda x. E$) introduces a **binding**
- Variable x is said to be **bound** in $\lambda x. E$
- The set of **free** variables of E is the set of variables that are unbound in E
- Defined by cases on E
 - Var x : $\text{free}(x) = \{x\}$
 - App $E_1 E_2$: $\text{free}(E_1 E_2) = \text{free}(E_1) \cup \text{free}(E_2)$
 - Abs $\lambda x. E$: $\text{free}(\lambda x. E) = \text{free}(E) - \{x\}$

Substitution, formally

- $(\lambda x. E) M \rightarrow E[M/x]$ replaces all free occurrences of x in E by M
- $E[M/x]$ is defined by cases on E :
 - Var: $y[M/x] = M$ if $x = y$
 $y[M/x] = y$ otherwise
 - App: $(E_1 E_2)[M/x] = (E_1[M/x] E_2[M/x])$
 - Abs: $(\lambda y. E_1)[M/x] = \lambda y. E_1$ if $x = y$
 $(\lambda y. E_1)[M/x] = \lambda z. ((E_1[z/y])[M/x])$ otherwise,
where z NOT in $\text{free}(E_1) \cup \text{free}(M) \cup \{x\}$

Rules (Axioms) of Lambda Calculus

- **α rule (α -conversion)**: renaming of parameter (choice of parameter name does not matter)
 - $\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{E} \rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda \mathbf{z}. (\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{z}/\mathbf{x}])$ provided that \mathbf{z} is not free in \mathbf{E}
 - e.g., $\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}$ is the same as $\lambda \mathbf{z}. \mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}$
- **β rule (β -reduction)**: function application (substitutes argument for parameter)
 - $(\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{E}) \mathbf{M} \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{x}]$
 - Note: $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{x}]$ as defined on previous slide!
 - e.g., $(\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{z} \rightarrow_{\beta} \mathbf{z}$

Rules of Lambda Calculus: Exercises

- Use α -conversion and/or β -reduction:

$$(\lambda x. x) y \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta} ?$$

$$(\lambda x. x) (\lambda y. y) \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta} ?$$

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z (y z)) (\lambda u. u) (\lambda v. v) \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta}$$

Notation: $\rightarrow_{\alpha\beta}$ denotes that expression on the left reduces to the expression on the right, through a sequence α -conversions and β -reductions.

Rules of Lambda Calculus: Exercises

- Use α -conversion or β -reduction:

$$(\lambda \mathbf{x}.\lambda \mathbf{y}.\lambda \mathbf{z}.\mathbf{x}\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{y}\mathbf{z}))(\lambda \mathbf{u}.\mathbf{u})(\lambda \mathbf{v}.\mathbf{v}) \rightarrow_{\alpha\beta}$$

Reductions

- An expression $(\lambda x.E) M$ is called a **redex** (for reducible expression)
- An expression is in **normal form** if it cannot be **β -reduced**
- The normal form is the **meaning** of the term, the “answer”

Questions

- Is $\lambda z. z z$ in normal form?
 - Answer: yes, it cannot be beta-reduced
- Is $(\lambda z. z z) (\lambda x. x)$ in normal form?
 - Answer: no, it can be beta-reduced

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Definitions of Normal Form

- **Normal form (NF):** a term without redexes
- **Head normal form (HNF)**
 - x is in HNF
 - $(\lambda x. E)$ is in HNF if E is in HNF
 - $(x E_1 E_2 \dots E_n)$ is in HNF
- **Weak head normal form (WHNF)**
 - x is in WHNF
 - $(\lambda x. E)$ is in WHNF
 - $(x E_1 E_2 \dots E_n)$ is in WHNF

Questions

- $\lambda \mathbf{z}. \mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}$ is in NF, HNF, or WHNF?
- $(\lambda \mathbf{z}. \mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}) (\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{x})$ is in?
- $\lambda \mathbf{x}. \lambda \mathbf{y}. \lambda \mathbf{z}. \mathbf{x} \mathbf{z} (\mathbf{y} (\lambda \mathbf{u}. \mathbf{u}))$ is in?
- (We will be reducing to NF, mostly)

Questions

- $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x) z ((\lambda x. z x) (\lambda x. z x))$ is in?

Questions

- **$z ((\lambda x. z x) (\lambda x. z x))$** is in?

Questions

- $\lambda z. (\lambda x. \lambda y. x) z ((\lambda x. z x) (\lambda x. z x))$ is in?

More Reduction Exercises

- $C = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda f. f\ x\ y$

- $H = \lambda f. f\ (\lambda x. \lambda y. x)$ $T = \lambda f. f\ (\lambda x. \lambda y. y)$

- What is $H\ (C\ a\ b)$?

- $(\lambda f. f\ (\lambda x. \lambda y. x))\ (C\ a\ b)$

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

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

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

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

Exercise

An expression with no free variables is called **combinator**.
S, I, C, H, T are combinators.

- $S = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z (y z)$
- $I = \lambda x. x$
- What is $S I I I$?

Reducible expression is underlined at each step.

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Reduction Strategy

- Look again at $(\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z (y z)) (\lambda u. u) (\lambda v. v)$
- Actually, there are (at least) two “reduction paths”:

Path 1: $(\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z (y z)) (\lambda u. u) (\lambda v. v) \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $(\lambda y. \lambda z. (\lambda u. u) z (y z)) (\lambda v. v) \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $(\lambda z. (\lambda u. u) z ((\lambda v. v) z)) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda z. z ((\lambda v. v) z)) \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $\lambda z. z z$

Path 2: $(\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z (y z)) (\lambda u. u) (\lambda v. v) \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $(\lambda y. \lambda z. (\lambda u. u) z (y z)) (\lambda v. v) \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $(\lambda y. \lambda z. z (y z)) (\lambda v. v) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda z. z ((\lambda v. v) z)) \rightarrow_{\beta}$
 $\lambda z. z z$

Reduction Strategy

- A reduction strategy (also called **evaluation order**) is a strategy for choosing redexes
 - How do we arrive at a normal form (answer)?
- **Applicative order reduction** chooses the leftmost-innermost redex in an expression
 - Also referred to as **call-by-value reduction**

Reduction Strategy

- A reduction strategy (also called **evaluation order**) is a strategy for choosing redexes
 - How do we arrive at a normal form (answer)?
- **Normal order reduction** chooses the leftmost-outermost redex in an expression
 - Also referred to as **call-by-name** reduction

Reduction Strategy: Examples

- Evaluate $(\lambda x. x x) ((\lambda y. y) (\lambda z. z))$

- Using applicative order reduction:

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

→ $(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda z. z)$

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

- Using normal order reduction

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

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

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

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

Reduction Strategy

- In our examples, both strategies produced the same result. This is not always the case
 - First, look at expression $(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$. What happens when we apply β -reduction to this expression?
 - Then look at $(\lambda z. y) ((\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x))$
 - Applicative order reduction – what happens?
 - Normal order reduction – what happens?

Church-Rosser Theorem

- Normal form implies that there are no more reductions possible
- Church-Rosser Theorem, informally
 - If normal form exists, then it is unique (i.e., result of computation does not depend on the order that reductions are applied; i.e., no expression can have two distinct normal forms)
 - If normal form exists, then normal order will find it
- Church-Rosser Theorem, more formally:
 - For all pure λ -expressions M , P and Q , if $M \rightarrow^* P$ and $M \rightarrow^* Q$, then there must exist an expression R such that $P \rightarrow^* R$ and $Q \rightarrow^* R$

Reduction Strategy

- Intuitively:
- Applicative order (**call-by-value**) is an **eager** evaluation strategy. Also known as **strict**
- Normal order (**call-by-name**) is a **lazy** evaluation strategy
- What order of evaluation do most programming languages use?

Exercises

- Evaluate $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x y) ((\lambda z. z) w)$
- Using applicative order reduction
- Using normal order reduction

Exercise

- Evaluate $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x y) ((\lambda z. z) w)$
 - Using applicative order reduction
 - Using normal order reduction
- Let $S = \lambda xyz. x z (y z)$ and let $I = \lambda x. x$
- Evaluate $S I I I$
 - Using applicative order reduction
 - Using normal order reduction
 - Remember function application is left-associative, $S I I I$ stands for $((S I) I) I$

Exercise

- Let $S = \lambda xyz. x z (y z)$ and let $I = \lambda x. x$
- Evaluate $S I I I$ using applicative order

Exercise

- Let $S = \lambda xyz. x z (y z)$ and let $I = \lambda x. x$
- Evaluate $S I I I$ using normal order

The End
