

# An untyped $\lambda$ -calculus, *UL*

## Principles of Programming Languages

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## 1 Preamble

### 1.1 TODO Notable references

- Benjamin Pierce, “[Types and Programming Languages](#)”
  - Chapter 5, The Untyped Lambda-Calculus

### 1.2 TODO Table of contents

- [Preamble](#)

## 2 Introduction

In this section we construct our first simple programming language, an untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus (lambda calculus).

More specifically, we construct a  $\lambda$ -calculus without (static) type checking (enforcement), but including the natural numbers and booleans.

### 2.1 What is the $\lambda$ -calculus?

The  $\lambda$ -calculus is, put simply, a notation for forming and applying functions.

- Because the function (procedure, method, subroutine) abstraction gives us a means of representing control flow, if we have a means of representing data, the  $\lambda$ -calculus is a Turing-complete model of computation.

## 2.2 History

The (basic)  $\lambda$ -calculus as we know it was famously invented by Alonzo Church in the 1920s.

- This was one culmination of a great deal of work by mathematicians investigating the foundations of mathematics.

As mentioned, the  $\lambda$ -calculus is a Turing-complete model of computation.

- Other models proposed around the same time include
  - the Turing machine itself (due to Alan Turing), and
  - the general recursive functions (due to Stephen Cole Kleene.)
- Hence the “Church” in the “Church-Turing thesis”.

The  $\lambda$ -calculus has since seen widespread use in the study and design of programming languages.

- It is useful both as a simple programming language, and
- as a mathematical object about which statements can be proved.

## 2.3 Descendents of the $\lambda$ -calculus

Pure functional programming languages are clearly descended from the  $\lambda$ -calculus; the  $\lambda$ -calculus embodies their model of computation.

- Additionally, it is common to have a “lambda” operator which allows definition of anonymous functions.

Imperative languages instead use a model of computation based on the *Von-Neumann* architecture,

- which matches our real-world computing devices!
  - Hence imperative languages are naturally lower-level; one level of abstraction closer to the real computer than functional languages, which must be translated to imperative code in order to run.
- This model of computation is a natural extension of the Turing machine, rather than the  $\lambda$ -calculus or recursive functions.

### 3 The basics

In our discussion of abstractions, we mentioned the abstraction of the function/method/procedure/subroutine.

- The functional abstraction provides a means to represent control flow.

In its pure version, every term in the  $\lambda$ -calculus is a function.

- In order for such a system to be at all useful, it must of course support higher-order functions; functions may be applied to functions.
- Values such as booleans and natural numbers are *encoded* (represented) by functions.

#### 3.1 The terms

The pure untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus has just three sort of terms;

- variables such as  $x, y, z$ ,
- $\lambda$ -abstractions, of the form  $\lambda x \rightarrow t$ ,
  - (it is also common to use  $\lambda$  in place of  $\rightarrow$ ; we prefer  $\rightarrow$  as it emphasises that these are functions)
  - where  $x$  is a variable and  $t$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, and
- applications of the form  $tu$ 
  - where  $t$  and  $u$  are  $\lambda$ -terms.

#### 3.2 Informal meaning of terms

The meaning of each term is, informally:

- A  $\lambda$ -abstraction  $\lambda x \rightarrow t$  represents a function of one argument, which, when applied to a term  $u$ , substitutes all free occurrences of  $x$  in  $t$  with  $u$ .
- An application applies the term  $u$  to the function (term)  $t$ .
- A variable on its own (a free variable) has no further meaning.
  - Variables are intended to be *bound*.
  - “Top-level” free variables have no meaning (on their own).
    - \* Until we construct a new term by  $\lambda$ -abstracting them.

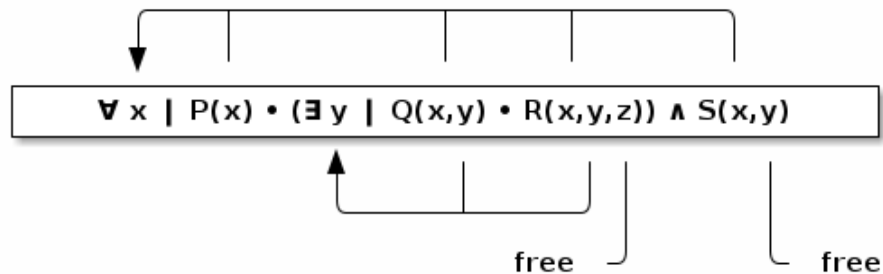
### 3.3 Variable binding; free and bound variables

Recall the notion of free and bound variables.

- A *variable binder* is an operator which operates on some number of *variables* as well as *terms*.
  - Examples include quantifiers such as  $\forall \_ \mid \_ \bullet \_$ ,  $\exists \_ \mid \_ \bullet \_$  and  $\sum \_ \mid \_ \bullet \_$ , and substitution  $\_ [\_ \rightarrow \_]$ .
- (For simplicity, let us assume below that variable binders act on a single variable and a single term.)
- Let  $B \_ \bullet \_$  range over the set of variable binders in a language.
- An occurrence of a variable  $x$  in a term  $t$  that is *not* in a subterm of the form  $Bx \bullet u$  is called *free*.
- In a term  $t$  with a subterm of the form  $Bx \bullet u$ , all free occurrences of the variable  $x$  that occur within  $u$  are *bound* by that instance of the binder  $B$ .
  - Note: instances of  $x$  which are bound elsewhere are not bound by that  $B$ .

### 3.4 Picturing variable bindings

For instance, in the language of predicate logic, we can view the variables bound like so.



### 3.5 Representing functions with multiple arguments

You may have noticed that our method for constructing function in the  $\lambda$ -calculus (the  $\lambda$ -abstraction) only allows us to construct single-argument functions.

- That is, we do not have terms such as  $\lambda(x, y) \rightarrow t$ .
- This may seem restrictive,
- but it turns out to be sufficient. And it keeps the language simpler theoretically.

### 3.6 Currying

Rather than complicating our set of terms by admitting functions of multiple arguments, we use the technique of *currying* functions.

- Consider a function  $f : A \times B \rightarrow C$ .
- We can substitute a new function  $f' : A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$  for  $f$ .
  - (By convention, function arrows associate to the right, so this is equivalent to  $f : A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ .)
  - So  $f'$  is a function which takes an  $A$  and *produces a function* of type  $B \rightarrow C$ .
    - \* We usually don't give this new function a name.
    - \* We can consider this new function as having a *fixed* value for the  $A$  argument that was provided.
    - \* (So we must be able to represent higher-order functions to use Currying.)

### 3.7 Examples of $\lambda$ -terms

$\lambda x \rightarrow x$

is a familiar function; it is the *identity* function. We will use the name `id` to refer to this function.

$\lambda x \rightarrow \lambda y \rightarrow x$

$\lambda x \rightarrow \lambda y \rightarrow y$

## 4 The formal syntax and semantics of *UL*

### 4.1 A grammar for *UL*

$\langle \text{term} \rangle ::= \text{var} \mid \lambda \text{ var} \rightarrow \langle \text{term} \rangle \mid \langle \text{term} \rangle \langle \text{term} \rangle$

In the case that we are restricted to ASCII characters, we will write abstraction as

"lambda" var .  $\langle \text{term} \rangle$

### 4.2 The operational semantics of *UL*

The semantics of the  $\lambda$ -calculus is given by a *reduction strategy*;

- A reduction is a transformation from a term of the form

- $(\lambda x \rightarrow t_1)t_2$  to
- $t_1[x = t_2]$

- \* (There are various syntactic representations of substitutions; we prefer to the substitution operation to come after the term where the substitution is carried out ( $t_1$ ), and to use the “becomes” operator to imply free instance of  $x$  become  $t_2$ .)
- \* Pierce instead uses the form  $[x \mapsto t_2]t_1$ , with the substitution operation coming before the term, and using the “maps to” operator instead of “becomes”.
- \* You may also see forms such as  $[x \backslash t_1]$  or  $[t_1/x]$ .)

### 4.3 Reduction strategies

:TODO:

## 5 $\alpha$ -conversion, $\beta$ -reduction and $\eta$ -conversion

:TODO:

## 6 Topics of theoretical interest

### 6.1 The pure $\lambda$ -calculus

:TODO:

## 6.2 Nameless representation of terms

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