Lambda Calculus

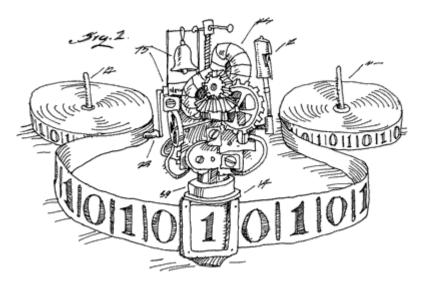
Oded Padon & Mooly Sagiv (original slides by Kathleen Fisher, John Mitchell, Shachar Itzhaky, S. Tanimoto)

Benjamin Pierce
Types and Programming Languages

http://www.cs.cornell.edu/courses/cs3110/2008fa/recitations/rec26.html

Computation Models

- Turing Machines
- Wang Machines
- Counter Programs
- Lambda Calculus



Historical Context

Like Alan Turing, another mathematician, Alonzo Church, was very interested, during the 1930s, in the question "What is a computable function?"

He developed a formal system known as the pure lambda calculus, in order to describe programs in a simple and precise way

Today the Lambda Calculus serves as a mathematical foundation for the study of functional programming languages, and especially for the study of "denotational semantics."

Reference: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus

What is λ calculus

- A complete computational model
- An assembly language for functional programming
 - Powerful
 - Concise
 - Counterintuitive
- Can explain many interesting PL features

Basics

- Repetitive expressions can be compactly represented using functional abstraction
- Example:
 - -(5*4*3*2*1)+(7*6*5*4*3*2*1) =
 - factorial(5) + factorial(7)
 - factorial(n) = if n = 0 then 1 else n * factorial(n-1)
 - factorial= λn . if n = 0 then 0 else n * factorial(n-1)
 - factorial= λn . if n = 0 then 0 else n * apply (factorial (n-1))

Untyped Lambda Calculus

$$t := terms$$

$$x variable$$

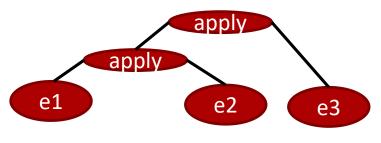
$$\lambda x. t abstraction$$

$$t t application$$

Terms can be represented as abstract syntax trees

Syntactic Conventions

• Applications associates to left $e_1 e_2 e_3 \equiv (e_1 e_2) e_3$



- The body of abstraction extends as far as possible
 - λx . λy . $x y x \equiv \lambda x$. $(\lambda y$. (x y) x)

Untyped Lambda Calculus

Terms can be represented as abstract syntax trees

application

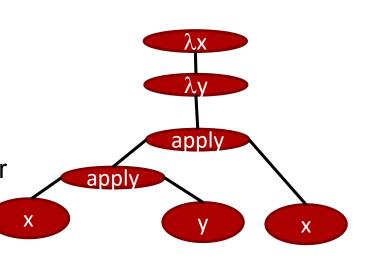
Syntactic Conventions

t t

• Applications associates to left $e_1 e_2 e_3 \equiv (e_1 e_2) e_3$

The body of abstraction extends as far as possible

• λx . λy . $x y x \equiv \lambda x$. $(\lambda y$. (x y) x)



Example Lambda Expressions

- λx."1"
- λx.x
- λx.y
- λx.s x
- $\lambda x.s (s x)$
- $\lambda f. \lambda g. fg$
- λb. "if" b "fls" "tru"
- λb. λb'. "if" b b' "fls"

Lambda Calculus in Python

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

Substitution

Replace a term by a term

```
-x + ((x + 2) * y)[x \mapsto 3, y \mapsto 7] = ?
-x + ((x + 2) * y)[x \mapsto z + 2] = ?
-x + ((x + 2) * y)[t \mapsto z + 2] = ?
x + ((x + 2) * y)[x \mapsto y]
```

- More tricky in programming languages
- Why?

Free vs. Bound Variables

- An occurrence of x is bound in t if it occurs in λx . t
 - otherwise it is free
 - $-\lambda x$ is a binder
- Examples
 - $Id = \lambda x. x$
 - $-\lambda y. x (y z)$
 - $-\lambda z. \lambda x. \lambda y. x (y z)$
 - $-(\lambda x. x) x$

FV: $t \rightarrow 2^{Var}$ is the set free variables of t

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

$$FV(\lambda x. t) = FV(t) - \{x\}$$

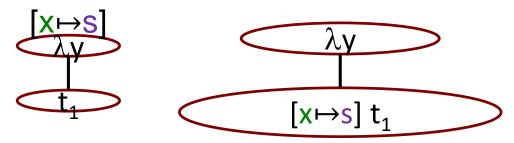
$$FV(t_1 t_2) = FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2)$$

Beta-Reduction

$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
 (\beta-reduction)

$$[x\mapsto s] \ x = s$$

$$[x\mapsto s] \ y = y$$
 if $y \neq x$
$$[x\mapsto s] \ (\lambda y. \ t_1) = \lambda y. \ [x\mapsto s] \ t_1$$
 if $y \neq x$ and $y \notin FV(s)$
$$[x\mapsto s] \ (t_1 \ t_2) = ([x\mapsto s] \ t_1) \ ([x\mapsto s] \ t_2)$$



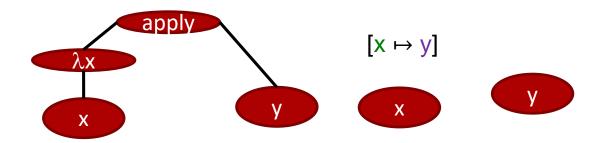
Beta-Reduction

$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
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Example Beta-Reduction

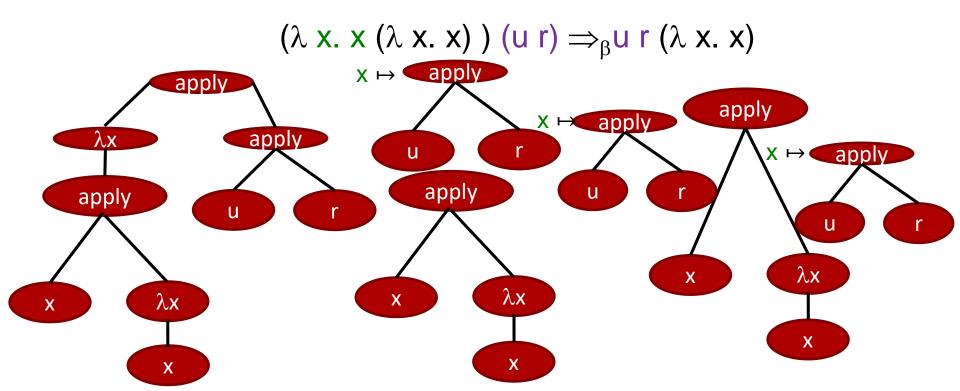
$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
 (β -reduction)

$$(\lambda x. x) y \Rightarrow_{\beta} y$$



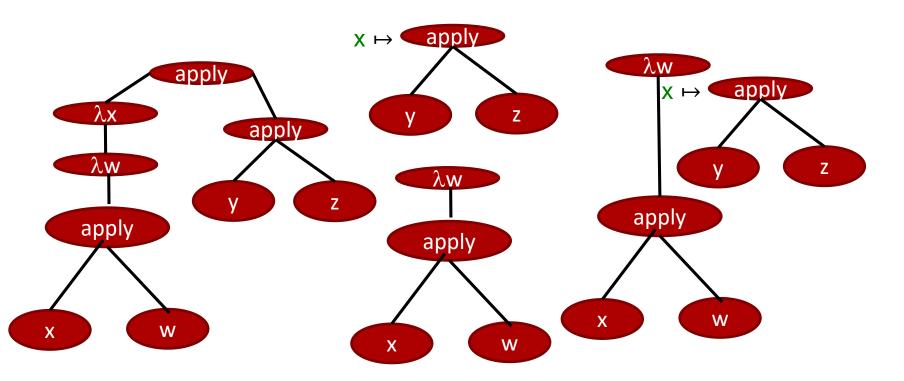
Example Beta-Reduction (ex 2)

$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1 \qquad (\beta\text{-reduction})$$



Example Beta-Reduction (ex 3)

$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
 (β-reduction)
redex
 $(\lambda x (\lambda w. x w)) (y z) \Rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda w. y z w$



Alpha- Conversion

Alpha conversion:

Renaming of a bound variable and its bound occurrences

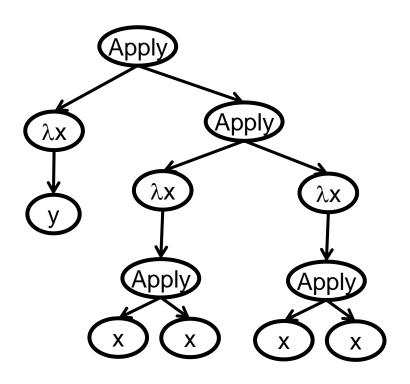
$$\lambda x.\lambda y.y \Rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda x.\lambda z.z$$

Simple Exercise

- Adding scopes to λ expressions
- Proposed syntax "let x = t₁ in t₂"
- Informal meaning:
 - all the occurrences of x in t2 are replaced by t1
- Example: let $a = \lambda x$. (λw . x w) in a $a = \lambda x$
- How can we simulate let?

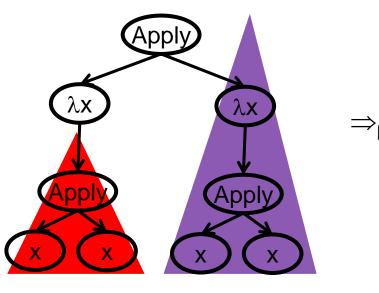
Divergence

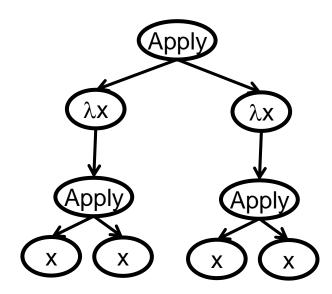
$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
 (β-reduction)
 $(\lambda x.y) ((\lambda x.(x x)) (\lambda x.(x x)))$



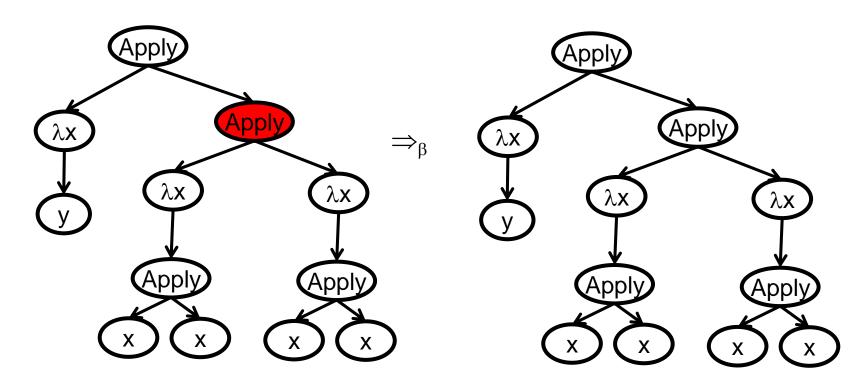
Divergence

$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
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 $(\lambda x.(x x)) (\lambda x.(x x))$

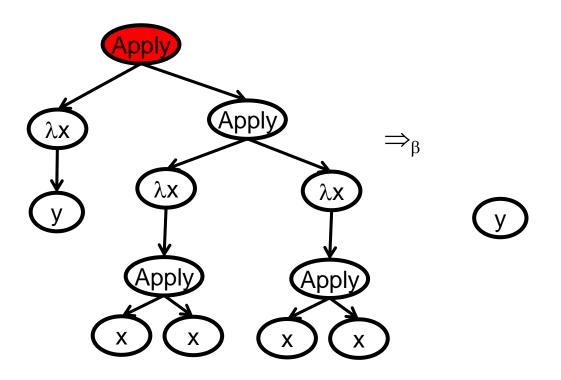




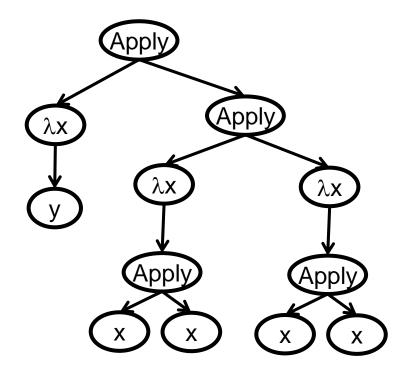
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$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
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$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow_{\beta} [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
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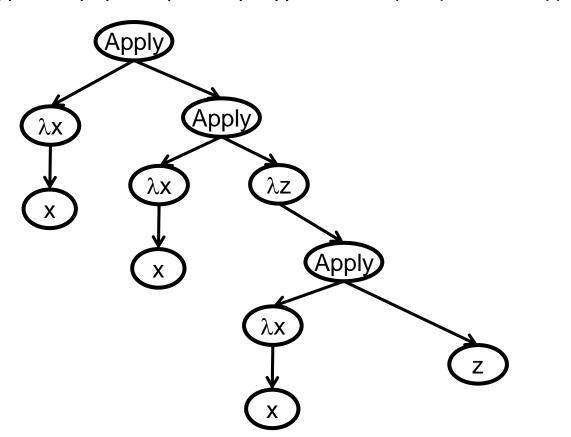
```
def f():
    while True: pass

def g(x):
    return 2
```

print g(f())

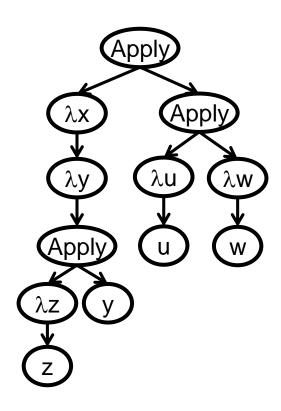
$$(\lambda x. t_1) t_2 \Rightarrow [x \mapsto t_2] t_1$$
 (\beta-reduction)

$$(\lambda x. x) ((\lambda x. x) (\lambda z. (\lambda x. x) z)) \equiv id (id (\lambda z. id z))$$

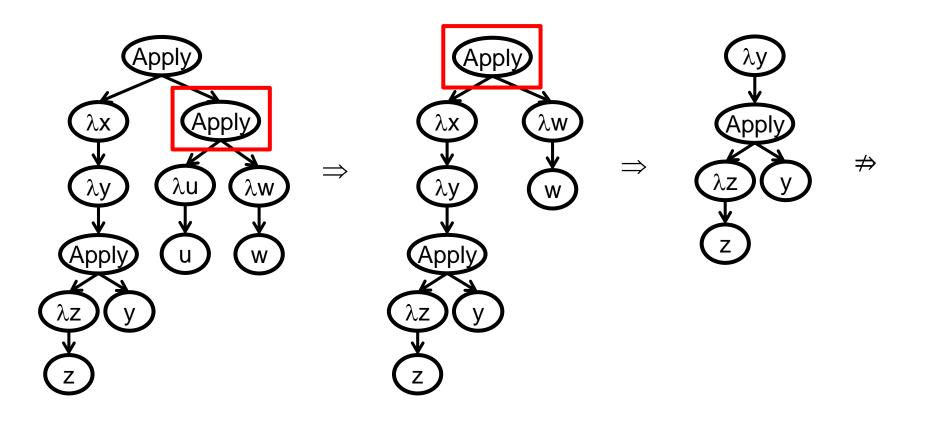


Order of Evaluation

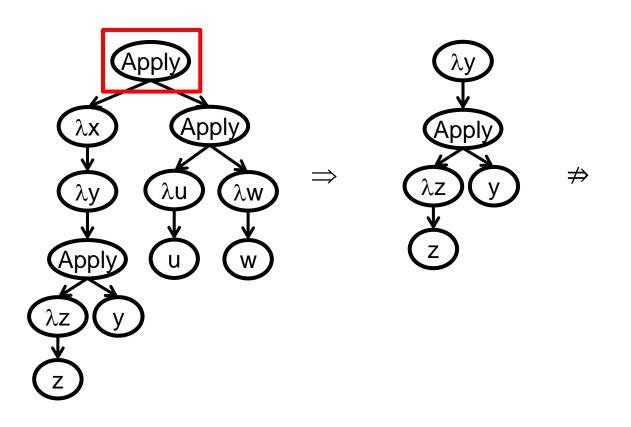
- Full-beta-reduction
 - All possible orders
- Applicative order call by value (Eager)
 - Left to right
 - Fully evaluate arguments before function
- Normal order
 - The leftmost, outermost redex is always reduced first
- Call by name
 - Evaluate arguments as needed
- Call by need
 - Evaluate arguments as needed and store for subsequent usages
 - Implemented in Haskel



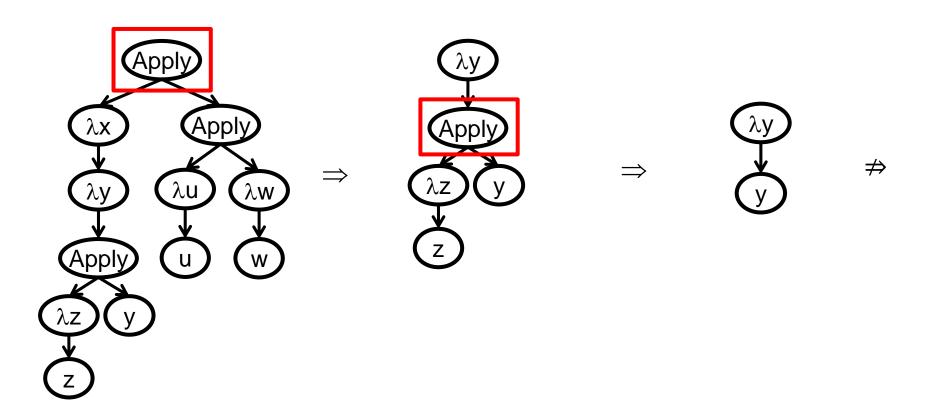
Call By Value



Call By Name (Lazy)

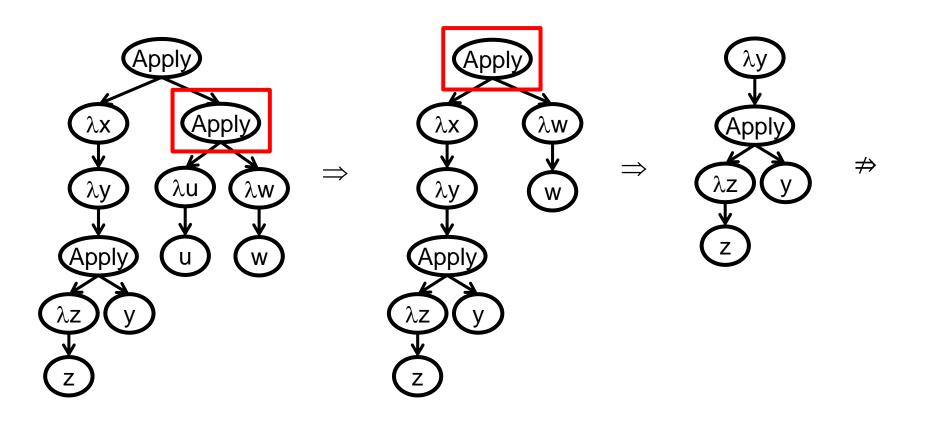


Normal Order

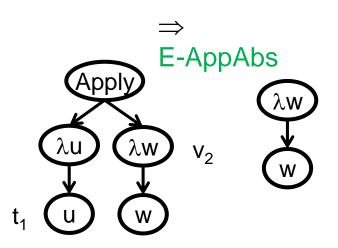


Call-by-value Operational Semantics

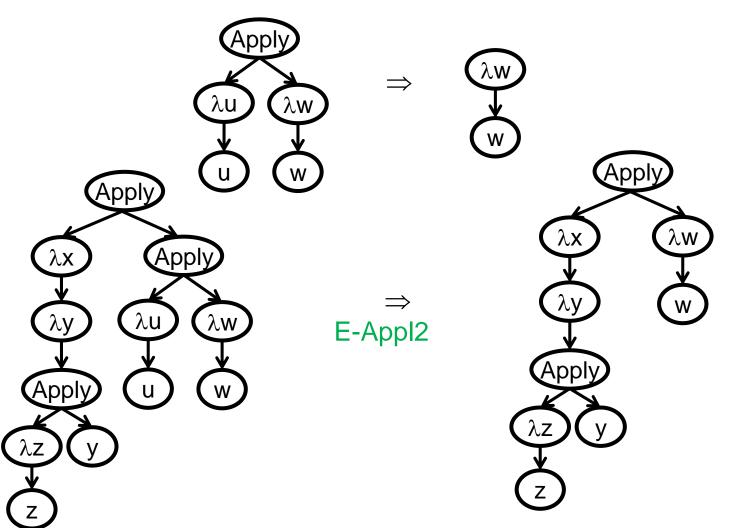
Call By Value



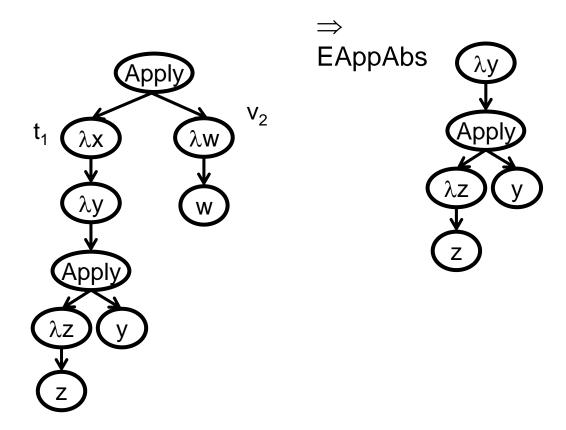
Call By Value OS



Call By Value OS (2)



Call By Value OS (3)



Programming in λ Calculus

- Functions with multiple arguments
- Simulating values
 - Tuples
 - Booleans
 - Numerics

Programming in the λ Multiple arguments

$$f = \lambda(x, y)$$
. s

-> Currying

$$f = \lambda x. \lambda y. s$$

f v w = (f v) w =((
$$\lambda x$$
. λy .s) v) w \Rightarrow (λy .[x \mapsto v]s) w \Rightarrow [x \mapsto v] [y \mapsto w] s

((λx . λy . x^*x+y^*y) 3) 4 \Rightarrow (λy .[x \mapsto 3] x^*x+y^*y) 4 = (λy .3*3+y*y) 4 \Rightarrow
[y \mapsto 4] 3*3+y*y = 3*3+4*4

Adding Values

Can be explicitly added

```
\begin{array}{cccc} t ::= & terms \\ & x & variable \\ & \lambda \, x. \, t & abstraction \\ & t \, t & application \\ & TT \, | \, FF \, | \, 1 \, | \, 2 \, | \, \dots \end{array}
```

Can be simulated

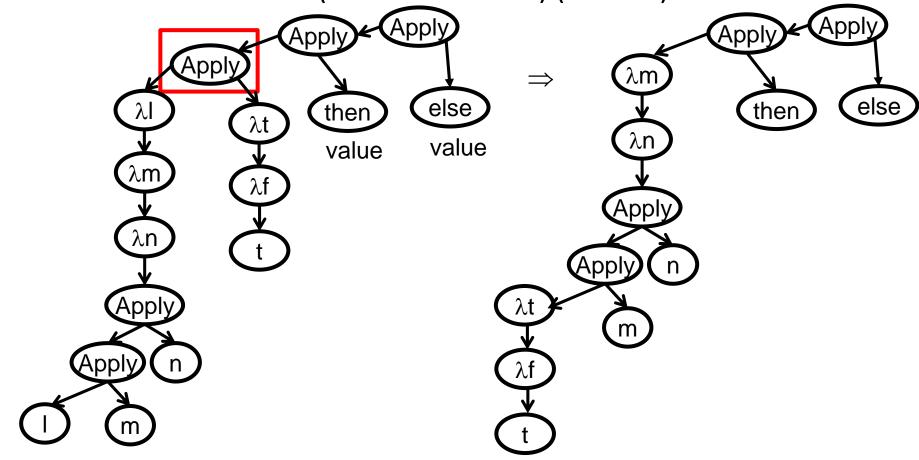
Simulating Booleans

• tru = λt . λf . t

• fls = λt . λf . f

Simulating Tests

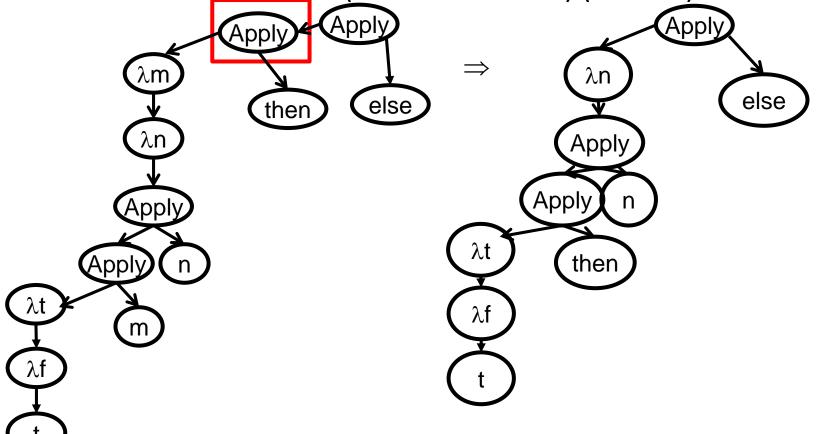
- tru = λt . λf . t fls = λt . λf . f
- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n
- test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$ then else



Simulating Tests(2)

- tru = λt . λf . t fls = λt . λf . f
- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n

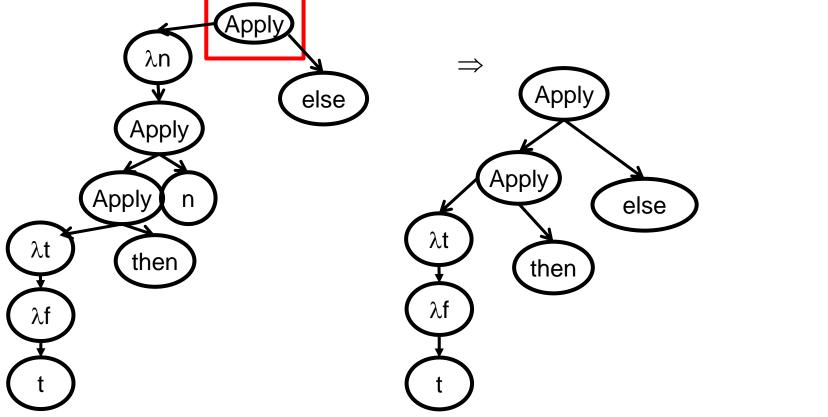
• test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$ then else



Simulating Tests(3)

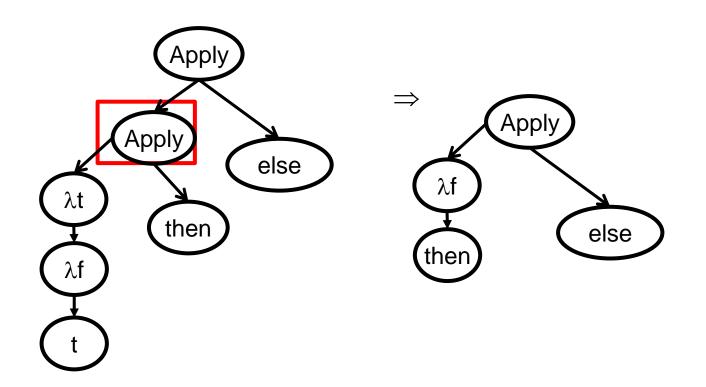
• tru =
$$\lambda t$$
. λf . t fls = λt . λf . f

- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n
- test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$ then else



Simulating Tests(4)

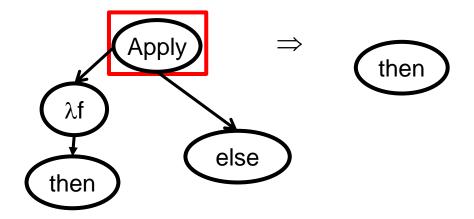
- tru = λt . λf . t fls = λt . λf . f
- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n
- test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$ then else



Simulating Tests(5)

• tru =
$$\lambda t$$
. λf . t fls = λt . λf . f

- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n
- test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$ then else



Simulating Tests

- tru = λ t. λ f. t
- fls = λt . λf . f
- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n
- test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$
- test fls then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. f)$

Programming in λ Booleans

- tru = λt . λf . t
- fls = λt . λf . f
- test = λI . λm . λn . I m n
- test tru then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. t)$
- test fls then else = $(\lambda I. \lambda m. \lambda n. I m n) (\lambda t. \lambda f. f)$
- and = λb . $\lambda b'$. test b b' fls
- or = ?
- not = ?

Programming in λ Numerals

- $c_0 = \lambda s. \lambda z. z$
- $c_1 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$
- $c_2 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)$
- $c_3 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))$
- succ = λ n. λ s. λ z. s (n s z)
- plus = λ m. λ n. λ s. λ z. m s (n s z)
- times = λ m. λ n. m (plus n) c₀
- > Turing Complete

Combinators

- A combinator is a function in the Lambda Calculus having no free variables
- Examples

```
-\lambda x. x is a combinator -\lambda x. \lambda y. (x y) is a combinator -\lambda x. \lambda y. (x z) is not a combinator
```

- Combinators can serve nicely as modular building blocks for more complex expressions
- The Church numerals and simulated Booleans are examples of useful combinators

Loops in Lambda Calculus

• omega= $(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$

Recursion can be simulated

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

$$-Y f \implies_{\beta}^{*} f (Y f)$$

Factorial in the Lambda Calculus

Define H as follows, to represent 1 step of recursion. Note that ISZERO, MULT, and PRED represent particular combinators that accomplish these functions

$$H = (\lambda f. \lambda n.(ISZERO n) 1 (MULT n (f (PRED n))))$$

Then we can create FACTORIAL = Y H

=
$$(\lambda x . (\lambda y. x (y y)) (\lambda y. x (y y))) (\lambda f. \lambda n.(ISZERO n) 1 (MULT n (f (PRED n))))$$

Reference: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Y_combinator

Consistency of Function Application

- Prevent runtime errors during evaluation
- Reject inconsistent terms
- What does 'x x' mean?
- Cannot be always enforced
 - if <tricky computation> then true else (λx . x)

Typed Lambda Calculus

Chapter 9
Benjamin Pierce
Types and Programming Languages

Call-by-value Operational Semantics

Consistency of Function Application

- Prevent runtime errors during evaluation
- Reject inconsistent terms
- What does 'x x' mean?
- Cannot be always enforced
 - if <tricky computation> then true else (λx . x)

A Naïve Attempt

- Add function type →
- Type rule $\lambda x. t :\rightarrow$
 - $-\lambda x. x :\rightarrow$
 - If true then $(\lambda x. x)$ else $(\lambda x. \lambda y y) :\rightarrow$
- Too Coarse

Simple Types

$$\begin{array}{ccc} T ::= & & types \\ & Bool & type \ of \ Booleans \\ T \rightarrow T & type \ of \ functions \end{array}$$

$$T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \rightarrow T_3 = T_1 \rightarrow (T_2 \rightarrow T_3)$$

Explicit vs. Implicit Types

- How to define the type of λ abstractions?
 - Explicit: defined by the programmer

```
\begin{array}{cccc} t ::= & & & & & & & \\ x & & & & & variable \\ & \lambda & x: T. & t & & abstraction \\ & t & t & & application \end{array}
```

- Implicit: Inferred by analyzing the body
- The type checking problem: Determine if typed term is well typed
- The type inference problem: Determine if there exists a type for (an untyped) term which makes it well typed

Simple Typed Lambda Calculus

t ::= terms

x variable

 λ x: T. t abstraction

t t application

T::= types

 $T \rightarrow T$ types of functions

Typing Function Declarations

$$\frac{x: T_1 \vdash t_2: T_2}{\vdash (\lambda x: T_1. t_2): T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$
 (T-ABS)

A typing context Γ maps free variables into types

$$\frac{\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : T_1 . t_2) : T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$$
 (T-ABS)

Typing Free Variables

$$\frac{\mathsf{x} : \mathsf{T} \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{x} : \mathsf{T}} \tag{T-VAR}$$

Typing Function Applications

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_{11} \rightarrow \mathsf{T}_{12} \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 \quad \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_{12}} \tag{T-APP}$$

Typing Conditionals

$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{Bool} \ \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T} \ \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_3 : \mathsf{T} \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \ \mathsf{if} \ \mathsf{t}_1 \ \mathsf{then} \ \mathsf{t}_2 \ \mathsf{else} \ \mathsf{t}_3 : \mathsf{T} \end{array}$$

if true then $(\lambda x: Bool. x)$ else $(\lambda y: Bool. not y)$

SOS for Simple Typed Lambda Calculus

Type Rules

Examples

- (λx:Bool. x) true
- if true then $(\lambda x:Bool. x)$ else $(\lambda x:Bool. x)$
- if true then (λx:Bool. x) else (λx:Bool. λy:Bool. x)

The Typing Relation

- Formally the typing relation is the smallest ternary relation on contexts, terms and types
 - in terms of inclusion
- A term t is typable in a given context Γ (well typed) if there exists some type T such that Γ⊢t : T
- Interesting on closed terms (empty contexts)

Inversion of the typing relation

- $\Gamma \vdash x : R \Rightarrow x : R \in \Gamma$
- $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1$. t2 : $R \Rightarrow R = T_1 \rightarrow R_2$ for some R_2 with $\Gamma \vdash t_2 : R_2$
- $\Gamma \vdash t_1 t_2 : R \Rightarrow$ there exists T_{11} such that $\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow R$ and $\Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}$
- $\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{true} : \mathsf{R} \Rightarrow \mathsf{R} = \mathsf{Bool}$
- $\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{false} : \mathsf{R} \Rightarrow \mathsf{R} = \mathsf{Bool}$
- $\Gamma \vdash$ if t_1 then t_2 else $t_3 : R \Rightarrow \Gamma \vdash t_1$: Bool, $\Gamma \vdash t_2 : R, \Gamma \vdash t_3 : R$

Uniqueness of Types

- Each term t has at most one type in any given context
 - If t is typable then
 - its type is unique
 - There is a unique type derivation tree for t

Type Safety

- Well typed programs cannot go wrong
- If t is well typed then either t is a value or there exists an evaluation step t → t' [Progress]
- If t is well typed and there exists an evaluation step t → t' then t' is also well typed [Preservation]

Canonical Forms

- If v is a value of type Bool then v is either true or false
- If v is a value of type $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$ then v= λx : $T_1.t_2$

Progress Theorem

- Does not hold on terms with free variables
- For every closed well typed term t, either t is a value or there exists t' such that t → t'

Preservation Theorem

- If Γ⊢ t : T and Δ is a permutation of Γ then Δ
 ⊢ t : T [Permutation]
- If Γ ⊢ t : T and x ∉dom(Γ) then Γ,t ⊢ t : T with a proof of the same depth [Weakening]
- If Γ, x: S ⊢ t : T and Γ⊢ s: S
 then Γ ⊢ [x ↦ s] t : T
 [Preservation of types under substitution]
- $\Gamma \vdash t : T \text{ and } t \rightarrow t' \text{ then } \Gamma \vdash t' : T$

SOS for Simple Typed Lambda Calculus

Erasure and Typability

- Types are used for preventing errors and generating more efficient code
- Types are not used at runtime

```
erase(x) = x
erase(\lambdax: T<sub>1</sub>. t<sub>2</sub>) = \lambdax.erase(t<sub>2</sub>)
erase(t<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub>) = erase(t<sub>1</sub>) erase(t<sub>2</sub>)
```

- If t → t' under typed evaluation relation, then erase(t) → erase(t')
- A term t in the untyped lamba calculus is typable if there exists a typed term t' such that erase(t') = t

Summary

- Constructive rules for preventing runtime errors in a Turing complete programming language
- Efficient type checking
 - Code is described in Chapter 10
- Unique types
- Type safety
- But limits programming

Summary: Lambda Calculus

- Powerful
- The ultimate assembly language
- Useful to illustrate ideas
- But can be counterintuitive
- Usually extended with useful syntactic sugars
- Other calculi exist
 - pi-calculus
 - object calculus
 - mobile ambients

— ...