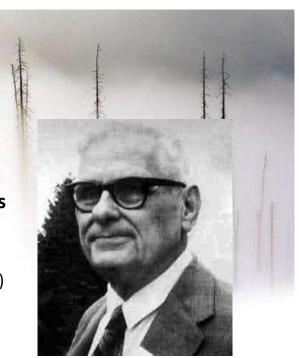
Lambda Calculus

Lambda Calculus

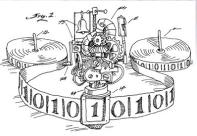
- Anonymous function calculus
- Functional model of computation
- Alonzo Church introduced lambda calculus in the 1930s.
 - Pure lambda calculus ('30s)
 - Applied & Simply typed lambda calculus('40s)
 - Polymorphic lambda calculus ('70s)



Functional Model of Computation

- Express computation based on
 - (anonymous) function abstraction and
 - function application via binding and substitution.
- Equivalent to <u>state-based</u> Turing Machine by Alan Turing.
- Functional languages Lisp, ML, Haskell, F#, Clojure, Scala, etc. are derived from lambda calculus.





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Syntax

Everything in lambda calculus is an expression (E).

Lambda expressions are composed of:

- variables ID such as x, y, z, ...
- the abstraction symbols lambda 'λ' and dot '.'
- parentheses ()



rule 1: E ::= ID

rule 2: E ::= λ ID . M

rule 3: E ::= (M N)

rule 4: E ::= (E)

†Pure lambda calculus does not define constants, types, operators, etc.

Church Encodings!

Booleans, integers, and (other data structures) can be entirely replaced by functions!

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Turing Complete

- Boolean Logic
- Arithmetic
- Loops

Boolean Logic

- TRUE = $\lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot X$
- FALSE = $\lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot Y$
- COND = λp. λq. λr. p q r
- AND := $\lambda a \cdot \lambda b \cdot a b FALSE$
- OR := $\lambda a \cdot \lambda b \cdot a$ TRUE b
- NOT := $\lambda a \cdot a$ FALSE TRUE

.

Church's Numerals

 $0 := \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot x$

 $1 := \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot f x$

 $2 := \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot f (f x)$

 $3 := \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot f (f (f x))$

•••

succ = $\lambda n \cdot \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot f (n f x)$

Arithmetic Operators

- add := $\lambda m \cdot \lambda n \cdot \lambda f \cdot \lambda x \cdot m f (n f x)$
- mult = $\lambda n \cdot \lambda m \cdot m (add n) 0$

Loop: Y Combinator

```
Y = \lambda f .(\lambda x . f (x x)) (\lambda x . f (x x))
```

Y foo

- \Rightarrow ($\lambda f .(\lambda x . f (x x)) (\lambda x . f (x x)) foo$
- \Rightarrow ($\lambda x \cdot foo(x x)$) ($\lambda x \cdot foo(x x)$)
- \Rightarrow foo ((λx . foo (x x)) (λx . foo (x x)))
- \Rightarrow foo (Y foo)
- \Rightarrow foo (foo (Y foo))
- $\Rightarrow ...$
- ⇒foo (... foo (Y foo)...)

(by definition of Y)

(by β -reduction of λf : applied Y to foo)

(by β -reduction of λx)

(by second equality)

Examples

```
if M, N \in E, then
```

rule 1: E ::= ID

rule 2: $E := \lambda ID . M$

rule 3: E ::= (M N)

rule 4: E ::= (E)

x λx.x xy λ λx.y λx.yz foo λ bar. (foo (bar baz))

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Disambiguation Rules

Applications are assumed to be left associative:

M N P may be written instead of ((M N) P)

The body of an abstraction extends as far right as possible:

λx . M N means ...

 $\lambda x \cdot (M N)$ and not $(\lambda x \cdot M) N$

λx.λx.x is ...

λx. (λx . (x))

Semantics

Every ID that we see in lambda calculus is called a variable.

 $E \rightarrow \lambda ID \cdot M$ is called an abstraction

The **ID** is the **variable** of the abstraction (also **bind variable**) **M** is called the **body** of the abstraction

$E \rightarrow M N$

This is called an application

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Semantics (Cont'd)

λ ID . M defines a new anonymous function

This is the reason why called "Lambda Expressions" in Java 8 etc.

ID is the **formal parameter** of the function

M is the body of the function

E → **M N**, function application, is similar to calling function **M** and setting its formal parameter to be **N**

Application has higher precedence than abstraction:

 $\lambda x \cdot A B$ means $\lambda x \cdot (A B)$, not $(\lambda x \cdot A) B$

Computation by Rewriting

For now, think of rewriting as replacing all occurrences of the formal parameter x in the function with the argument:

How can + function be defined if abstractions only accept 1 parameter?

1 5

Currying

Translate a function that takes *multiple* arguments *into* a sequence of functions that each take a single argument.

$$\lambda (x, y) \cdot (+ x y) // invalid \lambda$$
-expression
 $\rightarrow \lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot ((+ x) y)$

$$(\lambda x . \lambda y . ((+ x) y)) 10 20$$

=> $(\lambda y . ((+ 10) y)) 20$
=> $((+ 10) 20) = 30$

Problems with the naive rewriting rule

Simple rule for rewriting (λx . M)N was

"Replace all occurrences of x in M with N".

However, there are two problems with this rule.

Problem #1:

"scope escape" problem

=> don't want to replace all occurrences of x



"capture" or "name clash" problem



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Problem #1 (Scope Escape)

Consider the following:

$$(\lambda x \cdot (x + ((\lambda x \cdot x + 1) 3))) 2$$

Let's rewrite the inner expression first.

$$(\lambda x \cdot (x + ((\lambda x \cdot x + 1) 3))) 2$$

$$=> (\lambda x \cdot (x + (3 + 1))) 2$$

$$=> (\lambda x \cdot (x + 4)) 2$$

Problem # 1 (Scope Escape) (Cont'd)

$$(\lambda x \cdot (x + ((\lambda x \cdot x + 1) 3))) 2$$

This time, let's rewrite the outer expression first.

$$(\lambda x \cdot (x + ((\lambda x \cdot x + 1) 3))) 2$$

$$=> (2 + ((\lambda x (2 + 1) 3))$$



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Problem #2

Consider the following:

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

$$=> (\lambda y . y) z$$

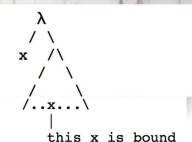
=> z

What should be the correct answer?

The Issue behind Problem #1 is Scoping

To understand how to fix the first problem, we need to understand **scoping**, which involves the following:

- **Bound Variable**: a variable that is associated with some lambda.
- **Free Variable**: a variable that is *not* associated with any lambda.
- Intuitively, in lambda-expression M, variable x is bound if, in the AST, x is in the subtree of a lambda with left child x:



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Free & Bound Variables

The same variable can appear many times in different contexts. Some instances may be bound, others free.

Free Variables?

```
x free in \lambda x . x y z?

y free in \lambda x . x y z?

x free in (\lambda x . (+ x 1)) x?

z free in \lambda x . \lambda y . \lambda z . z y x?

x free in (\lambda x . z foo) (\lambda y . y x)?

x free in x \lambda x . x ?

x free in (\lambda x . x y) x ?

x free in \lambda x . y x ?
```

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Combinators

An expression is a **combinator** if it does not have any free variables. The expression is also said to be **closed**.

 $\lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot x y x combinator?$

λx . x combinator?

 $\lambda z \cdot \lambda x \cdot x y z$ combinator?

Revised Rewriting Rule

To solve problem #1 above, given lambda expression (λx . M) N

"Replace all occurrences of x in M with N."

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Revised Rewriting Rule

To solve problem #1 above, given lambda expression (λx . M) N

"Replace all occurrences of x that are free in M with N."

For example:

The Issue behind Problem #2 is Name Clash

The variable y that is **free** in the argument to a λ -expression **becomes bound** after rewriting, because it is put into the scope of a λ -expression with a formal parameter named y:

free argument becomes bound after application!

2-

Equivalence

What does it mean for two functions to be equivalent?

•
$$\lambda y \cdot y = \lambda x \cdot x$$
?

•
$$\lambda x \cdot x y = \lambda y \cdot y x$$
?

•
$$\lambda x \cdot x = \lambda x \cdot x$$
?

Two expressions that are α -equivalent must have the same set of free variables.

α-equivalence

 α -equivalence is when two functions vary only by the names of the bound variables: $\mathbf{M} =_{\alpha} \mathbf{N}$

To solve Problem #2, we need a way to rename variables in an expression:

- Simple find and replace?
- $-\lambda x. x \lambda y. x y z$
 - Can we rename x to foo?
 - Can we rename y to bar?
 - Can we rename y to x?
 - Can we rename x to z?

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α-conversion

as long as there is no name conflict with other variables

The basic idea is that formal parameter names are unimportant; so rename them as needed to avoid capture.

 α -conversion modifies expressions of the form λx . M to λz . M'.

Renames all the occurrences of x that are free in M to some other variable z that does not occur in M (and then λx is changed to λz).

For example,

 $\lambda x \cdot \lambda y \cdot x + y$ alpha-reduces to $\lambda z \cdot \lambda y \cdot z + y$

Substitution

Renaming allows us to replace one variable name with another.

However, our goal is to reduce $(\lambda \times . + \times 1)$ 2 to (+ 2 1), which replaces x with the expression 2.

We need another operator, called **substitution**, to replace a variable by a lambda expression.

 $- E[x \rightarrow N]$, where E and N are lambda expressions and x is a name

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Substitution

$$(\lambda x . + x 1) 2$$

=> $(+ x 1) [x \rightarrow 2]$
=> $(+ 2 1)$

$$(\lambda x . (\lambda x . + x 1)) 2$$

=> $(\lambda x . + x 1) [x \rightarrow 2]$
=> $(\lambda x . + x 1)$

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

$$=> (\lambda x \cdot y \cdot x) [y \rightarrow \lambda z \cdot x \cdot z]$$

$$=> (\lambda x \cdot (\lambda z \cdot x \cdot z) \cdot x) => \text{trouble!}$$

$$=> (\lambda w \cdot (\lambda z \cdot x \cdot z) \cdot w)$$

// substitution after alpha-reduction!

Substitution Rule

$E[x\rightarrow N]$

- 1. $x [x \rightarrow N] = N$
- 2. $y[x\rightarrow N] = y$, if $x \neq y$
- 3. $(E_1 E_2) [x \rightarrow N] = (E_1 [x \rightarrow N]) (E_2 [x \rightarrow N])$
- 4. $(\lambda \times . E) [x \rightarrow N] = (\lambda \times . E)$
- 5. $(\lambda y . E) [x \rightarrow N] = (\lambda y . E [x \rightarrow N])$ when $y \neq x$ and $y \notin FV(N)$
- 6. $(\lambda y \cdot E)[x \rightarrow N] = (\lambda z \cdot E\{z/y\}[x \rightarrow N])$ when $y \neq x$ and $y \in FV(N)$, and $z \neq x$ and $z \notin FV(E, N)$

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Precise Meaning of Rewriting: β-reduction

Defined using **substitution** (which in turn uses α -reduction).

Denoted by $(\lambda x \cdot M) N \rightarrow_{\beta} M [x \rightarrow N]$

The left-hand side $(\lambda x \cdot M) N$ is called the redex.

The notation means **M** with all **free** occurrences of **x** replaced with **N** in a way that avoids capture.

We say that $(\lambda x \cdot M)$ N beta-reduces to M with N substituted for x.

Normal Form

Computing with λ -expressions involves rewriting them using β -reduction.

A computation is finished when there are no more redexes.

A λ -expression without redexes is in normal form,

A λ -expression has a normal form *iff* there is some sequence of β -reduction (and/or expansions) that that leads to a normal form.

$$E_1 = > * E_2$$

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η -Reduction

If \mathbf{v} is a variable, \mathbf{E} is a lambda expression (denoting a function), and \mathbf{v} has no free occurrence in \mathbf{E} ,

$$\lambda v \cdot (E v) \Rightarrow_{\eta} E$$

$$\lambda x \cdot (sqr x) \Rightarrow_{\eta} sqr$$

$$\lambda x$$
 . (add 5 x) \Rightarrow_{η} (add 5).

Interesting Questions

Q1: Does every λ -expression have a normal form?

Q2: If a λ -expression does have a normal form, can we get there using only β -reductions?

Q3: If a λ -expression does have a normal form, do all choices of reduction sequences get there?

Q4: Is there a strategy for choosing β -reductions that is guaranteed to result in a normal form if one exists?

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Q1: Does every λ-expression have a normal form?

$$(\lambda \times . \times \times) (\lambda \times . \times \times)$$

$$=> (\times \times) [x \rightarrow (\lambda \times . \times \times)]$$

$$=> (\lambda \times . \times \times) (\lambda \times . \times \times)$$

$$=> (\times \times) [x \rightarrow (\lambda \times . \times \times)]$$

$$=> (\lambda \times . \times \times) (\lambda \times . \times \times)$$

. . .

Q2: If a λ -expression does have a normal form, can we get there using only beta-reductions?

- Yes!
- See the "Church-Rosser Theorem".

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Q3: If a λ -expression does have a normal form, do all choices of reduction sequences get there?

Consider the following lambda expression:

The sequence of choices that we make **can** determine whether or not we get to a normal form.

Q4: Is there a strategy for choosing β-reductions that is guaranteed to result in a normal form if one exists?

• Yes!

 leftmost-outermost aka normal-order-reduction (NOR)

4-1

Outermost and Innermost Redexes

Definition: An *outermost redex* is a redex that is not contained inside another one. (Similarly, an *innermost* redex is one that has no redexes inside it.)

Normal Order Reduction (NOR)

To do a normal-order reduction, always choose the **leftmost** of the **outermost** redexes.

NOR is like **call-by-name** parameter passing, where you evaluate an actual parameter only when the corresponding formal is used.

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Applicative-Order Reduction (AOR)

Choose the **leftmost** of the **innermost** redexes.

AOR corresponds to **call-by-value** parameter passing: the arguments are reduced before applying the function.

The advantage of AOR is efficiency.

The disadvantage is that AOR may fail to terminate on a lambda expression that has a normal form.

Call-by-Need: Best of Both World

- Call-by-need is like call-by-name in that an actual parameter is only evaluated when the corresponding formal is used ...
- However, the difference is that when using call-by-need, the result of the evaluation is saved and is then reused for each subsequent use of the formal.