

- Lambda Calculus

- A model of computation for functional languages, that relies on function composition
- Everything in lambda calculus is a function and returns a function, or a lambda expression that declares a new variable (function)
- Example 1
 - λa means we're declaring a function that takes one parameter, a
 - After the dot, we write the function that λa is defining, as far right as possible. In this case, to the closing parentheses, so a
 - If the parentheses didn't exist, though, the body would include b , so ab

Bound variables mean we can find the declaration of the variable within our expression. Unbound, or free, means we cannot, and it was declared outside of the expression

- Example 1
 - Here, a is bound, because we see it declared in λa
 - b is free, though, since looking towards its left we cannot see its declaration
 - Same goes for if there were no parentheses, b is free, while a is bound
- Let's look at making parentheses explicit.

- Example 2
 - Lambda functions are left associative, meaning we do things left to right
 - That means for $a\ b\ c$, we first do $(a\ b)$, then we apply c to its result

Answer: $((a\ b)\ c)$

- Example 3
 - Recall the expression extends as far right as possible, so λa extends all the way to the right, as does λb
 - We add parentheses around the entire lambda expression, as well as the body of the lambda expression
 - Answer: $(\lambda a.(\lambda b.(a\ b)))$
 - Note that this example shows a function that takes two variables, a and b

Example 4

- The first λa extends all the way to the right
 - We see an associativity problem between $a\ b$ and $\lambda a.a\ b$, so we group $a\ b$ together, and it takes in the next lambda expression
 - Answer: $(\lambda a.((a\ b)\ (\lambda a.(a\ b))))$

- Now we'll look at identifying free and bound variables

- Example 1
 - It might help to make the parentheses explicit for these examples
 - $(\lambda a.((a\ b)\ a))$
 - Since the lambda expression extends all the way right, both a 's are bound
 - b is free, though, because there is no lambda expression to the left that binds it

- Example 2

- This is tricky because there are only a's and there is a lambda expression that takes a
- However, we have to consider the body of the lambda expression, which in this case, only contains 1 a bounded. The other two a's are not within the body of the lambda expression (not in the scope). One a is too far left, the other is on the right but outside the parentheses
- Thus, the first and last a's are free
- Example 3
 - Both a's are bound because the first λa extends all the way to the right, and includes any a's within contained lambda expressions
 - The first b is also bound by the λb
 - The second b is free though, because it is outside of the scope of λb

Alpha-conversions are used to avoid ambiguity by renaming variables that have the same name. If a variable is declared within our expression using lambda, we can just change the letter and change the uses

- There can be multiple correct alpha-conversions
- Example 1
 - We need to identify ownership first
 - The inner lambda expression owns a, so the outer lambda expression does not own any variables - it gets overshadowed
 - We want to distinguish the first a from the second a parameter
 - Two possible answers
 - $\lambda b.\lambda a.a$
 - $\lambda a.\lambda b.b$
 - As long as the bindings stay the same, the conversion is correct
- Example 2
 - The inner a is different from the outer a - the outer a is free
 - Since the outer a is free, we cannot rename it, because we would not be able to convert its declaration
 - Same goes for b
 - The only solution is thus $(\lambda c.c) a b$, where c is any letter besides a or b

Example 3

- The last a is free, and the other 3 a's are bound to different lambda expressions
- $(\lambda d.(\lambda c.(\lambda b.b) c) d) a$
- Beta-Reductions apply the functions to our arguments, to evaluate them as much as possible. Again, it may help to make parentheses explicit
- Example 1
 - The explicit parentheses are $(((\lambda a. (a b)) x) b)$
 - First, we take x and we plug it into λa (so now, $a = x$)
 - This evaluates to $(x b) b$, which is our answer
 - We can only plug in when we have a lambda expression
- Example 2

- In this example, we will be passing an entire lambda expression into the first expression
- We also see an example of currying: $(\lambda a. \lambda b. \lambda c. a \ b \ c)$ is equivalent to $(\lambda a. (\lambda b. (\lambda c. a \ b \ c)))$, so each lambda expression would return a new lambda expression with a variable input already
- This is the benefit of lambda calculus, it captures higher order programming - passing in functions as parameters - and currying ■ We pass in the second lambda expression to the first one, but there are no a's being used in the first lambda expression, so we just output b as our answer
- Answer: b
- Example 3
 - We plug in the second expression into a in the first one, but notice this gives us the same expression as the original again
 - This means we are already done reducing, and we can't reduce further - it loops forever
 - Sometimes you may get an expression that grows as it "reduces"; this is also referred to as "cannot be reduced further"
 - Note that call-by-name and call-by-value will be important here sometimes, depending on which you do, the expression may or may not reduce indefinitely
- Beta Normal Form is the state of a lambda expression where it cannot be beta reduced further. It just involves a chain of beta-reductions until it has reached a state of no more changes
- Note that all of these have been either put into beta normal form, or cannot be reduced further
- On the exam, you will likely get questions that involve applying beta reduction multiple times to get to beta normal form, instead of just one time.