# $\lambda$ -calculus

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## 1 Presentation

• 1935 (a theory of computable functions)
Alonzo Church, attempt at formalizing computation

Functions:

- maths :  $f:A\to B$  is a set of pairs
- programming : instruction to compute an output

#### 1.1 Definitions

We can define the set of  $\lambda$ -terms ( $\Lambda$ ) with a grammar:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Lambda := x, y, z ... & \text{(variable)} \\ \mid \lambda . \Lambda & \text{(functions)} \\ \mid \Lambda \; \Lambda & \text{(application)} \end{array}$$

The application is left associative:  $(l_1 \ l_2) \ l_3$ .

Notations We can define some notations to simplify the syntax :

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} \text{Real } \lambda\text{-term} & \text{notations} \\ \hline \lambda x_1.(\dots(\lambda x_n.t)\dots) & \lambda x_1\dots\lambda x_n.t \\ (\dots(t\ u_1)\dots) & t\ u_1\dots u_n \\ t\ u_1\ \dots; u_n & t\ \vec{u} \ \text{with} \ \vec{u} = u_1\ \dots\ u_n \\ \end{array}$$

**Example** – We can define this  $\lambda$ -term:

- Identity :  $I = \lambda x$ . x
- Constant generator:  $C_c = \lambda x. c$
- Distribution :  $\lambda x y z$ . (x z) (y z)
- What ? :  $\delta = \lambda x. x x$

Curryfication Functions are curryfied (Haskell Curry)

They are no cartesian product in the  $\lambda$ -calculus. So we can define :

• A function:  $(x,y) \mapsto t \quad \lambda x \ y. \ t$ • An application  $f(x,y) \quad f(x,y)$ 

## 2 Computing with the $\lambda$ -calculus

Example, we want to compute  $(\lambda xyz. \ x \ z \ (y \ z)) \ (\lambda ab. \ a) \ t \ u$ 

$$(\lambda xyz. \ x \ z \ (y \ z)) \ (\lambda ab. \ a) \ t \ u$$

$$= (\lambda yz. \ (\lambda ab. \ a) \ z \ (y \ z)) \ t \ u$$

$$= (\lambda z. \ (\lambda ab. \ a) \ z \ (t \ z)) \ u$$

$$= (\lambda ab. \ a) \ u \ (t \ u))$$

$$= (\lambda b. \ u) \ (t \ u))$$

$$= u$$

Here are some examples of slightly more subtle calculations:

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

$$= \lambda x. x$$

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

$$= \lambda z. y$$

We will define the reduction rewrite rule called  $\beta$ -reduction later.

#### 2.1 Inductive reasoning

We can also define  $\Lambda$  with the smallest set such that :

- $\forall x \in \text{Var}, x \in \Lambda$
- $\bullet \ \forall x \in \mathrm{Var}, \forall t \in \Lambda, \lambda x. t \in \Lambda$
- $\forall t_1 t_2, t_1 t_2 \in \Lambda$

We define  $\Lambda$  by induction, so we can write induction function.

For example, we can write  $f_v$  the function who compute the number of variable in term t and  $f_{\odot}$  the function who compute the number of application

$$\begin{cases} f_v(x) &= 1 \\ f_v(\lambda x.t) &= f_v(t) \\ f_v(t_1 t_2) &= f_v(t_1) + f_v(t_2) \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} f_{@}(x) &= 0 \\ f_{@}(\lambda x.t) &= f_{@}(t) \\ f_{@}(t_1 t_2) &= 1 + f_{@}(t_1) + f_{@}(t_2) \end{cases}$$

How to prove that some property P(t) is valid for all  $\lambda$ -terms t?

- 1. Prove that  $\forall x \in \text{Var}, P(x)$  is valid
- 2. Prove that  $\forall x \in \text{Var}, \forall t, P(t) \Rightarrow P(\lambda x, t)$  is valid
- 3. Prove that  $\forall t_1, t_2, P(t_1) \land P(t_2) \Rightarrow P(t_1, t_2)$  is valid

**Example** – We want to prove  $H: \forall t, f_v(t) = 1 + f_{\odot}(t)$ 

**Proof** – We proof H by induction on the term t:

- t = x,  $f_v(x) = x$  and  $f_{@}(x) = 0$ , so we have  $f_v(x) = 1 + f_{@}(x)$
- $t = \lambda x.t$ , we assume that  $f_v(t) = 1 + f_{\mathbb{Q}}(t)$ . We calculate  $f_v(\lambda x.t) = f_v(t) = 1 + f_{\mathbb{Q}}(t) = 1 + f_{\mathbb{Q}}(\lambda x.t)$
- $t = t_1 \ t_2$ , we assume that  $f_v(t_1) = 1 + f_{@}(t_1)$  and  $f_v(t_2) = 1 + f_{@}(t_2)$ . By the calculation  $f_v(t_1 \ t_2) = f_v(t_1) + f_v(t_2) = 1 + f_{@}(t_1) + 1 + f_{@}(t_2) = 1 + f_{@}(t_1) + 1 + f_{@}(t_1) + 1 + f_{@}(t_2) = 1 + f_{@}(t_1) + f_{@}(t_1) + 1 + f_{@}(t_1) + f_{@}(t$

#### 2.2 Variables and substitutions

#### 2.2.1 Free and bound variables

To define more calculation operations, we define free variables and bound variables.

Informally, free variables are variables used, but linked to no lambda abstraction. While linked variables are those used and linked to a lambda abstraction.

Definition:

$$\begin{cases} fv(x) &= \{x\} \\ fv(\lambda x.t) &= fv(t) \setminus \{x\} \\ fv(u \ v) &= fv(u) \cup fv(v) \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} bv(x) &= \emptyset \\ bv(\lambda x.t) &= \{x\} \cup bv(t) \\ bv(u \ v) &= bv(u) \cup bv(v) \end{cases}$$

#### 2.2.2 Substitution

The substitution is an operation on  $\lambda$ -term. The aim is to replace the free occurrences of a variable x in term t with another  $\lambda$ -term u. It is noted :  $t\{x \leftarrow u\}$ . We can define this operation by induction on a  $\lambda$ -term :

$$y\{x \leftarrow y\} = \begin{cases} u & \text{if } x = y \\ y & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$$

$$(t_1 \ t_2)\{y \leftarrow u\} = t_1\{y \leftarrow u\} \ t_2\{y \leftarrow u\}$$

$$(\lambda y. \ t)\{x \leftarrow u\} = \begin{cases} \lambda y. \ t & \text{if } x = y \\ \lambda y. \ t\{x \leftarrow u\} & \text{if } x \neq y \text{ and } y \notin fv(u) \\ \lambda z. \ t\{y \leftarrow z\}\{x \leftarrow u\} & \text{if } x \neq y \text{ and } y \in fv(u) \end{cases}$$

**Barendregt's convention** The definition of substitution above is not very easy to handle. So we are going to use a convention to greatly simplify the substitution :

no variable name appears both free and bound in any given subterm

$$\begin{array}{c|c} Good & Not Good \\ \hline \lambda x. \ x \ (\lambda x. \ x) & \lambda x. \ (x \ (\lambda y. \ y)) \end{array}$$

The substitution definition become:

$$y\{x \leftarrow u\} = \begin{cases} u & \text{if } x = y \\ y & \text{if } x \neq y \end{cases}$$
$$(t_1 \ t_2)\{y \leftarrow u\} = t_1\{y \leftarrow u\} \ t_2\{y \leftarrow u\}$$
$$(\lambda y. \ t)\{x \leftarrow u\} = \lambda y. \ t\{x \leftarrow u\}$$

(Un)stability of Barendregt's convention Sometimes during the computation we need to change variables name to preserve the convention:

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

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

$$\rightarrow (\lambda yz. \ (\lambda yz. \ y \ z) \ z)$$
Wrong

#### 2.2.3 $\alpha$ -conversion

Two term can be structurally different, but with the same meaning  $(\lambda x.\ x$  and  $\lambda y.\ y)$ . We can therefore rename linked variables under certain conditions without changing the meaning of a lambda term. We call this operation  $\alpha$ -conversion or  $\alpha$ -renaming.

 $\alpha\text{-conversion definition}$  :

$$\lambda x. \ t =_{\alpha} \lambda y. \ x \leftarrow y$$
 with  $x, y \notin bd(t)$  and  $y \notin fv(t)$ 

The  $\alpha$ -conversion is a congruence :

$$t =_{\alpha} t' \Rightarrow \lambda x. \ t =_{\alpha} t'$$
  

$$t_1 =_{\alpha} t'_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \ t_2 =_{\alpha} t'_1 \ t_2$$
  

$$t_2 =_{\alpha} t'_2 \Rightarrow t_1 \ t_2 =_{\alpha} t_1 \ t'_2$$

From now on we assume that any term we work with satisfies Barendregt's convention.

#### Exercise 2.1 – Make them nice

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

Answer:

- $\lambda x. (\lambda x. x y)(\lambda y. x y) =_{\alpha} \lambda x. (\lambda z. z y)(\lambda w. x w)$
- $\lambda xy. \ x(\lambda y. \ (\lambda y. \ y) \ y \ z) =_{\alpha} \lambda xy. \ x(\lambda a. \ (\lambda t. \ t) \ a \ z)$

### Exercise 2.2 – Compute $(\lambda f. f f) (\lambda ab.b a b)$

Answer:

$$(\lambda f. f f) (\lambda a b. b a b) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda ab. b a b) (\lambda a b. b a b)$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda b. b (\lambda a b. b a b) b$$

$$=_{\alpha} \lambda b. b (\lambda x y. y x y) b$$

$$\rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda b. b (\lambda y. y b y)$$

## **Exercise 2.3** – Prove that $fv(t[x \leftarrow u]) \subseteq (fv(t) \setminus \{x\}) \cup fv(u)$

Answer: Proof by induction on the structure of t

- $\bullet$  Case where t is a variable
  - case x:  $fv(x\{x \leftarrow u\}) = fv(u) \subseteq (fv(t) \setminus \{x\} \cup fv(u)$
  - case  $y \neq x$ :  $fv(y\{x \leftarrow u\})fv(y) = \{y\}$  and  $\{y\}$  is indeed a subset of  $(fv(y)\setminus\{x\}) \cup fv(u) = \{y\} \cup fv(u)$ )
- case where t is an application  $t_1$   $t_2$ . Assume  $fv(t_1\{x \leftarrow y\}) \subseteq fv(t_1) \setminus \{x\} \cup fv(u)$  and  $fv(t_2\{x \leftarrow y\}) \subseteq fv(t_2) \setminus \{x\} \cup fv(u)$ . Then

$$\begin{split} &fv((t_1\ t_2)\{x\leftarrow u\})\\ &=fv(t_1\{x\leftarrow u\}\ t_2\{x\leftarrow u\})\\ &=fv(t_1\{x\leftarrow u\})\cup fv(t_2)\{x\leftarrow u\}) \\ &\subseteq fv(t_1\{x\}\cup fv(u)\cup fv(t_2\{x\}\cup fv(u)\\\\ &=fv(t_1\setminus \{x\}\cup fv(t_2)\setminus \{x\}\cup fv(u)\\\\ &=(fv(t_1\cup fv(t_2))\setminus \{x\}\cup fv(u)\\\\ &=(fv(t_1\ t_2)\setminus \{x\})\cup fv(u) \end{split}$$
 by definition of the substitution by definition of  $fv$ 

• Case where t is  $\lambda$ -abstraction  $\lambda y.t_0$ . Assume  $fv(t_0\{x \leftarrow u\} \subseteq (fv(t_0) \setminus \{x\} \cup fv(u))$ . Then

$$fv(\lambda y.t_0)\{x \leftarrow u\}$$

$$= fv(\lambda y.t_0\{x \leftarrow u\})$$

$$= fv(t_0\{x \leftarrow u\})\{y\}$$

$$\subseteq ((fv(t_0)\backslash\{x\}) \cup fv(u))\backslash\{y\}$$
 induction hypothesis
$$= (fv(t_0)\backslash\{x\}\backslash\{y\}) \cup fv(u)\backslash\{y\}$$

$$= (fv(t_0)\backslash\{x\}\backslash\{y\}) \cup fv(u)$$

$$= (fv(t_0)\backslash\{y\}\backslash\{x\}) \cup fv(u)$$

$$= (fv(\lambda y.t_0)\backslash\{x\} \cup fv(u)$$

**Exercise 2.4** – Prove when  $x \notin fv(v)$  and  $x \neq y$  then  $t\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\} = t\{y \leftarrow v\}\{x \leftarrow u\{y \leftarrow v\}\}\}$  Answer Proof by induction on t

• Case where t is a variable z:

-z = x:

$$x\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\}$$

$$= u\{y \leftarrow v\}$$

$$= x\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\}\}$$

$$= u\{y \leftarrow v\}$$

$$= u\{y \leftarrow v\}$$

-z = y:

$$\begin{array}{ll} y\{x\leftarrow u\}\{y\leftarrow v\} & y\{y\leftarrow v\}\{x\leftarrow u\{y\leftarrow v\}\} \\ = y\{y\leftarrow v\} & = v\{x\leftarrow u\{y\leftarrow v\}\} \\ = v & x \text{ is not free in } v \end{array}$$

 $-z \neq y$  and  $z \neq x$ :  $z\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\} = z$  and  $z\{y \leftarrow v\}\{x \leftarrow u\{y \leftarrow v\}\} = z$ 

•  $t = t_1 t_2$ :

$$\begin{split} &(t_1 \ t_2)\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\} \\ &t_1\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\} \ t_2\{x \leftarrow u\}\{y \leftarrow v\} \\ &t_1\{y \leftarrow v\}\{x \leftarrow u\{y \leftarrow v\}\} \ t_2\{y \leftarrow v\}\{x \leftarrow u\{y \leftarrow v\}\} \end{split} \qquad \text{induction hypothesis} \\ &(t_1 \ t_2)\{y \leftarrow v\}\{x \leftarrow u\{y \leftarrow v\}\} \end{split}$$

•  $t = \lambda z$ .  $t_0$ 

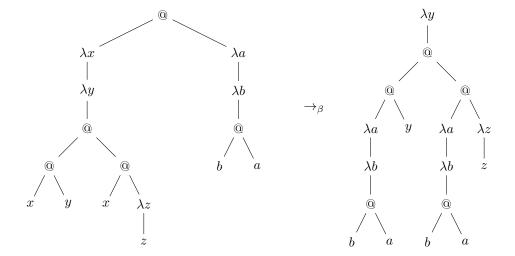
$$\begin{split} &(\lambda z.\ t_0)\{x\leftarrow u\}\{y\leftarrow v\}\\ &\lambda z.\ t_0\{x\leftarrow u\}\{y\leftarrow v\}\\ &\lambda z.\ t_0\{y\leftarrow v\}\{x\leftarrow u\{y\leftarrow v\}\} & \text{induction hypothesis}\\ &(\lambda z.\ t_0)\{y\leftarrow v\}\{x\leftarrow u\{y\leftarrow v\}\} \end{split}$$

## 2.3 $\beta$ -reduction

The  $\beta$ -reduction is a rewrite rule who apply an argument to a function. We need to have a  $\lambda$ -term on the form  $(\lambda x.\ t)\ u$ . This form is called a  $(\beta$ -redex). The computation rule is :

$$(\lambda x. t) u \rightarrow_{\beta} t \{x \leftarrow u\}$$

We can draw:



A  $\beta$ -reduction can be done anywhere in a term. We must therefore manage cases where a reduction is made after a lambda abstraction or in the left or right branch of an application. So we're going to describe our reduction using inference rule :

$$\frac{t \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad t'}{t u \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad t' u} \qquad \frac{u \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad u'}{t u \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad t u'}$$

$$\frac{t \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad t' u}{\lambda x. t \quad \rightarrow_{\beta} \quad \lambda x. t'}$$

#### 2.3.1 Position

We can locate the beta reduction by encoding the position of the reduction operation, we can rewrite the resets like this :

$$\frac{t \qquad \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow}_{\beta} \qquad t'}{t \ u \qquad \stackrel{1 \cdot p}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} \qquad t' \ u} \qquad \qquad \frac{u \qquad \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow}_{\beta} \qquad u'}{t \ u \qquad \stackrel{2 \cdot p}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} \qquad t \ u'}$$

$$\frac{t \qquad \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow}_{\beta} \qquad t' \ u}{\lambda x. \ t \qquad \stackrel{0 \cdot p}{\longrightarrow}_{\beta} \qquad \lambda x. \ t'}$$

### 2.3.2 Inductive reasoning on reduction

Since the  $\beta$ -reduction has been defined using inference rules, we can resonate by recurrence on the reduction. To prove a formula of the form :

$$\forall t, t', t \rightarrow_{\beta} t' \Rightarrow P(t, t')$$

we need to check the following four points:

- $P((\lambda x. t)u, t\{x \to u\})$  for any x, y and u
- $P(t \ u, t' \ u)$  for any t, t' and u such that P(t, t')
- $P(t \ u, t \ u')$  for any t, u and u' such that P(u, u')
- $P(\lambda x. t, \lambda x. t')$  for any x, t and u' such that P(t, t')

 $\mathbf{Example} - \mathbf{We}$  want to prove :

$$\forall t \ t', t \to t' \Rightarrow fv(t') \subseteq fv(t)$$

Proof by induction on the derivation of  $t \to t'$ .

•  $(\lambda x.\ t)\ u \to t\{x \leftarrow u\}$ . We already proved:  $fv(t\{x \leftarrow y\} \subseteq (fv(t)\setminus \{x\} \cup fv(u))$ . Moreover, we have

$$fv((\lambda x. t) u) = fv(\lambda x. t) \cup fv(u)$$
$$= (fv(t) \setminus \{x\}) \cup fv(u)$$

• t ut' u with  $t \to t'$ . Then

$$fv(t' u) = fv(t') \cup fv(u)$$

$$\subseteq fv(t)fv(u)$$

$$= fv(t u)$$

by definition by induction hypothesis by definition

- $t u' \to t u'$  with  $u \to u'$  similar.
- $\lambda x. t \to \lambda x. t'$  with  $t \to t'$ . Then

$$fv(\lambda x. t') = fv(t') \setminus \{x\}$$

$$\subseteq fv(t) \setminus \{x\}$$

$$= fv(\lambda x. t)$$

by definition by induction hypothesis by definition

## 2.3.3 Reduction sequences

Other reduction can be set above the beta reduction:

- $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  one step
- $\rightarrow_{\beta}^*$  reflexive transitive closure: 0, 1 or many steps
- $\bullet \leftrightarrow$  symmetric closure : one step, forward or backward.
- $=_{\beta}$  reflexive, symmetric, transitive closure (equivalence)

#### 2.3.4 Context

We can also formalize our reduction with a context that is intuitively a lambda term with a hole. So we have two steps, replace a variable with a hole and replace the hole with a lambda term. So there is no need for substitution.

We define a context with the following grammar:

The operation  $\mathcal{C}[u]$  is the result of filling the hole of  $\mathcal{C}$  with the term u.

**Exercise 2.5** – Here are some decompositions of  $\lambda x.(x \lambda y.xy)$  into a context and a term  $\mathcal{C}[u]$ 

What are the other possible decompositions?

We already showed that

$$(\lambda x.x ((\lambda y.zy)x))z \rightarrow (\lambda x.x (zx))z$$

What are the context and the redex associated to this reduction?

Answer Other decompositions of  $\lambda x.(x \lambda y.xy)$ 

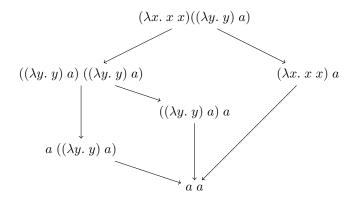
Decomposition of the reduction:

$$\mathcal{C}[(\lambda y.xy)x] \to \mathcal{C}[zx]$$

with 
$$C = (\lambda x.x \square) z$$

## 3 Reduction strategies

There are several possibilities when reducing terms. We can draw these possibilities in the form of a graph like this one:



This raises the questions :

- Are some paths better than others?
- Is there always a result in the? Is it unique?

#### 3.1 Normalization

A normal form is a term that cannot be reduced anymore, formally:  $N(t) = \neg \exists t', t \to t'$ .

Example - .

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \hline \text{normal form} & \text{not normal form} \\ \hline x & (\lambda x.x) \ y \\ \lambda x.xy & x \ ((\lambda y.y) \ (\lambda z.zx)) \\ x(\lambda y.y) \ (\lambda z.zx) & \end{array}$$

If  $t \to^* t'$  and t' is normal, the term t' is said to be a normal form of t. This defines our informal notion of a result of a term.

Some terms do not have a normal form :

$$\Omega = \delta \ \delta$$

$$= (\lambda x.xx) \ (\lambda x.xx)$$

$$\to (xx) \{\lambda x.xx\}$$

$$= x\{\lambda x.xx\} \ x\{\lambda x.xx\}$$

$$= (\lambda x.xx) \ (\lambda x.xx)$$

$$= \Omega$$

#### Normalization properties A term t is:

 $\bullet$  strongly normalizing if every reduction sequence starting from t eventually reaches a normal form :

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

•  $weakly\ normalizing$ , or normalizable, if there is at least one reduction sequence starting from t and reaching a normal form :

$$(\lambda xy.y) ((\lambda z.zz) (\lambda z.zz))$$

## 3.2 Reduction strategies

The purpose of a reduction strategy is to determine a redex reduction order within a term. We have two well-known reduction orders :

- Normal order: reduce the most external redex first. Apply functions without reducing the arguments
- Applicative order: reduce the most internal redex first. Normalize the arguments before reducing the function application itself.

Exercise 3.1 – normal order vs. applicative order.

Compare normal order reduction and applicative order reduction of the following terms :

- 1.  $(\lambda xy.x) z \Omega$
- 2.  $(\lambda x.xx)((\lambda y.y) z)$
- 3.  $(\lambda x.x(\lambda y.y))(\lambda z.(\lambda a.aa)(z\ b))$

In each case: does another order allow shorter sequences ? Answer

1. Normal order

$$(\lambda xy.x) z \Omega$$

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

$$\rightarrow z$$

Applicative order

$$(\lambda xy.x) z \Omega$$

$$\to (\lambda xy.x) \Omega$$

$$\to \dots$$

Normal order reduction is as short as possible.

2. Normal order

$$\begin{array}{l} (\lambda x.xx)\; ((\lambda y.y)\; z) \\ \rightarrow ((\lambda y.y)\; z)\; ((\lambda y.y)\; z) \\ \rightarrow z ((\lambda y.y)\; z) \\ \rightarrow zz \end{array}$$

Applicative order

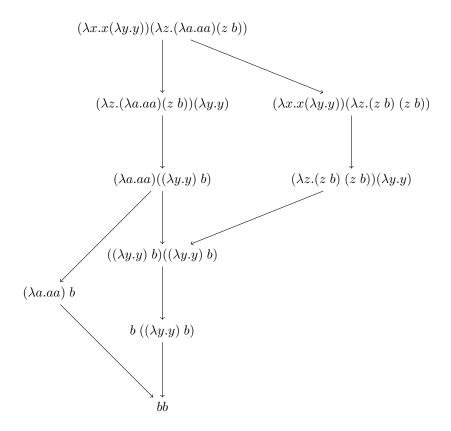
$$(\lambda x.xx) ((\lambda y.y) z)$$

$$\to (\lambda x.xx) z$$

$$\to zz$$

Applicative order reduction is as short as possible.

3. Reduction graph:



The middle path is the normal order strategy, the right path is the applicative order and the left path is the shortest reduction.

**Normal order property** If a term t does have a normal form the normal order reduction reaches this normal form.

## 3.3 Confluence