

Chapter 5: The Untyped Lambda Calculus

What is lambda calculus for? Basics: syntax and operational semantics Programming in the Lambda Calculus Formalities (formal definitions)



What is Lambda calculus for?



- A core calculus (used by Landin) for
 - capturing the language's essential mechanisms,
 - with a collection of convenient derived forms whose behavior is understood by translating them into the core
- A formal system invented in the 1920s by Alonzo Church (1936, 1941), in which all computation is reduced to the basic operations of function definition and application.





Basics







 The lambda-calculus (or λ-calculus) embodies this kind of function definition and application in the purest possible form.

t	::=	terms:
	x	variable
	λx.t	abstraction
	tt	application



Abstract Syntax Trees



• (st) u (or simply written as st u)





Abstract Syntax Trees

λx. (λy. ((x y) x))
(or simply written as λx. λy. x y x)











- An occurrence of the variable x is said to be bound when it occurs in the body t of an abstraction λx.t.
 - λx is a binder whose scope is t. A binder can be renamed: e.g., $\lambda x.x = \lambda y.y.$
- An occurrence of x is free if it appears in a position where it is not bound by an enclosing abstraction on x.
 - Exercises: Find free variable occurrences from the following terms: x y, λx.x, λy. x y, (λx.x) x.



Operational Semantics



• Beta-reduction: the only computation

$$(\lambda \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}_{12}) \mathbf{t}_2 \rightarrow [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{t}_2] \mathbf{t}_{12},$$

"the term obtained by replacing all free occurrences of x in t_{12} by t_2 " A term of the form ($\lambda x.t12$) t2 is called a redex.

• Examples:

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

 $(\lambda x. x (\lambda x. x)) (u r) \rightarrow u r (\lambda x. x)$





- Full beta-reduction
 - Any redex may be reduced at any time.
- Example:
 - Let id = $\lambda x.x$. We can apply beta reduction to any of the following underlined redexes:

id (id (λz . id z)) id ((id (λz . id z))) id (id (λz . id z))

Note: lambda calculus is confluent under full beta-reduction. Ref. Church-Rosser property.





- The normal order strategy
 - The leftmost, outmost redex is always reduced first.







- The call-by-name strategy
 - A more restrictive normal order strategy, allowing no reduction inside abstraction.

$$\frac{id (id (\lambda z. id z))}{id (\lambda z. id z)}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{id (\lambda z. id z)}{\lambda z. id z}$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda z. id z$$





- The call-by-value strategy
 - only outermost redexes are reduced and where a redex is reduced only when its right-hand side has already been reduced to a value, a term that cannot be reduced any more.

$$id (id (λz. id z))$$
→ $id (λz. id z)$
→ $\lambda z. id z$
→ $\lambda z. id z$





Programming in the Lambda Calculus

Multiple Arguments Church Booleans Pairs Church Numerals Recursion



Multiple Arguments



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



Church Booleans



• Boolean values can be encoded as:

tru = λ t. λ f. t fls = λ t. λ f. f

• Boolean conditional and operators can be encoded as:

test = λ l. λ m. λ n. l m n and = λ b. λ c. b c fls



Church Booleans



• An Example

test tru v w

- = $(\lambda 1. \lambda m. \lambda n. 1 m n) tru v w$
- \rightarrow (λm . λn . trum n) v w
- \rightarrow (λ n. tru v n) w
- → truvw

=
$$(\lambda t.\lambda f.t) v w$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda f. v) w$$





Church Numerals

• Encoding Church numerals:

$$\begin{array}{l} c_0 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ z; \\ c_1 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ s \ z; \\ c_2 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ s \ (s \ z); \\ c_3 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ s \ (s \ (s \ z)); \\ etc. \end{array}$$

• Defining functions on Church numerals:

```
succ = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z);
plus = \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z);
times = \lambda m. \lambda n. m (plus n) c0;
```



Church Numerals



- Can you define minus?
- Suppose we have pred, can you define minus?
 - $-\lambda m.\lambda n.n$ pred m
- Can you define pred?
 - $\lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. n (\lambda g. \lambda h. h (g s)) (\lambda u. z) (\lambda u. u)$
 - $(\lambda u. z)$ -- a wrapped zero
 - $(\lambda u. u)$ the last application to be skipped
 - $(\lambda g. \lambda h. h (g s))$ -- apply h if it is the last application, otherwise apply g
 - Try n = 0, 1, 2 to see the effect





Pairs

• Encoding

pair =
$$\lambda f.\lambda s.\lambda b.$$
 b f s;
fst = $\lambda p.$ p tru;
snd = $\lambda p.$ p fls;

• An Example

fst (pair v w)

= fst (
$$(\lambda f. \lambda s. \lambda b. b f s) v w$$
)

$$\rightarrow$$
 fst ((λ s. λ b. b v s) w)

=
$$(\lambda p. p tru) (\lambda b. b v w)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda b. b \vee w) tru$$



Recursion



- Terms with no normal form are said to diverge.
 omega = (λx. x x) (λx. x x);
- Fixed-point combinator

fix = $\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (\lambda y. x x y)) (\lambda x. f (\lambda y. x x y));$

Note: fix f = f(fix f)



Recursion



• Basic Idea:

A recursive definition: h = <body containing h>

g = λf . <body containing f> h = fix g



Recursion

• Example:

```
fac = \lambda n. if eq n c0
then c1
else times n (fac (pred n)
\int
g = \lambda f. \lambda n. if eq n c0
then c1
```

else times n (f (pred n)

fac = fix g

Exercise: Check that fac c3 \rightarrow c6.





Y Combinator



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

fix = $\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (\lambda y. x x y)) (\lambda x. f (\lambda y. x x y))$

• Why fix is used instead of Y?



Answer



fix = $\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (\lambda y. x x y)) (\lambda x. f (\lambda y. x x y))$

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

- Assuming call-by-value
 - (x x) is not a value
 - while (λy . x x y) is
 - Y will diverge for any f





Formalities (Formal Definitions)

Syntax (free variables) Substitution Operational Semantics







- **Definition** [Terms]: Let V be a countable set of variable names. The set of terms is the smallest set T such that
 - 1. $x \in T$ for every $x \in V$; 2. if $t_1 \in T$ and $x \in V$, then $\lambda x.t_1 \in T$; 3. If $t1 \in T$ and $t_2 \in T$, then $t_1 t_2 \in T$.
- Free Variables

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

$$FV(\lambda x.t_1) = FV(t_1) \setminus \{x\}$$

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



Substitution



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

Example:

$$[x \rightarrow y z] (\lambda y. x y)$$

= $[x \rightarrow y z] (\lambda w. x w)$
= $\lambda w. y z w$



Operational Semantics







Summary



- What is lambda calculus for?
 - A core calculus for capturing language essential mechanisms
 - Simple but powerful
- Syntax
 - Function definition + function application
 - Binder, scope, free variables
- Operational semantics
 - Substitution
 - Evaluation strategies: normal order, call-by-name, call-by-value



Homework



- Understand Chapter 5.
- Do exercise 5.3.6 in Chapter 5.

5.3.6 EXERCISE [★★]: Adapt these rules to describe the other three strategies for evaluation—full beta-reduction, normal-order, and lazy evaluation. □

