



Church's Lambda Calculus

A Quick Overview

CAS 701 Class Presentation
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- Lambda calculus is a formal system designed to investigate function definition, application and recursion.
- Proposed by Alonzo Church and Stephen Cole Kleene in the 1930s.
- Intended to investigate the foundations of mathematics, but has emerged as a useful tool in the investigation of problems in computability or recursion theory, and forms the basis of functional programming.
- Lambda calculus raised implementation issue for stack-based programming languages as it treats functions as first-class objects.
- Programming languages such as Lisp, Pascal, C++, Smalltalk and Eiffel have notions to support Lambda calculus.

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- A **name** or variable can be any letter a, b, c, ...
- The grammar is defined based on **expression**, where expression is:

$\langle \text{expression} \rangle ::= \langle \text{name} \rangle \mid \langle \text{function} \rangle \mid \langle \text{application} \rangle$

$\langle \text{function} \rangle ::= \lambda \langle \text{name} \rangle . \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

$\langle \text{application} \rangle ::= \langle \text{expression} \rangle \langle \text{expression} \rangle .$

- Abbreviation

- Ex. the function $f(x, y) = x - y$ would be written as $\lambda x. \lambda y. x - y$. A common convention is to abbreviate curried functions as $\lambda xy. x - y$.

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- Functions can be applied to expressions.
 - Ex. $(\lambda x.x)y$.
- Function applications are evaluated by reduction rules.
- Function application associates from the left, i.e. the expression
 $E_1 E_2 E_3 \dots E_n$
is evaluated as:
 $(\dots((E_1 E_2) E_3) \dots E_n)$.

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- A variable $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is **free** in an expression if one of the following three cases holds:
 - $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is free in $\langle \text{name} \rangle$
 - $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is free in $\lambda \langle \text{name}_1 \rangle. \langle \text{exp} \rangle$ if the identifier $\langle \text{name} \rangle \neq \langle \text{name}_1 \rangle$ and $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is free in $\langle \text{exp} \rangle$
 - $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is free in $E_1 E_2$ if $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is free in E_1 or if it is free in E_2 .
- A variable is **bound** if one of two cases holds:
 - $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is bound in $\lambda \langle \text{name}_1 \rangle. \langle \text{exp} \rangle$ if the identifier $\langle \text{name} \rangle = \langle \text{name}_1 \rangle$ or if $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is bound in $\langle \text{exp} \rangle$
 - $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is bound in $E_1 E_2$ if $\langle \text{name} \rangle$ is bound in E_1 or if it is bound in E_2 .

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Reduction Rules(1/2)



- Reduction: the process of evaluating a lambda expression.
- α -conversion: allows bound variable names to be changed.
 - Ex. α -conversion of $\lambda x.x$ would be $\lambda y.y$.
- η -conversion: two functions are the same if and only if they give the same result for all arguments. η -conversion converts between $\lambda x.fx$ and f whenever x does not appear free in f .

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Reduction Rules(2/2)



- Substitution: perform variable substitution for free variables. The precise definition must be careful in order to avoid accidental variable capture and is recursively defined as follows:
 - $x[x \mapsto N] \equiv N$
 - $y[x \mapsto N] \equiv y$, if $x \neq y$
 - $(M_1 M_2)[x \mapsto N] \equiv (M_1[x \mapsto N])(M_2[x \mapsto N])$
 - $(\lambda y. M)[x \mapsto N] \equiv \lambda y. (M[x \mapsto N])$, if $x \neq y$ and $y \notin \text{fv}(N)$
- β -reduction: expresses the idea of function application. The beta reduction of $((\lambda V. E) E')$ is simply $E[V \mapsto E']$.

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- Applying reduction rules does not always stop. The following is an example, which always reduces to itself:
 - $(\lambda x. xx)(\lambda x. xx)$.
- If a sequence of reductions has come to an end where no further reductions are possible, we say that the term has been reduced to **normal form**. As illustrated, not every term has a normal form.

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- Church numerals define numbers as follows:

- $0 := \lambda f x. x$
- $1 := \lambda f x. f x$
- $2 := \lambda f x. f (f x)$
- $3 := \lambda f x. f (f (f x))$

- We define the successor function as:

- $SUCC := \lambda n f x. f (n f x)$

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- Addition:

- $\lambda m n f x. n f (m f x)$
- $\lambda n m. m \text{ SUCC } n$

- Multiplication:

- $\lambda m n f. m (n f)$
- $\lambda m n. m (\text{PLUS } n) 0$

- Predecessor function is defined as

$\text{PERD} = \lambda n f x. n (\lambda g h. h (g f)) (\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u).$

- Subtraction function is defined as

$\lambda m n. n \text{ PRED } m.$

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- TRUE := $\lambda x y. x$
- FALSE := $\lambda x y. y$
- Logical Operators:
 - AND := $\lambda p q. p q p$
 - OR := $\lambda p q. p p q$
 - NOT := $\lambda p. \lambda a b. p b a$
 - IF THEN ELSE := $\lambda p a b. p a b$
- As an example:

AND TRUE FALSE

$$\begin{aligned} &\equiv (\lambda p q. p q p) \text{ TRUE FALSE} \rightarrow_{\beta} \text{ TRUE FALSE TRUE} \\ &\equiv (\lambda x y. x) \text{ FALSE TRUE} \rightarrow_{\beta} \text{ FALSE} \end{aligned}$$

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- Let us now construct a term for iteration to perform
 $I \ n \ f \ x = f (f (f \dots (f x) \dots))$
 $I = \lambda \ n \ f \ x. zero? n \ x (I (PRED n) f (f x))$
- If $n = 0$ then $\text{zero? } n \ x \ M$ will evaluate to x . If $n > 0$ then we iterate f ($n - 1$)-times on the argument $(f x)$.
- This definition of I uses I itself in the body. It does nothing else but add one further iteration to an assumed $(n - 1)$ -fold iteration.

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- We change the term on the right into a function which turns “n - 1-iterator” into “n-iterator”:
Let S be $\lambda M.(\lambda n f x. zero? n x (M (PRED n) f (f x)))$
- What we now seek is a term which is a **fixpoint** for S ,i.e.
 $I = S I$
- There are terms Y which construct a fixpoint for any term M , that is, they satisfy $Y M = M (Y M)$

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- In order to come up with a semantic, a set D should be found that is isomorphic to the function space $D \rightarrow D$, of functions on itself.
- The first set-theoretical model for untyped lambda calculus was made by Dana Scott in 1970s
- He introduced **continuos lattices** , that are
 - Algebraically: those complete lattices D where for every $y \in D$, $y = \bigvee \{\bigwedge U \mid y \in U \text{ and } U \text{ is Scott-open and } U \subseteq D\}$
 - Topologically: those T_0 -spaces such that every continuos $f : X \rightarrow D$ from a subspace $X \subseteq Y$ can be extended to a continuos $\bar{f} : Y \rightarrow D$.
- This work formed the basis for the denotational semantics of programming languages, fixed point combinators, and the domain theory.

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- A function $F : N \rightarrow N$ of natural numbers is a computable function iff there exists a lambda expression f such that for every pair of x, y in N , $F(x) = y$ iff $f x \rightarrow_{\beta} y$, where x and y are the Church numerals corresponding to x and y , respectively and \rightarrow_{β} meaning equivalence with β -reduction.
- Equivalent to Turing machines. A calculus is **Turing-complete** if it allows one to define all computable functions from N to N .
- Undecidability of equivalence.

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- **Confluence**: the result of a computation is independent from the order of reduction.
- Theorem (Church-Rosser) If a term M can be reduced (in several steps) to terms N and P, then there exists a term Q to which both N and P can be reduced (in several steps).
- β -reduction is confluent.
- Every λ -term has at most one normal form.

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- It is possible to write “sin log”, where the sine function is applied not to a number but to the logarithm function.
- Such terms do not make any sense at all, and any sensible programming language compiler would reject them as ill-formed.
- What is missing in the calculus is a **notion of type**. The type of a term should tell us what kind of arguments the term would accept and what kind of result it will produce.
 - For example, the type of the sine function should be “accepts real numbers and produces real number”.

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