



# Church's Lambda Calculus

## A Quick Overview

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Mohammad Hosein Yarmand  
Department of Computing & Software  
McMaster University

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

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- 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  $x \neq y$
  - $(M1M2)[x \mapsto N] \equiv (M1[x \mapsto N])(M2[x \mapsto N])$
  - $(\lambda y.M)[x \mapsto N] \equiv \lambda y.(M[x \mapsto N])$ , if  $x \neq y$  and  $y \notin fv(N)$
- $\beta$ -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  
$$\text{PERD} = \lambda n f x. n (\lambda g h. h (g f)) (\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u).$$
- Substraction function is defined as  
$$\lambda m n. n \text{ PRED } m.$$

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

AND TRUE FALSE

$\equiv (\lambda p q. p q p) \text{ TRUE FALSE} \rightarrow_{\beta} \text{ TRUE FALSE TRUE}$

$\equiv (\lambda x y. x) \text{ FALSE TRUE} \rightarrow_{\beta} \text{ FALSE}$

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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  $zero? \ n\ x\ M$  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  $\lambda M. (\lambda n f x. \text{zero? } n \ x \ (M \ (\text{PRED } n) \ f \ (f \ x)))$
- 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 **continuous 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 continuous  $f : X \rightarrow D$  from a subspace  $X \subseteq Y$  can be extended to a continuous  $\bar{f} : Y \rightarrow D$ .
- 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  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  meaning equivalence with  $\beta$ -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).
- $\beta$ -reduction is confluent.
- Every  $\lambda$ -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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