

# $\lambda$ -calculus

CS 4301/6371: Advanced Programming Languages

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## Historical Roots

First, some mathematical history...

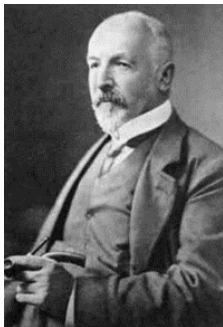
# Deductive Logic



- Euclid's *The Elements*
  - written c. 300 B.C.
  - deductive reasoning: 23 definitions, 10 axioms
  - geometry, algebra, number theory
  - foundation of western mathematics for about 2000 years
- Problem: Some theorems unprovable from axioms
  - Example: Two circles with centers closer than the sum of their radii have an intersection point.

# Set Theory

- First proposed by Georg Cantor in 1874
  - new foundation for mathematics
  - early versions contained paradoxes
    - Russel's Paradox: the set of all sets that do not contain themselves
- Deductive Set Theory
  - axiomized by Zermelo and Fraenkel between 1908 and 1930
  - Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory with axiom of choice (ZFC)
- Problem: some theorems still unprovable!
  - Example (Continuum Hypothesis): There is no set larger than  $\mathbb{N}$  but smaller than  $\mathbb{R}$ .



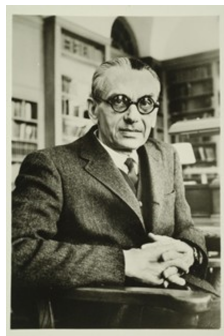
# Hilbert's Program

- Proposed by David Hilbert in 1921
- Goals:
  - Provide an unassailable foundation for all mathematics
  - Find a set of axioms and rules of logical inference sufficient to deductively prove all mathematical theorems.
- Required properties:
  - **Soundness:** no untrue statement provable
  - **Completeness:** all true statements provable
  - **Decidability:** procedure for determining whether any mathematical statement is true or false



# Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem

- Proved by Kurt Gödel in 1931
- Theorem: No finite collection of axioms is both sound and complete(!)
- Ramifications:
  - Given any sound axiomization of mathematics, there are true statements that are unprovable.
  - There exists no decision algorithm for mathematical truth.
- Essentially destroyed Hilbert's program
- Raised another question: What is decidable?



# Theory of Computation



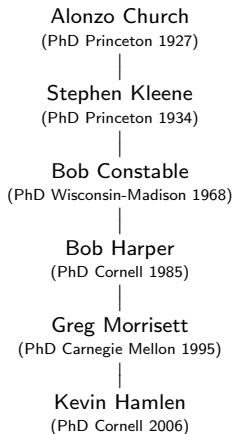
Alan Turing



Alonzo Church

- “Decide” = “Compute”
- 1936: Two models of “computation” proposed:
  - Turing Machines (Alan Turing)
  - $\lambda$ -calculus (Alonzo Church)
- Both models equivalent in power
- Church-Turing Thesis: All (reasonable) models of computation are equally powerful.
- Birth of Computer Science
  - Turing Machines = imperative programming
  - $\lambda$ -calculus = functional programming

## Fun Fact: My Mathematical Ancestry





# Today

Today:  $\lambda$ -calculus

# Syntax

$$e ::= v \mid \lambda v.e \mid e_1 e_2$$

Only three syntaxes:

- variables  $v$
- abstractions  $\lambda v.e$  (functions)
- applications  $e_1 e_2$

Some simple examples:

- $\lambda x.x$  (the identity function)
- $(\lambda x.x)(\lambda y.yy) \rightarrow_1 \lambda y.yy$
- $\lambda x.((\lambda y.y)x)$  does not reduce (already a value)

## Free Variables

Legal  $\lambda$ -expressions must be closed (no free variables), where we define the set of free variables  $FV(e)$  by

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

$$FV(\lambda v.e) = FV(e) \setminus \{v\}$$

$$FV(e_1 e_2) = FV(e_1) \cup FV(e_2)$$

We require  $FV(e) = \emptyset$ .

## Semantics

Small-step semantics of  $\lambda$ -calculus:

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow_1 e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow_1 e'_1 e_2} \qquad \frac{}{(\lambda v. e_1) e_2 \rightarrow_1 e_1[e_2/v]} (\beta\text{-reduction})$$

where notation  $e_1[e/v]$  denotes **capture-avoiding substitution**:

$$v[e/v] = e$$

$$v_1[e/v_2] = v_1 \text{ when } v_1 \neq v_2 \text{ (i.e., different variables)}$$

$$(\lambda v. e_1)[e/v] = \lambda v. e_1$$

$$(\lambda v_1. e_1)[e/v_2] = \lambda v_1. (e_1[e/v_2]) \text{ when } v_1 \neq v_2 \text{ (i.e. different variables)}$$

$$(e_1 e_2)[e/v] = (e_1[e/v])(e_2[e/v])$$

Intuition:  $e_1[e_2/x]$  means replace only the **free**  $x$ 's in  $e_1$  with  $e_2$ .

Optional exercise: Devise equivalent large-step and denotational semantics.

## Reduction example

$$((\lambda x. (\lambda y. (xy))) (\lambda y. y)) (\lambda z. z) \rightarrow_1 ?$$

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Important observations:

- Don't change any variable names as you evaluate!
- There are no stores involved here!
- Semantics of  $\lambda$ -calculus are based on capture-avoiding substitution, not stores or variable renaming.
- Function bodies never evaluate (even if they could) until their  $\lambda$ -binder gets stripped off (at which point they're not functions anymore).

Strategy: Pretend that " $\lambda v. e$ " is OCaml "`fun v → e`".

## Precedence and Associativity

Precedence and associativity conventions:

$\lambda v.e_1 e_2 = \lambda v.(e_1 e_2)$       (application binds tighter than abstraction)

$e_1 e_2 e_3 = (e_1 e_2) e_3$       (application associates left)

Parenthesize anything else that might be ambiguous.

## Encodings and Reductions

Amazing fact: This extremely simple language is Turing-complete (can perform any computation implementable by modern computers)!

Proof by reduction (recall from computability theory): Let's reduce a (simple) Turing-complete programming language to  $\lambda$ -calculus.

## Higher-arity Functions

$\lambda$ -calculus only gives us 1-argument functions  $\lambda v.e$ .

**Q:** How could I create a multi-argument function?

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**Q:** How could I create a multi-argument function?

**A:** Nest the  $\lambda$ 's:  $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.(\dots)$

**Definition (currying):** In functional programming, changing a function on tuple-arguments to use distinct (non-tuple) arguments is called *currying* the function.

Example:

Uncurried: `let add (x,y) = x+y;;`

Curried: `let add x y = x+y;;`

Benefits: More opportunities for code-reuse through partial evaluation, and more opportunities for compiler optimization through specialization

# Booleans

How might we encode boolean expressions as  $\lambda$ -terms? Let's start with constants and the ternary operator:

`true = ?`

`false = ?`

`$e_1 ? e_2 : e_3 = ?$`

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# Tuples

How might we encode pairs?

- The `pair` function should take two arguments (could be anything) and package them together into some kind of object.
- The  $\pi_1$  function (`fst` in OCaml) should accept a pair as input and recover (project out) the first element.
- The  $\pi_2$  function (`snd` in OCaml) should analogously project out the second element.

$$\text{pair} = (\lambda x. \lambda y. ?)$$
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$$\text{pair} = (\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda b. (b ? x : y))$$
$$\pi_1 = (\lambda p. p \text{ true})$$
$$\pi_2 = (\lambda p. p \text{ false})$$

## Natural Numbers

How might we encode natural numbers?

- Each number  $0_{\mathbb{N}}, 1_{\mathbb{N}}, 2_{\mathbb{N}}, \dots$  should be encoded as a  $\lambda$ -calculus **value** (must not reduce to something else).
- Approach: Encode  $0_{\mathbb{N}}$ , then code up a successor function  $\text{succ}_{\mathbb{N}}$ .
- Should also have predecessor  $\text{pred}_{\mathbb{N}}$  (don't care what it returns for  $0_{\mathbb{N}}$ )
- Also need a test  $\text{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}}$  (returns a boolean).

$$0_{\mathbb{N}} = ?$$

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# Natural Numbers

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Does  $\text{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}}(0_{\mathbb{N}})$  really work (should return `true`)?

$0_{\mathbb{N}} = (\lambda x.x)$  is not even a pair!

# Natural Numbers

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Does  $\text{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}}(0_{\mathbb{N}})$  really work (should return `true`)?

$$\text{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}}(0_{\mathbb{N}}) = \pi_1(\lambda x.x) = (\lambda p . p \text{ true})(\lambda x.x)$$

$$\rightarrow_1 (\lambda x.x) \text{ true}$$

$$\rightarrow_1 \text{ true}$$

It worked!\*

\*Warning: On the homework, I'll ask you to first fully expand all the encodings into pure  $\lambda$ -terms before doing any evaluation steps. I did it without expanding `true` here to illustrate a point, but technically I should have first expanded `true` into a  $\lambda$ -term before applying the small-step semantics of  $\lambda$ -calculus to a term containing it.

# Untypedness

## Take-aways:

- $\lambda$ -calculus is an **untyped** language.
  - Every syntactically legal, closed term evaluates to something.
  - Can do some very weird things (as we will see...)!
- There is a different language (which we will learn) called **typed**  $\lambda$ -calculus.
  - Don't confuse it with this language!
  - Watch out for web resources that look similar but that concern a different  $\lambda$ -calculus (there are many)!

# Loops

We're close to a full Turing-complete language now, but one major thing is missing: loops.

**Q:** Is it possible to code an infinite loop in  $\lambda$ -calculus?

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We're close to a full Turing-complete language now, but one major thing is missing: loops.

**Q:** Is it possible to code an infinite loop in  $\lambda$ -calculus?

**A:** Yes. Smallest example:  $(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$



# Recursion

What about useful loops?

Case-study: Can we code an addition function for natural numbers?

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Circular definition! Remember, the encoding part (=) is supposed to be a definition; it's not part of the  $\lambda$ -term.

How can we remove the recursion from this formula?

## Fixed points

$$\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}} = \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}} m ? n : \mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}} (\mathbf{pred}_{\mathbb{N}} m) (\mathbf{succ}_{\mathbb{N}} n))$$

Define a functional whose least fixed point is  $\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}}$ :

$$\mathbf{Add}_{\mathbb{N}} = \lambda f. \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}} m ? n : f (\mathbf{pred}_{\mathbb{N}} m) (\mathbf{succ}_{\mathbb{N}} n))$$

Then define  $\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}}$  to be its least fixed point:

$$\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}} = \mathit{fix} (\mathbf{Add}_{\mathbb{N}})$$

But  $\mathit{fix}$  is not part of  $\lambda$ -calculus, so we're still stuck...?

## Y-combinator

A very interesting function (discovered by Haskell Curry):

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

Amazing claim:  $Y = fix$

Proof: Let's evaluate it...

$$Y g \rightarrow_1 ?$$

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Proof: Let's evaluate it...

$$\begin{aligned} Y g &\rightarrow_1 (\lambda x. g(xx))(\lambda x. g(xx)) \\ &\rightarrow_1 g((\lambda x. g(xx))(\lambda x. g(xx))) = g(Y g) \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion:  $Y g$  is the least fixed point of  $g$ . (Whoa!)



## Solving Recursion Problems with Y

**Exercise:** Define an addition function in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

The following definition is illegal (not well-founded):

$$\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}} = \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}} m ? n : \mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}} (\mathbf{pred}_{\mathbb{N}} m) (\mathbf{succ}_{\mathbb{N}} n))$$

So instead define a functional whose least fixed point is  $\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}}$ :

$$\lambda f. \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}} m ? n : f (\mathbf{pred}_{\mathbb{N}} m) (\mathbf{succ}_{\mathbb{N}} n))$$

Then apply Y to it:

$$\mathbf{add}_{\mathbb{N}} = Y (\lambda f. \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_{\mathbb{N}} m ? n : f (\mathbf{pred}_{\mathbb{N}} m) (\mathbf{succ}_{\mathbb{N}} n)))$$

Now we have a legal definition of an addition function with no explicit recursions in it.

## Exercise: Multiplication

**Exercise:** Define a multiplication function for natural numbers in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

Try to define it recursively first:

$$\text{mul}_{\mathbb{N}} = \lambda m. \lambda n.$$

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**Exercise:** Define a multiplication function for natural numbers in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

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## Exercise: Multiplication

**Exercise:** Define a multiplication function for natural numbers in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

Try to define it recursively first:

$$\mathbf{mul}_N = \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_N m ? 0_N : \mathbf{add}_N(\mathbf{mul}_N(\mathbf{pred}_N m)n)n)$$

Then change it to a non-recursive functional and apply  $Y$  to it:

$$\mathbf{mul}_N = Y(\lambda f. \lambda m. \lambda n. (\mathbf{iszero}_N m ? 0_N : \mathbf{add}_N(f(\mathbf{pred}_N m)n)n))$$

## Readability

When solving these sorts of problems on homeworks, quizzes, and exams:

- Please DO use the abbreviations in your code.
  - Don't write  $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x)$  when you mean `true`.
  - Strive for readability (otherwise becomes very hard to grade!).
- Please DO define named helper functions.
  - Less writing is good; don't repeatedly write out same subroutine.
  - But any recursions must always be eliminated with  $Y$ .
  - Use informative names (not  $f$ ).
- Don't name variables the same as any helper functions (really confusing!).
- $\lambda$ -calculus is a math formalism not a modern language, so extra effort is required to make it readable.

## Equality

$\lambda$ -terms are ASTs. They are only “equal” ( $=$ ) if they are identical after expansion of all macro abbreviations.

(Also recall that the parentheses are not symbols in the AST; they just show the structure of the AST.)

Examples:

$(\lambda y.y)(\lambda x.x) \neq \lambda x.x$       (though they evaluate to the same terms)

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

$\lambda x.x \neq \lambda y.y$

However, there are some notions of term **equivalence** that are important to understand.

## $\alpha$ -equivalence

**Definition ( $\alpha$ -equivalence):** Term  $\lambda x.e$  is  $\alpha$ -equivalent to term  $\lambda y.(e'[y/x])$  (written  $\lambda x.e \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y.(e'[y/x])$ ) whenever  $e \equiv_{\alpha} e'$  (recursively).

Intuition: Terms that are identical except for consistent, capture-avoiding renaming of the variables are  $\alpha$ -equivalent.

Examples:

$$\lambda x.x \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y.y$$

$$\lambda x.\lambda x.x \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y.\lambda x.x$$

$$\lambda x.\lambda x.x \not\equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y.\lambda x.y$$

Colloquially: Functional programmers refer to renaming their variables as “ $\alpha$ -conversion”.

## $\beta$ -equivalence

**Definition ( $\beta$ -equivalence):** Terms  $(\lambda v.e_1)e_2$  and  $e_1[e_2/x]$  are  $\beta$ -equivalent (written  $(\lambda v.e_1)e_2 \equiv_{\beta} e_1[e_2/x]$ ).

Intuition: An application of a function  $f$  to an argument  $a$  is  $\beta$ -equivalent to a term consisting of the body of  $f$  with all its parameters replaced with the argument term  $a$ .

Examples:

$$(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.y) \equiv_{\beta} (\lambda y.y)(\lambda y.y)$$

$$(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.y) \equiv_{\beta} \lambda y.y \quad \text{(by transitivity)}$$

$$((\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.y))(\lambda z.z) \not\equiv_{\beta} ((\lambda y.y)(\lambda y.y))(\lambda z.z)$$

The last example is because that reduction doesn't only use the  $\beta$ -rule. In that case the left subterms are  $\beta$ -equivalent, but not the full-sized terms that contain them.



## $\eta$ -equivalence

**Definition ( $\eta$ -equivalence):** Terms  $\lambda v.(fv)$  and  $f$  are  $\eta$ -equivalent (written  $\lambda v.(fv) \equiv_{\eta} f$ ) if  $v \notin FV(f)$ .

Intuition: A “wrapper function” that merely applies some other function  $f$  to whatever argument it receives is equivalent to just  $f$ .

Example:

$$\lambda n . \text{pair false } n \equiv_{\eta} \text{pair false}$$

Example from OCaml:

```
let sum x = List.fold_left (+) 0 x;;  
            $\equiv_{\eta}$   
let sum = List.fold_left (+) 0;;
```

## Equivalence vs. Operational and Denotational Semantics

Don't confuse equivalence with the operational semantics of  $\lambda$ -calculus:

- Only  $\beta$ -equivalence is a rule of the operational semantics.
  - $\alpha$ -equivalent terms don't always evaluate to the same final terms (variables might be different, which makes them different ASTs).
  - $\beta$ -equivalent terms do always evaluate to the same terms.
  - $\eta$ -equivalent terms "behave the same" when applied, but  $\eta$ -equivalence is not a reduction step of  $\lambda$ -calculus.
- There is no  $=$  or  $\equiv$  test operation in  $\lambda$ -calculus!
  - The following is NOT a legal  $\lambda$ -term:

$$\lambda x.\lambda y.(x = y) ? \text{true} : \text{false}$$

- It is impossible to code up such an operation (exercise: prove it!).
- In denotational semantics,  $\lambda$ -terms denote (mathematical) functions.
  - In math we have another definition of functional equivalence (identical input-output relations).
  - But functional equivalence is not decidable (Rice's Theorem).
  - And equivalence of  $\lambda$ -term *denotations* is NOT the same as equivalence of the terms themselves.