

# The Lambda Calculus

## Principles of Programming Languages

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<https://lambda.mines.edu>

# The Lambda Calculus

The  $\lambda$ -calculus is a mathematical language of **lambda terms** bound by a set of transformation rules. The  $\lambda$ -calculus notation was introduced in the 1930s by Alonzo Church.

Just like programming languages, the  $\lambda$ -calculus has rules for what is a valid syntax:

*Variables:* A variable (such as  $x$ ) is valid term in the  $\lambda$ -calculus.

*Abstractions:* If  $t$  is a term and  $x$  is a variable, then the term  $\lambda x.t$  is a lambda abstraction.

*Applications:* If  $t$  and  $s$  are terms, then  $ts$  is the application term of  $t$  onto  $s$ .

# Anonymous Functions

**Lambda abstractions** can be thought of as anonymous functions in the  $\lambda$ -calculus.

A lambda abstraction which takes an  $x$  and returns a  $t$  is written as so:

$$\lambda x.t$$

## Example

Suppose in mathematics we define a function  $f(x) = x + 2$ . This could be written as  $(\lambda x.x + 2)$  in the  $\lambda$ -calculus<sup>1</sup>. Of course, this function is anonymous and not bound to the name  $f$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Of course, we haven't said that either  $+$  nor  $2$  is valid in lambda calculus yet. We will get to that...

# Functions are First Class

In the  $\lambda$ -calculus, abstractions are not only first class functions, they are our only way of to encode data.

Abstractions are used to encode everything:

- Numbers
- Booleans (true/false)
- Conses
- ...

Since abstractions in the  $\lambda$ -calculus may only take one argument, currying is typically used to denote functions of multiple arguments. For example, the function  $f(x, y) = x$  might be written as:

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

Further, function application is left-associative, so  $fxy$  means  $(fx)y$ .

# Free and Bound Variables

The  $\lambda$  operator (which creates lambda abstractions) binds a variable to wherever it occurs in the expression.

- Variables which are bound in an expression are called **bound variables**
- Variables which are not bound in an expression are called **free variables**

## Example

With your learning group, identify the free and bound variables in this expression:

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

*$\alpha$ -conversion:* Allows variables to be renamed to non-colliding names.

*For example,  $\lambda x.x$  is  $\alpha$ -equivalent to  $\lambda y.y$ .*

*$\beta$ -reduction:* Allows functions to be applied. For example,  $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x)(\lambda x.x)$  is  $\beta$ -equivalent to  $\lambda y.(\lambda x.x)$ .

*$\eta$ -conversion:* Allows functions with the same external properties to be substituted. For example,  $(\lambda x.(fx))$  is  $\eta$ -equivalent to  $f$  if  $x$  is not a free variable in  $f$ .

# Examples: Alpha Equivalence

With your learning group, identify if each of the following are a valid  $\alpha$ -conversion. Turn in your answers on a sheet of paper with all of your names at the end of class for learning group participation credit for today.

1  $\lambda x. \lambda x. x \rightarrow \lambda y. \lambda y. y$

2  $\lambda x. \lambda x. x \rightarrow \lambda y. \lambda x. x$

3  $\lambda x. \lambda x. x \rightarrow \lambda y. \lambda x. y$

4  $\lambda x. \lambda y. x \rightarrow \lambda y. \lambda y. y$

# Examples: Beta Reductions

Fully  $\beta$ -reduce each of the following expressions:

5  $(\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda f. fxy)(\lambda x. \lambda y. y)(\lambda x. \lambda y. x)(\lambda x. \lambda y. y)$

6  $(\lambda a. \lambda b. a(\lambda b. \lambda f. \lambda x. f(bfx)))b(\lambda f. \lambda x. fx)(\lambda f. \lambda x. f(fx))$

# Church Numerals

Since all data in the  $\lambda$ -calculus must be a function, we use a clever convention of functions (called **Church numerals**) to define numbers:

$$0: \lambda f. \lambda x. x$$

$$1: \lambda f. \lambda x. fx$$

$$2: \lambda f. \lambda x. f(fx)$$

$$3: \lambda f. \lambda x. f(f(fx))$$

... and so on. In fact, the successor to any number  $n$  can be written as:

$$\lambda f. \lambda x. f(nfx)$$

## Notice this

Defining numbers as functions in this way allows us to apply a Church numeral  $n$  to a function to get a new function that applies the original function  $n$  times.

# Shorthand Notations

While it's not a defined part of the  $\lambda$ -calculus, we define common shorthands for some features:

- $0, 1, 2, \dots$  are shorthand for their corresponding Church numerals
- $\{\text{SUCC}\} = \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. f(nfx)$

## Note

The notation "=" above is not a part of the  $\lambda$ -calculus. I'm using it for saying "is shorthand for".

# Addition and Multiplication

Adding  $m$  to  $n$  can be thought of as taking the successor to  $n$ ,  $m$  times. Using our shorthand `SUCC`, this can be written as:

$$\{\text{ADD}\} = \lambda m. \lambda n. (m \{\text{SUCC}\} n)$$

Similarly, multiplying  $m$  by  $n$  can be thought of as repeating `ADD`  $n$ ,  $m$  times and then applying it to 0, this can be written as:

$$\{\text{MULT}\} = \lambda m. \lambda n. (m(\{\text{ADD}\} n)0)$$

# Boolean Logic

We use the following convention for true and false:

$$\{\text{TRUE}\} = \lambda x.\lambda y.x$$

$$\{\text{FALSE}\} = \lambda x.\lambda y.y \quad (\text{Church numeral zero})$$

From here, we can define some common boolean operators:

$$\{\text{AND}\} = \lambda p.\lambda q.pqp$$

$$\{\text{OR}\} = \lambda p.\lambda q.ppq$$

$$\{\text{NOT}\} = \lambda p.p \{\text{FALSE}\} \{\text{TRUE}\}$$

$$\{\text{IF}\} = \lambda p.\lambda a.\lambda b.pab$$

(returns  $a$  if the predicate is TRUE,  $b$  otherwise)

By convention, we will represent a cons cell as a function that applies its argument to the CAR and CDR of the cons cell. This leads to the shorthand:

$$\{\text{CONS}\} = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda f. fxy$$

$$\{\text{CAR}\} = \lambda c. c \{\text{TRUE}\}$$

$$\{\text{CDR}\} = \lambda c. c \{\text{FALSE}\}$$

$$\{\text{NIL}\} = \lambda x. \{\text{TRUE}\}$$

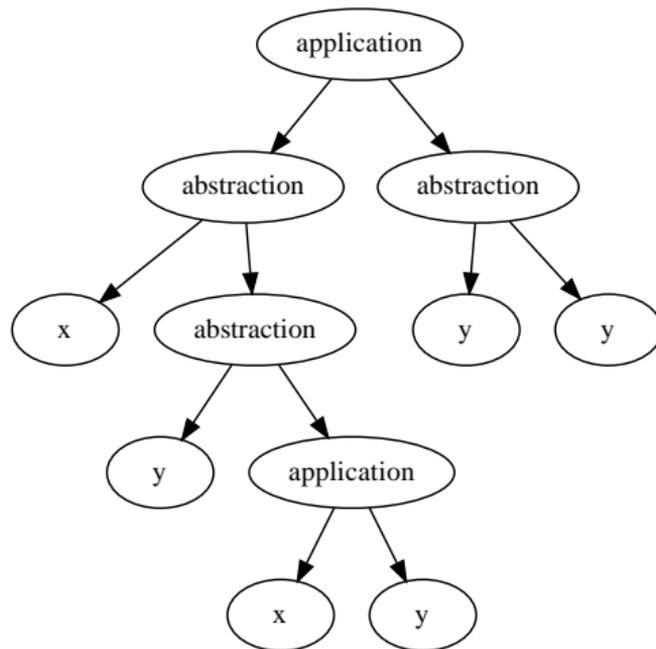
Using this, we can define lists:

$$(\{\text{CONS}\} 1 (\{\text{CONS}\} 2 (\{\text{CONS}\} 3 \{\text{NIL}\})))$$

# Lambda Calculus Computational Model

- In order to have a computer do  $\beta$ -reductions, we need to define a model to represent terms on a computer. (AST!)
- For example:  $(\lambda x. \lambda y. xy)(\lambda y. y)$
- Could also be written as s-expression:

```
(application
  (abstraction
    x
    (abstraction
      y
      (application x y))))
(abstraction y y)
```



# Beta Reduction Algorithm (Eager)

To  $\beta$ -reduce a term  $t$ :

- 1 If  $t$  is a variable, it is already reduced. Return  $t$ .
- 2 If  $t$  is an application:
  - 1  $\beta$ -reduce the left hand and right hand sides and let  $m$  and  $n$  be the results, respectively.
  - 2 If  $m$  is an abstraction, return the beta reduction of  $m$ 's term with all instances of  $m$ 's variable replaced with  $n$ .
  - 3 Otherwise, return the application of  $m$  onto  $n$ .
- 3 If  $t$  is an abstraction,  $\beta$ -reduce the term of the abstraction and return the abstraction.

# Lazy Algorithm Motivation

While the eager algorithm will produce the correct results, we may end up evaluating terms we did not need to. For example, consider:

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. y) \underbrace{((\lambda m. \lambda n. m(\lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. f(nfx))) n) (\lambda f. \lambda x. f(fx)) (\lambda f. \lambda x. f(f(fx))))}_{x} \underbrace{(\lambda x. x)}_y$$

We don't want to have to spend all of that work evaluating  $x$  if we did not need to!

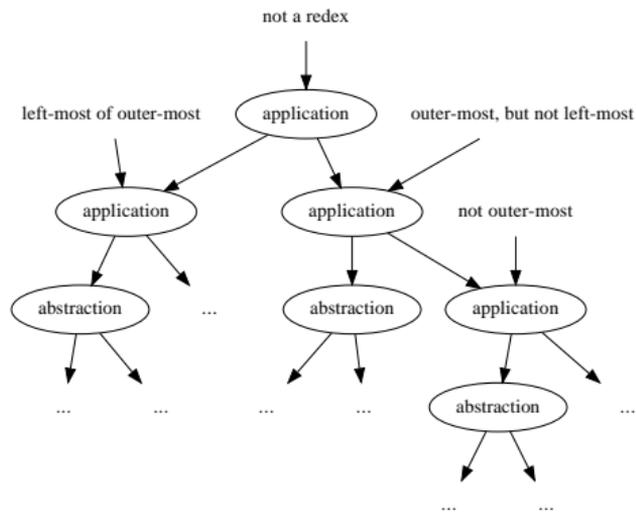
# Reducible Expressions

## Definition

A **reducible expression** (called *redex* for short) is an application with an abstraction as its left child.

In order to implement lazy evaluation, we will need to concern ourselves with the **left-most** of the **outer-most** redexes.

A redex is outer-most if it can be reached from the root of the tree without going through another redex.



# Beta Reduction Algorithm (Lazy)

To lazy  $\beta$ -reduce a term:

- 1 Find the left-most of the outer-most redexes in the abstract syntax tree and perform a substitution to complete the application.
- 2 If any redexes remain, go to step 1.

# Is substitution always safe?

Consider the following (naïve) substitution procedure for a term  $t$  for a variable  $v$  with replacement  $r$ :

- If  $t$  is an **application**, substitute  $v$  for  $r$  onto the left and right sides.
- If  $t$  is an **abstraction** whose variable is  $v$ , return the abstraction unaltered.
- If  $t$  is an **abstraction** whose variable is not  $v$ , return the abstraction with  $v$  substituted for  $r$  onto the abstraction's term.
- If  $t$  is a **variable** which is  $v$ , return  $r$ .
- If  $t$  is a **variable** which is not  $v$ , return  $v$ .

*What could possibly go wrong?*

# Alpha Renames in Substitutions

Suppose we wish to  $\beta$ -reduce the following term:

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

Using the previous (simple) rules of substitution with our  $\beta$ -reduction algorithm, we end up with this:

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

**Oops.** The binding changed! These terms are *not* equivalent.

**How to solve?**  $\alpha$ -rename.

# Alpha Renaming Condition

We must perform an  $\alpha$ -rename in order to perform a substitution of  $v$  for  $r$  in  $t$  if and only if all of the below are true:

- 1  $t$  is an abstraction.
- 2  $t$ 's variable is not  $v$ .
- 3  $v$  is a free variable in  $t$ 's term.
- 4  $t$ 's variable appears at least once as a free variable in  $r$ .

(revisit example on previous slide)

# Lambda Calculus: Where from Here?

- Subtraction is hard, but doable. Check out the Wikipedia page on Church Numerals for more info.
- For recursion, we need to reference ourselves in a lambda abstraction. This is done using a Y-combinator.
- From there, we can use the  $\lambda$ -calculus to compute the solution to any problem that a Turing machine can.
- More on all of this in CSCI-561 (Theory of Computation).
- Many functional programming languages (e.g., Haskell, Scheme, SlytherLisp) are just practical implementations of the  $\lambda$ -calculus.