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$\lambda$ -calculus

lecture 1

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# overview

- introduction
- terms
- reduction
- fixed point combinators
- Curry's paradox
- definability

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# $\lambda$ -calculus



**inventor:** Alonzo Church (1936)

a language expressing functions or algorithms

concept of computability and basis of functional programming

a language expressing proofs

untyped and typed

## historical note: notation for functions

Frege defined the graph of a function (1893)

Russell and Whitehead and Russell (1910)

Schönfinkel defined function calculus (1920)

Curry defined combinatory logic (1920)

# Combinatory Logic (CL)



inventor            **Moses Schönfinkel** (1924)

rewrite rules

$$\begin{aligned} I X &\rightarrow X \\ (K X) Y &\rightarrow X \\ ((S X) Y) Z &\rightarrow (X Z) (Y Z) \end{aligned}$$

rewriting

**I can be defined**

$$S K K x \rightarrow (K x) (K x) \rightarrow x$$

**rewriting may be infinite**

$$\begin{aligned} (S I I) (S I I) &\rightarrow I (S I I) (I (S I I)) \rightarrow \\ (S I I) (I (S I I)) &\rightarrow (S I I) (S I I) \end{aligned}$$

## play with combinators

define  $D = S I I$

then  $D x =_{CL} x x$

define  $B = S (K S) K$

then  $B f g x =_{CL} f (g x)$

define  $L = D (B D D)$

then  $L =_{CL} L L$

## extending and restricting

extending CL leads to first-order rewriting

restricting CL leads to studying the rule for S

extending  $\lambda$  leads to higher-order rewriting

slogan-like:  $\lambda : HRS = CL : TRS$



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## notation for (anonymous) functions

mathematical notation:

$$f : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$$
$$f(x) = \text{square}(x)$$

or also:

$$f : \text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}$$
$$f : x \mapsto \text{square}(x)$$

lambda notation:

$$\lambda x. \text{square } x$$

we start with the **untyped**  $\lambda$ -calculus

## lambda terms: intuition

### abstraction:

$\lambda x. M$  is the function mapping  $x$  to  $M$

$\lambda x. x$  is the function mapping  $x$  to  $x$

$\lambda x. \text{square } x$  is the function mapping  $x$  to square  $x$

### application:

$F M$  is the application of the function  $F$  to its argument  $M$

(not the result of applying)

## lambda terms: inductive definition

we assume a countably infinite set of variables  $(x, y, z \dots)$

sometimes we in addition assume a set of constants

the set of  $\lambda$ -terms is defined inductively by the following clauses:

a **variable**  $x$  is a  $\lambda$ -term

a **constant**  $c$  is a  $\lambda$ -term

if  $M$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, then  $(\lambda x. M)$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, called an **abstraction**

if  $F$  and  $M$  are  $\lambda$ -terms, then  $(F M)$  is a  $\lambda$ -term, called an **application**

## famous terms

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

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

$$S = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. (x z) (y z) = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z (y z)$$

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

omit outermost parentheses

application is associative to the left

abstraction is associative to the right

lambda extends to the right as far as possible

## terms as trees



a subterm corresponds to a subtree

subterms of  $\lambda x.y$  are  $\lambda x.y$  and  $y$

## bound variables: definition

$x$  is bound by the first  $\lambda x$  above it in the term tree

examples: the underlined  $x$  is bound in

$\lambda x. \underline{x}$

$\lambda x. \underline{x} \underline{x}$

$(\lambda x. \underline{x}) x$

$\lambda x. y \underline{x}$

$\lambda x. \lambda x. \underline{x}$

## free variables: definition

a variable that is not bound is free

alternatively: define recursively the set  $FV(M)$  of free variables of  $M$ :

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

$$FV(c) = \emptyset$$

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

$$FV(F P) = FV(F) \cup FV(P)$$

a term is **closed** if it has no free variables



## currying

reduce a function with several arguments to functions with single arguments

example:

$f : x \mapsto x + x$  becomes  $\lambda x. x + x$

$g : (x, y) \mapsto x + y$  becomes  $\lambda x. \lambda y. x + y$ , **not**  $\lambda(x, y). \text{plus } x y$

partial application:

$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x + y) 3$

history:

due to Frege, Schönfinkel, and Curry

related to the isomorphism between  $A \times B \rightarrow C$  and  $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

## towards computation

we will use terms to compute, as for example in

$$(\lambda x. f x) 5 \rightarrow_{\beta} (f x)[x := 5] = f 5$$

the definition of substitution requires more preparation

intuitive meaning of  $M[x := N]$  :

the result of replacing in  $M$  all free occurrences of  $x$  by  $N$

## substitution: recursive definition

substitution in a variable or a constant:

$$x[x := N] = N$$

$a[x := N] = a$  with  $a \neq x$  a variable or a constant

substitution in an application:

$$(P Q)[x := N] = (P[x := N]) (Q[x := N])$$

substitution in an abstraction:

$$(\lambda x. P)[x := N] = \lambda x. P$$

$(\lambda y. P)[x := N] = \lambda y. (P[x := N])$  if  $x \neq y$  and  $y \notin \text{FV}(N)$

$(\lambda y. P)[x := N] = \lambda z. (P[y := z][x := N])$   
if  $x \neq y$  and  $z \notin \text{FV}(N) \cup \text{FV}(P)$  and  $y \in \text{FV}(N)$

## substitution: examples

$$(\lambda x. x)[x := c] = \lambda x. x$$

$$(\lambda x. y)[y := c] = \lambda x. c$$

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

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda w. v w x))[x := u v] = \lambda y. u v (\lambda w. v w (u v))$$

$$(\lambda y. x (\lambda x. x))[x := \lambda y. x y] = \lambda y. (\lambda y. x y) (\lambda x. x)$$

# alpha conversion

## intuition:

bound variables may be renamed

## example:

$$\lambda x. x =_{\alpha} \lambda y. y$$

## definition $\alpha$ -conversion axiom:

$$\lambda x. M =_{\alpha} \lambda y. M[x := y] \text{ with } y \notin FV(M)$$

## definition $\alpha$ -equivalence relation $=_{\alpha}$ : on terms

$P =_{\alpha} Q$  if  $Q$  can be obtained from  $P$

by finitely many 'uses' of the  $\alpha$ -conversion axiom

that is: by finitely many renamings of bound variables in context

## alpha equivalence classes

we identify  $\alpha$ -equivalent  $\lambda$ -terms

just as we identify  $f : x \mapsto x^2$  and  $f : y \mapsto y^2$

and  $\forall x. P(x)$  is  $\forall y. P(y)$

we work with equivalence classes modulo  $\alpha$

## examples

which of the following pairs of terms are  $\alpha$ -equivalent?

$\lambda x. x y$  and  $\lambda y. y y$

$\lambda x. x y$  and  $\lambda u. u y$

$\lambda x. x y$  and  $\lambda x. x u$

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

## alpha-conversion and substitution: intuitive approach

we defined first substitution  $[x := P]$  and then  $\alpha$  using substitution  $[x := y]$

an alternative intuitive approach:

define  $\alpha$  as renaming of bound variables

work modulo  $\alpha$

define substitution  $M[x := N]$  using renaming of bound variables:

replace all free occurrences of  $x$  in  $M$  by  $N$ ,

rename bound variables if necessary

example:  $(\lambda x.y)[y := x] =_{\alpha} (\lambda x'.y)[y := x] = \lambda x'.x$



now we know the statics of the lambda-calculus

we consider  $\lambda$ -terms modulo  $\alpha$ -conversion

application and abstraction

bound and free variables

currying

substitution

we continue with the dynamics:  $\beta$ -reduction

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## definition beta reduction

the  $\beta$ -reduction rule:  $(\lambda x. M) N \rightarrow_{\beta} M[x := N]$

here we have the following:

$x$  is a variable

$M$  and  $N$  are terms

$[x := N]$  is the substitution of  $N$  for  $x$

## definition beta reduction

the  $\beta$ -reduction rule:  $(\lambda x. M) N \rightarrow_{\beta} M[x := N]$

the beta-reduction relation is obtained using

$$\frac{M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'}{\lambda x. M \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x. M'}$$

$$\frac{M \rightarrow_{\beta} M'}{M N \rightarrow_{\beta} M' N}$$

$$\frac{N \rightarrow_{\beta} N'}{M N \rightarrow_{\beta} M N'}$$

## beta reduction: examples

$$(\lambda x. x) y \rightarrow_{\beta} x[x := y] = y$$

$$(\lambda x. x x) y \rightarrow_{\beta} (x x)[x := y] = y y$$

$$(\lambda x. x z) y \rightarrow_{\beta} (x z)[x := y] = y z$$

$$(\lambda x. z) y \rightarrow_{\beta} z[x := y] = z$$

$$\Omega = (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega$$

$$K I \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} K I \Omega \text{ and also } K I \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. I) \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} I$$

# terminology and notation as for TRSs

$\beta$ -redex

$\beta$ -reduction step  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$

$\beta$ -reduction sequence or  $\beta$ -rewrite sequence  $\rightarrow_{\beta}^*$

$\beta$ -conversion  $=_{\beta}$

$\beta$ -normal form (NF)

strongly normalizing (SN) or terminating

weakly normalizing (WN)

# beta reduction

is a model of computation

is non-deterministic

however: gives unique normal forms

see: **confluence**

is non-terminating

however: there are normalizing strategies

see: **strategies**

we really need renaming

$\alpha$  is a source of problems but we cannot do without:

$$(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda s. \lambda z. s z) \rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$(\lambda s. \lambda z. s z) (\lambda s. \lambda z. s z) \rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$\lambda z. (\lambda s. \lambda z. s z) z \rightarrow_{\beta}$$

$$\lambda z. \lambda z'. z z'$$



## De Bruijn notation

instead of names use a reference to the binding  $\lambda$

$\lambda x. x$  is  $\lambda 1$

$\lambda x. \lambda y. x$  is  $\lambda \lambda 2$

another rule: eta

$$\lambda x. M x \rightarrow_{\eta} M \quad \text{if } x \text{ not free in } M$$

we do *not* have the step:

$$\lambda x. x x \rightarrow_{\eta} x$$

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## fixed point

### definition:

$x \in A$  is a fixed point of  $f : A \rightarrow B$  if  $f(x) = x$

### examples:

0 and 1 are fixed points of  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $x \mapsto x^2$

### for $\lambda$ -calculus:

$M$  is a fixed point of  $F$  if  $F M =_{\beta} M$

### example:

every term  $M$  is a fixed point of  $I$  because  $I M =_{\beta} M$

# fixed point combinator

## definition:

$Y$  is a fixed point combinator if

$F(Y F) =_{\beta} Y F$  for every  $\lambda$ -term  $F$

## informally:

we can use  $Y$  to construct a fixed point for a given term  $F$

## fixed point combinators

Curry's fixed point combinator:



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

Turing's fixed point combinator:



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

## consider Curry's fixed point combinator

for an arbitrary  $F$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} Y F &= (\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))) F \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x)) \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} F ((\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))) \\ &\leftarrow F ((\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))) F) \\ &= F (Y F) \end{aligned}$$

and also:

$$F ((\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))) \rightarrow_{\beta} F (F ((\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))))$$

consider Turing's fixed point combinator

for an arbitrary  $F$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{T} F &= (\lambda x. \lambda y. y (x x y)) (\lambda x. \lambda y. y (x x y)) F \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. y (\mathbb{t} \mathbb{t} y)) F \\ &\rightarrow_{\beta} F (\mathbb{t} \mathbb{t} F) \\ &= F (\mathbb{T} F) \end{aligned}$$

with  $\mathbb{t} = \lambda x. \lambda y. y (x x y)$



## example (Hindley)

question: define  $X$  such that  $X y =_{\beta} X$  (a garbage dosposer)

$$X y =_{\beta} X$$

follows from  $X =_{\beta} \lambda y. X$

follows from  $X =_{\beta} (\lambda x. \lambda y. x) X$

follows from  $X =_{\beta} Y (\lambda x. \lambda y. x)$

so define  $X = Y (\lambda x. \lambda y. x)$

## example (Hindley)

question: define  $X$  such that  $X y z =_{\beta} X z y$  (bureaucrat)

$$X y z =_{\beta} X z y$$

follows from  $X = \lambda y. \lambda z. X z y$

follows from  $X = (\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z y) X$

follows from  $X = Y (\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z y)$

so defined  $X = Y (\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. x z y)$

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## inconsistency

Kleene and Rosser discovered in 1934 that

Church's system and Curry's combinatory logic are inconsistent

they encoded Richard's paradox

Curry presented a new exposition of the paradox

then Curry showed inconsistency via Curry's paradox

# Church's original system: terms

terms formed by **application**, so  $M N$

terms formed by **abstraction**, so  $\lambda x. M$

a rule for changing the names of bound variables, so  **$\alpha$ -conversion**

a rule for calculating the values of a function, so  **$\beta$ -reduction**

## Church's original system: logic

**atomic constants** for representing logical connectives and quantifiers

we write implication with  $\rightarrow$  in infix notation

a notion of **provability**

**modus ponens (MP)**: if  $A \rightarrow B$  and  $A$  provable then  $B$  provable

$(A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$  provable

if  $A$  is provable and  $A =_{\beta} A'$  then  $A'$  is provable

## notation

on the following three slides:

the logic part is in black

the part in Church's sytem is in blue

## tautology of prop1

$(A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$  is a tautology of first-order propositional logic:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)}{A \rightarrow B} \quad A}{E \rightarrow} \quad A}{B} \quad A \rightarrow B}{(A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)}$$

we assume  $(A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$  provable in Church's system



## next step

if  $A = A \rightarrow B$  then we have:

$$\frac{(A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \quad \frac{\frac{A}{A \rightarrow A}}{A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)}}{A \rightarrow B} =$$

we define  $A = Y(\lambda x. x \rightarrow (x \rightarrow B))$  for an arbitrary  $B$

then  $A =_{\beta} (\lambda x. x \rightarrow (x \rightarrow B)) A =_{\beta} A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$

we have  $(A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$  provable (system)

using  $\beta$  we have  $A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$  provable

using MP we have  $A \rightarrow B$  provable

## next step

if  $A \rightarrow B$  provable and using  $A = A \rightarrow B$  then we have:

$$\frac{A \rightarrow B \quad \frac{A \rightarrow B}{A}}{B} =$$

we have  $A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$  provable as shown on the previous slide

using  $\beta$  we have  $A$  provable

we have  $A \rightarrow B$  provable as shown on the previous slide

using MP we have  $B$  provable, and  $B$  was arbitrary

what now?

Church restricted attention to the part dealing with functions:

the  $\lambda$ -calculus

Curry had already shown

the corresponding part of his system to be consistent (1930)

Church and Rosser proved consistency of the  $\lambda$ -calculus in 1936

via what is known as the Church-Rosser theorem

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  - booleans

## expressive power

the  $\lambda$ -calculus is Turing-complete

Church's thesis: everything that is computable  
is definable in the pure untyped lambda calculus

we illustrate the expressive power

by considering the encoding of several data-types

## booleans as lambda-terms: idea

we try to find:

two

different

closed

normal forms

permitting to calculate

# booleans and negations as lambda terms: definition

definition of term for true

$$\text{true} = \lambda xy. x$$

definition of term for false

$$\text{false} = \lambda xy. y$$

negation

$$\text{not} = \lambda x. x \text{ false true}$$

indeed

$$\text{not true} =_{\beta} (\lambda x. x \text{ false true}) \text{ true} =_{\beta} \text{true false true} =_{\beta} \text{false}$$

## define other operations on booleans

true =  $\lambda xy. x$

false =  $\lambda xy. y$

not =  $\lambda x. x \text{ false true}$

ite =  $\lambda bxy. b x y$

and =  $\lambda xy. x y \text{ false}$

or =  $\lambda xy. x \text{ true } y$

xor =  $\lambda xy. x (\text{not } y) y$