

CS311 Computational Structures

Church's Lambda Calculus

Lecture 14

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based on material from Tim Sheard

Other Notions of Computability

- Many other notions of computability have been proposed, e.g.
 - ▶ Grammars
 - ▶ Partial Recursive Functions
 - ▶ **Lambda calculus**
 - ▶ Markov Algorithms
 - ▶ Post Algorithms
 - ▶ Post Canonical Systems
 - ▶ Simple programming language with while loops
- All have been shown equivalent to Turing machines by simulation proofs

The Lambda Calculus

- The Lambda calculus
 - ▶ Powerful computation mechanism
 - ▶ 3 simple formation rules
 - ▶ 2 simple operations
 - ▶ extremely expressive

Syntax

A *term* in the calculus has one of the following three forms:

- ▶ Let t be a term, and v be a variable
- ▶ Then

v is a term (a variable, an element of a countable set)

$t_1 t_2$ is a term (an application)

$\lambda v . t$ is a term (an abstraction)

- By convention, the scope of the λ stretches as far to the right as possible, and application is left-associative
- Examples:
 - $\lambda x . x$
 - $\lambda z . \lambda s . s z$
 - $\lambda n . \text{snd} (n (\text{pair} \text{ zero zero}) (\lambda x . \text{pair} (\text{succ} (\text{fst} x)) (\text{fst} x)))$
 - $\lambda f . (\lambda x . f (x x)) (\lambda x . f (x x))$

Variables

- The variables in a term can be computed using the following algorithm

$$\text{varsOf } v = \{v\}$$

$$\text{varsOf } (x \ y) = \text{varsOf } x \cup \text{varsOf } y$$

$$\text{varsOf } (\lambda \ x \ . \ e) = \{x\} \cup \text{varsOf } e$$

- Note the form of this algorithm: a *structural induction*

Examples

- $\text{varsOf } (\lambda x . x) = \{x\}$
- $\text{varsOf } (\lambda z . \lambda s . s z) = \{s, z\}$
- $\text{varsOf } (\lambda n . \text{snd} (n (\text{pair} \text{ zero zero}))$
 $\quad (\lambda x . \text{pair} (\text{succ} (\text{fst} x)) (\text{fst} x))))$
 $= \{n, \text{snd}, \text{pair}, \text{zero}, x, \text{succ}, \text{fst}\}$

Free Variables

- The free variables of a term can be computed using the following algorithm

$$\text{freeOf } v = \{v\}$$

$$\text{freeOf } (x \ y) = \text{freeOf } x \cup \text{freeOf } y$$

$$\text{freeOf } (\lambda \ x \ . \ e) = \text{freeOf } e - \{x\}$$

Examples

- $\text{freeOf } (\lambda z . \lambda s . s z) = \{ \}$
- $\text{freeOf } (\lambda n . \text{snd } (n (\text{pair zero zero}))$
 $\quad (\lambda x . \text{pair } (\text{succ } (\text{fst } x)) (\text{fst } x))))$
 $= \{\text{snd}, \text{pair}, \text{zero}, \text{succ}, \text{fst}\}$

Alpha conversion

- Terms that differ only in the name of their bound variables are considered equal.
 $(\lambda z. \lambda s. s z) = (\lambda a. \lambda b. b a)$
- Also called α -renaming or α -reduction

Substitution

- We can substitute a term for a variable in a lambda-term,
 - ▶ e.g., lets substitute $(\lambda y. y)$ for x in $(f x z)$:

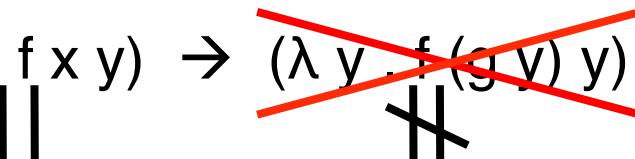
$$\text{sub } x (\lambda y. y) (f x z) \rightarrow (f (\lambda y. y) z)$$

- Watch out! We must be careful if the term we are substituting into has a lambda inside

$$\text{sub } x (g y) (\lambda y. f x y) \rightarrow (\lambda y . f (g y) y)$$


$$\text{sub } x (g y) (\lambda w. f x w) \rightarrow (\lambda w . f (g y) w)$$

Substitution

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$$\text{sub } x (\lambda y. y) (f x z) \rightarrow (f (\lambda y. y) z)$$
- Watch out! We must be careful if the term we are substituting into has a lambda inside
 - $\text{sub } x (g y) (\lambda y. f x y) \rightarrow \cancel{(\lambda y. f (g y) y)}$

 - $\text{sub } x (g y) (\lambda w. f x w) \rightarrow (\lambda w. f (g y) w)$

Careful Substitution Algorithm

- ▶ $\text{sub } v_1 \text{ new } (v) = \text{if } v_1 = v \text{ then new else } v$
- ▶ $\text{sub } v_1 \text{ new } (x \ y) =$
 $(\text{sub } v_1 \text{ new } x) \ (\text{sub } v_1 \text{ new } y)$
- ▶ $\text{sub } v_1 \text{ new } (\lambda \ v \ . \ e) =$
 $\lambda \acute{v} \ . \ \text{sub } v_1 \text{ new } (\text{sub } v \acute{v} \ e)$

where \acute{v} is a fresh variable not in the free variables of *new*

Example of Substitution

- $\text{sub } x \ (g \ y) \ (\lambda \ y. \ f \ x \ y) \rightarrow$
 $\lambda \ y. \text{sub } x \ (g \ y) \ (\text{sub } y \ y \ (f \ x \ y)) \rightarrow$
 $\lambda \ y. \text{sub } x \ (g \ y) \ (f \ x \ y) \rightarrow$
 $\lambda \ y. \ f \ (g \ y) \ y$

```
sub v1 new (v) =  
  if v1 = v then new else v  
sub v1 new (x y) =  
  (sub v1 new x) (sub v1 new y)  
sub v1 new (λ v . e) =  
  λ v̄ . sub v1 new (sub v̄ v̄ e)
```

Alpha conversion

- Now we can formally define α -conversion:
- If y is not free in X , then

$$(\lambda x. X) \Leftrightarrow_{\alpha} (\lambda y. \text{sub } x y X)$$

Beta-conversion

- If we have a term with the form
 $(\lambda x . e) v$
then we can take a β -step to get
 $\text{sub } x v e$
- Formally,
 $(\lambda x . e) v \Leftrightarrow_{\beta} \text{sub } x v e$
- In the \Rightarrow direction, this is called reduction,
because it gets rid of an application.

Example

$$\begin{aligned} & (\lambda n . \lambda z . \lambda s . n (s z) s) \ (\lambda z . \lambda s . z) \\ \Rightarrow & \lambda z . \lambda s . (\lambda z . \lambda s . z) \ (s z) s \\ \Rightarrow & \lambda z . \lambda s . (\lambda z . \lambda s . z) \ (s z) s \\ \Rightarrow & \lambda z . \lambda s . (\lambda s0 . s z) s \\ \Rightarrow & \lambda z . \lambda s . s z \end{aligned}$$

Eta Conversion

- There is one other way to remove a application — when it doesn't achieve anything, because the argument isn't used.
- Example: If x does not appear in f , then
$$(\lambda x. f x) g = f g$$
so we allow $(\lambda x. f x) \rightarrow f$
- Formally: if x is not free in f , then
$$(\lambda x. f x) \Leftrightarrow_{\eta} f$$

What good is this?

How can we possibly compute with the λ -calculus when we have no data to manipulate!

1. no numbers
2. no data-structures
3. no control structures (if-then-else, loops)

Answer:

Use what we have to build these from scratch!

We use λ -combinators: terms without free variables

The Church numerals

- We can encode the natural numbers
 - ▶ zero = $\lambda z . \lambda s . z$
 - ▶ one = $\lambda z . \lambda s . s z$
 - ▶ two = $\lambda z . \lambda s . s (s z)$
 - ▶ three = $\lambda z . \lambda s . s (s (s z))$
 - ▶ four = $\lambda z . \lambda s . s (s (s (s z)))$
- What is the pattern here?

Can we use this?

- The succ function:
succ one → two
- $\text{succ } (\lambda z . \lambda s . s z) \rightarrow (\lambda z . \lambda s . s (s z))$
- Can we write this? Let's try
 - ▶ $\text{succ} = \lambda n . ???$

The succ Combinator

- $\text{succ} = \lambda n . \lambda z . \lambda s . n (s z) s$
- $\text{succ one} \rightarrow$
 $(\lambda n . \lambda z . \lambda s . n (s z) s) \text{one} \rightarrow$
 $\lambda z . \lambda s . \text{one} (s z) s \rightarrow$
 $\lambda z . \lambda s . (\lambda z . \lambda s . s z) (s z) s \rightarrow$
 $\lambda z . \lambda s . (\lambda s0 . s0 (s z)) s \rightarrow$
 $\lambda z . \lambda s . s (s z)$

Can we write the add function?

$$\text{add} = \lambda x . \lambda y . \lambda z . \lambda s . x(yz s) s$$

- what about multiply?

Can we build the booleans?

- We'll need
 - ▶ true: Bool
 - ▶ false: Bool
 - ▶ if: Bool → x → x → x

- $\text{true} = \lambda t . \lambda f . t$
- $\text{false} = \lambda t . \lambda f . f$
- $\text{if} = \lambda b . \lambda \text{then} . \lambda \text{else} . b \text{ then else}$

- Lets try it out:
if false two one

What about pairs?

- we'll need
 - ▶ pair: $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow \text{Pair } a \ b$
 - ▶ fst: $\text{Pair } a \ b \rightarrow a$
 - ▶ snd: $\text{Pair } a \ b \rightarrow b$
- Define:
 - ▶ $\text{pair} = \lambda x . \lambda y . \lambda k . k x y$
 - ▶ $\text{fst} = \lambda p . p (\lambda x . \lambda y . x)$
 - ▶ $\text{snd} = \lambda p . p (\lambda x . \lambda y . y)$

Can we write the pred function?

$\text{pred} = \lambda n . \text{snd}$

$(n (\text{pair zero zero}))$

$(\lambda x . \text{pair} (\text{succ} (\text{fst } x)) (\text{fst } x)))$

- How does this work?

Can we write the pred function?

$\text{pred} = \lambda n . \text{snd}$

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- How does this work?

the pair $\langle a, b \rangle$ encodes the fact that $(\text{pred } a) = b$

What about primitive recursion?

- Recall:
 - ▶ $\#0 = \lambda z. \lambda s. z$
 - ▶ $\#1 = \lambda z. \lambda s. sz$
 - ▶ $\#2 = \lambda z. \lambda s. s(sz)$
 - ▶ ...
 - ▶ $\#n = \lambda z. \lambda s. s^n z$
- The n^{th} Church-numeral already has the power to apply s to z n times!
- We also need to use *pair* to carry around the intermediate result.

Factorial

- Defined (using the primitive recursion scheme) as a base case and an inductive step:

base = pair #0 #1

— base = $\langle 0, 1 \rangle$

step = $\lambda p . \text{pair}(\text{succ}(\text{fst } p)) (\text{mult}(\text{succ}(\text{fst } p)) (\text{snd } p))$

— step (n, r) = $\langle n+1, (n+1) \times r \rangle$

fact = $\lambda n. \text{snd}(n \text{ base step})$

— fact n = stepⁿ base ↓2

Think about this:

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

The Y combinator

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- Define

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$$y = \lambda f_0 . (\lambda x . f_0 (x x)) (\lambda x . f_0 (x x))$$

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

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f

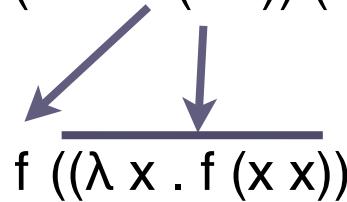
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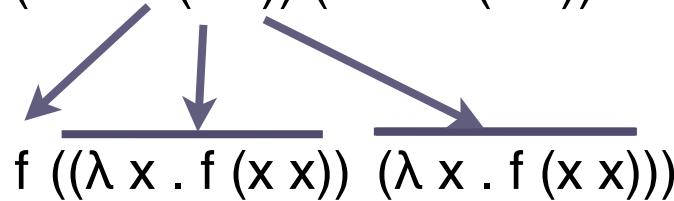
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The Y combinator

- Define

$$y = \lambda f_0 . (\lambda x . f_0 (x x)) (\lambda x . f_0 (x x))$$

- what happens if we apply y to f ?

$$\begin{aligned} y f &\rightarrow (\lambda x . f (x x)) (\lambda x . f (x x)) \\ &\quad \swarrow \qquad \downarrow \qquad \searrow \\ &\quad \underline{f ((\lambda x . f (x x)) (\lambda x . f (x x)))} \\ &= f (y f) \end{aligned}$$

Fixed points

- The *fixed point* of a function $f: \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}$ is a value $x \in \text{Nat}$ such that
 - ▶ $f x = x$
- Note that $y f = f (y f)$
 - ▶ so $(y f)$ is a fixed point of the function f
 - ▶ y is called the fixed point combinator. When y is applied to a function, it answers a value x in that function's domain. When you apply the function to x , you get x .

Ackermann's function

The Ackermann function $A(x, y)$ is defined for integers x and y by

$$A(x, y) \equiv \begin{cases} y + 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ A(x - 1, 1) & \text{if } y = 0 \\ A(x - 1, A(x, y - 1)) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Special values for x include the following:

$$A(0, y) = y + 1$$

$$A(1, y) = y + 2$$

$$A(2, y) = 2y + 3$$

$$A(3, y) = 2^{y+3} - 3$$

$$A(4, y) = \underbrace{2^2}_{y+3} - 3.$$

- Ackermann's function grows faster than any primitive recursive function, that is:
for *any* primitive recursive function f , there is an n such that

$$A(n, x) > f x$$

- So A *can't* be primitive recursive
- Can we define A in the λ -calculus?

Ackermann's function in the λ -calculus

$$A(x, y) \equiv \begin{cases} y + 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ A(x - 1, 1) & \text{if } y = 0 \\ A(x - 1, A(x, y - 1)) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Using the Y combinator, we can define Ackerman's function in the λ -calculus, even though it is not primitive recursive!
- First define a function ackermannGen, whose fixed-point will be ackermann:
- $\text{ackermannGen} = \lambda \text{ackermann} . \lambda x . \lambda y$
 $\text{ifZero } x (\text{succ } y)$
 $(\text{ifZero } y$
 $\quad (\text{ackermann} (\text{pred } x) \text{one})$
 $\quad (\text{ackermann} (\text{pred } x) (\text{ackermann } x (\text{pred } y)))))$

Ackermann's function in the λ -calculus

- Then take the fixed point of that function:
- $\text{acc} = (\text{y accermanGen})$
- Try it:

```
prompt> acc #1 #1
acc #1 #1
prompt> :b
\ z . \ s . s (s (s z))
prompt> acc #2 #1
acc #2 #1
prompt> :b
\ z . \ s . s (s (s (s (s z))))
prompt>
```

Summary: the λ -calculus

- The λ -calculus is “Turing complete”:
 - ▶ It can compute anything that can be computed by a Turing machine
- Augmented with arithmetic, it is the basis for many programming languages, from Algol 60 to modern functional languages.
- Lambda notion, as a compact way of defining anonymous functions, is in most programming languages, including C#, Ruby and Smalltalk