Lambda Calculus

COS 441 Slides 12

read: 3.4, 5.1, 5.2, 3.5 Pierce

the lambda calculus

- Originally, the lambda calculus was developed as a logic by Alonzo Church in 1932 at Princeton
 - Church says: "There may, indeed, be other applications of the system than its use as a logic."
 - Dave says: "There sure are!"
- The lambda calculus is a language of pure functions
- It serves as the semantic basis for languages like Haskell that are based around functions, but also pretty much every other language that includes some notion of function
- It is just as powerful as a Turing Machine (lambda terms can compute anything a Turing Machine can) and provides an alternate basis for understanding computation
- Pierce Text, Chap 3, 5

Operational Semantics

- Denotational semantics for a language provides a function that translates from program syntax into mathematical objects like sets, functions, lists or even some other programming language
 - a denotational semantics acts like a compiler
- Operational semantics works by rewriting or executing programs step-by-step
 - it uses only one program syntax to explain how a program runs
- As languages become more complicated, it is often easier to define operational semantics than denotational semantics
 - it requires less math to do so
 - but you might not be able to prove particularly strong theorems using the semantics
- Starting with the lambda calculus, we will look at operational semantics

Operational Rules

• Operational rules typically look like this:

condition1 conditionk subprogram --> subprogram' prog --> prog'

- Read prog --> prog' as prog "steps to" prog'
- prog --> prog' is a new kind of judgement (aka property/assertion/claim)

Operational Rules

• Operational rules typically look like this:

condition1 conditionk subprogram --> subprogram' prog --> prog'

- Read prog --> prog' as prog "steps to" prog'
- prog --> prog' is a new kind of judgement (aka property/assertion/claim)
- An example, defining evaluation of if statements:

e --> e' if e then c1 else c2 --> if e' then c1 else c2

if True then c1 else c2 --> c1

if False then c1 else c2 --> c2

LAMBDA CALCULUS

syntax

e ::= x	(a variable)
\x.e	(a function; in Haskell: \x -> e)
e e	(function application)

["\" will be written " λ " in a nice font and pronounced "lambda"]

syntax

- the identity function:
 - \x.x
- 2 notational conventions:
 - applications associate to the left (like in Haskell):
 - "y z x" is "(y z) x"
 - the body of a lambda extends as far as possible to the right:
 - "\x.x \z.x z x" is "\x.(x \z.(x z x))"

terminology



in the term \x.x y

scope again, shadowed names

the scope of the right-most x includes the body of the function; the scope of the left-most x does not



if you wanted to refer to the first x, above, well you can't. You should have chosen a different variable name in your programs

Important note: The names of bound variables don't matter to the semantics of lambda calculus programs, so you can rename bound variables (provided you do so consistently) whenever you want.

$$x.x == y.y == z.z$$

 $x.y.xy == y.x.yx == z.w.zw$

Call-by-value operational semantics

• single-step, call-by-value operational semantics:

e --> e'

- In English, we say "e steps to e'"
- This is a new kind of "judgement", just like a Hoare triple was a judgement and there were rules that allowed us to conclude when it was a valid judgement

Call-by-value operational semantics

- single-step, call-by-value operational semantics: e --> e'
 - values are v ::= \x.e
 - primary rule (beta reduction):

call-by-value since argument is a value rather than general expression

- e [v/x] is the expression in which all free occurrences of x in e are replaced with v
- this replacement operation is called substitution

(\x.e) v --> e [v/x]

 implementing substitution for the lambda calculus properly is actually tougher than it would seem at first

operational semantics

• beta rule:

• is used together with search rules:

$$\frac{e1 --> e1'}{e1 e2 --> e1' e2}$$
 (app1)
$$\frac{e2 --> e2'}{v e2 --> v e2'}$$
 (app2)

• notice, because of the rules, evaluation is left to right

 and that's it -- 3 rules -- that is all you need to know about evaluating expressions in the lambda calculus!

• Program:

((x.y. x y) (w.w)) (z.z)

• Proof that it can take a step:







• Proof it can take a second step:

— (beta) ۱

(\y. (\w.w) y) (\z.z) --> (\w.w) (\z.z)

• So we typically write (without explicit proofs):

((x,y,x,y),(w,w)) $(z,z) \to (y,(w,w),y)$ $(z,z) \to (w,w),(z,z)$

(\x.x x) (\y.y)

(\x.x x) (\y.y) --> x x [\y.y / x]

(\x.x x) (\y.y) --> x x [\y.y / x] == (\y.y) (\y.y)

(\x.x x) (\y.y) --> x x [\y.y / x] == (\y.y) (\y.y) --> y [\y.y / y]

(\x.x x) (\y.y) --> x x [\y.y / x] == (\y.y) (\y.y) --> y [\y.y / y] == \y.y

A Non-Example

• Given:

((\x.x) (\y.y)) ((\w.w) (\z.z))

• One might think that:

 $((\x.x) (\y.y)) ((\w.w) (\z.z)) \longrightarrow ((\x.x) (\y.y)) (\z.z)$

- Since: (\w.w) (\z.z) --> (\z.z)
- But that would require the presence of this rule:

$$(x.e) v --> e [v/x] (beta)$$

$$\frac{e1 --> e1'}{e1 e2 --> e1' e2} (app1)$$

$$\frac{e2 --> e2'}{v e2 --> v e2'} (app2)$$

Another example

(\x.x x) (\x.x x)

Another example

(\x.x x) (\x.x x) --> x x [\x.x x/x]

Another example

(\x.x x) (\x.x x) --> x x [\x.x x/x] == (\x.x x) (\x.x x)

- In other words, it is simple to write non-terminating computations in the lambda calculus
- So, what else can we do with the lambda calculus?

We can do everything

- The lambda calculus can be used as an "assembly language"
- We can show how to compile useful, high-level operations and language features into the lambda calculus
 - Result = adding high-level operations is convenient for programmers, but not a computational necessity
 - Result = make your compiler intermediate language simpler
- Translations that show how to implement various useful programming features in the lambda calculus are typically called "Church encodings" after Alonzo Church

- Single-step reduction, one by one, gets pretty tedious, so we can make up a new notation for multi-step evaluation (and give the new notation a formal definition!)
- To say a program takes 0, 1 or many steps, we write:

e -->* e'

• Rules:

$$\frac{e^{-->*e}}{e^{-->*e}}$$
 (reflexivity)
$$\frac{e^{-->*e^2}}{e^{1-->*e^3}}$$
 (transitivity)

• A multi-step proof:

• A multi-step proof:

$$\frac{b --> c \quad c -->* e}{b -->* e}$$

• A multi-step proof:

$$\frac{d --> e}{d -->* e} = \frac{d -->* e}{d -->* e}$$

$$\frac{a --> b}{b -->* e} = \frac{b -->* e}{a -->* e}$$



CHURCH ENCODINGS

 It is useful to bind intermediate results of computations to variables:

let x = e1 in e2

• Question: can we implement this idea in the lambda calculus?



 It is useful to bind intermediate results of computations to variables:

let x = e1 in e2

 Question: can we implement this idea in the lambda calculus? translate (let x = e1 in e2) =

 It is useful to bind intermediate results of computations to variables:

let x = e1 in e2

 Question: can we implement this idea in the lambda calculus? translate (let x = e1 in e2) =

(\x. translate e2) (translate e1)

 It is useful to bind intermediate results of computations to variables:

let x = e1 in e2

 Question: can we implement this idea in the lambda calculus? translate (let x = e1 in e2) =
 (\x. translate e2) (translate e1) translate (x) = x translate (\x.e) = \x.translate e translate (e1 e2) = (translate e1) (translate e2)

ENCODING BOOLEANS

- we can encode booleans
 - we will represent "true" and "false" as functions named "tru" and "fls"
 - how do we define these functions?
 - think about how "true" and "false" can be used
 - they can be used by a testing function:
 - "test b then else" returns "then" if b is true and returns "else" if b is false
 - the only thing the implementation of test is going to be able to do with b is to apply it
 - the functions "tru" and "fls" must distinguish themselves when they are applied

• the encoding:

tru = t.f. t

fls = t.f. f

test = x. then. else. x then else

 $tru = \t.\f. t \qquad fls = \t.\f. f$

test = \x.\then.\else. x then else

eg:

test tru a b

tru = t.f. t fls = t.f. ftest = x.then.

eg:

test tru a b
== (\x.\then.\else. x then else) (\t.\f.t) a b

tru = t.f. t fls = t.f. ftest = x.then.else. x then else

eg:

```
test tru a b
== (\x.\then.\else. x then else) (\t.\f.t) a b
-->* (\t.\f. t) a b
```

tru = t.f. t fls = t.f. ftest = x.then.else. x then else

eg:

```
test tru a b
== (\x.\then.\else. x then else) (\t.\f.t) a b
-->* (\t.\f. t) a b
-->* a
```

Challenge

 $tru = \t.\f. t \qquad fls = \t.\f. f$

test = \x.\then.\else. x then else

create a function "and" in the lambda calculus that mimics conjunction. It should have the following properties.

```
and tru tru -->* tru
and fls tru -->* fls
and tru fls -->* fls
and fls fls -->* fls
```

SUMMARY

Summary

- The Lambda Calculus involves just 3 things:
 - variables x, y, z
 - function definitions \x.e
 - function application e1 e2
- Despite its simplicity, despite the apparent lack of if statements or loops or any data structures other than functions, it is Turing complete
- Church encodings are translations that show how to encode various data types or linguistic features in the lambda calculus