Lambda Calculus

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Administrative Information

Course web page

http://www1.eafit.edu.co/asr/courses/lambda-calculus/

Exams, programming labs, course's repository, etc.

See course web page.

Textbook

Barendregt, H. P. [1984] [2004]. The Lambda Calculus. Its Syntax and Semantics. Revised edition, 6th impression. Vol. 103. Studies in Logic and the Foundations of Mathematics. Elsevier.

Conventions

The numbers assigned to examples, exercises, figures, pages, propositions and theorems correspond to the numbers in the textbook.

Introduction 2/52

What is the Lambda Calculus?

Alonzo Church (1903 - 1995)*







*Figures sources: History of computers, Wikipedia and MacTutor History of Mathematics.

Introduction 3/52

What is the Lambda Calculus?

From p 3:

'The lambda calculus is a type free theory about functions as rules, rather than as graphs. "Functions as rules" is the old fashioned notion of function and refers to the process of going from argument to value, a process coded by a definition.'

'The lambda calculus regards functions again as rules in order to stress their computational aspects.'

'The functions as rules are considered in full generality.'

'The objects of study are at the same time function and argument.'

'In particular a function can be applied to itself. For the usual notion of function in mathematics (as in Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory), this is impossible.'

Introduction 4/52

What is the Lambda Calculus?

Three aspects of the lambda calculs

- Foundations of mathematics
- Computations
- Pure lambda calculus

See § 1.1.

Introduction 5/52

Primitive Operations: Application and Abstraction

Application

Application of the function M to argument N is denoted by MN (juxtaposition).

Introduction 6/52

Primitive Operations: Application and Abstraction

Application

Application of the function M to argument N is denoted by MN (juxtaposition).

Abstraction

'If M is any formula containing the variable x, then $\lambda x[M]$ is a symbol for the function whose values are those given by the formula.' [Church 1932, p. 352]

Introduction 7/52

Currying

Currying

'Adopting a device due to Schönfinkel, we treat a function of two variables as a function of one variable whose values are functions of one variable, and a function of three or more variables similarly.' [Church 1932, p. 352]

Such device is called currying after Haskell Curry.

(continued on next slide)

Introduction 8/52

Currying

Currying (continuation)

Let $g: X \times Y \to Z$ be a function of two variables. We can define two functions f_X and f:

$$f_x: Y \to Z$$
 $f: X \to (Y \to Z)$ $f_x = \lambda y.g(x, y),$ $f = \lambda x.f_x.$

Then

$$(f x) y = f_X y = g(x, y).$$

That is, the function of two variables

$$g: X \times Y \rightarrow Z$$

is represented as the higher-order function

$$f: X \to (Y \to Z)$$
.

Introduction 9/52

Conversion

Introduction

- 'The principal object of study in the λ -calculus is the set of λ -terms modulo convertibility.' (p. 22).
- The relation of convertibility is a relation of equivalence on λ -terms.
- ullet The relation of convertibility will be generated from a formal theory called the λ theory.

Conversion 11/52

Terms and formulae

The terms of the λ theory are the λ -terms and its formulae are M=N, where M,N are λ -terms.

Conversion 12/52

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Remark

Our textbook [Barendregt 2004] formalised in the λ theory a binary relation using the symbol for equality '=' maybe following [Curry and Feys 1958, § 3.D.3]. Church used the infix name 'conv' instead (see, e.g. [Church 1951]).

Conversion 13/52

Axioms and inference rules

 β -conversion

$$\overline{(\lambda x.M)N = M[x := N]}$$

Equality axiom and rules

$$\overline{M} = M$$

$$M = N$$
 $N = M$

$$M = N$$
 $N = L$ $M = I$

Compatibility rules

$$M = N$$

$$\frac{M=N}{LM=LN}$$

$$\frac{M=N}{\lambda \times M=\lambda \times N}$$
 rule ξ

Conversion 14/52

Notation

If M = N is a theorem in λ it is denoted by $\lambda \vdash M = N$. We shall also use the notation M = N.

Conversion 15/52

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Definition

Two λ -terms M and N are **convertible** iff $\lambda \vdash M = N$.

Conversion 16/52

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Remark

The λ theory is

- an equational theory,
- logic-free, i.e. there are not logical constants in its formulae.

Conversion 17/52

Theorem (fixed-point theorem)

 $\forall F \exists X FX = X.$

Conversion 18/52

Combinators

Theorem (Some combinators)

```
B \equiv \lambda fgx.f(gx)
                                     BMNL = M(NL)
                                                                         (composition)
B' \equiv \lambda fgx.g(fx)
                                    B'MNL = N(ML)
                                                                         (reversed composition)
                                          M = M
  I = \lambda x.x
                                                                         (identity)
                                      KMN = M
                                                                         (projection)
 K \equiv \lambda x y. x
K_* \equiv \lambda x y. y
                                     K_{\star}MN = N
                                                                         (projection)
 S \equiv \lambda fgx.fx(gx)
                                     SMNL = ML(NL)
                                                                         (stronger composition)
W = \lambda f_X f_{XX}
                                     \mathsf{W}\mathsf{M}\mathsf{N}=\mathsf{M}\mathsf{N}\mathsf{N}
                                                                         (doubling)
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Conversion 19/52

Theorem

i)

 $\neg \exists F \forall M \forall N \ F(MN) = M, \quad \text{(Exercise 2.4.6)}$ $\neg \exists F \forall M \forall N \ F(MN) = N.$

Conversion 20/52

Theorem

i)

$$\neg \exists F \forall M \forall N \ F(MN) = M, \quad \text{(Exercise 2.4.6)}$$
$$\neg \exists F \forall M \forall N \ F(MN) = N.$$

ii) There is no λ -term F such that for all $M \in \Lambda$,

$$FM = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } M \text{ is a variable;} \\ 2, & \text{if } M \text{ is an application;} \\ 3, & \text{if } M \text{ is a } \lambda\text{-abstraction.} \end{cases}$$

(continued on next slide)

Conversion 21/52

Theorem (continuation)

iii) There is no λ -term F such that for all $M \in \Lambda$,

$$FM = \begin{cases} \text{true}, & \text{if } M \text{ is in } \beta\text{-normal form;} \\ \text{false}, & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

Conversion 22/52

Theorem (continuation)

iii) There is no λ -term F such that for all $M \in \Lambda$,

$$FM = \begin{cases} \mathsf{true}, & \text{if } M \text{ is in } \beta\text{-normal form;} \\ \mathsf{false}, & \mathsf{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

iv) There is no λ -term F such that for all $M \in \Lambda$

$$FM = \mathbf{n},$$

where **n** is the number of λ -abstractions in M.

Conversion 23/52

Exercises

- Exercises 2.4.1–2.4.4, except 2.4.1 (iv).
- Proposition 2.1.19 and Exercises 2.4.5 and 2.4.15.
- Exercises 2.4.6, 2.4.7 and 2.4.9.
- Parts ii), iii) and iv) (at least one) from λ -terms are "black boxes", Exercises 2.4.10 (i) and 2.4.10 (ii).

Conversion 24/52

Reduction

The Binary Relation β

Definition

The binary relation β on Λ is defined by

$$\beta = \{ ((\lambda x.M)N, M[x := N]) \mid M, N \in \Lambda \}.$$

Reduction 26/52

Compatible Relations

Definition

A binary relation $\emph{\textbf{R}}$ on Λ is **compatible** iff (Definition 3.1.1 (i))

$$(M, N) \in \mathbf{R} \Rightarrow (LM, LN) \in \mathbf{R},$$

 $(ML, NL) \in \mathbf{R},$
and $(\lambda x.M, \lambda x.N) \in \mathbf{R}.$

Reduction 27/52

One Step Beta Reduction

Definition

The binary relation one step β -reduction on Λ , denoted by \rightarrow_{β} , is the compatible closure of β .

The \rightarrow_{β} relation can be inductively defined by (Definition 3.1.5):

$$\frac{(M,N) \in \beta}{M \to_{\beta} N}$$

$$\frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{LM \to_{\beta} LN} \qquad \frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{ML \to_{\beta} NL} \qquad \frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{\lambda x.M \to_{\beta} \lambda x.N}$$

Reduction 28/52

Beta Reduction

Definition

The binary relation β -reduction on Λ , denoted by $\twoheadrightarrow_{\beta}$, is the reflexive and transitive closure of \rightarrow_{β} .

The \rightarrow_{β} relation can be inductively defined by (Definition 3.1.5):

$$\frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{M \to_{\beta} N}$$

$$\frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{M \to_{\beta} M} \qquad \frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{M \to_{\beta} L}$$

Reduction 29/52

Beta Equality or Beta Convertibility

Definition

The binary relation β -equality (or β -convertibility) on Λ , denoted by $=_{\beta}$, is the equivalence relation generated by $\twoheadrightarrow_{\beta}$.

The $=_{\beta}$ relation can be inductively defined by (Definition 3.1.5):

$$\frac{M \to_{\beta} N}{M =_{\beta} N}$$

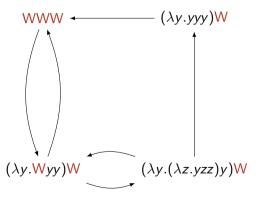
$$\frac{M =_{\beta} N}{N =_{\beta} M} \qquad \frac{M =_{\beta} N}{M =_{\beta} L}$$

Reduction 30/52

Reduccion Graphs

Example (3.1.21 (iv))

 G_{β} (WWW) where W $\equiv \lambda xy.xyy$.



Reduction 31/52

Beta Reduction and The λ Theory

Theorem (Proposition 3.2.1)

$$M =_{\beta} N \Leftrightarrow \lambda \vdash M = N.$$

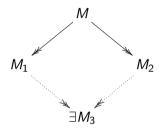
Reduction 32/52

Church-Rosser Theorem for Beta Reduction

Theorem (Theorem 3.2.8 (i))

Church-Rosser theorem (the diamond property) for $\rightarrow \beta$:

$$\frac{M \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M_1 \qquad M \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M_2}{\exists M_3 (M_1 \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M_3 \wedge M_2 \twoheadrightarrow_{\beta} M_3)}$$



Reduction 33/52

Exercises

- Exercises 3.5.1 (i)–(iii), Exercises 3.5.2 (i)–(iii) and Proposition 3.2.1 (\Rightarrow).
- Exercise 3.5.7, Fact 3.1.23 (ii) (⇒) and Exercise 3.5.9.

Reduction 34/52

Classical Lamba Calculus

Introduction

Definition

A numeric function (or number-theoretic function) is a function

 $f: \mathbb{N}^p \to \mathbb{N}$, for some $p \in \mathbb{N}$.

Classical Lamba Calculus 36/52

Example

Numeric functions.

$$Z(n) = 0 \qquad \qquad (zero \ function)$$

$$S^+(n) = n + 1 \qquad (successor \ function)$$

$$U_i^p(n_1, \dots, n_p) = n_i, \quad 0 < i \le p \qquad (projection \ functions)$$

$$Id(n) = n \qquad (identity \ function)$$

$$C_k^p(n_1, \dots, n_p) = k \qquad (constant \ functions)$$

$$m + n \qquad (addition \ function)$$

$$m \cdot n \qquad (multiplication \ function)$$

$$m^n \qquad (exponentiation \ function)$$

$$n! \qquad (factorial \ function)$$

Classical Lamba Calculus 37/52

Example

Numeric functions.

$$\operatorname{Pred}(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n = 0; \\ n - 1, & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$
 (predecessor function)
$$m \dot{-} n = \begin{cases} m - n, & \text{if } m \geq n; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$
 (truncated subtraction function)
$$|m - n| = \begin{cases} m \dot{-} n, & \text{if } m \geq n; \\ n \dot{-} m, & \text{otherwise:} \end{cases}$$
 (absolute difference function)

Classical Lamba Calculus 38/52

Example

Numeric functions.

$$\operatorname{Sg}(n) = egin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n = 0; \ 1, & \text{otherwise}; \end{cases}$$
 (signum function)
$$\overline{\operatorname{Sg}}(n) = egin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0; \ 0, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$
 (inverse signum function)
$$\operatorname{Ack}(0,n) = n+1$$

$$\operatorname{Ack}(m+1,0) = \operatorname{Ack}(m,1)$$
 (Ackermann function)
$$\operatorname{Ack}(m+1,n+1) = \operatorname{Ack}(m,\operatorname{Ack}(m+1,n))$$

Classical Lamba Calculus 39/52

Theorem

The following sets of functions are coextensive:

- i) the numeric functions λ -definables,
- ii) the numeric functions computable by a Turing machine and
- iii) the recursive functions.

Classical Lamba Calculus 40/52

Definition

The **initial functions** are the functions

$$Z(n) = 0$$
 (zero function) $S^+(n) = n + 1$ (successor function) $U_i^p(n_1, \ldots, n_p) = n_i, \quad 0 < i \le p$ (projection functions)

Classical Lamba Calculus 41/52

Definition

Let ${\mathfrak C}$ be a class of numeric functions. The class ${\mathfrak C}$ is **closed under composition** iff

- i) $g: \mathbb{N}^m \to \mathbb{N} \in \mathfrak{C}$ and
- ii) $h_1, \ldots, h_m : \mathbb{N}^n \to \mathbb{N} \in \mathfrak{C}$,

imply

$$f(\vec{n}) = g(h_1(\vec{n}), \ldots, h_m(\vec{n})) \in \mathfrak{C}.$$

Classical Lamba Calculus 42/52

Definition

Let $\mathfrak C$ be a class of numeric functions. The class $\mathfrak C$ is **closed under primitive recursion** iff

- i) $g: \mathbb{N}^n \to \mathbb{N} \in \mathfrak{C}$ and
- ii) $h: \mathbb{N}^{n+2} \to \mathbb{N} \in \mathfrak{C}$,

imply

$$f: \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{N} \in \mathfrak{C}$$
 $f(0, \vec{n}) = g(\vec{n}),$ $f(k+1, \vec{n}) = h(f(k, \vec{n}), k, \vec{n}),$

Classical Lamba Calculus 43/52

Definition

The class \mathfrak{PR} of **primitive recursive functions** is the smallest class of numeric functions including the initial functions and closed under composition and primitive recursion.

Classical Lamba Calculus 44/52

Definition

The class \mathfrak{PR} of **primitive recursive functions** is the smallest class of numeric functions including the initial functions and closed under composition and primitive recursion.

Remark

Some textbooks which introduced the \mathfrak{PR} are [Boolos, Burges and Jeffrey 2007; Davis 1982; Gómez Marín and Sicard Ramírez 2002; Kleene 1974; Mendelson 2015].

Classical Lamba Calculus 45/52

Example

All the numeric functions in the previous examples except the Ackerman functions are primitive recursive functions.

Classical Lamba Calculus 46/52

Recursive Functions

Definition

Let $\mathfrak C$ be a class of numeric functions. The class $\mathfrak C$ is **closed under minimalisation** iff

- i) $g: \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{N} \in \mathfrak{C}$ and
- ii) $(\forall \vec{n})(\exists m)(g(\vec{n},m)=0)$,

imply

$$f: \mathbb{N}^n \to \mathbb{N}$$

 $f(\vec{n}) = \mu m [g(\vec{n}, m) = 0], \in \mathfrak{C}.$

Classical Lamba Calculus 47/52

Recursive Functions

Definition

The class \Re of **(total)** recursive functions is the smallest class of numeric functions including the initial functions and closed under composition, primitive recursion and minimalisation.

Classical Lamba Calculus 48/52

Recursive Functions

Definition

The class \Re of **(total)** recursive functions is the smallest class of numeric functions including the initial functions and closed under composition, primitive recursion and minimalisation.

Theorem

The Ackermann function is a recursive primitive function.

Classical Lamba Calculus 49/52

Exercises

• Exercise 6.8.6.

Classical Lamba Calculus 50/52

References

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References 51/52

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References 52/52