

Lambda Calculus - Formal description (1A)

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Definition

Lambda expressions are composed of:

variables v_1, v_2, \dots ;

the **abstraction symbols** λ (lambda) and $.$ (dot);

parentheses $()$.

The set of lambda expressions, Λ , can be defined inductively:

If x is a **variable**, then $x \in \Lambda$.

If x is a **variable** and $M \in \Lambda$, then $(\lambda x.M) \in \Lambda$.

If $M, N \in \Lambda$, then $(M N) \in \Lambda$.

instances of rule 2 are known as **abstractions** $(\lambda x.M)$

instances of rule 3 are known as **applications** $(M N)$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Free and bound variables (1)

The **abstraction operator**, λ , is said to bind its **variable** wherever it occurs in the **body** of the **abstraction**.

Variables that fall within the **scope** of an **abstraction** are said to be **bound**.

In an expression $\lambda x.M$, the part λx is often called **binder**, as a hint that the **variable** x is getting bound by appending λx to M .

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Free and bound variables (3)

All other variables (unbound) are called **free**.

For example, in the expression $\lambda y.x x y$,

y is a **bound variable** and

x is a **free variable**.

Also a **variable** is **bound** by its *nearest abstraction*.

In $\lambda x.y (\lambda x.z x)$, the single occurrence of **x** in the expression is **bound** by the second lambda.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Free and bound variables (4)

The set of **free variables** $FV(M)$ of a **lambda expression** M , is defined by recursion on the **structure** of the **terms**, as follows:

$FV(x) = \{x\}$, where x is a **variable**

$FV(\lambda x.M) = FV(M) \setminus \{x\}$ x is a **bound variable**

$FV(M N) = FV(M) \cup FV(N)$

An **expression** that contains no free variables is said to be *closed*.

Closed lambda expressions are also known as **combinators** and are equivalent to **terms** in **combinatory logic**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction (1)

The **meaning** of **lambda expressions** is defined by **how expressions** can be **reduced**. [21]

There are three kinds of **reduction**:

- α -conversion:** changing bound variables;
- β -reduction:** applying functions to their arguments;
- η -reduction:** which captures a notion of **extensionality**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction (2)

two expressions are

α -equivalent,

if they can be α -converted into the same expression.

β -equivalent,

if they can be β -converted into the same expression.

η -equivalent,

if they can be η -converted into the same expression.

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Reduction (5)

The term **redex** (**reducible expression**), refers to subterms that can be reduced by one of the reduction rules.

For example, $(\lambda x.M) N$ is a **β -redex** in expressing the **substitution** of **N** for **x** in **M** .

The **expression** to which a **redex** reduces is called its **reduct**; the **reduct** of $(\lambda x.M) N$ is $M[x := N]$.

If **x** is not free in **M** , $\lambda x.M x$ is also an **η -redex**, with a **reduct** of **M** .

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α -conversion (1)

α -conversion (α -renaming)

allows **bound variable** names to be changed.

For example, α -conversion of $\lambda x.x$ might yield $\lambda y.y$.

terms that differ only by α -conversion are called **α -equivalent**.

Frequently, in uses of **lambda calculus**,
 α -equivalent **terms** are considered to be **equivalent**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

α -conversion (2)

The precise **rules** for **α -conversion** are not completely trivial.

First, when **α -converting** an **abstraction**,
the only **variable occurrences** that are renamed
are those that are bound to the same abstraction.

For example, an **α -conversion** of $\lambda x.\lambda x.x$ could result in $\lambda y.\lambda x.x$,
but it could not result in $\lambda y.\lambda x.y$.

The latter has a different meaning from the original.

This is analogous to the programming notion of **variable shadowing**.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

α -conversion (3)

Second, **α -conversion** is not possible
if it would result in a **variable** getting captured by a different abstraction.

For example, if we replace **x** with **y** in $\lambda x. \lambda y. x$,
we get $\lambda y. \lambda y. y$, which is not at all the same.

In programming languages with **static scope**,
 α -conversion can be used to make **name resolution** simpler
by ensuring that no variable name masks a **name**
in a **containing scope**
(see **α -renaming** to make **name resolution** trivial).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

α -conversion (4)

In the **De Bruijn index notation**,
any two α -equivalent terms are syntactically identical.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Substitution (1)

Substitution, written $M[V := N]$,

is the process of replacing all **free occurrences** of the **variable V** in the **expression M** with **expression N**.

Substitution on **terms** of the **lambda calculus**

is defined by recursion on the structure of **terms**,

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Substitution (1')

note: **x** and **y** are only **variables**

while **M** and **N** are any **lambda expression**

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

$$y[x := N] = y, \text{ if } x \neq y$$

$$(M1 M2)[x := N] = M1[x := N] M2[x := N]$$

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

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

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Substitution (2)

To substitute into an **abstraction**,
it is sometimes necessary to α -convert the **expression**.

For example, it is not correct for $(\lambda x.y)[y := x]$ to result in $\lambda x.x$,
because the substituted x was supposed to be **free**
but ended up being **bound**.

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

The correct substitution in this case is $\lambda z.x$, up to α -equivalence.

Substitution is defined uniquely up to α -equivalence.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

β -reduction

β -reduction captures the idea of **function application**.

β -reduction is defined in terms of **substitution**:

the β -reduction of $(\lambda V.M) N$ is $M[V := N]$.

For example, assuming some encoding of 2, 7, \times ,
we have the following **β -reduction**: $(\lambda n.n \times 2) 7 \rightarrow 7 \times 2$.

β -reduction can be seen to be the same
as the concept of **local reducibility** in **natural deduction**,
via the **Curry–Howard isomorphism**.

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η-reduction

η-reduction expresses the idea of **extensionality**, which in this context is that two functions are the same if and only if they give the same result for all arguments.

η-reduction converts between $\lambda x.f\ x$ and **f** whenever **x** does not appear **free** in **f**.

η-reduction can be seen to be the same as the concept of **local completeness** in **natural deduction**, via the **Curry–Howard isomorphism**.

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Normal form and confluence (1)

For the **untyped lambda calculus**,
 β -reduction as a rewriting rule is
neither strongly normalising
nor weakly normalising.

However, it can be shown that **β -reduction** is **confluent**
when working up to **α -conversion**
(i.e. we consider two **normal forms** to be equal
if it is possible to **α -convert** one into the other).

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Normal form and confluence (2)

Therefore, both strongly normalising terms
and weakly normalising terms have a unique normal form.

For strongly normalising terms,
any reduction strategy is guaranteed to yield the normal form,

whereas for weakly normalising terms,
some reduction strategies may fail to find the normal form.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (1)

Whether a **term** is **normalising** or not, and how much work needs to be done in normalising it if it is, depends to a large extent on the **reduction strategy** used.

Common reduction strategies include:

- **Normal order**
- **Applicative order**
- **Full β -reductions**

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Reduction strategies (2)

Common reduction strategies include:

- **Normal order**

The **leftmost, outermost redex** is always reduced first.

That is, whenever possible the **arguments** are

substituted into the **body** of an **abstraction**

before the **arguments** are reduced.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (3)

Common reduction strategies include:

- **Applicative order**

The **leftmost, innermost redex** is always reduced first.

Intuitively this means a function's **arguments** are always reduced before the **function** itself.

Applicative order always attempts to apply functions to **normal forms**, even when this is not possible.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (4)

Common reduction strategies include:

- **Full β -reductions**

Any **redex** can be reduced at any time.

This means essentially the lack of

any particular reduction strategy

— with regard to reducibility, "all bets are off".

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (5)

Weak reduction strategies do not reduce under lambda abstractions:

- **Call by value**
- **Call by name**

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (6)

Weak reduction strategies do not reduce under lambda abstractions:

- **Call by value**

A **redex** is reduced only when its **right hand side** has reduced to a **value** (**variable** or **abstraction**).

Only the **outermost redexes** are reduced.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (7)

Weak reduction strategies do not reduce under lambda abstractions:

- **Call by name**

As **normal order**, but no reductions are performed **inside abstractions**.

For example, $\lambda x.(\lambda y.y)x$ is in **normal form** according to this strategy, although it contains the **redex** $(\lambda y.y)x$.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (8)

Strategies with **sharing** reduce computations
that are "the same" in parallel:

- **Optimal reduction**
- **Call by need**

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (9)

Strategies with **sharing** reduce computations
that are "the same" in parallel:

- **Optimal reduction**
As **normal order**, but computations
that have **the same label** are reduced simultaneously.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

Reduction strategies (10)

Strategies with **sharing** reduce computations
that are "the same" in parallel:

- **Call by need**
As **call by name** (hence **weak**), but **function applications**
that would **duplicate terms** instead **name** the **argument**,
which is then reduced only "when it is needed".

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

References

- [1] <ftp://ftp.geoinfo.tuwien.ac.at/navratil/HaskellTutorial.pdf>
- [2] <https://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~hal/docs/daume02yaht.pdf>