Lambda Calculus

Prepared by Mark on May 1, 2024

Beware of the Turing tar pit, in which everything is possible but nothing of interest is easy.

Alan Perlis, Epigrams of Programming, #54

Part 1: Introduction

Lambda calculus is a model of computation, much like the Turing machine. As we're about to see, it works in a fundamentally different way, which has a few practical applications we'll discuss at the end of class.

A lambda function starts with a lambda (λ) , followed by the names of any inputs used in the expression, followed by the function's output.

For example, $\lambda x.x + 3$ is the function f(x) = x + 3 written in lambda notation.

Let's disect $\lambda x.x + 3$ piece by piece:

- "λ" tells us that this is the beginning of an expression.
 λ here doesn't have a special value or definition;
 it's just a symbol that tells us "this is the start of a function."
- " λx " says that the variable x is "bound" to the function (i.e, it is used for input). Whenever we see x in the function's output, we'll replace it with the input of the same name. This is a lot like normal function notation: In f(x) = x + 3, (x) is "bound" to f, and we replace every x we see with our input when evaluating.

• The dot tells us that what follows is the output of this expression. This is much like = in our usual function notation: The symbols after = in f(x) = x + 3 tell us how to compute the output of this function.

Problem 1:

Rewrite the following functions using this notation:

- f(x) = 7x + 4
- $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$

To evaluate $\lambda x.x + 3$, we need to input a value:

$$(\lambda x.x+3)$$
 5

This is very similar to the usual way we call functions: we usually write f(5). Above, we define our function f "in-line" using lambda notation, and we omit the parentheses around 5 for the sake of simpler notation.

We evaluate this by removing the " λ " prefix and substituting 3 for x wheverever it appears:

$$(\lambda x.x + 3) = 5 + 3 = 8$$

Problem 2:

Evaluate the following:

• $(\lambda x.2x + 1) 4$

- $(\lambda x.x^2 + 2x + 1)$ 3
- $(\lambda x.(\lambda y.9y)x+3)$ 2

Hint: This function has a function inside, but the evaluation process doesn't change. Replace all x with 2 and evaluate again.

As we saw above, we denote function application by simply putting functions next to their inputs. If we want to apply f to 5, we write "f 5", without any parentheses around the function's argument.

You may have noticed that we've been using arithmetic in the last few problems. This isn't fully correct: addition is not defined in lambda calculus. In fact, nothing is defined: not even numbers! In lambda calculus, we have only one kind of object: the function. The only action we have is function application, which works by just like the examples above.

Don't worry if this sounds confusing, we'll see a few examples soon.

Definition 3:

The first "pure" functions we'll define are I and M:

• $I = \lambda x.x$

•
$$M = \lambda x.xx$$

Both I and M take one function (x) as an input.

I does nothing, it just returns x.

M is a bit more interesting: it applies the function x on a copy of itself.

Also, note that I and M don't have a meaning on their own. They are not formal functions. Rather, they are abbreviations that say "write $\lambda x.x$ whenever you see I."

Problem 4:

Reduce the following expressions.

Hint: Of course, your final result will be a function. Functions are the only objects we have!

- I I
- *M I*
- (I I) I
- $\left(\ \lambda a.(a \ (a \ a)) \ \right) I$
- $\left(\left(\lambda a.(\lambda b.a) \right) M \right) I$

Example Solution

Solution for (I I):

Recall that $I = \lambda x.x$. First, we rewrite the left I to get $(\lambda x.x) I$. Applying this function by replacing x with I, we get I:

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

In lambda calculus, functions are left-associative:

(f g h) means ((f g) h), not (f (g h))

As usual, we use parentheses to group terms if we want to override this order: $(f (g h)) \neq ((f g) h)$ In this handout, all types of parentheses ((), [], etc) are equivalent.

Problem 5:

Rewrite the following expressions with as few parentheses as possible, without changing their meaning or structure. Remember that lambda calculus is left-associative.

- $(\lambda x.(\lambda y.\lambda z.((xz)(yz))))$
- ((ab)(cd))((ef)(gh))
- $(\lambda x.((\lambda y.(yx))(\lambda v.v)z)u)(\lambda w.w)$

Definition 6: Equivalence

We say two functions are *equivalent* if they differ only by the names of their variables: $I = \lambda a.a = \lambda b.b = \lambda \heartsuit. \heartsuit = ...$

Definition 7:

Let $K = \lambda a.(\lambda b.a)$. We'll call K the "constant function function."

Problem 8:

That's not a typo. Why does this name make sense? *Hint:* What is K x?

Problem 9: Show that associativity matters by evaluating $((M \ K) \ I)$ and $(M \ (K \ I))$. What would $M \ K \ I$ reduce to?

Currying:

In lambda calculus, functions are only allowed to take one argument. If we want multivariable functions, we'll have to emulate them through *currying*!

The idea behind currying is fairly simple: we make functions that return functions. We've already seen this on the previous page: K takes an input x and uses it to construct a constant function. You can think of K as a "factory" that constructs functions using the input we provide.

Problem 10: Let $C = \lambda f. [\lambda g. (\lambda x. [f(g(x))])]$. For now, we'll call it the "composer." Note: We could also call C the "right-associator." Why?

C has three "layers" of curry: it makes a function (λg) that makes another function (λx) . If we look closely, we'll find that C pretends to take three arguments.

What does C do? Evaluate $(C \ a \ b \ x)$ for arbitrary expressions a, b, and x. Hint: Evaluate $(C \ a)$ first. Remember, function application is left-associative.

Problem 11: Using the definition of *C* above, evaluate *C M I* \star Then, evaluate *C I M I Note:* \star represents an arbitrary expression. Treat it like an unknown variable.

As we saw above, currying allows us to create multivariable functions by nesting single-variable functions. You may have notice that curried expressions can get very long. We'll use a bit of shorthand to make them more palatable: If we have an expression with repeated function definitions, we'll combine their arguments under one λ .

For example, $A = \lambda f[\lambda a.f(f(a))]$ will become $A = \lambda fa.f(f(a))$

Problem 12:

Rewrite $C = \lambda f \cdot \lambda g \cdot \lambda x \cdot (g(f(x)))$ from Problem 10 using this shorthand.

Remember that this is only notation. Curried functions are not multivariable functions, they are simply shorthand! Any function presented with this notation must still be evaluated one variable at a time, just like an un-curried function. Substituting all curried variables at once will cause errors.

¹After Haskell Brooks Curry², a logician that contributed to the theory of functional computation.

 $^{^2\}mathrm{There}$ are three programming languages named after him: Haskell, Brook, and Curry.

Two of these are functional, and one is an oddball GPU language last released in 2007.

Problem 13:

Let $Q = \lambda abc.b.$ Reduce $(Q \ a \ c \ b)$.

Hint: You may want to rename a few variables. The a, b, c in Q are different than the a, b, c in the expression!

Problem 14: Reduce $((\lambda a.a) \ \lambda bc.b) \ d \ \lambda eg.g$

Part 2: Combinators

Definition 15:

A free variable in a λ -expression is a variable that isn't bound to any input. For example, b is a free variable in $(\lambda a.a)$ b.

Definition 16: Combinators

A *combinator* is a lambda expression with no free variables.

Notable combinators are often named after birds.³ We've already met a few: The *Idiot*, $I = \lambda a.a$ The *Mockingbird*, $M = \lambda f.ff$ The *Cardinal*, $C = \lambda fgx.(f(g(x)))$ The *Kestrel*, $K = \lambda ab.a$

Problem 17:

If we give the Kestrel two arguments, it does something interesting: It selects the first and rejects the second. Convince yourself of this fact by evaluating $(K \heartsuit \star)$.

Problem 18:

Modify the Kestrel so that it selects its second argument and rejects the first.

Problem 19:

We'll call the combinator from Problem 18 the *Kite*, KI. Show that we can also obtain the kite by evaluating (KI).

Part 3: Boolean Algebra

The Kestrel selects its first argument, and the Kite selects its second. Maybe we can somehow put this "choosing" behavior to work...

Problem 20:

Write a function NOT so that (NOT T) = F and (NOT F) = T. Hint: What is $(T \heartsuit \star)$? How about $(F \heartsuit \star)$?

Problem 21:

How would "if" statements work in this model of boolean logic? Say we have a boolean B and two expressions E_T and E_F . Can we write a function that evaluates to E_T if B is true, and to E_F otherwise?

Problem 22:

Write functions AND, OR, and XOR that satisfy the following table.

ons AND, OR, and XOR that satisfy the following table.					
	A	В	$(AND \ A \ B)$	$(OR \ A \ B)$	$(XOR \ A \ B)$
	F	F	F	F	F
	F	Т	F	Т	Т
	Т	F	F	Т	Т
	Т	Т	Т	Т	F

Problem 23:

To complete our boolean algebra, construct the boolean equality check EQ. What inputs should it take? What outputs should it produce?

Part 4: Numbers

Since the only objects we have in λ calculus are functions, it's natural to think of quantities as *adverbs* (once, twice, thrice,...) rather than *nouns* (one, two, three ...)

We'll start with zero. If our numbers are *once*, *twice*, and *twice*, it may make sense to make zero *don't*. Here's our *don't* function: given a function and an input, don't apply the function to the input.

 $0 = \lambda f a.a$

If you look closely, you'll find that 0 is equivalent to the false function F.

Problem 24: Write 1, 2, and 3. We will call these *Church numerals*⁴. *Note:* This problem read aloud is "Define *once, twice*, and *thrice*."

Problem 25: What is $(4 I) \star$?

Problem 26: What is (3 NOT T)? How about (8 NOT F)?

 $^{^4 {\}rm after}$ Alonzo Church, the inventor of lambda calculus and these numerals. He was Alan Turing's thesis advisor.

Problem 27:

Peano's axioms state that we only need a zero element and a "successor" operation to build the natural numbers. We've already defined zero. Now, create a successor operation so that $1 \coloneqq S(0)$, $2 \coloneqq S(1)$, and so on.

Hint: A good signature for this function is $\lambda n f a$, or more clearly $\lambda n \lambda f a$. Do you see why?

Problem 28: Verify that S(0) = 1 and S(1) = 2. Assume that only Church numerals will be passed to the functions in the following problems. We make no promises about their output if they're given anything else.

Problem 29:

Define a function ADD that adds two Church numerals.

Problem 30: Design a function MULT that multiplies two numbers. *Hint:* The easy solution uses ADD, the elegant one doesn't. Find both!

Problem 31:

Define the functions Z and NZ. Z should reduce to T if its input was zero, and F if it wasn't. NZ does the opposite. Z and NZ should look fairly similar.

Problem 32:

Design an expression PAIR that constructs two-value tuples. For example, say $A = PAIR \ 1 \ 2$. Then, $(A \ T)$ should reduce to 1 and $(A \ F)$ should reduce to 2.

From now on, I'll write (PAIR A B) as $\langle A, B \rangle$. Like currying, this is only notation. The underlying logic remains the same.

Problem 33:

Write a function H, which we'll call "shift and add." It does exactly what it says on the tin:

Given an input pair, it should shift its second argument left, then add one.

 $H \ \langle 0,1 \rangle$ should reduce to $\langle 1,2 \rangle$

 $H\langle 1,2\rangle$ should reduce to $\langle 2,3\rangle$

 $H\langle 10,4\rangle$ should reduce to $\langle 4,5\rangle$

Problem 34: Design a function D that un-does S. That means D(1) = 0, D(2) = 1, etc. D(0) should be zero. *Hint:* H will help you make an elegant solution.

Part 5: Recursion

Say we want a function that computes the factorial of a positive integer. Here's one way we could define it:

$$x! = \begin{cases} x \times (x-1)! & x \neq 0\\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

We cannot re-create this in lambda calculus, since we aren't given a way to recursively call functions.

One could think that $A = \lambda a.A a$ is a recursive function. In fact, it is not. Remember that such "definitions" aren't formal structures in lambda calculus. They're just shorthand that simplifies notation.

Problem 35:

Write an expression that resolves to itself. *Hint:* Your answer should be quite short.

This expression is often called Ω , after the last letter of the Greek alphabet. Ω useless on its own, but it gives us a starting point for recursion.

Definition 36:

This is the Y-combinator. You may notice that it's just Ω put to work.

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

Problem 37: What does this thing do? Evaluate Yf.

Part 6: Challenges

Do Problem 38 first, then finish the rest in any order.

Problem 38:

Design a recursive factorial function using Y.

Problem 39:

Design a non-recursive factorial function. This one is easier than Problem 38, but I don't think it will help you solve it.

Problem 40: Solve Problem 34 without using *H*. In Problem 34, we created the "decrement" function.

Problem 41:

Using pairs, make a "list" data structure. Define a GET function, so that GET L n reduces to the nth item in the list. GET L 0 should give the first item in the list, and GET L 1, the *second*. Lists have a defined length, so you should be able to tell when you're on the last element.

Problem 42:

Write a lambda expression that represents the Fibonacci function: f(0) = 1, f(1) = 1, f(n+2) = f(n+1) + f(n).

Problem 43:

Write a lambda expression that evaluates to T if a number n is prime, and to F otherwise.

Problem 44: Write a function MOD so that (MOD a b) reduces to the remainder of $a \div b$.

Problem 45: Bonus Play with *Lamb*, an automatic lambda expression evaluator. https://git.betalupi.com/Mark/lamb