

## Why We Learn Untyped and Typed $\lambda$ -Calculus?

- a model of computation,
- the simplest programming language with a type system, and
- a formal proof system for the intuitionistic propositional logic.

## Untyped $\lambda$ -Calculus

**Definition** ( $\lambda$ -terms). The set of  $\lambda$ -terms is defined by the following BNF.

$$M, N ::= x \mid M N \mid \lambda x.M \quad \square$$

A  $\lambda$ -term is sometimes called a  $\lambda$ -expression. An expression of the form of  $M N$  is called (*function*) *application*, and an expression of the form of  $\lambda x.M$  is called  $\lambda$ -*abstraction*.

**Example(s)**.  $\lambda x.x$ ,  $\lambda x.y$ ,  $\lambda x.(x x)$ .  $(\lambda x.(x x))(\lambda x.(x x))$  are examples of  $\lambda$ -terms. □

Intuitively,  $\lambda x.M$  represents a function. For example, the function  $f$  defined by  $f(x) = x + 3$  is represented as  $\lambda x.x + 3$ , where  $+$  and  $3$  are corresponding  $\lambda$ -terms.

### Convention

Function application is left-associative, and binds tighter than abstractions. For example,  $M_1 M_2 M_2$  means  $(M_1 M_2) M_2$ , and  $\lambda x.x x$  means  $\lambda x.(x x)$ . It is simplest to follow the convention that  $N$  in  $(M N)$  must be parenthesized unless  $N$  is a variable. A term of the form of  $\lambda x_1.\lambda x_2.\dots.\lambda x_n.M$  is sometimes written as  $\lambda x_1 x_2 \dots x_n.M$ .

## Occurrence and Subterms

A  $\lambda$ -term may contain multiple occurrences of the same term that have different roles. For example, a term  $x (\lambda x.x (\lambda x.x))$  contains three occurrences of the same variable  $x$ , which we want to distinguish as we will show later. A way to formalize occurrences is to use paths in the tree representation of a  $\lambda$ -term.

For a set  $S$ , we write by  $S^*$  the set of sequences of  $S$  elements. That is, an element of  $S^*$  is a sequence  $s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$  for some  $n$  where  $s_i \in S$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . The empty sequence is written by  $\epsilon$ .

**Definition.** For a  $\lambda$ -term  $M$ , the set of *positions*  $\mathcal{POS}(M) \subseteq \{1, 2\}^*$  is defined inductively as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{POS}(x) &= \{\epsilon\} \\ \mathcal{POS}(M N) &= \{\epsilon\} \cup \{1p \mid p \in \mathcal{POS}(M)\} \cup \{2p \mid p \in \mathcal{POS}(N)\} \\ \mathcal{POS}(\lambda x.M) &= \{\epsilon\} \cup \{1p \mid p \in \mathcal{POS}(M)\} \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

**Definition.** For a  $\lambda$ -term  $M$  and a position  $p \in \mathcal{POS}(M)$ , a *subterm*  $M|_p$  at  $p$  is defined inductively as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} M|_\epsilon &= M \\ (M_1 M_2)|_{ip} &= M_i|_p \quad (i = 1, 2) \\ (\lambda x.M)|_{1p} &= M|_p \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

We also say that  $M$  *occurs at  $p$  in  $N$*  if  $M$  is a subterm of  $N$  at  $p$ . We merely say that  $M$  is a subterm of  $N$  or  $M$  occurs in  $N$  if  $M = N|_p$  for some  $p$ . Note that  $x$  does not occur in  $\lambda x.y$ . Formally, an *occurrence* of a term  $M$  in  $N$  is a pair  $(M, p)$  such that  $M = N|_p$ , but we do not explicitly use such pairs in what follows.

## Free and Bound Variables

**Definition.** For a  $\lambda$ -term  $M$ , a variable  $x$  that occurs at  $p$  in  $M$  is called *bound* if there is a subterm  $\lambda x.M'$  in  $M$  at  $p'$  and  $p = p'p''$  for some  $p''$  (i.e.,  $\lambda x.M'$  contains the occurrence of  $x$ ). Otherwise, the variable occurrence is called *free*.  $\square$

**Example(s).** The  $\lambda$ -term  $(\lambda x.x) x$  has two occurrences of  $x$ : the left one at 11 is bound and the other at 2 is free.  $\square$

**Exercise.** Underline the bound occurrences of variables in  $(\lambda x.x (\lambda y.x y) y) (\lambda z.z) z$ .

**Definition.** For a  $\lambda$ -term  $M$ , the set of *free variables*  $\text{FV}(M)$  of  $M$  is the set of variables that occur free in  $M$ . The set can be defined inductively as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FV}(x) &= \{x\} \\ \text{FV}(\lambda x.M) &= \text{FV}(M) \setminus \{x\} \\ \text{FV}(M N) &= \text{FV}(M) \cup \text{FV}(N) \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

A term  $M$  is called *closed* if  $M$  has no free variables, i.e.,  $\text{FV}(M) = \emptyset$ . Closed  $\lambda$ -terms are sometimes called combinators. Famous combinators include  $I \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.x$ ,  $K \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.\lambda y.x$ ,  $S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x z (y z)$ ,  $\Delta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.x x$ , and  $Y$  that will be introduced later.

## Substitution and $\alpha$ -equivalence

Intuitively, a substitution  $M[N/x]$  replaces all the free occurrences of  $x$  in  $M$  with  $N$ . However, naively doing so is problematic when  $N$  contains free variables. Let us consider two  $\lambda$ -terms  $\lambda x.z x$  and  $\lambda y.z y$ . We do not want to distinguish two terms as  $f(x) = z + x$  and  $f(y) = z + y$  represent the same function. However, naively replacing  $z$  with  $y$  makes the two function different. Thus, we define substitution so that it renames bound variables if necessary, as follows.

**Definition.** For a variable  $x$  and  $\lambda$ -terms  $M$  and  $N$ , we define a (*capture-avoiding*) *substitution* of  $x$  in  $M$  to  $N$ ,  $M[N/x]$ , inductively as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} y[N/x] &= \begin{cases} N & (x = y) \\ y & (x \neq y) \end{cases} \\ (\lambda y.M)[N/x] &= \begin{cases} \lambda y.M & (x = y) \\ \lambda y.M[N/x] & (x \neq y \wedge y \notin \text{FV}(N)) \\ (\lambda z.M[z/y])[N/x] & (x \neq y \wedge y \in \text{FV}(N) \wedge z \notin \text{FV}(N)) \end{cases} \\ (M M')[N/x] &= (M[N/x]) (M'[N/x]) \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

**Note.** There is another common way to write substitution:  $M[x := N]$  to mean  $M[N/x]$ . Some people use a prefix notation to write  $[x := N]M$  instead. Some people represent a (simultaneous) substitution itself as a function  $\theta$  from variables to terms such that  $\{x \mid \theta(x) \neq x\}$  is finite, and then define its application  $M\theta$  to a term  $M$ .  $\square$

The notion of  $\alpha$ -equivalence formalizes the equality of terms up to remaining of bound variables.

**Definition** ( $\alpha$ -equivalence). the relation  $\equiv_\alpha$  is the smallest reflexive and transitive relation satisfying the following conditions.

- $\lambda x.M \equiv_\alpha \lambda y.M[y/x]$  for all  $\lambda$ -terms  $M$ , variables  $x$ , and variables  $y \notin \text{FV}(M)$ .
- $M \equiv_\alpha M'$  implies  $\lambda x.M \equiv_\alpha \lambda x.M'$  for all  $\lambda$ -terms  $M$  and  $M'$ .
- $M \equiv_\alpha M'$  implies  $M N \equiv_\alpha M' N$  for all  $\lambda$ -terms  $M$ ,  $M'$  and  $N$ .
- $N \equiv_\alpha N'$  implies  $M N \equiv_\alpha M N'$  for all  $\lambda$ -terms  $M$ ,  $N$  and  $N'$ .  $\square$

**Example(s).** The pairs  $\lambda x.x$  and  $\lambda y.y$ ,  $\lambda x.z x$  and  $\lambda y.z y$ , and  $(\lambda x.x x) (\lambda x.x x)$  and  $(\lambda y.y y) (\lambda z.z z)$  are all  $\alpha$ -equivalent terms. In contrast,  $\lambda x.z x$  and  $\lambda x.w x$  are not  $\alpha$ -equivalent.  $\square$

Replacement of a  $\lambda$ -term with an  $\alpha$ -equivalent one is called  $\alpha$ -conversion or  $\alpha$ -renaming.

**Convention**

We identify two  $\alpha$ -equivalent  $\lambda$ -terms. In other words,  $\lambda x.x$  and  $\lambda y.y$  are treated as the same term. In this sense, the third clause of the definition  $(\lambda y.M)[N/x]$  is superfluous because we can choose the name of bound variables so that the conditions in the second clause are fulfilled.

## $\beta$ -Reduction

Now we are ready to define the all and only computing mechanism of  $\lambda$ -terms,  $\beta$ -reduction.

**Definition** ( $\beta$ -reduction). We define the relation  $\rightarrow_\beta$  by the following rules.

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x.M)N \rightarrow_\beta M[N/x]} \quad \frac{M \rightarrow_\beta M'}{M N \rightarrow_\beta M' N} \quad \frac{N \rightarrow_\beta N'}{M N \rightarrow_\beta M N'} \quad \frac{M \rightarrow_\beta M'}{\lambda x.M \rightarrow_\beta \lambda x.M'} \quad \square$$

We sometimes omit  $\beta$  to write  $\rightarrow$ . Intuitively,  $\beta$ -reduction replaces an occurrence of  $(\lambda x.M) N$  with  $M[N/x]$ . A term  $M$  is in a ( $\beta$ -) *normal form* if there is no  $N$  such that  $M \rightarrow_\beta N$ . We say  $M$  is a normal form of  $N$  if  $M$  is in a normal form and  $N \rightarrow_\beta^* M$ . Some  $\lambda$ -terms do not have normal forms, such as  $(\lambda x.x x) (\lambda x.x x)$ . A subterm of the form of  $(\lambda x.M) N$  is sometimes called ( $\beta$ -) *redex*. A term can contain multiple redexes as  $(\lambda x.(\lambda y.y) x) ((\lambda z.z) (\lambda w.w))$ ; in such a situation, the result of a  $\beta$ -reduction depends on the choice of the redex. It is known that those terms will coincide after further  $\beta$ -reductions if we choose redexes appropriately. This property is called Church-Rosser property.

**Theorem** (Church-Rosser). Let  $\equiv_\beta$  be the smallest reflexive, symmetric and transitive relation that contains  $\rightarrow_\beta$ . Then, for all  $\lambda$ -terms  $M$  and  $M'$  such that  $M \equiv_\beta M'$ , there exists a term  $N$  such that  $M \rightarrow_\beta^* N$  and  $M' \rightarrow_\beta^* N$ .  $\square$

It follows that, if a term has a normal form, the normal form is unique. Even if a term has a normal form, not all sequence of reduction lead to it (some may never terminate), as  $(\lambda x.y) ((\lambda x.x x) (\lambda x.x x))$ . It is known that, if we reduce the leftmost outermost redex, the reduction sequence always ends in the normal form if it exists.

We may consider another reduction called  $\eta$ .

$$\frac{x \notin \text{FV}(M)}{\lambda x.Mx \longrightarrow_{\eta} M} \quad \frac{M \longrightarrow_{\eta} M'}{M N \longrightarrow_{\eta} M' N} \quad \frac{N \longrightarrow_{\eta} N'}{M N \longrightarrow_{\eta} M N'} \quad \frac{M \longrightarrow_{\eta} M'}{\lambda x.M \longrightarrow_{\eta} \lambda x.M'}$$

## Church Encoding

We now introduce how to represent computations in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

**Church Booleans.** First, we represent computation with Boolean values in  $\lambda$ -calculus. We represent a thing by what it can do. For Booleans, what they can do is branching, so we define *true* and *false* as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{true} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.\lambda y.x \\ \text{false} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.\lambda y.y \end{aligned}$$

Branching then is merely an application.

$$\text{if } M_1 \text{ then } M_2 \text{ else } M_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} M_1 M_2 M_3$$

It is easy to see that  $\text{true } M N \longrightarrow^* M$  and  $\text{false } M N \longrightarrow^* N$ .

Boolean functions can be defined on the representation. For example, the negation operator *not* can be defined as:

$$\text{not} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda b.\lambda x.\lambda y.b y x.$$

Check how terms  $(\text{not true}) M N$  and  $(\text{not false}) M N$  will be reduced. As another example, we define the function *and* that does conjunction:

$$\text{and} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda b_1.\lambda b_2.b_1 b_2 \text{false}.$$

The subterm  $b_1 b_2 \text{false}$  essentially represents **if**  $b_1$  **then**  $b_2$  **else** *false*. Check how terms  $(\text{and true } b) M N$  and  $(\text{and false } b) M N$  will be reduced.

**Exercise.** Define a  $\lambda$ -term “*or*” that corresponds to disjunction. □

**Church Pairs.** We now define the representation of pairs. Since a pair encapsulates two pieces of data, what a pair can do is to pass the data to the rest of computation. Thus, if we write *pair* for the pair constructor, we can define it as follows.

$$\text{pair} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda f.f x y$$

We extract the first and the second components of a pair by the following functions *fst* and *snd*, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fst} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda p.p \text{true} \\ \text{snd} &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda p.p \text{false} \end{aligned}$$

Check how *fst*  $(\text{pair } M N)$  will be reduced.

**Church Numerals.** Now, we discuss how to perform computations on natural numbers. In Church encoding, a natural number  $n$  is represented by the  $n$ th iteration.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 0 & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda s.\lambda z.z & 3 & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda s.\lambda z.s (s (s z)) \\
 1 & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda s.\lambda z.s z & & \vdots \\
 2 & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda s.\lambda z.s (s z) & n & = \lambda s.\lambda z.\underbrace{s (\dots (s z) \dots)}_n
 \end{array}$$

In other words, the encoding of a natural number  $n$  represents the same computation as the following JavaScript-like code.

```

var r = z;
for (var i = 0; i < n; i++) {
  r = s(r);
}

```

In advance to defining the addition of Church numerals, we define the function *succ* to compute the successor.

$$succ \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n.\lambda s.\lambda z.s (n s z)$$

Addition *add* is then as follows.

$$add \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n.\lambda m.n \text{ succ } m$$

For example, *add* 1 1 is reduced as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
 add\ 1\ 1 &= (\lambda n.\lambda m.n \text{ succ } m) (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \\
 &\rightarrow (\lambda m.(\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \text{ succ } m) (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \\
 &\rightarrow (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \text{ succ } (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \\
 &\rightarrow (\lambda z.\text{succ } z) (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \\
 &\rightarrow \text{succ } (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) = (\lambda n.\lambda s.\lambda z.s (n s z)) (\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) \\
 &\rightarrow \lambda s'.\lambda z'.s' ((\lambda s.\lambda z.s z) s' z') \\
 &\rightarrow \lambda s'.\lambda z'.s' ((\lambda z.s' z) z') \rightarrow \lambda s'.\lambda z'.s' (s' z') = 2
 \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise.** Another definition of *succ* is

$$succ \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n.\lambda s.\lambda z.n s (s z).$$

How *add* 1 1 will be reduced with this definition of *succ*? Also, one can define *add* without using *succ* as follows.

$$add \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n.\lambda m.\lambda s.\lambda z.n s (m s z)$$

Compute *add* 1 1 with this definition. □

**Exercise.** Give  $\lambda$ -terms *mult* and *pow* that compute multiplication and exponentiation. □

We need a small trick to define a predecessor function.

$$pred \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n.fst (n (\lambda p.pair (snd p) (succ (snd p))) (pair\ 0\ 0))$$

The trick is to keep the result of the previous iteration by using a pair. Notice that  $pred\ 0$  evaluates to 0 in this definition.

By using  $pred$ , we can define subtraction.

$$sub \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n. \lambda m. m\ pred\ n$$

Notice that  $sub\ n\ m$  evaluates to 0 if  $n \leq m$ .

It is sometimes useful to check whether a number is 0 or not.

$$isZero \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda n. (\lambda x. false)\ true$$

**Exercise.** Give  $\lambda$ -terms  $le$ ,  $lt$ ,  $ge$ ,  $gt$  and  $eq$  that correspond to  $(\leq)$ ,  $(<)$ ,  $(\geq)$ ,  $(>)$  and  $(=)$  on natural numbers, respectively.  $\square$

## General Recursion

Assume that we have a  $\lambda$ -term  $Y$  that can be reduced as follows.

$$Y\ M \longrightarrow^* M\ (Y\ M)$$

With  $Y$ , we can realize recursive functions:

$$sum \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Y\ (\lambda f. \lambda n. \mathbf{if}\ isZero\ n\ \mathbf{then}\ 0\ \mathbf{else}\ add\ n\ (f\ (pred\ n))).$$

For example,  $sum\ 2$  evaluates as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} sum\ 2 &\longrightarrow^* \mathbf{if}\ isZero\ 2\ \mathbf{then}\ 0\ \mathbf{else}\ add\ 2\ (sum\ (pred\ 2)) \\ &\longrightarrow^* add\ 2\ (sum\ 1) \\ &\longrightarrow^* add\ 2\ (\mathbf{if}\ isZero\ 1\ \mathbf{then}\ 0\ \mathbf{else}\ add\ 1\ (sum\ (pred\ 1))) \\ &\longrightarrow^* add\ 2\ (add\ 1\ (sum\ 0)) \\ &\longrightarrow^* add\ 2\ (add\ 1\ (\mathbf{if}\ isZero\ 0\ \mathbf{then}\ 0\ \mathbf{else}\ add\ 0\ (sum\ (pred\ 0)))) \\ &\longrightarrow^* add\ 2\ (add\ 1\ 0) \longrightarrow^* 3 \end{aligned}$$

How do we define such  $Y$ ? A hint is the  $\lambda$ -term  $\Delta = \lambda x. x\ x$ ; we have  $\Delta\ (\lambda x. \Delta\ x) \longrightarrow (\lambda x. \Delta\ x)\ (\lambda x. \Delta\ x) \longrightarrow \Delta\ (\lambda x. \Delta\ x)$ . Then, consider a slightly different version  $\Delta\ (\lambda x. f\ (\Delta\ x))$  that produces  $f$  after copying by the first  $\Delta$ . Then, we have  $\Delta\ (\lambda x. f\ (\Delta\ x)) \longrightarrow (\lambda x. f\ (\Delta\ x))\ (\lambda x. f\ (\Delta\ x)) \longrightarrow f\ (\Delta\ (\lambda x. f\ (\Delta\ x)))$ . Thus, we can define  $Y$  as follows.

$$Y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lambda f. \Delta\ (\lambda x. f\ (\Delta\ x))$$

This  $Y$  is known as Curry's fixed-point combinator.

**Exercise.** Give a  $\lambda$ -term that computes factorials with or without  $Y$ . Give a  $\lambda$ -term that computes the Ackermann function  $a$  defined below with  $Y$ .

$$a(m, n) = \begin{cases} n + 1 & \text{if } m = 0, \\ a(m - 1, 1) & \text{if } n = 0, \\ a(m - 1, a(m, n - 1)) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad \square$$