## Lambda Calculus



## Plan

- Introduce lambda calculus
- Syntax

- Substitution
- Operational Semantics (... with contexts!)
- Evaluations strategies
- Equality
- Later:
- Relationship to programming languages
- Study of types and type systems


## Lambda Background

- Developed in 1930’s by Alonzo Church
- Subsequently studied by many people
- Still studied today!
- Considered the "testbed" for procedural and functional languages
- Simple
- Powerful
- Easy to extend with new features of interest
- Lambda:PL :: Turning Machine:Complexity
- Somewhat like a crowbar ...
"Whatever the next 700 languages turn out to be, they will surely be variants of lambda calculus."
(Landin '66)


## Lambda Syntax

- The $\lambda$-calculus has 3 kinds of expressions (terms)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { e }::=x & \text { Variables } \\
\mid & \lambda x . e & \text { Functions (abstractions) } \\
\mid & \mathrm{e}_{1} \mathrm{e}_{2} & \text { Application }
\end{array}
$$

- $\lambda x$. e is a one-argument anonymous function with body e
- $e_{1} e_{2}$ is a function application
- Application associates to the left

$$
x y z===(x y) z
$$

- Abstraction extends far to the right

$$
\lambda x . x \lambda y, x y z===\lambda x .(x[\lambda y .\{(x y) z\}])
$$

## Why Should I Care?

- A language with 3 expressions? Woof!
- Li and Zdancewic. Downgrading policies and relaxed noninterference. POPL '05
- Just one example of a recent PL/security paper


## 4. LOCAL DOWNGRADING POLICIES

### 4.1 Label Definition

Definition 4.1.1 (The policy language). In Figure 1.

| Types | $\tau::=$ int $\mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$ |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Constants | $c::=c_{i}$ |  |
| Operators | $\oplus::=+,-,=\ldots$ |  |
| Terms | $m::=\lambda x: \tau . m\|m m\| x\|c\| m \oplus m$ |  |
| Policies | $n::=$ | $\lambda x:$ int. $m$ |
| Labels | $l::=$ | $\left\{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}\right\} \quad(k \geq 1)$ |

Figure 1: $\mathbb{L}_{\text {local }}$ Label Syntax

The core of the policy language is a variant of the simplytyped $\lambda$-calculus with a base type, binary operators and constants. A downgrading policy is a $\lambda$-term that specifies how an integer can be downgraded: when this $\lambda$-term is applied to the annotated integer, the result becomes public. A

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash m: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash m \equiv m: \tau} & \text { Q-REFL } \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash m_{1} \equiv m_{2}: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash m_{2} \equiv m_{1}: \tau} & \text { Q-SYMM }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma, x: \tau_{1} \vdash m_{1} \equiv m_{2}: \tau_{2}}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x: \tau_{1} \cdot m_{1} \equiv \lambda x: \tau_{1} . m_{2}: \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2}} \quad \text { Q-ABS }
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Gamma \vdash m_{1} \equiv m_{2}: \tau_{1} \rightarrow \tau_{2} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash m_{3} \equiv m_{4}: \tau_{1}}{\Gamma \vdash m_{1} m_{3} \equiv m_{2} m_{4}: \tau_{2}} \\
\Gamma \vdash m_{1} \equiv m_{2}: \mathrm{int} \\
\Gamma \vdash m_{3} \equiv m_{4}: \mathrm{int} \\
\hline \Gamma \vdash m_{1} \oplus m_{3} \equiv m_{2} \oplus m_{4}: \mathrm{int}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Lambda Celebrity Representative

- Milton Friedman?
- Morgan Freeman?
- C. S. Friedman?



## Gordon Freeman

- Best-selling PC FPS to date ...



## Examples of Lambda Expressions

- The identity function:

$$
I={ }_{\text {def }} \lambda x . x
$$

- A function that, given an argument y, discards it and yields the identity function:

$$
\lambda y .(\lambda x . x)
$$

- A function that, given an function $f$, invokes it on the identity function:
$\lambda f . f(\lambda x . x)$

"There goes our grant money."


## Scope of Variables

- As in all languages with variables, it is important to discuss the notion of scope
- The scope of an identifier is the portion of a program where the identifier is accessible
- An abstraction $\lambda x$. E binds variable x in E
- $x$ is the newly introduced variable
- $E$ is the scope of $x$
(unless $x$ is shadowed)
- We say $x$ is bound in $\lambda x$. $E$
- Just like formal function arguments are bound in the function body


## Free and Bound Variables

- A variable is said to be free in $E$ if it has occurrences that are not bound in E
- We can define the free variables of an expression E recursively as follows:
- Free(x) = \{x\}
$-\operatorname{Free}\left(E_{1} E_{2}\right)=\operatorname{Free}\left(E_{1}\right) \cup \operatorname{Free}\left(E_{2}\right)$
- $\operatorname{Free}(\lambda x . \mathrm{E})=\operatorname{Free}(E)-\{x\}$
- Example: $\operatorname{Free}(\lambda x, x(\lambda y, x y z))=\{z\}$
- Free variables are (implicitly or explicitly) declared outside the expression


## Free Your Mind!

- Just as in any language with statically-nested scoping we have to worry about variable shadowing
- An occurrence of a variable might refer to different things in different contexts
- Example in IMP with locals:

$$
\text { let } x=5 \text { in } x+(\text { let } x=\underline{9} \text { in } \underline{x})+x
$$

- In $\lambda$-calculus:

$$
\lambda x . x(\lambda \underline{x} . \underline{x}) x
$$

## Renaming Bound Variables

- $\lambda$-terms that can be obtained from one another by renaming bound variables are considered identical
- This is called $\underline{\alpha}$-equivalence
- Renaming bound vars is called $\alpha$-renaming
- Ex: $\lambda x . x$ is identical to $\lambda y . y$ and to $\lambda z . z$
- Intuition:
- By changing the name of a formal argument and all of its occurrences in the function body, the behavior of the function does not change
- In $\lambda$-calculus such functions are considered identical


## Make It Easy On Yourself

- Convention: we will always try to rename bound variables so that they are all unique
- e.g., write $\lambda x . x(\lambda y . y) x$ instead of $\lambda x . x(\lambda x . x) x$
- This makes it easy to see the scope of bindings and also prevents confusion!



## Substitution

- The substitution of $F$ for $x$ in $E$ (written $[F / x] E$ )
- Step 1. Rename bound variables in $E$ and $F$ so they are unique
- Step 2. Perform the textual substitution of $f$ for $X$ in $E$
- Called capture-avoiding substitution
- Example: [y ( $\lambda x . x) / x] \lambda y .(\lambda x . x) y x$
- After renaming: $[y(\lambda x . x) / x] \lambda z .(\lambda u . u) z x$
- After substitution: $\lambda z$. ( $\lambda \mathrm{u} . \mathrm{u}) \mathrm{z}(\mathrm{y}(\lambda \mathrm{x} . \mathrm{x}))$
- If we are not careful with scopes we might get:

$$
\lambda y .(\lambda x . x) \text { y }(y(\lambda x . x)) \quad \leftarrow \text { wrong! }
$$

## The De Bruijn Notation

- An alternative syntax that avoids naming of bound variables (and the subsequent confusions)
- The De Bruijn index of a variable occurrence is that number of lambda that separate the occurrence from its binding lambda in the abstract syntax tree
- The De Bruijn notation replaces names of occurrences with their De Bruijn indices
- Examples:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - } \lambda \mathrm{x} . \mathrm{x} \\
& \text { - } \lambda \mathrm{x} . \lambda \mathrm{x} . \mathrm{x} \\
& \text { - } \lambda x . \lambda y . y \\
& \text { - ( } \lambda \mathrm{x} . \mathrm{x} \text { x) }(\lambda \mathrm{z} . \mathrm{zz}) \\
& \text { - } \lambda \mathrm{x} .(\lambda \mathrm{x} . \lambda \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{x}) \mathrm{x}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\lambda .0$
$\lambda . \lambda .0$
$\lambda . \lambda .0$
( $\lambda .00$ ) ( $\lambda .00$ )
$\lambda .(\lambda . \lambda .1) 0$

## Identical terms have identical representations!

## Combinators

- A $\lambda$-term without free variables is closed or a combinator
- Some interesting combinators:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{I} & =\lambda \mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{x} \\
\mathrm{~K} & =\lambda \mathrm{x} \cdot \lambda \mathrm{y} \cdot \mathrm{x} \\
\mathrm{~S} & =\lambda \mathrm{f} \cdot \lambda \mathrm{~g} \cdot \lambda \mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{fx}(\mathrm{gx}) \\
\mathrm{D} & =\lambda \mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{x} \mathrm{x} \\
\mathrm{Y} & =\lambda \mathrm{f} \cdot(\lambda \mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{xx}))(\lambda \mathrm{x} \cdot \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x} x))
\end{array}
$$

- Theorem: any closed term is equivalent to one written with just $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{K}$ and I
- Example: D $=_{\beta}$ SII
- (we'll discuss this form of equivalence later)
Q: Music (241 / 842)
- Name the singer and his crossover 1982 album that holds (as of 2011) the record of being the best-selling album of all-original material in the US (26 times platinum, 37 weeks as Billboard \#1). Much of that success was the result of the singer's use of the MTV music video.


## Q: Class (Tianhao Tong)

- This is the largest city proper in the world (over 23 million in 2010), located on the Yangtze river delta. Its name means "upper sea".



## Q: Class (T. Dao, K. McDowell)

-This recreational activity is the world's most popular sport (over 250 million players in 200 countries). It is governed by the Laws of the Game. For fouls, players are cautioned with yellow cards and ejected with red cards.

## Q: Class (Jack Wadden)

- This Prarie State has a reputation as a predictor and model of the US as a whole. Barack Obama was a senator from this state before being elected president. It is also known as the Land of Lincoln.


## Q: Class (John Dorn)

- This king of Uruk reigned around 2500 BCE and is the eponymous protagonist of an Epic, the greatest surviving work of Mesopotamian literature. In it, he and his wild companion Enkidu kill the Bull of Heaven sent by Ishtar. Sadly, Enkidu dies.


## Q: Class (Adam Brady)

- This space-themed MMORPG has been uncharitably described as a "rousing game of combat spreadsheets". Characters train skills in real time, even when players are not logged into the game. Players can create in-game Ponzi schemes and illegal banks if they choose, and philosophies battle it out in a microcosm of society.


## Q: Class (Peter Chapman)

- In cryptography, this is an attack involving information gained from the physical reification of a cryptosystem, rather than via brute force or algorithmic flaws. Power consumption and EM leaks are classic examples.


## Q：General（452／842）

## －Name any 3 of

 the 22 letters in the Hebrew alphabet．| 3 | 7 | コ | 】 | $\pi$ |  | ワ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b | d | $f$ | 9 | h |  | kh |
| P | Э | $\zeta$ | 9 | ） | 1 | 9 |
|  |  | 1 | m | $n$ | － | 0 |
| 3 | $7$ | $\bigcirc$ | 泡 | Vj |  | $\bullet$ |
| $p$ | r |  |  | sh |  |  |
| 3 | ב | 1 | $\square$ | $\dagger$ | $\aleph$ | v |
| ts |  |  | $y$ | 2 |  |  |

## Informal Semantics

- We consider only closed terms
- The evaluation of

$$
(\lambda \times . e) f
$$

- Binds $x$ to $f$
- Evaluates e with the new binding
- Yields the result of this evaluation
- Like a function call, or like "let $x=f$ in e"
- Example:

$$
(\lambda \mathrm{f} . \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{fe} \mathrm{e})) \mathrm{g} \text { evaluates to } \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{ge})
$$

## Operational Semantics

- Many operational semantics for the $\lambda$-calculus
- All are based on the equation

$$
(\lambda x, e) f={ }_{\beta}[f / x] e
$$

usually read from left to right

- This is called the $\beta$-rule and the evaluation step a $\beta$-reduction
- The subterm ( $\lambda \times$.e) f is a $\beta$-redex
- We write e $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ g to say that e $\beta$-reduces to $g$ in one step
- We write e $\rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*}$ g to say that e $\beta$-reduces to $g$ in 0 or more steps
- Remind you of the small-step opsem term rewriting?


## Examples of Evaluation

- The identity function:

$$
(\lambda x . x) E \rightarrow[E / x] x=E
$$

- Another example with the identity:

$$
\begin{gathered}
(\lambda f . f(\lambda x . x))(\lambda x . x) \rightarrow \\
[\lambda x \cdot x / f] f(\lambda x \cdot x))= \\
[\lambda x \cdot x / f] f(\lambda y \cdot y))= \\
(\lambda x \cdot x)(\lambda y \cdot y) \rightarrow \\
{[\lambda y \cdot y / x] x=\lambda y \cdot y}
\end{gathered}
$$

- A non-terminating evaluation:
$(\lambda x . x x)(\lambda y . y y) \rightarrow \quad$ NIL in:HURSOU
$[\lambda y . y y / x] x x=(\lambda y . y y)(\lambda y . y y) \rightarrow \ldots$
- Try T T, where $\mathrm{T}=\lambda \mathrm{x} . \mathrm{x} \times \mathrm{x}$


## Evaluation and the Static Scope

- The definition of substitution guarantees that evaluation respets static scoping:
$(\lambda x .(\lambda y . y x))(y(\lambda x . x)) \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda z . z(y(\lambda v . v))$
(y remains free, i.e., defined externally)
- If we forget to rename the bound y :
$(\lambda x .(\lambda y . y x))(y(\lambda x . x)) \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*} \lambda y . y(y(\lambda v . v))$
( y was free before but is bound now)


## Another View of Reduction

- The application

- Becomes:

(terms can grow substantially through $\beta$-reduction!)


## Normal Forms

- A term without redexes is in normal form
- A reduction sequence stops at a normal form
- If e is in normal form and $\mathrm{e} \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*}$ $f$ then e is identical to $f$
- $K=\lambda x . \lambda y . x$ is in normal form
- K I is not in normal form


## Nondeterministic Evaluation

- We define a small-step reduction relation
$(\lambda x . e) f \rightarrow[f / x] e$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{e}_{1} \rightarrow \mathrm{e}_{2} \\
\mathrm{e}_{1} \mathrm{f} \rightarrow \mathrm{e}_{2} \mathrm{f}
\end{gathered}
$$

| $f_{1}$ | $\rightarrow f_{2}$ |
| ---: | :--- |
| $e f_{1}$ | $\rightarrow e f_{2}$ |

$$
\begin{gathered}
e \rightarrow f \\
\lambda x . e \rightarrow \lambda x . f
\end{gathered}
$$

- This is a non-deterministic semantics
- Note that we evaluate under $\lambda$ (where?)


## Lambda Calculus Contexts

- Define contexts with one hole
- H ::= • | $\lambda x$. H| He|e H
- Write $\mathrm{H}[\mathrm{e}]$ to denote the filling of the hole in H with the expression e
- Example:

$$
H=\lambda x . x \bullet \quad H[\lambda y \cdot y]=\lambda x \cdot x(\lambda y \cdot y)
$$

- Filling the hole allows variable capture!

$$
H=\lambda x . x \bullet \quad H[x]=\lambda x . x x
$$

## Contextual Opsem


$e \rightarrow f$
$H[e] \rightarrow H[f]$

- Contexts allow concise formulations of congruence rules (application of local reduction rules on subterms)
- Reduction occurs at a $\beta$-redex that can be anywhere inside the expression
- The latter rule is called a congruence or structural rule
- The above rules to not specify which redex must be reduced first


## The Order of Evaluation

- In a $\lambda$-term there could be more than one instance of ( $\lambda \times$.e) f , as in:

$$
(\lambda y .(\lambda x . x) y) E
$$

- Could reduce the inner or outer $\lambda$
- Which one should we pick?



## The Diamond Property

- A relation R has the diamond property if whenever e $R e_{1}$ and e $R e_{2}$ then there exists $e_{3}$ such that $e_{1} R e_{3}$ and $e_{2} R e_{3}$

- $\rightarrow_{\beta}$ does not have the diamond property
- $\rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*}$ has the diamond property
- Also called the confluence property


## A Diamond In The Rough

- Languages defined by non-deterministic sets of rules are common
- Logic programming languages
- Expert systems
- Constraint satisfaction systems
- And thus most pointer analyses ...
- Dataflow systems
- Makefiles
- It is useful to know whether such systems have the diamond property


## (Beta) Equality

- Let $=_{\beta}$ be the reflexive, transitive and symmetric closure of $\rightarrow_{\beta}$

$$
=_{\beta} \text { is }\left(\rightarrow_{\beta} \cup \leftarrow_{\beta}\right)^{*}
$$

- That is, $e=_{\beta} f$ if e converts to $f$ via a sequence of forward and backward $\rightarrow_{\beta}$



## The Church-Rosser Theorem

- If $e_{1}=_{\beta} e_{2}$ then there exists $e_{3}$ such that $e_{1} \rightarrow$ ${ }_{\beta}{ }^{*} e_{3}$ and $e_{2} \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*} e_{3}$

- Proof (informal): apply the diamond property as many times as necessary


## Corollaries

- If $e_{1}=_{\beta} e_{2}$ and $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ are normal forms then $e_{1}$ is identical to $e_{2}$
- From C-R we have $\exists e_{3} . \mathrm{e}_{1} \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*} \mathrm{e}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{2} \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*} \mathrm{e}_{3}$
- Since $e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$ are normal forms they are identical to $\mathrm{e}_{3}$
- If $\mathrm{e} \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*} \mathrm{e}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{e} \rightarrow_{\beta}{ }^{*} \mathrm{e}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ are normal forms then $e_{1}$ is identical to $e_{2}$
- "All terms have a unique normal form."


## Evaluation Strategies

- Church-Rosser theorem says that independent of the reduction strategy we will find $\leq 1$ normal form
- But some reduction strategies might find 0
- $(\lambda x . z) \xrightarrow[(]{(\lambda y . y y)}(\lambda y . y y)) \rightarrow$

$$
(\lambda x . z)((\lambda y . y y)(\lambda y . y y)) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

- $(\lambda x . z)((\lambda y . y y)(\lambda y . y y)) \rightarrow z$
- There are three traditional strategies
- normal order (never used, always works)
- call-by-name (rarely used, cf. TeX)
- call-by-value (amazingly popular)


## Civilization: Call By Value

- Normal Order
- Evaluates the left-most redex not contained in another redex
- If there is a normal form, this finds it
- Not used in practice: requires partially evaluating function pointers and looking "inside" functions
- Call-By-Name ("lazy")
- Don't reduce under $\lambda$, don't evaluate a function argument (until you need to)
- Does not always evaluate to a normal form
- Call-By-Value ("eager" or "strict")
- Don't reduce under $\lambda$, do evaluate a function's argument right away
- Finds normal forms less often than the other two


## Endgame

- This time: $\lambda$ syntax, semantics, reductions, equality, ...
- Next time: encodings, real prorams, type systems, and all the fun stuff!

Wisely done, Mr.
Freeman. I will see you up ahead.

## Homgwork

- Homework 5 Due Later
- Final Project?


## Tricksy On The Board Answer

- Is this rule from lectures ago unsound?
$\vdash\{\mathrm{A} \wedge \mathrm{p}\} \mathrm{C}_{\text {then }}\left\{\mathrm{B}_{\text {then }}\right\} \quad \vdash\{\mathrm{A} \wedge \neg \mathrm{p}\} \mathrm{C}_{\text {else }}\left\{\mathrm{B}_{\text {else }}\right\}$
$\vdash\{A\}$ if $p$ then $c_{\text {then }}$ else $c_{\text {else }}\left\{B_{\text {then }} \vee B_{\text {else }}\right\}$
- Nope: it's our basic rule plus $2 x$ consequence

$$
\frac{\vdash\{A \wedge p\} C_{1}\{B\} \quad \vdash\{A \wedge \neg p\} C_{2}\{B\}}{\vdash\{A\} \text { if } p \text { then } C_{1} \text { else } C_{2}\{B\}}
$$

$$
\vdash A^{\prime} \Rightarrow A \vdash\{A\} \subset\{B\} \vdash B \Rightarrow B^{\prime}
$$

$$
\vdash\left\{A^{\prime}\right\} \subset\left\{B^{\prime}\right\}
$$

- Note that $B_{\text {then }} \Rightarrow B_{\text {then }} \vee B_{\text {else }}$

