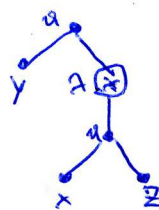


Summary of last time:  $\lambda$ -terms (set 1):  $x, (MN), (\lambda u.M)$

(1.5)

(2) Syntactical identity:  $(xz) \equiv (xz), (\lambda z) \not\equiv (\lambda y)$

(MA) <sup>multi</sup>subterms, <sub>set</sub> Sub, free of subterms:  $(y(\lambda x.(xz)))$



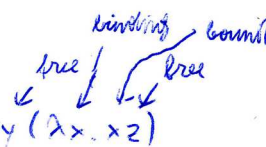
stands for

(MA) Notation:  $MN \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} (MN)$

$$\bullet MN L = ((MN)L)$$

$$\bullet \lambda x.y.M = (\lambda x.(\lambda y.M))$$

$$\bullet \lambda x.MN = \lambda x.(MN)$$



(MA) free, bound, binding variables, sets  $FV, B, B:$

(MA) closed  $\lambda$  terms

(MA) renaming:  $x(\lambda x.xy) \stackrel{x \rightarrow y}{=} y(\lambda x.xy)$

(2) alpha conversion,  $\equiv_\alpha$ :  $\lambda x.M \equiv_\alpha \lambda y.M$  if status of free and bound variables doesn't change

Parts of  $\lambda$ -calculus: (2)

Parts of meta-theory (to talk about  $\lambda$ -calculus) (MA)

Substitution: basis of the actual computation (B-reduction)

Definition: <sup>Substitution</sup> (1a)  $x[x := N] \equiv N$   
 (1b)  $(y[x := N] \equiv y \text{ if } x \neq y) \leftarrow$  error in the book (I think so)  
 correct: If  $V \in \Lambda$  is a variable (i.e.  $V \in V$ ) then  
 $V[x := N] = V \text{ if } x \neq V$   
 (2)  $(PQ)[x := N] \equiv (P[x := N])(Q[x := N])$   
 (3)  $(\lambda y. P)[x := N] \equiv \lambda z. (P[y \rightarrow z][x := N])$  if  $\lambda z. P[y \rightarrow z]$  is on  $\lambda$ -variant  
 $\uparrow$  actually only  $=$ , but will identify  $=$  and  $\equiv$  later  
 of  $\lambda y. P$  such that  $z \notin FV(N)$  to avoid "capturing" of a free variable in  $N$

Note:  $PC[x := N]$  is not a  $\lambda$ -term but a meta term: "something that stands for a  $\lambda$ -term"

• If  $y \notin FV(N)$  or  $x \notin FV(P)$  then (3) simplifies to  $(\lambda y. P)[x := N] = \lambda y. (P[x := N])$   
 $\uparrow$  no risk of capturing,  $Py \rightarrow y = P$  - nothing to substitute

• Renaming is special case of substitution:  $M^{\lambda \rightarrow \mu} =_{\lambda} M[x := \mu]$  if conditions of renaming are met

Example:  $(\lambda y. yx)[x := xy] \equiv ((\lambda z. zx)[x := xy]) \equiv \lambda z. (zx)[x := xy]$   
 $\uparrow$  again, actually only  $=$   $\leftarrow$  brackets necessary  
 $\equiv \lambda z. ((z[x := xy])(x[x := xy])) \equiv \lambda z. (\lambda y)$

See also Examples 1.6.4.

Notation: Substitution is left-associative:  $M[x := N][y := L] \stackrel{\text{stands for}}{=} (M[x := N])[y := L]$

Lemma (sequential substitution):

Let  $x \neq y$  (again, error in the book, redundant) and  $x \notin FV(L)$ . Then  
 $M[x := N][y := L] \equiv M[y := L][x := N[y := L]]$

Proof sketch on pages 13 and 14.

$\lambda$ -equivalence revisited

$\lambda$ -equivalent terms have identical trees apart from names of binding variables.

Show exactly the same pattern of free, bound and binding variables and thus exactly the same behavior under  $\beta$ -reduction (defined soon)

Lemma: Let  $M_1 =_{\lambda} M_2, N_1 =_{\lambda} N_2$ . Then,

- (1)  $M_1 N_1 =_{\lambda} M_2 N_2$
- (2)  $\lambda x. M_1 =_{\lambda} \lambda x. M_2$
- (3)  $M_1[x := N_1] =_{\lambda} M_2[x := N_2]$

Notation: From now on consider  $\lambda$ -equivalent terms to be syntactically identical: " $=_{\lambda}$ " " $\equiv$ " " $\equiv$ "  
 i.e. we write  $\lambda x. x \equiv \lambda y. y$  from now on

• Barendregt convention: We choose the names of binding variables in a  $\lambda$ -term such that they are all different and such that they are all different from all free variables in the  $\lambda$ -term  
 write  $(\lambda x y. xz)(\lambda x z. z)$  as  $(\lambda x y. xz)(\lambda u. v. v)$

Beta reduction: the actual computation

Definition: One step  $\beta$ -reduction,  $\rightarrow_\beta$

(1) (Basis)  $(\lambda x. M) N \rightarrow_\beta M[x := N]$

(2) (Compatibility) If  $M \rightarrow_\beta N$ , then  $ML \rightarrow_\beta NL$ ,  $LM \rightarrow_\beta LN$  and  $\lambda x. M \rightarrow_\beta \lambda x. N$   
 $\uparrow$   $\beta$ -reduction within subterms

Redex: Subterm of the form  $(\lambda x. M) N$  ("reducible expression")

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

contractum of the redex  $(\lambda x. M) N$

i.e.  $\dots ((\lambda x. M) N) \dots \rightarrow_\beta \dots (M[x := N]) \dots$

(See Examples 1.7.2.)

Definition:  $\beta$ -reduction,  $\rightarrow_\beta$ ,  $\beta$ -conversion,  $=_\beta$

$M \rightarrow_\beta N$  if  $\exists M_0, \dots, M_n: M_0 = M, M_n = N, M_i \rightarrow_\beta M_{i+1}$  for all  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$

$M =_\beta N$  if  $\exists M_0, \dots, M_n: M_0 = M, M_n = N, M_i \rightarrow_\beta M_{i+1}$  or  $M_{i+1} \rightarrow_\beta M_i$  for all  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$

Example:  $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. yx)z) v \rightarrow_\beta (\lambda y. yv)z \rightarrow_\beta (\lambda x. zx) v \rightarrow_\beta zv$

Lemma: (1)  $\rightarrow_\beta$  extends  $\rightarrow_\beta$ ,  $=_\beta$  extends  $\rightarrow_\beta$  in both directions:

$M \rightarrow_\beta N \Rightarrow M \rightarrow_\beta N$ ,  $M \rightarrow_\beta N$  or  $N \rightarrow_\beta M \Rightarrow M =_\beta N$

(2)  $\rightarrow_\beta$  is reflexive and transitive

$=_\beta$  is reflexive, transitive, symmetric, i.e. an equivalence relation

Examples: 1)  $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. yx)z) v \rightarrow_\beta (\lambda y. yv)z \neq_\beta (\lambda x. zx)v$   
 $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. yx)z) v \rightarrow_\beta (\lambda x. zx)v$

Further reduction:  $(\lambda y. yv)z \rightarrow_\beta zv$   
 $(\lambda x. zx)v \rightarrow_\beta zv$

2)  $(\lambda x. xx)(\lambda x. xx) \rightarrow_\beta (\lambda x. xx)(\lambda x. xx)$

$\uparrow$   
 compatibility of the Barendregt convention

Normal forms and confluence:

Example:  $(3+7) \cdot (8-2) \rightarrow 10 \cdot (8-2) \rightarrow 10 \cdot 6 \rightarrow 60$

$(3+7) \cdot (8-2) \rightarrow (3+7) \cdot 6 \rightarrow 10 \cdot 6 \rightarrow 60$

$ax^2 + bx + c \leftarrow a(x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x) + c \leftarrow a(x^2 + 2 \cdot \frac{b}{2a}x) + c \leftarrow$   
 $\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{modification} \\ \text{for inverse} \\ \beta\text{-reduction} \end{array} \right) \rightarrow a(x + \frac{b}{2a})^2 - \frac{b^2}{4a} + c$   
 $\Rightarrow c - \frac{b^2}{4a}$  is extreme value for  $x = -\frac{b}{2a}$

Definition:  $M$  is in  $\beta$ -normal form (short: in  $\beta$ -nf) if  $M$  does not contain any redex

$M$  has a  $\beta$ -normal form (short: has  $\beta$ -nf) or is  $\beta$ -normalising if

$\exists N$  in  $\beta$ -nf:  $M =_\beta N$ .  $N$  is then called a  $\beta$ -normal form of  $M$  (short:  $\beta$ -nf of  $M$ )

A  $\beta$ -nf  $M$  is considered as the "outcome" of  $M$

(3)

Lemma: If  $M$  is in  $\beta$ -nf, then  $(M \rightarrow_{\beta} N \Rightarrow M \equiv N)$

- Examples:
- 1)  $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. y x) z) v \rightarrow_{\beta} z v$ , so  $z v$  is a  $\beta$ -nf of  $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. y x) z) v$
  - 2) Let  $\Omega := (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$ . Then  $\Omega$  does not have a  $\beta$ -nf. ( $\Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega$ )
  - 3) Let  $\Delta := \lambda x. x x x$ . Then  $\Delta \Delta \rightarrow_{\beta} \Delta \Delta \Delta \rightarrow_{\beta} \Delta \Delta \Delta \Delta \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$   
and  $\Delta$  again does not have a  $\beta$ -nf
  - 4)  $(\lambda u. v) \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda u. v) \Omega$   
 $(\lambda u. v) \Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} v$  } so  $(\lambda u. v) \Omega$  has a  $\beta$ -nf but it may not be reached if the wrong redex is chosen repeatedly

Remark: From example 2) it follows that the converse of the above lemma is not true:

$\Omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \Omega$  and  $\Omega \equiv \Omega$  but  $\Omega$  is not in  $\beta$ -nf

Definition: reduction path A

A finite  $\beta$ -reduction path from  $M$  is a sequence  $N_0, N_1, \dots, N_n$  such that

$N_0 \equiv M$  and  $N_i \rightarrow_{\beta} N_{i+1}$  for  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$

An infinite reduction path from  $M$  is an infinite sequence  $N_0, N_1, \dots$  such that

$N_0 \equiv M$  and  $N_i \rightarrow_{\beta} N_{i+1}$  for  $i \in \mathbb{N}_0$

Definition: weak normalisation, strong normalisation

1)  $M$  is weakly normalising if  $\exists N$  in  $\beta$ -nf :  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} N$

2)  $M$  is strongly normalising if there are no infinite reduction paths starting from  $M$

Examples:  $(\lambda u. v) \Omega$  is weakly normalising

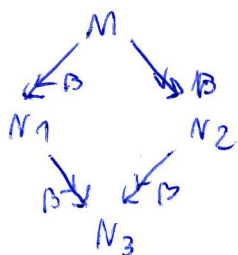
$(\lambda x. (\lambda y. y x) z) v$  is strongly normalising

$\Omega$  and  $\Delta \Delta$  are not weakly normalising (and thus not strongly normalising)

Theorem (Church - Rosser, confluence)

Let  $M, N_1, N_2 \in \Lambda$  such that  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} N_1$ ,  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} N_2$

Then  $\exists N_3 \in \Lambda$  :  $N_1 \rightarrow_{\beta} N_3$ ,  $N_2 \rightarrow_{\beta} N_3$

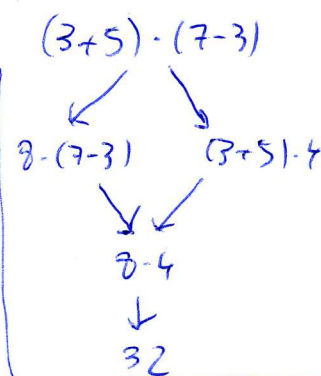
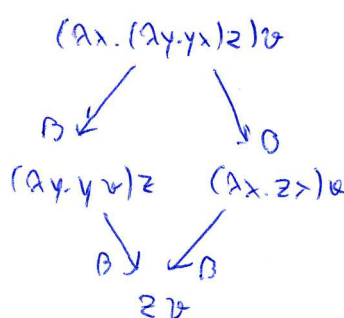


Proof: hard. Barendregt 1977, p. 62

Important consequence

Outcome independent of order of calculation!

Examples: compare



Corollary:  $\forall M =_{\beta} N$  then there is a  $L$  such that  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} L$  and  $N \rightarrow_{\beta} L$

Proof: see Corollary 1.9.9.

Lemma: 1)  $\forall N$  is a  $\beta$ -normal form  $M$ , then  $M \rightarrow_{\beta} N$  (if an outcome exists it can be reached by "forward calculation")  
2) A  $\lambda$ -term has at most one  $\beta$ -nf (there cannot be two different outcomes)

Proof: see Lemma 1.9.10

### Fixed point theorem

#### Theorem

$$\forall L \in \Lambda: \exists M \in \Lambda: LM =_{\beta} M$$

Proof: Let  $M \equiv (\lambda x. L(x x))(\lambda x. L(x x))$

$$\text{Then } M \rightarrow_{\beta} L((\lambda x. L(x x))(\lambda x. L(x x))) \equiv LM$$

$$\text{so } LM =_{\beta} M$$

Definition: fixed point combinator, Y-combinator

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

$\forall L \in \Lambda$  then  $YL$  is a fixed point of  $Y$ :

$$YL \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. L(x x))(\lambda x. L(x x)) \rightarrow_{\beta} L((\lambda x. L(x x))(\lambda x. L(x x))) =_{\beta} L(YL)$$

Consequence: All recursive equations are solvable!

$$M =_{\beta} \dots M \dots$$

$$\text{Define: } L \equiv \lambda z. \dots z \dots$$

$$\text{Then } LM \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots M \dots$$

Since it suffices to find an  $M$  such that  $M =_{\beta} LM$ , but such an  $M$  always exists!  
 $\uparrow$  to solve  $M =_{\beta} \dots M \dots$

Examples: 1) Find  $M \in \Lambda$  such that  $Mx =_{\beta} x Mx$ :

Rephrase: Find  $M \in \Lambda$  such that  $M =_{\beta} \lambda x. x Mx$   
because then  $Mx =_{\beta} x Mx$

$$\text{Define: } L \equiv \lambda y. (\lambda x. x y x)$$

$$\text{Then } LM \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda x. x Mx$$

$$\text{Find } M \text{ such that } M =_{\beta} LM: \underline{M \equiv YL}$$

2) for  $x =_{\beta}$  if (iszero  $x$ ) then 1 else null.  $x$  (for (pred  $x$ ))

compare!:  $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$$n \mapsto n! := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n=0 \\ n(n-1)! & \text{if } n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Conclusion: see 1.11.