

Lambda Calculus

1. From functions to λ -abstractions

- Recall: A function f from A to B (written as $f: A \rightarrow B$) is a relation such that (i) f maps every element in A to some element in B , and each element in A is paired with just one element in B .
 - (1) a. $\llbracket \text{the mother of} \rrbracket^w = f: D_e \rightarrow D_e$ such that for all $x \in D_e$, $f(x)$ is the mother of x in w .
 - b. $\llbracket \text{meow} \rrbracket^w = f: D_e \rightarrow D_t$ such that for all $x \in D_e$, $f(x) = 1$ iff x meows in w .
 - c. $\llbracket \text{invited} \rrbracket^w = f: D_e \rightarrow D_{\langle e,t \rangle}$ such that
for all $y \in D_e$, $f(y) = g: D_e \rightarrow D_t$ such that
for all $x \in D_e$, $g(x) = 1$ iff x invited y in w .

However, if a function is too complex type, the notation could be quite complex. Let's try to define the meaning of *give* using function notations ...

- It is more handy and common to write functions in λ -**notations**. Let's have some intuitions first.
 - (2) **Schema of lambda abstraction terms:**
 $\lambda v[\beta.\alpha]$ or $\lambda v:\beta.\alpha$ read as "the function which maps every v such that β to α "
 - a. λ is called a λ -operator or an abstraction operator
 - b. v is the argument variable
 - c. β is the domain condition (the domain over which the function is defined)
 - d. α is the value description (a specification of the value/output of the function)

For example:

- (3) $\lambda x[x \in N. x + 1]$
read as "the function that maps every x s.t. x is in N to $x + 1$."
 - a. $(\lambda x[x \in N. x + 1])(2) = 2 + 1$
 $= 3$
 - b. $(\lambda x[x \in N. x + 1])(a)$ is undefined
- (4) $\lambda x[x \in D_e. \text{meow}_w(x)]$
read as "the function that maps every x s.t. x is an entity to x meows in w ."
 - a. $\lambda x[x \in D_e. \text{meow}_w(x)](\text{Kitty}) = \text{meow}_w(\text{Kitty})$
 - b. $\lambda x[x \in D_e. \text{meow}_w(x)](\text{grey})$ is undefined

- In semantics, abstraction terms are commonly written as follows:

- (5) $\lambda v_\tau.\alpha$ [τ is the semantic type of the variable v]

For example:

- (6) a. $\llbracket \text{meow} \rrbracket^w = \lambda x_e. \text{meow}_w(x)$
- b. $\llbracket \text{hit} \rrbracket^w = \lambda y_e. \lambda x_e. \text{hit}_w(x, y)$

2. Lambda calculus

- Lambda (λ -)calculus is a formal system in mathematical logic for expressing computation based on function abstraction and application using variable binding and substitution. (Wiki)

2.1. Syntax

- **λ -terms**

- (7) A recursive definition of well-formed λ -terms
 - a. Every variable is a λ -term. *variables*
 - b. If E is a λ -term and v is a variable, then $(\lambda v.E)$ is a λ -term. *abstraction terms*
 - c. If E_1 and E_2 are λ -terms, and so is $(E_1 E_2)$. *application terms*

- **Abbreviation rules**

1. As in propositional logic, we omit parentheses if doing so doesn't create ambiguity:
 - $(\lambda v.E)$ can be simplified as $\lambda v.E$
2. Application associates to the left:
 - $E_1 E_2 E_3$ means $((E_1 E_2) E_3)$
3. A sequence of abstractions can be abbreviated:
 - $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. E))$ can be simplified as $\lambda x. \lambda y. E$ or $\lambda xy. E$
4. The body of an abstraction extends as far right as possible:
 - $\lambda x. MN$ means $\lambda x. (MN)$ not $(\lambda x. M)N$

Exercise: Given the syntax in (7), identify whether each of the following notations is a well-formed λ -term. Then, abbreviate the well-formed ones.

- (8) a. x
- b. (α)
- c. $(\lambda x.y)$
- d. $((\lambda x.\alpha)\beta)$
- e. $((\lambda x.y)((\lambda x.\alpha)y))$

2.2. "Semantics" of simply typed λ -calculus

- The variety of λ -calculus defined above is untyped. It allows us to define functions such as $\lambda f. ff$. But, in formal semantics, we usually work with a more restrictive system, called the **simply-typed λ -calculus** (Church 1940). In the simply-typed λ -calculus, every function is *partial*: every function expects its arguments to be of a certain type, and is undefined otherwise. For example, $\lambda x_e. x$ and $\lambda x_{\langle e, t \rangle}. x$ both express identity but are different functions.

- (9) **Semantic types of lambda terms**

If v is of type σ and α is of type τ , then $\lambda v. \alpha$ is of type $\langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$.

Exercise: Specify the semantic type of each of the following λ -abstracts.

- (10) a. $\lambda f_{\langle e,t \rangle} . \lambda x_e . f(x) \wedge \text{gray}(x)$
b. $\lambda f_{\langle e,t \rangle} . \lambda g_{\langle e,t \rangle} . \exists x [f(x) \wedge g(x)]$

- **λ -abstraction:** abstracting a variable and creating a function

- (11) If v is of type σ and α is of type τ , then $\lambda v . \alpha$ is a function f of type $\langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$ s.t. for any object x of type σ , $f(x) = \alpha_{[x/v]}$

(NB: $\alpha_{[x/v]}$, also written as $\alpha[v:=x]$, is like α but every **free** occurrence of v in α is replaced by x . Occurrences of v that are free in α are bound by λv in $\lambda v . \alpha$)

- **λ -reduction**

- **β -reduction:** applying functions to their arguments.

$$(12) \quad (\lambda v . \alpha)(x) = \alpha_{[x/v]}$$

- **α -equivalence:** changing bound variables.

$$(13) \quad \lambda x . \alpha = \lambda y . \alpha_{[y/x]}$$

In a λ -abstraction, the particular choice of a bound variable doesn't matter. For instance, $\lambda x . x$ and $\lambda y . y$ are α -equivalent, and they both represent the same function — the *identity function*. In contrast, the terms x and y are not λ -equivalent, because they are not bound in a λ -abstraction.

- **η -equivalence**

η -equivalence expresses the idea of **extensionality**, namely, two functions are equivalent iff they return the same values for every argument.

$$(14) \quad f = \lambda x [f(x)] \text{ iff } x \text{ does not appear free in } f.$$

Exercise: Simplify the following λ -notations.

(15) a. $(\lambda x . \lambda x . R(x, x))(y)(z)$

b. $(\lambda x . \lambda y . R(x, y))(v)(u)$

c. $(\lambda x . \lambda y . R(x, x))(y)$

3. Defining semantic values of lexical items using λ -notations

- Predicates

- Verbs:

- (16) a. $\llbracket \text{meow} \rrbracket^w = \lambda x_e. \text{meow}_w(x)$
 b. $\llbracket \text{invite} \rrbracket^w = \lambda y_e. \lambda x_e. \text{invite}_w(x, y)$

- Non-verbal predicates:

- (17) a. $\llbracket \text{cat} \rrbracket^w =$
 b. $\llbracket \text{larger than} \rrbracket^w =$
 c. $\llbracket \text{from China} \rrbracket^w =$
 d. $\llbracket \text{from} \rrbracket^w =$

Discussion: We don't use the following notations. Do you know why?

- (18) a. $\llbracket \text{invite} \rrbracket^w = \lambda \alpha_{\langle e, e \rangle}. \text{invite}_w(\alpha)$
 b. $\llbracket \text{invite} \rrbracket^w = \lambda x_e. \lambda y_e. \text{invite}_w(x, y)$

- Other functions (for now, let's assume that the sentential connectives apply to truth values)

- Sentential connectives:

- (19) a. $\llbracket \text{not} \rrbracket^w = \lambda p_t. \neg p$
 b. $\llbracket \text{and} \rrbracket^w =$
 c. $\llbracket \text{or} \rrbracket^w =$
 d. $\llbracket \text{if} \rrbracket^w =$

- Functions over functions

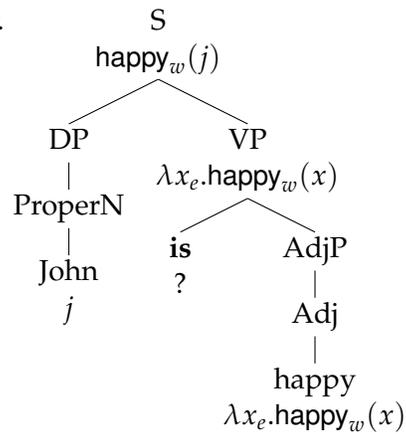
- (20) a. $\llbracket \text{fast} \rrbracket^w = \lambda P_{\langle e, t \rangle}. \text{fast}_w(P)$
 b. $\llbracket \text{fast} \rrbracket^w = \lambda P_{\langle e, t \rangle}. \text{fast}_w(\lambda x. P(x))$

Exercise: Simplify the following formulas and then translate them into good English.

- (21) a. $(\lambda x_e. \lambda y_e. [(\lambda z_e. \text{introduce-to}_w(x, y, z))(a))](b)$
 b. $(\lambda f_{\langle e, t \rangle}. \lambda x_e. [f(x) \wedge \text{gray}_w(x)])(\lambda y_e. \text{cat}_w(y))$
 c. $(\lambda P_{\langle e, t \rangle}. P(\text{Kitty}))(\lambda y_e. \text{cat}_w(y))$

- **Vacuous words:** what is the lexical entry of *is*? We can identify the meaning of an expression based on the meaning of its sister and mother nodes.

(22) John is happy.



Observe that *is* combines with a one-place predicate and returns the same predicate. Hence:

- (23) a. $[[is]]^w = \lambda P_{\langle e,t \rangle}.P$
 b. $[[is]]^w = \lambda P_{\langle e,t \rangle}.\lambda x_e.P(x)$

Exercise: Define the semantics of the article *a* in the following sentence. (Note that *a* is semantically ambiguous. It could also be used as an existential quantifier like *some*, but not in this case.)

(24) Kitty is a cat.

Exercise: Compose the following sentence. How would you define *introduced* and *to*?

(25) Susi introduced Andy to Billy.