# Programming in the Untyped $\lambda$ -Calculus

Church & Scott Encodings, Y Combinator

Ernest Ng

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The  $\lambda$ -calculus provides simple semantics for understanding functional abstraction.

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We can encode data purely within the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus!

# **Remarks & notational conventions**

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Write t_1 t_2 t_3 to denote (t_1 t_2) t_3
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Write  $\lambda x$ .  $\lambda y$ . x y x to denote  $\lambda x$ .  $(\lambda y$ . ((x y) x))

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- A term with no free variables is **closed**
- Closed terms are called combinators
  - Simplest combinator: the identity function *id*

 $id = \lambda x. x$ 

# Agenda

1. Encoding simple datatypes

Church Booleans

Pairs

2. Church numerals

Arithmetic operations

Predecessor

Testing equality

- 3. Y-combinator & recursion Factorial
- 4. Scott encodings

Church vs Scott numerals

Chruch vs Scott lists

# Encoding simple datatypes

### **Church Booleans**

### Definition

Let *True* and *False* be represented by:

 $tru = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$ fls =  $\lambda t. \lambda f. f$ 

Note: tru & fls are normal forms!

## **Church Booleans**

### Definition

Let *True* and *False* be represented by:

```
tru = λt. λf. t
fls = λt. λf. f
```

Note: tru & fls are normal forms!

# **Definition** The *test* combinator tests the truth value of a Boolean: $test = \lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. l m n$ $test truv w \rightarrow v$ $test flsv w \rightarrow w$

# The test combinator

Observe:

 $testbvw \rightarrow bvw$ 

Observe:

Example: ( $\beta$ -redexes underlined)

test truv w  $\rightarrow (\lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. lmn)$  truv w  $\rightarrow (\lambda m. \lambda n. trumn)$  v w  $\rightarrow (\lambda n. truvn)$  w

 $\rightarrow truvw$ 

## The test combinator (cont.)

Observe:

 $\begin{array}{cccc} test \ tru \ v \ w \longrightarrow v \\ "if true then v else w" \longrightarrow v \end{array}$ 

Example: ( $\beta$ -redexes are underlined)

test tru v w  $\rightarrow$  ...  $\rightarrow$  tru v w  $\rightarrow (\lambda t. \lambda f. t) v w$   $\rightarrow (\lambda f. v) w$  $\rightarrow v$ 

Similarly, test fls  $v \rightarrow w$ . ("if false then v else  $w'' \rightarrow w$ )

# Conjunction

### Intuition: and $b c \approx$ "if b then c else false"

### Definition

and =  $\lambda b. \lambda c. b c fls$ 

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For Boolean values *b*, *c*, we have that:

and 
$$b c = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } b = tru \\ b & \text{if } b = fls \end{cases}$$

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Examples:

and tru 
$$b \rightarrow$$
 tru  $b$  fls  
 $\rightarrow b$ 

and fls 
$$b \rightarrow fls \ b \ fls \rightarrow fls$$

# Disjunction

#### Intuition: $or b c \approx$ "if b then true else c"

## Definition

 $or = \lambda b. \lambda c. b truc$ 

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#### Intuition: $or b c \approx$ "if b then true else c"

### Definition

 $or = \lambda b. \lambda c. b truc$ 

### Examples:

or tru 
$$b \rightarrow$$
 tru tru  $b \rightarrow$  tru

or fls 
$$b \rightarrow$$
 fls tru  $b \rightarrow b$ 

# Negation

### Intuition: *not* $b \approx$ "if *b* then false else true"

### Definition

not =  $\lambda b. b fls tru$ 

## Negation

#### Intuition: *not* $b \approx$ "if *b* then false else true"

### Definition

 $not = \lambda b. b fls tru$ 

not tru →  $(\lambda b. b fls tru)$  tru → tru fls tru → fls not fls →  $(\lambda b. b fls tru)$  fls → fls fls tru → tru

#### Intuition: $(v, w) \approx "\lambda b$ . if b then v else w"

 $pair = \lambda v. \lambda w. \lambda b. b v w$  $\implies pair v w = \lambda b. b v w$ 

Intuition:  $(v, w) \approx "\lambda b$ . if b then v else w" pair =  $\lambda v. \lambda w. \lambda b. b v w$  $\implies$  pair v w =  $\lambda b. b v w$ When applied to a Boolean *b*, *pair v w* applies *b* to *v* and *w*: pair v w tru  $\rightarrow$  tru v w  $\rightarrow V$ pair v w fls  $\rightarrow$  fls v w  $\rightarrow W$ 

Intuition:  $(v, w) \approx "\lambda b$ . if b then v else w" pair =  $\lambda v. \lambda w. \lambda b. b v w$  $\implies$  pair v w =  $\lambda b. b v w$ When applied to a Boolean *b*, *pair v w* applies *b* to *v* and *w*: pair v w tru  $\rightarrow$  tru v w  $\rightarrow V$ pair v w fls  $\rightarrow$  fls v w  $\rightarrow W$ This motivates the projection functions *fst* & *snd*:  $fst = \lambda p. p tru$ 

 $snd = \lambda p. p fls$ 

### Example: ( $\beta$ -redexes underlined)

$$fst (pair v w) \rightarrow fst (\lambda b. b v w)$$
  

$$\rightarrow (\lambda p. p tru) (\lambda b. b v w) (by definition of fst)$$
  

$$\rightarrow (\lambda b. b v w) tru$$
  

$$\rightarrow tru v w$$
  

$$\rightarrow v$$

# **Church numerals**

Intuition: "A number n is a function that does something n times"

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#### Definition

Define the **Church numerals**  $c_0, c_1, c_2, ...$  as follows:

$$c_0 = \lambda s. \lambda z. z$$
  

$$c_1 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$$
  

$$c_2 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)$$
  
...

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...

Each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is represented by a combinator  $c_n$  that takes arguments s and z ("successor" and "zero") and applies s to z for n times.

 $c_n = \lambda s. \lambda z.$  (apply s to z for n times)

### Definition

The **successor function** *scc* on Church numerals is defined as:

 $scc = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$ 

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The **successor function** *scc* on Church numerals is defined as:

 $scc = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$ 

Intuition:  $n + 1 \approx$  "apply s to z for n times, then apply s once more"

scc takes a Church numeral n and returns another Church numeral

function that takes s, z & applies s repeatedly to z Example: showing that "scc 0 = 1":

$$scc \ c_{0} \rightarrow \underbrace{(\lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z))}_{scc} \underbrace{(\lambda s. \lambda z. z)}_{c_{0}}$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. s \underbrace{((\lambda s. \lambda z. z) s z)}_{c_{0}} s z$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. s \underbrace{((\lambda z. z) z)}_{id} z$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$$

$$= c_{1} \qquad (by definition of c_{1})$$

### Another way\* to define the successor function:

$$scc_2 = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. n s (s z)$$

Intuition: "apply s to (s z) for n times"

(as opposed to "applying s to z for (n + 1) times")

$$plus = \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)$$
$$\implies \underbrace{plus m n}_{m+n} = \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)$$

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Intuition: To compute *m* + *n*,

1. Apply s iterated n times to z ... 2. ... then apply s to the result for m more times m s (n s z) Recall:  $c_1 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$ 

Example: Proving 1 + 1 = 2

$$plus \ c_1 \ c_1 \rightarrow \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ c_1 \ s \ (c_1 \ s \ z)$$
$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ c_1 \ s \ (s \ z)$$
$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ s \ (s \ z)$$
$$= c_2 \qquad (by \ definition \ of \ c_2)$$

### Definition

times = 
$$\lambda m$$
.  $\lambda n$ .  $m$  (plus  $n$ )  $c_0$ 

 $\begin{array}{ll} m \ (plus \ n) \ c_0 \approx \text{``apply } plus \ n \ \text{iterated} \ m \ \text{times to} \ c_0 \ (\text{zero}) \text{''} \\ \approx \text{``add together} \ m \ \text{copies of} \ n \text{''} \end{array}$
#### Can we define multiplication without using *plus*? Recall that:

times  $m n \approx$  "add together m copies of n"

\*TAPL Exercise 5.2.3 \*Here, *n s* is akin to *plus n* 

#### Can we define multiplication without using *plus*? Recall that:

times  $m n \approx$  "add together m copies of n"

This motivates an alternate definition\*:

times =  $\lambda m$ .  $\lambda n$ .  $\lambda s$ .  $\lambda z$ . m (n s) z

Intuition:  $m(n s) z \approx$  "apply (n s) to z for m times"\*

<sup>\*</sup>TAPL Exercise 5.2.3 \*Here, *n s* is akin to *plus n* 

times = 
$$\lambda x$$
.  $\lambda y$ .  $\lambda a$ .  $x (y a)$ 

Compute 3 × 3:

times 
$$c_3 c_3 = (\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda a. x (y a)) c_3 c_3$$
  
 $\rightarrow (\lambda a. c_3 (c_3 a))$ 

# Multiplication example (cont.)

Consider the term  $(c_3 a)$ :

 $c_3 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))$ 



Applying  $c_3$  to a produces a function that applies a three times (Rojas)

Let **3a** denote  $(c_3 a)$ . Now, consider  $c_3$  (**3a**):

$$\lambda a. c_3 (\mathbf{3a}) = \left(\lambda a. \underbrace{(\lambda s. \lambda b. s (s (s b)))}_{c_3} (\mathbf{3a})\right)$$
$$\rightarrow \lambda a. \lambda b. \mathbf{3a} (\mathbf{3a} (\mathbf{3a} b))$$

Applying  $c_3$  to **3a** returns a function that applies **3a** three times = applies *a* for (3 × 3) times

Example from Rojas (2015), A Tutorial Introduction to the Lambda Calculus

# Multiplication example (cont.)

# $(\lambda ab.(3a)((3a)((3a)b)))$



Diagram from Rojas (2015), A Tutorial Introduction to the Lambda Calculus

How should we define *predecessor* for Church numerals?

Strategy: Create a pair (n - 1, n), then pick the 1st element of the pair

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We define two auxiliary functions:

 $zz = pair c_0 c_0$  $ss = \lambda p. pair (snd p)(plus c_1 (snd p))$ 

When applied to a pair (i, j), ss returns a pair (j, j + 1):

$$ss(pairc_ic_j) = pairc_jc_{j+1}$$

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The predecessor function prd involves applying ss to  $pair c_0c_0$  for m times, then projecting the 1st component:

 $prd = \lambda m. fst (m ss zz)$ 

# **Predecessor function**



(diagram from TAPL)

# 5-minute break

<u>Aim</u>: To represent *factorial* in the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus To do this, we need to discuss the following:

- 1. Testing if a Church numeral  $\stackrel{?}{=}$  0
- 2. Equality of Church numerals
- 3. Y-comabintor & recursion

# Testing if a Church numeral $\stackrel{?}{=}$ 0

#### Definition

Example ( $\beta$ -redexes underlined):

$$\begin{split} isZero\ c_0 &= (\lambda m.\ m\ (\lambda x.\ fls)\ tru)\ c_0 \\ &= (\lambda m.\ m\ (\lambda x.\ fls)\ tru)\ (\lambda s.\ \lambda z.\ z)} \quad (\text{by definition of } c_0) \\ &\rightarrow (\lambda s.\ \lambda z.\ z)\ (\lambda x.\ fls)\ tru \\ &\rightarrow (\lambda z.\ z)\ tru \\ &\rightarrow tru \end{split}$$

Intuition:  $m == n \iff (m - n) == 0 \land (n - m) == 0$ 

#### Definition

The *equal* function tests two Church numerals for equality, returning a Church Boolean:

equal = λm. λn. and (isZero (m prd n)) (isZero (n prd m))

m prd n ≈ "applying the predecessor function for m times on n" ≈ "m minus n"

# **Y-combinator** & recursion

How do we represent recursion?

## Definition

The **divergent combinator**  $\Omega$  is:

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

## Definition

The **divergent combinator**  $\Omega$  is:

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

#### Let's try to $\beta$ -reduce $\Omega$ :

$$(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) \rightarrow (x x) \left[ x \coloneqq (\lambda x. x x) \right]$$
$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$$

We get what we started with!

A  $\lambda$ -term is **divergent** if it has no  $\beta$ -normal form.

# **Y-combinator**

## Definition

The fixpoint combinator is the term

 $\mathbf{Y}=\lambda f.\left(\lambda x.\;f\left(x\;x\right)\right)\left(\lambda x.\;f\left(x\;x\right)\right)$ 

# **Y-combinator**

## Definition

The fixpoint combinator is the term

 $\mathbf{Y}=\lambda f.\left(\lambda x.\;f\left(x\;x\right)\right)\left(\lambda x.\;f\left(x\;x\right)\right)$ 

$$\mathbf{Y} F = \left(\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))\right) F$$
  

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))$$
  

$$\rightarrow F\left(\underbrace{(\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))}_{\mathbf{Y} F}\right)$$
  

$$\rightarrow F (\mathbf{Y} F)$$

# **Y-combinator**

## Definition

The fixpoint combinator is the term

 $\mathbf{Y} = \lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))$ 

$$\mathbf{Y} F = \left(\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))\right) F$$
  

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))$$
  

$$\rightarrow F\left(\underbrace{(\lambda x. F (x x)) (\lambda x. F (x x))}_{\mathbf{Y} F}\right)$$
  

$$\rightarrow F(\mathbf{Y} F)$$

Say that **Y** *F* is a **fixed point** of the function *F*:

 $\mathbf{Y} F = F (\mathbf{Y} F)$ 

#### We can use **Y** to achieve recursive calls to F:

 $\mathbf{Y} F = F (\mathbf{Y} F)$  $= F (F (\mathbf{Y} F))$ 

= ....

## Definition

Using Church numerals, we define the factorial function as:

$$fact = \lambda f. \lambda n. if is Zero n then c_1$$

$$else times n (f (prd n))$$

where  $n \in \mathbb{N} \& f$  is the function to call in the body

# Factorial (cont.)

Use **Y** to achieve recursive calls to *fact*:  $(\mathbf{Y} fact) c_1 = (fact (\mathbf{Y} fact)) c_1$  $\rightarrow$  if equal  $c_1 c_0$  then  $c_1$  else times  $c_1 \left( (\mathbf{Y} \text{ fact}) c_0 \right)$  $\rightarrow$  times  $c_1 \left( (\mathbf{Y} \text{ fact}) c_0 \right)$  $\rightarrow$  times  $c_1 \left( fact (\mathbf{Y} fact) c_0 \right)$  $\rightarrow$  times  $c_1$  (if equal  $c_0 c_0$  then  $c_1$ else times  $c_0((\mathbf{Y} fact)(prdc_0))$  $\rightarrow$  times  $c_1 c_1$  $\rightarrow C_1$ 

# Instead of using the Y-combinator, we can also define factorial using the U-combinator. (\*) (see appendix)

# Scott encodings

#### Consider the following algebraic data types in Haskell:

data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)

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data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
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Scott encodings allow us to encode ADTs as  $\lambda$ -terms.



Intuition: Arguments distinguish between different cases

How do the Church & Scott encodings differ?

#### How do the Church & Scott encodings differ?

Church	Scott
zero = λs. λz. z	zero = λz. λs. z
scc = λn. λs. λz. s (n s z)	scc = λn. λz. λs. s n

Church	Scott
scc = λn. λs. λz. s <mark>(n s z)</mark>	scc = λn. λz. λs. s <mark>n</mark>
<i>folds</i> continuation threaded throughout structure	case analysis continuation unwraps one layer only

Church	Scott
λs. λz. z λs. λz. s z λs. λz. s (s z) λs. λz. s (s (s z))	λz. λs. z λz. λs. s (λs. λz. z) λz. λs. s (λs. λz. s (λs. λz. z)) λz. λs. s (λs. λz. s (λs. λz. s (λs. λz.z)))
"apply <i>s</i> , iterated <i>n</i> times"	"apply <i>s</i> on the preceding Scott numeral"

<b>Church</b> : <i>O</i> ( <i>n</i> )	<b>Scott</b> : <i>O</i> (1)
$prd = \lambda m. fst (m ss zz)$ where $zz = pair c_0 c_0$ $ss = \lambda p. pair (snd p)$ $(plus c_1 (snd p))$	prd = λn.n zero(λp.p)

Predecessor can be expressed more succintly using Scott encodings!

# Church encoding for lists

# **Definition** $nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$ $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x (l n c)$ (akin to foldr)
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### Definition

 $nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$   $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x (l n c)$ (akin to foldr)

> x ≈ "head" l ≈ "tail" n ≈ case for nil c ≈ case for cons

## Definition

 $nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$   $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x (l n c)$ (akin to foldr)

Example:

 $x : y : z : [] \approx \lambda c. \lambda n. (c x (c y (c z n)))$ 

### Definition

nil = λn. λc. n cons = λx. λl. λn. λc. c x l

> x ≈ "head" l ≈ "tail" n ≈ case for nil c ≈ case for cons

Church	Scott
cons = λx. λl. λn. λ c. c x (l n c)	<i>cons</i> = λx. λl. λn. λc. c x l (much simpler!)
<i>x</i> ≈ "head"	
l ≈ "tail"	
$n \approx \text{case for } nil$	
c ≈ case for <i>cons</i>	

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- Encodings only differ for recursive datatypes
- **Church**: defines how functions should be folded over an element of the type
- Scott: uses "case analysis", recursion not immediately visible
  - Simpler representation (for certain functions)
  - **Y**-combinator needed for other operations

Further reading:

Jansen (2013), Programming in the  $\lambda$ -Calculus: From Church to Scott and Back

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# Appendix

Instead of using the **Y**-combinator, we can also define *factorial* using the **U**-combinator.

**Definition** The **U**-combinator applies its argument *f* to itself:

 $\mathbf{U}=\lambda f.\,f\,f$ 

## Appendix: Defining factorial using the U-combinator

Recall the definition of factorial:

$$fact = \lambda f. \lambda n. if equal n c_0 then c_1$$
$$else times n (f (prd n))$$

Recall the definition of factorial:

$$fact = \lambda f. \lambda n. if equal n c_0 then c_1$$
  
else times n  $(f (prd n))$ 

We can define factorial using **U** as follows:

$$fact = \mathbf{U} \left( \lambda f. \lambda n. if isZero n then c_1 \\ else times n \left( \mathbf{U} f (prd n) \right) \right)$$

See this link for worked examples

It turns out that we can define Y using U:

$$J = \lambda f. f f$$

$$Y = \lambda g. \mathbf{U} \left( \lambda f. g (\mathbf{U} f) \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda g. \mathbf{U} \left( \lambda f. g (f f) \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda g. \left( \lambda f. g (f f) \right) \left( \lambda f. g (f f) \right)$$
definition of Y we saw on slide 32

definition of **Y** we saw on <u>slide 32</u> (up to α-equivalence)

Back to main presentation

- **Call-by-value** (CBV): only reduce outermost redexex, and given an application  $(\lambda x. e_1) e_2$ , make sure  $e_2$  is a *value* before applying the abstraction
  - Reduce a redex only when its RHS has already been reduced to a value
- **Call-by-name** (CBN): Reduce the leftmost, outermost redex first, but we *don't* allow reductions inside abstractions
- TAPL & these slides both use CBV.

Back to main presentation