# Lambda Calculus - Recursions (9A)

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# **Encoding Conditionals (1)**

consider how to <u>encode</u> a <u>conditional expression</u> of the form:

if P then A else B

i.e., the <u>value</u> of the whole expression is either **A** or **B**, depending on the value of **P** 

this conditional expression can be represented by using a lambda expression as follows

**COND P A B** 

where COND, P, A and B are all lambda expressions.

# **Encoding Conditionals (2)**

# COND P A B COND is a function of 3 arguments that works by applying P to (A and B) (i.e., P itself chooses A or B): COND == λp.λa.λb.p a b (where == means "is defined to be").

### **Encoding Conditionals (3)**

```
To make this definition work correctly, we must define the representations of true and false carefully
```

```
since the lambda expression P
that COND applies to its arguments A and B
will reduce to either TRUE or FALSE
```

```
when TRUE is applied to a and b we want it to <u>return</u> a (first) when FALSE is applied to a and b we want it to <u>return</u> b. (second)
```

# **Encoding Conditionals (4)**

let **TRUE** be a function of two arguments that ignores the second argument and returns the first argument,

let **FALSE** be a function of two arguments that ignores the first argument and returns the second argument:

TRUE == 
$$\lambda x.\lambda y.x$$
  
FALSE ==  $\lambda x.\lambda y.y$ 

### **Encoding Conditionals (5)**

### **COND TRUE M N**

Note that this expression should evaluate to M.

substituting our definitions for **COND** and **TRUE**, and <u>evaluating</u> the resulting expression

the sequence of beta-reductions is shown below

in each case, the <u>redex</u> about <u>to be reduced</u> is indicated by <u>underlining</u> the <u>formal parameter</u> and the <u>argument</u> that will be substituted in for that parameter. NO

# **Encoding Conditionals (6)**

 $(\underline{\lambda p}.\lambda a.\lambda b. \ p \ a \ b) \ (\underline{\lambda x.\lambda y. \ x}) \ M \ N \ \rightarrow \beta$ 

( $\underline{\lambda a}$ . $\lambda b$ . ( $\lambda x$ . $\lambda y$ .x) a b)  $\underline{M}$  N  $\rightarrow \beta$ 

( $\underline{\lambda b}$ . ( $\lambda x.\lambda y.x$ ) M b)  $\underline{N} \rightarrow \beta$ 

( $\underline{\lambda x}$ . $\lambda y$ . x)  $\underline{M}$   $N \rightarrow \beta$ 

 $(\underline{\lambda y}. M) \underline{N} \rightarrow \beta$ 

Μ

### Division (1-1)

Division of natural numbers may be implemented by,

$$n/m = if n \ge m then 1 + (n-m)/m$$
  
else 0

Calculating **n** – **m** takes many beta reductions.

Unless doing the reduction by hand, this doesn't matter that much, but it is preferable to not have to do this calculation (n - m) twice.

$$9/3 = 1 + (9 - 3)/3$$
  
= 1 + (1 + (6 - 3)/3)  
= 1 + (1 + (1 + 0/3))  
= 1 + (1 + (1 + 0))

$$n / m = if n \ge m then 1 + (n - m) / m$$
else 0

computing the condition  $(n \ge m)$  involves (n - m) calculation

### Division (1-2)

The simplest predicate for <u>testing numbers</u> is **IsZero** so consider the condition.

```
IsZero (minus n m)
```

But this condition is equivalent to  $n \le m$ , not n < m.

```
minus n = m \text{ pred } n = 0 if n \leq m
```

If this expression is used

then the mathematical <u>definition</u> of <u>division</u> given above

is translated into function on Church numerals as,

```
minus m n = n pred m
```

```
minus 4 3 = 3 pred 4
= (pred (pred (pred 4)))
= (pred (pred 3))
= (pred 2)
= 1
```

### Division (2-1)

```
n/m = if n \ge m then 1 + (n-m)/m
else 0
n/m = if n < m then 0
else 1 + (n-m)/m
(n-1)/m = if n \le m then 0
else 1 + (n-m)/m
```

If IsZero (minus n m) is used a single call to (minus n m) is possible

but the result gives the value of (n-1) / m.

(minus n m) can be utilized in computing 1 + (n - m) / m

correct condition: n < m

modified condition: n ≤ m

### Division (2-2)

```
divide1 n m f x =

(\lambda d. \text{ IsZero d } (0 \text{ f x}) \text{ (f (divide1 d m f x))}) \quad (\text{minus n m})

IsZero d \Longrightarrow IsZero (minus n m)

TRUE \Longrightarrow (\lambda x. \lambda y. x) (0 \text{ f x}) \text{ (f (divide1 d m f x))}
= (0 \text{ f x})
FALSE \Longrightarrow (\lambda x. \lambda y. y) (0 \text{ f x}) \text{ (f (divide1 d m f x))}
= (f \text{ (divide1 d m f x)})

(n-1)/m = \text{ if } n \leq m \text{ then } 0
\text{else } 1 + (n-m)/m
```

**d** ← **n** − **m** 

### Division (2-3)

```
divide1 n m f x =

(λd. IsZero d (0 f x) (f (divide1 d m f x))) (minus n m)

divide1 9 3 f x

= IsZero 6 (0 f x) (f (divide1 6 3 f x)) = (f (divide1 6 3 f x))

divide1 6 3 f x

= IsZero 3 (0 f x) (f (divide1 3 3 f x)) = (f (divide1 3 3 f x))

divide1 3 3 f x

= IsZero 0 (0 f x) (f (divide1 0 3 f x)) = (0 f x) = x
```

```
9/3 = 1 + (9 - 3)/3
      = 1 + (1 + (6 - 3) / 3)
      = 1 + (1 + (1 + 0 / 3))
      = 1 + (1 + (1 + 0))
divide1 9 3 f x
      = (f (divide1 6 3 f x))
      = (f (f (divide1 3 3 f x)))
      = (f (f (0 f x)))
      = (f (f x))
```

### Division (3-1)

```
add 1 to n before calling divide.

divide n = divide1 (succ n)

divide1 10 3 f x

= IsZero 7 (0 f x) (f (divide1 7 3 f x)) = (f (divide1 7 3 f x))

divide1 7 3 f x

= IsZero 4 (0 f x) (f (divide1 4 3 f x)) = (f (divide1 4 3 f x))

divide1 4 3 f x

= IsZero 1 (0 f x) (f (divide1 1 3 f x)) = (f (divide1 1 3 f x))

divide1 1 3 f x

= IsZero 0 (0 f x) (f (divide1 1 3 f x)) = (0 f x) = x
```

### Division (3-2)

```
add 1 to n before calling divide.

divide n = divide1 (succ n)

divide1 is a recursive definition.

divide1 n m f x =

(\lambda d. IsZero d (0 f x) (f (divide1 d m f x))) (minus n m)
```

### Division (4)

```
The Y combinator may be used to implement the recursion.

Create a new function called div by;

In the left hand side divide1 \rightarrow div c

In the right hand side divide1 \rightarrow c

divide1 n m f x =

(\lambdad. IsZero d (0 f x) (f (divide1 d m f x))) (minus n m)

div = \lambdac. \lambdan. \lambdam. \lambdaf. \lambdax.

(\lambdad. IsZero d (0 f x) (f (c d m f x))) (minus n m)
```

```
div c = \lambdan. \lambdam. \lambdaf. \lambdax. (\lambdad. IsZero d (0 f x) (f (c d m f x))) (minus n m)
```

### Division (5)

```
Then,
    divide = \lambda n. divide1 (succ n)
where,
    divide1 = Y div succ = \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. f(n f x) Y
                  = \lambda f. (\lambda x. F(x x)) (\lambda x. f(x x)) 0
                  = \lambda f. \lambda x. x IsZero
                  = \lambda n. N (\lambda x. False) true
    true \equiv \lambda a. \lambda b. a false \equiv \lambda a. \lambda b. b
    minus = \lambda m. \lambda n. n pred m pred
                  = \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. n (\lambda g. \lambda h. h (g f)) (\lambda u. x) (\lambda u. u)
```

### Division (6)

```
Gives,

divide =

λn. ((λf. (λx. x x) (λx. f (x x)))

(λc. λn. λm. λf. λx.

(λd. (λn. n (λx. (λa. λb. b)) (λa. λb . a))

d ((λf. λx. x) f x) (f (c d m f x)))

((λm. λn. n (λn. λf. λx . n (λg. λh. h (g f))

(λu. x) (λu. u)) m) n m)

))

((λn. λf. λx. f (n f x)) n)
```

### Division (6)

Gives,

divide =  $\lambda n$ . (( $\lambda f$ . ( $\lambda x$ . x.) ( $\lambda x$ . f (x.x))) ( $\lambda c$ .  $\lambda n$ .  $\lambda m$ .  $\lambda f$ .  $\lambda x$ . ( $\lambda d$ . ( $\lambda n$ . n ( $\lambda x$ . ( $\lambda a$ .  $\lambda b$ . b)) ( $\lambda a$ .  $\lambda b$ . a)) d (( $\lambda f$ .  $\lambda x$ . x) f x) (f (c d m f x))) (( $\lambda m$ .  $\lambda n$ . n ( $\lambda n$ .  $\lambda f$ .  $\lambda x$ . n ( $\lambda g$ .  $\lambda h$ . h (g f)) ( $\lambda u$ . x) ( $\lambda u$ . u)) m) n m))) (( $\lambda n$ .  $\lambda f$ .  $\lambda x$ . f (n f x)) n)

Or as text, using \ for  $\lambda$ ,

divide =  $(\ln.((\f.(x.x x) (\x.f (x x))) (\c.\n.\m.\f.\x.(\d.(\n.n (\x.(\a.\b.b)) (\a.\b.a)) d ((\f.\x.x) f x) (f (c d m f x))) ((\m.\n.n (\n.\f.\x.n (\g.\h.h (g f)) (\u.x) (\u.u)) m) n m))) ((\n.\f.\x. f (n f x)) n))$ 

### Division (7)

For example, 9/3 is represented by

divide (\f.\x.f (f (f (f (f (f (f (f x)))))))) (\f.\x.f (f (f x)))

Using a lambda calculus calculator, the above expression reduces to 3, using normal order.

(\f.\x.f (f (f (x))))

### Recursion (1-1)

### recursion.

the <u>definition</u> of a <u>function</u> using the <u>function</u> itself.

A function <u>definition</u> containing itself <u>inside itself</u>, <u>by value</u>, leads to the whole value being of <u>infinite size</u>.

Other notations which support recursion natively overcome this by referring to the function definition by name.

### Recursion (1-2)

### Lambda calculus cannot express this:

all functions are anonymous in lambda calculus, so we <u>can't</u> refer by name to a <u>value</u> which is yet <u>to be defined</u>, <u>inside</u> the <u>lambda term defining</u> that same <u>value</u>.

however, a lambda expression can <u>receive</u> itself as its own <u>argument</u>, for example in  $(\lambda x.x x) E$ .

Here **E** should be an abstraction,
applying its parameter to a value to express recursion.

### Recursion (1-3)

Consider the factorial function **F(n)** recursively defined by

$$F(n) = 1$$
, if  $n = 0$ ; else  $n * F(n-1)$ .

In the lambda expression which is to represent the function **F(n)**, a parameter (typically the <u>first one</u>) will be assumed to <u>receive</u> the lambda expression itself as its value, so that calling it - applying it to an argument will amount to <u>recursion</u>.

### Recursion (2-1)

Thus to achieve recursion,

the intended-as-self-referencing argument

(called **r** here) must always be <u>passed</u> to itself within the <u>function body</u>, at a call point:

$$G := \lambda r$$
.  $\lambda n$ . (1, if  $n = 0$ ; else  $n \times (r r (n-1))$ )

with 
$$\mathbf{rrx} = \mathbf{Fx} = \mathbf{Grx}$$
 to hold,

so 
$$r = G$$
 and

$$F := G G = (\lambda x.x x) G$$

### Recursion (2-2)

$$F(n) = 1$$
, if  $n = 0$ ; else  $n \times F(n - 1)$ .

G := 
$$\lambda r$$
.  $\lambda n$ .(1, if n = 0; else n × (r r (n-1)))

with 
$$rrx = Fx = Grx$$
 to hold, so  $r = G$  and

$$F := G G = (\lambda x.x x) G$$

### Recursion (3-1)

The self-application achieves replication here,
passing the function's lambda expression
on to the next invocation as an argument value,
making it available to be referenced and called there.

This solves it but requires <u>re-writing</u> each recursive call as self-application.

### Recursion (3-2)

We would like to have a generic solution, without a need for any re-writes:

$$G:=\lambda r.\ \lambda n.(1,\ if\ n=0;\ else\ n\times(r\ (n-1)))$$
 with  $rx=Fx=Grx$  to hold, so  $r=Gr=:FIX\ G$  and  $F:=FIX\ G$  where  $FIX\ g:=(r\ where\ r=g\ r)=g\ (FIX\ g)$  so that

FIX G = G (FIX G) =  $(\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((FIX G) (n-1))))$ 

# Recursion (4)

Given a lambda term with <u>first</u> argument representing recursive call (e.g. **G** here), the <u>fixed-point</u> combinator **FIX** will <u>return</u> a <u>self-replicating</u> lambda expression representing the recursive function (here, **F**).

The function does <u>not need</u> to be <u>explicitly passed</u> to itself at any point, for the <u>self-replication</u> is arranged <u>in advance</u>, when it is <u>created</u>, to be done each time it is <u>called</u>.

# Recursion (5)

Thus the original lambda expression (**FIX G**) is re-created inside itself, at call-point, achieving self-reference.

In fact, there are many possible <u>definitions</u> for this **FIX** operator, the simplest of them being:

$$Y := \lambda g.(\lambda x.g(x x))(\lambda x.g(x x))$$

$$Y g = (\lambda x.g (x x)) (\lambda x.g (x x))$$
$$= g (\lambda x. (x x)) (\lambda x.g (x x))$$

### Recursion (6)

In the lambda calculus,  $\mathbf{Y} \mathbf{g}$  is a fixed-point of  $\mathbf{g}$ , as it expands to:

```
Y g
(λh.(λx.h (x x)) (λx.h (x x))) g
(λx.g (x x)) (λx.g (x x))
g ((λx.g (x x)) (λx.g (x x)))
g (Y g)
```

### Recursion (7)

Now, to perform our recursive call to the factorial function, we would simply call (Y G) n, where n is the number we are calculating the factorial of.

Given n = 4, for example, this gives:

```
(Y G) 4

G (Y G) 4

(\lambda r.\lambda n.(1, \text{ if } n = 0; \text{ else } n \times (r (n-1)))) \text{ (Y G) } 4

(\lambda n.(1, \text{ if } n = 0; \text{ else } n \times ((Y G) (n-1)))) \text{ 4}

1, if 4 = 0; else 4 × ((Y G) (4-1))

4 × (G (Y G) (4-1))
```

### Recursion (8)

```
4 \times ((\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((Y G) (n-1)))) (4-1))
4 \times (1, \text{ if } 3 = 0; \text{ else } 3 \times ((Y G) (3-1)))
4 \times (3 \times (G (Y G) (3-1)))
4 \times (3 \times ((\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((Y G) (n-1)))) (3-1)))
4 \times (3 \times (1, \text{ if } 2 = 0; \text{ else } 2 \times ((Y G) (2-1))))
4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (G (Y G) (2-1))))
4 \times (3 \times (2 \times ((\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((Y G) (n-1)))) (2-1))))
4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (1, \text{ if } 1 = 0; \text{ else } 1 \times ((Y G) (1-1)))))
4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (1 \times (G (Y G) (1-1)))))
4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (1 \times ((\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((Y G) (n-1))))))))
4 \times (3 \times (2 \times (1 \times (1, if 0 = 0; else 0 \times ((Y G) (0-1))))))
4\times(3\times(2\times(1\times(1))))
24
```

# Recursion (9)

Every recursively defined function can be seen as a fixed point of some suitably defined function closing over the recursive call with an extra argument, and therefore, using **Y**, every recursively defined function can be expressed as a lambda expression.

In particular, we can now cleanly define the subtraction, multiplication and comparison predicate of natural numbers recursively.

### References

- [1] ftp://ftp.geoinfo.tuwien.ac.at/navratil/HaskellTutorial.pdf
- [2] https://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~hal/docs/daume02yaht.pdf