# Lambda Calculus - Church Numerals (5A)

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### Church encoding (1)

**Church encoding** is a means of representing **data** and **operators** in the **lambda** calculus.

The **Church numerals** are a representation of the **natural numbers** using lambda notation.

The method is named for Alonzo Church, who first encoded data in the lambda calculus this way.

### Church encoding (1)

**Terms** that are usually considered primitive in other notations (such as integers, booleans, pairs, lists, and tagged unions) are mapped to higher-order functions under Church encoding.

The Church-Turing thesis asserts that any computable **operator** (and its **operands**) can be represented under Church encoding.

In the <u>untyped</u> lambda calculus the only primitive data type is the **function**.

### Typed and untyped calculus (1)

Lambda calculus may be untyped or typed.

In <u>typed</u> <u>lambda calculus</u>, **functions** can be <u>applied</u> only if they are capable of <u>accepting</u> the given input's "**type**" of data.

Typed lambda calculi are <u>weaker</u> than the <u>untyped lambda calculus</u>, in the sense that typed lambda calculi can <u>express less</u> than the <u>untyped calculus</u> can, but on the other hand typed lambda calculi allow <u>more</u> things <u>to be proven</u>;

### Typed and untyped calculus (2)

in the <u>simply</u> typed lambda calculus it is, for example, a **theorem** that <u>every</u> **evaluation strategy** <u>terminates</u> for every <u>simply</u> typed lambda-term,

whereas **evaluation** of untyped lambda-terms <u>need not terminate</u>.

One reason there are <u>many different typed lambda calculi</u> has been the desire to <u>do more</u> (of what the untyped calculus can do) <u>without giving up</u> on being able to <u>prove</u> **strong theorems** about the calculus.

### Typed lambda calculus (3)

A typed lambda calculus is a typed formalism

that uses the lambda-symbol (  $\lambda$  \lambda ) to denote anonymous function abstraction.

In this context, types are usually objects of a syntactic nature that are assigned to lambda terms;

the exact nature of a type depends on the calculus considered (see Kinds of typed lambda calculi).

### Typed lambda calculus (3)

From a certain point of view,

typed lambda calculi can be seen

as <u>refinements</u> of the untyped lambda calculus

but from another point of view,
they can also be considered the more fundamental theory
and untyped lambda calculus
a special case with only one type.

### Typed lambda calculus (4)

Typed lambda calculi are foundational programming languages and are the base of typed functional programming languages such as ML and Haskell and, more indirectly, typed imperative programming languages.

Typed lambda calculi play an important role in the design of type systems for programming languages;

here typability usually captures <u>desirable properties</u> of the program, e.g. the program will <u>not</u> cause a <u>memory access violation</u>.

### Typed lambda calculus (5)

Typed lambda calculi are closely related

to mathematical logic and proof theory

via the Curry-Howard isomorphism and

they can be considered as

the internal language of classes of categories,

e.g. the simply typed lambda calculus is

the language of Cartesian closed categories (CCCs).

### **Formalism**

In the philosophy of mathematics,

formalism is the view that holds

that statements of mathematics and logic

can be considered to be statements

about the consequences of the manipulation of strings

(alphanumeric sequences of symbols, usually as equations)

using established manipulation rules.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Formalism\_(philosophy\_of\_mathematics)

### Classification of typed / untyped lambda calculus (1)

- Untyped lambda calculus -- no logical interpretation
- Simply typed lambda calculus -- intuitionistic propositional logic
- Polymorphic lambda calculus -- pure second-order logic
   ie, without first-order quantifiers
- Dependent types -- generalization of first-order logic
- Calculus of constructions -- generalization of higher-order logic

### Classification of typed / untyped lambda calculus (2)

Type dependency is more <u>general</u> than first-order quantification, since it turns <u>proofs</u> into <u>objects</u> you can <u>quantify</u> over.

Lambda calculi corresponding to <u>ordinary</u> intuitionistic FOL exist, but are <u>not widely used</u> enough to have a special name
-- people tend to go straight to <u>dependent types</u>.

### Classification of typed / untyped lambda calculus (3)

Pure untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus is Turing complete, i.e., a partial number-theoretic map is computable if, and only if, it is <u>definable</u> in the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus.

The <u>computational power</u> of typed  $\lambda$ -calculus is much <u>smaller</u>.

For example, if we add a type of natural numbers nat to the typed  $\lambda$ -calculus, together with 0, successor, and primitive recursion, we get what is commonly known as Gödel's T.

It <u>computes</u> the <u>primitive recursive functions</u> only (and they are all total).

### Classification of typed / untyped lambda calculus (4)

The untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus does <u>not</u> have a <u>reasonable interpretation</u> under the Curry-Howard correspondence, while the typed  $\lambda$ 

- calculus corresponds <u>precisely</u> to <u>intuitionistic propositional calculus</u>.

#### Models of typed $\lambda$

- calculus are precisely the cartesian-closed categories.

Models of the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus are less well-behaved.

While it is possible to talk about them,

they are certainly not studied as widely as cartesian-closed categories.

### Use (1)

A straightforward implementation of Church encoding slows some access operations from O(1) to O(n), where n is the <u>size</u> of the <u>data structure</u>, making Church encoding <u>impractical</u>.

Research has shown that this can be addressed by targeted optimizations, but most functional programming languages instead expand their intermediate representations to contain algebraic data types.

## Use (2)

Nonetheless Church encoding is often used in theoretical arguments, as it is a natural representation for partial evaluation and theorem proving.

Operations can be typed using higher-ranked types, and primitive recursion is <u>easily accessible</u>.

The assumption that functions are the <u>only</u> primitive data types streamlines many proofs.

### Use (3)

Church encoding is complete but only representationally.

Additional functions are needed

to <u>translate</u> the <u>representation</u> into <u>common data types</u>, for display to people.

It is <u>not possible</u> in general to <u>decide</u>

if two functions are extensionally equal

due to the undecidability of equivalence from Church's theorem.

## Use (4)

The translation may apply the function in some way to retrieve the value it represents, or look up its value as a literal lambda term.

Lambda calculus is usually interpreted as using intensional equality.

There are <u>potential problems</u> with the <u>interpretation</u> of results because of the <u>difference</u> between the <u>intensional</u> and <u>extensional definition</u> of <u>equality</u>.

### Church Numerals (1)

#### **Church numerals** are

the representations of natural numbers under Church encoding.

The higher-order function that represents natural number n is a function that <u>maps</u> any function f to its **n-fold composition**.

In simpler terms, the "value" of the numeral is equivalent to the number of times the function encapsulates its argument.

### Church Numerals (2)

Starting with 0 <u>not applying</u> the function at all, proceed with 1 <u>applying</u> the function <u>once</u>,

- 2 applying the function twice,
- 3 applying the function three times, etc.:

$$f^{\circ n} = f \circ f \circ \cdots \circ f$$

$$\mathbf{n} \mathbf{f} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}^{(n)}(\mathbf{x})$$

### Church Numerals (3)

#### All Church numerals are functions

that take two parameters. (f and x)

Church numerals 0, 1, 2, ..., are defined in the lambda calculus.

Number	Function definition	Lambda expression
0	$0 f x = f^{(0)}(x) = x$	λ <b>f.</b> λx. x
1	1 f x = $f^{(1)}(x) = f x$	<b>λf. λx. f</b> x
2	$2 f x = f^{(2)}(x) = f(f x)$	λf. λx. f (f x)
3	3 f x = $f^{(3)}(x) = f(f(fx))$	λf. λx. f (f (f x))
n	$\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{f} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{f} (\mathbf{n}) (\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{f} (\mathbf{f} \mathbf{v})$	)f )v f (f v( ) )
n	$n f x = f^{(n)}(x) = f(f (f x))$	λf. λx. f (f (f x))
	n times	n times

### Church Numerals (4)

The Church numeral 3 represents

the <u>action</u> of <u>applying</u> any given **function** three times to a **value**.

The supplied **function f** is <u>first applied</u> to a supplied **parameter x** 

and then <u>successively</u> to its **own result**.

$$X \rightarrow f X \rightarrow f (f X) \rightarrow f (f (f X))$$

```
3 = 3 f x
= f (f (f x))
= f (3) (x)
= \lambda f. \lambda x. f (f (f x))
```

The higher-order function that represents natural number *n* is a **function** 

that <u>maps</u> any function *f* to its **n-fold composition**.

### Church Numerals (5)

The **end result** is **not** the **numeral 3**unless the **supplied parameter** happens to be **0** 

and the function is a successor function

The **function** itself,

and not its end result,

is the Church numeral 3.

The Church numeral 3 means

simply to do anything three times.

It is an ostensive demonstration of what is meant by "three times".

ostensive : directly or clearly demonstrative

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Church\_encoding

The higher-order function that represents natural number *n* is a **function** 

that <u>maps</u> any function *f* to its **n-fold composition**.

### Why definition (1)

**Church** wasn't trying to be *practical*.

He was trying to *prove* results about

the expressive power of lambda calculus —

that in principle any possible computation

can be *done* in **lambda calculus**,

hence lambda calculus can serve

as a theoretical foundation for the study of computability.

For this purpose, it was necessary

to encode numbers as lambda expressions,

in such a way that things like the successor function

are easily definable.

### Why definition (2)

This was a key step in showing

the equivalence of lambda calculus and

Gödel's recursive function theory

(which was about computable functions on the natural numbers).

Church numerals are basically a <u>convenient</u> albeit <u>not</u> very <u>readable</u> encoding of numbers.

In some sense, there isn't any very deep logic to it.

The claim isn't that 1 in its essence is  $\lambda f$ .  $\lambda x$ . f x, but that the <u>latter</u> is a <u>serviceable encoding</u> of the former.

### Why definition (3)

This <u>doesn't</u> mean that it is an *arbitrary encoding*.

There is a definite logic to it.

The most natural way to encode a number n is by something which involves n.

Church numerals use *n* function applications.

The natural number n is represented

by the higher order function

which <u>applies</u> a function *n times* to an input.

### Why definition (4)

- 1 is encoded by a function applied once,
- 2 by a function applied twice and so on.

It is a very *natural* encoding, especially in the context of lambda calculus.

Furthermore, the fact that it is easy to <u>define</u> *arithmetic* on them streamlines the *proof* that **lambda calculus** is equivalent to recursive functions.

### Why definition (5)

```
To see this in practice, you can run
the following Python3 script:

#some Church numerals:
```

```
ZERO = lambda f: lambda x: x

ONE = lambda f: lambda x: f(x)

TWO = lambda f: lambda x: f(f(x))

THREE = lambda f: lambda x: f(f(f(x)))
```

### Why definition (6)

```
# function to apply these numerals to:
def square(x): return x**2

# so ZERO(square), ONE(square), etc. are functions
# apply these to 2 and print the results:

print(ZERO(square)(2), ONE(square)(2),
    TWO(square)(2),THREE(square)(2))

Output:
```

**ZERO** = lambda f: lambda x: x

ONE = lambda f: lambda x: f(x)

TWO = lambda f: lambda x: f(f(x))

THREE = lambda f: lambda x: f(f(f(x)))

Note that these numbers have been obtained by squaring the number two 0 times, 1 times, 2 times, and 3 times respectively.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/41978590/why-the-definition-of-churchs-numerals

2 4 16 256

### Church numeral (1)

Natural numbers are non-negative.

Given a successor function, next, which adds one,

we can define the natural numbers

in terms of zero and next:

```
1 = (next 0)

2 = (next 1) = (next (next 0))

3 = (next 2) = (next (next (next 0)))
```

and so on.

### Church numeral (2)

Therefore a number **n** will be that

number of successors of zero.

Just as we adopted the convention **TRUE = first**,

and **FALSE = second**, we adopt the following convention:

```
zero = \lambda f.\lambda x.x

one = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f x)

two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f x))

three = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f (f x)))

four = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f (f (f x))))
```

```
1 = (next 0)
2 = (next 1) = (next (next 0))
3 = (next 2) = (next (next (next 0)))

f ← next
x ← zero
```

### Church numeral (3)

```
a "unary" representation of the natural numbers,
    such that \mathbf{n} is represented
    as \mathbf{n} applications of the function \mathbf{f} to the argument \mathbf{x}.

zero = \lambda \mathbf{f}.\lambda \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{x}

one = \lambda \mathbf{f}.\lambda \mathbf{x}.(\mathbf{f} \mathbf{x})

two = \lambda \mathbf{f}.\lambda \mathbf{x}.(\mathbf{f} (\mathbf{f} \mathbf{x}))

three = \lambda \mathbf{f}.\lambda \mathbf{x}.(\mathbf{f} (\mathbf{f} (\mathbf{f} \mathbf{x})))

four = \lambda \mathbf{f}.\lambda \mathbf{x}.(\mathbf{f} (\mathbf{f} (\mathbf{f} \mathbf{x}))))
```

This representation is refered to as

CHURCH NUMERALS.

### Church numeral (3)

We can define the function **next** as follows:

```
next = \lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x))

and therefore one as follows:

one = (next zero)

=> (\lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x)) zero)

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f((zero f) x))

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f((\lambda g.\lambda y.y f) x)) (* alpha conversion avoids clash *)

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(\lambda y.y x))
```

```
zero = \lambda f.\lambda x.x

one = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f x)

two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f x))

three = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f (f x)))

four = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f (f (f x))))
```

https://www.cs.unc.edu/~stotts/723/Lambda/church.html

 $=> \lambda f. \lambda x. (f x)$ 

### Church numeral (4)

```
and two as follows:

two = (next one)

=> (\lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x)) one)

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f((one f) x))

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f((\lambda g.\lambda y.(g y) f) x)) (* alpha conversion avoids clash *)

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(\lambda y.(f y) x))

=> \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(x)(f(x)))

val next = fn n => fn f => fn x => (f((n f) x));

next = \lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x))

val next = (f((n f) x))
```

```
next = \lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x))

zero = \lambda f.\lambda x.x

one = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f x)

two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f x))

three = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f (f x)))

four = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f (f (f (f x))))
```

### Church numeral (5-1)

```
NOTE that ((two g) y) = (g (g y)).
```

So if we had some function, say one that increments n:

$$inc = \lambda n.(n+1)$$

```
two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))

two g = (\lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))) g

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

((two g) y)

= (\lambda x.(g(g x))) y

= (g(g y))
```

#### Church numeral (5-2)

then we can get a feel for a Church Numeral as follows:

```
((two inc) 0)
=> ((λf.λx.(f (f x)) inc) 0)
=> (λx.(inc (inc x) 0)
=> (inc (inc 0))
=> (λn.(n+1) (λn.(n+1) 0))
=> (λn.(n+1) (0 + 1))
=> ((0 + 1) + 1)
=> 2
```

```
two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))

two g = (\lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))) g

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

((two g) y)

= (\lambda x.(g(g x))) y

= (g(g y))

inc = \lambda n.(n+1)
```

# Church numeral (6-1)

We are now in a position to define **addition** in terms of next:

```
add = \lambda m.\lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.((((m next) n) f) x);

next = \lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x))
```

#### Church numeral (6-2)

Therefore four may be computed as follows:

```
four = ((add two) two)

=> ((\lambdam.\lambdan.\lambdaf.\lambdax.((((m next) n) f) x) two) two)

=> (\lambdan.\lambdaf.\lambdax.((((two next) n) f) x) two

=> \lambdaf.\lambdax.((((two next) two) f x)

=> \lambdaf.\lambdax.((((\lambdag.\lambday.(g (g y)) next) two) f x)

=> \lambdaf.\lambdax.(((\lambday.(next (next y)) two) f) x)

=> \lambdaf.\lambdax.(((next (next two)) f) x)

=> \lambdaf.\lambdax.(((next (next (next (next zero)))) f) x)
```

```
add = \lambda m.\lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(((m next) n) f) x);
next = \lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.(f((n f) x))
             = \lambda f. \lambda x. (f (f x))
two
             = \lambda g.\lambda y.(g (g y))
two g = (\lambda f.\lambda x.(f(fx))) g
             = \lambda x.(q (q x))
((two g) y)
             = (\lambda x.(g(gx))) y
             = (g (g y))
one = (next zero)
two = (next one)
```

= (next (next zero))

#### Church numeral (7)

```
mult = λm.λn.λx.(m (n x))

six = ((mult two) three)

=> ((λm.λn.λx.(m (n x)) two) three)

=> (λn.λx.(two (n x) three)

=> λx.(two (three x))

=> λx.(two (λg.λy.(g (g (g y))) x))

=> λx.(two λy.(x (x (x y))))

=> λx.( λf.λz.(f (f z)) λy.(x (x (x y))) )

=> λx.λz.(λy.(x (x (x y))) (λy.(x (x (x y))) z))

=> λx.λz.(λy.(x (x (x (x y))) (x (x (x z))) ))

=> λx.λx.(x (x (x (x (x (x (x z))) )))
```

```
two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))
= \lambda g.\lambda y.(g(g y))
three = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f(f x)))
= \lambda g.\lambda y.(g(g(g y)))
```

#### Church numeral (8-1)

```
two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))
= \lambda g.\lambda y.(g(g y))
three = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f(f x)))
= \lambda g.\lambda y.(g(g(g y)))
```

#### Church numeral (8-2)

```
two = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f x))
= \lambda g.\lambda y.(g(g y))
three = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f(f x)))
= \lambda g.\lambda y.(g(g(g y)))
```

## Church numeral (9-1)

The following lambda **function** tests for zero:

```
first = \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x

third = \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.z

iszero = \lambda n.((n third) first)

= \lambda n.((n \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.z) first)

= \lambda n.((n \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.z) \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.x)
```

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (1)

the most commonly defined Church numerals

```
0 := \frac{\lambda f.\lambda x.x}{\lambda f.\lambda x.f} x
1 := \frac{\lambda f.\lambda x.f}{\lambda f.\lambda x.f} (f x)
3 := \frac{\lambda f.\lambda x.f}{\lambda f.\lambda x.f} (f (f x))
```

using the alternative syntax presented above in Notation:

```
0 := \frac{\lambda fx}{\lambda fx}.x
1 := \frac{\lambda fx}{\lambda fx}.f x
2 := \frac{\lambda fx}{\lambda fx}.f (f x)
3 := \frac{\lambda fx}{\lambda fx}.f (f (f x))
```

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (2)

A Church numeral is a higher-order function –

it <u>takes</u> a single-argument function **f**, and <u>returns</u> another single-argument function.

The Church numeral **n** is a function that <u>takes</u> a function **f** as argument and <u>returns</u> the **n**-th composition of **f**, i.e. the function **f** composed with itself **n** times.

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (3)

This is denoted  $f^{(n)}$  and is in fact the n-th power of f (considered as an operator);

**f**<sup>(0)</sup> is defined to be the identity function.

Such repeated compositions (of a single function **f**) obey the laws of exponents, which is why these numerals can be used for arithmetic.

#### Arithmetic in lambda calculus (4)

```
0 := \frac{\lambda f. \lambda x. x}{1}
1 := \frac{\lambda f. \lambda x. f}{x}
2 := \frac{\lambda f. \lambda x. f}{x} (f x)
3 := \frac{\lambda f. \lambda x. f}{x} (f (f x))
```

**f**<sup>(0)</sup> is defined to be the identity function.

In Church's <u>original</u> lambda calculus, the formal parameter of a lambda expression was required to occur at least once in the function body, which made the above definition of 0 impossible.

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (5)

One way of thinking about the **Church numeral n**, which is often useful when analysing programs, is as an instruction 'repeat n times'.

For example, using the **PAIR** and **NIL** functions defined below, one can define a function that constructs a (linked) list of **n** elements all equal to **x** by repeating 'prepend another **x** element' **n** times, starting from an empty list.

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (6)

The lambda term is

λn.λx.n (PAIR x) NIL

By varying what is being repeated, and varying what argument that function being repeated is applied to, a great many different effects can be achieved.

# Arithmetic in lambda calculus (7)

We can define a successor function,
which takes a Church numeral n and returns n + 1
by adding another application of f,
where '(mf)x' means the function 'f' is applied 'm' times on 'x':

SUCC :=  $\lambda n.\lambda f.\lambda x.f$  (n f x)

Because the m-th composition of f composed with the n-th composition of f gives the m+n-th composition of f, addition can be defined as follows:

PLUS :=  $\lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. m f (n f x)$ 

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (8)

PLUS can be thought of as a function taking two natural numbers as arguments and returning a natural number; it can be verified that

PLUS 2 3 and 5

are  $\beta$ -equivalent lambda expressions.

Since adding m to a number n can be accomplished by adding 1 m times, an alternative definition is:

PLUS :=  $\lambda$ m. $\lambda$ n.m SUCC n [23]

## Arithmetic in lambda calculus (9)

Similarly, multiplication can be defined as

MULT :=  $\lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda f. m$  (n f)

Alternatively

MULT :=  $\lambda m.\lambda n.m$  (PLUS n) 0

since multiplying m and n is the same as repeating the add n function m times and then applying it to zero.

Exponentiation has a rather simple rendering in Church numerals, namely

POW :=  $\lambda b.\lambda e.e$  b

#### References

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