Lambda Calculus - Recursions (9A)

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Fixed-point combinator (1)

a fixed-point combinator

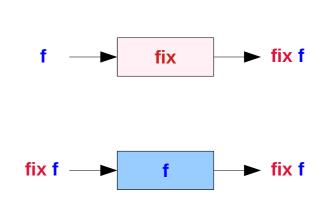
(or fixpoint combinator),

denoted fix, is a higher-order function

which <u>takes</u> a function **f** as argument that <u>returns</u> some fixed point **(fix f)** (a value that is mapped to itself)

of its argument function **f**, if one exists.

fix f = f (fix f),

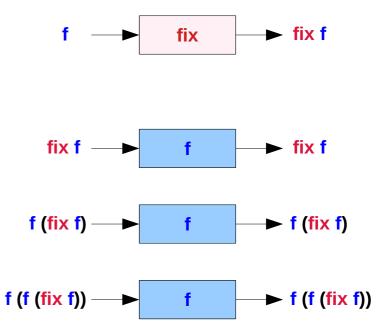


Fixed-point combinator (2)

some fixed point (fix f) of its argument function f, if one exists.
Formally, if the function f has one or more fixed points, then
fix f = f (fix f),
and hence, by repeated application,

fix f = f (f (... f (fix f) ...))

fix ffixed pointfixfixed point combinator



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

Fixed-point combinator (3)

Every recursively defined function can be seen as a fixed point of some suitably defined function <u>closing</u> 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 <u>recursively</u>. Y = $\lambda f. (\lambda x.f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))$ Y g = g (Y g)

Fixed-point combinator (4)

In the classical <u>untyped</u> lambda calculus, <u>every</u> function has a fixed point.

A particular <u>implementation</u> of **fix** is Curry's paradoxical **combinator Y**, represented by

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

In functional programming, the **Y combinator** can be used to formally define recursive functions in a programming language that does <u>not</u> support recursion.

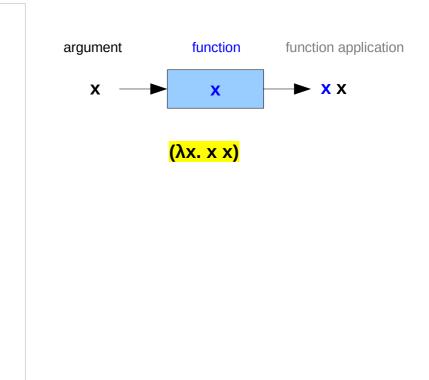
Fixed-point combinator (5)

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

Y is a function that <u>takes</u> one argument **f** and <u>returns</u> the entire expression following the first period;

(λx. f (x x)) (λx. f (x x))

the expression $(\lambda x. f(x x))$ denotes a function that <u>takes one</u> argument x, thought of as a function, and <u>returns</u> the expression f(x x),

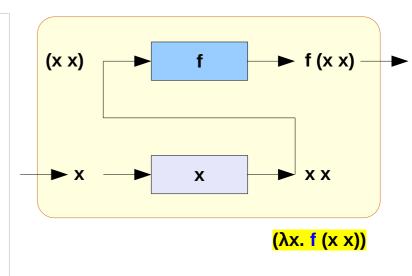


Fixed-point combinator (6)

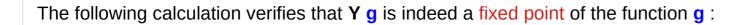
$Y = \lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))$

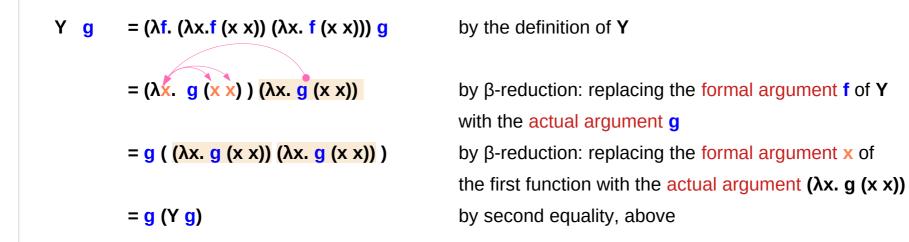
the expression (λx. f (x x)) denotes a function
 that takes one argument x,
 which is thought of as a function,
 and returns the expression f (x x),
 where (x x) denotes
 a function x applied to itself as an argument.

Juxtaposition of expressions denotes function application, is left-associative, and has higher precedence than the period.)



Fixed-point combinator (7)



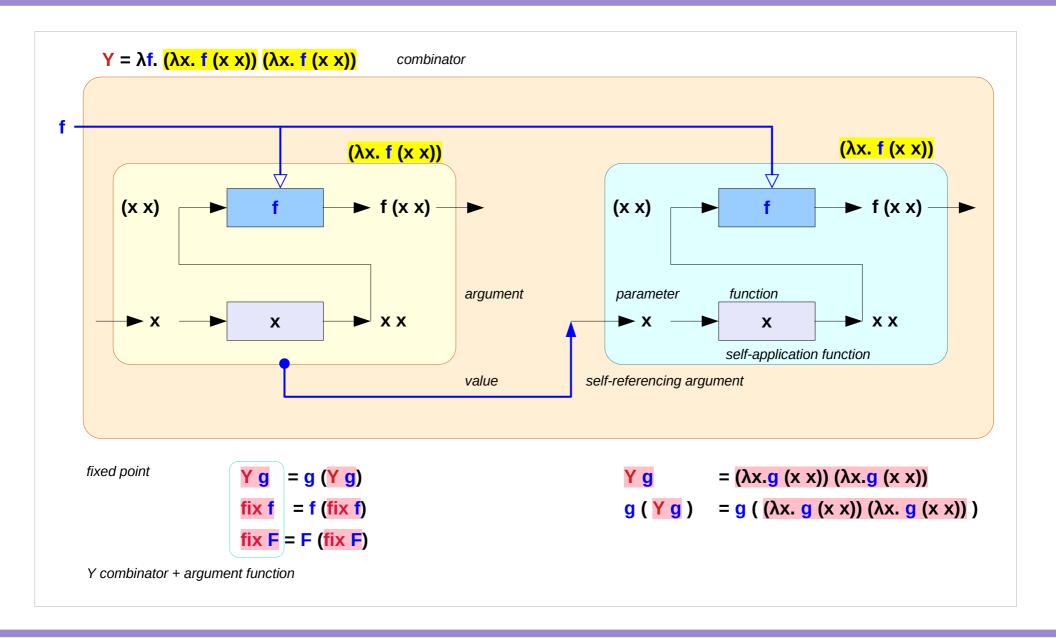


Υ	= λf. <mark>(λx. f (x x))</mark> (λx. f (x x))
Yg	= (λx. g (x x)) (λx. g (x x))
<mark>g (Y g</mark>)	= g (<mark>(λx. g (x x))</mark> (λx. g (x x))

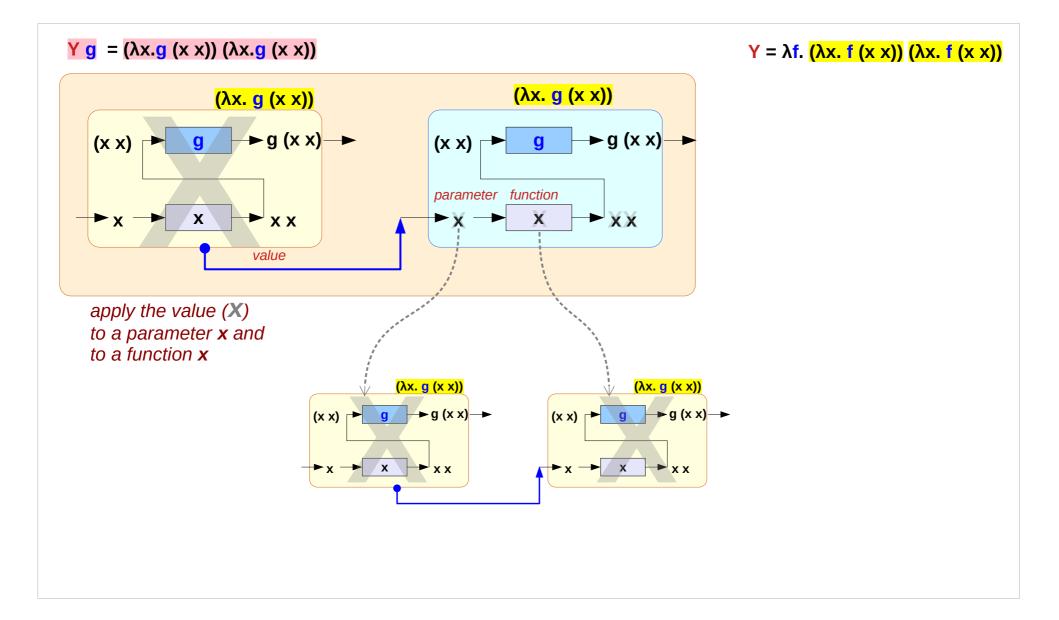
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fixed-point_combinator

Young Won Lim 12/26/24

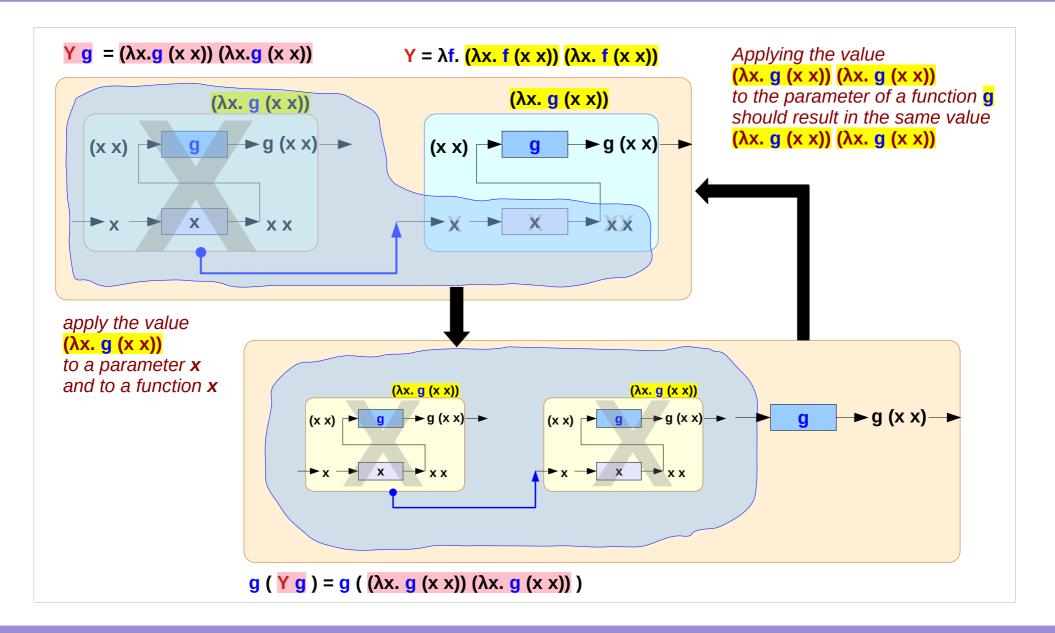
Fixed-point combinator (8)



Fixed-point combinator (9)

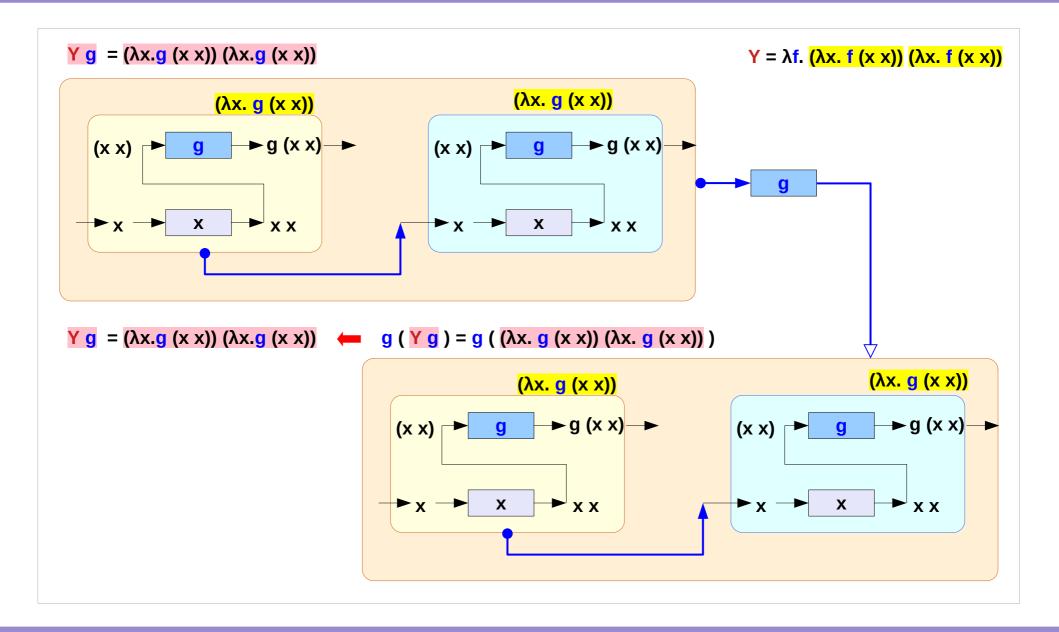


Fixed-point combinator (10)

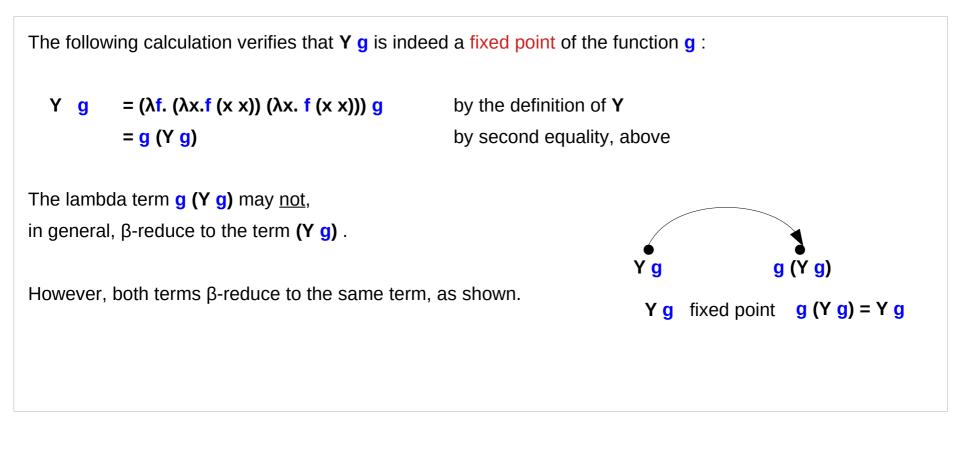


Lambda Calculus (9A) – Recursions

Fixed-point combinator (11)



Fixed-point combinator (12)



Yg	= (λx. g (x x)) (λx. g (x x))
<mark>g (Y g</mark>)	= g (<mark>(λx. g (x x))</mark> (λx. g (x x)))

Y g	= <mark>g (Y g</mark>)
fix f	= f (<mark>fix f</mark>)
fix F	= F (<mark>fix F</mark>)

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fixed-point_combinator

Lambda Calculus (9A) – Recursions

Fixed-point combinator (13)

This combinator may be used in implementing Curry's paradox.

The heart of Curry's paradox is

that untyped lambda calculus is unsound as a deductive system,

and the **Y combinator** demonstrates this by <u>allowing</u> an <u>anonymous expression</u> to represent <u>zero</u>, or even <u>many</u> **values**.

This is inconsistent in mathematical logic.

Fixed-point combinator (14)

Applied to a function with one variable,

the Y combinator usually does not terminate.

More interesting results are obtained

by <u>applying</u> the **Y** combinator to functions of <u>two or more</u> <u>variables</u>.

the <u>additional variables</u> may be used as a <u>counter</u>, or <u>index</u>. the resulting <u>function</u> behaves like a **while** or a **for** loop in an imperative language. Y = $(\lambda f. (\lambda x.f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x)))$ Y g = g (Y g)

Fixed-point combinator (15)

Used in this way, the Y combinator implements simple recursion.

The lambda calculus does <u>not</u> allow a function to appear as a term in its own definition as is possible in many programming languages,

but a function can be passed as an argument to a higher-order function that applies it in a <u>recursive</u> manner. Y = $(\lambda f. (\lambda x.f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x)))$ Y g = g (Y g)

Fixed-point combinator (16)

Every recursively defined function can be seen as a fixed point of some suitably defined function closing over the recursive call with an <u>extra</u> 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 <u>recursively</u>.

Fixed-point combinator (17)

<u>Applied</u> to a function with <u>one variable</u>,

the **Y** combinator usually does <u>not terminate</u>.

More interesting results are obtained

by applying the **Y** combinator to functions of two or more variables.

The <u>additional</u> variables may be used as a <u>counter</u>, or <u>index</u>.

The resulting function behaves like a **while** or a **for** loop in an imperative language.

Used in this way, the Y combinator implements simple recursion.

Fixed-point combinator (18)

In the lambda calculus, it is <u>not possible</u> to <u>refer</u> to the <u>definition</u> of a function inside its own <u>body by name</u>.

Recursion though may be achieved by <u>obtaining the same</u> function passed in as an argument, and then <u>using that argument to make</u> the recursive call, <u>instead</u> of using the function's own <u>name</u>, as is done in languages which do support recursion natively.

The **Y** combinator demonstrates this style of programming.

Fixed-point combinator (19)

An example implementation of **Y combinator** in two languages is presented below.

Y Combinator in Python

Y=lambda f: (lambda x: f(x(x)))(lambda x: f(x(x)))

Y(Y)

The factorial function (1)

The **factorial function** provides a good example of how a fixed-point combinator may be used to define recursive functions.

The standard recursive definition of the factorial function in mathematics can be written as

fact n = $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot \text{fact (n-1)} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

where \mathbf{n} is a non-negative integer.

The factorial function (2)

If we want to implement this in lambda calculus,

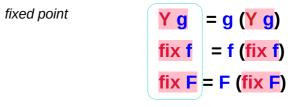
- integers are represented using Church encoding,

the problem is that the lambda calculus does <u>not</u> allow the <u>name</u> of a function ('**fact**') to be used in the <u>function's definition</u>.

this problem can be <u>circumvented</u>
using a fixed-point combinator fix as follows.
 fix f = f (fix f),
 fix f fixed point
 fix fixed point combinator

Y g = g (**Y g**)

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



Y combinator + argument function

The factorial function (3)

using a fixed-point combina	ator fix	fix F = F (fix F),
fix f = f (fix f)		
fix F = F (fix F),		fix F fixed point
		fix fixed point combinator
Let the fixed point of F, (fix	F) as fact	
fact ≡ <mark>fix F</mark>		
		fact n = F fact n
(fix F) = F (fix F)		= (IsZero n) 1
(fact) = F (fact)	fixed-point fact	(multiply n (fact (pred n)))
(fact n) = F (fact n)		

The factorial function (4)

```
a fixed-point combinator fix
fix F = F (fix F),
```

```
the fixed point of F, (fix F) as fact
(fact n) = F (fact n)
```

```
define a function F of two arguments f and n:
```

```
F f n = (IsZero n) 1 (multiply n (f (pred n)))
```

```
F fact n = (IsZero n) 1 (multiply n (fact (pred n)))
```

fix F	= F	(fix	F) ,
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fix F fixed pointfix fixed point combinator

fact n = F fact n

= (IsZero n) 1

(multiply n (fact (pred n)))

The factorial function (5)

(fact n) = F (fact n)

F f n = (IsZero n) 1 (multiply n (f (pred n)))

the definition of the function **F**

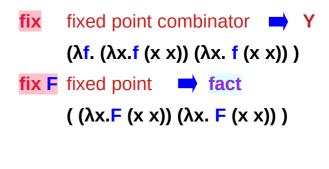
F fact **n** ≡ (IsZero **n**) 1 (multiply **n** (fact (pred **n**)))

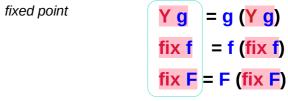
the recursive relation of fact

fact n = (IsZero n) 1 (multiply n (fact (pred n)))

n * fact (n-1)

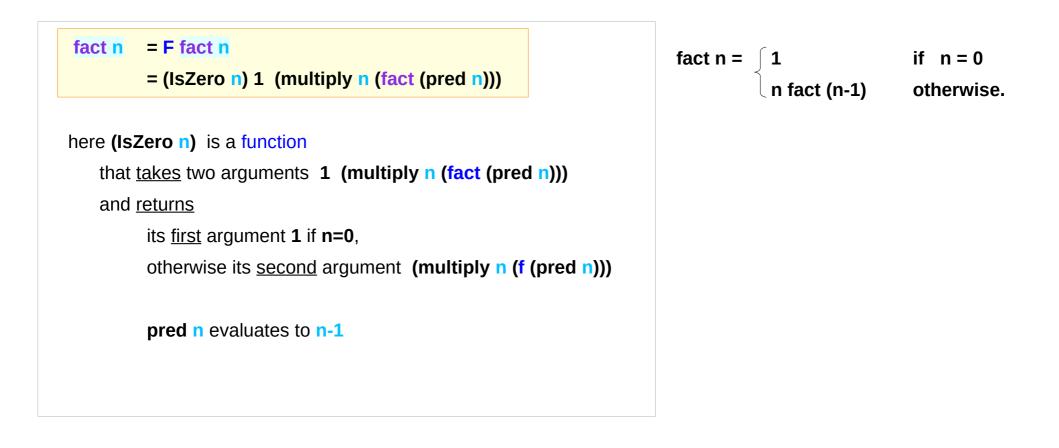
fix F = F (fix F)





Y combinator + argument function

The factorial function (6)



Recursion (1)

recursion:

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

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

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

Recursion (2)

Lambda calculus <u>cannot</u> express this (referring to the function definition <u>by name</u> for recursion)

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

inside the lambda term defining that same value.

in lambda calculus

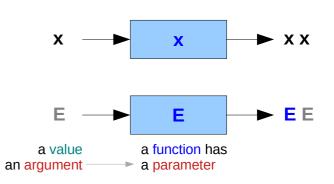
• all functions are anonymous

Recursion (3)

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

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

- all functions are anonymous
- but a function can receive itself as an argument



Recursion (4)

Consider the factorial function fact(n) recursively defined by

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

in the lambda expression

which is to represent the function fact(n),

typically, the <u>first parameter</u> will be assumed to <u>receive</u> the <u>lambda expression</u> itself <u>as its value</u>,

so that <u>calling</u> it (applying it to an argument) will amount to <u>recursion</u>.

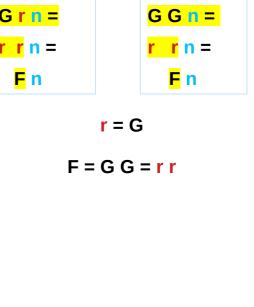
Recursion (5)

Thus to achieve <i>recursion</i> , the <i>intended-as-self-referencing</i> argument		<mark>fix G</mark> = G (fix	G)
(called r here) must always be <u>passed</u> to itself	rr	fix G fixed point fact	
within the function body, at a call point:	r r (n–1)	fix fixed point combinator	
G := λr . λn . (1, if n = 0; else n × (r r (n-1))) with rrn = F n = G rn to hold,		<mark>rrn=</mark> Fn= <mark>Grn</mark>	<mark>r r</mark> n = <mark>F</mark> n = <mark>G G</mark> n
so r = G and			r = G
F := G G = (λx.x x) G		F = G G = r r	

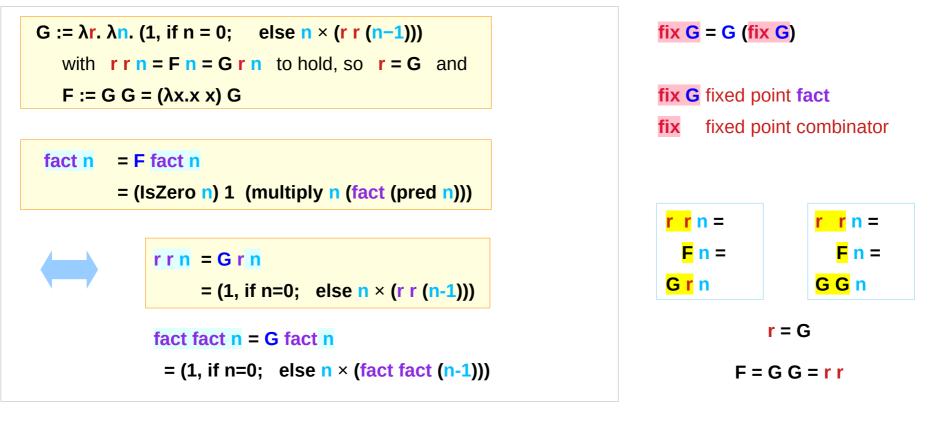


Recursion (6) – with a self-referencing argument

G is a <u>recursive factorial function</u> G := λr . λn . (1, if n = 0; else n × (rr (n-1))))		G r
G must have two arguments	r n	G r n	
in the body of G , self-referencing argument r must always be passed to r , for recursion		r r n	
F is the top level fact function with one argument	n	F n	
with $\mathbf{Grn} = \mathbf{rrn} = \mathbf{Fn}$ to hold		r = G	
F := G G = (λx.x x) G			



Recursion (7)



 $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{G} = \mathbf{fact}$

Recursion (8)

G := λr . λn . (1, if n = 0; else n × (r r (n-1))) with rrn = F n = G r n to hold, so r = G and F := G G = ($\lambda x.x x$) G

 $\mathbf{rrn} = \mathbf{Grn}$

r = **G** = fact

= (1, if n=0; else n × (r r (n-1)))

<u>fact fact n = G fact n = G G n</u>

= (1, if n=0; else n × (<u>fact fact (n-1)</u>))

Fn = GGn

= (1, if n=0; else n × (F (n-1)))

fact n = F fact n
= (IsZero n) 1 (multiply n (fact (pred n)))

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lambda_calculus#Formal_definition

fix G = G (fix G)

fix G fixed point factfix fixed point combinator



r = **G** = **fact**

F = G G = r r = fact fact



Recursion (9)

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

 $G := \lambda r. \lambda n. (1, if n = 0; else n \times (\underline{rr} (n-1)))$ with rrn = Fn = Grn to hold, so r = G

<u>fact fact n = G fact n = G G n</u>

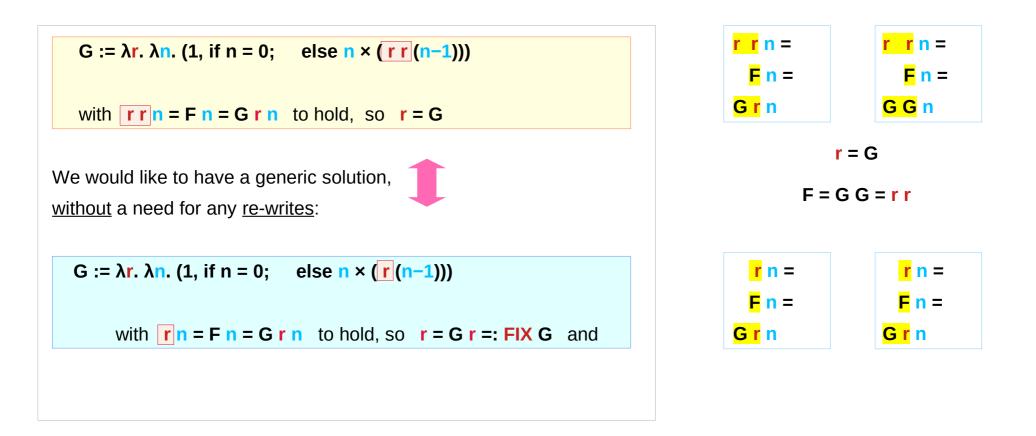
= (1, if n=0; else n × (<u>fact fact (n-1)</u>))

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

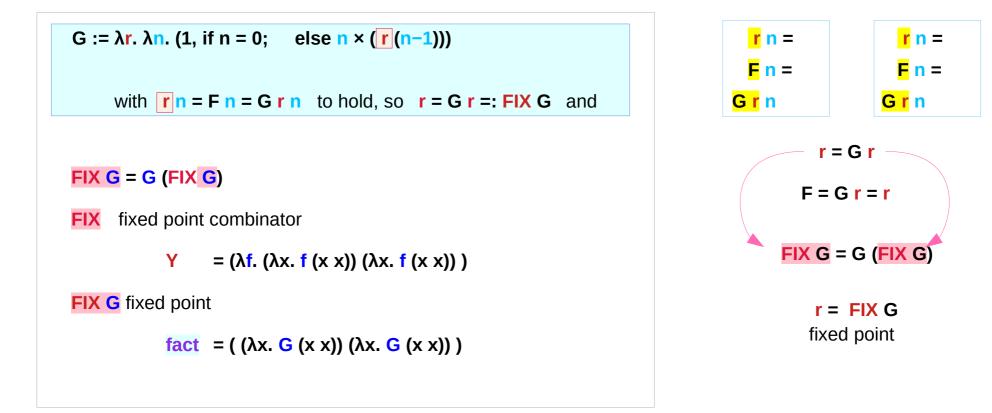
r r (n–1)

r r

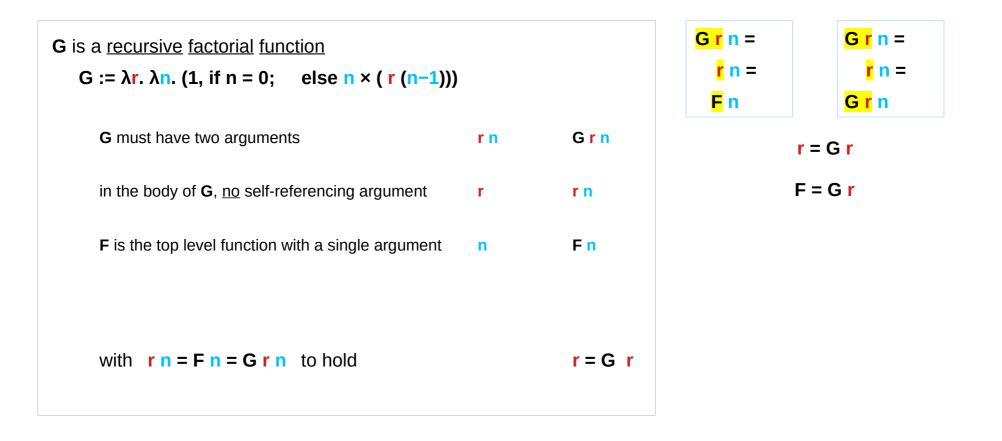
Recursion (10)



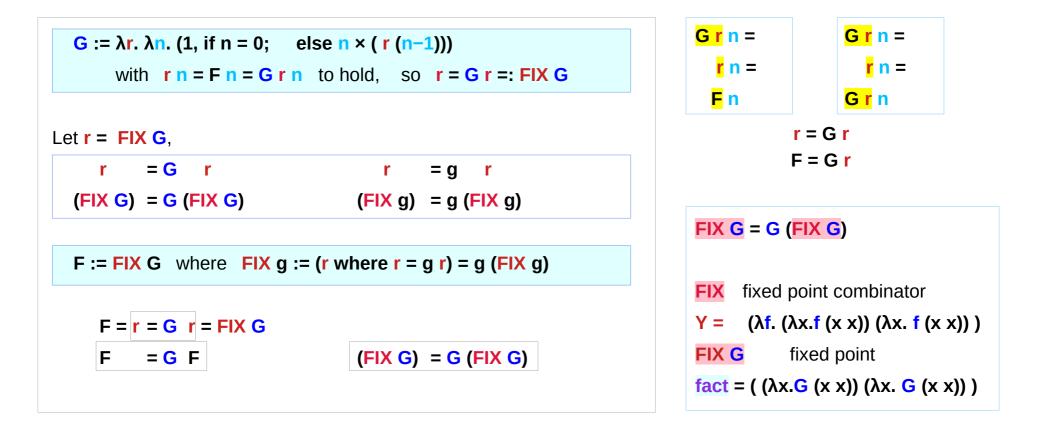
Recursion (11) without a self-referencing argument



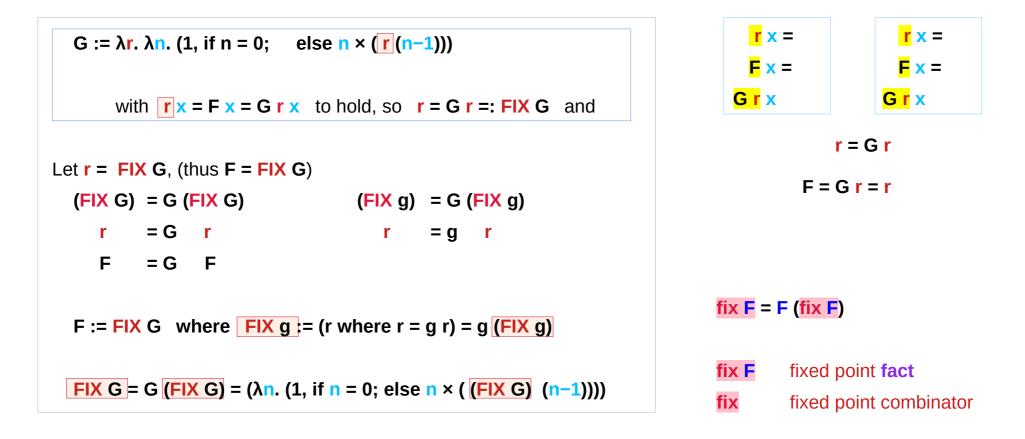
Recursion (12) without a self-referencing argument



Recursion (13)



Recursion (14)



Recursion (15)

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

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

FIX Ffixed pointFIXfixed point combinatorFIX F = F (FIX F) = fact(fact) = F (fact)(fact n) = F (fact n)F f n = (IsZero n) 1

(multiply n (f (pred n)))



Recursion (16)

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 = (λ x.g (x x)) (λ x.g (x x)) = g (λ x. (x x)) (λ x.g (x x))

Recursion (17)

In the lambda calculus, **Y g** is a fixed-point of **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 (18)

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 $(\lambda r.\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times (r (n-1))))$ (Y G) 4 $(\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((Y G) (n-1))))$ 4 1, if 4 = 0; else 4 × ((Y G) (4-1)) 4 × (G (Y G) (4-1))

Recursion (19)

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

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Recursion (20)

Every recursively defined function can be seen as a fixed point of some suitably defined function <u>closing</u> 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.

Encoding Conditionals (1)

consider how to encode a conditional expression 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 <u>applying</u> P to (A and B) (i.e., P itself chooses A or B):

```
COND == \lambdap.\lambdaa.\lambdab.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 when FALSE is applied to a and b we want it to <u>return</u> b .	(first) (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.

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



Encoding Conditionals (6)

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

($\underline{\lambda a}$. λb . (λx . λy .x) a b) <u>M</u> N $\rightarrow \beta$

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

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

($\underline{\lambda y}$. 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 <u>condition</u>.

IsZero (minus n m)

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

minus n m = m pred n = 0 if $n \le m$

If this expression is used then the mathematical <u>definition</u> of division given above is <u>translated</u> 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

IsZero (minus 3 1) = 0	3 > 1	2
IsZero (minus 3 2) = 0	3 > 2	1
IsZero (minus 3 3) = 1	3 = 3	0
IsZero (minus 3 4) = 1	3 < 4	0
IsZero (minus 3 5) = 1	3 < 5	0

Division (2-1)

n / m	=	if	<mark>n ≥ m</mark>	then	1 + (<mark>n – m</mark>) / m
				else	0
<mark>n / m</mark>	=	if	<mark>n < m</mark>	then	0
				else	1 + (<mark>n – m</mark>) / m
(n-1)/m	=	if	n ≤ 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

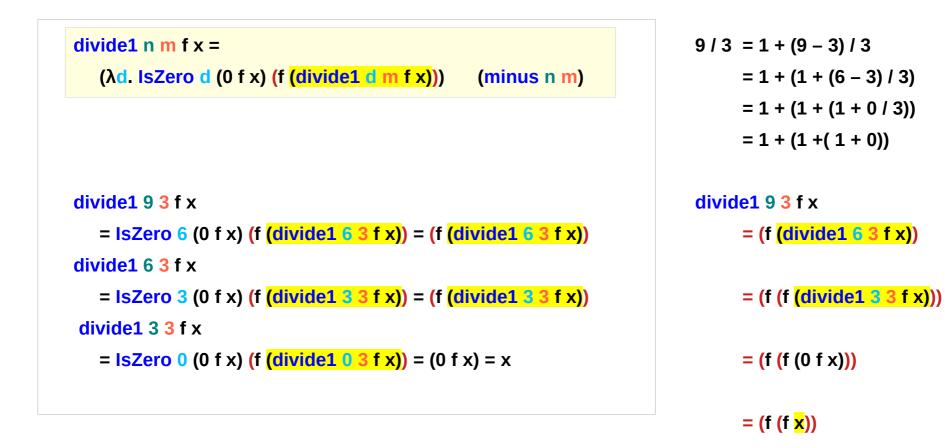
correct condition: n < mmodified condition: $n \le m$

Division (2-2)

divide1 n ι (λd. IsZ	n f x = ero d (0 f x) (f <mark>(divide1 d m f x)</mark>))	(minus n m)
IsZero d	➡ IsZero (minus n m)	
TRUE	(λx.λy.x) (0 f x) (f (divide) = (0 f x)	<mark>e1 d m f x)</mark>)
FALSE	 (λx.λy.y) (0 f x) (f (divide (f (divide1 d m f x)) 	<mark>e1 d m f x)</mark>)
(n-1)/m =	if $n \le m$ then 0 else $1 + (n - m)/1$	m

d ← **n** – **m**

Division (2-3)



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

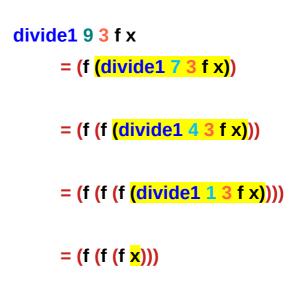
= IsZero 4 (0 f x) (f (divide1 4 3 f x)) = (f (divide1 4 3 f x))

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 = (λd. lsZero 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 =

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

div = $\lambda c. \lambda n. \lambda m. \lambda f. \lambda x.$

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

div c = λn . λm . λf . λx .

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

Division (5)

Then,

divide = λn . divide1 (succ n)

where,

divide1 = Y div succ = λn . λf . λx . f (n f x) Y

= λf. (λx. F (x x)) (λx. f (x x)) 0

= λf. λx. x IsZero

= λn . N (λx . False) true

true = $\lambda a. \lambda b. a$ false = $\lambda a. \lambda b. b$

minus = λm . λn . n pred m pred

= λn. λf. λx. n (λg. λh. h (g f)) (λu. x) (λu. 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) Or as text, using $\$ for $\lambda,$

divide =
(\n.((\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)))
 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 (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)

Or as text, using $\ \delta$,

divide = (\n.((\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 function using the function itself.

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

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

Recursion (1-2)

Lambda calculus <u>cannot</u> express this: all functions are anonymous in lambda calculus, so we <u>can't</u> refer by name to a value 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, <u>applying</u> 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 recursion.

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 function body, at a call point:

G := λ **r**. λ **n**. (1, if n = 0; else n × (r r (n-1)))

with $\mathbf{r} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{x}$ 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 := λr. λn.(1, if n = 0; else n × (r r (n–1)))
```

with $\mathbf{rrx} = \mathbf{Fx} = \mathbf{Grx}$ to hold, so $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{G}$ 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 <u>next invocation</u> as an argument value, making it available to be <u>referenced</u> and <u>called</u> 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 := λr. λn.(1, if n = 0; else n × (r (n–1)))
```

with $\mathbf{r} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{x}$ to hold, so $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{r} =: \mathbf{FIX} \mathbf{G}$ and

F := FIX G where FIX g := (r where r = g r) = g (FIX g)

so that

FIX G = G (FIX G) = (λ n.(1, if n = 0; else n × ((FIX G) (n-1))))

Recursion (4)

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

Recursion (6)

In the lambda calculus, **Y g** is a fixed-point of **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 $(\lambda r.\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times (r (n-1))))$ (Y G) 4 $(\lambda n.(1, if n = 0; else n \times ((Y G) (n-1))))$ 4 1, if 4 = 0; else 4 × ((Y G) (4-1)) 4 × (G (Y G) (4-1))

Recursion (8)

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

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Recursion (9)

Every recursively defined function can be seen as a fixed point of some suitably defined function <u>closing</u> 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