

Lecture 7

7.2.2025

Today's agenda:

If-then-else construct in LC

Recursion in LC

LC has only three constructs:

$$M ::= x \quad | \quad (\lambda x. M) \quad | \quad (M N)$$

Abstraction application

There are no numbers, data types, if-then-else, However, some of these can be easily encoded in LC.

Idea: try to write the meaning of the function using the above syntax.

If then else construct: *if $(x > 0)$ then print x else print $x + 1$:*

We can generalize the structure as *if b then $c1$ else $c2$* where b can be either true or false.

Meaning: *if $b = \text{true}$ then do $c1$ else do $c2$*

So we denote the above construct by IF that has three formal parameters:

$b, c1, c2$.

If the actual parameter for b is true (false) IF returns $c1$ ($c2$);

Can be generalized as: if b is true select the first argument among $c1, c2$; otherwise select the second argument.

We know that $\text{first} = \lambda x. \lambda y. x$ $\text{first } M N = M$ $\text{second} = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$

Let $\text{true} = \text{first}$ $\text{false} = \text{second}$

so $\text{first } c1 \ c2 = \text{true } c1 \ c2 = c1$ $\text{second } c1 \ c2 = \text{false } c1 \ c2 = c2$

$\text{IF} = \lambda b. \lambda c1. \lambda c2. b \ c1 \ c2$

$\text{IF true } C1 \ C2 = ((\lambda c1. \lambda c2. \text{true } c1 \ c2) \ C1) \ C2$

$= (\lambda c2. \text{true } C1 \ c2) \ C2 = \text{true } C1 \ C2 = C1$

Similarly, $\text{IF false } C1 \ C2 = (\lambda c1. \lambda c2. \text{false } c1 \ c2) \ C1 \ C2 = \text{false } C1 \ C2 = C2$

So IF can be expressed as a pure lambda term. $\text{IF} = \lambda b. \lambda c1. \lambda c2. b \ c1 \ c2$

$\text{IF} = (\lambda b. (\lambda c1. (\lambda c2. ((b \ c1) \ c2))))$

Recursion is not provided explicitly in the syntax of LC.

In the early days of the development of PLs, some languages did not allow recursion (e.g., FORTRAN).

We need a way to encode recursion in LC. For this we develop the elementary ideas.

Self application $sa = (\lambda x. x x)$, so x is a function that takes x as an argument.

Recall that in the previous lecture we simplified SII to $\lambda z. z z$ which is sa .

What is $sa sa$?

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

$=_{\beta} (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) = sa sa$

Thus by beta reduction we get back $sa sa$.

This term corresponds to an infinite loop in LC, also referred to as a non-terminating reduction denoted by **big omega Ω** . But this term is useful when we want to define recursive functions.

Advantage of CBN:

$(\lambda y. z) N =_{\beta} z$ (which is the normal form)

What if N is non terminating? Eg, $N = sa sa$.

CBN will always return z irrespective of N .

results by CBN and CBV semantics may be different.

But CBV, for $N = sa sa$, a computation would proceed that is an infinite loop. Thus the normal form is never found, although one exists.

Recursive function:

eg factorial function

factorial 0 = 1 [basis]

factorial $n = \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * \text{factorial } (n-1)$

factorial 3 = $3 * \text{factorial } 2 = 3 * 2 * \text{factorial } 1 = 3 * 2 * 1$

when we call factorial with $n=3$ it calls itself with $n=2$ and so on.

So we get a call structure like $g (g (g \dots))$ -----B----- [this is our goal]

This is the meaning of recursion. See the similarity with $sa sa$. The same function is applied over and over again. Let us define a lambda term for factorial function.

$f = \lambda n. \text{IF } (n=0) \ 1 \ (n * f \ (n-1))$ but it is recursive

idea: give a non-recursive definition and then *obtain the recursion*

$F = \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{IF } (n=0) \ 1 \ (n * f \ (n-1))$ which is non-recursive but this is not factorial function

How to obtain the recursion?

We need a special lambda term, called Y combinator that was invented by Haskell B. Curry.

The Y combinator denoted by Y



Haskell Brooks Curry (1900-1982)

The term currying is named after him. Haskell PL is named after him. There are other PLs, Brook and Curry, that are also named after him.

$Y = \lambda t. (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x))$ compare any subterm with $sa = \lambda x. x \ x$

Here sa is modified as: $sa' = (\lambda x. \underline{t} \ (x \ x))$ the t is introduced

Now we do $sa' \ sa'$ and ensure that it is a closed term. So we obtain

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

Let us apply Y to t, we get

$Y \ t = [\lambda t. (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x))] \ t$

$=_{\beta} (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \ \text{---A--}$

$=_{\beta} t \ ((\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)))$ by CBN

$= t \ (Y \ t)$ by 'A' [now we can observe that Y t is recursive]

$= t \ (t \ (t \ (t \ \dots) \ \dots))$ by unwinding compare this with B

We use it to encode recursive functions in LC. Now we claim that the lambda term for factorial function is $Y \ F$, i.e., $f = Y \ F$ $(\lambda t. (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. t \ (x \ x)) \) \ F = F \ (Y \ F)$

End of lecture

$f = Y \ F = F \ (Y \ F)$