

## 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  $\Omega$ . But this term is useful when we want to define recursive functions.

**Advantage of CBN:**

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

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

CBN will always return  $z$  irrespective of  $N$ .

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

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

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

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

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