

Lambda Calculus

Foundations of Computer Science, Fall 2018

Terms. A term of the λ -calculus is either:

- a variable x, y, z, \dots
- an abstraction $\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle$ where x is a variable and M a term
- an application $M N$ where M, N are terms

Examples: $x \quad \langle x \rightarrow x \rangle \quad \langle y \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle \quad \langle x \rightarrow x \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle \rangle$

Intuitively, $\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle$ represents a function with parameter x and returning M , while $M N$ represents an application of function M to argument N . The simplification rules below will enforce this interpretation.¹

Just like elsewhere in mathematics, we will use parentheses freely to group terms together to affect or just clarify the order of applications. Application $M N$ is a binary operation that associates to the left, so that writing $M N P$ is the same as writing $(M N) P$. If you want $M (N P)$ (which means something different) then you need to use parentheses explicitly.

The *scope* of x in $\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle$ is all of M . An occurrence of a variable is said to be *bound* if it occurs in the scope of an abstraction with that variable as a parameter. More precisely, it is bound to the nearest enclosing abstraction. An occurrence of a variable is said to be *free* if it is not bound.

Examples: y is free in $\langle x \rightarrow y \rangle$; the first occurrence of x is free in $\langle y \rightarrow x \langle x \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle$ while the second is not; z is bound in $\langle z \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow z \rangle \rangle$.

Bound variables can be renamed without affecting the meaning of term. Intuitively, $\langle x \rightarrow x \rangle$ and $\langle y \rightarrow y \rangle$ represent the same function, the identity function. That we happen to call the parameter x in the first and y in the second is pretty irrelevant. Two terms are α -equivalent when they are equal up to renaming of some bound variables. Thus, $\langle x \rightarrow x z \rangle$ and $\langle y \rightarrow y z \rangle$ are α -equivalent. Be careful that your renaming does not *capture* a free occurrence of a variable. For example, $\langle x \rightarrow x z \rangle$ and $\langle z \rightarrow z z \rangle$ are *not* α -equivalent. They represent different functions.

We will generally identify α -equivalent terms.

¹The standard presentation of the λ -calculus uses notation $\lambda x.M$ for $\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle$, hence the name.

Substitution. An important operation is that of substituting a term N for a variable x inside another term M , written $M\{N/x\}$. It is defined formally as

$$x\{N/x\} = N$$

$$y\{N/x\} = y \quad \text{if } x \neq y$$

$$(M_1 M_2)\{N/x\} = M_1\{N/x\} M_2\{N/x\}$$

$$\langle y \rightarrow M \rangle\{N/x\} = \langle y \rightarrow M\{N/x\} \rangle \quad \text{if } y \text{ is not free in } N$$

In the last case, if $x = y$ or if y is free in N , we can always find a term $\langle z \rightarrow M' \rangle$ that is α -equivalent to $\langle y \rightarrow M \rangle$ and such that $x \neq z$ and z is not free in N to perform the substitution.

(Because we avoid capturing free variables, this form of substitution is called a *capture-avoiding substitution*.)

Simplification Rules. The main simplification rule is:

$$\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle N = M\{N/x\}$$

A term of the form $\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle N$ is called a *redex*.

Simplification can occur within the context of a larger term, of course, leading to the following three additional simplification rules:

$$M P = N P \quad \text{if } M = N$$

$$P M = P N \quad \text{if } M = N$$

$$\langle x \rightarrow M \rangle = \langle x \rightarrow N \rangle \quad \text{if } M = N$$

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x \rightarrow x \rangle \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle &= x\{\langle y \rightarrow y \rangle/x\} \\ &= \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle z_1) z_2 &= (\langle y \rightarrow x \rangle\{z_1/x\}) z_2 \\ &= \langle y \rightarrow z_1 \rangle z_2 \\ &= z_1\{z_2/y\} \\ &= z_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(\langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle \rangle \langle z \rightarrow z \rangle) \langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle &= \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle \{ \langle z \rightarrow z \rangle / x \} \langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle \\
&= \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle \langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle \\
&= y \{ \langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle / y \} \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

From now on, I will skip the explicit substitution step when showing simplifications.

A term is in *normal form* if it has no redex (and thus cannot be simplified any further).

Not every term can be simplified to a normal form:

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle x \rightarrow x \ x \rangle \langle x \rightarrow x \ x \rangle &= \langle x \rightarrow x \ x \rangle \langle x \rightarrow x \ x \rangle \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow x \ x \rangle \langle x \rightarrow x \ x \rangle \\
&= \dots
\end{aligned}$$

There can be more than one redex in a term, meaning that there may be more than one applicable simplification. For instance, in the term $(\langle x \rightarrow x \rangle \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle) (\langle x \rightarrow \langle y \rightarrow x \rangle \rangle z_1 z_2)$. A property of the λ -calculus is that all the ways to simplify a term down to a normal form yield the same normal form (up to renaming of bound variables). This is called the *Church-Rosser property*. It says that the order in which we perform simplifications to reach a normal form is not important.

In practice, one often imposes an order in which to apply simplifications to avoid non-determinism. The *normal-order strategy*, which always simplifies the leftmost and outermost redex, is guaranteed to find a normal form if one exists.

To simplify the presentation of more complex terms, we introduce a convenient abbreviation. We write

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle x_1 \ x_2 \rightarrow M \rangle &= \langle x_1 \rightarrow \langle x_2 \rightarrow M \rangle \rangle \\
\langle x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \rightarrow M \rangle &= \langle x_1 \rightarrow \langle x_2 \rightarrow \langle x_3 \rightarrow M \rangle \rangle \rangle \\
\langle x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ x_4 \rightarrow M \rangle &= \langle x_1 \rightarrow \langle x_2 \rightarrow \langle x_3 \rightarrow \langle x_4 \rightarrow M \rangle \rangle \rangle \rangle \\
&\vdots
\end{aligned}$$

Working through the abbreviations, this means that we have simplifications:

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle x_1 \ x_2 \rightarrow M \rangle N &= \langle x_2 \rightarrow M \{N/x_1\} \rangle \\
\langle x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \rightarrow M \rangle N &= \langle x_2 \ x_3 \rightarrow M \{N/x_1\} \rangle \\
&\vdots
\end{aligned}$$

Encoding Booleans. Even though the λ -calculus only has variables and functions, that's enough to encode all traditional data types.

Here's one way to encode Boolean values (due to Church):

$$\mathbf{true} = \langle x \ y \rightarrow x \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{false} = \langle x \ y \rightarrow y \rangle$$

In what sense are these encodings of Boolean values? Booleans are useful because they allow you to select one branch or the other of a conditional expression.

$$\mathbf{if} = \langle c \ x \ y \rightarrow c \ x \ y \rangle$$

The trick is that when B simplifies to either **true** or **false**, then **if** $B \ M \ N$ simplifies either to M or to N , respectively:

If $B = \mathbf{true}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{if} \ B \ M \ N &= B \ M \ N \\ &= \mathbf{true} \ M \ N \\ &= \langle x \ y \rightarrow x \rangle \ M \ N \\ &= \langle y \rightarrow M \rangle \ N \\ &= M \end{aligned}$$

while if $B = \mathbf{false}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{if} \ B \ M \ N &= B \ M \ N \\ &= \mathbf{false} \ M \ N \\ &= \langle x \ y \rightarrow y \rangle \ M \ N \\ &= \langle y \rightarrow y \rangle \ N \\ &= N \end{aligned}$$

Of course, these show that **if** is not strictly necessary. You should convince yourself that **true** $M \ N = M$ and that **false** $M \ N = N$.

Writing logical operators **and**, **or**, and **not** is left as an exercise.

Encoding Natural Numbers. Here is an encoding of natural numbers, again due to Church (hence the name, Church numerals):

$$\mathbf{0} = \langle f \ x \rightarrow x \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{1} = \langle f \ x \rightarrow f \ x \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{2} = \langle f \ x \rightarrow f \ (f \ x) \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{3} = \langle f \ x \rightarrow f \ (f \ (f \ x)) \rangle$$

$$\mathbf{4} = \dots$$

In general, natural number n is encoded as $\langle f\ x \rightarrow \underbrace{f\ (f\ (f\ (\dots (f\ x)))}_{n\ \text{times}}} \rangle$.

Successor operation:

$$\mathbf{succ} = \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{succ}\ \mathbf{1} &= \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \rangle \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ x \rangle \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ x \rangle\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f\ x \rangle\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{2} \end{aligned}$$

Other operations:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{plus} &= \langle m\ n \rightarrow m\ \mathbf{succ}\ n \rangle \\ \mathbf{times} &= \langle m\ n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow m\ (n\ f)\ x \rangle \rangle \\ \mathbf{iszero?} &= \langle n \rightarrow n\ \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{plus}\ \mathbf{2}\ \mathbf{1} &= \langle m\ n \rightarrow m\ \mathbf{succ}\ n \rangle\ \mathbf{2}\ \mathbf{1} \\ &= \langle n \rightarrow \mathbf{2}\ \mathbf{succ}\ n \rangle\ \mathbf{1} \\ &= \mathbf{2}\ \mathbf{succ}\ \mathbf{1} \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle\ \mathbf{succ}\ \mathbf{1} \\ &= \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{succ}\ (\mathbf{succ}\ x) \rangle\ \mathbf{1} \\ &= \mathbf{succ}\ (\mathbf{succ}\ \mathbf{1}) \\ &= \mathbf{succ}\ (\langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \rangle\ \mathbf{1}) \\ &= \mathbf{succ}\ \langle f\ x \rightarrow \mathbf{1}\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{succ}\ \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ x \rangle\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{succ}\ \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f\ x \rangle\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{succ}\ \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \rangle \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle\ f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle\ (f\ x) \rangle \\ &= \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle \\ &= \mathbf{3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{times\ 2\ 3} &= \langle m\ n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow m\ (n\ f)\ x \rangle \rangle\ \mathbf{2\ 3} \\
&= \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow \mathbf{2}\ (n\ f)\ x \rangle \rangle\ \mathbf{3} \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \mathbf{2}\ (\mathbf{3}\ f)\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \mathbf{2}\ (\langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle\ f)\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \mathbf{2}\ \langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle\ \langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle\ (\langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle\ x) \rangle\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ x)) \rangle\ (f\ (f\ (f\ x))) \rangle\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ (f\ (f\ x)))) \rangle\ x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ (f\ (f\ (f\ (f\ x)))) \rangle \\
&= \mathbf{6}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{iszero?}\ \mathbf{0} &= \langle n \rightarrow n\ \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \rangle\ \langle f\ x \rightarrow x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow x \rangle\ \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow x \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \\
&= \mathbf{true}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{iszero?}\ \mathbf{2} &= \langle n \rightarrow n\ \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \rangle\ \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle\ \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ (\langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ x) \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow \mathbf{false} \rangle\ \mathbf{true} \\
&= \mathbf{false}
\end{aligned}$$

(An alternative way to define **times** is as $\langle m\ n \rightarrow m\ (\mathbf{plus}\ n)\ \mathbf{0} \rangle$. Check that **times** **2** **3** = **6** with this definition.)

Defining a predecessor function is a bit more challenging. Predecessor takes a nonzero natural number n and returning $n - 1$. There are several ways of defining such a function; here is probably the simplest:

$$\mathbf{pred} = \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle\ \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle\ \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{pred\ 2} &= \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ (f\ x) \rangle \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle (\langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle\ x) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle (\langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle (\langle h \rightarrow h\ (\langle u \rightarrow x \rangle\ f) \rangle) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle \langle h \rightarrow h\ x \rangle \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle h \rightarrow h\ (\langle h \rightarrow h\ x \rangle\ f) \rangle \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle h \rightarrow h\ (f\ x) \rangle \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle\ (f\ x) \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow f\ x \rangle \\
&= \mathbf{1}
\end{aligned}$$

Note that **pred 0** is just **0**:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{pred\ 0} &= \langle n \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow n\ \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \langle f\ x \rightarrow x \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle f\ x \rightarrow x \rangle \langle g\ h \rightarrow h\ (g\ f) \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow \langle u \rightarrow x \rangle \langle u \rightarrow u \rangle \rangle \\
&= \langle f\ x \rightarrow x \rangle \\
&= \mathbf{0}
\end{aligned}$$

Recursion. With conditionals and basic data types, we are very close to having a Turing-complete programming language (that is, one that can simulate Turing machines). All that is missing is a way to do loops. It turns out we can write recursive functions in the λ -calculus, which is sufficient to give us loops.

Consider factorial. Intuitively, we would like to define **fact** by

$$\mathbf{fact} = \langle n \rightarrow (\mathbf{iszero?}\ n)\ \mathbf{1}\ (\mathbf{times}\ n\ (\mathbf{fact}\ (\mathbf{pred}\ n))) \rangle$$

but this is not a valid definition, since the right-hand side refers to the term being defined. It is really an *equation*, the same way $x = 3x$ is an equation. Consider that equation, $x = 3x$. Define $F(x) = 3x$. Then, a solution of $x = 3x$ is really a fixed-point of F , namely, a value x_0 for which $F(x_0) = x_0$. And F has only one fixed-point, namely $x_0 = 0$, which gives us the one solution to $x = 3x$, namely $x = 0$.

Similarly, if we define

$$F_{\mathbf{fact}} = \langle f \rightarrow \langle n \rightarrow (\mathbf{iszero?}\ n)\ \mathbf{1}\ (\mathbf{times}\ n\ (f\ (\mathbf{pred}\ n))) \rangle \rangle$$

then we see that the definition that we're looking for is a fixed-point of F_{fact} , namely, a term \mathbf{f} such that $F_{fact} \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{f}$. Indeed, if we have such a term, then:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{f} \ 3 &= F_{fact} \ \mathbf{f} \ 3 \\
&= \langle f \rightarrow \langle n \rightarrow (\text{iszero? } n) \ 1 \ (\text{times } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n))) \rangle \rangle \ \mathbf{f} \ 3 \\
&= \langle n \rightarrow (\text{iszero? } n) \ 1 \ (\text{times } n \ (\mathbf{f} \ (\text{pred } n))) \rangle \ 3 \\
&= (\text{iszero? } 3) \ 1 \ (\text{times } 3 \ (\mathbf{f} \ (\text{pred } 3))) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\mathbf{f} \ (\text{pred } 3)) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\mathbf{f} \ 2) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (F_{fact} \ \mathbf{f} \ 2) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\mathbf{f} \ 1)) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (F_{fact} \ \mathbf{f} \ 1)) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\text{times } 1 \ (\mathbf{f} \ 1))) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\text{times } 1 \ (F_{fact} \ \mathbf{f} \ 1))) \\
&= \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\text{times } 1 \ 1)) \\
&= 6
\end{aligned}$$

(I coalesced together quite a few simplification steps in the above, for the sake of space.)

Thus, what we need is a way to find fixed-points in the λ -calculus. The following function does just that, for *any* term of the λ -calculus:

$$Y = \langle f \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \rangle$$

YG gives us a fixed-point of G :

First, note that

$$\begin{aligned}
YG &= \langle f \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \rangle \ G \\
&= \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \\
&= G \ (\langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle) \\
&= G \ (G \ (\langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle))
\end{aligned}$$

and that

$$\begin{aligned}
G(YG) &= G(\langle f \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \rangle \ G) \\
&= G(\langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle) \\
&= G \ (G \ (\langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle))
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $G(YG) = YG$, showing that $\langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle \ \langle x \rightarrow G \ (x \ x) \rangle$ is a fixed-point of G .

We can use Y to define our factorial function:

$$\mathbf{fact} = Y \ F_{fact}$$

By the above derivation, we know that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{fact} &= \langle x \rightarrow F_{fact} (x \ x) \rangle \langle x \rightarrow F_{fact} (x \ x) \rangle \\ \mathbf{fact} &= F_{fact} \ \mathbf{fact}\end{aligned}$$

and thus:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{fact} \ 3 &= Y \ F_{fact} \ 3 \\ &= \langle f \rightarrow \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \langle x \rightarrow f \ (x \ x) \rangle \rangle F_{fact} \ 3 \\ &= \langle x \rightarrow F_{fact} (x \ x) \rangle \langle x \rightarrow F_{fact} (x \ x) \rangle \ 3 \\ &= F_{fact} (\langle x \rightarrow F_{fact} (x \ x) \rangle \langle x \rightarrow F_{fact} (x \ x) \rangle) \ 3 \\ &= F_{fact} \ \mathbf{fact} \ 3 \\ &= \langle f \rightarrow \langle n \rightarrow (\mathbf{iszero?} \ n) \ 1 \ (\mathbf{times} \ n \ (f \ (\mathbf{pred} \ n))) \rangle \rangle \mathbf{fact} \ 3 \\ &= \langle n \rightarrow (\mathbf{iszero?} \ n) \ 1 \ (\mathbf{times} \ n \ (\mathbf{fact} \ (\mathbf{pred} \ n))) \rangle \ 3 \\ &= (\mathbf{iszero?} \ 3) \ 1 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{fact} \ (\mathbf{pred} \ 3))) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{fact} \ (\mathbf{pred} \ 3)) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{fact} \ 2) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (F_{fact} \ \mathbf{fact} \ 2) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 2 \ (\mathbf{fact} \ 1)) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 2 \ (F_{fact} \ \mathbf{fact} \ 1)) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 2 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 1 \ (\mathbf{fact} \ 1))) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 2 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 1 \ (F_{fact} \ \mathbf{fact} \ 1))) \\ &= \mathbf{times} \ 3 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 2 \ (\mathbf{times} \ 1 \ 1)) \\ &= 6\end{aligned}$$