# Programming in the Untyped $\lambda$ -Calculus

Church & Scott Encodings, Y Combinator

Ernest Ng

CIS 6700, Feb 6th 2023

# Motivation

The  $\lambda$ -calculus provides simple semantics for understanding functional abstraction.

# Motivation

The  $\lambda$ -calculus provides simple semantics for understanding functional abstraction.

We can encode data purely within the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus!

#### **Remarks & notational conventions**

• Function application is left-associative:

Write 
$$t_1$$
  $t_2$   $t_3$  to denote  $(t_1$   $t_2)$   $t_3$ 

#### **Remarks & notational conventions**

• Function application is left-associative:

Write 
$$t_1$$
  $t_2$   $t_3$  to denote  $(t_1$   $t_2)$   $t_3$ 

• Bodies of lambda abstractions extend as far right as possible:

Write 
$$\lambda x$$
.  $\lambda y$ .  $x$   $y$   $x$  to denote  $\lambda x$ .  $(\lambda y$ .  $((x y) x))$ 

#### **Remarks & notational conventions**

• Function application is left-associative:

Write 
$$t_1$$
  $t_2$   $t_3$  to denote  $(t_1$   $t_2)$   $t_3$ 

• Bodies of lambda abstractions extend as far right as possible:

Write 
$$\lambda x$$
.  $\lambda y$ .  $x$   $y$   $x$  to denote  $\lambda x$ .  $(\lambda y$ .  $((x y) x))$ 

- A term with no free variables is closed
- Closed terms are called combinators
  - Simplest combinator: the identity function id

$$id = \lambda x. x$$

# **Agenda**

1. Encoding simple datatypes

Church Booleans

**Pairs** 

2. Church numerals

Arithmetic operations

Predecessor

Testing equality

3. Y-combinator & recursion

**Factorial** 

4. Scott encodings

Church vs Scott numerals

Chruch vs Scott lists

# Encoding simple datatypes

#### **Church Booleans**

#### **Definition**

Let *True* and *False* be represented by:

$$tru = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$
  
 $fls = \lambda t. \lambda f. f$ 

Note: tru & fls are normal forms!

#### **Church Booleans**

#### **Definition**

Let *True* and *False* be represented by:

$$tru = \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$
  
 $fls = \lambda t. \lambda f. f$ 

Note: tru & fls are normal forms!

#### **Definition**

The test combinator tests the truth value of a Boolean:

$$test = \lambda l. \ \lambda m. \ \lambda n. \ lm \ n$$
 
$$test \ truv \ w \rightarrow v$$
 
$$test \ flsv \ w \rightarrow w$$

# The test combinator

Observe:

 $testbvw \longrightarrow bvw$ 

#### The test combinator

Observe:

$$testbvw \longrightarrow bvw$$

Example: ( $\beta$ -redexes underlined)

test truv 
$$w \to (\lambda l. \lambda m. \lambda n. lmn)$$
 tru  $v w \to (\lambda m. \lambda n. trumn) v w \to (\lambda n. truvn) w \to truv w$ 

# The test combinator (cont.)

Observe:

$$test tru v w \longrightarrow v$$
 "if true then v else w"  $\longrightarrow v$ 

Example: ( $\beta$ -redexes are underlined)

test tru 
$$v w \rightarrow ...$$

$$\rightarrow tru v w$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda t. \lambda f. t) v w$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda f. v) w$$

$$\rightarrow v$$

Similarly, test fls  $v w \longrightarrow w$ . ("if false then v else  $w" \longrightarrow w$ )

# Conjunction

Intuition: and  $b c \approx$  "if b then c else false"

#### **Definition**

and = 
$$\lambda b$$
.  $\lambda c$ .  $b$   $c$  fls

# Conjunction

Intuition: and  $b c \approx$  "if b then c else false"

#### **Definition**

and = 
$$\lambda b$$
.  $\lambda c$ .  $b$   $c$  fls

For Boolean values b, c, we have that:

and 
$$b c = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } b = tru \\ b & \text{if } b = fls \end{cases}$$

7

# Conjunction

Intuition: and  $b c \approx$  "if b then c else false"

#### **Definition**

and = 
$$\lambda b$$
.  $\lambda c$ .  $b$   $c$  fls

For Boolean values b, c, we have that:

and 
$$b c = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } b = tru \\ b & \text{if } b = fls \end{cases}$$

Examples:

and tru 
$$b \to tru \ b$$
 fls  $\to b$  and fls  $b \to fls \ b$  fls  $\to fls$ 

7

# Disjunction

Intuition:  $or b c \approx$  "if b then true else c"

#### **Definition**

$$or = \lambda b. \, \lambda c. \, b \, \, tru \, c$$

# Disjunction

Intuition: or b c ≈ "if b then true else c"

#### **Definition**

$$or = \lambda b. \lambda c. b truc$$

#### **Examples:**

or tru 
$$b \to tru$$
 tru  $b \to tru$ 

or fls 
$$b \to fls$$
 tru  $b \to b$ 

# Negation

Intuition:  $not b \approx$  "if b then false else true"

#### **Definition**

$$not = \lambda b. b fls tru$$

# **Negation**

Intuition: not  $b \approx$  "if b then false else true"

#### **Definition**

not tru → (
$$\lambda$$
b. b fls tru) tru  
→ tru fls tru  
→ fls  
not fls → ( $\lambda$ b. b fls tru) fls  
→ fls fls tru  
→ tru

9

# **Pairs**

Intuition:  $(v, w) \approx \text{``}\lambda b$ . if b then v else w''  $pair = \lambda v. \ \lambda w. \ \lambda b. \ b \ v \ w$   $\implies pair \ v \ w = \lambda b. \ b \ v \ w$ 

#### **Pairs**

Intuition:  $(v, w) \approx "\lambda b$ . if b then v else w"

$$pair = \lambda v. \lambda w. \lambda b. b v w$$

$$\implies pair v w = \lambda b. b v w$$

When applied to a Boolean b, pair v w applies b to v and w:

#### **Pairs**

Intuition:  $(v, w) \approx \text{``}\lambda b$ . if b then v else w"

$$pair = \lambda v. \lambda w. \lambda b. b v w$$
 
$$\implies pair v w = \lambda b. b v w$$

When applied to a Boolean b, pair v w applies b to v and w:

This motivates the projection functions *fst* & *snd*:

$$fst = \lambda p. p tru$$
  
 $snd = \lambda p. p fls$ 

# Pairs (cont.)

Example: ( $\beta$ -redexes underlined)

$$fst (pair v w) \rightarrow fst (\lambda b. b v w)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda p. p tru) (\lambda b. b v w) \text{ (by definition of } fst)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda b. b v w) tru$$

$$\rightarrow tru v w$$

$$\rightarrow v$$

Intuition: "A number n is a function that does something n times"

<u>Intuition</u>: "A number *n* is a function that does something *n* times"

#### **Definition**

Define the **Church numerals**  $c_0, c_1, c_2, ...$  as follows:

$$c_0 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ z$$
  
 $c_1 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ s \ z$   
 $c_2 = \lambda s. \ \lambda z. \ s \ (s \ z)$   
...

<u>Intuition</u>: "A number *n* is a function that does something *n* times"

#### **Definition**

Define the **Church numerals**  $c_0, c_1, c_2, ...$  as follows:

$$c_0 = \lambda s. \lambda z. z$$
  
 $c_1 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$   
 $c_2 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)$   
...

Each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  is represented by a combinator  $c_n$  that takes arguments s and z ("successor" and "zero") and applies s to z for n times.

$$c_n = \lambda s. \lambda z. \langle apply s to z for n times \rangle$$

# **Successor function**

#### **Definition**

The **successor function** scc on Church numerals is defined as:

$$scc = \lambda n. \, \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, (n \, s \, z)$$

#### **Successor function**

#### **Definition**

The **successor function** scc on Church numerals is defined as:

$$scc = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$$

Intuition:  $n + 1 \approx$  "apply s to z for n times, then apply s once more"

scc takes a Church numeral n and returns another Church numeral

function that takes s, z & applies s repeatedly to z

# **Successor function (cont.)**

Example: showing that "scc 0 = 1":

$$scc \ c_0 \rightarrow \underbrace{(\lambda n. \, \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, (n \, s \, z))}_{scc} \ \underbrace{(\lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, z)}_{c_0}$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, \underbrace{((\lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, z)}_{c_0} \, s \, z)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, \underbrace{((\lambda z. \, z)}_{id} \, z)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, s \, z$$

$$= c_1 \qquad \text{(by definition of } c_1\text{)}$$

# **Successor function (cont.)**

Another way\* to define the successor function:

$$scc_2 = \lambda n. \, \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, n \, s \, (s \, z)$$

Intuition: "apply s to  $(s \ z)$  for n times"

(as opposed to "applying s to z for (n + 1) times")

<sup>\*</sup>TAPL Exercise 5.2.2

# **Addition of Church numerals**

$$plus = \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)$$

$$\implies \underbrace{plus m n}_{m+n} = \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)$$

#### **Addition of Church numerals**

$$plus = \lambda m. \, \lambda n. \, \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, m \, s \, (n \, s \, z)$$

$$\implies \underbrace{plus \, m \, n}_{m+n} = \lambda s. \, \lambda z. \, m \, s \, (n \, s \, z)$$

Intuition: To compute m + n,

- 1. Apply s iterated n times to z ...
- 2. ... then apply s to the result for m more times m s (n s z)

# **Addition (cont.)**

Recall: 
$$c_1 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$$

Example: Proving 1 + 1 = 2

plus 
$$c_1 c_1 \rightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. c_1 s (c_1 s z)$$
  
 $\rightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. c_1 s (s z)$   
 $\rightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)$   
 $= c_2$  (by definition of  $c_2$ )

# **Multiplication of Church numerals**

#### **Definition**

times = 
$$\lambda m. \lambda n. m (plus n) c_0$$

$$m (plus \ n) c_0 \approx \text{``apply } plus \ n \text{ iterated } m \text{ times to } c_0 \text{ (zero)''}$$
  
  $\approx \text{``add together } m \text{ copies of } n''$ 

## **Multiplication (cont.)**

Can we define multiplication without using plus? Recall that:

times m  $n \approx$  "add together m copies of n"

<sup>\*</sup>TAPL Exercise 5.2.3

<sup>\*</sup>Here, *n s* is akin to *plus n* 

## **Multiplication (cont.)**

Can we define multiplication without using plus? Recall that:

times m  $n \approx$  "add together m copies of n"

This motivates an alternate definition\*:

times = 
$$\lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m (n s) z$$

Intuition:  $m(n s) z \approx \text{``apply } (n s) \text{ to } z \text{ for } m \text{ times''}^*$ 

<sup>\*</sup>TAPL Exercise 5.2.3

<sup>\*</sup>Here, n s is akin to plus n

## **Multiplication example**

$$times = \lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda a. x (y a)$$

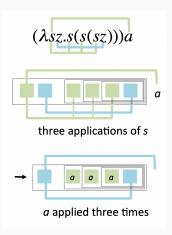
Compute 3 × 3:

times 
$$c_3$$
  $c_3$  =  $(\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda a. x (y a)) c_3 c_3$   
 $\rightarrow (\lambda a. c_3 (c_3 a))$ 

## Multiplication example (cont.)

Consider the term  $(c_3 a)$ :

$$c_3 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))$$



Applying  $c_3$  to a produces a function that applies a three times (Rojas)

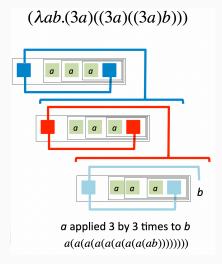
## Multiplication example (cont.)

Let **3a** denote  $(c_3 a)$ . Now, consider  $c_3$  (**3a**):

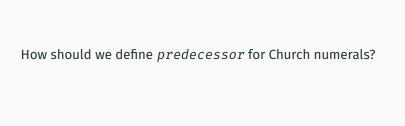
$$\lambda a. \ c_3 \ (\mathbf{3a}) = \left(\lambda a. \ \underbrace{(\lambda s. \lambda b. \ s \ (s \ (s \ b)))}_{c_3} \ (\mathbf{3a})\right)$$
$$\rightarrow \lambda a. \ \lambda b. \ \mathbf{3a} \ (\mathbf{3a} \ (\mathbf{3a} \ b))$$

Applying  $c_3$  to **3a** returns a function that applies **3a** three times = applies a for  $(3 \times 3)$  times

## Multiplication example (cont.)



 $c_3$  applied to **3a**, visualized



Strategy: Create a pair (n-1, n), then pick the 1st element of the pair

Strategy: Create a pair (n - 1, n), then pick the 1st element of the pair

We define two auxiliary functions:

$$zz = pair c_0 c_0$$
  
 $ss = \lambda p. pair (snd p)(plus c_1 (snd p))$ 

When applied to a pair (i,j), ss returns a pair (j,j+1):

$$ss(pairc_ic_j) = pairc_jc_{j+1}$$

Strategy: Create a pair (n - 1, n), then pick the 1st element of the pair

We define two auxiliary functions:

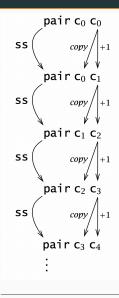
$$zz = pair c_0 c_0$$
  
 $ss = \lambda p. pair (snd p)(plus c_1 (snd p))$ 

When applied to a pair (i,j), ss returns a pair (j,j+1):

$$ss(pair c_i c_j) = pair c_j c_{j+1}$$

The predecessor function prd involves applying ss to  $pair\ c_0c_0$  for m times, then projecting the 1st component:

$$prd = \lambda m. fst (m ss zz)$$



 $prd \approx$  "apply ss to  $pair c_0 c_0$  for m times"  $\approx \begin{cases} pair c_0 c_0 & \text{when } m = 0 \\ pair c_{m-1} c_m & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

Evaluating  $prd c_n$  requires O(n) steps!

(diagram from TAPL)



## Roadmap for the next few slides

<u>Aim</u>: To represent factorial in the untyped λ-calculus

To do this, we need to discuss the following:

- 1. Testing if a Church numeral ? 0
- 2. Equality of Church numerals
- 3. Y-comabintor & recursion

## Testing if a Church numeral $\stackrel{?}{=}$ 0

#### **Definition**

$$isZero = \lambda m. m (\lambda x. fls) tru$$

Example ( $\beta$ -redexes underlined):

$$isZero c_0 = (\lambda m. m (\lambda x. fls) tru) c_0$$

$$= (\lambda m. m (\lambda x. fls) tru) (\lambda s. \lambda z. z) \text{ (by definition of } c_0)$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda s. \lambda z. z) (\lambda x. fls) tru$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda z. z) tru$$

$$\rightarrow tru$$

## **Equality of Church numerals**

Intuition: 
$$m == n \iff (m - n) == 0 \land (n - m) == 0$$

#### **Definition**

The equal function tests two Church numerals for equality, returning a Church Boolean:

```
equal = λm. λn.

and (isZero (m prd n))

(isZero (n prd m))
```

m prd n ≈ "applying the predecessor function for m times on n"
≈ "m minus n"

**Y-combinator** & recursion

How do we represent recursion?

## $\Omega$ -combinator

#### **Definition**

The divergent combinator  $\Omega$  is:

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

#### **Definition**

The **divergent combinator**  $\Omega$  is:

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

Let's try to  $\beta$ -reduce  $\Omega$ :

$$(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x) \rightarrow (x x) \left[ x := (\lambda x. x x) \right]$$
$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$$

We get what we started with!

A  $\lambda$ -term is **divergent** if it has no  $\beta$ -normal form.

#### **Definition**

The **fixpoint combinator** is the term

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

#### **Definition**

The fixpoint combinator is the term

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

$$\mathbf{Y} F = \left(\lambda f. (\lambda x. f(x x)) (\lambda x. f(x x))\right) F$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. F(x x)) (\lambda x. F(x x))$$

$$\rightarrow F\left(\underbrace{(\lambda x. F(x x)) (\lambda x. F(x x))}_{\mathbf{Y} F}\right)$$

$$\rightarrow F(\mathbf{Y} F)$$

#### **Definition**

The **fixpoint combinator** is the term

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

$$\mathbf{Y} F = \left(\lambda f. (\lambda x. f(x x)) (\lambda x. f(x x))\right) F$$

$$\rightarrow (\lambda x. F(x x)) (\lambda x. F(x x))$$

$$\rightarrow F\left(\underbrace{(\lambda x. F(x x)) (\lambda x. F(x x))}_{\mathbf{Y} F}\right)$$

$$\rightarrow F(\mathbf{Y} F)$$

Say that **Y** *F* is a **fixed point** of the function *F*:

$$\mathbf{Y} F = F (\mathbf{Y} F)$$

We can use **Y** to achieve recursive calls to *F*:

$$\mathbf{Y} F = F (\mathbf{Y} F)$$

$$= F (F (\mathbf{Y} F))$$

$$= \dots$$

#### **Factorial**

#### **Definition**

Using Church numerals, we define the factorial function as:

fact = 
$$\lambda f$$
.  $\lambda n$ . if isZero n then  $c_1$  else times  $n \left( f \left( prd \ n \right) \right)$ 

where  $n \in \mathbb{N} \& f$  is the function to call in the body

## Factorial (cont.)

Use **Y** to achieve recursive calls to fact:

$$(\textbf{Y} \ fact) \ c_1 = (fact \ (\textbf{Y} \ fact)) \ c_1 \\ \rightarrow \ if \ equal \ c_1 \ c_0 \ then \ c_1 \ else \ times \ c_1 \ \Big( (\textbf{Y} \ fact) \ c_0 \Big) \\ \rightarrow \ times \ c_1 \ \Big( fact \ (\textbf{Y} \ fact) \ c_0 \Big) \\ \rightarrow \ times \ c_1 \ \Big( if \ equal \ c_0 \ c_0 \ then \ c_1 \\ \qquad else \ times \ c_0 \ \Big( (\textbf{Y} \ fact) \ (prd \ c_0) \Big) \Big) \\ \rightarrow \ times \ c_1 \ c_1 \\ \rightarrow \ c_1$$

## Factorial (cont.)

Instead of using the Y-combinator, we can also define factorial using the U-combinator. (\*) (See appendix)

# Scott encodings

## **Scott encodings**

Consider the following algebraic data types in Haskell:

```
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

## Scott encodings

Consider the following algebraic data types in Haskell:

```
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

Scott encodings allow us to encode ADTs as  $\lambda$ -terms.

### **Scott numerals**

#### **Definition**

$$zero = \lambda z. \lambda s. z$$
  
 $scc = \lambda n. \lambda z. \lambda s. s. n$ 

Intuition: Arguments distinguish between different cases

How do the Church & Scott encodings differ?

How do the Church & Scott encodings differ?

Church	Scott
zero = λs. λz. z	zero = λz. λs. z
scc = λn. λs. λz. s (n s z)	scc = λn. λz. λs. s n

Church	Scott
$scc = \lambda n.  \lambda s.  \lambda z.  s  (n  s  z)$	scc = λn. λz. λs. s <mark>n</mark>
folds continuation threaded throughout structure	case analysis continuation unwraps one layer only

Church	Scott
λs. λz. z	λz. λs. z
λs. λz. s <b>z</b> λs. λz. s <b>(s z)</b>	λz. λs. s (λs. λz. z) λz. λs. s (λs. λz. s (λs. λz. z))
λs. λz. s (s (s z))	λz. λs. s (λs. λz. s (λs. λz. s (λs. λz.z)))
"apply <i>s</i> , iterated <i>n</i> times"	"apply s on the preceding Scott numeral"

## **Church vs Scott encodings: Predecessor**

Church: O(n)	<b>Scott</b> : <i>O</i> (1)
$prd = \lambda m. fst (m ss zz)$ where $zz = pair c_0 c_0$ $ss = \lambda p. pair (snd p)$ $(plus c_1 (snd p))$	prd = λn. n zero (λp. p)

Predecessor can be expressed more succintly using Scott encodings!

## **Church encoding for lists**

### **Definition**

$$nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$$
  
 $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x (l n c)$   
(akin to  $foldr$ )

## **Church encoding for lists**

## **Definition**

$$nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$$
  
 $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x (l n c)$   
(akin to  $foldr$ )

```
x ≈ "head"
l ≈ "tail"
n ≈ case for nil
c ≈ case for cons
```

## **Church encoding for lists (cont.)**

### **Definition**

$$nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$$
  
 $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x (l n c)$   
(akin to foldr)

## Example:

$$x:y:z:[] \approx \lambda c. \lambda n. (c x (c y (c z n)))$$

# Scott encoding for lists

## **Definition**

$$nil = \lambda n. \lambda c. n$$
  
 $cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c x l$ 

## **Church vs Scott lists**

Church	Scott
cons = λx. λl. λn. λ c. c x (l n c)	$cons = \lambda x. \lambda l. \lambda n. \lambda c. c \times l$ (much simpler!)

• Encodings only differ for recursive datatypes

- Encodings only differ for recursive datatypes
- **Church**: defines how functions should be folded over an element of the type

- Encodings only differ for recursive datatypes
- **Church**: defines how functions should be folded over an element of the type
- Scott: uses "case analysis", recursion not immediately visible

- Encodings only differ for recursive datatypes
- Church: defines how functions should be folded over an element of the type
- Scott: uses "case analysis", recursion not immediately visible
  - · Simpler representation (for certain functions)
  - · Y-combinator needed for other operations

#### Further reading:

Jansen (2013), Programming in the  $\lambda$ -Calculus: From Church to Scott and Back

## References i

- Foster, Jeff (Nov. 2017). Lambda Calculus Encodings.

  https://www.cs.umd.edu/class/fall2017/cmsc330/
  lectures/02-lambda-calc-encodings.pdf.
- Geuvers, Herman (2014). The Church-Scott representation of inductive and coinductive data. http://www.cs.ru.nl/~herman/PUBS/ChurchScottDataTypes.pdf.
- Jansen, Jan Martin (Jan. 2013). "Programming in the  $\lambda$ -Calculus: From Church to Scott and Back". In: DOI:  $10.1007/978-3-642-40355-2_12$ .
- Pierce, Benjamin C. (2002). Types and Programming Languages. 1st. The MIT Press. ISBN: 0262162091.
- Rojas, Raúl (2015). "A Tutorial Introduction to the Lambda Calculus". In: CoRR abs/1503.09060. arXiv: 1503.09060. URL: http://arxiv.org/abs/1503.09060.

## References ii

- Sampson, Adrian (Jan. 2018). λ-Calculus Encodings. https://www.cs.cornell.edu/courses/cs6110/2019sp/lectures/lec03.pdf.
- Selinger, Peter (2008). "Lecture notes on the lambda calculus". In: CoRR abs/0804.3434. arXiv: 0804.3434. URL: http://arxiv.org/abs/0804.3434.

# **Appendix**

# Appendix: Defining factorial using the U-combinator

Instead of using the **Y**-combinator, we can also define *factorial* using the **U**-combinator.

#### **Definition**

The **U**-combinator applies its argument *f* to itself:

$$\mathbf{U} = \lambda f. f f$$

# Appendix: Defining factorial using the U-combinator

Recall the definition of factorial:

fact = 
$$\lambda f. \lambda n.$$
 if equal  $n c_0$  then  $c_1$  else times  $n \left( f \left( prd \ n \right) \right)$ 

# Appendix: Defining factorial using the U-combinator

Recall the definition of factorial:

fact = 
$$\lambda f. \lambda n.$$
 if equal  $n c_0$  then  $c_1$  else times  $n \left( f \left( prd \ n \right) \right)$ 

We can define factorial using  ${\bf U}$  as follows:

$$fact = \mathbf{U}\left(\lambda f. \, \lambda n. \, if \, is Zero \, n \, then \, c_1 \right.$$
 
$$else \, times \, n \, \left(\mathbf{U} \, f \, (prd \, n)\right)\right)$$

## **Appendix: More on the U-combinator**

It turns out that we can define **Y** using **U**:

$$\mathbf{U} = \lambda f. \ f \ f$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \lambda g. \ \mathbf{U} \left( \lambda f. \ g \ (\underline{\mathbf{U} \ f}) \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda g. \ \underline{\mathbf{U}} \left( \lambda f. \ g \ (f \ f) \right)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda g. \left( \lambda f. \ g \ (f \ f) \right) \left( \lambda f. \ g \ (f \ f) \right)$$

$$definition of \mathbf{Y} \text{ we saw on } \underline{\text{slide } 32}$$

$$(\text{up to } \alpha\text{-equivalence})$$

■ Back to main presentation

## **Appendix: CBV vs CBN**

- Call-by-value (CBV): given an application  $(\lambda x. e_1) e_2$ , make sure  $e_2$  is a value before applying the abstraction
  - Reduce a redex only when its RHS has already been reduced to a value
- Call-by-name (CBN): Apply the function as soon as possible
  - No reductions are allowed inside abstractions
- · TAPL & this presentation both use CBV.

■ Back to main presentation