Anonymous Recursive Functions

or, How to Square the Square Root of a Function Brian Beckman 30 Oct 2022

Introduction

We want to do some calculations on a remote server. The server lets us send expressions to evaluate, one at a time, but doesn't let us define variables or functions because that would use up memory.

For example, we want to compute the factorial of a number, say 6, but the server doesn't have a builtin for factorial. We'd like to send the standard recursive definition

```
fact[n_] := If[n < 1, 1, n fact[n - 1]]</pre>
```

then, call it like this:

```
    In[3]:=
    fact[6]

    Out[3]=
    720
```

But that's two shots, and we only get one shot. We can't define fact, using up memory in the server's symbol table, and then use it on the next shot.

Are we out of luck? No. In fact, The following does the trick, as this article explains:

We'll show how to convert any recursive function into an anonymous version of itself. Furthermore, to sweeten the deal, we'll show how to convert expensive anonymous recursive functions into cheap anonymous recursive functions. We'll do it in Mathematica and talk about doing it in Scheme and Python.

Anonymous Functions

We already know how to define functions that don't have names: lambda expressions. Mathematica

has a concise notation. Here is one that computes its argument, x, times (x+1), its argument plus one:

```
In[5]:=
        x \mapsto x * (x + 1)
        Function[x, x(x+1)]
Out[5]=
```

Notation

That is a lambda expression of one argument, namely x. Read it as "the function of x that produces x times (x + 1), or x(x + 1)." The star for multiplication is optional in Mathematica, so you can write x*(x+1) as x(x+1). In Scheme or Python, you must write the star.

We know how to apply such a lambda expression to an actual argument, say, to 6: wrap the lambda expression in parentheses and follow it with an @ sign:

```
(x \mapsto x (x+1))@6
In[6]:=
Out[6]=
        42
```

Or, write the function application with square brackets like this:

```
In[7]:=
         (x \mapsto x (x+1))[6]
         42
Out[7]=
```

The meaning is exactly the same. xey means the same as x[y], no matter what x and y mean. We choose one or the other at will to satisfy subjective aesthetics.

In the following, Script letters like \mathcal{D} , \mathcal{E} , \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{L} , and \mathcal{Y} , are **notional names**: non-denotable names, names we can't write in our programming language, but names of denotable things we need to think about and don't want to keep writing out verbatim over and over again. For example, we'll see the following symbol-blizzard over and over again:

```
d \mapsto (g \mapsto g@g) [sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m]]
```

That's a literal, denotable expression that we'll send to our server as part of other expressions. But it's too much to look at while thinking, so we'll just call it \mathcal{Y} for the sake of discussion. In fact, explaining that expression is the whole point of this article. It's a gadget that makes anonymous recursive functions and passes them into domain code for application; twisty!

Recursion as Squaring the Square Root

It turns out we can evaluate anonymous recursive functions in one shot. We'll do it by taking the **square root** $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ **of the function \mathcal{F} that we want**, in a notional space where squaring the function $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ is applying $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ to itself. For example, we want fact, but the server doesn't let us define the name fact. But the server does let us define temporary names that go away in one shot. Those names are

the formal parameters of lambda expressions. So if we can define $\sqrt{\text{fact}}$ and then apply it to itself -square it -- we get the same effect as fact.

More generally, for any function \mathcal{F} , pass $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ as an actual argument to $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$. When $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ is invoked, bind the actual argument $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ to the parameter sf. In the body of $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$, refer to \mathcal{F} by the expression $sf[sf] = \sqrt{\mathcal{F}} \left[\sqrt{\mathcal{F}} \right] = \left(\sqrt{\mathcal{F}} \right)^2 = \mathcal{F}$; square the square root $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ to get the recursive function \mathcal{F} that we want. What a great trick! Turns out we can easily compute $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ for any function \mathcal{F} . We do fact as an example, first, then generalize.

The Square Root of Factorial

To get the square root of factorial, just assume it exists and has a name, sf, in the only allowed place, as the parameter of a lambda expression, notionally called $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$. In the body of $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$, apply sf[sf], the square of sf, wherever you want factorial, \mathcal{F} . What is the value of sf? Just $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ itself! So $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}} \left[\sqrt{\mathcal{F}} \right]$ must be factorial, and we can apply it to numerical arguments:

```
((sf \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n sf[sf][n - 1]])@
In[8]:=
             (sf \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n sf[sf][n-1]]))@6
        720
Out[8]=
```

Before the final actual argument, 6, and its application symbol, e, there is a lambda expression $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ of one parameter sf applied to a cut-and-paste copy of its whole self via another application symbol @. That self-application squares the function $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$. Inside the recursive body -- inside the If [...] part -there is a similar self-application, sf[sf], applied to a numerical argument, [n-1]. So we see that the external squaring, $((sf \mapsto ...) \otimes (sf \mapsto ...))$ produces the same result as the internal squaring sf[sf].

This is enough. Stop here if all you care about is a programming pattern for anonymous, remotable, recursive functions: just replace the body of the function, namely the If[...] part, in both places where it occurs, with the body of your desired recursive function, and call your function recursively via the self-application syntax sf[sf]. We'll show another example, fib, later.

However, there are worthwhile improvements. We can automate the programming pattern. We can write a general function \mathcal{Y} that squares the square root of any function \mathcal{F} .

Four Improvements: Two Abstractions, One Model, and **Packaging**

To refresh the main idea: we have a square root $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$, that, when squared, produces the recursive **domain function** \mathcal{F} of the **domain parameters**; \mathcal{F} does the real work we want.

Let's make a **combinator** (a function of a function) that can convert any function into a new function that receives its self application, the recursive function f=sf[sf], as its first argument. This is a twist

on the prior development. We want sf[sf] as the value of the first parameter f. We want to write $((...) [f \mapsto n \mapsto ...])$ @6 in our example, with f as the domain function sf[sf] and n as the domain parameter. We must solve for (...).

Solve in two steps: first, start with the prior development, in which sf is the parameter in a cut-andpaste squaring of $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$. Inside the domain code -- inside $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$ -- replace the square sf[sf] by the parameter f of a new anonymous function of f. Apply the new anonymous function of f to the actual argument sf[sf].

That's what **abstraction** means in general: replacing an expression $\mathcal E$ with a parameter $\mathbf e$ of a new anonymous function, then applying that new function to $\mathcal E$ as an actual argument which becomes the value of the parameter e.

In the second step, abstract the domain code into a parameter **d** of the final, general combinator \mathcal{Y} (a notional name only) so that we write the domain code only once.

Here are all the improvements, spelled out for factorial:

Step 1: Abstract the Internal Self-Application

```
Looking at the body of \sqrt{\mathcal{F}}, namely the If[...] part of
sf \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n sf[sf][n-1]],
```

the first task is to abstract the internal self-application sf[sf] into a parameter f of a new abstracted function of f applied to sf[sf] (or to sf@sf, same thing). This is exactly as we had before, only with f standing in for sf[sf].

The fragment highlighted in yellow, below, is the new abstracted function of f. However, this new abstraction fails to terminate even before applied to a numerical argument:

```
(sf \mapsto ((f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, nf[n-1]])[sf@sf]))@(* sf is still in scope! *)
In[9]:=
             (\mathsf{sf} \mapsto ((\mathsf{f} \mapsto \mathsf{n} \mapsto \mathsf{If}[\mathsf{n} < 1, 1, \mathsf{nf}[\mathsf{n-1}]]) [\mathsf{sf@sf}])
               (* sf is still in scope! *));
```

*** \$RecursionLimit : Recursion depth of 1024 exceeded during evaluation of Function [f, Function [n, If [n < 1, 1, nf [n - 1]]]].

Why? Let's calculate. Let sf, notionally, stand for this function of sf that binds sf@sf to the parameter f:

```
s\mathcal{F} = (sf \mapsto ((f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n * f[n - 1]])[sf@sf]))
In[10]:=
        Function[sf, Function[f, Function[n, If[n < 1, 1, n f[n - 1]]]][sf[sf]]]</pre>
Out[10]=
```

Apply \mathcal{SF} -- this function of \mathbf{sf} -- to a copy of itself exactly as before:

```
sF@sF;
In[11]:=
      *** $RecursionLimit : Recursion depth of 1024 exceeded during evaluation of
```

Function [f, Function [n, If [n < 1, 1, nf [n - 1]]]].

This can't work. The argument sfesf is evaluated to SFOSF before being bound to f, but there we go evaluating sf@sf again before knowing what it is! That is called applicative-order evaluation or callby-value -- evaluate arguments before applying the function. It's the norm in practical programming languages like Mathematica, Scheme, Python, Lisp, and most things we're familiar with, and it's too early for this job.

• Aside: An alternative is called *normal-order evaluation* or *call-by-name*.

This unbounded recursion has nothing to do with the computation inside $(f \mapsto ...)$, we never get there:

```
In[12]:=
        (sf \mapsto (f \mapsto 0)[sf@sf])@(sf \mapsto (f \mapsto 0)[sf@sf]);
      ••• $RecursionLimit : Recursion depth of 1024 exceeded during evaluation of Function
                                                                                                   [f, 0].
```

Delay the Squaring

We can delay evaluation of by redefining sF to apply, instead of f,

```
In[13]:=
        m \mapsto sf[sf]@m
        Function[m, sf[sf][m]]
Out[13]=
```

to the numerical argument, as follows

```
(sf \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n * (m \mapsto sf[sf]@m)[n-1]]);
In[14]:=
```

We've temporarily lost the abstraction of sf[sf] into f, but gained a delayed evaluation of sf[sf]. We'll get f back in a minute.

m→sf[sf]@m always has the same value as sf[sf] when applied to any argument. The two expressions just evaluate sf@sf at different times. In the first case, sf@sf is evaluated later when m→ sf[sf]@m is applied to the actual argument n, substituting the value of n for the parameter m.

- This is a general technique for delaying the application of any function: replace the application with a function of some (any) parameter, the new function getting evaluated at the correct time.
- In lazy languages like Haskell, this step is automatic and implicit -- we don't write it -- because evaluation of all expressions is always delayed. That's similar to normal-order evaluation, maybe even equivalent.

Let's back off and write our very first original self-application with m→sf[sf][m] manually in place of f.

```
(sf \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n (m \mapsto sf[sf]@m)[n-1]])[
In[15]:=
            sf \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n (m \mapsto sf[sf]@m)[n-1]]]@6
         720
Out[15]=
```

Now, as before, abstract m→sf[sf]@m, merely a delayed version of sf[sf], into a parameter f of a new lambda:

```
(sf \mapsto (f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n f[n-1]])[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m])[
In[16]:=
            sf \mapsto (f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n f[n-1]])[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m]]@6
         720
Out[16]=
```

the result does not spin forever because evaluation of sf[sf] is delayed until needed on the argument n==6.

Step 2: Abstract the Domain Code

The abstraction on f now completely and minimally encloses the domain code $\mathcal{D} = f \mapsto n \mapsto$ If [n<1,1,n f[n-1]]. Abstract that:

```
Write a new function of a parameter d
                                                                                        (1)
```

with a body that replaces \mathcal{D} , the old function of f, with an application of d. (2)

Apply that new function of d to the old function of f (3)

```
(d \mapsto
In[17]:=
              (sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m])[
                sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m]])[
            (* The following domain code D is substituted for d. *)
           f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n f[n - 1]] @6
        720
Out[17]=
```

This has become a blizzard of symbols, but we can read it by the mnemonics that sf stands for $\sqrt{\mathcal{F}}$, the square root of the recursive function $\mathcal F$ or $\mathbf f$ that we want, and that $\mathbf d$ stands for the domain code $\mathcal D$.

We get a big benefit: we only write the domain code once, and that's a big deal, especially if it's complicated. Don't Repeat Yourself is a general principle in software engineering. It saves pitfalls now, during development, and later, during maintenance.

Step 3: Model the Self-Application

But we're still writing the squaring of the square root twice. Let's get rid of that final copy-paste code, by abstraction again! Write a function g → geg that just self-applies any other function. Replace our selfapplication

```
(sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf][m]])[
 sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf][m]]
```

with an application of $g \mapsto g@g$ to $sf \mapsto [m \mapsto sf[sf]m]$:

```
In[18]:=
        (d \mapsto
              (g \mapsto g@g) [
               sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m]])[
           (* The following domain code D is substituted for d. *)
           f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n f[n-1]]]@6
        720
Out[18]=
```

Demonstrate the Generality

Try out the outer combinator -- which always stays the same -- on some new domain code, which we only write once:

```
(d \mapsto (g \mapsto g@g) [sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m]])[
In[19]:=
           (* The following domain code is substituted for d. *)
           f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 2, 1, f[n-2] + f[n-1]]]@6
        13
Out[19]=
```

Step 4: Packaging as a Combinator

Package the outer combinator as a notional function ${\cal Y}$

```
\mathcal{Y} = d \mapsto (g \mapsto g@g) [sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto sf[sf]@m]];
 In[20]:=
        and test on our two examples
          \mathcal{Y}[f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 1, 1, n f[n-1]]]@6
In[21]:=
Out[21]=
          720
          \mathcal{Y}[f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 2, 1, f[n-2] + f[n-1]]]@6
In[22]:=
          13
Out[22]=
```

Step 5: More Arguments

Because we have a good grip on how \mathcal{Y} works, we can write the two-argument version straightaway, without a hiccup! Functions of two arguments are invoked in Curried fashion, one argument at a time, as in f[a][b] rather than f[a,b]. Such Currying makes it trivial to extend \mathcal{Y} to any number of arguments.

```
\mathcal{Y}2 = d \mapsto (g \mapsto g@g) [sf \mapsto d[m \mapsto n \mapsto sf[sf][m][n]]];
In[23]:=
```

Here is \mathcal{Y}_2 , operating on a made-up function of two arguments. I don't care to analyze this function, only to illustrate it in action. We'll have a useful function of two arguments in the next chapter on memoizing [sic].

```
\mathcal{Y}_{2}[f \mapsto m \mapsto n \mapsto If[m < 2, 1, n f[m-1][If[n < 2, 1, m f[m][n-1]]]]][3][4]
In[24]:=
         648
Out[24]=
```

My made-up function explodes rapidly. The following are the only results on positive-integer inputs that don't overflow Mathematica's recursion limits.

```
Table[\mathcal{Y}2[f \mapsto m \mapsto n \mapsto If[m < 2, 1, n f[m-1][If[n < 2, 1, m f[m][n-1]]]]][a][b],
In[25]:=
          {a, 3}, {b, 4}] // TableForm
             1
                   1
                           1
             2
                   3
                           4
       1
       1
                   54
                           648
```

That's a nice segue into ...

Memoizing [sic]

A downside of recursive functions is that they are often expensive. That "different famous recursive function" mentioned above is Fibonacci, a schoolbook case of exponential complexity. Calling our anonymous version of Fibonacci on 27 feels really slow (more than 2 seconds), and exponentially slower for bigger arguments: 10 seconds on 30 and a couple of minutes on 35. Don't try it on 40.

```
Timing[\mathcal{Y}[f \mapsto n \mapsto If[n < 2, 1, f[n-2] + f[n-1]]]@27]
 In[26]:=
         {2.07903, 317811}
Out[26]=
```

Our paranoid evaluation server has a time limit of a quarter of a second or so and would kill our jobs.

Are we out of luck for recursive functions? NO!

If our evaluator lets us define temporary symbols, and it always does so as function parameters, and if the built-ins give us hash tables, dictionaries, association lists, or some such, we can build tables of intermediate values and avoid recursive calls. This, also, is a general technique, the simplest instance of **dynamic programming**, and it's called **memoization** [sic, not memorization].

Mathematica automatically has a hash table, DownValues, for every symbol. So memoizing Fibonacci is nearly trivial, if we can name it:

```
mfib[n_{-}] := (mfib[n] = If[n < 2, 1, mfib[n-1] + mfib[n-2]]);
In[27]:=
       Timing[mfib[27]]
       \{0.000085, 317811\}
Out[28]=
```

Orders of magnitude faster, linear instead of exponential, just by saving intermediate values onto the DownValues hash-table via mfib[n] = ...

The expressions m[n-1] and m[n-2] then become table lookups instead of recursive calls almost all the time. Wolfram foresaw this in 1980 when he designed Mathematica to use the same notation [] for table lookup as for function-call. Actually, it's inherent in the term-rewriting method of Mathematica, but it's brilliant, however it was conceived.

We can't easily exploit Mathematica's DownValues: function parameters don't have them. Even so, it doesn't port easily to non-symbolic programming languages like Python. Instead, we'll use Mathematica's Association, which is like Python's dictionary.

The idea for linearizing the exponential process of Fibonacci by memoizing is as follows:

- 1. Factor our domain code d to do "lookup," check-or-install a given key-value pair in an Association. Use it twice, that's why we want to name it rather than write it out verbatim twice.
- 2. Modify the recursive function, f, to take an Association and return a pair of an Association and a value, similarly to Haskell's State Monad. That's why we needed $\mathcal{Y}2$, the converter for twoparameter domain code.
- 3. Check the association before recursively calling; this is the critical step for avoiding exponential run time.
- 4. Incrementally add new key-values pairs to the association before returning it to recursive calls already on the stack.

We'll use Mathematica's Module to save a lot of keyboarding. Module allocates local variables. In an ordinary language like Scheme, we'd use let to allocate temporary variables. Let is 100% equivalent to Scheme lambda applied to arguments, where the symbolic parameter of the lambda is the temporary. In Mathematica, Module is likwise equivalent to a lambda applied to arguments, but only when the parameters are not mutated. That's because Mathematica is actually a term-

rewriter instead of an applicative-order-evaluator. Mathematica feels free to throw away parameters, replacing them with values. Function parameters are not first-class symbols in Mathematica; pity. We want to mutate the values to avoid all kinds of grotesque argument threading. We trust we could do this entire thing with only lambdas and no Modules, but it would be longer and not instructive.

Here is memoized Fibonacci applied to 400. Without memoization, this computation would not complete in 15 billion years. Here, it takes 35 milliseconds.

```
Timing[
In[29]:=
          Module[\{d = f \mapsto a \mapsto n \mapsto (* \text{ has the shape of domain code! } *)
                     If[a[n] =!= Missing["KeyAbsent", n],
                      {a, a[n]},
                      f[a][n]]},
             \mathcal{Y}2[f \mapsto a \mapsto n \mapsto
                      Module[{v1, a1, v2, a2},
                        {a1, v1} = d[f][a][n-1];
                        {a2, v2} = d[f][a1][n-2];
                        \{Prepend[a1 \sim Join \sim a2, n \rightarrow (v1 + v2)], v1 + v2\}
                      ]][
                \langle |1 \rightarrow 1, 0 \rightarrow 1| \rangle ] [400] ] [2] ]
        {0.027149,
Out[29]=
          284 812 298 108 489 611 757 988 937 681 460 995 615 380 088 782 304 890 986 477 195 645 969 :
           271 404 032 323 901}
```

Finally, just to show that we could eliminate at least the outer Module, is an equivalent expression:

```
Timing[
In[30]:=
          (d \mapsto
                \mathcal{Y}2[f \mapsto a \mapsto n \mapsto
                         Module[{v1, a1, v2, a2},
                           {a1, v1} = d[f][a][n-1];
                           {a2, v2} = d[f][a1][n-2];
                           \{Prepend[a1 \sim Join \sim a2, n \rightarrow (v1 + v2)], v1 + v2\}
                         ]][
                   \langle |1 \rightarrow 1, 0 \rightarrow 1| \rangle ] [400])[
             f \mapsto a \mapsto n \mapsto (* \text{ has the shape of domain code! } *)
                  If[a[n] =!= Missing["KeyAbsent", n],
                   {a, a[n]},
                   f[a][n]][2]]
         {0.031391,
Out[30]=
          284 812 298 108 489 611 757 988 937 681 460 995 615 380 088 782 304 890 986 477 195 645 969 :
           271 404 032 323 901}
```