1 Lambda calculus encodings

The pure lambda calculus contains only functions as values. It is not exactly easy to write large or interesting programs in the pure lambda calculus. We can however encode objects, such as booleans, and integers.

1.1 Booleans

We want to encode constants and operators for booleans. That is, we want to define functions $TRUE$, $FALSE$, $AND$, $IF$, and other operators such that the expected behavior holds, for example:

\[
AND \ TRUE \ FALSE = \ FALSE \\
IF \ TRUE \ e_1 \ e_2 = \ e_1 \\
IF \ FALSE \ e_1 \ e_2 = \ e_2
\]

Let’s start by defining $TRUE$ and $FALSE$ as follows.

\[
TRUE \triangleq \lambda x.\ λy.\ x \\
FALSE \triangleq \lambda x.\ λy.\ y
\]

Thus, both $TRUE$ and $FALSE$ take two arguments, $TRUE$ returns the first, and $FALSE$ returns the second.

The function $IF$ should behave like $\lambda b.\ λt.\ λf.\ if\ b = \ TRUE\ then\ t\ else\ f$. The definitions for $TRUE$ and $FALSE$ make this very easy.

\[
IF \triangleq \lambda b.\ λt.\ λf.\ b\ t\ f
\]

Definitions of other operators are also straightforward.

\[
NOT \triangleq \lambda b.\ b\ FALSE\ TRUE \\
AND \triangleq \lambda b_1.\ \lambda b_2.\ b_1\ b_2\ FALSE \\
OR \triangleq \lambda b_1.\ \lambda b_2.\ b_1\ TRUE\ b_2
\]

1.2 Church numerals

Church numerals encode the natural number $n$ as a function that takes $f$ and $x$, and applies $f$ to $x$ $n$ times.

\[
0 \triangleq \lambda f.\ \lambda x.\ x \\
1 = \lambda f.\ \lambda x.\ f\ x \\
2 = \lambda f.\ \lambda x.\ f\ (f\ x) \\
SUCCE \triangleq \lambda n.\ \lambda f.\ \lambda x.\ f\ (n\ f\ x)
\]
In the definition for \textit{SUCC}, the expression \( n f x \) applies \( f \) to \( x \) \( n \) times (assuming that variable \( n \) is the Church encoding of the natural number \( n \)). We then apply \( f \) to the result, meaning that we apply \( f \) to \( x \) \( n + 1 \) times.

Given the definition of \textit{SUCC}, we can easily define addition. Intuitively, the natural number \( n_1 + n_2 \) is the result of apply the successor function \( n_1 \) times to \( n_2 \).

\[
ADD \triangleq \lambda n_1. \lambda n_2. n_1 \text{SUCC} n_2
\]

2 \quad \textbf{Recursion and the fixed-point combinators}

We can write nonterminating functions, as we saw with the expression \( \Omega \). We can also write recursive functions that terminate. However, one complication is how we express this recursion.

Let's consider how we would like to define a function that computes factorials.

\[
\text{FACT} \triangleq \lambda n. \text{IF (ISZERO } n \text{) 1 (TIMES } n \text{ (FACT (PRED } n \text{)))}
\]

In slightly more readable notation (and we will see next lecture how we can translate more readable notation into appropriate expressions):

\[
\text{FACT} \triangleq \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then 1 else } n \times \text{FACT} \text{ (n - 1)}
\]

Here, like in the definitions we gave above, the name \textit{FACT} is simply meant to be shorthand for the expression on the right-hand side of the equation. But \textit{FACT} appears on the right-hand side of the equation as well! This is not a definition, it's a recursive equation.

2.1 \quad \textbf{Recursion Removal Trick}

We can perform a “trick” to define a function \textit{FACT} that satisfies the recursive equation above. First, let's define a new function \textit{FACT}' that looks like \textit{FACT}, but takes an additional argument \( f \). We assume that the function \( f \) will be instantiated with an actual parameter of \( \text{FACT}' \).

\[
\text{FACT}' \triangleq \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then 1 else } n \times (f \text{ (n - 1)})
\]

Note that when we call \( f \), we pass it a copy of itself, preserving the assumption that the actual argument for \( f \) will be \textit{FACT}'.

Now we can define the factorial function \textit{FACT} in terms of \textit{FACT}'.

\[
\text{FACT} \triangleq \text{FACT}' \text{ FACT}'
\]

Let’s try evaluating \textit{FACT} applied to an integer.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{FACT} 3 &= (\text{FACT}' \text{ FACT}') 3 \\
&= ((\lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then 1 else } n \times (f \text{ (n - 1)})) \text{FACT}') 3 \\
&\rightarrow (\lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then 1 else } n \times (\text{FACT}' \text{ FACT}' \text{ (n - 1)})) 3 \\
&\rightarrow \text{IF } 3 = 0 \text{ then 1 else } 3 \times (\text{FACT}' \text{ FACT}' \text{ (3 - 1)}) \\
&\rightarrow 3 \times (\text{FACT}' \text{ FACT}' \text{ (3 - 1)}) \\
&\rightarrow \ldots \\
&\rightarrow 3 \times 2 \times 1 \times 1 \\
&\rightarrow^* 6
\end{align*}
\]

So we now have a technique for writing a recursive function \( f \): write a function \( f' \) that explicitly takes a copy of itself as an argument, and then define \( f \triangleq f' \text{ f}' \).
### 2.2 Fixed point combinators

There is another way of writing recursive functions: expressing the recursive function as the fixed point of some other, higher-order function, and then finding that fixed point.

Let’s consider the factorial function again. The factorial function $\text{FACT}$ is a fixed point of the following function.

\[
G \equiv \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (f \ (n - 1))
\]

(Recall that if $g$ if a fixed point of $G$, then we have $G g = g$.)

So if we had some way of finding a fixed point of $G$, we would have a way of defining the factorial function $\text{FACT}$.

There are such “fixed point operators,” and the (infamous) $Y$ combinator is one of them. Thus, we can define the factorial function $\text{FACT}$ to be simply $Y G$, the fixed point of $G$.

(A combinator is simply a closed lambda term; it is a higher-order function that uses only function application and other combinators to define a result from its arguments; our functions $\text{SUCC}$ and $\text{ADD}$ are examples of combinators. It is possible to define programs using only combinators, thus avoiding the use of variables completely.)

The $Y$ combinator is defined as:

\[
Y \equiv \lambda f. (\lambda x. f \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. f \ (x \ x))
\]

It was discovered by Haskell Curry, and is one of the simplest fixed-point combinators.

The fixed point of the higher order function $G$ is equal to $G \ (G \ (G \ (G \ (G \ \ldots))))$. Intuitively, the $Y$ combinator unrolls this equality, as needed. Let’s see it in action, on our function $G$:

\[
\begin{align*}
G &= \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (f \ (n - 1)) \\
\text{FACT} &= Y G \\
&= (\lambda f. (\lambda x. f \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. f \ (x \ x))) \ G \\
&\rightarrow (\lambda x. G \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. G \ (x \ x)) \\
&\rightarrow G \ (G \ (\lambda x. G \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. G \ (x \ x)))
\end{align*}
\]

Here, note that $(\lambda x. G \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. G \ (x \ x))$ was the result of beta-reducing $Y G$. That is $(\lambda x. G \ (x \ x)) \ (\lambda x. G \ (x \ x))$ is $\beta$-equivalent to $Y G \text{ FACT}$. So we will rewrite the expression as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
&= \beta \ G \ (\text{FACT}) \\
&= (\lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (f \ (n - 1))) \ \text{FACT} \\
&\rightarrow \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (\text{FACT} \ (n - 1))
\end{align*}
\]

Note that the $Y$ combinator works under CBN semantics, but not CBV. What happens when we evaluate $Y G$ under CBV? Have a try and see. There is a variant of the $Y$ combinator, $Z$, that works under CBV semantics. It is defined as

\[
Z \equiv \lambda f. (\lambda x. f \ (\lambda y. x \ x \ y)) \ (\lambda x. f \ (\lambda y. x \ x \ y))
\]

There are many (indeed infinite) fixed-point combinators. To gain some more intuition for fixed-point combinators, let’s derive the Turing fixed-point combinator, discovered by Alan Turing, and denoted by $\Theta$.

Suppose we have a higher order function $f$, and want the fixed point of $f$. We know that $\Theta f$ is a fixed point of $f$, so we have

$$\Theta \ f = f \ (\Theta \ f)$$

This means, that we can write the following recursive equation for $\Theta$.

$$\Theta = \lambda f. \ f \ (\Theta \ f)$$
Now we can use the recursion removal trick we described earlier! Let’s define \( \Theta' = \lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f) \), and define

\[
\Theta \triangleq \Theta' \Theta' = (\lambda t. (\lambda f. f (t t f)) (\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f)))
\]

Let’s try out the Turing combinator on our higher order function \( G \) that we used to define \( FACT \). Again, we will use CBN semantics.

\[
FACT' = \Theta G
\]

\[
= ((\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f)) (\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f))) G
\]

\[
\rightarrow (\lambda f. f ((\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f)) (\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f))) f)) G
\]

\[
\rightarrow G ((\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f)) (\lambda t. \lambda f. f (t t f)) G)
\]

\[
= G (\Theta G) \quad \text{for brevity}
\]

\[
= (\lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (f (n - 1))) (\Theta G)
\]

\[
\rightarrow \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times ((\Theta G) (n - 1))
\]

\[
= \lambda n. \text{if } n = 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n \times (FACT (n - 1))
\]