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(Revised Version)

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An Adequate  
Left-Associated Binary Numeral System  
in the  $\lambda$ -Calculus  
(revised version\*)

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**Abstract**

This paper introduces a sequence of  $\lambda$ -expressions modelling the binary expansion of integers. We derive expressions computing the test for zero, the successor function, and the predecessor function, thereby showing the sequence to be an adequate numeral system. These functions can be computed efficiently. Their complexity is independent of the order of evaluation.

*Keywords:* Programming calculi,  $\lambda$ -calculus, functional programming.

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Numeral Systems in the $\lambda$ -Calculus

Numbers are traditionally represented on computers with a size proportional to their logarithm. Traditional numeral systems in the  $\lambda$ -calculus, such as Church numerals [1, 4] and Barendregt numerals [1], however, typically involve linear representations of numbers. In such systems, the size of the representation of a number  $n$  is proportional to this number.

In this paper, we present an *adequate* binary numeral system for the  $\lambda$ -calculus, where the successor function, the predecessor function, and the test for zero are implemented efficiently. This implementation does not depend on the order of evaluation.

The particular representation used in this paper is due to H. den Hoed [3]. The problem of showing that efficient number-theoretic functions are definable for this system was given as a challenge to the author by H.P. Barendregt during a visit to Indiana University in 1990 [2].

## 1.2 Prerequisites and Notation

We assume some familiarity with the  $\lambda$ -calculus [1, 4]. The *identity* combinator is given by  $\mathbf{I} = \lambda x.x$ . The boolean values *true* and *false* are denoted by  $\mathbf{T} = \lambda xy.x$  and  $\mathbf{F} = \lambda xy.y$  respectively. *Conjunction* is denoted by  $\mathbf{and} = (\lambda xy.(x (y \mathbf{T} \mathbf{F}) \mathbf{F}))$ . *Selectors* are given by  $\mathbf{U}_k^n = \lambda x_0 \cdots x_n.x_k$  where  $k \leq n$ . The ordered  $n$ -tuple  $\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$  is denoted by  $[x_1, \dots, x_n] = \lambda s.(s x_1 \cdots x_n)$ . The  $k$ -th projection of an ordered  $n$ -tuple is denoted by  $\pi_k^n = \lambda x.(x \mathbf{U}_{k-1}^{n-1})$ . The *length* of a  $\lambda$ -term  $M$  is the number of symbols it occupies, and is noted as  $\|M\|$ . Finally, the reflexive, transitive closure of the one-step reduction  $\rightarrow$  is given by  $\rightarrow^*$ . A numeral system is *adequate* if all recursive functions are  $\lambda$ -definable for it.

# 2 Binary Numerals

## 2.1 Representation

Since various data structures can be implemented in the  $\lambda$ -calculus, we could select any one of several different binary representations for our numerals.

We choose to use, however, a representation that is unique to the  $\lambda$ -calculus:

**2.1.1 Definition:** (den Hoed) *The Sequence*  $\mathbf{bin} = \{\mathbf{bin}_n\}_{n \in \omega}$ . We define  $\mathbf{bin}_n$  as follows: Let the variable  $z$  (pronounced “zero”) represent a 0-bit, and let the variable  $w$  (pronounced: “wan”) represent a 1-bit. Let  $b_1 b_2 \cdots b_k$ ,  $b_j \in \{z, w\}$ , be a sequence of bits corresponding to the binary expansion of  $n$ , such that  $b_1$  and  $b_k$  are the low and the high bits respectively. Then

$$\mathbf{bin}_n = \lambda z w. (b_1 \cdots b_k)$$

The sequence of bits is thus represented by a left-associated application of  $z$ 's and  $w$ 's.

**2.1.2 Examples:**

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{bin}_0 = \lambda z w. z & \mathbf{bin}_4 = \lambda z w. (z z w) \\ \mathbf{bin}_1 = \lambda z w. w & \mathbf{bin}_5 = \lambda z w. (w z w) \\ \mathbf{bin}_2 = \lambda z w. (z w) & \mathbf{bin}_6 = \lambda z w. (z w w) \\ \mathbf{bin}_3 = \lambda z w. (w w) & \mathbf{bin}_7 = \lambda z w. (w w w) \end{array}$$

Our goal in this paper is to show that the sequence  $\mathbf{bin}$  is an adequate numeral system, and that the successor function, the predecessor function, and the test for zero can all be computed on the bits directly, without expanding their argument into some linear representation. In our Ph.D. thesis [8], we show similarly that addition, subtraction, multiplication, quotient, remainder, and the test for equality can also be computed on the bits directly.

## 2.2 Uniqueness of Representation

One problem that affects all  $n$ -ary numeral systems is uniqueness: For example, in our system,  $\lambda z w. w$ ,  $\lambda z w. (w z z)$ , and  $\lambda z w. (w z z z z z z)$  all represent the number 1. In the  $\lambda$ -calculus, however, it is more elegant for two numerals representing the same number to have the same normal form.

We thus propose the following two-fold compromise:

- We define a test for zero (and ultimately, the test for equality) that ignores trailing zero bits.
- We define the predecessor function (and ultimately, addition, subtraction, multiplication, quotient, remainder, etc.) not to leave trailing zero bits.

Thus, the functions we provide do not introduce trailing zeros in their results, and ignore them in their arguments. Another solution, which is simpler to derive and to verify, would be to define a “normalisation” combinator, taking a binary numeral and removing its trailing zero bits. This solution, however, is less efficient.

## 2.3 Size of Our Representation

The size of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , our representation of  $n$ , is proportional to the number of bits in the binary expansion of  $n$ , i.e., to  $\log n$ . It is also clear that  $\mathbf{bin}$  numerals are as concise (in the sense of having the least number of symbols) as possible for a binary numeral system in the  $\lambda$ -calculus.

What is not as obvious, but just as important if  $\mathbf{bin}$  is to be practical for implementation on a computer, is whether the various arithmetic operations that we might want to carry out on this representation can be computed directly on the bits, without expanding our binary representation to a less compact one. We do not have the convenience, for example, of switching to and from one of the well-known, linear numeral systems in order to define arithmetic functions in one system in terms of the other system, as Barendregt does in Lemma 6.4.5 and Corollary 6.4.6 of his reference book on the  $\lambda$ -calculus [1, Page 140]. We want to avoid both explicit expansion, as well as expansion that is implicit in a particular reduction sequence.

The following definitions let us express formally just how much can a given expression “expand”:

### 2.3.1 Definition:

- i. *Finitely Wide Terms.* A  $\lambda$ -term  $M$  is *finitely wide* if there exists a number  $N > 0$ , such that if for all  $\lambda$ -terms  $x$ , if  $M \rightarrow_R x$  then  $\|x\| \leq N$ .
- ii. *The Width of a Term, Width.*<sup>1</sup> The *width* of a finitely wide term  $M$ , denoted by  $\mathbf{Width}(M)$  is given by

$$\mathbf{Width} = \sup\{\|x\| : M \longrightarrow x\}$$

The following two points should be noted:

---

<sup>1</sup>  $\mathbf{Width}$  is *wd* in Gothic letters.

- Some  $\lambda$ -terms do not have a finite width, but have a normal form. For example, let  $M$  be defined as follows:

$$M = \underline{((\lambda f.((\lambda x.(f (x x))) (\lambda x.(f (x x)))))) (\lambda xy.y) \mathbf{I}}$$

It is simple to verify that  $M \longrightarrow \mathbf{I}$ . The underlined sub-expression, however, does not have a normal form, and expands arbitrarily. We can thus have reduction sequences that result in expressions of arbitrary width. Therefore  $M$  does not have a finite width.

- Some  $\lambda$ -terms do not have a normal form, but have a finite width. For example, let  $M$  be defined as follows:

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

It is simple to verify that  $M \longrightarrow M$ , and so  $M$  has a finite width, but no normal form.

The width of a  $\lambda$ -term is used in the proof that a test for zero, the successor function, and the predecessor function can all be computed without expanding the representation of their arguments beyond  $\log n$ .

### 3 Decision Logic Tables

A Decision Logic Table (DLT) [9, 10] is a tabular form for describing a program segment driven by an  $n$ -variable boolean function. The format of a DLT is as follows:

list of variable names [or boolean conditions]	list of all possible combinations of values of variables [or values of boolean conditions]
list of actions to be taken at a given combination of values	selections of combinations of actions as a function of combinations of variables

In some situations, not all relevant boolean conditions can be considered in parallel. For example, given two variables  $a$  and  $b$ , the test of whether  $b$  is equal to zero should precede the division of  $a$  by  $b$ , and therefore any test

on the quotient of  $a$  and  $b$ . Such situations have traditionally been handled by *nesting* or *dispatching* to other DLT's as one of the actions.

The following example is used to illustrate the use of a DLT.

Consider a simplified process of evaluating a paper for publication. A paper can be either accepted or rejected, and the author can be requested to make revisions to the paper before it can appear in print. Deciding what to do with the paper depends on the answers to the following three questions: (a) Is the material in the paper correct? (b) Is the main result of the paper of interest? (c) Is the paper written clearly? The following DLT associates combinations of answers to these questions with combinations of actions to be taken:

The [Highly] Simplified Process of Evaluating a Paper for Publication								
Is the paper correct?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
Is the result interesting?	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Is the paper clear?	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Reject the paper			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Accept the paper	✓	✓						
Ask the author to revise		✓						

Note that when the results in the paper are both correct and interesting, but not clearly written, a combination of two actions takes place: The paper is accepted for publication, and the author is asked to revise the paper.

DLT's can be formally manipulated and simplified, as well as automatically compiled into computer programs. Since they are not in common use today, we shall avoid the traditional DLT abbreviations, in order to preserve clarity.

In this paper we use DLT's in deriving expressions for the successor and predecessor functions on  $\text{bin}$ .

## 4 Arithmetic Functions

### 4.1 Testing for Zero

4.1.1 Proposition: *There exists a combinator  $\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have*

- i.  $(\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} \text{bin}_0) \longrightarrow \mathbf{T}$   
 $(\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} \text{bin}_{n+1}) \longrightarrow \mathbf{F}$
- ii.  $\text{Width}(\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} \text{bin}_n) = O(\log n)$ .

*Proof:*

- i. To compute the zero predicate, we apply a given numeral to two  $\lambda$ -expressions, substituting those  $\lambda$ -expressions respectively for  $z$  and  $w$ , in the body of the numeral. The problem of testing for zero thus reduces to the problem of identifying whether  $w$  occurs in the body of the numeral.

We make use of the following property of the application of two ordered pairs (compare with Barendregt's hint in his Problem 6.8.15 (ii) [1, Page 149]):

$$\begin{aligned} ([a_1, b_1] [a_2, b_2]) &\longrightarrow ((\lambda x.(x a_1 b_1)) (\lambda x.(x a_2 b_2))) \\ &\longrightarrow ((\lambda x.(x a_2 b_2)) a_1 b_1) \\ &\longrightarrow (a_1 a_2 b_2 b_1) \end{aligned}$$

In particular, we have:

$$([M, b_1] [M, b_2]) = (M M b_2 b_1)$$

We define  $M$  as follows:

$$M = \lambda m b_2 b_1.[m, (\mathbf{and} b_1 b_2)]$$

By pairing  $M$  with  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  we obtain  $D_{\mathbf{F}}$  and  $D_{\mathbf{T}}$  respectively:

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\mathbf{F}} &= [M, \mathbf{F}] \\ D_{\mathbf{T}} &= [M, \mathbf{T}] \end{aligned}$$

We now have

$$\begin{aligned} (D_{\mathbf{F}} D_{\mathbf{F}}) &\longrightarrow D_{\mathbf{F}} & (D_{\mathbf{T}} D_{\mathbf{F}}) &\longrightarrow D_{\mathbf{F}} \\ (D_{\mathbf{F}} D_{\mathbf{T}}) &\longrightarrow D_{\mathbf{F}} & (D_{\mathbf{T}} D_{\mathbf{T}}) &\longrightarrow D_{\mathbf{T}} \end{aligned}$$

For any  $n > 0$ , the binary expansion of  $n$  contains the 1-bit, and so  $w$  occurs free in the body of  $\text{bin}_n$ . Thus when we substitute  $D_{\mathbf{F}}$  for  $w$  in the body of  $\text{bin}_n$ , the result will be  $D_{\mathbf{F}}$ . This can be verified formally by a straightforward induction argument on the number of bits in the binary expansion of  $n$ . To obtain the result of the test for zero, we only need to take the second projection. We thus define the test for zero as follows:

$$\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} = \lambda n.(\pi_2^2 (n D_{\mathbf{T}} D_{\mathbf{F}}))$$

Note that as a byproduct of our construction, this definition of  $\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}}$  ignores trailing zeros, for example:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} (\lambda zw.(z w z z z))) &\longrightarrow \mathbf{F} \\ (\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} (\lambda zw.(z z z z z))) &\longrightarrow \mathbf{T} \end{aligned}$$

ii. Let

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \text{Width}(\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}}) + \max\{\text{Width}(\pi_2^2([M, b])) : b \in \{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}\} \\ r &= \max\{\text{Width}([M, b_1] [M, b_2]) : b_1, b_2 \in \{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}\} \end{aligned}$$

For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\text{bin}_n = \lambda zw.b_1 \cdots b_k$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Width}(\mathbf{Zero?}_{\text{bin}} \text{bin}_n) &\leq C + \text{Width}(\text{bin}_n) + k \cdot r \\ &= O(k) \\ &= O(\log n) \end{aligned}$$

■

## 4.2 The Successor Function

### 4.2.1 Proposition:

- i. There exists a combinator  $\mathbf{Succ}_{\mathbf{bin}}$ , such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

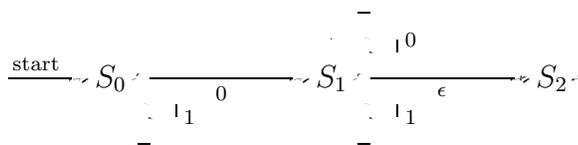
$$(\mathbf{Succ}_{\mathbf{bin}} \mathbf{bin}_n) \longrightarrow \mathbf{bin}_{n+1}.$$

- ii.  $\text{Width}(\mathbf{Succ}_{\mathbf{bin}} \mathbf{bin}_n) = O(\log n)$ .

*Proof:*

- i. To compute the successor function on  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , we need to implement a finite state automaton consisting of three states: The first state,  $S_0$ , propagates the *carry*; The second state,  $S_1$ , goes through the remaining bits after the carry operation has been performed; The third state,  $S_2$ , is the final state.

The automaton is depicted in the following diagram:



In computing a successor of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , we apply  $\mathbf{bin}_n$  to *three* expressions: The first two substitute for the bits in the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , and the third expression is used to mark the end of the stream of bits. The expressions are defined so that when they are substituted into the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , the resulting sequence of applications drives the automaton, constructing the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_{n+1}$ . In moving from state to state, the reconstruction of the partial body of  $\mathbf{bin}_{n+1}$  will need to be carried along and maintained together with some additional information. Therefore, each expression needs to have access to

- (i) An encoding  $\sigma$  of the current state (i.e. of either  $S_0$  or  $S_1$ ).
- (ii) An encoding of whether the given expression is substituted for a 0-bit or a 1-bit, or is a mark for the end of the stream of bits (noted by  $\epsilon$  in the diagram). This is denoted by  $b$ .

- (iii) A partial reconstruction of the body of the successive numeral, denoted by  $r$ .

The values of  $\sigma$  and  $b$  determine the value of the given expression. Any finite set of  $\lambda$ -expressions, for which we have a test of equality could therefore be used for encoding (i) and (ii). Furthermore, since the encodings in (i) and (ii) serve only as tags upon which to dispatch, we can eliminate the test altogether by using *selectors*, i.e. expressions of the form

$$U_k^n = \lambda x_0 \cdots x_n. x_k$$

to encode the various choices. We store this information, and a procedure  $m$  in an ordered 4-tuple. Again, observe that:

$$\begin{aligned} & ([m, b_1, r_1, \sigma_1][m, b_2, r_2, \sigma_2]) \\ & \longrightarrow ((\lambda x.(x m b_1 r_1 \sigma_1)) (\lambda x.(x m b_2 r_2 \sigma_2))) \\ & \longrightarrow ((\lambda x.(x m b_2 r_2 \sigma_2)) m b_1 r_1 \sigma_1) \\ & \longrightarrow (m m b_2 r_2 \sigma_2 b_1 r_1 \sigma_1) \end{aligned}$$

As one can see,  $m$  is passed a copy of itself, as well as all the information stored in both ordered 4-tuples (both 4-tuples have  $m$  is common). On the basis of the information it is passed,  $m$  can return the body of the successive numeral or it can construct a new ordered 4-tuple, in which case the computation continues.

Since the particular behaviour of  $m$  depends upon many variables, we use *Decision-Logic Tables* to describe this behaviour in a concise manner.

The main DLT in our proof distinguishes between the different states in the automaton. A separate DLT is provided for each state, with the exception of the *final* state (which does nothing). The three DLT's are given below:

Main DLT: <i>Determining State</i>		
Value of $\sigma_1$	$U_0^1$	$U_1^1$
Dispatch to the DTL of $S_0$	✓	
Dispatch to the DTL of $S_1$		✓

The DLT at $S_0$									
Value of $b_1$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$
Value of $b_2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$
$[m, b_2, (r_1 w), U_1^1]$	✓	✓							
return with $(r_1 w)$			✓						
$[m, b_2, (r_1 z), U_0^1]$				✓	✓				
return with $(r_1 z w)$						✓			
irrelevant							✓	✓	✓

The DLT at $S_1$									
Value of $b_1$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$
Value of $b_2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$
$[m, b_2, (r_1 z), U_1^1]$	✓	✓							
return with $(r_1 z)$			✓						
$[m, b_2, (r_1 w), U_1^1]$				✓	✓				
return with $(r_1 w)$						✓			
irrelevant							✓	✓	✓

The actions to be taken at each state are a function of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ . In both states, the computation of the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_{n+1}$  terminates when  $b_2 = U_2^2$ . Also, the situation where  $b_1 = U_2^2$  cannot occur (since for all  $n$ ,  $\mathbf{bin}_n$  abstracts over at least one bit), and so the return value in such a situation is irrelevant; We could return any value whatsoever, so we arbitrarily pick the  $\mathbf{I}$  combinator.

The DLT's for the states  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  specify different actions to be taken upon different possible values of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ . In general, we would require a selection mechanism of the form:

```

Case  $b_i$ 
  Tag1  $\implies$  Action1
  Tag2  $\implies$  Action2
  Tag3  $\implies$  Action3
Esac

```

But since we are using *selectors* for tags, i.e. expressions of the form  $U_r^k$ , for  $0 \leq r \leq k \leq 2$ , we can use the following for our selection mechanism:

$$(b_i \text{ Action}_1 \text{ Action}_2 \text{ Action}_3)$$

All three DLT's are combined in  $M$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
M = \lambda m b_2 r_2 \sigma_2 b_1 r_1 \sigma_1. & (\sigma_1 (b_1 (b_2 [m, b_2, (r_1 w), U_1^1] \\
& [m, b_2, (r_1 w), U_1^1] \\
& (r_1 w)) \\
& (b_2 [m, b_2, (r_1 z), U_0^1] \\
& [m, b_2, (r_1 z), U_0^1] \\
& (r_1 z w)) \\
& \mathbf{I}) \\
& (b_1 (b_2 [m, b_2, (r_1 z), U_1^1] \\
& [m, b_2, (r_1 z), U_1^1] \\
& (r_1 z)) \\
& (b_2 [m, b_2, (r_1 w), U_1^1] \\
& [m, b_2, (r_1 w), U_1^1] \\
& (r_1 w)) \\
& \mathbf{I}))
\end{aligned}$$

We now define the successor function in terms of  $M$  as follows:

$$\text{Succ}_{\text{bin}} = \lambda n z w. (n [M, U_0^2, \mathbf{I}, U_0^1] \\
[M, U_1^2, \mathbf{I}, U_0^1] \\
[M, U_2^2, \mathbf{I}, U_0^1])$$

- ii. The proof is similar to the proof of Proposition 4.1.1, albeit more tedious. It can be found in our Ph.D. thesis [8]. ■

### 4.3 The Predecessor Function

#### 4.3.1 Proposition:

- i. There exists a combinator  $\mathbf{Pred}_{\mathbf{bin}}$  such that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

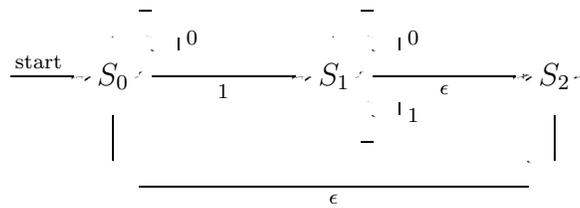
$$(\mathbf{Pred}_{\mathbf{bin}} \mathbf{bin}_{n+1}) \longrightarrow \mathbf{bin}_n.$$

- ii.  $\text{Width}(\mathbf{Pred}_{\mathbf{bin}} \mathbf{bin}_n) = O(\log n)$ .

*Proof:*

- i. To compute the predecessor function on  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , we need to implement a finite state automaton consisting of three states: The first state,  $S_0$ , propagates the *carry*; The second state,  $S_1$ , goes through the remaining bits after the carry operation has been performed; The third state,  $S_2$ , is the final state.

The automaton is depicted in the following diagram:



In computing the predecessor of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , just as in computing its successor, we apply  $\mathbf{bin}_n$  to three expressions: The first two substitute for the bits in the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ , and the third expression is used to mark the end of the stream of bits. Just as was the case in defining the successor function, the expressions are defined so that when they are substituted into the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_{n+1}$ , the resulting sequence of applications drives the automaton, constructing the body of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$ . In moving from state to state, the reconstruction of the partial body of  $\mathbf{bin}_n$  will need to be carried along and maintained together with some additional information. Therefore each expression needs to have access to

- (i) An encoding  $\sigma$  of the current state (i.e. of either  $S_0$  or  $S_1$ ).

- (ii) An encoding of whether the given expression is substituted for a 0-bit, a 1-bit, or is a mark for the end of the stream of bits. This is denoted by  $b$ .
- (iii) A partial reconstruction of the body of the preceding numeral, under the assumption that additional  $z$ 's in the number are trailing, and should be ignored. This reconstruction is denoted by  $r_1$ .
- (iv) A partial reconstruction of the body of the preceding numeral, under the assumption that additional  $z$ 's in the number are *not* trailing, and should not be dropped. This reconstruction is denoted by  $r_2$ .

The values of (i) and (ii) are the same as the corresponding ones in the construction of the successor. Since the predecessor of a **bin** numeral may have one less bit, we generate two reconstructions of the numeral, in parallel, and commit to one of the two when either a 1-bit or the terminal mark are encountered. Together, (iii) and (iv) correspond to (iii) in the construction of the successor. We store this information, as well as a procedure  $m$ , in an ordered 5-tuple. As usual by now, observe that:

$$\begin{aligned}
& ([m, b_1, r_{11}, r_{12}, \sigma_1] [m, b_2, r_{21}, r_{22}, \sigma_2]) \\
& \longrightarrow ((\lambda x.(x m b_1 r_{11} r_{12} \sigma_1)) \\
& \quad (\lambda x.(x m b_2 r_{21} r_{22} \sigma_2))) \\
& \longrightarrow ((\lambda x.(x m b_2 r_{21} r_{22} \sigma_2)) \\
& \quad m b_1 r_{11} r_{12} \sigma_1) \\
& \longrightarrow (m m b_2 r_{21} r_{22} \sigma_2 b_1 r_{11} r_{12} \sigma_1)
\end{aligned}$$

As one can see,  $m$  is passed a copy of itself, and all the information stored in both ordered 5-tuples (again, both ordered 5-tuples have  $m$  in common). We use three DLT's to represent the behaviour of  $m$ :

Main DLT: <i>Determining State</i>		
Value of $\sigma_1$	$U_0^1$	$U_1^1$
Dispatch to the DTL of $\sigma_0$	$\checkmark$	
Dispatch to the DTL of $\sigma_1$		$\checkmark$

The DLT at $\sigma_0$									
Value of $b_1$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$
Value of $b_2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$
$[m, b_2, (r_{12} w), (r_{12} w), U_0^1]$	✓	✓							
return with $(r_{12} w)$			✓						
$[m, b_2, r_{11}, (r_{12} z), U_1^1]$				✓	✓				
return with $r_{11}$						✓			
irrelevant							✓	✓	✓

The DLT at $\sigma_1$									
Value of $b_1$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_2^2$
Value of $b_2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$	$U_0^2$	$U_1^2$	$U_2^2$
$[m, b_2, r_{11}, (r_{12} z), U_1^1]$	✓	✓							
return with $r_{11}$			✓						
$[m, b_2, (r_{12} w), (r_{12} w), U_1^1]$				✓	✓				
return with $(r_{12} w)$						✓			
irrelevant							✓	✓	✓

As was the case with the derivation of the successor function, the actions to be taken at each state are a function of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ . In both cases, the computation of the body of  $\text{bin}_n$  terminates when  $b_2 = U_2^2$ . Also, just as with the successor function, the situation where  $b_1 = U_2^2$  cannot occur, and so the return value in this case is irrelevant, and once again, we arbitrarily pick the **I** combinator.

The DLT's for the states  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  specify different actions to be taken upon different possible values of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ . Just as with the successor function, we rely on the fact that  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are *selectors* in order to

simplify the selection mechanism. All three DLT's are combined in  $M$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
M = \lambda m b_2 r_{21} r_{22} \sigma_2 b_1 r_{11} r_{12} \sigma_1 . & (\sigma_1 (b_1 (b_2 [m, b_2, (r_{12} w), (r_{12} w), \mathbf{U}_0^1] \\
& [m, b_2, (r_{12} w), (r_{12} w), \mathbf{U}_0^1] \\
& (r_{12} w)) \\
& (b_2 [m, b_2, r_{11}, (r_{12} z), \mathbf{U}_1^1] \\
& [m, b_2, r_{11}, (r_{12} z), \mathbf{U}_1^1] \\
& r_{11})) \\
& \mathbf{I}) \\
& (b_1 (b_2 [m, b_2, r_{11}, (r_{11} z), \mathbf{U}_1^1] \\
& [m, b_2, r_{11}, (r_{11} z), \mathbf{U}_1^1] \\
& r_{11})) \\
& (b_2 [m, b_2, (r_{12} w), (r_{12} w), \mathbf{U}_1^1] \\
& [m, b_2, (r_{12} w), (r_{12} w), \mathbf{U}_1^1] \\
& (r_{12} w)) \\
& \mathbf{I}))
\end{aligned}$$

We now define the predecessor function in terms of  $M$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{Pred}_{\mathbf{bin}} = \lambda n z w . (n [M, \mathbf{U}_0^2, z, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{U}_0^1] \\
[M, \mathbf{U}_1^2, z, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{U}_0^1] \\
[M, \mathbf{U}_2^2, z, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{U}_0^1])$$

Recall that  $r_1$  contains the partial reconstruction of the preceding numeral under the assumption that any additional zero bits are trailing, and can therefore be ignored. The initial value of  $r_1$  must therefore be  $z$ , rather than  $\mathbf{I}$ .

- ii. The proof is similar to the proof of Proposition 4.1.1, albeit more tedious. It can be found in our Ph.D. thesis [8].

■

## 4.4 Adequacy

4.4.1 **Proposition:** *The numeral system  $\mathbf{bin}$  is adequate.*

*Proof:* Having defined  $\mathbf{Zero}_{\mathbf{bin}}^?$ ,  $\mathbf{Succ}_{\mathbf{bin}}$ , and  $\mathbf{Pred}_{\mathbf{bin}}$ , it follows from Proposition 6.4.3 in Barendregt's book [1] that  $\mathbf{bin}$  is an adequate numeral

system. ■

## 5 Conclusion and Assessment

This paper introduces the sequence `bin`, and shows that it is an adequate numeral system. This section analyses several aspects of `bin`.

### 5.1 Extensibility

The definition of `bin` is easily extensible to other bases. Similarly, `bin` can be extended to have a sign, a decimal point and an exponent, facilitating fixed-size floating point arithmetic.

There is some interest in possible representations of real numbers on computers, as streams of decimals or integer coefficients of continued fractions. It is possible that the laziness inherent in the *normal order* of evaluation could facilitate a lazy numeral system for real numbers as an extension of `bin`. Such a numeral system would require that certain operations, such as the test for equality and an encoding mechanism (see Section 5.3) be restricted, in order to avoid non-termination. Lazy numbers offer a potential for efficiency, while maintaining the flexibility of carrying on a computation to arbitrary precision.

### 5.2 Efficiency

Numerals in `bin` are represented as concisely as possible. The number-theoretic functions can be computed on `bin` with the same complexity as they are computed on the standard binary representation used on modern computers. This complexity is independent of the order of evaluation. The use of selectors rather than arbitrary tags in the dispatching mechanism results in considerable gains in efficiency, and the resulting  $\lambda$ -expressions are both more concise and simpler to verify.

### 5.3 Implementation

The numeral system `bin` is extremely suitable for implementation in functional programming languages that model the pure, untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus.

We have implemented both the numeral system `bin`, and the basic number-theoretic functions defined on it in the Scheme programming language [5]. Our implementation can be combined with the Gödeliser developed as a part of our Ph.D. thesis [7, 8], so that such numerals, as well as possible extensions to the `bin` numeral system, can be displayed.

## 5.4 Decision-Logic Tables

Although DLT's are elaborate and verbose, they are relatively straightforward to construct, and help insure correctness. DLT's have traditionally been compiled into various programming languages, and so it seems reasonable to expect that  $\lambda$ -expressions for computing more elaborate functions could be generated automatically from a given set of DLT's.

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The diagrams were drawn with Kristoffer Rose's `Xy-pic` package.

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