

Meaning and Logic

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Abstract

Semiotics for semantics and soundness are shown reasonable.

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1. Definition

Notation 1.1 (Meta-variables) *An infinite supply of variables, V , are denoted by lower-case roman letters (x, y, z, \dots) and λ -terms, Λ , are denoted by upper-case roman letters (M, N, O, \dots).*

Definition 1.2 (Lambda Terms) *A λ -term is either a variable, an abstraction, or an application:*

$$\begin{aligned} x \in V &\Rightarrow x \in \Lambda && \text{Variable} \\ x \in V, M \in \Lambda &\Rightarrow (\lambda x.M) \in \Lambda && \text{Abstraction} \\ M, N \in \Lambda &\Rightarrow (MN) \in \Lambda && \text{Application} \end{aligned}$$

Notation 1.3 (Bracketing) *Outermost brackets may be discarded, $(M(NO)) \rightarrow M(NO)$. Application associates to the left, $(MN)O \rightarrow MNO$, and abstraction associates to the right, $\lambda x.(\lambda y.(\lambda z.M)) \rightarrow \lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.M$. Consecutive abstractors can be abbreviated as one, $\lambda x.\lambda y.\lambda z.M \rightarrow \lambda x y z.M$.*

Definition 1.4 (Bound Variables) *In a λ -term, $\lambda x.M$, the variable x is bound by the abstractor λ and is under the abstractor's scope.*

Definition 1.5 (Free Variables) 1. *A variable occurring in a λ -term that is not bound is free. The set of free variables is defined inductively:*

$$\begin{aligned} FV(x) &= \{x\} \\ FV(\lambda x.M) &= FV(M) \setminus \{x\} \\ FV(MN) &= FV(M) \cup FV(N) \end{aligned}$$

2. *M is closed or a combinator if $FV(M) = \{\emptyset\}$.*

3. $\Lambda^0 = \{M \in \Lambda \mid M \text{ is closed}\}$.

4. $\Lambda^0(\vec{x}) = \{M \in \Lambda \mid FV(M) \subseteq \{\vec{x}\}\}$.

5. *A closure of $M \in \Lambda$ is $\lambda \vec{x}.M$, where $\{\vec{x}\} = FV(M)$.*

Definition 1.6 (Subterms) 1. *M is a subterm of N ($M \subset N$) if $M \in \text{Sub}(N)$ where $\text{Sub}(N)$, the collection of subterms of N , is defined inductively:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sub}(x) &= \{x\} \\ \text{Sub}(\lambda x.N_1) &= \text{Sub}(N_1) \cup \{\lambda x.N_1\} \\ \text{Sub}(N_1N_2) &= \text{Sub}(N_1) \cup \text{Sub}(N_2) \cup \{N_1N_2\}. \end{aligned}$$

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2. A subterm may occur several times.
3. Let N_1, N_2 be subterm occurrences of M . Then N_1, N_2 are disjoint if N_1 and N_2 have no common symbol occurrences.
4. A subterm occurrence N of M is active if N occurs as $(NZ) \subset M$ for some Z ; otherwise N is passive.

Convention 1.7 (Variable Convention) If M_1, \dots, M_n occur in a certain mathematical context, then in these terms all bound variables are chosen different from the free variables.

Notation 1.8 (Syntactic Equality) For any two λ -terms M and N , $M \equiv N$ denotes syntactic equality.

Definition 1.9 (α -conversion, Church 1941) The renaming of bound variables is called α -conversion.

$$\lambda x.M \xrightarrow{\alpha} \lambda y.[y/x]M \quad \text{provided that } y \text{ does not occur in } M$$

Two terms that are the same up to renaming of variables are equivalent.

$$M \xrightarrow{\alpha} N \Rightarrow M \equiv N$$

De Bruijn terms, which label variables by position (distance from the closest left-hand abstractor) are a means of avoiding variable renaming issues Barendregt (1984).

Definition 1.10 (Equality) Equality is an equivalence relation over λ -terms:

$$\begin{aligned} M &= M && \text{Reflexive} \\ M = N &\Rightarrow N = M && \text{Symmetric} \\ M = N, N = O &\Rightarrow M = O && \text{Transitive} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.11 (Compatibility)

$$\begin{aligned} M = M' &\Rightarrow MZ = M'Z \\ M = M' &\Rightarrow ZM = ZM' \\ M = M' &\Rightarrow \lambda x.M = \lambda x.M' \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence, any (sub)term can be replaced by equal terms in any term context.

Notation 1.12 (Provability) If $M = N$ is provable in the λ -calculus we can write:

$$\lambda \vdash M = N$$

- Definition 1.13 (Consistency)**
1. An equation is a formula of the form $M = N$ with $M, N \in \Lambda$; the equation is closed if $M, N \in \Lambda^0$.
 2. Let \mathfrak{F} be a formal theory with equations as formulas. Then \mathfrak{F} is consistent ($\text{Con}(\mathfrak{F})$) if \mathfrak{F} does not prove every closed equation, in the opposite case \mathfrak{F} is inconsistent.
 3. If \mathfrak{F} is a set of equations, then $\lambda + \mathfrak{F}$ is the theory obtained from λ by adding the equations of \mathfrak{F} as axioms. \mathfrak{F} is called consistent ($\text{Con}(\mathfrak{F})$) if $\text{Con}(\lambda + \mathfrak{F})$.

2. Substitution

Definition 2.1 (Substitution) *The expression $[N/x]M$ is the term M with all free occurrences of x substituted for by N :*

$$\begin{aligned} [N/x]x &\rightarrow N \\ [N/x]y &\rightarrow y \\ [N/x](\lambda y.M) &\rightarrow \lambda y.([N/x]M) \\ [N/x](M_1M_2) &\rightarrow ([N/x]M_1)([N/x]M_2) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 2.2 (Substitution Lemma) *If $x \neq y$ and $x \notin FV(L)$, then*

$$[L/y][N/x]M = [[L/y]N/x][L/y]M$$

Proof By induction on structure of M .

1. M is a variable:

- (a) $M \equiv x \Rightarrow$ both sides equal $[L/y]N$ since $x \neq y$
- (b) $M \equiv y \Rightarrow$ both sides equal L , for $x \notin FV(L) \Rightarrow [\dots/x]L \equiv L$
- (c) $M \equiv z \neq x, y \Rightarrow$ both sides equal z

2. $M \equiv \lambda z.M_1$: By the variable convention we may assume that $z \neq x, y$ and z not free in N, L . Then by the induction hypothesis

$$\begin{aligned} [L/y][N/x](\lambda z.M_1) &\equiv \lambda z.[L/y][N/x]M_1 \\ &\equiv \lambda z. [[L/y]N/x][L/y]M_1 \\ &\equiv (\lambda z.M_1)[[L/y]N/x][L/y]. \end{aligned}$$

3. $M \equiv M_1M_2$: Then by the induction hypothesis the statement follows. □

Proposition 2.3 1. $M = M' \Rightarrow [N/x]M = [N/x]M'$

2. $N = N' \Rightarrow [N/x]M = [N'/x]M$

3. $M = M', N = N' \Rightarrow [N/x]M = [N'/x]M'$

Proof

1. By induction on the length of proof $M = M'$

(a) $M = M'$ is an axiom $(\lambda y.A)B = [B/y]A$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} [N/x]M &\equiv (\lambda y.[N/x]A)[B/y]A \\ &= [[N/x]B/y][N/x]A \\ &\equiv [N/x][B/y]A \\ &\equiv [N/x]M'. \end{aligned}$$

by the substitution lemma 2.2. (By the variable convention $y \neq x$ and $y \notin FV(N)$).

(b) $M = M'$ is an axiom because $M \equiv M'$. Then the result follows immediately.

(c) $M = M'$ is $ZM_1 = ZM'_1$ and is a direct consequence of $M = M'_1$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} [N/x]M &\equiv [N/x]Z[N/x]Z_1 \\ &= [N/x]Z[N/x]M' \text{ by induction hypothesis} \\ &\equiv [N/x]M'. \end{aligned}$$

The other derivation rules are treated similarly.

2. Induction on the structure of M .

3. by 1 and 2

$$[N/x]M = [N/x]M' = [N'/x]M'. \quad \square$$

Definition 2.4 (Contexts and Holes) 1. A context $C[]$ is a term with some holes in it. More formally:

x is a context
 $[]$ is a context
if $C_1[]$ and $C_2[]$ are contexts, then so are $C_1[]C_2[]$ and $\lambda x.C_1[]$.

2. If $C[]$ is a context and $M \in \Lambda$, then $C[M]$ denotes the result of placing M in the holes of $C[]$. In this act free variables of M may become bound in $C[M]$.

Proposition 2.5 Let $C[] \in \Lambda$. Then

$$N = N' \Rightarrow C[N] = C[N']$$

Proof Induction on the structure of $C[]$. □

Lemma 2.6 1. $\forall C[], \forall \vec{x}, \exists F : \forall M \in \Lambda^0(\vec{x}), C[M] = F(\lambda \vec{x}.M)$.
2. $\forall C[], \forall M, \exists \vec{x} : \exists F : C[M] = F(\lambda \vec{x}.M)$.

Proof

1. Induction on the structure of $C[]$.
2. By 1. □

Definition 2.7 (Vector Terms) 1. Let $\vec{N} \equiv N_1, \dots, N_m; \vec{x} \equiv x_1, \dots, x_n$. Then \vec{N} fits in \vec{x} if $m = n$ and the \vec{x} do not occur in $FV(\vec{N})$.

2. Let $\vec{N} \equiv N_1, \dots, N_m; \vec{L} \equiv L_1, \dots, L_n$. Then

$$\vec{N} = \vec{L} \text{ if } m = n \text{ and } N_i = L_i, \forall i \ 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Similarly $\vec{N} = \vec{L}$ is defined.

3. Let \vec{N} fit in $\vec{x} = x_1, \dots, x_n$. Then

$$[\vec{N}/\vec{x}]M \equiv [N_n/x_n] \cdots [N_1/x_1]M.$$

4. Let $M \in \Lambda$. Sometimes we write $M \equiv M(\vec{x})$ to indicate substitution:
If $M \equiv M(\vec{x})$ and \vec{N} fits in \vec{x} , then $M(\vec{N}) \equiv [\vec{N}/\vec{x}]M$.

Proposition 2.8 Let \vec{N} fit in \vec{x} . Then

$$M_1(\vec{x}) = M_2(\vec{x}) \wedge \vec{N}_1 = \vec{N}_2 \Rightarrow M_1(\vec{N}_1) = M_2(\vec{N}_2)$$

Proof By proposition 2.3 (3). □

Lemma 2.9 Let $\vec{x} = x_1, \dots, x_n$. Then $(\lambda \vec{x}.M)\vec{x} = M$.

Proof If $n = 1$, then

$$(\lambda x_1.M)x_1 = [x_1/x_1]M \equiv M.$$

If $n = 2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda \vec{x}.M)\vec{x} &\equiv ((\lambda x_1.(\lambda x_2.M))x_1)x_2 \\ &= (\lambda x_2.M)x_2 \text{ by the case } n = 1 \text{ for } \lambda x_2.M \\ &= M. \end{aligned}$$

The general case follows by induction on n . □

Corollary 2.10 (Combinatory Completeness) Let $M \equiv M(\vec{x})$. Then:

1. $\exists F : F\vec{x} = M(\vec{x})$.
2. $\exists \vec{N} : \forall \vec{N}, F\vec{N} = M(\vec{N})$, where \vec{N} fits in \vec{x} .
3. In 1, 2 one can take $F \equiv \lambda \vec{x}.M$.

Proof By lemma 2.9, using proposition 2.8. □

3. Named Terms

Definition 3.1 (μ -conversion) λ -terms can be given names and the μ -conversion of a term involving these names is the term with the name replaced by the corresponding λ -term

$$\mathbf{name} := M \Rightarrow (\mathbf{name} N) \xrightarrow{\mu} MN$$

Definition 3.2 (Standard Combinators)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{I} &:= \lambda x.x \\ \mathbf{K} &:= \lambda x y.x \\ \mathbf{S} &:= \lambda x y z.x z (y z)\end{aligned}$$

Corollary 3.3 $\forall M, N, L \in \Lambda$

1. $\mathbf{I}M = M$
2. $\mathbf{K}MN = M$
3. $\mathbf{S}MNL = ML(NL)$.

Proof By corollary 2.10. □

Theorem 3.4 $\forall M \in \Lambda, \mathbf{S}KM = \mathbf{I}$

Proof By repeated application of Lemma 4.2.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{S}KM &= (\lambda x y z.x z (y z))(\lambda x y.x)M \\ &= (\lambda y z.(\lambda x y.z)z(y z))M \\ &= (\lambda y z.z)M \\ &= \lambda z.z \\ &= \mathbf{I}.\end{aligned}$$
□

4. Reduction

Definition 4.1 (β -reduction) The principal axiom scheme is β -reduction:

$$(\lambda x.M)N \xrightarrow{\beta} [N/x]M \quad \forall M, N \in \Lambda$$

Lemma 4.2

$$\lambda \vdash (\lambda x_1 \cdots x_n.M)X_1 \cdots X_n = [X_n/x_n] \cdots [X_1/x_1]M$$

Proof From axiom (β -reduction) we have

$$(\lambda x_1.M)X_1 = [X_1/x_1]M$$

by induction on n the result follows. □

Theorem 4.3 (FixedPoint Theorem) 1. $\forall F \in \Lambda, \exists X \in \Lambda : FX = X$
2. There is a fixed point combinator

$$Y := \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(x x))(\lambda x.f(x x))$$

such that

$$\forall F \in \Lambda, F(YF) = YF$$

Proof

1. Define $W := \lambda x.F(x x)$ and $X := WW$. Then

$$X = WW = (\lambda x.F(x x))W = F(WW) = X$$

2. By proof of 1 □

Definition 4.4 (β -Normal Form) Let $M \in \Lambda$.

1. M is a β -normal form (β -nf or nf) if M has no subterm $(\lambda x.P)Q$.
2. M has a β -normal form if $\exists N : N = M$ and N is a β -normal form.
3. If M is a nf, it is also said that M is in nf.

Definition 4.5 (η -Reduction) Redundant abstractions can be removed with η -reduction

$$\lambda x.Mx \xrightarrow{\eta} M \quad x \notin FV(M)$$

The theory λ extended with η -reduction is called λ_η .

Definition 4.6 ($\beta\eta$ -Normal Form) 1. M is a $\beta\eta$ -normal form if M has no subterm $(\lambda x.P)Q$ or $(\lambda x.R x)$ with $x \notin FV(R)$.

2. M has a $\beta\eta$ -normal form if

$$\exists N : \lambda_\eta \vdash M = N \wedge N \text{ is a } \beta\eta\text{-normal form}$$

Definition 4.7 (Head Normal Form) 1. M is a head normal form (hnf) if M has the form $M \equiv \lambda \vec{x}.y \vec{N}$.

2. M has a hnf if $\exists N : M = N$ and N is a hnf.

Definition 4.8 (Weak Head Normal Form) 1. M is a weak head normal form (whnf) if M has the form $M \equiv \lambda \vec{x}.\vec{N}$.

2. M has a whnf if $\exists N : M = N$ and N is a whnf.

These head normal forms provide intermediate points towards unique normal forms. Weak head normal form is useful as it provides for a lazy evaluation strategy that does not evaluate terms until necessary.

Theorem 4.9

$$\forall M \in \Lambda^0(\vec{x}, y), \exists F : \forall \vec{A}, F\vec{A} = M(\vec{A}, F).$$

Proof As a result of combinatory completeness and the fixedpoint theorem. □

4.1. Notions of Reduction

Definition 4.10 1. A binary relation \mathbf{R} on Λ is compatible (with the operations) if

$$\begin{aligned} (M, M') \in \mathbf{R} &\Rightarrow (ZM, ZM') \in \mathbf{R} \\ &\wedge (MZ, M'Z) \in \mathbf{R} \\ &\wedge (\lambda x.M, \lambda x.M') \in \mathbf{R}. \end{aligned}$$

2. An equality (or congruence) relation on Λ is a compatible equivalence relation.
3. A reduction relation on Λ is one which is compatible, reflexive, and transitive.

Definition 4.11 1. A notion of reduction on Λ is just a binary relation \mathbf{R} on Λ .

2. If $\mathbf{R}_1, \mathbf{R}_2$ are notions of reduction, then $\mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2$ is $\mathbf{R}_1 \cup \mathbf{R}_2$.

Definition 4.12 $\beta = \{((\lambda x.M)N, [N/x]M) \mid M, N \in \Lambda\}$.

Definition 4.13 If \mathbf{R} is a binary relation on a set X , then the reflexive closure of the relation is the least relation extending it that is reflexive. The transitive closure and the compatible closure are defined similarly.

Definition 4.14 (Reduction Relations) Let \mathbf{R} be a notion of reduction on Λ .

1. Then \mathbf{R} induces the binary relations:

- (a) $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ one step \mathbf{R} -reduction
- (b) $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ \mathbf{R} -reduction
- (c) $\equiv^{\mathbf{R}}$ \mathbf{R} -equality (or convertibility)

inductively defined:

- (a) $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ is the compatible closure of \mathbf{R} :
 - i. $(M, N) \in \mathbf{R} \Rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$
 - ii. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N \Rightarrow ZM \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} ZN$
 - iii. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N \Rightarrow MZ \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} NZ$
 - iv. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N \Rightarrow \lambda x.M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} \lambda x.N$
- (b) $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ is the reflexive, transitive closure of \mathbf{R} :
 - i. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N \Rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$
 - ii. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} M$
 - iii. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N, N \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} L \Rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} L$
- (c) $\equiv^{\mathbf{R}}$ is the equivalence relation generated by $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$:
 - i. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N \Rightarrow M \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} N$
 - ii. $M \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} N \Rightarrow N \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} M$
 - iii. $M \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} N, N \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} L \Rightarrow M \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} L$

2. The basic relations derived from \mathbf{R} are pronounced as follows:

- (a) $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$: M \mathbf{R} -reduces to N or N is an \mathbf{R} -reduct of M
- (b) $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$: M \mathbf{R} -reduces to N in one step
- (c) $M \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} N$: M is \mathbf{R} -convertible to N

Lemma 4.15 The relations $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$, $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$, and $\equiv^{\mathbf{R}}$ are all compatible. Therefore $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ is a reduction relation and $\equiv^{\mathbf{R}}$ is an equality relation.

Proof For $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ this is immediate. For $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ and $\equiv^{\mathbf{R}}$ it follows by induction on the generation of these relations. This is a common form of proof. For $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$:

1. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$ because $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$. Then by the result for $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}}$ one has $C[M] \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} C[N]$ and hence $C[M] \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} C[N]$.
2. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$ because $M \equiv^{\mathbf{R}} N$. Then trivially $C[M] \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} C[N]$.
3. $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$ is a direct consequence of $M \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} L$ and $L \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} N$. By the induction hypothesis $C[M] \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} C[L]$ and $C[L] \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} C[N]$. Therefore $C[M] \xrightarrow{\mathbf{R}} C[N]$.

□

Definition 4.16 1. An R-redex is a term M such that $(M, N) \in \mathbf{R}$ for some term N . In this case N is called an R-contractum of M .

2. A term M is called an R-normal form (R-nf) if M does not contain (as subterm) any R-redex.

3. A term N is an R-nf of M (or M has the R-nf N) if N is an R-nf and $M \stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{=} N$.

Lemma 4.17

$$M \stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow} N \Leftrightarrow M \equiv C[P] \wedge N \equiv C[Q] \wedge (P, Q) \in \mathbf{R}$$

for some $P, Q \in \Lambda, C[]$ with one hole

Proof By definition of $\stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow}$. □

Corollary 4.18 Let M be an R-nf. Then

1. For no N does $M \stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow} N$.

2. $M \stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow\rightarrow} N \Rightarrow M = N$.

Proof

1. Immediately from lemma and definition of R-nf.

2. By 1, since $\stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow\rightarrow}$ is the reflexive transitive closure of $\stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow}$. □

Definition 4.19 (Confluence and Diamond Property) 1. Let \mathbf{R} be a binary relation on Λ . Then \mathbf{R} satisfies the diamond property ($\mathbf{R} \models \diamond$) if

$$\forall M, M_1, M_2, (M, M_1) \in \mathbf{R} \wedge (M, M_2) \in \mathbf{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists M_3 : (M_1, M_3) \in \mathbf{R} \wedge (M_2, M_3) \in \mathbf{R}$$

2. A notion of reduction \mathbf{R} is said to be confluent if $\stackrel{\mathbf{R}}{\rightarrow\rightarrow}$ satisfies the diamond property.

5. Combinatory Logic

Definition 5.1 (Generator and Basis) 1. Let $\mathfrak{X} \subset A$. The set of terms generated by \mathfrak{X} , notation \mathfrak{X}^+ , is the least set \mathfrak{Y} such that

(a) $\mathfrak{X} \subseteq \mathfrak{Y}$

(b) $M, N \in \mathfrak{Y} \Rightarrow MN \in \mathfrak{Y}$.

2. Let $\mathfrak{A} \subset \Lambda$. $\mathfrak{X} \subset \Lambda$ is a basis for \mathfrak{A} if

$$\forall M \in \mathfrak{A}, \exists N \in \mathfrak{X}^+ : N = M.$$

3. \mathfrak{X} is called a basis if \mathfrak{X} is a basis for Λ^0 .

Proposition 5.2 (K, S Basis) $\{\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{S}\}$ is a basis. In fact

$$\forall M \in \Lambda^0, \exists N \in \{\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{S}\}^+ : N \twoheadrightarrow M.$$

6. Representing Data

Definition 6.1 $F^n(M)$ with $F, M \in \Lambda$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is defined inductively:

$$\begin{aligned} F^0(M) &= M \\ F^{n+1}(M) &= F(F^n(M)) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 6.2 (Church Numerals) The Church numerals $\mathbf{c}_0, \mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n$ are defined by

$$\mathbf{c}_n := \lambda f x. f^n(x)$$

Lemma 6.3 1. $(\mathbf{c}_n x)^m(y) = x^{n*m}(y)$

2. $(\mathbf{c}_n)^m(x) = \mathbf{c}_{(n^m)}$, $m > 0$

Proof

1. Induction on m . $m = 0 \Rightarrow \text{LHS} = y = \text{RHS}$. Assume 1 is correct for m (Induction Hypothesis, IH). Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{c}_n x)^{m+1}(y) &= \mathbf{c}_n x((\mathbf{c}_n x)^m(y)) \\ &= \mathbf{c}_n x(x^{n*m}(y)) \text{ by IH} \\ &= x^n(x^{n*m}(y)) \\ &= x^{n+n*m}(y) \\ &= x^{n*(m+1)}(y). \end{aligned}$$

2. Induction on $m > 0$. $m = 1 \Rightarrow \text{LHS} = \mathbf{c}_n x = \text{RHS}$. Assume 2 is correct for m (Induction Hypothesis, IH). Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{c}_n)^{m+1}(x) &= \mathbf{c}_n((\mathbf{c}_n)^m(x)) \\ &= \mathbf{c}_n(\mathbf{c}_{(n^m)}(x)) \text{ by IH} \\ &= \lambda y. (\mathbf{c}_{(n^m)}(x))^n(y) \\ &= \lambda y. x^{n*n^m}(y) \text{ by 1} \\ &= \mathbf{c}_{(n^{m+1})} x. \end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 6.4 (J. B. Rosser) Define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_+ &:= \lambda x y p q. x p(y p q) \\ \mathbf{A}_* &:= \lambda x y z. x(y z) \\ \mathbf{A}_{exp} &:= \lambda x y. y x \end{aligned}$$

Then $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}$

1. $\mathbf{A}_+ \mathbf{c}_m \mathbf{c}_n = \mathbf{c}_{m+n}$
2. $\mathbf{A}_* \mathbf{c}_m \mathbf{c}_n = \mathbf{c}_{m*n}$
3. $\mathbf{A}_{exp} \mathbf{c}_m \mathbf{c}_n = \mathbf{c}_{(m^n)}$, $m \neq 0$

Proof Exercise. □

Logic

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