

THEORETICAL PEARLS

An unsolvable numeral system in lambda calculus

ERIK BARENDSSEN*

*Department of Computer Science, University of Nijmegen, Toernooiveld 1, 6525 ED Nijmegen,
The Netherlands. E-mail: erikb@cs.kun.nl.*

Abstract

For numeral systems in untyped λ -calculus the definability of a successor, a predecessor and a test for zero implies the definability of all recursive functions on that system. Towards a disproof of the converse statement, H. P. Barendregt and the author constructed a numeral system consisting of unsolvable λ -terms, being adequate for unary functions. Then, independently, B. Intrigila found an analogous system for all computable functions.

1 Notation

We suppose the reader has some basic knowledge about untyped λ -calculus. The set of *lambda terms* is denoted by Λ , and Λ° is the set of *closed terms*. *Syntactical equality* on Λ is denoted by \equiv , and (beta) *convertibility* by $=_\beta$ or simply by $=$. The following *standard combinators* are used:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{I} &\equiv \lambda x. x, \\ \mathbf{K} &\equiv \lambda xy. x, \\ \mathbf{B} &\equiv \lambda fgx. f(gx), \\ \mathbf{\Omega} &\equiv (\lambda x. xx)(\lambda x. xx), \\ \mathbf{true} &\equiv \lambda xy. x \quad (\equiv \mathbf{K}), \\ \mathbf{false} &\equiv \lambda xy. y. \end{aligned}$$

2 Numeral systems

Numeral systems are used to represent natural numbers and numeric functions in λ -calculus.

Definition 2.1

A *numeral system* is a sequence of λ -terms

$$d = d_0, d_1, \dots$$

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such that

- (1) each d_n is a closed term ;
- (2) $\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N} [d_m =_{\beta} d_n \Rightarrow m = n]$.

The best known numerals are the Church numerals, which can be considered as function iterators.

Definition 2.2

- (i) Let $F, M \in \Lambda$, and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then the n -fold iteration of F on M (notation $F^n(M)$) is defined inductively as follows:

$$F^0(M) \equiv M,$$

$$F^{n+1}(M) \equiv F(F^n(M)).$$

- (ii) The system of Church numerals $c = c_0, c_1, \dots$ is defined by

$$c_n \equiv \lambda fx. f^n(x).$$

Definition 2.3

Let d be a numeral system.

- (i) Let $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be a numeric function. Then f is λ -definable with respect to d if for some $F \in \Lambda^\circ$

$$\forall n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N} Fd_{n_1} \dots d_{n_k} =_{\beta} d_{f(n_1, \dots, n_k)}.$$

In that case f is said to be λ -defined by F .

- (ii) d is adequate if all recursive functions are λ -definable with respect to d .

Definition 2.4

Let d be a numeral system.

- (i) d has a successor if there exists a term $S_d^+ \in \Lambda^\circ$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$S_d^+ d_n = d_{n+1}.$$

- (ii) d has a predecessor if for some $P_d^- \in \Lambda^\circ$ one has

$$P_d^- d_{n+1} = d_n.$$

- (iii) d has a test for zero if for some $Zero_d \in \Lambda^\circ$

$$Zero_d d_0 = \mathbf{true},$$

$$Zero_d d_{n+1} = \mathbf{false}.$$

Proposition 2.5

The system of Church numerals c has a successor, a predecessor, and a test for zero.

Proof

Take

$$S_c^+ \equiv \lambda xfy. f(xfy),$$

$$P_c^- \equiv \lambda xfy. x(\lambda pq. q(pf)) (\mathbf{K}y) \mathbf{I},$$

$$Zero_c \equiv \lambda x. x(\lambda y. \mathbf{false}) \mathbf{true}. \quad \square$$

Theorem 2.6

Let \mathbf{d} be a numeral system. If \mathbf{d} has a successor, a predecessor, and a test for zero, then \mathbf{d} is adequate.

Proof

See Barendregt (1984, Section 6.4). \square

Corollary 2.7

The system of Church numerals \mathbf{c} is adequate.

One may wonder if the converse of Theorem 2.6 holds. In particular, if existence of a test for zero is necessary for a numeral system to be adequate.

Question 2.8 (H. P. Barendregt and E. Barendsen, 1989).

Is there an adequate numeral system without a test for zero?

Barendregt and the author partially solved the problem in 1989 by constructing a numeral system consisting of unsolvable terms, which was adequate with respect to unary functions. Recently, Intrigila (1990) described a numeral system without a test for zero which is adequate for all recursive functions. Below we present a proof combining Intrigila’s construction and that by Barendregt and the author (which are very similar), after giving the necessary background theory on solvability. Therefore this paper is mainly self-contained.

In view of the paradigm that unsolvable terms internalize the notion ‘undefined’ or ‘meaningless’ (see Barendregt, 1984, pp. 40–43), the idea of representing natural numbers by unsolvables seems a little perverse.

3 Solvability

Definition 3.1

(i) Let $M \in \Lambda^\circ$. Then M is *solvable* if for some sequence \vec{N}

$$M\vec{N} = \mathbf{I}.$$

(ii) A term $M \in \Lambda$ is *solvable* if a closure $\lambda\vec{x}. M$ is solvable.

(iii) M is *unsolvable* if M is not solvable.

Example 3.2

(i) \mathbf{K} is solvable: $\mathbf{KII} = \mathbf{I}$.

(ii) $x\Omega$ is solvable: $(\lambda x. x\Omega)(\mathbf{KI}) = \mathbf{I}$.

(iii) Ω is unsolvable.

Below an equivalent characterization of solvability, using the reduction behaviour of a term, will be given. See Barendregt (1984) for details.

Lemma 3.3

Each $M \in \Lambda$ is either of the form

$$M \equiv \lambda x_1 \dots x_n. yP_1 \dots P_m, \quad n \geq 0, \quad m \geq 0, \tag{1}$$

or

$$M \equiv \lambda x_1 \dots x_n. (\lambda y. P_0) P_1 \dots P_m, \quad n \geq 0, \quad m \geq 1. \tag{2}$$

Proof

By a straightforward case distinction. \square

Definition 3.4

- (i) A term M is a *head normal form* (hnf) if M is of the form (1) in Lemma 3.3.
- (ii) M has a hnf if $M =_{\beta} N$ with N a hnf.
- (iii) If M is of the form (2) in Lemma 3.3 then $(\lambda y. P_0) P_1$ is called the *head redex* of M .

Theorem 3.5 (C. P. Wadsworth)

For all $M \in \Lambda$,

$$M \text{ is solvable} \Leftrightarrow M \text{ has a hnf.}$$

The connection with reduction strategies is established in the following.

Definition 3.6

- (i) Suppose M has Δ as head redex. We write

$$M \rightarrow_h N$$

if N results from M by contracting Δ . This is called a *one step head reduction*.

- (ii) \rightarrow_h is the reflexive transitive closure of \rightarrow_h .
- (iii) The *head reduction path* of M is the sequence M_0, M_1, \dots such that

$$M \equiv M_0 \rightarrow_h M_1 \rightarrow_h M_2 \rightarrow_h \dots$$

If M_i is a hnf for some i then the head reduction of M is said to *terminate* at M_i . Otherwise M has an *infinite* head reduction.

Theorem 3.7 (C. P. Wadsworth)

M has a hnf iff the head reduction path of M terminates.

The following is a ‘topological’ result, stressing that an unsolvable cannot really be used as a meaningful argument in a computation.

(Genericity) *Lemma 3.8*

Let $M, N \in \Lambda$ with M unsolvable and N having a normal form. Then for all $F \in \Lambda$

$$FM = N \Rightarrow \forall L \in \Lambda \quad FL = N.$$

Proof

See Barendregt (1984, proposition 14.3.24). \square

4 An unsolvable numeral system

Definition 4.1

For $F, G \in \Lambda$, define

$$F \circ G \equiv \lambda x. F(Gx).$$

Note that $\mathbf{BFG} = F \circ G$.

Definition 4.2

The combinator P is defined by

$$P \equiv \Theta(\lambda f.f \circ f),$$

where Θ is Turing's fixedpoint combinator, defined as follows.

$$A \equiv \lambda xy.y(xy),$$

$$\Theta \equiv AA.$$

Lemma 4.3

- (i) $P \circ P = P$.
- (ii) Px is unsolvable.

Proof

- (i) By definition.
- (ii) Note that

$$Px \rightarrow_n (\lambda f.f \circ f) Px \rightarrow_n (P \circ P) x \rightarrow_n P(Px),$$

so Px has an infinite head reduction path. Hence Px is unsolvable by theorems 3.7 and 3.5. \square

Definition 4.4

The numeral system $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{u}_1, \dots$ is defined as follows. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\mathbf{u}_n \equiv \lambda x.P(x\mathbf{c}_n).$$

Lemma 4.5

Each \mathbf{u}_n is unsolvable.

Proof

By Lemma 4.3 (ii). \square

In order to show (in a uniform way) that \mathbf{u} is adequate we need a sequence of combinators.

Definition 4.6

For each $n \geq 1$, define

$$\mathbf{B}_n \equiv \lambda z x_1 \dots x_n.z(x_1 \dots x_n).$$

Note that $\mathbf{B}_2 \equiv \mathbf{B}$.

Theorem 4.7

\mathbf{u} is an adequate numeral system.

Proof

Suppose $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is recursive. Let F λ -define f with respect to \mathbf{c} . Define

$$F^* \equiv \lambda x_1 \dots x_k z. \mathbf{B}_{2k+1} x_1 \mathbf{B}_{2k} x_2 \dots \mathbf{B}_{k+2} x_k \mathbf{B}_{k+1} z F.$$

Claim. F^* λ -defines f with respect to \mathbf{u} .

Proof (example: $k = 3$). Suppose F represents $f: \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ w.r.t. c . Define

$$F^* \equiv \lambda uvwz. \mathbf{B}_7 u \mathbf{B}_6 v \mathbf{B}_5 w \mathbf{B}_4 z F.$$

Let $p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} F^* u_p u_q u_r &= \lambda z. \mathbf{B}_7 u_p \mathbf{B}_6 u_q \mathbf{B}_5 u_r \mathbf{B}_4 z F \\ &= \lambda z. u_p (\mathbf{B}_6 u_q \mathbf{B}_5 u_r \mathbf{B}_4 z F) \\ &= \lambda z. P(\mathbf{B}_6 u_q \mathbf{B}_5 u_r \mathbf{B}_4 z F c_p) \\ &= \lambda z. P(u_q (\mathbf{B}_5 u_r \mathbf{B}_4 z F c_p)) \\ &= \lambda z. P(P(\mathbf{B}_5 u_r \mathbf{B}_4 z F c_p c_q)) \\ &= \lambda z. P(P(u_r (\mathbf{B}_4 z F c_p c_q))) \\ &= \lambda z. P(P(P(\mathbf{B}_4 z F c_p c_q c_r))) \\ &= \lambda z. P(P(P(z F c_p c_q c_r))) \\ &= \lambda z. P(P(P(z c_{f(p,q,r)}))) \text{ since } F \lambda\text{-defines } f, \\ &= \lambda z. P(z c_{f(p,q,r)}) \text{ by Lemma 4.3 (i),} \\ &\equiv u_{f(p,q,r)}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Now we can answer Question 2.8 affirmatively.

Proposition 4.8

u does not have a test for zero.

Proof.

By the genericity lemma one has for each $Z \in \Lambda^\circ$

$$Z u_0 = \text{true} \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \quad Z u_n = \text{true}. \quad \square$$

References

Barendregt, H. P. 1984. *The lambda calculus: its syntax and semantics*, Studies in logic 103. North-Holland.
 Intrigila, B. 1990. Some results on numeral systems in λ -calculus. Typescript, Rome, Italy.