

Lecture 1: Combinatory Logic and Lambda Calculus

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21st Estonian Winter School in Computer Science
Winter 2016

Outline

Combinatory Logic

Lambda Calculus



Combinators

$$\Sigma_{\text{CL}} = \{\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{S}, x, ',), (, =\}$$

We introduce several simple grammars over Σ_{CL} .

- `constant := I | K | S`
- `variable := x | variable'`
- `term := constant | variable | (term term)`
- `formula := term = term`

Intuition:

in $(F A)$ the term F stands for a **function** and A for an **argument**

Combinatory Logic

Axioms

$\mathbf{I}P = P$	(I)
$\mathbf{K}PQ = P$	(K)
$\mathbf{S}PQR = PR(QR)$	(S)

Deduction rules

	$P = P$
$P = Q \Rightarrow$	$Q = P$
$P = Q, Q = R \Rightarrow$	$P = R$
$P = Q \Rightarrow$	$PR = QR$
$P = Q \Rightarrow$	$RP = RQ$

Here P, Q, R denote arbitrary terms

$\mathbf{I}P$ stands for $(\mathbf{I}P)$, $\mathbf{K}PQ$ for $((\mathbf{K}P)Q)$ and $\mathbf{S}PQR$ for $((\mathbf{S}P)Q)R$

In general $PQ_1 \dots Q_n \equiv (..((PQ_1)Q_2) \dots Q_n)$ (association to the left)

Some conventions of Combinatory Logic

Consider the term $M P Q$.

- $M P Q$ denotes $(M P) Q$ and **not!** $M(P Q) !!$
- First apply M to P and then the result is applied to Q .
- You may view $M P Q$ as the function M given two arguments, first P and then Q .
- So an alternative writing for $M P Q$ would be $M(P, Q)$, but we **will not** write that!
- $M P Q$ can receive more arguments, e.g. $P M$, which is easy with the **CL** notation: $M P Q(P M)$.
- We write $M =_{\text{CL}} P$ or just $M = P$ to denote that this equation is derivable from the axioms of Combinatory Logic using the derivation rules.
- We write $M \equiv P$ to denote that M and P are exactly the same terms.

Some magic with combinators

PROPOSITION.

- Let $\mathbf{D} \equiv \mathbf{SII}$. Then (doubling)

$$\mathbf{D}x =_{\text{CL}} xx.$$

- Let $\mathbf{B} \equiv \mathbf{S(KS)K}$. Then (composition)

$$\mathbf{B}fgx =_{\text{CL}} f(gx).$$

- Let $\mathbf{L} \equiv \mathbf{D(BDD)}$. Then (self-doubling, life!)

$$\mathbf{L} =_{\text{CL}} \mathbf{LL}.$$



Proof I

Remember the Axioms

$\mathbf{I}P = P$	(I)
$\mathbf{K}PQ = P$	(K)
$\mathbf{S}PQR = PR(QR)$	(S)

Let $\mathbf{D} \equiv \mathbf{SII}$. Then (doubling)

$$\mathbf{D}x =_{\mathbf{CL}} xx.$$

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{D}x &\equiv \mathbf{SII}x \\ &= \mathbf{I}x(\mathbf{I}x) \\ &= xx. \end{aligned}$$



Proof II

Remember the Axioms

$\mathbf{I} P = P$	(I)
$\mathbf{K} P Q = P$	(K)
$\mathbf{S} P Q R = P R (Q R)$	(S)

Let $\mathbf{B} \equiv \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{S})\mathbf{K}$. Then (composition)

$$\mathbf{B} f g x =_{\text{CL}} f (g x).$$

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{B} f g x &\equiv \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{S})\mathbf{K} f g x \\
 &= \mathbf{K}\mathbf{S} f (\mathbf{K} f) g x \\
 &= \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{K} f) g x \\
 &= \mathbf{K} f x (g x) \\
 &= f (g x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof III

Remember the Axioms

$I P = P$	(I)
$K P Q = P$	(K)
$S P Q R = P R (Q R)$	(S)

Let $L \equiv D(BDD)$. Then (self-doubling)

$$L =_{\text{CL}} LL.$$

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned}
 L &\equiv D(BDD) \\
 &= BDD(BDD) \\
 &= D(D(BDD)) \\
 &\equiv DL \\
 &= LL.
 \end{aligned}$$

Substitution

Let M, L be terms and let x be a variable. The result of substitution of L for x in M , notation $M[x := L]$ is defined by recursion on M .

case for M	definition of $M[x := L]$
x	L
y	y , provided $x \neq y$
\mathbf{C}	\mathbf{C} (for $\mathbf{C} \in \{\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{S}\}$)
PQ	$(P[x := L]) (Q[x := L])$

PROPOSITION

If $M =_{\mathbf{CL}} N$, then $M[x := Q] =_{\mathbf{CL}} N[x := Q]$.

EXAMPLES

$$x\mathbf{I}[x := \mathbf{S}] \equiv \mathbf{S}\mathbf{I}.$$

$$\mathbf{K}\mathbf{I}y x[x := \mathbf{S}] \equiv \mathbf{K}\mathbf{I}y\mathbf{S}.$$



First insight Combinatory Completeness

PROPOSITION. For every term P and variable x , there is a term F (where x does not occur in F) such that

$$F R =_{\text{CL}} P[x := R] \quad \text{for every } R.$$

We denote this term F constructed in the proof as $[x]P$.

PROOF. Induction on the structure of P .

Case 1. $P \equiv x$. Take $[x]x \equiv \mathbf{I}$. Then

$$([x]x)R \equiv \mathbf{I}R =_{\text{CL}} R =_{\text{CL}} x[x := R].$$

Case 2. $x \notin P$. Take $[x]P \equiv \mathbf{K}P$. Then indeed

$$([x]P)R =_{\text{CL}} \mathbf{K}PR =_{\text{CL}} P =_{\text{CL}} P[x := R].$$

Case 3. $P \equiv UV$. Take $[x](UV) \equiv \mathbf{S}([x]U)([x]V)$. Then indeed

$$\begin{aligned} ([x](UV))R &\equiv \mathbf{S}([x]U)([x]V)R =_{\text{CL}} (([x]U)R)(([x]V)R) =_{\text{CL}} \\ &(U[x := R])(V[x := R]) =_{\text{CL}} (UV)[x := R]. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Algorithms

The previous proof gives the following algorithm

P	$[x]P$
x	I
P with $x \notin P$	K P
$U V$	S ($[x]U$) ($[x]V$)

There are different possible algorithms. This is quite an efficient one.

Second insight **Fixed Points**

PROPOSITION. Every combinator has a **fixed point**: For every term P there exists a term X such that

$$P X =_{\text{CL}} X.$$

PROOF. Given P , define

$$W := [x]P(x x)$$

$$X := W W.$$

Then X is a so called **fixed point of P** .

$$X \equiv ([x]P(x x)) W =_{\text{CL}} P(W W) \equiv P X.$$

Hence

$$P X =_{\text{CL}} X. \quad \square$$

L is a fixed point of **D** if one has **L = DL = LL**

Intended meaning of a λ -term

The meaning of

$$\lambda x. x^2$$

is the function

$$x \mapsto x^2$$

that assigns to x the value x^2 (x times x)

So according to this intended meaning we have

$$(\lambda x. x^2)(6) = 6^2 = 36.$$

The parentheses around the 6 are usually not written:

$$(\lambda x. x^2)6 = 36$$

Principal axiom is the **β -equality**:

$$(\lambda x. M)N =_{\beta} M[x := N]$$

Language

Alphabet: $\Sigma = \{x, ', (,), ., \lambda, =\}$

Language: the set of lambda terms, Λ :

variable := $x \mid \text{variable}'$

term := $\text{variable} \mid (\text{term term}) \mid (\lambda \text{variable} . \text{term})$

formula := $\text{term} = \text{term}$

Theory (we often write just $=$ for $=_\beta$)

Axioms	$(\lambda x. M)N =_\beta M[x := N]$
	$M =_\beta M$
Rules	$M =_\beta N \Rightarrow N =_\beta M$
	$M =_\beta N, N =_\beta L \Rightarrow M =_\beta L$
	$M =_\beta N \Rightarrow ML =_\beta NL$
	$M =_\beta N \Rightarrow LM =_\beta LN$
	$M =_\beta N \Rightarrow \lambda x. M =_\beta \lambda x. N$

Substitution

M	$M[x := N]$
x	N
y	y
PQ	$(P[x := N])(Q[x := N])$
$\lambda x. P$	$\lambda x. P$
$\lambda y. P$	$\lambda y. (P[x := N])$

where $y \neq x$

Application associates to the left

$$P Q_1 \dots Q_n \equiv (\dots ((P Q_1) Q_2) \dots Q_n).$$

Abstraction associates to the right

$$\lambda x_1 \dots x_n. M \equiv (\lambda x_1. (\lambda x_2. (\dots (\lambda x_n. M) \dots))).$$

Outer parentheses are often omitted. For example

$$(\lambda x. x)y \equiv ((\lambda x. x)y)$$

Bound and free variables

$\lambda x.x$ and $\lambda y.y$ acting on M both give M

Renaming bound variables

- In the term $\lambda x.M$, the ' λx ' **binds** the x in M .
- Variables can occur **free** or **bound**.
- We don't want to distinguish between terms that only differ in their bound variables
- We write $M \equiv_{\alpha} N$ (or just $M \equiv N$) if N arises from M by **renaming bound variables**

Examples

- $\lambda x.x \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y.y$
- $\lambda x y.x \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y x.y$
- $\lambda x.(\lambda x.x) x \equiv_{\alpha} \lambda y.(\lambda x.x) y$
- $(\lambda x.(\lambda y.x y)) x \equiv_{\alpha} (\lambda z.(\lambda y.z y)) x$

Substitution revisited

- $P[x := N]$ is only allowed if **no free variable in N becomes bound** after substitution.
- Otherwise: **rename bound variables** first.

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x y) (y y) =_{\beta} (\lambda y. x y)[x := y y]$$

$$(\equiv ?? \lambda y. y y y \text{ NO!!}) \equiv (\lambda z. x z)[x := y y] \equiv \lambda z. y y z$$

$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{K} y z &\equiv (\lambda x. (\lambda y. x)) y z \\ &=_{\beta} ?? (\lambda y. y) z \\ &=_{\beta} z ?? \end{aligned}$	<p style="margin: 0;">better:</p>	$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{K} y z &\equiv (\lambda x. (\lambda y'. x)) y z \\ &=_{\beta} (\lambda y'. y) z \\ &=_{\beta} y \text{ as it should.} \end{aligned}$
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Lambda Calculus subsumes Combinatory Logic

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \mathbf{I} \equiv \lambda x.x & \Rightarrow & \mathbf{IM} =_{\beta} M \\
 \mathbf{K} \equiv \lambda x y.x & \Rightarrow & \mathbf{KMP} =_{\beta} M \\
 \mathbf{S} \equiv \lambda x y z.x z (y z) & \Rightarrow & \mathbf{SMPQ} =_{\beta} M Q (P Q)
 \end{array}$$

So we can define $(-)_\lambda : \mathbf{CL} \rightarrow \Lambda$ by

M	$(M)_\lambda$
\mathbf{I}	$\lambda x.x$
\mathbf{K}	$\lambda x y.x$
\mathbf{S}	$\lambda x y z.x z (y z)$
$P Q$	$(P)_\lambda (Q)_\lambda$

Satisfying

$$M =_{\mathbf{CL}} N \Rightarrow (M)_\lambda =_{\beta} (N)_\lambda$$

But not the other way around:

$$\mathbf{SKI} \neq_{\mathbf{CL}} \mathbf{I}, \text{ but in } \Lambda \text{ we have } (\mathbf{SKI})_\lambda =_{\beta} (\mathbf{I})_\lambda.$$

Also(!): Combinatory Logic subsumes Lambda Calculus

DEFINITION We define the embedding $(-)\mathbf{CL} : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbf{CL}$ by induction on terms as follows. (Where $[x]M$ is the **abstraction** defined for \mathbf{CL} .)

M	$(M)\mathbf{CL}$
x	x
$\lambda x.P$	$[x](P)\mathbf{CL}$
$P Q$	$(P)\mathbf{CL} (Q)\mathbf{CL}$

EXAMPLE

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\lambda x y.y)\mathbf{CL} &= [x]([y]y) = \mathbf{KI} \\
 (\lambda x y.x)\mathbf{CL} &= [x]([y]x) = [x](\mathbf{K}x) = \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{K})\mathbf{I}
 \end{aligned}$$

We have $M =_{\beta} N \iff (M)\mathbf{CL} =_{\mathbf{CL}} (N)\mathbf{CL}$

Reduction

The equations can be ordered into **computation** or **reduction** rules
 One-step reduction \rightarrow ; more-step reduction \twoheadrightarrow (0, 1 or more steps).

Axiom	$(\lambda x.M) N \rightarrow M[x := N]$
Rules for \rightarrow	$M \rightarrow N \Rightarrow MZ \rightarrow NZ$ $M \rightarrow N \Rightarrow ZM \rightarrow ZN$ $M \rightarrow N \Rightarrow \lambda x.M \rightarrow \lambda x.N$
Rules for \twoheadrightarrow	$M \twoheadrightarrow M$ $M \rightarrow N \Rightarrow M \twoheadrightarrow N$ $M \twoheadrightarrow N \wedge N \twoheadrightarrow L \Rightarrow M \twoheadrightarrow L$

Examples:

- $\mathbf{I}x \rightarrow x.$
- $\mathbf{II}x \rightarrow \mathbf{I}x$
- $\rightarrow x.$
- $\mathbf{II}x \twoheadrightarrow x.$

Reduction Graph

Given $M \in \Lambda$, the **graph of M** , $\mathcal{G}(M)$, is

$$\{N \mid M \twoheadrightarrow N\}$$

with \twoheadrightarrow as the edges and the 'reducts' of M as the vertices

For example let $P \equiv \lambda x. \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I} x x$ and $M \equiv P P$.

Then



Fixed point theorem

THEOREM. For all $F \in \Lambda$ there is an $M \in \Lambda$ such that

$$F M =_{\beta} M$$

PROOF. Define $\mathbf{W} \equiv \lambda x. F (x x)$ and $M \equiv \mathbf{W} \mathbf{W}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} M &\equiv \mathbf{W} \mathbf{W} \\ &\equiv (\lambda x. F (x x)) \mathbf{W} \\ &=_{\beta} F (\mathbf{W} \mathbf{W}) \\ &\equiv F M. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

COROLLARY. For any 'context' $C[\vec{x}, m]$ there exists a M such that

$$M \vec{P} =_{\beta} C[\vec{P}, M] \text{ for all terms } \vec{P}$$

PROOF. M can be taken the fixed point of $\lambda m \vec{x}. C[\vec{x}, m]$.
Then $M \vec{P} =_{\beta} (\lambda m \vec{x}. C[\vec{x}, m]) M \vec{P} =_{\beta} C[\vec{P}, M]$. □

Using the Fixed Point Theorem

THEOREM. There is a **Fixed Point Combinator** **Y**, that produces a **fixed point** for every term:

$$\mathbf{Y} F =_{\beta} F (\mathbf{Y} F) \quad \text{for all } F \in \Lambda.$$

PROOF. We have seen that, defining $\mathbf{W} \equiv \lambda x. F (x x)$, we get $M \equiv \mathbf{W} \mathbf{W}$ as a fixed point of F . So the following term is a **fixed point combinator**:

$$\mathbf{Y} := \lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x)). \quad \square$$

Examples: We can construct terms **L**, **O**, **P** such that

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{L} =_{\beta} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} & \text{take } \mathbf{L} \equiv \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{D}; \\ \mathbf{O} x =_{\beta} \mathbf{O} & \text{take } \mathbf{O} \equiv \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{K}; \\ \mathbf{P} =_{\beta} \mathbf{P} x. & \end{array}$$

Natural numbers and arithmetic in λ -calculus

The natural numbers are given by $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

NOTATION For terms $F, A \in \Lambda$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define $F^n A$ as follows:

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

Thus $F^2 A = F(F A)$ and $F^3 A = F(F(F A))$.

DEFINITION (i) The **Church numerals** are $\mathbf{c}_0, \mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \dots$, with

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

(ii) A function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is called **λ -definable** if there is a term $F \in \Lambda$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ one has

$$F \mathbf{c}_n =_{\beta} \mathbf{c}_{f(n)}.$$

Some representable functions

DEFINE

$$A_+ := \lambda n m. \lambda f x. n f (m f x)$$

$$A_* := \lambda n m. \lambda f x. n (m f) x$$

$$A_{\text{exp}} := \lambda n m. \lambda f x. m n f x$$

These functions **λ -define** addition, multiplication, and exponentiation. This means that we claim that the following holds:

$$A_+ \mathbf{c}_n \mathbf{c}_m =_{\beta} \mathbf{c}_{n+m}$$

$$A_* \mathbf{c}_n \mathbf{c}_m =_{\beta} \mathbf{c}_{n*m}$$

$$A_{\text{exp}} \mathbf{c}_n \mathbf{c}_m =_{\beta} \mathbf{c}_{m^n}$$

We verify this only for A_+ :

$$A_+ \mathbf{c}_n \mathbf{c}_m =_{\beta} \lambda f x. \mathbf{c}_n f (\mathbf{c}_m f x) =_{\beta} \lambda f x. f^n (f^m x) \equiv \lambda f x. f^{n+m} x \equiv \mathbf{c}_{n+m}.$$

COROLLARY The function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, with $f(n) = (n + 2)^3$, is λ -definable

Two examples of data types: natural numbers and trees

Natural numbers:

$$\text{Nat} := \text{zero} \mid \text{suc Nat}$$

Binary Trees:

$$\text{Tree} := \text{leaf} \mid \text{join Tree Tree}$$

Equivalently, as a context-free grammar

$$\text{Nat} \rightarrow z \mid (s \text{ Nat})$$
$$\text{Tree} \rightarrow l \mid (j \text{ Tree Tree})$$

For Nat, we know what belongs to it:

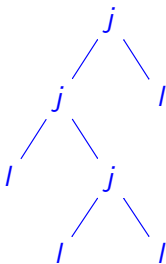
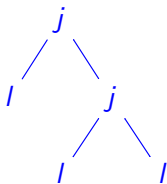
$$\text{Nat} = \{z, (sz), (s(sz)), (s(s(sz))), \dots\} = \{s^n z \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

Binary Trees

Tree := 1 | (j Tree Tree)

Examples of elements of Tree

$(j1(j11))$ and $(j(j1(j11)))1$



Translating data into lambda terms (Böhm-Berarducci)

For Nat: $t \mapsto \ulcorner t \urcorner := \lambda s z. t$

For example

$$\ulcorner (s(s(sz))) \urcorner = \lambda s z. (s(s(s z))) = \mathbf{c}_3$$

So for Nat, the encoding gives us simply the Church numerals:

$$\ulcorner n \urcorner = \mathbf{c}_n.$$

For Tree: $t \mapsto \ulcorner t \urcorner := \lambda j l. t$

For example

$$\ulcorner (j1(j11)) \urcorner = \lambda j l. (j l (j l l))$$

Basically $\ulcorner t \urcorner$ represents t iff $\ulcorner t \urcorner j l =_{\beta} t$ (where 1 is replaced by l and j by j).

Operating on data after representing them

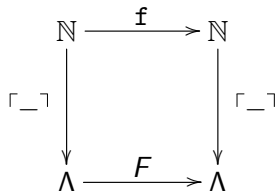
For Nat we can operate on the codes to represent functions:

$$\begin{aligned} A_+ \ulcorner n \urcorner \ulcorner m \urcorner &=_{\beta} \ulcorner n + m \urcorner \\ A_* \ulcorner n \urcorner \ulcorner m \urcorner &=_{\beta} \ulcorner n \times m \urcorner \end{aligned}$$

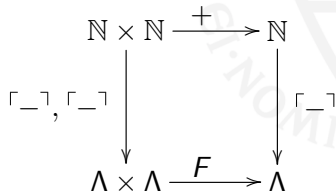
DEFINITION. The λ -term F **λ -defines** the function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ if

$$F \ulcorner n \urcorner =_{\beta} \ulcorner f(n) \urcorner \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Or: this *diagram commutes*:



For example addition:



Church-Turing Thesis

CHURCH-TURING THESIS

All functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that are computable are also λ -definable.

NB. This covers both “human computable” and “machine computable”.

NB. This is not a theorem that can be proven. But it could be disproved!

Then Church went on constructing a function that is not λ -definable hence by his thesis, not (human/machine) computable. Turing did the same for his computational model, “Turing machines”.

Functions on trees

Define on Trees the operation of mirroring:

$$\text{Mirror } (1) = 1$$

$$\text{Mirror } (j \ t_1 \ t_2) = j \ (\text{Mirror } t_2) \ (\text{Mirror } t_1)$$

We will construct a λ -term A_M such that

$$A_M \ulcorner t \urcorner = \ulcorner \text{Mirror}(t) \urcorner$$



Representing the basic operations “leaf” and “join”

LEMMA. The λ -terms

$$L := \lambda j l. l$$

$$J := \lambda t_1 t_2. \lambda j l. j(t_1 j l)(t_2 j l)$$

define “leaf” and “join” on Tree. For L that’s immediate.
For J , that means:

$$J \ulcorner t_1 \urcorner \ulcorner t_2 \urcorner = \ulcorner j(t_1, t_2) \urcorner \quad (1)$$

for all t_1, t_2 : Tree.

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned} J \ulcorner t_1 \urcorner \ulcorner t_2 \urcorner &= (\lambda t_1 t_2. \lambda j l. j(t_1 j l)(t_2 j l)) \ulcorner t_1 \urcorner \ulcorner t_2 \urcorner \\ &= \lambda j l. j(\ulcorner t_1 \urcorner j l)(\ulcorner t_2 \urcorner j l) \\ &= \lambda j l. j t_1 t_2 \\ &= \ulcorner j t_1 t_2 \urcorner. \end{aligned}$$



Representing functions on Tree in Λ

Suppose function f on Tree is defined with the following recursion scheme (where a and h are given).

$$\begin{aligned} f \text{ leaf} &:= a \\ f (\text{join } t_1 t_2) &:= h (f t_1) (f t_2) \end{aligned}$$

LEMMA If A defines a and H defines h in Λ , then F defines f , with:

$$F := \lambda t. t H A$$

PROOF. We show that $\lceil t \rceil H A = \lceil f t \rceil$ for all $\lceil t \rceil$. The case for “leaf” is immediate. For “join”:

$$\begin{aligned} \lceil j t_1 t_2 \rceil H A &= J \lceil t_1 \rceil \lceil t_2 \rceil H A \\ &= (\lambda j l. j (\lceil t_1 \rceil j l) (\lceil t_2 \rceil j l)) H A \\ &= H (\lceil t_1 \rceil H A) (\lceil t_2 \rceil H A) \\ &= H \lceil f t_1 \rceil \lceil f t_2 \rceil \text{(by Induction Hypothesis)} \\ &= \lceil f (j t_1 t_2) \rceil \end{aligned}$$

Representing mirroring in Λ

The function `Mirror` is also defined by a recursion scheme over `Tree`:

```
Mirror leaf      = leaf
Mirror (join t1 t2) = join (Mirror t2) (Mirror t1)
```

So the “helping functions” are L (for `leaf`) and $\lambda a b.J b a$ (for $h\ t_1\ t_2 = \text{join}\ t_2\ t_1$).

Conclusion: `Mirror` is defined in Λ by

$$A_M = \lambda t.t L(\lambda a b.J b a).$$

Booleans

The type of **booleans**, `Bool`, contains just two constants, 'true' and 'false': `Bool := true | false`

These are represented in λ -calculus in the standard way:

`true` \mapsto $\lceil \mathbf{t} \rceil := \lambda t f.t$

`false` \mapsto $\lceil \mathbf{f} \rceil := \lambda t f.f$

These well-known terms (**K** and **K_{*}**) are thus also called **T** and **F**.

Some more λ -definable functions:

`Neg` := $\lambda b.b \mathbf{F} \mathbf{T}$

`Zero` := $\lambda n.n (\lambda x.\mathbf{F}) \mathbf{T}$

`ITE` := $\lambda b x y.b x y$

- `Neg` defines **negation** on the booleans
- `Zero` defines the **test-for-zero** function from `Nat` to `Bool`
- `ITE` defines the **if-then-else** function on `Bool` \times `Nat` \times `Nat`.

We write **if** *b* **then** *M* **else** *N* for `ITE b M N`.

Using the fixed point combinator to λ -define functions

On \mathbb{N} , we can also define the predecessor (which is remarkably tricky!) $p : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $p(0) = 0$ and $p(n + 1) = n$.

So, we have a λ -term Pred satisfying

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Pred} \ulcorner 0 \urcorner &= \ulcorner 0 \urcorner \\ \text{Pred} \ulcorner n + 1 \urcorner &= \ulcorner n \urcorner\end{aligned}$$

Can we λ -define the **faculty** function $! : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$??

$$n! = n * (n - 1) * (n - 2) * \dots * 2 * 1.$$

We are looking for a term Fac satisfying

$$\text{Fac } n =_{\beta} \text{if (Zero } n) \text{ then } \ulcorner 1 \urcorner \text{ else } (A_* n (\text{Fac}(n - 1)))$$

This we can solve by taking

$$\text{Fac} := \mathbf{Y}(\lambda f n. \text{if (Zero } n) \text{ then } \ulcorner 1 \urcorner \text{ else } (A_* n (f(\text{Pred } n))))$$