

Part 3

Turning to explicit mathematics

Point of departure

Systems of explicit mathematics introduced by [S. Feferman](#) in 1975. Since then they play an important role in foundational discussions:

- Original aim: formal framework for constructive mathematics, in particular [Bishop-style constructive mathematics](#).
- First versions of explicit mathematics based on intuitionistic logic; later formulated in a classical framework.
- Close relationship to systems of second order arithmetic and set theory; instrumental for [reductive proof theory](#).
- Logical foundations of [functional and object oriented programming languages](#).

Feferman's three classic papers:

- A language and axioms for explicit mathematics, in: J. N. Crossley (ed.), *Algebra and Logic*, Lecture Notes in Mathematics 450, Springer, 1975;
- Recursion theory and set theory: a marriage of convenience, in: J. E. Fenstad, R. O. Gandy, G. E. Sacks (eds.), *Generalized Recursion Theory II*, Studies in Logic and the Foundations of Mathematics 94, Elsevier, 1978;
- Constructive theories of functions and classes, in: M. Boffa, D. van Dalen, K. McAloon (eds.), *Logic Colloquium '78*, Studies in Logic and the Foundations of Mathematics 97, Elsevier, 1979.

Basic ontology (modern approach)

Formulated in a language \mathbb{L} with first and second order variables and constants.

The general universe (first order objects)

- Unspecified general objects, (constructive) operations, bitstrings, programs,
- These objects form a partial combinatory algebra.

Classes (second order objects)

- Classes are simply collections of objects.
- These classes help to “structure” the universe.
- As we will see, more versatile than “traditional” type theories.

The element relation \in and the naming relation \mathfrak{R}

$t \in S \quad :::$ object t is an element of class S

(Strong form of polymorphism: an object may belong to many classes.)

Equality of classes defined by

$$S = T := \forall x(x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T).$$

Classes can be addressed via their names:

$\mathfrak{R}(t, S) \quad :::$ object t is a name of class S .

Explicit representation and equality

$$(E1) \exists x \mathfrak{R}(x, S),$$

$$(E2) \mathfrak{R}(r, S) \wedge \mathfrak{R}(r, T) \rightarrow S = T,$$

$$(E3) \mathfrak{R}(r, S) \wedge S = T \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(r, T).$$

Some abbreviations:

$$s \dot{\in} t := \exists X(\mathfrak{R}(t, X) \wedge s \in X),$$

$$s \dot{=} t := \exists X(\mathfrak{R}(s, X) \wedge \mathfrak{R}(t, X)),$$

$$S \subseteq T := (\forall x \in S)(x \in T),$$

$$s \dot{\subseteq} t := \exists X, Y(\mathfrak{R}(s, X) \wedge \mathfrak{R}(t, Y) \wedge X \subseteq Y),$$

$$s \in \mathfrak{R} := \exists X \mathfrak{R}(s, X) \quad (\text{although } \mathfrak{R} \text{ is in general not a class}).$$

Basic characteristics of this operational framework

- Reconcile the intensional with the extensional point of view: Intensionality on the level of objects (names) and extensionality on the level of classes.
- The general universe of discourse simply is a patial combinatory algebra; typical examples: Kleene's first and second model, the graph model, the (total) term model,
- Self-application of objects – we often call them *operations* – to each other is possible; however, it does not necessarily produce a value. The exact nature of these operations is purposely left open.
- The universe is open-ended but has some simple closure properties.
- **No specific ideology.**

The language \mathbb{L}

Basic vocabulary:

- Variables for individuals: $a, b, c, f, g, h, x, y, z, \dots$
- Variables for classes $A, B, C, R, S, T, X, Y, Z, \dots$
- Many individual constants and a class constant N .
- Function symbol \circ for (partial) term application.
- Relation symbols $\downarrow, \in, =$, and \mathfrak{R} .

Individual terms (r, s, t, \dots):

ind. variables | ind. constants | $(s \circ t)$

As usual:

$$st := (s \circ t)$$

$$s_1(s_2 \dots s_n) := s_1 s_2 \dots s_n := (\dots (s_1 s_2) \dots s_n).$$

Logic of partial terms (Beeson)

$t \downarrow$::: term t has a value;

$s \simeq t := (s \downarrow \vee t \downarrow \rightarrow s = t)$.

Some characteristic properties

- $x \downarrow$.
- $c \downarrow$ if c is a constant.
- $st \downarrow \rightarrow (s \downarrow \wedge t \downarrow)$.
- $A[t] \rightarrow t \downarrow$ for atomic $A[t]$.
- $A[t] \wedge t \downarrow \rightarrow \exists x A[x]$.



Moses Schönfinkel (1889 – 1942)

The inventor of *Combinatory Logic*:
Equivalent to predicate logic.



Haskell Brooks Curry (1900 – 1982)

Further development of combinatory logic.
Mathematical analysis of substitution (and
conversion) of terms.
Curry's paradox.

Partial combinatory algebra

Combinatory axioms, pairing and projections

(PCA1) $k \neq s$.

(PCA2) $kab = a$.

(PCA3) $sab \downarrow \wedge sabc \simeq (ac)(bc)$.

(PCA4) $p_0 \langle a, b \rangle = a \wedge p_1 \langle a, b \rangle = b$, where $\langle a, b \rangle := pab$.

Immediate consequences

λ -abstraction, fixed point theorem.

A “computational engine”, acting on our universe.

λ -Abstraction

For each term t and each variable x we can find a term – written $(\lambda x.t)$ – such that its variables are those of t minus x and

- $(\lambda x.t)\downarrow$ and $(\lambda x.t)x \simeq t$.
- $s\downarrow \rightarrow (\lambda x.t)s \simeq t[s/x]$.

Proof.

Induction on t .

- (1) If t is the variable x , then $(\lambda x.t) := skk$.
- (2) If t is a variable different from x or a constant, then $(\lambda x.t) := kt$.
- (3) If t is the term $t_1 t_2$, then $(\lambda x.t) := s(\lambda x.t_1)(\lambda x.t_2)$.



Fixed point theorem

There exists a closed term fix such that

$$\text{fix}(f) \downarrow \quad \wedge \quad g = \text{fix}(f) \rightarrow \forall x (gx \simeq fgx).$$

A formula A is called

- *stratified* iff the relationsymbol \mathfrak{R} does not occur in A ;
- *elementary* iff it is stratified and does quantify over classes.

Finite axiomatization of uniform elementary comprehension such that:

Theorem

For every elementary formula $\varphi[u, \vec{v}, \vec{W}]$ with at most the indicated free variables there exists a closed term t_φ such that:

- 1 $\vec{z} \in \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow t_\varphi(\vec{y}, \vec{z}) \in \mathfrak{R}$,
- 2 $\mathfrak{R}(\vec{z}, \vec{Z}) \rightarrow \forall x(x \in t_\varphi(\vec{y}, \vec{z}) \leftrightarrow \varphi[x, \vec{y}, \vec{Z}])$.

Hence, $t_\varphi(\vec{y}, \vec{z})$ is a name of $\{x : \varphi[x, \vec{y}, \vec{Z}]\}$.

Comprehension for non-stratified formulas may lead to inconsistency.

The natural numbers $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s_{\mathbb{N}}, p_{\mathbb{N}}, d_{\mathbb{N}}, r_{\mathbb{N}})$

Some abbreviations:

$$f \in (\mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) := (\forall x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{N})(f(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{N}),$$

$$t' := s_{\mathbb{N}}t.$$

Basic \mathbb{N} -axioms

$$(N1) \quad 0 \in \mathbb{N} \wedge a \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow a' \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$(N2) \quad a' \neq 0 \wedge p_{\mathbb{N}}0 = 0 \wedge p_{\mathbb{N}}(a') = a.$$

$$(N3) \quad x \in \mathbb{N} \wedge y \in \mathbb{N} \wedge x = y \rightarrow d_{\mathbb{N}}(a, b, x, y) = a.$$

$$(N4) \quad x \in \mathbb{N} \wedge y \in \mathbb{N} \wedge x \neq y \rightarrow d_{\mathbb{N}}(a, b, x, y) = b.$$

Number-valued primitive recursion

$$(N5) \quad a \in \mathbb{N} \wedge f \in (\mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow r_{\mathbb{N}}(a, f) \in (\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}).$$

$$(N6) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} a, b \in \mathbb{N} \wedge f \in (\mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) \\ \wedge g = r_{\mathbb{N}}(a, f) \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow g0 = a \wedge g(b') = f(b, (gb)).$$

The elementary theory of classes EC is formulated in the classical logic of partial individual terms with equality.

Elementary theory of classes

$$EC \quad := \quad (E) + (PCA) + (N) + (\text{el.comp.})$$

What are sets of natural numbers?

$$\text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}} := \{f : f \in (\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N})\}$$

$$b \varepsilon a := a \in \text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}} \wedge b \in \mathbb{N} \wedge ab = 0.$$

So – provisionally – we assume that *sets of natural numbers* are represented by total operations from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{N} .

Forms of induction on \mathbb{N}

Set induction ($S-I_{\mathbb{N}}$)

$$0 \in a \wedge (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})(x \in a \rightarrow x' \in a) \rightarrow (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})(x \in a).$$

Class induction ($C-I_{\mathbb{N}}$)

$$0 \in S \wedge (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})(x \in S \rightarrow x' \in S) \rightarrow (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})(x \in S).$$

Formula induction ($\mathbb{L}-I_{\mathbb{N}}$)

$$\varphi[0] \wedge (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})(\varphi[x] \rightarrow \varphi[x']) \rightarrow (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})\varphi[x].$$

Theorem (First observation)

- ① $EC + (S-I_N) \equiv PRA.$
- ② $EC + (C-I_N) \equiv ACA_0 \equiv PA.$
- ③ $EC + (\mathbb{L}-I_N) \equiv ACA.$

Remark

- With set induction we can prove that sets have specific properties. In general, this form of induction cannot be used in order to show that specific terms represent sets.
- If only set induction is available, axioms (PR1) and (PR2) are needed for having closure under primitive recursion.
- If class induction is available, the usual fixed point theorem of a PCA proves the existence of a closed term with the properties of r_N .

Lemma (Set-valued recursion)

There exists a closed term rec such that $\text{EC} + (\text{C-I}_{\mathbb{N}})$ proves:

$$a \in \text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}} \wedge b \in \mathbb{N} \wedge f \in (\mathbb{N} \times \text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}}) \wedge g = \text{rec}(a, f) \rightarrow \\ g \in (\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}}) \wedge g(0) = a \wedge g(b') = f(b, g(b)).$$

But thus far, $\text{Set}_{\mathbb{N}}$ has very weak closure properties. For example, it is not closed under arithmetical comprehension.

The unbounded minimum (or search) operator μ

$$(\mu.1) \quad f \in (\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) \leftrightarrow \mu f \in \mathbb{N},$$

$$(\mu.2) \quad f \in (\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) \wedge (\exists x \in \mathbb{N})(fx = 0) \rightarrow f(\mu f) = 0.$$

Remark

Least standard model of the applicative part of $EC(\mu)$ by means of Π_1^1 recursion theory: The objects are the natural numbers and

$$(x \circ y) \text{ interpreted as } \{x\}^E(y),$$

where E is the well-known type-2 equality functional

$$E(h) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \exists n(h(n) = 0), \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Theorem

- ① $EC(\mu) + (S-I_N) \equiv PA.$
- ② $EC(\mu) + (C-I_N) \equiv \Pi_{\infty}^0\text{-CA}_{<\varepsilon_0} \equiv \Sigma_1^1\text{-AC}.$
- ③ $EC(\mu) + (\mathbb{L}\text{-}I_N) \equiv \Pi_{\infty}^0\text{-CA}_{<\varepsilon_{\varepsilon_0}}.$

Remark

- $EC(\mu) + (S-I_N)$ may be considered as a reformulation of Feferman's system W and is proof-theoretically equivalent to his $K^{(\alpha)}$.
- $EC(\mu) + (C-I_N)$ is proof-theoretically equivalent to $K^{(\beta)}$.

Adding join (J)

If a names a class and f maps all elements of this class to classes,

$$(\forall x \dot{\in} a)(fx \in \mathfrak{R}),$$

we write $b = \Sigma(a, f)$ for the assertion

$$\forall x(x \dot{\in} b \leftrightarrow x = \langle p_0x, p_1x \rangle \wedge p_0x \dot{\in} a \wedge p_1x \dot{\in} f(p_0x)),$$

stating that b names the disjoint union of the classes named fy for y ranging over a . The join axiom (J) claims the existence of such disjoint unions.

Join (J)

$$a \in \mathfrak{R} \wedge (\forall x \dot{\in} a)(fx \in \mathfrak{R}) \rightarrow j(a, f) \in \mathfrak{R} \wedge j(a, f) = \Sigma(a, f).$$

Theorem

- ① $EC + (J) + (S-I_N) \equiv PRA.$
- ② $EC + (J) + (C-I_N) \equiv ACA_0 \equiv PA.$
- ③ $EC + (J) + (\mathbb{L}-I_N) \equiv \Pi_1^0\text{-CA}_{<\varepsilon_0} \equiv \Sigma_1^1\text{-AC}.$

Theorem

- ① $EC(\mu) + (J) + (S-I_N) \equiv ACA_0 \equiv PA.$
- ② $EC(\mu) + (J) + (C-I_N) \equiv \Pi_1^0\text{-CA}_{<\varepsilon_0} \equiv \Sigma_1^1\text{-AC}.$
- ③ $EC(\mu) + (J) + (\mathbb{L}-I_N) \equiv \Pi_1^0\text{-CA}_{<\varphi_{\varepsilon_0}0}.$

Some ontological observations

Two forms of power classes

- **Strong power class (SP).** For every class X there exists a class Y such that Y consists exactly of the names of all subclasses of X ,

$$\forall X \exists Y \forall z (z \in Y \leftrightarrow \exists Z (\mathfrak{R}(z, Z) \wedge Z \subseteq X)).$$

- **Weak power class (WP).** It only claims that for each class X there exists a class Y such that each element of Y names a subclass of X and for any subclass of X at least one of its names belongs to Y ,

$$\forall X \exists Y ((\forall z \in Y)(\exists Z \subseteq X)(\mathfrak{R}(z, Z)) \wedge (\forall Z \subseteq X)(\exists z \in Y)\mathfrak{R}(z, Z)).$$

Remark

Even the uniform version of (WP) is consistent with EC.

Theorem

- ① *The names of a class never form a class, i.e.*

$$\text{EC} \vdash \forall X \neg \exists Y (Y = \{z : \mathfrak{R}(z, X)\}).$$

- ② *Hence, (SP) is inconsistent with EC.*
- ③ *It is consistent with EC (though not provable there) to assume that there exists the class of all names.*
- ④ *The theory EC + (J) proves that not all objects are names.*
- ⑤ *The theory EC + (J) proves the negation of (WP).*

Operational extensionality (Op-Ext)

$$\forall f, g (\forall x (fx \simeq gx) \rightarrow f = g).$$

Full definition by cases (D_V)

$$(a = b \rightarrow d_V(u, v, a, b) = u) \wedge (a \neq b \rightarrow d_V(u, v, a, b) = v).$$

Remark

If we set $(\text{Tot}) := \forall x, y (xy \downarrow)$, then we have:

- ① EC + (Op-Ext) + (D_V) is inconsistent.
- ② EC + (Op-Ext) + (Tot) is consistent.
- ③ EC + (Op-Ext) + $\forall x (x \in \mathbb{N})$ is inconsistent.
- ④ EC + (Tot) + $\forall x (x \in \mathbb{N})$ is inconsistent.

Proof of (1). We set

$$s := \text{fix}(\lambda yx. d_V(1, 0, y, (\lambda z. 0)))$$

and thus have

$$sx \simeq (\lambda yx. d_V(1, 0, y, (\lambda z. 0)))sx \simeq d_V(1, 0, s, (\lambda z. 0)).$$

Hence, if $s = (\lambda z. 0)$, then $sx = 1$ for all x , which is impossible. Therefore, $s \neq (\lambda z. 0)$. Hence, $sx = 0$ for all x . By (Op-Ext) we thus have $s = (\lambda z. 0)$. But this is a contradiction.