# Rachunek lambda - ciąg dalszy 

18 marca 2013

## Siła wyrazu: logika zdaniowa

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { true }=\lambda x y \cdot x \quad \text { false }=\lambda x y \cdot y \\
\text { if } P \text { then } Q \text { else } R=P Q R .
\end{gathered}
$$

It works:
if true then $Q$ else $R \rightarrow_{\beta} Q$
if false then $Q$ else $R \rightarrow_{\beta} R$.

## Ordered pair

## Pair $=$ Boolean selector:

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\langle M, N\rangle & =\lambda x \cdot x M N ; \\
\pi_{i} & =\lambda x_{1} x_{2} \cdot x_{i} & (i=1,2) ; \\
\Pi_{i} & =\lambda p \cdot p \pi_{i} \quad & (i=1,2) .
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It works:
$\Pi_{1}\langle M, N\rangle \rightarrow_{\beta}\langle M, N\rangle \pi_{1} \rightarrow_{\beta} M$.

## Church's numerals

$$
c_{n}=\mathbf{n}=\lambda f x \cdot f^{n}(x),
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{0}=\lambda f x \cdot x \\
& \mathbf{1}=\lambda f x \cdot f x \\
& \mathbf{2}=\lambda f x \cdot f(f x) \\
& \mathbf{3}=\lambda f x \cdot f(f(f x)), \text { etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

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- Successor:

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- Exponentiation: $\quad \exp =\lambda m n f x . m n f x$;
- Test for zero:
zero $=\lambda m \cdot m(\lambda y$. false $)$ true;


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and so on.

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- Given $M$ and $N$, does $M={ }_{\beta} N$ hold?
- Given $M$, does $M$ normalize?
- Given $M$, does $M$ strongly normalize?


## The standard theory

## Adding equational axioms

## Example

Add the axiom $\mathrm{K}=\mathrm{S}$ to the equational theory of $\lambda$-calculus.

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This extension is inconsistent.

Böhm Theorem
Let $M, N$ be $\beta$-normal combinators with $M \neq{ }_{\beta \eta} N$. Then $M \vec{P}={ }_{\beta}$ true and $N \vec{P}={ }_{\beta}$ false, for some $\vec{P}$.

## Böhm Trees (finite case)


$M=\lambda x y \cdot x(\lambda z \cdot x z y) y$

$N=\lambda x y \cdot x(\lambda z v . x z x v) y$

## Böhm Trees: the difference


$M=\lambda x y \cdot x(\lambda z \cdot x z y) y$


$$
N=\lambda x y \cdot x(\lambda z v \cdot x z x v) y
$$

Trick: Applying $M$ to $\lambda u v .\langle u, v\rangle$ gives $\lambda y .\langle\lambda z .\langle z, y\rangle, y\rangle$. And components can be extracted from a pair.

## Discriminating terms

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Applying $M$ and $N$ to $P=\lambda u v .\langle u, v\rangle$, then to any $Q$ yields:

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Choose $Q=\lambda u v w$. true and apply both sides to false, I, true:
true
false.

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Moral: A term without normal form can still behave in a well-defined way. In a sense it has a „value".

Better idea: Value $=$ Head normal form. Undefined $=$ without head normal form.

## Solvability

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Proof for closed terms:
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$(\Leftarrow)$ If $M={ }_{\beta} \lambda x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{n} \cdot x_{i} R_{1} \ldots R_{m}$ then $M P \ldots P=\mathbf{I}$, for $P=\lambda y_{1} \ldots y_{m} . \mathbf{I}$.

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We cannot classify terms by their head normal forms.
Too many of them!

We can only observe their behaviour.

## Observational equivalence

Terms $M, N$ with $\mathrm{FV}(M) \cup \mathrm{FV}(N)=\vec{x}$, are observationally equivalent $(M \equiv N$ ) when, for all closed $P$ :
$P(\lambda \vec{x} . M)$ is solvable $\Longleftrightarrow P(\lambda \vec{x} . N)$ is solvable

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Put it differently:
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$C[M]$ is solvable $\Longleftrightarrow C[N]$ is solvable
Note: If $M={ }_{\eta} N$ then $M \equiv N$.

## Böhm Trees



If $M$ has a hnf $N$ then $B T(M)=B T(N)$.
If $M$ is unsolvable then $B T(M)=\perp$.

## Example: $\mathbf{J}=\mathbf{Y}(\lambda f x y \cdot x(f y))$

Write $\Phi$ for $\lambda f x y \cdot x(f y))$. Then:
$\mathbf{J}=\mathbf{Y} \Phi={ }_{\beta} \Phi \mathbf{J}$

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The tree $B T(J)$ consists of one infinite path:
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## When are terms observationally equivalent?

Böhm trees $B$ i $B^{\prime}$ are $\eta$-equivalent $\left(B \approx_{\eta} B^{\prime}\right)$, if there are two (possibly infinite) sequences of $\eta$-expansions:

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\begin{aligned}
& B=B_{0}{ }_{\eta} \leftarrow B_{1}{ }_{\eta} \leftarrow B_{2}{ }_{\eta} \leftarrow B_{3}{ }_{\eta} \leftarrow \cdots \\
& B^{\prime}=B_{0}^{\prime}{ }_{\eta} \leftarrow B_{1}^{\prime}{ }_{\eta} \leftarrow B_{2}^{\prime} \leftarrow B_{3}^{\prime} \leftarrow \cdots
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converging to the same (possibly infinite) tree.
Theorem
Terms $M$ and $N$ are observationally equivalent

$$
\text { if and only if } B T(M) \approx_{\eta} B T(N) \text {. }
$$

## Semantics

Goal: Interpret any term $M$ as an element $\llbracket M \rrbracket$ of some structure $A$, so that $M={ }_{\beta} N$ implies $\llbracket M \rrbracket=\llbracket N \rrbracket$.

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More precisely, $\llbracket M \rrbracket$ may depend on a valuation:

$$
v: \operatorname{Var} \rightarrow A .
$$

Write $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{v}$, for the value of $M$ under $v$.

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Write $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{v}$ instead of $\llbracket \rrbracket(M, v)$.

Postulates:
(a) $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{v}=v(x)$;
(b) $\llbracket P Q \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v} \cdot \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{v}$;
(c) $\llbracket \lambda x . P \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}$, for any $a \in A$;
(d) If $\left.v\right|_{\mathrm{FV}(P)}=\left.u\right|_{\mathrm{FV}(P)}$, then $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{u}$.

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Weakly extensional interpretation:
$\llbracket \lambda x . M \rrbracket_{v} \approx \llbracket \lambda x . N \rrbracket_{v}$ implies $\llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket \lambda x . N \rrbracket_{v}$, for all $N, v$.

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Weakly extensional interpretation:
$\llbracket \lambda x . M \rrbracket_{v} \approx \llbracket \lambda x . N \rrbracket_{v}$ implies $\llbracket \lambda x . M \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket \lambda x . N \rrbracket_{v}$, for all $N, v$.
Meaning: Abstraction makes sense algebraically.
(N.B. $\llbracket \lambda x . M \rrbracket_{v} \approx \llbracket \lambda x . N \rrbracket_{v}$ iff $\llbracket M \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}=\llbracket N \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}$, all a.)

## Lambda-model

Lambda-model: Weakly extensional lambda-interpretation:

$$
\llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{v} \approx \llbracket \lambda x \cdot N \rrbracket_{v} \quad \text { implies } \quad \llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket \lambda x . N \rrbracket_{v}
$$

## Very Important Lemma

Lemma
In every lambda-model,

$$
\llbracket M[x:=N] \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{v\left[x \mapsto \llbracket\left[N \rrbracket_{v}\right]\right.} .
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Proof: Induction wrt $M$. Case of $\lambda$ with $x \notin \mathrm{FV}(N)$.
$\llbracket(\lambda y P)[x:=N] \rrbracket_{v\left[x \mapsto \llbracket N \rrbracket_{v}\right]} \cdot a=\llbracket \lambda y \cdot P[x:=N] \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a$
$=\llbracket P[x:=N] \rrbracket_{v[y \mapsto a]}=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v[y \mapsto a]\left[x \mapsto\left[N \|_{v y \mapsto a]}\right]\right.}$
$=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v[y \mapsto a]\left[x \mapsto \llbracket N \rrbracket_{v}\right]}=\llbracket \lambda y . P \rrbracket_{v\left[x \mapsto \llbracket \mathbb{N} \rrbracket_{v}\right]} \cdot a$, for all $a$.
Therefore $\llbracket(\lambda y P)[x:=N] \rrbracket_{v\left[x \mapsto \llbracket N \rrbracket_{v}\right]}=\llbracket(\lambda y . P) \rrbracket_{v\left[x \mapsto \llbracket\left[N \rrbracket_{v}\right]\right.}$.

## Soundness

## Proposition

Every lambda-model is a "lambda-algebra":

$$
M={ }_{\beta} N \text { implies } \quad \llbracket M \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket N \rrbracket_{v}
$$

Proof: Induction wrt $M={ }_{\beta} N$. Non-immediate cases are two:
(Beta)
$\llbracket(\lambda x . P) Q \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket \lambda x \cdot P \rrbracket_{v} \cdot \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\left.v \mid x \mapsto \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{v}\right]}=\llbracket P\left[x:=Q \rrbracket \rrbracket_{v}\right.$.

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(Xi)

Let $P={ }_{\beta} Q$ and let $M=\lambda x . P, N=\lambda x . Q$. Then
$\llbracket M \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}=\llbracket Q \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}=\llbracket N \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a$, for all $a$.

## Completeness

## Theorem

The following are equivalent:

1) $M={ }_{\beta} N$;
2) $\mathcal{A} \models M=N$, for every lambda-model $\mathcal{A}$.

Proof.
(1) $\Rightarrow$ (2) By soundness.
$(2) \Rightarrow(1)$ Because term model is a lambda-model.

## Complete partial orders

Let $\langle A, \leq\rangle$ be a partial order.

A subset $B \subseteq A$ is directed when for every $a, b \in B$ there is $c \in B$ with $a, b \leq c$.

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It follows that every cpo has a least element $\perp=\sup \varnothing$.

## Complete partial orders

Let $\langle A, \leq\rangle$ and $\langle B, \leq\rangle$ be cpos, and $f: A \rightarrow B$.

Then $f$ is monotone if $a \leq a^{\prime}$ implies $f(a) \leq f\left(a^{\prime}\right)$.

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$[A \rightarrow B]$ is the set of all continuous functions from $A$ to $B$

## Complete partial orders

If $\langle A, \leq\rangle$ and $\langle B, \leq\rangle$ are cpos then:

- The product $A \times B$ is a cpo with

$$
\langle a, b\rangle \leq\left\langle a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right\rangle \text { iff } a \leq a^{\prime} \text { and } b \leq b^{\prime}
$$

- The function space $[A \rightarrow B]$ is a cpo with

$$
f \leq g \text { iff } \forall a . f(a) \leq g(a)
$$

## Continuous functions

Lemma
A function $f: A \times B \rightarrow C$ is continuous iff it is continuous wrt both arguments, i.e. all functions of the form dla. $f(a, b)$ and $\lambda>b . f(a, b)$ are continuous.

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Step 2: Therefore $\sup X=\left\langle\sup X_{1}, \sup X_{2}\right\rangle=\left\langle a_{0}, b_{0}\right\rangle$. We show that $\left\langle f\left(a_{0}\right), f\left(b_{0}\right)\right\rangle$ is the supremum of $f(X)$.

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Fix $b_{0}$, to get $c \geq \sup _{\mathrm{a}} f\left(a, b_{0}\right)=f\left(a_{0}, b_{0}\right)$.

## Continuous functions

## Lemma

The application App: $[A \rightarrow B] \times A \rightarrow B$ is continuous.
Proof: Uses the previous lemma.

Lemma
The abstraction $A b s:[(A \times B) \rightarrow C] \rightarrow[A \rightarrow[B \rightarrow C]]$, given by $\operatorname{Abs}(F)(a)(b)=F(a, b)$, is continuous.

## Reflexive сро

The cpo $D$ is reflexive iff there are continuous functions
$F: D \rightarrow[D \rightarrow D]$ and $G:[D \rightarrow D] \rightarrow D$,

$$
\text { with } F \circ G=\operatorname{id}_{[D \rightarrow D]} \text {. }
$$

## Reflexive cpo

The cpo $D$ is reflexive iff there are continuous functions $F: D \rightarrow[D \rightarrow D]$ and $G:[D \rightarrow D] \rightarrow D$, with $F \circ G=\operatorname{id}_{[D \rightarrow D]}$.

Then $F$ must be onto and $G$ is injective.

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Then $F$ must be onto and $G$ is injective.

The following are equivalent conditions:

$$
" G \circ F=\operatorname{id}_{D} ", \quad \text { " } G \text { onto", } \quad \text { " } F \text { injective". }
$$

Reflexive cpo

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Define application as $a \cdot b=F(a)(b)$ so that $G(f) \cdot a=f(a)$.
Define interpretation as

- $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{v}=v(x)$;
- $\llbracket P Q \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket P \rrbracket_{v} \cdot \llbracket Q \rrbracket_{v} ;$
- $\llbracket \lambda x . P \rrbracket_{v}=G\left(\lambda \mid a . \llbracket P \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}\right)$.


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Fact: This is a (well-defined) lambda interpretation.
(Use continuity of App and Abs.)

## Reflexive сро

Theorem
A reflexive cpo is a lambda-model.

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A reflexive cpo is a lambda-model.

## Proof.

Prove weak extensionality: let $\llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a=\llbracket \lambda x \cdot N \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a$, all $a$.
Note that $\llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{v} \cdot a=G\left(\lambda l a . \llbracket M \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}\right) \cdot a=\llbracket M \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}$, and thus $\lambda \mid a \cdot \llbracket M \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}=\lambda \lambda a \cdot \llbracket N \rrbracket_{v[x \mapsto a]}$. By the injectivity of $G$, it follows that $\llbracket \lambda x \cdot M \rrbracket_{v}=\llbracket \lambda x \cdot N \rrbracket_{v}$.

