## SNU 4541.574 Programming Language Theory

### Ack: BCP's slides

# Equivalence of Lambda Terms

#### **Representing Numbers**

We have seen how certain terms in the lambda-calculus can be used to represent natural numbers.

 $c_{0} = \lambda s. \lambda z. z$   $c_{1} = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z$   $c_{2} = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)$   $c_{3} = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))$ 

Other lambda-terms represent common operations on numbers:

 $scc = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$ 

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Other lambda-terms represent common operations on numbers:

 $scc = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)$ 

In what sense can we say this representation is "correct"? In particular, on what basis can we argue that scc on church numerals corresponds to ordinary successor on numbers?

#### The naive approach

One possibility:

For each *n*, the term scc  $c_n$  evaluates to  $c_{n+1}$ .

#### The naive approach... doesn't work

One possibility:

For each *n*, the term scc  $c_n$  evaluates to  $c_{n+1}$ . Unfortunately, this is false. E.g.:

 $scc c_2 = (\lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)) (\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z))$   $\longrightarrow \lambda s. \lambda z. s ((\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)) s z)$   $\neq \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))$  $= c_3$ 

#### A better approach

Recall the intuition behind the church numeral representation:

- a number n is represented as a term that "does something n times to something else"
- scc takes a term that "does something *n* times to something else" and returns a term that "does something *n* + 1 times to something else"

I.e., what we really care about is that  $scc c_2$  behaves the same as  $c_3$  when applied to two arguments.

$$scc c_2 v w = (\lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)) (\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)) v w$$
$$\longrightarrow (\lambda s. \lambda z. s ((\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)) s z)) v w$$
$$\longrightarrow (\lambda z. v ((\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)) v z)) w$$
$$\longrightarrow v ((\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)) v w)$$
$$\longrightarrow v ((\lambda z. v (v z)) w)$$
$$\longrightarrow v (v (v w))$$

$$c_3 \lor w = (\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))) \lor w$$
$$\longrightarrow (\lambda z. \lor (\lor (\lor z))) w$$
$$\longrightarrow \lor (\lor (\lor w)))$$

#### A general question

We have argued that, although  $scc c_2$  and  $c_3$  do not evaluate to the same thing, they are nevertheless "behaviorally equivalent."

What, precisely, does behavioral equivalence mean?

#### Intuition

Roughly,

"terms  ${\bf s}$  and  ${\bf t}$  are behaviorally equivalent"

should mean:

"there is no 'test' that distinguishes  ${\tt s}$  and  ${\tt t}$  — i.e., no way to put them in the same context and observe different results."

#### Intuition

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"terms s and t are behaviorally equivalent" should mean:

"there is no 'test' that distinguishes  ${\tt s}$  and  ${\tt t}$  — i.e., no way to put them in the same context and observe different results."

To make this precise, we need to be clear what we mean by a *testing context* and how we are going to *observe* the results of a test.

#### Examples

```
tru = \lambda t. \lambda f. t
tru' = \lambda t. \lambda f. (\lambda x.x) t
fls = \lambda t. \lambda f. f
omega = (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)
poisonpill = \lambda x. omega
placebo = \lambda x. tru
Y_f = (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))
```

Which of these are behaviorally equivalent?

#### Observational equivalence

As a first step toward defining behavioral equivalence, we can use the notion of *normalizability* to define a simple notion of *test*.

Two terms s and t are said to be *observationally equivalent* if either both are normalizable (i.e., they reach a normal form after a finite number of evaluation steps) or both diverge.

I.e., we "observe" a term's behavior simply by running it and seeing if it halts.

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Aside:

Is observational equivalence a decidable property?

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Aside:

- Is observational equivalence a decidable property?
- Does this mean the definition is ill-formed?

#### Examples

omega and tru are not observationally equivalent

#### Examples

- omega and tru are not observationally equivalent
- tru and fls are observationally equivalent

#### Behavioral Equivalence

This primitive notion of observation now gives us a way of "testing" terms for behavioral equivalence

Terms s and t are said to be *behaviorally equivalent* if, for every finite sequence of values  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ , ...,  $v_n$ , the applications

 $s v_1 v_2 \ldots v_n$ 

and

```
t v_1 v_2 \ldots v_n
```

are observationally equivalent.

#### Examples

These terms are behaviorally equivalent:

tru =  $\lambda t. \lambda f. t$ tru' =  $\lambda t. \lambda f. (\lambda x.x) t$ 

So are these:

omega =  $(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$  $Y_f = (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))$ 

These are not behaviorally equivalent (to each other, or to any of the terms above):

```
fls = \lambda t. \lambda f. f
poisonpill = \lambda x. omega
placebo = \lambda x. tru
```

Given terms s and t, how do we *prove* that they are (or are not) behaviorally equivalent?

To prove that s and t are *not* behaviorally equivalent, it suffices to find a sequence of values  $v_1 \dots v_n$  such that one of

 $s v_1 v_2 \ldots v_n$ 

and

#### t $v_1 v_2 \ldots v_n$

diverges, while the other reaches a normal form.

Example:

the single argument unit demonstrates that fls is not behaviorally equivalent to poisonpill:

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{fls unit} \\ = (\lambda t. \ \lambda f. \ f) \ \text{unit} \\ \xrightarrow{}^* \lambda f. \ f \end{array}$ 

poisonpill unit diverges

Example:

the argument sequence (λx. x) poisonpill (λx. x) demonstrate that tru is not behaviorally equivalent to fls:

> tru  $(\lambda x. x)$  poisonpill  $(\lambda x. x)$  $\longrightarrow^* (\lambda x. x) (\lambda x. x)$  $\longrightarrow^* \lambda x. x$

fls  $(\lambda x. x)$  poisonpill  $(\lambda x. x)$  $\longrightarrow^*$  poisonpill  $(\lambda x. x)$ , which diverges

To prove that s and t *are* behaviorally equivalent, we have to work harder: we must show that, for *every* sequence of values  $v_1 \dots v_n$ , either both

 $s v_1 v_2 \ldots v_n$ 

and

t  $v_1$   $v_2$  ...  $v_n$ 

diverge, or else both reach a normal form.

How can we do this?

A general proof technique (so-called *bisimulation*) is beyond the scope of this course. But, in some cases, we can find simple proofs. *Theorem:* These terms are behaviorally equivalent:

tru =  $\lambda t. \lambda f. t$ tru' =  $\lambda t. \lambda f. (\lambda x.x) t$ 

*Proof:* Consider an arbitrary sequence of values  $v_1 \dots v_n$ .

- For the case where the sequence has just one element (i.e., n = 1), note that both tru v<sub>1</sub> and tru' v<sub>1</sub> reach normal forms after one reduction step.
- ► For the case where the sequence has more than one element (i.e., n > 1), note that both tru v<sub>1</sub> v<sub>2</sub> v<sub>3</sub> ... v<sub>n</sub> and tru' v<sub>1</sub> v<sub>2</sub> v<sub>3</sub> ... v<sub>n</sub> reduce (in two steps) to v<sub>1</sub> v<sub>3</sub> ... v<sub>n</sub>. So either both normalize or both diverge.

Theorem: These terms are behaviorally equivalent:

omega =  $(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$  $Y_f = (\lambda x. f (x x)) (\lambda x. f (x x))$ 

Proof: Both

omega  $v_1 \ldots v_n$ 

and

 $Y_f v_1 \dots v_n$ 

diverge, for every sequence of arguments  $v_1 \dots v_n$ .

Inductive Proofs about the Lambda Calculus

#### Two induction principles

Like before, we have two ways to prove that properties are true of the untyped lambda calculus.

- Structural induction on terms
- Induction on a derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ .

Let's look at an example of each.

#### Structural induction on terms

To show that a property  $\mathcal P$  holds for all lambda-terms  ${\tt t},$  it suffices to show that

- *P* holds when t is a variable;
- ▶ P holds when t is a lambda-abstraction λx. t<sub>1</sub>, assuming that P holds for the immediate subterm t<sub>1</sub>; and
- P holds when t is an application t<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub>, assuming that P holds for the immediate subterms t<sub>1</sub> and t<sub>2</sub>.

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N.b.: The variant of this principle where "immediate subterm" is replaced by "arbitrary subterm" is also valid. (Cf. *ordinary induction* vs. *complete induction* on the natural numbers.)

#### An example of structural induction on terms

Define the set of *free variables* in a lambda-term as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} FV(\mathtt{x}) = \{\mathtt{x}\} \\ FV(\lambda\mathtt{x}.\mathtt{t}_1) = FV(\mathtt{t}_1) \setminus \{\mathtt{x}\} \\ FV(\mathtt{t}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2) = FV(\mathtt{t}_1) \cup FV(\mathtt{t}_2) \end{array}$$

Define the size of a lambda-term as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{size}(\mathtt{x}) = 1 \\ & \operatorname{size}(\lambda\mathtt{x}, \mathtt{t}_1) = \operatorname{size}(\mathtt{t}_1) + 1 \\ & \operatorname{size}(\mathtt{t}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2) = \operatorname{size}(\mathtt{t}_1) + \operatorname{size}(\mathtt{t}_2) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem:  $|FV(t)| \leq size(t)$ .

#### An example of structural induction on terms

Theorem:  $|FV(t)| \leq size(t)$ .

Proof: By induction on the structure of t.

• If t is a variable, then |FV(t)| = 1 = size(t).

▶ If t is an abstraction  $\lambda x$ .  $t_1$ , then |FV(t)|  $= |FV(t_1) \setminus \{x\}|$  by defn  $\leq |FV(t_1)|$  by arithmetic  $\leq size(t_1)$  by induction hypothesis  $\leq size(t_1) + 1$  by arithmetic = size(t) by defn.

#### An example of structural induction on terms

Theorem: |FV(t)| < size(t).

*Proof:* By induction on the structure of t.

 $\blacktriangleright$  If t is an application t<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub>, then |FV(t)| $= |FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2)|$  $< max(|FV(t_1)|, |FV(t_2)|)$  by arithmetic  $< max(size(t_1), size(t_2))$  $\leq |size(t_1)| + |size(t_2)|$  $\leq |size(t_1)| + |size(t_2)| + 1$ = size(t)

by defn by IH and arithmetic by arithmetic by arithmetic by defn.

#### Induction on derivations

Recall that the reduction relation is defined as the smallest binary relation on terms satisfying the following rules:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{t}_{12}) & \mathbf{v}_2 \longrightarrow [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{v}_2] \mathbf{t}_{12} & (\text{E-APPABS}) \\ \\ & \frac{\mathbf{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathbf{t}_1'}{\mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{t}_1' \ \mathbf{t}_2} & (\text{E-APP1}) \\ \\ & \frac{\mathbf{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{t}_2'}{\mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2'} & (\text{E-APP2}) \end{array}$$

#### Induction on derivations

Induction principle for the small-step evaluation relation.

To show that a property  $\mathcal P$  holds for all derivations of  $t\longrightarrow t',$  it suffices to show that

- $\blacktriangleright$   $\mathcal{P}$  holds for all derivations that use the rule E-AppAbs;
- P holds for all derivations that end with a use of E-App1 assuming that P holds for all subderivations; and
- P holds for all derivations that end with a use of E-App2 assuming that P holds for all subderivations.

#### Example

Theorem: if  $t \longrightarrow t'$  then  $FV(t) \supseteq FV(t')$ .

#### Induction on derivations

We must prove, for all derivations of  $t \longrightarrow t'$ , that  $FV(t) \supseteq FV(t')$ .

There are three cases.

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If the derivation of t → t' is just a use of E-AppAbs, then t is (λx.t<sub>1</sub>)v and t' is [x |→v]t<sub>1</sub>. Reason as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} FV(\texttt{t}) &= FV((\lambda\texttt{x}.\texttt{t}_1)\texttt{v}) \\ &= FV(\texttt{t}_1)/\{\texttt{x}\} \cup FV(\texttt{v}) \\ &\supseteq FV(\texttt{[x} | \rightarrow \texttt{v}\texttt{]t}_1) \\ &= FV(\texttt{t}') \end{array}$$

If the derivation ends with a use of E-App1, then t has the form t<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub> and t' has the form t<sub>1</sub>' t<sub>2</sub>, and we have a subderivation of t<sub>1</sub> → t<sub>1</sub>'

By the induction hypothesis,  $FV(t_1) \supseteq FV(t'_1)$ . Now calculate:

$$FV(t) = FV(t_1 t_2)$$
  
= FV(t\_1) \cup FV(t\_2)  
\ge FV(t\_1') \cup FV(t\_2)  
= FV(t\_1' t\_2)  
= FV(t')

If the derivation ends with a use of E-App1, then t has the form t<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub> and t' has the form t'<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub>, and we have a subderivation of t<sub>1</sub> → t'<sub>1</sub>

By the induction hypothesis,  $FV(t_1) \supseteq FV(t'_1)$ . Now calculate:

$$FV(t) = FV(t_1 t_2)$$
  
=  $FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2)$   
 $\supseteq FV(t'_1) \cup FV(t_2)$   
=  $FV(t'_1 t_2)$   
=  $FV(t'_1 t_2)$ 

If the derivation ends with a use of E-App2, the argument is similar to the previous case.