# 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. \quad \lambda z. \quad z
c_1 = \lambda s. \quad \lambda z. \quad s \quad z
c_2 = \lambda s. \quad \lambda z. \quad s \quad (s \quad z)
c_3 = \lambda s. \quad \lambda z. \quad s \quad (s \quad (s \quad z))
```

Other lambda-terms represent common operations on numbers:

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

# 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:

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

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.:

```
\begin{array}{rclcrcl} & \text{scc } c_2 & = & (\lambda \text{n. } \lambda \text{s. } \lambda \text{z. s (n s z))} & (\lambda \text{s. } \lambda \text{z. s (s z))} \\ & \longrightarrow & \lambda \text{s. } \lambda \text{z. s ((} \lambda \text{s. } \lambda \text{z. s (s z))} & \text{s z)} \\ & \neq & \lambda \text{s. } \lambda \text{z. s (s (s z))} \\ & = & c_3 \end{array}
```

# 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"
- ightharpoonup 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<sub>2</sub> 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)
```

$$c_3 \vee w = (\lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))) \vee w$$

 $\longrightarrow V (V (V W))$ 

#### 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 s and t are behaviorally equivalent"

#### should mean:

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

#### Intuition

#### Roughly,

"terms s and t are behaviorally equivalent"

#### should mean:

"there is no 'test' that distinguishes s and 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

```
 \begin{array}{l} \operatorname{tru} = \lambda \mathsf{t}. \ \lambda \mathsf{f}. \ \mathsf{t} \\ \operatorname{tru}' = \lambda \mathsf{t}. \ \lambda \mathsf{f}. \ (\lambda \mathsf{x}.\mathsf{x}) \ \mathsf{t} \\ \operatorname{fls} = \lambda \mathsf{t}. \ \lambda \mathsf{f}. \ \mathsf{f} \\ \operatorname{omega} = (\lambda \mathsf{x}. \ \mathsf{x} \ \mathsf{x}) \ (\lambda \mathsf{x}. \ \mathsf{x} \ \mathsf{x}) \\ \operatorname{poisonpill} = \lambda \mathsf{x}. \ \operatorname{omega} \\ \operatorname{placebo} = \lambda \mathsf{x}. \ \operatorname{tru} \\ Y_f = (\lambda \mathsf{x}. \ \mathsf{f} \ (\mathsf{x} \ \mathsf{x})) \ (\lambda \mathsf{x}. \ \mathsf{f} \ (\mathsf{x} \ \mathsf{x})) \\ \end{array}
```

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.

#### 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.

#### Aside:

Is observational equivalence a decidable property?

#### 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.

#### 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

and

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  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ , the applications

$$v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$$
 $v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$ 

are observationally equivalent.

#### **Examples**

These terms are behaviorally equivalent:

```
tru = \lambdat. \lambdaf. t
tru' = \lambdat. \lambdaf. (\lambdax.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 = \lambdat. \lambdaf. f
poisonpill = \lambdax. omega
placebo = \lambdax. 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  $v_1 ldots v_n$  such that one of

$$s v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$$

and

$$t v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$$

diverges, while the other reaches a normal form.

#### Example:

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

```
fls unit
= (\lambda t. \lambda f. f) \text{ unit}
\longrightarrow^* \lambda f. f
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^* \text{poisonpill } (\lambda x. x), \text{ 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

$$s v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$$

and

$$t v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$$

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 = \lambdat. \lambdaf. t
tru' = \lambdat. \lambdaf. (\lambdax.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 v₁ and tru' v₁ 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 v₁ v₂ v₃ ... vn and tru' v₁ v₂ v₃ ... vn reduce (in two steps) to v₁ v₃ ... vn. 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 
$$v_1 \dots v_n$$

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  $\mathbf{t}$ , it suffices to show that

- P holds when t is a variable;
- ▶  $\mathcal{P}$  holds when  $\mathbf{t}$  is a lambda-abstraction  $\lambda \mathbf{x}$ .  $\mathbf{t}_1$ , assuming that  $\mathcal{P}$  holds for the immediate subterm  $\mathbf{t}_1$ ; 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>.

#### Structural induction on terms

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

- P holds when t is a variable;
- ▶  $\mathcal{P}$  holds when  $\mathbf{t}$  is a lambda-abstraction  $\lambda \mathbf{x}$ .  $\mathbf{t}_1$ , assuming that  $\mathcal{P}$  holds for the immediate subterm  $\mathbf{t}_1$ ; 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>.

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:

$$FV(x) = \{x\}$$

$$FV(\lambda x. t_1) = FV(t_1) \setminus \{x\}$$

$$FV(t_1 t_2) = FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2)$$

Define the size of a lambda-term as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \textit{size}(\textbf{x}) = 1 \\ & \textit{size}(\lambda \textbf{x}. \textbf{t}_1) = \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_1) + 1 \\ & \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_1 \ \textbf{t}_2) = \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_1) + \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_2) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

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

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

```
If t is an application t_1 t_2, then |FV(t)|
= |FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2)| \qquad \text{by defn}
\leq \max(|FV(t_1)|, |FV(t_2)|) \qquad \text{by arithmetic}
\leq \max(size(t_1), size(t_2)) \qquad \text{by IH and arithmetic}
\leq |size(t_1)| + |size(t_2)| \qquad \text{by arithmetic}
\leq |size(t_1)| + |size(t_2)| + 1 \qquad \text{by arithmetic}
= size(t) \qquad \text{by defn.}
```

#### Induction on derivations

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

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\lambda \mathtt{x.t_{12}}) & \mathtt{v_2} \longrightarrow [\mathtt{x} \mapsto \mathtt{v_2}]\mathtt{t_{12}} & & (\text{E-AppAbs}) \\ \\ & \frac{\mathtt{t_1} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t_1'}}{\mathtt{t_1} & \mathtt{t_2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t_1'} & \mathtt{t_2}} & & \\ \\ & \frac{\mathtt{t_2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t_2'}}{\mathtt{v_1} & \mathtt{t_2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{v_1} & \mathtt{t_2'}} & & (\text{E-App2}) \end{array}$$

#### 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

- 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.

#### Induction on derivations

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

There are three cases.

▶ If the derivation of  $t \longrightarrow t'$  is just a use of E-AppAbs, then t is  $(\lambda x.t_1)v$  and t' is  $[x] \longrightarrow v]t_1$ . Reason as follows:

$$FV(t) = FV((\lambda x.t_1)v)$$

$$= FV(t_1)/\{x\} \cup FV(v)$$

$$\supseteq FV([x|\rightarrow v]t_1)$$

$$= FV(t')$$

▶ If the derivation ends with a use of E-App1, then t has the form  $t_1$   $t_2$  and t' has the form  $t_1'$   $t_2$ , and we have a subderivation of  $t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'$ 

By the induction hypothesis,  $FV(t_1) \supseteq FV(t_1')$ . Now calculate:

FV(t) = FV(t<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub>)  
= FV(t<sub>1</sub>) 
$$\cup$$
 FV(t<sub>2</sub>)  
 $\supseteq$  FV(t'<sub>1</sub>)  $\cup$  FV(t<sub>2</sub>)  
= FV(t'<sub>1</sub> t<sub>2</sub>)  
= FV(t')

▶ If the derivation ends with a use of E-App1, then t has the form  $t_1$   $t_2$  and t' has the form  $t_1'$   $t_2$ , and we have a subderivation of  $t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'$ 

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

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

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