

Consistency of a Programming Logic for a Version of PCF Using Domain Theory

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A Core Functional Programming Language

Plotkin's PCF language



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LCF CONSIDERED AS A PROGRAMMING LANGUAGE

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Communicated by Robin Milner
Received July 1975

PCF Features [Plotkin 1977]

- Typed λ -calculus

Starting with a collection \mathcal{L} of constants, each having a fixed type, and denumerably many variables α_i^σ ($i \geq 0$) of each type, the \mathcal{L} -terms are given by the rules:

- (1) Every variable α_i^σ is an \mathcal{L} -term of type σ .
- (2) Every constant of type σ is an \mathcal{L} -term of type σ .
- (3) If M and N are \mathcal{L} -terms of types $(\sigma \rightarrow \tau)$ and σ respectively then (MN) is an \mathcal{L} -term of type τ .
- (4) If M is an \mathcal{L} -term of type τ then $(\lambda \alpha_i^\sigma M)$ is one of type $(\sigma \rightarrow \tau)$ ($i \geq 0$).

PCF Features [Plotkin 1977]

- Basic data types: Natural numbers and Booleans

All languages, \mathcal{L} , considered include \mathcal{L}_0 , the set of *standard* constants. These, together with their types, are:

$tt : o,$

$ff : o,$

$\supset_\iota : (o, \iota, \iota, \iota),$

$\supset_o : (o, o, o, o),$

$Y_\sigma : ((\sigma \rightarrow \sigma) \rightarrow \sigma)$ (one for each σ).

Generally we will be interested in a language \mathcal{L}_A for arithmetic which also has:

$k_n : \iota$ (one for each integer $n \geq 0$),

$(+1) : (\iota \rightarrow \iota),$

$(-1) : (\iota \rightarrow \iota),$

$Z : (\iota \rightarrow o).$

A Programming Logic

Logical Theory of Constructions (LTC)

[Bove, Dybjer and Sicard-Ramírez 2009]

LTC = type-free version of PCF

(terms, conversion and discrimination rules)

+ first-order logic

+ inductive predicates (not considered in this talk)

LTC-Terms

Terms

$t ::= x$	variable
$t \cdot t$	application
$\lambda x. t$	λ -abstraction
$\text{fix } x. t$	fixed-point operator
true false if	Boolean constants
0 succ pred iszero	natural number constants

Convention

The binary application function symbol \cdot is left-associative.

LTC-Formulae

Formulae

$A ::= \top \mid \perp$	truth, falsehood
$\mid A \Rightarrow A \mid A \wedge A \mid A \vee A$	binary logical connectives
$\mid \forall x.A \mid \exists x.A$	quantifiers
$\mid t = t$	equality
$\mid P(t, \dots, t)$	predicate

Abbreviations

$$\neg A \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} A \Rightarrow \perp,$$
$$t \neq t' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg(t = t').$$

Conversion and Discrimination Rules of LTC

Conversion rules

$$\forall t\ t'. \text{if} \cdot \text{true} \cdot t \cdot t' = t,$$

$$\forall t\ t'. \text{if} \cdot \text{false} \cdot t \cdot t' = t',$$

$$\text{pred} \cdot 0 = 0,$$

$$\forall t. \text{pred} \cdot (\text{succ} \cdot t) = t,$$

$$\text{iszero} \cdot 0 = \text{true},$$

$$\forall t. \text{iszero} \cdot (\text{succ} \cdot t) = \text{false},$$

$$\forall t\ t'. (\lambda x. t) \cdot t' = t[x := t'],$$

$$\forall t. \text{fix } x. t = t[x := \text{fix } x. t],$$

where $t[x := t']$ is the capture-free substitution of x for t' in t .

Conversion and Discrimination Rules of LTC

Discrimination rules

$\text{true} \neq \text{false},$
 $\forall t. 0 \neq \text{succ} \cdot t.$

LTC Consistency

How we know that LTC is a consistent theory?

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Standard answer: To build a model for LTC
[Chang and Keisler 1992, theorem 1.3.21.]

LTC Consistency

How we know that LTC is a consistent theory?

Standard answer: To build a model for LTC
[Chang and Keisler 1992, theorem 1.3.21.]
⇒ domain model for LTC

Introduction to Domain Theory

Motivation: Does λ -calculus have models?



"Historically my first model for the λ -calculus was discovered in 1969 and details were provided in Scott (1972) (written in 1971)." [Scott 1980, p. 226.]

Introduction to Domain Theory

Non-standard definitions

pre-domain, domain, complete partial order (cpo), ω -cpo, bottomless ω -cpo, Scott's domain, ...

Convention

domain \equiv ω -complete partial order

Introduction to Domain Theory

Some bibliographic references

- Winskel, G. [1993] [1994]. The Formal Semantics of Programming Languages. An Introduction. Foundations of Computing Series. Second printing. MIT Press.

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Partially Ordered Sets

Definition (Partially ordered set)

A partially ordered set (poset) (D, \sqsubseteq) is a set D on which the binary relation \sqsubseteq satisfies the following properties:

$$\forall x. x \sqsubseteq x$$

(reflexive)

$$\forall x \ y \ z. x \sqsubseteq y \wedge y \sqsubseteq z \Rightarrow x \sqsubseteq z$$

(transitive)

$$\forall x \ y. x \sqsubseteq y \wedge y \sqsubseteq x \Rightarrow x = y$$

(antisymmetry)

Partially Ordered Sets

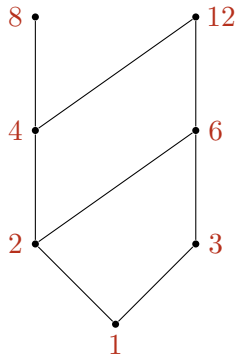
Examples

- (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is a poset.
- Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. The divisibility relation is defined by $a \mid b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \exists c (ac = b)$.
Then (\mathbb{Z}^+, \mid) is a poset.
- $(P(A), \subseteq)$ is a poset.

Partially Ordered Sets

Example

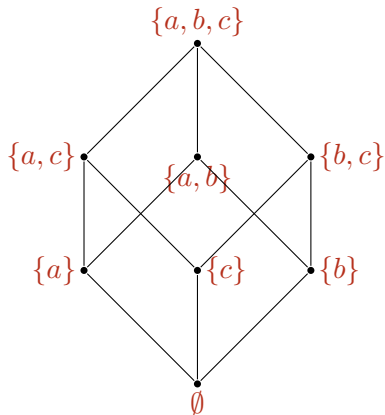
Hasse diagram for the poset $(\{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12\}, |)$.



Partially Ordered Sets

Example

Hasse diagram for the poset $(\{a, b, c\}, \subseteq)$.



Monotone Functions

Definition (Monotone function)

Let (D, \sqsubseteq) and (D', \sqsubseteq') be two posets. A function $f : D \rightarrow D'$ is monotone if

$$\forall x \ y. x \sqsubseteq y \Rightarrow f(x) \sqsubseteq' f(y).$$

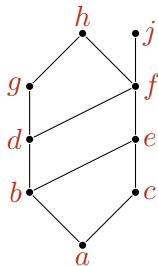
Notable Elements

Definition (Upper bound)

Let (D, \sqsubseteq) be a poset and let $A \subseteq D$. Let $u \in D$ be an element such that $a \sqsubseteq u$ for all elements $a \in A$, then u is an upper bound of A .

Examples

- $A = \{a, b, c\}$
Upper bounds: $\{e, f, j, h\}$
- $A = \{j, h\}$
No upper bounds.
- $A = \{a, c, d, f\}$
Upper bounds: $\{f, h, j\}$



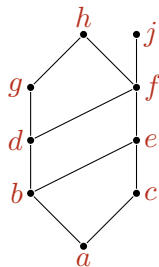
Notable Elements

Definition (Supremum or least upper bound)

An element x is the supremum or the least upper bound of the subset A , denoted by $\bigcup A$, if x is an upper bound that is less than every other upper bound of A .

Example

- $A = \{b, d, g\}$
Upper bounds: $\{g, h\}$
 $\bigcup A = g$



ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (ω -chain)

Let $\mathbf{D} = (D, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset. A ω -chain of \mathbf{D} is an increasing chain $d_0 \sqsubseteq d_1 \sqsubseteq \cdots \sqsubseteq d_n \sqsubseteq \cdots$, where $d_i \in D$.

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (ω -complete partial order)

Let $\mathbf{D} = (D, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset. The poset \mathbf{D} is a ω -complete partial order (ω -cpo) if [Plotkin 1992]

- 1 There is a least element $\perp \in D$, that is, $\forall x. \perp \sqsubseteq x$. The element \perp is called *bottom*.
- 2 For every ω -chain $d_0 \sqsubseteq d_1 \sqsubseteq \dots \sqsubseteq d_n \sqsubseteq \dots$, the least upper bound $\bigcup_{n \in \omega} d_n \in D$ exists.

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (Lifted set)

Let A be a set. The symbol A_{\perp} denotes the ω -cpo whose elements $A \cup \{\perp\}$ are ordered by $x \sqsubseteq y$, if and only if, $x = \perp$ or $x = y$ [Mitchell 1996]. The ω -cpo A_{\perp} is called A lifted.

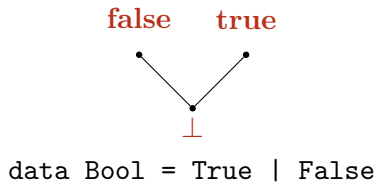
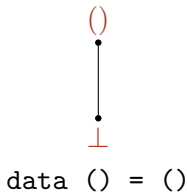
ω -Complete Partial Orders

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Examples

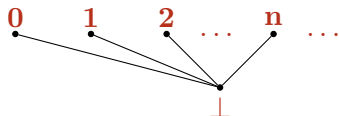
The lifted unit type and the lifted Booleans \mathbf{B}_{\perp} .



ω -Complete Partial Orders

Example

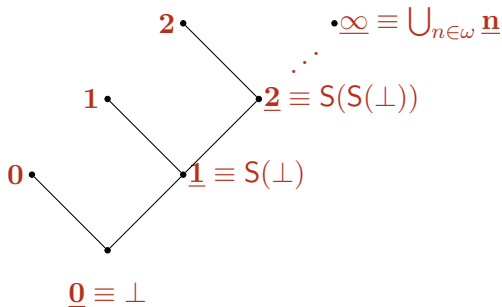
The lifted natural numbers \mathbf{N}_\perp .



ω -Complete Partial Orders

Example

The ω -cpo **LN** of lazy natural numbers arises from a non-strict successor function, that is, $S(\perp) \neq \perp$ [Escardó 1993]



```
data Nat = Z
         | S Nat
```

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (Continuous function)

Let (D, \sqsubseteq) and (D', \sqsubseteq') be two ω -cpo's. A function $f : D \rightarrow D'$ is continuous if [Plotkin 1992]

- 1 The function is monotone.
- 2 The function preserves the least upper bounds of the ω -chains, that is,

$$\bigcup_{n \in \omega} f(d_n) = f\left(\bigcup_{n \in \omega} d_n\right),$$

for all ω -chains $d_0 \sqsubseteq d_1 \sqsubseteq \cdots \sqsubseteq d_n \sqsubseteq \cdots$.

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (Function space of continuous functions)

Let (D, \sqsubseteq) and (D', \sqsubseteq') be two ω -cpos. The function space of continuous functions is the set [Winskel 1994]

$$[D \rightarrow D'] = \{f : D \rightarrow D' \mid f \text{ is continuous} \}.$$

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (Function space of continuous functions)

Let (D, \sqsubseteq) and (D', \sqsubseteq') be two ω -cpo. The function space of continuous functions is the set [Winskel 1994]

$$[D \rightarrow D'] = \{f : D \rightarrow D' \mid f \text{ is continuous} \}.$$

Theorem

The function space $[D \rightarrow D']$ is an ω -cpo.

- $[D \rightarrow D']$ can be partially ordered point-wise by

$$f \sqsubseteq g \Leftrightarrow \forall d \in D. f(d) \sqsubseteq' g(d).$$

- The bottom element is $\lambda x. \perp_{D'}$.

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition

Let $f : D \rightarrow D$ be a function, then

$$\begin{aligned}f^0(d) &= d, \\f^{n+1}(d) &= f(f^n(d)).\end{aligned}$$

Theorem (The Fixed-Point Theorem)

Let (D, \sqsubseteq) be an ω -cpo. Given $f \in [D \rightarrow D]$, then

$$\text{Fix}(f) = \bigcup_{n \in \omega} f^n(\perp),$$

is the least fixed-point of f [Winskel 1994], that is,

$$\begin{aligned}\forall d. f(d) \sqsubseteq d &\Rightarrow \text{Fix}(f) \sqsubseteq d, \\f(\text{Fix}(f)) &= \text{Fix}(f).\end{aligned}$$

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Definition (Coalesced sum)

Let $\mathbf{D}_1 = (D_1, \sqsubseteq_1), \dots, \mathbf{D}_n = (D_n, \sqsubseteq_n)$ be ω -cpo's. The coalesced sum, that is, disjoint union with bottom elements identified $\mathbf{D}_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbf{D}_n$ is the ω -cpo [Plotkin 1992]

$$\left(\bigcup_{i \leq n} \{(i, d) \mid d \in D_i \wedge d \neq \perp\} \right) \cup \perp$$

with the order

$$x \sqsubseteq y \Leftrightarrow x = \perp \text{ or}$$

$$\exists i \leq n. \exists d, d' \in D_i. d \sqsubseteq_i d' \wedge x = (i, d) \wedge y = (i, d').$$

ω -Complete Partial Orders

Associated with the coalesced sum are the injection functions

$$\begin{aligned} in_i &: \mathbf{D}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{D}_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbf{D}_n \\ in_i(d) &= \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } d = \perp, \\ (i, d) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Domain Model for LTC

Terms: The term language of LTC

From domain theory it is known that a domain model for **Terms**, where self-application is allowed and where the terms will have values in the Booleans or the lazy natural numbers is a solution to the recursive domain equation [Plotkin 1992]

$$\mathbf{D} \cong \mathbf{B}_{\perp} \oplus \mathbf{LN} \oplus (\mathbf{D} \rightarrow \mathbf{D})_{\perp}.$$

Domain Model for LTC

Notation

Let \mathbf{D} be a domain and let ρ be a valuation on \mathbf{D} (a function from the set of variables to \mathbf{D}).

- $\rho(x \mapsto \mathbf{d})$: the valuation which maps x to \mathbf{d} and otherwise acts like ρ .
- $\lambda \mathbf{x}.e$: λ -abstraction on \mathbf{D} .

Domain Model for LTC

Convention

D: A solution to the recursive domain equation for LTC.

From terms to functions and viceverse

The domain **D** comes equipped with the continuous functions [Barendregt 2004]

$$F : \mathbf{D} \rightarrow [\mathbf{D} \rightarrow \mathbf{D}],$$

$$G : [\mathbf{D} \rightarrow \mathbf{D}] \rightarrow \mathbf{D}.$$

Domain Model for LTC

Interpretation function

$\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_\rho : \text{Terms} \rightarrow \mathbf{D}$: (Based on Pitts [1994])

$$\begin{aligned}\llbracket x \rrbracket_\rho &= \rho(x), & \llbracket \text{false} \rrbracket_\rho &= \mathbf{false}, \\ \llbracket \lambda x. t \rrbracket_\rho &= G(\lambda \mathbf{d}. \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho(x \mapsto \mathbf{d})}), & \llbracket \text{if} \rrbracket_\rho &= G(\mathbf{if}), \\ \llbracket t \cdot t' \rrbracket_\rho &= \begin{cases} \mathbf{f}(\llbracket t' \rrbracket_\rho) & \text{if } \llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho = G(\mathbf{f}), \\ \perp & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} & \llbracket 0 \rrbracket_\rho &= \mathbf{0}, \\ \llbracket \text{fix } x. t \rrbracket_\rho &= \text{Fix}(\lambda \mathbf{d}. \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho(x \mapsto \mathbf{d})}), & \llbracket \text{succ} \rrbracket_\rho &= G(\mathbf{succ}), \\ \llbracket \text{true} \rrbracket_\rho &= \mathbf{true}, & \llbracket \text{pred} \rrbracket_\rho &= G(\mathbf{pred}), \\ & & \llbracket \text{iszero} \rrbracket_\rho &= G(\mathbf{iszero}),\end{aligned}$$

where

Domain Model for LTC

we omit the use of the injection functions in_i , and the continuous functions **if**, **succ**, **pred** and **iszero** from **D** to **D** are defined by

$$\mathbf{if}(d) = \begin{cases} \lambda xy.x & \text{if } d = \mathbf{true}, \\ \lambda xy.y & \text{if } d = \mathbf{false}, \\ \perp & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{succ}(d) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{1} & \text{if } d = \mathbf{n} \in \mathbf{LN}, \\ \underline{\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{1}} & \text{if } d = \underline{\mathbf{n}} \in \mathbf{LN}, \\ \perp & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

Domain Model for LTC

$$\mathbf{pred}(d) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{0} & \text{if } d = \mathbf{0}, \\ d' & \text{if } d = \mathbf{succ}(d'), \\ \perp & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{iszero}(d) = \begin{cases} \mathbf{true} & \text{if } d = \mathbf{0}, \\ \mathbf{false} & \text{if } d = \mathbf{succ}(d'), \\ \perp & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Domain Model for LTC

If the LTC equality is interpreted as the equality in **D**, it is possible to verify that the conversion and discrimination rules of LTC are satisfied in **D**.

Bonus Slides

Monotone Functions

Example (Counter-example of monotone function)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{halt} : \mathbf{N}_\perp &\rightarrow \mathbf{B}_\perp \\ \text{halt}(n) &= \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } n \neq \perp, \\ \text{false} & \text{if } n = \perp. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Let $n \in \mathbf{N}_\perp$. Since $\perp \sqsubseteq n$, and not necessarily $\text{halt}(\perp) \sqsubseteq \text{halt}(n)$, that is, **false** $\not\sqsubseteq$ **true**, the **halt** function is non-monotone [Schmidt 1986].

Continuous Functions

Example (Monotone but non-continuous function¹)

$$f : [\text{Bool}] \rightarrow \text{Bool}$$
$$f(xs) = \begin{cases} \perp & \text{if } xs \text{ is finite,} \\ \text{False} & \text{if } xs = [\text{False}, \text{False}, \dots], \\ \text{True} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Given $d_0 = []$, $d_1 = [\text{False}]$, $d_2 = [\text{False}, \text{False}]$, \dots , we have

$$\bigcup_{n \in \omega} f(d_n) = \perp \neq \text{False} = f([\text{False}, \text{False}, \dots]) = f\left(\bigcup_{n \in \omega} d_n\right),$$

that is, the function f is non-continuous.

¹[http:](http://www.reddit.com/r/types/comments/1ahfh7/intuition_behind_continuity_in_winskels/)

[//www.reddit.com/r/types/comments/1ahfh7/intuition_behind_continuity_in_winskels/](http://www.reddit.com/r/types/comments/1ahfh7/intuition_behind_continuity_in_winskels/).

Complete Partial Orders

Definition (Directed set)

Let $\mathbf{D} = (D, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset. A subset $X \subseteq D$ is **directed** if $X \neq \emptyset$ and

$$\forall x \ y \in X. \exists z \in X. x \sqsubseteq z \wedge y \sqsubseteq z.$$

Definition (Complete partial order)

Let $\mathbf{D} = (D, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset. The poset \mathbf{D} is a complete partial order (cpo) if [Barendregt 2004]






- 1 There is a least element $\perp \in D$, that is, $\forall x. \perp \sqsubseteq x$. The element \perp is called *bottom*.
- 2 For every directed $X \subseteq D$, the least upper bound $\bigcup X \in D$ exists.

Complete Partial Orders






Note

The Scott domains are built from complete partial orders. See, for example, Gunter and Scott [1990].




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