

Lecture Notes

LMFI Master 2

Proofs and Programs: Part 2

Denotational Semantics

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Disclaimer: these notes have been taken by students and lightly revised by the teacher. They are not intended to substitute textbooks or papers. They are mostly intended to give an account of what has been done in class, with the main definitions. They are not complete, and probably not even sound. We apologize for mistakes, errors, typos, etc.

1 The λ -Calculus

Given a countable set of variables \mathcal{V} , terms and contexts are defined by induction as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{TERMS } t, u ::= x \in \mathcal{V} \mid \lambda x.t \mid tu \\ \text{CONTEXTS } C ::= \langle \rangle \mid \lambda x.C \mid Ct \mid tC \end{array}$$

Free and *bound variables* are defined as usual: $\lambda x.t$ binds x in t . Terms are considered modulo α -equivalence. Capture-avoiding (meta-level) substitution of u for all the free occurrences of x in t is written $t\{x/u\}$.

2 Denotational semantics

We define a semantics map which interprets lambda terms as $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket : \Lambda \rightarrow D$ where Λ is the set of lambda terms and D is some set of interpretations. We would like to interpret certain lambda terms as actual set-theoretic functions. For example, in a term tu , we would like to interpret $\llbracket t \rrbracket \in D \rightarrow D$ and $\llbracket u \rrbracket \in D$, but also $\llbracket t \rrbracket \in D$. However, no set satisfies $D = D^D$, for example by a cardinality argument $|D^D| \geq 2^{|D|} > |D|$. We introduce some typing to solve that problem.

3 Simple types

$$\text{TYPES } A, B ::= o \mid A \rightarrow B$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash u : A}{\Gamma \vdash tu : A} \text{T-@} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma, x : A \vdash x : A} \text{T-VAR} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash t : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x.t : A \rightarrow B} \text{T-}\lambda$$

Simple types have strong normalisation, but weak expressivity, for example, if we use Church numerals, we can only encode extended polynomials (polynomials and if-then-else). We can still define semantics for them, as follows.

We first define interpretations of types. Fix some set O , and define the following by induction on types.

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket o \rrbracket &= O \\ \llbracket A \rightarrow B \rrbracket &= \llbracket A \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket B \rrbracket \end{aligned}$$

where $\llbracket A \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket B \rrbracket$ is the set of (set-theoretic) functions from $\llbracket A \rrbracket$ to $\llbracket B \rrbracket$.

We can then define, $D = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} D_i$ with $(D_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ defined inductively by:

$$\begin{aligned} D_0 &= O \\ D_{i+1} &= D_i \cup D_i^{D_i} \end{aligned}$$

We now finally define interpretation of terms by induction on the complexity of the term. Given a function $\rho : \text{Var} \rightarrow D$ defining the interpretation of free variables, and thus acting as an environment, we define the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket x \rrbracket_\rho &= \rho(x) \\ \llbracket \lambda x.t : A \rightarrow B \rrbracket_\rho &= \begin{cases} f : \llbracket A \rrbracket \rightarrow \llbracket B \rrbracket \\ f(a) = \llbracket t : B \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow a] = \rho \cup \{(x, a)\}} \end{cases} \\ \llbracket tu \rrbracket &= \llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho(\llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho) \end{aligned}$$

Example 3.1. $\llbracket \lambda x.x \rrbracket_\rho = f$ where f is the function defined by $f(a) = \llbracket x \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow a] = a}$, which is indeed the set-theoretic identity function.

Types are preserved by reduction:

Theorem 3.2 (Subject Reduction). *If $t \rightarrow u$ and $\Gamma \vdash t : A$, then $\Gamma \vdash u : A$.*

We would like to obtain a similar result with expansion instead of reduction, but we have the problem that expanded forms of a term may not be typable in this type system, for example, $(\lambda x \lambda y.y)\Omega$ is not strongly normalisable (since Ω is not) so it's not typable, but it can reduce to $\rightarrow \lambda y.y$ which is typable.

Example 3.3. We still have a major issue in the expressivity of the type system: we can only give one type to a term. This leads to seemingly innocent, normalising terms that are not typable. For example: $(\lambda x.xx)I \rightarrow II \rightarrow I$, but $(\lambda x.xx)$ is not typable since it would require x to have type A and $A \rightarrow B$ simultaneously. This motivates 'intersection types' whereby a term can have multiple types.

4 Strict Intersection Types

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{TYPES } A ::= a \mid I \rightarrow A \\ \text{INTERSECTIONS } I ::= \{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \quad n \geq 0 \\ \text{GENERIC TYPES } G ::= A \mid I \\ \hline \frac{A \in I}{\Gamma, x : I \vdash x : A} \text{ T-VAR} \qquad \frac{[\Gamma \vdash t : A_i]_{i \in F}}{\Gamma \vdash t : \{A_i\}_{i \in F}} \text{ T-MANY} \\ \hline \frac{\Gamma, x : I \vdash t : A}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x.t : I \rightarrow A} \text{ T-}\lambda \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : I \rightarrow A \quad \Gamma \vdash u : I}{\Gamma \vdash u : A} \text{ T-}\@ \end{array}$$

The system is syntax-directed, meaning that given a judgment $\Gamma \vdash t : G$, there is a unique way to have possibly obtained the judgment which is clear from the syntax. If $G = I$, the last rule must have been T-MANY, otherwise, if $t = \lambda x.t'$, the last rule must have been T- λ , if $t = x$, the last rule must have been T-VAR, and finally, if $t = uv$, the last rule must have been T- $\@$.

Remark 4.1. Given a proof (type inference) π , we indicate that π ends with the judgment J by writing $\pi \triangleright J$.

Intersection types also provide weakening, that is, if we have $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash t : A$, then we can also form $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \Delta \vdash t : A$ by simply ‘inserting’ Δ everywhere in the proof. This can be easily proved by induction on the structure of π .

Theorem 4.2 (Subject reduction (SR)). *If $\Gamma \vdash t : A$ and $t \rightarrow u$, then $\Gamma \vdash u : A$.*

Proof. By induction on evaluation contexts, using the following substitution lemma to handle the base case. \square

Lemma 4.3 (Substitution lemma). *If $\Gamma, x : I \vdash t : G$ and $\Gamma \vdash u : I$, then $\Gamma \vdash t\{x \leftarrow u\} : G$.*

Proof. The proof goes by induction on type derivations $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash t : A$. \square

Theorem 4.4 (Subject expansion (SE)). *If $\Gamma \vdash u : A$ and $t \rightarrow u$, then $\Gamma \vdash t : A$.*

Lemma 4.5 (Antisubstitution lemma). *If $\Gamma \vdash t\{x \leftarrow u\} : G$, then, there exists an intersection type I such that $\Gamma, x : I \vdash t : G$ and $\Gamma \vdash u : I$.*

Proof. Again by induction on $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash t\{x \leftarrow u\}$ with one interesting case, that of $t = y \neq x$. In this case, we can type y , but not x . The solution is to choose $I = \emptyset$. So given

$$\frac{A \in J}{\Gamma, y : J \vdash y : A} \text{T-VAR}$$

We get $I = \emptyset$, $\Gamma \vdash u : \emptyset$, and $\Gamma, x : \emptyset, y : J \vdash y : A$. \square

The key idea behind this and other uses of the empty type is that the empty type is the type of terms that are erased during evaluation. For example, we can type $(\lambda y.x)\Omega$ without having any type for Ω , by giving $\Omega : \emptyset$, and erasing it during the reduction $(\lambda y.x)\Omega \rightarrow x$.

Proposition 4.6. *If t is in head-normal-form (HNF), then there exists Γ, A, π such that $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash t : A$. In other words, any HNF is typable with some type in some environment.*

Recall: t is in HNF when it is of the form $\lambda x_1 \dots \lambda x_n. y t_1 \dots t_m$ with y free or one of x_i for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $n, m \geq 0$ (possibly also 0).

Proof. Since t_1, \dots, t_m may not actually be typable, the idea is to give them types \emptyset and give y the type a . If y is free, add $y : a$ to the environment and you get:

$$y : a \vdash t : \emptyset^n \rightarrow a.$$

If $y = x_i$, then keep the environment empty and give to t the type:

$$\vdash t : \emptyset^{i-1} \rightarrow (\emptyset^m \rightarrow a) \rightarrow \emptyset^{n-i} \rightarrow a.$$

Note, the exponent here does not mean a product type, but rather what would be the curried version of that type. So $f : A^3 \rightarrow B$ actually means $f : A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B))$. \square

Theorem 4.7 (Completeness theorem). *If $\text{HN}(t)$ (t is head-normalising), then, $\exists \pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash t : A$.*

Proof. If $\text{HN}(t)$, then there exists h in HNF such that $t \rightarrow h$. So there is Γ, A, π , such that $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash h : A$. By induction on the length of the reduction and by the 1-step subject expansion, we get that $\Gamma \vdash t : A$. \square

The goal now is to prove the converse, namely, $\Gamma \vdash t : A \implies \text{HN}(t)$. This is done via techniques of the theme of reducibility (Tait / Girard), realisability, and logical relations.

Definition 4.8 (\models – logical relation – semantic entailment).

(i) $\vDash t : a$ iff $\text{HN}(t)$.

(ii) $\vDash t : I \rightarrow A$ iff for each u such that $\Gamma \vDash u$, we have $\vDash tu : A$

(iii) $\vDash t : \{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$ iff $\forall i, \vDash t : A_i$.

We can extend this by Γ on the left of \vDash as follows: $\{x_1 : I_1, \dots, x_n : I_n\} \vDash t : G$ if and only if, for all u_i such that $\vDash u_i : I_i$, we have $\vDash t\{x_i \leftarrow u_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow u_n\} : G$

Goal: $\vdash t : A \implies \vDash t : A \implies \text{HN}(t)$.

Lemma 4.9 (Neutral terms). *For all G , $\vDash xt_1 \dots t_n : G$.*

Proof. By induction on G .

- For $G = a$, $xt_1 \dots t_n$ is in HNF; therefore, $\vDash xt_1 \dots t_n : a$.
- For $G = I \rightarrow A$, let u be such that $\vDash u : I$, then consider $xt_1 \dots t_n u$. Because the induction is on the type, not on the number n of terms, we can apply the induction hypothesis with $A \leq I \rightarrow A$ and obtain that $\vDash xt_1 \dots t_n u : A$; therefore, $xt_1 \dots t_n : I \rightarrow A$.
- For $G = \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$, by induction hypothesis, we have $\vDash xt_1 \dots t_n : A_i$ for all $i : 1 \rightarrow m$; therefore, $\vDash t : G$.

□

Proposition 4.10. $\vDash t : A \implies \text{HN}(t)$.

Proof. By induction on A .

- $\vDash t : a \implies \text{HN}(t)$ by definition.
- $\vDash t : I \rightarrow A \implies \forall u$ such that $\vDash u : I, \text{HN}(tu)$. Pick u to be any neutral term u_0 (see lemma above), and you get $\text{HN}(tu_0)$; therefore, $\text{HN}(t)$.

□

Remark 4.11. We used here the standard fact that $\text{HN}(tu) \implies \text{HN}(u)$ without proof.

Lemma 4.12. *If $t \rightarrow u$ and $\vDash u : A$, then $\vDash t : A$.*

Proof. By induction A .

- $\vDash u : a \implies \text{HN}(u) \implies \text{HN}(t) \implies \vDash t : a$.
- $\vDash u : I \rightarrow A$ implies that for all v such that $\vDash v : I$, we have $\vDash uv : A$. However, $tv \rightarrow uv$; therefore, by induction hypothesis, $\vDash tv : A$. Finally, this was for any v with $\vDash v : I$, so, $\vDash t : I \rightarrow A$.

□

Lemma 4.13 (Fundamental lemma). $\Gamma \vdash t : G \implies \Gamma \vDash t : G$

Proof. By induction on $\pi \triangleright \Gamma \vdash t : G$.

□

Proposition 4.14. *If $\Gamma \vDash t : A$ for some Γ , then $\vDash t : A$.*

Proof. x_i are neutral terms, so $\vDash x_i : I_i$. Applying the definition of \vDash extended to Γ with $u_i = x_i$, we have $\vDash t\{x_1 \leftarrow x_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow x_n\} : A$, so $\vDash t : A$. □

This last proposition allows us to conclude that $\Gamma \vdash t : G$ implies $\Gamma \vDash t : G$ which implies $\vDash t : G$, finally implying $\text{HN}(t)$.

5 λ -models

The goal of this section is to construct models of λ -calculus that somehow express interpretation in a mathematical way (e.g. set-theoretic functions). There are many definitions possible including the syntactical and the categorical definitions which are roughly equivalent modulo some choice in the axioms which are not settled yet in the community. We will use the following syntactical definition.

Definition 5.1 (Applicative structure / magma). An applicative structure (or magma in algebra) is a tuple (S, \cdot) where S is a set and $\cdot : S \rightarrow S \rightarrow S$ is a binary operation on S .

Definition 5.2 (λ -model). A λ -model is a tuple $(D, \cdot, \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{(\cdot)})$ where (D, \cdot) is an applicative structure and $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{(\cdot)} : \Lambda \rightarrow (Var \rightarrow D) \rightarrow D$ is an interpretation function such that the following hold:

1. $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{\rho} = \rho(x)$.
2. $\llbracket tu \rrbracket_{\rho} = \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho} \cdot \llbracket u \rrbracket_{\rho}$
3. $\llbracket \lambda x.t \rrbracket_{\rho} \cdot d = \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow d]}$
4. $\llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho} = \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho'}$ if $\forall x \in FV(t), \rho(x) = \rho'(x)$. In other words, the interpretation of a term depends only on the interpretation of the free variables in the environment.
5. $(\forall d \in D, \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow d]} = \llbracket u \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow d]}) \implies \llbracket \lambda x.t \rrbracket_{\rho} = \llbracket \lambda x.u \rrbracket_{\rho}$

This definition is due to Hindley and Longo in 1980.

Definition 5.3 (Term model). We define here the **term model** of λ -calculus, which interprets terms as themselves, modulo β -equivalence. Formally, it's the tuple $(D, \cdot, \llbracket \cdot \rrbracket_{(\cdot)})$ such that:

- $D = \{[t] \mid t \text{ is a } \lambda\text{-term}\}$ where $[t] = \{u \mid t =_{\beta} u\}$ is the equivalence class of t modulo β -equivalence.
- $[t] \cdot [u] = [tu]$
- $\llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho} = [t\{x_1 \leftarrow u_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow u_n\}]$ with
 - For all $i, \rho(x_i) = [u_i]$
 - $FV(t) = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$.

Proposition 5.4. *The term model is a λ -model.*

Proof. We need to check the properties 1 through 5.

1. If $\rho(x) = [u]$, then $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{\rho} = [x\{x \leftarrow u\}] = [u] = \rho(x)$
2. If $FV(t) = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, and $FV(u) = \{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$ with $\rho(x_i) = [u_i]$ and $\rho(y_i) = [v_i]$ for every appropriate i , then,

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho} \cdot \llbracket u \rrbracket_{\rho} &= [t\{x_1 \leftarrow u_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow u_n\}u\{y_1 \leftarrow v_1, \dots, y_m \leftarrow v_m\}] \\ &= [(tu)\{x_1 \leftarrow u_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow u_n, y_1 \leftarrow v_1, \dots, y_m \leftarrow v_m\}] \\ &= \llbracket tu \rrbracket_{\rho} \end{aligned}$$

3. $\forall d \in D, \exists u \in \Lambda$, such that $d = [u]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \lambda x.t \rrbracket_{\rho} \cdot d &= \llbracket \lambda x.t \rrbracket_{\rho} \cdot [u] \\ &= [\lambda x.t\{x_1 \leftarrow u_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow u_n\}u] \\ &= \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow u]} \end{aligned}$$

4. Let $\text{FV}(t) = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, and ρ, ρ' be two environments such that $\forall i, \rho(x_i) = \rho'(x_i) = [u_i]$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho &= [t\{x_1 \leftarrow u_1, \dots, x_n \leftarrow u_n\}] \\ \llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho &= \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho'} \end{aligned}$$

5. □

Proposition 5.5. For any context C , $\llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho \implies \llbracket C\langle t \rangle \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket C\langle u \rangle \rrbracket_\rho$

Proof. By induction on contexts

Case $C = \langle \rangle$ $C\langle t \rangle = t$ so this follows by hypothesis.

Case $C = C'r$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket C'\langle t \rangle r \rrbracket_\rho &= \llbracket C'\langle t \rangle \rrbracket_\rho \cdot \llbracket r \rrbracket_\rho \\ &= \llbracket C'\langle u \rangle \rrbracket_\rho \cdot \llbracket r \rrbracket_\rho \\ &= \llbracket C'\langle u \rangle r \rrbracket_\rho \end{aligned}$$

Case $C = rC'$

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket rC'\langle t \rangle \rrbracket_\rho &= \llbracket r \rrbracket_\rho \cdot \llbracket C'\langle t \rangle \rrbracket_\rho \\ &= \llbracket r \rrbracket_\rho \cdot \llbracket C'\langle u \rangle \rrbracket_\rho \\ &= \llbracket rC'\langle u \rangle \rrbracket_\rho \end{aligned}$$

Case $C = \lambda x.C'$ This follows by property 5 and the induction hypothesis. □

Lemma 5.6. $\llbracket t\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]}$

Proof. By induction on t .

Case $t = x$

$$\llbracket x\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket x \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]}$$

Case $t = y \neq x$ We can assume by α -renaming, that x does not occur free in u . Then, we can write the following:

$$\llbracket y\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket y \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket y \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]}$$

Case $t = \lambda y.r$ By the induction hypothesis, we have $\llbracket r\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket r \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]}$. We can also assume that x does not occur free in u so that:

$$\llbracket r\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket r\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]}$$

This is for any ρ , in particular, for any $d \in D$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket r\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho][y \leftarrow d]} &= \llbracket r \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho][y \leftarrow d]} \\ \llbracket \lambda y.r\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]} &= \llbracket \lambda y.r \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]} \\ \llbracket (\lambda y.r)\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]} &= \llbracket \lambda y.r \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]} \\ \llbracket (\lambda y.r)\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho &= \llbracket \lambda y.r \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow [u]_\rho]} \end{aligned}$$

Case $t = rs$

$$\begin{aligned}
\llbracket rs\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho &= \llbracket r\{x \leftarrow u\}s\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho \\
&= \llbracket r\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho \llbracket s\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho \\
&= \llbracket r \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho]} \llbracket s \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho]} \\
&= \llbracket rs \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho]}
\end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 5.7. $\forall \rho$, if $t \rightarrow u$, then, $\llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho = \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho$.

Proof. By induction on contexts with the special base case of

$$\begin{aligned}
\llbracket (\lambda x.t)u \rrbracket_\rho &= \llbracket \lambda x.t \rrbracket_\rho \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho \\
&= \llbracket t \rrbracket_{\rho[x \leftarrow \llbracket u \rrbracket_\rho]} \\
&= \llbracket t\{x \leftarrow u\} \rrbracket_\rho
\end{aligned}$$

□

5.1 Engeler's model

The term model we have seen so far interprets terms as equivalence classes of terms, so it does not fully capture the notion of interpretation in a ‘mathematical way’. Other models can do this better, and one of those models is Engeler’s model, which is an instance of a graph model.

Definition 5.8 (Engeler’s model). We give a presentation of Engeler’s model based on intersection types. Let \mathbb{A} be the set of atomic types A (so no intersection types). Engeler’s model is then defined by:

- $D = \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{A})$.
- $d \cdot e = \{A : \exists I \subseteq_f e, (I \rightarrow A) \in d\}$. Mimics the application rule on types: $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : I \rightarrow A \quad \Gamma \vdash u : I}{\Gamma \vdash tu : A}$ T-@
- $\llbracket t \rrbracket_\rho = \{A \in \mathbb{A} : \Gamma \vdash t : A \text{ if } \rho \vDash \Gamma\}$

where $\rho \vDash \Gamma$ if and only if $\Gamma(x) \subseteq \rho(x)$ for each $x \in \mathcal{V}$.

Theorem 5.9. *Engeler’s model is a λ -model.*