Reducibility method: an overview

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Key notions

λ -calculus vs Intuitionistic logic

- Curry–Howard correspondence
- computational content of logic

Reducibility method

- simple and intersection types
- polymorphic types

Logical relations

- λ-calculus
- programming languages

- 1) λ -calculus vs Intuitionistic logic
 - Intuitionistic logic
 - λ-calculus
- **2** Types in λ -calculus
 - Simple types
 - Curry–Howard paradigm
 - Intersection types
- 3 Reducibility
 - Simple and Intersection types
 - Polymorphic types
 - Classical logic
- 4 Logical relations
 - Theory
 - Application

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Logical systems: Axiomatic, Natural Deduction, Sequent

Three most well-known kinds of proof calculi are:

- Axiomatic (Hilbert) system:
 - axioms (e.g. $A \rightarrow A$)
 - Modus Ponens

$$\frac{A \to B}{B}$$

- Natural Deduction:
 - axioms
 - elimination rules (MP)
 - introduction rules
- Sequent Calculus:
 - axioms
 - left introduction rules correspond to elimination rules
 - oright introduction rules correspond to introduction rules
 - cut rule

Paradise of logical systems

From theory

- classical logic: propositional and predicate
- intuitionistic logic: propositional and predicate
- intermediate logic
- substructural logics: relevance, affine, linear logic
- modal logics: possibility and necessity
- probabilistic logics
- temporal logic:
- fuzzy logic
- paraconsistent logic

to practice and application

- programming languages
- model checking
- interactive proof assistance, theorem proving
- hardware and software verification

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Axiomatic (Hilbert style) system

Intuitionistic Logic

Brouwer, Heyting, Kolomgorov - algorithmic interpretation of connectives

Axioms (implicational fragment)

$$\begin{array}{l} (Ax1) \ A \rightarrow A \\ (Ax2) \ A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A) \\ (Ax3) \ (A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)) \end{array}$$

Rule

$$\frac{A \to B \quad A}{B}$$

Not provable

- $A \vee \neg A$, law of excluded middle (tertium non datur)
- $\circ \; ((A
 ightarrow B)
 ightarrow A)
 ightarrow A$, Peirce's law
- $\neg \neg A \rightarrow A$, double negation elimination

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Natural Deduction

Intuitionistic Logic

Gentzen, Prawitz 1960s

Axiom

$$\overline{\Gamma, A \vdash A}$$

Rules

$$(o_{\it elim})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \to B \qquad \Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash B}$$

$$(\rightarrow_{intr})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \to B}$$

The syntax

λ -terms are expressions divided into three categories:

- 1. variables: $x, y, z, z_1, ...$
 - free or bound
- 2. application: MN
 - function application, "apply M to N"
- 3. abstraction: $\lambda x.M$
 - function generation by binding a variable thus creating the parameter of the function, like integrals, universal quantification.

Definition

Λ is built up from an infinite set of variables $V = \{x, y, z, x_1...\}$:

- $\circ x \in V \Rightarrow x \in \Lambda$
- $0 M, N \in \Lambda \Rightarrow (MN) \in \Lambda$
- $M \in \Lambda, x \in V \Rightarrow (\lambda x.M) \in \Lambda$

$$\Lambda: M ::= x \mid MM \mid \lambda x.M$$

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Reduction rules

Reduction rules are used for term simplifying (or executing):

$$(\lambda xy.addxy)\underline{3}\underline{4} \longrightarrow \underline{7}$$

- There are three reductions (redex and contractum):
 - 1 α -reduction (renaming)

$$\lambda x.M \longrightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda y.M[x := y], \ y \notin FV(M)$$

2 β -reduction (computation)

$$(\lambda x.M)N \longrightarrow_{\beta} M[x:=N]$$

provided that $M, N \in \Lambda$ and M[x := N] is valid substitution.

3 η -reduction (extensionality)

$$\lambda x.(Mx) \longrightarrow_n M, x \notin FV(M)$$

This rule identifies two functions that always produce equal results if taking equal arguments.

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• Generalized reductions enable application of rules on the sub-terms.

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Important properties - normalisation

- Normal form, NF, is a completely evaluated λ -term
 - $\lambda x.x \equiv I$, $\lambda xy.x \equiv K$, $\lambda xyz.xz(yz) \equiv S$
 - $\lambda x.xx \equiv \Delta$
- Terms without NF:
 - $\Omega \equiv (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) \rightarrow \Omega \rightarrow \dots$
 - $Y \equiv \lambda f.(\lambda x. f(xx))(\lambda x. f(xx))$
- A term is strongly normalising, SN, if all reduction sequences starting from it are finite
- The characterisation of the SN set is an important problem for programming languages (the way to avoid Halting problem), and its solution has been found in the typed λ -calculus.

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Important properties - expressiveness

Theorem

(Kleene, 1936.) All computable (recursive) functions can be represented by λ -calculus.

- Representation of significant number of objects and data structures
- inefficiency in the representation of all objects and data structures.

Simplicity, expressive power, universality!

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Types

- Disadvantages of the untyped λ -calculus:
 - there exist λ -terms without a normal form:
 - o it is allowed to create meaningless applications, like sin log
- \circ Types are syntactical objects that can be assigned to λ -terms.
- Intuitively, a type denotes the domain of a function
- Two typing approaches:
 - à la Curry implicit type assignment (lambda calculus with type assignment)
 - à la Church explicit type assignment (typed lambda calculus)



Simple types

T:
$$A ::= p \mid A \rightarrow A \mid A \cap A$$

Type assignment $\Lambda : T$

- t : A is a **type assignment**, where $t \in \Lambda$ and $A \in \mathbf{T}$.
- x : A is a basic type assignment (declaration)
- $\Gamma = \{x_1 : A_1, x_n : A_n\}$, a **basis** is a set of basic type assignments with different term variables.
- Γ ⊢ t : A

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λ -calculus with simple types

$$(axiom) \qquad \overline{\Gamma, x : A \vdash x : A}$$

$$(\rightarrow_{elim}) (app) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A \rightarrow B \qquad \Gamma \vdash s : A}{\Gamma \vdash ts : B}$$

$$(\rightarrow_{intr}) (abs) \qquad \frac{\Gamma, x : A \vdash t : B}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x . t : A \rightarrow B}$$

Theorem

If M is typeable in $\lambda \to$, then $M \in SN$.

 $\lambda x.x:A\to A$

 $\lambda xy.x: A \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$

Not typeable NF: $\lambda x.xx!!!$

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Natural Deduction NJ - λ -calculus

$$(axiom) \qquad \qquad \overline{\Gamma, \quad A \vdash A}$$

$$(\rightarrow_{elim}) \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash B}$$

$$(\rightarrow_{intr}) \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma, \quad A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B}$$

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$$\vdash A \Leftrightarrow \vdash t : A$$

Core of computation

- normalisation over proofs

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Computational interpretations of intuitionistic logic

- 1950s Curry
- 1968 (1980) Howard formulae-as-types
- 1970s Lambek CCC Cartesian Closed Categories
- 1970s de Bruijn AUTOMATH

logic vs term calculus

$$\vdash A \Leftrightarrow \vdash t : A$$

Curry - Howard - Lambek - de Bruijn correspondence Curry-Howard paradigm:

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λ -calculus with intersection types

Coppo and Dezani, Pottinger, Sallé in the 1970s

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A \qquad \Gamma \vdash t : B}{\Gamma \vdash t : A \cap B}$$

$$(\cap_{elim}) \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A \cap B}{\Gamma \vdash t : A}$$

Theorem

M is typeable in $\lambda \cap$ iff $M \in SN$.

$$\lambda x.xx:(A\rightarrow B)\cap A\rightarrow B$$

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- Barendregt's cube consists of 8 calculi:
 - \circ $\lambda \rightarrow$, $\lambda 2$, $\lambda \omega$, $\lambda \underline{\omega}$,
 - λP , $\lambda P2$, $\lambda P\omega$, $\lambda P\underline{\omega}$.
- recursive types
- intersection types
- \circ variants of λ -calculus: λLJ , $\overline{\lambda}$, λ^{Gtz} , $\lambda_{\mathbb{R}}$...

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Reducibility method - <u>History</u>

Reducibility: a technique for proving SN of systems with simple types, intersection types...

Properties:

- Terms typeable in simply typed λ -calculus ($\lambda \rightarrow$) are SN 1967 Tait
- Terms typeable in polymorphic λ -calculus (system F or λ 2) are SN 1971 J.-Y. Girard - candidats de réductibilité 1971 J. Reynolds - Forsythe
- Terms typeable in λ -calculus with intersection types ($\lambda \cap$ or system D) are SN

1990 Krivine

1990s S. van Bakel, S.G., Amadio and Curien, among others

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Reducibility method for simple and intersection types

Theorem

Terms typeable in $\lambda \to \text{and } \lambda \cap \text{are } SN$

Reducibility based on:

type interpretation

$$[[p]] = SN \subset \Lambda,$$

 $[[A \to B]] = [[A]] \longrightarrow [[B]] = \{t | s \in [[A]] \text{ implies } ts \in [[B]]\}$
 $[[A \cap B]] = [[A]] \cap [[B]]$

term valuationS

$$\rho(x) \in \Lambda,$$

$$[[t]]_{\rho} = t[\rho(x_1)/x_1, \dots, \rho(x_n)/x_n]$$

- ∘ [[A]]⊆ *SN*
- (Soundness) $\vdash t : A \text{ then } [[t]]_o \in [A]$
- (SN) By taking $\rho(x) = x$, we get $\vdash t : A$ implies $t \in [\![A]\!] \subseteq SN$

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Reducibility method for simple and intersection types

Suitable modifications of the reducibility method lead to uniform proofs of other fundamental reduction properties

- Normalisation, head normalisation, weak normalisation,...
- Standardisation theorem
- Confluence (Church–Rosser)

1985 R. Statman

1990s G. Koletsos, Y. Stavrinos

2000s S.G., S. Likavec, V.Kunčak

2000s M. Dezani, S.G., S. Likavec

2010s F. Kamareddine, V. Rahli, J. B. Wells

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Reducibility method for polymorphic types

Theorem

Terms typeable in polymorphic λ calculus (λ 2, system F) are SN

Reducibility based on type interpretationS

$$[[p]]_{\mathcal{E}} = \Xi \in SAT \ (\Xi \subseteq SN),$$

$$[\![A \to B]\!]_{\xi} = [\![A]\!]_{\xi} \longrightarrow [\![B]\!]_{\xi} = \{t | s \in [\![A]\!]_{\xi} \text{ implies } ts \in [\![B]\!]_{\xi}\}$$

term valuationS

$$\rho(x) \in \Lambda,$$

$$[[t]]_{\rho} = t[\rho(x_1)/x_1, \dots, \rho(x_n)/x_n]$$

- (Soundness) $\vdash t : A \text{ then } \llbracket [t] \rrbracket_{\rho} \in \llbracket A \rrbracket_{\epsilon}$
- (SN) By taking $\rho(x) = x$ and $\xi(p) = SN$ we get $\vdash t : A$ implies $t \in SN$

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Reducibility method for polymorphic types

Importance

- the statement can be formulated in first order Peano arithmetic
- o the proof cannot be formulated in first order Peano arithmetic

Meaningful Gödel sentence, 1970s J.-Y. Girard, J. Reynolds

Importance in computer science

- \circ Tait's method is a powerful proof technique frequently used for showing foundational properties of languages based on typed λ -calculi
- these proofs have been extremely difficult to formalize in proof assistants with weak meta-logics

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Reducibility method and classical logic

The reducibility method is not well suited to prove strong normalization for $\lambda\mu$ -calculus, the simply typed classical term calculus R. David, K. Nour (2005)

- The algorithmic interpretation of classical logic changes the focus of computation
- The "symmetric candidates" technique used to prove strong normalisation employs a fixed-point technique

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Logical relations - theory

Reducibility relates terms typeable in a certain type system (simple, intersection, polymorphic...) and terms satisfying certain reduction properties (strong normalisation, head normalisation ...).

- It can be represented by a unary predicate $P_{o}(t)$, which means that a term t typeable by α satisfies the property P.
- Types are interpreted as suitable sets of terms called saturated or stable sets.
- Soundness of the type assignment is obtained with respect to these interpretations.
- A consequence of soundness: every term typeable in the type system belongs to the interpretation of its type.
- This is an intermediate step between the terms typeable in the given type system and terms satisfying the considered property P.

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Logical relations - theory

Logical relations

- Method based on binary relations $R_{\alpha}(t, t')$, which relate terms t and t' typeable by the type α that satisfy the relation R.
- Types are then interpreted as admissible relations.

1985 R. Statman

1985 G. Koletsos

confluence (the Church-Rosser property) of $\beta\eta$ -reduction of the simply typed λ -calculus.

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Logical relations - application

Powerful tool in programming languages.

1996 J. Mitchell

2002 B. Pierce

Important applications:

- Observational equivalence: logical relations prove that terms obtained by optimisation are equivalent.
- Compiler correctness: logical relations are employed to relate the source and target language.
- Security information flow: logical relations prove that the system prevents high security data to leak in low security output.

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