

Preliminary Concepts (I)

Inductive Definitions, Structural Induction, and
Denotational Semantics

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Inductive Definitions

Inductive Definitions

- Inductive definition (induction) is widely used in the study of programming languages and computer science in general: e.g.,
 - The syntax and semantics of programming languages
 - Data structures (e.g., lists, trees, graphs)
- Induction is a technique for formally defining a set:
 - The set is defined in terms of itself.
 - The only way of defining an infinite set by a finite means.

Examples of Inductive Definitions

- Definition of linked lists:
 - The empty list is a linked list.
 - A single node followed by a linked list is a linked list
- Definition of binary trees
 - The empty tree is a binary tree.
 - A node with two children that are binary trees is a binary tree.

Inference Rules

- An inference rule is of the form:

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

- A : hypothesis (antecedent)
- B : conclusion (consequent)
- “if A is true then B is also true”.
- \overline{B} : axiom (inference rule without hypothesis)

The hypothesis may contain multiple statements:

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

“If both A and B are true then so is C ”.

Example

Suppose we want to define a set \mathcal{S} of natural numbers which are multiples of 3. The set \mathcal{S} is defined as inference rules as follows:

Definition (\mathcal{S})

$$\overline{0 \in \mathcal{S}} \quad \frac{n \in \mathcal{S}}{(n + 3) \in \mathcal{S}}$$

Interpret the rules as follows:

“A natural number n is in \mathcal{S} iff $n \in \mathcal{S}$ can be derived from the axiom by applying the inference rules finitely many times”

For example, $3 \in \mathcal{S}$ because we can find a “proof/derivation tree”:

$$\overline{0 \in \mathcal{S}} \text{ the axiom}$$
$$\frac{0 \in \mathcal{S}}{3 \in \mathcal{S}} \text{ the second rule}$$

but $1, 2, 4, \dots \notin \mathcal{S}$ because we cannot find proofs. Note that this interpretation enforces that \mathcal{S} is the smallest set closed under the inference rules.

Inference Rules

- What set is defined by the following inductive rules?

$$\overline{3} \quad \frac{x \quad y}{x + y}$$

- What set is defined by the following inductive rules?

$$\overline{()} \quad \frac{x}{(x)} \quad \frac{x \quad y}{xy}$$

Inference Rules

- Define the following set as rules of inference:

$$S = \{a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, aab, aba, abb, baa, bab, bba, bbb, \dots\}$$

- Define the following set as rules of inference:

$$S = \{a^n b^{n+1} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

Natural Numbers

The set of natural numbers:

$$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

is inductively defined:

$$\overline{0} \quad \frac{n}{n+1}$$

The inference rules can be expressed by a grammar:

$$n \rightarrow 0 \mid n + 1$$

Interpretation:

- 0 is a natural number.
- If n is a natural number then so is $n + 1$.

Strings

The set of strings over alphabet $\{a, \dots, z\}$, e.g., ϵ , a , b , \dots , z , aa , ab , \dots , az , ba , \dots , az , aaa , \dots , zzz , and so on. Inference rules:

$$\bar{\epsilon} \quad \frac{\alpha}{a\alpha} \quad \frac{\alpha}{b\alpha} \quad \dots \quad \frac{\alpha}{z\alpha}$$

or simply,

$$\bar{\epsilon} \quad \frac{\alpha}{x\alpha} \quad x \in \{a, \dots, z\}$$

In grammar:

$$\alpha \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \epsilon \\ | \\ x\alpha \end{array} \quad (x \in \{a, \dots, z\})$$

Boolean Values

The set of boolean values:

$$\mathbb{B} = \{true, false\}.$$

If a set is finite, just enumerate all of its elements by axioms:

$$\overline{true} \quad \overline{false}$$

In grammar:

$$b \rightarrow true \mid false$$

Lists

Examples of lists of integers:

- ① **nil**
- ② **14 · nil**
- ③ **3 · 14 · nil**
- ④ **−7 · 3 · 14 · nil**

Inference rules:

$$\overline{\mathbf{nil}} \quad \frac{l}{n \cdot l} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

In grammar:

$$l \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{nil} \\ | \\ n \cdot l \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}) \end{array}$$

Lists

A proof that $-7 \cdot 3 \cdot 14 \cdot \mathbf{nil}$ is a list of integers:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\overline{\mathbf{nil}}}{14 \cdot \mathbf{nil}} \quad 14 \in \mathbb{Z}}{3 \cdot 14 \cdot \mathbf{nil}} \quad 3 \in \mathbb{Z}}{-7 \cdot 3 \cdot 14 \cdot \mathbf{nil}} \quad -7 \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

The proof tree is also called *derivation tree* or *deduction tree*.

Binary Trees

Binary tree examples: 1 , $(1, \mathbf{nil})$, $(1, 2)$, $((1, 2), \mathbf{nil})$, $((1, 2), (3, 4))$.
 Inference rules:

$$\overline{n} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z} \qquad \frac{t}{(t, \mathbf{nil})} \qquad \frac{t}{(\mathbf{nil}, t)} \qquad \frac{t_1 \quad t_2}{(t_1, t_2)}$$

In grammar:

$$t \rightarrow n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z})$$

$$\begin{array}{l} | \\ | \\ | \end{array} \begin{array}{l} (t, \mathbf{nil}) \\ (\mathbf{nil}, t) \\ (t, t) \end{array}$$

A proof that $((1, 2), (3, \mathbf{nil}))$ is a binary tree:

$$\frac{\frac{\overline{1}}{(1, 2)} \quad \frac{\overline{2}}{(3, \mathbf{nil})}}{\overline{3} \quad ((1, 2), (3, \mathbf{nil}))}$$

Expressions

Expression examples: 2 , -2 , $1 + 2$, $1 + (2 * (-3))$, etc.

Inference rules:

$$\overline{n} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \frac{e}{-e} \quad \frac{e_1 \quad e_2}{e_1 + e_2} \quad \frac{e_1 \quad e_2}{e_1 * e_2} \quad \frac{e}{(e)}$$

In grammar:

$$e \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}) \\ -e \\ e + e \\ e * e \\ (e) \end{array}$$

Example:

$$\frac{\overline{1} \quad \frac{\overline{2} \quad \frac{\overline{3} \quad \overline{-3}}{-3}}{(2 * (-3))}}{1 + (2 * (-3))}$$

Structural Induction

Structural Induction

A technique for proving properties about inductively defined sets.

To prove that a proposition $P(s)$ is true for all structures s , prove the following:

- 1 (Base case) P is true on simple structures (those without substructures)
- 2 (Inductive case) If P is true on the substructures of s , then it is true on s itself. The assumption is called *induction hypothesis (I.H.)*.

Example

Let S be the set defined by the following inference rules:

$$\overline{\mathbf{3}} \quad \frac{x \quad y}{x + y}$$

Prove that for all $x \in S$, x is divisible by $\mathbf{3}$.

Proof. By structural induction.

- (Base case) The base case is when x is $\mathbf{3}$. Obviously, x is divisible by $\mathbf{3}$.
- (Inductive case) The induction hypothesis (I.H.) is

x is divisible by $\mathbf{3}$, y is divisible by $\mathbf{3}$.

Let $x = \mathbf{3}k_1$ and $y = \mathbf{3}k_2$. Using I.H., we derive

$x + y$ is divisible by $\mathbf{3}$

as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= \mathbf{3}k_1 + \mathbf{3}k_2 && \dots \text{ by I.H.} \\ &= \mathbf{3}(k_1 + k_2) \end{aligned}$$



Example

Let T be the set of binary trees:

$$\overline{\text{leaf}} \quad \frac{t_1 \quad t_2}{(n, t_1, t_2)} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Prove that for all such trees, the number of leaves is always one more than the number of internal nodes.

Proof. Restate the claim more formally:

$$\text{If } t \in T \text{ then } l(t) = i(t) + 1$$

where $l(t)$ and $i(t)$ denote the number of leaves and internal nodes, respectively:

$$\begin{array}{ll} l(\text{leaf}) = 1 & i(\text{leaf}) = 0 \\ l(n, t_1, t_2) = l(t_1) + l(t_2) & i(n, t_1, t_2) = i(t_1) + i(t_2) + 1 \end{array}$$

We prove it by structural induction:

- (Base case): The base case is when $t = \text{leaf}$, where $l(t) = 1$ and $i(t) = 0$.
- (Inductive case): The induction hypothesis:

$$l(t_1) = i(t_1) + 1, \quad l(t_2) = i(t_2) + 1$$

Using I.H., we prove $l((n, t_1, t_2)) = i((n, t_1, t_2)) + 1$:

$$\begin{array}{ll} l((n, t_1, t_2)) & = l(t_1) + l(t_2) & \text{definition of } l \\ & = i(t_1) + 1 + i(t_2) + 1 & \text{by induction hypothesis} \\ & = i(n, t_1, t_2) + 1 & \text{definition of } i \end{array}$$

From now on

See how to define a programming language

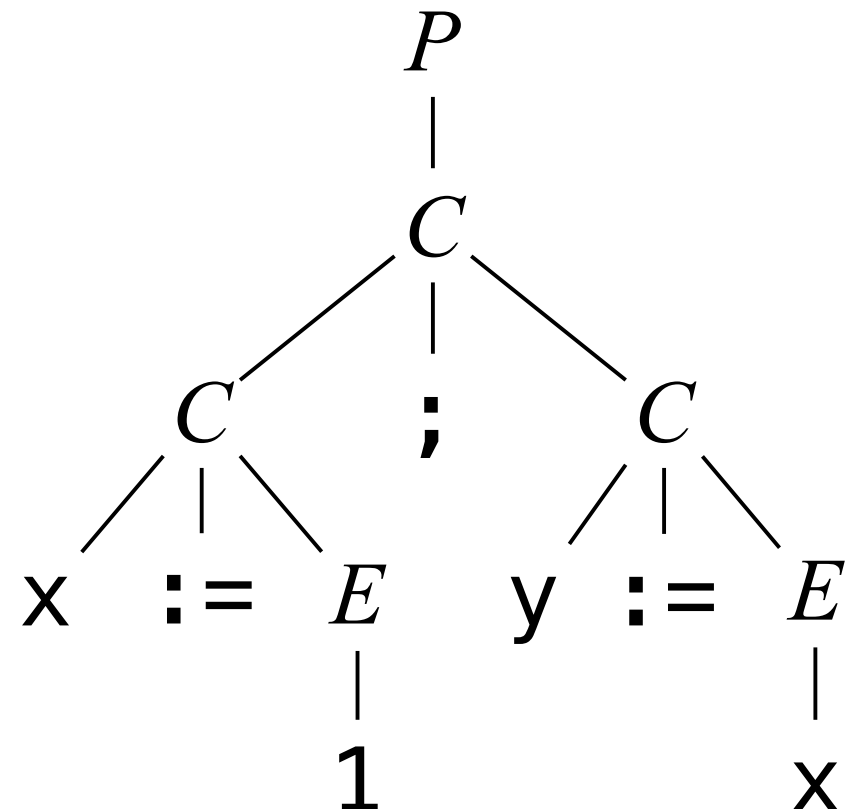
- A programming language = Syntax + Semantics
- Both are inductively defined.

Syntax

Syntax

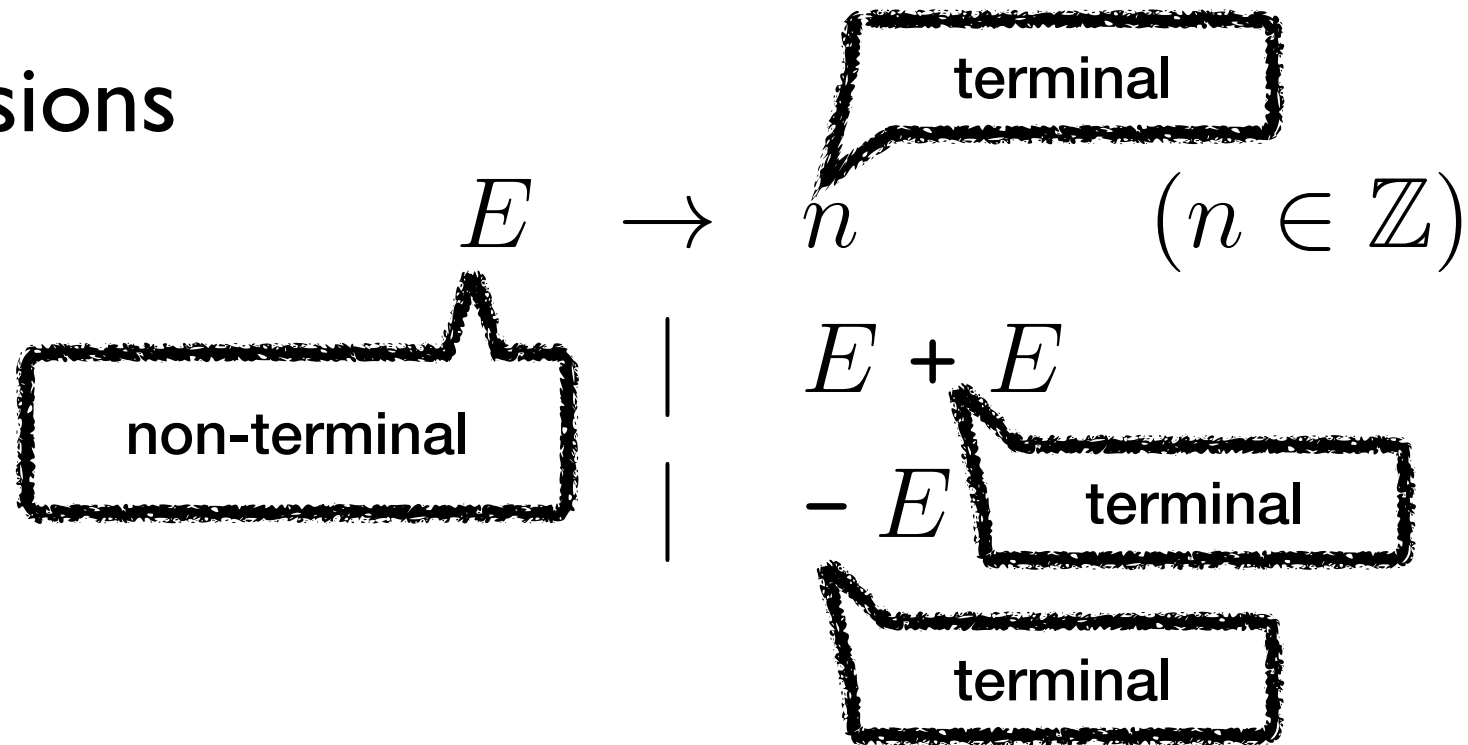
- A grammar specifying how programs should look like (grammatical structures)
- Parsing : constructing an abstract syntax tree from a text

`x := 1; y := x`

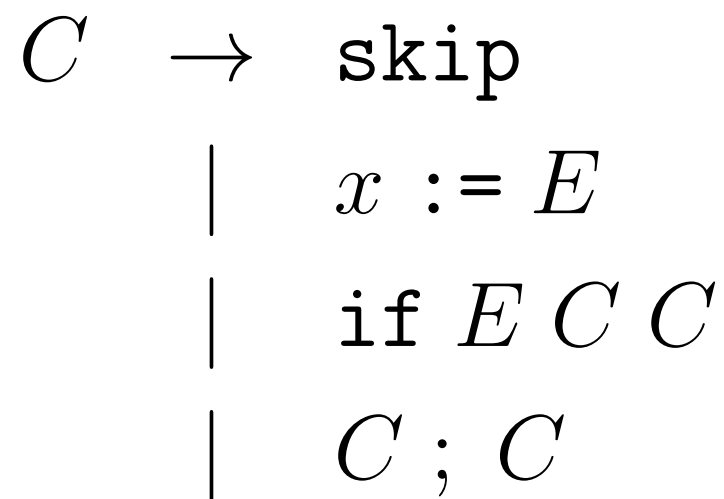


Grammars for Expressions and Programs

- Expressions



- Simple program commands



Grammars for Expressions and Programs (another version)

- Expressions

$$\begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}) \\ | \\ | + E E \\ | \\ | - E \end{array}$$

Whatever terminals you want !

- Simple programs

$$\begin{array}{l} C \rightarrow \& \\ | \\ | = x E \\ | \\ | ? E C C \\ | \\ | ; C C \end{array}$$

Abstract vs. Concrete Syntax

- Abstract syntax
 - Tree structure (2D) independent of any particular representation and encoding
- Concrete syntax
 - Source text (1D)
- E.g., concrete syntax includes features like parentheses (for grouping) or commas (for lists) which are not included in the abstract syntax

Abstract vs. Concrete Syntax

- Which one of the followings is $- 1 + 2$?

- $\langle \langle -1 \rangle + 2 \rangle$ or $-\langle 1 + 2 \rangle$

- Cannot answer with : $E \rightarrow n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z})$

$$| E + E$$

$$| - E$$

- Can answer with : $E \rightarrow n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z})$

$$| E + E$$

$$| - F$$

$$F \rightarrow n$$

$$| (E)$$

Abstract vs. Concrete Syntax

- Parsers convert concrete syntax into abstract syntax and have to deal with ambiguity
 - e.g., associativity and precedence
- From now on, a “program” refers to its abstract syntax.

Denotational Semantics

Semantics

- About what a program means
- What is the meaning of a program “1 + 2” ?
 - Meaning = what it “denotes”: “3”
(Denotational semantics)
 - Meaning = how to compute the result: “add 1 into 2 and get 3”
(Operational semantics)

...

Different approaches for different purposes and languages

Denotational Semantics

- Mathematical meaning of a program (no machine states or transitions)
- Program semantics is a function from input states to output states
- The semantics of a program is determined by that of each component (i.e., compositional)

Semantics of a Simple Language (WHILE)

$$\begin{array}{l} C \rightarrow \text{skip} \\ | \\ | \quad x := E \\ | \\ | \quad \text{if } E \ C \ C \\ | \\ | \quad C; C \\ | \\ | \quad \text{while } E \ C \end{array}$$
$$\begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow n \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}) \\ | \\ | \quad x \\ | \\ | \quad E + E \\ | \\ | \quad - E \end{array}$$

- The semantics of C is a function from memories to memories
- Memory = Function from memory locations to values

Semantic Domain

- A set of objects used to define program semantics (i.e., semantic objects)

$$M \in \textit{Memory} = \textit{Var} \rightarrow \textit{Value}$$

$$z \in \textit{Value} = \mathbb{Z}$$

$$x \in \textit{Var} = \textit{Program Variable}$$

- Meaning of commands $\llbracket C \rrbracket \in \textit{Memory} \rightarrow \textit{Memory}$
- Meaning of expressions $\llbracket E \rrbracket \in \textit{Memory} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$

Denotational Semantics of the Language

$$\llbracket \text{skip} \rrbracket M = M$$

$$\llbracket x := E \rrbracket M = M \{x \mapsto \llbracket E \rrbracket M\}$$

$$\llbracket \text{if } E \ C_1 \ C_2 \rrbracket M = \text{if } \llbracket E \rrbracket M \neq 0 \text{ then } \llbracket C_1 \rrbracket M \text{ else } \llbracket C_2 \rrbracket M$$

$$\llbracket C_1 ; C_2 \rrbracket M = \llbracket C_2 \rrbracket (\llbracket C_1 \rrbracket M)$$

$$\llbracket n \rrbracket M = n$$

$$\llbracket E_1 + E_2 \rrbracket M = (\llbracket E_1 \rrbracket M) + (\llbracket E_2 \rrbracket M)$$

$$\llbracket - E \rrbracket M = -(\llbracket E \rrbracket M)$$

- E.g., $\llbracket x := 7 ; y := 3 \rrbracket \{\} = \{x \mapsto 7, y \mapsto 3\}$
- Compositional! (i.e., the semantics of a program is determined by its sub-components)

Semantics of Loops

- The semantics of

`while E C`

$\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket M$

$= \text{if } \llbracket E \rrbracket M \neq 0 \text{ then } \llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket (\llbracket C \rrbracket M) \text{ else } M$

- Is it compositional?

Semantics of Loops

- The semantics of

while E C

$\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket M$

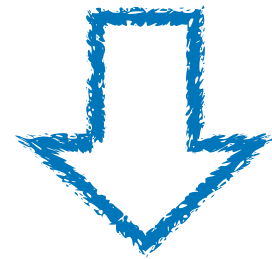
$= \textit{if } \llbracket E \rrbracket M \neq 0 \textit{ then } \llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket (\llbracket C \rrbracket M) \textit{ else } M$

- Is it compositional?

👉 No! Not a definition but just an **equation**

Semantics of Loops

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket M \\ & = \text{if } \llbracket E \rrbracket M \neq 0 \text{ then } \llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket (\llbracket C \rrbracket M) \text{ else } M \end{aligned}$$



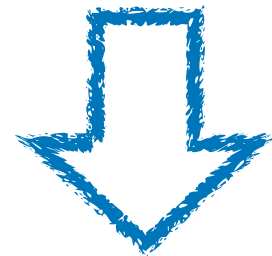
How to denote functions:

$\lambda x. \text{function body}$

where x is a parameter

e.g., $\lambda x. x + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket = \\ & \lambda M. \text{if } \llbracket E \rrbracket M \neq 0 \text{ then } \llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket (\llbracket C \rrbracket M) \text{ else } M. \end{aligned}$$



$$\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket = F_{E,C}(\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket)$$

where
$$F_{E,C}(X) = \begin{cases} X(\llbracket C \rrbracket(m)) & (\llbracket E \rrbracket(m) \neq 0) \\ m & (\text{otherwise}) \end{cases}$$

Semantics of Loops

- Semantics of a loop: a solution of this equation

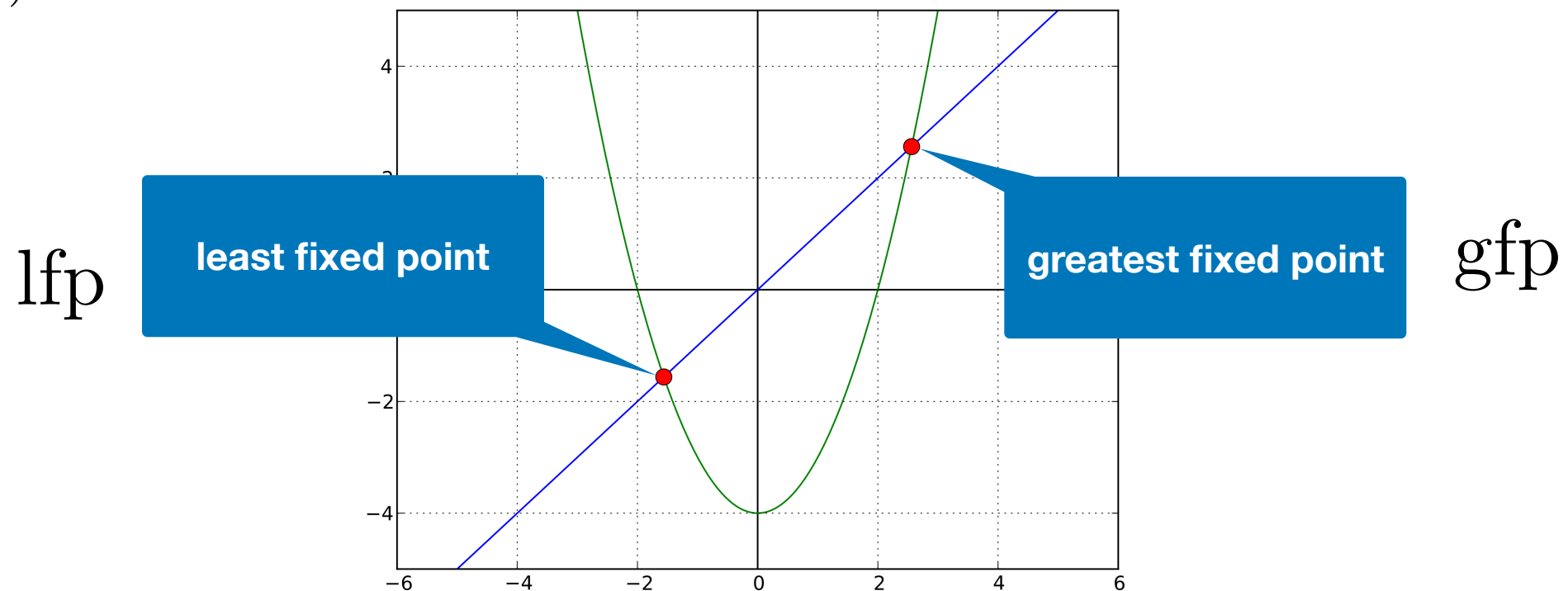
$$\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket = F_{E,C}(\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket)$$

- Solution: a **fixed point** of $F_{E,C}$

Fixpoint?

$\text{fix}F = X$ such that $F(X) = X$

$$f(x) = x^2 - 4$$



*https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Least_fixed_point

Semantics of Loops

- Semantics of a loop: a solution of this equation

$$\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket = F_{E,C}(\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket)$$

- Solution: a fixed point of $F_{E,C}$

$$(Memory \rightarrow Memroy) \rightarrow (Memory \rightarrow Memroy)$$

$$\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket = \text{fix } F_{E,C}$$

$$Memory \rightarrow Memory$$

$$F_{E,C}(X) = \begin{cases} X(\llbracket C \rrbracket(m)) & (\llbracket E \rrbracket(m) \neq 0) \\ m & (\textit{otherwise}) \end{cases}$$

- Compositional ($\llbracket \text{while } E \ C \rrbracket$ is defined using $\llbracket E \rrbracket, \llbracket C \rrbracket$)

Exercise

- “Computer science is full of fix points.”
Inductively defined thing = a least fix point:

- $N = \{0\} \cup \{n+1 \mid n \in N\}$

$$N = \text{fix } \lambda X. \{0\} \cup \{n + 1 \mid n \in X\}$$

- $\text{list} = \{\text{nil}\} \cup \{(0, l) \mid l \in \text{list}\}$

$$\text{list} = \text{fix } \lambda X. \{\text{nil}\} \cup \{(0, l) \mid l \in X\}$$

Exercise

- $\text{reach}(N) = N \cup \text{reach}(\text{next}(N))$

$$\text{reach} = \text{fix } \lambda f. (\lambda N. N \cup f(\text{next}(N)))$$

- $\text{fac}(n) = \text{if } n=0? 1 : n * \text{fac}(n-1)$

$$\text{fac} = \text{fix } \lambda f. (\lambda n. \text{if } n = 0? 1 : n \times f(n - 1))$$

Questions


- Does a solution of the semantic equation always exist?
- If exists, is it unique?
- How to compute it?

Domain Theory

- Semantics of a program is an element of a domain called **CPO** (complete partial ordered set)
- Semantics of a program is the **least fix point** of a **continuous function**.
- Established by Dana Scott in 1970s
 - Outline of a Mathematical Theory of Computation, Dana Scott
 - Mathematical Concepts in Programming Language Semantics, Dana Scott
 - Domains and Logics, Dana Scott

Intuitions behind Domain Theory

- Goal: giving a mathematical meaning to each program
- Problem: what is the meaning of the following program?

`while (1) { $x := x + 1$ }`  *never terminates!*

- Need something to represent an *undefined output* (written \perp), i.e., the result of a computation that never ends.

Intuitions behind Domain Theory

- There is an ordering between elements of the domains of computation.
 - e.g., `Type int` is more specific than `type double`
 - e.g., any value is more informative than \perp (i.e., no information)
- The higher an element is within the order, the more information it contains.

Partial Order

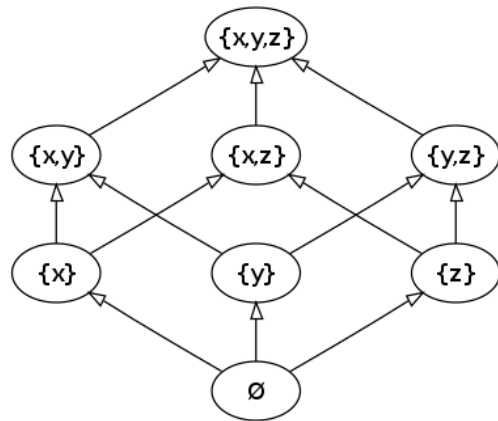
Definition (Partial Order). A binary relation \sqsubseteq is a **partial order** on a set D if it has:

1. reflexivity: $a \sqsubseteq a$ for all $a \in D$
2. Antisymmetry: $a \sqsubseteq b$ and $b \sqsubseteq a$ implies $a = b$
3. Transitivity: $a \sqsubseteq b$ and $b \sqsubseteq c$ implies $a \sqsubseteq c$

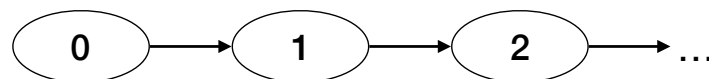
A set D with a partial order \sqsubseteq is called a **partially ordered set** (D, \sqsubseteq) , or simply **poset**.

Powerset: $\{\emptyset, \{x\}, \{y\}, \{z\}, \{x,y\}, \{y,z\}, \{x,z\}, \{x,y,z\}\}$

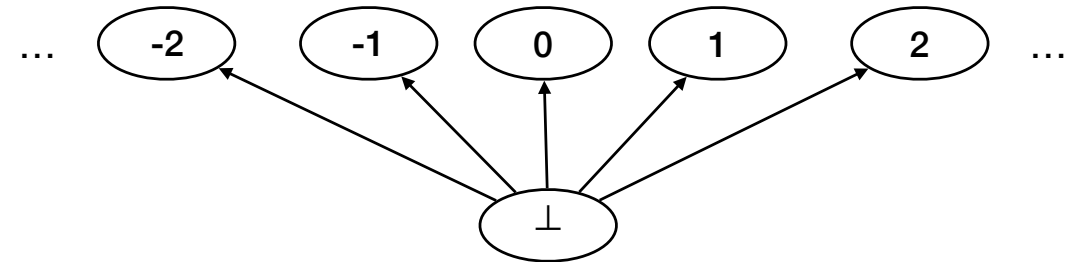
- Example 1: $(\wp(\{x, y, z\}), \subseteq)$



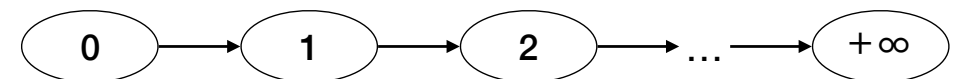
- Example 3: (\mathbb{N}, \leq)



- Example 2: $(\mathbb{Z}_{\perp}, \sqsubseteq)$



- Example 4: $(\mathbb{N} + \{+\infty\}, \leq)$



Graphical representations of partial orders are called Hasse diagrams.

Least Upper Bound

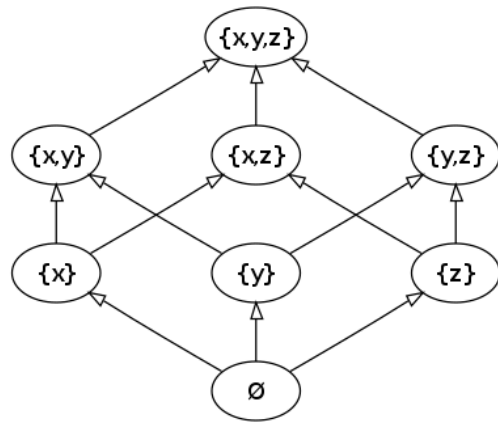
Definition (Least Upper Bound). For a partial ordered set (D, \sqsubseteq) and subset $X \subseteq D$, $d \in D$ is an **upper bound** of X iff

$$\forall x \in X. x \sqsubseteq d.$$

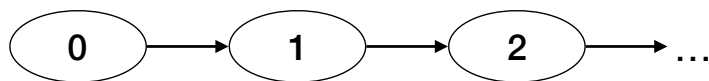
An upper bound d is the **least upper bound** of X iff for all upper bounds y of X , $d \sqsubseteq y$. The least upper bound of X is denoted by $\bigsqcup X$.

Intuition: union of multiple pieces of information
e.g., Set union (\cup)

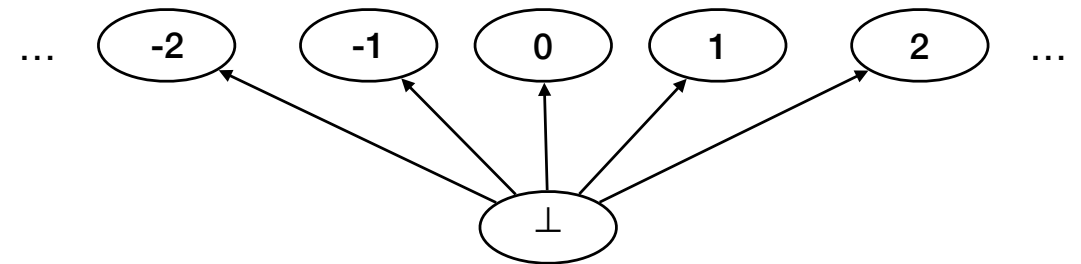
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- Example 2: $(\mathbb{Z}_{\perp}, \sqsubseteq)$



- Example 4: $(\mathbb{N} + \{+\infty\}, \leq)$

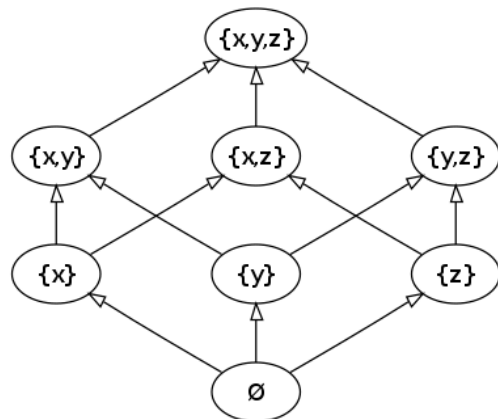


Chain

Definition (Chain). Let (D, \sqsubseteq) be a partial ordered set. A subset $X \subseteq D$ is called **chain** if X is totally ordered:

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in X. x_1 \sqsubseteq x_2 \text{ or } x_2 \sqsubseteq x_1.$$

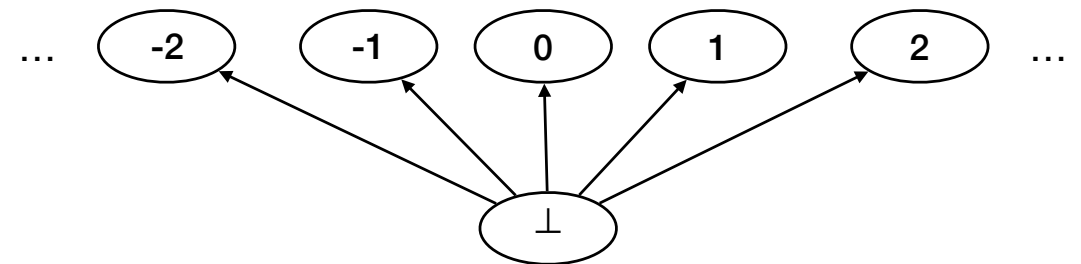
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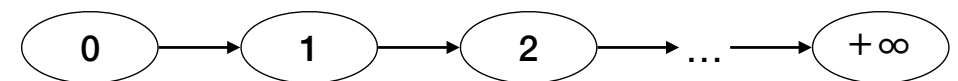
- Example 3: (\mathbb{N}, \leq)



- Example 2: $(\mathbb{Z}_{\perp}, \sqsubseteq)$



- Example 4: $(\mathbb{N} + \{+\infty\}, \leq)$



CPO

Definition (CPO). A poset (D, \sqsubseteq) is a **CPO** (complete partial order) if every chain X of D has $\bigsqcup X \in D$.

Lemma. If poset (D, \sqsubseteq) is a CPO, it has the **least element** $\perp = \bigsqcup \emptyset$

Monotone and Continuous Functions

Definition (Monotone Function). Given two partially ordered sets D_1 and D_2 , a function $f : D_1 \rightarrow D_2$ is **monotone** if it preserves orders between any two elements in D_1

$$\forall x, y \in D_1. x \sqsubseteq y \implies f(x) \sqsubseteq f(y)$$

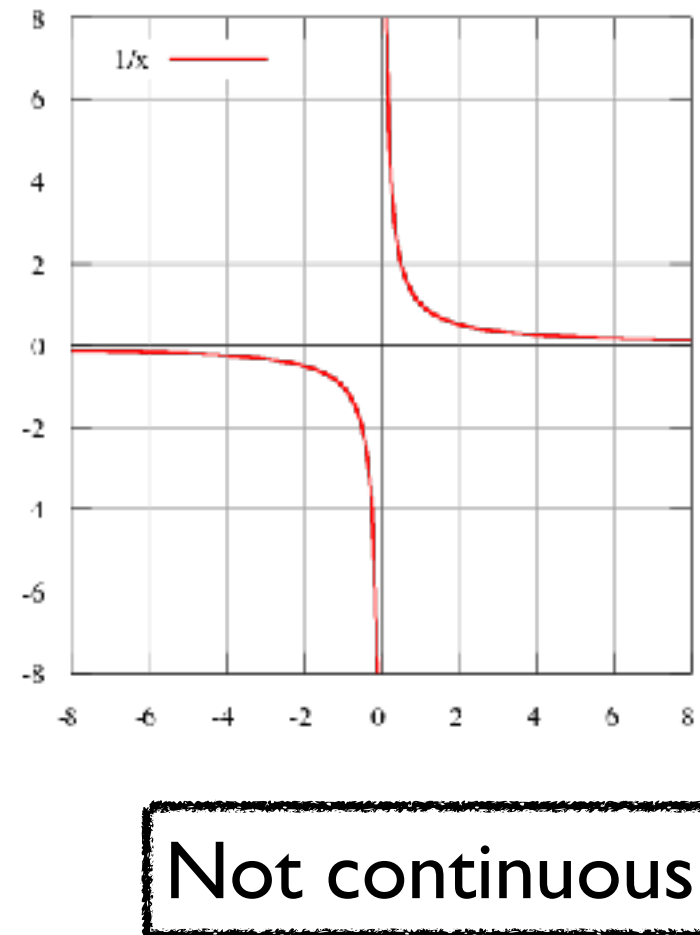
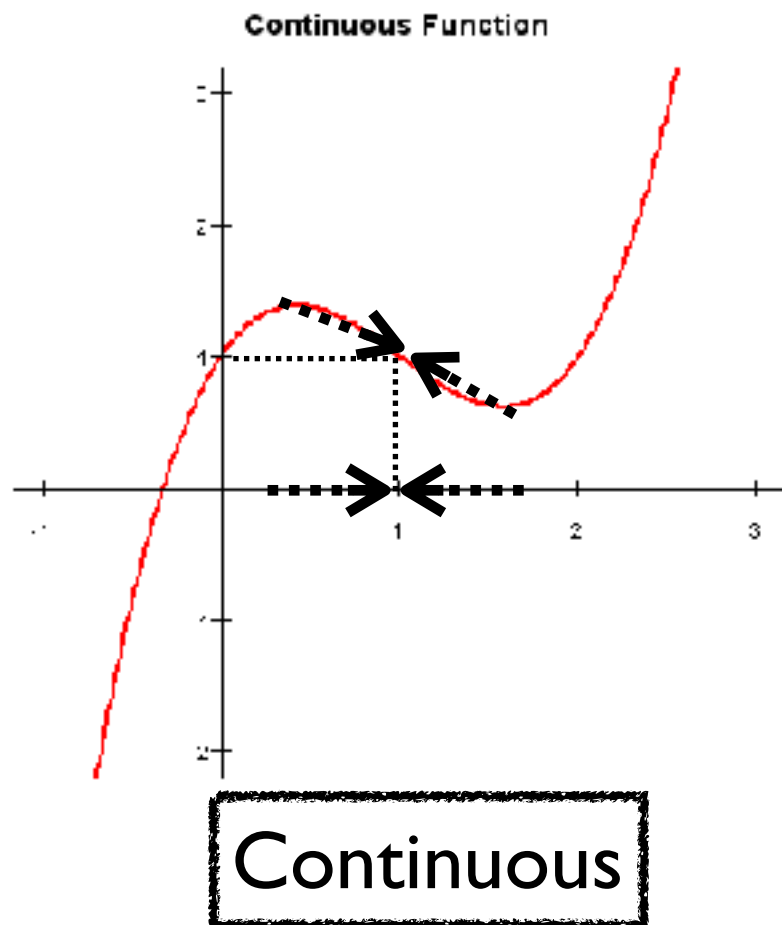
Intuition: the more accurate the input, the more accurate the output

Definition (Continuous Function). Given two partially ordered sets D_1 and D_2 , a function $f : D_1 \rightarrow D_2$ is **continuous** if it preserves least upper bounds of chains:

$$\forall \text{chain } X \subseteq D_1. \bigsqcup_{x \in X} f(x) = f(\bigsqcup X).$$

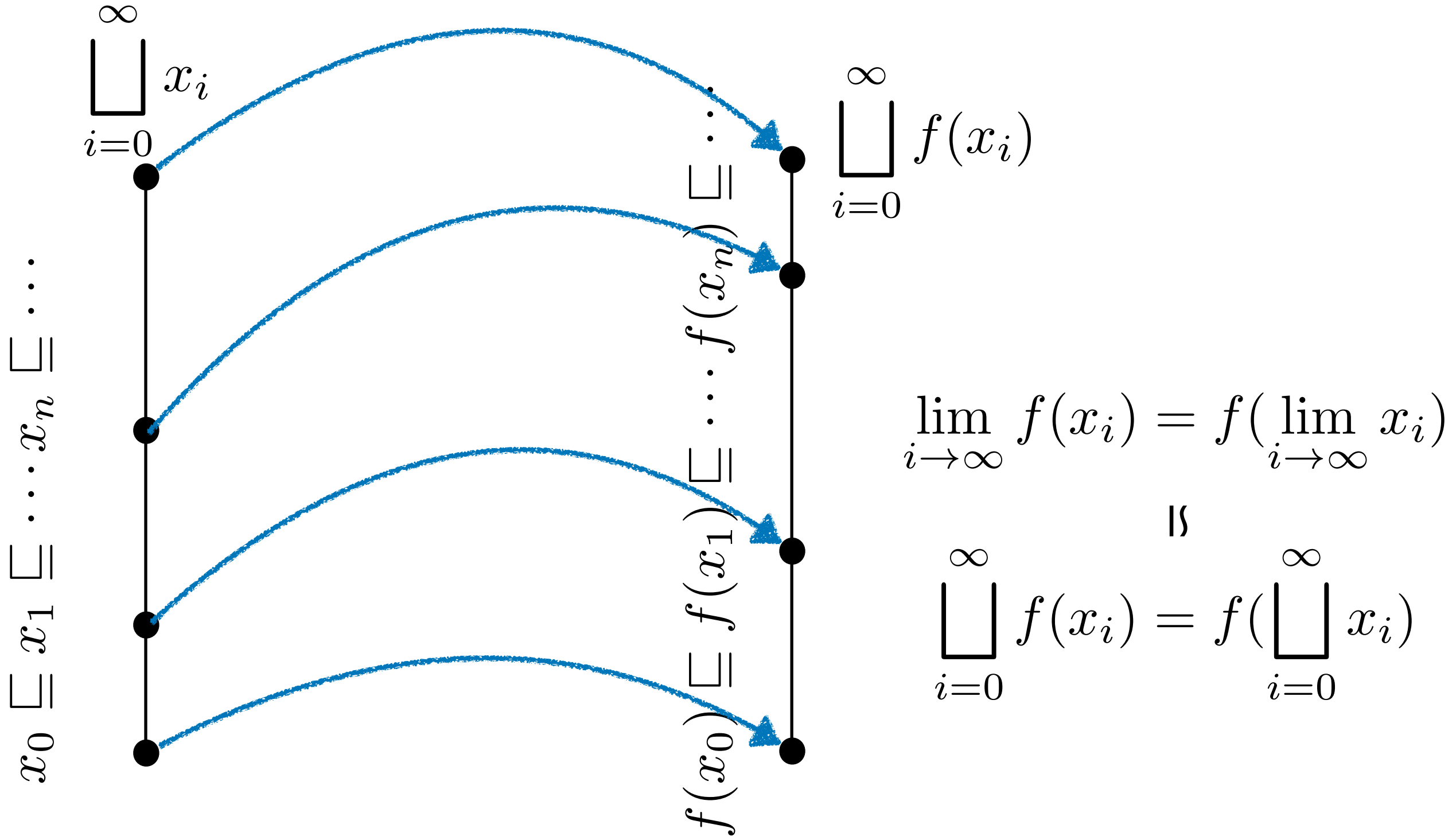
Intuition: the function of the limit is the same as the limit of the functions

Continuous Functions

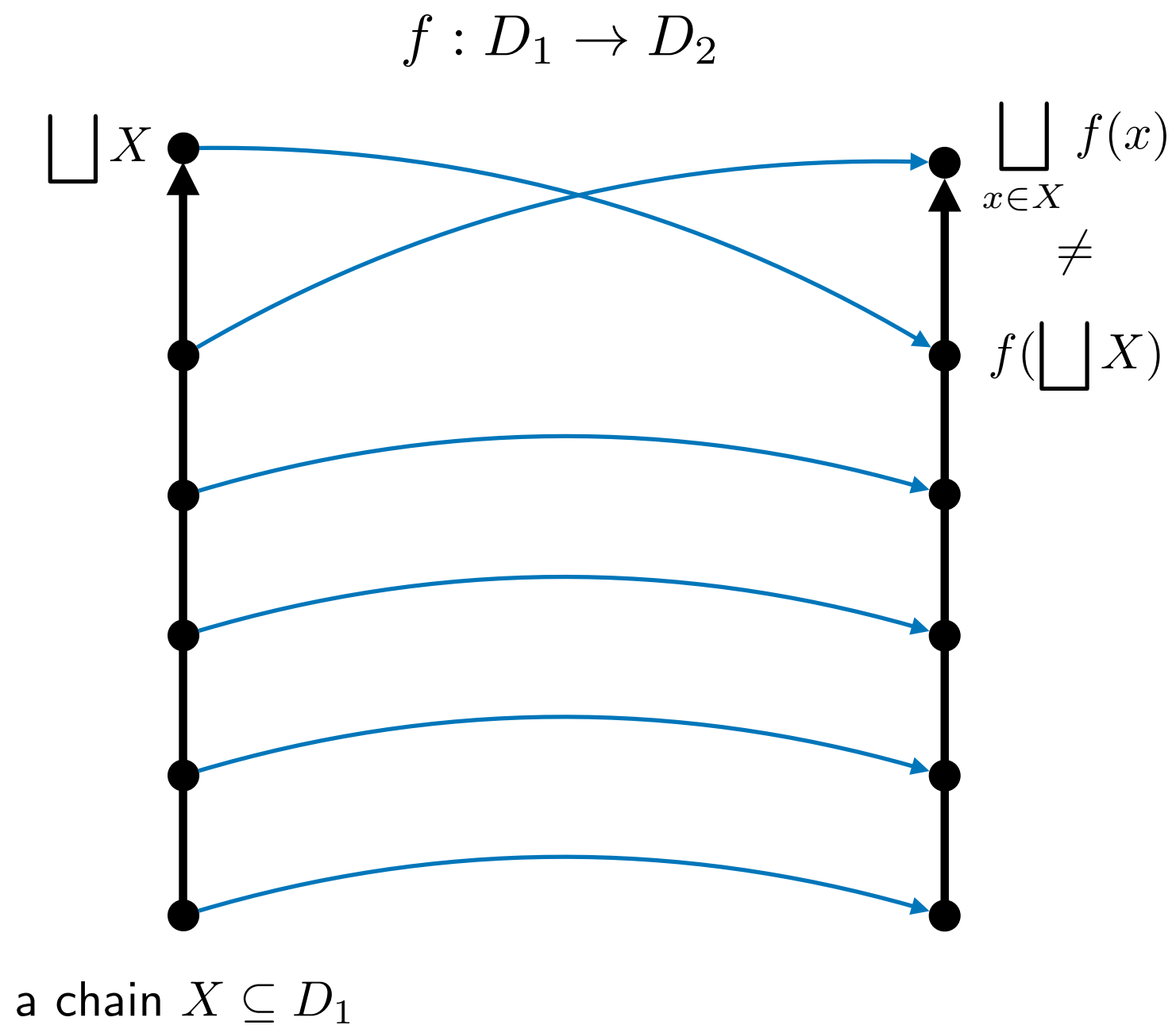


$$\forall c. \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x)$$

Analogy



Non-continuous Function



Properties of Continuous Functions

Lemma 1. *If a function f is continuous, f is monotone.*

Proof. We will show that for any elements a and b such that $a \sqsubseteq b$, $f(a) \sqsubseteq f(b)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(b) &= f(a \sqcup b) && (\because a \sqsubseteq b) \\ &= f(a) \sqcup f(b) && \text{(by continuity of } f\text{)} \\ &\sqsupseteq f(a) && \text{(by definition of } \sqcup\text{)} \end{aligned}$$

□

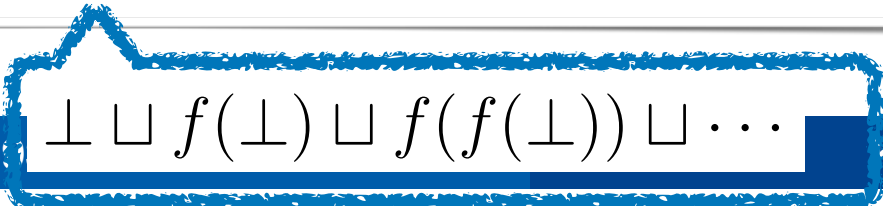
Properties of Continuous Functions — Fixed points

Definition (Fixed Point). Let (D, \sqsubseteq) be a partial ordered set. A **fixed point** of a function $f : D \rightarrow D$ is an element x such that $f(x) = x$. We write $\text{lfp } f$ for the **least fixed point** of f such that

$$f(\text{lfp } f) = \text{lfp } f \quad \text{and} \quad \forall d \in D. f(d) = d \implies \text{lfp } f \sqsubseteq d$$

Theorem (Kleene Fixed Point). Let $f : D \rightarrow D$ be a continuous function on a CPO D . Then f has the **least fixed point** $\text{lfp } f$ and

$$\text{lfp } f = \bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$$


$$\perp \sqcup f(\perp) \sqcup f(f(\perp)) \sqcup \dots$$

Proof

$$\text{lfp } f = \bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$$

- Plans: It is enough to show the following two things:

(1) There exists the chain $\perp \sqsubseteq f(\perp) \sqsubseteq f^2(\perp) \sqsubseteq \dots$ and its least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ in D

(2) The least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is the least fixed point of f

Proof

(1) There exists the chain $\perp \sqsubseteq f(\perp) \sqsubseteq f^2(\perp) \sqsubseteq \dots$ and its least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ in D

Proof. We show by induction that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. f^n(\perp) \sqsubseteq f^{n+1}(\perp)$:

- $\perp \sqsubseteq f(\perp)$ (\perp is the least element of the CPO)
- $f^n(\perp) \sqsubseteq f^{n+1}(\perp) \implies f^{n+1}(\perp) \sqsubseteq f^{n+2}(\perp)$ (by monotonicity of f)

By definition of CPO, least upper bounds of all chains are also in the CPO. Therefore, the least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ of the above chain is in D .

Proof

(2) The least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is the least fixed point of f

The proof consists of two parts:

(2-1) $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is a fixed point of f

(2-2) $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is smaller than all the other fixed points

Proof

(2-1) $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is a fixed point of f

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} f\left(\bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} f^n(\perp)\right) &= \bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} f(f^n(\perp)) && \text{(by continuity of } f\text{)} \\ &= \bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} f^{n+1}(\perp) \\ &= \bigsqcup_{n \geq 0} f^n(\perp) \end{aligned}$$

Proof

(2-2) $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is smaller than all the other fixed points

Proof. Suppose d is a fixed point, i.e., $d = f(d)$. We show that any element $f^i(\perp)$ is smaller than d by induction:

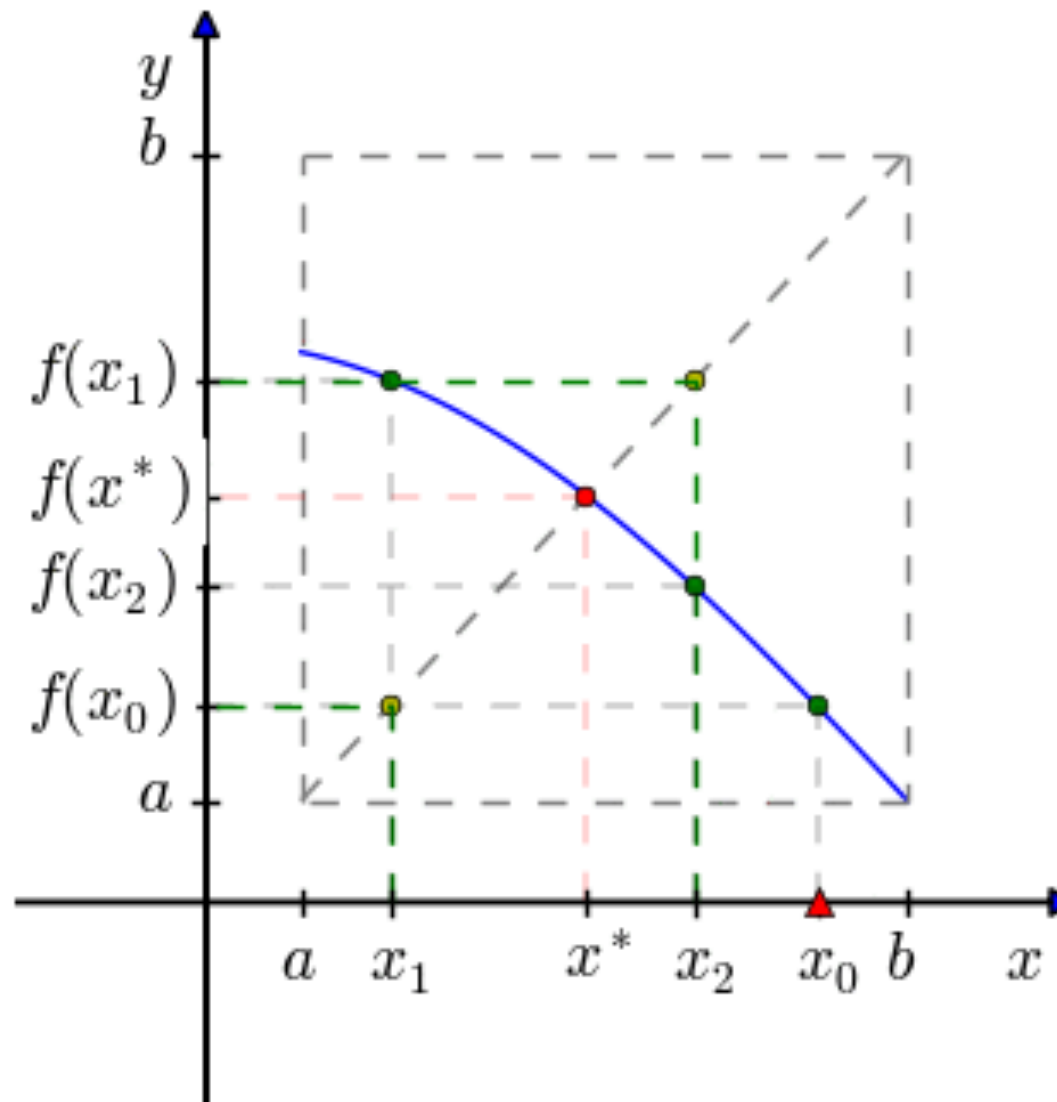
$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. f^n(\perp) \sqsubseteq d.$$

- $\perp \sqsubseteq d$ (\perp is the least element of the CPO)
- $f^n(\perp) \sqsubseteq d \implies f^{n+1}(\perp) \sqsubseteq f(d) = d$ (by monotonicity of f)

Because all the elements $f^i(\perp)$ are smaller than d , their least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp)$ is also smaller than d . Therefore

$$\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f^i(\perp) = \text{lfp } f$$

Analogy



Example (While)

- `while (x < 10) x := x + 1`

$$\llbracket \text{while } (x < 10) \text{ x} := \text{x} + 1 \rrbracket = \lambda m. \begin{cases} \llbracket \text{while } (x < 10) \text{ x} := \text{x} + 1 \rrbracket (\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket (m)) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket (m) = \text{true} \\ m & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket (m) = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

$$\llbracket \text{while } (x < 10) \text{ x} := \text{x} + 1 \rrbracket = \text{lfp} \mathcal{F} \text{ where } \mathcal{F}(X) = \lambda m. \begin{cases} X(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket (m)) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket (m) = \text{true} \\ m & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket (m) = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{lfp} \mathcal{F} = \perp \sqcup \mathcal{F}(\perp) \sqcup \mathcal{F}^2(\perp) \sqcup \dots$$

Example (While)

$$\mathcal{F}(X) = \lambda m. \begin{cases} X(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket(m)) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{true} \\ m & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

\perp

0 iter

$$\mathcal{F}(\perp) = \lambda m. \begin{cases} \perp(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket(m)) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{true} \\ m & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

0, 1 iter

$$\mathcal{F}^2(\perp) = \lambda m. \begin{cases} \mathcal{F}(\perp)(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket(m)) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{true} \\ m & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

$$= \lambda m. \begin{cases} \begin{cases} \perp(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket^2(m)) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket(m)) = \text{true} \\ \llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket(m) & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(\llbracket x := x + 1 \rrbracket(m)) = \text{false} \end{cases} & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{true} \\ m & \text{if } \llbracket x < 10 \rrbracket(m) = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

0,1,2 iters

$$\mathcal{F}^3(\perp) = \dots$$

Constructions of CPOs

- If S is a set, and D_1 and D_2 are CPOs, then the followings are CPOs
 - Lifted set : $D = S_{\perp}$
 - Cartesian product : $D = D_1 \times D_2$
 - Separated sum : $D = D_1 + D_2$
 - Function : $D = D_1 \rightarrow D_2$



Lifted CPO

- $D = S_{\perp}$

For any set S , let $D = S + \{\perp\}$ where \perp is an element not in S .
Then (D, \sqsubseteq) is a CPO where

$$d \sqsubseteq d' \iff (d = d') \vee (d = \perp)$$

- Why CPO?

Cartesian product

- $D = D_1 \times D_2$

Given two CPOs (D_1, \sqsubseteq_1) and (D_2, \sqsubseteq_2) , (D, \sqsubseteq) is a CPO where

$$D = D_1 \times D_2 = \{(d_1, d_2) \mid d_1 \in D_1 \wedge d_2 \in D_2\}$$

$$(d_1, d_2) \sqsubseteq (d'_1, d'_2) \iff (d_1 \sqsubseteq_1 d'_1) \wedge (d_2 \sqsubseteq_2 d'_2)$$

- Why CPO?

Separated Sum

$$D = D_1 + D_2$$

Given two CPOs (D_1, \sqsubseteq_1) and (D_2, \sqsubseteq_2) , (D, \sqsubseteq) is a CPO where

$$D = D_1 + D_2 = \{(d_1, 1) \mid d_1 \in D_1\} \cup \{(d_2, 2) \mid d_2 \in D_2\} \cup \{\perp\}$$

$$(d_1, 1) \sqsubseteq (d'_1, 1) \iff d_1 \sqsubseteq_1 d'_1$$

$$(d_2, 2) \sqsubseteq (d'_2, 2) \iff d_2 \sqsubseteq_2 d'_2$$

- Why CPO?

Function

$$D = D_1 \rightarrow D_2$$

Given two CPOs (D_1, \sqsubseteq_1) and (D_2, \sqsubseteq_2) , (D, \sqsubseteq) is a CPO where

$$D = D_1 \rightarrow D_2 = \{f \mid f : D_1 \rightarrow D_2 \text{ is a continuous function}\}$$

$$f \sqsubseteq f' \iff \forall d_1 \in D_1. f(d_1) \sqsubseteq_2 f'(d_1)$$

- Why CPO?

Proof. Let say we have a chain in D which is $f_0 \sqsubseteq f_1 \sqsubseteq \dots \sqsubseteq f_n \sqsubseteq \dots$. We will show that the least upper bound $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f_i$ is in D .

$$\forall x \in D_1. f_0(x) \sqsubseteq_2 f_1(x) \sqsubseteq_2 f_2(x) \sqsubseteq_2 \dots \quad (\text{by definition of } \sqsubseteq)$$

$$\forall i. f_i(x) \sqsubseteq_2 \bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f_i(x) \quad (\text{by definition of lub})$$

We define $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f_i$ to be $\lambda x. \bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f_i(x)$. Here, $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f_i(x)$ is in D_2 because D_2 is a CPO. Therefore, $\bigsqcup_{i \geq 0} f_i$ is an element of D . \square

Summary

- Language = syntax + semantics
- Syntax and semantics are inductively defined.
- Structural induction is a technique for proving interesting properties of inductively defined sets.
- Denotational semantics describes mathematical meaning of programs
 - Semantics is the least fix point of a continuous function