

# A lambda calculus for real analysis

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## This lecture

It takes me more than 20 mins to introduce my research to my **own** community, so this lecture will be a **classical translation** of some recent results.

It will require **First Year Undergraduate Real Analysis**.

Please contact me this week by mobile (**077 604 625 87**)  
or later by email (**pt@cs.man.ac.uk**) to learn more.

(Maybe even invite me to your university to give a full seminar.)

# Intellectual pedigree

mine:

Mathematical Tripos 1979–83

PhD in Category Theory 1983–6

A mathematician in exile in Computer Science

of this general area of research:

(compact–open) topologies on function-spaces, topological lattice theory,  
semantics of programming languages, formal correctness of programs.

of the Abstract Stone Duality programme:

locale theory (“point-less topology”, *i.e.* only using open sets)  
category theory, domain theory.

The journey that Abstract Stone Duality has made so far:  
from an abstract hypothesis from category theory  
to computably based locally compact spaces (not just  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )  
to **constructive analysis**.

# Constructive analysis

The classics, although I don't myself belong to this tradition.

Errett Bishop, *Foundations of Constructive Analysis*, 1967

A “can do” attitude to constructivity,  
entirely compatible with the classical results:  
we just have to be a lot more careful.

Errett Bishop and Douglas Bridges, *Constructive Analysis*, Springer, 1985

Douglas Bridges and Fred Richman, *Varieties of Constructive Mathematics*, CUP, 1987

The subject is based on **metrical** ( $\epsilon$ - $\delta$ ) methods.

$S \subset \mathbb{R}$  is **totally bounded** if it has an  $\epsilon$ -net — needed to define its supremum,

$S \subset \mathbb{R}$  is **located** if  $d(x, S) \equiv \inf \{d(x, y) \mid y \in S\}$  is definable.

## Recursive analysis — the bad news

Cantor space  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  and the closed real interval  $\mathbb{I} \equiv [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$  **are not compact**.

Basic problem: definable/computable/recursive values can be **enumerated**  
(like the rationals — it's just a bit more complicated).

Richard's Paradox 1900, Turing's Computable Numbers 1937, Specker Sequences 1949.

Let  $(u_n)$  be such an enumeration of the definable elements of  $[0, 1]$ .

Cover each  $u_n$  with the open interval  $(u_n \pm \epsilon \cdot 2^{-n})$ .

These intervals have total length  $2\epsilon$ .

With  $\epsilon \equiv \frac{1}{2}$ , no finite sub-collection can cover.

Another way: **König's Lemma fails**:

there is an infinite binary (**Kleene**) tree with no infinite **computable** path.

In addition to the metrical  $(\epsilon-\delta)$  methods,  
everything has to be coded using Gödel numbers.

## Recursive analysis — the good news

This doesn't happen in Abstract Stone Duality.

Cantor space  $2^{\mathbb{N}}$  and the closed real interval  $\mathbb{I} \equiv [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$  **are compact**.

$\forall$  in ASD doesn't mean “for every definable element” —  
it's defined to satisfy the **formal rules** of predicate calculus.

A categorical construction ensures that subspaces always have the **subspace topology**.  
(But I'm not going to talk about this in this lecture.)

The mathematical arguments are **topological**, not metrical.

Programming languages can be translated naturally **into** ASD (denotational semantics).

Conversely, every ASD term has a natural **computational interpretation**  
(as a parallel, non-deterministic, higher-order logic program).

## The Classical Intermediate Value Theorem

Any continuous  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $f(0) \leq 0 \leq f(1)$  has a zero.

Indeed,  $f(x_0) = 0$  where  $x_0 \equiv \sup \{x \mid f(x) \leq 0\}$ .

A so-called “closed formula”.

## A program: interval halving

Let  $a_0 \equiv 0$  and  $e_0 \equiv 1$ .

By recursion, consider  $c_n \equiv \frac{1}{2}(a_n + e_n)$  and

$$a_{n+1}, e_{n+1} \equiv \begin{cases} a_n, c_n & \text{if } f(c_n) > 0 \\ c_n, e_n & \text{if } f(c_n) \leq 0, \end{cases}$$

so by induction  $f(a_n) \leq 0 \leq f(e_n)$ .

But  $a_n$  and  $e_n$  are respectively (non-strictly) increasing and decreasing sequences, whose differences tend to 0.

So they converge to a common value  $c$ .

By continuity,  $f(c) = 0$ .

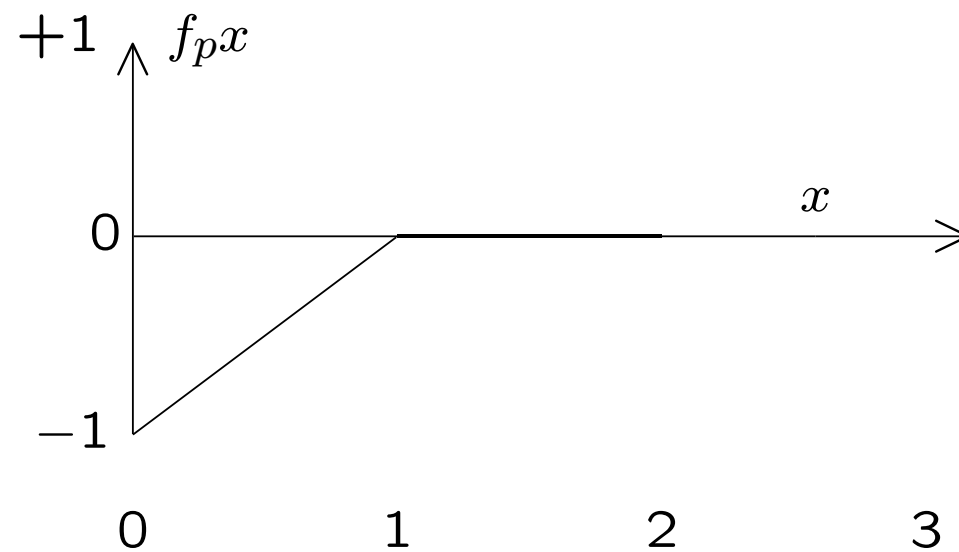


Where is the zero?

For  $-1 \leq p \leq +1$  and  $0 \leq x \leq 3$  consider

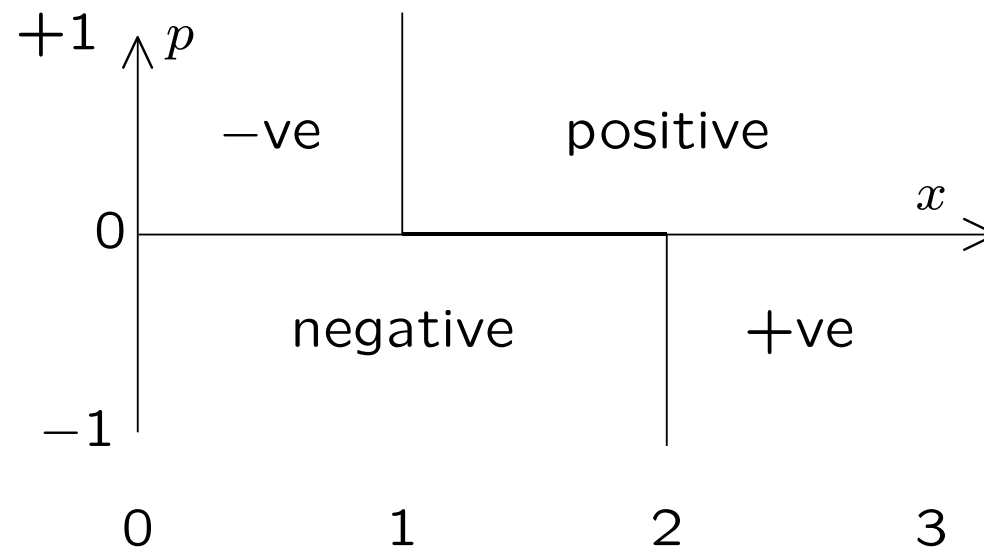
$$f_p x \equiv \min(x - 1, \max(p, x - 2))$$

Here is the graph of  $f_p(x)$  against  $x$  for  $p \approx 0$ .



## Where is the zero?

The behaviour of  $f_p(x)$  depends qualitatively on  $p$  and  $x$  like this:



$$f(1) = 0 \iff p \geq 0$$

$$f(2) = 0 \iff p \leq 0$$

$$f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 0 \iff p = 0$$

If there is some way of finding a zero of  $f_p$ ,  
as a side-effect it will decide how  $p$  stands in relation to 0.

Let's bar the monster

$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  **doesn't hover** if,

for any  $e < t$ ,  $\exists x. (e < x < t) \wedge (fx \neq 0)$ .

Any nonzero polynomial doesn't hover.

## Interval halving again

Suppose that  $f$  doesn't hover.

Let  $a_0 \equiv 0$  and  $e_0 \equiv 1$ .

By recursion, consider

$$b_n \equiv \frac{1}{3}(2a_n + e_n) \quad \text{and} \quad d_n \equiv \frac{1}{3}(a_n + 2e_n).$$

Then  $f(c_n) \neq 0$  for some  $b_n < c_n < d_n$ , so put

$$a_{n+1}, e_{n+1} \equiv \begin{cases} a_n, c_n & \text{if } f(c_n) > 0 \\ c_n, e_n & \text{if } f(c_n) < 0, \end{cases}$$

so by induction  $f(a_n) < 0 < f(e_n)$ .

But  $a_n$  and  $e_n$  are respectively (non-strictly) increasing and decreasing sequences, whose differences tend to 0.

So they converge to a common value  $c$ .

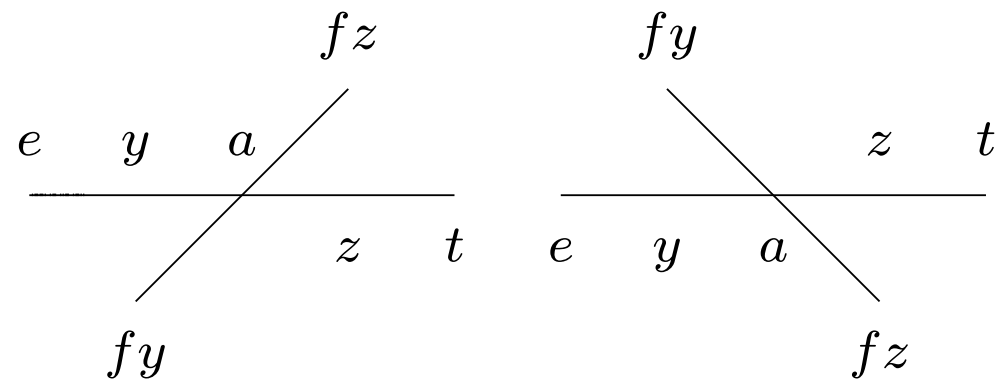
By continuity,  $f(c) = 0$ .

# Stable zeroes

The revised interval halving algorithm finds zeroes with this property:

$a \in \mathbb{R}$  is a **stable zero** of  $f$   
if, for all  $e < a < t$ ,

$$\exists yz. (e < y < a < z < t) \wedge (fy < 0 < fz \vee fy > 0 > fz).$$



Check that a stable zero of a continuous function really is a zero.

Classically, a zero is stable iff  
every nearby function (in the sup or  $\ell_\infty$  norm) has a nearby zero.

## Straddling intervals

An open subspace  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  **touches**  $S$ , *i.e.* contains a stable zero,  $a \in U \cap S$ ,  
iff  $U$  contains a **straddling interval**,

$$[e, t] \subset U \quad \text{with} \quad fe < 0 < ft \quad \text{or} \quad fe > 0 > ft.$$

**Proof**  $[\Leftarrow]$  The straddling interval is an intermediate value problem in miniature.

If an interval  $[e, t]$  straddles with respect to  $f$   
then it also does so with respect to any nearby function.

## The possibility operator

Write  $\diamond U$  if  $U$  contains a straddling interval.

By hypothesis,  $\diamond I \Leftrightarrow \top$  (where  $I$  is some open interval containing  $\mathbb{I}$ ).

Trivially,  $\diamond \emptyset \Leftrightarrow \perp$ .

$$\diamond \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \iff \exists i. \diamond U_i.$$

Consider

$$V^\pm \equiv \{x \mid \exists y: \mathbb{R}. \exists i: I. (fy \gtrless 0) \wedge [x, y] \subset U_i\}$$

so  $\mathbb{I} \subset V^+ \cup V^-$ .

Then  $x \in (a, c) \subset V^+ \cap V^-$  by connectedness, with  $fx \neq 0$  and  $[x, y] \subset U_i$ .

# The Possibility Operator as a Program

Let  $\diamond$  be a property of open subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}$   
that preserves unions and satisfies  $\diamond U_0$  for some open interval  $U_0$ .

Then  $\diamond$  has an “accumulation point”  $c \in U_0$ ,  
*i.e.* one of which every open neighbourhood  $c \in U \subset \mathbb{R}$  satisfies  $\diamond U$ .  
In the example of the intermediate value theorem, any such  $c$  is a stable zero.

Interval halving again: let  $a_0 \equiv 0$ ,  $e_0 \equiv 1$   
and, by recursion,  $b_n \equiv \frac{1}{3}(2a_n + e_n)$  and  $d_n \equiv \frac{1}{3}(a_n + 2e_n)$ , so

$$\diamond(a_n, e_n) \equiv \diamond((a_n, d_n) \cup (b_n, e_n)) \Leftrightarrow \diamond(a_n, d_n) \vee \diamond(b_n, e_n).$$

Then at least one of the disjuncts is true,  
so let  $(a_{n+1}, e_{n+1})$  be either  $(a_n, d_n)$  or  $(b_n, e_n)$ .

Hence  $a_n$  and  $e_n$  converge from above and below respectively to  $c$ .

If  $c \in U$  then  $c \in (a_n, e_n) \subset (c \pm \epsilon) \subset U$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $n$ ,  
but  $\diamond(a_n, e_n)$  is true by construction,  
so  $\diamond U$  also holds, since  $\diamond$  takes  $\subset$  to  $\Rightarrow$ .



# Enclosing cells of higher dimensions

Straddling intervals can be generalised.

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  with  $n \geq m$ .

Let  $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a sphere, cube, *etc.*

$C$  is an **enclosing cell** if  
 $0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$  lies in the interior of the image  $f(C) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ .

(There is a definition for locally compact spaces too.)

Write  $\diamond U$  if  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  contains an enclosing cell.

If  $\diamond (\cup_{i \in I} U_i) \Leftrightarrow \exists i. \diamond U_i$  then  
cell halving finds stable zeroes of  $f$ .

## Modal operators, separately

$Z \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{I} \mid fx = 0\}$  is closed and compact.

$W \equiv \{x \mid fx \neq 0\}$  is open.

$S$  is the subspace of stable zeroes.

For  $U \subset \mathbb{R}$  open, write  $\Box U$  if  $Z \subset U$  (or  $U \cup W = \mathbb{R}$ ).

$\Box X$  is true    and     $\Box U \wedge \Box V \Rightarrow \Box(U \cap V)$

$\Diamond \emptyset$  is false    and     $\Diamond(U \cup V) \Rightarrow \Diamond U \vee \Diamond V$ .

$(Z \neq \emptyset)$     iff     $\Box \emptyset$  is false

$(S \neq \emptyset)$     iff     $\Diamond \mathbb{R}$  is true

Both operators are Scott continuous.

## Modal operators, together

The modal operators  $\diamond$  and  $\square$  for the subspaces  $S \subset Z$  are related in general by:

$$\square U \wedge \diamond V \Rightarrow \diamond(U \cap V)$$

$$\square U \iff (U \cup W = X)$$

$$\diamond V \Rightarrow (V \not\subset W)$$

$S$  is dense in  $Z$  iff

$$\square(U \cup V) \Rightarrow \square U \vee \diamond V$$

$$\diamond V \Leftarrow (V \not\subset W)$$

In the intermediate value theorem for functions that don't hover (e.g. polynomials):

$S = Z$  in the **non-singular** case

$S \subset Z$  in the **singular** case (e.g. double zeroes).

## Open maps

For continuous  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ ,  
if  $V \subset Y$  is open, so is  $f^{-1}(V) \subset X$   
if  $V \subset Y$  is closed, so is  $f^{-1}(V) \subset X$   
if  $U \subset X$  is compact, so is  $f(U) \subset Y$   
(if  $U \subset X$  is overt, so is  $f(U) \subset Y$ )

$f : X \rightarrow Y$  is **open** if,  
whenever  $U \subset X$  is open, so is  $f(U) \subset Y$ .

If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is open then  
if  $V \subset Y$  is overt, so is  $f^{-1}(V) \subset X$ .

If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is open then all zeroes are stable.

## Examples of open maps

If  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is continuously differentiable, and  $\det \left( \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_i} \right) \neq 0$ .

If  $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is analytic and not constant — even if it has coincident zeroes.

Cauchy's integral formula:

a disc  $C \subset \mathbb{C}$  is enclosing iff  $\oint_{\partial C} \frac{dz}{f(z)} \neq 0$ .

Stokes's theorem!

## Possibility operators classically

Define  $\diamond U$  as  $U \cap S \neq \emptyset$ ,  
for *any subset*  $S \subset \mathbb{R}$  whatever.

Then  $\diamond (\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i)$  iff  $\exists i. \diamond U_i$ .

Conversely, if  $\diamond$  has this property, let

$$S \equiv \{a \in \mathbb{R} \mid \text{for all open } U \subset \mathbb{R}, \quad a \in U \Rightarrow \diamond U\}.$$

$$W \equiv \mathbb{R} \setminus S = \bigcup \{U \text{ open} \mid \neg \diamond U\}$$

Then  $W$  is open and  $S$  is closed.

$\neg \diamond W$  by preservation of unions.

Hence  $\diamond U$  holds iff  $U \not\subset W$ , i.e.  $U \cap S \neq \emptyset$ .

If  $\diamond$  had been derived from some  $S'$   
then  $S = \overline{S'}$ , its closure.

## Possibility operators: summary

$\diamond$  is defined, like compactness, in terms of unions of open subspaces, so it is a concept of **general topology**

The proof that  $\diamond$  preserves joins uses ideas from **geometric topology**, like connectedness and sub-division of cells.

$\diamond$  is like a bounded existential quantifier, so it's **logic**.

A very general **algorithm** uses  $\diamond$  to find solutions of problems.

But classical point-set topology is too clumsy to take advantage of this.

## A lambda calculus for topology — predicates

Only use **predicates**  $(\phi, \psi)$  that denote **open subspaces**, equivalently, which are **computably observable**.

On  $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$ :  $n = m, n \neq m, n < m, n \leq m, n > m$  and  $n \geq m$ .

On  $\mathbb{R}$ :  $a \neq b, a < b$  and  $a > b$ , but not  $a = b, a \leq b$  or  $a \geq b$ .  
(This is entirely familiar in numerical computation.)

Logically:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false),  $\phi \wedge \psi, \phi \vee \psi$  and  $\exists n : \mathbb{N}.\phi n$   
but not  $\neg\phi$  (not),  $\phi \Rightarrow \psi$  or  $\forall n : \mathbb{N}.\phi n$ .

We shall **also** allow  $\exists x : \mathbb{R}.\phi x$  and  $\forall x : \mathbb{I}.\phi x$ ,  
but **not**  $\forall \epsilon > 0.\phi \epsilon$ .



## Statements — comparing predicates

You can't say very much in the language of predicates.

A **statement** is an **equality**  $\phi \Leftrightarrow \psi$  or **inequality**  $\phi \Rightarrow \psi$  where  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  are predicates (technical distinction).

Predicates can be existentially quantified ( $\exists n : \mathbb{N}.\phi n$ ), statements cannot.

Nested implication  $(\phi \Rightarrow \psi) \Rightarrow \theta$  is not allowed (in the current version).

Examples:  $\phi \Rightarrow \perp$  (not  $\phi$ ),  $(a < b) \Rightarrow \perp (a \geq b)$ ,  $(a \neq b) \Rightarrow \perp (a = b)$ .

# Open and closed subspaces

If  $\phi(x)$  is a predicate with a free variable (argument)  $x : \mathbb{R}$  then  $\{x \mid \phi(x)\} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is an open subspace and  $\{x \mid \phi(x) \Leftrightarrow \perp\} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a closed subspace.

We can think of  $\phi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (\odot \bullet)$  as a **continuous function** whose target is the **Sierpiński space**.

$$\begin{aligned} \{x \mid \phi(x)\} \subset \mathbb{R} &\text{ is } \phi^{-1}(\top) \text{ and} \\ \{x \mid \phi(x) \Leftrightarrow \perp\} \subset \mathbb{R} &\text{ is } \phi^{-1}(\perp). \end{aligned}$$

The **Sierpiński space**  $(\odot \bullet)$  has two points (classically) one (called  $\odot$  or  $\top$ ) is **open**, the other ( $\bullet$  or  $\perp$ ) is **closed**.

It is not Hausdorff.

It appears in many textbooks as a pathetic counterexample.

It is the **key** to understanding:  
topologies of function-spaces,  
semantics of programming languages,  
Abstract Stone Duality.

## Compact subspaces

The **neighbourhoods** of a compact subspace are more important than its **points**.

This had emerged by about 1970 in the study of topologies of function-spaces.

A compact subspace  $K$  (at least, of a Hausdorff space  $H$ )  
is determined by which open subspaces  $U \subset H$  **cover** it —  $K \subset U$ .

We write  $\Box U$  or  $\Box \phi$  when this happens.

$\Box$  satisfies the modal laws, in particular  $\Box H \Leftrightarrow \top$  and  $\Box(U \cap V) \Leftrightarrow \Box U \wedge \Box V$ .

## Directed unions

By the “**finite open sub-cover**” definition of compactness,  
if  $\square \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$  then  $\square \bigcup_{i \in F} U_i$  for some finite  $F \subset I$ .

This definition can be simplified by assuming something about the system  $\{U_i \mid i \in I\}$ .

We call it **directed** if  $I$  is **non-empty** (better, **inhabited**)  
and, for each  $U_i, U_j$  there's some  $U_k$  with  $U_i \cup U_j \subset U_k$ .

Then the “**finite open sub-cover**” definition becomes:  
 $\square$  preserves **directed unions**.

# Scott continuity

A function between complete lattices that preserves directed unions is called **Scott continuous**.

Dana Scott (1972) defined the corresponding topology on function-spaces  $X \rightarrow (\odot)$ .

It is a special case (in fact, the critical one) of Ralph Fox's **compact–open topology** (1945).

The function-space  $X \rightarrow (\odot)$  is the topology (lattice of opens) of  $X$ , itself equipped with the Scott topology.

If  $X$  is locally compact, so is  $X \rightarrow (\odot)$ .

In our language, **all functions are continuous** in the traditional Weierstrass “ $\epsilon$ – $\delta$ ” sense for  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  in Scott's “directed joins” sense for function-spaces.

Any compact subspace  $K \subset H$  of a Hausdorff space is closed.

In the ambient Hausdorff space  $H$ ,  
 $x \neq y$  is an open predicate (since  $H \subset H \times H$  is closed).

The compact subspace  $K \subset H$  has a  $\square$  operator.

The closed subspace is defined by its open/observable **non**-membership predicate.

This is  $\omega x \equiv \square(\lambda y. x \neq y)$ .

It says that  $x \notin C$  iff  $C \subset \{y \mid x \neq y\} \equiv \overline{\{x\}}$ .

Any closed subspace  $C \subset K$  of a compact space is compact.

The ambient compact space  $H$  has a  $\square$  operator that we call  $\forall_K$   
with  $\forall_K \phi \Leftrightarrow \top$  iff  $\phi \Leftrightarrow \top$ .

The closed subspace has an open non-membership predicate  $\omega$ .

As a compact subspace, it has a  $\square$  operator given by

$$\square \phi \equiv \forall_K(\omega \vee \phi)$$

which says that  $\phi$  and the complement  $\omega$  of  $C$  together cover  $K$ .

# The Intermediate Value Theorem in ASD

Develop  $\square$  as a **finitary** theory of compact subspaces using the modal laws.

Develop  $\diamond$  as a theory of **overt** subspaces using the modal laws in an entirely lattice (“de Morgan”) dual way.

Use the modal laws for compact overt  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  to define a Dedekind cut, which is  $\max K$ .

(Bishop-style constructive analysis uses total boundedness to do this.)

$[0, 1]$  is connected — by the usual argument.

$\diamond$  (defined using straddling intervals) preserves joins.

Use interval-halving with  $\diamond$  to find stable zeroes.



## The subspaces $S$ and $Z$ again

In the non-singular case,  $\square$  and  $\diamond$  make the zero-set compact overt.  
It therefore has a maximum element!

The operators  $\square$  and  $\diamond$  are Scott-continuous  
throughout the parameter space (eg for  $x^3 - 3px - 2q = 0$ ),  
unlike  $Z$  and  $S$  considered as sets.

In the possibly singular case (eg double zeroes)  
 $Z$  (all zeroes) is closed and compact, but not necessarily overt  
 $S$  (stable zeroes) is overt, but not necessarily closed.

# Midlands Graduate School

Next week at Birmingham University.

`www.cs.bham.ac.uk/~pbl/mgs`

Four (hour) lectures on Abstract Stone Duality.

Others on Category Theory, Lambda Calculus, Denotational Semantics, Functional Programming, Quantum Programming, Game Semantics, *etc.*

Accommodation still available: email `A.Jung@cs.bham.ac.uk`

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