

# Selection functions everywhere

Martín Escardó

Joint work with [Paulo Oliva](#) from Queen Mary, London.

LOGIC AND SEMANTICS SEMINAR, CAMBRIDGE, 28TH JAN 2011

## Selection

Paulo and I have published many papers about selection functions.

This talk is a selection of the material.

## Selection functions everywhere

1. Game theory. Optimal strategies
2. Proof theory. Program extraction from classical proofs with choice.
3. Topology. Tychonoff theorem
4. Logic and higher-type computability. Bar recursion.
5. Fixed points. Bekic's Lemma.

## Selection functions briefly

$X$  set of things.

Goods in a store; possible moves of a game; proofs of a proposition; point of a space.

$R$  set of values.

Prices; outcomes win, lose, draw; how much money you win; true or false; proofs again.

$X \xrightarrow{p} R$  value judgement.

How you value it; how much it costs you; pay-off of a move; propositional function.

$(X \rightarrow R) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} X$  selects something according to some criterion.

The best, the cheapest, any, something odd.

## Example 1

$X$  set of goods.

$R$  set of prices.

$X \xrightarrow{p} R$  table of prices.

$(X \rightarrow R) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} X$  selects a cheapest good in a given table.

$(X \rightarrow R) \xrightarrow{\phi} R$  determines the lowest price in a given table.

Fundamental equation:

$$p(\varepsilon(p)) = \phi(p).$$

The price of a cheapest good is the lowest in the table, of course.

$$\phi = \inf \quad \varepsilon = \operatorname{arginf},$$

$$p(\operatorname{arginf}(p)) = \inf(p).$$

## Example 2

$X$  set of individuals.

$R$  set of booleans  $\text{false} = 0 < 1 = \text{true}$ .

$X \xrightarrow{p} R$  property.

$(X \rightarrow R) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} X$  selects an individual with the highest truth value.

$(X \rightarrow R) \xrightarrow{\phi} R$  determines the highest value of a given property.

Fundamental equation:

$$p(\varepsilon(p)) = \phi(p)$$

$$\phi = \text{sup} = \exists$$

$$\varepsilon = \text{argsup} = \text{arg-}\exists = \text{Hilbert's choice operator}$$

$$p(\varepsilon(p)) = \exists(p) \quad \text{Hilbert's definition of } \exists \text{ in his } \varepsilon\text{-calculus}$$

## Maximum-Value Theorem

Let  $X$  be a compact non-empty topological space.

Any continuous function  $p: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  attains its maximum value.

This means that there is  $a \in X$  such that

$$\sup p = p(a).$$

However, the proof is non-constructive when e.g.  $X = [0, 1]$ .

A maximizing argument  $a$  cannot be algorithmically calculated from  $p$ .

Of course, there is a **Minimum-Value Theorem** too.

## Mean-Value Theorem

Any continuous function  $p: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  attains its mean value.

There is  $a \in [0, 1]$  such that

$$\int p = p(a).$$

Again this  $a$  cannot be found from  $p$  using an algorithm.



## Universal-Value Theorem

Let  $X$  be a non-empty set and  $2 = \{0, 1\}$  be the set of booleans.

Any  $p: X \rightarrow 2$  attains its universal value.

There is  $a \in X$  such that

$$\forall p = p(a).$$

This is again a classical statement.

This is usually formulated as the **Drinker Paradox**:

In any inhabited pub there is a person  $a$  s.t. if  $a$  drinks then everybody drinks.

We've also met the **Existential-Value Theorem**.

## General situation

With  $\phi$  among  $\exists, \forall, \sup, \inf, \int, \dots$ ,

$$\phi(p) = p(a)$$

for some  $a$  depending on  $p$ .

In favourable circumstances  $a$  can be calculated as

$$a = \varepsilon(p),$$

so that

$$\phi(p) = p(\varepsilon(p))$$

## Selection function

Definition.

A selection function for a (logical, arithmetical, . . . ) quantifier

$$\phi: (X \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R$$

is a functional

$$\varepsilon: (X \rightarrow R) \rightarrow X$$

such that

$$\phi(p) = p(\varepsilon(p)).$$

## Monad morphism

Every  $\varepsilon: (X \rightarrow R) \rightarrow X$  is the selection function of some  $\phi: (X \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R$ .

Namely  $\phi$  defined by

$$\phi(p) = p(\varepsilon(p)).$$

Also written  $\phi = \bar{\varepsilon}$ .

This construction defines a monad morphism  $\theta: J \rightarrow K$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \overbrace{(X \rightarrow R) \rightarrow X}^{JX} & \xrightarrow{\Theta} & \overbrace{(X \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R}^{KX} \\ \varepsilon & \longmapsto & \bar{\varepsilon} \end{array}$$

This is a morphism from the selection monad to the quantifier monad.

Oh, I mean to the continuation monad.

## Units of the monads

$$\begin{aligned} X &\xrightarrow{\eta} KX \\ x &\longmapsto \lambda p.p(x). \end{aligned}$$

(Universally and existentially) quantifies over the singleton  $\{x\} \subseteq X$ .

$$\eta(x) = \exists_{\{x\}} = \forall_{\{x\}}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} X &\xrightarrow{\eta} JX \\ x &\longmapsto \lambda p.x. \end{aligned}$$

Produces a selection function for the singleton quantifier.

## Functors of the monads

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned} KX &\xrightarrow{Kf} KY \\ \phi &\longmapsto \lambda p. \phi(\lambda x. p(f(x))). \end{aligned}$$

If  $\phi$  quantifies over a set  $S \subseteq X$ , then  $Kf(\phi)$  quantifies over the set  $f(S) \subseteq Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned} JX &\xrightarrow{Jf} JY \\ \varepsilon &\longmapsto \lambda p. f(\varepsilon(\lambda x. p(f(x)))). \end{aligned}$$

If  $\varepsilon$  is a selection function for  $\phi$ , then  $Jf(\varepsilon)$  is a selection function for  $Kf(\phi)$ .

## Multiplication of the quantifier monad

Involves the perhaps unfamiliar notion of quantification over quantifiers.

$$\begin{aligned} KKX &\xrightarrow{\mu} KX \\ \Phi &\longmapsto \lambda p. \Phi(\lambda \phi. \phi(p)). \end{aligned}$$

Suppose  $A \subseteq KX$  is a set such that each  $\phi \in A$  existentially quantifies over a set  $B_\phi \subseteq X$ , i.e.

$$\phi = \exists_{B_\phi}$$

Then the universal quantifier  $\forall_A \in KKX$  of the set  $A \subseteq KX$  satisfies

$$\mu(\forall_A)(p) = \forall \phi \in A \exists x \in B_\phi (p(x)).$$

## Multiplication of the selection monad

Now we have selection functions that select selection functions.

$$\begin{aligned} JJX &\xrightarrow{\mu} JX \\ E &\longmapsto \lambda p. E(\lambda \varepsilon. p(\varepsilon(p)))(p). \end{aligned}$$

Use the selection function  $E$  to find a selection function  $\varepsilon$  such that  $p(\varepsilon(p))$ , and apply this resulting selection function to  $p$  to find an element of  $X$ .



## Algebras

$KA \rightarrow A.$

$((A \rightarrow R) \rightarrow R) \rightarrow A.$

Double-negation elimination.

$JA \rightarrow A.$

$((A \rightarrow R) \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A.$

Peirce's Law.

Get different proof translation of classical logic into intuitionistic logic.

BTW, I think this gives a better explanation of call/cc. (Blackboard.)

## Strengths

$$\begin{aligned} X \times KY &\xrightarrow{t} K(X \times Y) \\ (x, \phi) &\longmapsto \lambda p. \phi(\lambda y. p(x, y)). \end{aligned}$$

If  $\phi$  quantifies over  $S \subseteq Y$ , then the resulting quantifier quantifies over  $\{x\} \times S \subseteq X \times Y$ .

$$\begin{aligned} X \times JY &\xrightarrow{t} J(X \times Y) \\ (x, \varepsilon) &\longmapsto \lambda p. (x, \varepsilon(\lambda y. p(x, y))). \end{aligned}$$

This produces a selection function for the above quantifier.

## We have monoidal monad structures

Because we have strong monads on a cartesian closed category.

$$\begin{aligned} TX \times TY &\xrightarrow{\otimes} T(X \times Y) \\ (u, v) &\longmapsto (T(\lambda x.t(x, v)))(u). \end{aligned}$$

**Warning.** This is one way of getting this.

The other way of getting this gives a different  $\otimes$ .

The monads are not commutative. (And this is good!)

The above choice of  $\otimes$  is what we need for our purposes.

(“left-to-right” as opposed to “right-to-left”.)

## Monoidal monad structures

$$\begin{aligned} TX \times TY &\xrightarrow{\otimes} T(X \times Y) \\ (u, v) &\longmapsto (T(\lambda x.t(x, v)))(u). \end{aligned}$$

1. Sequential games of length two.
2. Binary Tychonoff Theorem.
3. Bekic's Lemma. When  $X = R$  and hence  $JX = KX$ , an element of  $KX = ((X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X)$  is a fixed point operator iff it is its own selection function. Then Bekic's Lemma follows.

## Examples

$$\begin{aligned} KX \times KY &\xrightarrow{\otimes} K(X \times Y) \\ (\exists_A, \exists_B) &\longmapsto \exists_{A \times B}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} KX \times KY &\xrightarrow{\otimes} K(X \times Y) \\ (\forall_A, \exists_B) &\longmapsto \lambda p. \forall x \in A. \exists y \in B. p(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

## What about $J$ ?

Well, of course, its product  $\otimes$  commutes with that of  $K$ .

(Because we have a monad morphism.)

This means:

if

$\varepsilon \in JX$  is a selection function for  $\phi \in KX$

$\delta \in JY$  is a selection function for  $\gamma \in KY$ ,

then

$\varepsilon \otimes \delta$  is a selection function for  $\phi \otimes \gamma$ .

This is good for optimally playing games, as we'll see.

## Binary product of quantifiers and selection functions

In every pub there are a man  $a_0$  and a woman  $a_1$  such that if  $a_0$  buys a drink to  $a_1$  then every man buys a drink to some woman.

## Binary product of quantifiers and selection functions

In every pub there are a man  $b$  and a woman  $c$  such that if  $b$  buys a drink to  $c$  then every man buys a drink to some woman.

If  $X = \text{set of men}$  and  $Y = \text{set of women}$ , and if we define  $\phi = \forall \otimes \exists$  by

$$\phi(p) = (\forall x \in X \exists y \in Y p(x, y)),$$

then this amounts to saying that

$$\phi(p) = p(a)$$

for a suitable pair  $a = (b, c) \in X \times Y$ ,

This is calculated as  $a = (\bar{\varepsilon} \otimes \bar{\delta})(p)$  where  $\bar{\varepsilon} = \forall_X$  and  $\bar{\delta} = \exists_Y$ .



## Infinitely iterated left-to-right monoidal monad structure.

In certain categories of interest

There is a countable monoidal-monad structure

$$\otimes: \prod_i JX_i \rightarrow J \prod_i X_i$$

uniquely determined by the equation

$$\otimes_i \varepsilon_i = \varepsilon_o \otimes \otimes_i \varepsilon_{i+1}.$$

(Which turns out to be an instance of bar recursion.)

## Playing games

Products of selection functions compute optimal plays and strategies.

## First example

Alternating, two-person game that finishes after exactly  $n$  moves.

1. Eloise plays first, against Abelard. One of them wins (no draw).
2. The  $i$ -th move is an element of the set  $X_i$ .
3. The game is defined by a predicate  $p: \prod_{i < n} X_i \rightarrow \text{Bool}$  that tells whether Eloise wins a given play  $x = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1})$ .
4. Eloise has a winning strategy for the game  $p$  if and only if

$$\exists x_0 \in X \forall x_1 \in Y \exists x_2 \in X_2 \forall x_3 \in X_3 \cdots p(x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}).$$

## First example

4. Eloise has a winning strategy for the game  $p$  if and only if

$$\exists x_0 \in X \forall x_1 \in Y \exists x_2 \in X_2 \forall x_3 \in X_3 \cdots p(x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}).$$

If we define

$$\phi_i = \begin{cases} \exists_{X_i} & \text{if } i \text{ is even,} \\ \forall_{X_i} & \text{if } i \text{ is odd,} \end{cases}$$

then this condition for Eloise having a winning strategy can be equivalently expressed as

$$\left( \bigotimes_{i < n} \phi_i \right) (p).$$

## Calculating the optimal outcome of a game

More generally, the value

$$\left( \bigotimes_{i < n} \phi_i \right) (p)$$

gives the **optimal outcome** of the game.

This takes place when all players play as best as they can.

In the first example, the optimal outcome is **True** if Eloise has a winning strategy, and **False** if Abelard has a winning strategy.

## Calculating an optimal play

Suppose each quantifier  $\phi_i$  has a selection function  $\varepsilon_i$  (thought of as a policy function for the  $i$ -th move).

**Theorem.** The sequence

$$a = (a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) = \left( \bigotimes_{i < n} \varepsilon_i \right) (p)$$

is an **optimal play**.

This means that for every stage  $i < n$  of the game, the move  $a_i$  is optimal given that the moves  $a_0, \dots, a_{i-1}$  have been played.

## Finding an optimal strategy

Theorem. The function  $f_k : \prod_{i < k} X_i \rightarrow X_k$  defined by

$$f_k(a) = \left( \left( \bigotimes_{i=k}^{n-1} \varepsilon_i \right) (\lambda x.p(a :: x)) \right)_0$$

is an **optimal strategy** for playing the game.

This means that given that the sequence of moves  $a_0, \dots, a_{k-1}$  have been played, the move  $a_k = f_k(a_0, \dots, a_{k-1})$  is optimal.

## Second example

Choose  $R = \{-1, 0, 1\}$  instead, with the convention that

$$\begin{cases} -1 = \text{Abelard wins,} \\ 0 = \text{draw,} \\ 1 = \text{Eloise wins.} \end{cases}$$

The existential and universal quantifiers get replaced by  $\sup$  and  $\inf$ :

$$\phi_i = \begin{cases} \sup_{X_i} & \text{if } i \text{ is even,} \\ \inf_{X_i} & \text{if } i \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

The optimal outcome is still calculated as  $\bigotimes_{i < n} \phi_i$ , which amounts to

$$\sup_{x_0 \in X} \inf_{x_1 \in Y} \sup_{x_2 \in X_2} \inf_{x_3 \in X_3} \cdots p(x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}).$$



## Second example

The optimal outcome is

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -1 = \text{Abelard has a winning strategy,} \\ 0 = \text{the game is a draw,} \\ 1 = \text{Eloise has a winning strategy.} \end{array} \right.$$

Can compute optimal outcomes, plays and strategies with the same formulas.

# Classical choice

# Tychonoff Theorem

## Conclusion

Selection functions everywhere.