

## A much neglected mathematical object

I had noticed that, for many years, about my only use of the notion of a function was via the Rule of Leibniz, viz. that we have for any  $f, x, y$  of appropriately matching types

$$(0) \quad x = y \Rightarrow f.x = f.y$$

I also knew that the more formal expression of Leibniz's Latin phrase is probably

$$(1) \quad x = y \equiv (\exists f :: f.x = f.y)$$

but did not feel that that gave me much more:  
 $\Rightarrow$  follows from (0) and  $\Leftarrow$  follows from the existence of the identity function  $I$ .

A few months ago I realized that equality of functions is usually expressed by stating that we have for any  $g, h, x$  of appropriately matching types

$$(2) \quad g = h \equiv (\forall x :: g.x = h.x)$$

I could not help being struck by the symmetry between (1) and (2) in function and argument; it made me wonder to what extent the traditional distinction between function and argument is primarily a linguistic artefact. I was genuinely puzzled as no effort of mine at being more explicit about the appropriately matching

types succeeded in destroying the symmetry. In analogy to (0) I wrote down

$$(3) \quad g = h \Rightarrow g.x = h.x ,$$

but this only underlines the symmetry: (0) and (3) present function application as equality-preserving in both respects.

Seeing how (1) follows from (0), we can deduce (2) from (3) with the aid of the so far neglected mathematical object: the identity argument  $i$ .

The introduction of the identity argument  $i$  indeed fully restores the symmetry between function and argument, but at the price mathematicians are traditionally unwilling to pay: the resulting theory only admits the trivial (i.e. one-point) model. The following argument is essentially due to Samson Abramsky. We have

$$(4) \quad I.x = x \text{ for any } x$$

$$(5) \quad f.i = f \text{ for any } f .$$

Define function  $F$  by

$$(6) \quad F.x = I$$

Then we observe for any  $x$

$$\begin{aligned} & x \\ &= \{(4)\} \\ & I.x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \{(6) \text{ with } x := i\} \\
 &\quad (F.i).x \\
 &= \{(5) \text{ with } f := F\} \\
 &\quad \overline{F}.x \\
 &= \{(6)\} \\
 &\quad I
 \end{aligned}$$

hence  $(\forall x :: x = I)$  and  $(\forall x, y :: x = y)$ .

The  $\lambda$ -calculus allows us to define - like in (4) and (6) - a function  $F$  by

$F.x =$  an expression that may contain  $x$

(if not, as in (6), we define what is known in the jargon as "a constant function").

The alternative is the permission to define - like in (5) - an argument  $X$  by

$f.X =$  an expression that may contain  $f$

(if not, we define what the jargon should call "a constant argument").

The combination of both freedoms is more than we care to live with.

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