

CSE 505: Concepts of Programming Languages

Dan Grossman

Fall 2008

Lecture 7— Substitution; Simply Typed Lambda Calculus

Review

λ -calculus syntax:

$$e ::= \lambda x. e \mid x \mid e e$$

$$v ::= \lambda x. e$$

Call-By-Value Left-Right Small-Step Operational Semantics:

$$\boxed{e \rightarrow e'}$$

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x. e) v \rightarrow e[v/x]} \quad \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2} \quad \frac{e_2 \rightarrow e'_2}{v e_2 \rightarrow v e'_2}$$

Call-By-Name Small-Step Operational Semantics:

$$\boxed{e \rightarrow e'}$$

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x. e) e' \rightarrow e[e'/x]} \quad \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2}$$

Call-By-Need in theory “optimizes” Call-By-Name

For most of course, assume CBV Left-Right

Formalism not done yet

Need to define substitution—shockingly subtle

Informally: $e[e'/x]$ “ replaces occurrences of x in e with e' ”

$$e_1[e_2/x] = e_3$$

Attempt 1:

$$\begin{array}{c} \frac{}{x[e/x] = e} \qquad \frac{y \neq x}{y[e/x] = y} \qquad \frac{e_1[e/x] = e'_1}{(\lambda y. e_1)[e/x] = \lambda y. e'_1} \\ \\ \frac{e_1[e/x] = e'_1 \quad e_2[e/x] = e'_2}{(e_1 e_2)[e/x] = e'_1 e'_2} \end{array}$$

Getting substitution right

Attempt 2:

$$\frac{e_1[e/x] = e'_1 \quad y \neq x}{(\lambda y. e_1)[e/x] = \lambda y. e'_1}$$

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x. e_1)[e/x] = \lambda x. e_1}$$

What if e is y or $\lambda z. y$ or, in general y is *free* in e ? This *mistake* is called *capture*.

It doesn't happen under CBV/CBN *if* our source program has *no free variables*.

Can happen under full reduction.

Another Try

Attempt 3:

First define the “free variables of an expression” $FV(e)$:

$$FV(x) = \{x\}$$

$$FV(e_1 e_2) = FV(e_1) \cup FV(e_2)$$

$$FV(\lambda x. e) = FV(e) - \{x\}$$

Now define substitution with these rules for functions:

$$\frac{e_1[e/x] = e'_1 \quad y \neq x \quad y \notin FV(e)}{(\lambda y. e_1)[e/x] = \lambda y. e'_1}$$

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x. e_1)[e/x] = \lambda x. e_1}$$

But a *partial* definition (as stands, could get stuck because there is no substitution).

Implicit Renaming

- A *partial* definition because of the *syntactic accident* that y was used as a binder (should not be visible – local names shouldn't matter).
- So we allow *implicit systematic renaming* (of a binding and all its bound occurrences).
- So the left rule can always apply (can drop the right rule).
- In general, we *never* distinguish terms that differ only in the names of variables. (A key language-design principle!)
- So now even “different syntax trees” can be the “same term”.

Summary and some jargon

- If everything is a function, every step involves an application:
 $(\lambda x. e)e' \rightarrow e[e'/x]$ (called β -reduction)
- Substitution avoids capture via implicit renaming (called α -conversion)
- With full reduction, $(\lambda x. e x) \rightarrow e$ makes sense if $x \notin FV(e)$ (called η -reduction), for CBV it can change termination behavior
 - But advanced Camlers scoff at `fun x -> f x`, since that's equivalent to `f`.

Most languages use CBV application, some use call-by-need.

Our Turing-complete language models functions and encodes everything else.

Why types?

Our *untyped* λ -calculus is universal, like assembly language. But we might want to allow *fewer programs*

1. Catch “simple” mistakes (e.g., “if” applied to “mkpair”) early (but a decidable type system must be conservative)
2. (Safety) Prevent getting stuck (e.g., $x e$) (but for pure λ -calculus, just need to prevent free variables)
3. Enforce encapsulation (an *abstract type*)
 - clients can’t break invariants
 - clients can’t assume an implementation
 - requires safety

Continued...

Why types? continued

4. Assuming well-typedness allows faster implementations
 - smaller interfaces enable optimizations
 - don't have to check for being stuck
 - orthogonal to safety (e.g., C)
5. Syntactic overloading (not too interesting)
 - “late binding” (via run-time types) very interesting
6. Detect other errors via extensions (often “effect systems”)
 - dangling pointers, data races, uncaught exceptions, tainted data, ... analysis, ...

(Deep similarities in analyses suggest type systems a, “good way to think-about/define/prove what you're checking”)

We'll really focus on (1), (2), and (3) though (plus (6) if have time???)

What is a type system?

Er, uh, you know it when you see it. Some clues:

- A decidable (?) judgment for classifying programs (e.g., $e_1 + e_2$ has type int if e_1 and e_2 have type int else it *has no type*)
- Fairly syntax directed (non-example??: e terminates within 100 steps)
- A sound (?) abstraction of computation (e.g., if $e_1 + e_2$ has type int, then evaluation produces an int (with caveats!))

This is a CS-centric, PL-centric view. Foundational type theory has more rigorous answers (type systems are proof systems for logics)

Plan for a couple weeks

- Simply typed λ calculus (ST λ C)
- (Syntactic) Type Soundness (i.e., safety)
- Extensions (pairs, sums, lists, recursion)

Then a break from types for abstract machines, continuations, midterm

- Subtyping
- Polymorphic types (generics)
- Recursive types
- Abstract types

Homework: Adding back mutation

Omitted: Type inference

Adding constants

Let's add integers to our CBV small-step λ -calculus:

$$e ::= \lambda x. e \mid x \mid e e \mid c$$

$$v ::= \lambda x. e \mid c$$

We could add $+$ and other *primitives* or just parameterize “programs” by them: $\lambda plus. e$. (Like Pervasives in Caml.)

$$\boxed{e \rightarrow e'}$$

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x. e) v \rightarrow e[v/x]} \quad \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2} \quad \frac{e_2 \rightarrow e'_2}{v e_2 \rightarrow v e'_2}$$

What are the *stuck* states? Why don't we want them?

Wrong Attempt

$\tau ::= \text{int} \mid \text{fn}$

$\vdash e : \tau$

$$\frac{}{\vdash \lambda x. e : \text{fn}} \quad \frac{}{\vdash c : \text{int}} \quad \frac{\vdash e_1 : \text{fn} \quad \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{\vdash e_1 e_2 : \text{int}}$$

1. NO: can get stuck, $(\lambda x. y) 3$
2. NO: too restrictive, $(\lambda x. x 3) (\lambda y. y)$
3. NO: types not preserved, $(\lambda x. \lambda y. y) 3$

Getting it right

1. Need to type-check function bodies, which have free variables
2. Need to distinguish functions according to argument and result types

For (1): $\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : \tau$ and $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$.

For (2): $\tau ::= \text{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$ (an infinite number of types)

E.g.s: $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$, $(\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}$, $\text{int} \rightarrow (\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int})$.

Concrete syntax note: \rightarrow is right-associative, so

$\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3$ is $\tau_1 \rightarrow (\tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3)$.

ST λ C Type System

$\tau ::= \text{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$

$\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x:\tau$

$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$

$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash c : \text{int}}$

$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)}$

$\frac{\Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$

$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau_1}$

The *function-introduction* rule is the interesting one...

A closer look

$$\frac{\Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

1. Where did τ_1 come from?
 - Our rule “inferred” or “guessed” it.
 - To be syntax directed, change $\lambda x. e$ to $\lambda x : \tau. e$ and use that τ .
2. Can think of “adding x ” as shadowing or requiring $x \notin \text{Dom}(\Gamma)$. Systematic renaming (α -conversion) ensures $x \notin \text{Dom}(\Gamma)$ is not a problem.
3. Still “too restrictive”. E.g.: $(\lambda x. (x (\lambda y. y)) (x \mathbf{3})) \lambda z. z$ does not get stuck, but doesn't type-check
 - $((\lambda z. z)(\lambda y. y))((\lambda z. z) \mathbf{3})$ type-checks though

Always restrictive

“gets stuck” undecidable: If e has no constants or free variables, then e (3 4) (or $e x$) gets stuck iff e terminates.

Old conclusion: “Strong types for weak minds” – need back door (unchecked cast)

Modern conclusion: Make “false positives” (reject safe program) rare and “false negatives” (allow unsafe program) impossible. Be Turing-complete and convenient even when having to “work around” a false positive.

Justification: false negatives too expensive, have resources to use fancy type systems to make “rare” a reality.

Evaluating ST λ C

1. Does ST λ C prevent false negatives? Yes.
2. Does ST λ C make false positives rare? No. (A starting point)

Big note: “Getting stuck” depends on the semantics. If we add $c\ v \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ and $x\ v \rightarrow \mathbf{42}$ we “don’t need” a type system. Or we could say $c\ v$ and $x\ v$ “are values”.

That is, the language dictator deemed $c\ e$ and free variables bad (not “answers” and not “reducible”). Our type system is a conservative checker that they won’t occur.

Type Soundness

We will take a *syntactic* (operational) approach to soundness/safety (the popular way since the early 90s)...

Thm (Type Safety): If $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$ then e diverges or $e \rightarrow^n v$ for an n and v such that $\cdot \vdash v : \tau$.

- That is, if $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \rightarrow^n e'$, then e' is not stuck (it might be a value).

Proof: By induction on n using the next two lemmas.

Lemma (Preservation): If $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \rightarrow e'$, then $\cdot \vdash e' : \tau$.

Lemma (Progress): If $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$, then e is a value or there exists an e' such that $e \rightarrow e'$.