

CSE505: Graduate Programming Languages

Lecture 9 — Simply Typed Lambda Calculus

Dan Grossman  
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# Types

Major new topic worthy of several lectures: Type systems

- ▶ Continue to use (CBV) Lambda Calculus as our core model
- ▶ But will soon enrich with other common primitives

This lecture:

- ▶ Motivation for type systems
- ▶ What a type system is designed to do and not do
  - ▶ Definition of stuckness, soundness, completeness, etc.
- ▶ The Simply-Typed Lambda Calculus
  - ▶ A basic and natural type system
  - ▶ Starting point for more expressiveness later

Next lecture:

- ▶ Prove Simply-Typed Lambda Calculus is sound

## Review: L-R CBV Lambda Calculus

$$\begin{aligned}e & ::= \lambda x. e \mid x \mid e e \\v & ::= \lambda x. e\end{aligned}$$

Implicit systematic renaming of bound variables

- ▶  $\alpha$ -equivalence on expressions (“the same term”)

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

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

$$\boxed{e_1[e_2/x] = e_3}$$

$$\frac{}{x[e/x] = e} \quad \frac{y \neq x}{y[e/x] = y} \quad \frac{e_1[e/x] = e'_1 \quad e_2[e/x] = e'_2}{(e_1 e_2)[e/x] = e'_1 e'_2}$$

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

# Introduction to Types

Naive thought: More powerful PLs are *always* better

- ▶ Be Turing Complete (e.g., Lambda Calculus or x86 Assembly)
- ▶ Have really flexible features (e.g., lambdas)
- ▶ Have conveniences to keep programs short

If this is the *only* metric, types are a step backward

- ▶ Whole point is to allow fewer programs
- ▶ A “filter” between abstract syntax and compiler/interpreter
  - ▶ Fewer programs in language means less for a correct implementation
- ▶ So if types are a great idea, they must help with other desirable properties for a PL...

# Why types? (Part 1)

1. Catch “simple” mistakes early, even for untested code
  - ▶ Example: “if” applied to “mkpair”
  - ▶ Even if some too-clever programmer meant to do it
  - ▶ Even though decidable type systems must be conservative

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  - ▶ Even though decidable type systems must be conservative
2. (Safety) Prevent getting stuck (e.g.,  $x v$ )
  - ▶ Ensure execution never gets to a “meaningless” state
  - ▶ But “meaningless” depends on the semantics
  - ▶ Each PL typically makes some things type errors (again being conservative) and others run-time errors

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3. Enforce encapsulation (an *abstract type*)
  - ▶ Clients can't break invariants
  - ▶ Clients can't assume an implementation
  - ▶ Requires safety, meaning no “stuck” states that corrupt run-time (e.g., C/C++)
  - ▶ Can enforce encapsulation without static types, but types are a particularly nice way

## Why types? (Part 2)

4. Assuming well-typedness allows faster implementations
  - ▶ Smaller interfaces enable optimizations
  - ▶ Don't have to check for impossible states
  - ▶ Orthogonal to safety (e.g., C/C++)



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  - ▶ Only modestly interesting semantically
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6. Detect other errors via extensions
  - ▶ Often via a “type-and-effect” system
  - ▶ Deep similarities in analyses suggest type systems a good way to think-about/define/prove what you're checking
  - ▶ Uncaught exceptions, tainted data, non-termination, IO performed, data races, dangling pointers, ...

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We'll focus on (1), (2), and (3) and maybe (6)

# 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  $e_1, e_2$  have type `int` (else *no type*)
- ▶ A sound (?) abstraction of computation
  - ▶ E.g., if  $e_1 + e_2$  has type `int`, then evaluation produces an `int` (with caveats!)
- ▶ Fairly syntax directed
  - ▶ Non-example (?):  $e$  terminates within 100 steps
- ▶ Particularly fuzzy distinctions with *abstract interpretation*
  - ▶ Often a more natural framework for *flow-sensitive* properties
  - ▶ Types often more natural for *higher-order programs*

This is a CS-centric, PL-centric view. Foundational type theory has more rigorous answers

- ▶ Later lecture: Typed PLs are like proof systems for logics

## Plan for 3ish weeks

- ▶ Simply typed  $\lambda$  calculus
- ▶ (Syntactic) Type Soundness (i.e., safety)
- ▶ Extensions (pairs, sums, lists, recursion)

*Break for the Curry-Howard isomorphism; continuations; midterm*

- ▶ Subtyping
- ▶ Polymorphic types (generics)
- ▶ Recursive types
- ▶ Abstract types
- ▶ Effect systems

Homework: Adding back mutation

Omitted: Type inference

## Adding constants

Enrich the Lambda Calculus with integer constants:

- ▶ Not strictly necessary, but makes types seem more natural

$$\begin{aligned} e & ::= \lambda x. e \mid x \mid e e \mid c \\ v & ::= \lambda x. e \mid c \end{aligned}$$

*No new operational-semantics rules since constants are values*

We could add  $+$  and other *primitives*

- ▶ Then we would need new rules (e.g., 3 small-step for  $+$ )
- ▶ Alternately, parameterize “programs” by primitives:  
 *$\lambda plus. \lambda times. \dots e$* 
  - ▶ Like Pervasives in OCaml
  - ▶ A great way to keep language definitions small

# Stuck

Key issue: can a program “get stuck” (reach a “bad” state)?

- ▶ Definition: *e is stuck* if *e* is not a value and there is no *e'* such that  $e \rightarrow e'$
- ▶ Definition: *e can get stuck* if there exists an *e'* such that  $e \rightarrow^* e'$  and *e'* is stuck
  - ▶ In a deterministic language, *e* “gets stuck”

Most people don't appreciate that stuckness depends on the operational semantics

- ▶ Inherent given the definitions above

## What's stuck?

Given our language, what are the set of stuck expressions?

- ▶ Note: Explicitly defining the stuck states is unusual

$$\begin{aligned} e & ::= \lambda x. e \mid x \mid e e \mid c \\ v & ::= \lambda x. e \mid c \end{aligned}$$

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

(Hint: The full set is recursively defined.)

$$S ::=$$



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$$S ::= x \mid c v \mid S e \mid v S$$

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(Hint: The full set is recursively defined.)

$$S ::= x \mid c v \mid S e \mid v S$$

Note: Can have fewer stuck states if we add more rules

- ▶ Example: Javascript
- ▶ Example:  $\frac{}{c v \rightarrow v}$
- ▶ In *unsafe* languages, stuck states can set the computer on fire

# Soundness and Completeness

A *type system* is a judgment for classifying programs

- ▶ “accepts” a program if some complete derivation gives it a type, else “rejects”

A *sound* type system never accepts a program that can get stuck

- ▶ No false negatives

A *complete* type system never rejects a program that can't get stuck

- ▶ No false positives

It is typically *undecidable* whether a stuck state can be reachable

- ▶ Corollary: If we want an *algorithm* for deciding if a type system accepts a program, then the type system cannot be sound and complete
- ▶ We'll choose soundness, try to reduce false positives in practice

# Wrong Attempt

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

$\vdash e : \tau$

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

## Wrong Attempt

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

$\vdash e : \tau$

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

## Getting it right

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

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

- ▶ Require whole program to type-check under empty context  $\cdot$

For (2):  $\tau ::= \mathbf{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau$

- ▶ An infinite number of types:  
 $\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}, (\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}) \rightarrow \mathbf{int}, \mathbf{int} \rightarrow (\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}), \dots$

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

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

# STLC Type System

$$\begin{aligned}\tau &::= \text{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau \\ \Gamma &::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x:\tau\end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}$$

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

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

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

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

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

## A closer look

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

Where did  $\tau_1$  come from?

- ▶ Our rule “inferred” or “guessed” it
- ▶ To be syntax directed, change  $\lambda x. e$  to  $\lambda x : \tau. e$  and use that  $\tau$

Can think of “adding  $x$ ” as shadowing or requiring  $x \notin \text{Dom}(\Gamma)$

- ▶ Systematic renaming ( $\alpha$ -conversion) ensures  $x \notin \text{Dom}(\Gamma)$  is not a problem



## A closer look

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

Is our type system too restrictive?

- ▶ That's a matter of opinion
- ▶ But it does reject programs that don't get stuck

Example:  $(\lambda x. (x (\lambda y. y)) (x 3)) \lambda z. z$

- ▶ Does not get stuck: Evaluates to 3
- ▶ Does not type-check:
  - ▶ There is no  $\tau_1, \tau_2$  such that  $x : \tau_1 \vdash (x (\lambda y. y)) (x 3) : \tau_2$  because you have to pick *one* type for  $x$

# Always restrictive

Whether or not a program “gets stuck” is undecidable:

- ▶ If  $e$  has no constants or free variables, then  $e$  (**3 4**) or  $e\ x$  gets stuck if and only if  $e$  terminates (cf. the halting problem)

Old conclusion: “Strong types for weak minds”

- ▶ Need a back door (unchecked casts)

Modern conclusion: Unsafe constructs almost never worth the risk

- ▶ Make “false positives” (rejecting safe program) rare enough
  - ▶ Have compile-time resources for “fancy” type systems
- ▶ Make workarounds for false positives convenient enough

## How does STLC measure up?

So far, STLC is sound:

- ▶ As language dictators, we decided  $c$   $v$  and undefined variables were “bad” meaning neither values nor reducible
- ▶ Our type system is a conservative checker that an expression will never get stuck

But STLC is far too restrictive:

- ▶ In practice, just too often that it prevents safe and natural code reuse
- ▶ More fundamentally, it's not even Turing-complete
  - ▶ Turns out all (well-typed) programs terminate
  - ▶ A good-to-know and useful property, but inappropriate for a general-purpose PL
  - ▶ That's okay: We will add more constructs and typing rules

# Type Soundness

We will take a *syntactic* (operational) approach to soundness/safety

- ▶ The popular way since the early 1990s

Theorem (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  $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$ , then  $e$  cannot get stuck

Proof: Next lecture