

A (Relatively) Pragmatic Introduction to the Formal Study of Programming Languages

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CSE505
October 26, 2001

Syntax

- What constitutes a well-formed program?
- BNF grammar

Dynamic Semantics

- How is a program evaluated?
- Denotational, axiomatic, **operational** semantics

Static Semantics

- Which well-formed programs “make sense” (i.e. typecheck)?
- Typing rules, typechecking algorithms

Type Soundness

- What does “make sense” mean?
- Soundness proofs

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Why Language Theory?

Elucidates the core ideas of programming languages.

- reduction, values, type errors, type soundness

Clarifies a language design and implementation.

- Which features are primitives, and which are “syntactic sugars”?
- How does this particular weird feature actually work?

Allows rigorous statements to be made about a program.

- Program P is (not) well-formed.
- P will evaluate to value v .
- Certain kinds of errors will not occur when P is run.

Provides a platform for language experimentation.

- Augment an existing language with my favorite construct.
- Augment an existing type system with my favorite kind of type.

It’s fun. Really.

How Language Theory?

A pragmatic approach.

- Focus on the core techniques used by language theorists today.
- Give up on traditional topics like domain theory, denotational semantics, and Hoare logic.

Place less emphasis on a particular language, concentrating instead on the (largely language-independent) techniques.

- Goal: Students should be able to read an average POPL paper and understand the goals of the work, key concepts, notation.

Relying on your questions, comments, feedback.

The λ -calculus

- Intimidating name, simple idea.
- No need to know Greek, derivatives, or integrals.
- Foundation of all functional programming languages.

Dynamic semantics for the λ -calculus

- Encodings of standard language constructs
- Structural operational semantics
- Specifying lazy vs. eager evaluation

Simply-typed λ -calculus

- The core of every type system.
- Simple and intuitive.

Type Soundness for the Simply-typed λ -calculus

Polymorphic Type Systems

Free and Bound Variables

The abstraction $\lambda x.e$ binds x in the body of e .

A variable reference x is **bound** if it appears in the scope of a binder of x . Otherwise the reference is **free**.

A term is **closed** if it has no free variable references.

α -renaming

- Bound variables can be renamed without changing a term's "meaning." $\lambda x_1.(x_2 x_1)$, $\lambda x_3.(x_2 x_3)$
- Free variables cannot be renamed. $\lambda x_1.(x_2 x_1)$, $\lambda x_1.(x_3 x_1)$

$$e ::= x \quad \text{variable}$$

$$\lambda x.e \quad \text{abstraction (function)}$$

$$e_1 e_2 \quad \text{application (function call)}$$

Conventions

- Metavariable x ranges over an infinite set of variable names.
- Metavariable e ranges over expressions (or **terms**) of the λ -calculus.

Where is the data that we pass to functions?

Some terms

- x
- $\lambda x.x$
- $(\lambda x_1.x_1 x_1) \lambda x_2.x_2$

Computing in the λ -calculus

The only way to evaluate terms is via function application.

$$(\lambda x.e_1) e_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto e_2]e_1 \quad (\beta\text{-reduction})$$

- $e \longrightarrow e'$ means e "evaluates in one step to" e'
- $[x \mapsto e_2]e_1$ means "the term obtained by replacing all free occurrences of x in e_1 with e_2 "

$$\begin{aligned} [x \mapsto e]x &= e \\ [x \mapsto e]x' &= x' && \text{if } x \neq x' \\ [x \mapsto e](\lambda x'.e') &= \lambda x'. [x \mapsto e]e' && \text{if } x \neq x' \\ &&& \text{and } x' \text{ not free in } e \\ [x \mapsto e](e_1 e_2) &= [x \mapsto e]e_1 [x \mapsto e]e_2 \end{aligned}$$

Examples

- $[x \mapsto x_0](x(\lambda x_1.(x_1 x))) = (x_0(\lambda x_1.(x_1 x_0)))$
- $[x \mapsto x_0](x(\lambda x.x)) = (x_0 [x \mapsto x_0](\lambda x_1.x_1))$
- $[x \mapsto x_0](x(\lambda x_0.(x_0 x))) = (x_0 [x \mapsto x_0](\lambda x_1.(x_1 x)))$

A **redex** is an expression that matches a reduction rule.

- $(\lambda x.e_1)e_2$

Reduce each redex in a term until reaching a term with no redices, which is the “result” of the computation.

- $\frac{(\lambda x.(x x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))} \longrightarrow$
- $\frac{((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{(\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))} \longrightarrow$
- $\frac{(\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{(\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x)} \longrightarrow$
- $\lambda x.x$

A term that cannot be reduced further is in **normal form**.

Normal-order reduction (call-by-name, lazy)

- Reduce the leftmost, outermost redex.
- $\frac{(\lambda x.(x x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))} \longrightarrow$
- $\frac{((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{(\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))} \longrightarrow$
- $\frac{(\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{(\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x)} \longrightarrow$
- $\lambda x.x$

Applicative-order reduction (call-by-value, eager)

- Reduce the leftmost, outermost redex whose arg is in normal form.
- $\frac{(\lambda x.(x x))((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))}{(\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x))} \longrightarrow$
- $\frac{(\lambda x.(x x))(\lambda x.x)}{(\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.x)} \longrightarrow$
- $\lambda x.x$

Reduction Strategies (cont.)

Let \longrightarrow^* be the reflexive, transitive closure of the \longrightarrow relation.

Theorem (Church-Rosser #1): If $e_1 \longrightarrow^* e_2$ and $e_1 \longrightarrow^* e_3$, then there exists e_4 such that $e_2 \longrightarrow^* e_4$ and $e_3 \longrightarrow^* e_4$.

Corollary: Each term has a unique normal form (if any).

But not every term has a normal form.

- $(\lambda x.(x x)) (\lambda x.(x x)) \longrightarrow (\lambda x.(x x)) (\lambda x.(x x))$

Theorem (Church-Rosser #2): If e has a normal form, then the normal-order (lazy) reduction strategy will find it.

- $(\lambda x.(\lambda x_2.x_2)) ((\lambda x.(x x)) (\lambda x.(x x)))$

Expressive Power

Believe it or not, the λ -calculus is fully general: **Church’s thesis** is that every “effectively computable” function can be encoded as a λ -term.

Turing showed that every Turing machine can be encoded as a λ -term, and vice versa.

Practical impact: Useful as a platform for language design experimentation.

- See how a new construct works in a fully general setting.
- Caveat: No guarantee the new construct will interact well with other λ -calculus extensions!

What is the λ -calculus analogue of the halting problem?

Multiple Arguments

Simulate multiple arguments to a function via [higher-order](#) functions.

$\lambda(x_1, x_2).(x_1\ x_2)$ becomes $\lambda x_1.\lambda x_2.(x_1\ x_2)$

Technique known as [currying](#), after the logician Haskell Curry.

Church Booleans

A boolean value is a choice between two alternatives.

- $\text{tru} \equiv \lambda t.\lambda f.t$
- $\text{fls} \equiv \lambda t.\lambda f.f$

A conditional “executes” the choice: $\text{ifthenelse} \equiv \lambda b.\lambda t.\lambda e.b\ t\ e$

- $\text{ifthenelse}\ \text{tru}\ v\ w \xrightarrow{*}$
- $\underline{\text{tru}}\ v\ w \longrightarrow$
- $(\lambda f.v)\ w \longrightarrow$
- v

$\text{and} \equiv \lambda b_1.\lambda b_2.\text{ifthenelse}\ b_1\ b_2\ \text{fls} \equiv \lambda b_1.\lambda b_2.b_1\ b_2\ \text{fls}$

- $\text{and}\ \text{tru}\ \text{fls} \xrightarrow{*}$
- $\underline{\text{tru}}\ \text{fls}\ \text{fls} \longrightarrow$
- $(\lambda f.\text{fls})\ \text{fls}$
- fls

Church Booleans (cont.)

A boolean value is a choice between two alternatives.

- $\text{tru} \equiv \lambda t.\lambda f.t$
- $\text{fls} \equiv \lambda t.\lambda f.f$

What would “or” look like?

What would “not” look like?

Are these booleans any less “real” than booleans in traditional programming languages?

- What advantages do these booleans have?
- What disadvantages do they have?

Church Numerals

Define numbers in unary, via “zero” and “successor” (Peano arithmetic).

- $\text{zero} \equiv \lambda s.\lambda z.z$
- $\text{one} \equiv \lambda s.\lambda z.s\ z;$
- $\text{two} \equiv \lambda s.\lambda z.s(s\ z);$

The successor function just “adds another s ”.

- $\text{succ} \equiv \lambda n.\lambda s.\lambda z.s(n\ s\ z)$
- $\text{succ}\ \text{one} \longrightarrow$
- $\lambda s.\lambda z.s(\text{one}\ s\ z) \equiv$
- $\lambda s.\lambda z.s((\lambda s.\lambda z.s\ z)\ s\ z)$

How would “plus” be defined?

Surprisingly, recursion can be encoded, without any additional mechanism! It's mind-bending, but here's some intuition:

Start with factorial.

- $\text{fact} \equiv \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * \text{fact}(n-1)$

Replace recursive references with a call to an extra parameter.

- $\text{factf} \equiv \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n-1)$

Iteratively define partial factorial functions.

- $\text{fact0} \equiv \text{factf } \lambda x.x$
- $\text{fact1} \equiv \text{factf } \text{fact0}$
- $\text{fact2} \equiv \text{factf } \text{fact1}$
- ...

The function fact_∞ is equivalent to fact .

Recursion (cont.)

The **fixpoint** (Y) combinator performs the transformations of the previous slide.

$$\text{fix} \equiv \lambda g. (\lambda f. g(f f)) (\lambda f. g(f f))$$

- $(\lambda f. g(f f))$ corresponds to the transformation of factf to factff .
- $(\lambda f. g(f f)) (\lambda f. g(f f))$ corresponds to the call $(\text{factff } \text{factff})$.

This version only works under lazy evaluation; the call-by-value version is a little hairier.

$$\text{fact} \equiv \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * \text{fact}(n-1)$$

$$\text{factf} \equiv \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n-1)$$

Let's play a similar trick on f to the one we played on fact .

- $\text{factff} \equiv \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * (f f)(n-1)$

Alternatively, let's make the change "non-invasively."

- $\text{factff} \equiv \lambda f. \text{factf } (f f)$

Now pass factff to itself!

Claim: $\text{factff } \text{factff} \equiv \text{fact}$

- $((\text{factff } \text{factff}) 0)$ works trivially.
- $((\text{factff } \text{factff}) n) \equiv (n * ((\text{factff } \text{factff}) (n-1)))$

Notice the two uses of self-application!

Recursion Example

$$\text{fix} \equiv \lambda g. (\lambda f. g(f f)) (\lambda f. g(f f))$$

$$\text{factf} \equiv \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n-1)$$

Claim: $\text{fix } \text{factf} \equiv \text{fact}$

Let $h \equiv (\lambda f. \text{factf}(f f))$

- $\underline{\text{fix } \text{factf}} 0 \longrightarrow$
- $\underline{(\lambda f. \text{factf}(f f)) (\lambda f. \text{factf}(f f))} 0 \longrightarrow$
- $\underline{(\text{factf } (h h))} 0 \longrightarrow$
- $\underline{(\lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * (h h)(n-1))} 0 \longrightarrow$
- $\text{if } 0=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 * (h h)(0-1) \longrightarrow$
- $\text{if } \text{true} \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 * (h h)(0-1) \longrightarrow$
- 1

$\text{fix} \equiv \lambda g. (\lambda f. g(f f)) (\lambda f. g(f f))$

$\text{factf} \equiv \lambda f. \lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * f(n-1)$

Let $h \equiv (\lambda f. \text{factf}(f f))$

- $\text{fix factf } 1 \longrightarrow$
- $(\lambda f. \text{factf}(f f)) (\lambda f. \text{factf}(f f)) 1 \longrightarrow$
- $(\text{factf } (h h)) 1 \longrightarrow$
- $(\lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * (h h)(n-1)) 1 \longrightarrow$
- $\text{if } 1=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 1 * (h h)(1-1) \xrightarrow{*}$
- $1 * (h h)(1-1) \xrightarrow{*}$
- $1 * 1 \longrightarrow$
- 1

Operational Semantics

The “meaning” of a term is the value (if any) that it reduces to (along with the sequence of steps to get there).

Define an abstract machine that “computes” the value of any term.

A state of the machine consists of the term being evaluated, as well as any other auxiliary information necessary.

The transition relation is defined by a set of **inference rules**:

$$\frac{\langle \text{premise}_1 \rangle \quad \dots \quad \langle \text{premise}_n \rangle}{\langle \text{conclusion} \rangle}$$

“if $\langle \text{premise}_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle \text{premise}_n \rangle$ hold, then so does $\langle \text{conclusion} \rangle$ ”.

$$e ::= x$$

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

$$e ::= e_1 e_2$$

Some terms are in normal form, but don’t make semantic sense.

- x
- $x (\lambda x. x)$

The subset of normal-form terms that “make semantic sense” are called **values**.

Values are the legal results of computations. This is a language-specific notion.

What should the values be for the λ -calculus?

Call-by-Value Semantics

Syntax:

$$e ::= x$$

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

$$e ::= e_1 e_2$$

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

Structural (“small-step”) Operational Semantics:

$$\overline{(\lambda x. e)v \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v]e} \text{ (E-AppRed)}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \longrightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \longrightarrow e'_1 e_2} \text{ (E-App1)} \quad \frac{e \longrightarrow e'}{v e \longrightarrow v e'} \text{ (E-App2)}$$

An Example Derivation

$$\boxed{\frac{}{(\lambda x.e)v \rightarrow [x \mapsto v]e} \text{ (E-AppRed)} \quad \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2} \text{ (E-App1)} \quad \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{v e \rightarrow v e'} \text{ (E-App2)}}$$

A **derivation tree** defines one step of the machine.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{(\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.(x x)) \rightarrow (\lambda x.(x x)) \text{ (E-AppRed)}}{((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.(x x)))x \rightarrow (\lambda x.(x x))x} \text{ (E-App1)}}{(\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.x)(\lambda x.(x x)))x \rightarrow (\lambda x.x)((\lambda x.(x x))x)} \text{ (E-App2)}}$$

Derive reduction steps until reaching a normal form.

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Stuck Expressions

$$\boxed{\frac{}{(\lambda x.e)v \rightarrow [x \mapsto v]e} \text{ (E-AppRed)} \quad \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2} \text{ (E-App1)} \quad \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{v e \rightarrow v e'} \text{ (E-App2)}}$$

An expression e is **stuck** if e is not a value, but e cannot take a step (i.e. a derivation cannot be found).

$$\text{stuck} ::= x \\ \text{stuck } e \\ v \text{ stuck}$$

Grammar is deduced by case analysis of the syntax

- x cannot take a step
- $\lambda x.e$ is a value
- $(e_1 e_2)$: each e_i either can take a step, is stuck, or is a value

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Call-by-need Semantics?

Syntax:

$$e ::= x \\ \lambda x.e \\ e_1 e_2 \\ v ::= \lambda x.e$$

Structural Operational Semantics:

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Eventually Stuck Expressions

$$\boxed{\frac{}{(\lambda x.e)v \rightarrow [x \mapsto v]e} \text{ (E-AppRed)} \quad \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2} \text{ (E-App1)} \quad \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{v e \rightarrow v e'} \text{ (E-App2)}}$$

An expression e is **eventually stuck** if $e \xrightarrow{*} e'$ and e' is stuck.

- $(\lambda x_1.x_2)(\lambda x.x)$

What is the grammar representing eventually stuck expressions?

What do stuck and eventually stuck expressions correspond to in “real” programming languages?

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Syntax:

$$e ::= x$$

$$\lambda x.e$$

$$e_1 e_2$$

$$\text{true}$$

$$\text{false}$$

$$\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$$

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

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x.e)v \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v]e} \text{ (E-AppRed)} \quad \frac{e_1 \longrightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \longrightarrow e'_1 e_2} \text{ (E-App1)} \quad \frac{e \longrightarrow e'}{v e \longrightarrow v e'} \text{ (E-App2)}$$

Booleans (cont.)

What is the grammar of stuck expressions?

$$\text{stuck} ::= x$$

$$\text{stuck } e$$

$$v \text{ stuck}$$