Programming Languages and Types

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based on slides by Benjamin C. Pierce

The Lambda Calculus, formal

The lambda-calculus

- ▶ We have already studied the lambda calculus and some of its variants in the first part of the course.
- ► FAE *is* the lambda calculus plus a little bit of arithmetic.
- We can get rid of the arithmetic without loosing anything "essential".
- What this means is that other programming constructs can be encoded in the LC.

Formalities

Syntax

```
\begin{array}{cccc} \textbf{t} & ::= & & \textit{terms} \\ & \textbf{x} & & \textit{variable} \\ & & \lambda \textbf{x}. \textbf{t} & & \textit{abstraction} \\ & \textbf{t} & & & \textit{application} \end{array}
```

Terminology:

- terms in the pure λ -calculus are often called λ -terms
- ▶ terms of the form λx . t are called λ -abstractions or just abstractions

Syntactic conventions

Since λ -calculus provides only one-argument functions, all multi-argument functions must be written in curried style.

The following conventions make the linear forms of terms easier to read and write:

Application associates to the left

E.g.,
$$t$$
 u v means $(t$ $u)$ v , not t $(u$ $v)$

▶ Bodies of λ - abstractions extend as far to the right as possible

E.g.,
$$\lambda x$$
. λy . x y means λx . $(\lambda y$. x $y)$, not λx . $(\lambda y$. $x)$ y

Values

v ..= λ x.t

values abstraction value

Operational Semantics

Computation rule:

$$(\lambda x.t_{12}) \ v_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_2]t_{12}$$
 (E-AppAbs)

Notation: $[x \mapsto v_2]t_{12}$ is "the term that results from substituting free occurrences of x in t_{12} with v_{12} ."

Congruence rules:

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{t}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1' \ \mathtt{t}_2} \tag{E-APP1}$$

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_2'}{\mathtt{v}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathtt{v}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2'} \tag{E-APP2}$$

Terminology

A term of the form $(\lambda x.t)$ v — that is, a λ -abstraction applied to a *value* — is called a *redex* (short for "reducible expression").

Alternative evaluation strategies

Strictly speaking, the language we have defined is called the *pure*, *call-by-value lambda-calculus*.

Other evaluation strategies (call by name etc.) can be defined by changing the congruence rules accordingly.

In contrast to the substitution-based interpreter, we can also define full (non-deterministic) beta-reduction in SOS.

Lambda-Calculus

Programming in the

Multiple arguments by Currying

Consider the function double, which returns a function as an argument.

double =
$$\lambda f$$
. λy . f (f y)

This idiom — a λ -abstraction that does nothing but immediately yield another abstraction — is very common in the λ -calculus.

In general, λx . λy . t is a function that, given a value v for x, yields a function that, given a value u for y, yields t with v in place of x and u in place of y.

That is, λx . λy . t is a two-argument function.

The "Church Booleans"

tru =
$$\lambda$$
t. λ f. t
fls = λ t. λ f. f

Functions on Booleans

not =
$$\lambda$$
b. b fls tru

That is, not is a function that, given a boolean value v, returns fls if v is tru and tru if v is fls.

Functions on Booleans

and =
$$\lambda b$$
. λc . b c fls

That is, and is a function that, given two boolean values v and w, returns w if v is tru and fls if v is fls

Thus and v w yields tru if both v and w are tru and fls if either v or w is fls.

Pairs

```
pair = \lambda f. \lambda s. \lambda b. b f s
fst = \lambda p. p tru
snd = \lambda p. p fls
```

That is, pair v w is a function that, when applied to a boolean value b, applies b to v and w.

By the definition of booleans, this application yields v if b is tru and w if b is fls, so the first and second projection functions fst and snd can be implemented simply by supplying the appropriate boolean.

Example

Church numerals

Idea: represent the number n by a function that "repeats some action n times."

```
c_0 = \lambda s. \lambda z. z

c_1 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s z

c_2 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s z)

c_3 = \lambda s. \lambda z. s (s (s z))
```

That is, each number n is represented by a term c_n that takes two arguments, s and z (for "successor" and "zero"), and applies s, n times, to z.

Functions on Church Numerals

Successor:

```
scc = \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. s (n s z)
```

Addition:

```
plus = \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m s (n s z)
```

Multiplication:

```
times = \lambdam. \lambdan. m (plus n) c<sub>0</sub>
```

Zero test:

```
iszro = \lambdam. m (\lambdax. fls) tru
```

Predecessor is more difficult, but possible. I'll spare you the details.

Normal forms

Recall:

- A normal form is a term that cannot take an evaluation step.
- A stuck term is a normal form that is not a value.

Are there any stuck terms in the pure λ -calculus?

Does every term evaluate to a normal form?

Recursion and Divergence

$$\begin{array}{rclcrcl} Y & = & \lambda f. & (\lambda x. & f & x & x) & (\lambda x. & f & x & x) \\ Z & = & \lambda f. & (\lambda x. & f & (\lambda y. & x & x & y)) & (\lambda x. & f & (\lambda y. & x & x & y)) & y \end{array}$$

We have already seen fixed point combinators at work.

Y works in a call-by-name setting; Z also works with call-by-value.

Can be used to write divergent terms, such as Y $\lambda x.x.$

Induction on Derivations

Two induction principles

Like before, we have two ways to prove that properties are true of the untyped lambda calculus.

- Structural induction on terms
- ▶ Induction on a derivation of $t \longrightarrow t'$.

Let's look at an example of each.

Structural induction on terms

To show that a property \mathcal{P} holds for all lambda-terms \mathbf{t} , it suffices to show that

- P holds when t is a variable;
- ▶ \mathcal{P} holds when \mathbf{t} is a lambda-abstraction $\lambda \mathbf{x}$. \mathbf{t}_1 , assuming that \mathcal{P} holds for the immediate subterm \mathbf{t}_1 ; and
- ▶ P holds when t is an application t₁ t₂, assuming that P
 holds for the immediate subterms t₁ and t₂.

N.b.: The variant of this principle where "immediate subterm" is replaced by "arbitrary subterm" is also valid. (Cf. *ordinary induction* vs. *complete induction* on the natural numbers.)

An example of structural induction on terms

Define the set of free variables in a lambda-term as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} FV(\mathbf{x}) &= \{\mathbf{x}\} \\ FV(\lambda\mathbf{x}.\mathbf{t}_1) &= FV(\mathbf{t}_1) \setminus \{\mathbf{x}\} \\ FV(\mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2) &= FV(\mathbf{t}_1) \cup FV(\mathbf{t}_2) \end{aligned}$$

Define the size of a lambda-term as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \textit{size}(\textbf{x}) = 1 \\ & \textit{size}(\lambda \textbf{x}.\,\textbf{t}_1) = \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_1) + 1 \\ & \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_1 \,\,\textbf{t}_2) = \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_1) + \textit{size}(\textbf{t}_2) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem: $|FV(t)| \leq size(t)$.

An example of structural induction on terms

```
Theorem: |FV(t)| \leq size(t).
```

Proof: By induction on the structure of t.

- ▶ If t is a variable, then |FV(t)| = 1 = size(t).
- If t is an abstraction λx . t_1 , then

```
 |FV(t)| = |FV(t_1) \setminus \{x\}|  by defn  \le |FV(t_1)|  by arithmetic  \le size(t_1)  by induction hypothesis  \le size(t_1) + 1  by arithmetic  = size(t)  by defn.
```

An example of structural induction on terms

```
Theorem: |FV(t)| \leq size(t).
```

Proof: By induction on the structure of t.

▶ If t is an application t₁ t₂, then

```
\begin{array}{ll} |FV(\mathtt{t})| \\ = & |FV(\mathtt{t}_1) \cup FV(\mathtt{t}_2)| & \text{by defn} \\ \leq & |FV(\mathtt{t}_1)| + |FV(\mathtt{t}_2)| & \text{by arithmetic} \\ \leq & |size(\mathtt{t}_1)| + |size(\mathtt{t}_2)| & \text{by IH} \\ \leq & |size(\mathtt{t}_1)| + |size(\mathtt{t}_2)| + 1 & \text{by arithmetic} \\ = & size(\mathtt{t}) & \text{by defn.} \end{array}
```

Induction on derivations

Recall that the reduction relation is defined as the smallest binary relation on terms satisfying the following rules:

$$(\lambda \mathtt{x.t_{12}}) \ \mathtt{v_2} \longrightarrow [\mathtt{x} \mapsto \mathtt{v_2}]\mathtt{t_{12}} \qquad ext{(E-APPABS)}$$

$$\frac{\mathtt{t_1} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t_1'}}{\mathtt{t_1} \ \mathtt{t_2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t_1'} \ \mathtt{t_2}} \qquad \qquad ext{(E-APP1)}$$

$$\frac{\mathtt{t_2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t_2'}}{\mathtt{v_1} \ \mathtt{t_2} \longrightarrow \mathtt{v_1} \ \mathtt{t_2'}} \qquad \qquad ext{(E-APP2)}$$

Induction on derivations

Induction principle for the small-step evaluation relation.

To show that a property $\mathcal P$ holds for all derivations of $t\longrightarrow t'$, it suffices to show that

- P holds for all derivations that use the rule E-AppAbs;
- ▶ P holds for all derivations that end with a use of E-App1 assuming that P holds for all subderivations; and
- ▶ P holds for all derivations that end with a use of E-App2 assuming that P holds for all subderivations.

Example

Theorem: if $t \longrightarrow t'$ then $FV(t) \supseteq FV(t')$.

Induction on derivations

We must prove, for all derivations of $t \longrightarrow t'$, that $FV(t) \supseteq FV(t')$.

There are three cases.

If the derivation of t → t' is just a use of E-AppAbs, then t is (\(\lambda x \tau t_1\) v and t' is \([x \tau \tau v]\) t₁. Reason as follows:

$$FV(t) = FV((\lambda x.t_1)v)$$

$$= FV(t_1)/\{x\} \cup FV(v)$$

$$\supseteq FV([x|\rightarrow v]t_1)$$

$$= FV(t')$$

If the derivation ends with a use of E-App1, then t has the form t₁ t₂ and t' has the form t₁ t₂, and we have a subderivation of t₁ → t₁¹

By the induction hypothesis, $FV(t_1) \supseteq FV(t_1')$. Now calculate:

$$FV(t) = FV(t_1 t_2) = FV(t_1) \cup FV(t_2) \supseteq FV(t'_1) \cup FV(t_2) = FV(t'_1 t_2) = FV(t')$$

If the derivation ends with a use of E-App2, the argument is similar to the previous case.

Substitution and α -Equivalence

Substitution

Our definition of evaluation is based on the "substitution" of values for free variables within terms.

$$(\lambda x.t_{12}) \ v_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_2]t_{12}$$
 (E-AppAbs)

But what is substitution, exactly? How do we define it?

Answer: It's almost how we defined substitution for FAE and related languages.

One glitch: Substitution of a variable with terms with free variables.

Substitution as defined for FAE et al

```
\begin{split} [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{s} \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}](\lambda \mathbf{y}. \mathbf{t}_1) = \lambda \mathbf{y}. \quad ([\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_1) \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}](\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{t}_1) = \lambda \mathbf{x}. \quad \mathbf{t}_1 \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}](\mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2) = ([\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_1)([\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_2) \end{split}
```

What is wrong with this definition?

It suffers from variable capture!

$$[x \mapsto y](\lambda y.x) = \lambda x. x$$

Only a problem if terms with free variables can occur.

Trying to fix substitution...

```
\begin{split} [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{s} \\ [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{y} \\ [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}](\lambda \mathbf{y}. \mathbf{t}_1) &= \lambda \mathbf{y}. \quad ([\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_1) \\ [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}](\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{t}_1) &= \lambda \mathbf{x}. \quad \mathbf{t}_1 \\ [\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}](\mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2) &= ([\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_1)([\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_2) \end{split}
```

What is wrong with this definition?

Now substition is a partial function!

E.g.,
$$[x \mapsto y](\lambda y.x)$$
 is undefined.

But we want an result for every substitution.

Bound variable names shouldn't matter

It's annoying that that the "spelling" of bound variable names is causing trouble with our definition of substitution.

Intuition tells us that there shouldn't be a difference between the functions $\lambda x.x$ and $\lambda y.y$. Both of these functions do exactly the same thing.

Because they differ only in the names of their bound variables, we'd like to think that these *are* the same function.

We call such terms alpha-equivalent.

Alpha-equivalence classes

In fact, we can create equivalence classes of terms that differ only in the names of bound variables.

When working with the lambda calculus, it is convenient to think about these *equivalence classes*, instead of raw terms.

For example, when we write $\lambda x \cdot x$ we mean not just this term, but the class of terms that includes $\lambda y \cdot y$ and $\lambda z \cdot z$.

We can now freely choose a different *representative* from a term's alpha-equivalence class, whenever we need to, to avoid getting stuck.

Substitution, for alpha-equivalence classes

Now consider substitution as an operation over *alpha-equivalence classes* of terms.

```
\begin{split} [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{s} \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}](\lambda \mathbf{y}. \mathbf{t}_1) = \lambda \mathbf{y}. \quad ([\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_1) \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}](\lambda \mathbf{x}. \mathbf{t}_1) = \lambda \mathbf{x}. \quad \mathbf{t}_1 \\ [\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}](\mathbf{t}_1 \quad \mathbf{t}_2) = ([\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_1)([\mathbf{x} &\mapsto \mathbf{s}]\mathbf{t}_2) \end{split}
```

Examples:

- ▶ $[x \mapsto y](\lambda y.x)$ must give the same result as $[x \mapsto y](\lambda z.x)$. We know the latter is $\lambda z.y$, so that is what we will use for the former.
- ▶ $[x \mapsto y](\lambda x.z)$ must give the same result as $[x \mapsto y](\lambda w.z)$. We know the latter is $\lambda w.z$ so that is what we use for the former.

Types

Plan

- ► For now, we'll go back to the simple language of arithmetic and boolean expressions and show how to equip it with a (very simple) type system
- ► The key property of this type system will be soundness: Well-typed programs do not get stuck
- After that, we'll develop a simple type system for the lambda-calculus
- We'll spend a good part of the rest of the semester adding features to this type system

Outline

- begin with a set of terms, a set of values, and an evaluation relation
- define a set of types classifying values according to their "shapes"
- 3. define a *typing relation* t : T that classifies terms according to the shape of the values that result from evaluating them
- 4. check that the typing relation is sound in the sense that,
 - 4.1 if t : T and t \longrightarrow * v, then v : T
 - 4.2 if t : T, then evaluation of t will not get stuck

Review: Arithmetic Expressions – Syntax

```
terms
                                                 constant true
        true
        false
                                                 constant false
        if t then t else t
                                                 conditional
                                                 constant zero
        succ t
                                                 successor
        pred t
                                                 predecessor
        iszero t
                                                 zero test
                                               values
                                                 true value
        true
                                                 false value
        false
                                                 numeric value
        nν
                                               numeric values
nv :=
                                                 zero value
                                                 successor value
        succ nv
```

Evaluation Rules

Types

In this language, values have two possible "shapes": they are either booleans or numbers.

types type of booleans type of numbers

```
(T-True)
          true: Bool
                                        (T-False)
         false: Bool
t_1: Bool t_2: T t_3: T
                                             (T-IF)
 if t_1 then t_2 else t_3: T
                                         (T-Zero)
            0 : Nat
            t<sub>1</sub>: Nat
                                         (T-Succ)
         succ t_1 : Nat
            t<sub>1</sub>: Nat
                                         (T-Pred)
         pred t<sub>1</sub>: Nat
            t<sub>1</sub>: Nat
                                       (T-IsZero)
       iszero t<sub>1</sub>: Bool
```

Typing Derivations

Every pair (t,T) in the typing relation can be justified by a derivation tree built from instances of the inference rules.

Proofs of properties about the typing relation often proceed by induction on typing derivations.

Imprecision of Typing

Like other static program analyses, type systems are generally *imprecise*: they do not predict exactly what kind of value will be returned by every program, but just a conservative (safe) approximation.

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{Bool}}{\mathsf{if} \ \mathsf{t}_1 \ \mathsf{then} \ \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T} } \quad \mathsf{t}_3 : \mathsf{T}$$
 (T-IF)

Using this rule, we cannot assign a type to

```
if true then 0 else false
```

even though this term will certainly evaluate to a number.

Properties of the Typing

Relation

Type Safety

The safety (or soundness) of this type system can be expressed by two properties:

- 1. Progress: A well-typed term is not stuck If t:T, then either t is a value or else $t\longrightarrow t'$ for some t'.
- 2. Preservation: Types are preserved by one-step evaluation If t: T and $t \longrightarrow t'$, then t': T.

Inversion

Lemma:

- 1. If true : R, then R = Bool.
- 2. If false: R, then R = Bool.
- 3. If if t_1 then t_2 else t_3 : R, then t_1 : Bool, t_2 : R, and t_3 : R.
- 4. If 0 : R, then R = Nat.
- 5. If succ t_1 : R, then R = Nat and t_1 : Nat.
- 6. If pred t_1 : R, then R = Nat and t_1 : Nat.
- 7. If iszero $t_1 : R$, then R = Bool and $t_1 : Nat$.

Proof: ...

This leads directly to a recursive algorithm for calculating the type of a term...

Typechecking Algorithm

```
typeof(t) = if t = true then Bool
            else if t = false then Bool
            else if t = if t1 then t2 else t3 then
              let T1 = typeof(t1) in
              let T2 = typeof(t2) in
              let T3 = typeof(t3) in
              if T1 = Bool and T2=T3 then T2
              else "not typable"
            else if t = 0 then Nat
            else if t = succ t1 then
              let T1 = typeof(t1) in
              if T1 = Nat then Nat else "not typable"
            else if t = pred t1 then
              let T1 = typeof(t1) in
              if T1 = Nat then Nat else "not typable"
            else if t = iszero t1 then
              let T1 = typeof(t1) in
              if T1 = Nat then Bool else "not typable"
```

Canonical Forms

Lemma:

- 1. If v is a value of type Bool, then v is either true or false.
- 2. If v is a value of type Nat, then v is a numeric value.

Proof: Recall the syntax of values:

```
        v ::=
        values

        true
        true value

        false
        false value

        nv
        numeric value

        nv ::=
        numeric values

        o
        zero value

        succ nv
        successor value
```

For part 1, if v is true or false, the result is immediate. But v cannot be 0 or succ nv, since the inversion lemma tells us that v would then have type Nat, not Bool. Part 2 is similar.

Progress

Theorem: Suppose t is a well-typed term (that is, t: T for some type T). Then either t is a value or else there is some t' with $t \longrightarrow t'$.

Proof:

By induction on a derivation of t : T.

The T-TRUE, T-FALSE, and T-ZERO cases are immediate, since t in these cases is a value.

Case T-IF:
$$t = if t_1 then t_2 else t_3$$

 $t_1 : Bool t_2 : T t_3 : T$

By the induction hypothesis, either t_1 is a value or else there is some t_1' such that $t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'$. If t_1 is a value, then the canonical forms lemma tells us that it must be either true or false, in which case either E-IFTRUE or E-IFFALSE applies to t. On the other hand, if $t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'$, then, by E-IF, $t \longrightarrow if \ t_1'$ then t_2 else t_3 .

Progress

Theorem: Suppose t is a well-typed term (that is, t: T for some type T). Then either t is a value or else there is some t' with $t \longrightarrow t'$.

Proof: By induction on a derivation of t : T.

The cases for rules T-ZERO, T-SUCC, T-PRED, and T-ISZERO are similar.

(Recommended: Try to reconstruct them.)

Theorem: If t:T and $t\longrightarrow t'$, then t':T.

Proof: By induction on the given typing derivation.

Theorem: If t:T and $t\longrightarrow t'$, then t':T.

Proof: By induction on the given typing derivation.

Theorem: If t : T and $t \longrightarrow t'$, then t' : T.

Proof: By induction on the given typing derivation.

Case T-True: t = true T = Bool

Then t is a value, so it cannot be that $t \longrightarrow t'$ for any t', and the theorem is vacuously true.

Theorem: If t : T and $t \longrightarrow t'$, then t' : T.

Proof: By induction on the given typing derivation.

Case T-IF:

```
t = if t_1 then t_2 else t_3 t_1 : Bool t_2 : T t_3 : T
```

There are three evaluation rules by which $t \longrightarrow t'$ can be derived: E-IFTRUE, E-IFFALSE, and E-IF. Consider each case separately.

Theorem: If t : T and $t \longrightarrow t'$, then t' : T.

Proof: By induction on the given typing derivation.

Case T-IF:

```
t = if t_1 then t_2 else t_3 t_1 : Bool t_2 : T t_3 : T
```

There are three evaluation rules by which $t \longrightarrow t'$ can be derived: E-IFTRUE, E-IFFALSE, and E-IF. Consider each case separately.

Subcase E-IfTrue: $t_1 = true$ $t' = t_2$

Immediate, by the assumption $t_2 : T$.

(E-IFFALSE subcase: Similar.)

Theorem: If t : T and $t \longrightarrow t'$, then t' : T.

Proof: By induction on the given typing derivation.

Case T-IF:

```
t = if t_1 then t_2 else t_3 t_1 : Bool t_2 : T t_3 : T
```

There are three evaluation rules by which $t \longrightarrow t'$ can be derived: E-IFTRUE, E-IFFALSE, and E-IF. Consider each case separately.

Subcase E-IF: $t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'$ $t' = \text{if } t_1'$ then t_2 else t_3 Applying the IH to the subderivation of t_1 : Bool yields t_1' : Bool. Combining this with the assumptions that t_2 : T and t_3 : T, we can apply rule T-IF to conclude that if t_1' then t_2 else t_3 : T, that is, t': T.

The Simply Typed

Lambda-Calculus

The simply typed lambda-calculus

The system we are about to define is commonly called the *simply typed lambda-calculus*, or λ_{\rightarrow} for short.

Unlike the untyped lambda-calculus, the "pure" form of λ_{\rightarrow} (with no primitive values or operations) is not very interesting; to talk about λ_{\rightarrow} , we always begin with some set of "base types."

- ▶ So, strictly speaking, there are *many* variants of λ_{\rightarrow} , depending on the choice of base types.
- ► For now, we'll work with a variant constructed over the booleans.

Untyped lambda-calculus with booleans

```
t ::=
                                                terms
                                                  variable
        X
                                                  abstraction
        \lambda x . t.
        t t
                                                  application
                                                  constant true
        true
        false
                                                  constant false
                                                  conditional
        if t then t else t
                                                values
                                                  abstraction value
        \lambda x.t
        true
                                                  true value
                                                  false value
        false
```

"Simple Types"

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \mathtt{T} & ::= & \\ & \mathtt{Bool} \\ & \mathtt{T} {\rightarrow} \mathtt{T} & \end{array}$

types type of booleans types of functions

Type Annotations

We now have a choice to make. Do we...

annotate lambda-abstractions with the expected type of the argument

$$\lambda x:T_1.$$
 t₂

(as in most mainstream programming languages), or

continue to write lambda-abstractions as before

$$\lambda x$$
. t_2

and ask the typing rules to "guess" an appropriate annotation (as in OCaml)?

Both are reasonable choices, but the first makes the job of defining the typin rules simpler. Let's take this choice for now.

true : Bool (T-True)

false : Bool (T-FALSE)

$$\frac{t_1 : Bool \quad t_2 : T \quad t_3 : T}{if \ t_1 \ then \ t_2 \ else \ t_3 : T} \qquad (T-IF)$$

$$\frac{\lambda x : T_1 . t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \qquad (T-ABS)$$

$$\frac{x : T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \qquad (T-VAR)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ t_2 : T_{12}} \qquad (T-APP)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{true: Bool} & (\text{T-True}) \\ \text{false: Bool} & (\text{T-False}) \\ \\ \frac{t_1: \text{Bool}}{\text{if } t_1: \text{Bool}} & t_2: T & t_3: T \\ \hline \text{if } t_1: \text{then } t_2: \text{else } t_3: T \\ \\ \hline \frac{???}{\lambda x: T_1. t_2: T_1 \rightarrow T_2} & (\text{T-Abs}) \\ \\ \frac{x: T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x: T} & (\text{T-Var}) \\ \hline \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1: T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1: t_2: T_{12}} & (\text{T-App}) \end{array}$$

true : Bool (T-True)

false : Bool (T-FALSE)

$$\frac{t_1 : \text{Bool} \qquad t_2 : T \qquad t_3 : T}{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 : T} \qquad \text{(T-IF)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : T_1 . t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \qquad \text{(T-ABS)}$$

$$\frac{x : T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \qquad \text{(T-VAR)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ t_2 : T_{12}} \qquad \text{(T-APP)}$$

Typing Derivations

What derivations justify the following typing statements?

- \blacktriangleright \vdash (λ x:Bool.x) true : Bool
- ▶ f:Bool→Bool ⊢ f (if false then true else false):
 Bool
- ▶ f:Bool \rightarrow Bool \vdash λ x:Bool. f (if x then false else x) : Bool \rightarrow Bool

Properties of λ_{\rightarrow}

The fundamental property of the type system we have just defined is *soundness* with respect to the operational semantics.

- 1. Progress: A closed, well-typed term is not stuck If $\vdash t : T$, then either t is a value or else $t \longrightarrow t'$ for some t'.
- 2. Preservation: Types are preserved by one-step evaluation If $\Gamma \vdash t : T$ and $t \longrightarrow t'$, then $\Gamma \vdash t' : T$.

Proving progress

Same steps as before...

- inversion lemma for typing relation
- canonical forms lemma
- progress theorem

Inversion

Lemma:

- 1. If $\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : R$, then R = Bool.
- 2. If $\Gamma \vdash false : R$, then R = Bool.
- 3. If $\Gamma \vdash$ if t_1 then t_2 else $t_3 : R$, then $\Gamma \vdash t_1 :$ Bool and $\Gamma \vdash t_2, t_3 : R$.
- 4. If $\Gamma \vdash x : R$, then $x:R \in \Gamma$.
- 5. If $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x: T_1.t_2: R$, then $R = T_1 \rightarrow R_2$ for some R_2 with $\Gamma, x: T_1 \vdash t_2: R_2$.
- 6. If $\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ t_2 : R$, then there is some type T_{11} such that $\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow R$ and $\Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}$.

Canonical Forms

Lemma:

- 1. If v is a value of type Bool, then v is either true or false.
- 2. If v is a value of type $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$, then v has the form $\lambda x: T_1 \cdot t_2$.

Progress

Theorem: Suppose t is a closed, well-typed term (that is, $\vdash t : T$ for some T). Then either t is a value or else there is some t' with $t \longrightarrow t'$.

Proof: By induction on typing derivations. The cases for boolean constants and conditions are the same as before. The variable case is trivial (because t is closed). The abstraction case is immediate, since abstractions are values.

Consider the case for application, where $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2$ with $\vdash \mathbf{t}_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12}$ and $\vdash \mathbf{t}_2 : T_{11}$. By the induction hypothesis, either \mathbf{t}_1 is a value or else it can make a step of evaluation, and likewise \mathbf{t}_2 . If \mathbf{t}_1 can take a step, then rule E-APP1 applies to \mathbf{t} . If \mathbf{t}_1 is a value and \mathbf{t}_2 can take a step, then rule E-APP2 applies. Finally, if both \mathbf{t}_1 and \mathbf{t}_2 are values, then the canonical forms lemma tells us that \mathbf{t}_1 has the form $\lambda \mathbf{x} : T_{11} \cdot \mathbf{t}_{12}$, and so rule E-APPABS applies to \mathbf{t} .

Preservation

```
Theorem: If \Gamma \vdash t : T and t \longrightarrow t', then \Gamma \vdash t' : T.
```

Proof: By induction on typing derivations.

```
Case T-APP: Given \begin{array}{ccc} t=t_1 & t_2 \\ & \Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} {\rightarrow} T_{12} \\ & \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11} \\ & T=T_{12} \\ & \text{Show} & \Gamma \vdash t' : T_{12} \end{array}
```

By the inversion lemma for evaluation, there are three subcases...

Uh oh.

The "Substitution Lemma"

Lemma: Types are preserved under substitition.

That is, if Γ , $x:S \vdash t:T$ and $\Gamma \vdash s:S$, then $\Gamma \vdash [x \mapsto s]t:T$.

Proof: ...

Preservation

Recommended: Complete the proof of preservation

Base types

Up to now, we've formulated "base types" (e.g. Nat) by adding them to the syntax of types, extending the syntax of terms with associated constants (zero) and operators (succ, etc.) and adding appropriate typing and evaluation rules. We can do this for as many base types as we like.

For more theoretical discussions (as opposed to programming) we can often ignore the term-level inhabitants of base types, and just treat these types as uninterpreted constants.

E.g., suppose B and C are some base types. Then we can ask (without knowing anything more about B or C) whether there are any types S and T such that the term

$$(\lambda f:S. \lambda g:T. f g) (\lambda x:B. x)$$

is well typed.

The Unit type

```
terms
t ::= ...
       unit
                                          constant unit
                                         values
       unit
                                          constant unit
                                         types
                                          unit type
       Unit
New typing rules
                                                   Γ⊢t:T
                      Γ⊢ unit : Unit
                                                   (T-Unit)
```

Sequencing

terms

Sequencing

 $\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \mathtt{Unit} \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \mathtt{T}_2$

 $\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1; \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_2$

(T-SEQ)

Derived forms

- Syntatic sugar
- ▶ Internal language vs. external (surface) language

Sequencing as a derived form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathtt{t}_1; \mathtt{t}_2 & \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} & (\lambda \mathtt{x} : \mathtt{Unit}. \mathtt{t}_2) \ \mathtt{t}_1 \\ & & \mathsf{where} \ \mathtt{x} \notin FV(\mathtt{t}_2) \end{array}$$

Ascription

New syntactic forms

New evaluation rules

$$v_1$$
 as $T \longrightarrow v_1$ (E-ASCRIBE)

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{t}_1 \text{ as } \mathtt{T} \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1' \text{ as } \mathtt{T}} \qquad \text{(E-Ascribe1)}$$

New typing rules

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}}{\mathsf{(T-Ascribe)}}$$

 $\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t} : \mathsf{T}$

Ascription as a derived form

t as
$$T \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda x:T. x)$$
 t

Let-bindings

New syntactic forms

let binding

terms

New evaluation rules

$$\texttt{t} \longrightarrow \texttt{t}'$$

let
$$x=v_1$$
 in $t_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_1]t_2$ (E-LetV)

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{let} \ \mathtt{x=t}_1 \ \mathtt{in} \ \mathtt{t}_2 \longrightarrow \mathtt{let} \ \mathtt{x=t}_1' \ \mathtt{in} \ \mathtt{t}_2} \qquad \text{(E-Let)}$$

New typing rules

$$\Gamma \vdash t : T$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_1 \qquad \Gamma, \, \mathsf{x} : \mathsf{T}_1 \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : \, \mathsf{T}_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{let} \, \, \mathsf{x} = \mathsf{t}_1 \, \, \mathsf{in} \, \, \mathsf{t}_2 : \, \mathsf{T}_2} \tag{T-Let}$$

Pairs, tuples, and records

Pairs

Evaluation rules for pairs

Typing rules for pairs

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_2}{\Gamma \vdash \{\mathsf{t}_1, \mathsf{t}_2\} : \mathsf{T}_1 \times \mathsf{T}_2} \tag{T-PAIR}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_{11} \times \mathsf{T}_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 . 1 : \mathsf{T}_{11}} \tag{T-Proj1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_{11} \times \mathsf{T}_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 . 2 : \mathsf{T}_{12}} \tag{T-Proj2}$$

Tuples

Evaluation rules for tuples

$$\{v_i^{i\in 1..n}\}.j\longrightarrow v_j$$
 (E-ProjTuple)

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1'}{\mathsf{t}_1.\mathsf{i} \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1'.\mathsf{i}} \tag{E-Proj}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_{j} \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_{j}'}{\{\mathsf{v}_{i}^{i \in 1..j-1}, \mathsf{t}_{j}, \mathsf{t}_{k}^{k \in j+1..n}\}}$$

$$\longrightarrow \{\mathsf{v}_{i}^{i \in 1..j-1}, \mathsf{t}_{j}', \mathsf{t}_{k}^{k \in j+1..n}\}$$
(E-TUPLE)

Typing rules for tuples

$$\frac{\text{for each } i \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{t}_i : \mathbf{T}_i}{\Gamma \vdash \{\mathbf{t}_i \ ^{i \in 1..n}\} : \{\mathbf{T}_i \ ^{i \in 1..n}\}}$$
 (T-Tuple)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \{\mathsf{T}_i^{\ i \in 1..n}\}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1.\,\mathsf{j} : \mathsf{T}_i} \tag{T-Proj}$$

Records

Evaluation rules for records

$$\{1_i = v_i^{i \in 1..n}\} \cdot 1_j \longrightarrow v_j$$
 (E-ProjRcd)

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1'}{\mathsf{t}_1.1 \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1'.1} \tag{E-Proj}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_{j} \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_{j}'}{\{1_{i}=\mathsf{v}_{i}^{i\in 1..j-1}, 1_{j}=\mathsf{t}_{j}, 1_{k}=\mathsf{t}_{k}^{k\in j+1..n}\}} \longrightarrow \{1_{i}=\mathsf{v}_{i}^{i\in 1..j-1}, 1_{j}=\mathsf{t}_{j}', 1_{k}=\mathsf{t}_{k}^{k\in j+1..n}\}}$$
(E-RCD)

Typing rules for records

$$\frac{\text{for each } i \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_i : \mathsf{T}_i}{\Gamma \vdash \{\mathsf{1}_i = \mathsf{t}_i \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{}\} : \{\mathsf{1}_i : \mathsf{T}_i \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{}\}} \tag{T-Rcd}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \{1_i : \mathsf{T}_i^{i \in 1..n}\}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 . 1_j : \mathsf{T}_j} \tag{T-Proj}$$

Sums and variants

New syntactic forms

```
terms
inl t
                                         tagging (left)
                                         tagging (right)
inr t
case t of inl x\Rightarrowt | inr x\Rightarrowt case
                                       values
inl v
                                         tagged value (left)
                                         tagged value (right)
inr v
                                       types
T+T
                                         sum type
```

 T_1+T_2 is a disjoint union of T_1 and T_2 (the tags inl and inr ensure disjointness)

New evaluation rules

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{case (inl } v_0) & \longrightarrow [x_1 \mapsto v_0] t_1 \text{ (E-CASEINL)} \\ \text{of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \text{ | inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2 & \longrightarrow [x_2 \mapsto v_0] t_2 \text{ (E-CASEINR)} \\ \\ \text{of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \text{ | inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2 & & \\ \hline \frac{t_0 \longrightarrow t_0'}{\text{case } t_0 \text{ of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \text{ | inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2} \end{array} \tag{E-CASE} \end{array}$$

 \longrightarrow case t'_0 of inl $x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2$

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{inl} \ \mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{inl} \ \mathtt{t}_1'} \tag{E-Inl}$$

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{inr} \ \mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{inr} \ \mathtt{t}_1'} \tag{E-Inr}$$

New typing rules

Γ⊢t:T

$$\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \text{inl} \ t_1 : T_1 \! + \! T_2 \end{array} \qquad \text{(T-INL)} \\ \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr} \ t_1 : T_1 \! + \! T_2} \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash t_0 : T_1 \! + \! T_2 \\ \hline \Gamma, x_1 \! : \! T_1 \vdash t_1 : T \qquad \Gamma, x_2 \! : \! T_2 \vdash t_2 : T \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \text{case} \ t_0 \ \text{of} \ \text{inl} \ x_1 \! \Rightarrow \! t_1 \ \mid \ \text{inr} \ x_2 \! \Rightarrow \! t_2 : T \end{array} \! \right.$$

Sums and Uniqueness of Types

Problem:

If t has type T, then inl t has type T+U for every U.

I.e., we've lost uniqueness of types.

Possible solutions:

- "Infer" U as needed during typechecking
- Give constructors different names and only allow each name to appear in one sum type (requires generalization to "variants," which we'll see next) — OCaml's solution
- Annotate each inl and inr with the intended sum type.

For simplicity, let's choose the third.

New syntactic forms

```
t ::= ...
        inl t as T
        inr t as T

v ::= ...
        inl v as T
        inr v as T

tagging (left)
tagging (right)

values
tagged value (left)
tagged value (right)
```

Note that as T here is not the ascription operator that we saw before — i.e., not a separate syntactic form: in essence, there is an ascription "built into" every use of inl or inr.

New typing rules

 $\Gamma \vdash t : T$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } t_1 \text{ as } T_1 + T_2 : T_1 + T_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inr } t_1 \text{ as } T_1 + T_2 : T_1 + T_2}$$

$$(T-INR)$$

case (inl
$$v_0$$
 as T_0)
of inl $x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2$

$$\longrightarrow [x_1 \mapsto v_0]t_1$$
case (inr v_0 as T_0)

of inl
$$x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2$$
 (E-CASEINR)
 $\longrightarrow [x_2 \mapsto v_0]t_2$

$$rac{ t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'}{ ext{inl } t_1 ext{ as } t_2 \longrightarrow ext{inl } t_1' ext{ as } t_2}$$
 (E-INL)

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{inr} \ \mathtt{t}_1 \ \mathtt{as} \ \mathtt{T}_2 \longrightarrow \mathtt{inr} \ \mathtt{t}_1' \ \mathtt{as} \ \mathtt{T}_2} \qquad (\text{E-INR})$$

Variants

Just as we generalized binary products to labeled records, we can generalize binary sums to labeled *variants*.

New syntactic forms

case (
$$<$$
l $_j=v_j>$ as T) of $<$ l $_i=x_i>\Rightarrow t_i$ $_{i\in 1...n}$ (E-CASEVARIANT)
$$\frac{t_0\longrightarrow t_0'}{\text{case t}_0 \text{ of } <$$
l $_i=x_i>\Rightarrow t_i$ $_{i\in 1...n}$ (E-CASE)
$$\frac{t_0\longrightarrow t_0'}{\text{case t}_0 \text{ of } <$$
l $_i=x_i>\Rightarrow t_i$ $_{i\in 1...n}$ (E-VARIANT)
$$\frac{t_i\longrightarrow t_i'}{<$$
l $_i=t_i>$ as T \longrightarrow $<$ l $_i=t_i'>$ as T

New typing rules

 $\Gamma \vdash t : T$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_{j} : \mathsf{T}_{j}}{\Gamma \vdash <\mathsf{l}_{j} = \mathsf{t}_{j} > \text{ as } <\mathsf{l}_{i} : \mathsf{T}_{i} \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{>} : <\mathsf{l}_{i} : \mathsf{T}_{i} \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{>}} \left(\mathsf{T}\text{-VARIANT}\right)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_{0} : <\mathsf{l}_{i} : \mathsf{T}_{i} \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{>}}{\text{for each } i \quad \Gamma, \, \mathsf{x}_{i} : \mathsf{T}_{i} \vdash \mathsf{t}_{i} : \, \mathsf{T}}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{case} \ \mathsf{t}_{0} \ \mathsf{of} \ <\mathsf{l}_{i} = \mathsf{x}_{i} > \Rightarrow \mathsf{t}_{i} \stackrel{i \in 1..n}{:} : \, \mathsf{T}} \qquad \left(\mathsf{T}\text{-CASE}\right)$$

Example

```
Addr = <physical:PhysicalAddr, virtual:VirtualAddr>;
a = <physical=pa> as Addr;
getName = λa:Addr.
  case a of
    <physical=x> ⇒ x.firstlast
    | <virtual=y> ⇒ y.name;
```

Options and Enumerations

can be encoded using sum and product types, just like in Haskell.

Recursion

Recursion in λ_{\rightarrow}

- ▶ In λ_{\rightarrow} , all programs terminate. (Cf. Chapter 12.)
- ► Hence, untyped terms like Y and Z are not typable.
- ▶ But we can *extend* the system with a (typed) fixed-point operator...

Example

```
ff = \( \lambda \text{ie:Nat} \rightarrow Bool.
    \( \lambda x:Nat. \)
    if iszero x then true
    else if iszero (pred x) then false
    else ie (pred (pred x));

iseven = fix ff;

iseven 7;
```

New syntactic forms

$$f{t} ::= \dots & terms \\ fix t & fixed point of t$$

New evaluation rules

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{fix } (\lambda x : T_1 . t_2) \\ \longrightarrow [x \mapsto (\text{fix } (\lambda x : T_1 . t_2))] t_2 \end{array} \text{ (E-FIXBETA)} \\ \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'}{\text{fix } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{fix } t_1'} \end{array} \tag{E-FIX}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash t : T$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \, : \, T_1 {\rightarrow} T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fix } t_1 \, : \, T_1}$$

(T-FIX)

A more convenient form

```
letrec x:T_1=t_1 in t_2 \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=}  let x= fix (\lambda x:T_1.t_1) in t_2

letrec iseven : Nat\rightarrowBool =
\lambda x:Nat.
if iszero x then true
else if iszero (pred x) then false
else iseven (pred (pred x))
in
iseven 7;
```