

Foundations of Certified Programming Language and Compiler Design

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Outline



Lecture	Logic	Formalisms	PL
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2			Functional programming
3		Syntax and Semantics	
4			The untyped lambda calculus
5		Types	
6			The typed lambda calculus
7			Polymorphism
8		Curry-Howard	
9			Higher-order types
10			Dependent types

Goals



Let's understand the foundation of programming languages

- as a mathematical system
- that allows for proving theorems.



History

1920s/30s – Alonzo Church The (untyped) lambda calculus =

- A formal system in which all operations are reduced to
- function definition and
- function application.

1960s – Peter Landin A complex language =

- a tiny core calculus (that captures the language essentials) with
- a collection of derived forms (that can be translated into this core).

The core language of Landin was the lambda calculus.

1970s – John McCarthy Lisp is based on the lambda calculus.

The lambda calculus is both

- a simple programming language *in which* computations can be described and
- a mathematical object *about which* rigorous statements can be proved.



Abstraction

- Consider this expression: $(5*4*3*2*1) + (7*6*5*4*3*2*1) + (3*2*1)$
- A programmer would write: `factorial 5 + factorial 6 + factorial 3`
- and define: `factorial n = if n=0 then 1 else n * factorial (n-1)`
- where `factorial = λ n. if n=0 then 1 else n * factorial (n-1)`
- is a function/*abstraction* that yields ... for each n.

Application

- When stating `factorial 0`, we *apply*
- the function `λ n. if n=0 then 1 else n * factorial (n-1)`
- to the argument `0`, i.e.,
- *variable* `n` is replaced by `0` such that
- `if 0=0 then 1 else 0 * factorial (0-1)`
- to compute the result `1`.

The Untyped Lambda Calculus

Syntax



- The lambda calculus captures exactly this essence of programming in its purest form:

$t ::=$		terms:
x		variable
$\lambda x. t$		abstraction
$t t$		application

- Scope of variables: A variable x is said to be
 - bound** if it occurs inside the body t of an abstraction $\lambda x. t$.
(λx is a *binder* whose scope is t .)
 - free** if it occurs in a position where it is not bound by an abstraction.
- A term with no free variables is called a *closed term* or *combinator*.

`id = $\lambda x. x$`

The Untyped Lambda Calculus

Operational Semantics



In its pure form, the lambda calculus

- contains **no** built-in constants or primitives
- captures the sole means of computation: application of functions to arguments.

Each step in the computation

- *rewrites* an application with an abstraction on the left-hand side by
- *substituting* the term on the right-hand side for the variable in the abstraction's body:

$$(\lambda x. t_{12}) t_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto t_2] t_{12}$$

- where $[x \mapsto t_2] t_{12}$ means the term obtained by “replacing all **free** occurrences of x in t_{12} by t_2 .”



Beta Reduction

- According to Church:

redex (“reducible expression”) is a term of the form $(\lambda x.t_{12}) t_2$

beta reduction is the operation of *rewriting* a redex according to the substitution rule.

- Consider this term with 3 redexes:

$$(\lambda x.x) ((\lambda x.x) (\lambda z.(\lambda x.x) z)) \equiv \underline{\underline{\text{id} (\text{id} (\lambda z.\text{id } z))}}$$

- Several evaluation strategies exist:

full beta reduction where any redex may be reduced

normal order where the leftmost, outermost redex is reduced

call by name where reductions inside abstractions are not allowed

call by value where only outermost redexes are reduced *and* a redex is reduced only when its right-hand side is a value

$$\text{id} (\text{id} (\lambda z.\text{id } z)) \longrightarrow \text{id} (\lambda z.\text{id } z) \longrightarrow \lambda z.\text{id } z \not\longrightarrow$$

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full beta reduction where any redex may be reduced

normal order where the leftmost, outermost redex is reduced

call by name where reductions inside abstractions are not allowed

call by value where only outermost redexes are reduced *and* a redex is reduced only when its right-hand side is a value

- Evaluation strategies can be classified as

strict where all arguments are evaluated

lazy where only used arguments are evaluated

- The strategy is mostly irrelevant for the typed lambda calculus. (Let’s stick with call by value.)



Syntax

$$t ::=$$

	x
	$\lambda x.t$
	$t\ t$

terms:
variable
abstraction
application

$$v ::=$$

	$\lambda x.t$
--	---------------

values:
abstraction value

Evaluation Rules

$$\boxed{t \longrightarrow t'}$$

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1\ t_2 \longrightarrow t'_1\ t_2} \text{ E-APP1}$$

$$\frac{t_2 \longrightarrow t'_2}{v_1\ t_2 \longrightarrow v_1\ t'_2} \text{ E-APP2}$$

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

Substitution Formally



- Let's define a function $[x \mapsto s]$ inductively over terms t .
- A naive solution:

$$\begin{array}{lll} [x \mapsto s]x & = & s \\ [x \mapsto s]y & = & y \\ [x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) & = & \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 \\ [x \mapsto s](t_1 \ t_2) & = & ([x \mapsto s]t_1) \ ([x \mapsto s]t_2) \end{array} \quad \text{if } x \neq y$$

- But what about $[x \mapsto y](\lambda x. x) = \lambda x. y$?!

Substitution Formally

- Let's define a function $[x \mapsto s]$ inductively over terms t .
- Distinguish between the *free* and *bound* occurrences of variables in a term.

$$\begin{aligned}
 [x \mapsto s]x &= s \\
 [x \mapsto s]y &= y && \text{if } y \neq x \\
 [x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) &= \begin{cases} \lambda y. t_1 & \text{if } y = x \\ \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 & \text{if } y \neq x \end{cases} \\
 [x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) &= ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

- But what about $[x \mapsto z](\lambda z. x) = \lambda z. z$?!
- This problem is called *variable capture*.

Substitution Formally



- Let's define a function $[x \mapsto s]$ inductively over terms t .
- *Capture-avoiding substitution*:

$$\begin{aligned} [x \mapsto s]x &= s \\ [x \mapsto s]y &= y && \text{if } y \neq x \\ [x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) &= \begin{cases} \lambda y. t_1 & \text{if } y = x \\ \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 & \text{if } y \neq x \text{ and } y \notin FV(s) \end{cases} \\ [x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) &= ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_2) \end{aligned}$$

- This function is only partial! Consider $[x \mapsto y z](\lambda y. x y)$



- Let's define a function $[x \mapsto s]$ inductively over terms t .
- Common fix: working with terms up to renaming of bound variables (Church: alpha conversion).

Convention

Terms that differ only in the names of bound variables are interchangeable in all contexts.

- Example: $[x \mapsto y z](\lambda y. x y) \xrightarrow{\alpha} [x \mapsto y z](\lambda w. x w) = \lambda w. y z w$

Definition (Substitution)

$$\begin{array}{lll} [x \mapsto s]x & = & s \\ [x \mapsto s]y & = & y & \text{if } y \neq x \\ [x \mapsto s](\lambda y. t_1) & = & \lambda y. [x \mapsto s]t_1 & \text{if } y \neq x \text{ and } y \notin FV(s) \\ [x \mapsto s](t_1 t_2) & = & ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_2) \end{array}$$



- Functions with multiple arguments via higher-order functions: $\lambda x.\lambda y.t$
 Currying (named in honor to Haskell Curry) is a transformation from multi-argument functions such as $\lambda(x, y).t$ to higher-order functions $\lambda x.\lambda y.t$
- Booleans, Conditionals and Logical Connectives
 Church booleans are defined as $\text{tru} = \lambda t.\lambda f.t$ and $\text{fls} = \lambda t.\lambda f.f$
 Conditional test can be encoded as $\text{test} = \lambda l.\lambda m.\lambda n.l\ m\ n$
 Logical and follows as
 - $\text{and} = \lambda b.\lambda c.\text{test}\ b\ (\text{test}\ c\ \text{tru}\ \text{fls})\ \text{fls}$
 - or shorter $\text{and} = \lambda b.\lambda c.b\ c\ \text{fls}$
- Pairs based on booleans: $\text{pair} = \lambda f.\lambda s.\lambda b.b\ f\ s$ where $\text{fst} = \lambda p.p\ \text{tru}$ and $\text{snd} = \lambda p.p\ \text{fls}$



- Not all terms reduce to a normal form!
- Consider this combinator: $\text{omega} = (\lambda x.x\ x) (\lambda x.x\ x)$
- Its generalization gives rise to the *fix-point combinator*¹:

$$\text{fix} = \lambda f.(\lambda x.f\ (\lambda y.x\ x\ y)) (\lambda x.f\ (\lambda y.x\ x\ y))$$

- `fix` embodies recursion.
- Consider our factorial example (with Church numerals) again:

```
if realeq n c0 then c1
else times n (
  if realeq (prd n) c0 then c1
  else times (prd n) (
    if realeq (prd (prd n)) c0 then c1
    else times (prd (prd n)) (
      ...)))
```

```
g = λfct.λn.if realeq n c0 then c1
           else times n (fct (prd n))
factorial = fix g
```

¹Also known as the *call by value Y-combinator*. The call by name version is simpler: $\text{fix} = \lambda f.(\lambda x.f\ (x\ x)) (\lambda x.f\ (x\ x))$

Encoding data



Coq

```
Inductive N = 0
| S: N -> N
```

```
Inductive List a :=
| nil: List a
| cons: a -> List a -> List a
```

```
head : list a -> a
```

Church

```
c0 = λs.λz. z
c1 = λs.λz. s z
c2 = λs.λz. s (s z)
c3 = λs.λz. s (s (s z))
etc.
```

```
zero = λs z. z
succ = λn s z. s (n s z)
```

```
nil = λc x. x
cons = λh t c n. c h (t c n))
```

```
head = λl. l (λ x xs. x) undef
```

Scott

```
zero = λz s. z
succ = λn f g. g n
```

```
nil = λc x. x
cons = λh t c. c h t
```

```
head = λl. l (λ x xs. x) undef
```

⁰Pieter Koopman, Rinus Plasmeijer, and Jan Martin Jansen. "Church encoding of data types considered harmful for implementations". In: *26th Symposium on Implementation and Application of Functional Languages (IFL)*. 2014