

Chapter 13: Reference

Why reference

Typing

Evaluation

Store Typings

Safety

Notes



References



Computational Effects

Also known as *side effects*.

A *function* or *expression* is said to have a **side effect** if, in addition to returning a value, it also *modifies some state* or has an *observable interaction with* calling functions or the outside world.

- modify a *global variable* or *static variable*, modify *one of its arguments*,
- *raise an exception*,
- *write* data to a *display* or file, *read* data, or
- call other side-effecting functions.

In the presence of side effects, a program's behavior may depend on *history*; i.e., the *order of evaluation* matters.



Computational Effects

Side effects are the *most common way* that a program *interacts with the outside world* (people, file systems, other computers on networks).

The degree to which side effects are used depends on the *programming paradigm*.

- *Imperative programming* is known for *its frequent utilization* of side effects.
- In *functional programming*, side effects are *rarely used*. Functional languages like *Standard ML*, *Scheme* and *Scala* do not restrict side effects, but it is customary for programmers to avoid them. The functional language *Haskell* expresses side effects such as I/O and other stateful computations using *monadic* actions.



Mutability

So far, what we have discussed does not yet include *computational effects* (i.e., *side effects*) .

In particular, whenever we defined function, we *never changed variables or data*. Rather, we always computed *new data*.

- E.g., the operations to *insert an item* into the data structure *didn't effect the old copy* of the data structure. Instead, we *always built a new data structure* with the item appropriately inserted.
- For the most part, programming in a functional style (i.e., *without side effects*) is a "good thing" because it's *easier to reason locally about the behavior* of the program.



Mutability

In most programming languages, *variables are mutable* — i.e., a variable provides both

- *a name* that refers to a previously calculated value, and
- *the possibility of overwriting this value* with another (which will be referred to by the same name)

In some languages (e.g., OCaml), these features are separate:

- *variables are only for naming* — the binding between a variable and its value is immutable
- introduce a new class of mutable values (called *reference cells* or *references*)
 - at any given moment, a reference *holds a value* (and can be dereferenced to obtain this value)
 - *a new value* may be assigned to a reference



Mutability

Writing values into memory locations is the **fundamental mechanism** of imperative languages such as C/C++.

- mutable structures are required to implement many *efficient algorithms*.
- they are also very convenient to represent the *current state of a state machine*.



Basic Examples

```
#let r = ref 5
```

```
val r : int ref = {contents = 5}
```

```
# r:= !r +2
```

```
# !r
```

```
-: int = 7
```

```
(r:=succ(!r); !r)
```

```
(r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r); !r)
```

i.e.,

```
((((r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r)); r:=succ(!r)); r:=succ(!r)); !r)
```



Basic Examples

```
# let flag = ref true;;
```

```
-val flag: bool ref = {contents = true}
```

```
# if !flag then 1 else 2;;
```

```
-: int = 1
```



Reference

Basic operations

- allocation ref (operator)
- dereferencing !
- assignment :=

Is there any difference between the expressions of ?

5 + 8;

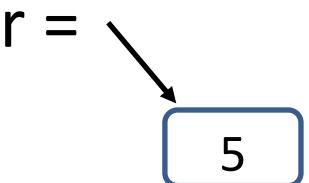
r:=7;

(r:=succ(!r); !r)

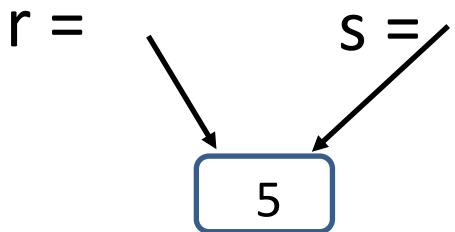


Aliasing

A value of type `ref T` is a *pointer* to a cell holding a value of type `T`.



If this value is “*copied*” by assigning it to another variable, the cell pointed to is not copied. (`r` and `s` are *aliases*)



So we can change `r` by assigning to `s`:

`(s:=10; !r)`



Aliasing all around us

Reference cells are *not the only language feature* that introduces the possibility of aliasing

- arrays
- communication channels
- I/O devices (disks, etc.)



The difficulties of aliasing

The possibility of aliasing *invalidates* all sorts of useful forms of *reasoning about programs*, both *by programmers*...

e.g., function

$$\lambda r: \text{Ref Nat.} \lambda s: \text{Ref Nat.} (r := 2; s := 3; !r)$$

always returns 2 unless *r* and *s* are aliases.

... and *by compilers*:

Code motion out of loops, *common sub-expression elimination*, *allocation of variables to registers*, and *detection of uninitialized variables* all depend upon the compiler knowing which objects a load or a store operation could reference.

High-performance compilers *spend significant energy* on *alias analysis* to try to establish when different variables cannot possibly refer to the same storage.



The benefits of aliasing

The *problems of aliasing* have led some language designers simply to disallow it (e.g., Haskell).

However, there are **good reasons** why most languages do provide constructs involving aliasing:

- efficiency (e.g., arrays)
- “action at a distance” (e.g., symbol tables)
- shared resources (e.g., locks) in concurrent systems
-



Example

$c = \text{ref } 0$

$\text{incc} = \lambda x: \text{Unit}. (c := \text{succ}(! c); ! c)$

$\text{decc} = \lambda x: \text{Unit}. (c := \text{pred}(! c); ! c)$

$\text{incc } \text{unit}$

$\text{decc } \text{unit}$

$\text{o} = \{i = \text{incc}, d = \text{decc}\}$

let newcounter = o

$\lambda. \text{Unit}.$

let c = ref 0 in

let incc = $\lambda x: \text{Unit}. (c := \text{succ}(! c); ! c)$ in

let decc = $\lambda x: \text{Unit}. (c := \text{pred}(! c); ! c)$

let o = {i = incc, d = decc} in

o



How to enrich the language with the new mechanism ?



Syntax

$t ::=$

unit

x

$\lambda x:T.t$

$t\ t$

terms

unit constant

variable

abstraction

application

ref t

! t

$t:=t$

reference creation

dereference

assignment

... plus other familiar types, in examples.



Typing rules

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref } t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-REF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1}{\Gamma \vdash !t_1 : T_1} \quad (\text{T-DEREF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 := t_2 : \text{Unit}} \quad (\text{T-ASSIGN})$$

type system

a set of rules that assigns a property called **type** to the various “**constructs**” of a computer program, such as *variables, expressions, functions or module*



Example

```
NatArray = Ref (Nat → Nat);
```

```
newarray = λ_ : Unit. ref (λn : Nat. 0);
           : Unit → NatArray
```

```
lookup = λa : NatArray. λn : Nat. (!a) n;
          : NatArray → Nat → Nat
```

```
update = λa : NatArray. λm : Nat. λv : Nat.
           let oldf = !a in
             a := (λn : Nat. if equal m n then v else oldf n);
           : NatArray → Nat → Nat → Unit
```



Evaluation

What is the value of the expression `ref 0` ?

Crucial observation: evaluating `ref 0` must *do* something ?

Is

`r = ref 0`

`s = ref 0`

and

`r = ref 0`

`s = r`

behave the same?

Specifically, evaluating `ref 0` should *allocate some storage* and yield a *reference* (or *pointer*) to that storage.

So *what* is a reference?



The store

A reference names a *location* in the *store* (also known as the *heap* or just the *memory*).

What is the **store**?

- *Concretely*: an array of *8-bit bytes*, indexed by 32/64-bit integers.
- *More abstractly*: an array of *values*.
- *Even more abstractly*: a *partial function* from *locations* to *values*.



Locations

Syntax of *values*:

$v ::=$	<i>values</i>
unit	<i>unit constant</i>
$\lambda x:T.t$	<i>abstraction value</i>
l	<i>store location</i>

... and since all *values* are *terms* ...



Syntax of Terms

$t ::=$	<i>terms</i>
unit	<i>unit constant</i>
x	<i>variable</i>
$\lambda x:T.t$	<i>abstraction</i>
$t\ t$	<i>application</i>
ref t	<i>reference creation</i>
! t	<i>dereference</i>
$t := t$	<i>assignment</i>
/	<i>store location</i>



Aside

Does this mean we are going to allow programmers to *write explicit locations* in their programs??

No: This is just a **modeling trick**.

We are enriching the “source language” to include some *runtime structures*, so that we can continue to **formalize evaluation** as a relation between source terms.

Aside: If we formalize evaluation in the *big-step style*, then we can *add locations* to the set of **values** (results of evaluation) without adding them to the set of terms.



Evaluation

The *result* of evaluating a term now (with references)

- *depends on the store* in which it is evaluated.
- *is not just a value* — we must also keep track of the *changes* that get made to the *store*.

i.e., the evaluation relation should now map *a term* as well as *a store* to *a reduced term* and *a new store*.

$$t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$$

To use the metavariable μ to *range over stores*.



Evaluation

An assignment $t_1 := t_2$ first evaluates t_1 and t_2 until they become values ...

$$\frac{t_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_1 \mid \mu'}{t_1 := t_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_1 := t_2 \mid \mu'} \quad (\text{E-ASSIGN1})$$

$$\frac{t_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_2 \mid \mu'}{v_1 := t_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow v_1 := t'_2 \mid \mu'} \quad (\text{E-ASSIGN2})$$

... and then returns **unit** and updates the store:

$$l := v_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \text{unit} \mid [l \mapsto v_2]\mu \quad (\text{E-ASSIGN})$$



Evaluation

A term of *the form* $\text{ref } t_1$

1. first *evaluates* inside t_1 until it becomes a value ...

$$\frac{t_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_1 \mid \mu'}{\text{ref } t_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \text{ref } t'_1 \mid \mu'} \quad (\text{E-REF})$$

2. then *chooses* (allocates) a *fresh location* l , *augments* the store with a binding from l to v_1 , and returns l :

$$\frac{l \notin \text{dom}(\mu)}{\text{ref } v_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow l \mid (\mu, l \mapsto v_1)} \quad (\text{E-REFV})$$



Evaluation

A term $\mathbf{!t}_1$ first evaluates in t_1 until it becomes a value...

$$\frac{t_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_1 \mid \mu'}{!\mathbf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow !\mathbf{t}'_1 \mid \mu'} \quad (\text{E-DEREF})$$

... and then

1. *looks up this value* (which must be a *location*, if the original term was well typed) and
2. *returns its contents* in the current store

$$\frac{\mu(l) = v}{!l \mid \mu \longrightarrow v \mid \mu} \quad (\text{E-DEREFLOC})$$



Evaluation

Evaluation rules for *function abstraction* and *application* are ***augmented with stores***, but ***don't do anything*** with them directly.

$$\frac{t_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_1 \mid \mu'}{t_1 \ t_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_1 \ t_2 \mid \mu'} \quad (\text{E-APP1})$$

$$\frac{t_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow t'_2 \mid \mu'}{v_1 \ t_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow v_1 \ t'_2 \mid \mu'} \quad (\text{E-APP2})$$

$$(\lambda x:T_{11}.t_{12}) \ v_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_2]t_{12} \mid \mu \quad (\text{E-APPABS})$$



Aside

Garbage Collection

Note that we are not modeling *garbage collection* — the store just *grows without bound*.

It may not be problematic for most *theoretical purposes*, whereas it is clear that for *practical purposes* some form of *deallocation* of unused storage must be provided.

Pointer Arithmetic

`p++;`

We can't do any!



Store Typing



Typing Locations

Question: What is the *type of a location*?

Answer: Depends on the *contents* of the store!

For example,

in the store $(l_1 \mapsto \text{unit}, l_2 \mapsto \text{unit})$, the term $!l_2$ is evaluated to **unit**, having type **Unit**.

But in the store $(l_1 \mapsto \text{unit}, l_2 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Unit}. x)$, the term $!l_2$ has type **Unit \rightarrow Unit**.



Typing Locations — first try

Roughly, to find the type of a location l , first *look up* the current contents of l in the store, and calculate the type T_1 of the contents:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mu(l) : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash l : \text{Ref } T_1}$$

More precisely, to make the type of a term depend on the store (keeping a consistent state), we should change the *typing relation* from *three-place* to :

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \boxed{\mu} \vdash \mu(l) : T_1}{\Gamma \mid \boxed{\mu} \vdash l : \text{Ref } T_1}$$

i.e., typing is now a *four-place relation* (about contexts, *stores*, *terms*, and *types*), though *the store is a part of the context*



Problems #1

However, this rule is not *completely satisfactory*, and is *rather inefficient*.

- First of all, it can make *typing derivations very large* (if a location *appears many times* in a term) !
- e.g., if

$$\begin{aligned}\mu = & (l_1 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat. } 999, \\ & l_2 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat. } (! l_1) \ x, \\ & l_3 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat. } (! l_2) \ x, \\ & l_4 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat. } (! l_3) \ x, \\ & l_5 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat. } (! l_4) \ x),\end{aligned}$$

then how big is the typing derivation for $! l_5$?



Problems #2

But wait... it *gets worse* if the store contains a *cycle*.

Suppose

$$\mu = (l_1 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. (! l_2) \ x, \\ l_2 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. (! l_1) \ x)) ,$$

how big is the typing derivation for $! l_2$?

Calculating a type for l_2 requires finding the type of l_1 ,
which in turn involves l_2 .



Why?

What leads to the problems?

Our typing rule for locations requires us to *recalculate the type of a location every time it's mentioned in a term*, which should not be necessary.

In fact, once a location is first created, *the type of the initial value is known*, and *the type will be kept* even if the values can be changed.



Store Typing

Observation:

The typing rules we have chosen for references guarantee *that a given location* in the store is *always* used to hold *values of the same type*.

These intended types can be *collected* into a ***store typing***:

- a *partial function* from *locations* to *types*.



Store Typing

E.g., for

$$\begin{aligned}\mu = & (l_1 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. \ 999, \\ & l_2 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. (! l_1) \ x, \\ & l_3 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. (! l_2) \ x, \\ & l_4 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. (! l_3) \ x, \\ & l_5 \mapsto \lambda x: \text{Nat}. (! l_4) \ x),\end{aligned}$$

A reasonable *store typing* would be

$$\Sigma = (l_1 \mapsto \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}, \\ l_2 \mapsto \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}, \\ l_3 \mapsto \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}, \\ l_4 \mapsto \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat}, \\ l_5 \mapsto \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat})$$



Store Typing

Now, suppose we are given *a store typing* Σ describing the store μ in which we intend to evaluate some term t . Then we can use Σ to look up the *types of locations* in t instead of calculating them from the values in μ .

$$\frac{\Sigma(l) = T_1}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash l : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-Loc})$$

i.e., *typing* is now a *four-place relation* on contexts, store typings, terms, and types.

Proviso: the typing rules accurately predict the results of evaluation *only if* the *concrete store* used during evaluation actually *conforms to* the store typing.



Final typing rules

$$\frac{\Sigma(l) = T_1}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash l : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-LOC})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \text{ref } t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-REF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash !t_1 : T_{11}} \quad (\text{T-DEREF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_{11} \quad \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 := t_2 : \text{Unit}} \quad (\text{T-ASSIGN})$$



Store Typing

Question: **Where** do *these store typings* come **from**?

Answer: When we first typecheck a program, there will be no explicit locations, so we can use *an empty store typing*, since the locations arise only in terms that are *the intermediate results* of evaluation.

So, when **a new location** is created during evaluation,

$$\frac{I \notin \text{dom}(\mu)}{\text{ref } v_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow I \mid (\mu, I \mapsto v_1)} \quad (\text{E-REFV})$$

we can observe the type of v_1 and *extend* the “*current store typing*” appropriately.



Store Typing

As evaluation proceeds and *new locations are created, the store typing is extended* by looking at the type of the initial values being placed in newly allocated cells.

Σ only records the *association*
between
already-allocated storage cells and
their types.



Safety

Coherence between
the statics and the dynamics

Well-formed programs are well-behaved



Preservation

*the steps of evaluation
preserve
typing*



Preservation

How to express the statement of preservation?

First attempt: just add *stores* and *store typings* in the appropriate places.

Theorem(?): if $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t:T$ and $t|\mu \rightarrow t'|\mu'$, then
 $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t':T$

Right??

Wrong!

Why wrong?

Because Σ and μ here are not constrained to have anything to do with each other!

Exercise: Construct an example that breaks this statement of preservation



Preservation

Definition: A store μ is said to be *well typed* with respect to a typing context Γ and a store typing Σ , written $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$, if $\text{dom}(\mu) = \text{dom}(\Sigma)$ and $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu(l) : \Sigma(l)$ for every $l \in \text{dom}(\mu)$.

Theorem (?) : if

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T$$

$$t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$$

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$$

$$\text{then } \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t' : T$$

Right this time?

Still wrong !

Why? Where?



Preservation

Creation of a *new reference cell* ...

$$\frac{l \notin \text{dom}(\mu)}{\text{ref } v_1 | \mu \rightarrow l | (\mu, l \mapsto v_1)} \quad (\text{E-REFV})$$

... *breaks the correspondence* between the store typing and the store.

Since *the store can grow during evaluation*:

Creation of a new reference cell yields a store with a *larger domain* than the initial one, making the conclusion *incorrect*: if μ' includes a binding for *a fresh location* l , then l *can't* be in the domain of Σ , and it will not be the case that t' *is typable under* Σ .



Preservation

Theorem: if

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T$$

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$$

$$t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$$

then, for *some* $\Sigma' \supseteq \Sigma$,

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash t' : T$$

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash \mu'.$$

A correct version.

What is Σ' ?

Proof: Easy extension of the preservation proof for λ .



Progress

well-typed expressions are either
values or can be
further evaluated



Progress

Theorem:

Suppose t is a closed, well-typed term

(i.e., $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T$ for some T and Σ)

then either t is a *value* or else, for any store μ such that $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$, there is some term t' and store μ' with

$$t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$$



Safety

- preservation and progress together constitute the proof of safety
 - progress theorem ensures that well-typed expressions don't get stuck in an ill-defined state, and
 - preservation theorem ensures that if a step is taken the result remains well-typed (*with the same type*).
- These two parts ensure the *statics and dynamics* are coherent, and that no ill-defined states can ever be encountered while evaluating a well-typed expression



In summary ...



Syntax

We added to $\lambda__$ (with Unit) syntactic forms for *creating*, *dereferencing*, and *assigning* reference cells, plus a new type constructor Ref.

$t ::=$

unit

x

$\lambda x:T.t$

$t t$

ref t

!t

$t := t$

/

terms

unit constant

variable

abstraction

application

reference creation

dereference

assignment

store location



Evaluation

Evaluation becomes a *four-place* relation: $t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$

$$\frac{I \notin \text{dom}(\mu)}{\text{ref } v_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow I \mid (\mu, I \mapsto v_1)} \quad (\text{E-REFV})$$

$$\frac{\mu(I) = v}{!I \mid \mu \longrightarrow v \mid \mu} \quad (\text{E-DEREFLOC})$$

$$I := v_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \text{unit} \mid [I \mapsto v_2]\mu \quad (\text{E-ASSIGN})$$



Typing

Typing becomes a *three-place* relation: $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T$

$$\frac{\Sigma(l) = T_1}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash l : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-LOC})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \text{ref } t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-REF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash !t_1 : T_{11}} \quad (\text{T-DEREF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_{11} \quad \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 := t_2 : \text{Unit}} \quad (\text{T-ASSIGN})$$



Preservation

Theorem: if

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T$$

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$$

$$t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$$

then, for some $\Sigma' \supseteq \Sigma$,

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash t' : T$$

$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash \mu'.$$



Progress

Theorem: Suppose t is a *closed, well-typed term* (that is, $\emptyset \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T$ for some T and Σ). Then either t is a value or else, for any store μ such that $\emptyset \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$, there is some term t' and store μ' with $t \mid \mu \rightarrow t' \mid \mu'$.



Others ...



Arrays

Fix-sized vectors of values. All of the values must have the *same type*, and the fields in the array can be accessed and modified.

e.g., arrays can be created with in Ocaml

$[|e_1; \dots; e_n|]$

```
# let a = [|1;3;5;7;9|];;
val a : int array = [|1;3;5;7;9|]
#a;;
:- int array = [|1;3;5;7;9|]
```



Recursion via references

Indeed, we can define *arbitrary recursive functions* using references

1. Allocate a **ref** cell and initialize it with a *dummy function* of the appropriate type:

$$\text{fact}_{\text{ref}} = \text{ref}(\lambda n: \text{Nat}. 0)$$

2. Define *the body of the function* we are interested in, using *the contents of the reference cell* for making recursive calls:

$$\text{fact}_{\text{body}} =$$

$$\lambda n: \text{Nat}.$$

$$\text{if iszero } n \text{ then } 1 \text{ else times } n ((! \text{fact}_{\text{ref}})(\text{pred } n))$$

3. “Backpatch” by storing the real body into the reference cell:

$$\text{fact}_{\text{ref}} := \text{fact}_{\text{body}}$$

4. Extract the contents of the reference cell and use it as desired:

$$\text{fact} = ! \text{fact}_{\text{ref}}$$

$$\text{fact } 5$$


Homework ☺

- Read chapter 13
- Read and chew over the codes of *fullref*.
- HW: 13.3.1 and 13.5.2
- Preview chapter 14



Non-termination via references

There are *well-typed terms* in this system that are not strongly normalizing. For example:

$t1 = \lambda r: \text{Ref}(\text{Unit} \rightarrow \text{Unit}).$

$(r := (\lambda x: \text{Unit}. (! r)x);$
 $(! r) \text{ unit});$

$t2 = \text{ref}(\lambda x: \text{Unit}. x);$

Applying $t1$ to $t2$ yields a (well-typed) divergent term.



Nontermination via references

There are well-typed terms in this system that are not strongly normalizing. For example:

$t1 = \lambda r: \text{Ref}(\text{Unit} \rightarrow \text{Unit}).$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} (r := (\lambda x: \text{Unit}. (! r)x); \\ (! r) \text{ unit}); \end{array}}$$

$t2 = \text{ref}(\lambda x: \text{Unit}. x);$

Applying $t1$ to $t2$ yields a (well-typed) divergent term.

