Υλοποίηση ενός διερμηνέα για Λάμβδα Λογισμό

Ζωή Παρασκευοπούλου Νίκος Γιανναράκης

Σχολή Ηλεκτρολόγων Μηχανικών και Μηχανικών Υπολογιστών Εθνικό Μετσόβιο Πολυτεχνείο

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The Syntax

$$egin{aligned} e &:= e_1 \ e_2 \ & \text{``'}\lambda\text{'''}id\text{``.''}e \ & \text{``'let''}[\text{``'rec''}]id\text{``'} = \text{``'}e_1\text{``'in''}e_2 \ & \text{``'["e1","e2"]"} \ & id \ & \text{``'true"}|\text{``'false''} \ & \text{``'if''} \ e_1\text{``'then''}e_2\text{``'else''}e_3 \ & e_1 \ op \ e_2 \ & e_1 \ rop \ e_2 \ & e_1 \ bop \ e_2 \ \end{aligned}$$

Type System

- ► Strongly typed
- ► Hindley-Milner Type System
- ► Types are implicit in the source (à la Curry) and they are reconstructed using the algorithm W for type inference

- ► A restriction of system F
- ► Features let polymorphism
- ► Extensive use in modern functional programing languages (ML, Haskell, ...)
- ▶ Unlike system F, in which type reconstruction is undecidable, the types can be inferred using the algorithm W.

Significant Limitation: Let-polymorphism is rank-1 polymorphism, that means that functions cannot take as arguments polymorphic functions.

Examples

```
> ./jebus annot let const = \x. \y. x in [const 1 true, const false 42] _____ let const : a1 -> a2 -> a1 = \x. : a1. \y. : a2 . x in [const 1 true, const false 42]
```

Figure 1 : Here *const* has type $\forall a. \forall b. (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a)$

Figure 2: g's type cannot be a polymorphic function!

Types

The type language is layered into two levels, types and type schemes. A type scheme is a type with the possibility of universal quantification of type variables at the outermost.

We will use τ for simple types, σ for type schemes and α for type variables.

$$au := au_1
ightarrow au_2 \qquad \qquad \sigma := orall lpha. \sigma_1 \ ert au_1 imes au_2 \ ert au \ ert au \ ert au_3 ert au_4 ert au_4 ert au_5 e$$

Typing Rules

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\Gamma\vdash e_1:\tau_1\to\tau_2\ \Gamma\vdash e_2:\tau_1}{\Gamma\vdash e_1\ e_2:\tau_2}@\\ &\frac{\Gamma\vdash e:\sigma\ \alpha\not\in FV(\Gamma)}{\Gamma\vdash e:\forall a.\sigma}gen\\ &\frac{\Gamma\vdash e:Bool\ \Gamma\vdash e_1:\tau\ \Gamma\vdash e_2:\tau}{\Gamma\vdash if\ e\ then\ e_2\ else\ e_3:\tau} ite \end{split}$$

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

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \sigma \ \Gamma, x \colon \sigma \vdash e_2 \colon \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{let} \left[\mathit{rec}\right] x = e_1 \ \mathit{in} \ e_2 \colon \tau} \mathit{let}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall a.\sigma}{\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma[\alpha \to \tau]} inst$$

$$rac{\Gamma dash e_1 : au_1 \ \Gamma dash e_2 : au_2}{\Gamma dash [e_1, \ e_2] : au_1 imes au_2} pair$$

Typing Rules (cont.)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : Nat \ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : Nat}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \diamond e_2 : Nat \ \diamond \in \{+, -, *, /, **\}} op$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : Nat \ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : Nat}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \diamond e_2 : Bool \ \diamond \in \{<, <=, ==, >, >=\}} rop$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : Bool \ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : Bool}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \diamond e_2 : Bool \ \diamond \in \{\&\&, ||\}} bop$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : Bool}{\Gamma \vdash not \ e : Bool} not$$

After the type reconstruction, if a program is well typed and no errors have occured, it is translated in an internal language. This internal representation is actually a pretty small language. Most of the language's expressions are defined as syntactic sugar

$$egin{aligned} e &:= e_1 \ e_2 \ | \ oldsymbol{\lambda} \ id \ . \ e \ | \ \emph{Fix} \ e_1 \end{aligned}$$

Syntactic Sugar

▶ Integers are represented internally with church encoding

$$n \equiv \lambda \ s. \ \lambda \ z. \ \underbrace{s(s...(s \ z)..)}_{\text{n times}}$$

Arithmetical Operations

$$e_1 + e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ x \ succ \ y)e_1 \ e_2$$

 $e_1 - e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ y \ pred \ x)e_1 \ e_2$
 $e_1 * e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ \lambda \ z. \ x \ y \ z)e_1 \ e_2$
 $e_1 * * e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ y \ x)e_1 \ e_2$

Syntactic Sugar

- ▶ Boolean Constants $true \equiv \lambda x. \lambda y. x$ $false \equiv \lambda x. \lambda y. y$
- ▶ Pairs $[e_1, e_2] \equiv \lambda x. x e_1 e_2$
- ▶ Provided functions for pairs $fst \equiv \lambda \ x. \ x \ true \ \text{with type} \ \forall \ a. \forall b. \ a \times b \rightarrow a$ $snd \equiv \lambda \ x. \ x \ false \ \text{with type} \ \forall \ a. \forall b. \ a \times b \rightarrow b$
- ▶ Provided functions for Integers $succ \equiv \lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ s. \ \lambda \ z. \ s \ (n \ s) \ z \ \text{with type} \ Nat \rightarrow Nat$ $iszero \equiv \lambda \ x. \ x \ (true \ false) \ true \ \text{with type} \ Nat \rightarrow Bool$ $pred \equiv \lambda \ x. \ snd \ (x \ next \ [0,0]) \ \text{with type} \ Nat \rightarrow Nat$ where $next \equiv \lambda \ x. \ [succ \ (fst \ x), \ (fst \ x)]$

Syntactic Sugar

► Boolean Operators

$$egin{aligned} not &\equiv \lambda \; x. \; x \; false \; true \ e_1 \&\& \, e_2 &\equiv (\lambda \; x. \; \lambda \; y. \; x \; y \; false) \; e_1 \; e_2 \ e_1 || \, e_2 &\equiv (\lambda \; x. \; \lambda \; y. \; x \; true \; y) \; e_1 \; e_2 \end{aligned}$$

Relative Operators

$$egin{aligned} e_1 & \leq e_2 \equiv (\lambda \; x. \; \lambda \; y. \; iszero \; (n \; pred \; m)) \; e_1 \; e_2 \ e_1 & < e_2 \equiv (\lambda \; x. \; \lambda \; y. \; not \; (y \; leq \; x)) \; e_1 \; e_2 \ e_1 & == e_2 \equiv (\lambda \; x. \; \lambda \; y. \; (y \; leq \; x) \&\&(x \; leq \; y)) \; e_1 \; e_2 \ e_1 & \geq e_2 == e_2 \leq e_1 \ e_1 & > e_2 == e_2 < e_1 \end{aligned}$$

Syntactic Sugar

▶ Let Definitions let $x = e_1$ in $e_2 \equiv (\lambda x. e_2) e_1$

Let rec is more tricky $\begin{array}{ll} \textit{let rec } x = e_1 \; \textit{in} \; e_2 \equiv (\lambda \; x. \; e_2) \; (\, Y \, (\lambda \; x. \; e_1)) \\ \text{remember that} \; Y \equiv \lambda \; f. \; (\lambda \; x. \; f \, (x \, x)) \; (\lambda \; x. \; f \, (x \, x)) \\ \text{Alternatively, we can add a new construct to simulate} \; Y \text{s} \\ \text{behavior:} \; \textit{let rec} \; x = \; e_1 \; \textit{in} \; e_2 \equiv (\lambda \; x. \; e_2) \; (\textit{Fix} \, (\lambda \; x. \; e_1)) \\ \text{In both cases} \; e_1 \; \text{is allowed to refer to} \; x. \; \text{The difference is} \\ \text{that, unlike} \; Y, \; \textit{Fix} \; \text{can be typed with the following rule:} \\ \end{array}$

$$rac{\Gamma dash e : au
ightarrow au}{\Gamma dash \mathit{Fix} e : au} \mathit{fix}$$

Evaluation Strategies

Currently Jebus supports two different evaluation strategies: normal order and applicative order, with the former being a non-strict evaluation strategy and the later a strict one.

In general:

- ► Normal Order The leftmost outermost redex is always reduced first
- Applicative Order The leftmost innermost redex is always reduced first

Both strategies evaluate the body of an unapplied function.

Normal Order

The normal order reduction will always produce a normal form, if one exists!

$$egin{align} \overline{(\lambda \; x. \; e_1) \; e_2
ightarrow e_1 [e_2/x]} \ & rac{e_1 \;
ightarrow e_1'}{e_1 \; e_2
ightarrow e_1' \; e_2} \ & rac{e \;
ightarrow e'}{v \; e
ightarrow v \; e'} \ & rac{e \;
ightarrow e'}{\lambda \; x. \; e \;
ightarrow \lambda \; x. \; e'} \ \end{matrix}$$

Applicative Order

Applicative order reduction is not normalizing!

$$egin{align} \overline{(\lambda \; x. \; v_1) \; v_2
ightarrow v_1 [v_2/x]} \ & rac{e_1 \;
ightarrow \; e'_1}{e_1 \; e_2
ightarrow \; e'_1} \ & rac{e \;
ightarrow \; e'}{v \; e
ightarrow \; v \; e'} \ & rac{e \;
ightarrow \; e'}{\lambda \; x. \; e \;
ightarrow \; \lambda \; x. \; e'} \ \end{array}$$

Semantics for fix

We can think fix as function that takes a function and computes its fixed point.

$$egin{aligned} \overline{(extit{fix λ $x. e})
ightarrow e[extit{fix λ $x. e}/x]} \ & rac{e
ightarrow e'}{ extit{fix e}
ightarrow fix e'} \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\mathit{fix}\ \lambda\ x.e \equiv e[\mathit{fix}\ \lambda\ x.e/x] \equiv_{\beta} (\lambda\ x.e)\ (\mathit{fix}\ \lambda\ x.e)$, just like $Yf \equiv f(Yf)$.

Fix: Example

```
let rec fact = \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1) in fact 3
\rightarrow (\lambda \text{ fact. fact } 3) \text{ (fix } (\lambda \text{ fact. } \lambda \text{ x. if iszero } x \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } x * \text{ fact } (x-1)))
\rightarrow (fix (\lambda fact.\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) 3
\rightarrow (\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * (fix (\lambda fact. \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) (x - 1)) 3
\rightarrow if iszero 3 then 1 else 3 * (fix (\lambda fact.\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) (3 - 1)
\rightarrow 3 * (fix (\lambda fact. \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) 2
\rightarrow 3*(\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x*(fix (\lambda fact.\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x*fact (x-1))) (x-1)) 2
\rightarrow 3 * if iszero 2 then 1 else 2 * (fix (\lambda fact. \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) (2 - 3)
\rightarrow 3 * 2 * (fix (\lambda fact. \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) 1
\rightarrow 3*2*(\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x*(fix (\lambda fact.\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x*fact (x-1))) (x-1)) 1
\rightarrow 3 * 2 * if iszero 1 then 1 else 1 * (fix (\lambda fact. \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) (1 - 1)
\rightarrow 3 * 2 * 1 * (fix (\lambda fact. \lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) 0
\rightarrow 3*2*1*(\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x*(fix (\lambda fact.\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x*fact (x-1))) (x-1)) 0
\rightarrow 3*2*1*if iszero 0 then 1 else 0 * (fix (\lambda fact.\lambda x. if iszero x then 1 else x * fact (x - 1))) (0 - 1)
\rightarrow 3 * 2 * 1 * 1
```

Alpha Conversion

Avoid Capturing

Problem

If we try to evaluate the term λx . $(\lambda y. \lambda x. yx) x$ using any of the above strategies then the resulting term is $\lambda x. (\lambda x. xx)$. This is obviously wrong as the first occurrence of x must be binded by the first abstraction.

Solution

Perform alpha renaming when needed. In other words before making a substitution of the form $(\lambda x. e_1)[e_2/y]$ check if x occurs free in the term e_2 . If so, rename the binder x and all the occurrences of x that are binded by this abstraction with a fresh variable name. The variable name needs to be fresh so the abstraction does not capture any other free variables in e_1 .

Normal Order vs. Applicative Order

Consider the following programs:

```
> cat ite.lam
let f = \x.
if (iszero x) then x + 3
else x * 3
in
f 0
```

Figure 3: ite.lam

```
> cat fact.lam
let rec fact = \xspace x.
if (iszero x) then 1
else x * fact (x-1)
in
fact 4
```

Figure 4: fact.lam

Normal Order vs. Applicative Order

Applicative order needs 4 more beta reductions. Applicative order is a strict reduction strategy so both the then and the else parts will be evaluated.

Figure 5: Evaluate ite.lam with normal order strategy. Only 11 beta reductions needed.

Figure 6: Evaluate ite.lam with applicative order strategy. 15 beta reductions needed.

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Normal Order vs. Applicative Order

Figure 7: Evaluate fact.lam with normal order strategy. The program terminates after 9236 reductions.

Normal Order vs. Applicative Order

```
> ./jebus eval -e=applicative -t < fact.lam ((\. fac (\f . \x . f (f (f (x))))) . . . . . => . . . . . . . . . . .
```

Figure 8: Evaluate fact.lam with applicative order strategy. The program does not terminate.

How to use Jebus

Jebus reads a program from the standard input and can print the type annotated version of the program after the type inference or evaluate the program with the selected strategy. You can also trace the evaluation and count the number of reduction steps.

```
jebus [COMMAND] ... [OPTIONS]
Common flags:
  -h -help
                           Display help message
  -V -version
                           Print version information
jebus annot
  Print an explicitly typed version of the program
jebus eval [OPTIONS]
  Interpret the program
  -t. -trace
                           show each beta reduction
  -e -eval=EVALMODE
                           specify evaluation strategy:
                                                          normal
                           (default) or applicative
```

Useful links

- ▶ Notes form NTUA's Applications of Logic in Computer Science course
- ► Chapter 5 from the book Formal Syntax and Semantics of Programming Languages, Kenneth Slonneger, Barry L. Kurtz
- Hindley-Milner Typing and Algorithm W from Compiler Construction course notes, Utrech University
- ▶ lamdba library from NYU lamdba Seminar
- Simply typed lamdba calculus extensions from Programming Languages course notes, University of Washington

The end!

Demo

Fork here!