# Υλοποίηση ενός διερμηνέα για Λάμβδα Λογισμό

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# The Syntax

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

# Type System

The language is strongly typed featuring the Hindley-Milner type system. The types are implicit in the source (à la Curry) and they are automatically reconstructed using the algorithm W for type inference.

Hindley-Milner type system is a restriction of system F, featuring let polymorphism. 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. : a6 . 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

We will use  $\tau$  for simple types,  $\sigma$  for type schemes and  $\alpha$  for type variables.

$$egin{array}{lll} au := au_1 
ightarrow au_2 & \sigma := orall lpha ... \sigma_1 \ | au_1 
ightarrow au_2 & | au \ | 
ightarrow & | au \ | 
ightarrow au_1 |lpha 
ightarrow & |lpha := lpha_1 |lpha_2| .... \ |lpha & |lpha := lpha_1 |lpha_2| .... \end{array}$$

#### Typing Rules

$$\begin{array}{l} \overline{\Gamma,x:\sigma\vdash x:\sigma} \, var \\ \\ \underline{\Gamma\vdash e_1:\tau_1\to\tau_2\ \Gamma\vdash e_2:\tau_1}_{\boxed{0}} \\ \\ \underline{\Gamma\vdash e:\sigma\ \alpha\not\in FV(\Gamma)}_{\boxed{\Gamma\vdash e:\forall a.\sigma}} gen \\ \\ \underline{\Gamma\vdash e:Bool\ \Gamma\vdash e_1:\tau\ \Gamma\vdash e_2:\tau}_{\boxed{\Gamma\vdash if\ e\ then\ e_2\ else\ e_3:\tau}} ite \end{array}$$

$$rac{\Gamma, extbf{ extit{x}} \colon au_1 dash e \colon au_2}{\Gamma dash \lambda extbf{ extit{x}}. extbf{ extit{e}} \colon au_1 
ightarrow au_2} \lambda$$

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

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

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

Typing Rules (cont.)

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

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

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

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

The 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** The 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

$$e_1 \leq e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ iszero \ (n \ pred \ m)) \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_1 < e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ not \ (y \ leq \ x)) \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_1 == e_2 \equiv (\lambda \ x. \ \lambda \ y. \ (y \ leq \ x) \&\&(x \ leq \ y)) \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_1 \geq e_2 == e_2 \leq e_1 \ e_1 > e_2 == e_2 < e_1$$

#### Syntactic Sugar

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

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

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

**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!

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

Semantics for fix

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

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

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

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))
\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
```

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 = \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

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

### Useful links

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

### The end!

Demo

Fork here!