Overview

Elements of Programming Languages

Lecture 5: Functions and recursion

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- So far, we've covered
 - arithmetic
 - booleans, conditionals (if then else)
 - variables and simple binding (let)
- $\bullet~L_{Let}$ allows us to compute values of expressions
- and use variables to store intermediate values
- but not to define *computations* on unknown values.
- That is, there is no feature analogous to Haskell's functions, Scala's def, or methods in Java.
- Today, we consider *functions* and *recursion*

Named functions Examples

• A simple way to add support for functions is as follows:

 $e ::= \cdots \mid f(e) \mid \texttt{let fun } f(x : \tau) = e_1 \texttt{ in } e_2$

- Meaning: Define a function called *f* that takes an argument *x* and whose result is the expression *e*₁.
- Make f available for use in e_2 .
- (That is, the scope of x is e_1 , and the scope of f is e_2 .)
- This is pretty limited:
 - for now, we consider one-argument functions only.
 - no recursion
 - functions are not first-class "values" (e.g. can't pass a function as an argument to another)

• We can define a squaring function:

let fun square(x : int) = $x \times x$ in \cdots

• or (assuming inequality tests) absolute value:

let fun abs(x:int) = if x < 0 then -x else x in \cdots

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Types for named functions

We introduce a type constructor τ₁ → τ₂, meaning "the type of functions taking arguments in τ₁ and returning τ₂"

• We can typecheck named functions as follows:

$$\frac{\Gamma, x:\tau_1 \vdash e_1:\tau_2 \quad \Gamma, f:\tau_1 \to \tau_2 \vdash e_2:\tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let fun } f(x:\tau_1) = e_1 \text{ in } e_2:\tau}$$
$$\frac{\Gamma(f) = \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e:\tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash f(e):\tau_2}$$

 For convenience, we just use a single environment Γ for both variables and function names. Typechecking of abs(-42)

$\Gamma(x) = int$				
$\overline{\Gamma \vdash x: int}$ $\overline{\Gamma \vdash 0: int}$	$\overline{\Gamma \vdash x} : \texttt{int}$	$\Gamma(x) = int$		
$\Gamma \vdash x < 0$: bool				
$\Gamma \vdash \texttt{if } x < \texttt{0 t}$	hen $-x$ else x	k:int		
abs:int $ ightarrow$ int $ ightarrow$ -42 : int				
$\overline{\Gamma \vdash e_{abs}:\texttt{int}} \overline{abs}\texttt{:int} \rightarrow \texttt{int} \vdash abs(-42)\texttt{:int}$				
\vdash let fun $abs(x:int)$	$= e_{abs}$ in $abs($	-42):int		

where $\Gamma = x$:int.

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Semantics of named functions

- We can define rules for evaluating named functions as follows.
- First, let δ be an environment mapping function names f to their "definitions", which we'll write as ⟨x ⇒ e⟩.
- When we encounter a function definition, add it to δ .

$$\frac{\delta[f \mapsto \langle x \Rightarrow e_1 \rangle], e_2 \Downarrow v}{\delta, \texttt{let fun } f(x : \tau) = e_1 \texttt{ in } e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

• When we encounter an application, look up the definition and evaluate the body with the argument value substituted for the argument:

$$\frac{\delta, e_0 \Downarrow v_0 \quad \delta(f) = \langle x \Rightarrow e \rangle \quad \delta, e[v_0/x] \Downarrow v}{\delta, f(e_0) \Downarrow v}$$

Examples

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Example

Evaluation of abs(-42)

$$\frac{\delta,-42<0\Downarrow\texttt{true}\quad \delta,-(-42)\Downarrow\texttt{42}}{\delta,\texttt{if}\ -42<0\texttt{ then}\ -(-42)\texttt{ else}\ -42\Downarrow\texttt{42}}$$

$$\frac{\delta, -42 \Downarrow -42 \quad \delta(abs) = \langle x \Rightarrow e_{abs} \rangle \quad \overline{\delta, e_{abs}[-42/x] \Downarrow 42}}{\delta, abs(-42) \Downarrow 42}$$
$$\frac{1}{\texttt{let fun } abs(x:\texttt{int}) = e_{abs} \texttt{ in } abs(-42) \Downarrow 42}$$

where $e_{abs} = if x < 0$ then -x else x and $\delta = [abs \mapsto \langle x \Rightarrow e_{abs} \rangle]$

Static vs. dynamic scope

• What if we do this?

let x = 1 in let fun f(y: int) = x + y in let x = 10 in f(3)

- Here, x is bound to 1 at the time f is defined, but re-bound to 10 when by the time f is called.
- There are two reasonable-seeming result values, depending on which *x* is *in scope*:
 - Static scope uses the binding x = 1 present when f is defined, so we get 1 + 3 = 4.
 - **Dynamic scope** uses the binding x = 10 present when f is **used**, so we get 10 + 3 = 13.

Anonymous, first-class functions

 In many languages (including Java as of version 8), we can also write an expression for a function without a name:

λx : au. e

- Here, λ (Greek letter lambda) introduces an anonymous function expression in which x is bound in e.
 - (The λ-notation dates to Church's higher-order logic (1940); there are several competing stories about why he chose λ.)
- In Scala one writes: (x: Type) => e
- In Java 8: x -> e (no type needed)
- In Haskell: $x \rightarrow e \text{ or } x::Type \rightarrow e$

Dynamic scope breaks type soundness

• Even worse, what if we do this:

let x = 1 in let fun f(y : int) = x + y in let x = true in f(3)

- When we typecheck *f*, *x* is an integer, but it is re-bound to a boolean by the time *f* is called.
- The program as a whole typechecks, but we get a run-time error: *dynamic scope makes the type system unsound!*
- Early versions of LISP used dynamic scope, and it is arguably useful in an untyped language.
- Dynamic scope is now generally acknowledged as a mistake — but one that naive language designers still make.

The λ -calculus

• Consider the following language:

$$e ::= x \mid e_1 e_2 \mid \lambda x. e$$

i.e. we just have variables, function applications, and lambda-abstractions.

- Application $e_1 e_2$ applies a function term to an argument
- This is called the (untyped) λ -calculus
- It can serve as an expressive programming language / computational model on its own.
 - (The course "Introduction to Theoretical Computer Science" explores its use as a foundation for computation.)
- We will focus on the *typed* version.

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Types for the λ -calculus

 We define L_{Lam} to be L_{Let} extended with typed λ-abstraction and application as follows:

$$e ::= \cdots \mid e_1 \; e_2 \mid \lambda x : \tau. \; e_1$$

$$\tau ::= \cdots \mid \tau_1 \to \tau_2$$

- $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ is (again) the type of functions from τ_1 to τ_2 .
- We can extend the typing rules as follows:

$\boxed{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau} \text{ for } L_{Lam}$	
$\frac{\Gamma, x: \tau_1 \vdash e: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x: \tau_1. \ e: \tau_1 \to \tau_2}$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ e_2 : \tau_2}$
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Examples

• In L_{Lam}, we can define a higher-order function that calls its argument twice:

let fun twice $(f: \tau \to \tau) = \lambda x : \tau. f(f(x))$ in \cdots

• and we can define the composition of two functions:

let $compose = \lambda f: \tau_2 \to \tau_3$. $\lambda g: \tau_1 \to \tau_2$. $\lambda x: \tau_1$. f(g(x)) in \cdots

 Notice we are using repeated λ-abstractions to handle multiple arguments (compare with lab exercise)

Evaluation for the λ -calculus

• Values are extended to include λ -abstractions λx . e:

 $v ::= \cdots \mid \lambda x. e$

(Note: We elide the type annotations when not needed.)

• and the evaluation rules are extended as follows:

$e \Downarrow v$ for L _{Lam}			
6	$e_1 \Downarrow \lambda x.e$	$e_2 \Downarrow v_2$	$e[v_2/x] \Downarrow v$
$\lambda x. \ e \Downarrow \lambda x. \ e$		$e_1 e_2 \Downarrow v$	/

 Note: Combined with let, this subsumes named functions! We can just define let fun as "syntactic sugar"

let fun $f(x:\tau) = e_1$ in $e_2 \iff \text{let } f = \lambda x:\tau. e_1$ in e_2

Recursive functions

• However, L_{Lam} still cannot express general recursion, e.g. the factorial function:

let fun fact(n:int) =if n == 0 then 1 else $n \times fact(n-1)$ in \cdots

is not allowed because *fact* is not in scope inside the function body.

 We can't write it directly as a λ-expression λx:τ. e either because we don't have a "name" for the function we're trying to define inside e.

Anonymous recursive functions

- In many languages, named function definitions are recursive by default. (C, Python, Java, Haskell, Scala)
- Others explicitly distinguish between nonrecursive and recursive (named) function definitions. (Scheme, OCaml, F#)

• Note: In the *untyped* λ -calculus, let rec is *definable* using a special λ -term called the *Y* combinator

• Inspired by L_{Lam}, we introduce a notation for anonymous *recursive* functions:

 $e ::= \cdots \mid \operatorname{rec} f(x : \tau_1) : \tau_2. e$

- Idea: *f* is a local name for the function being defined, and is in scope in *e*, along with the argument *x*.
- \bullet We define L_{Rec} to be L_{Lam} extended with rec.
- We can then define let rec as syntactic sugar:

 $\begin{array}{l} \texttt{let rec } f(x:\tau_1):\tau_2=e_1 \texttt{ in } e_2 \\ \iff \texttt{let } f=\texttt{rec } f(x:\tau_1):\tau_2. \ e_1 \texttt{ in } e_2 \end{array}$

Note: The outer f is in scope in e₂, while the inner one is in scope in e₁. The two f bindings are unrelated.

Anonymous recursive functions: typing

 $\bullet\,$ The types of L_{Rec} are the same. We just add one rule:

$$\begin{array}{c} \hline \Gamma \vdash e : \tau \end{array} \text{ for } \mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{Rec}} \\ \\ \hline \frac{\Gamma, f : \tau_1 \to \tau_2, x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{rec} \ f(x:\tau_1) : \tau_2. \ e : \tau_1 \to \tau_2} \end{array}$$

- This says: to typecheck a recursive function,
 - bind f to the type $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ (so that we can call it as a function in e),
 - bind x to the type \(\tau_1\) (so that we can use it as an argument in \(e)\),
 - typecheck e.
- Since we use the same function type, the existing function application rule is unchanged.

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Anonymous recursive functions: semantics

• Like a $\lambda\text{-term},$ a recursive function is a value:

$$v ::= \cdots \mid \operatorname{rec} f(x). e$$

• We can evaluate recursive functions as follows:

 $\Downarrow v \mid \text{for } L_{\text{Rec}}$

$$\overline{\operatorname{rec} f(x). e \Downarrow \operatorname{rec} f(x). e}$$

$$e_1 \Downarrow \operatorname{rec} f(x). e \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad e[\operatorname{rec} f(x). e/f, v_2/x] \Downarrow v$$

$$e_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v$$

• To apply a recursive function, we substitute the argument for x and the whole rec expression for f.

Examples

Mutual recursion

- We can now write, typecheck and run fact
 - (you will implement an evaluator for L_{Rec} in CW1, and write other recursive functions)
- In fact, L_{Rec} is *Turing-complete* (though it is still so limited that it is not very useful as a general-purpose language)
- (*Turing complete* means: able to simulate any *Turing machine*, that is, any computable function / any other programming language. ITCS covers Turing completeness and computability in depth.)

- What if we want to define mutually recursive functions?
- A simple example:

def even(n: Int) = if n == 0 then true else odd(n-1)def odd(n: Int) = if n == 0 then false else even(n-1)

Perhaps surprisingly, we can't easily do this!

• One solution: generalize let rec:

let rec $f_1(x_1:\tau_1): \tau_1' = e_1$ and \cdots and $f_n(x_n:\tau_n): \tau_n' = e_n$ in e

where f_1, \ldots, f_n are all in scope in bodies e_1, \ldots, e_n .

• This gets messy fast; we'll revisit this issue later.

Big-step vs. small-step

- Recursion highlights some limitations of big-step semantics
- Specifically, it cannot easily distinguish between *nontermination*

let rec
$$f(x) = f(x+1)$$
 in $f(0)$

and failure:

1 + true

- (Nor is it helpful for computations that are intended to run forever, perhaps performing side-effects along the way.)
- We will explore an alternative, *small-step* semantics in future lectures

Summary

- Today we have covered:
 - Named functions
 - Static vs. dynamic scope
 - Anonymous functions
 - Recursive functions
- along with our first "composite" type, the function type $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$.
- Next time
 - Data structures: Pairs (combination) and variants (choice)

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