

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`)
- 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

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

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

- 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)

Examples

- We can define a squaring function:

$$\text{let fun } \textit{square}(x : \text{int}) = x \times x \text{ in } \dots$$

- or (assuming inequality tests) absolute value:

$$\text{let fun } \textit{abs}(x : \text{int}) = \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \text{ else } x \text{ in } \dots$$

Types for named functions

- We introduce a *type constructor* $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$, meaning “the type of functions taking arguments in τ_1 and returning τ_2 ”
- We can typecheck named functions as follows:

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

$$\frac{\Gamma(f) = \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash f(e) : \tau_2}$$

- For convenience, we just use a single environment Γ for both variables and function names.

Example

Typechecking of $\text{abs}(-42)$

$$\frac{\frac{\Gamma(x) = \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash x : \text{int}} \quad \frac{\Gamma(x) = \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash 0 : \text{int}} \quad \frac{\Gamma(x) = \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash x : \text{int}} \quad \frac{\Gamma(x) = \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash x : \text{int}}}{\Gamma \vdash x < 0 : \text{bool}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash x < 0 : \text{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash -x : \text{int}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash x < 0 : \text{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash x : \text{int}}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \text{ else } x : \text{int}}$$

$$\frac{\vdots \quad \frac{\text{abs}:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \vdash -42 : \text{int}}{\text{abs}:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \vdash \text{abs}(-42) : \text{int}}}{\Gamma \vdash e_{\text{abs}} : \text{int}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_{\text{abs}} : \text{int} \quad \text{abs}:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \vdash \text{abs}(-42) : \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let fun } \text{abs}(x : \text{int}) = e_{\text{abs}} \text{ in } \text{abs}(-42) : \text{int}}$$

where $e_{\text{abs}} = \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \text{ else } x$ and $\Gamma = x:\text{int}$.



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 $\langle x \Rightarrow e \rangle$.
- When we encounter a function definition, add it to δ .

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

- 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

Evaluation of $\text{abs}(-42)$

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

$$\frac{\vdots \quad \delta, -42 \Downarrow -42 \quad \delta(\text{abs}) = \langle x \Rightarrow e_{\text{abs}} \rangle \quad \delta, e_{\text{abs}}[-42/x] \Downarrow 42}{\delta, \text{abs}(-42) \Downarrow 42}$$

$$\frac{\delta, \text{abs}(-42) \Downarrow 42}{\text{let fun } \text{abs}(x : \text{int}) = e_{\text{abs}} \text{ in } \text{abs}(-42) \Downarrow 42}$$

where $e_{\text{abs}} = \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \text{ else } x$ and

$\delta = [\text{abs} \mapsto \langle x \Rightarrow e_{\text{abs}} \rangle]$



Static vs. dynamic scope

- The terms *static* and *dynamic* scope are sometimes used.
- In **static scope**, the scope and binding occurrences of all variables can be determined from the program text, **without** actually running the program.
- In **dynamic scope**, this is not necessarily the case: the scope of a variable can depend on the context in which it is evaluated **at run time**.

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.

Static vs. dynamic scope

- Function bodies can contain free variables. Consider:

```
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:

$$\lambda x : \tau. e$$

- 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: $(x : \text{Type}) \Rightarrow e$
- In Java 8: $x \rightarrow e$ (no type needed)
- In Haskell: $\backslash x \rightarrow e$ or $\backslash x : \text{Type} \rightarrow e$
- The *lambda-calculus* is a model of anonymous functions

Types for the λ -calculus

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

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

$$\tau ::= \dots \mid \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$$

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

$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ for L_{Lam}

$$\frac{\Gamma, x:\tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:\tau_1. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau_2}$$



Examples

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

$\text{let fun } twice(f : \tau \rightarrow \tau) = \lambda x:\tau. f(f(x)) \text{ in } \dots$

- and we can define the composition of two functions:

$\text{let } compose = \lambda f:\tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3. \lambda g:\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2. \lambda x:\tau_1. f(g(x)) \text{ in } \dots$

- Notice we are using repeated λ -abstractions to handle multiple arguments



Evaluation for the λ -calculus

- Values are extended to include λ -abstractions $\lambda x. e$:

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

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

- and the evaluation rules are extended as follows:

$e \Downarrow v$ for L_{Lam}

$$\frac{}{\lambda x. e \Downarrow \lambda x. e} \quad \frac{e_1 \Downarrow \lambda x. e \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad e[v_2/x] \Downarrow v}{e_1 e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

- Note: Combined with `let`, this subsumes named functions! We can just define `let fun` as “syntactic sugar”

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



Recursive functions

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

$\text{let fun } fact(n:\text{int}) =$
 if $n == 0$ then 1 else $n \times fact(n - 1)$ in \dots

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

- We can't write it directly as a λ -expression $\lambda x:\tau. e$ either because we don't have a “name” for the function we're trying to define inside e .
 - (Technically, we could get around this problem in an *untyped* version of the lambda calculus...)



Named 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#)

```
let f(x) = e      // nonrecursive:
                  // only x is in scope in e
let rec f(x) = e // recursive:
                  // both f and x in scope in e
```

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



Anonymous recursive functions: typing

- The types of L_{Rec} are the same. We just add one rule:

$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ for L_{Rec}

$$\frac{\Gamma, f : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2, x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{rec } f(x:\tau_1) : \tau_2. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

- 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 τ_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.



Anonymous recursive functions

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

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

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

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

- Note: The outer f is in scope in e_2 , while the inner one is in scope in e_1 . The two f bindings are unrelated.



Anonymous recursive functions: semantics

- Like a λ -term, a recursive function is a value:

$$v ::= \dots \mid \text{rec } f(x). e$$

- We can evaluate recursive functions as follows:

$e \Downarrow v$ for L_{Rec}

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

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



Examples

- We can now write, typecheck and run *fact*
 - (you will implement an evaluator for L_{Rec} in Assignment 2 that can do this)
- 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.)



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)



Mutual recursion

- 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 f1(x1:τ1) : τ'1 = e1 and ... and fn(xn:τn) : τ'n = en
in e
```

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

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

