### Foundations of Software Winter Semester 2007

### Week 8 November 6

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### Plan

PREVIOUSLY: unit, sequencing, let, pairs, sums

### TODAY:

- 1. recursion
- 2. state
- 3. ???

NEXT: exceptions?

NEXT: polymorphic (not so simple) typing

### Recursion

### Recursion in $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$

- ▶ In  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$ , all programs terminate. (Cf. Chapter 12.)
- ► Hence, untyped terms like omega and fix are not typable.
- ▶ But we can *extend* the system with a (typed) fixed-point operator...

### Example

New syntactic forms

New evaluation rules

$$t \longrightarrow t'$$

$$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\mathtt{fix} \ \mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{fix} \ \mathtt{t}_1'} \tag{E-Fix}$$

New typing rules

 $\Gamma \vdash t : T$ 

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_1 \, : \, T_1 {\rightarrow} T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \mathtt{fix} \ \mathtt{t}_1 \, : \, T_1}$$

(T-Fix)

### A more convenient form

```
letrec x:T_1=t_1 in t_2 \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=}  let x= fix (\lambda x:T_1.t_1) in t_2

letrec iseven: Nat\rightarrowBool =
\lambda x:Nat.
if iszero x then true
else if iszero (pred x) then false
else iseven (pred (pred x))
in
iseven 7;
```

### References

### 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

We choose OCaml's style, which is easier to work with formally. So a variable of type T in most languages (except OCaml) will correspond to a Ref T (actually, a Ref (Option T)) here.

### Basic Examples

```
r = ref 5
!r

r := 7

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

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

### Basic Examples

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

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

i.e.,

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



So we can change r by assigning to s:

```
(s:=6; !r)
```

### Aliasing all around us

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

- object references
- explicit pointers in C
- 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...

The function

```
\lambda r: Ref Nat. \ \lambda s: 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 subexpression 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 difficulties of side effects

The order of operations now matters.

```
f (r := 1) (r := 2)
```

### The benefits of aliasing

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

But there are good reasons why most languages do provide constructs involving aliasing:

- efficiency (e.g., arrays)
- "action at a distance" (e.g., symbol tables)
- dependency-driven data flow (e.g., in GUI's)
- ▶ shared resources (e.g., locks) in concurrent systems
- etc.

### Example

```
c = ref 0 incc = \lambda x:Unit. (c := succ (!c); !c) decc = \lambda x:Unit. (c := pred (!c); !c) incc unit decc unit o = {i = incc, d = decc}
```

```
let newcounter = \lambda_-: \text{Unit.} let c = ref 0 in let incc = \lambda x: \text{Unit.} (c := succ (!c); !c) in let decc = \lambda x: \text{Unit.} (c := pred (!c); !c) in let o = {i = incc, d = decc} in o
```

### Syntax

```
t ::=
                                            terms
                                              unit constant
        unit
                                              variable
        X
        \lambda x:T.t
                                              abstraction
                                              application
        t t
        ref t
                                              reference creation
                                              dereference
        !t
                                              assignment
        t:=t
```

... plus other familiar types, in examples.

### Typing Rules

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

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

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{Ref} \ \mathsf{T}_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_1}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 \colon = \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{Unit}} \qquad \mathsf{(T-Assign)}$$

### Final example

```
\label{eq:natarray} \begin{split} \text{NatArray} &= \text{Ref (Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat)}; \\ \text{newarray} &= \lambda_- : \text{Unit. ref ($\lambda n : \text{Nat.0}$)}; \\ &: \text{Unit} \rightarrow \text{NatArray} \\ \\ \text{lookup} &= \lambda_a : \text{NatArray. $\lambda n : \text{Nat. (!a) n;}} \\ &: \text{NatArray} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \\ \\ \text{update} &= \lambda_a : \text{NatArray. $\lambda m : \text{Nat. $\lambda v : \text{Nat.}}} \\ &= \text{let oldf = !a in} \\ &= \text{a := ($\lambda n : \text{Nat. if equal m n then v else oldf n);}} \\ &: \text{NatArray} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{Unit} \end{split}
```



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

### **Evaluation**

```
What is the value of the expression ref 0? Crucial observation: evaluating ref 0 must do something. Otherwise,
```

```
r = ref 0
s = ref 0
```

and

$$r = ref 0$$
  
 $s = r$ 

would behave the same.

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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?

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### The Store

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What is the store?

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

### Locations

### Syntax of values:

```
\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{v} & ::= & & \\ & & \mathbf{unit} \\ & & \lambda \mathbf{x} \colon \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{t} \\ & & I \end{array}
```

values
unit constant
abstraction value
store location

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

### Syntax of Terms

```
t ::=
     unit
     x
     λx:T.t
     t t
     ref t
    !t
     t:=t
     /
```

terms
unit constant
variable
abstraction
application
reference creation
dereference
assignment
store location

### 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 run-time 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 depends on the store in which it is evaluated. Moreover, the result of evaluating a term 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 and a store to a reduced term and a new store.

$$\mathsf{t}|\ \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}'|\ \mu'$$

We use the metavariable  $\mu$  to range over stores.

### **Evaluation**

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

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1' \mid \mu'}{\mathsf{t}_1 \colon = \mathsf{t}_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1' \colon = \mathsf{t}_2 \mid \mu'} \qquad \text{(E-Assign1)}$$

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_2' \mid \mu'}{\mathsf{v}_1 \colon = \mathsf{t}_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{v}_1 \colon = \mathsf{t}_2' \mid \mu'} \qquad \text{(E-Assign2)}$$

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

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

A term of the form  $ref t_1$  first evaluates inside  $t_1$  until it becomes a value...

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1' \mid \mu'}{\mathsf{ref} \ \mathsf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{ref} \ \mathsf{t}_1' \mid \mu'}$$
 (E-Ref)

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

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

A term  $!t_1$  first evaluates in  $t_1$  until it becomes a value...

$$\frac{\mathsf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1' \mid \mu'}{!\,\mathsf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow !\,\mathsf{t}_1' \mid \mu'} \tag{E-Deref}$$

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

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

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

$$\frac{ \mathsf{t}_1 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1' \mid \mu'}{ \mathsf{t}_1 \; \mathsf{t}_2 \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_1' \; \mathsf{t}_2 \mid \mu'} \tag{E-APP1}$$

$$\frac{ \mathsf{t}_2|\; \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{t}_2'|\; \mu'}{\mathsf{v}_1\;\; \mathsf{t}_2|\; \mu \longrightarrow \mathsf{v}_1\;\; \mathsf{t}_2'|\; \mu'} \tag{E-App2)}$$

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

Aside: garbage collection
Note that we are not modeling garbage collection — the store just
grows without bound.
Aside: pointer arithmetic
Aside: pointer arithmetic
Aside: pointer arithmetic  We can't do any!

# Store Typings Typing Locations

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

### Typing Locations

Q: What is the type of a location?

A: It depends on the store!

E.g., in the store  $(I_1 \mapsto \text{unit}, I_2 \mapsto \text{unit})$ , the term  $!I_2$  has 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:

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Roughly:

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

More precisely:

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

I.e., typing is now a *four*-place relation (between contexts, *stores*, terms, and types).

### **Problem**

However, this rule is not completely satisfactory. For one thing, it can make typing derivations very large!

E.g., if

$$\begin{split} (\mu = \textit{I}_1 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat. 999}, \\ \textit{I}_2 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat. !} \textit{I}_1 \; (!\,\textit{I}_1 \; \texttt{x}), \\ \textit{I}_3 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat. !} \textit{I}_2 \; (!\,\textit{I}_2 \; \texttt{x}), \\ \textit{I}_4 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat. !} \textit{I}_3 \; (!\,\textit{I}_3 \; \texttt{x}), \\ \textit{I}_5 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat. !} \textit{I}_4 \; (!\,\textit{I}_4 \; \texttt{x}), \end{split}$$

then how big is the typing derivation for  $\frac{1}{5}$ ?

### Problem!

But wait... it gets worse. Suppose

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu = \mathit{l}_1 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat.} & ! \mathit{l}_2 \texttt{ x}, \\ \mathit{l}_2 &\mapsto \lambda \texttt{x:Nat.} & ! \mathit{l}_1 \texttt{ x}), \end{aligned}$$

Now how big is the typing derivation for 1/2?

### Store Typings

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.

E.g., for

```
\mu = (I_1 \mapsto \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathtt{Nat. 999}, \\ I_2 \mapsto \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathtt{Nat. !} I_1 \ (! I_1 \ \mathbf{x}), \\ I_3 \mapsto \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathtt{Nat. !} I_2 \ (! I_2 \ \mathbf{x}), \\ I_4 \mapsto \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathtt{Nat. !} I_3 \ (! I_3 \ \mathbf{x}), \\ I_5 \mapsto \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathtt{Nat. !} I_4 \ (! I_4 \ \mathbf{x}),
```

A reasonable store typing would be

$$\begin{split} \Sigma &= (\textit{I}_1 \mapsto \texttt{Nat} {\rightarrow} \texttt{Nat}, \\ \textit{I}_2 &\mapsto \texttt{Nat} {\rightarrow} \texttt{Nat}, \\ \textit{I}_3 &\mapsto \texttt{Nat} {\rightarrow} \texttt{Nat}, \\ \textit{I}_4 &\mapsto \texttt{Nat} {\rightarrow} \texttt{Nat}, \\ \textit{I}_5 &\mapsto \texttt{Nat} {\rightarrow} \texttt{Nat}) \end{split}$$

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

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

I.e., typing is now a four-place relation between between contexts, store typings, terms, and types.

### Final typing rules

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

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_1}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathsf{ref} \ \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{Ref} \ \mathsf{T}_1} \tag{T-Ref}$$

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

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{Ref} \ T_{11} \qquad \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : = \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{Unit}} \qquad \qquad \mathsf{(T-Assign)}$$

Q: Where do these store typings come from?

Q: Where do these store typings come from?

A: When we first typecheck a program, there will be no explicit locations, so we can use an empty store typing.

So, when a new location is created during evaluation,

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

we can extend the "current store typing" with the type of  $\boldsymbol{v}_1.$ 

### Safety

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

```
Theorem (?): If \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T and t \mid \mu \longrightarrow t' \mid \mu', then \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t' : T.
```

### Preservation

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

```
Theorem (?): If \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t : T and t \mid \mu \longrightarrow t' \mid \mu', then \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t' : T. Wrong!
```

Why is this wrong?

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

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```

Why is this wrong?

Because  $\Sigma$  and  $\mu$  here are not constrained to have anything to do with each other!

(Exercise: Construct an example that breaks this statement of preservation.)

### Preservation

A store  $\mu$  is said to be *well typed* with respect to a typing context  $\Gamma$  and a store typing  $\Sigma$ , written  $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu$ , if  $dom(\mu) = dom(\Sigma)$  and  $\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu(I) : \Sigma(I)$  for every  $I \in dom(\mu)$ .

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A store \mu is said to be well typed with respect to a typing context \Gamma and a store typing \Sigma, written \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu, if dom(\mu) = dom(\Sigma) and \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu(I) : \Sigma(I) for every I \in dom(\mu).
```

Next attempt:

```
Theorem (?): If  \begin{array}{c} \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathbf{t} : \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{t} \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathbf{t}' \mid \mu' \\ \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu \end{array}  then \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathbf{t}' : \mathbf{T}.
```

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```

Still wrong!

What's wrong now?

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```

Still wrong!

Creation of a new reference cell...

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

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

### Preservation (correct version)

```
Theorem: If
```

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathtt{t} : \mathtt{T} \\ \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu \\ \mathtt{t} \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}' \mid \mu' \end{array}$$
 then, for some  $\Sigma' \supseteq \Sigma$ , 
$$\Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash \mathtt{t}' : \mathtt{T} \\ \Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash \mu'. \end{array}$$

### Preservation (correct version)

```
\label{eq:theorem: If } \begin{split} \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mathbf{t} \, : \, \mathbf{T} \\ \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash \mu \\ \mathbf{t} \mid \mu \longrightarrow \mathbf{t}' \mid \mu' \end{split} then, for some \Sigma' \supseteq \Sigma, \Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash \mathbf{t}' \, : \, \mathbf{T} \\ \Gamma \mid \Sigma' \vdash \mu'. \end{split}
```

*Proof:* Easy extension of the preservation proof for  $\lambda_{\rightarrow}$ .

### **Progress**

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