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# Elements of Programming Languages

#### Lecture 5: Functions and recursion

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#### <span id="page-1-0"></span>Overview

- So far, we've covered
	- a arithmetic
	- booleans, conditionals (if then else)
	- variables and simple binding (let)
- $\bullet$  L<sub>Let</sub> 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*

## <span id="page-2-0"></span>Named functions

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

 $e ::= \cdots | f(e) |$  let fun  $f(x : \tau) = e_1$  in  $e_2$ 

- $\bullet$  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 only call  $f$ , can't pass a function as an argument to another)

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• We can define a squaring function:

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

#### • or (assuming inequality tests) absolute value:

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

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## <span id="page-4-0"></span>Types for named functions

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

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

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

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#### Example

#### Typechecking of  $abs(-42)$



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## <span id="page-6-0"></span>Semantics of named functions

- We can define rules for evaluating named functions as follows.
- First, let  $\delta$  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  $\delta$ .

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

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

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

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#### Examples

Evaluation of abs(−42) δ, −42 < 0 ⇓ true δ, −(−42) ⇓ 42 δ, if −42 < 0 then − (−42) else −42 ⇓ 42  $\delta, -42$   $\Downarrow$   $-42$   $\delta(abs) = \langle x \Rightarrow e_{abs} \rangle$   $\delta, e_{abs}[-42/x]$   $\Downarrow$  42 . . . δ, abs(−42) ⇓ 42 let fun  $abs(x : \text{int}) = e_{abs}$  in  $abs(-42) \Downarrow 42$ where  $e_{abs} = \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \text{ else } x \text{ and }$  $\delta = [abs \mapsto \langle x \Rightarrow e_{abs} \rangle]$ 

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#### <span id="page-8-0"></span>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.

#### <span id="page-9-0"></span>Static vs. dynamic scope

Function bodies can contain free variables. Consider:

let 
$$
x = 1
$$
 in  
let fun  $f(y : \text{int}) = x + y$  in  
let  $x = 10$  in  $f(3)$ 

- $\bullet$  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  $10 + 3 = 13$ .

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#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>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, though present in e.g. Java[Sc](#page-9-0)r[ip](#page-11-0)[t,](#page-9-0) [P](#page-10-0)[yt](#page-1-0)[h](#page-2-0)[o](#page-11-0)[n](#page-1-0)

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## <span id="page-11-0"></span>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,  $\lambda$  (Greek letter lambda) introduces an anonymous function expression in which  $x$  is bound in  $e$ .
	- (The  $\lambda$ -notation dates to Church's higher-order logic (1940); there are several competing stories about why  $\lambda$ is used.)
- In Scala one writes:  $(x: Type) \Rightarrow e$
- In Java 8:  $x \rightarrow e$  (no type needed)
- In Haskell:  $\x \rightarrow -$  e or  $\x : Type \rightarrow e$
- The *lambda-calculus* is a model of anonymous functions

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#### Types for the  $\lambda$ -calculus

• We define  $L_{Lam}$  to be  $L_{\text{Let}}$  extended with typed  $\lambda$ -abstraction and application as follows:

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

$$
\tau ::= \cdots | \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2
$$

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

$\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$	for $L_{Lam}$	
$\frac{\Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x : \tau_1 \cdot e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$	$\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$	$\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1$

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## Evaluation for the  $\lambda$ -calculus

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

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

(Note: We elide the type annotations when not needed.) • and the evaluation rules are extended as follows:



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

l[et](#page-12-0) fu[n](#page-15-0)  $f(x:\tau) = e_1$  [i](#page-14-0)n  $e_2 \iff \text{let } f = \lambda x:\tau.$   $e_1$  in  $e_2$  $e_2$ <br> $\iff \text{let } f = \lambda x:\tau.$   $e_1$  in  $e_2$ 

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 $\bullet$  In L<sub>Lam</sub>, 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  $\lambda$ -abstractions to handle multiple arguments

### <span id="page-15-0"></span>Recursive functions

 $\bullet$  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  $\lambda$ -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...)

## <span id="page-16-0"></span>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*  $\lambda$ -calculus, let rec is *definable* using a special  $\lambda$ -term called the Y combinator

## <span id="page-17-0"></span>Anonymous recursive functions

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

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

- $\bullet$  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  $L_{\text{Rec}}$  to be  $L_{\text{Lam}}$  extended with rec.
- We can then define let rec as syntactic sugar:

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

• Note: The outer f is in scope in  $e_2$ , while the inner one is in scop[e](#page-14-0) in  $e_1$ . The two f bindings a[re](#page-16-0) [un](#page-18-0)[r](#page-16-0)[ela](#page-17-0)[t](#page-18-0)e[d](#page-15-0)[.](#page-22-0)

## <span id="page-18-0"></span>Anonymous recursive functions: typing

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



- 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 functions](#page-11-0) **Anonymous** functions **Anonymous** functions **[Recursion](#page-15-0)** 

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### Anonymous recursive functions: semantics

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

$$
v ::= \cdots | \text{ rec } f(x). e
$$

• We can evaluate recursive functions as follows:

$$
\fbox{e} \Downarrow v \text{ for } L_{\text{Rec}}
$$
\n
$$
\fbox{rec } f(x) \text{. } e \Downarrow \text{rec } f(x) \text{. } e
$$
\n
$$
\fbox{enc } f(x) \text{. } e \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \text{. } e[\text{rec } f(x) \text{. } e/f, v_2/x] \Downarrow v
$$
\n
$$
\fbox{enc } e_1 \text{. } e_2 \Downarrow v
$$

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

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#### <span id="page-20-0"></span>Examples

- We can now write, typecheck and run fact
	- $\bullet$  (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  $\ell$  any other programming language. ITCS covers Turing completeness and computability in depth.)

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## 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  $f_1(x_1:\tau_1):\tau_1'=e_1$  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.

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## <span id="page-22-0"></span>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)