

COMP4011/8011
Advanced Topics in
Formal Methods and Programming Languages
– **Software Verification with Isabelle/HOL** –

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Section 4

Simple-Typed λ -Calculus

λ calculus is inconsistent

Can find term R such that $R R =_{\beta} \text{not}(R R)$

There are more terms that do not make sense:

$1\ 2$, true false , etc.

Solution: rule out ill-formed terms by using types.
(Church 1940)

Introducing types

Idea: assign a type to each “sensible” λ term.

Examples:

- for *term* t has type α write $t :: \alpha$
- if x has type α then $\lambda x. x$ is a function from α to α
Write: $(\lambda x. x) :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$
- for $s t$ to be sensible:
 s must be a function
 t must be right type for parameter
If $s :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ and $t :: \alpha$ then $(s t) :: \beta$

Now formally again

Syntax for λ^{\rightarrow}

Terms: $t ::= v \mid c \mid (t t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$
 $v, x \in V, \quad c \in C, \quad V, C$ sets of names

Types: $\tau ::= b \mid \nu \mid \tau \Rightarrow \tau$
 $b \in \{\text{bool}, \text{int}, \dots\}$ base types
 $\nu \in \{\alpha, \beta, \dots\}$ type variables

$$\alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow \gamma = \alpha \Rightarrow (\beta \Rightarrow \gamma)$$

Context Γ :

Γ : function from variable and constant names to types.

Term t has type τ in context Γ : $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

Examples

$$\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. x) :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$$
$$[y \leftarrow \text{int}] \vdash y :: \text{int}$$
$$[z \leftarrow \text{bool}] \vdash (\lambda y. y) z :: \text{bool}$$
$$\square \vdash \lambda f x. f x :: (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta$$

A term t is **well typed** or **type correct**
if there are Γ and τ such that $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

Type Checking Rules

Variables: $\overline{\Gamma \vdash x :: \Gamma(x)}$

Application: $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 :: \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 :: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (t_1 t_2) :: \tau}$

Abstraction: $\frac{\Gamma[x \leftarrow \tau_x] \vdash t :: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. t) :: \tau_x \Rightarrow \tau}$

Example Type Derivation

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{[x \leftarrow \alpha, y \leftarrow \beta] \vdash x :: \alpha} \textit{Var} \\
 \frac{}{[x \leftarrow \alpha] \vdash \lambda y. x :: \beta \Rightarrow \alpha} \textit{Abs} \\
 \frac{}{[] \vdash \lambda x y. x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow \alpha} \textit{Abs}
 \end{array}$$

Remember:

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x :: \Gamma(x)} \textit{Var} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 :: \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 :: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (t_1 t_2) :: \tau} \textit{App} \quad \frac{\Gamma[x \leftarrow \tau_x] \vdash t :: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. t) :: \tau_x \Rightarrow \tau} \textit{Abs}$$

More complex Example

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\Gamma \vdash f :: \alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta)}{\Gamma \vdash f x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta} \text{Var} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash x :: \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash x x :: \alpha} \text{Var}}{\Gamma \vdash f x x :: \beta} \text{App} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash x :: \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash x x :: \alpha} \text{Var}}{\frac{[f \leftarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta] \vdash \lambda x. f x x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \beta}{\square \vdash \lambda f x. f x x :: (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta} \text{Abs}} \text{Abs}$$

$$\Gamma = [f \leftarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \beta, x \leftarrow \alpha]$$

Remember:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash x :: \Gamma(x)}{\Gamma \vdash x :: \Gamma(x)} \text{Var} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 :: \tau_2 \Rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 :: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (t_1 t_2) :: \tau} \text{App} \quad \frac{\Gamma[x \leftarrow \tau_x] \vdash t :: \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x. t) :: \tau_x \Rightarrow \tau} \text{Abs}$$

More general Types

- A term can have more than one type.

Example: $\square \vdash \lambda x. x :: \text{bool} \Rightarrow \text{bool}$
 $\square \vdash \lambda x. x :: \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$

- Some types are more general than others:

$\tau \lesssim \sigma$ if there is a substitution S such that $\tau = S(\sigma)$

Examples:

$\text{int} \Rightarrow \text{bool} \lesssim \alpha \Rightarrow \beta \lesssim \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \not\lesssim \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$

Most general Types

Fact: each type correct term has a most general type

Formally:

$$\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau \implies \exists \sigma. \Gamma \vdash t :: \sigma \wedge (\forall \sigma'. \Gamma \vdash t :: \sigma' \implies \sigma' \lesssim \sigma)$$

It can be found by executing the typing rules backwards.

- **type checking:** checking if $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$ for given Γ and τ
- **type inference:** computing Γ and τ such that $\Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

Type checking and type inference on λ^{\rightarrow} are decidable.

What about β reduction?

Definition of β reduction stays the same.

Fact: Well typed terms stay well typed during β reduction

Formally: $\Gamma \vdash s :: \tau \wedge s \longrightarrow_{\beta} t \implies \Gamma \vdash t :: \tau$

This property is called **subject reduction**

What about termination?

β reduction in $\lambda \rightarrow$ always terminates.



(Alan Turing, 1942)

- $=_{\beta}$ is decidable

To decide if $s =_{\beta} t$, reduce s and t to normal form (always exists, because \rightarrow_{β} terminates), and compare result.

- $=_{\alpha\beta\eta}$ is decidable

This is why Isabelle can automatically reduce each term to $\beta\eta$ normal form.

What does this mean for Expressiveness?

Checkpoint:

- untyped lambda calculus is turing complete
(all computable functions can be expressed)
- but it is inconsistent
- $\lambda \rightarrow$ "fixes" the inconsistency problem by adding types
- Problem: it is not turing complete anymore!

Not all computable functions can be expressed in $\lambda \rightarrow$!
(non terminating functions cannot be expressed)

But wait... typed functional languages are turing complete!

What does this mean for Expressiveness?

So...

- typed functional languages are turing complete
- but λ^{\rightarrow} is not...
- How does this work?
- By adding one single constant, the Y operator (fix point operator), to λ^{\rightarrow}
- This introduces the non-termination that the types removed.

$$Y :: (\tau \Rightarrow \tau) \Rightarrow \tau$$
$$Y t \longrightarrow_{\beta} t (Y t)$$

Fact: If we add Y to λ^{\rightarrow} as the only constant, then each computable function can be encoded as closed, type correct λ^{\rightarrow} term.

- Y is used for recursion
- lose decidability (what does $Y (\lambda x. x)$ reduce to?)
- (Isabelle/HOL doesn't have Y ; recursion is more restricted)

Types and Terms in Isabelle

Types: $\tau ::= \mathbf{b} \mid 'v \mid 'v :: C \mid \tau \Rightarrow \tau \mid (\tau, \dots, \tau) K$

$\mathbf{b} \in \{\mathbf{bool}, \mathbf{int}, \dots\}$ base types

$v \in \{\alpha, \beta, \dots\}$ type variables

$K \in \{\mathbf{set}, \mathbf{list}, \dots\}$ type constructors

$C \in \{\mathbf{order}, \mathbf{linord}, \dots\}$ type classes

Terms: $t ::= v \mid c \mid ?v \mid (t t) \mid (\lambda x. t)$
 $v, x \in V, \quad c \in C, \quad V, C$ sets of names

- **type constructors:** construct a new type out of a parameter type.
Example: `int list`
- **type classes:** restrict type variables to a class defined by axioms.
Example: `$\alpha :: \mathbf{order}$`
- **schematic variables:** variables that can be instantiated.

Type Classes

- similar to Haskell's type classes, but with semantic properties

```
class order =
```

```
  assumes order_refl: " $x \leq x$ "
```

```
  assumes order_trans: " $\llbracket x \leq y; y \leq z \rrbracket \implies x \leq z$ "
```

```
  ...
```

- theorems can be proved in the abstract

```
lemma order_less_trans: " $\bigwedge x :: 'a :: \text{order}. \llbracket x < y; y < z \rrbracket \implies x < z$ "
```

- can be used for subtyping

```
class linorder = order +
```

```
  assumes linorder_linear: " $x \leq y \vee y \leq x$ "
```

- can be instantiated

```
instance nat :: " $\{\text{order}, \text{linorder}\}$ " by ...
```

Schematic Variables

$$\frac{X \quad Y}{X \wedge Y}$$

- X and Y must be **instantiated** to apply the rule

But: **lemma** “ $x + 0 = 0 + x$ ”

- x is free
- convention: lemma must be true for all x
- **during the proof**, x must **not** be instantiated

Solution:

Isabelle has **free** (x), **bound** (x), and **schematic** ($?X$) variables.

Only schematic variables can be instantiated.

Free converted into schematic after proof is finished.

Higher Order Unification

Unification:

Find substitution σ on variables for terms s, t such that $\sigma(s) = \sigma(t)$

In Isabelle:

Find substitution σ on schematic variables such that $\sigma(s) =_{\alpha\beta\eta} \sigma(t)$

Examples:

$$\begin{array}{llll}
 ?X \wedge ?Y & =_{\alpha\beta\eta} & x \wedge x & [?X \leftarrow x, ?Y \leftarrow x] \\
 ?P \ x & =_{\alpha\beta\eta} & x \wedge x & [?P \leftarrow \lambda x. x \wedge x] \\
 P \ (?f \ x) & =_{\alpha\beta\eta} & ?Y \ x & [?f \leftarrow \lambda x. x, ?Y \leftarrow P]
 \end{array}$$

Higher Order: schematic variables can be functions.

Higher Order Unification

- Unification modulo $\alpha\beta$ (Higher Order Unification) is semi-decidable
- Unification modulo $\alpha\beta\eta$ is undecidable
- Higher Order Unification has possibly infinitely many solutions

But:

- Most cases are well-behaved
- Important fragments (like Higher Order Patterns) are decidable

Higher Order Pattern:

- is a term in β normal form where
- each occurrence of a schematic variable is of the form $?f t_1 \dots t_n$
- and the $t_1 \dots t_n$ are η -convertible into n distinct bound variables

We have learned so far...

- Simply typed lambda calculus: λ^{\rightarrow}
- Typing rules for λ^{\rightarrow} , type variables, type contexts
- β -reduction in λ^{\rightarrow} satisfies subject reduction
- β -reduction in λ^{\rightarrow} always terminates
- Types and terms in Isabelle

Exercises

- Construct a type derivation tree for the term $\lambda x y z. z x (y x)$
- Find a unifier (substitution) such that
 $\lambda x y z. ?F y z = \lambda x y z. z (?G x y)$