Functional programming with λ -tree syntax

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Introduction

Functional programming languages are popular tools to build systems (parsers, compilers, theorem provers...) that manipulate the syntax of various programming languages and logics.

Variable binding is a common feature of most syntactic structures.

In the area of theorem provers, the POPLMark Challenge (2005) singled out the lack of binder support in provers as a serious impediment to formalizing meta-theory.

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Support for binders in functional languages is experimental and fractured.

- Some libraries exists: AlphaLib, C α ml, etc.
- ▶ New languages: FreshML, Delphin, Beluga, etc.

We introduce MLTS (as an extension to the core of OCaml) to treat binding structures in a primitive fashion.

Two language paradigms, two approaches to bindings

The term higher-order abstract syntax—the use of programming-level binding to support syntax-level binding—is badly ambiguous.

In logic programming, for example, λ Prolog and Twelf, this approach leads to an elegant, compact, and declarative treatment of bindings. The Abella theorem prover formalizes that approach.

In functional programming, it has lead to using function spaces to encode binding structures. This approach is wildly different and problematic.

Our approach: λ -tree syntax and binder mobility

With MLTS, we are attempting to move the lessons learned from the logic programming world into the functional programming world. We emphasizes two key concepts.

- Functional programs need more binding sites so term-level bindings can move to programming-level bindings.
 Alan Perlis: "There is no such things as a free variables."
- All operations on syntax must respect α-conversion and (at least some of) β-conversion.

Together, we have the λ -tree syntax approach to bindings.

 MLTS stands for

mobility and lambda-tree syntax

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Together, we have the λ -tree syntax approach to bindings.

 MLTS stands for

- mobility and lambda-tree syntax
- ... or most likely to succeed
- ... or most long term solution

The substitution case

Our sample example: substitution

val subst: term -> var -> term -> term Such that "subst t x u" is t[x|u].

Handmade: The "naive" way...

A simple way to handle bindings in vanilla OCaml is to use strings to represent variables:

```
type tm =
    | Var of string
    | App of term * term
    | Abs of string * term
```

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```

And then proceed recursively:

Handmade: ...the painful way

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But occurrences of y in u can be "captured."

We need to check for free variables in t and rename them if necessary...

Handmade

There are several approaches to handle bindings:

- Var as strings
- Var as fresh names
- De Bruijn's nameless dummies

But they all need to be carefully implemented.

Can we automate this tedious and pervasive task ?

$C\alpha ml$ [Pottier 2006]

 $C\alpha ml$ is a tool that generates an OCaml module to manipulate datatypes with binders. (example from the Little Calculist blog)

sort var

type tm =
 | Var of atom var
 | App of tm * tm
 | Abs of < lambda >

type lambda binds var = atom var * inner tm

$\mathbf{C} \alpha \mathbf{m} \mathbf{I}$

```
let rec subst t x u =
  match t with
  | Var y -> if Var.Atom.equal x y
             then u
             else Var y
  | App(m, n) -> App (subst m x u, subst n
    x u)
  | Abs abs ->
      let x', body = open_lambda abs in
      Abs (create_lambda (x', subst body x
         u))
```

But bindings and substitutions are logic

Bindings, substitutions, $\alpha\text{-conversion},$ etc, are all features of well understood and popular logics.

 Church's 1940 Simple Theory of Types underlies HOL, Isabelle, λProlog, etc.

They are not "yet another data structure to get implemented anyway that works...".

Some inhabitants (all of type tm):

 λ -abstraction is written as infix backslash (following λ Prolog).

Initial capital letters denote constructors (following OCaml).

Since nominals are essentially scoped constructors, they are capitalized also.

. . .

let rec subst t x u =
 match (x, t) with



....

let rec subst t x u =
 match (x, t) with
 | nab X in (X, X) -> u

nab X in (X, X) will only match if x = t = X is a nominal.

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....

```
let rec subst t x u =
   match (x, t) with
   | nab X in (X, X) -> u
   | nab X Y in (X, Y) -> Y
```

nab X Y in (X, Y) will only match for two distinct nominals.

. . .

....

In Abs(Y\ subst (r @ Y) x u), the abstraction is opened, modified and rebuilt without ever freeing any bound variable.

How do we perform the substitution:

 $(\lambda y. y x)[x \setminus \lambda z. z]?$

Something like

subst (Abs(Y\ App(Y, ?))) ? (Abs(Z\ Z));;

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Something like

subst (Abs(Y\ App(Y, ?))) ? (Abs(Z\ Z));;

We need a way to introduce a nominal to call subst.

new X in subst (Abs(Y\ (App(Y, X)))) X (Abs(Z\ Z));;

 \rightarrow Abs(Y\ App(Y, Abs(Z\ Z)))

Computing the size of an untyped λ -term

```
let rec size term =
    match term with
| App(n, m) -> 1 + (size n) + (size m)
| Abs(r) -> 1 + (new X in size (r @ X))
| nab X in X -> 1;;
```

A sample computation:

size (Abs (X\ (Abs (Y\ (App(X,Y))))))
new X in 1 + (size (Abs (Y\ (App(X,Y)))))
new X in 1 + new Y in 1 + (size (App(X,Y)))
new X in 1 + new Y in 1 + 1 + (size X)+(size Y)
new X in 1 + new Y in 1 + 1 + 1 + 1
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MLTS features: =>, backslash and @

The type constructor => is used to declare bindings in datatypes.

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The infix operator $\$ introduces an abstraction of a nominal over its scope. Such an expression is applied to its arguments using @, thus eliminating the abstraction.

$$\frac{\Gamma, X : A \vdash t : B}{\Gamma \vdash X \setminus t : A \Rightarrow B} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : A \Rightarrow B \quad (X : A) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash t @ X : B}$$

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The backslash introduces => and the @ eliminates it.

Example

((X\ body) @ Y) denotes a β -redex: replace the abstracted nominal X with the nominal Y in body.

MLTS features: new and nab

The new X in binding operator provides a scope within expressions in which a new nominal X is available.

Patterns can contain the nab X in binder: in its scope the symbol X can match the nominals introduced by new and λ .

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Pattern variables can have => type and they can be applied (using (a)) to an argument list that consists of distinct variables that are bound in the scope of pattern variables:

Abs(X\ r @ X)

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Pattern variables can have => type and they can be applied (using (2)) to an argument list that consists of distinct variables that are bound in the scope of pattern variables:

Abs(X\ r @ X) $\exists r. Abs(X \land r @ X)$

Three new promised binding sites: backslash \, new, and nab.

An example: beta reduction

```
let rec beta t =
  match t with
  | nab X in X -> X
  | Abs r \rightarrow Abs (Y\ beta (r @ Y))
  | App(m, n) ->
    let m = beta m in
    let n = beta n in
    begin match m with
      Abs r ->
          new X in beta (subst (r @ X) X n)
      | _ -> App(m, n)
    end
;;
```

An example: vacuous more

An example: vacuous

An example: vacuous

match t with $Abs(X \setminus s) \equiv \exists s.(\lambda x.s) = t$

Variable capture is not allowed in substitutions.

Recursion over term structures is hidden in matching.

Pattern matching

We perform matching modulo α , β_0 and η .

 β_0 : $(\lambda x.B)x = B$

 β_0 : $(\lambda x.B)y = B[y/x]$ provided y is not free in $\lambda x.B$

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Patterns are further restricted:

- Pattern variables are applied to a (possibly empty) list of distinct variables: e.g., (r @ X Y).
- The variables in the list are bound within the scope of the pattern variables.

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Such pattern matching is a subset of higher-order pattern unification (a.k.a. L_{λ} -unification).

Such higher-order unification is decidable, unitary, and can be done without typing.

$$a:i \quad f:i \to i \quad g:i \to i \to i$$

- (1) $\lambda x \lambda y(f(H x))$ (2) $\lambda x \lambda y(f(H x))$
- (3) $\lambda x \lambda y (g (H y x) (f (L x))) \quad \lambda u \lambda v (g u (f u))$
- (4) $\lambda x \lambda y(g(H x)(L x))$
- $\begin{array}{l} \lambda u \lambda v(f(fu)) \\ \lambda u \lambda v(f(fv)) \\)) \quad \lambda u \lambda v(gu(fu)) \\ \lambda u \lambda v(g(gau)(guu)) \end{array} \end{array}$

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(1) $H \mapsto \lambda w(f w)$

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(1) $H \mapsto \lambda w(f w)$ (2) match failure

$$a:i \quad f:i \to i \quad g:i \to i \to i$$

- (1) $\lambda x \lambda y(f(H x))$ (2) $\lambda x \lambda y(f(H x))$
- (2) $\lambda x \lambda y (g (H \times x))$ $\lambda u \lambda v (g (H \times y))$ (3) $\lambda x \lambda y (g (H \times x)) (f (L \times y))$ $\lambda u \lambda v (g u (f u))$
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(1) $H \mapsto \lambda w(f w)$ (2) match failure (3) $H \mapsto \lambda y \lambda x. x \quad L \mapsto \lambda x. x$

$$a:i \quad f:i \to i \quad g:i \to i \to i$$

- (1) $\lambda x \lambda y(f(H x))$ $\lambda u \lambda v(f(f u))$ (2) $\lambda x \lambda y(f(H x))$ $\lambda u \lambda v(f(f v))$
- $\begin{array}{ll} (3) & \lambda x \lambda y(g \ (H \ y \ x) \ (f \ (L \ x))) & \lambda u \lambda v(g \ u \ (f \ u)) \\ (4) & \lambda x \lambda y(g \ (H \ x) \ (L \ x)) & \lambda u \lambda v(g \ (g \ a \ u) \ (g \ u \ u)) \end{array}$

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(1)
$$H \mapsto \lambda w(f w)$$

(2) match failure
(3) $H \mapsto \lambda y \lambda x. x \quad L \mapsto \lambda x. x$
(4) $H \mapsto \lambda x. (g a x) \quad L \mapsto \lambda x. (g x x)$

Translation

Our prototype interpreter translates the OCaml-style concrete syntax into a λ Prolog term that is then evaluated by the interpreter written in λ Prolog.

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(* subst : (tm => tm) -> tm -> tm *)

Translation

```
prog "subst" (lam t0 \ lam u \ new X \ let
  (fix aux \ lam t1 \
       match t1
       [(arr (pnom X) u), (nab Y \ arr
          (pnom Y) Y),
        (all 0 \setminus all u1 \setminus
            arr (pvariant App [(pvar u1),
               (pvar 0)])
            (variant App [(app aux u1),
               (app aux 0)])),
        (all r \
            arr (pvariant Abs [pvar r])
            (variant Abs
             [backslash Y \ app aux
                (arobase r Y)]))]) aux \
   app aux (arobase tO X)).
```

Natural semantics for MLTS: evaluation (\Downarrow)

$$\begin{array}{c} \vdash \forall i \in [1; n], \ T_i \Downarrow V_i \\ \hline \vdash \text{lam } R \Downarrow \text{lam } R \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash \forall \text{variant } c \ [T_1, \dots, T_n] \Downarrow \text{variant } c \ [V_1, \dots, V_n] \\ \hline \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash C \Downarrow ff \ \vdash M \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \\ \hline \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash C \Downarrow ff \ \vdash M \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \\ \hline \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash C \Downarrow ff \ \vdash M \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \\ \hline \vdash \text{cond } C \ L \ M \Downarrow V \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash R \ (R \ U) \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{let } M R) \Downarrow V \end{array} \\ \hline \vdash \text{happ } M \ N \Downarrow V \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash N \land U \ \vdash (R \ U) \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{(let } M R) \Downarrow V \end{array} \\ \hline \vdash \text{happ } R \ (fix \ R) \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{fix } R \Downarrow V \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \vdash \nabla x.(E \ x) \Downarrow V \\ \vdash \text{new}(\lambda x.E \ x) \Downarrow V \end{array} \\ \hline \vdash \text{backslash } (\lambda x.V \ x) \end{array}$$

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Natural semantics for MLTS: match and clause

$$\frac{\vdash \text{clause } T \text{ Rule } U \qquad \vdash U \Downarrow V}{\vdash (\text{match } T \text{ (Rule :: Rules)}) \Downarrow V}$$

 $\frac{\vdash \neg(\exists u, \text{ clause } T \text{ Rule } u) \qquad \vdash (\text{match } T \text{ Rules}) \Downarrow V}{\vdash (\text{match } T \text{ (Rule :: Rules)}) \Downarrow V}$

 $\frac{\vdash \exists x. \text{clause } T (P x) U}{\vdash \text{clause } T (\text{all } (\lambda x. P x)) U}$

 $\vdash \text{matches } T P \qquad \vdash (\lambda z_1 \dots \lambda z_m . (p \Longrightarrow u)) \unrhd (P \Longrightarrow U) \\ \vdash \text{clause } T \text{ (nab } z_1 \dots \text{nab } z_m . (p \Longrightarrow u)) U$

Nominal abstraction: \supseteq

Definition

Let *s* and *t* be terms of types $\tau_1 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow \tau$ and τ for $n \ge 0$. The expression $s \ge t$, a nominal abstraction of degree *n*, holds just in the case that *s* λ -converts to $\lambda c_1 \dots c_n t$ for some nominal constants c_1, \dots, c_n .

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Equality if nominal abstraction of degree 0 .

Examples

The term on the left of the \triangleright operator serves as a pattern for isolating occurrences of nominal constants.

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Examples

The term on the left of the \supseteq operator serves as a pattern for isolating occurrences of nominal constants.

For example, if p is a binary constructor and c_1 and c_2 are nominal constants:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \lambda x.x \trianglerighteq c_1 & \lambda x.p \ x \ c_2 \trianglerighteq p \ c_1 \ c_2 & \lambda x.\lambda y.p \ x \ y \trianglerighteq p \ c_1 \ c_2 \\ \lambda x.x \nvDash p \ c_1 \ c_2 & \lambda x.p \ x \ c_2 \nvDash p \ c_2 \ c_1 & \lambda x.\lambda y.p \ x \ y \nvDash p \ c_1 \ c_1 \end{array}$

Illustrating the match/pattern rule

$$\frac{\vdash \lambda X.(X \Longrightarrow s) \trianglerighteq (Y \Longrightarrow U)}{\vdash \text{pattern } Y \text{ (nab } X \text{ in } (X \Longrightarrow s)) U} \vdash U \Downarrow V}$$
$$\vdash \text{match } Y \text{ with } (\text{nab } X \text{ in } (X \Longrightarrow s)) \Downarrow V$$

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Nominals do not escape their scopes

The logic behind the natural semantics ensures that nominals do not escape their scope.

$$\frac{\vdash \nabla x.(E \ x) \Downarrow V}{\vdash new \ E \Downarrow V}$$

The universal quantifier $\forall V$ is outside the scope of ∇x .

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$$\frac{\vdash \nabla x.(E \ x) \Downarrow V}{\vdash new \ E \Downarrow V}$$

The universal quantifier $\forall V$ is outside the scope of ∇x .

 $\lambda {\rm Prolog}$ ensures that no binding escapes its scope since such checks are built into unification.

$$\frac{\vdash \nabla x.(E \ x) \Downarrow (U \ x) \qquad U = \lambda x.V}{\vdash new \ E \Downarrow V}$$

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Static checks will need to be developed in order to ensure that such checks are not always needed.

Current implementation

Type inference was easy to implement in λ Prolog.

The natural semantics are usually easy to implement in λ Prolog: however, the ∇ and \succeq are not part of λ Prolog so they needed to be implemented.

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Since the Elpi implementation of $\lambda Prolog$ (by Enrico Tassi) is written in OCaml and since js_of_ocaml compiles OCaml bytecode to javascript, we could provide a website for experimenting with MLTS.

https://trymlts.github.io/

Future work

- More complex examples
- More formal proofs: small step semantics, subject reduction, progress, etc.
- Statics checks such as pattern matching exhaustivity, etc.
- Make definitive choices about remaining aspects of this prototype (should we restrict @ to β₀ reductions? Should constructors introduced by \ always be of primitive type?)

- Design a real implementation and an abstract machine.
- A compiler? An extension to OCaml?

References

- Online demo and full source code: https://trymlts.github.io/
- "Functional programming with λ-tree syntax" by Ulysse Gérard, M, and Gabriel Scherer. Draft paper available at http://www.lix.polytechnique.fr/Labo/Dale.Miller/ papers/mlts-draft-may-2019.pdf (In preparation.)

Thank you

Another implementation of vacuous checking

```
let vacp t =
    match t with
      | Abs(r) -> new X in
        let rec aux term =
          match term with
          | X -> false
          | nab Y in Y -> true
          | App(m, n) -> (aux m) && (aux n)
          | Abs(r) -> new Y in aux (r @ X)
        in aux (r @ X)
      _ -> false
;;
```

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back

λ -tree syntax

- The syntax is encoded as simply typed λ-terms. Syntactic categories are mapped to simple types.
- ► Equality of syntax is equated to α, β₀, η. conversion. Often restrictions are in place so that β₀ is complete for β.

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 Bound variables never become free, instead, their binding scope can move.

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