

CSE 505

Lecture #9

October 1, 2012

Lambda Calculus

Expr ::= Var | Var. Expr | (Expr Expr)

Key Concepts:

Bound and Free Occurrences
Substitution, Reduction Rules: β , η
Confluence and Unique Normal Form
Nontermination and Leftmost Reduction
Church-Rosser Property (\Rightarrow^* and \Leftarrow^*)
Encoding Things in Lambda Calculus
Recursion and Fixed-Point Operator (Y)

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Recursion and Fixed-points

fact = $\lambda n. ((\text{if } (\text{is0 } n)) \ 1) \ ((\text{mult } n) \ (\text{fact } (\text{pred } n)))$

t = $\lambda f. \lambda n. ((\text{if } (\text{is0 } n)) \ 1) \ ((\text{mult } n) \ (f \ (\text{pred } n)))$

Why does the fixed-point of t capture f?

Fixed point g has the property: $g = (t \ g)$

$g = \lambda n. ((\text{if } (\text{is0 } n)) \ 1) \ ((\text{mult } n) \ (g \ (\text{pred } n)))$

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$Y = \lambda f. (\lambda x. (f \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x. (f \ (x \ x)))$

In Lambda Calculus, Y is fixed-point operator, because (for any t):

$(Y \ t) \Leftarrow^* (t \ (Y \ t))$

Proof:

$(Y \ t) = (\lambda f. (\lambda x. (f \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x. (f \ (x \ x)))) \ t$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x. (t \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x. (t \ (x \ x)))$

$\Rightarrow (t \ (\lambda x. (t \ (x \ x))) \ (\lambda x. (t \ (x \ x))))$

$\Leftarrow^* (t \ (Y \ t))$

Least Fixed Point

Consider: letrec f(n) = if n=0 then 0 else f(n);

Fixed-point $f_1(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n=0 \\ 1, & \text{if } n \neq 0 \end{cases}$

Fixed-point $f_2(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n=0 \\ 2, & \text{if } n \neq 0 \end{cases}$

Least fixed-point $g(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n=0 \\ ?, & \text{if } n \neq 0 \end{cases}$

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Typed Lambda Calculi

Thus far, we have studied the untyped lambda calculus, i.e., no types associated with vars.

There are two well-known calculi:

- the simply-type lambda calculus
- the second-order (polymorphic) lambda calculus

Interesting, adding types causes all lambda expressions to terminate! Cannot have $(x \ x)$.

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Lambda Calculus in PLs

Lisp: `(lambda (f g) (lambda (x) (f (g x))))`

Javascript: `function(f g) {return function (x)
return f(g(x))}}`

Python: `comp = lambda f,g: lambda x: f(g(x))
double = lambda x:x*2
triple = lambda y:y*3
comp(double, triple)(100)
= 600`

Functional languages such as Scheme, ML and Haskell also support lambda calculus.

Types in PLs

- Concrete and Abstract types
- Strong Typing
- Type equivalence and security
- Exceptions
- Polymorphism
- Type inference
- Advanced Type Systems

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What is a 'type'?

Simple Answer: A type is a set of values.

e.g. type `int` = { ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 ... }

Better Answer: A type is a set + operations.

e.g. type `int` = { ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 ... } together with operations such as +, -, *, etc.

That is, a type is more like an algebra.

(Even better characterization is possible.)

What is a 'type' (cont'd)

Consider type `int` = { ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 ... } with operations such as +, -, *, etc.

Are numerals ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 ... necessary in defining `int`?

Can't we use ..., -10, -01, 0, 01, 10, 11, ... ?

Choice of literals not crucial ... We can define the values of a type using operations called constructors. But literals are useful in practice.

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A type is a set of operations!

```
zero: int  
succ: int → int  
+ : int * int → int  
* : int * int → int  
% : int * int → int  
...  
< : int * int → bool
```

Abstract
Data
Type

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Refined int type

```
exception overflow,  
underflow, dividebyzero  
zero: int  
succ: int → int  
+ : int * int → int  
* : int * int → int  
% : int * int → int  
...  
< : int * int → bool
```

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Why use types?

Three important reasons:

- faster execution:

e.g. `for (i=1; i++; i<=n) { ... x * y ... }`

- better program readability/documentation:

e.g. `void f(x) { ... }` vs `void f(Tree x) { ... }`

- early error checking:

e.g. `int x; void f(string y) { ... }; ... f(x) ...`

Strongly Typed Language

Popular Answer:

"every variable has a type declared for it"

Above criterion not sufficient (or even necessary!):

`int i, j, k; ... i := j ** k ...`

Somewhat Better Answer:

"A language is strongly typed if compiler can perform all type-checking"

Strong Typing Defined

By a static (source code) analysis of the program:

1. the type of every expression can be unambiguously determined; and
2. all type equivalence tests can be unambiguously decided.

Pascal Type System

Unstructured

built-in: integer, real, char, boolean

user-defined: enumerations and subranges

Structured

user-defined: record, array, set, file, ↑

Note: Pascal does not have abstract types. Algol 68 preceded Pascal, and was the first language to introduce user-defined types ('modes').

Polymorphic Types: Motivation

Pascal is an important milestones in PLs, because of its type system.

But Pascal has first-order types, also known as monomorphic types.

Many modern PLs have higher-order types, or polymorphic types. They also support abstract data types, a concept that was not fully developed when Pascal was invented.

Polymorphic Types: Motivation

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Why 'Mono' Types not Enough

```
int length(l) {
  int len = 0;
  while (l != nil) {
    len := len + 1;
    l := l.next;
  }
  return len;
}
```

Desired type of length is: $(\forall t) \ t \text{ List} \rightarrow \text{Int}$

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Polymorphic Types (cont'd)

Another example:

```
List append(l1, l2) {
  if (l1 = nil) return l2 else
  return cons(l1.val,
              append(l1.next, l2));
}
```

Desired type of append is:

$(\forall t) \ t \text{ List} * t \text{ List} \rightarrow t \text{ List}$

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Polymorphic Types (cont'd)

The generic sorting procedure:

```
void sort(var a: array[t]) { ... }
```

might be given the type:

$(\forall t) \ t \text{ array} \rightarrow \text{void}$

This type is not quite correct for sort.

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Robin Milner



- Inventor of ML
- Introduced polymorphic types and type inference
- Received ACM Turing Award

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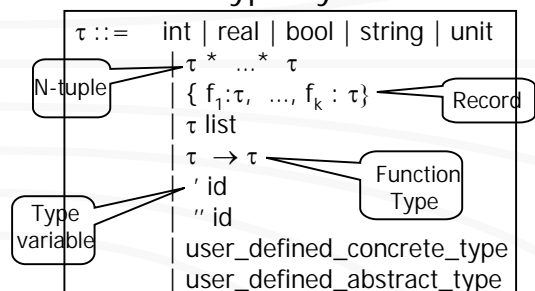
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Characteristics of ML

- Strongly typed language (with type inference):
 - (parametric) polymorphic types
 - concrete type
 - abstract types
- Higher-order functional language:
 - expression-oriented (like Lisp)
 - rule-based definitions, with pattern matching
 - higher-order functions (output can also be function)
 - static scoping, with nested function definitions
- Modular language:
 - signatures, structures, and functors

ML Type System



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Type Name	Operations	Sample Literals
int	+, -, *, div, mod, ... =, >, >=, < >, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 ...
real	+, -, *, /, =, >, >=, < >, ...	-3.14, 0.0, 3E2, 9.99 ...
bool	and, also, or else, if then else, =, < >, ...	true, false
string	size, ^, =, < >, ...	"", "abcd", ...
unit	=, < >	()

Overloaded op'r (points to +, -, *, / in Operations column)

negative literal (points to -3.14 in Sample Literals column)

'short-circuit' op'r (points to and, also, or else in Operations column)

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ML is a Functional Language

- Program = set of function definitions
- No imperative features, especially no assignments and updating.
- Computation is essentially the reduction of expression to a value.
- Keywords: functions, types, values, expressions, reduction strategies, ...

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Type Inference

Examples:

`fun f(x) = x + 1;` \Rightarrow `int \rightarrow int`

`fun f(x,y) = (x+y, y*2.5);` \Rightarrow `real*real \rightarrow real*real`

`fun f(x,y) = x*x + y` \Rightarrow Unresolved overloaded operators + and *

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Resolving overloaded operators

`fun f(x:int, y) = x*x + y;`

`fun f(x, y:int) = x*x + y;`

`fun f(x, y):int = x*x + y;`

`fun f(x, y) = x*x + y:int;`

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if-then-else

`if <expr1> then <expr2> else <expr3>`

$(\forall t) \text{ bool } * t * t \rightarrow t$

Examples:

`fun f(x,y) = if x > y then x*2 else y*2;` \Rightarrow `f: int*int \rightarrow int`

`fun f(x,y) = if x > y then x*x else y*y;` \Rightarrow Unresolved overloaded ops

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Recursive Definitions

`fact: int \rightarrow int`

`fun fact(n) = if n=0 then 1 else n*fact(n-1);`

`n:int`

agrees with fact: int \rightarrow int (points to the recursive call)

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Another recursive definition

```
fun h(x,y) = if (x) then y else h(y,x);
```

\uparrow \uparrow
 $x:\text{bool}$ $y:\text{bool}$

Hence, $h: \text{bool} * \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$

Type inference is a process of propagating type information (bottom-up, top-down, and side-ways) in order to determine the types of all identifiers – variables or functions.

Type Inference - Remarks

In the absence of overloaded operators, types for all identifiers in an ML program can be unambiguously determined without any type declarations (assuming no type errors).

Local Vars & Nested Scopes

```
let <local_value_bindings>
in <expression>
end
```

```
let val a = 10;
    val b = f(a)
in let val a = 20;
    val c = g(a, b)
    in (a+b) / (a - c)
end
end
```

```
fun quad(a,b,c)=
  let val disc = b*b - 4.0*a*c;
      val den = 2.0*a
  in
    if disc = 0.0 then -b/den else
    if disc > 0.0 then
      let val sq = sqrt(disc)
      in ((sq-b)/den, (~sq-b)/den)
      end
    else "imaginary"
  end;
```

Concrete Data Types

```
datatype root = imaginary
              | one of real
              | two of real*real;
```

Types for the constructors:

```
imaginary : root
one : real -> root
two : real * real -> root
```

```
fun quad(a,b,c)=
  let val disc = b*b - 4.0*a*c;
      val den = 2.0*a
  in
    if disc = 0.0 then one(-b/den) else
    if disc > 0.0 then
      let val sq = sqrt disc
      in two((sq-b)/den,
              (-sq-b)/den)
      end
    else imaginary
  end;
```

Almost correct, except for equality test

```

fun quad(a,b,c)=
  let val disc = b*b - 4.0*a*c;
      val den = 2.0*a;
      fun realeq(x,y) = abs(x-y) < 0.0001
  in
    if realeq(disc,0.0) then one(-b/den) else
    if disc > 0.0 then
      let val sq = sqrt disc
          in two((sq-b)/den,
                (-sq-b)/den)
        end
      else imaginary
    end;
  val quad = fn: real * real * real -> root

```

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Using 'quad'

```

- quad(1.0, 5.0, 6.0);
  val it = two(~2.0, ~3.0) : root

- quad(1.0, 2.0, 1.0);
  val it = one(~1.0) : root

- quad(1.0, 1.0, 1.0);
  val it = imaginary : root

```

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Pattern Matching

```

fun nroots(imaginary) = 0
  | nroots(one(x)) = 1
  | nroots(two(x,y)) = 2;

```

root -> int

int -> int

```

fun fib(1) = 1
  | fib(2) = 1
  | fib(n) = fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);

```

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Polymorphic Datatypes

```

datatype 'a list = [] | :: of 'a * 'a list;

```

cons

Constructors:

```

[] : 'a list
:: : 'a * 'a list -> 'a list

```

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List Constants (literals)

- [1, 2, 3] = 1 :: 2 :: 3 :: []
: int list
- ["abc", "def"] = "abc" :: "de" :: []
: string list
- [[1, 2],[3]] = ((1::2::[]) :: (3::[]) :: [])
: int list list

[1, "apple", 3.14] → badly typed list

[1, [2], [1,2,3]] → badly typed list

Polymorphically Typed Functions

```

fun length([ ]) = 0
  | length(h::t) = 1 + length(t);

```

What is the type of length?

- Output Type: int, since 0:int, and this agrees with the second case 1 + length(t);
- Input Type: the terms [] and h::t have types 'a list and 'b list, but a=b since they must be compatible.

Hence the type of length: 'a list -> int.

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Polymorphic Functions (cont'd)

```
fun member(x, []) = false
  | member(x, h::t) = if x=h
                      then true
                      else member(x,t)
```

"a * "a list \rightarrow bool

Note: The following is incorrect:

Nonlinear Pattern Disallowed!

```
fun member(x, []) = false
  | member(x, x::t) = true
  | member(x, y::t) = false
```

More examples

```
fun mystery([ ]) = []
  | mystery(h::t) = h @ mystery(t)
```

Mystery type analysis:

'a list * 'a list \rightarrow 'a list

- input and output types must be lists;
- h @ mystery(t) indicates that h must be a list;

mystery: 'a list list \rightarrow 'a list

A simple tree datatype

```
datatype 'a tree =
  leaf of 'a
  | node of 'a tree * 'a tree
```

Sample tree literals:

```
leaf(true)
node(leaf(1), leaf(2))
node(node(leaf(3.5), leaf(4.5)), leaf(1.5))
node(node(leaf("Ada"), leaf("C")),
      node(leaf("Java"), leaf("Prolog")))
```

'a tree \rightarrow int

anonymous variable

```
fun depth(leaf(x)) = 0
  | depth(node(t1, t2)) =
    let val d1 = depth(t1);
        val d2 = depth(t2);
    in if d1 > d2
      then 1+d1
      else 1+d2
    end;
```

The Quicksort Algorithm

```
fun qsort([ ]) = []
  | qsort(h::t) =
    let val (l, r) = partition(h, t)
    in qsort(l) @ [h] @ qsort(r)
    end;
```

```
fun partition(pivot, [ ]) = ([ ], [ ])
  | partition(pivot, h::t) =
    let val (l, r) = partition(pivot, t)
    in if h < pivot
      then (h::l, r)
      else (l, h::r)
    end;
```

append

unresolved overloaded op'r

must specify type

```
fun partition(pivot, [ ]) = ([ ], [ ])
  | partition(pivot:int, h::t) =
    let val (l, r) = partition(pivot, t)
    in if h < pivot
      then (h::l, r)
      else (l, h::r)
    end;
```

```
fun qsort([ ]) = []
  | qsort(h::t) = let val (l, r) = partition(h, t)
                  in qsort(l) @ [h] @ qsort(r)
                  end;
```

int list \rightarrow int list