

Introduction to typed and polymorphic languages

L.Cardelli & P. Wegner (1985)

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Why study foundations?

- Allows you to reason about the abstractions you're using.
- Know what's a mistake and what's not.
- Understand subtleties of programming practice.

Lambda Calculus

- Mathematical foundations of computation and programs, due to Alonzo Church.
- Untyped lambda calculus
 - Example implementation in Haskell
- Typed lambda calculus
 - Another example implementation in Haskell
- Code on
 - <https://github.com/soumyadsanyal/lambdaloungetaalk>

Lambda Calculus

- Model of computation underlying functional programming languages
 - e.g.: Haskell is a simply typed lambda calculus with additional datatypes and constants
- Consists purely of applying functions
- Can be used to define arithmetic, boolean logic, pairs, tuples, projection maps, recursive functions, lists, trees,...

Lambda Calculus

- Syntax:
 - Terms t of the (untyped) λ calculus consist of:
 - variables x
 - abstractions $\lambda x. t$
 - applications $t t$
 - and that's it.

Lambda Calculus

- Examples:
 - $\text{id} = \lambda x.x$
 - $\text{plusone} = \lambda x.(x+1)$
 - $\text{twice} = \lambda f.\lambda x.(f(f(x)))$
 - $\text{plus} = \lambda x.\lambda y.(x+y)$
 - $\text{zero} = \lambda s.\lambda z.z$
 - $\text{one} = \lambda s.\lambda z. s\ z$
 - $\text{two} = \lambda s.\lambda z. s\ (s\ z)$
 - $\text{three} = \lambda s.\lambda z. s\ (s\ (s\ z)) \dots$

Lambda Calculus

- How to compute with these things?
- By β - reduction
- Essentially substitution:
 - $(\lambda x.t) s = [x/s]t$
 - In plain English: $(\lambda x.t)$ is a function, s is the argument, apply the function to the argument by plugging in s for x in the body of the lambda expression t

Lambda Calculus

- Examples:

- Easy:

- $(\lambda x.x)(1) = [x/1] x = 1$

- $(\lambda x.x+1) 100 = [x/100] (x+1) = 101$

Lambda Calculus

- Examples:

- Higher order:

- $\lambda f. \lambda x. (f(f(x))) (\lambda x. x+1) (1)$
 - $= [f/(\lambda x. x+1)] \lambda x. (f(f(x))) (1)$
 - $= \lambda x. ((\lambda x. x+1)((\lambda x. x+1)(x))) (1)$
 - $= \lambda x. ((\lambda x. x+1)([x/x] x+1)) (1)$
 - $= \lambda x. ((\lambda x. x+1)(x+1)) (1)$
 - $= \lambda x. ([x/x+1] x+1) (1)$
 - $= \lambda x. ((x+1)+1) (1)$
 - $= [x/1] (x+1) + 1 = (1+1) + 1 = 3$

Lambda Calculus

- Another example:
 - $(\lambda x.x) ((\lambda x.x) (\lambda z. (\lambda x.x) z))$
 - $= (\lambda x.x) ((\lambda x.x) (\lambda z. [x/z] x))$
 - $= (\lambda x.x) ((\lambda x.x) (\lambda z. z))$
 - $= (\lambda x.x) ([x/(\lambda z. z)] x)$
 - $= (\lambda x.x) (\lambda z. z)$
 - $= [x/(\lambda z. z)] x$
 - $= \lambda z. z$
 - which is the identity function, who knew!

Lambda Calculus

- A harder example:
 - Define $\text{plus} = \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda s. \lambda z. m \ s \ (n \ s \ z)$
 - Work out that:
 - $\text{plus one two} = \text{three}$
 - purely by β reduction!
 - Define $\text{times} = \lambda m. \lambda n. m \ (\text{plus } n) \ \text{zero}$
 - Work out that:
 - $\text{times two three} = \text{six}$
 - purely by β reduction!

Lambda Calculus

- Different evaluation strategies lead to different program behavior
 - Full beta reduction (anything can be reduced at any time)
 - Normal order strategy (left to right)
 - Call by name (no reductions inside the body of a lambda expression)
 - Call by value (only reduce when the argument is fully reduced to a value)

Lambda Calculus

- Variables can be bound or free
 - In the expression $\lambda x.(x+y)$, x is a bound variable and y is a free variable
- Expressions in which no variables are free are called combinators
 - $\lambda x.x$
 - $\text{omega} = (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$ (divergent combinator)

Lambda Calculus

- The free variables of a term can be computed using the formulas:
 - $FV(x) = \{x\}$
 - $FV(\lambda x.t) = FV(t) - \{x\}$
 - $FV(t\ s) = \text{union of } FV(t) \text{ and } FV(s)$
- Free and bound variables require different treatment under substitution

Lambda Calculus

- Can substitute variables for terms or other variable names at will if the variables are free
 - $[x/s] x = s$
 - $[x/s] y = y$ (if $x \neq y$)
 - $[x/s] \lambda y. t = \lambda y. [x/s] t$
 - $[x/s] (u v) = ([x/s] u) ([x/s] v)$
 - $[x/(\lambda z. z w)] (\lambda y. x) = \lambda y. \lambda z. z w$

Lambda Calculus

- But not if the variable is bound
 - $[x/y] (\lambda x.x) = \lambda x.y$
 - This changed the identity function into a constant function!
- What if we just don't allow ourselves to replace a bound variable?
 - $[x/z] (\lambda z.x) = \lambda z.z$
 - This changed a constant function into an identity function!

Lambda Calculus

- It turns out the correct method of substitution is to make sure that:
 - you don't substitute for a bound variable, and
 - the term you substitute in does not have any free variables that conflict with the bound variables of the destination term

Lambda Calculus

- Untyped lambda calculus
 - is Turing complete - it can compute any computable function
 - but this power is dangerous and allows pathological computations
 - $f = \lambda x.x$
 - What is $f(f)$?
 - $\text{omega} = \lambda x. x (x)$
 - What is $\text{omega}(\text{omega})$?

Lambda Calculus

- $f = \lambda x. x$
 - $f(x) = \lambda x. x \ (x) = [x/x] \ x = x$ for any x
 - $f(f) = f$
- $\text{omega} = \lambda x. x \ (x)$
 - $\text{omega}(\text{omega})$
 - $= \lambda x. x \ (x) \ (\lambda x. x \ (x))$
 - $= [x/(\lambda x. x \ (x))] \ x \ (x)$
 - $= \lambda x. x \ (x) \ (\lambda x. x \ (x)) = \text{omega}(\text{omega})$

Lambda Calculus

- Simply typed lambda calculus
 - Always fully specify the type of every expression
 - No longer Turing complete
 - But all computations halt

Kinds of Types

- Basic types
- Structured types (using type constructors)
- Recursive types

Types

- Basic types
 - Int, Char, Bool, ...
- Structured types (using type constructors)
 - Array, finite Cartesian product, ...
 - `data Pair = Pair Int Int`
- Recursion
 - Trees
 - `data Tree' = Empty | Leaf Int | Node Int Tree' Tree'`

What is a type system?

- Types provide constraints upon data and methods.
- Enforce contracts (anything illegal is a type error).

Static, strong typing

- Type systems can be static (all expressions can be typed upon static analysis at compile time), strong (all expressions are guaranteed to be type-consistent, even if not determined at compile time).
- Static \Rightarrow strong
- Type inference
 - Haskell supports type inference

Type Polymorphism

Allows more flexible behavior and programming than monomorphic type systems, where every value can have only ONE type.

Type Polymorphism

- Universal
 - Parametric
 - Inclusion
- Ad-hoc
 - Overloading
 - Coercion

Universal polymorphism

- Parametric:
 - Functions have implicit or explicit type parameters
 - `data List' a = Nil | Cons a (List' a)`
- Inclusion:
 - Methods can operate on various objects related by inclusion/inheritance

Ad-hoc polymorphism

- Overloading:
 - $2+3$
 - “Lambda”+” Lounge”
 - `eval (Plus (Constant (VNat (Succ Zero))) (Constant (VNat (Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))))))`
 - `eval (Plus (Constant (VInt 0)) (Constant (VInt 3)))`

Ad-hoc polymorphism

- Coercion:
 - $3+4$
 - $3.0+4=?$
 - $1+''\text{Lambda}''=?$
 - `eval (Times (Constant (VNat (Succ (Succ (Succ Zero)))))) (Constant (VInt 100)))`

Ad-hoc polymorphism

- The essential difference between ad-hoc polymorphism and monomorphism is a bit blurred.
- One could argue in some cases that overloading is essentially syntactic flexibility within monomorphic type systems.

For another talk ...

- Quantification over types (universal, existential, bounded, mixed)
- Polymorphism via subtyping, inheritance
- Parametric types
- Type inference

Questions?

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Thanks!