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/lambdaloungetalk

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, projections maps, recursive functions, lists, trees,...

Lambda Calculus

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

Lambda Calculus

- Examples:
  - id = λx.x
  - plusone = λx.(x+1)
  - twice = λf.λx.(f(f(x))
  - plus = λx.λy.(x+y)
  - zero = λs.λz.z
  - one = λs.λz. s z
  - two = λs.λz. s (s z)
  - three = λs.λz. s (s (s z)) ...

Lambda Calculus

- How to compute with these things?
- By β - reduction
- Essentially substitute:
  - $(\lambda x.t)\ s = [x/s]t$
  - 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:
  - (λx.x) ((λx.x) (λz. (λx.x) z))
  - = (λx.x) ((λx.x) (λz. [x/z] x))
  - = (λx.x) ((λx.x) (λz. z))
  - = (λx.x) ([x/(λz. z)] x)
  - = (λx.x) (λz. z)
  - = [x/(λz. z)] x
  - = λz. z
  - which is the identity function, who knew!

Lambda Calculus

- A harder example:
  - Define plus = λm.λn.λs.λz. m s (n s z)
  - Work out out that:
    - plus one two = three
    - purely by β reduction!
  - Define times = λm. λn. m (plus n) zero
  - Work out out that:
    - times two three = 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 λx.(x+y) , x is a bound variable and y is a free variable
- Expressions in which no variables are free are called combinators
  - λx.x
  - omega = (λx. x x) (λx. x x) (divergent combinator)

Lambda Calculus

- The free variables of a term can be computed using the formulas:
  - FV(x) = {x}
  - FV(λx.t) = FV(t) - {x}
  - FV(t s) = union of FV(t) 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!=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] (λx.x) = λx.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] (λz.x) = λz.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 = λx.x
    - What is f(f) ?
    - omega = λx. x (x)
    - What is omega(omega) ?

Lambda Calculus

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

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 => strong

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
  - “Soumya”+” Sanyal”
  - eval (Plus (Constant (VNat (Succ Zero))) (Constant (VNat (Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))))))
  - eval (Plus (Constant (VInt 0)) (Constant (VNat (Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))))))

Ad-hoc polymorphism

- Coercion:
  - 3+4
  - 3.0+4=?
  - 1+” Soumya”=?
  - 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

Thanks!