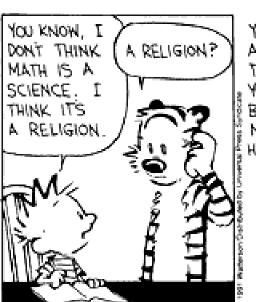
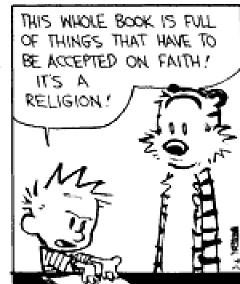
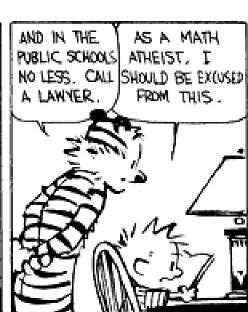
# More Lambda Calculus and Intro to Type Systems



YEAH. ALL THESE EQUATIONS
ARE LIKE MIRACLES. YOU
TAKE TWO NUMBERS AND WHEN
YOU ADD THEM, THEY MAGICALLY
BECOME ONE NEW NUMBER!
NO ONE CAN SAY HOW IT
HAPPENS. YOU EITHER BELIEVE
IT OR YOU DONT.







#### Plan

- Heavy Class Participation
  - Thus, wake up! (not actually kidding)
- Lambda Calculus
  - How is it related to real life?
  - Encodings
  - Fixed points
- Type Systems
  - Overview
  - Static, Dyamic
  - Safety, Judgments, Derivations, Soundness

#### Lambda Review

λ-calculus is a calculus of functions

$$e := x | \lambda x. e | e_1 e_2$$

 Several evaluation strategies exist based on <u>β-reduction</u>

$$(\lambda x.e) e' \rightarrow_{\beta} [e'/x] e$$

 How does this simple calculus relate to real programming languages?

# Functional Programming

- The  $\lambda$ -calculus is a prototypical functional language with:
  - no side effects
  - several evaluation strategies
  - lots of functions
  - nothing but functions (pure  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have any other data type)

- How can we program with functions?
- How can we program with only functions?

is not amused

# **Programming With Functions**

- <u>Functional programming</u> is a programming style that relies on lots of functions
- A typical functional paradigm is using functions as arguments or results of other functions
  - Called "higher-order programming"
- Some "impure" functional languages permit sideeffects (e.g., Lisp, Scheme, ML, Python)
  - references (pointers), in-place update, arrays, exceptions
  - Others (and by "others" we mean "Haskell") use monads to model state updates

# Variables in Functional Languages

We can introduce new variables:

```
let x = e_1 in e_2
```

- x is <u>bound</u> by let
- x is statically scoped in (a subset of) e<sub>2</sub>
- This is pretty much like  $(\lambda x. e_2) e_1$
- In a functional language, variables are never updated
  - they are just names for expressions or values
  - e.g., x is a name for the value denoted by  $e_1$  in  $e_2$
- This models the meaning of "let" in math (proofs)

# Referential Transparency

- In "pure" functional programs, we can reason equationally, by substitution
  - Called "referential transparency"

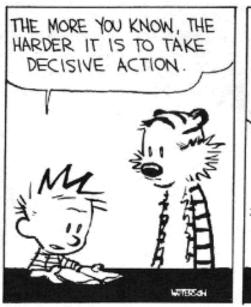
let 
$$x = e_1$$
 in  $e_2 = = [e_1/x]e_2$ 

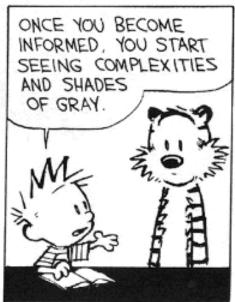
- In an imperative language a side-effect in e₁ might invalidate the above equation
- The behavior of a function in a "pure" functional language depends only on the actual arguments
  - Just like a function in math
  - This makes it easier to understand and to reason about functional programs

# How Tough Is Lambda?

• Given e<sub>1</sub> and e<sub>2</sub>, how complex (a la CS theory) is it to determine if:

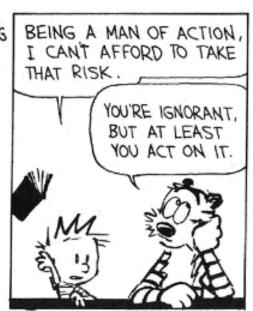
$$\mathbf{e}_1 \rightarrow_{\beta}^* \mathbf{e}$$
 and  $\mathbf{e}_2 \rightarrow_{\beta}^* \mathbf{e}$ 





YOU REALIZE THAT NOTHING IS AS CLEAR AND SIMPLE AS IT FIRST APPEARS. ULTIMATELY, KNOWLEDGE IS PARALYZING.





# Expressiveness of $\lambda$ -Calculus

- The  $\lambda$ -calculus is a minimal system but can express
  - data types (integers, booleans, lists, trees, etc.)
  - branching
  - recursion
- This is enough to encode Turing machines
  - We say the lambda calculus is **Turing-complete**
- Corollary:  $e_1 = e_2$  is undecidable
- Still, how do we encode all these constructs using only functions?
- Idea: encode the "behavior" of values and not their structure

# Encoding Booleans in $\lambda$ -Calculus

- What can we do with a boolean?
  - we can make a binary choice (= "if" statement)
- A boolean is a function that, given two choices, selects one of them:

- true = 
$$\lambda x. \lambda y. x$$

- false 
$$=_{def} \lambda x. \lambda y. y$$

- if 
$$E_1$$
 then  $E_2$  else  $E_3$  =  $E_1$   $E_2$   $E_3$ 

• Example: "if true then u else v" is

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x) u v \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y. u) v \rightarrow_{\beta} u$$

# More Boolean Encodings

- Let's try to do boolean or together
- Recall:

```
- true  =_{def} \lambda x. \lambda y. x 
- false  =_{def} \lambda x. \lambda y. y 
- if E<sub>1</sub> then E<sub>2</sub> else E<sub>3</sub>  =_{def} E_1 E_2 E_3
```

- We want <u>or</u> to take in two booleans and yield a result that is a boolean
- How can we do this?

# A Trying Ordeal

#### • Recall:

- true =  $\frac{\lambda x. \lambda y. x}{\lambda y. x}$
- false  $=_{def} \lambda x. \lambda y. y$
- if  $E_1$  then  $E_2$  else  $E_3$  =  $E_1$   $E_2$   $E_3$
- Intution:
  - or a b = if a then true else b
- Either of these will work:
  - $\underline{\text{or}} =_{\text{def}} \lambda \mathbf{a}. \ \lambda \mathbf{b}. \ \mathbf{a} \ \text{true b}$
  - $=_{def} \lambda a. \ \lambda b. \ \lambda x. \ \lambda y. \ a \ x \ (b \ x \ y)$

# Final Boolean Encodings

- Think about how to do <u>and</u> and <u>not</u>
- Without peeking! Now come up and do it!



#### Another Demand

- How to do and and not
- and a b = if a then b else false
  - and =<sub>def</sub>  $\lambda a. \lambda b. a b false$
  - and =<sub>def</sub>  $\lambda a. \lambda b. \lambda x. \lambda y. a (b x y) y$

- not a = if a then false else true
  - $\frac{\text{not}}{\text{def}}$  =  $\frac{1}{2}$  \text{def} \text{\lambda. a false true}

# Encoding Pairs in $\lambda$ -Calculus

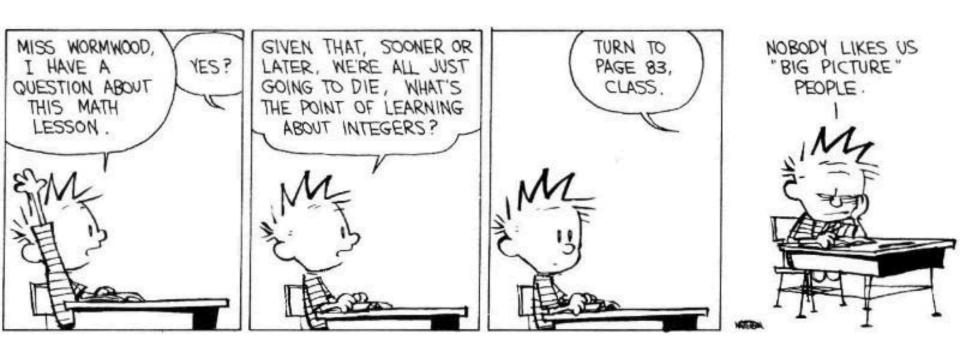
- What can we do with a pair?
  - we can access one of its elements(= ".field access")
- A pair is a function that, given a boolean, returns the first or second element

```
mkpair x y = _{def} \lambda b. b x y
fst p = _{def} p true
snd p = _{def} p false
```

• fst (mkpair x y)  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  (mkpair x y) true  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  true x y  $\rightarrow_{\beta}$  x

# Encoding Numbers in $\lambda$ –Calculus

- What can we do with a natural number?
  - What do you, the viewers at home, think?



# Encoding Numbers $\lambda$ -Calculus

- What can we do with a natural number?
  - we can iterate a number of times over some function (= "for loop")
- A natural number is a function that given an operation f and a starting value s, applies f a number of times to s:

```
0 =_{def} \lambda f. \lambda s. s
1 =_{def} \lambda f. \lambda s. f s
2 =_{def} \lambda f. \lambda s. f (f s)
```

- Very similar to List.fold\_left and friends
- These are numerals in a unary representation
- Called <u>Church numerals</u>

#### Test Time!

- How would you encode the successor function (succ x === x+1)?
- How would you encode more general addition?
- Recall:  $4 =_{def} \lambda f. \lambda s. f f f (f s)$



THAT'S WHY I'VE STOPPED DOING HOMEWORK. I DON'T NEED TO LEARN THINGS TO LIKE MYSELF. I'M FINE THE WAY I AM.







# Computing with Natural Numbers

The successor function

succ n = 
$$_{def} \lambda f. \lambda s. f (n f s)$$
  
succ n =  $_{def} \lambda f. \lambda s. n f (f s)$ 

Addition

add 
$$n_1 n_2 =_{def} n_1 succ n_2$$

Multiplication

or

mult 
$$n_1 n_2 =_{def} n_1 \text{ (add } n_2) 0$$

Testing equality with 0

iszero n = 
$$_{def}$$
 n ( $\lambda$ b. false) true

- Subtraction
  - Is not instructive, but makes a fun exercise ...

# Computation Example

What is the result of the application add 0?

```
(\lambda n_1. \ \lambda n_2. \ n_1 \ \text{succ} \ n_2) \ 0 \ \rightarrow_{\beta}

\lambda n_2. \ 0 \ \text{succ} \ n_2 =

\lambda n_2. \ (\lambda f. \ \lambda s. \ s) \ \text{succ} \ n_2 \rightarrow_{\beta}

\lambda n_2. \ n_2 =

\lambda x. \ x
```

- By computing with functions we can express some optimizations
  - But we need to reduce under the lambda
  - Thus this "never" happens in practice

#### **Toward Recursion**

- Given a predicate P, encode the function "find" such that "find P n" is the smallest natural number which is larger than n and satisfies P
- Claim: with find we can encode all recursion

Intuitively, why is this true?







# **Encoding Recursion**

- Given a predicate P encode the function "find" such that "find P n" is the smallest natural number which is larger than n and satisfies P
- find satisfies the equation

```
find p n = if p n then n else find p (succ n)
```

Define

```
F = \lambda f. \lambda p. \lambda n. (p n) n (f p (succ n))
```

We need a fixed point of F

```
find = F find
```

or

find p n = F find p n

#### The Fixed-Point Combinator Y

- Let  $Y = \lambda F$ .  $(\lambda y.F(y y)) (\lambda x. F(x x))$ 
  - This is called the <u>fixed-point combinator</u>
  - Verify that Y F is a fixed point of F

$$Y F \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda y.F (y y)) (\lambda x. F (x x)) \rightarrow_{\beta} F (Y F)$$

- Thus  $Y F =_{\beta} F (Y F)$
- Given any function in  $\lambda$ -calculus we can compute its fixed-point (w00t! why do we *not* win here?)
- Thus we can define "find" as the fixed-point of the function F from the previous slide
- Essence of recursion is the self-application "y y"

# Expressiveness of Lambda Calculus

- Encodings are fun
  - Yes! Yes they are!
- But programming in pure  $\lambda$ -calculus is painful

• So we will add constants (0, 1, 2, ..., true, false, if-then-else, etc.)

Next we will add types



# Still Going!



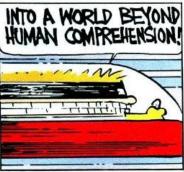
- One minute break
- Stretch!



... ALTHOUGH IT'S NOT UNLIKE

SOME OF THOSE ZIT CREAM

COMMERCIALS ...







# Q: Books (711 / 842)

• In this 1943 Antoine de Saint-Exupery novel the title character lives on an asteroid with a rose but eventually travels to Earth.

# Springfield, Illinois

- Animaniacs
- Two player game
- Players take turns naming State Capitals until one player says "Springfield, Illinois"
- The player to say "Springfield, Illinois" receives points equal to the number of previously-named Capitals
- Why is this game interesting?

# Q: Computer Science (姚期智)

 This Shanghai-born Turing Award winner is known for contributions to the theory of computation. He formulated the Millionaire's Problem and stated this minimax principle: "the expected cost of any randomized algorithm for solving a given problem, on the worst case input for that algorithm, can be no better than the expected cost, for a worst-case random probability distribution on the inputs, of the deterministic algorithm that performs best against that distribution."

# **Types**

 A program variable can assume a range of values during the execution of a program

- An upper bound of such a range is called a type of the variable
  - A variable of type "bool" is supposed to assume only boolean values
  - If x has type "bool" then the boolean expression "not(x)" has a sensible meaning during every run of the program

# Typed and Untyped Languages

#### Untyped languages

- Do *not* restrict the range of values for a given variable
- Operations might be applied to inappropriate arguments.
   The behavior in such cases might be unspecified
- The pure  $\lambda$ -calculus is an extreme case of an untyped language (however, its behavior is completely specified)

#### (Statically) Typed languages

- Variables are assigned (non-trivial) types
- A type system keeps track of types
- Types might or might not appear in the program itself
- Languages can be explicitly typed or implicitly typed

# The Purpose Of Types

- The foremost <u>purpose of types</u> is to prevent certain types of run-time execution errors
- Traditional trapped execution errors
  - Cause the computation to stop immediately
  - And are thus well-specified behavior
  - Usually enforced by hardware
  - e.g., Division by zero, floating point op with a NaN
  - e.g., Dereferencing the address 0 (on most systems)
- Untrapped execution errors
  - Behavior is unspecified (depends on the state of the machine = this is very bad!)
  - e.g., accessing past the end of an array
  - e.g., jumping to an address in the data segment

#### **Execution Errors**

- A program is deemed <u>safe</u> if it does <u>not</u> cause untrapped errors
  - Languages in which all programs are safe are safe languages
- For a given language we can designate a set of forbidden errors
  - A superset of the untrapped errors, usually including some trapped errors as well
    - e.g., null pointer dereference
- Modern Type System Powers:
  - prevent race conditions (e.g., Flanagan TLDI '05)
  - prevent insecure information flow (e.g., Li POPL '05)
  - prevent resource leaks (e.g., Vault, Weimer)
  - help with generic programming, probabilistic languages, ...
  - ... are often combined with dynamic analyses (e.g., CCured)

# Preventing Forbidden Errors - Static Checking

- Forbidden errors can be caught by a combination of static and run-time checking
- Static checking
  - Detects errors early, before testing
  - Types provide the necessary static information for static checking
  - e.g., ML, Modula-3, Java
  - Detecting certain errors statically is undecidable in most languages

# Preventing Forbidden Errors - Dynamic Checking

- Required when static checking is undecidable
  - e.g., array-bounds checking
- Run-time encodings of types are still used (e.g. Lisp)
- Should be limited since it delays the manifestation of errors
- Can be done in hardware (e.g. null-pointer)

# Safe Languages

- There are typed languages that are not safe ("weakly typed languages")
- All safe languages use types (static or dynamic)

	Typed		Untyped
	Static	Dynamic	
Safe	ML, Java, Ada, C#, Haskell,	Lisp, Scheme, Ruby, Perl, Smalltalk, PHP, Python,	λ-calculus
Unsafe	C, C++, Pascal,	?	Assembly

We focus on statically typed languages

# Why Typed Languages?

#### Development

- Type checking catches early many mistakes
- Reduced debugging time
- Typed signatures are a powerful basis for design
- Typed signatures enable separate compilation

#### Maintenance

- Types act as checked specifications
- Types can enforce abstraction

#### Execution

- Static checking reduces the need for dynamic checking
- Safe languages are easier to analyze statically
  - the compiler can generate better code

#### Homework

- Read Cardelli article
- Read Wright & Matthias article
- Homework 5 Due Soon