Higher-Order Intensional Type Analysis

Stephanie Weirich Cornell University

Reflection

- A style of programming that supports the *run-time discovery* of program information.
 - "What does this code do?"
 - "How is this data structured?"
- Running program provides information about itself.
 - self-descriptive computation.
 - self-descriptive data.

Applications of reflection

- Runtime systems: garbage collection, serialization, structural equality, cloning, hashing, checkpointing, dynamic loading
- Code monitoring tools: debuggers, profilers
- **Component frameworks:** software composition tools, code browsers
- Adaptation: stub generators, proxies
- Algorithms: iterators, visitor patterns, pattern matching, unification

What is reflection?

• Run-time examination of type or class.

- Not dynamic dispatch in OO languages.
 - Have to declare an instance for every new class declared. Easy but tedious.
 - Simple apps hard-wired in Java.
- Not instance of operator in OO languages.
 - It requires a closed world.
 - Need to know the name of the class a priori.
 - Need to know what that name means.

Structural Reflection

- Need to know about the structure of the data to implement these operations once and for all.
- Intensional Type Analysis
 - Examines the structure of types at run time.
 - A term called tcase implements case analysis of types.

Serialization

serialize[α] (x: α) = tcase α of int) int2string(x) string) "\"" + x + "\"" $\beta' \gamma$) "(" + serialize[β](x.1) + "," + serialize[γ](x.2) + ")" $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$) "<function>"

State of the art

• No system for defining type-indexed functionality extends to both type constructors and quantified types.

Type constructors

- Types indexed by other types.
- Useful to describe parameterized data structures.
 - head :8 α . list $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
 - tail :8 α . list $\alpha \rightarrow$ list α
 - add :8 α . (α ' list α) \rightarrow list α
- Don't have to cast the type of elements removed from data structures.

Type functions

- Type constructors are functions from types to types.
- Expressed like lambda-calculus functions.

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} ::= \ldots \mid \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{.\tau} \mid \boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \boldsymbol{\tau}_2 \mid \boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

• Example:

Quad = $\lambda \alpha$. ($\alpha' \alpha$)'($\alpha' \alpha$)

• Static language for reasoning about the relationship between types.

Types with binding structure

• Parametric polymorphism hides the types of inputs to functions.

 $8\alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \text{string}$

- Other examples:
 - Existential types $(\exists \alpha \cdot \tau)$ hide the actual type of stored data.
 - Recursive types ($\mu\alpha$. τ) describe data structures that may refer to themselves (such as lists).
 - Self quantifiers (self α . τ) encode objects.

Problems with these types

• tcase is based on the fact that the closed, simple types are *inductive*.

 $\tau ::= int \mid string \mid \tau 1 \rightarrow \tau 2 \mid \tau 1 ' \tau 2$

- Analysis is an iteration over the type structure.
- With quantified types, the structure is not so simple.

 $\tau ::= \dots \mid 8\alpha. \tau \mid \alpha$

Example

tcase α of int) ... string) ...

 $\beta \rightarrow \gamma) \dots \\ \beta' \gamma) \dots \\ 8\alpha.??) \dots$

Here β and γ are bound to the subcomponents of the type, so they may be analyzed.

> Can't abstract the body of the type here, because of free occurrences of α.

Higher-order abstract syntax

• Type constructors for polymorphic types.

8a.
$$\alpha \rightarrow \alpha$$
 vs. 8($\lambda \alpha . \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$)

8 branch abstracts that constructor.
 typecase 8(λ α . α → α) of
 int) e1

$$\begin{array}{c} \beta \rightarrow \gamma \\ 8\delta \end{array}) e3$$

reduces to e3 with δ replaced by ($\lambda \alpha . \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$)

• Have to apply $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ to some type in order to analyze it. [Trifonov et al.]

Works for some applications

```
serialize [\alpha] (x:\alpha) =
   tcase \alpha of
               ) int2string(x)
         int
         string ) "\"" + x + ""
         \beta' \gamma ) "(" + serialize[\beta](x.1) + ","
                           + serialize [\gamma](x.2) + ")"
         \beta \rightarrow \gamma ) "<function>"
         8δ ) "<polymorphic function>"
         \exists \delta ) let <\beta, y> = unpack x in
                            serialize [\delta(\beta)] y
```

But not for all

serializeType[α] = tcase α of int) "int" $\beta' \gamma$) "(" + serializeType[β] + " * " + serializeType[γ] + ")" $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$) "(" + serializeType[β] + " -> " + serializeType[β] + " -> " + serializeType[γ] + ")" $\delta\delta$) ??? $\exists\beta$) ???

Two solutions with one stone

If we can analyze type constructors in a principled way,

then we can analyze quantified types in a principled way.

Type equivalence

- For type checking, we must be able to determine when two types are semantically equal.
 - to call a function the argument must have an equivalent type.
- *Reference algorithm*: fully apply all type functions inside the two types and compare the results.

 $(\lambda \alpha. \alpha ' \alpha) (int) =? (\lambda \beta. \beta 'int) (int)$ int' int =? int ' int

Constraint on type analysis

• When we analyze this type language we *must* respect type equivalence.

tcase [(λα. α ' int) int]...
must produce the same result as
 tcase [int ' int]...

• Type functions, applications, and variables must be "transparant" to analysis.

Generic/Polytypic programming

- Generates operations over parameterized data-structures. [Moggi&Jay][Jansson&Juering][Hinze]
 - Example: gmap<list> applies a function f to all of the α's in list α.
- *Compile-time* specialization. No type information is analyzed at run-time.
 - Can't handle polymorphic or existential types.

Idea

• A polytypic definition must also respect type equality.

- foo < ($\lambda \alpha$. α ' int) int > = foo < int ' int >

- Produce equivalent terms for equivalent types.
 - foo < (($\lambda \alpha$. α' int) int > = (λ x. x + 1) 1
 - foo < int ' int > = 1 + 1

Idea

- Create an *interpretation* of the type language with the term language.
 - Map type functions to term functions.
 - Map type variables to term variables.
 - Map type applications to term applications.
 - Map type constants to (almost) anything.
- We can use this idea at run-time to analyze type constructors and quantified types.

Type Language

 $t ::= \alpha$ | $\lambda \alpha. \tau$ | $\tau_1 \tau_2$ | int | string | \rightarrow | ' | 8

- variable
- function
- application
- constants
- The type int ' int is the constant ' applied to int twice.
- The type $8\alpha . \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ is the constant 8 applied to the type constructor ($\lambda \alpha . \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$).

Interpreter

Instead of tcase, define analysis term: tinterp[η] τ

- To interpret this language we need an environment to keep track of the variables.
- This environment will also have mappings for all of the constants.

Operational semantics of tinterp

- Type constants are retrieved from the environment tinterp[η] int → η(int) tinterp[η] string → η(string) tinterp[η] → → η(→) tinterp[η] / → η(/) tinterp[η] / → η(/)
 Type veriables are retrieved from the environment tinterp[η] 8
- Type variables are retrieved from the environment tinterp[η] α → η(α)

Type functions

- Type functions are mapped to term functions.
- When we reach a type function, we add a new mapping to the environment.

```
tinterp[\eta] (\lambda \alpha. \tau) \Rightarrow
\lambda x. tinterp[\eta + \{\alpha\} x\}] (\tau)
Execution extends
environment, mapping \alpha to x.
```

Application

• Type application is interpreted as term application

tinterp[η] ($\tau_1 \tau_2$) \rightarrow (tinterp[η] τ_1) (tinterp[η] τ_2)

$The \\ interpretation of \\ \tau_1 \text{ is a function}$

Example

```
serializeType = tinterp [\eta]
where \eta = \{
   int ) "int"
   string ) "string"
   1
             ) \lambda x:string. \lambda y:string.
                  (('' + x + ((*)) + y + ('))))
             ) \lambda x:string. \lambda y:string.
   \rightarrow
                  "(" + x + "->" + y + ")"
   8
             ) \lambda x:string\rightarrowstring.
                  let v = gensym () in
                  "(all " + v + "." + (x v) + ")"
```



Example execution

serializeType[int'int]

- → (tinterp[η] ') (tinterp[η] int) (tinterp[η] int)
- → (λ x:string. λ y:string. "("+ x +"*"+ y +")") (tinterp[η] int) (tinterp[η] int)
- → (λ x:string. λ y:string. "("+ x +"*"+ y +")")
 "int" "int"
- → "(" + "int" + "*" + "int" + ")"
- → "(int*int)"

Example

```
serializeType = tinterp [\eta]
where \eta = \{
   int ) "int"
   string ) "string"
   1
             ) \lambda x:string. \lambda y:string.
                  (('' + x + ((*)) + y + ('))))
             ) \lambda x:string. \lambda y:string.
   \rightarrow
                  "(" + x + "->" + y + ")"
   8
             ) \lambda x:string\rightarrowstring.
                  let v = gensym () in
                  "(all " + v + "." + (x v) + ")"
```

}

Not the whole story

- More complicated examples require a generalization of this framework.
 - Must allow the type of each mapping in the environment to depend on the analyzed type.
 - Requires maintenance of additional type substitutions to do so in a type-safe way.
 - This language is type sound.
- Details appear in paper.

Conclusion

- Reflection is analyzing the structure of abstract types.
- Branching on type structure doesn't scale well to sophisticated and expressive type systems.
- A better solution is to interpret the compiletime language at run-time.