CIS 500

Software Foundations Fall 2002

4 November

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Subtyping and Lists

 $\frac{S_1 <: T_1}{\text{List } S_1 <: \text{List } T_1}$ (S-LIST)

l.e., List is a covariant type constructor.

Administrivia

- ♦ Reminder: Prof. Pierce out of town Nov. 5 14
 - No office hours Nov 5, 7, 12, or 14
 - 3PM recitation cancelled on Nov 11 go to Max's in Towne 307 instead
- Next Wednesday: Midterm II

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- * Covering Chapters 1-16 (concentrating on 9-16), except 12 and 15.6.
- There will be a question about the proof of type safety for the simply typed lambda-calculus with references. Make sure you understand it completely.
- In general, the questions on the second midterm will be somewhat harder/deeper than the first. It will also be somewhat shorter.

Subtyping and References

 $\frac{S_1 <: T_1 \qquad T_1 <: S_1}{\text{Ref } S_1 <: \text{Ref } T_1} \tag{S-Ref)}$

I.e., Ref is not a covariant (nor a contravariant) type constructor.

References again

Observation: a value of type $Ref\ T$ can be used in two different ways: as a source for values of type T and as a sink for values of type T.

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Modified Typing Rules

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : Source \ T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash ! t_1 : T_{11}} \tag{T-Deref}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 : \text{Sink } T_{11} \qquad \Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \mid \Sigma \vdash t_1 := t_2 : \text{Unit}}$$
 (T-Assign)

References again

Observation: a value of type $Ref\ T$ can be used in two different ways: as a source for values of type T and as a sink for values of type T.

Idea: Split Ref T into three types:

- ♦ Source T: reference cell with "read cabability"
- ♦ Sink T: reference cell with "write cabability"
- ♦ Ref T: cell with both capabilities

Subtyping rules

 $\frac{S_1 <: T_1}{Source S_1 <: Source T_1}$ (S-Source)

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 $\frac{T_1 <: S_1}{Sink S_1 <: Sink T_1}$ (S-SINK)

Ref T₁ <: Source T₁ (S-REFSOURCE)

Ref $T_1 \le Sink T_1$ (S-REFSINK)

Capabilities

Other kinds of capabilities (e.g., send and receive capabilities on communication channels, encrypt/decrypt capabilities of cryptographic keys, ...) can be treated similarly.

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Intersection Types

The inhabitants of $T_1 \wedge T_2$ are terms belonging to both S and T—i.e., $T_1 \wedge T_2$ is an order-theoretic meet (greatest lower bound) of T_1 and T_2 .

$$T_1 \wedge T_2 <: T_1$$
 (S-INTER1)

$$T_1 \wedge T_2 <: T_2$$
 (S-INTER2)

$$\frac{S <: T_1 \qquad S <: T_2}{S <: T_1 \land T_2}$$
 (S-INTER3)

$$S \rightarrow T_1 \land S \rightarrow T_2 <: S \rightarrow (T_1 \land T_2)$$
 (S-Inter4)

Coercion semantics

[skip]

Intersection Types

Intersection types permit a very flexible form of finitary overloading.

 $+: (Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat) \land (Float \rightarrow Float \rightarrow Float)$

This form of overloading is extremely powerful.

Every strongly normalizing untyped lambda-term can be typed in the simply typed lambda-calculus with intersection types.

- type reconstruction problem is undecidable

Intersection types have not been used much in language designs (too powerful!), but are being intensively investigated as type systems for intermediate languages in highly optimizing compilers (cf. Church project).

Union types

Union types are also useful.

 $T_1 \vee T_2$ is an untagged (non-disjoint) union of T_1 and T_2

No tags \longrightarrow no case construct. The only operations we can safely perform on elements of $T_1 \setminus T_2$ are ones that make sense for both T_1 and T_2 .

N.b.: untagged union types in C are a source of type safety violations precisely because they ignores this restriction, allowing any operation on an element of $T_1 \vee T_2$ that makes sense for either T_1 or T_2 .

Union types are being used recently in type systems for XML processing languages (cf. XDuce, Xtatic).

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Syntax-directed rules

In the simply typed lambda-calculus (without subtyping), each rule can be "read from bottom to top" in a straightforward way.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_1 : \mathtt{T}_{11} \rightarrow \mathtt{T}_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_2 : \mathtt{T}_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathtt{t}_1 \ \mathtt{t}_2 : \mathtt{T}_{12}} \tag{T-App)}$$

If we are given some Γ and some t of the form t_1 t_2 , we can try to find a type for t by

- 1. finding (recursively) a type for t1
- 2. checking that it has the form $T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12}$
- 3. finding (recursively) a type for t2
- 4. checking that it is the same as $T_{1,1}$

Metatheory of Subtyping (Preview)

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Technically, the reason this works is that We can divide the "positions" of the typing relation into input positions (Γ and t) and output positions (Γ).

- ♦ For the input positions, all metavariables appearing in the premises also appear in the conclusion (so we can calculate inputs to the "subgoals" from the subexpressions of inputs to the main goal)
- ♦ For the output positions, all metavariables appearing in the conclusions also appear in the premises (so we can calculate outputs from the main goal from the outputs of the subgoals)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 : \mathsf{T}_{11} \rightarrow \mathsf{T}_{12} \qquad \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{t}_1 \ \mathsf{t}_2 : \mathsf{T}_{12}} \tag{T-APP}$$

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Syntax-directed sets of rules

The second important point about the simply typed lambda-calculus is that the set of typing rules is syntax-directed, in the sense that, for every "input" Γ and t, there one rule that can be used to derive typing statements involving t.

E.g., if t is an application, then we must proceed by trying to use T-APP. If we succeed, then we have found a type (indeed, the unique type) for t. If it fails, then we know that t is not typable.

→ no backtracking!

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Non-syntax-directedness of subtyping

Moreover, the subtyping relation is not syntax directed either.

- 1. There are lots of ways to derive a given subtyping statement.
- 2. The transitivity rule

$$\frac{S <: U \qquad U <: T}{S <: T}$$
 (S-Trans)

is badly non-syntax-directed: the premises contain a metavariable (in an "input position") that does not appear at all in the conclusion.

To implement this rule naively, we'd have to guess a value for U!

Non-syntax-directedness of typing

When we extend the system with subtyping, both aspects of syntax-directedness get broken.

1. The set of typing rules now includes two rules that can be used to give a type to terms of a given shape (the old one plus T-SUB)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : S \qquad S \lt: T}{\Gamma \vdash t : T}$$
 (T-SUB)

2. Worse yet, the new rule T-SUB itself is not syntax directed: the inputs to the left-hand subgoal are exactly the same as the inputs to the main goal!

(Hence, if we translated the typing rules naively into a typechecking function, the case corresponding to T-SUB would cause divergence.)

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What to do?

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What to do?

- 1. Observation: We don't need 1000 ways to prove a given typing or subtyping statement one is enough.
 - Think more carefully about the typing and subtyping systems to see where we can get rid of "excess flexibility"
- 2. Use the resulting intuitions to formulate new "algorithmic" (i.e., syntax-directed) typing and subtyping relations
- 3. Check (i.e., prove) that the algorithmic relations are "the same as" the original ones in an appropriate sense.

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Exceptions (Chapter 14)

What to do?

- 1. Observation: We don't need 1000 ways to prove a given typing or subtyping statement one is enough.
 - Think more carefully about the typing and subtyping systems to see where we can get rid of "excess flexibility"
- 2. Use the resulting intuitions to formulate new "algorithmic" (i.e., syntax-directed) typing and subtyping relations
- 3. Check (i.e., prove) that the algorithmic relations are "the same as" the original ones in an appropriate sense.

Details: next time.

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Motivation

Most programming languages provide some mechanism for interrupting the normal flow of control in a program to signal some exceptional condition.

Note that it is always possible to program without exceptions — instead of raising an exception, we return None; instead of returning result x normally, we return $\exists (x)$. But now we need to wrap every function application in a case to find out whether it returned a result or an exception.

 \longrightarrow much more convenient to build this mechanism into the language.

Varieties of non-local control

There are many ways of adding "non-local control flow"

- ♠ exit(1)
- goto
- ♦ setjmp/longjmp
- raise/try (or catch/throw) in many variations
- ♦ callcc / continuations
- more esoteric variants (cf. many Scheme papers)

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An "abort" primitive

First step: raising exceptions (but not catching them).

t ::= ... terms

error run-time error

Evaluation

error $t_2 \longrightarrow error$ (E-AppERR1)

 $v_1 = rror \longrightarrow error$ (E-AppERR2)

Typing

Γ⊢ error : T (T-ERROR)

Varieties of non-local control

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- ♠ exit(1)
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- ♦ callcc / continuations
- ♦ more esoteric variants (cf. many Scheme papers)

Let's begin with the simplest of these.

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Typing errors

Note that the typing rule for error allows us to give it any type T.

 $\Gamma \vdash \text{error} : T$ (T-ERROR)

This means that both

if x>0 then 5 else error

and

if x>0 then true else error

will typecheck.

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Syntax-directedness

However this rule

 $\Gamma \vdash \text{error} : T$ (T-ERROR)

has a problem from the point of view of implementation: it is not syntax-directed!

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Type safety

The preservation theorem requires no changes when we add error: if a term of type T reduces to error, that's fine, since error has every type T.

An alternative typing rule

In a system with subtyping and a minimal Bot type, we can give error a better typing:

Γ⊢ error : Bot (T-ERROR)

(Of course, what we've really done is just pushed the complexity of the old error rule onto the Bot type! We'll return to this point later.)

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Type safety

The preservation theorem requires no changes when we add error: if a term of type T reduces to error, that's fine, since error has every type T.

Progress, though, requires a litte more care.

Progress

First, note that we do **not** want to extend the set of values to include error, since this would make our new rule for propagating errors through applications.

$$v_1 = rror \longrightarrow error$$
 (E-AppERR2)

overlap with our existing computation rule for applications:

$$(\lambda x: T_{11}, t_{12}) \quad v_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_2]t_{12}$$
 (E-APPABS)

e.g., the term

(\lambda x:Nat.0) error@

might evaluate to either 0 (which would be wrong) or error (what we want).

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Catching exceptions

t ∷= ... terms

try t with t trap errors

Evaluation

try
$$v_1$$
 with $t_2 \longrightarrow v_1$ (E-TRYV)

try error with
$$t_2$$
 (E-TryError) $\longrightarrow t_2$

$$\begin{array}{c} t_1 \longrightarrow t_1' \\ \hline try \ t_1 \ with \ t_2 \\ \longrightarrow try \ t_1' \ with \ t_2 \end{array}$$

Progress

Instead, we keep error as a non-value normal form, and refine the statement of progress to explicitly mention the possibility that terms may evaluate to error instead of to a value.

THEOREM [PROGRESS]: Suppose t is a closed, well-typed normal form. Then either t is a value or t = error.

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Typing

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T}{\Gamma \vdash try \ t_1 \ with \ t_2 : T}$$
 (T-TRY)

Exceptions carrying values

Evaluation

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} (\text{raise } v_{11}) & t_2 \longrightarrow \text{raise } v_{11} & & \text{(E-APPRAISE1)} \\ \\ v_1 & (\text{raise } v_{21}) \longrightarrow \text{raise } v_{21} & & \text{(E-APPRAISE2)} \\ \\ & & \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'}{\text{raise } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{raise } t_1'} & & \text{(E-RAISE)} \\ \\ & & & \text{raise } (\text{raise } v_{11}) & & & \text{(E-RAISERAISE)} \\ \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \end{array}$$

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Typing

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{exn}}{\Gamma \vdash raise \ t_1 : T} \tag{T-Exn}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T \qquad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{exn} \rightarrow T}{\Gamma \vdash try \ t_1 \ \text{with} \ t_2 : T}$$
 (T-TRY)

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