

CIS 500
Software Foundations
Fall 2002
4 December

Announcement

Simon Peyton Jones (Microsoft Research) will be giving a joint CIS / Wharton distinguished lecture tomorrow:

Composing contracts: an adventure in financial engineering

Thursday, December 5th, 2002

Huntsman Hall, Room G60

3:00 p.m. - 4:30 p.m.

Highly recommended!!

Universal Types

Motivation

In the simply typed lambda-calculus, we often have to write several versions of the same code, differing only in type annotations.

```
doubleNat = λf:Nat→Nat. λx:Nat. f (f x)
```

```
doubleRcd = λf:{1:Bool}→{1:Bool}. λx:{1:Bool}. f (f x)
```

```
doubleFun = λf:(Nat→Nat)→(Nat→Nat). λx:Nat→Nat. f (f x)
```

This violates a basic principle of software engineering:

Write each piece of functionality once

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doubleRcd = λf:{1:Bool}→{1:Bool}. λx:{1:Bool}. f (f x)
doubleFun = λf:(Nat→Nat)→(Nat→Nat). λx:Nat→Nat. f (f x)
```

This violates a basic principle of software engineering:

Write each piece of functionality once... and **parameterize** it on the details that vary from one instance to another.

Here, the details that vary are the types!

Idea

So we'd like to be able to take a piece of code and "abstract out" some type annotations.

We've already got a mechanism for doing this with terms: λ -abstraction. So let's just re-use the notation for abstracting out types.

Abstraction:

```
double = λX. λf:X→X. λx:X. f (f x)
```

Application:

```
double [Nat]
double [Bool]
```

Computation:

```
double [Nat] → λf:Nat→Nat. λx:Nat. f (f x)
```

(N.b.: Type application is usually written ι [T], though ι T would be more consistent.)

Idea

What is the **type** of a term like

```
λX. λf:X→X. λx:X. f (f x) ?
```

This term is a function that, when applied to a type X , yields a term of type $(X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$.

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i.e., for all types X , it yields a result of type $(X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$.

Idea

What is the **type** of a term like

$\lambda X. \lambda f: X \rightarrow X. \lambda x: X. f (f x)$?

This term is a function that, when applied to a type X , yields a term of type $(X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$.

I.e., for all types X , it yields a result of type $(X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$.

We'll write it like this: $\forall X. (X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$

System F

System F (aka "the polymorphic lambda-calculus") formalizes this idea by extending the simply typed lambda-calculus with type abstraction and type application.

$t ::=$

x
 $\lambda x: T. t$
 $t t$
 $\lambda X. t$
 $t [T]$

terms

variable
abstraction
application
type abstraction
type application

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x
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terms

variable
abstraction
application
type abstraction
type application

$v ::=$

$\lambda x: T. t$
 $\lambda X. t$

values

abstraction value
type abstraction value

System F: new evaluation rules

$$\frac{t_1 \rightarrow t'_1}{t_1 [T_2] \rightarrow t'_1 [T_2]} \quad (\text{E-TAPP})$$

$$(\lambda X. t_{12}) [T_2] \rightarrow [X \mapsto T_2] t_{12} \quad (\text{E-TAPPTABS})$$

System F: Types

To talk about the types of “terms abstracted on types,” we need to introduce a new form of types:

$T ::=$	types
X	type variable
$T \rightarrow T$	type of functions
$\forall X. T$	universal type

System F: Typing Rules

$\frac{x: T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : T}$	(T-VAR)
$\frac{\Gamma, x: T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x: T_1. t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2}$	(T-ABS)
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 t_2 : T_{12}}$	(T-APP)
$\frac{\Gamma, X \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda X. t_2 : \forall X. T_2}$	(T-TABS)
$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \forall X. T_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 [T_2] : [X \mapsto T_2]T_{12}}$	(T-TAPP)

Examples

[on board]

Properties of System F

Preservation and Progress. (Proofs similar to what we've seen.)

Strong normalization: every well-typed program halts. (Proof is challenging!)

Type reconstruction: undecidable (major open problem from 1972 until 1994, when Joe Wells solved it)

Parametricity

Observation:

The type $\forall X. X \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$ has exactly two members (up to observational equivalence).

$\forall X. X \rightarrow X$ has one.

etc.

The concept of parametricity gives rise to some useful “free theorems...”

History

Interestingly, System F was invented independently and almost simultaneously by a computer scientist (John Reynolds) and a logician (Jean-Yves Girard).

Their results look very different at first sight — one is presented as a tiny programming language, the other as a variety of second-order logic.

The similarity (indeed, isomorphism!) between them is an example of the **Curry-Howard Correspondence**.

Existential Types

Motivation

If **universal** quantifiers are useful in programming, then what about **existential** quantifiers?

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If **universal** quantifiers are useful in programming, then what about **existential** quantifiers?

Rough intuition:

Terms with universal types are **functions** from types to terms.

Terms with existential types are **pairs** of a type and a term.

Concrete Intuition

Existential types describe simple **modules**:

An existentially typed value is introduced by pairing a type with a term, written $\{*S, t\}$. (The star avoids syntactic confusion with ordinary pairs.)

A value $\{*S, t\}$ of type $\{\exists X, T\}$ is a module with one (hidden) type component and one term component.

Example: $p = \{*\text{Nat}, \{a=5, f=\lambda x:\text{Nat}. \text{succ}(x)\}\}$

has type $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow X\}\}$

The type component of p is Nat , and the value component is a record containing a field a of type X and a field f of type $X \rightarrow X$, for some X (namely Nat).

The same package $p = \{*\text{Nat}, \{a=5, f=\lambda x:\text{Nat}. \text{succ}(x)\}\}$ **also** has type $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow \text{Nat}\}\}$, since its right-hand component is a record with fields a and f of type X and $X \rightarrow \text{Nat}$, for some X (namely Nat).

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This example shows that there is no automatic (“best”) way to guess the type of an existential package. The programmer has to say what is intended.

We re-use the “ascription” notation for this:

$p = \{*\text{Nat}, \{a=5, f=\lambda x:\text{Nat}. \text{succ}(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow X\}\}$

$p1 = \{*\text{Nat}, \{a=5, f=\lambda x:\text{Nat}. \text{succ}(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow \text{Nat}\}\}$

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This example shows that there is no automatic (“best”) way to guess the type of an existential package. The programmer has to say what is intended.

We re-use the “ascription” notation for this:

```
p = {*Nat, {a=5, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→X}}
p1 = {*Nat, {a=5, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
```

This gives us the “introduction rule” for existentials:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_2 : [X \mapsto U]T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \{*U, t_2\} \text{ as } \{\exists X, T_2\} : \{\exists X, T_2\}} \quad (\text{T-PACK})$$

Different representations...

Note that this rule permits packages with **different** hidden types to inhabit the **same** existential type.

Example:

```
p2 = {*Nat, 0} as {∃X, X}
p3 = {*Bool, true} as {∃X, X}
```

Different representations...

Note that this rule permits packages with **different** hidden types to inhabit the **same** existential type.

Example:

```
p2 = {*Nat, 0} as {∃X, X}
p3 = {*Bool, true} as {∃X, X}
```

More useful example:

```
p4 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
p5 = {*Bool, {a=true, f=λx:Bool. 0}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
```

Exercise...

Here are three more variations on the same theme:

```
p6 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→X}}
p7 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:Nat→X}}
p8 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:Nat, f:Nat→Nat}}
```

In what ways are these less useful than p_4 and p_5 ?

```
p4 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
p5 = {*Bool, {a=true, f=λx:Bool. 0}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
```

The elimination form for existentials

Intuition: If an existential package is like a module, then eliminating (using) such a package should correspond to “open” or “import.”

I.e., we should be able to use the components of the module, but the identity of the type component should be “held abstract.”

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \{\exists X, T_{12}\} \quad \Gamma, X, x: T_{12} \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } \{X, x\} = t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : T_2} \quad (\text{T-UNPACK})$$

Example:

```
if
p4 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
then
let {X, x} = p4 in (x.f x.a) has type Nat (and evaluates to 1).
```

Abstraction

However, if we try to use the `a` component of `p4` as a number, typechecking fails:

```
p4 = {*Nat, {a=0, f=λx:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}
```

```
let {X, x} = p4 in (succ x.a)
```

```
Error: argument of succ is not a number
```

This failure makes good sense, since we saw that another package with the same existential type as `p4` might use `Bool` or anything else as its representation type.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \{\exists X, T_{12}\} \quad \Gamma, X, x: T_{12} \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } \{X, x\} = t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : T_2} \quad (\text{T-UNPACK})$$

Computation

The computation rule for existentials is also straightforward:

$$\text{let } \{X, x\} = \{\ast T_{11}, v_{12}\} \text{ as } T_1 \text{ in } t_2 \quad (\text{E-UNPACKPACK}) \\ \longrightarrow [X \mapsto T_{11}][x \mapsto v_{12}]t_2$$

Example: Abstract Data Types

```
counterADT =
  {*Nat,
   {new = 1,
    get = λi:Nat. i,
    inc = λi:Nat. succ(i)}}
as {∃Counter,
   {new: Counter,
    get: Counter→Nat,
    inc: Counter→Counter}};

let {Counter, counter} = counterADT in
counter.get (counter.inc counter.new);
```


Representation independence

We can substitute another implementation of counters without affecting the code that uses counters:

```
counterADT =
  {*(x:Nat),
   {new = {x=1},
    get = λi:{x:Nat}. i.x,
    inc = λi:{x:Nat}. {x=succ(i.x)}}}
as {∃Counter,
   {new: Counter, get: Counter→Nat, inc: Counter→Counter}};
```

Cascaded ADTs

We can use the counter ADT to define new ADTs that use counters in their internal representations:

```
let {Counter,counter} = counterADT in

let {FlipFlop,flipflop} =
  {*Counter,
   {new = counter.new,
    read = λc:Counter. iseven (counter.get c),
    toggle = λc:Counter. counter.inc c,
    reset = λc:Counter. counter.new}}
as {∃FlipFlop,
   {new: FlipFlop, read: FlipFlop→Bool,
    toggle: FlipFlop→FlipFlop, reset: FlipFlop→FlipFlop}} in

flipflop.read (flipflop.toggle (flipflop.toggle flipflop.new));
```

Existential Objects

```
Counter = {∃X, {state:X, methods: {get:X→Nat, inc:X→X}}};

c = {*Nat,
   {state = 5,
    methods = {get = λx:Nat. x,
               inc = λx:Nat. succ(x)}}}
as Counter;

let {X,body} = c in body.methods.get(body.state);
```

Existential objects: invoking methods

More generally, we can define a little function that “sends the `get` message” to any counter:

```
sendget = λc:Counter.
  let {X,body} = c in
  body.methods.get(body.state);
```

Invoking the `inc` method of a counter object is a little more complicated. If we simply do the same as for `get`, the typechecker complains

```
let {X,body} = c in body.methods.inc(body.state);  
Error: Scoping error!
```

because the type variable `X` appears free in the type of the body of the `let`.

Indeed, what we've written doesn't make intuitive sense either, since the result of the `inc` method is a bare internal state, not an object.

To satisfy both the typechecker and our informal understanding of what invoking `inc` should do, we must take this fresh internal state and repackage it as a counter object, using the same record of methods and the same internal state type as in the original object:

```
c1 = let {X,body} = c in  
  {*X,  
   {state = body.methods.inc(body.state),  
    methods = body.methods}}  
  as Counter;
```

More generally, to “send the `inc` message” to a counter, we can write:

```
sendinc = λc:Counter.  
  let {X,body} = c in  
  {*X,  
   {state = body.methods.inc(body.state),  
    methods = body.methods}}  
  as Counter;
```

Objects vs. ADTs

The examples of ADTs and objects that we have seen in the past few slides offer a revealing way to think about the differences between “classical ADTs” and objects.

- ◆ Both can be represented using existentials
- ◆ With ADTs, each existential package is opened as early as possible (at creation time)
- ◆ With objects, the existential package is opened as late as possible (at method invocation time)

These differences in style give rise to the well-known pragmatic differences between ADTs and objects:

- ◆ ADTs support binary operations
- ◆ objects support multiple representations

A full-blown existential object model

What we've done so far is to give an account of “object-style” encapsulation in terms of existential types.

To give a full model of all the “core OO features” we have discussed before, some significant work is required. In particular, we must add:

- ◆ subtyping (and “bounded quantification”)
- ◆ type operators (“higher-order subtyping”)