CIS 500 Software Foundations Fall 2006 December 4	Administrivia
Homework 11 Homework 11 is currently due on Friday. Should we make it due next Monday instead?	More on Evaluation Contexts
Progress for FJ Theorem [Progress]: Suppose t is a closed, well-typed normal form. Then either 1. t is a value, or 2. t \rightarrow t' for some t', or 3. for some evaluation context E, we can express t as $t = E[(C) (new D(\overline{v}))]$ with $D \leq C$.	$E ::= evaluation Contexts \begin{bmatrix} \\ E & evaluation contexts \\ hole \\ field access \\ E & m(t) \\ v.m(\overline{v}, E, \overline{t}) \\ new C(\overline{v}, E, \overline{t}) \\ (C)E \\ E.g., \\\begin{bmatrix} \\ 1 & fst \\ \\ 1 & fst & snd \\ new C(new D(), [].fst.snd, new E()) \end{bmatrix}$

Evaluation Contexts	Evaluation Contexts
E[t] denotes "the term obtained by filling the hole in E with t." E.g., if $E = (A)[]$, then	Evaluation contexts capture the notion of the "next subterm to be reduced":
E[(new Pair(new A(), new B())).fst]	By ordinary evaluation relation:
=	$(A)((\underline{(new Pair(new A(), new B())).fst}) \longrightarrow (A)(new A())$
<pre>(A)((new Pair(new A(), new B())).fst)</pre>	by E-CAST with subderivation E-PROJNEW.By evaluation contexts:
	E = (A) [] r = (new Pair(new A(), new B())).fst r' = new A() $r \longrightarrow r' by E-PROJNEW$ E[r] = (A) ((new Pair(new A(), new B())).fst) E[r'] = (A) (new A())
Precisely	
Claim 1: If $\mathbf{r} \longrightarrow \mathbf{r}'$ by one of the computation rules E-PROJNEW, E-INVKNEW, or E-CASTNEW and E is an arbitrary evaluation context, then $E[\mathbf{r}] \longrightarrow E[\mathbf{r}']$ by the ordinary evaluation relation.	The Curry-Howard
 Claim 2: If t → t' by the ordinary evaluation relation, then there are unique E, r, and r' such that 1. t = E[r], 2. t' = E[r'], and 3. r → r' by one of the computation rules E-PROJNEW, E-INVKNEW, or E-CASTNEW. 	Correspondence
Proofs: Homework 11.	
Intro vs. elim forms	The Curry-Howard Correspondence
An <i>introduction form</i> for a given type gives us a way of <i>constructing</i> elements of this type.	 In <i>constructive logics</i>, a proof of <i>P</i> must provide <i>evidence</i> for <i>P</i>. "law of the excluded middle"
An <i>elimination form</i> for a type gives us a way of <i>using</i> elements of this type.	$\overline{P \lor \neg P}$
	 not recognized. A proof of <i>P</i> ∧ <i>Q</i> is a <i>pair</i> of evidence for <i>P</i> and evidence for <i>Q</i>.
	 A proof of P ⊃ Q is a procedure for transforming evidence for P into evidence for Q.

Propositions as Types

LOGIC propositions proposition $P \supset Q$ proposition $P \land Q$ proof of proposition Pproposition P is provable ??? PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES types type $P \rightarrow Q$ type $P \times Q$ term t of type P type P is inhabited (by some term)

evaluation

Propositions as Types

Logic	Programming languages
propositions	types
proposition $P \supset Q$	type P→Q
proposition $P \land Q$	type $P imes Q$
proof of proposition P	term t of type P
proposition <i>P</i> is provable	type P is inhabited (by some term)
proof simplification	evaluation
(a.k.a. "cut elimination")	

Motivation

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

Bad! Violates a basic principle of software engineering: Write each piece of functionality once

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Universal Types

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

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Bad! 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

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: $\lambda\text{-abstraction}.$ So let's just re-use the notation.

```
Abstraction:

double = \lambda X. \lambda f: X \rightarrow X. \lambda x: X. f (f x)

Application:

double [Nat]

double [Bool]

Computation:

double [Nat] \longrightarrow \lambda f: Nat \rightarrow Nat. \lambda x: Nat. f (f x)
```

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

Idea

What is the *type* of a term like λX . $\lambda f: X \rightarrow X$. $\lambda x: X$. 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 $(X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$.

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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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terms
variable
abstraction
application
type abstraction
type application
values
abstraction value
type abstraction value

System F: new evaluation rules $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1 \ [T_2] \longrightarrow t'_1 \ [T_2]} (E-TAPP)$ $(\lambda X.t_{12}) \ [T_2] \longrightarrow [X \mapsto T_2]t_{12} (E-TAPPTABS)$	System F: TypesTo talk about the types of "terms abstracted on types," we need to introduce a new form of types:T::=XtypesXtype variableT \rightarrow Ttype of functions $\forall X.T$ universal type
$\begin{split} \hline & \underbrace{\text{System F: Typing Rules}} \\ & \underbrace{x: T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x: T} & (T-VAR) \\ & \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{r} x: T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x: T_1 \cdot t_2 : T_1 \to T_2} & (T-ABS) \\ & \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{r} t_1 : T_{11} \to T_{12} \prod_{i=1}^{r} t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : t_2 : T_{12}} & (T-APP) \\ & \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{r} x: t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. t_2 : \forall x. T_2} & (T-TABS) \\ & \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{r} t_1 : \forall x. T_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : [T_2] : [X \mapsto T_2]T_{12}} & (T-TAPP) \end{split}$	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.
Examples	Lists $\begin{array}{c} cons : \forall X. \ X \rightarrow List \ X \rightarrow List \ X \\ head : \forall X. \ List \ X \rightarrow X \\ tail : \forall X. \ List \ X \rightarrow List \ X \\ nil : \forall X. \ List \ X \rightarrow List \ X \\ isnil : \forall X. \ List \ X \rightarrow Bool \\ map = \\ \lambda X. \ \lambda Y. \\ \lambda f: \ X \rightarrow Y. \\ (fix \ (\lambda m: (List \ X) \rightarrow (List \ Y). \\ \lambda l: \ List \ X. \\ if \ isnil \ [X] \ 1 \\ then \ nil \ [Y] \\ else \ cons \ [Y] \ (f \ (head \ [X] \ 1)) \\ (m \ (tail \ [X] \ 1))); \\ l = cons \ [Nat] \ 4 \ (cons \ [Nat] \ 3 \ (cons \ [Nat] \ 2 \ (nil \ [Nat]))); \\ head \ [Nat] \ (map \ [Nat] \ [Nat] \ (\lambda x: Nat. \ succ \ x) \ 1); \end{array}$

Church Booleans	Church Numerals
$CBool = \forall X. X \rightarrow X \rightarrow X;$ $tru = \lambda X. \lambda t: X. \lambda f: X. t;$ $fls = \lambda X. \lambda t: X. \lambda f: X. f;$ $not = \lambda b: CBool. \lambda X. \lambda t: X. \lambda f: X. b [X] f t;$	$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
Properties of System F Preservation and Progress: unchanged. (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: Polymorphic functions cannot do very much with their arguments. The type ∀X. X→X→X has exactly two members (up to observational equivalence). ∀X. X→X has one. etc. The concept of parametricity gives rise to some useful "free theorems"
	Motivation If <i>universal</i> quantifiers are useful in programming, then what about <i>existential</i> quantifiers?

Existential Types

1	
Motivation	Concrete Intuition
If <i>universal</i> quantifiers are useful in programming, then what about <i>existential</i> quantifiers? Rough intuition: Terms with universal types are <i>functions</i> from types to terms. Terms with existential types are <i>pairs</i> of a type and a term.	<pre>Existential types describe simple modules: An existentially typed value is introduced by pairing a type with a term, written {*\$,t}. (The star avoids syntactic confusion with ordinary pairs.) A value {*\$,t} of type {∃X,T} is a module with one (hidden) type component and one term component. Example: p = {*Nat, {a=5, f=\lambda x:Nat. succ(x)}} has type {∃X, {a:X, f:X→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→X, for some X (namely Nat).</pre>
The same package $p = \{*Nat, \{a=5, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ also has type $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow Nat\}\}$, since its right-hand component is a record with fields a and f of type X and X $\rightarrow Nat$, for some X (namely Nat). 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: $p = \{*Nat, \{a=5, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ $as \{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow X\}\}$ $p1 = \{*Nat, \{a=5, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ $as \{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow Nat\}\}$ This gives us the "introduction rule" for existentials: $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_2 : [X \mapsto U]T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \{*U, t_2\} as \{\exists X, T_2\} : \{\exists X, T_2\}}$ (T-PACK)	<pre>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}</pre>
<pre>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=\lambdax:Nat. succ(x)}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}} p5 = {*Bool, {a=true, f=\lambdax:Bool. 0}} as {∃X, {a:X, f:X→Nat}}</pre>	Exercise Here are three more variations on the same theme: $p6 = \{*Nat, \{a=0, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow X\}\}$ $p7 = \{*Nat, \{a=0, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:Nat \rightarrow X\}\}$ $p8 = \{*Nat, \{a=0, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:Nat, f:Nat \rightarrow Nat\}\}$ In what ways are these less useful than p4 and p5? $p4 = \{*Nat, \{a=0, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow Nat\}\}$ $p5 = \{*Bool, \{a=true, f=\lambda x: Bool. 0\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow Nat\}\}$

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."

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

Example: if $p4 = \{*Nat, \{a=0, f=\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)\}\}$ $as \{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow Nat\}\}$ then let $\{X, x\} = p4$ in (x.f x.a)has type Nat (and evaluates to 1).

Computation

The computation rule for existentials is also straightforward:

let {X,x}=({*T₁₁, v₁₂} as T₁) in t₂ (E-UNPACKPACK) $\longrightarrow [X \mapsto T_{11}][x \mapsto v_{12}]t_2$

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}};
```

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)
```

 \implies 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.

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

Example: Abstract Data Types

```
counterADT =
    {*Nat,
    {new = 1,
    get = \lambda i:Nat. i,
    inc = \lambda i:Nat. succ(i)}}
as {∃Counter,
    fnew: Counter,
    get: Counter,
    inc: Counter→Nat,
    inc: Counter→Counter}};
let {Counter,counter} = counterADT in
counter.get (counter.inc counter.new);
```

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

Existential Objects Existential objects: invoking methods Counter = { $\exists X$, {state:X, methods: {get:X \rightarrow Nat, inc:X \rightarrow X}}; More generally, we can define a little function that "sends the get $c = \{*Nat,$ message" to any counter: $\{$ state = 5, methods = {get = λx :Nat. x, sendget = λ c:Counter. inc = $\lambda x: Nat. succ(x)$ } let {X,body} = c in as Counter; body.methods.get(body.state); let {X,body} = c in body.methods.get(body.state); Invoking the inc method of a counter object is a little more To satisfy both the typechecker and our informal understanding of complicated. If we simply do the same as for get, the typechecker what invoking inc should do, we must take this fresh internal state complains and repackage it as a counter object, using the same record of methods and the same internal state type as in the original object: let {X,body} = c in body.methods.inc(body.state); \implies Error: Scoping error! $c1 = let {X, body} = c in$ {*****X, because the type variable X appears free in the type of the body of {state = body.methods.inc(body.state), the let methods = body.methods}} Indeed, what we've written doesn't make intuitive sense either, as Counter; since the result of the inc method is a bare internal state, not an More generally, to "send the inc message" to a counter, we can object. write: sendinc = λ c:Counter. let {X,body} = c in {*X, {state = body.methods.inc(body.state), methods = body.methods}} as Counter: Objects vs. ADTs A full-blown existential object model The examples of ADTs and objects that we have seen in the past What we've done so far is to give an account of "object-style" few slides offer a revealing way to think about the differences encapsulation in terms of existential types.

between "classical ADTs" and objects.

possible (at creation time)

differences between ADTs and objects:ADTs support binary operationsobjects support multiple representations

Both can be represented using existentials

possible (at method invocation time)

With ADTs, each existential package is opened as early as

With objects, the existential package is opened as late as

These differences in style give rise to the well-known pragmatic

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")