

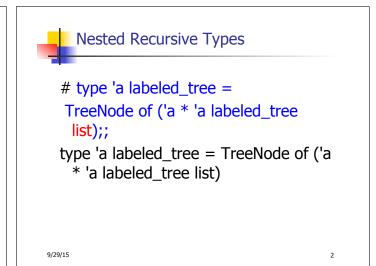


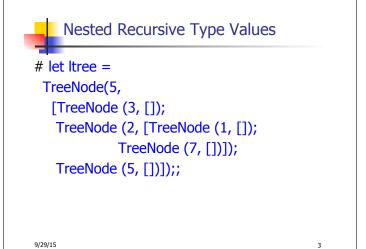
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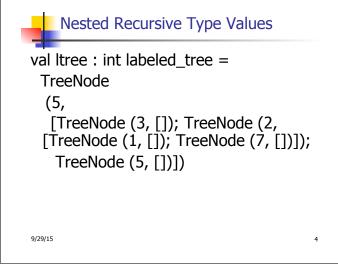
http://courses.engr.illinois.edu/cs421

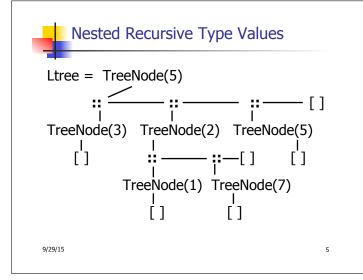
Based in part on slides by Mattox Beckman, as updated by Vikram Adve and Gul Agha

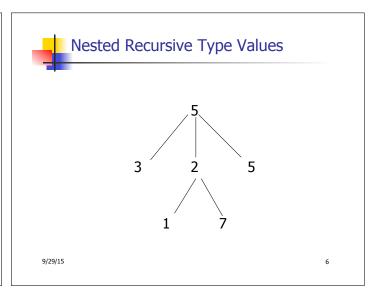
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Mutually Recursive Functions

let rec flatten_tree labtree =
 match labtree with TreeNode (x,treelist)
 -> x::flatten_tree_list treelist
 and flatten_tree_list treelist =
 match treelist with [] -> []
 | labtree::labtrees
 -> flatten_tree labtree
 @ flatten_tree_list labtrees;;

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Mutually Recursive Functions

val flatten_tree : 'a labeled_tree -> 'a list =
 <fun>

val flatten_tree_list : 'a labeled_tree list -> 'a
list = <fun>

flatten_tree ltree;;

- -: int list = [5; 3; 2; 1; 7; 5]
- Nested recursive types lead to mutually recursive functions

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Why Data Types?

- Data types play a key role in:
 - Data abstraction in the design of programs
 - Type checking in the analysis of programs
 - Compile-time code generation in the translation and execution of programs
 - Data layout (how many words; which are data and which are pointers) dictated by type

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Terminology

- Type: A type t defines a set of possible data values
 - E.g. short in C is $\{x \mid 2^{15} 1 \ge x \ge -2^{15}\}$
 - A value in this set is said to have type t
- Type system: rules of a language assigning types to expressions

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Types as Specifications

- Types describe properties
- Different type systems describe different properties, eg
 - Data is read-write versus read-only
 - Operation has authority to access data
 - Data came from "right" source
 - Operation might or could not raise an exception
- Common type systems focus on types describing same data layout and access methods

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Sound Type System

- If an expression is assigned type t, and it evaluates to a value v, then v is in the set of values defined by t
- SML, OCAML, Scheme and Ada have sound type systems
- Most implementations of C and C++ do not



Strongly Typed Language

- When no application of an operator to arguments can lead to a run-time type error, language is strongly typed
 - Eg: 1 + 2.3;;
- Depends on definition of "type error"

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Strongly Typed Language

- C++ claimed to be "strongly typed", but
 - Union types allow creating a value at one type and using it at another
 - Type coercions may cause unexpected (undesirable) effects
 - No array bounds check (in fact, no runtime checks at all)
- SML, OCAML "strongly typed" but still must do dynamic array bounds checks, runtime type case analysis, and other checks

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Static vs Dynamic Types

- Static type: type assigned to an expression at compile time
- Dynamic type: type assigned to a storage location at run time
- Statically typed language: static type assigned to every expression at compile time
- *Dynamically typed language*: type of an expression determined at run time

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Type Checking

- When is op(arg1,...,argn) allowed?
- Type checking assures that operations are applied to the right number of arguments of the right types
 - Right type may mean same type as was specified, or may mean that there is a predefined implicit coercion that will be applied
- Used to resolve overloaded operations

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Type Checking

- Type checking may be done statically at compile time or dynamically at run time
- Dynamically typed (aka untyped) languages (eg LISP, Prolog) do only dynamic type checking
- Statically typed languages can do most type checking statically



Dynamic Type Checking

- Performed at run-time before each operation is applied
- Types of variables and operations left unspecified until run-time
 - Same variable may be used at different types

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Dynamic Type Checking

- Data object must contain type information
- Errors aren't detected until violating application is executed (maybe years after the code was written)

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Static Type Checking

- Performed after parsing, before code generation
- Type of every variable and signature of every operator must be known at compile time

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Static Type Checking

- Can eliminate need to store type information in data object if no dynamic type checking is needed
- Catches many programming errors at earliest point
- Can't check types that depend on dynamically computed values
 - Eq: array bounds

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Static Type Checking

- Typically places restrictions on languages
 - Garbage collection
 - References instead of pointers
 - All variables initialized when created
 - Variable only used at one type
 - Union types allow for work-arounds, but effectively introduce dynamic type checks

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Type Declarations

- Type declarations: explicit assignment of types to variables (signatures to functions) in the code of a program
 - Must be checked in a strongly typed language
 - Often not necessary for strong typing or even static typing (depends on the type system)

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Type Inference

- Type inference: A program analysis to assign a type to an expression from the program context of the expression
 - Fully static type inference first introduced by Robin Miller in ML
 - Haskle, OCAML, SML all use type inference
 - Records are a problem for type inference



Format of Type Judgments

A type judgement has the form

$$\Gamma$$
 |- exp : τ

- Γ is a typing environment
 - Supplies the types of variables and functions
 - Γ is a set of the form $\{x:\sigma,\ldots\}$
 - For any x at most one σ such that $(x : \sigma \in \Gamma)$
- exp is a program expression
- τ is a type to be assigned to exp
- |- pronounced "turnstyle", or "entails" (or "satisfies" or, informally, "shows")

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Axioms - Constants

 $\Gamma \mid -n : int$ (assuming *n* is an integer constant)

$$\Gamma$$
 |- true : bool Γ |- false : bool

- These rules are true with any typing environment
- Γ , n are meta-variables

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Axioms – Variables (Monomorphic Rule)

Notation: Let $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$ if $x : \sigma \in \Gamma$ Note: if such σ exits, its unique

Variable axiom:

$$\overline{\Gamma \mid -x : \sigma} \quad \text{if } \Gamma(x) = \sigma$$

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Simple Rules - Arithmetic

Primitive operators ($\oplus \in \{+, -, *, ...\}$):

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \quad (\oplus) : \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \to \tau_3}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \oplus e_2 : \tau_3}$$

Relations ($\sim \in \{ <, >, =, <=, >= \}$): $\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau \qquad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau \qquad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \sim e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

For the moment, think τ is int

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Example: $\{x:int\} | -x + 2 = 3 : bool$

What do we need to show first?

$$\{x:int\} \mid -x + 2 = 3 : bool$$

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Example: $\{x:int\} | -x + 2 = 3 : bool$

What do we need for the left side?

$$\frac{\{x: int\} \mid -x+2: int \qquad \{x: int\} \mid -3: int \\ \{x: int\} \mid -x+2=3: bool}{\text{Rel}}$$



Example: $\{x:int\} | -x + 2 = 3 : bool$

How to finish?

$$\frac{\{x: int\} \mid - x: int \ \{x: int\} \mid - 2: int}{\{x: int\} \mid - x + 2: int \ \{x: int\} \mid - 3: int}_{\text{Re}}$$

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Complete Proof (type derivation)

$$\frac{\frac{\text{Var}}{\{x:\text{int}\}\mid - x:\text{int}} \frac{\text{Const}}{\{x:\text{int}\}\mid - 2:\text{int}}}{\frac{\{x:\text{int}\}\mid - x + 2:\text{int}}{\{x:\text{int}\}\mid - x + 2 = 3:\text{bool}}} \frac{\text{Const}}{\{x:\text{int}\}\mid - 3:\text{int}}$$

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Simple Rules - Booleans

Connectives

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \mathsf{bool} \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \mathsf{bool}}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \&\& e_2 : \mathsf{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \mathsf{bool} \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \mathsf{bool}}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \mid \mid e_2 : \mathsf{bool}}$$

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Type Variables in Rules

If_then_else rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \mathsf{bool} \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma \mid -e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma \mid - (\mathsf{if} \ e_1 \ \mathsf{then} \ e_2 \ \mathsf{else} \ e_3) : \tau}$$

- τ is a type variable (meta-variable)
- Can take any type at all
- All instances in a rule application must get same type
- Then branch, else branch and if_then_else must all have same type

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Function Application

Application rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \mid -(e_1 e_2) : \tau_2}$$

• If you have a function expression e₁ of type τ₁ → τ₂ applied to an argument e₂ of type τ₁, the resulting expression e₁e₂ has type τ₂

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Fun Rule

- Can only do what rule allows!
- fun rule:

$$\frac{\{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \mid -\text{fun } x -> e : \tau_1 \to \tau_2}$$

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Fun Examples

$$\frac{\{y: int \} + \Gamma \mid -y+3: int}{\Gamma \mid -fun \ y \rightarrow y+3: int \rightarrow int}$$

$$\frac{\{f: \mathsf{int} \to \mathsf{bool}\} + \Gamma \mid -f \; 2:: \; [\mathsf{true}] \; : \; \mathsf{bool} \; \mathsf{list}}{\Gamma \mid - (\mathsf{fun} \; f \; -> \; f \; 2:: \; [\mathsf{true}])} \\ \quad : \; (\mathsf{int} \to \mathsf{bool}) \to \mathsf{bool} \; \mathsf{list}}$$

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(Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

let rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2) : \tau_2}$$

let rec rule:

$$\frac{\{x: \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e_1:\tau_1 \mid \{x: \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e_2:\tau_2}{\Gamma \mid -(\text{let rec } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2): \tau_2}$$

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Example

Which rule do we apply?

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Example

• Let rec rule: ② {one : int list} |① (let x = 2 in
{one : int list} |- fun y -> (x :: y :: one))
① (1 :: one) : int list : int → int list
□ (let rec one = 1 :: one in
□ let x = 2 in
□ fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) : int → int list

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Proof of 1

Which rule?

{one : int list} |- (1 :: one) : int list

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Proof of 1

Application



Proof of 3

Constants Rule

Constants Rule

{one : int list} |-

{one: int list} |-

(::): int \rightarrow int list \rightarrow int list \rightarrow 1: int

 $\{one : int list\} \mid -((::) 1) : int list \rightarrow int list$

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Rule for variables

{one : int list} |- one:int list

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Proof of 2

(5) {x:int; one : int list} |-

Constant

fun y -> (x :: y :: one))

 $\{\text{one : int list}\}\ | -2: \text{int}$: int \rightarrow int list

 $\{one : int list\} \mid - (let x = 2 in$

fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) : int \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 5

?

 $\{x:int; one : int list\} \mid -fun y \rightarrow (x :: y :: one))$

: int \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 5

?

 $\{y:int; x:int; one : int list\} \mid -(x :: y :: one) : int list$

 $\{x:int; one : int list\} \mid -fun y -> (x :: y :: one)$

: int \rightarrow int list

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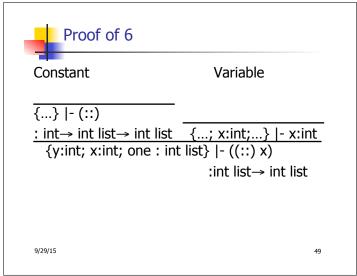
Proof of 5

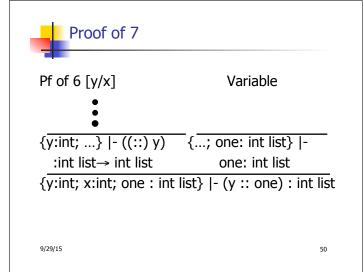




 $\{x:int; one : int list\} \mid -fun y \rightarrow (x :: y :: one))$

: int \rightarrow int list







Curry - Howard Isomorphism

- Type Systems are logics; logics are type systems
- Types are propositions; propositions are types
- Terms are proofs; proofs are terms
- Function space arrow corresponds to implication; application corresponds to modus ponens

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Curry - Howard Isomorphism

Modus Ponens

$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B \quad A}{B}$$

Application

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \alpha \to \beta \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \alpha}{\Gamma \mid -(e_1 e_2) : \beta}$$

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Mia Copa

- The above system can't handle polymorphism as in OCAML
- No type variables in type language (only metavariable in the logic)
- Would need:
 - Object level type variables and some kind of type quantification
 - let and let rec rules to introduce polymorphism
 - Explicit rule to eliminate (instantiate) polymorphism