

Types and Programming Languages

Lecture 5. Extensions of simple types

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Coming soon

- ▶ Simply typed λ -calculus has enough structure to make its theoretical properties interesting, but it is not yet much of a programming language.
- ▶ Close the gap with more familiar languages by introducing: **Base types, Unit type, Pairs, Tuples, Records, Sum**, etc.
- ▶ An important theme throughout the part is the concept of **derived forms**.

Outline

Simple extensions

- Base types

- Unit type and sequencing

- Ascription

- let bindings

- Pairs and tuples

- Records

More extensions

- Sums and variants

- General recursion

Base types

- ▶ Every programming language provides **base types**, such as numbers, booleans, or characters, plus **appropriate primitive operations** for manipulating these values.
- ▶ For theoretical purposes, we abstract away from the details of particular base types and their operations.

New types. $T ::= \dots \mid A$

where A denotes some base type. For example,

$\lambda x : A. x : A \rightarrow A$

$\lambda f : A \rightarrow A. \lambda x : A. f(f(x)) : (A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A \rightarrow A$

The Unit type

New terms $t ::= \dots \mid \textit{unit}$

New values $v ::= \dots \mid \textit{unit}$

New types $T ::= \dots \mid \text{Unit}$

New typing rules $\text{T-UNIT} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \textit{unit} : \text{Unit}}$

- ▶ Unit type can be found in the ML family.
- ▶ The main application is in languages with side effects, such as assignments to reference cells.
- ▶ Similar to `void` in languages like C and Java.

Derived forms: Sequencing and Wildcards

Two ways to add *sequencing*

1. add new syntax, evaluation and typing rules for sequencing:

$$t ::= \dots \mid t_1; t_2$$

$$\text{E-SEQ} \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1; t_2 \longrightarrow t'_1; t_2} \quad \text{E-SEQNEXT} \frac{}{\text{unit}; t_2 \longrightarrow t_2}$$

$$\text{T-SEQ} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Unit} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T}{t_1; t_2 : T}$$

2. Define it as **derived forms**:

$$t_1; t_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda x : \text{Unit}. t_2) t_1 \quad \text{where } x \notin FV(t_2)$$

Derived forms: Sequencing and Wildcards

- ▶ Derived form has another name: **syntactic sugar**.
- ▶ The advantage is that we can extend the surface syntax without adding any complexity about theorems to be proved.
- ▶ Derived form has been heavily used in modern language definitions.
- ▶ Another derived form: **wildcard** $\lambda_.t \stackrel{def}{=} \lambda x.t$ where $x \notin FV(t)$.

Ascription

Another simple feature is the ability to **explicitly ascribe** a particular type to a given term.

New terms $t ::= \dots \mid t \text{ as } T$

New evaluation rules

E-ASCRIBE $\frac{}{v_1 \text{ as } T \longrightarrow v_1}$ E-ASCRIBE1 $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1 \text{ as } T \longrightarrow t'_1 \text{ as } T}$

New typing rules T-ASCRIBE $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \text{ as } T : T}$

Purpose of ascription

- ▶ For documentation and maintenance
- ▶ For controlling the printing of complex types
- ▶ For abstract away some types, especially in PLs with type inference, such as SML.

Note that we add new syntax, semantics rules to add ascription. How to consider ascription as **derived forms**? (See Homework.)

let bindings

It is often useful — both for **avoiding repetition** and for **increasing readability** — to give names to some of its subexpressions.

let bindings are very common syntax in a lot of PLs, such as ML family, Scheme, but with slightly different *scoping rules*.

New terms $t ::= \dots \mid \text{let } x = t \text{ in } t$

New evaluation rules

$$\text{E-LETV} \frac{}{\text{let } x = v_1 \text{ in } t_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v_1]t_2}$$

$$\text{E-LET} \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\text{let } x = t_1 \text{ in } t_2 \longrightarrow \text{let } x = t'_1 \text{ in } t_2}$$

New typing rules $\text{T-LET} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma, x : T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = t_1 \text{ in } t_2 : T_2}$

let bindings, as derived forms

$$\text{let } x = t_1 \text{ in } t_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\lambda x : T_1. t_2) t_1$$

Where T_1 comes from? Type checker!

The desugaring of sequencing is a transformation on **terms**.
However, The desugaring of let binding is a transformation on **typing derivations**.

We will NOT treat let bindings as a derived form.

Pairs

The simplest compound data structure is **pairs**, or more generally **tuples**, of values.

New terms $t ::= \dots \mid \{t, t\} \mid t.1 \mid t.2$

New values $t ::= \dots \mid \{v, v\}$

New types $t ::= \dots \mid T_1 \times T_2$ product type

New evaluation rules

E-PAIRBETA1 $\frac{}{\{v_1, v_2\}.1 \longrightarrow v_1}$ E-PAIRBETA2 $\frac{}{\{v_1, v_2\}.2 \longrightarrow v_2}$

E-PROJ1 $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1.1 \longrightarrow t'_1.1}$ E-PROJ2 $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1.2 \longrightarrow t'_1.2}$

E-PAIR1 $\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\{t_1, t_2\} \longrightarrow \{t'_1, t_2\}}$ E-PAIR1 $\frac{t_2 \longrightarrow t'_2}{\{v_1, t_2\} \longrightarrow \{v_1, t'_2\}}$

New typing rules T-PAIR $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \{t_1, t_2\} : T_1 \times T_2}$

T-PROJ1 $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \times T_2}{\Gamma \vdash t_1.1 : T_1}$ T-PROJ1 $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \times T_2}{\Gamma \vdash t_1.2 : T_2}$

Tuples

It's easy to generalize pairs to tuples. Pair is a 2-tuple.

New terms $t ::= \dots \mid \{t_i^{i \in 1..n}\} \mid t.i$

New values $t ::= \dots \mid v_i^{i \in 1..n}$

New types $t ::= \dots \mid \{T_i^{i \in 1..n}\}$ product type

New evaluation rules

$$\text{E-TUPLEBETA} \frac{}{\{v_i^{i \in 1..n}\}.j \longrightarrow v_j} \quad \text{E-PROJ} \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{t_1.j \longrightarrow t'_1.j}$$
$$\text{E-TUPLE} \frac{}{t_j \longrightarrow t'_j}$$

$$\text{E-TUPLE} \frac{}{\{v_i^{i \in 1..j-1}, t_j, t_k^{k \in j+1..n}\} \longrightarrow \{v_i^{i \in 1..j-1}, t'_j, t_k^{k \in j+1..n}\}}$$

New typing rules

$$\text{T-TUPLE} \frac{\forall i \quad \Gamma \vdash t_i : T_i}{\Gamma \vdash \{t_i^{i \in 1..n}\} : \{T_i^{i \in 1..n}\}} \quad \text{T-PROJ} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \{T_i^{i \in 1..n}\}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1.j : T_j}$$

Records

→ {}

Extends λ_{\rightarrow} (9-1)

New syntactic forms

$t ::= \dots$ terms:
 $\{\lambda_i = t_i \mid i \in 1..n\}$ record
 $t.l$ projection

$v ::= \dots$ values:
 $\{\lambda_i = v_i \mid i \in 1..n\}$ record value

$T ::= \dots$ types:
 $\{\lambda_i : T_i \mid i \in 1..n\}$ type of records

New evaluation rules

$\{\lambda_i = v_i \mid i \in 1..n\}.l_j \rightarrow v_j$ (E-PROJRCD) $t \rightarrow t'$

$$\frac{t_1 \rightarrow t'_1}{t_1.l \rightarrow t'_1.l}$$
 (E-PROJ)

$$\frac{t_j \rightarrow t'_j}{\{\lambda_i = v_i \mid i \in 1..j-1, \lambda_j = t_j, \lambda_k = t_k \mid k \in j+1..n\} \rightarrow \{\lambda_i = v_i \mid i \in 1..j-1, \lambda_j = t'_j, \lambda_k = t_k \mid k \in j+1..n\}}$$
 (E-RCD)

New typing rules

$\Gamma \vdash t : T$

$$\frac{\text{for each } i \quad \Gamma \vdash t_i : T_i}{\Gamma \vdash \{\lambda_i = t_i \mid i \in 1..n\} : \{\lambda_i : T_i \mid i \in 1..n\}}$$
 (T-RCD)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \{\lambda_i : T_i \mid i \in 1..n\}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1.l_j : T_j}$$
 (T-PROJ)

Figure 11-7: Records

Records

Surface difference:

- ▶ Fields in records has names, pairs does not.
- ▶ We can treat pairs as special records labeled 1, 2, 3,

Deeper difference: Compilers may implement them in distinct ways. Pair has strict orders. However, PLs treat the order of fields in records differently, e.g.

- ▶ in SML, order does not matter:
 $\{l = 2, m = 4\} = \{m = 4, l = 2\};$
- ▶ in rules of **Figure 11-7**, orders matter, i.e.,
 $\{l = 2, m = 4\} \neq \{m = 4, l = 2\}$
- ▶ we will latter use *subtyping* to make records with different field permutations equivalent.

Rules for records are similar to those for tuples. Please refer to Figure 11-7 in the textbook.

Outline

Simple extensions

Base types

Unit type and sequencing

Ascription

let bindings

Pairs and tuples

Records

More extensions

Sums and variants

General recursion

Variant types

We need *heterogeneous collections of values* in many cases:

- ▶ a node in a tree can be a *leaf* or an *interior* node with children;
- ▶ a list cell can be either `nil` or a `cons` cell carrying a head and a tail,
- ▶ a node of an abstract syntax tree in a compiler can represent a *variable*, an *abstraction*, an *application*, etc

Type-theoretic mechanism that supports this kind of programming is **variant types**.

A more familiar name for **variant type** is **union**, or more precisely, *disjoint union*.

Sum is the binary version of variant type.

Sums

Constructors and accessors

$t ::= \dots$	
$\text{inl } t$	<i>tagging (left)</i>
$\text{inr } t$	<i>tagging (right)</i>
$\text{case } t \text{ of}$	<i>case</i>
$\text{inl } x \Rightarrow t$	
$ \text{inr } x \Rightarrow t$	
$v ::= \dots$	
$\text{inl } v$	<i>tagged value (left)</i>
$\text{inr } v$	<i>tagged value (right)</i>
$T ::= \dots$	
$T + T$	<i>sum type</i>

Sums, example

Your score may be an integer number, or a grade (P/F).

Types : $\text{Score} = \text{Int} + \text{Char}$

Constructor : $t_1 = \text{inl } 59 : \text{Score}$, $t_2 = \text{inr } 'F' : \text{Score}$

Accessor : $a_good_teacher = \lambda t.\text{case } t \text{ of}$
 $\text{inl } x \Rightarrow \text{inl } (\text{max}(x, 60))$
 $| \text{inr } x \Rightarrow \text{inr } 'P'$

Quiz.

1. Give the evaluation rule and typing rule for `sum`.
2. Does the "uniqueness of types" still hold for languages with `sum`? Why?

Sums, semantics

$$\text{E-CASEINL} \frac{}{\text{case (inl } v_0) \text{ of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2 \longrightarrow [x_1 \mapsto v_0]t}$$

$$\text{E-CASE} \frac{t_0 \longrightarrow t'_0}{\text{case } t_0 \text{ of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2 \longrightarrow \text{case } t'_0 \text{ of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2}$$

$$\text{E-INL} \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\text{inl } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{inl } t'_1}$$

$$\text{T-INL} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } t_1 : T_1 + T_2}$$

$$\text{T-CASE} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_0 : T_1 + T_2 \quad \Gamma, x_1 : T_1 \vdash t_1 : T \quad \Gamma, x_2 : T_2 \vdash t_2 : T}{\text{case } t_0 \text{ of inl } x_1 \Rightarrow t_1 \mid \text{inr } x_2 \Rightarrow t_2 : T}$$

Symmetric rules for `inr` are omitted.

Sums and uniqueness of types

This rule breaks the uniqueness of types:

$$\text{T-INL} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } t_1 : T_1 + T_2}$$

Solutions include:

- ▶ Keep it as a “variable” which will be instantiated later.
Mainly used in PLs with type inference.
- ▶ Allow any T_2 . We will explore this option when discussing subtyping.
- ▶ Ascription: use explicit annotation to tell the compiler or type checker which type T_2 is intended.

$$\text{T-INL} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{inl } t \text{ as } T : T_1 + T_2}$$

Variants

Like the relation between pair and records. Variants are extensions of sum type with fields.

$$t_1 = \langle \text{none} = \text{unit} \rangle \text{ as } \langle \text{none} : \text{Unit}, \text{some} : \text{Nat} \rangle$$
$$t_2 = \langle \text{some} = 20 \rangle \text{ as } \langle \text{none} : \text{Unit}, \text{some} : \text{Nat} \rangle$$
$$f = \lambda x : \langle \text{none} : \text{Unit}, \text{some} : \text{Nat} \rangle.$$

case x of

$\langle \text{none} = u \rangle \Rightarrow 999$

| $\langle \text{some} = v \rangle \Rightarrow v$

In ML family, this type is called option.

Enumerations and Single-Field variants

- ▶ We can construct enumerations by using variants, each field has type `Unit`.

```
Weekday = < monday : Unit, tuesday : Unit, ..., friday : Unit >
```

The access of this enumeration is very annoying. We will have alternatives later.

- ▶ The single-field variants looks silly, but is useful to abstract/hide information.

```
DollarAmount = < dollars : Float >
```

```
EuroAmount = < euros : Float >
```

Discussion: variants v.s. Datatypes

Variant type is analogous to the ML datatype

$$\text{type } T = l_1 \text{ of } T_1 \mid \dots \mid l_n \text{ of } T_n$$

But there are several differences worth noticing

- ▶ For ML datatype, we do not use $l_i(t_i)$ as T to explicitly tell the compiler T , instead the constructor l_i has type $T_i \rightarrow T$.
- ▶ Enumeration is much easier with datatype, we omit of `Unit`:

$$\text{type Weekday} = \text{monday} \mid \dots \mid \text{friday}$$

- ▶ ML datatype has several additional important features:
 - ▶ **Recursive datatype:**
`type NatList = nil | cons of Nat * NatList`
 - ▶ **Parametric datatype:**
`type 'a List = nil | cons of 'a * 'a List`
List is called a **type operator**.

General recursion

Another facility found in most programming languages is the ability to define *recursive functions*.

Here is one way to define a function `iseven`:

```
ff = λ ie:Nat → Bool. λ x:Nat.  
    if iszero x then true  
    else if iszero (pred x) then false  
    else ie (pred (pred x));  
iseven = fix ff;
```

Quiz.

What's the type of `ff`?

General recursion

`fix` itself cannot be defined in the simply typed lambda-calculus.
We simply add it as primitives.

New terms $t ::= \dots \mid \text{fix } t$

New evaluation rules

$$\text{E-FIXBETA} \frac{}{\text{fix } (\lambda x : T_1. t_2) \longrightarrow [x \mapsto \text{fix } (\lambda x : T_1. t_2)] t_2}$$

$$\text{E-FIX} \frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\text{fix } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{fix } t'_1}$$

New typing rules $\text{T-FIX} \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \rightarrow T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fix } t_1 : T_1}$

New derived forms

$\text{letrec } x : T_1 = t_1 \text{ in } t_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } x = \text{fix } (\lambda x : T_1. t_1) \text{ in } t_2$

More on `fix`

- ▶ Notice that the type T_1 in rule $T\text{-FIX}$ is not restricted to function types.
- ▶ `fix` implies that every type is inhabited by some term.

$$\mathit{diverge}_T = \lambda_ : \mathit{Unit}.\mathit{fix} (\lambda x : T.x);$$

$\mathit{diverge}_T(\mathit{unit})$ has type T , and has non-terminating evaluation.

- ▶ The simply typed lambda-calculus with numbers and `fix`, called **PCF** (Programming Computable Functions), is the simplest language with a range of subtle semantic phenomena.

List

Typing features can be classified into

- ▶ **base types** such as `Bool` and `Unit`
- ▶ **type constructors** such as \rightarrow and \times
- ▶ `List` is also a type constructor: For every `T`, `List T` returns a type describing finite length lists whose elements typed `T`.

Please refer to **Figure 11-13** for syntax and semantics of `List`.

Conclusion

- ▶ Real programming languages usually include: **Base types, Unit type, Pairs, Tuples, Records, Sum**, etc.
- ▶ `fix` can not be typed in simply typed lambda calculus. Most languages do not have explicit `fix`, but allow recursive definitions of functions.
- ▶ An important theme throughout the part is the concept of **derived forms**.

Homework

- ▶ 11.4.1, 11.5.2, 11.8.2, 11.11.1, 11.11.2