

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. $t \longrightarrow t'$ for some t' , or
3. for some evaluation context E , we can express t as

$$t = E[(C) (\text{new } D(\bar{v}))]$$

with $D \not\prec C$.

Evaluation Contexts

$E ::=$	<i>evaluation contexts</i>
$[]$	<i>hole</i>
$E.f$	<i>field access</i>
$E.m(\bar{t})$	<i>method invocation (rcv)</i>
$v.m(\bar{v}, E, \bar{t})$	<i>method invocation (arg)</i>
$\text{new } C(\bar{v}, E, \bar{t})$	<i>object creation (arg)</i>
$(C)E$	<i>cast</i>

E.g.,

```
[] .fst  
[] .fst .snd  
new C(new D(), [] .fst .snd, new E())
```

Evaluation Contexts

$E[t]$ denotes “the term obtained by filling the hole in E with t .”

E.g., if $E = (A) []$, then

$$\begin{aligned} & E[(\text{new Pair}(\text{new A}(), \text{new B}())).\text{fst}] \\ & = \\ & (A)((\text{new Pair}(\text{new A}(), \text{new B}())).\text{fst}) \end{aligned}$$

Evaluation Contexts

Evaluation contexts capture the notion of the “next subterm to be reduced”:

- ▶ By ordinary evaluation relation:

$$(A) (\underline{\text{new Pair}(\text{new A}(), \text{new B}())}.fst) \longrightarrow (A) (\text{new A}())$$

by E-CAST with subderivation E-PROJNEW.

- ▶ By evaluation contexts:

$$E = (A) []$$
$$r = \text{new Pair}(\text{new A}(), \text{new B}()) .fst$$
$$r' = \text{new A}()$$
$$r \longrightarrow r' \quad \text{by E-PROJNEW}$$
$$E[r] = (A) (\text{new Pair}(\text{new A}(), \text{new B}()) .fst)$$
$$E[r'] = (A) (\text{new A}())$$

Precisely...

Claim 1: If $r \longrightarrow r'$ by one of the computation rules E-PROJNEW, E-INVKNEW, or E-CASTNEW and E is an arbitrary evaluation context, then $E[r] \longrightarrow E[r']$ by the ordinary evaluation relation.

Claim 2: If $t \longrightarrow t'$ 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. $r \longrightarrow r'$ by one of the computation rules E-PROJNEW, E-INVKNEW, or E-CASTNEW.

Proofs: Homework 11.

The Curry-Howard Correspondence

Intro vs. elim forms

An *introduction form* for a given type gives us a way of *constructing* elements of this type.

An *elimination form* for a type gives us a way of *using* elements of this type.

The Curry-Howard Correspondence

In *constructive logics*, a proof of P must provide *evidence* for P .

- ▶ “law of the excluded middle”

$$\overline{P \vee \neg P}$$

not recognized.

- ▶ A proof of $P \wedge Q$ is a *pair* of evidence for P and evidence for Q .
- ▶ A proof of $P \supset Q$ is a *procedure* for transforming evidence for P into evidence for Q .

Propositions as Types

LOGIC

propositions

proposition $P \supset Q$

proposition $P \wedge Q$

proof of proposition P

proposition 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

propositions

proposition $P \supset Q$

proposition $P \wedge Q$

proof of proposition P

proposition P is provable

proof simplification

(a.k.a. “cut elimination”)

PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

types

type $P \rightarrow Q$

type $P \times Q$

term t of type P

type P is inhabited (by some term)

evaluation

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)
```

Bad! Violates a basic principle of software engineering:

Write each piece of functionality once

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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: λ -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

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

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

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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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$t ::=$

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

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

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

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

System F: Types

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

$T ::=$

X

$T \rightarrow T$

$\forall X. T$

types

type variable

type of functions

universal type

System F: Typing Rules

$$\frac{x:T \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \quad (\text{T-VAR})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, x:T_1 \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:T_1. t_2 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \quad (\text{T-ABS})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_{11} \rightarrow T_{12} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_{11}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ t_2 : T_{12}} \quad (\text{T-APP})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, X \vdash t_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda X. t_2 : \forall X. T_2} \quad (\text{T-TABS})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \forall X. T_{12}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \ [T_2] : [X \mapsto T_2]T_{12}} \quad (\text{T-TAPP})$$

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

cons : $\forall X. X \rightarrow \text{List } X \rightarrow \text{List } X$

head : $\forall X. \text{List } X \rightarrow X$

tail : $\forall X. \text{List } X \rightarrow \text{List } X$

nil : $\forall X. \text{List } X$

isnil : $\forall X. \text{List } X \rightarrow \text{Bool}$

map =

$\lambda X. \lambda Y.$

$\lambda f: X \rightarrow Y.$

(fix ($\lambda m: (\text{List } X) \rightarrow (\text{List } Y).$

$\lambda l: \text{List } X.$

if isnil [X] l

then nil [Y]

else cons [Y] (f (head [X] l))

(m (tail [X] l)))));

l = cons [Nat] 4 (cons [Nat] 3 (cons [Nat] 2 (nil [Nat]))));

head [Nat] (map [Nat] [Nat] ($\lambda x: \text{Nat}. \text{succ } x$) l);

Church Booleans

$\text{CBool} = \forall X. X \rightarrow X \rightarrow X;$

$\text{tru} = \lambda X. \lambda t:X. \lambda f:X. t;$

$\text{fls} = \lambda X. \lambda t:X. \lambda f:X. f;$

$\text{not} = \lambda b:\text{CBool}. \lambda X. \lambda t:X. \lambda f:X. b [X] f t;$

Church Numerals

$\text{CNat} = \forall X. (X \rightarrow X) \rightarrow X \rightarrow X;$

$c_0 = \lambda X. \lambda s:X \rightarrow X. \lambda z:X. z;$

$c_1 = \lambda X. \lambda s:X \rightarrow X. \lambda z:X. s\ z;$

$c_2 = \lambda X. \lambda s:X \rightarrow X. \lambda z:X. s\ (s\ z);$

$\text{csucc} = \lambda n:\text{CNat}. \lambda X. \lambda s:X \rightarrow X. \lambda z:X. s\ (n\ [X]\ s\ z);$

$\text{cplus} = \lambda m:\text{CNat}. \lambda n:\text{CNat}. m\ [\text{CNat}]\ \text{csucc}\ n;$

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 $\forall X. X \rightarrow X \rightarrow X$ 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...”

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).

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:

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

This gives us the “introduction rule” for existentials:

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

Different representations...

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

Example: $p2 = \{ *Nat, 0 \}$ as $\{ \exists X, X \}$

$p3 = \{ *Bool, true \}$ as $\{ \exists X, X \}$

Different representations...

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

Example: $p2 = \{*\text{Nat}, 0\}$ as $\{\exists X, X\}$

$p3 = \{*\text{Bool}, \text{true}\}$ as $\{\exists X, X\}$

More useful example:

$p4 = \{*\text{Nat}, \{a=0, f=\lambda x:\text{Nat}. \text{succ}(x)\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow \text{Nat}\}\}$

$p5 = \{*\text{Bool}, \{a=\text{true}, f=\lambda x:\text{Bool}. 0\}\}$ as $\{\exists X, \{a:X, f:X \rightarrow \text{Nat}\}\}$

Exercise...

Here are three more variations on the same theme:

p6 = `{*Nat, {a=0, f= $\lambda x:\text{Nat}$. succ(x)}}}` as `{ $\exists X$, {a:X, f:X \rightarrow X}}`
p7 = `{*Nat, {a=0, f= $\lambda x:\text{Nat}$. succ(x)}}}` as `{ $\exists X$, {a:X, f:Nat \rightarrow X}}`
p8 = `{*Nat, {a=0, f= $\lambda x:\text{Nat}$. 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= $\lambda x:\text{Nat}$. succ(x)}}}` as `{ $\exists X$, {a:X, f:X \rightarrow Nat}}`
p5 = `{*Bool, {a=true, f= $\lambda x:\text{Bool}$. 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=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.

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

Computation

The computation rule for existentials is also straightforward:

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

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 =  $\lambda i:\{x:\text{Nat}\}. i.x,$ 
    inc =  $\lambda i:\{x:\text{Nat}\}. \{x=\text{succ}(i.x)\}}$ }}
  as { $\exists$ Counter,
     {new: Counter, get: Counter $\rightarrow$ Nat, inc: Counter $\rightarrow$ 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}}

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

Existential Objects

```
Counter = { $\exists X$ , {state:X, methods: {get:X $\rightarrow$ Nat, inc:X $\rightarrow$ X}}}};  
c = {*Nat,  
  {state = 5,  
   methods = {get =  $\lambda x:\text{Nat}. x$ ,  
              inc =  $\lambda x:\text{Nat}. \text{succ}(x)$ }}}  
  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”)