

# *T*ypes

## in Programming Languages (9)

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<http://www4.in.tum.de/lehre/vorlesungen/types/WS0607/>

# Recap from last Week

- We reformulated the inference rules for subtyping and typing so that one could read off a typing-algorithm.
- The language we considered contained variables, applications and lambda-abstractions (briefly also looked at casts). Main point of subtyping is to analyse typing-systems for object-oriented languages.

# Featherweight Java

- small language to study Java proposed by Igarashi, Pierce and Wadler
- contains only: object creation, method invocation, field access, casting and variables (no side-effects, which means it behaves almost like a functional language)
- one design motivation is the type-safety proof; for example since no assignment is possible, one does not need an environment to evaluate an FJ-program (still, FJ is Turing-complete)

# Syntax

- an FJ-program consists of
  - a class-table, *CT*, which is a collection of class definitions
  - and a term, which corresponds to the “main-method” in Java
- a class definition has the form

*class A extends B {...}*

where super-class is always included (where *B* is possibly *Object*)

# Class Definitions

## ■ For example

```
class Pair extends Object {
    Object fst;
    Object snd;
    Pair (Object f, Object s) {
        super(); this.fst = f; this.snd = s;
    }
    Pair setfst (Object newf) {
        return new Pair(newf, this.snd);
    }
}
```

(fields)

(constructor)

(method)

# Class Definitions

## ■ For example

```
class Pair extends Object {  
    Object fst;                                (fields)  
    Object snd;  
  
    Pair (Object f, Object s) {                (constructor)  
        super(); this.fst = f; this.snd = s; }  
  
    Pair setfst (Object newf) {                (method)  
        return new Pair(newf, this.snd) }  
}
```

- constructors need to be always present, e.g.  
`A() { super(); }` corresponds to "do nothing"

# Class Definitions

## ■ For example

```
class Pair extends Object {
    Object fst;                (fields)
    Object snd;
    Pair (Object f, Object s) { (constructor)
        super(); this.fst = f; this.snd = s; }
    Pair setfst (Object newf) { (method)
        return new Pair(newf, this.snd) }
}
```

## ■ constructors always take one argument for each field; super is always invoked

# Class Definitions

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  }
}
```

(fields)

(constructor)

(method)

## ■ method-bodies are always of the form return *t* where *t* is a term



# Terms

Terms are:

- object constructions, e.g. *new A()*,  
*new Pair(..., ...)*
- method invocations, e.g. *—.setfst(...)*
- field access, e.g. *A.f*, *this.snd*
- variables, e.g. *this*, *newf*
- casts, e.g. *(A)t*, *(Pair)t*

# Evaluation

Since we have no assignments, evaluation can be easily formalised, e.g.:

*new Pair(new A(), new B()).snd*  
→ *new B()*

A computation may get stuck if

- a field is accessed which is not declared
- a method is invoked which does not exist
- a cast to something other than a super-class

# Reduction Sequence

$((P'r)$

$(new P'r(new P'r(new A(), new B()), new A())).fst).snd$

→

$((P'r) new P'r(new A(), new B())).snd$

→

$new P'r(new A(), new B()).snd$

→

$new B()$

# Terms and Values

## ■ Terms:

$T$	$::=$	$x$	variables
		$t.f$	field access
		$t.m(t_1, \dots, t_n)$	method invocation
		$\text{new } C(t_1, \dots, t_n)$	object creation
		$(C)t$	cast

## ■ Values:

$$v ::= \text{new } C(v_1, \dots, v_n)$$

# Classes

## ■ Classes:

$C ::= \text{class } C \text{ extends } C \{ \vec{C} \vec{f}; \vec{K} \vec{M} \}$

## ■ Constructors:

$K ::= C(C \vec{x}) \{ \text{super}(\vec{f}); \text{this}.\vec{f} = \vec{f} \}$

## ■ Methods:

$M ::= C m(\vec{C} \vec{x}) \{ \text{return } t \}$

# Subtyping

■  $C <: C$

■ 
$$\frac{C <: D \quad D <: E}{C <: E}$$

■ 
$$\frac{CT(C) = \text{class } C \text{ extends } D \{ \dots \}}{C <: D}$$

where  $CT$  is the class-table, a mapping from class-names to class-declarations

# Evaluation (I)

■  $\text{new } C(v_1, \dots, v_n).f_i \longrightarrow v_i$



$m$  is defined in  $C$  as

$B \ m(\vec{B} \ \vec{x}) \{ \text{return } t \}$

or so in a super-class of  $C$

---

$\text{new } C(\vec{v}).m(\vec{u}) \longrightarrow$

$t[\vec{x} \mapsto \vec{u}, \text{this} \mapsto \text{new } C(\vec{v})]$

in  $t$  the  $\vec{x}$  are instantiated by the  $\vec{u}$  and this is associated with  $C(\vec{v})$

# Evaluation (II)



$$C <: D$$

---

$$(D)(\text{new } C(\vec{v})) \longrightarrow \text{new } C(\vec{v})$$



the rest are "congruence"-rules

$$\frac{t \longrightarrow t'}{t.f \longrightarrow t'.f}$$



# Typing (I)

$$\frac{x : C \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : C}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : C \quad C \text{ contains field } C_i \ f_i}{\Gamma \vdash t.f_i : C_i}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \vec{u} : \vec{C} \quad \vec{C} <: \vec{D} \quad \Gamma \vdash t : C' \quad \text{and } m : \vec{D} \rightarrow C \text{ in } C'}{\Gamma \vdash t.m(\vec{u}) : C}$$

# Typing (II)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \vec{t} : \vec{D} \quad \vec{C} <: \vec{D} \quad C \text{ consists of fields } \vec{D} \text{ for } j}{\Gamma \vdash \text{new } C(\vec{t}) : C}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : D \quad D <: C}{\Gamma \vdash (C)t : C}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : D \quad C <: D \quad C \neq D}{\Gamma \vdash (C)t : C}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : D \quad C \not<: D \quad D \not<: C}{\Gamma \vdash (C)t : C} \text{ stupid warning}$$

# Type-Safety

■ If  $\Gamma \vdash t : C$  and  $t \longrightarrow t'$  then  $\Gamma \vdash t' : C'$   
for some  $C' <: C$

■ stupid casts are rejected, but needed for the property above, e.g.

class  $A$  extends Object ...

class  $B$  extends Object ...

$(A)(Object) \text{new } B() \longrightarrow (A) \text{new } B()$

# Data Types

- We next consider how to represent datatypes, such as
  - Booleans (either True or False)
  - Lists (either Nil or Cons)
  - Nats (either Zero or Successor)
  - Bin-trees (either Leaf or Node)
- The question is how to include them into the typing-system. Introducing them primitively is unsatisfactory. Why?
- We consider here the PLC.

# Syntax of PLC

## Types:

$T$	$::=$	$X$	type variables
		$T \rightarrow T$	function types
		$\forall X.T$	$\forall$ -type

## Terms:

$e$	$::=$	$x$	variables
		$e e$	applications
		$\lambda x.e$	lambda-abstractions
		$\Lambda X.e$	type-abstractions
		$e T$	type-applications

# Transitions in PLC

- We have the same transitions as in the lambda-calculus, e.g.

$$\overline{(\lambda x.e_1)e_2 \longrightarrow e_1[x := e_2]}$$

plus rules for type-abstractions and type-applications

$$\overline{(\Lambda X.e)T \longrightarrow e[X := T]}$$

- Confluence and Termination holds for  $\longrightarrow$ .

# Typing Rules

## ■ Type-Generalisation

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : T \quad X \notin \text{ftv}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash \Lambda X.e : \forall X.T}$$

## ■ Type-Specialisation

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall X.T_1}{\Gamma \vdash e T_2 : T_1[X := T_2]}$$

- Interestingly, for PLC the problems of type-checking and type-inference are computationally equivalent and **undecidable!**

# Typing Rules

## ■ Type-Generalisation

Therefore we explicitly annotate the type in lambda-abstractions

$\lambda x : T. e$

## ■ Typ

Type-checking is then trivial. (But is it useful?)

- Interestingly, for PLC the problems of type-checking and type-inference are computationally equivalent and **undecidable!**



# Datatypes

We are now returning to the question of representing datatypes in PLC.

- Booleans with values **true** and **false** is represented by

$$\text{bool} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \forall X. X \rightarrow (X \rightarrow X)$$

- $\text{true} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Lambda X. \lambda x_1 : X. \lambda x_2 : X. x_1$

$$\text{false} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Lambda X. \lambda x_1 : X. \lambda x_2 : X. x_2$$

These are the only two closed normal terms of type **bool**.

# Lists

- Lists can be represented as

$$X \text{ list} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \forall Y. Y \rightarrow (X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Y) \rightarrow Y$$

- Nil  $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Lambda X Y. \lambda x : Y. \lambda f : X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Y. x$

$$\text{Cons} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \dots$$

These are infinitely closed normal terms of this type.

- We also have unit-, product- and sum-types. From this we can already build up all **algebraic types** (a.k.a. data types).

# Possible Questions

- Question: A typed programming language is polymorphic if a term of the language may have different types (right or wrong)?
- PLC is at the heart of the immediate language in GHC: let-polymorphism of ML is compiled to (annotated) PLC.
- Describe the notion of beta-equality of terms in PLC. How can one decide that two typable PLC-terms are in this relation? Why does this fail for untypable terms?

# Further Points

- Functional programming languages often allow bounds (constraints) on types: for example the membership functions of lists has type  $X \rightarrow X \text{ list} \rightarrow \text{bool}$ , where  $X$  can only be a type with defined equality.
- Haskell generalises this idea by using type-classes
- This is in contrast to object-oriented programming languages which use subtyping for modelling this.