

CS6848 - Principles of Programming Languages

Principles of Programming Languages

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Recursive types

- A data type for values that may contain other values of the same type.
- Also called inductive data types.
- Compared to simple types that are finite, recursive types are not.

```
interface I {  
    void s1(boolean a);  
    int m1(J a);  
}
```

```
interface J {  
    boolean m2(I b);  
}
```

- Infinite graph.



Recap

- Type rules.
- Simply typed lambda calculus.
- Type soundness proof.



Recursive types

- Can be viewed as directed graphs.
- Useful for defining dynamic data structures such as Lists, Trees.
- Size can grow in response to runtime requirements (user input); compare that to static arrays.



Equality and subtyping

- In Java two types are considered equal iff they have the same name. Tricky example?
- Same with subtyping.
- Contrast the name based subtyping to structural subtyping.
- Why is structural subtyping interesting?



Type derivation example

- Type of the lambda term $\lambda x.xx$.
- Use a type $u = \mu\alpha.(\alpha \rightarrow \text{Int})$.
-

$$\frac{\frac{\phi[x : u] \vdash x : u \rightarrow \text{Int} \quad \phi[x : u] \vdash x : u}{\phi[x : u] \vdash xx : \text{Int}}}{\phi \vdash \lambda x : u.xx : u \rightarrow \text{Int}}$$



Grammar for recursive types

- We will extend the grammar of our simple types.
-

$$t ::= t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \mid \text{Int} \mid \alpha \mid \mu\alpha.(t_1 \rightarrow t_2)$$

where

- α is a variable that ranges over types.
- $\mu\alpha.t$ - is a recursive type that allows unfolding.

$$\mu\alpha.t = t[\alpha := (\mu\alpha.t)]$$

- Example: Say $u = \mu\alpha.(\alpha \rightarrow \text{Int})$. Now unfold
 - Once: $u = u \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 - Twice: $u = (u \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 - ...
 - Infinitely: Infinite tree - the type of u .
- A type derived from this grammar will have finite number of *distinct* subtrees - *regular* trees.
- Any regular tree can be written as a finite expression using μ s.



Type derivation, example II

- $Y = \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx))$
- Y-combinator is also called fixed point combinator or paradoxical combinator.
- When applied to any function g , it produces a fixed point of g .
- That is $Y(E) = E(Y(E))$
-

$$\begin{aligned} Y(E) &=_{\beta} (\lambda x.E(xx))(\lambda x.E(xx)) \\ &=_{\beta} E((\lambda x.E(xx))(\lambda x.E(xx))) \\ &=_{\beta} E(Y(E)) \end{aligned}$$

Useless assignment: For the factorial function $F = \lambda f.\lambda n.\text{if } (\text{zero? } n) \text{ 1 } (\text{mult } n \text{ (f pred } n))$, show that $(Y F) n$ computes factorial n .

Use the definition of factorial function:

Fact $n = \text{if } (\text{zero? } n) \text{ 1 } (\text{mult } n \text{ (Fact (pred } n)))$ **Useless assignment II:**

Write the Y combinator in Scheme.



Type derivation of Y-combinator

- Y combinator cannot be typed with simple types.
- Use a type $u = \mu\alpha.(\alpha \rightarrow \text{Int})$.

$$\frac{\phi[f : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}] \vdash (\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)) : \text{Int}}{\phi \vdash \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)) : (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \text{Int}}$$

- If we can get the type of $\lambda x.f(xx)$ to be type u then using $u = u \rightarrow \text{Int}$ like above, we can get the premise.
- Goal $\phi[f : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}] \vdash \lambda x.f(xx) : u$

$$\frac{\phi[f : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}][x : u] \vdash f : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \quad \phi[x : u] \vdash xx : \text{Int}}{\phi[f : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}][x : u] \vdash f(xx) : \text{Int}} \\ \frac{}{\phi[f : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}] \vdash \lambda x : u.f(xx) : u}$$

- Not all terms can be typed with recursive types either: $\lambda x.x(\text{SUCC } x)$
- Type soundness theorem can be proved for recursive types as well.



Equality of types

- Isorecursive types: $\mu\alpha.t$ and $t[\alpha/\mu\alpha.t]$ are distinct (disjoint) types.
- Equirecursive types: Type type expressions are same if their infinite trees match.
 - Direct comparison is not enough.
 - Convert a given type into a canonical (normal/standard) form and then compare.



Representation of types - as functions

- Denote an alphabet Σ that contains all the labels and paths of the type tree.
- We can represent such a tree by a function that maps *paths* to *labels* — called a *term*.
- Say we denote *left* by 0 and *right* by 1, for the types discussed before: $\text{path} \in \{0, 1\}^*$.
- And the labels are from the set $\Sigma = \{\text{Int}, \rightarrow\}$.
- A term t over Σ is a partial function

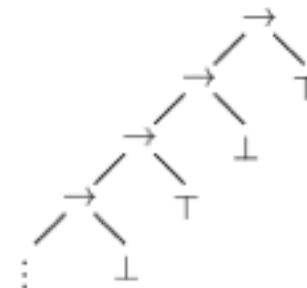
$$t : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \Sigma$$

- The domain $D(t)$ must satisfy:
 - $D(t)$ is non-empty and is prefix-closed.
 - if $t(\alpha) = \rightarrow$ then $\alpha 0, \alpha 1 \in D(t)$.



Types as functions (contd)

- Example.



- The term is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} t(0^n) &= \rightarrow \\ t(0^{2n}1) &= \top \\ t(0^{2n+1}1) &= \perp \end{aligned}$$

- A term t is finite if its domain $D(t)$ is a finite set – finite types
- A term t is regular if it has finitely many distinct *subterms* – recursive types.



Types as automata

If t is a term then following are equivalent:

- t is regular.
- t is representable by a term automata
- t is describable by a type expression involving μ .



Subtyping

- We want to denote that some types are more informative than other.
- We say $t_1 \leq t_2$ to indicate that every value described by t_1 is also described by t_2 .
- That is, if you have a function that needs a value of type t_2 , you can give safely pass a value of type t_1 .
- t_1 is a subtype of t_2 or t_2 is a super type of t_1 .
- Example: C++ and Java.
-

$$\text{subsumption} \frac{A \vdash e : t \quad t \leq t'}{A \vdash e : t'}$$



Rules for subtyping

-
- $(\text{reflexive}) \quad t \leq t$
- $\text{transitive} \frac{t_1 \leq t_2 \quad t_2 \leq t_3}{t_1 \leq t_3}$
- $\text{Arrow} \frac{t_1 \leq s_1 \quad s_2 \leq t_2}{s_1 \rightarrow s_2 \leq t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$

- The subtype relation is reversed (contravariant) for the argument types.
- The subtype relation in the result types - covariant.



Special types

- $(\text{Top}) \quad t \leq \top$
- \perp = Subtype of all the classes - undefined type.
 - $(\text{lambda } (x) \text{ (zero? } x) \text{ 4 (error \# msg))}$
- $t = \text{Int} \mid \perp \mid \top \mid t \rightarrow t \mid \nu \mu v. (t \rightarrow t)$



Subtyping algorithm for recursive types

- Roberto M Amadio. and Luca Cardelli. Subtyping recursive types. In ACM Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages, 1990. - self reading.
- Dexter Kozen, Jens Palsberg, and Michael I. Schwartzbach. Efficient recursive sub-typing. In ACM Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages, 1993.



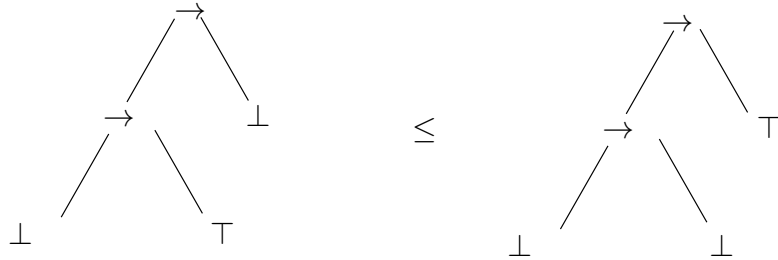
Parity

- The parity of $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^*$ is even - if α has even number of zeros.
- The parity of $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^*$ is odd - if α has odd number of zeros.
- Denote parity of α by $\pi\alpha = 0$ if even, 1 if odd.
- We will define two orders.
 - co-variant: $\perp \leq_0 \rightarrow \leq_0 \top$
 - contra-variant: $\top \leq_1 \rightarrow \leq_1 \perp$



Type ordering

- For two types s , and t , we define $s \leq t$, iff $s(\alpha) \leq_{\pi\alpha} t(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in D(s) \cap D(t)$.

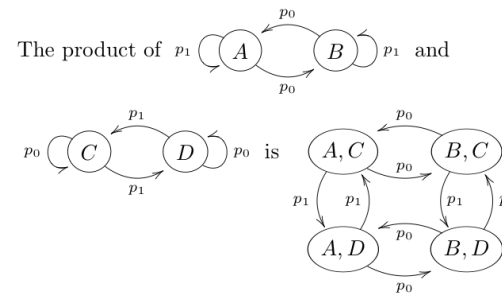


- A counter example to $s \leq t: \exists$ a path $\alpha \in D(s) \cap D(t)$, where $s(\alpha) \not\leq_{\pi\alpha} t(\alpha)$
 - Two trees are ordered if no common path detects a counter example.
- For finite types, we can compare all the paths (cost?) in the tree. For recursive types?



Recap product automata

- A product automata represents interaction between two finite state machines.



If we start from A, C and after the word w we are in the state A, D we know that w contains an even number of p_0 s and odd number of p_1 s

Slide from Thierry Coquand @ University of Gothenburg



Modified product automata

- Given two term automata M and N , we will construct a product automata – (non-deterministic?)

$$A = (\mathcal{Q}^A, \Sigma, q_0^A, \delta^A, F^A)$$

where

- $\mathcal{Q}^A = \mathcal{Q}^M \times \mathcal{Q}^N \times \{0, 1\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
- $q_0^A = (q_0^M, q_0^N, 0)$ – start state of A .
- $\delta^A : \mathcal{Q}^A \times \Sigma \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}^A$.

For $b, i \in \Sigma, p \in \mathcal{Q}^M$, and $q \in \mathcal{Q}^N$,
we have $\delta^A((p, q, b), i) = (\delta^M(p, i), \delta^N(q, i), b \oplus \pi i)$
($\oplus = \text{xor}$)

- Final states
 - Recall: $s \preceq t$ iff $\{\alpha \in D(s) \cap D(t) \mid s(\alpha) \preceq \pi \alpha t(\alpha)\}$
 - Goal: create an automata, where final states are denoted by states that will lead to \preceq .

$$F^A = \{(p, q, b) \mid l^M(p) \preceq_b l^N(q)\} - l \text{ gives the label of that node.}$$



Example 0

- $(\perp \rightarrow \top)$ and $(\top \rightarrow \perp) \not\preceq$
- $((\perp \rightarrow \top) \rightarrow (\perp))$ and $((\top \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow (\perp)) \preceq$



Decision procedure for subtyping

Input: Two types s, t .

Output: If $s \leq t$.

- Construct the term automata for s and t .
- Construct the product automaton $s \times t$. Size = ?
- Decide, using depth first search, if the product automaton accepts the nonempty set.
 - Does there exist a path from the start state to some final state?
- If yes, then $s \preceq t$. Else $s \not\preceq t$.

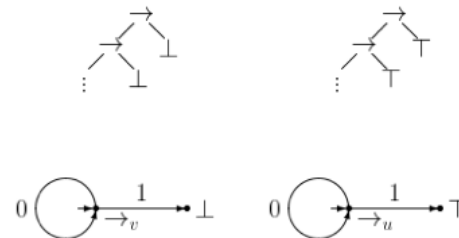
Compute the time complexity - $O(n^2)$



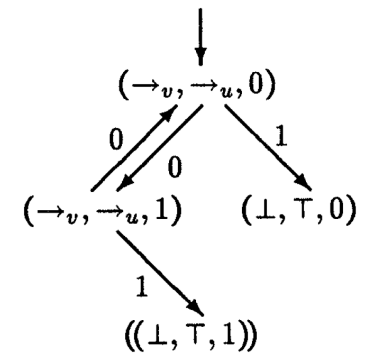
Example 1

- $\mu v.(v \rightarrow \perp)$ and $\mu u.(u \rightarrow \top)$

Term automata



Product automata



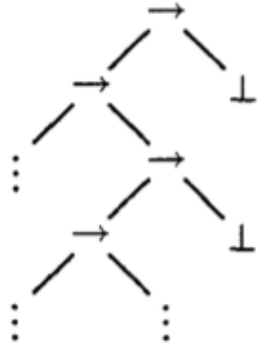
- Unreachable states**
 $((\rightarrow v, \top, 1)), (\rightarrow v, \top, 0), (\perp, \rightarrow u, 1), ((\perp, \rightarrow u, 0)),$
- $\mu v.(v \rightarrow \perp) \not\preceq \mu u.(u \rightarrow \top)$
Note: Some of the unreachable states are *(final)*



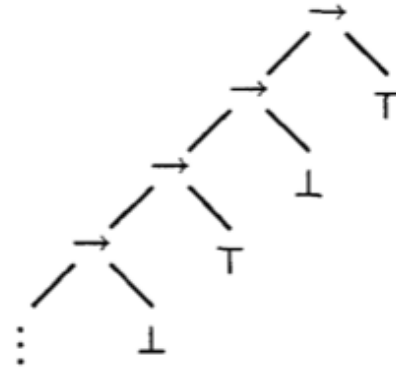
Example 2

- $\mu u.((u \rightarrow u) \rightarrow \perp)$ and $\mu v.((v \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow \top)$
- **Term automata**

$\mu u.((u \rightarrow u) \rightarrow \perp)$



$\mu v.((v \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow \top)$



- Product automata - derive. Ans: \leq .



Type inference

- Goal: Given a program with some types.
- Infer “consistent” types of all the expressions in the program.



First order unification

- Goal: To do type inference
- Given: A set of variables and literals and their possible types.
 - Remember: type = constraint.
- Target: Does the given set of constraints have a solution? And if so, what is the most general solution?
- Unification can be done in linear time: M. S. Paterson and M. N. Wegman, Linear Unification, Journal of Computer and System Sciences, 16:158167, 1978.
- We will instead present a simpler to understand, complex to run algorithm.



Definitions

- We will stick to simple type expressions generated from the grammar:

$$t ::= t \rightarrow t \mid \text{Int} \mid \alpha$$

where α ranges over type variables.

- Example:

$$((\text{Int} \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \beta)[\alpha := \text{Int}, \beta := (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int})] = (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int})$$

$$((\text{Int} \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \gamma)[\alpha := \text{Int}, \beta := (\text{Int} \rightarrow \alpha)] = (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \gamma$$

- We say given a set of type equations, we say a substitution σ is an *unifier or solution* if for each of the equation of the form $s = t$, $s\sigma = t\sigma$.
- Substitutions can be composed:

$$t(\sigma \circ \theta) = (t\sigma)\theta$$

- A substitution σ is called a most general solution of an equation set provided that for any other solution θ , there exists a substitution τ such that $\theta = \sigma \circ \tau$



Unification algorithm

Input: G : set of type equations (derived from a given program).

Output: Unification σ

- 1 failure = false; $\sigma = \{\}$.
- 2 while $G \neq \emptyset$ and \neg failure do
 - 1 Choose and remove an equation e from G . Say $e\sigma$ is $(s = t)$.
 - 2 If s and t are variables, or s and t are both `Int` then continue.
 - 3 If $s = s_1 \rightarrow s_2$ and $t = t_1 \rightarrow t_2$, then $G = G \cup \{s_1 = t_1, s_2 = t_2\}$.
 - 4 If $(s = \text{Int}$ and t is an arrow type) or vice versa then failure = true.
 - 5 If s is a variable that does not occur in t , then $\sigma = \sigma \circ [s := t]$.
 - 6 If t is a variable that does not occur in s , then $\sigma = \sigma \circ [t := s]$.
 - 7 If $s \neq t$ and either s is a variable that occurs in t or vice versa then failure = true.
- 3 end-while.
- 4 if (failure = true) then output "Does not type check". Else o/p σ .

Q: Composability helps?

Q: Cost?



Examples

$$\alpha = \beta \rightarrow \text{Int}$$
$$\beta = \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$$

$$\alpha = \text{Int} \rightarrow \beta$$
$$\beta = \alpha \rightarrow \text{Int}$$



Recap

- Structural subtyping
- Unification algorithm

