

# CSE 505: Concepts of Programming Languages

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Fall 2009

Lecture 12— More Subtyping; Parametric Polymorphism

## A Matter of Opinion?

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If subsumption makes well-typed terms get stuck, it is *wrong*.

We might allow less subsumption (for efficiency), but we shall not allow more than is sound.

But we have been discussing “subset semantics” in which  $e : \tau$  and  $\tau \leq \tau'$  means  $e$  is a  $\tau'$ .

- (There are “fewer” values of type  $\tau$  than of type  $\tau'$ , but not really.)

It is very tempting to go beyond this, but you must be very careful...

But first we need to emphasize a really nice property we had: *Types never affected run-time behavior.*

# Erasure

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I.e., A program type-checks or does not. If it does, it evaluates just like in the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus.

More formally, we have:

- Our language with types (e.g.,  $\lambda x : \tau. e$ ,  $\mathbf{A}_{\tau_1 + \tau_2}(e)$ , etc.) and a semantics
- Our language without types (e.g.,  $\lambda x. e$ ,  $\mathbf{A}(e)$ , etc.) and a different (but very similar) semantics
- An *erasure* metafunction from first language to second
- An equivalence theorem: Erasure commutes with evaluation.

This useful (for reasoning and efficiency) fact will be less obvious (but true) with parametric polymorphism.

# Coercion Semantics

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Wouldn't it be great if...

- $\text{int} \leq \text{float}$
- $\text{int} \leq \{l_1:\text{int}\}$
- $\tau \leq \text{string}$
- we could “overload the cast operator”

For these proposed  $\tau \leq \tau'$  relationships, we need a run-time action to turn a  $\tau$  into a  $\tau'$ . Called a coercion.

Programmers could use `float_of_int` and similar but they whine about it.

## Implementing Coercions

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If coercion  $C$  (e.g., `float_of_int`) “witnesses”  $\tau \leq \tau'$  (e.g.,  $\mathbf{int} \leq \mathbf{float}$ ), then we insert  $C$  when using  $\tau \leq \tau'$  with subsumption.

So our translation to the untyped semantics depends on where we use subsumption. So it is really from *typing derivations* to programs.

And typing derivations aren't unique (uh-oh).

Example 1: Suppose  $\mathbf{int} \leq \mathbf{float}$  and  $\tau \leq \mathbf{string}$ . Consider  
•  $\vdash \text{print\_string}(\mathbf{34}) : \mathbf{unit}$ .

Example 2: Suppose  $\mathbf{int} \leq \{l_1:\mathbf{int}\}$ . Consider  $\mathbf{34} == \mathbf{34}$ .  
(Where  $==$  is bit-equality on ints or pointers.)

# Coherence

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Coercions need to be *coherent*, meaning they don't have these problems. (More formally, programs are deterministic even though type checking is not—any typing derivation for  $e$  translates to an equivalent program.)

You can also make (complicated) rules about where subsumption occurs and which subtyping rules take precedence.

It's a mess. . .

# C++

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Semi-Example: Multiple inheritance a la C++.

```
class C2 {};  
class C3 {};  
class C1 : public C2, public C3 {};  
class D {  
    public: int f(class C2) { return 0; }  
           int f(class C3) { return 1; }  
};  
int main() { return D().f(C1()); }
```

Note: A compile-time error “ambiguous call”

Note: Same in Java with interfaces (“reference is ambiguous”)

## Where are we

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- “Subset” subtyping allows “upcasts”
- “Coercive subtyping” allows casts with run-time effect
- What about “downcasts”?

That is, should we have something like:

`if_hastype( $\tau, e_1$ ) then  $x.e_2$  else  $e_3$`

(Roughly, if at run-time  $e_1$  has type  $\tau$  (or a subtype), then bind it to  $x$  and evaluate  $e_2$ . Else evaluate  $e_3$ . Avoids having exceptions.)

# Downcasts

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I can't deny downcasts exist, but here are some bad things about them:

- Types don't erase – you need to represent  $\tau$  and  $e_1$ 's type at run-time. (Hidden data fields.)
- Breaks abstractions: Before, passing  $\{l_1 = 3, l_2 = 4\}$  to a function taking  $\{l_1 : \mathbf{int}\}$  hid the  $l_2$  field.
- Use ML-style datatypes – now programmer decides which data should have tags.
- Use parametric polymorphism – the right way to do container types (not downcasting results)

Now onto universally quantified types...

## The Goal

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Understand what this interface means and why it matters:

```
type 'a mylist;  
val mt_list : 'a mylist  
val cons    : 'a -> 'a mylist -> 'a mylist  
val decons  : 'a mylist -> (('a * 'a mylist) option)  
val length  : 'a mylist -> int  
val map     : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a mylist -> 'b mylist
```

From two perspectives:

1. Library: Implement code to this partial specification
2. Client: Use code written to this partial specification

## What The Client Likes

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1. Library is reusable. Can make:

- Different lists with elements of different types
- New reusable functions outside of library. Example:

```
val twocons : 'a -> 'a -> 'a mylist -> 'a mylist
```

2. Easier, faster, more reliable than subtyping (cf. Java 1.4 Vector)

- No downcast to write, run, maybe-fail

3. Library must “behave the same” *for all* “type instantiations” !!

- 'a and 'b held abstract from library functions
- E.g., with built-in lists: If `foo` has type `'a list -> int`, `foo [1;2;3]` and `foo [(5,4);(7,2);(9,2)]` are totally equivalent! (Never true with downcasts)
- In theory, means less (re)-integration testing
- Proof is beyond this course, but not much

# What the Library Likes

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1. Reusability — For same reasons client likes it
2. Abstraction of `mylist` from clients
  - Clients must “behave the same” *for all* equivalent implementations, even if “hidden definition” of `'a mylist` changes
  - Clients typechecked knowing only *there exists a type constructor* `mylist`
  - Unlike Java, C++, R5RS Scheme, no way to downcast a `t mylist` to, e.g., a `pair`

# Start simpler

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Our interface has a lot going on:

1. Element types *held abstract* from library
2. List type (constructor) *held abstract* from client
3. Reuse of type variables “makes connections” among expressions of abstract types
4. Lists need some form of recursive type
  - ST $\lambda$ C has no unbounded data structures (except functions)

Today just consider (1) and (3)

- First using a formal language with explicit type abstraction
- Then highlight differences with ML

Note: Much more interesting than “not getting stuck”

# Syntax

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$$e ::= c \mid x \mid \lambda x:\tau. e \mid e e \mid \Lambda \alpha. e \mid e[\tau]$$
$$\tau ::= \text{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau \mid \alpha \mid \forall \alpha. \tau$$
$$v ::= c \mid \lambda x:\tau. e \mid \Lambda \alpha. e$$
$$\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x:\tau$$
$$\Delta ::= \cdot \mid \Delta, \alpha$$

New:

- Type variables
- Types, terms, and contexts to know “what type variables are in scope” (much like we did for term variables)
- Type-applications to *instantiate* polymorphic expressions

## Informally speaking

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1.  $\Lambda\alpha. e$ : A value that when used runs  $e$  (with some type  $\tau$  for  $\alpha$ )
  - To type-check  $e$ , know  $\alpha$  is one type, but not *which* type
2.  $e[\tau]$ : Evaluate  $e$  to some  $\Lambda\alpha. e'$  and then run  $e'$ 
  - The choice of  $\tau$  is irrelevant at run-time
  - $\tau$  used for type-checking and proof of Preservation
3. Types can use type variables  $\alpha, \beta$ , etc., but only if they're *in scope* (just like term variables)
  - Type-checking will be  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  to know what type variables are in scope in  $e$
  - In a type with  $\forall\alpha. \tau$ , can also use  $\alpha$  in  $\tau$

## Semantics

Our evaluation judgment (e.g., small-step left-right  $e \rightarrow e'$ ) still looks the same. Just two new rules (note  $\Lambda\alpha. e$  a value):

$$\text{Old: } \frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e'_1 e_2} \quad \frac{e_2 \rightarrow e'_2}{v e_2 \rightarrow v e'_2} \quad \frac{}{(\lambda x:\tau. e) v \rightarrow e[v/x]}$$

$$\text{New: } \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{e[\tau] \rightarrow e'[\tau]} \quad \frac{}{(\Lambda\alpha. e)[\tau] \rightarrow e[\tau/\alpha]}$$

Plus now have 3 different kinds of substitution, all defined in straightforward capture-avoiding way:

- $e_1[e_2/x]$  (old)
- $e[\tau'/\alpha]$  (new)
- $\tau[\tau'/\alpha]$  (new)

## Example

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Example (using addition):

$(\Lambda\alpha. \Lambda\beta. \lambda x : \alpha. \lambda f : \alpha \rightarrow \beta. f x) [\text{int}] [\text{int}] \mathbf{3} (\lambda y : \text{int}. y + y)$

# Typing, part 1

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Mostly we just get picky about “no free type variables”:

- Typing judgment has the form  $\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau$   
(whole program  $\cdot; \cdot \vdash e : \tau$ )
  - Next slide
- Uses helper judgment  $\Delta \vdash \tau$ 
  - “all *free* type variables in  $\tau$  are in  $\Delta$ ”

$$\boxed{\Delta \vdash \tau}$$

$$\frac{\alpha \in \Delta}{\Delta \vdash \alpha} \quad \frac{}{\Delta \vdash \mathbf{int}} \quad \frac{\Delta \vdash \tau_1 \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_2}{\Delta \vdash \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2} \quad \frac{\Delta, \alpha \vdash \tau}{\Delta \vdash \forall \alpha. \tau}$$

Rules are boring, but trust me, allowing free type variables is a pernicious source of language/compiler bugs

## Typing, part 2

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Old (with one technical change to prevent free type variables):

$$\frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)} \qquad \frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash c : \mathbf{int}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma, x:\tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2 \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_1}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x:\tau_1. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_1 \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau_1}$$

New:

$$\frac{\Delta, \alpha; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \Lambda \alpha. e : \forall \alpha. \tau_1} \qquad \frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \tau_1 \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e[\tau_2] : \tau_1[\tau_2/\alpha]}$$

## Example

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Example (using addition):

$(\Lambda\alpha. \Lambda\beta. \lambda x : \alpha. \lambda f : \alpha \rightarrow \beta. f x) [\text{int}] [\text{int}] \mathbf{3} (\lambda y : \text{int}. y + y)$

# The Whole Language (called System F)

$$\begin{aligned}
 e & ::= c \mid x \mid \lambda x:\tau. e \mid e e \mid \Lambda \alpha. e \mid e[\tau] \\
 \tau & ::= \mathbf{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau \mid \alpha \mid \forall \alpha. \tau \\
 v & ::= c \mid \lambda x:\tau. e \mid \Lambda \alpha. e \\
 \Gamma & ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x:\tau \\
 \Delta & ::= \cdot \mid \Delta, \alpha
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{e e_2 \rightarrow e' e_2} \qquad \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{v e \rightarrow v e'} \qquad \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{e[\tau] \rightarrow e'[\tau]}$$

$$\frac{}{(\lambda x:\tau. e) v \rightarrow e[v/x]}$$

$$\frac{}{(\Lambda \alpha. e)[\tau] \rightarrow e[\tau/\alpha]}$$

$$\frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)}$$

$$\frac{}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash c : \mathbf{int}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma, x:\tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2 \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_1}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \lambda x:\tau_1. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta, \alpha; \Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash \Lambda \alpha. e : \forall \alpha. \tau_1}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_1 \quad \Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau_1}$$

$$\frac{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e : \forall \alpha. \tau_1 \quad \Delta \vdash \tau_2}{\Delta; \Gamma \vdash e[\tau_2] : \tau_1[\tau_2/\alpha]}$$

## Examples

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An overly simple polymorphic function...

Let  $\text{id} = \Lambda\alpha. \lambda x : \alpha. x$

- $\text{id}$  has type  $\forall\alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
- $\text{id} [\mathbf{int}]$  has type  $\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$
- $\text{id} [\mathbf{int} * \mathbf{int}]$  has type  $(\mathbf{int} * \mathbf{int}) \rightarrow (\mathbf{int} * \mathbf{int})$
- $(\text{id} [\forall\alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha]) \text{id}$  has type  $\forall\alpha. \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$

In ML you can't do the last one; in System F you can.

## More Examples

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Let  $\text{applyOld} = \Lambda\alpha. \Lambda\beta. \lambda x : \alpha. \lambda f : \alpha \rightarrow \beta. f x$

- $\text{applyOld}$  has type  $\forall\alpha. \forall\beta. \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \beta$
- $\cdot; x:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \vdash (\text{applyOld } [\text{int}][\text{int}] \text{ 3 } x) : \text{int}$

Let  $\text{applyNew} = \Lambda\alpha. \lambda x : \alpha. \Lambda\beta. \lambda f : \alpha \rightarrow \beta. f x$

- $\text{applyNew}$  has type  $\forall\alpha. \alpha \rightarrow (\forall\beta. (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \beta)$   
(impossible in ML)
- $\cdot; x:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{string}, y:\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int} \vdash$   
 $(\text{let } z = \text{applyNew } [\text{int}] \text{ in } z (\text{ 3 } [\text{int}] y) [\text{string}] x) : \text{string}$

Let  $\text{twice} = \Lambda\alpha. \lambda x : \alpha. \lambda f : \alpha \rightarrow \alpha. f (f x).$

- $\text{twice}$  has type  $\forall\alpha. \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$
- Cannot be made more polymorphic