

CSE-505: Programming Languages

Lecture 11 — STLC Extensions and Related Topics

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Review

$$\begin{array}{l} e ::= \lambda x. e \mid x \mid e e \mid c \\ v ::= \lambda x. e \mid c \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \tau ::= \mathbf{int} \mid \tau \rightarrow \tau \\ \Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : \tau \end{array}$$

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

$e[e'/x]$: capture-avoiding substitution of e' for free x in e

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash c : \mathbf{int}} \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)} \quad \frac{\Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

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

Preservation: If $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$ and $e \rightarrow e'$, then $\cdot \vdash e' : \tau$.

Progress: If $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$, then e is a value or $\exists e'$ such that $e \rightarrow e'$.

Adding Stuff

Time to use STLC as a foundation for understanding other common language constructs

We will add things via a *principled methodology* thanks to a *proper education*

- ▶ Extend the syntax
- ▶ Extend the operational semantics
 - ▶ Derived forms (syntactic sugar), or
 - ▶ Direct semantics
- ▶ Extend the type system
- ▶ Extend soundness proof (new stuck states, proof cases)

In fact, extensions that add new types have even more structure

Let bindings (CBV)

$e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{let } x = e_1 \mathbf{ in } e_2$

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{\mathbf{let } x = e_1 \mathbf{ in } e_2 \rightarrow \mathbf{let } x = e'_1 \mathbf{ in } e_2} \quad \frac{}{\mathbf{let } x = v \mathbf{ in } e \rightarrow e[v/x]}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau' \quad \Gamma, x : \tau' \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{let } x = e_1 \mathbf{ in } e_2 : \tau}$$

(Also need to extend definition of substitution...)

Progress: If e is a let, 1 of the 2 new rules apply (using induction)

Preservation: Uses Substitution Lemma

Substitution Lemma: Uses Weakening and Exchange

Derived forms

let seems just like λ , so can make it a derived form

- ▶ **let** $x = e_1$ **in** e_2 “a macro” / “desugars to” $(\lambda x. e_2) e_1$
- ▶ A “derived form”

(Harder if λ needs explicit type)

Or just define the semantics to replace let with λ :

$$\overline{\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \rightarrow (\lambda x. e_2) e_1}$$

These 3 semantics are *different* in the state-sequence sense
($e_1 \rightarrow e_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow e_n$)

- ▶ But (totally) *equivalent* and you could prove it (not hard)

Note: ML type-checks let and λ differently (later topic)

Note: Don't desugar early if it hurts error messages!

Booleans and Conditionals

$$\begin{array}{l} e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{true} \mid \mathbf{false} \mid \mathbf{if} \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3 \\ v ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{true} \mid \mathbf{false} \\ \tau ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{bool} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{\mathbf{if} \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3 \rightarrow \mathbf{if} \ e'_1 \ e_2 \ e_3}$$
$$\frac{}{\mathbf{if} \ \mathbf{true} \ e_2 \ e_3 \rightarrow e_2} \qquad \frac{}{\mathbf{if} \ \mathbf{false} \ e_2 \ e_3 \rightarrow e_3}$$
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathbf{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{if} \ e_1 \ e_2 \ e_3 : \tau}$$
$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{true} : \mathbf{bool}} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{false} : \mathbf{bool}}$$

Also extend definition of substitution (will stop writing that)...

Notes: CBN, new Canonical Forms case, all lemma cases easy

Pairs (CBV, left-right)

$$\begin{aligned} e & ::= \dots \mid (e, e) \mid e.1 \mid e.2 \\ v & ::= \dots \mid (v, v) \\ \tau & ::= \dots \mid \tau * \tau \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{(e_1, e_2) \rightarrow (e'_1, e_2)}$$

$$\frac{e_2 \rightarrow e'_2}{(v_1, e_2) \rightarrow (v_1, e'_2)}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{e.1 \rightarrow e'.1}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{e.2 \rightarrow e'.2}$$

$$\frac{}{(v_1, v_2).1 \rightarrow v_1}$$

$$\frac{}{(v_1, v_2).2 \rightarrow v_2}$$

Small-step can be a pain

- ▶ Large-step needs only 3 rules
- ▶ Will learn more concise notation later (evaluation contexts)

Pairs continued

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 * \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 * \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash e.1 : \tau_1}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 * \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash e.2 : \tau_2}$$

Canonical Forms: If $\cdot \vdash v : \tau_1 * \tau_2$, then v has the form (v_1, v_2)

Progress: New cases using Canonical Forms are $v.1$ and $v.2$

Preservation: For primitive reductions, inversion gives the result *directly*

Records

Records are like n -ary tuples except with *named fields*

- ▶ Field names are *not* variables; they do *not* α -convert

$$e ::= \dots \mid \{l_1 = e_1; \dots; l_n = e_n\} \mid e.l$$

$$v ::= \dots \mid \{l_1 = v_1; \dots; l_n = v_n\}$$

$$\tau ::= \dots \mid \{l_1 : \tau_1; \dots; l_n : \tau_n\}$$

$$\frac{e_i \rightarrow e'_i}{\{l_1 = v_1, \dots, l_{i-1} = v_{i-1}, l_i = e_i, \dots, l_n = e_n\} \rightarrow \{l_1 = v_1, \dots, l_{i-1} = v_{i-1}, l_i = e'_i, \dots, l_n = e_n\}} \quad \frac{e \rightarrow e'}{e.l \rightarrow e'.l}$$

$$\frac{1 \leq i \leq n}{\{l_1 = v_1, \dots, l_n = v_n\}.l_i \rightarrow v_i}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \dots \quad \Gamma \vdash e_n : \tau_n \quad \text{labels distinct}}{\Gamma \vdash \{l_1 = e_1, \dots, l_n = e_n\} : \{l_1 : \tau_1, \dots, l_n : \tau_n\}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \{l_1 : \tau_1, \dots, l_n : \tau_n\} \quad 1 \leq i \leq n}{\Gamma \vdash e.l_i : \tau_i}$$

Records continued

Should we be allowed to reorder fields?

- ▶ $\cdot \vdash \{l_1 = 42; l_2 = \mathbf{true}\} : \{l_2 : \mathbf{bool}; l_1 : \mathbf{int}\} ??$
- ▶ Really a question about, “when are two types equal?”

Nothing wrong with this from a type-safety perspective, yet many languages disallow it

- ▶ Reasons: Implementation efficiency, type inference

Return to this topic when we study *subtyping*

Sums

What about ML-style datatypes:

```
type t = A | B of int | C of int * t
```

1. Tagged variants (i.e., discriminated unions)
2. Recursive types
3. Type constructors (e.g., `type 'a mylist = ...`)
4. Named types

For now, just model (1) with (anonymous) sum types

- ▶ (2) is in a later lecture, (3) is straightforward, and (4) we'll discuss informally

Sums syntax and overview

$$\begin{aligned} e & ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{A}(e) \mid \mathbf{B}(e) \mid \text{match } e \text{ with } \mathbf{A}x. e \mid \mathbf{B}x. e \\ v & ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{A}(v) \mid \mathbf{B}(v) \\ \tau & ::= \dots \mid \tau_1 + \tau_2 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Only two constructors: **A** and **B**
- ▶ All values of any sum type built from these constructors
- ▶ So **A**(*e*) can have any sum type allowed by *e*'s type
- ▶ No need to declare sum types in advance
- ▶ Like functions, will “guess the type” in our rules

Sums operational semantics

$$\frac{}{\text{match } \mathbf{A}(v) \text{ with } \mathbf{A}x. e_1 \mid \mathbf{B}y. e_2 \rightarrow e_1[v/x]}$$

$$\frac{}{\text{match } \mathbf{B}(v) \text{ with } \mathbf{A}x. e_1 \mid \mathbf{B}y. e_2 \rightarrow e_2[v/y]}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{\mathbf{A}(e) \rightarrow \mathbf{A}(e')}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{\mathbf{B}(e) \rightarrow \mathbf{B}(e')}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{\text{match } e \text{ with } \mathbf{A}x. e_1 \mid \mathbf{B}y. e_2 \rightarrow \text{match } e' \text{ with } \mathbf{A}x. e_1 \mid \mathbf{B}y. e_2}$$

match has binding occurrences, just like pattern-matching

(Definition of substitution must avoid capture, just like functions)

What is going on

Feel free to think about *tagged values* in your head:

- ▶ A tagged value is a pair of:
 - ▶ A tag **A** or **B** (or 0 or 1 if you prefer)
 - ▶ The (underlying) value

- ▶ A match:
 - ▶ Checks the tag
 - ▶ Binds the variable to the (underlying) value

This much is just like OCaml and related to homework 2

Sums Typing Rules

Inference version (not trivial to infer; can require annotations)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{A}(e) : \tau_1 + \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{B}(e) : \tau_1 + \tau_2}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau_1 + \tau_2 \quad \Gamma, x:\tau_1 \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma, y:\tau_2 \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{match} \ e \ \mathbf{with} \ \mathbf{Ax.} \ e_1 \ | \ \mathbf{By.} \ e_2 : \tau}$$

Key ideas:

- ▶ For constructor-uses, “other side can be anything”
- ▶ For **match**, both sides need same type
 - ▶ Don't know which branch will be taken, just like an **if**.
 - ▶ In fact, can drop explicit booleans and encode with sums:
E.g., **bool** = **int** + **int**, **true** = **A(0)**, **false** = **B(0)**

Sums Type Safety

Canonical Forms: If $\cdot \vdash v : \tau_1 + \tau_2$, then there exists a v_1 such that either v is $\mathbf{A}(v_1)$ and $\cdot \vdash v_1 : \tau_1$ or v is $\mathbf{B}(v_1)$ and $\cdot \vdash v_1 : \tau_2$

- ▶ Progress for **match** v with $\mathbf{A}x. e_1 \mid \mathbf{B}y. e_2$ follows, as usual, from Canonical Forms
- ▶ Preservation for **match** v with $\mathbf{A}x. e_1 \mid \mathbf{B}y. e_2$ follows from the type of the underlying value and the Substitution Lemma
- ▶ The Substitution Lemma has new “hard” cases because we have new binding occurrences
- ▶ But that’s all there is to it (plus lots of induction)

What are sums for?

- ▶ Pairs, structs, records, aggregates are fundamental data-builders
- ▶ Sums are just as fundamental: “this or that not both”
- ▶ You have seen how OCaml does sums (datatypes)
- ▶ Worth showing how C and Java do the same thing
 - ▶ A primitive in one language is an idiom in another

Sums in C

```
type t = A of t1 | B of t2 | C of t3
match e with A x -> ...
```

One way in C:

```
struct t {
    enum {A, B, C}          tag;
    union {t1 a; t2 b; t3 c;} data;
};
... switch(e->tag){ case A: t1 x=e->data.a; ...
```

- ▶ No static checking that tag is obeyed
- ▶ As fat as the fattest variant (avoidable with casts)
 - ▶ Mutation costs us again!

Sums in Java

```
type t = A of t1 | B of t2 | C of t3
match e with A x -> ...
```

One way in Java (t4 is the match-expression's type):

```
abstract class t {abstract t4 m();}
class A extends t { t1 x; t4 m(){...}}
class B extends t { t2 x; t4 m(){...}}
class C extends t { t3 x; t4 m(){...}}
... e.m() ...
```

- ▶ A new method in t and subclasses for each match expression
- ▶ Supports extensibility via new variants (subclasses) instead of extensibility via new operations (**match** expressions)

Pairs vs. Sums

You need both in your language

- ▶ With only pairs, you clumsily use dummy values, waste space, and rely on unchecked tagging conventions
- ▶ Example: replace $\mathbf{int} + (\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int})$ with $\mathbf{int} * (\mathbf{int} * (\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}))$

Pairs and sums are “logical duals” (more on that later)

- ▶ To make a $\tau_1 * \tau_2$ you need a τ_1 *and* a τ_2
- ▶ To make a $\tau_1 + \tau_2$ you need a τ_1 *or* a τ_2
- ▶ Given a $\tau_1 * \tau_2$, you can get a τ_1 or a τ_2 (or both; your “choice”)
- ▶ Given a $\tau_1 + \tau_2$, you must be prepared for either a τ_1 or τ_2 (the value’s “choice”)

Base Types and Primitives, in general

What about floats, strings, ...?

Could add them all or do something more general...

Parameterize our language/semantics by a collection of *base types* (b_1, \dots, b_n) and *primitives* $(p_1 : \tau_1, \dots, p_n : \tau_n)$. Examples:

- ▶ `concat` : `string`→`string`→`string`
- ▶ `toInt` : `float`→`int`
- ▶ `"hello"` : `string`

For each primitive, *assume* if applied to values of the right types it produces a value of the right type

Together the types and assumed steps tell us how to type-check and evaluate $p_i v_1 \dots v_n$ where p_i is a primitive

We can prove soundness *once and for all* given the assumptions

Recursion

We won't prove it, but every extension so far preserves termination

A Turing-complete language needs some sort of loop, but our lambda-calculus encoding won't type-check, nor will any encoding of equal expressive power

- ▶ So instead add an explicit construct for recursion
- ▶ You might be thinking **let rec** $f\ x = e$, but we will do something more concise and general but less intuitive

Recursion

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A Turing-complete language needs some sort of loop, but our lambda-calculus encoding won't type-check, nor will any encoding of equal expressive power

- ▶ So instead add an explicit construct for recursion
- ▶ You might be thinking **let rec** $f\ x = e$, but we will do something more concise and general but less intuitive

$$e ::= \dots \mid \mathbf{fix}\ e$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow e'}{\mathbf{fix}\ e \rightarrow \mathbf{fix}\ e'} \qquad \frac{}{\mathbf{fix}\ \lambda x. e \rightarrow e[\mathbf{fix}\ \lambda x. e/x]}$$

No new values and no new types

Using fix

To use **fix** like **let rec**, just pass it a two-argument function where the first argument is for recursion

- ▶ Not shown: **fix** and tuples can also encode mutual recursion

Example:

```
(fix λf. λn. if (n < 1) 1 (n * (f (n - 1)))) 5
```


Using fix

To use **fix** like **let rec**, just pass it a two-argument function where the first argument is for recursion

- ▶ Not shown: **fix** and tuples can also encode mutual recursion

Example:

$(\mathbf{fix} \lambda f. \lambda n. \mathbf{if} (n < 1) \mathbf{1} (n * (f(n - 1)))) \mathbf{5}$

→

$(\lambda n. \mathbf{if} (n < 1) \mathbf{1} (n * ((\mathbf{fix} \lambda f. \lambda n. \mathbf{if} (n < 1) \mathbf{1} (n * (f(n - 1))))(n - 1)))) \mathbf{5}$

Using fix

To use **fix** like **let rec**, just pass it a two-argument function where the first argument is for recursion

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Example:

$(\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1)))) \ 5$

→

$(\lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(n - 1)))) \ 5$

→

$\mathbf{if} \ (5 < 1) \ 1 \ (5 * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(5 - 1)))$

Using fix

To use **fix** like **let rec**, just pass it a two-argument function where the first argument is for recursion

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Example:

$(\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1)))) \ 5$

\rightarrow

$(\lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(n - 1)))) \ 5$

\rightarrow

$\mathbf{if} \ (5 < 1) \ 1 \ (5 * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(5 - 1))$

\rightarrow^2

$5 * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(5 - 1))$

Using fix

To use **fix** like **let rec**, just pass it a two-argument function where the first argument is for recursion

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Example:

$$(\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1)))) \ 5$$

→

$$(\lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(n - 1)))) \ 5$$

→

$$\mathbf{if} \ (5 < 1) \ 1 \ (5 * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(5 - 1)))$$

→²

$$5 * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(5 - 1))$$

→²

$$5 * ((\lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * ((\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda f. \ \lambda n. \ \mathbf{if} \ (n < 1) \ 1 \ (n * (f(n - 1))))(n - 1)))) \ 4)$$

→

...

Why called fix?

In math, a fix-point of a function g is an x such that $g(x) = x$

- ▶ This makes sense only if g has type $\tau \rightarrow \tau$ for some τ
- ▶ A particular g could have have 0, 1, 39, or infinity fix-points
- ▶ Examples for functions of type **int** \rightarrow **int**:
 - ▶ $\lambda x. x + 1$ has no fix-points
 - ▶ $\lambda x. x * 0$ has one fix-point
 - ▶ $\lambda x. \text{absolute_value}(x)$ has an infinite number of fix-points
 - ▶ $\lambda x. \text{if } (x < 10 \ \&\& \ x > 0) \ x \ 0$ has 10 fix-points

Higher types

At higher types like $(\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}) \rightarrow (\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int})$, the notion of fix-point is exactly the same (but harder to think about)

- ▶ For what inputs f of type $\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$ is $g(f) = f$

Examples:

- ▶ $\lambda f. \lambda x. (f\ x) + 1$ has no fix-points
- ▶ $\lambda f. \lambda x. (f\ x) * 0$ (or just $\lambda f. \lambda x. 0$) has 1 fix-point
 - ▶ The function that always returns 0
 - ▶ In math, there is exactly one such function (cf. equivalence)
- ▶ $\lambda f. \lambda x. \text{absolute_value}(f\ x)$ has an infinite number of fix-points: Any function that never returns a negative result

Back to factorial

Now, what are the fix-points of
 $\lambda f. \lambda x. \text{if } (x < 1) 1 (x * (f(x - 1)))$?

It turns out there is exactly one (in math): the factorial function!

And **fix** $\lambda f. \lambda x. \text{if } (x < 1) 1 (x * (f(x - 1)))$ behaves just like the factorial function

- ▶ That is, it behaves just like the fix-point of
 $\lambda f. \lambda x. \text{if } (x < 1) 1 (x * (f(x - 1)))$
- ▶ In general, **fix** takes a function-taking-function and returns its fix-point

(This isn't necessarily important, but it explains the terminology and shows that programming is deeply connected to mathematics)

Typing **fix**

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \rightarrow \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fix} \ e : \tau}$$

Math explanation: If e is a function from τ to τ , then **fix** e , the fixed-point of e , is some τ with the fixed-point property

- ▶ So it's something with type τ

Operational explanation: **fix** $\lambda x. e'$ becomes $e'[\mathbf{fix} \ \lambda x. e' / x]$

- ▶ The substitution means x and **fix** $\lambda x. e'$ need the same type
- ▶ The result means e' and **fix** $\lambda x. e'$ need the same type

Note: The τ in the typing rule is usually instantiated with a function type

- ▶ e.g., $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$, so e has type $(\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2) \rightarrow (\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2)$

Note: Proving soundness is straightforward!

General approach

We added `let`, booleans, pairs, records, sums, and `fix`

- ▶ **let** was syntactic sugar
- ▶ **fix** made us Turing-complete by “baking in” self-application
- ▶ The others *added types*

Whenever we add a new form of type τ there are:

- ▶ Introduction forms (ways to make values of type τ)
- ▶ Elimination forms (ways to use values of type τ)

What are these forms for functions? Pairs? Sums?

When you add a new type, think “what are the intro and elim forms”?

Anonymity

We added many forms of types, all *unnamed* a.k.a. *structural*.

Many real PLs have (all or mostly) *named* types:

- ▶ Java, C, C++: all record types (or similar) have names
 - ▶ Omitting them just means compiler makes up a name
- ▶ OCaml sum types and record types have names

A never-ending debate:

- ▶ Structural types allow more code reuse: good
- ▶ Named types allow less code reuse: good
- ▶ Structural types allow generic type-based code: good
- ▶ Named types let type-based code distinguish names: good

The theory is often easier and simpler with structural types

Termination

Surprising fact: If $\cdot \vdash e : \tau$ in STLC with all our additions *except* **fix**, then there exists a v such that $e \rightarrow^* v$

- ▶ That is, all programs terminate

So termination is trivially decidable (the constant “yes” function), so our language is not Turing-complete

The proof requires more advanced techniques than we have learned so far because the size of expressions and typing derivations does not decrease with each program step

- ▶ Could present it in about an hour if desired

Non-proof:

- ▶ Recursion in λ calculus requires some sort of self-application
- ▶ Easy fact: For all Γ , x , and τ , we *cannot* derive $\Gamma \vdash x x : \tau$