

Chapter 3: The Logic of Types

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Tuples with names, or “case classes”

- Pair of values: `val a: (Int, String) = (123, "xyz")`
- For *convenience*, we can define a name for this type:
`type MyPair = (Int, String); val a: MyPair = (123, "xyz")`
- We can define a name for each value and also for the type:
`case class MySocks(size: Double, color: String)
val a: MySocks = MySocks(10.5, "white")`
- Case classes can be nested:
`case class BagOfSocks(socks: MySocks, count: Int)
val bag = BagOfSocks(MySocks(10.5, "white"), 6)`
- Parts of the case class can be accessed by name:
`val c: String = bag.socks.color`
- Parts can be given in any order by using names:
`val y = MySocks(color = "black", size = 11.0)`
- Default values can be defined for parts:
`case class Shirt(color: String = "blue", hasHoles: Boolean = false)
val sock = Shirt(hasHoles = true)`

Tuples with one element and with zero elements

- A tuple type expression `(Int, String)` is special syntax for parameterized type `Tuple2[Int, String]`
- Case class with no parts is called a “case object”
- What are tuples with one element or with zero elements?
 - ▶ There is no `Tuple0` – it is a special type called `Unit`

Tuples	Case classes
<code>(123, "xyz"): Tuple2[Int, String]</code>	<code>case class A(x: Int, y: String)</code>
<code>(123,): Tuple1[Int]</code>	<code>case class B(z: Int)</code>
<code>(): Unit</code>	<code>case object C</code>

- Case classes can have one or more type parameters:
`case class Pairs[A, B](left: A, right: B, count: Int)`
- The “`Tuple`” types could be defined by this code:
`case class Tuple2[A, B](_1: A, _2: B)`

Pattern-matching syntax for case classes

Scala allows pattern matching in two places:

- `val pattern = ...` (value assignment)
- `case pattern ⇒ ...` (partial function)

Examples with case classes:

- ```
val a = MySocks(10.5, "white")
val MySocks(x, y) = a
```
- ```
val f: BagOfSocks⇒Int = { case BagOfSocks(MySocks(s, c), z)⇒...}
```
- ```
def f(b: BagOfSocks): String = b match {
 case BagOfSocks(MySocks(s, c), z) ⇒ c
}
```
- Note: `s`, `c`, `z` are defined as **pattern variables** of correct types

# Disjunction type: Either[A, B]

Example: `Either[String, Int]` (may be used for error reporting)

- Represents a value that is *either* a `String` or an `Int` (but not both)
- Example values: `Left("blah")` or `Right(123)`
- Use pattern matching to distinguish “left” from “right”:

```
def logError(x: Either[String, Int]): Int = x match {
 case Left(error) ⇒ println(s"Got error: $error"); -1
 case Right(res) ⇒ res
} // Left("blah") and Right(123) are possible values of type Either[String, Int]
```

- Now `logError(Right(123))` returns `123` while `logError(Left("bad result"))` prints the error and returns `-1`
- The `case` expression chooses among possible values of a given type
  - ▶ Note the similarity with this code:

```
def f(x: Int): Int = x match {
 case 0 ⇒ println(s"error: must be nonzero"); -1
 case 1 ⇒ println(s"error: must be greater than 1"); -1
 case res ⇒ res
} // 0 and 1 are possible values of type Int
```

# More general disjunction types: using case classes

A future version of Scala 3 has a short syntax for disjunction types:

- `type MyIntOrStr = Int | String`
- more generally, `type MyType = List[Int] | (Int, Boolean) | MySocks`

For now, in Scala 2, we use the “long syntax”:

```
sealed trait MyType
case class HaveListInt(x: List[Int]) extends MyType
case class HaveIntBool(s: Int, b: Boolean) extends MyType
case class HaveSocks(socks: MySocks) extends MyType
```

Pattern-matching example:

```
val x: MyType = ???
x match {
 case HaveListInt(lst) => ...
 case HaveIntBool(p, q) => ...
 case HaveSocks(s) => ...
}
```

# Types and propositional logic

## The Curry-Howard correspondence

This code: `val x: SomeTypeBlah = ...` means that we can compute a value of type `SomeTypeBlah` as part of our program

- Let's denote this *proposition* by  $\mathcal{CH}(T)$  – “Code Has a value of type `T`”
- We have the following correspondence:

| Type                                      | Proposition                                 | Short notation    |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-------------------|
| <code>T</code>                            | $\mathcal{CH}(T)$                           | $T$               |
| <code>(A, B)</code>                       | $\mathcal{CH}(A)$ and $\mathcal{CH}(B)$     | $A \& B$          |
| <code>Either[A, B]</code>                 | $\mathcal{CH}(A)$ or $\mathcal{CH}(B)$      | $A \mid B$        |
| <code>A <math>\Rightarrow</math> B</code> | $\mathcal{CH}(A)$ implies $\mathcal{CH}(B)$ | $A \Rightarrow B$ |
| <code>Unit</code>                         | <i>true</i>                                 | 1                 |
| <code>Nothing</code>                      | <i>false</i>                                | 0                 |

- type parameter `[T]` means  $\forall T$ , for example the type of the function  
`def dupl[A](x: A): (A, A)` corresponds to the (valid) proposition:

$\forall A : \mathcal{CH}(A) \text{ implies } (\mathcal{CH}(A) \text{ and } \mathcal{CH}(A))$

# Working with the CH correspondence

- What problems can we solve now?



# Working with the CH correspondence

## Implications for programming language design

- The CH correspondence maps the type system of each programming language into a certain system of logical propositions
- Scala, Haskell, OCaml, F#, Swift, Rust, etc. are mapped into the full constructive logic (all logical operations are available)
  - ▶ C, C++, Java, C#, etc. are mapped to *incomplete* logics – without “or” and without “true”
  - ▶ Python, JavaScript, Ruby, Clojure, etc. have only one type (“any value”) and are mapped to logics with only one proposition
- The CH correspondence is a principle for designing type systems:
  - ▶ Choose a complete logic, free of inconsistency
    - ★ Mathematicians have studied all kinds of logics and determined which ones are interesting, and found the minimal sets of axioms for them
  - ▶ Provide a type constructor for each basic operation (e.g. “or”, “and”)

# Working with the CH correspondence

- What problems can we solve now?

# Summary

- What problems can we solve now?

# Exercises

- 1 Define a function of type `Seq[Double] => Seq[Double]` that “normalizes” the sequence: it finds the element having the max. absolute value and, if that value is nonzero, divides all elements by that factor.
- 2 Define a function of type `Seq[Seq[Int]] => Seq[Seq[Int]]` that adds 20 to every element of every inner sequence.
- 3 An integer  $n$  is called “3-factor” if it is divisible by only three different integers  $j$  such that  $2 \leq j < n$ . Compute the set of all “3-factor” integers  $n$  among  $n \in [1, \dots, 1000]$ .
- 4 Given a function  $f$  of type `Int => Boolean`, an integer  $n$  is called “3- $f$ ” if there are only three different integers  $j \in [1, \dots, n]$  such that  $f(j)$  returns `true`. Define a function that takes  $f$  as an argument and returns a sequence of all “3- $f$ ” integers among  $n \in [1, \dots, 1000]$ . What is the type of that function? Rewrite Exercise 3 using that function.
- 5 Define a function that takes two functions  $f: \text{Int} \Rightarrow \text{Double}$  and  $g: \text{Double} \Rightarrow \text{String}$  as arguments, and returns a new function that computes the functional composition of  $f$  and  $g$ .