

Adding Polymorphism and Exceptions

YSC3208: Programming Language Design & Implementation

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- 1 Polymorphism
- 2 Type Inference
- 3 Exception Handling
- 4 Denotational Semantics of simPL1

Generic Code

- Generic code allow code to be reused in a wide range of scenarios.
- Examples:
 - `fun {...} x -> x end`
 - `fun {...} x y -> x end`
 - `fun {...} f x -> f x end`
- What types should they take?

Use Monomorphic Typing

- In monomorphic type, each type denotes only a *particular* type. Thus, when writing generic code, we have to duplicate its codes.
- An example is the identity function:
 - In case of Int :


```
fun {Int->Int} x -> x end
```
 - In case of Bool :


```
fun {Bool->Bool} x -> x end
```
 - In case of function Int->Bool :


```
fun {((Int->Bool)->(Int->Bool))} x -> x end
```
- Problem : Monomorphic type causes code duplication!

Use Dynamic Typing

- One solution : “Drop types altogether”.
- Similar to having a type, called Any, and having: $\forall t \cdot t <: \text{Any}$.
- Thus, earlier identity function could now be written as:

```
fun {Any} x -> x end
```
- Similarly, two other polymorphic examples are:
 - ```
fun {Any} x y -> x end
```
  - ```
fun {Any} f x -> f x end
```
- Problem : Errors due to types no longer detected!

Use Dynamic Typing

- Examples of codes with type errors.
- `((fun {Any} x -> x end) true) > 4`
This is equivalent to `true > 4` which is ill-typed since boolean and integer values are incomparable.
- `((fun {Any} f x -> f x end) 1 2)`
This is equivalent to `(1 2)` which is ill-typed since 1 is not a function.

Use Dynamic Typing

- Slight improvement.
 - `fun {Any->Any} x -> x end`
 - `fun {Any->Any->Any} x y -> x end`
 - `fun {(Any->Any)->Any->Any} f x -> f x end`
- This typing can reject:


```
((fun {(Any->Any)->Any->Any} f x -> f x end) 1 2)
```
- But not `((fun {Any} x -> x end) true) > 4`

Use Polymorphic Typing

- A better solution is to introduce type variables 'a,'b.
- Write codes with polymorphic types:
 - `fun {'a->'a} x -> x end`
 - `fun {'a->'b->'a} x y -> x end`
 - `fun {('a->'b)->'a->'b} f x -> f x end`
- Benefit : Can reject ill-typed codes.
- Question : What exactly is polymorphic type?
- Challenge : Can we infer polymorphic types automatically?

Universally Quantified Types

- Polymorphic types are essentially universally quantified types.
- By default, we assume outermost quantification. Thus:
- $(\text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'a})$ denotes $(\text{forall } \text{'a}. \text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'a})$
- $(\text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'b} \rightarrow \text{'a})$ denotes $(\text{forall } \text{'a}, \text{'b}. \text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'b} \rightarrow \text{'a})$
- $(\text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'b}) \rightarrow \text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'b}$ denotes $(\text{forall } \text{'a}, \text{'b}. (\text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'b}) \rightarrow \text{'a} \rightarrow \text{'b})$
- This default quantification is referred to as *rank-1 polymorphism*.
- *Rank-0 polymorphism* does not have any quantifiers.
- Types with quantifiers inside arguments are referred to as *higher-ranked types*.

Limits of Rank-1 Polymorphism

- Some examples cannot be handled by Rank-1 polymorphism.

An example is:

```
(fun {..} id -> if id false then 3 else id 4 end end)
```

- Type-checking fails if we use:
(forall 'a. ('a->'a)->Int).
- Reason : Since id is used at two locations with different types, it needs to be polymorphic.

Rank-2 Polymorphism

- One solution is to use rank-2 polymorphism of the form:
 $((\text{forall } 'a. 'a \rightarrow 'a) \rightarrow \text{Int})$, where the quantifier appears in some parameter position, rather than just outermost.

- Using rank-2 type for example below:

```
(fun {(forall 'a. 'a->'a)->Int} id ->
  if id false then 3 else id 4 end end)
```

would allow the function-type parameter `id` to have different types at each of its two locations.

Let Polymorphism

- A simpler solution is to support polymorphism at just `let` construct.
- Assuming that argument of `id` is available, we can re-write the code to:


```
let id = fun {forall 'a. 'a -> 'a} x -> x end
in if id false then 3 else id 4 end
```
- Here, each `let`-bound variable is *universally quantified*, and could thus be given different types.
- Most strongly typed languages introduce polymorphism here.

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Type Rules

- Type Inference for Rank-1 Let Polymorphism is decidable.
- Type Checking for Rank-2 Polymorphism is decidable.
- Complete inference on higher-ranked types is undecidable, but a mix of annotation and inference is possible.
- Type rules may be used for checking and/or inference.
- Type rules of form: $\Gamma \vdash e : t$

Type Rules (Syntax-Directed)

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}} [\text{Bool}_1] \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}} [\text{Bool}_2]$$
$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}} [\text{Int}] \quad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \Gamma(x)} [\text{Var}]$$

Type Rules (Syntax-Directed)

$$\frac{\Gamma[x \mapsto t_1] \vdash e : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } \{.\} x \rightarrow e \text{ end} : t_1 \rightarrow t_2} [Fun]$$

$$\frac{\Gamma[x \mapsto t_1][f \mapsto t_1 \rightarrow t_2] \vdash e : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{recfun } \{.\} f x \rightarrow e \text{ end} : t_1 \rightarrow t_2} [RecFun]$$

Type Rules (Syntax-Directed)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : t_1}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : t_2} [Appln]$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t_1 \quad \Gamma[x \mapsto t_1] \vdash e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \text{ end} : t_2} [Let]$$

Type Rules (Structural)

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{forall } 'a \cdot t \quad \text{fresh } 'b}{\Gamma \vdash e : ['a \mapsto 'b]t} [Inst]$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : t \quad 'a \notin fv(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{forall } 'a \cdot t} [Gen]$$

Type Inference

Invented by Hindley-Milner.

Three key observations:

- 1 When should we perform the structural rules?
 - Introduce polymorphism at Let-construct
 - Instantiate at each variable occurrence
- 2 Use a fresh type variable if we are unsure of the type of some given subexpression.
- 3 Use unification as constraint-solving.

Inference Scheme

General Form:

$$\Gamma \vdash e \Longrightarrow t; \phi$$

Expression e under type environment Γ can be inferred to have type t that is valid under equational constraint ϕ .

An Example

$$\Gamma[y \mapsto \text{int}] \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \ y \ \text{end} \Longrightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b; \ 'a = (\text{int} \rightarrow 'b)$$

Equational constraint allow us to conclude final type is
 $(\text{int} \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'b$

Inference Rules

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{true} \Longrightarrow \text{bool}; \text{true}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{false} \Longrightarrow \text{bool}; \text{true}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash n \Longrightarrow \text{int}; \text{true}$$

$$t = \Gamma(x) \quad \text{inst}(t) \searrow t_2$$

$$\Gamma \vdash x \Longrightarrow t_2; \text{true}$$

Inference Rules

$$\text{fresh } 'a \quad \Gamma[x \mapsto 'a] \vdash e \Longrightarrow t; \phi$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } \{.\} x \rightarrow e \text{ end} \Longrightarrow 'a \rightarrow t; \phi$$

$$\text{fresh } 'a, 'f \quad \Gamma[x \mapsto 'a][f \mapsto 'f] \vdash e \Longrightarrow t_2; \phi$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{recfun } \{.\} f x \rightarrow e \text{ end} \Longrightarrow 'a \rightarrow t_2; \phi \wedge ('f \sqcup 'a \rightarrow t_2)$$

Inference Rules

$$\Gamma \vdash e_1 \Longrightarrow t_1; \phi_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 \Longrightarrow t_2; \phi_2 \quad \text{fresh } 'a$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ e_2 \Longrightarrow 'a; \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge (t_1 \sqcup t_2 \rightarrow 'a)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash e_1 \Longrightarrow t_1; \phi_1 \quad \text{gen}(\Gamma, t_1) \nearrow t_3 \quad \Gamma[x \mapsto t_3] \vdash e_2 \Longrightarrow t_2; \phi_2$$

$$\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \text{ end} \Longrightarrow t_2; \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$$

Inference Rules (Instantiation)

$$\frac{\text{fresh } 'b_1 \dots 'b_n}{\text{inst}(\text{forall } 'a_1 \dots 'a_n \cdot t) \searrow ['a_1 \mapsto 'b_1 \dots 'a_n \mapsto 'b_n] t}$$

An Example:

$$\frac{\text{fresh } 'n_1, 'n_2}{\text{inst}(\text{forall } 'a, 'b \cdot ('a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b) \searrow ('n_1 \rightarrow 'n_2) \rightarrow 'n_1 \rightarrow 'n_2}$$

Inference Rules (Generalization)

$$\{ 'a_1 \dots 'a_n \} = fvars(t) - fvars(\Gamma)$$

$$gen(\Gamma, t) \nearrow \text{forall } 'a_1 \dots 'a_n . t$$

Unification

- We use *unification* to solve equational constraints.
- Given two types t_1 and t_2 , we say that the two types can be *unified* if they can be made equal via a substitution ρ such that $\rho t_1 = \rho t_2$. This substitution is often referred to as a *unifier* of the two types.
- For example, given $t_1 = (\text{int} \rightarrow 'b)$ and $t_2 = ('a \rightarrow 'c)$, they can be unified since we have a substitution $\rho = ['a \mapsto \text{int}, 'b \mapsto 'c]$ to make them equal, as follows:
 $\rho t_1 = \rho t_2 = (\text{int} \rightarrow 'c)$.

Most General Unifier

- A unifier between two types, t_1 and t_2 , is said to be the *most general unifier* (mgu) if all other unifiers are special instances of this one.
- A unifier ρ is said to be a special instance of ρ_g if there exists a substitution λ , such that $\rho = \rho_g \circ \lambda$.
- Example: $[a \mapsto \text{int}, b \mapsto c, c \mapsto \text{int}]$ is a special instance of $[a \mapsto \text{int}, b \mapsto c]$

Unification Scheme

- We introduce the following unification scheme

$$\phi \Longrightarrow \rho$$

where ϕ denotes $t_{1a} \sqcup t_{1b} \wedge \dots \wedge t_{na} \sqcup t_{nb}$.

- ρ is either the most general unifier or it is \perp when unification fails.
- Some simple examples:

$$\text{int} \sqcup \text{bool} \Longrightarrow \perp$$

$$\text{int} \sqcup \text{int} \Longrightarrow []$$

$$\text{int} \sqcup 'a \Longrightarrow ['a \mapsto \text{int}]$$

Unification

$$\frac{\phi \Longrightarrow \rho}{\phi \wedge t \sqcup t \Longrightarrow \rho} [U-EQ]$$

$$\frac{\phi \wedge t_1 \sqcup t_3 \wedge t_2 \sqcup t_4 \Longrightarrow \rho}{\phi \wedge t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \sqcup t_3 \rightarrow t_4 \Longrightarrow \rho} [U-ARR]$$

Unification

$$\frac{\phi \wedge 'a \sqcup t \Longrightarrow \rho}{\phi \wedge t \sqcup 'a \Longrightarrow \rho} [U-COMM]$$

$$\frac{'a \not\sqsubset t \quad \rho_1 = ['a \mapsto t] \quad \rho_1 \phi \Longrightarrow \rho}{\phi \wedge 'a \sqcup t \Longrightarrow \rho \rho_1} [U-SUBS]$$

Unification

$$\frac{t_1 \neq t_2}{\phi \wedge t_1 \sqcup t_2 \Rightarrow \perp} [U-NE]$$

$$\frac{'a \in t \quad 'a \neq t}{\phi \wedge 'a \sqcup t \Rightarrow \perp} [U-INF]$$

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 - Motivation
 - Syntax of Exception Handling
 - Built-in Exceptions
 - Programmer-defined Exceptions
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Motivation

Errors arise from

- Division by zero
- Failure to meet safety pre-condition
- Failure to find needed data structure (see later)
- ...

Handling Exceptions

```
try
  (evaluate input)
catch n with
  if n = 1
  then (evaluate (readNewUserInput))
  else ..
  end
end
```

For simplicity, we use exceptions that are distinguished by integer values, e.g. `throw 1` will raise the exception $\perp(1)$.

Syntax of Exception Handling

$$E_1 \quad E_2$$

$$\text{try } E_1 \text{ catch } n \text{ with } E_2 \text{ end}$$

Built-in Exceptions

Division by zero leads to say $\perp(-1)$

Invalid pattern-matching leads to say $\perp(1)$

Examples:

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raised an exception, denoted by $\perp(-1)$

We allow programmer to throw Exceptions

$$\frac{E}{\text{throw } E}$$

but since we allow only integer-valued exceptions, we expect E to be of integer type.

Example

```
if percentage > 100
then throw 2
else ... end
```

This exception can then be caught by a surrounding expression and handled appropriately.

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Semantic Domains for $\text{simPL1} = \text{simPL} + \text{exceptions}$

Sem. domain	Definition	Explanation
Bool	$\{true, false\}$	ring of booleans
Int	$\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$	ring of integers
EV	Bool + Int + Exc + Fun	expressible values
DV	Bool + Int + Fun	denotable values
Id	alphanumeric string	identifiers
Env	Id \rightsquigarrow DV	environments
Fun	DV \rightsquigarrow EV	function values
Exc	$\perp(\text{Int})$	exceptions

Rules for simPL1

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \rightsquigarrow e}{\Delta \Vdash E_1 + E_2 \rightsquigarrow e} \quad \text{if } e \in \mathbf{Exc}$$

$$\Delta \Vdash E_1 + E_2 \rightsquigarrow e$$

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \rightsquigarrow v \quad \Delta \Vdash E_2 \rightsquigarrow e}{\Delta \Vdash E_1 + E_2 \rightsquigarrow e} \quad \text{if } v \notin \mathbf{Exc} \text{ and } e \in \mathbf{Exc}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \rightsquigarrow v_1 \quad \Delta \Vdash E_2 \rightsquigarrow v_2}{\Delta \Vdash E_1 + E_2 \rightsquigarrow v_1 + v_2} \quad \text{if } v_1, v_2 \notin \mathbf{Exc}$$

Rules for simPL1

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \mapsto e}{\Delta \Vdash E_1/E_2 \mapsto e} \text{ if } e \in \mathbf{Exc}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \mapsto v \quad \Delta \Vdash E_2 \mapsto e}{\Delta \Vdash E_1/E_2 \mapsto e} \text{ if } v \notin \mathbf{Exc} \text{ and } e \in \mathbf{Exc}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \mapsto v_1 \quad \Delta \Vdash E_2 \mapsto v_2}{\Delta \Vdash E_1/E_2 \mapsto v_1/v_2} \text{ if } v_1, v_2 \notin \mathbf{Exc} \text{ and } v_2 \neq 0$$

Rules for simPL1

$$\Delta \Vdash E_1 \rightsquigarrow v_1 \quad \Delta \Vdash E_2 \rightsquigarrow 0$$

$$\Delta \Vdash E_1/E_2 \rightsquigarrow e$$

if $v_1 \notin \mathbf{Exc}$ and

where $e = \perp(-1)$, and $e \in \mathbf{Exc}$

Rules for simPL1

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E \rightsquigarrow e}{\Delta \Vdash \text{throw } E \rightsquigarrow e} \text{ if } e \in \mathbf{Exc}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E \rightsquigarrow n}{\Delta \Vdash \text{throw } E \rightsquigarrow \perp(n)}$$

Rules for simPL1

$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \multimap v}{\Delta \Vdash \text{try } E_1 \text{ catch } n \text{ with } E_2 \text{ end } \multimap v}$$
$$\frac{\Delta \Vdash E_1 \multimap \perp(c) \quad \Delta[n \leftarrow c] \Vdash E_2 \multimap e}{\Delta \Vdash \text{try } E_1 \text{ catch } n \text{ with } E_2 \text{ end } \multimap e}$$