(1)

The hanguage of Types In modern programming languages he types are rich enough to require a little language of their own. Here we describe such a type language for an ML-like language. Basic Types: int/bool/string/char/real Now we can build compound types; in order to do this we use type constructors: these are constructs to create new types from old ones:

* : product \rightarrow : function space

list | : sum I am ignoring array, record and other things for het us consider * : this is the counterpart of the term constructor (,). Civen two types say int & bool we define a new type int * bool. How do we connect terms of the language & types? Through typing rules. I will use letters liket, e, t et for ferme & greek letters &, & for types. A typing rule has the form ferm,: typ,, --- krunk: typk term: typ We use type variables to have generic rules Here is the rule for *: t1: 7, t2: 72 (t, t2): 2, *T2

How do we read such a rule? In words: if
you have shown that to has type To & that
to has type To then you can conclude that
the pair (t, to) has type (T, To).

How do we start off? We need some basic assumptions for the basic types. Here, for example,

are the rules for int:

0: int 1: int 2: int -1: int

Why draw a live with nothing on top? To indicate that we need no further assumptions:

O has type int, no assumptions are needed to conclude this. We can now type more complicated expressions with more rules:

x: int, y: int x*y: int x*y: int

this is not the complete set of rules for int, best it gives the idea. Here are some rules for bool

true: bool false: bool not b: bool

x: int, y: int

x=y:bool

Here is the rule for & conditionals

e,: T, e2: T, b: bool This says that
if b then e, else e2: T both branches
must have the same type T, the conditions must
be a boolean and then the overall conditional
will have type T.

Now some rules for tuples and projections $\underline{t_1:\tau_1}$, $\underline{t_2:\tau_2}$ $(\underline{t_1,t_2}):\tau_1*\tau_2$ We can use this with any types, e.g. 17: int, false: 600L (17, false): int * bool We can make nested pairs too (17, false): int * bool 2+3: int ((17, fake), 2+3): (int * bool) * int Note we are assigning types to expressions not just to values. We can understand pattern matching as follows match (x, y) with (17, false) (17, false): int * bool 17: int, false: bool We have destructors in F# (not much used) (1729, "Hardy"): int * string fst (1729, "Hardy"): int 8nd (1729, "Hardy"): string Note the type system does not spell out the computation rules. For this we need a different kind of presentation called operational semantics. e.g. Snd (1729, "Hardy") -> "Hardy" We will not discuss operational semantics. Here is a little typing 17: int tome: bool 2: int 3: int

"tree" (17, bool): int *bool 2+3: int

Conceptually the type- ((17, bool), 2+3): (int *bool) * int. checker builds such trees.

hists: list is a type constructor, :: is
a term constructor, nil on [] is a constant
and hd, the are the destructors. Here are the rules

C: T l: T-list

C::l: T-list

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Note the type system will not tell you what happens if you apply had to nil. The type rule says this is OK best in reality an exception is raised.

Now for the most important type constructor: >>
However we need to deal with variables first
because a parameter is a crucial part of fm.
How does a variable get a type? For now, we
assume that variables are typed by declarations.
Later we will see that polymorphic types can be
inferred. We will need to keep track of these
declarations when making typing judgments.
We have a set of assumptions (or declarations)
called a context. For example we might have
n: int, x: bool, y: int int,...

We will use Γ for a context. Our judgement will look like $\Gamma + e: \tau$

Using the type assumptions (or declarations) in I we conclude that the expression C has the type T. We can add these contexts to our previous rules & use them otherwise unchanged.

The ebool The; 2 Thez: 2

The if ethen e, else ez: T

Before we deal with functions let us consider let expression which introduce new bindings. We need to manipulate T

X: TET This says the obvious thing: if This says the obvious thing: if then one can conclude X: T.

Now for let

The e; T, T, x: T, thez: Tz x must be fresh There is an example:

X: int the x: int x: int x: int x: int x x: int, y: int x x y: int x

+5: int x: int + let y=x+2 in x+y and: int + let x=5 in (let y=x+2 in x+y 2 and) and: int

Note order of assemptions closs not matter, we can rearrange the order at will. We can reuse assumptions as often as we want. We may have unused assumptions. For example, in let x=5 in 3 and : int we do not need any assumption about x to type check the body 3: int.

Now for the all important -> constructor. If TI, To are types then TI - To are types is a type. We have a term constructor fun x > ... and a "destructor" i.e. function application. Here are the rules: Here are the rules: $\frac{\Gamma, \chi: \tau_1 + \mathcal{C}: \tau_2}{\Gamma + \text{fun } \chi \to \mathcal{C}: \tau_1 \to \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma + \mathcal{C}_1: \tau_1 \to \tau_2}{\Gamma + \mathcal{C}_1: \tau_2} \qquad \frac{\Gamma + \mathcal{C}_2: \tau_2}{\Gamma + \mathcal{C}_1: \tau_2}$ Here are some examples of type derivations x: int + x: int x: string + x: string $fun x \to x: int \to int$ $fun x \to x: string \to string$ The same expression has multiple types! We will discuss polymorphism later. For now we will think monomorphically. Some more examples: let x=1let f = fun u -> u+x let y=2 N = x:int, y:int, u:int, f:int >int I will show the typing derivation in pieces Pru: int Prx: int

Pru+x: int

Prf; int → int

Prfy: int ABBREVIATED x, y, for fun u > u+x: int >int TO FIT HERE -> P+ 2: int y: int, f: int > int, x: int f y: int f: int > int, gx: int 1- let y=2 in fy: int X: int + let f = fan u > u+x : int *int let y = 2 in fy