From Typesafe to Curry-Howard

Three Constraints That Give Dependently Typed Languages the Power to Prove by Preventing Paradoxes

Adrian King 11 February 2019

Motivation: Type Systems and What We Get out of Them

Classifying Type Systems by the Guarantees They Provide

- C-class: type annotations are just suggestions. You can cast anything to anything. Memory errors are possible.
- Java-class: (non-array) type annotations are enforced, but arbitrary typecasts are allowed. Runtime type errors are possible, but not memory errors.
- ML-class: runtime type errors are impossible (Milner's "well-typed programs cannot go wrong"), but termination is not guaranteed.
- Agda-class: termination is guaranteed (we might say "well-typed programs always go right"). The Curry-Howard correspondence is valid.

Curry and Howard and

the Fine Print

- The Curry-Howard correspondence says that, in a programming language, types can be interpreted as propositions and a term with a given type as a proof of the corresponding proposition.
- When I say the Curry-Howard correspondence is valid in a given language, I mean all terms are logically valid proofs of their types—it is impossible to prove a contradiction with such proofs.
- It is also possible to say that Curry-Howard holds of languages where a proof term is augmented by a separate, manual proof that the proof term is valid. But I won't say that.

How Nontermination Breaks Curry-Howard

Consider this Idris function:

partial ohNo: a -> Void ohNo x = ohNo x

 Void is a type with no inhabitants. It is logically equivalent to falsehood. If the typechecker accepts a top-level expression of type Void:

partial argh: Void = ohNo 0 then it is letting us

prove something false, which means the underlying logic is inconsistent.

Dependent Types in an ML-Class Language

 Cayenne-class: full support for dependent types. Type safety in the ML sense, but because evaluation does not always terminate and evaluation may occur during typechecking, typechecking is not decidable.

Some Cayenne

Cayenne example from Wikipedia:

```
PrintfType :: String -> #
PrintfType (Nil) = String
PrintfType ('%':('d':cs)) = Int -> PrintfType cs
PrintfType ('%':('s':cs)) = String -> PrintfType cs
PrintfType ('%':( _ :cs)) = PrintfType cs
PrintfType ( _ :cs) = PrintfType cs
aux :: (fmt::String) -> String -> PrintfType fmt
aux (Nil) out = out
aux ('%':('d':cs)) out = \setminus (i::Int) \rightarrow aux cs (out ++ show i)
aux ('%':('s':cs)) out = \setminus (s::String) -> aux cs (out ++ s)
aux ('%':(c:cs)) out = aux cs (out ++ c:Nil)
aux (c:cs) 	 out = 	 aux cs (out ++ c : Nil)
printf :: (fmt::String) -> PrintfType fmt
printf fmt = aux fmt Nil
```

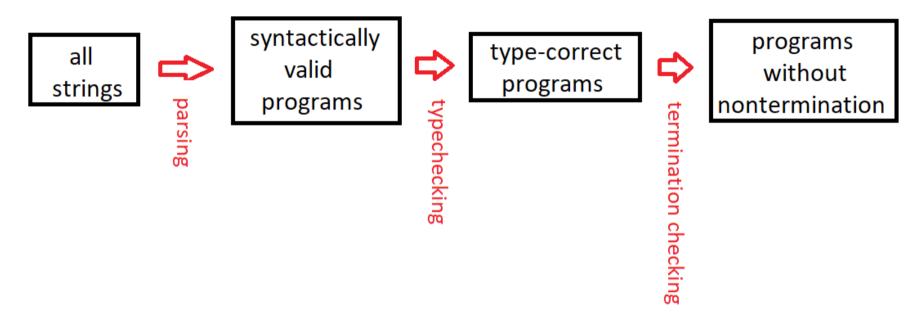
Cayenne Is an Outlier

- Cayenne occupies an unusual place in the programming language design space.
- It offers type safety, but Cayenne terms are not valid proofs under the Curry-Howard correspondence.
- I think most programming language designers, having gone to all the trouble to implement dependent types, figure they might as well go ahead and offer valid proofs as well as type safety.
- ML-class languages with termination checks (so that Curry-Howard is valid) are also uncommon.
- Cayenne is no longer supported.

Three Constraints

Compilation As a Series of Filters

Consider compilation as a sequence of filters:



- Each filter can only reduce the set of programs accepted.
- Cayenne stops at the third box, Agda at the last.
- Termination checking in dependently typed languages has three components.

Code, Data, Type

- It is convenient to think of the features of dependently typed languages as being grouped into three categories: code, data, type.
 - Code is what can appear in a function.
 - Data is what can be declared in an inductive datatype.
 - Type is what can appear in a type annotation.
- Each of the three termination constraints corresponds (roughly) to one of the above categories.

Constraint #1 (Code): Structural Recursion

Recursing on Pieces

- The structural recursion constraint requires that when a function calls itself, it can only do so by passing to the recursive call a proper substructure of one its arguments.
- You can obtain such a substructure by pattern matching (in Coq, Idris, or Agda).

```
-- good: decreasing on the argument
total
len: List a -> Nat
len [] = 0
len (x :: xs) = S (len xs)
```

```
-- bad: increasing on the argument
partial
notLen: List Nat -> Nat
notLen xs = notLen (1 :: xs)
```

-- also bad: not decreasing on the
-- argument
partial
ohNo: a -> Void
ohNo x = ohNo x

Nested Primitive Recursion

- Agda and Idris (at least) can recognize a slightly more complex case than the one from the previous slide, one where multiple arguments decrease in lexicographic order.
- In ack below, either the first argument decreases, or it stays the same and the second argument decreases.

```
total

ack: Nat -> Nat -> Nat

ack Z n = S n

ack (S m) Z = ack m 1

ack (S m) (S n) = ack m (ack (S m) n)
```

Structural Recursion Is Often Too Conservative

 Many algorithms terminate for reasons that are obvious to a human reader, but invisible to the structural recursion checkers in available languages.

```
partial
mrgSort: (Ord a) => List a -> List a
mrgSort[] = []
mrgSort[x] = [x]
mrgSort xs =
 mrg (mrgSort firstHalf) (mrgSort secondHalf)
 where
  halfLen: Nat
  halfLen = (length xs) `div` 2
  firstHalf = take halfLen xs
  secondHalf = drop halfLen xs
```

Constraint #2 (Data): Strict Positivity

Unbounded Recursion That Looks *Structurally* OK

 Consider this attempt to encode the untyped lambda calculus, adapted from Adam Chlipala's Certified Programming with Dependent Types:

```
data Term: Type where
App: Term -> Term -> Term
Abs: (Term -> Term) -> Term

partial
uhOh: Term -> Term
uhOh (Abs f) = f (Abs f)
uhOh t = t
```

- Note that uhOh doesn't call itself.
- But what happens when you do uhOh (Abs uhOh)?

Limits on a Datatype's Occurrence in Its Own Definition

 The strict positivity constraint says that a datatype cannot appear on the left side of an arrow in the type of any of its constructors' arguments.

```
data Term: Type where
App: Term -> Term -> Term
Abs: (Term -> Term) -> Term
```

 As the previous slide showed, violating the constraint lets you sneak in an unbounded recursion.

Constraint #3 (Type): Type Stratification

Russell and Girard (a Pair o' Docs)

- Bertrand Russell's famous paradox about the set of all sets that don't contain themselves has an analog that can be expressed in a programming language, which was discovered by Jean-Yves Girard.
- Girard's paradox appears in any type system where Type (the type of types) is an element of itself.

A Paradox in Idris

 Because of Idris bug #3194 (type stratification not enforced across module boundaries), this actually compiles:

```
%default total
                                             P: NT -> Tree
                                              P(x^{**}) = x
data Tree: Type where
 Sup: (a: Type) -> (f: a -> Tree) -> Tree
                                             R: Tree
                                             R = Sup NT P
A: Tree -> Type
A (Sup a_{-}) = a
                                              Lemma: Normal R
                                              Lemma ((y1 ** y2) ** z) =
F: (t: Tree) -> A t -> Tree
                                               y2 (
F(Sup f) = f
                                                replace
                                                 {P =
Normal: Tree -> Type
                                                   (\v3 = \
                                                    (y: A y3 ** F y3 y =
Normal t =
                                                     Sup (A y3) (F y3)))}
 (y: A t ** (F t y = Sup (A t) (F t))) -> Void
                                                 (sym z) ((y1 ** y2) ** z))
NT: Type
NT = (t: Tree ** Normal t)
                                              Russel: Void
                                              Russel = Lemma ((R ** Lemma) ** Refl)
```

Layered Universes

 The usual solution to Russell's/Girard's paradox is divide the type of types into separate, stratified types (universe levels), where each level cannot contain itself or higher levels, but does contain the next lower level.

Type i : Type (i + 1)

 Some programming languages (Coq, Idris) let you write Type for any level of the type hierarchy, but they don't really allow Type to be a member of itself. Instead, they figure out the appropriate level constraints automatically.

Type Stratification Rules (Approximately)

- The type level of a function type A → B is at least the maximum of the levels of A and B.
- The type level of an inductive datatype is:
 - at least the level of it largest parameter;
 - greater than the largest level of its indices;
 - and greater than the largest level of its constructors' parameters.
- But note that the exact details for the inductive datatype rules vary from one language to another.

Agda Makes Stratification Explicit

Agda forces you to keep track of type levels explicitly:

```
data Tree: Set lone where
                                                              NT: Set lone
 Sup : (a : Set) \rightarrow (f : a \rightarrow Tree) \rightarrow Tree
                                                              NT = \Sigma \text{ Tree } (\lambda t \rightarrow \text{Normal } t)
                                                              P: NT \rightarrow Tree
A: Tree \rightarrow Set
A (Sup a _) = a
                                                              P(x, ) = x
F: (t: Tree) \rightarrow At \rightarrow Tree
                                                              R · Tree
F (Sup_f) = f
                                                              R = Sup NT P
Normal: Tree → Set lone
                                                              {- Agda objects to the use of NT in the last
                                                              line above:
Normal t =
 \neg (\Sigma (A t) (\lambda y \rightarrow F t y \equiv Sup (A t) (F t)))
                                                              Set<sub>1</sub>!= Set
                                                              when checking that the expression NT has
                                                              type Set -}
```

 The Agda approach is more work. Does it let you write code Coq or Idris wouldn't? I don't know.

Type Stratification Is Also about Termination

- The type stratification constraint is subtler than the other two, and violations are less localized.
- But its purpose, like that of the other constraints, is to prevent nontermination.

So why is termination such a big deal?

Theory and Terminology

Soundness and Completeness

- We want compilers to accept only programs that obey the proper rules, that is, we want them to be **sound**.
- A compiler that accepted every program that obeyed the rules would be complete.

- Real-world compilers are usually sound (we hope), but not usually complete.
- In languages complicated enough to be useful, typechecking would be undecidable if we tried to go for both soundness and completeness.

Soundness is Conservative

Consider:

```
good: Nat
good =
if 0 == 1 then 0 else 42
```

```
bad: Nat
bad =
  if 0 == 1 then "oops"
  else 42
```

 If you ran the code without checking it first, both good and bad would return Nats. A complete typechecker would accept both. But the real Idris typechecker applies the more conservative rule that both branches of an if must have the same type.

Typing Rules and Judgments

Basic typing rules for a Cayenne-class language:

$$\frac{(x:S) \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x:S}$$

$$\Gamma$$
; $x:S \vdash e: T \quad \Gamma \vdash (x:S) \rightarrow T: \text{Type}$
 $\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:S.e: (x:S) \rightarrow T$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash f : (x:S) \rightarrow T \quad \Gamma \vdash s : S}{\Gamma \vdash f s : T[s/x]}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash f: (x:S) \rightarrow T \quad \Gamma \vdash s:S \qquad \Gamma; x:S \vdash T: \text{Type} \quad \Gamma \vdash S: \text{Type}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash fs: T[s/x] \qquad \qquad \Gamma \vdash (x:S) \rightarrow T: \text{Type}$$

$$\underline{\Gamma \vdash e : T \quad \Gamma \vdash f : T \quad e \Downarrow v \quad f \Downarrow v} \\
\Gamma \vdash e \equiv f : T$$

$$\underline{\Gamma \vdash x : S} \quad \underline{\Gamma \vdash S} \equiv \underline{T} : \text{Type}$$
 $\underline{\Gamma \vdash x : T}$

Evaluation Rules

 Evaluation (aka reduction) is expressed in the small-step style. For example, a rule for function application:

$$\frac{\text{value } v}{(\lambda x: S.e) \ v \Rightarrow \ e[v/x]}$$

 v above represents a value, something that cannot be evaluated further. Normalization (big-step evaluation) consists of small steps repeated until you get a value.

$$\frac{V \Rightarrow V' \quad V' \Downarrow V''}{V \Downarrow V''}$$

Progress and Preservation

- Progress is a
 programming language
 property that says every
 well-typed term either is a
 value or can take a small
 evaluation step.
- It is easy to ensure progress if your language is well-defined and you're writing an interpreter for it in a language that checks that pattern matching is complete.

- (Type) preservation says that after each small evaluation step, a welltyped term has the same type as before the step.
- Preservation is usually more interesting and harder to prove than progress.
- Both properties are necessary if your language is to be well-behaved.

Logical Falsehood

- In a dependently typed language, logical falsehood can be represented as a proposition in one of two ways:
- A datatype with no data constructors (like Void in Idris):

 A function type that says every type is inhabited:

(a: Type) \rightarrow a

data Void where

 If a programming language admits a well-typed term of either type above, that shows that the logic underlying the language is inconsistent, so the Curry-Howard correspondence does not hold.

With Preservation, All Proofs of Falsehood Involve Nontermination

- Suppose a language has a value representing falsehood. Then it is either:
 - headed by a constructor of a datatype with no constructors, which is a contradiction; or
 - a function that can be applied to any type to produce a value of that type. Take the type to be a datatype with no constructors, and arrive at the previous case.
- Given nontermination and preservation, every welltyped term normalizes to a value of its type. So there can be no *term* representing falsehood; it would reduce to a value that would give a contradiction.

... which means that fixing nontermination in aCayennne-class language gives you an Agda-class language.

What about Other Type Systems?

Alternatives to the Three Constraints

- ML, Haskell: types are not terms (so you don't need universe levels).
- Martin-Löf: raw induction principles (so structural recursion is automatic).

Coq: Prop universe
 (where, with some
 restrictions, you don't
 worry about type
 levels).

Believe Me?

Fake News?

- I've made some assumptions. They might be wrong.
- When I talk about languages, I mostly assume away nonterminating primitives (like exceptions) or unsafe features.

- Does Cayenne have type preservation? I expect so, but I haven't found a proof.
- Do I understand all the details of type stratification? No.
- Are the three constraints sufficient to eliminate all unbound recursion? I think people think so.