

1 Labeling Of Unlabeled Object

1.1 Basic Example

Assume we have a `File` resource in the global context Γ . Consider the following program, which takes a logger as input and uses it to record an error message.

```

1 newd x ⇒ {
2   def errmsg(y : { def log : Str }) : Unit =
3     y.log('runtime exception')
4 } .errmsg(
5   newd x ⇒ {
6     def log(z : Str) : Unit =
7       File.close
8   }
9 )

```

Because the input and output types of the provided logger’s `log` method are value-types, then we may do straight-forward inference: the free variables of the body intersect with Γ is `File`, so we label the method as having every effect on `File`. The labelled version looks like this:

```

1 newσ x ⇒ {
2   def log(z : Str) : Unit with { File.close, File.write, ... } =
3     File.close
4 }

```

1.2 Naked Objects

Here’s an object literal which records error messages through a given logger, but is deeply unlabelled. Here the type of `Logger` is something which takes a `String` and returns `Unit`. After labelling, what should its type be?

```

1 newd x ⇒ {
2   def errmsg(y : { def log : Str }) : Unit =
3     y.log('runtime exception')
4 }

```

There doesn’t seem to be any sensible answer as to what to label `log`. If we know this occurs as a subexpression of a method-call, we may solve this problem by labelling the type of the expression passed into the method-call before labelling the type of the formal argument.

If this doesn’t appear as a subexpression (i.e. it’s a top-level, naked object) then it doesn’t matter what the labelling is as `errmsg` is never called. Therefore we might decide to leave it undefined. However, this means the image of `label` won’t necessarily be an e_l term (which may only contain fully-labelled types). Another idea: give it a “dummy” labelling, just so it conforms to the form of e_l ?

If you have to label `def m(y : $\tau_{u,A}$) : $\tau_{u,B}$ = e_{body}` then when you label $\tau_{u,B}$ you need to pass e_{body} with it; and when you label $\tau_{u,A}$ you need to either signify that this happens inside a naked object, or else this is a subexpression in a method-call on your parent object, so you want to pass in the argument to that method-call.

2 Encodings

2.1 No Arguments

```

1 def m() :  $\tau$  = e
   ↓↓
1 def m(y : Unit) :  $\tau$  = e

```

2.2 Let Expressions

Transformation

```

1  let y = el,1 :  $\tau_{l,1}$  in el,2 :  $\tau_{l,2}$ 
    ↓
1  newd x ⇒ {
2      def eval(y :  $\tau_{l,1}$ ) :  $\tau_{l,2}$  =
3          el,2
4      }.eval(el,1)

```

2.3 Tuples

The pair $\langle e_1 : \tau_1, e_2 : \tau_2 \rangle$ becomes:

```

1  newd x ⇒ {
2      def fst():  $\tau_1$  = e1
3      def snd():  $\tau_2$  = e2
4  }

```

Referring to e_1 is shorthand for calling `fst` on this pair; e_2 for calling `snd`.

2.4 Booleans

(Types in this section are probably wrong! Could do it with a `Dyn` type, but can you get away without it?)

The literal `True` is:

```

1  newd x ⇒ {
2      def eval(y: <e1:Unit, e2:Unit>): Unit =
3          y.fst()
4  }

```

The literal `False` is:

```

1  newd x ⇒ {
2      def eval(y: <e1:Unit, e2:Unit>): Unit =
3          y.snd()
4  }

```

The type `Bool` is syntactic sugar for the following type:

```

1  { def eval(y: <e1:Unit, e2:Unit>): Unit }

```

$(b_1 : \text{Bool}) \wedge (b_2 : \text{Bool})$ is sugar for the following:

```

1  newd x ⇒ {
2      def eval(y: <b1:Bool, b2:Bool>): Unit =
3          b1.eval(<b2.eval(<True, False>), False>)
4  }

```

$\neg(b : \text{Bool})$ is sugar for the following:

```

1  newd x ⇒ {
2      def eval(y: <b:Bool, _:Unit>): Unit =
3          b.eval(<False, True>)
4  }

```

Because $\{\neg, \wedge\}$ is a functionally complete set of connectives this gives you propositional boolean logic.

2.5 Conditionals

```
1  if x: Bool then e1:  $\tau$  else e2:  $\tau$ 
```

\Downarrow

```
1  x.eval(<e1, e2>)
```

2.6 Encoding \mathbb{N}

Define $0 : \mathbb{N}$ in the following way.

```
1  newd x  $\Rightarrow$  {
2      def isZero(): Bool = True
3      def previous():  $\mathbb{N}$  = x
4  }
```

For $n : \mathbb{N}$, define $\text{succ}(n) : \mathbb{N}$ as follows.

```
1  newd x  $\Rightarrow$  {
2      def isZero(): Bool = False
3      def previous():  $\mathbb{N}$  = n
4  }
```

Then the type \mathbb{N} is an alias for an object with two methods, `isZero` and `previous` (not actually valid because no recursive types, but eh). Something like 2 has the following representation:

```
1  newd x  $\Rightarrow$  {
2      def isZero(): Bool = False
3      def previous():  $\mathbb{N}$  =
4          new $\sigma$  x  $\Rightarrow$  {
5              def isZero(): Bool = False
6              def previous():  $\mathbb{N}$  =
7                  new $\sigma$  x  $\Rightarrow$  {
8                      def isZero(): Bool = True
9                      def previous():  $\mathbb{N}$  = n
10                 }
11             }
12 }
```

2.7 N-Tuples

With pairs and \mathbb{N} we can define an n -tuple in the following way. Given an n -tuple $t_n = \langle e_1 : \tau_1, \dots, e_n : \tau_n \rangle$, the $(n+1)$ -tuple $t_{n+1} = \langle e_1 : \tau_1, \dots, e_n : \tau_n, e_{n+1} : \tau_{n+1} \rangle$ is the following:

```
1  newd x  $\Rightarrow$  {
2      def nth(index:  $\mathbb{N}$ ):  $\tau_{n+1}$  =
3          if index.equals(n+1)
4              then en+1
5              else  $\tau_n$ .nth(index.previous())
6  }
```

With this we may encode an n -ary method as a unary method, which takes a single n -tuple.