

Intro to Type Systems and Operational Semantics

ZuriHac 2022

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About Well-Typed

- ▶ Well-Typed is a Haskell consultancy company, established in 2008
- ▶ Team of about 20 Haskell experts
- ▶ Wide variety of clients
- ▶ GHC and tooling maintenance, development and support
- ▶ Haskell software development and consulting
- ▶ On-site and remote training courses

About me

- ▶ Using Haskell since about 1997
- ▶ Studied mathematics in Konstanz, PhD in Computer Science at Utrecht 2004
- ▶ At Well-Typed since 2010
- ▶ Living in Regensburg, Germany

Most of the material in this lecture is inspired by

Benjamin Pierce
Types and Programming Languages

(but there are changes and all mistakes are my own).

There are many other good books / tutorials / blog posts.

Look at a succession of languages with more and more features:

- ▶ discuss type rules and how to read / write them,
- ▶ discuss evaluation / operational semantics,
- ▶ discuss a few properties,
- ▶ discuss a straight-forward implementation in Haskell.

Languages:

- ▶ a very simple language for expressions with Booleans and naturals,
- ▶ adding variables,
- ▶ adding functions (Simply Typed Lambda Calculus),
- ▶ adding polymorphism (System F).

What we will not do

There are many interesting things we will not have time to cover:

- ▶ type inference,
- ▶ type classes,
- ▶ kinds,
- ▶ an efficient implementation,
- ▶ a particularly type-safe implementation,
- ▶ ...

All the code of this presentation (and the slides, and some exercises) are available from:

<https://github.com/well-typed/types-zurihac-2022>

The first steps (Version 1)

Natural numbers

Haskell:

```
data Nat = Z | S Nat
```

Syntax:

```
n ::= Z  
    | S n
```

Type rules:

$$\text{Z} \frac{}{\text{Z} : \text{Nat}}$$
$$\text{S} \frac{n : \text{Nat}}{\text{S } n : \text{Nat}}$$

Three is a natural number

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{Z}{Z : \text{Nat}}}{S \quad S \quad Z : \text{Nat}}}{S \quad S \quad (S \quad Z) : \text{Nat}}}{S \quad S \quad (S \quad (S \quad Z)) : \text{Nat}}$$

Three is a natural number

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Z} \quad \frac{}{\text{Z} : \text{Nat}} \\ \text{S} \quad \frac{\text{Z} : \text{Nat}}{\text{S Z} : \text{Nat}} \\ \text{S} \quad \frac{\text{S Z} : \text{Nat}}{\text{S (S Z)} : \text{Nat}} \\ \text{S} \quad \frac{\text{S (S Z)} : \text{Nat}}{\text{S (S (S Z))} : \text{Nat}} \end{array}$$

Boring: All syntactically correct terms are also well-typed.

A larger language

Haskell:

```
data Expr =  
    Z  
  | S      Expr  
  | F  
  | T  
  | Equal Expr Expr  
  | If    Expr Expr Expr
```

Syntax:

```
e ::= Z  
   | S e  
   | False  
   | True  
   | e1 == e2  
   | if e1 then e2 else e3
```

Type rules

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Z} \frac{}{Z : \text{Nat}} \qquad \text{S} \frac{e : \text{Nat}}{S e : \text{Nat}} \\[10pt] \text{F} \frac{}{F : \text{Bool}} \qquad \text{T} \frac{}{T : \text{Bool}} \\[10pt] \text{Equal} \frac{e_1 : \text{Nat} \quad e_2 : \text{Nat}}{e_1 == e_2 : \text{Bool}} \\[10pt] \text{If} \frac{e_1 : \text{Bool} \quad e_2 : t \quad e_3 : t}{\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : t} \end{array}$$

Example

$$\frac{\text{Equal} \frac{Z \frac{}{Z : \text{Nat}}}{Z == S Z : \text{Bool}} \quad \text{If} \frac{S \frac{Z \frac{}{Z : \text{Nat}}}{S Z : \text{Nat}} \quad S \frac{Z \frac{}{Z : \text{Nat}}}{S (S Z) : \text{Nat}} \quad Z \frac{}{Z : \text{Nat}}}{\text{if } Z == S Z \text{ then } S (S Z) \text{ else } Z : \text{Nat}}}{}$$

Language of types

Syntax:

```
t ::= Nat | Bool
```

Haskell:

```
data Ty = TNat | TBool  
    deriving Eq
```

Language of types

Syntax:

```
t ::= Nat | Bool
```

Haskell:

```
data Ty = TNat | TBool  
    deriving Eq
```

Do we need types of types?

An implementation

```
check :: Expr -> Ty -> Maybe ()  
check e t = do  
  t' <- infer e  
  guard (t == t')  
  
infer :: Expr -> Maybe Ty
```

Inference

```
infer :: Expr -> Maybe Ty
infer Z      = pure TNat
infer (S e) = do
  check e TNat
  pure TNat
...

```

Inference

```
...  
infer F                = pure TBool  
infer T                = pure TBool  
infer (Equal e1 e2) = do  
  check e1 TNat  
  check e2 TNat  
  pure TBool  
infer (If e1 e2 e3) = do  
  check e1 TBool  
  t <- infer e2  
  check e3 t  
  pure t
```

Evaluation

What are the results of evaluation?

The answer depends to some extent on the evaluation strategy.

Values

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Values (normal forms, eager evaluation):

$v ::= Z \mid S \ v \mid F \mid T$

Values are a subset of expressions.

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Values (normal forms, eager evaluation):

$v ::= Z \mid S \ v \mid F \mid T$

Values are a subset of expressions.

For call-by-name, or lazy evaluation, weak head normal forms are more interesting:

$w ::= Z \mid S \ e \mid F \mid T$

Also a subset of expressions.

Examples

```
S (S Z)
```

is in normal form (and weak head normal form).

```
S (if T then Z else S Z)
```

is in weak head normal form, but not in normal form.

Haskell values

```
data NF = VNat Nat | VBool Bool
```

```
data WHNF = WNat WNat | WBool Bool
```

```
data WNat = WZ | WS Expr
```

Evaluation

```
eval :: Expr -> Maybe WHNF
eval Z          = pure (WNat WZ)
eval (S e)      = pure (WNat (WS e))
eval F          = pure (WBool False)
eval T          = pure (WBool True)
eval (Equal e1 e2) = do
  WNat v1 <- eval e1
  WNat v2 <- eval e2
  case (v1, v2) of
    (WZ, WZ) -> pure (WBool True)
    (WS e'1, WS e'2) -> eval (Equal e'1 e'2)
    _ -> pure (WBool False)
eval (If e1 e2 e3) = do
  WBool b <- eval e1
  if b then eval e2 else eval e3
```

Evaluation rules

Two common styles

Big-step semantics:

$$e \Downarrow w$$

Relates an expression and a value.

Expectation: Values evaluate to themselves.

Two common styles

Big-step semantics:

$$e \Downarrow w$$

Relates an expression and a value.

Expectation: Values evaluate to themselves.

Small-step semantics:

$$e \longrightarrow e'$$

Relates two expressions.

Expectation: Values do not evaluate further.

Big-step evaluation rules

Evaluating data constructors:

$$\text{e-Z} \quad \frac{}{Z \Downarrow Z}$$

$$\text{e-S} \quad \frac{}{S\ e \Downarrow S\ e}$$

$$\text{e-False} \quad \frac{}{\text{False} \Downarrow \text{False}}$$

$$\text{e-True} \quad \frac{}{\text{True} \Downarrow \text{True}}$$

Evaluating equality

$$\text{e-Equal-Z-Z} \frac{e_1 \Downarrow Z \quad e_2 \Downarrow Z}{e_1 == e_2 \Downarrow \text{True}}$$

$$\text{e-Equal-S-S} \frac{e_1 \Downarrow S e'_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow S e'_2 \quad e'_1 == e'_2 \Downarrow v}{e_1 == e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\text{e-Equal-Z-S} \frac{e_1 \Downarrow Z \quad e_2 \Downarrow S e'_2}{e_1 == e_2 \Downarrow \text{False}}$$

$$\text{e-Equal-S-Z} \frac{e_1 \Downarrow S e'_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow Z}{e_1 == e_2 \Downarrow \text{False}}$$

Evaluating if-then-else

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{e-If-False} \quad \frac{e_1 \Downarrow \text{False} \quad e_3 \Downarrow v}{\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \Downarrow v} \\ \\ \text{e-If-True} \quad \frac{e_1 \Downarrow \text{True} \quad e_2 \Downarrow v}{\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \Downarrow v} \end{array}$$

Small-step evaluation rules

No rules for data constructors needed.

Equality:

$$\text{s-Equal-Z-Z} \quad Z == Z \longrightarrow \text{True}$$

$$\text{s-Equal-S-S} \quad S e_1 == S e_2 \longrightarrow e_1 == e_2$$

$$\text{s-Equal-Z-S} \quad Z == S e \longrightarrow \text{False}$$

$$\text{s-Equal-S-Z} \quad S e == Z \longrightarrow \text{False}$$

Small-step if-then-else

s-If-False **if** False **then** e_1 **else** $e_2 \longrightarrow e_2$

s-If-True **if** True **then** e_1 **else** $e_2 \longrightarrow e_1$

Context rules

$$\text{s-Equal-1} \frac{e_1 \longrightarrow e'_1}{e_1 == e_2 \longrightarrow e'_1 == e_2}$$

$$\text{s-Equal-2} \frac{e_2 \longrightarrow e'_2}{v_1 == e_2 \longrightarrow v_1 == e'_2}$$

$$\text{s-If-1} \frac{e_1 \longrightarrow e'_1}{\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \longrightarrow \text{if } e'_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3}$$

What is better?

There is no clear answer:

- ▶ The main disadvantage of small-step semantics is the need for context rules.
- ▶ On the other hand, the non-context rules are often a bit simpler.
- ▶ For big-step semantics, it is easier to identify the values.
- ▶ The main disadvantage of big-step semantics is that it is not easy to distinguish stuck terms from non-terminating terms.

Properties of type systems

Preservation / subject reduction

When we reduce an expression, we expect the type to be maintained.

For big-step semantics:

If $e : t$ and $e \Downarrow v$, then $v : t$.

For small-step semantics:

If $e : t$ and $e \longrightarrow e'$, then $e' : t$.

“Well-typed programs do not go wrong.”

When an expression is well-typed, we expect it not to get stuck.

For small-step semantics:

If $e : t$, then there exists an e' such that $e \longrightarrow e'$.

Not easy to express for big-step semantics (unless all terms are terminating).

Adding variables (Version 2)

Expressions with let

```
e ::= ...  
  | let x = e1 in e2  
  | x
```

Adds a whole new class of problems:

- ▶ Where is `x` in scope? (Also: is `let` recursive?)
- ▶ What if we refer to a variable outside of its scope?
- ▶ What about name shadowing / name capture?
- ▶ Substitution?

What does `x == y` reduce to?

What is the type of `if True then x else x` ?

Environments / contexts

Environments are finite maps providing information about the types (or implementation of variables).

Syntax (for type environments):

$$\begin{array}{l} \Gamma ::= \varepsilon \\ \quad | \quad \Gamma, x : t \end{array}$$

Membership (for type environments):

env-elem-1 $x : t \in \Gamma, x : t$

env-elem-2
$$\frac{x_1 \neq x_2 \quad x : t_1 \in \Gamma}{x_1 : t_1 \in \Gamma, x_2 : t_2}$$

Type-checking with a context

$$\Gamma \vdash e : a$$

Note that this is just syntax for a relation between three entities.

Most rules just ignore the context

$$\text{If} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : t \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : t}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : t}$$

Handling variables and let

$$\text{Var} \frac{x : t \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : t}$$
$$\text{Let} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t_1 \quad \Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : t_2}$$

Note how even the type rule makes it clear that our **let** is not recursive.

s-let **let** $x = e_1$ **in** $e_2 \longrightarrow e_2[x \mapsto e_1]$

Unfortunately, substitution is rather tricky.

Name capture example

Consider

```
(let x = F in if x then y else S Z)[y ↦ S x]
```

In some outside scope, `x` refers to a natural number.

After naively substituting, we obtain

```
let x = F in if x then S x else S Z
```

which is not even type correct anymore.

Alpha renaming

Fortunately, we can always avoid name capture by consistently renaming:

```
(let x' = F in if x' then y else S Z)[y  $\mapsto$  S x]
```

This is fine:

```
let x' = F in if x' then S x else S Z
```

Substitution

Interesting are variables and let:

$$x[x \mapsto e] = e$$

$$y[x \mapsto e] = y \quad \text{-- if } y \neq x$$

$$(\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2)[x \mapsto e] = \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$$

$$(\text{let } y = e_1 \text{ in } e_2)[x \mapsto e] = \text{let } y = e_1[x \mapsto e] \text{ in } e_2[x \mapsto e] \\ \text{-- if } y \neq x \text{ and } y \text{ not free in } e$$

Substitution

The rest is rather uninteresting:

$Z[x \mapsto e]$	$= Z$
$(S\ e')[x \mapsto e]$	$= S\ e'[x \mapsto e]$
$T[x \mapsto e]$	$= T$
$F[x \mapsto e]$	$= F$
$(e_1 == e_2)[x \mapsto e]$	$= e_1[x \mapsto e] == e_2[x \mapsto e]$
$(\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3)[x \mapsto e]$	$=$
$\text{if } e_1[x \mapsto e] \text{ then } e_2[x \mapsto e] \text{ else } e_3[x \mapsto e]$	

Free variables

<code>free(Z)</code>	$= \emptyset$
<code>free(S e)</code>	$= \text{free}(e)$
<code>free(F)</code>	$= \emptyset$
<code>free(T)</code>	$= \emptyset$
<code>free(e₁ == e₂)</code>	$= \text{free}(e_1) \cup \text{free}(e_2)$
<code>free(if e₁ then e₂ else e₃)</code>	$= \text{free}(e_1) \cup \text{free}(e_2) \cup \text{free}(e_3)$
<code>free(x)</code>	$= \{x\}$
<code>free(let x = e₁ in e₂)</code>	$= \text{free}(e_1) \cup (\text{free}(e_2) \setminus \{x\})$

Implementing substitution

Many options, with different advantages and disadvantages.

Often, a form of “de Bruijn” indices is being used to avoid alpha renaming.

```
let x = Z in let y = S x in x == y
```

Becomes:

```
let . = Z in let . = S 0v in 1v == 0v
```

Haskell expressions with variables

```
data Expr =  
    Z  
  | S      Expr  
  | F  
  | T  
  | Equal  Expr Expr  
  | If     Expr Expr Expr  
  | Var    Int  
  | Let    Expr Expr
```

De Bruijn aware traversal

```
dB :: (Int -> Int -> Expr) -> Expr -> Expr
```

```
dB var = go 0
```

where

```
go i (Var j)      = var i j
```

```
go i (Let e1 e2) = Let (go i e1) (go (i + 1) e2)
```

```
go _ Z           = Z
```

```
go i (S e)       = S (go i e)
```

```
go _ F           = F
```

```
go _ T           = T
```

```
go i (Equal e1 e2) = Equal (go i e1) (go i e2)
```

```
go i (If e1 e2 e3) = If (go i e1) (go i e2) (go i e3)
```

Substitution

```
subst :: Expr -> Expr -> Expr
subst e1 e2 =
  dB var e2
  where
    var i j =
      case compare i j of
        EQ -> shift i e1
        LT -> Var (j - 1)
        GT -> Var j
```


Shifting

```
shift :: Int -> Expr -> Expr
shift n e2 =
  dB var e2
  where
    var i j
      | j < i = Var j
      | otherwise = Var (j + n)
```

Example

This was our previously problematic example:

```
(let x = F in if x then y else S Z)[y  $\mapsto$  S x]
```

Rephrasing:

```
subst (S (Var 42)) (Let F (If (Var 0) (Var 1) (S Z)))
```

Yields:

```
Let F (If (Var 0) (S (Var 43)) (S Z))
```

```
eval :: Expr -> Maybe WHNF
eval (Var _)      = Nothing
eval (Let e1 e2) = eval (subst e1 e2)
...
```

Back to type checking

How are environments affected by our choice of de Buijn indexing?

```
data Env =  
    Empty  
  | Extend Env Ty  
  
lookup :: Env -> Int -> Maybe Ty  
lookup Empty _ = Nothing  
lookup (Extend _ t) 0 = Just t  
lookup (Extend env _) i = lookup env (i - 1)
```

Interesting cases

$$\text{Var} \frac{x : t \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash x : t}$$

$$\text{Let} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t_1 \quad \Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : t_2}$$

```
infer :: Env -> Expr -> Maybe Ty
infer env (Var i) =
  lookup env i
infer env (Let e1 e2) = do
  t1 <- infer env e1
  infer (Extend env t1) e2
```

Other cases

$$\text{If} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : t \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : t}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : t}$$

```
infer env (If e1 e2 e3) = do
  check env e1 TBool
  a <- infer env e2
  check env e3 a
  pure a
```

Adding functions (Version 3)

Abstraction and application

```
e ::= ...  
  | \ x -> e  
  | e1 e2  
t ::= ...  
  | t1 -> t2
```

$$\text{App} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : t_1}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : t_2}$$

$$\text{Lam} \frac{\Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \backslash x \rightarrow e : t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$$

What is somewhat strange about the abstraction rule?

Type inference

Without knowing the type of `x` in `\ x -> e`, we have to make a guess in the implementation.

This is in essence how type inference systems work:

- ▶ introduce a metavariable as a placeholder,
- ▶ collect constraints from how the variable of that type (in this case `x` is used),
- ▶ apply **unification** to reconcile all the constraints.

Explicit type annotations

```
e ::= ...  
  | \ (x : t) -> e  
  | e1 e2
```

$$\text{Lam} \frac{\Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \backslash (x : t_1) \rightarrow e : t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$$

Evaluation rules

$w ::= \dots$
 $\mid \backslash (x : t) \rightarrow e$

s-Beta $(\backslash (x : t) \rightarrow e_1) e_2 \longrightarrow \text{let } x = e_2 \text{ in } e_1$

s-App-1
$$\frac{e_1 \longrightarrow e'_1}{e_1 e_2 \longrightarrow e'_1 e_2}$$

Implementation of functions

```
data Expr =  
    ...  
    | Lam Ty Expr  
    | App Expr Expr
```

```
data Ty =  
    ...  
    | TFun Ty Ty
```

```
data WHNF =  
    ...  
    | WLam Ty Expr
```

Evaluation

```
eval :: Expr -> Maybe WHNF
```

```
eval (App e1 e2) = do
```

```
  WLam _ e'1 <- eval e1
```

```
  eval (subst e2 e'1)
```

```
eval (Lam t e) = pure (WLam t e)
```

```
...
```

```
dB :: (Int -> Int -> Expr) -> Expr -> Expr
```

```
dB var = go 0
```

```
  where
```

```
    go i (App e1 e2) = App (go i e1) (go i e2)
```

```
    go i (Lam t e) = Lam t (go (i + 1) e)
```

```
    ...
```

Type checking

```
infer :: Env -> Expr -> Maybe Ty
infer env (App e1 e2) = do
  TFun t1 t2 <- infer env e1
  check env e2 t1
  pure t2
infer env (Lam t1 e) = do
  t2 <- infer (Extend env t1) e
  pure (TFun t1 t2)
...
```

Simply Typed Lambda Calculus

```
e ::= ...  
  | let x = e1 in e2  
  | x  
  | \ x -> e  
  | e1 e2  
  
t ::= ...  
  | t1 -> t2
```

The system that has only variables, abstraction and application and function types is called the **simply typed lambda calculus**.

We have now built an extension of the simply typed lambda calculus.

Recursion (Version 4)

Introduction and elimination forms

Data types usually come with two forms of language features:

- ▶ constructs that **introduce** an expression of that type,
- ▶ constructs that **eliminate** an expression of that type.

Example

Functions:

- ▶ introduced via lambda: $\lambda x \rightarrow e$,
- ▶ eliminated via application: $e_1 e_2$.

Booleans:

- ▶ introduced via their constructors **F** and **T** ,
- ▶ eliminated via if-then-else: **if** e_1 **then** e_2 **else** e_3 .

Revisiting natural numbers

Natural numbers:

- ▶ introduced via their constructors `Z` and `S` ,
- ▶ eliminated via ... `==` ?

Revisiting natural numbers

Natural numbers:

- ▶ introduced via their constructors `Z` and `S` ,
- ▶ eliminated via ... `==` ?

We do not yet have a **proper** elimination form.

We need a construct that provides at least case distinction, and ideally some form of induction.

Adding recursion

We choose to handle general recursion via its own construct (but that is a big choice):

$e ::= \dots$
| **letrec** $x : t = e_1$ **in** e_2

$$\text{Letrec} \frac{\Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_1 : t_1 \quad \Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{letrec } x : t_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : t_2}$$

Adding recursion

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$e ::= \dots$
| **letrec** $x : t = e_1$ **in** e_2

$$\text{Letrec} \frac{\Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_1 : t_1 \quad \Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{letrec } x : t_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : t_2}$$

Compare with the rule for non-recursive let:

$$\text{Let} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t_1 \quad \Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e_2 : t_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : t_2}$$

s-letrec

letrec $x : t_1 = e_1$ **in** $e_2 \longrightarrow e_2[x \mapsto \text{letrec } x : t_1 = e_1 \text{ in } e_1]$

Non-termination

It is not difficult to write a non-terminating program with **letrec** :

```
letrec x : Nat = x in x
→ letrec x : Nat = x in x
→ letrec x : Nat = x in x
→ ...
```


Productive loops

```
letrec x : Nat = S x in x  
→ letrec x : Nat = S x in S x  
→ S (letrec x : Nat = S x in S x)
```

According to our semantics, this result is a value (in weak head normal form).

Strong normalisation

In fact, without a construct such as **letrec**, the simply typed lambda calculus is **strongly normalising**: it is impossible to write programs that have infinite reduction sequences.

Strong normalisation

In fact, without a construct such as **letrec** , the simply typed lambda calculus is **strongly normalising**: it is impossible to write programs that have infinite reduction sequences.

Strong normalisation can be retained if we add recursion in a more careful way, such as a specific induction principle on natural numbers.

Pattern matching on natural numbers

$e ::= \dots$
| **case** e_1 **of** $Z \rightarrow e_2; S\ x \rightarrow e_3$

$$\text{CaseNat} \frac{\begin{array}{c} \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{Nat} \\ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : t \quad \Gamma, x : \text{Nat} \vdash e_3 : t \end{array}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case } e_1 \text{ of } Z \rightarrow e_2; S\ x \rightarrow e_3 : t}$$

case Z **of** $Z \rightarrow e_2; S\ x \rightarrow e_3 \longrightarrow e_2$

case $S\ e_1$ **of** $Z \rightarrow e_2; S\ x \rightarrow e_3 \longrightarrow e_3[x \mapsto e_1]$

$e_1 \longrightarrow e'_1$

case e_1 **of** $Z \rightarrow e_2; S\ x \rightarrow e_3 \longrightarrow$ **case** e'_1 **of** $Z \rightarrow e_2; S\ x \rightarrow e_3$

Example

```
letrec
  add : Nat -> Nat -> Nat =
    \ (m : Nat) -> \ (n : Nat) ->
      case m of
        Z      -> n
        S m'   -> S (add m' n)
in
  add (S (S Z)) (S Z)
```

Recursion and case analysis in Haskell

```
data Expr =  
    ...  
    | Letrec  Ty Expr Expr  
    | CaseNat Expr Expr Expr
```

Evaluation

```
eval :: Expr -> Maybe WHNF
eval (Letrec t e1 e2) = do
  eval (subst (Letrec t e1 e1) e2)
eval (CaseNat e1 e2 e3) = do
  WNat v1 <- eval e1
  case v1 of
    WZ -> eval e2
    WS e'1 -> eval (subst e'1 e3)
...
```



```
dB :: (Int -> Int -> Expr) -> Expr -> Expr
dB var = go 0
  where
    go i (Letrec t e1 e2) =
      Letrec t (go (i + 1) e1) (go (i + 1) e2)
    go i (CaseNat e1 e2 e3) =
      CaseNat (go i e1) (go i e2) (go (i + 1) e3)
    ...
```

Checking

```
infer :: Env -> Expr -> Maybe Ty
infer env (Letrec t1 e1 e2) = do
  check (Extend env t1) e1 t1
  t2 <- infer (Extend env t1) e2
  pure t2
infer env (CaseNat e1 e2 e3) = do
  check env e1 TNat
  t <- infer env e2
  check (Extend env TNat) e3 t
  pure t
...
```

Revisiting the example

```
add :: Expr
add =
  Letrec (TNat `TFun` TNat `TFun` TNat)
    (Lam TNat (Lam TNat
      (CaseNat (Var 1)
        (Var 0)
        (S (Var 3 `App` Var 0 `App` Var 1))))))
    (Var 0 `App` (S (S Z)) `App` S Z)
```

Is inferred to be of type `TNat` .

Evaluates to `S (S (S (Z)))` .

Polymorphism (Version 5)

A lot of concepts / types can be added (or encoded) in STLC, but the type system is actually still quite limited.

A lot of concepts / types can be added (or encoded) in STLC, but the type system is actually still quite limited.

For example, if we wanted to add lists, then we quickly feel the need for **polymorphism**.

Type language

```
t ::= Nat  
    | Bool  
    | t1 -> t2
```

Type language

```
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    | Bool
    | t1 -> t2
```

Goal:

```
...
| a
|  $\forall$  a . t
| [t]
```


Type language

```
t ::= Nat
    | Bool
    | t1 -> t2
```

Goal:

```
...
| a
|  $\forall$  a . t
| [t]
```

Implications:

- ▶ We need variables / binders / substitution on types.
- ▶ There is the potential for types to be ill-formed.

Expression language

Let us ignore lists for now:

```
e ::= ...  
  | \ @a -> e  
  | e @t
```

Expression language

Let us ignore lists for now:

```
e ::= ...  
  | \ @a -> e  
  | e @t
```

Observations:

- ▶ We keep everything explicit, as before, to make inference trivial.
- ▶ The expression and type languages are no longer separate.

Examples

Polymorphic identity function:

```
\ @a -> \ (x : a) -> x
```

The S combinator:

```
\ @a -> \ @b -> \ @c ->  
\ (f : a -> b -> c) ->  
\ (g : a -> b) ->  
\ (x : a) ->  
(f x) (g x)
```

Revisiting environments

We now need contextual information about two kinds of variables.

It is good to keep these together because types mention type variables:

```
 $\varepsilon$ , @a, @b, @c, f : a -> b -> c, g : a -> b, x : a
```

```
 $\varepsilon$ , @a, x : a, @b, y : a -> b
```

We do not have to store further info for types.

Environments with type variables

```
 $\Gamma ::= \varepsilon$   
|  $\Gamma, a : \text{Type}$   
|  $\Gamma, x : t$ 
```

Rules for types

The beginnings of a **kind** system:

TNat $\Gamma \vdash \text{Nat} : \text{Type}$

TBool $\Gamma \vdash \text{Bool} : \text{Type}$

TFun
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Type} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 \rightarrow t_2 : \text{Type}}$$

TVar
$$\frac{a : \text{Type} \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash a : \text{Type}}$$

TForall
$$\frac{\Gamma, a : \text{Type} \vdash t : \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash \forall a . t : \text{Type}}$$

TList
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash [t] : \text{Type}}$$

Type rules

$$\text{TLam} \frac{\Gamma, a : \text{Type} \vdash e : t}{\Gamma \vdash \backslash @a \rightarrow e : \forall a . t}$$

$$\text{TApp} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \forall a . t \quad \Gamma \vdash t' : \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash e @t' : t[a \mapsto t']}$$

We need substitution on types.

Revised type rules

Rules where types occur in the syntax now need to check these:

$$\text{Lam} \frac{\Gamma, x : t_1 \vdash e : t_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda (x : t_1) \rightarrow e : t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$$

Similar for letrec.

Evaluation rules

$$w ::= \backslash @a \rightarrow e$$
$$(\backslash @a e) @t \longrightarrow e[a \mapsto t]$$
$$\frac{e \longrightarrow e'}{e @t \longrightarrow e' @t}$$

We also need to substitute types in expressions (which in turn can contain types again).

This is now all more of the same ...

```
e ::= Nil t
    | (Cons e1 e2)
    | case e1 of Nil -> e2; Cons x1 x2 -> e3
```

Type rules

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Nil} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \text{Type}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{Nil } t : [t]} \qquad \text{Cons} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : t \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : [t]}{\Gamma \vdash \text{Cons } e_1 \ e_2 : [t]} \\[2ex] \text{CaseList} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_2 : t' \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : [t] \quad \Gamma, x_1 : t, x_2 : [t] \vdash e_3 : t'}{\Gamma \vdash \text{case } e_1 \text{ of Nil } \rightarrow e_2; \text{Cons } x_1 \ x_2 \rightarrow e_3 : t'} \end{array}$$

Evaluation rules

case Nil t **of** Nil $\rightarrow e_2$; Cons $x_1 x_2 \rightarrow e_3 \rightarrow e_2$

$e'_3 = e_3[x_2 \mapsto e'_2][x_1 \mapsto e'_1]$

case Cons $e'_1 e'_2$ **of** Nil $\rightarrow e_2$; Cons $x_1 x_2 \rightarrow e_3 \rightarrow e'_3$

$e_1 \rightarrow e'_1$ $e' = \text{case } e'_1 \text{ of Nil } \rightarrow e_2; \text{Cons } x_1 x_2 \rightarrow e_3$

case e_1 **of** Nil $\rightarrow e_2$; Cons $x_1 x_2 \rightarrow e_3 \rightarrow e'$

See code ...

Conclusion

What is next?

A natural extension to System F is System $F\omega$, which basically turns the type language into something akin to the Simply Typed Lambda Calculus, by adding **function kinds**.

Other interesting related topics

- ▶ Proper type inference
- ▶ Dependent types
- ▶ Type classes; adding translation aspects to a type system
- ▶ More efficient implementations (abstract machines; code generation)
- ▶ Other / better ways to handle variables
- ▶ ...