Discussion 6

October 4

Logistics

- A4 due today at 8PM! Late deadline is Monday at 8PM
- A5 will be released later today
- Fill out midterm course evaluations!

Preview for today

- ALFA
 - Sum types
- Recursive ALFA
 - Fixpoints
 - Recursive types
- De Bruijn indices

Sum Types

Sums

Corresponds to disjoint unions in discrete math

● In Hazel: let val: (Type1 + Type2) = ...

Allows you to pick an option between many types;
 think of it like OR for types, in contrast to AND for products

Sums: Examples

• Enums?

(only if you squint; no type safety, no ability to combine types)

OCaml

```
type number =
  | Int of int
  | Float of float

let x : number = Int 10 in
let y : number = Float 1.1 in
(x, y)
```

```
typedef enum {
   ARM_EXCEPTION_RESET = 0,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_UNDEF = 1,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_SWI = 2,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_PREF_ABORT = 3,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_DATA_ABORT = 4,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_RESERVED = 5,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_IRQ = 6,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_FIQ = 7,
   MAX_EXCEPTIONS = 8,
   ARM_EXCEPTION_MAKE_ENUM_32_BIT = 0xfffffff
} Arm_symbolic_exception_name;
```

Algebraic data types

(combines products and sums)

hazel

```
type Exp =
    + Var(String)
    + Lam(String, Exp)
    + Ap(Exp, Exp) in
```

typescript

```
type Alien = {
   type: 'unknown';
}

type Animal = {
   species: string;
   type: 'animal';
}

type Human = Omit<Animal, 'type'> & {
   name: string;
   type: 'human';
}

type User = Animal | Human;
```

Examples of Sum Types (OCaml)

Option

```
type 'a option = None | Some of 'a
```

Result

```
type ('t, 'e) result = Ok of 't | Error of 'e
```

Lists

```
type 'a list = [] | :: of 'a * 'a list
```

Anonymous Binary Sums (ALFA)

- In general sum types can have any number of components
 Type1 + Type2 + Type3 ...
- But for ease of implementation, we focus here on binary sums
 Type1 + Type2
- And to avoid having to implement a system to name our different cases (constructors), we will use anonymous binary sums which always use the constructors L & R

Binary Sums: Introduction & Elimination

• Introduction form: Left & Right Injections

```
L(e_1): Type1 + Type2 (e<sub>1</sub>: Type1)

R(e_2): Type1 + Type2 (e<sub>2</sub>: Type2)
```

• Elimination form: Case expressions

```
case e of (e: Type1 + Type2)

L(x) \rightarrow ... else (x: Type1)

R(y) \rightarrow ... (y: Type1)
```

Are anonymous binary sums enough?

What if we want to pick from more than two kinds of thing?

Are anonymous binary sums enough?

- What if we want to pick from more than two kinds of thing?
- Remember how we build triples from pairs?
 We can do the same for sums.

 N-ary sums can be built up from binary sums, and named constructors can be defined by composing the anonymous constructors L and R

- Suppose we want to represent breakfast options. The choices are
 Cereal, Oatmeal, Pancakes, or Omelet. For the Omelet, we can choose how many eggs; for the Pancakes, whether we want berries
- How do we represent this using a sum type?
 (Let's start with an n-ary sum; then we'll convert to binary)
- We have four kinds of things to choose from, so let's use a 4-way sum

• Breakfast ≡ ?? + ?? + ?? + ??

- Breakfast ≡ ?? + ?? + ?? + ??
- Our first 2 components (cereal, oatmeal) only have one option each

Which types are are appropriate?

```
• Breakfast ≡ Unit + Unit + ?? + ??
```

Our third component can represent the Omelet option,
 where you can specify the number of eggs

What type is appropriate?

■ Breakfast = Unit + Unit + Num + ??

 Our final component can represent the Pancakes option, which can be with or without berries

What type is appropriate?

● Breakfast = Unit + Unit + Num + Bool

How do we make this a binary sum?

● Breakfast = Unit + Unit + Num + Bool

- How do we make this a binary sum?
- Proposals:
 - 1. Breakfast ≡ (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool)
 - 2. Breakfast ≡ ((Unit + Unit) + Num) + Bool
 - 3. Breakfast ≡ Unit + (Unit + (Num + Bool))
- Doesn't really matter. We'll pick (1).

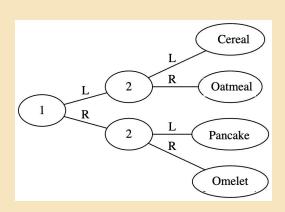
```
Constructors (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool)
let cereal: Breakfast = ?? in
let oatmeal: Breakfast = ?? in
```

let pancake: Bool → Breakfast = ?? in

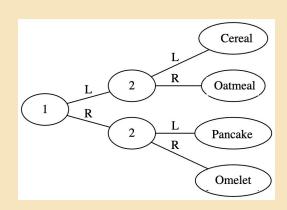
let omelet: Num → Breakfast = ?? in

Constructors (Unit + Unit) + (Bool + Num)

```
let cereal: Breakfast = ?? in
let oatmeal: Breakfast = ?? in
let pancake: Bool → Breakfast = ?? in
let omelet: Num → Breakfast = ?? in
```



```
let cereal: Breakfast = L(L()) in
let oatmeal: Breakfast = ?? in
let pancake: Bool → Breakfast = ?? in
let omelet: Num → Breakfast = ?? in
```



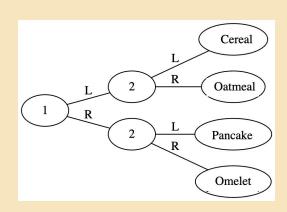
```
Constructors (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool)

let cereal: Breakfast = L(L()) in

let oatmeal: Breakfast = L(R()) in

let pancake: Bool -> Breakfast = ?? in

let omelet: Num -> Breakfast = ?? in
```



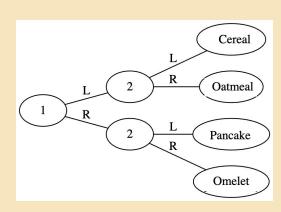
```
Constructors (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool)

let cereal: Breakfast = L(L()) in

let oatmeal: Breakfast = L(R()) in

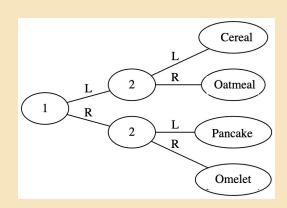
let pancake: Bool → Breakfast = fun b → R(L(b)) in

let omelet: Num → Breakfast = ?? in
```



Constructors (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool)

```
let cereal: Breakfast = L(L()) in
let oatmeal: Breakfast = L(R()) in
let pancake: Bool → Breakfast = fun b → R(L(b)) in
let omelet: Num → Breakfast = fun n → R(R(n)) in
```



```
let eggs_needed =
     ??
```

```
let eggs_needed =
  fun b : (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool) →
     ??
```

```
let eggs_needed =
  fun b : (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool) →
    case b of
    L(x) → ??
  else R(y) → ??
```

```
let eggs_needed =
  fun b : (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool) →
    case b of
    L(x) → 0
    else R(y) → ??
```

```
let eggs_needed =
  fun b : (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool) →
    case b of
    L(x) → 0
    else R(y) →
        case b of
    L(x) → ??
    else R(y) → ??
```

```
let eggs_needed =
  fun b : (Unit + Unit) + (Num + Bool) →
    case b of
    L(x) → 0
    else R(y) →
       case b of
    L(x) → x
    else R(y) → 0
```

Fixpoints

(non-termination for fun and profit)

Some motivation

Recall that we want to define recursive computations

```
let odd be
    fix odd is
        (fun (x : Num) ->
        if x =? 0 then False
        else if x =? 1 then True
        else odd(x - 2))
in ...
```

We can even get mutual recursion (fix on a pair)!

Static semantics of fix

When the self-reference x: τ is incorporated into the typing context,
 the fixpoint body e has the type τ of the self-reference

$$rac{\Gamma, x : au dash e : au}{\Gamma dash ext{fix}(x : au) o e : au}$$

Dynamic semantics of fix

- Replace all instances of the variable x with the fixpoint itself in the body e
 - In many cases, the body will be a function
- When evaluation reaches a recursive call, we'll unroll again to prepare for the next recursive call

$$rac{[ext{fix}(x: au)
ightarrow e/x]e \Downarrow v}{ ext{fix}(x: au)
ightarrow e \Downarrow v}$$

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True

```
odd(3)
                                                              (E-Fix)
\equiv (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
    if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else odd(x - 2))(3)
                                                              (E-Ap)
\equiv (fun (x : Num) ->
    if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
              if x =? 0 then False
              else if x =? 1 then True
              else odd(x - 2))(x - 2)))(3)
```

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True

```
\equiv (fun (x : Num) ->
                                                              (E-Ap)
    if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
        if x =? 0 then False
        else if x =? 1 then True
        else odd(x - 2))(x - 2)))(3)
\equiv (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
                                                              (E-Fix)
        if x =? 0 then False
        else if x =? 1 then True
        else odd(x - 2))(1)
```

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True

```
\equiv (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
                                                              (E-Fix)
        if x =? 0 then False
        else if x =? 1 then True
        else odd(x - 2))(1)
\equiv (fun (x : Num) ->
                                                              (E-Ap)
    if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
              if x =? 0 then False
              else if x =? 1 then True
              else odd(x - 2))(x - 2)))(1)
```

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True

■ True

```
    (fun (x : Num) ->
        if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else (fix odd is fun (x : Num) ->
        if x =? 0 then False
        else if x =? 1 then True
        else odd(x - 2))(x - 2)))(1)
```

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True

That was rather long and tedious—time to introduce some shorthands!

```
e<sub>fun</sub> = fun (x : Num) ->
    if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else e<sub>odd</sub>(x - 2)
e<sub>odd</sub> = fix odd is e<sub>fun</sub>
```

Notice that e_{fun} and e_{odd} are *mutually recursive*!

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True (shortened, full)

```
e_{odd}(\underline{3})
                                                         (E-Fix)
\equiv e_{fun}(\underline{3})
                                                (E-Ap) \equiv if \underline{1} =? \underline{0} then False (E-If-F)
\equiv if \underline{3} =? \underline{0} then False (E-If-F) else if \underline{1} =? \underline{1} then True
                                                                               else e_{odd}(\underline{1} - \underline{2})
   else if 3 =? 1 then True
   else e_{odd}(\underline{3} - \underline{2})
                                                                                  \equiv if \underline{1} =? \underline{1} then True (E-If-T)
\equiv if \underline{3} =? \underline{1} then True (E-If-F) else \underline{e}_{odd}(\underline{1} - \underline{2})
   else e_{odd}(\underline{3} - \underline{2})
                                                                                  ≡ True
\equiv e_{odd}(\underline{3} - \underline{2})
                                                 (E-Minus)
\equiv e_{odd}(\underline{1})
                                                 (E-Fix)
\equiv e_{fun}(\underline{1})
                                                 (E-Ap)
```

Exercise: prove odd($\underline{3}$) = True (shortened)

```
e<sub>fun</sub> = fun (x : Num) ->
    if x =? 0 then False
    else if x =? 1 then True
    else e<sub>odd</sub>(x - 2)
e<sub>odd</sub> = fix odd is e<sub>fun</sub>
```

The proof:

```
\begin{array}{ll}
e_{\text{odd}}(\underline{3}) & (E-Fix) \\
\equiv e_{\text{fun}}(\underline{3}) & (E-Ap) \\
\equiv e_{\text{odd}}(\underline{1}) & (E-Fix) \\
\equiv e_{\text{fun}}(\underline{1}) & (E-Ap) \\
\equiv \text{True}
\end{array}
```

Recursive Types

Motivations

- We've already seen these!
 - Lists
 - Trees
 - Syntax (trees)
- Again, we want recursive data types

```
type NumList =
| Nil
| Cons(Num, NumList)
```

```
type BTree =
| Nil
| Node(Num, BTree, BTree)
```

```
type ALFExpr =
| NumLit(Num)
| Plus(ALFExpr, ALFExpr)
| ...
```

Recursive types to the rescue!

• The type variable, a, is the self reference, and it stands for the recursive type itself in the recursive type's body, τ

```
o rec a is T
```

BTree would be defined in ALFA as:

```
rec btree is Unit + Int x btree x btree
```

• rec is to types as fix is to expressions

Translating to ALFA

```
type NumList =
| Nil
| Cons(Num, NumList)

type BTree =
| Nil
| Node(Num, BTree, BTree)
```

```
type ALFExpr =
| NumLit(Num)
| Plus(ALFExpr, ALFExpr)
| ...
```

```
type NumList =
  rec NumList is 1 + (Num x NumList)
```

```
type BTree =
  rec BTree is 1 + (Num x BTree x
BTree)
```

```
type ALFExpr =
  rec A is Num + (A x A) + ...
```

roll and unroll for BTree

```
\begin{split} \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_{\mathsf{body}} : [(\mathsf{rec}\ a\ \mathsf{is}\ \tau_{\mathsf{body}})/a] \tau_{\mathsf{body}}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{roll}(e_{\mathsf{body}}) : \mathsf{rec}\ a\ \mathsf{is}\ \tau_{\mathsf{body}}} \quad (\mathsf{T}\text{-}\mathsf{Roll}) \\ \\ \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathsf{rec}\ a\ \mathsf{is}\ \tau_{\mathsf{body}}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{unroll}(e) : [(\mathsf{rec}\ a\ \mathsf{is}\ \tau_{\mathsf{body}})/a] \tau_{\mathsf{body}}} \quad (\mathsf{T}\text{-}\mathsf{Unroll}) \end{split}
```

```
= rec btree is Unit + Int x btree x btree
BTree
BTreeunrolled
              = Unit + Int X (rec btree is Unit + btree x btree) X (rec btree is Unit + btree x btree)
      : BTree<sub>unrolled</sub> -> BTree
roll
roll
           : Unit + Int X (rec btree is Unit + btree x btree) X (rec btree is Unit + btree x btree)
           -> rec btree is Unit + Int x btree x btree
(introduction form)
unroll : BTree -> BTree unrolled
unroll : rec btree is Unit + Int x btree x btree
          -> Unit + Int X (rec btree is Unit + btree x btree) X (rec btree is Unit + btree x btree)
(elimination form)
```

roll and unroll for BTree

- Constructing BTree requires roll
- Consuming BTree requires unroll

Evaluation semantics

Q: What's the result of evaluating unroll (roll(3))?

A: 3. Rolling and then unrolling a value gives the value back.

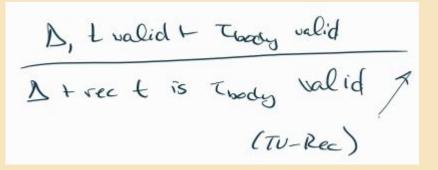
$$\frac{e \Downarrow v}{\mathsf{roll}(e) \Downarrow \mathsf{roll}(v)} \quad \text{(Eval-Roll)} \qquad \qquad \frac{e \Downarrow \mathsf{roll}(v)}{\mathsf{unroll}(e) \Downarrow v} \quad \text{(Eval-Unroll)}$$

Type validity(?!)

Notice that we now might have unbound type variables(!)

UhOh = rec a is Unit + b (b is unbound!)

Solution: A type validity judgment



α-equivalence ("alpha-equivalence")

- Expressions e_1 and e_2 are α -equivalent if they are "basically equivalent up to bound variable names"
 - i.e. they have the *same binding structure*
- Same with types: rec t is Unit + t ≡ rec nat is Unit + nat

De Bruijn Indices

(solves problems)

Representing terms without variable names

With De Bruijn indices, you can write expressions and types without variable names:

```
fun x -> fun y -> fun z -> (x(z))(y(z))
becomes
fun · -> fun · -> (2(0))(1(0))
```

Each variable occurrence is represented by a natural number that denotes the *number of binders in scope* between that occurrence and its binder

Recursive types with De Bruijn Indices

We can rewrite our recursive types from before:

```
Nat = rec \cdot is Unit + 0

List = rec \cdot is Unit + Int x 0

BTree = rec \cdot is Unit + Int x 0 x 0
```

But why?

α-equivalence is made trivial
 rec t is Unit + t and rec nat is Unit + nat
 become syntactically identical: rec · is Unit + 0

- Makes safe substitution easier
- Nice when using proof assistants

Some practice

Convert the types to / from their De Bruijn representation

```
REC X 15 (X + (REC Y 15 (X + NUM)))

REC . 15 (REC . 15 (REC . 15 (FEC . 15
```

Some practice

Convert the types to / from their De Bruijn representation

```
REC X 15 (X + (REC Y 15 (X + NUM)))

REC · 15 (Ö + (REC · 15 (T + NUM)))

REC · 15 (REC · 15 (REC · 15 (REC · 15 ( T + Q + P))))

REC P 15 (REQ Q 15 (REC R 15 (REC T 15 (T + Q + P))))
```