

***[ In 41/4749 today at 10:00am ]***

## **Agenda:**

- Design work:
  - Optional parameters
  - Mixins and traits
  - Support for dynamic loading
  - /r and #reference and other meta-directives
  - Generics
  - Inference for lambdas
  - ES6 alignment: consider targeted expression-level features (destructuring? const?)
- Anything else?

## **Optional parameters:**

```
function foo(x: number, y: number, z: string = undefined, w: bool = true) {  
}
```

```
interface Foo {  
  foo(x:number, y:number = ?, z: string = ?): number;  
  bar(x:number, y?:number, z?:string): number;  
}
```

? Is optional in declaration when "= true"

## Overloading

May be back for heterogeneous  
return types

```
function Vec {  
  this.x = x;  
  this.y = y;  
  this.z = z;  
}
```

## Thoughts:

- No classes across compilations:
  - o Large software would need to all compile together

```
fucntion Point(x,y) {  
  this.x = x;  
  This.y  
}
```

```
Function () {  
  var x = {a: 1, b: 2, c: 3, d: 4};  
  x.c = "hello";  
  x.d = 0;  
}
```

## Auto-lift constants

**Decision:** We  
Could we say -

But if we infer  
side? Do we h

## Mixins:

```
class Foo extends C1, ..., CN, I1, ..., In requires J1, ... Jn implements K1, ... Kn {  
  
}
```

**Decision:** Remove mixins, keep classes/interfaces

```
ctor: Vector_Static = (x,y,z) {
```

```
b: 2}
```

think there is something we can do, but  
- any function declaration

the static side, what about the instance  
have to track the

Modules:

```
// .str
export interface I { ... }
export function foo(s: string): string;
```

```
// .js
This.foo = function...
This.x = "...";
```

```
// .i.str
Interface I {...}
Function foo(s: string): string;
```

Lib.str  
Mona

```
//-----
module M from "foo.js", "bar.js"
```

One of the things we didn't get to yesterday was to explore how to do dynamic module loading. Below is a start at doing that, assuming that we keep the "derivation without representation" paradigm that we discussed yesterday. The below also covers export vs. private etc.

**Decision.** Remove mixins, keep classes/interfaces

Yesterday we decided that

- a) It probably makes sense to think of generic methods as “bundles”.
- b) We should try addressing calls to generic methods *with* declarations first.

So here are some examples looking at calls to generic methods “bundles”. I am making one more limiting assumption and no functions yet – instead when methods take function parameters that already have a declared type. That way we can worry about function types first.

I do want to non-humbly tease that there is *awesome insight* in sequence 😊. After, I deeply appreciate any thoughts you have.

Mads

### One covariant T in parameters:

```
m<T>(t:T): T;  
var r = m(7);
```

Here it seems clear that `r` should get the type `number`. Out of all possible types `number` is “best”. There could be a couple of reasons *why* we decide whether to allow “reverse assignability” (assigned less specific arguments to methods. If we don’t, then only overloads with more specific arguments apply in the first place. If we do, then all the overloads with more specific arguments (which are subtypes of `number`) *also* apply.

We probably want to say that overloads requiring reverse assignability apply at all, or only apply if there aren’t any others. If that is the case, then here is those where `T` is `number` or a subtype.

s an infinite bundle of overloads, and  
without the presence of other overload

ds from the viewpoint of “overload  
t thinking about lambdas passed to  
ters I am restricting to passing functions  
out dealing with the contravariance effects

t towards the end, but you should read it all  
have.

f the infinite bundle it seems that the result  
y it is best, though. First of all we have to  
s specific to more specific types) for  
n the type `number` and its supertypes even  
enum types, plus the `null` and `undefined`

signability of arguments either *don't* apply  
se, then the set of applicable overloads

First, we have been discussing over the past few weeks that modules combine multiple ideas: view modules as establishing a namespace in which to place types and simultaneously the ability to place a variable inside a scope. To get dynamically loadable modules, we need to keep a version of the module but ditch the latter. To do so we need some syntax, which for this draft will be the keyword `hidden` indicating that the module is not placed in its surrounding scope.

Next, we need some way to describe the type of the dynamic module. We can do so with the following steps:

1. We let interfaces nest. This has the beneficial side-effect of clearing one of our long-standing issues: representation of recursive types. For example: `function f()=>f` has the type `{ interface f { ():f; }; ():f }`.
2. We describe the *compile-time* effect of a hidden module named `M` on its surrounding scope (which is the global scope because only non-nested modules can be hidden), as creating an interface named `M`, but not a variable named `M`. This is different from a regular module which establishes a namespace. One of the consequences of this is that if a regular module exports a class `C`, a client of that module can derive from `C`, because `C` is a type accessible through the namespace established by the regular module. However, the hidden module's type is an interface, identical to the interface that would be generated for an interface file from a regular module.
3. We describe the *run-time* effect of a hidden module as adding the exported variables of the module to 'this' whatever its current value (it does not have to be the global object).
4. Clients of a hidden module use a loading function to add the hidden module's proper type to the object. For example,
  - a. `var localM={} as M;`
  - b. `loaderCode.call(localM,"M.str");`
5. Clients of multiple hidden modules can combine those modules by creating an interface `M extends M1, M2`; The client could then execute the loader code accumulating both `M1` and `M2` into `localM`.

A bonus of nested interfaces is that we may be able to use them to eliminate the `extern` module. `extern` as something that modifies only class properties or module variables. To do this, we can express what is now an `extern` module as a nested interface `M` followed by the declaration of a variable of the same name as in `extern var M:M;`

Thinking through this set of changes made me think again about a consequence of the ES6 changes which we discussed yesterday: we have module variables which may be exported but we have class properties which may be private (Mads brought this up at the end of the meeting). Seems that module variables are the correct defaults (module default private; class default public), but the vocabulary is

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declaration of  
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There are still a couple of potential reasons we could employ  
Either because the `number` overload is *best* by some rule (e.g.  
`number` is the winner, or summary, or intersection of all the `m`

### One contravariant T in parameters:

```
m<T>(f:(t:T)=>string): T;  
g: (x:number)=>string;  
var r = m(g);
```

This example is a little weird. I take a function of something a  
bit contrived? What kind of function would do that? We can  
function of `T` instead of a `T`:

```
m<T>(f:(t:T)=>string): (t:T)=>bool;  
g: (x:number)=>string = ...;  
var r = m(g);
```

Now you can imagine that `m` e.g. composes the incoming fun  
string that results in a `bool`. The question is, what is the type  
(`x:number`)=`>bool`, but let's see what we can get from rules  
overloads of `m` that are applicable are those where the param  
a supertype thereof. Wait, what is a supertype of a function  
more general (but they are all `string` here so that doesn't m  
*specific!!!* For instance, `m<{}>` is *not* applicable, but `m<E>` for

So the set of applicable overloads is mighty different than be  
*subtypes* rather than a finite set of *supertypes*. But it doesn't  
type (by subtyping) is still the one where `T` is `number`. Remen  
applicable precisely because their parameter types were sup  
one is a subtype of all the others.

Similarly if we look at return types: If we pick the most specif  
one. If we combine them all with intersection or whatever, it  
surprisingly perhaps, nothing new here compared to the cov

### Two covariant T's in parameters:

```
m<T>(a: T, b: T): T;  
var r = m(bicycle, bus);
```



why `number` should be the return type.  
(. subtyping on parameter types), or because  
return types of all the applicable overloads.

and return that something? Surely this is a  
make it more realistic by returning a

function with some post-processing of the  
of `r`? Clearly we'd like it to be  
like what we applied above. First of all, the  
parameter type for `f` is `(x:number)=>string` or  
type? It is one where the return type is  
matter) *or the parameter types are more*  
some enum type `E` is.

before, in that the `T`'s are an infinite set of  
matter much. The most specific parameter  
number, those other candidates where  
subtypes of `(x:number)=>string`. So that

of the return types it will be the right  
it will be the right one. So, somewhat  
variant case above.

different. We need a word that means the opposite of export, but not import, more like pre-export. The only things that come to mind seem somewhat political: embargo, blockade

Steve

event  
e, etc.

```
var r = m(bicycle, bus);
```

Imagine a `choose` method which returns one of its two arguments. The applicable overloads are those where `T` is a supertype of both arguments; finding the most specific common supertype; let's call it `Vehicle` (no name anywhere in the program). Clearly the overload with `Vehicle` is the one above, so the only thing new here is that we have to accept `Vehicle` (which isn't particularly hard to do in a structural system).

### Two contravariant `T`'s in parameters:

```
m<T>(f:(t:T)=>string, g:(t:T)=>number): (t:T)=>boolean  
h: (x:Bicycle)=>string;  
i: (x:Bus)=>number;  
var r = m(h,i);
```

OK, let's say that this method returns a function that returns `boolean` by `f` applied to its argument `t` is greater than the number returned by `g`. Your brain to mush, don't worry about it – just saying that the applicable overloads are those where `T` is a subtype of `Bicycle` and also a subtype of `Bus`, the general common subtype; say `Buscycle`. While it is rather unusual, it is no harder for the compiler to produce that type than it is to produce `Vehicle` as we did above.

While applicable overloads exist using *subtypes* of `Buscycle` (e.g. `Buscycle` instance), the one with `Buscycle` is clearly the *least* useless, and the one with `Vehicle` is the *most* useless. Note that it is no accident that the result here is rather `Vehicle` functions that only work for bicycles with functions that only work for buses. A whole lot of common ground there. So it is no failure of the system, it is a failure of the scenario.

More interesting would be if we had used `Vehicle` instead of `Vehicle`. It would be (using all suggested approaches) the overload based system. With more with a less general function we get the type of the less general function.

### Co- and contravariant `T`'s in parameters:

```
m<T>(a:T f:(t:T)=>bool): T;  
g: (t:Vehicle)=>bool;  
var r = m(bus, g);
```

ments based on the phases of the Moon.  
of **Bicycle** and also of **Bus**. This amounts to  
icycle (though it may not be defined with a  
ehicle is the “best” by all the definitions  
synthesizing best common supertypes

ol;

true if the length of the `string` returned  
urned by `g` applied to `t`. (if that just turned  
e signature is plausible). The applicable  
o of **Bus**. This amounts to finding the most  
nlikely that any buscycles actually exist, it is  
compute a most specific common supertype

(Buscycleries and Buscyclanes for  
and indeed the one rules like above would  
ner useless. We are trying to combine  
work for busses. There shouldn’t be a  
system to produce this useless result; it is a

of **Bus** in the example. Here the outcome  
ed on **Bicycle**. I.e. when we combine a  
general.

Combining what we have seen above, the applicable overload is `m<Vehicle>` and a *subtype* of `Vehicle`. Now something interesting happens: better for the first argument it gets worse for the second. Good for *one* *overload*!! Look at the endpoints, `Bus` and `Vehicle` for instance, the first parameter. However, almost as clearly `Vehicle=>bool` is the better parameter! So based on parameters, `m<Vehicle>` and `m<Bus>` are in overloads in between.

It is tempting to apply an arbitrary rule here – e.g. “pick the most specific” would cause us to infer the type of `r` to be `Bus`. That seems right, but it will be wrong. Consider this slight variation:

```
n<T>(a:T f:(t:T)=>bool): (t:T)=>bool;  
g: (t:Vehicle)=>bool;  
var r = n(bus, g);
```

Everything but the return type (and the name of the method) would give us the *least* useful type possible as the return type.

It is time to think deeper about what these overloads really mean. *one* implementation at runtime. That implementation has *no* way to infer, and it has *no* access to the compile time types of any of the arguments *themselves*, including what runtime type information they have.

We should therefore feel confident that the return type provided is a correct (if incomplete) type for what the implementing method is satisfying that overload’s static types. Think about that for a moment: *applicable overloads are right*. In other words, the actual value returned is *return types that the applicable overloads provide!*

To see this more clearly, take the arguments `bus` and `g` above and do the following:

```
var h: (t:Bus)=>bool = g; // totally safe and legal  
var r2 = m(bus, h);
```

We’ve called the same runtime method with the same object. There’s just one applicable overload!

ds are those where T is a *supertype* of Bus  
ens, though. Whenever an overload gets  
ing by parameter types, *there is no best*  
ce. Clearly Bus is better than Vehicle for  
ool is better than Bus=>bool for the second  
> are equally good, and so are all the

most specific of the T's", which in this case  
ight enough in this case. But this might as

) is the same. But now that arbitrary rule  
e.

mean. Recall that the overloads represent  
o access to any type argument we happen to  
f its arguments. It only has access to the  
tion it can glean.

vided by *any* applicable overload represents  
thod would produce on *any* arguments  
second. What that means is that *all of the*  
ue returned by the call will have *all the*

e. Without any unsafe stuff going on I can

al

ts, but now clearly the result is a Bus!

Conversely we can do:

```
var vehicle: Vehicle = bus; // boringly legal
var r2 = n(vehicle, g);
```

And just as clearly the result is a  $(v: \text{Vehicle}) \Rightarrow \text{bool}$ . Again,

In both cases, by *weakening* our static knowledge about an argument type possible. That must mean that result type really actually are not a correct representation of the behavior of the runtime (we'll issue another day).

So because all overloads represent the same runtime method, the value from *every* applicable overload is true. And of course, that's what you guessed it – the intersection of all those return types. The intersection of return types.

### Co- and contravariant T's in return types:

This is an awesome simple rule to follow and think about: The most general common subtype of all the result types of all the

For generic methods we have to take into account the little subtleties of many applicable overloads. So we need some algorithmic help.

For all the results above it so happened that the combined result type spectrum - it was the most specific of the return types available. Let's combine the last two versions of m

```
m<T>(a:T f:(t:T) => bool): { a:T; f:(t:T) => bool; }
g: (t:Vehicle) => bool;
var r = m(bus, g);
```

The endpoints of the spectrum are  $\{ a:\text{Vehicle}; f:(t:\text{Vehicle}) \Rightarrow \text{bool}; \}$  and  $\{ a:\text{Bus}; f:(t:\text{Bus}) \Rightarrow \text{bool}; \}$ . However, the combined information is that the result is always a  $\{ a:\text{Bus}; f:(t:\text{Vehicle}) \Rightarrow \text{bool}; \}$ . But the result – it fits so snugly with the arguments we passed in! But the program terminates within the lifetime of the Universe. I believe there

, there's just one applicable overload.

argument, we got the most specific result  
y applies! (Unless of course the overloads  
me method – but let's deal with that kind of

d, *everything* we know about the returned  
the combination of all that knowledge is –  
the most general common subtype of all the

the result type of a method application is the  
the applicable overloads.

snag that there are sometimes infinitely  
ndle on this infinity.

result type was at one of the endpoints of a  
ble. However, there may not be such a most  
n and n:

```
hicle)=>bool; } and { a:Bus;  
tells us more than each of these; namely  
; }. It is in fact amazing that this is the  
t we do need a way to find it that  
e is a straightforward algorithm for this:
```



The parameters have essentially given rise to an upper and a lower bound (in the contravariant case). As we construct the result type we keep track of where the parameter occurs covariantly in the declared return type. In the contravariant position we substitute its upper bound. In the covariant positions we substitute its lower. Done.

Thoughts?

Mads

**From:** Mads Torgersen  
**Sent:** Tuesday, December 06, 2011 9:47 AM  
**To:** Strada Design Team  
**Subject:** Some thoughts on generic methods

I've been doing some thinking on generic methods, and the result is a document for before today's meeting. Looking forward to discuss, and a meeting – it had to get written first! ☺

Mads

Generic types seem relatively straightforward. In a structural typing system, a templating mechanism for types.

The real fun comes in with generic methods. Those cannot be templated – rather they are intricately tied to the “ground level” of the language. A generic method, that describes a real-world entity – an actual method – that cannot just be “expanded away.” The underlying runtime behavior is how we shape generic methods.

### **A model of generic methods**

How should we think of generic methods? A good place to start is with the following types:

```
interface A : { f(a: any): any }  
interface B : { f(s: string): string }  
interface C : { f<T>(t: T): T }
```

lower bound for  $T$  (Vehicle and Bus in this case  $T$  occurs contravariantly and where it occurs covariantly we substitute its upper bound).

Below is as much of a summary as I had time for. Apologies for sending this so close to the deadline!

In a world such as ours, they are really just a

in the same way just be thought of as “level” type system itself. When a type has a method present at runtime in an object – the reality therefore needs to play a role in

Start is with subtyping. Assume we have the

What are the subtype relationships between them? There is because co- and contravariance of function types work in opposite relationship between C and the other types though? How should we compare it to the others?

In C# we don't have such problems. The type system is nominal. B.f – they have no relationship. When assigned to a delegate, it is instantiated with type arguments; it doesn't have a type in a

The only reasonable model I can think of in Strada is to say that C is a bundle of overloads, one for each possible instantiation. The form of saying { (t: any): any; (t: {}): {}, ... , (t: number): number } number of similarly structured overloads.

This model lets us compare C to the other types. By our usual and B, because for each overload in each of those, there is a with infinite lists of overloads is interesting territory from an that out: after all these are highly regular sets of overloads in

Conceptually I think the model makes a lot of sense. If a set of function can be called (and the result types that correspond to a description of what generic methods are for.

This model also means that “inferring the type argument” for resolution: which of the infinitely many overloads are *applicable* some about that.

### **Overload resolution**

Overload resolution is again one of those concepts where we C# directly. At runtime there *are* no overloads in Strada – the accurately as possible at compile time. So “overload resolution

- Deciding whether a given function call is well typed
- Determining the return type of the call expression

Because overload resolution does not have runtime semantics, it really seems unfortunate to have to give as a result:

no subtype relationship between A and B  
opposite directions. How about the  
could we think of the type of C.f and

nal, and C.f is just a different f than A.f or  
a generic method in C# must first be  
nd of itself.

that a generic method conceptually is a  
type of C.f is { <T>(t: T): T } which is a short  
er, (t: string): string, ... }; i.e. an infinite

l rules of subtyping, C is a subtype of both A  
conforming overload in C. Of course dealing  
algorithmic perspective, but we'll figure  
nduced by a single declaration.

of overloads describes the ways in which a  
to each), then this is really an accurate

r a generic method call is an act of overload  
*able*, and which do we pick? So let's talk

e cannot just transfer out experience from  
ey are purely there to describe the typing as  
on" really has two purposes:

c import, there are two kinds of errors it

- Ambiguity: there is no ambiguity at runtime. If two overloads are equally good, it's an error. It's even better than one, and not cause the compiler to give up.
- Getting it wrong: Lack of static information shouldn't be used as an excuse for making type assumptions that are patently bad.

Addressing the first one first, what *should* we do if there is more than one applicable overload? There isn't a good way to choose? We could use a *bad* way to choose, like picking the first one, or making false type assumptions down the road. *Or* we could somehow find a way to “merge” the result types of all the applicable overloads (or, more precisely, the result types of all the overloads for some meaning of that word) and use that as the result type.

There are a number of different approaches one could take to

- Union types – which (confusingly) means types constructed as the union of two or more sets
- Intersection types – which (just as confusingly) means types constructed as the intersection of two or more member sets
- Something in between – e.g. coming up with a notion of types that are constructed as the intersection of two or more sets of objects of the type will have those members

Union types are safe and correct, in that they produce a supertype that is a subtype of each of the types they are formed from, and therefore adequately describing what they have in common. However, they are not very useful because that intersection is often empty. The first thing you want to do is assign to the type you *actually* use.

Intersection types are a lie, but maybe a good lie. They sort of return types at the same time, which is of course preposterous. But what it is *really* supposed to be, it is super useful to be able to have for the result to be a subtype of what you know it to be. This is our reverse assignability rule, I may get to that later.

I've spent a lot of time in the wilderness of optional member without much payoff. I think we'd venture there at our own value. I think both union type and intersection type approach

## Applicability

## When is a function overload applicable? With our C# hat on

overloads apply equally well, that should be  
give up.  
be able to lead us down the wrong path,

more than one applicable overload and there  
use (i.e. arbitrary), but that would lead to  
w “choose all of them”. And by that I mean  
overloads (or at least all the “best” applicable  
the type of the call expression.

to this “merging” business:

ucted by taking the intersection of member

types constructed by taking the union of

of optional members meaning that *some*

ertype of all the possible return types,  
and what can therefore be known about *all*  
ersection of members is often quite trivial.  
*lly* (as a programmer) know it to be.

of claim that the result has *all* the possible  
us. However, if as a programmer you know  
to directly dot into the right members, and  
might offer the opportunity to get rid of

s. All I got was a bunch of complexity  
peril, and waste a lot of time getting little  
nes are worth investigating.

we would base that on “implicit

convertibility” – i.e. assignability – of arguments to parameters  
consider though:

- Should we consider expected result types also? After all, we can limit the number of applicable candidates nicely. As long as we shouldn't get *too* complicated.
- What kind of assignability do we consider? Does the argument type, parameter type, or do we admit overloads that only apply to certain

I won't get into too many pro's and cons now. One thing I will mention in the settings we might get rid of reverse assignability from the language. The reason for reverse assignability is for factories that produce a number of different types. They have their return value (typed by a common supertype) directly. However, if we describe such a factory method as a generic method,

```
make<T>(recipe: string): T
```

And we allow overload resolution (and hence type inference), then we can call this as:

```
Result: MyKindOfProduct = make("MyKindOfProduct");
```

MyKindOfProduct would become an upper bound on T in the method signature. If T is a subtype of MyKindOfProduct would apply. Similarly you could have

```
make("MyKindOfProduct").Foo(7);
```

to be legal, imposing { Foo(a: int): any } as an upper bound on the return type of "make" can probably be summarized as a structural type.

There are guaranteed to be subtleties here, but it is an interesting idea.

## Constraints

One simplification we've considered is to not have constraints on the "merge" model for the return types of applicable overloads, but to call a generic method, the argument types (and also perhaps the return type) upper and lower bounds on type parameters. To the extent that this might be better (at least more precise) to capture those upper and lower bounds on that result type.

er types. There are a number of things to

ll Java does that, and it could really help  
ng as we keep it within the statement, it

rgument type have to be a *subtype* of the  
ply by reverse assignability?

ll dive into: with the right combination of  
nguage! How so? The motivating scenario  
er of different kinds of things to be able to  
ctly assigned to one of those product types.  
method:

) to take expected type into account, then

e call, and hence only the overloads where T  
could consider

n T. In general, the expectations on the  
ctural type.

esting idea to pursue.

ts on type parameters. If we go with a  
this might not be the best option. When we  
(expected result types) will introduce both  
that the result type is itself generic, it would  
lower bounds on the type parameters of



that result type.

### **Lambda arguments**

In C# we infer through lambda arguments by “pushing in” known types and get out the other end.

There is an alternative possible approach in Strada: We could do this compositionally, without considering its context. We could do this: the parameter type of the lambda give rise to a fresh type parameter, we are inferring, and then collecting constraints on that type parameter. The parameter is used in the lambda.

Mads

own parameter types and seeing what we

d find the type of the function expression  
o that by letting each unspecified  
meter on the (generic) function type that we  
parameter based on how the corresponding