# Type-Driven Partial Evaluation without Code Duplication

No Author Given

No Institute Given

Abstract. [1]

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## 1 Introduction

```
def dot[V: Numeric](v1: Vector[V], v2: Vector[V]): V =
  (v1 zip v2).foldLeft(zero[V]){ case (prod, (cl, cr)) =>
    prod + cl * cr
}
```

Fig. 1. Function for computing the dot product over generic Numeric values.

# 2 Formalization $F_{i < :}$

t ::=	Terms:	S, T, U ::=	Types:
x, y	identifier	$iS \Rightarrow jT$	function type
$(x:iT) \Rightarrow t$	function	$\{\overline{x:iS}\}$	record type
t(t)	application	$[X <: iS] \Rightarrow jT$	universal type
$\{\overline{x=t}\}$	record	Any	top type
t.x	selection	iT, jT, kT, lT ::=	Binding-Time Types:
$[X <: iT] \Rightarrow t$	type abstraction	X	type identifier
t[iT]	type application	$T, \ dynamic \ T$	dynamic type
$in line\ t$	inline view	$static\ T$	static type
$dynamic\ t$	dynamic view	$inline\ T$	inline type
v ::=	Values:	$\Gamma ::=$	Contexts:
$x \Rightarrow t$	function value	Ø	empty context
$\{\overline{x=t}\}$	record value	$\Gamma,  x:iT$	term binding
		$\Gamma, X <: iT$	type binding

**Fig. 2.** Syntax of  $F_{i<:}$ 

We formalize the essence of our inlining system in a minimalistic calculus based on  $F_{\leq}$ : with records. To accommodate predictable partial evaluation we introduce binding-time annotations into the type system as first-class types that represent three kinds of bindings:

- 1. **Dynamic binding**. These are the types which express computation at runtime. All types written in the end user code are considered to be dynamic by default if no other binding-time annotation is given.
- 2. **Static binding**. Values of static terms can be computed at compile-time (e.g. constant expressions) but at are still evaluated at runtime by default. All language literals are static by default.
- 3. **Inline binding**. And finally the types that correspond to terms that are hinted to be computed at compile-time whenever possible.

## 2.1 Composition

An interesting consequence of encoding of binding times as first-class types is ability to represent values which are partially static and partially dynamic.

For example lets have a look at simple record that describes a complex number with two possible representations encoded through isPolar flag:

```
complex: static \{isPolar: static Boolean, a: Double, b: Double\} \in \Gamma
```

This type is constructed out of a number of components with varying binding times. Representation encoding is known in advance and is static according to

the signature. Coordinates a and b do not have any binding-time annotation meaning that they are dynamic.

Given this binding to complex in our environment  $\Gamma$  we can use inline to obtain a compile-time view to evaluate acess to isPolar field at compile-time:

#### $inline\ complex. is Polar: inline\ Boolean$

Any statically known expression can be promoted via *inline*. Selection of dynamic fields on the other hand will return dynamic values despite the fact that record is statically known. In practice this can be used to specialize a particular execution path in the application to a particular representation by selectively inlining statically known parts.

Once you have inline view of the term it's also possible to demote it back to runtime evaluation through *dynamic* view.

Not all type and binding time combinations are correct though. We restrict types to disallow nesting of more specific binding times into less specific ones.

**Fig. 3.** Well formed types wff iT

This restiction allows us to reject programs that have inconsistent annotations. For example the following function has incorrectly annotated parameter binding time:

$$(x:inline\ Int) \Rightarrow x+1$$

This is inconsistent because the body of the function might not be evaluated at compile-time (as the function is not inline.) As described in (W-ABS) functions may only have parameters that are at most as specific as the function binding-time. In our example this doesn't hold as *inline* is more specific than implicit *static* annotation on function literal.

## 2.2 Subtyping

Another notable feature of our binding-time analysis system is deep integration with subtyping. We believe that such integration is crucial for an object-oriented language that wants to incorporate partial evaluation.

At core of the subtyping relation we have a subtyping relation on binding-time information with dynamic as top binding-time.

```
i <: dynamic 	ext{ (I-Dynamic)}  inline <: static 	ext{ (I-Static2)}  static <: static 	ext{ (I-Static1)}  inline <: inline 	ext{ (I-Inline)}
```

Fig. 4. Binding-time subtyping.

We proceed by threading binding time information throughout regular  $F_{<:}$  subtyping rules augmented with standard record types.

$$\Gamma \vdash iS <: Any \qquad (S-TOP)$$

$$\Gamma \vdash iS <: iS \qquad (S-REFL)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash iS <: jU \qquad \Gamma \vdash jU <: kT}{\Gamma \vdash iS <: jU \qquad \Gamma \vdash jU <: kT} \qquad (S-ARROW)$$

$$\frac{X <: iT \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash X <: iT} \qquad (S-TVAR)$$

$$\{x_p : i_p T_p \stackrel{p \in 1 \dots n + m}{P} \} <: \{x_p : i_p T_p \stackrel{p \in 1 \dots n}{P} \} \qquad (S-INLINE)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash iS <: iU_1 \vdash jS_2 <: kT_2}{\Gamma \vdash X <: iU_1 \mid \Rightarrow jS_2 <: kT_2} \qquad (S-ALL)$$

$$\frac{\{x_p : i_p S_p \stackrel{p \in 1 \dots n}{P} \} <: \{x_p : i_p S_p \stackrel{p \in 1 \dots n}{P} \}}{\{x_p : i_p S_p \stackrel{p \in 1 \dots n}{P} \}} \qquad (S-PERM)$$

Fig. 5. Subtyping.

Integration between binding-time subtyping and subtyping on regular types is expressed through (S-Inline) rule that merges the two into one coherent relation on binding-time types.

#### 2.3 Generics

Crucial consequence of our design choices made in the system manifests in ability to use regular generics as means to abstract over binding-time without any additional language constructs.

For example given a generic identity function:

$$identity: static ([X <: Any] \Rightarrow static (X \Rightarrow X)) \in \Gamma$$

We can instantiate it to both in static and dynamic contexts through corresponding type application:

$$identity[static\ Int]: static\ (static\ Int \Rightarrow static\ Int)$$
  
 $identity[Int]: static\ (Int \Rightarrow Int)$  (1)

In practice this allows us to write code that is polymorphic in the binding time without any code duplication which is quite common in other partial evaluation systems.

This is possible due to the fact that we've integrated binding time information into types and augmented subtyping relation with subtyping

## 2.4 Typing

To enforce well-formedness of types in a context of partial evaluation we customize standard typing rules with additional constraints with respect to binding time.

$$\frac{x:iT \in \varGamma}{\varGamma \vdash x:iT} \qquad \text{(T-IDENT)} \qquad \frac{t \text{ is not literal} \qquad \varGamma \vdash t: static \ T}{\varGamma \vdash inline \ t: inline \ T}$$

$$\frac{\forall t. \quad \varGamma \vdash t:jT \quad \text{wff } i\{x:jT\}}{\varGamma \vdash i\{\overline{x=t}\}: i\{\overline{x:jT}\}} \qquad \qquad \text{(T-INLINE)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1:i(jT_1 \Rightarrow kT_2) \quad \varGamma \vdash t_2:jT_1}{\varGamma \vdash t_1(t_2): kT_2} \qquad \qquad \text{(T-DYNAMIC)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t:i\{x=jT_1, \overline{y=kT_2}\}}{\varGamma \vdash t.x:jT_1} \qquad \qquad \text{(T-SuB)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t:i\{x=jT_1, \overline{y=kT_2}\}}{\varGamma \vdash i((x:jT_1) \Rightarrow t): i(jT_1 \Rightarrow kT_2)} \qquad \qquad \text{(T-FUNC)}$$

$$\frac{\varGamma, \ X <: jT_1 \vdash t: kT_2 \quad \text{wff } i([X <: jT_1] \Rightarrow kT_2)}{\varGamma \vdash i([X <: jT_1] \Rightarrow t_2): i([X <: jT_1] \Rightarrow kT_2)} \qquad \qquad \text{(T-TABS)}$$

$$\frac{\varGamma \vdash t_1: i([X <: jT_1] \Rightarrow kT_{12}) \quad \varGamma \vdash t_1 r_2 <: jT_{11}}{\varGamma \vdash t_1[tT_2]: [X \mapsto tT_2]kT_{12}} \qquad \qquad \text{(T-TAPP)}$$

Fig. 6. Typing.

The most significant changes lie in:

- Additional checks in literal typing that ensure that constructed values correspond to well-formed types (T-Func, T-Rec, T-TABS). To do this we typecheck literals together with possible binding-time term that might enclose it.
- New typing rules for binding-time views (T-INLINE, T-DYNAMIC). These
  rules only cover non-literal terms as composition of binding-time view and
  literal itself is handled in corresponding typing rule for given literal.

#### 2.5 Partial Evaluation

In order to simplify partial evaluation rules we erase all of the type information before partial evaluation. This means that all functions become function values, type abstraction and application are complete eliminated.

$$\frac{t \leadsto t'}{x \Rightarrow t \leadsto x \Rightarrow t'} \text{ (PE-Func)} \qquad \frac{t \leadsto t'}{inline \ t \leadsto inline \ t'} \text{ (PE-Inline)}$$

$$\frac{t \leadsto t'}{\overline{t} \leadsto \overline{t'}} \text{ (PE-Rec)} \qquad \frac{t \leadsto inline \ t'}{dynamic \ t \leadsto t'} \text{ (PE-Dynamic1)}$$

$$\frac{t \leadsto inline \ \{x = f, y = f_i\}}{t.x \leadsto f} \text{ (PE-ISEL)} \qquad \frac{t \leadsto t' \quad t' \neq inline \ t''}{dynamic \ t \leadsto dynamic \ t'} \text{ (PE-Dynamic2)}$$

$$\frac{t \leadsto t' \quad t' \neq inline \ \{x = f, \overline{y = f_i}\}}{t.x \leadsto t'.x} \qquad \text{ (PE-SEL)}$$

$$\frac{t \leadsto t' \quad t' \neq inline \ x \Longrightarrow t'.x}{t_1 \leadsto inline \ x \Longrightarrow b} \qquad \text{ (PE-IAPP)}$$

$$\frac{t_1 \leadsto t'_1 \quad t_2 \leadsto t'_2 \quad t'_1 \neq inline \ x \Longrightarrow b}{t_1(t_2) \leadsto t'_1(t'_2)} \qquad \text{ (PE-APP)}$$

Fig. 7. Reduction rules for the partial evaluator.

## 2.6 Evaluation

Once partial evaluation is complete we strip all binding-time terms and use regular untyped lambda calculus evaluation rules to perform runtime evaluation.

## 3 Translating Scala to the Core Calculus

The core calculus (§2) captures the essence of user-controlled predictable partialevaluation. In practice, though, it requires an inconveniently large number of inline calls. Moreover, the calculus does not provide a way to define data structures that would correspond to *classes* in modern multi-paradigm languages. In this section we formalize convenient implicit conversions for the calculus (§3.1), a scheme for translating classes into the calculus how to promote constructs classes and *methods* into their partially-evaluated versions (§3.2).

The core rules of the calculus do not support effect-full computations and each inline term is trivially converted to a dynamic term after erasure. In case of languages that do support mutable state and side-effects this needs to be treated specially. For simplicity, we omit side-effects from our discussion and assume that all partially evaluated code is side-effect free and that each inline term can be converted to dynamic code.

## 3.1 Implicit Conversions

One of the core assumptions of the calculus is that all static terms can always be promoted to inline. In case of function interfaces, e.g. the dot function in (§??), that user should not manually promote all arguments to inline. As a convenience for a library user we provide a type-driven conversion by default (C-StaticInline in Figure 8).

$$\frac{\varGamma \vdash t_1 : i(inline \ T_1 \Rightarrow kT_2) \quad \varGamma \vdash t_2 : static \ T_1}{\varGamma \vdash t_1(t_2) : kT_2 \leadsto t_1(inline \ t_2) : kT_2} \ (\text{C-StaticInline})$$

Fig. 8. Type-driven conversions from static terms to inline terms.

## 3.2 Making Object Oriented Constructs Partially Evaluated

```
\begin{aligned} &[[let \ x:T_x=t_x \ in \ t]]=\\ &((x:T_x)\Rightarrow t)(t_x) \end{aligned} &[[let \ type \ T_1=T_2 \ in \ t]]=\\ &([T_1<:T_2]\Rightarrow t)[T_2] \end{aligned} &[[let \ class \ C[A](x:T_x)\{def \ f[B](y:T_y)=t_f\} \ in \ t]]=\\ &let \ type \ C=[A]\Rightarrow \{x:T_x,f:[B]\Rightarrow T_y\Rightarrow T_f\} \ in\\ &let \ C:[A]\Rightarrow (x:T_x)\Rightarrow C[A]=[A]\Rightarrow (x:T_x)\Rightarrow \{x=x,f=[B]\Rightarrow (y:T_y)\Rightarrow t_f\} \ in \ t
```

$$\frac{\varPi \vdash T \in \varPi}{\varPi \vdash iT \leadsto iT} \quad \text{(I-TVAR)} \qquad \frac{\varPi \vdash T \not\in \varPi}{\varPi \vdash iT \leadsto inline \ T} \quad \text{(I-T)}$$

$$\frac{\varPi \vdash \overline{t} \leadsto \overline{t'}}{\varPi \vdash \{\overline{x} = \overline{t}\}} \leadsto \text{inline } \{\overline{x} = \overline{t'}\} \quad \text{(I-REC)}$$

$$\frac{\varPi \vdash t \leadsto t' \quad \varPi \vdash iT \leadsto jT}{\varPi \vdash (x : iT) \Rightarrow t \leadsto inline \ (x : jT) \Rightarrow t'} \quad \text{(I-Func)}$$

$$\frac{\varPi \vdash t \leadsto t'}{\varPi \vdash i([X \lessdot jT_1] \Rightarrow t) \leadsto inline \ ([X \lessdot jT_1] \Rightarrow t')} \quad \text{(I-TABS)}$$

$$\frac{\varPi \vdash t \leadsto t' \quad \varPi \vdash iT \leadsto jT}{\varPi \vdash t[iT] \leadsto t'[jT]} \quad \text{(I-TAPP)}$$

Fig. 9. Translation of a regular class to a compile-time version.

## 4 Case Studies

## 4.1 Integer Power Function

- Explain what happens.
- Typical partial evaluation example. Can be handled by D and Idris and not without duplication with type-driven partial evaluation.

```
@i? def pow(base: Double, exp: Int @i?): Double =
  if (exp == 0) 1 else base * pow(base, exp)
```

Fig. 10. Function for computing the non-negative power of a real number.

## 4.2 Variable Argument Functions

- @i? in argument position is a macro that expands the function to an underlying function @i? def min\_underlying[T: Numeric](values:Seq[T]@i?): T and a macro that will call it according to the input parameters.
- Comparison to other approaches.

```
@i? def min[T: Numeric](@i? values:T*): T =
  values.tail.foldLeft(values.head)((min, el) => if (el < min) el else min)</pre>
```

Fig. 11. Function for computing the non-negative power of a real number.

## 4.3 Butterfly Networks

- Reference LMS. Discuss @i! annotation on classes. Works for both dynamic and static inputs.
- Comparison to LMS. Mention a pervasive number of annotations. Discuss duality of Exp[T] and @i!.

## 4.4 Dot Product

- Explain the removal of type classes together with inline. Explain how type classes are @i? and how they will completely evaluate if they are passed a static value.
- Comparison to other approaches.

```
object Numeric {
  @i! implicit def dnum: Numeric[Double] @i! = DoubleNumeric
  @i! def zero[T](implicit num: Numeric[T]): T = num.zero
  object Implicits {
    @i! implicit def infixNumericOps[T](x: T)(implicit num: Numeric[T]): Numeric[T]#Ops = new
trait Numeric[T] {
  def plus(x: T, y: T): T
  def times(x: T, y: T): T
  def zero: T
 @i! class Ops(lhs: T) {
    @i! def +(rhs: T) = plus(lhs, rhs)
    @i! def *(rhs: T) = times(lhs, rhs)
 }
}
object DoubleNumeric extends Numeric[Double] {
  @i! def plus(x: Double @i?, y: Double @i?): Double = x + y
 @i! def times(x: Double @i?, y: Double @i?): Double = x * y
 @i! def zero: Double = 0.0
}
```

Fig. 12. Function for computing the non-negative power of a real number.

- 5 Evaluation
- 6 Related Work
- 7 Conclusion

## References

1. Eugene Burmako and Martin Odersky. Scala Macros, a Technical Report. In *Third International Valentin Turchin Workshop on Metacomputation*, 2012.