# Simple Types

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Before we Start Some more Coq

#### Induction over natural numbers

N ::= O | S N

#### Induction principle: To prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . P(n):

Base case: Show P(0). Inductive case: Assume P(n). Show P(S(n)).

#### Structural Induction

T ::= Leaf | Node T T

#### **Induction principle:** To prove $\forall t \in T. P(t)$ :

**Base case:** Show P(Leaf). Inductive case: Assume P(t1). Assume P(t2). Show P(Node t1 t2).

## Another Example

#### E ::= Const N | Plus E E | Times E E

## Induction principle:

To prove  $\forall e \in E. P(e)$ :

Base case: Show P(Const n).

#### Inductive case 1:

Assume P(e1). Assume P(e2). Show P(Plus e1 e2). Inductive case 2:

Assume P(e1). Assume P(e2). Show P(Times e1 e2).

# Proofs as a Datatype

**even**(0)

**even**(*n*) **even**(*n*+2)

**Example Derivations:** 



Examples: EvenO : even(0) Even2(EvenO) : even(2) Even2(Even2(EvenO)) : even(4)

## Induction on Proofs (Rule Induction)

	even(n)	
even(0)	<b>even</b> ( <i>n</i> +2)	
<b>even</b> ::= Even0 : <b>even</b> (0)   Even2 ( <b>even</b> <i>n</i> ) : <b>even</b> ( <i>n</i> +2)		
Induction principle: To prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . even(n) $\Rightarrow \mathbb{P}(n)$ :	Because I have a rule that if (n) is even, it lets me prove that (n+2) is even	
Base case: Show P(0).	Inductive case: Assume $P(n)$ . Show $P(n+2)$ .	

Because I have a rule that

lets me prove even(0) so I

need to show that P(0) holds.

Also called Induction on the Structure of Derivations

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### More Rule Induction

eval(Const n, n)

**eval**(*e1*, *n1*) **eval**(*e2*, *n2*) **eval**(Plus e1 e2, n1 + n2)

**Induction principle:** 

To prove  $\forall e \in E, n \in N$ . eval  $e n \Rightarrow P(e, n)$ :

Base case: Show P(Const n, n).

#### **Inductive case:**

Assume P(e1, n1). Assume P(e2, n2). Show P(Plus e1 e2, e2n1 + n2).

### More Tactics

- induction N:
  - Induction on the derivation of the [N]th hypothesis in the conclusion
  - (numbering goes left to right and starts at 1).
- destruct E
  - Do case analysis on the constructor used to build term [E].
- assumption
  - Prove a conclusion that matches a known hypothesis; like doing apply H where H is the known hypothesis.
- eapply thm
  - Like apply, but leaves placeholders for theorem parameters that are not known yet.
- eassumption
  - Like assumption, but also learns values for placeholders in the process.
- rewrite <- H</li>
  - Like [rewrite], but rewrites right-to-left.

## More powerful tactics

- generalize thm1,...,thmN
  - Bring the statements of a set of theorems into the goal explicitly so that other tactics don't need to deduce them manually.
- firstorder
  - Magic heuristic procedure for proofs based on firstorder logic rules.
  - (It's undecidable in general, so don't get too excited.)

#### And now some types!

# Why Types

	let in	f x = if x then 5 else f 5+1	2
let in	f x = f 6	if x then 5 else 2	
let in	f x = if 6 t	if x then 5 else 2 !! chen 5 else 2	

#### What to do in this situation?

- Options
  - 1) Leave it up to the implementation
    - that's the C approach
    - is it a good idea?
  - Provide a mechanism to identify and rule out such "bad" programs
    - programs can only run if you can prove they will execute to completion according to the semantics of the language
    - type systems will allow us to do this!
  - 3) Prescribe correct behavior for every program
    - untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus works like this
    - do any practical languages do this?
    - type systems are useful in this situation too.

#### Self-application and Paradoxes

Self application, i.e., (x x) is dangerous.

Suppose:  $u \equiv \lambda y$ . if  $(y \ y) = a$  then b else a What is  $(u \ u)$ ?  $(u \ u) \rightarrow if (u \ u) = a$  then b else a

Contradiction!!!

This was one of the original motivations for types

## What is a type system

- Narrow View
  - It's a mechanism for ensuring that variables only take values from predefined sets
    - Ex. Integers, Strings, Characters
  - A mechanism for avoiding unchecked errors
    - by ruling out programs with undefined behaviors
    - by specifying how a program should fail (eg. NullPointerException)
- Expansive View
  - It's a light-weight proof system and annotation mechanism for efficiently checking for a specific property of interest
  - Address bugs that go beyond corner-cases in the semantics
    - Information flow violations
    - deadlocks
    - etc, etc, etc

## What are Types?

 A method of classifying objects (values) in a language

 $X :: \tau$ 

says object x has type  $\tau$  or object x belongs to a type  $\tau$ 

•  $\tau$  denotes a set of values.

This notion of types is different from types in languages like C, where a type is a storage class specifier.

## Type Correctness

- If x :: τ then only those operations that are appropriate to set τ may be performed on x.
- A program is type correct if it never performs a wrong operation on an object.
  - Add an Int and a Bool
  - Head of an Int
  - Square root of a list

## Type Safety

- A language is type safe if only type correct programs can be written in that language.
- Most languages are not type safe, i.e., have "holes" in their type systems.

Fortran: Equivalence, Parameter passingPascal: Variant records, filesC, C++: Pointers, type casting

However, Java, Ada, CLU, ML, Id, Haskell, Bluespec, etc. are type safe.

## Type Declaration vs Reconstruction

- Languages where the user must declare the types
  CLU, Pascal, Ada, C, C++, Fortran, Java
- Languages where type declarations are not needed and the types are reconstructed at run time
  - Scheme, Lisp
- Languages where type declarations are generally not needed but allowed, and types are reconstructed at compile time
  - ML, Id, Haskell, pH, Bluespec

A language is said to be statically typed if type-checking is done at compile time

# Polymorphism

- In a monomorphic language like Pascal, one defines a different length function for each type of list
- In a polymorphic language like ML, one defines a polymorphic type (list t), where t is a type variable, and a single function for computing the length
- Haskell and most modern functional languages have polymorphic types and follow the Hindley-Milner type system.

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Simple types = Non polymorphic types
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more on polymorphic types - next time ...

# Formalizing a Type System

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## Formalizing a type system

- The type system is almost never orthogonal to the semantics of the language
  - The types in a program can affect its behavior (e.g. operator overloading)
- We don't define the type system in isolation, we define a typed language including definitions of
  - The syntax
  - dynamic semantics (e.g. operational semantics)
  - static semantics
    - also known as typing rules
    - describe how types are assigned to elements in a program
  - type soundness argument
    - describe the relationship between static and dynamic semantics

## Basic notation

- The type system assigns types to elements in the language
  - basic notation: e : T (e is of type T)
  - What is the type of :

5

?

- The types of some elements depends on the environment
  - basic notation  $\Gamma \vdash e:T$ 
    - (Given environment , we can derive that e is of type T)
  - An environment associates types with free variables
  - This is called a Judgment
  - Ex.  $x:int, y:int \vdash x + y:int$

## **Static Semantics**

- Typing rules
  - Typing rules tell us how to derive typing judgments
  - Very similar to derivation rules in Big Step OS

#### premises Judgment

• Ex. Language of Expressions

$x:T\in\Gamma$		$\Gamma \vdash e1:int$	$\Gamma \vdash e2:int$
$\Gamma \vdash x : T$	$\Gamma \vdash N : int$	Γ ⊢ e1 +	- e2 : int

## Ex. Language of Expressions

$x {:} T \in \Gamma$		$\Gamma \vdash e1:int$	$\Gamma \vdash e2:int$
$\Gamma \vdash x : T$	$\Gamma \vdash N : int$	$\Gamma \vdash e1 +$	- e2 : int

 Show that the following Judgment is valid

x: int, y:  $int \vdash x + (y + 5)$ : int

 $\frac{x:int, y:int \vdash x:int \quad x:int, y:int \vdash (y+5):int}{x:int, y:int \vdash x + (y+5):int}$ 

$x: int \in x: int, y: int$	x: int, y: int $\vdash$ y: int x: int, y: int $\vdash$ 5 : int
$x: int, y: int \vdash x: int$	$x: int, y: int \vdash (y+5): int$
x: in	$xt, y: int \vdash x + (y + 5): int$

# Simply Typed $\lambda$ Calculus (F<sub>1</sub>)

• Basic Typing Rules

$x {:} \tau \in \Gamma$	$\Gamma, \mathbf{x}: \tau_1 \vdash e: \tau_2$	$\Gamma \vdash e_1 \colon \tau' \to \tau  \Gamma \vdash e_2 \colon \tau'$
$\Gamma \vdash x : \tau$	$\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x : \tau_1 \ e) : \tau_1 \to \tau_2$	$\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau$

• Extensions

	$\Gamma \vdash e1:int$	$\Gamma \vdash e2:in$	$nt  \Gamma \vdash e1: int$	$\Gamma \vdash e2:int$
$\Gamma \vdash N : int$	Γ ⊢ e1 +	- e2 : int	Γ ⊢ <i>e</i> 1	= e2 : bool
	$\Gamma \vdash e: bool$	$\Gamma \vdash e_t : \tau$	$\Gamma \vdash e_f : \tau$	

 $\Gamma \vdash if \ e \ then \ e_t \ else \ e_f : \tau$ 

## Example

• Is this a valid typing judgment?

 $\vdash (\lambda x: bool \ \lambda y: int if x then y else y + 1): bool \rightarrow int \rightarrow int$ 

• How about this one?

 $\vdash (\lambda x: int \ \lambda y: bool \ x + y): int \rightarrow bool \rightarrow int$ 

#### Example

What's the type of this function?
 (λ f. λ x. if x = 1 then x else (f f (x-1)) \* x)

$\frac{x:\tau\in\Gamma}{\Gamma\vdash x:\tau}$	$\frac{\Gamma, \mathbf{x}: \tau_1 \vdash e: \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda x: \tau_1 \; e): \tau_1 \to \tau_2}$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \colon \tau' \to \tau  \Gamma \vdash e_2 \colon \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 \colon \tau}$	
$\Gamma \vdash N : int$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e1: int \qquad \Gamma \vdash e2: int}{\Gamma \vdash e1 + e2: int}$	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e1: int \qquad \Gamma \vdash e2: int}{\Gamma \vdash e1 = e2: bool}$	
	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: bool  \Gamma \vdash e_t : \tau  \Gamma \vdash e_f : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash if \ e \ then \ e_t \ else \ e_f : \tau}$		

– Hint: This IS a trick question

# Simply Typed $\lambda$ Calculus (F<sub>1</sub>)

- We have defined a really strong type system on λ-calculus
  - It's so strong, it won't even let us write nonterminating computation
  - We can actually prove this!

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