

Part VI: Type Systems

- Previously, we have considered statically untyped languages.
- We now look at type systems
- A type system is a set of rules which assigns types to parts of programs.
- If some part of a program cannot be assigned a type, the program is rejected with a type error.
- In the following, we will look at some simple type systems and their properties.

Strong/Weak typing vs Static/Dynamic typing

- A language is *strongly typed* or *safe* if violation of its rules will lead to an error, rather than leading to unspecified behavior. Otherwise, we say that the language is *weakly typed* or *untyped*.
- A language is *statically typed* if there is a type system which will disallow certain programs before such programs are run.
- Static and strong typing are not the same:

	strong	weak
static		
dynamic		

- Usually, some safety checks are left until run-time (example: array bounds checking) because they are impractical at compile-time.
- There are languages which guarantee complete safety at compile time, e.g. Martin Loef's type theories.
- But these require proofs of safety properties to be encoded explicitly in the program.

Questions

- What do types signify or guarantee? (\Rightarrow *type soundness*).
- Is *type checking* or *type reconstruction* possible?

The Simply Typed λ Calculus

- Task: Add types to λ calculus.
- Two versions:
 - With explicitly given parameter types (Church)
 - Without (Curry)
- We present the Curry version here.

Alphabets

Variables x, y, z

Type Variables a, b, c

Type Constructors K

In practice, we use arbitrary words instead of single letters.

We write type constructors in upper case, type variables in lower case.

Examples:

$x, f, true, width$ Variables

a, b, c Type variables

$Boolean, List$ Type constructors

Syntax

Terms	E, F	$::=$	x	Variable
			$\lambda x.E$	Abstraction
			$F E$	Application
Types	T, U	$::=$	a	Type variable
			$T \rightarrow U$	Function type
			$K[T_1, \dots, T_n]$	Data type

For type constructors without parameters, we simply write K instead of $K[]$.

Function arrows associate to the right: $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \rightarrow T_3 = T_1 \rightarrow (T_2 \rightarrow T_3)$

Type Assignments

$True$: $Boolean$
 Nil : $List[Boolean]$
 $\lambda x.x$: $Boolean \rightarrow Boolean$
 : $List[Boolean] \rightarrow List[Boolean]$
 : $a \rightarrow a$
 $\lambda x.\lambda y.x$: $a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a$
 $(\lambda x.\lambda y.x)TrueNil$: $Boolean$
 $(\lambda f.\lambda x.fx)$:
 $(\lambda f.\lambda g.\lambda x.f(gx))$:
 x :
 $\lambda x.xy$:

Type Judgments

... are of the form $\Gamma \vdash E : T$.

where $\Gamma = (x_1 : T_1, \dots, x_n : T_n)$ is a *type environment* consisting of a series of variable/type bindings, one for each free variable $x \in \text{fn}(E)$.

Read: “Under assumptions Γ , E has type T ”.

Special case for closed terms (i.e. $\text{fn}(E) = \emptyset$):

$\vdash E : T$ “ E has type T ”

Deduction Systems

A Deduction system defines a formal language of *judgments* \mathcal{J} , together with rules which let one decide whether a judgment is *derivable* or not.

Rules take the form of axioms \mathcal{J} and of deduction rules

$$\frac{\mathcal{J}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathcal{J}_n}{\mathcal{J}'}$$

A judgment \mathcal{J} is derivable iff there is a proof tree such that

- Each leaf of the tree is an instance of an axiom.
- Each internal node of the tree is an instance of a deduction rule
- The root of the tree is the judgment \mathcal{J} .

Intuitionistic Logic

The first deduction systems have been developed for logic calculi.

Example: positive intuitionistic logic.

Let P, Q range over propositions with constant **true**, operators \wedge, \vee and \Rightarrow (missing is **false**, \neg).

Let Π be a *hypothesis*, i.e. a set of propositions which is assumed to be true.

Problem: How to decide whether Π implies P .

Solution: Give a deduction system for judgments of the form $\Pi \vdash P$.

Rules of Intuitionistic Logic

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{(TRUE)} \quad \Pi \vdash \mathbf{true} \\ \text{(TAUT)} \quad \Pi \vdash P \quad (P \in \Pi) \\ \text{(\wedge I)} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash P \quad \Pi \vdash Q}{\Pi \vdash P \wedge Q} \quad \text{(\wedge E)} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash P \wedge Q}{\Pi \vdash P} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash P \wedge Q}{\Pi \vdash Q} \\ \text{(\Rightarrow I)} \quad \frac{\Pi, P \vdash Q}{\Pi \vdash P \Rightarrow Q} \quad \text{(\Rightarrow E)} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash P \Rightarrow Q \quad \Pi \vdash P}{\Pi \vdash Q} \\ \text{(\vee I)} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash P}{\Pi \vdash P \vee Q} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash Q}{\Pi \vdash P \vee Q} \\ \text{(\vee E)} \quad \frac{\Pi \vdash P \vee Q \quad \Pi, P \vdash R \quad \Pi, Q \vdash R}{\Pi \vdash R} \end{array}$$

Example Proof

Let $\Pi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P \vee Q), (P \Rightarrow Q)$.

Then:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\frac{\frac{\Pi, P \vdash (P \Rightarrow R)}{\Pi, P \vdash R}}{\Pi, P \vdash Q \vee R}}{\Pi \vdash P \vee Q}}{\Pi \vdash Q \vee R}}{(P \vee Q) \vdash (P \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q \vee R}}{\vdash (P \vee Q) \Rightarrow ((P \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q \vee R)} \quad \frac{\frac{\Pi, Q \vdash Q}{\Pi, Q \vdash Q \vee R}}$$

How to derive type judgments

Assume as given for each constant C a set $\mathbf{typeof}(C)$ of types.

Then we can derive type judgments by the following rules.

$$(\text{VAR}) \quad \Gamma, x : T, \Gamma' \vdash x : T \quad (x \notin \text{dom}(\Gamma'))$$

$$(\rightarrow\text{I}) \quad \frac{\Gamma, x : T \vdash E : U}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. E : T \rightarrow U}$$

$$(\rightarrow\text{E}) \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash M : T \rightarrow U \quad \Gamma \vdash N : T}{\Gamma \vdash M N : U}$$

Examples

id $\equiv \lambda x.x$: ?
apply $\equiv \lambda f.\lambda x. f\ x$: ?
twice $\equiv \lambda f.\lambda x. f\ (f\ x)$:
compose $\equiv \lambda f.\lambda g. f\ (g\ x)$:

Exercise: : Construct proofs for these judgements.

Constants and Polymorphism

Nearly all programs are not closed terms but make use of predefined constants such as `true` or `if`.

We'd like to add these to an *initial environment* which is used to type whole programs.

But some constants have multiple types.

Example:

```
Nil : List[Int]
Nil : List[List[Int]]
Nil : List[a]
```

We subsume all of these types by a *type scheme* (or: *polymorphic type*).

$$\text{Type Scheme } S ::= T \mid \forall a.S$$

Instantiation

Type schemes can be instantiated by the following elimination rule:

$$(\forall E) \frac{\Gamma \vdash E : \forall a.S}{\Gamma \vdash E : [T/a]S}$$

($[T/a]$ is *substitution*. $\forall a.S$ is called a *type scheme* or *polymorphic type*).

Example:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash Nil : \forall a.List[a]}{\Gamma \vdash Nil : List[Int]}$$

For the moment, we will admit polymorphism only for predefined constants, therefore an introduction rule for \forall is missing.

Some Useful Constants and their types

Nil : $\forall a. \text{List}[a]$
Cons : $\forall a. a \rightarrow \text{List}[a] \rightarrow \text{List}[a]$
head : $\forall a. \text{List}[a] \rightarrow a$
tail : $\forall a. \text{List}[a] \rightarrow \text{List}[a]$
isEmpty : $\forall a. \text{List}[a] \rightarrow \text{Boolean}$

true : Boolean
false : Boolean
if : $\forall a. \text{Boolean} \rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$

0, 1, 2, ...: Int
plus : $\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
eq : $\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Boolean}$
fix : $\forall a. (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a$

Example

Let

```
length =  
  fix (λ length.λ xs.  
    if (isEmpty xs)  
      0  
      (plus 1 (length (tail (xs)))))
```

Show

```
⊢ length: List[a] → Int
```

Question: What do types signify?

Answer: “Types are sets of values”. E.g.

$$T \approx \{V \mid V : T\}$$

where

$$\text{Value } V ::= x \mid \lambda x.E$$

Question: Why is this useful?

Answer: Type judgements are preserved under reduction.

Subject Reduction and Type Soundness

Theorem: (Subject-Reduction) $\Gamma \vdash E : T$ and $E \rightarrow F$ imply $\Gamma \vdash F : T$.

Note: the converse of subject-reduction does not hold. I.e.

$$\Gamma \vdash F : T \wedge E \rightarrow F \not\Rightarrow \Gamma \vdash E : T$$

Definition: A language of terms E is *type-sound* if whenever $\vdash E : T$ then either E diverges or E reduces to a value of type T .

Type soundness is more than subject-reduction, since subject reduction still admits reduction of terms to “get stuck” in a non-value.

Theorem: Simply-typed lambda calculus is type-sound.

Product- and Sum-Types

In system discussed so far does not yet have types for products and sums.

The *product type* $T \times U$ represents all pairs whose first component is of type T and whose second component is of type U .

Problem: Design syntax and typing rules for formation of pairs and operations on them.

The *sum type* $T + U$ represents a tagged union of the types T and U .

Problem: Design syntax and typing rules for formation of tagged unions and operations on them.

The Curry-Howard Isomorphism

The deduction system for intuitionistic logic and the deduction system for simply typed lambda calculus are remarkably similar!

We observe:

Formula	\approx	Type
Hypothesis	\approx	Type environment
\Rightarrow	\approx	\rightarrow
\wedge	\approx	\times
\vee	\approx	$+$

If types in lambda calculus are formulas of logic, what are the terms of lambda calculus?

Terms Are Proofs

Given a type judgement $\Gamma \vdash E : T$, we can interpret E as a proof of the formula represented by T .

Example 1: The deduction rule

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash E_1 : T_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash E_2 : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash (E_1, E_2) : T_1 \times T_2}$$

can be interpreted as:

“Given a proof E_1 of T_1 and a proof E_2 of T_2 we combine the two proofs to yield a proof of $T_1 \wedge T_2$.”

Logical Frameworks

The Curry-Howard Isomorphism is used in interactive theorem provers such as LCF, ELF, HOL, Isabelle.

The user of such a prover encodes a proposition as a type and then proves the proposition by presenting a term which has this type.

Type systems are usually richer than the one we have seen – in particular they admit often admit types which depend on values.

Example: $Array(N)$ – the types of arrays with length N .

Type Checking and Type Reconstruction

We now come to the question of type checking and type reconstruction.

Type checking:

Given Γ , E and T , check whether $\Gamma \vdash E : T$

Type reconstruction:

Given Γ and E , find a type T such that $\Gamma \vdash E : T$

Type checking and reconstruction seem difficult since parameters in lambda calculus do not carry their types with them.

Type reconstruction also suffers from the problem that a term can have many types.

Idea: : We construct all type derivations in parallel, reducing type reconstruction to a unification problem.

From Judgements to Equations

$TP : \text{Judgement} \rightarrow \text{Equations}$

$TP(\Gamma \vdash E : T) =$

case E of

x : $\{\Gamma(x) \hat{=} T\}$

$\lambda x.E'$: **let a, b fresh in**
 $\{(a \rightarrow b) \hat{=} T\} \cup$
 $TP(\Gamma, x : a \vdash E' : b)$

$E E'$: **let a fresh in**
 $TP(\Gamma \vdash E : a \rightarrow T) \cup$
 $TP(\Gamma \vdash E' : a)$

Constants

Constants are treated as variables in the initial environment.

However, we have to make sure we create a new instance of their type as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathit{newInstance}(\forall a_1, \dots, a_n. S) = \\ \mathbf{let } b_1, \dots, b_n \mathbf{ fresh in } \\ [b_1/a_1, \dots, b_n/a_n]S \\ \\ TP(\Gamma \vdash E : T) = \\ \mathbf{case } E \mathbf{ of} \\ \quad x \quad : \quad \{ \mathit{newInstance}(\Gamma(x)) \hat{=} T \} \\ \quad \dots \end{aligned}$$

Soundness and Completeness I

Definition: In general, a type reconstruction algorithm \mathcal{A} assigns to an environment Γ and a term E a set of types $\mathcal{A}(\Gamma, E)$.

The algorithm is *sound* if for every type $T \in \mathcal{A}(\Gamma, E)$ we can prove the judgement $\Gamma \vdash E : T$.

The algorithm is *complete* if for every provable judgement $\Gamma \vdash E : T$ we have that $T \in \mathcal{A}(\Gamma, E)$.

Theorem: TP is sound and complete. Specifically:

$$\Gamma \vdash E : T \text{ iff } \exists \bar{b}. [T/a]EQNS$$

where

a is a new type variable

$$EQNS = TP(\Gamma \vdash E : a)$$

$$\bar{b} = \text{tv}(EQNS) \setminus \text{tv}(\Gamma)$$

Here, tv denotes the set of free type variables (of a term, and environment, an equation set).

Type Reconstruction and Unification

Problem: : Transform set of equations

$$\{T_i \hat{=} U_i\}_{i=1, \dots, m}$$

into equivalent substitution

$$\{a_j \hat{=} T'_j\}_{j=1, \dots, n}$$

where type variables do not appear recursively on their right hand sides (directly or indirectly). That is:

$$a_j \notin \text{tv}(T'_k) \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, n, k = j, \dots, n$$

Substitutions

A *substitution* s is an idempotent mapping from type variables to types which maps all but a finite number of type variables to themselves.

We often represent a substitution as set of equations $a \hat{=} T$ with a not in $\text{tv}(T)$.

Substitutions can be generalized to mappings from types to types by defining

$$\begin{aligned} s(T \rightarrow U) &= sT \rightarrow sU \\ s(K[T_1, \dots, T_n]) &= K[sT_1, \dots, sT_n] \end{aligned}$$

Substitutions are idempotent mappings from types to types, i.e.

$$s(s(T)) = s(T). \text{ (why?)}$$

The \circ operator denotes composition of substitutions (or other functions):

$$(f \circ g) x = f(gx).$$

A Unification Algorithm

We present an incremental version of Robinson's algorithm (1965).

$$\begin{aligned}mgu & : (Type \hat{=} Type) \rightarrow Subst \rightarrow Subst \\mgu(T \hat{=} U) s & = mgu'(sT \hat{=} sU) s \\mgu'(a \hat{=} a) s & = s \\mgu'(a \hat{=} T) s & = s \cup \{a \hat{=} T\} \quad \text{if } a \notin tv(T) \\mgu'(T \hat{=} a) s & = s \cup \{a \hat{=} T\} \quad \text{if } a \notin tv(T) \\mgu'(T \rightarrow T' \hat{=} U \rightarrow U') s & = (mgu(T' \hat{=} U') \circ mgu(T \hat{=} U)) s \\mgu'(K[T_1, \dots, T_n] \hat{=} K[U_1, \dots, U_n]) s & \\ & = (mgu(T_n \hat{=} U_n) \circ \dots \circ mgu(T_1 \hat{=} U_1)) s \\mgu'(T \hat{=} U) s & = error \quad \text{in all other cases}\end{aligned}$$

Soundness and Completeness of Unification

Definition: A substitution u is a *unifier* of a set of equations $\{T_i \hat{=} U_i\}_{i=1, \dots, m}$ if $uT_i = uU_i$, for all i . It is a *most general unifier* if for every other unifier u' of the same equations there exists a substitution s such that $u' = s \circ u$.

Theorem: Given a set of equations $EQNS$. If $EQNS$ has a unifier then $mgu\ EQNS\ \{\}$ computes the most general unifier of $EQNS$. If $EQNS$ has no unifier then $mgu\ EQNS\ \{\}$ fails.

From Judgements to Substitutions

$TP : \text{Judgement} \rightarrow \text{Subst} \rightarrow \text{Subst}$

$TP(\Gamma \vdash E : T) =$

case E **of**

x : **mgu**($\text{newInstance}(\Gamma x) \hat{=} T$)

$\lambda x.E'$: **let** t, u **fresh in**
mgu($(t \rightarrow u) \hat{=} T$) \circ
 $TP(\Gamma, x : t \vdash E' : u)$

$E E'$: **let** t **fresh in**
 $TP(\Gamma \vdash E : a \rightarrow T)$ \circ
 $TP(\Gamma \vdash E' : a)$

Soundness and Completeness II

One can show by comparison with the previous algorithm:

Theorem: TP is sound and complete. Specifically:

$$\Gamma \vdash E : T \text{ iff } T = r(s(t))$$

where

t is a new type variable

$s = TP(\Gamma \vdash E : t) \{\}$

r is a substitution on $\text{tv}(s \ t) \setminus \text{tv}(s \ \Gamma)$

Strong Normalization

Question: Can Ω be given a type?

$$\Omega = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) : ?$$

What about Y ?

Self-application is not typable!

In fact, we have more:

Theorem: (Strong Normalization) If $\vdash E : T$, then there is a value V such that $E \rightarrow V$.

Corollary: Simply typed lambda calculus is not Turing complete.