### Programming Languages and Compilers (CS 421)

Sasa Misailovic 4110 SC, UIUC



<https://courses.engr.illinois.edu/cs421/fa2024/CS421C>

Based on slides by Elsa Gunter, which are based in part on previous slides by Mattox Beckman and updated by Vikram Adve and Gul Agha

#### Recursion over Recursive Data Types

- **# type exp = VarExp of string | ConstExp of const | BinOpAppExp of bin\_op \* exp \* exp | FunExp of string \* exp | AppExp of exp \* exp**
- How to count the number of variables in an exp?

```
# let rec varCnt exp =
    match exp with 
       VarExp x -> 
     | ConstExp c ->
     | BinOpAppExp (b, e1, e2) ->
    | FunExp (x,e) ->
     | AppExp (e1, e2) ->
```
### **Why can't you pass data constructors around like regular functions in OCaml?**

From the horse's mouth, Xavier Leroy, in this mailing list message from 2001:

The old Caml V3.1 implementation treated constructors as functions like SML. In Caml Light, I chose to drop this equivalence for several reasons:

- Simplicity of the compiler. Internally, constructors are not functions, and a special case is needed to transform Succ into (fun x -> Succ x) when needed. This isn't hard, but remember that Caml Light was really a minimal, stripped-down version of Caml.
- Constructors in Caml Light and OCaml really have an arity, e.g. C of int \* int is really a constructor with two integer arguments, not a constructor taking one argument that is a pair. Hence, there would be two ways to map the constructor C to a function: fun  $(x,y) \rightarrow C(x,y)$  or fun x y ->  $C(x,y)$  The former is more natural if you come from an SML background (where constructors have 0 or 1 argument), but the latter fits better the Caml Light / OCaml execution model, which favors curried functions. By not treating constructors like functions, we avoid having to choose...
- Code clarity. While using a constructor as a function is sometimes convenient, I would arque it is often hard to read. Writing "fun x -> Succ x" is more verbose, but easier to read, I think.

From: [https://stackoverflow.com/questions/66833935/why-cant-you-pass-data](https://stackoverflow.com/questions/66833935/why-cant-you-pass-data-constructors-around-like-regular-functions-in-ocaml)[constructors-around-like-regular-functions-in-ocaml](https://stackoverflow.com/questions/66833935/why-cant-you-pass-data-constructors-around-like-regular-functions-in-ocaml)



## Mutually Recursive Types

```
# type 'a tree = 
         TreeLeaf of 'a
        | TreeNode of 'a treeList
and
    'a treeList = 
          Last of 'a tree
        | More of ('a tree * 'a treeList);;
```
type 'a tree  $=$  TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList)

## Mutually Recursive Types

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree \* 'a treeList);;

type 'a tree  $=$  TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList  $=$  Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList)

Mutually Recursive Types - Values

# let tree = TreeNode (More (TreeLeaf 5, (More (TreeNode (More (TreeLeaf 3, Last (TreeLeaf 2))), Last (TreeLeaf 7)))));;

Mutually Recursive Types - Values



## Mutually Recursive Types - Values

#### A more conventional picture



### Mutually Recursive Functions

```
# let rec fringe tree =
     match tree with 
       (TreeLeaf x) -> [x] | (TreeNode list) -> list_fringe list
and list fringe tree list =match tree list with
        (Last tree) -> fringe tree
   | (More (tree,list)) ->
        (fringe tree) @ (list_fringe list);;
```
val fringe : 'a tree  $\rightarrow$  'a list  $=$  <fun> val list fringe : 'a treeList  $-$  'a list =  $<$ fun >

### Mutually Recursive Functions

- # fringe tree;;
- $-$  : int list = [5; 3; 2; 7]

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);;

■ Define tree\_size

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);;

- Define tree\_size
- let rec tree size  $t =$

 $match$  t with TreeLeaf  $->$ 

| TreeNode ts ->

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);;

- Define tree\_size
- let rec tree size  $t =$

match  $t$  with TreeLeaf  $\rightarrow$  1

| TreeNode ts -> treeList\_size ts

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);; ■ Define tree\_size and treeList\_size let rec tree size  $t =$ match  $t$  with TreeLeaf  $\rightarrow$  1 | TreeNode ts -> treeList size ts and treeList size ts =

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);; ■ Define tree\_size and treeList\_size let rec tree size  $t =$ match  $t$  with TreeLeaf  $\rightarrow$  1 | TreeNode ts -> treeList size ts and treeList size ts = match ts with Last t -> | More t ts' ->

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);; ■ Define tree\_size and treeList\_size let rec tree size  $t =$ match  $t$  with TreeLeaf  $\rightarrow$  1 | TreeNode ts -> treeList size ts and treeList size ts = match ts with Last  $t \rightarrow$  tree size  $t$ More t ts' -> tree\_size t + treeList size ts'

# type 'a tree = TreeLeaf of 'a | TreeNode of 'a treeList and 'a treeList = Last of 'a tree | More of ('a tree  $*$  'a treeList);; ■ Define tree\_size and treeList\_size let rec tree size  $t =$ match  $t$  with TreeLeaf  $\rightarrow$  1 | TreeNode ts -> treeList size ts and treeList size ts = match ts with Last  $t \rightarrow$  tree size  $t$ More t ts' -> tree\_size t + treeList size ts'

### Nested Recursive Types

- # type intlist = Nil | Cons of (int \* intlist)
- # type 'a mylist = Nil | Cons of ('a \* 'a mylist)

From the standard library: can use "type list"

- # let  $x = [3]$  ;;
- val  $x : int list = [3]$
- # let  $(x : int list) = \lceil 3 \rceil$ ;
- val  $x : int list = [3]$

### Nested Recursive Types

- # type 'a labeled tree = TreeNode of ('a \* 'a labeled\_tree list);;
- type 'a labeled tree  $=$ TreeNode of ('a  $*$  'a labeled tree list)

```
Compare: 
# type 'a tree = 
       TreeLeaf of 'a
        | TreeNode of 'a treeList
and 'a treeList = 
         Last of 'a tree
        | More of ('a tree * 'a treeList);;
```
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### Nested Recursive Type Values

# let ltree = TreeNode(5, [TreeNode (3, []); TreeNode (2, [TreeNode (1, []); TreeNode (7, [])]); TreeNode (5, [])]);;

### Nested Recursive Type Values



### Nested Recursive Type Values



Mutually Recursive Functions

# let rec flatten tree labtree = match labtree with TreeNode (x,treelist) -> x::flatten\_tree\_list treelist

and flatten tree list treelist = match treelist with  $[$ ] ->  $[$ ] | labtree::labtrees -> flatten tree labtree @ (flatten\_tree\_list labtrees);;

### Mutually Recursive Functions

val flatten\_tree : 'a labeled\_tree -> 'a list = <fun> val flatten tree list : 'a labeled tree list -> 'a list = <fun>

- # flatten\_tree ltree;;
- : int list =  $[5; 3; 2; 1; 7; 5]$

#### ■ **Nested recursive types lead to mutually recursive functions**

## Why Data Types?

# ■ Data types play a key role in:

- *Data abstraction* in the design of programs
- Type checking in the analysis of programs
- Compile-time code generation in the translation and execution of programs
	- Data layout (how many words; which are data and which are pointers) dictated by type

## **Terminology**

- $\blacksquare$  Type: A type *t* defines a set of possible data values
	- **E.g. short in C is**  $\{x | 2^{15} 1 \ge x \ge -2^{15}\}$
	- $\blacksquare$  A value in this set is said to have type t

■ Type system: rules of a language assigning types to expressions

### Types as Specifications

- Types describe properties
- Different type systems describe different properties, eg
	- Data is read-write versus read-only
	- Operation has authority to access data
	- Data came from "right" source
	- Operation might or could not raise an exception
- Common type systems focus on types describing same data layout and access methods

## **Sound** Type System

 $\blacksquare$  Type: A type *t* defines a set of possible data values

- **E.g. short in C is**  $\{x | 2^{15} 1 \ge x \ge -2^{15}\}$
- $\blacksquare$  A value in this set is said to have type  $t$
- Type system: rules of a language assigning types to expressions

If an expression is assigned type  $t$ , and it evaluates to a value  $v$ , then  $v$  is in the set of values defined by  $t$ 

## **Sound** Type System

**If an expression is assigned type t, and it evaluates to a value v, then <sup>v</sup> is in the set of values defined by t**

For instance:

- $\blacksquare$  let x = true in let y = true in let z = x && y
- $\blacksquare$  let  $x = 5$  in let  $y = 6 + x$

 $\blacksquare$  let r = 2.0 in let w = 3.14  $*$ . 2.0  $*$ . r

## Sound Type System

- SML, OCAML, Rust, Scheme and Ada have sound type systems (as far as we know)
- $\blacksquare$  Most implementations of C and C++ do not ■ But Java and Scala are also (slightly) unsound
	- class Unsound  $\{$ static class Constrain $\{A, B \text{ extends } A \geq \{\}\}$ static class Bind<A> {  $\langle B \right|$  extends  $\land$ A upcast(Constrain<A,B> constrain, B b) { return b: ł  $\mathcal{F}$ static  $\langle T, U \rangle$  U coerce(T t) { Constrain<U,? super  $T$ > constrain = null; Bind<U> bind =  $new$  Bind<U>(); **return** bind.upcast(constrain, t); public static void main(String[] args) { String zero = Unsound.<Integer.String>coerce(0); ₹  $\mathcal{F}$
- For details, see this paper: Java and Scala's Type Systems are Unsound ∗ The Existential Crisis of Null Pointers. Amin and Tate (OOPSLA 2016)

**Figure 1.** Unsound valid Java program compiled by javac, version 1.8.0 25

# Strongly Typed Language

- When no application of an operator to arguments can lead to a run-time type error, language is strongly typed  $\blacksquare$  Eg: 1 + 2.3;;
- Depends on definition of "type error"

## Strongly Typed Language

■ When no application of an operator to arguments can lead to a run-time type error, language is **strongly typed**  $\blacksquare$  Eg: 1 + 2.3;;

■ Depends on definition of "type error"

## Strongly Typed Language

■  $C++$  claimed to be "strongly typed", but ■ Union types allow creating a value at one type and using it at another

- Type coercions may cause unexpected (undesirable) effects
- No array bounds check. In fact, no runtime checks at all.

■ SML, OCAML "strongly typed" but still must do dynamic array bounds checks, runtime type case analysis, and other checks

## Static vs Dynamic Types

- **Static type** : type assigned to an expression at compile time
- **Dynamic type** : type assigned to a storage location at run time
- **Statically typed language** : static type assigned to every expression at compile time
- **Dynamically typed language** : type of an expression determined at run time

# Type Checking

- When is op(arg1,...,argn) allowed?
- **Type checking** assures that operations are applied to the right number of arguments of the right types
	- Right type may mean same type as was specified, or may mean that there is a predefined implicit coercion that will be applied
- Used to resolve overloaded operations

# Type Checking

- Type checking may be done statically at compile time or **dynamically** at run time
- Dynamically typed (aka untyped) languages (e.g., LISP, Prolog) do only dynamic type checking
- Statically typed languages can do most type checking statically
## Dynamic Type Checking

- Performed at run-time before each operation is applied
- Types of variables and operations left unspecified until run-time
	- Same variable may be used at different types

## Dynamic Type Checking

- Data object must contain type information
- Errors aren't detected until violating application is executed (maybe years after the code was written)

## Static Type Checking

- Performed after parsing, before code generation
- Type of every variable and signature of every operator must be known at compile time

## Static Type Checking

- Can eliminate need to store type information in data object if no dynamic type checking is needed
- Catches many programming errors at earliest point
- Can't check types that depend on dynamically computed values
	- Eg: array bounds

# Static Type Checking

- Typically places restrictions on languages
	- Garbage collection
	- References instead of pointers
	- All variables initialized when created
	- Variable only used at one type
		- Union types allow for work-arounds, but effectively introduce dynamic type checks

## Type Declarations

- Type declarations: explicit assignment of types to variables (signatures to functions) in the code of a program
	- Must be checked in a strongly typed language
	- Often not necessary for strong typing or even static typing (depends on the type system)

## Type Inference

- Type inference: A program analysis to assign a type to an expression from the program context of the expression
	- Fully static type inference first introduced by Robin Miller in ML
	- Haskle, OCAML, SML all use type inference ■ Records are a problem for type inference

## Format of Type Judgments

- A type judgement has the form
	- $\Gamma$  exp :  $\tau$
- $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$  is a typing environment
	- Supplies the types of variables (and function names when function names are not variables)
	- $\Gamma$  is a set of the form  $\{x:\sigma, \ldots\}$
	- **For any x at most one**  $\sigma$  **such that**  $(x : \sigma \in \Gamma)$
- exp is a program expression
- $\mathbf{r}$  is a type to be assigned to exp
- 10/8/2024 50 ■ |- pronounced "turnstyle", or "entails" (or 'satisfies" or, informally, "shows")

## Inductive Proof System

■ Hypotheses and Conclusion are logical formulas ■ Inference Rule: Hypotheses imply Conclusion

#### Hypothesis\_1 Hypothesis\_2 … Hypothesis\_n **Conclusion**

■ **Axiom:** Holds without any previous hypothesis

**Conclusion** 

■ Analogy: Axiom as a base case, Theorem as an inductive case, Proof as a recursive derivation  $_{51}$  Axioms – Constants (Monomorphic)

 $\Gamma$  - n: int (assuming n is an integer constant)

 $\Gamma$  |- true : bool  $\Gamma$  |- false : bool

■ These rules are true with any typing environment

 $\Gamma$ , *n* are meta-variables

Axioms – Constants (Monomorphic)

 $\Gamma$  - n: int (assuming n is an integer constant)

 $\Gamma$  |- true : bool  $\Gamma$  |- false : bool

■ These rules are true with any typing environment

 $\Gamma$ , *n* are meta-variables

Axioms – Variables (Monomorphic Rule)

Notation: Let  $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$  if  $x : \sigma \in \Gamma$ Note: if such  $\sigma$  exits, its unique

Variable axiom:

$$
\Gamma \mid -x : \sigma \quad \text{if } \Gamma(x) = \sigma
$$

**The predicate**  $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$  **is defined such that it is** false if x has different type or x is not defined.

Simple Rules – Arithmetic (Example)

## Primitive Binary operators:  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$ :int  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$ :int (+): int  $\rightarrow$  int  $\rightarrow$  int  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_{\!\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{}$  +  $\,e_{\!\scriptscriptstyle 2}^{}$  : int

# Relations:  $\Gamma \hspace{.1cm} \vert \hspace{.1cm} \cdot \hspace{.1cm} e_1 : \textsf{int} \hspace{.1cm} \Gamma \hspace{.1cm} \vert \hspace{.1cm} \cdot \hspace{.1cm} e_2 : \textsf{int} \hspace{.1cm} (=) : \textsf{int} \rightarrow \textsf{int} \rightarrow \textsf{bool}$  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1 = e_2$  :bool

Simple Rules – Arithmetic (Mono)

Primitive Binary operators  $(\oplus \in \{+, -, *, ...\})$ :  $\Gamma \mid e_1: \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \mid e_2: \tau_2 \quad (\oplus): \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3$  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1 \oplus e_2 : \tau_3$ Special case: Relations  $(\sim \in \{ \leq, >, =, \leq, > = \} ).$  $\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau \quad (\sim): \tau \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \text{bool}$  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1 \sim e_2$  :bool

For the moment, think  $\tau$  is int or bool<sub>56</sub> All  $\tau$  are **type variables** 

#### Example:  $\{x: \text{int}\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  : bool

What do we need to show first?

#### $\{x:int\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  : bool



#### ${x:int}$  |- x + 2 = 3 : bool

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#### Example:  $\{x: \text{int}\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  : bool

What do we need for the left side?

#### $\{x : \text{int}\}$  |- x + 2 : int  $\{x:\text{int}\}$  |- 3 :int  ${x:int}$  |- x + 2 = 3 : bool Bin



Example:  $\{x: \text{int}\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  : bool

How to finish?



Example:  $\{x: \text{int}\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  :bool

How to finish?

Axioms - Constants (Monomorphic)

 $\Gamma$  |-  $n$  : int (assuming *n* is an integer constant)

 $\Gamma$  |- true : bool

 $\Gamma$  |- false : bool

$$
\frac{\{x: \text{int}\} | -x: \text{int } \{x: \text{int}\} | -2: \text{int} \text{Bin } \{x: \text{int}\} | -3: \text{int} \text{Bin } \{x: \text{int}\} | -x + 2: \text{int} \text{Bin } \{x: \text{int}\} | -x + 2 = 3: \text{bool} \}
$$

Example:  $\{x: \text{int}\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  : bool

Almost Complete Proof (type derivation)





Example:  $\{x: \text{int}\}$  |-  $x + 2 = 3$  : bool

Complete Proof (type derivation)



### Simple Rules - Booleans

#### **Connectives**

$$
\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \text{bool}}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \& \text{Re } e_2 : \text{bool}}
$$

 $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  : bool  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  : bool  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  ||  $e_2$  : bool



**If the conditional expression has type**  $\tau$ **, then** what should the types of subexpressions be?

#### **Conditionals?**

■ If then else rule:



## $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  : ?  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  : ?  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_3$  : ?  $\Gamma$  |- (if  $e_{\!\scriptscriptstyle 1}$  then  $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{2}}$  else  $\mathrm{e}_{\mathrm{3}}$ ) :  $\tau$

#### **Conditionals?**

■ If then else rule:



 $\Gamma$  |-  $\bm{e}_{\!\!1}$  : <mark>bool</mark>  $\Gamma$  |-  $\bm{\mathsf{e}}_{\!\!2}$  :  $\bm{\tau}$   $\Gamma$  |-  $\bm{\mathsf{e}}_{\!\!3}$  :  $\bm{\tau}$  $\Gamma$  |- (if  $e_1$  then  $e_2$  else  $e_3$ ) :  $\tau$ 

## Type Variables in Rules

#### ■ If then else rule:

 $\Gamma$  |-  $e_{\!\!1}$  : bool  $\Gamma$  |-  $\!e_{\textsf 2}$  :  $\tau$   $\Gamma$  |-  $\!e_{\textsf 3}$  :  $\tau$  $\Gamma$  |- (if  $e_1$  then  $e_2$  else  $e_3$ ) :  $\tau$ 

- $\bullet$   $\tau$  is a type variable (meta-variable)
- Can take any type at all
- All instances in a rule application must get same type
- Then branch, else branch and if then else must all have same type

#### Example derivation: if-then-else-

#### $\Gamma = \{x: \text{int, int_of_float:float} \rightarrow \text{int, y:float}\}$

**Type Variables in Rules** 

If\_then\_else rule:  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  : bool  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  :  $\tau$   $\Gamma$  |-  $e_3$  :  $\tau$ <br> $\Gamma$  |- (if  $e_1$  then  $e_2$  else  $e_3$ ) :  $\tau$ 

## $\Gamma$  |- if  $x > 3$  then  $x + 2$ else int\_of\_float y : int

Example derivation: if-then-else-

 $\Gamma = \{x: \text{int, int_of_float:float} \rightarrow \text{int, y:float}\}$ 

 $\Gamma$  |- x > 3  $\Gamma$  |- x + 2  $\Gamma$  |- int\_of\_float y : bool : int : int

> $\Gamma$  |- if x > 3 then x + 2 else int\_of\_float y : int

# **Function Application?** ■ Application rule: ?  $\Gamma$  |-  $(e_1\,\,e_2)$  :  $\tau_2$ **If the function application has type**  $\tau_2$ **, then what** should the types of subexpressions be?

#### **Function Application?**

■ Application rule:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \mid - (e_1 \ e_2) : \tau_2}
$$



#### **Function Application?**

■ Application rule:

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$

$$
\Gamma \mid \negthinspace \negthinspace - e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \mid \negthinspace - e_2 : \tau_1
$$
\n
$$
\Gamma \mid \negthinspace - (e_1 e_2) : \tau_2
$$

Function Application

# ■ Application rule:  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  :  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$  |  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  :  $\tau_1$  $\Gamma$  |-  $(e_1\ e_2): \tau_2$

 $\blacksquare$  If you have a function expression  $e_1$  of type  $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$  applied to an argument  $e_2$  of type  $\tau_1$ , the resulting expression  $e_1e_2$  has type  $\tau_2$ 

## Example: Application

**Function Application** 

Application rule:

 $\frac{\Gamma \mid \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \mid \vdash e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \mid \vdash (e_1 \ e_2) : \tau_2}$ 

 $\blacksquare \Gamma = \{x: \text{int, int\_of\_float: float \rightarrow int, y: float}\}$ 

# $\Gamma$  |- int\_of\_float : float -> int  $\Gamma$  |- y : float  $\Gamma$  - int of float y : int

## Example: Application

**Function Application** 

Application rule:

 $\frac{\Gamma \mid \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \mid \vdash e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \mid \vdash (e_1 \ e_2) : \tau_2}$ 

 $\Gamma = \{x: \text{int, int_of_float:float} \rightarrow \text{int, y:float}\}$ 

 $\Gamma$  |- (fun z -> z > 3) : int -> bool  $\Gamma$  |- x : int

 $\Gamma$  |- (fun z -> z > 3) x : bool
### **Function Abstraction?**

### **Fun rule:**



#### **?**

### $\Gamma$  |- fun  $x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$



### **Function Abstraction?**

■ Fun rule:

(1) We add x to the typing environment (2) We check that e has the proper type

 $\Gamma$  |- fun  $x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ 



### **Function Abstraction?**

■ Fun rule:

(1) We add x to the environment with type  $\tau_1$ (2) We check that e has the type  $\tau_2$ 

 $\Gamma$  |- fun  $x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ 

### Fun Rule

- Rules describe types, but also how the environment  $\Gamma$  may change
- Can only do what rule allows!
- fun rule:

$$
\frac{\{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \mid -\text{fun } x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}
$$

### Fun Examples

 ${y : int } + \Gamma | - y + 3 : int$  $\Gamma$  |- fun y -> y + 3 : int  $\rightarrow$  int

 ${f : int \rightarrow bool} + \Gamma | - f 2 :: [true] : bool list$  $\Gamma$  |- (fun f -> (f 2) :: [true]) : (int  $\rightarrow$  bool)  $\rightarrow$  bool list





### (Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

# ■ let rule:  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  :  $\tau_1$   $\{X : \tau_1\}$  +  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  :  $\tau_2$  $\Gamma$  |- (let  $x = e_1$  in  $e_2$  ) :  $\tau_2$

### (Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

Let rule:

\n
$$
\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \mid - (\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2) : \tau_2}
$$

# ■ let rec rule:  $\{f: \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid e_1: \tau_1 \{f: \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid e_2: \tau_2$  $\Gamma$  |- (let rec  $f = e_1$  in  $e_2$  ) :  $\tau_2$

### (Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

# ■ let rule:  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  :  $\tau_1$   $\{X : \tau_1\}$  +  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  :  $\tau_2$  $\Gamma$  |- (let  $x = e_1$  in  $e_2$  ) :  $\tau_2$

### ■ let rec rule:

$$
\frac{\{f: \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e_1: \tau_1 \{f: \tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid -e_2: \tau_2}{\Gamma \mid - (\text{let rec } f = e_1 \text{ in } e_2): \tau_2}
$$

## Curry - Howard Isomorphism

- Type Systems are logics; logics are type systems
- Types are propositions; propositions are types
- Terms are proofs; proofs are terms
- Function space arrow corresponds to implication; application corresponds to modus ponens

**Curry - Howard Isomorphism** 

#### • Modus Ponens



• Application  $\Gamma$  |-  $e_1$  :  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$   $\Gamma$  |-  $e_2$  :  $\alpha$  $\Gamma$  |-  $(e_1 e_2)$  :  $\beta$