The language of Types

In modern programming languages, the types are rich enough to require a little language of their own. Here we describe such a type language for an ML-like language.

Basic Types: int / bool / string / char / real

Now we can build compound types; in order to do this we use type constructors: these are constructs to create new types from old ones:

* : product → : function space

list / : sum

I am ignoring array, record and other things for now.

let us consider *; this is the counterpart of the term constructor (,).

given two types say int & bool, we define a new type int * bool. How do we connect terms of the language & types? Through typing rules. I will use letters like α, β etc. for terms & greek letters η, θ for types.

A typing rule has the form

\[ \text{term}_1 : \text{type} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow \text{term}_k : \text{type} \]

\[ \text{term} : \text{type} \]

We use type variables to have generic rules.

Here is the rule for *:

\[ t_1 : T_1, \quad t_2 : T_2 \]

\[ (t_1, t_2) : T_1 * T_2 \]
How do we read such a rule? In words: if you have shown that \( t_1 \) has type \( T_1 \) and that \( t_2 \) has type \( T_2 \) then you can conclude that the pair \( (t_1, t_2) \) has type \( (T_1, T_2) \).

How do we start off? We need some basic assumptions for the basic types. Here, for example, are the rules for \( \text{int} \):

\[
0 : \text{int} \quad 1 : \text{int} \quad 2 : \text{int} \quad \ldots \quad -1 : \text{int}
\]

Why draw a line with nothing on top? To indicate that we need no further assumptions:

\( 0 \) has type \( \text{int} \), no assumptions are needed to conclude this. We can now type more complicated expressions with more rules:

\[
x : \text{int}, \ y : \text{int} \quad x : \text{int}, \ y : \text{int} \quad \ldots
\]

\[
x + y : \text{int} \quad x \times y : \text{int}
\]

This is not the complete set of rules for \( \text{int} \), but it gives the idea. Here are some rules for \( \text{bool} \):

\[
\text{true} : \text{bool} \quad \text{false} : \text{bool} \quad \text{not} \ b : \text{bool}
\]

\[
x : \text{int}, \ y : \text{int}
\]

\[
x = y : \text{bool}
\]

Here is the rule for \( \& \) conditionals:

\[
e_1 : \tau, \ e_2 : \tau, \ b : \text{bool} \quad \text{This says that}
\]

\[
\text{if} \ b \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2 : \tau \quad \text{both branches must have the same type } \tau, \text{ the conditions must be a boolean and then the overall conditional will have type } \tau.
\]
Now some rules for tuples and projections:
\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{t_1 : T_1, \ t_2 : T_2}{(t_1, t_2) : T_1 \times T_2}
\end{align*}
\]
We can use this with any types, e.g.
\[
\begin{align*}
17 : \text{int}, \ \text{false} : \text{bool} \\
(17, \text{false}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool}
\end{align*}
\]
We can make nested pairs too:
\[
\begin{align*}
(17, \text{false}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool} \quad & 2 + 3 : \text{int} \\
((17, \text{false}), 2 + 3) : (\text{int} \times \text{bool}) \times \text{int}
\end{align*}
\]
Note we are assigning types to expressions not just to values. We introduce destructors \text{fst} and \text{snd}:
\[
\begin{align*}
E : T_1 \times T_2 \\
\text{fst}(E) : T_1 \\
\text{snd}(E) : T_2
\end{align*}
\]
Now we can type a complete expression:
\[
\begin{align*}
17 : \text{int}, \ \text{true} : \text{bool} \\
2 : \text{int}, \ 3 : \text{int} \\
(17, \text{true}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool} \\
(2 + 3) : \text{int} \\
(((17, \text{true}), (2 + 3)) : ((\text{int} \times \text{bool}) \times \text{int})
\end{align*}
\]
This entire picture represents a little proof. A proof is just a tree structure with axioms at the leaves & a rule at every node. Conceptually, the type checker builds this tree to verify the typing of an expression. Actually type checking is done more eagerly but you should think of type checking as the construction of such a proof tree.
lists: list is a type constructor, :: is a term constructor, nil or [] is a constant and hd, tl are the destructors. Here are the rules

\[ \begin{align*}
  C : \tau & \quad l : \tau \text{-list} \\
  \therefore l : \tau \text{-list} \\
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
  l : \tau \text{-list} & \quad l : \tau \text{-list} \\
  \quad \quad \therefore \text{hd}(l) : \tau \\
  \quad \quad \therefore \text{tl}(l) : \tau \text{-list} \\
\end{align*} \]

Note the type system will not tell you what happens if you apply \text{hd} to nil. The type rule says this is OK but in reality an exception is raised.

Now for the most important type constructor: \( \rightarrow \)

However we need to deal with variables first because a parameter is a crucial part of \( \tau \).

How does a variable get a type? For now, we assume that variables are typed by declarations. Later we will see that polymorphic types can be inferred. We will need to keep track of these declarations when making typing judgments.

We have a set of assumptions (or declarations) called a context. For example, we might have

\[ \begin{align*}
  N : \text{int}, & \quad X : \text{bool}, \\
  Y : \text{int + int}, & \quad \ldots
\end{align*} \]

We will use \( \Gamma \) for a context. Our judgement will look like \( \Gamma \vdash C : \tau \)

Using the type assumptions (or declarations) in \( \Gamma \), we conclude that the expression \( C \) has the type \( \tau \). We can add these contexts to our previous rules & use them otherwise unchanged.
\[ \Gamma \vdash e : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \text{if } e \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2 : \tau \]

Before we deal with functions let us consider let expression which introduce new bindings. We need to manipulate \( \Gamma \quad x : \tau \in \Gamma \)

This says the obvious thing: if \( \Gamma \vdash x : \tau \), \( x : \tau \) is one of the assumptions in \( \Gamma \), then one can conclude \( x : \tau \).

Now for let
\[ \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma, x : \tau \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \text{x must be fresh} \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 : \tau \quad \text{in } \Gamma \]

Here is an example:
\[ \Gamma \vdash x : \text{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash x : \text{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash x + 2 : \text{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{let } y = x + 2 \text{ in } x + y : \text{int} \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash 5 : \text{int} \]
\[ \Gamma \vdash \text{let } x = 5 \text{ in } (\text{let } y = x + 2 \text{ in } x + y) : \text{int} \]

Note order of assumptions does not matter, we can rearrange the order at will. We can reuse assumptions as often as we want. We may have unused assumptions. For example,
\[ \text{in let } x = 5 \text{ in } 3 : \text{int} \]
we do not need any assumption about \( x \) to type check the body \( 3 : \text{int} \).
Now the all important \( \rightarrow \) constructor. If \( \tau_1, \tau_2 \) are types then \( \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \) is a type. We have a term constructor \( \text{fn } x \Rightarrow \ldots \) and a "destructor" i.e. function application.

Here are the rules:

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma, x : \tau_1 & \vdash e : \tau_2 \\
\Gamma & \vdash e_1 : \tau_1, \tau_2, \Gamma & \vdash e_2 : \tau_1 \\
\Gamma & \vdash e_1 \text{ fn } x \Rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \\
\Gamma & \vdash e_1, e_2 : \tau_2
\end{align*}
\]

Let us derive some types:

\[
\begin{align*}
x : \text{int} & \vdash x : \text{int} \\
\Gamma & \vdash x : \text{int} \Rightarrow \text{int} \\
\Gamma & \vdash x : \text{bool} \Rightarrow x : \text{bool}
\end{align*}
\]

Hmm! The same expression has multiple types. Later we will discuss polymorphism. For now we will think \( \tau \) monomorphically.

Some more examples:

let \( x = 1 \) in

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let } f = \text{fn } u \Rightarrow u + x \text{ in} \\
\text{let } y = 2 \text{ in} \\
\text{end} \\
\text{end}
\end{align*}
\]

This will lead to a large tree that will not fit on the paper. I will show it on the next sheet sideways.