

Type Systems

Lecture 11: Applications of Continuations, and Dependent Types

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Applications of Continuations

Applications of Continuations

We have seen that:

- Classical logic has a beautiful inference system
- Embeds into constructive logic via double-negation translations
- This yields an operational interpretation
- What can we program with continuations?

The Typed Lambda Calculus with Continuations

Types	$X ::= 1 \mid X \times Y \mid 0 \mid X + Y \mid X \rightarrow Y \mid \neg X$
Terms	$e ::= x \mid \langle \rangle \mid \langle e, e \rangle \mid \text{fst } e \mid \text{snd } e$ $\mid \text{abort} \mid L e \mid R e \mid \text{case}(e, Lx \rightarrow e', Ry \rightarrow e'')$ $\mid \lambda x : X. e \mid e e'$ $\mid \text{throw}(e, e') \mid \text{letcont } x. e$
Contexts	$\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : X$

Continuation Typing

$$\frac{\Gamma, u : \neg X \vdash e : X}{\Gamma \vdash \text{letcont } u : \neg X. e : X} \text{CONT}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \neg X \quad \Gamma \vdash e' : X}{\Gamma \vdash \text{throw}_Y(e, e') : Y} \text{THROW}$$

Continuation API in Standard ML

```
1 signature CONT = sig
2   type 'a cont
3   val callcc : ('a cont -> 'a) -> 'a
4   val throw : 'a cont -> 'a -> 'b
5 end
```

SML	Type Theory
'a cont	$\neg A$
throw k v	throw(k, v)
callcc (fn x => e)	letcont x : $\neg X$. e

An Inefficient Program

```
1   val mul : int list -> int
2
3   fun mul []           = 1
4     | mul (n :: ns) = n * mul ns
```

- This function multiplies a list of integers
- If 0 occurs in the list, the whole result is 0

A Less Inefficient Program

```
1   val mul' : int list -> int
2
3   fun mul' [] = 1
4     | mul' (0 :: ns) = 0
5     | mul' (n :: ns) = n * mul ns
```

- This function multiplies a list of integers
- If 0 occurs in the list, it immediately returns 0
 - `mul' [0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9]` will immediately return 0
 - `mul' [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,0]` will multiply by 0, 9 times

Even Less Inefficiency, via Escape Continuations

```
1   val loop = fn : int cont -> int list -> int
2   fun loop return []           = 1
3     | loop return (0 :: ns) = throw return 0
4     | loop return (n :: ns) = n * loop return ns
5
6   val mul_fast : int list -> int
7   fun mul_fast ns = callcc (fn ret => loop ret ns)
```

- `loop` multiplies its arguments, unless it hits 0
- In that case, it throws 0 to its continuation
- `mul_fast` captures its continuation, and passes it to `loop`
- So if `loop` finds 0, it does no multiplications!

McCarthy's amb Primitive

- In 1961, John McCarthy (inventor of Lisp) proposed a language construct **amb**
- This was an operator for *angelic nondeterminism*

```
1      let val x = amb [1,2,3]
2          val y = amb [4,5,6]
3      in
4          assert (x * y = 10);
5          (x, y)
6      end
7      (* Returns (2,5) *)
```

- Does search to find a successful assignment of values
- Can be implemented via backtracking – *using continuations*

The AMB signature

```
1  signature AMB = sig
2      (* Internal implementation *)
3      val stack : int option cont list ref
4      val fail : unit -> 'a
5
6      (* External API *)
7      exception AmbFail
8      val assert : bool -> unit
9      val amb : int list -> int
10 end
```

Implementation, Part 1

```
1  exception AmbFail
2  val stack
3    : int option cont list ref
4    = ref []
5
6  fun fail () =
7    case !stack of
8      []          => raise AmbFail
9      | (k :: ks) => (stack := ks;
10                    throw k NONE)
11
12 fun assert b =
13   if b then () else fail()
```

- `AmbFail` is the failure exception for unsatisfiable computations
- `stack` is a stack of backtrack points
- `fail` grabs the topmost backtrack point, and resumes execution there
- `assert` backtracks if its condition is false

Implementation, Part 2

```
1 fun amb [] = fail ()
2 | amb (x :: xs) =
3   let fun next y k =
4     (stack := k :: !stack;
5      SOME y)
6   in
7     case callcc (next x) of
8       SOME v => v
9     | NONE => amb xs
10  end
```

- `amb []` backtracks immediately!
- `next y k` pushes `k` onto the backtrack stack, and returns `SOME y`
- Save the backtrack point, then see if we immediately return, or if we are resuming from a backtrack point and must try the other values

Examples

```
1  fun test2() =
2      let val x = amb [1,2,3,4,5,6]
3          val y = amb [1,2,3,4,5,6]
4          val z = amb [1,2,3,4,5,6]
5      in
6          assert(x + y + z >= 13);
7          assert(x > 1);
8          assert(y > 1);
9          assert(z > 1);
10         (x, y, z)
11     end
12
13 (* Returns (2, 5, 6) *)
```

Conclusions

- **amb** required the *combination* of state and continuations
- Theorem of Andrzej Filinski that this is **universal**
- Any “definable monadic effect” can be expressed as a combination of state and first-class control:
 - Exceptions
 - Green threads
 - Coroutines/generators
 - Random number generation
 - Nondeterminism

Dependent Types

The Curry Howard Correspondence

Logic	Language
Intuitionistic Propositional Logic	STLC
Classical Propositional Logic	STLC + 1 st class continuations
Pure Second-Order Logic	System F

- Each logical system has a corresponding computational system
- One thing is missing, however
- Mathematics uses quantification over *individual elements*
- Eg, $\forall x, y, z, n \in \mathbb{N}. \text{ if } n > 2 \text{ then } x^n + y^n \neq z^n$

A Logical Curiosity

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash z : \mathbb{N}} \text{NI}_z$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathbb{N}}{\Gamma \vdash s(e) : \mathbb{N}} \text{NI}_s$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_0 : \mathbb{N} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : X \quad \Gamma, x : X \vdash e_2 : X}{\Gamma \vdash \text{iter}(e_0, z \rightarrow e_1, s(x) \rightarrow e_2) : X} \text{NE}$$

- \mathbb{N} is the type of natural numbers
- Logically, it is equivalent to the unit type:
 - $(\lambda x : 1. z) : 1 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$
 - $(\lambda x : \mathbb{N}. \langle \rangle) : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 1$
- Language of types has no way of distinguishing z from $s(z)$.

Dependent Types

- Language of types has no way of distinguishing z from $s(z)$.
- So let's fix that: let types refer to values
- Type grammar and term grammar mutually recursive
- Huge gain in expressive power

An Introduction to Agda

- Much of earlier course leaned on prior knowledge of ML for motivation
- Before we get to the theory of dependent types, let's look at an implementation
- Agda: a dependently-typed functional programming language
- `http://wiki.portal.chalmers.se/agda/pmwiki.php`

```
1 data Bool : Set where
```

```
2   true  : Bool
```

```
3   false : Bool
```

```
4  
5 not : Bool → Bool
```

```
6 not true = false
```

```
7 not false = true
```

- Datatype declarations give constructors and their types
- Functions given type signature, and clausal definition

Agda: Inductive Datatypes

```
1 data Nat : Set where
2   z : Nat
3   s : Nat → Nat
4
5   _+_ : Nat → Nat → Nat
6   z + m = m
7   s n + m = s (n + m)
8
9   _*_ : Nat → Nat → Nat
10  z × m = z
11  s n × m = m + (n × m)
```

- Datatype constructors can be recursive
- Functions can be recursive, but checked for termination

Agda: Polymorphic Datatypes

```
1 data List (A : Set) : Set where
2   [] : List A
3   _,_ : A → List A → List A
4
5 app : (A : Set) → List A → List A → List A
6 app A [] ys = ys
7 app A (x , xs) ys = x , app A xs ys
8
9 app' : {A : Set} → List A → List A → List A
10 app' [] ys = ys
11 app' (x , xs) ys = (x , app' xs ys)
```

- Datatypes can be polymorphic
- `app` has F-style explicit polymorphism
- `app'` has implicit, inferred polymorphism

Agda: Indexed Datatypes

```
1 data Vec (A : Set) : Nat → Set where
2   [] : Vec A z
3   _,_ : {n : Nat} → A → Vec A n → Vec A (s n)
```

- This is a *length-indexed list*
- Cons takes a head and a list of length n , and produces a list of length $n + 1$
- The empty list has a length of 0

Agda: Indexed Datatypes

```
1 data Vec (A : Set) : Nat → Set where
2   [] : Vec A z
3   _,_ : {n : Nat} → A → Vec A n → Vec A (s n)
4
5 head : {A : Set} → {n : Nat} → Vec A (s n) → A
6 head (x , xs) = x
```

- `head` takes a list of length > 0 , and returns an element
- No `[]` pattern present
- Not needed for coverage checking!
- Note that `{n:Nat}` is *also* an implicit (inferred) argument

Agda: Indexed Datatypes

```
1 data Vec (A : Set) : Nat → Set where
2   [] : Vec A z
3   _,_ : {n : Nat} → A → Vec A n → Vec A (s n)
4
5 app : {A : Set} → {n m : Nat} →
6       Vec A n → Vec A m → Vec A (n + m)
7 app [] ys = ys
8 app (x , xs) ys = (x , app xs ys)
```

- Note the appearance of $n + m$ in the type
- This type guarantees that appending two vectors yields a vector whose length is the sum of the two

Agda: Indexed Datatypes

```
1 data Vec (A : Set) : Nat → Set where
2   [] : Vec A z
3   _,_ : {n : Nat} → A → Vec A n → Vec A (s n)
4
5 -- Won't typecheck!
6 app : {A : Set} → {n m : Nat} →
7       Vec A n → Vec A m → Vec A (n + m)
8 app [] ys = ys
9 app (x , xs) ys = app xs ys
```

- We forgot to cons x here)
- This program **won't type check!**
- Static typechecking ensures a runtime guarantee

The Identity Type

```
data _≡_ {A : Set} (a : A) : A → Set where  
  refl : a ≡ a
```

- $a \equiv b$ is the type of proofs that a and b are equal
- The constructor `refl` says that a term a is equal to itself
- Equalities arising from evaluation are automatic
- Other equalities have to be **proved**

An Automatic Theorem

```
data _≡_ {A : Set} (a : A) : A → Set where  
  refl : a ≡ a
```

```
_+_ : Nat → Nat → Nat
```

```
z + m = m
```

```
s n + m = s (n + m)
```

```
z-+-left-unit : (n : Nat) → (z + n) ≡ n
```

```
z-+-left-unit n = refl
```

- $z + n$ evaluates to n
- So Agda considers these two terms to be identical

A Manual Theorem

```
data _≡_ {A : Set} (a : A) : A → Set where
  refl : a ≡ a
```

```
cong : {A B : Set} → {a a' : A} →
      (f : A → B) → (a ≡ a') → (f a ≡ f a')
cong f refl = refl
```

```
z-+-right-unit : (n : Nat) → (n + z) ≡ n
z-+-right-unit z = refl
z-+-right-unit (s n) = cong s (z-+-right-unit n)
```

- We prove the right unit law inductively
 - Note that *inductive proofs are recursive functions*
 - To do this, we need to show that equality is a congruence

The Equality Toolkit

```
data _≡_ {A : Set} (a : A) : A → Set where
  refl : a ≡ a
```

```
sym : {A : Set} → {a b : A} →
      a ≡ b → b ≡ a
sym refl = refl
```

```
trans : {A : Set} → {a b c : A} →
        a ≡ b → b ≡ c → a ≡ c
trans refl refl = refl
```

```
cong : {A B : Set} → {a a' : A} →
       (f : A → B) → (a ≡ a') → (f a ≡ f a')
cong f refl = refl
```

- An *equivalence relation* is a reflexive, symmetric transitive relation
- Equality is congruent with everything

Commutativity of Addition

```
z--right : (n : Nat) → (n + z) ≡ n
z--right z = refl
z--right (s n) =
  cong s (z--right n)

s--right : (n m : Nat) →
  (s (n + m)) ≡ (n + (s m))
s--right z m = refl
s--right (s n) m =
  cong s (s--right n m)

+-comm : (i j : Nat) →
  (i + j) ≡ (j + i)
+-comm z j = z--right j
+-comm (s i) j = trans p2 p3
  where p1 : (i + j) ≡ (j + i)
        p1 = +-comm i j
        p2 : (s (i + j)) ≡ (s (j + i))
        p2 = cong s p1
        p3 : (s (j + i)) ≡ (j + (s i))
        p3 = s--right j i
```

- First we prove that adding zero on the right does nothing
- Then we prove that successor commutes with addition
- Then we use these two facts to inductively prove commutativity of addition

Conclusion

- Dependent types permit referring to program terms in types
- This enables writing types which state very precise properties of programs
 - Eg, equality is expressible as a type
- Writing a program becomes the same as proving it correct
- This is hard, like learning to program again!
- But also extremely fun...