Part 3: Type Systems and Concurrency

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Types: Foundations

Analyses

Next Lectures

- Types Systems
- Types for channels
- Ownership and Rust

Reading Material

- Types and Programming Languages, Benjamin Pierce, 2000, MIT Press
- Type Systems for Concurrent Programs, Naoki Kobayashi, 2002, Springer LNCS
- Uniqueness Typing Simplified, de Vries et al., 2007, Springer LNCS
- A Very Gentle Introduction to Multiparty Session Types, Yoshida and Gheri, 2020, Springer LNCS
- Session types for Rust, Jespersen et al., 2015, ACM

Why Types?

- Detecting Errors
 - Compiler detects errors before execution (static)
 - Clearer error messages at runtime (dynamic)
 - Enforcing certain programming patterns
- Abstraction
 - Modularity by providing interfaces
 - Hides memory/implementation details
- Documentation/Specification
 - Expresses intended behavior
 - Communication with other developers
 - In contrast to comments/documents: enforced to be updated

Why Type Systems Here?

- Demystifying compilers
- Type systems are a formalization of how developers analyze: How to think about programs?

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong" (Robin Milner, '78)

- What is a "type"?
- What means "well-typed"?
- What means "go wrong"?
- What kind of type systems exist?
- What does this mean especially for concurrent systems?

Foundations of Types – What is a type?

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Types for Expressions

- Types classify expressions
- Expression e has a type T if e will (always) evaluate to a value of type T
 - $\{\ldots,-1,0,1,\ldots\}$ are values of type int
 - 22+2 evaluates to 24, which has type int
- Data types of variables are abstractions over memory layout
- What is the type of a function? The type of a channel?
- For us: A type is an abstraction over data or behavior
- Channel types are behavioral types

Foundations of Types – What is well-typedness?

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Type Systems

If we know our abstractions, we need to ensure that our program adheres to them.

A type system is a method to check whether a program adheres to its types.

- Dynamic vs. static
 - Dynamic systems check type tags at runtime
 - Static systems check type annotations at compile time
 - Gradual system check as much as possible statically, and refer the rest to a dynamic system
- Decidable vs. undecidable
 - Static systems should not take too much time, more precise types abstract less
 - Very precise type system can become undecidable (also on accident: see Java Generics)
- Strong vs. weak typing
 - Strong type systems aim to cover as many possible error sources
 - Weak type systems give more freedom

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Examples for Errors

• General: Applying operators that are not defined on all inputs

```
1+" string" //ill-typed
1+1 //well-typed
...
public Integer f(Integer i) { return 2/i; }
...
f(true) // ill-typed
f(0) // ill-typed?
```

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Examples for Errors

- General: Applying operators that are not defined on all inputs
- OO: Calling a method that is not supported

```
public class C {
   public Integer f(Integer i) { return i*2; }
}
...
C c = new C();
c.g(1);
```

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Examples for Errors

- General: Applying operators that are not defined on all inputs
- OO: Calling a method that is not supported
- Concurrent: Deadlock

?? How to specify deadlocks? -> channel types

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Examples for Errors

Not every error is considered a type error. Sometimes the line is not clear, e.g., for null access.

```
public void method(C o){ o.m(); } //Java: Type C allows null
...
this.method(null);
```

```
fun method(o : C){ o.m(); }//Kotlin: Type C does not allow null
    ...
    this.method(null);
```

Type Soundness

"Well-typed programs cannot go wrong"

Type Soundness

If a program adheres to its types at compile time, then certain errors do not occur at runtime

- Formalized either as reachability or reduction.
- $e_1 \rightsquigarrow e_2$ is one execution/evaluation step from e_1 to e_2

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Type Soundness as Reachability

- A bad operation results in an error state.
- Well-typed programs never reach an error state.

$$(1+1) + 1 \rightsquigarrow 2 + 1 \rightsquigarrow 1 \qquad \checkmark$$

$$(1+1) + "a" \rightsquigarrow 2 + "a" \rightsquigarrow error \quad \mathcal{X}$$

Type Soundness as Reduction

- A bad operation blocks the program.
- Well-typed programs never block.

$$(1+1)+1 \rightsquigarrow 2+1 \rightsquigarrow 1 \qquad \checkmark$$

$$(1+1)+$$
 "a" \rightsquigarrow 2+"a" \mathcal{X}

Type Soundness for Concurrent Programs

• The reduction view naturally generalizes to concurrency: avoid blocking due to misused concurrency operations.

• ...

message order?

How would we analyze this? How would we formally reason about it?

Completeness of Type Systems

Types and Logic

Type systems and logics share some properties

- Notions of soundness and completeness
- Judgment (later today)
- Dual use as documentation and specification

Static Types

Static type systems are typically incomplete

- In many cases because they are decidable
- Their wide adaption hints that the incomplete part is not important in practice

Dynamic Types

Dynamic Type systems are "complete", but detect the error to late.

A typing discipline consists of

- A type syntax
- A subtyping relation
- A typing environment
- A type judgment
- A set of type rules (the type system itself)
- A notion of type soundness

Next Slides

A simple type system for a simple sequential language.

Typing Literal Expressions

Language Syntax

Expressions with integer and boolean literals:

$$e ::= n \mid true \mid false \mid e + e \mid e \land e \mid e \leq e$$

Type Syntax

Booleans and integers:

$$T ::= Bool | Int$$

- 1
- $1+2 \leq 3$
- We allow parentheses if necessary $(1+2\leq 3)\wedge \mathit{true}$

A judgment is a meta-statement over formal constructs.

Typing Judgment
To express that an expression e is well-typed with type T . We write
$\vdash e:T$

- Judgment is true: $\vdash 1 + 1$: Int
- Judgment is false: $\vdash 1 + 1$: Bool
- some more examples

Type Rules

- A typing rule contains one conclusion (Conclusion) and a list of premises (Premise_i).
- Each conclusion and premise is one judgment
- Its meaning is that if all premises are true, then the conclusion is also true
- A rule without premises is an axiom and expresses that something is always true

Notation:



Our axioms:

$$\frac{1}{| + false : Bool} \text{ bool-f } \frac{1}{| + true : Bool} \text{ bool-t } \frac{1}{| + n : Int} \text{ int-literal}$$

The following expresses that if e_1 and e_2 can be typed with boolean type, then so can $e_1 \wedge e_2$.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \vdash e_1 : \texttt{Bool} & \vdash e_2 : \texttt{Bool} \\ \hline \vdash e_1 \land e_2 : \texttt{Bool} \end{array} \text{bool-and}$$

The following expresses that if e_1 and e_2 can be typed with integer type, then so can $e_1 + e_2$.

$$\frac{\vdash e_1 : \texttt{Int} \quad \vdash e_2 : \texttt{Int}}{\vdash e_1 + e_2 : \texttt{Int}} \text{ int-plus}$$

The following expresses that if e_1 and e_2 can be typed with integer type, then $e_1 \leq e_2$ can be typed with boolean type.

$$\frac{\vdash e_1: \texttt{Int} \quad \vdash e_2: \texttt{Int}}{\vdash e_1 \leq e_2: \texttt{Bool}} \text{ bool-leq}$$

Typing Tree

A typing tree is a tree, where each node is a type rule application on a concrete expression.

A tree is closed if all leaves are stemming from axioms.

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Rule:

$$e_1 : Int \qquad \vdash e_2 : Int \qquad int-plus$$

 $\vdash e_1 + e_2 : Int$

Rule application:

$$\frac{\vdash 12: \texttt{Int} \quad \vdash 13: \texttt{Int}}{\vdash 12 + 13: \texttt{Int}} \text{ int-plus}$$

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 $dash 1+2 \leq 3: \texttt{Bool}$

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This means that $1+2 \leq 3$ indeed has type Bool.

This means that $true + 2 \leq 3$ does not have type Bool.

We have types and typing rules, for type soundness we also need expression evaluation.

Evaluation

We do not define evaluation formally here, but assume that $e_1 \rightsquigarrow e_2$ is one execution/evaluation step from e_1 to e_2 .

- $1+2 \rightsquigarrow 3$
- $1+2 \leq 5 \rightsquigarrow 3 \leq 3$
- $3 \leq 3 \rightsquigarrow true$

Literals and Termination

An evaluation of expression e1 successfully terminates, if

 $e_1 \rightsquigarrow \cdots \rightsquigarrow e_{final}$

and e_{final} is either a literal *n*, *true*, or *false*, or if e_1 is one of these expressions itself.

Type Soundness

Typically, soundness requires three properties:

- All expressions that are successfully terminated are well-typed
- If a well-typed expression can evaluate, then the result is well-typed (Subject reduction)
- If a well-typed expression is not successfully terminated, then it can evaluate (Progress)

Together, these properties imply that if an expression is well-typed, and its evaluation terminates, then it terminates successfully.

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Subject Reduction

If a well-typed expression can evaluate, then the result is well-typed

$$\forall \texttt{e},\texttt{e}',\texttt{T}. \ \big((\texttt{e}:\texttt{T} \land \texttt{e} \rightsquigarrow \texttt{e}') \rightarrow \texttt{e}':\texttt{T}\big)$$

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Together, these properties imply that if an expression is well-typed, and its evaluation terminates, then it terminates successfully.

Progress

If a well-typed expression is not successfully terminated (term(e)), then it can evaluate

$$\forall e, T. \ \big((e: T \land \neg term(e)) \to \exists e'. \ e \rightsquigarrow e'\big)$$

Type Soundness

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- If a well-typed expression can evaluate, then the result is well-typed (Subject reduction)

• If a well-typed expression is not successfully terminated, then it can evaluate (Progress) Together, these properties imply that if an expression is well-typed, and its evaluation terminates, then it terminates successfully.

- Subject reduction states that typeability is an invariant
- Progress is almost deadlock freedom, typically harder to proof
- More general formulations possible
Typing Environment and Subtyping

- We can now type boring expressions
- Enough to demonstrate all parts, but how do we move towards types for concurrency?
- Next two ingredients:
- Typing of variables
 - Typing variables requires to keep track of which variables are declared
 - We will record information in a type environment
- Subtyping
 - $\bullet\,$ We will introduce a second judgment to express the relation between types
- Typing environment and subtyping relation are critical for channel types

Language Syntax

Expressions with integer and boolean literals:

$$e ::= n \mid true \mid false \mid e + e \mid e \land e \mid e \leq e \mid v$$

Type Syntax (unchanged)

Booleans and integers:

T ::= Bool | Int

• v

- $1 + v \leq 3$
- We allow parentheses if necessary $(1+\mathtt{v}\leq 3)\wedge \mathtt{w}$

Type Environment

A type environment $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}$ is a partial map from variables to types.

- Notation to access the type of a variable v in environment $\Gamma \colon \Gamma(v)$
- Notation for an environment with two integer variables v, w:

 $\{\texttt{v}\mapsto\texttt{Int},\texttt{w}\mapsto\texttt{Int}\}$

An empty type environment is denoted \emptyset .

• Notation for updating the environment

$$\Gamma[x\mapsto T]=\Gamma'$$

where $\Gamma'(x) = T$ and $\Gamma'(y) = \Gamma(y)$ for all other variables $y \neq x$.

• Notation if a variable has no assigned type

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{x}) = \bot$$

Type Judgment

The type judgment includes the type environment:

 $\Gamma \vdash e : T$

This reads as expression e has type T if all variables are as described by Γ .

New rule. The premise is a new judgment that holds iff the equality holds.

$$\frac{\Gamma(v) = T}{\Gamma \vdash v : T} \text{ var}$$

The type environment is added to all other rules and carried over from conclusion to premises. For example,

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \texttt{Bool} \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \texttt{Bool}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \land e_2 : \texttt{Bool}} \text{ bool-and}$$

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1=\{\mathtt{v}\mapsto\mathtt{Int}\}, \Gamma_2=\emptyset$

 $\Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3$: Bool

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1 = \{ \mathtt{v} \mapsto \mathtt{Int} \}, \Gamma_2 = \emptyset$

$$\frac{\Gamma_1 \vdash 3: \texttt{Int}}{\Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + \texttt{v} \leq 3: \texttt{Bool}} \text{ bool-leq}$$

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1 = \{ \mathtt{v} \mapsto \mathtt{Int} \}, \Gamma_2 = \emptyset$

$$\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline & $\Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v : \texttt{Int}$ & $\overline{\Gamma_1 \vdash 3 : \texttt{Int}}$ & int-literal \\\hline & $\Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3 : \texttt{Bool}$ & bool-leq \\\hline \end{tabular}$$

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1 = \{\mathtt{v} \mapsto \mathtt{Int}\}, \Gamma_2 = \emptyset$

$$\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline & $\Gamma_1 \vdash v: \texttt{Int}$ & \texttt{int-plus}$ & $\Gamma_1 \vdash 3:\texttt{Int}$ & \texttt{int-literal}$ \\ \hline & $\Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3:\texttt{Bool}$ & \texttt{bool-leq}$ \\ \hline \end{tabular}$$

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1=\{\mathtt{v}\mapsto\mathtt{Int}\}, \Gamma_2=\emptyset$

$$\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline \hline & \hline & \hline & \hline & \Gamma_1(v) = \texttt{Int} \\ \hline & \hline & \hline & & \Gamma_1 \vdash v : \texttt{Int} \\ \hline & & \hline & & \hline & & \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v : \texttt{Int} \\ \hline & & & \hline & & \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3 : \texttt{Bool} \\ \hline \end{tabular}$$
 int-literal bool-leq

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1 = \{\mathtt{v} \mapsto \mathtt{Int}\}, \Gamma_2 = \emptyset$

$$\label{eq:relation} \begin{array}{c} \hline \Gamma_1(v) = \texttt{Int} \\ \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1: \texttt{Int} \\ \hline \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v: \texttt{Int} \\ \hline \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v: \texttt{Int} \\ \hline \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3: \texttt{Bool} \end{array} \text{var} \\ \begin{array}{c} \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 3: \texttt{Int} \\ \texttt{bool-leq} \end{array}$$

Typing now depends on the type of the variables. Let $\Gamma_1=\{\mathtt{v}\mapsto\mathtt{Int}\}, \Gamma_2=\emptyset$

$$\label{eq:relation} \begin{array}{c|c} \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1: \mbox{ int-literal } & \hline \Gamma_1(v) = \mbox{Int } \\ \hline \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1: \mbox{ Int } & \mbox{ int-literal } \\ \hline \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v: \mbox{ Int } & \mbox{ int-plus } \\ \hline \hline \Gamma_1 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3: \mbox{ Bool } \\ \hline \hline \hline \Gamma_2 \vdash 1: \mbox{ Int } & \mbox{ int-literal } \\ \hline \hline \hline \Gamma_2 \vdash 1 + v: \mbox{ Int } & \mbox{ int-plus } \\ \hline \hline \hline \hline \Gamma_2 \vdash 1 + v: \mbox{ Int } & \mbox{ int-plus } \\ \hline \hline \hline \hline \Gamma_2 \vdash 1 + v: \mbox{ Int } & \mbox{ int-literal } \\ \hline \hline \hline \hline \Gamma_2 \vdash 1 + v \leq 3: \mbox{ Bool } \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Evaluation

Let σ be a store. A store is a map from variables to literals. We do not define evaluation formally here, but assume that $e_1 \rightsquigarrow_{\sigma} e_2$ is one execution/evaluation step from e_1 to e_2 . In particular, $v \rightsquigarrow_{\sigma} \sigma(v)$.

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Subject Reduction

If a well-typed expression can evaluate, then the result is well-typed

$$\forall \mathsf{\Gamma}, \mathsf{e}, \mathsf{e}', \mathsf{T}. \ \big((\mathsf{\Gamma} \vdash \mathsf{e} : \mathsf{T} \land \mathsf{e} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{e}') \to \mathsf{\Gamma} \vdash \mathsf{e}' : \mathsf{T} \big)$$

Evaluation

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Progress

If a well-typed expression is not successfully terminated (term(e)), then it can evaluate

 $\forall \mathsf{\Gamma}, \mathsf{e}, \mathtt{T}. \ \big((\mathsf{\Gamma} \vdash \mathsf{e} : \mathtt{T} \land \neg \mathsf{term}(\mathsf{e})) \to \exists \mathsf{e}'. \ \mathsf{e} \rightsquigarrow \mathsf{e}' \big)$

Evaluation

Let σ be a store. A store is a map from variables to literals. We do not define evaluation formally here, but assume that $e_1 \rightsquigarrow_{\sigma} e_2$ is one execution/evaluation step from e_1 to e_2 . In particular, $v \rightsquigarrow_{\sigma} \sigma(v)$.

- Additionally, we must ensure that σ , adheres to Γ
- For every variable v we must have $\emptyset \vdash \sigma(v) : \Gamma(v)$

Simple Subtyping

- Let us introduce a simple subtype of the integers: positive numbers
- We need to extend the type syntax, adjust the typing rules and formalize subtyping
- Subtyping is formalized as a special typ

Type Syntax

Booleans, integers and positive integers:

$$T ::= \texttt{Bool} \mid \texttt{Int} \mid \texttt{Pos}$$

$$\frac{n < 0}{\vdash n : Int}$$
 int-litera

$$\frac{n \ge 0}{\vdash n : \mathsf{Pos}} \text{ pos-literal}$$

Simple Subtyping

We introduce a new judgment to express that T_1 is a subtype of $T_2 : \ T_1 <: T_2$



$$\frac{S <: T \qquad \Gamma \vdash e : S}{\Gamma \vdash e : T} T-sub$$

 $\emptyset \vdash 1: \texttt{Int}$

$$\frac{\texttt{Pos} <: \texttt{Int} \quad \emptyset \vdash 1 : \texttt{Pos}}{\emptyset \vdash 1 : \texttt{Int}} \; \mathsf{T}\text{-}\mathsf{sub}$$

$$\frac{1 \ge 0}{\emptyset \vdash 1 : Pos} \text{ pos-literal} \\ \frac{0}{\emptyset \vdash 1 : Int} \text{ pos-literal} \\ \text{T-sub}$$

$$\frac{1 \ge 0}{\emptyset \vdash 1: \mathtt{Int}} \mathsf{T}\operatorname{-pos} \quad \frac{1 \ge 0}{\emptyset \vdash 1: \mathtt{Pos}} \operatorname{pos-literal} \mathsf{T}\operatorname{-sub}$$

- Soundness etc. is not affected by subtyping
- Rule T-sub is not syntax-directed
 - Can always be applied
 - Requires to chose a suitable S
 - Hard to implement in an algorithmic
- This is orthogonal to concurrency, Pierce (Ch. 16) has details on algorithmic subtyping

- Instead of T-sub, we can allow subtyping in other rules
- In the rest of the lecture, we do no use T-sub

Types for Statements

Syntax

Language

Expressions are as before, statements are a simple imperative language

```
\begin{split} \texttt{s} &::= \mathsf{return} \ \texttt{e} \ | \ \texttt{v} \ = \ \texttt{e}; \ \texttt{s} \ | \ \texttt{T} \ \texttt{v} \ = \ \texttt{e}; \ \texttt{s} \\ & | \ \mathsf{skip} \ | \ \mathsf{if}(\texttt{e})\{\texttt{s}\}\texttt{s} \end{split}
```

Type Syntax

Integers, positive number, booleans, unit type. Subtyping as before.

T ::=Int | Pos | Bool | Unit

- Unit type is used to type statements
- A statement has unit type if it is typeable, and no type if it is not typeable
- Akin to void in Java
- No subtype relation to any other type

Type System

Rules for expressions are as before.



Assignment

Assignment checks that the type of the expression is a subtype of the variable, and that the continuation is typeable. Note that this also checks that the variable is declared – otherwise $\Gamma(v) = \bot$ and the second premise fails.

$$\begin{tabular}{c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{e}:S$ & $S <: \Gamma(\mathbf{v})$ & $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{s}:Unit$ \\ \hline $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{v}$ & = \mathbf{e}; $$ $s:Unit$ \\ \end{tabular}$$

Declaration

Declaration is as before, but additionally updates the environment for the continuation.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: S \quad S <: T \quad \Gamma[v \mapsto T] \vdash s: \texttt{Unit}}{\Gamma \vdash T \; v \; = \; e; \; s: \texttt{Unit}} \; \mathsf{dec}$$

Branching

Branching checks that the condition has boolean type, and both conditional statement and continuation. This implements scoping: if the environment get updated by s_1 , then these declarations are lost for s_2 .

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \texttt{e}:\texttt{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash \texttt{s}_1:\texttt{Unit} \quad \Gamma \vdash \texttt{s}_2:\texttt{Unit}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{if}(\texttt{e})\{\texttt{s}_1\}\texttt{s}_2:\texttt{Unit}} \text{ branch}$$

- Important: terminated program must be well-typed!
- If one uses the error state, it *must not* be well-typed.

Type Soundness

If statement s can be typed with Unit, and its execution terminates, then it terminates with s is fully reduced to **skip**.

Soundness

- Important: terminated program must be well-typed!
- If one uses the error state, it *must not* be well-typed.

Type Soundness

If statement s can be typed with Unit, and its execution terminates, then it terminates with s is fully reduced to **skip**.

Pos
$$v = 1$$
; $v = v + 2$
 $\Rightarrow v = v + 2$ ($v = 1$)
 $\Rightarrow skip$ ($v = 3$)

- Important: terminated program must be well-typed!
- If one uses the error state, it *must not* be well-typed.

Type Soundness

If statement s can be typed with Unit, and its execution terminates, then it terminates with s is fully reduced to **skip**.

Pos
$$v = 1$$
; $v = v + true$
 $\rightsquigarrow v = v + true$ $(v = 1)$

Soundness

- Important: terminated program must be well-typed!
- If one uses the error state, it *must not* be well-typed.

Type Soundness

If statement s can be typed with Unit, and its execution terminates, then it terminates with s is fully reduced to **skip**.

Remarks

- Usual subject reduction and progress properties
- Initial typing starts with empty environment, i.e., no declared variables
- Each branch and programs ends in skip or return. We omit trailing skips from now on in examples.

 $\emptyset \vdash \texttt{Int } v = 1; v = v + 2; \texttt{skip} : \texttt{Unit}$

 $\emptyset \vdash 1: \texttt{Int}$

 $\emptyset \vdash \texttt{Int } v = 1; v = v + 2; \mathsf{skip} : \texttt{Unit}$

$$\{v \mapsto \texttt{Int}\} \vdash v = v + 2; \texttt{skip} : \texttt{Unit} \\ \hline \emptyset \vdash \texttt{Int} v = 1; v = v + 2; \texttt{skip} : \texttt{Unit}$$

 $\begin{array}{c} \{ \texttt{v} \mapsto \texttt{Int} \} \vdash \texttt{skip} : \texttt{Unit} \\ \hline \{ \texttt{v} \mapsto \texttt{Int} \} \vdash \texttt{v} = \texttt{v} + 2 \texttt{;} \texttt{skip} : \texttt{Unit} \\ \hline \emptyset \vdash \texttt{Int} \texttt{v} = \texttt{1} \texttt{;} \texttt{v} = \texttt{v} + 2 \texttt{;} \texttt{skip} \texttt{:} \texttt{Unit} \end{array}$
$$\begin{array}{c|c} & \text{Int} <: \text{Int} & \overline{\{v \mapsto \text{Int}\} \vdash \text{skip} : \text{Unit}} \\ \hline & \{v \mapsto \text{Int}\} \vdash v = v + 2; \text{skip} : \text{Unit} & \overline{\emptyset \vdash 1 : \text{Int}} \\ \hline & \overline{\emptyset \vdash \text{Int} v = 1; v = v + 2; \text{skip} : \text{Unit}} \end{array}$$

Scoping is implemented by not transferring the updated environment. In our rule for branching, we type the continuation with the type environment *before* the branching – all variables declared within are lost.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \vdots \\ \hline \emptyset \vdash true: \texttt{Bool} & \hline \vartheta \vdash \texttt{Int } \texttt{v} = 1; \ \texttt{skip}: \texttt{Unit} & \emptyset \vdash \texttt{v} = 2; \texttt{skip}: \texttt{Unit} \\ \hline \emptyset \vdash \texttt{if}(true) \{\texttt{Int } \texttt{v} = 1; \ \texttt{skip} \} \texttt{v} = 2; \texttt{skip}: \texttt{Unit} \end{array}$$

Channel Types

Typing Channels

- From now on, we will not fully define language and give all rules
- Syntax will be Go-like (goroutines, channel operations)
- Real Go-Code will be annotated with Go

Mismatched Message Types

The basic error is that the receiver expects the result to be of a different type than the value the sender sends. Implemented in Go.

cannot use "foo" (untyped string constant)
as int value in send

Types

If T is type then chan T is a type.

Variance

Let T <: T', with $T \neq T'$. A type constructor C is

- Covariant if C(T) <: C(T')
- Contravariant if C(T') <: C(T)
- Invariant if $C(T')\not<:C(T)\wedge C(T)\not<:C(T')$

Subtyping

Channels types are *covariant*: If T is a subtype of T' then chan T is a subtype of chan T'.

A Simple Type System for Channels



A Simple Type System for Channels



A Glimpse of Input/Output Modes

Beware! The next slides use modified Go-like syntax:

- <-chan becomes chan?
- chan becomes chan!
- chan becomes chan_{!?}

Modes

- The previous system makes sure the sent data has the right data, but does not consider the direction.
- Modes specify the direction of a channel in a given scope

A Glimpse of Input/Output Modes

Types

Channel types are now annotated with their mode or capability.

```
T := ... | \operatorname{chan}_M T \qquad M ::= ! | ? | !?
```

- A channel that can be read: ?
- A channel that can be written: !
- A channel that allows both: !?

Subtyping

We can pass a channel that allows both operation to a more constrained context

```
chan_{!} T <: chan_{!?} T
chan_{?} T <: chan_{!?} T
```

A Glimpse of Input/Output Modes

- How to use channels with restricted mode !?
- Either use subtyping at every evaluation (like in Go)
- Or use weakening to enforce that subtyping relation is used only once
- This ensures that once a channel is used for reading (writing) once in a thread, then it is only used for reading (writing) afterwards

```
func main() {
  chn := make(chan!? int) //!?
  go read(chn) //!?
  //weaken chn to chan! int
  chn <- v //<- chn would be illegal
}
func read(c chan? int) int { //forgets ! mode
  return <-c //c <- 1 would be illegal
}</pre>
```

Weakening Rule

Allows to make a type less specific. This is *not* just using the T-sub rule – we modify the stored type in the environment.

$$\frac{\Gamma, \{\mathbf{x} \mapsto T''\} \vdash \mathbf{s} : T}{\Gamma, \{\mathbf{x} \mapsto T'\} \vdash \mathbf{s} : T} \mathsf{T}^{\prime\prime} <: T'}{\mathsf{F}, \{\mathbf{x} \mapsto T'\} \vdash \mathbf{s} : T} \mathsf{T}^{\mathsf{weak}}$$

Other Rules: Read and Write with Modes

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$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: \mathtt{chan}_! \ T \qquad \Gamma \vdash v: T' \qquad T' <: T}{\Gamma \vdash e \ <- v: \mathtt{Unit}} \ \mathsf{M}\text{-write}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : chan_{?}T' \qquad T' <: T}{\Gamma \vdash <- e : T} M-read$$

Important: No subtyping on $chan_7T'$ and $chan_1T$. A channel must be weakened before it can be used!

Other Rules: Read and Write with Modes

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \mathtt{chan}_! \ T \qquad \Gamma \vdash v : T' \qquad T' <: T}{\Gamma \vdash e \ <- v : \mathtt{Unit}} \ \mathsf{M}\text{-write}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e: chan_{?}T' \qquad T' <: T}{\Gamma \vdash <- e: T} \text{ M-read}$$

Important: No subtyping on $chan_7T'$ and $chan_1T$. A channel must be weakened before it can be used!

Next Lecture: Typing go func and operations on the type environment.

Wrap-Up

This Lecture

- General structure of static type systems
- Simple type systems for channels
- Introduction: Modes

Next Lectures

- More on modes
- More complex channel types
 - Linear types
 - Usage and Session types
- Uniqueness types, towards the ownership system of Rust