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#### **Constraint Handling Rules with Binders, Patterns and Generic Quantification**

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# **Overview**

- What are we working on?
- Where do CHRs arise in our work?
- Why do they fall short?
- What do we need to make them work (better)?
- ▶ For the technical development: see the paper



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### The Haskell type system

- Haskell is a hotbed of type system innovation: Generalized Abstract Data Types (GADTs), type classes, (closed and open) type families, etc.
- Inspired by developments in the dependently type community, more and more features are added: power but also complexity is on the rise
  - Only rarely does the type system become a bit simpler



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#### **Pros and Cons**

New type system features have advantages:

- More properties of a program can be encoded in the type system,
- More guarantees on the correctness of our program, checked automatically at every compile
- But also disadvantages:
  - Difficult to implement
  - New features may be difficult to grasp
  - Complicated interactions
  - Introduces new ways for programmers to make mistakes



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# What is type error diagnosis?

- Type error diagnosis is the problem of communicating to the programmer that and/or why a program is not type correct
- This may involve information
  - that a program is type incorrect
  - which inconsistency was detected
  - which parts of the program contributed to the inconsistency
  - how the inconsistency may be fixed
- ► Traditionally, functional languages have more room for inconsistencies ⇒ at least some attention was paid to type error diagnosis



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#### A small mistake with big consequences

```
pExpr = pAndPrioExpr
{|}
sem_Expr_Lam -- Semantics for lambda expressions
{$ pKey "\\"
{*}pFoldr1 (sem_LamIds_Cons, sem_LamIds_Nil) pVarid
{*}pKey "->"
{*}pExpr
```

#### The error message that results:

```
ERROR "BigTypeError.hs":1 - Type error in application
*** Expression : sem_Expr_Lam <$ pKey "\\" <*> pFoldr1 (sem_LamIds_Cons,sem_
LamIds_Nil) pVarid <*> pKey "->"
*** Term : sem_Expr_Lam <$ pKey "\\" <*> pFoldr1 (sem_LamIds_Cons,sem_
LamIds_Nil) pVarid
*** Type nt -> [([Token] -> [((Type -> Int -> [([Char],(Type,Int,Int))] -> Int
t -> Int -> [(Int,(Bool,Int))] -> (PP_Doc,Type,a,b,[c] -> [Level],[S] -> [S]))
-> Type -> d -> [([Char],(Type,Int,Int))] -> Int -> Int -> e -> (PP_Doc,Type,a,b,
f -> f,[S] -> [S]),[Token])]
*** Does not match : [Token] -> [([Char] -> Type -> d -> [([Char],(Type,Int,Int))]
] -> Int -> Int -> e -> (PP_Doc,Type,a,b,f -> f,[S] -> [S]),[Token])]
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# What is a Domain Specific Language (DSL)?

According to Walid Taha we deal with a DSL:

- the domain is well-defined and central
- the notation is clear,
- the informal meaning is clear,
- the formal meaning is clear and implemented.



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#### Missing is:

- and an implementation of the DSL can communicate with the programmer about the program in terms of the domain
- As we say: "domain-abstractions should not leak"



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# **Embedded Domain Specific Languages**

- Embedded (internal à la Fowler) Domain Specific Languages are achieved by encoding the DSL syntax inside that of a host language.
- Some (arguable) advantages:
  - familiarity host language syntax
  - escape hatch to the host language
  - existing libraries, compilers, IDE's, etc.
  - combining EDSLs
- At the very least, useful for prototyping DSLs
- According to Hudak "the ultimate abstraction"



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# What host language?

- Some languages provide extensibility as part of their design, e.g., Ruby, Python, Scheme
- Others are rich enough to encode a DSL with relative ease, e.g., Haskell, C++
- In Haskell, EDSLs are simply libraries that provide some form of "fluency"
  - Consisting of domain terms and types, and special operators with particular priority and fixity



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# Some history: CHRs for typing Haskell programs

- ► to improve type error diagnosis [Stuckey et al. 2006, Wazny et al., Serrano and Hage 2016]
- to describe and extend type classes to implement ad-hoc polymorphism [Sulzmann et al. 2007, Dijkstra et al. 2007]
- to generalize the shape of algebraic data types [Sulzmann et al. 2006]



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# Why we opt for CHRs

- CHRs allow the formulation of advanced type systems in simple enough way
- CHRs can be transformed so that domain-type error diagnosis can be injected
  - to achieve control over the order of solving
    - which often determines when/where solving will fail
  - to carry along domain-specific information to use in error messages
- Some languages features we want to support in Haskell are not easily modeled with CHRs
- Solution: extend CHRs



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#### So what exactly are we missing?

- ▶ Functions in Haskell can be polymorphic: *id* :: ∀ *a* . *a* → *a*
- Whenever *id* is used, it must be instantiated, choosing a fresh type variable to replace a
- For *id id* we can choose α for the former, and β for the latter, and unification will find that α = β → β
- In the Hindley-Milner type system, all instantiations can be made at the start of a binding block, all at once
- However, in a type system that supports higher-ranked instantiation often needs to be delayed



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#### What are higher-rank types?

- Types in which not all universal quantifiers occur at top level
  - id :: ∀ a . a → a is not higher-ranked
  - gimmeid ::  $(\forall a . a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow$  Int is
- Not many interesting functions are higher-ranked, but those that are, are hard to work-around
- ► Delayed instantiation: generate a fresh β and recall the (later-to-take-place) instantiation with a constraint ∀a.a → a ≤ β
  - $\blacktriangleright \ \tau \leqslant \tau'$  means  $\tau$  is at least as polymorphic as  $\tau'$
- The rule expressing this has various problems of hygiene
- Our solution is to express binding explicitly in the terms:
   λ-tree terms



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# The CHR formalism

The language of CHRs has three kinds of rules:

		$H^r$	$\iff$	G	B	simplification
$H^k$			$\implies$	G	B	propagation
$H^k$	$\setminus$	H <sup>r</sup>	$\iff$	G	B	simpagation

where  $H^k$  (kept),  $H^r$  (removed) and B are sets of constraints, G is a guard.

- CHRs are applied non-deterministically, no backtracking
- Proving confluence (order does not matter) and termination is for the author of the rules



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#### What have we accomplished?

- extending the matching of CHRs from ground terms to λ-tree terms
- $\blacktriangleright$  introducing nominal constants and the  $\nabla$  operator, leading to  ${\rm CHR}^\nabla$
- generalize existing techniques for dealing confluence and termination in this setting
- we illustrate our extensions by modeling simple higher-rank types
- The mostly technical details are in the paper.
- ► Note: integration of λ-tree syntax with ∇ is known (Baelde, 2014), integration with CHRs is new



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### **Ingredient 1:** $\lambda$ -tree syntax

- ► We introduce λ-tree syntax [Miller, 2000] for modeling binding in our language
- In addition to syntactic equality we also have:

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \lambda x. \ B &=& \lambda y. \ B[x \mapsto y] & \text{if } y \text{ not free in } B & (\alpha) \\ (\lambda x. \ B) \ E &=& B[x \mapsto E] \text{ if } E \text{ does not contain } x & (\beta) \\ \lambda x. \ F \ x &=& F & (\eta) \end{array}$ 

- We must generalize from unification to L<sub>λ</sub> unification (higher-order pattern unification), a decidable restriction of higher-order unification
- Aside: in this setting a simpler rule for  $(\beta)$ ,  $(\beta_0)$  will do
- ► Aside: Lambda-Prolog also uses λ-tree terms



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### Ingredient 2: the generic quantifier $\nabla$

- Setting out to prove  $\forall x.F$ , we can
  - (1) prove  $F[x \rightarrow T]$  for all possible T
  - (2) prove  $F[x \rightarrow c]$  for a new nominal constant c
- But  $\forall x y.P(x, y) \implies \forall z.P(z, z)$  holds for (1) but not for (2).
- ► Miller and Tiu (2005) introduce ∇ as the quantifier to distinguish the 2nd from the 1st
- It generates fresh nominal constants during proof development
- Aside: nominal constants are also known as Skolems and rigid variables



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# The CHRs for dealing with higher-rank types

$$\begin{array}{cccc} T & \Longleftrightarrow & true\\ con(C_1, Args_1) \leqslant T_2 & \Longleftrightarrow & con(C_1, Args_1) = T_2\\ fn(S_1, T_1) \leqslant T_2 & \Longleftrightarrow & fn(S_1, T_1) = T_2\\ forall(Q) \leqslant T_2 & \Longleftrightarrow & \exists V. \ Q \ V \leqslant T_2\\ & & \exists T_2 \not\equiv forall(R)\\ T_1 \leqslant forall(Q) & \Leftrightarrow & \nabla V. T_1 \leqslant Q \ V \end{array}$$

- ► The last rule used to strip off ∀s on the right, then we strip them off on the left, and then the first three can make progress
- ► The semantics deal with ∃ and ∇ differently: in the latter case also α, β₀ and η rules are applied



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# Ingredient 3: permuting nominal constants

- Guaranteed distinctness of nominal constants has its problems: ∇x.B(x) ⊢ ∇y.B(y) is not true!
- ► A special rule ID*π* is added to permute names of nominal constants
- Eg. choosing fresh constant a for x and b for y, we get B(a) ⊢ B(b). Under permutation [a → b, b → a] B(b) becomes B(a) and all is right.
  - Note: both sides may use their own permutation



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### What about termination and confluence?

- As usual, it is up to the author to prove this
- Standard techniques apply, however
  - the level mapping needed for proving termination must be independent of the particular choice of nominal constant
  - for confluence unifiers come with a renaming for the nominal constants



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#### Meanwhile, in the UK...

- Alejandro is in Bristol this week, presenting another part of our work at Implementation and Application of Functional Language
- ► The subject of that work is to add implications by means of scopes to CHR<sup>∇</sup>to model local reasoning (Haskell's GADTs), and higher-rank types that also support type classes
- ► There is an implementation of an impredicative, higher-rank type system at https://git.science.uu.nl/f100183/quique that uses our implementation of CHR<sup>∇</sup>, separately available at https://git.science.uu.nl/f100183/uchrp



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# Thank you for your attention.



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