## Tips for using ATS Anairiats

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ATS demands a lot more than other functional languages. Here I have assembled some tips that I mostly gathered by observing **Hongwei Xi** debug my programs. My hope is that this document will grow with contributions from all ATS users.

- 1. Interchanging template type parameters and polymorphic type parameters. Instead of fun foo {a:nat} (...): void = ... you type fun {a:nat} foo (...): void = .... This can pass the type-checker and still fail to compile. Pay close attention to mixing these two types of parameters. Template parameters are only needed when the size of the type needs to be known in the code. When using templated code pass the template parameters explicitly: goo<double> (), etc.
- 2. Obvious type errors. Sometimes the compiler will say some type is not right, even though you think the correct type can be derived. Sometimes this is because some of the polymorphic variables need to be supplied. Remember you need to enumerate them from left to right as they occur in their definition. For example this is frequently needed array\_ptr\_initialize\_clo\_tsz {double} (pf | ...). That {double} specification is the key here.
- 3. Something is not found. There are three ways to include .sats (1) and .dats (2) files.
  - 1. staload "fname.sats"
  - 2. staload \_(\*anonymous\*) = "fname.dats"
  - 3. dynload "fname.dats"

These are distinct forms. Sometimes you will need all three. If you need to use functions in goo.sats in foo.dats, then in foo.dats use the first form of goo.sats. The last two forms are *usually* only needed in the main program, say main.dats. If goo.dats contains full template implementations then you will use form 2 of goo.dats in main.dats. If the goo library require initialization then you will use form 3 of goo.dats in main.dats. If the compiler says that some template definition cannot be found, then you need form 2. If it complains about dynload\_flag not being available instead then you need form 3. There is one more rule about partial template definitions. A *full* template definition looks like implementation{a} foo {..} ... (..., whereas a *partial* template definition looks like implementation foo<T> {...} ... (.... When you use a partial template definition then in the main program you need to include that definition as follows

```
local (* empty *) in
#include "goo.dats"
end
```

You can put as many **#include**'s as needed in the local statement. Hongwei's latest suggestion is to do this as follows instead

local #include "goo.dats" in (\*empty\*) end

as this will prevent the contamination of the local namespaces with names from goo.

- 4. .hat files. If you have a .dats file with both full and partial templates it might be difficult to avoid multiple definitions. Move all the partial templates into a .hats file and local in #include "\_.hats" end in the main program file. See previous comment for the new desired form of this statement instead to avoid namespace pollution.
- 5. Closures. Note that cloptr1 does not require GC while cloref1 does. The suffix 1 just indicates all effectrs are allowed. For example :<cloptr,!ntm> means it is a closure with only (potentially) non-terminating effect.
- 6. Dynamic variables are not function arguments. This error message might indicate that you have used variables in an internal function that has *not* been declared as a closure. Try :<cloptr> as the arrow decoration.
- 7. Closures on stack. To avoid GC and yet have higher-order functions you can allocate closures on stack. The syntax is as follows:

var !p\_foo = @lam (...) : int =<clo> ...

However, I don't know how to make <code>!p\_foo</code> a *recursive* function. In such cases one can declare foo as a cloptr instead:

fun foo (...) :<cloptr1> int = ...

In this case, ATS will use malloc/free to allocate and free the closure at the end of the function scope. If malloc/free are not available, then you have to use @lam. Note, cloptr does *not* need GC.

- 8. View not available. Sometimes when you use array\_ptr\_initialize\_clo\_tsz you will loose the view of some external arrays that are needed by the closure. If that occurs try adding the viewdef explicitly to the call array\_ptr\_initialize\_clo\_tsz {double} {V} (...) etc.. You might find it convenient to use viewdef V = @[double][n] @ lx or some such definition close-by. The same problem occurs when you try to use GMAT\_safe\_mul in ATSfloat/nla.sats. In this case the call should usually look like GMAT\_safe\_mul<a> {v1,v2} (... where v1 and v2 are usually defined as viewdef v1 = GEMAT\_v (a, m1, n1, ld1, l1) and similarly for v2. The view variables are a must in this case.</a>
- 9. Uninitialized arrays. These are hard to set-up yourself. See if you can use array\_ptr\_initialize\_clo\_tsz. Writing an obvious recursion will not work as the compiler will not be satsified that @[double?][m] » @[double][m] has truly been accomplished, especially during the recursion.
- 10. Static initialization of arrays. This is not quite clear from the manual and tutorial. The following syntax is an easy way to allocate and initialize an array:

val (free\_gc, pf\_A | p\_A, M) = \$arrsz {double} (1.0, ~2.0, 3.14)

where the type of <code>!p\_A</code> is <code>@[double][3]</code> and <code>M</code> has type <code>size\_t 3</code>. If you use the macro <code>array</code> or <code>matrix</code> you can get some simplifications of the returned type. See <code>array.sats</code> and <code>matrix.sats</code> for further information.

- 11. Uninitialized fmatrix. Sometimes you need to reference an entry you have already made in order to fill in another entry. It is hard to convince the compiler the previous entry is there when the type is of the form a: &fmatrix(double?,...). The simplest approach is to
  - fmatrix\_ptr\_initialize\_elt<double> (..., a, ...)

- prval pf = view@ a // change the default view
- work with a using the new implicit default view@ a = fmatrix(double, ...)
- prval () = view@ a := pf // reset the view

If a proof is already available explicitly with the uninitialized state you can update the master type with a trivial statement of the form: prval pf\_arr = pf\_arr

Here is a *another* solution suggested by Hongwei Xi. Here is the code that will not work:

```
fun f (x: &int? > int): void = let
  val () = x := 0
  val () = if x > 0 then x := 1
in
end
as the master type in the if is still int?. The new fix is:
fun f (x: &int? > int): void = let
  val () = x := 0
  val () = if :(x: int) => x > 0 then x := 1
in
```

end

Note the change in syntax of the if statement. The old solution would be:

```
fun f (x: &int? » int): void = let
  val () = x := 0
  prval pf = view@ x
  val () = if x > 0 then x := 1
  prval () = view@ x := pf
in
end
```

This works because the *master type* of pf is int @ x. For for statements master types can be introduced via the following syntax:

for\* (pf\_arr: array\_v (int, N, 1)) => (i := 0; i < N; i := i + 1)
p\_arr->[i] := 42

12. Proofs and if statements. Frequently one runs into the following situation:

pf: GMAT\_v (a?, m, n, ld, l)
val () = if n > 1 then ... pf := GMAT (a, m, n, ld, l)
else ... pf := GMAT (a, m, n, ld, l)

and yet after the if statement the type of pf will still be of the form a?. To fix this use a *state type* as follows

val () = if :(pf: GMAT (a, m, n, ld, l)) => n > 1 then .. else Note that the type in the if statement is the type of pf *after* the if statement.

- 13. Uninitialized array errors. If you see the error message contains lines like: S2Etyarr(S2Etop(0; S2Ecst(double)), then you probably have an uninitialized array where an initialized array is required.
- 14. **Static variables**. Getting hold of a static variable can be tricky sometimes. Here are some common forms:
  - stavar 1: addr
     val \_ = &x: ptr 1 // x: &type

- val [mn:int] (pf\_mn | mn) = m imul2 n
- val [n:int] n = int1\_of (2 \* x + y \* z a \* a)
- val [l:addr] (pf\_gc, pf\_arr | p) = array\_ptr\_alloc<double> (n)
- var acc = 0 // implicit stavar acc: addr val \_ = &acc: ptr acc

Perusing libats/DATS/fmatrix.dats is one of the best ways to get familiar with this.

- 15. prval vs. val. Sometimes type-checking will pass but you will get strange type errors when you go for the full compile. Look at the suspect line. Did you use val when you should have used prval? Sometimes you will get a message like internal error: \_the\_dynctx\_find\_ and it will mention a prfun or something like that.
- 16. Syntactically the same. Sometimes two quantities that are the same will be rejected by the type-checker. For example minimum of two size types. In this case try to give the minimum a static name. For example
  - starvar mn : int
  - val MN = min\_size1\_size1 (M, N) : size\_t mn

Now mn is known to be equal to min(m,n) where M : int m and N : int n. Another way is to explicitly coerce the proof

- prval pf = pf : array\_v (a, n, l)
- 17. Two identical static variables. Sometimes you can define two static variables that are identical in the same scope and get strange error messages that two identical types don't have the same size.
- 18. Unused for-all variable. For example suppose if you have
  - fn foo {a:int} {b:addr} (..

but actually you never use b anywhere. Then when you *call* foo the compiler will complain because it cannot fit b. So if you see a message like no static variable fits the constraints, look for the extra for-all variable.

- 19. Datatypes and GC. If a datatype has only unary constructors then it is represented internally as integers. So there is no need for GC in this case.
- 20. extern vs. fun. Sometimes you will get strange compile time errors (involving the key word \_dynctx\_) about a perfectly typed function. If that function is declared as fn and used in a template in the local file then you will get this error. The way out is to declare it as extern and then implement it.
- 21. Array access. Use xs.[i] in preference to xs[i]. You will get fewer type errors.
- 22. scase vs. case. This is more subtle than I thought. For prfun {n:int} foo (pf: @[int][n] @ 1): ..., you have to use scase on n, but case on pf.
- 23. **Proof closures**. For these either use llam or even just lam ... =as llam ... =<x> is the same as lam ... =<lin,x>.

- 24. Compiler crashes. Okay, this is too generic, but if the type checker crashes, one possible reason could be that a view static variable needs to be explicitly stated. This will happen with functions that take arguments that are closures. For example, routines like array\_ptr\_initialize\_clo\_tsz {a} {v} and GMAT\_ptr\_initialize\_clo<a> {v} require the view variable to be mentioned explicitly for the type checking to succeed without stack overflow.
- 25. Records and tuples with views. To define records with embedded proofs you can do @{pf\_arr = array\_v (a, n, 1), size = size\_t n, ptr = ptr 1}, whereas with tuples you would do @(array\_v (a, n, 1) | size\_t n, ptr 1). Note the lack of a vertical bar for records.
- 26. Order of record fields. When you create a record as val a = @{m = 1, s = "He"}: R, the order of the fields m and s must follow the definition order for viewtypedef R = @{m = int, s = string}. This is to ensure that there is a fixed semantics for side-effects when the record is instantiated field-by-field.
- 27. fold@ and free@. These can only be used with dataviewtype's; not with tuples and records. For tuples and records use their field names to access interior parts. For example g.3->g.pf\_gmat.
- 28. Accessing sub-fields of dataviewtypes. This is essentially a cut-and-paste of an email I got from Hongwei. Suppose we define

```
datatype list_vt (a:type) =
    | list_vt_nil (a) of ()
    | list_vt_cons (a) of (a, list_vt (a))
```

and implement the function

```
fun{a:t0ype} length (xs: !list_vt (a)): int =
case xs of
| list_cons (x, xs1) => fold@ xs; 1 + length (xs1)
| list_nil () => fold@ xs; 0
```

then this will *not* type-check. We took out xs1 from the cons cell but did not return it. You can fix it by using pointers as shown below.

```
fun{a:t0ype} length (xs: !list_vt (a)): int =
case xs of
| list_cons (x, !p_xs1) => fold0 xs; 1 + length (!p_xs1)
| list_nil () => fold0 xs; 0
or
```

```
fun{a:t@ype} length (xs: !list_vt (a)): int =
case xs of
| list_cons (x, !pxs1) => let
   val xs1 = !p_xs1 // get it out
   val n1 = length (xs1)
   val () = !p_xs1 := xs1 // return it
   in
     fold@ xs; n1+1
   end
| list_nil () => fold@ xs; 0
```

- 29. If you malloc\_gc a block and then displace the pointer from the beginning of the block, GC might reclaim your block. If you need to do this, use malloc\_ngc instead. Then, of course, you must reclaim the block yourself.
- 30. #[n:int | n > 0]. Very rarely, you will need to declare a function of the form

fun foo (..., x: &int » int n, ...) :<> #[n:int | n > 0] =
 let ... in ... end

Note that the static variable for x is used before being declared. The syntax #[n...] extends the scope of n correctly (for exact details you are going to have to ask Hongwei himself).

31. Returning a static variable. Say you have a function fun foo (): [n:int] (int n). Sometimes the compiler will not be able to figure out the static variable for the return value. In that case you can add it explicitly yourself using the following syntax:

let ... in  $\#[n \mid my_val_n]$  end

- 32. Conflicting names and staload. From 0.1.9 onwards if you open two .sats files with conflicting names ATS will complain. The way out is to give at least one of them a module name. As of now number.sats and complex.sats both have abs defined internally. So do staload C = libc/SATS/complex.sats to resolve the name conflict.
- 33. Wrapping C libraries. For simplicity, assume that the C code is in foo.c with headers in foo.h. You will create 4 ATS files: foo.sats, foo.dats, foo.hats and foo.cats.
  - i. In foo.cats place any C wrappers you need so that it becomes easier to make the call from ATS. Make sure that the first two lines are

#ifndef ATSF00
#define ATSF00

Then place the rest of your C code and make the last line

#endif

This ensures that when the file foo.cats is included multiple times in the generated C code you don't generate compiler errors. Make sure to include the C header file in foo.cats with a statement of the form

#include 'foo.h''

ii. In your foo.sats file include the foo.cats with the lines

```
%{#
#include ''foo.cats''
%}
```

This is the way that C fragments are included in .sats files. This will also ensure that any types and #define's that you need to introduce are available to you. Now define your ATS version of the C API.

iii. If you need to define full template implementations of the form

implement{a} goo (a, b, c) = ...

put them in foo.dats.

iv. If you need to define partial template implementations of the form

implement goo<double> (a, b, c) = "double\_goo"

put them in foo.hats.

v. Suppose now that your main program resides in main.dats. You can access your new ATS API via

staload "foo.sats"

or, if you do not want to open the whole module and cause name clashes, via

staload F = "foo.sats"

To allow access to the full template implementations you also need the line

staload \_ = "foo.dats"

To allow name safe access to the partial template implementation you also need the line

local #include foo.hats in (\* empty \*) end

Finally, in case your library needs run-time initialization you also need

dynload "foo.dats"

vi. In your Makefile you will use a command that looks like

atscc foo.sats foo.dats main.dats -o foo -lfoo

- vii. In the next tip I talk about controlling dynamic loading.
- 34. Dynamic loading of .dats. What happens if you don't need run-time initialization for foo.dats? If you skip dynload "foo.dats" in main.dats, the ATS compiler will complain. The way out is to add the following line to foo.dats

#define ATS\_DYNLOADFLAG 0 // dynamic load at run-time not needed

If you do this, please make sure that foo.dats only has functions and function templates. If you have a top-level expression of the form

val global\_value = my\_function ()

it will not be evaluated if you turn-off dynamic loading for this file. This will also prevent global\_value from being marked as a root by the gc. So be cautious in turning off dynamic loading.

35. Dynamic loading of .sats. Strangely enough even a .sats file has to be compiled and loaded at run-time. To prevent this add the line

#define ATS\_STALOADFLAG 0 // no staload at run-time

If you do this, please make sure that there are no datatype's or exception's defined in the .sats file.

36. static inline for C glue. When writing C code make sure to mark it as static inline to prevent multiple definitions:

```
static inline ats_size_type foo (ats_size_type n) {
  return (ats_size_type) (5 * n);
};
```

37. Fake proofs from C functions. A typical situation requires that the user provides a work-space array of m entries, if the data size is n, where m is related to n by some complicated function. If this relationship is not satisfied you might incur a run-time error. The way out is to define an abstract proposition encapsulating the relationship:

absprop MyProp (n:int, m:int)

Let int comp\_workspace\_size (int n); be the C function that computes the workspace size. You can declare the C function thus:

```
extern fun ats_comp_workspace_size {n:int} (n: int n):
  [m:int] @(MyProp (n,m) | int m)
  = "comp_workspace_size"
```

Now ats\_comp\_workspace\_size will return not only the correct workspace size, but also a certificate that the other functions can demand to see before they use the workspace of size m with the data of size n.

- 38. Strange missing template compiler errors. Sometimes the compiler will complain that a template instantiation for certain types is missing. Assuming you did not mess up how templates should be defined and loaded, look at the types that the compiler is trying to find a template for. If the types look strange it could be that you have forgotten to explicitly include the template type parameters in a template call somewhere. For example you might have my\_template (x, y), rather than my\_template<float, int> (x,y). The ATS compiler will insert template type parameters on its own, but sometimes they are not the ones for which you have instantiations. Adding the types explicitly will help.
- 39. How to use list\_vt. There are 3 ways to pass list\_vt arguments to functions:
  - i. fun foo (v: list\_vt (...)) : void. In this case the list is consumed after the function call and not available for later use. A typical example would be freeing the list.
  - ii. fun foo (v: !list\_vt (...)) : void. Here the pointer to the head of the list is passed in. So anything that it points to can be modified, but you will continue to have access to the same pointer to the head of the list.
  - iii. fun foo (v: &list\_vt (...)) : void. Here address of the pointer to the head of the list is passed in. So in principle the function could change even the pointer to the head of the list. In other words inside foo we can have a statement of the form v := new\_list\_vt. This would be illegal in either of the earlier forms. Note that in both of the earlier forms, the contents of any cons cell, like the tail for example, can be assigned. So there is no write-protection in the earlier forms.

Just remember that  $v: list_vt$ , mean that v is actually a pointer to the head struct of the list. As far as I can tell you probably can (should?) avoid version iii. For example, while the tutorial uses this form for reverse\_append, list\_vt.sats does not have a single instance of this!