The practice of Mezzo

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Acknowledgements

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Overview

Two lectures on Mezzo.

- April 29th, 2pm: motivation and examples.
- April 30th, 4pm: type soundness, data race freedom.

Outline

Introduction

- Write-once references: usage
- Mezzo: design principles
- Mezzo: motivation
- Write-once references: interface & implementation
- Algebraic data structures
- Sharing mutable data
- Conclusion

Introduction

Write-once references: usage

Write-once references

A write-once reference:

- can be written at most once;
- can be read only *after* it has been written.

Let us look at a concrete example of use...





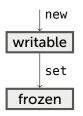
open woref



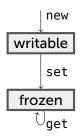
val r1 = new ()
(* r1 @ writable *)



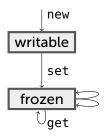
```
val r1 = new ()
(* r1 @ writable *)
val r2 = r1
(* r1 @ writable * r2 = r1 *)
```



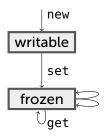
```
val r1 = new ()
(* r1 @ writable *)
val r2 = r1
(* r1 @ writable * r2 = r1 *)
val () = set (r1, 3);
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 *)
```



```
val r1 = new ()
(* r1 @ writable *)
val r2 = r1
(* r1 @ writable * r2 = r1 *)
val () = set (r1, 3);
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 *)
val x2 = get r2
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 * x2 @ int *)
```

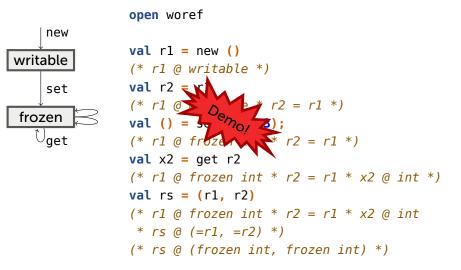


```
val r1 = new ()
(* r1 @ writable *)
val r_{2} = r_{1}
(* r1 @ writable * r2 = r1 *)
val () = set (r1, 3);
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 *)
val x^2 = get r^2
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 * x2 @ int *)
val rs = (r1, r2)
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 * x2 @ int
 * rs @ (=r1, =r2) *)
```



open woref

val r1 = new () (* r1 @ writable *) **val** $r_{2} = r_{1}$ (* r1 @ writable * r2 = r1 *) val () = set (r1, 3); (* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 *)**val** $x^2 = get r^2$ (* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 * x2 @ int *) **val** rs = (r1, r2)(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 * x2 @ int * rs @ (=r1, =r2) *) (* rs @ (frozen int, frozen int) *)



Introduction

Mezzo: design principles

Like a program logic, the static discipline is *flow-sensitive*.

- A current (set of) permission(s) exists at each program point.
- *Different* permissions exist at different points.

Permissions do not exist at runtime.

Thus, there is no such thing as *the* type of a variable x. Instead,

- at each program point in the scope of x,
- there may be *zero, one, or more* permissions to use x in certain ways.

Permissions have *layout* and *ownership* readings.

• e.g., r @ writable

x @ t describes the *shape and extent* of a heap fragment, rooted at x, and describes certain *access rights* for it.

"To know about x" is "to have access to x" is "to own x".

Every permission is either duplicable or affine. At first,

- *Immutable* data is *duplicable*, i.e., shareable.
- *Mutable* data is *affine*, i.e., uniquely owned.
- Mutable data can become immutable; not the converse.

- Writing let x = y in ... gives rise to an equation x = y.
- It is a permission: x @ =y, where =y is a *singleton type*.
- In its presence, x @ t and y @ t are interconvertible.
- Thus, any name is as good as any other.
- The same idea applies to let x = xs.head in

A value can be copied (always). No permission is required.

(* empty *) let y = (x, x) in (* y @ (=x, =x) *)

A duplicable permission can be copied. This is implicit.

A duplicable permission can be copied. This is implicit.

An affine permission *cannot* be copied.

```
(* x @ ref int *)
let y = (x, x) in
(* x @ ref int * y @ (=x, =x) *)
```

An affine permission *cannot* be copied.

```
(* x @ ref int *)
let y = (x, x) in
(* x @ ref int * y @ (=x, =x) *)
assert y @ (ref int, ref int) (* WRONG! *)
```

In other words, mutable data cannot be shared.

Examples of duplicable versus affine

- x @ list int is duplicable: read access can be shared.
- x = y is duplicable: equalities are forever.
- x @ mlist int and x @ list (ref int) are affine: they give exclusive access to part of the heap.

x @ ref int * y @ ref int implies x and y are distinct. Conjunction is *separating* at mutable data.

z @ (t, u) means z @ (=x, =y) * x @ t * y @ u, for x, y fresh. Hence, product is separating. The same principle applies to records.

Hence, list (ref int) denotes a list of *distinct* references. Mutable data must be *tree*-structured.

• though x @ ref (=x) can be written and constructed.

Introduction

Mezzo: motivation

The types of OCaml, Haskell, Java, C#, etc.:

- describe the structure of data,
- but do not distinguish trees and graphs,
- and do not control who has *permission* to read or write.

Question

Could a more ambitious static discipline:

- rule out more programming errors,
- and enable new programming idioms,
- while remaining reasonably simple and flexible?

The uniqueness of read/write permissions:

- *rules out*, or helps rule out, several categories of errors:
 - data races;
 - representation exposure;
 - violations of object protocols.
- *allows* the type of an object to vary with time, which enables:
 - explicit memory re-use;
 - gradual initialization;
 - the description of object protocols.

This discipline is restrictive. Fortunately,

- there is *no restriction* on the use of immutable data;
- there are *several ways* of sharing mutable data:
 - (static) nesting & regions;
 - (dynamic) adoption & abandon;
 - (dynamic) locks.

A few desirable idioms become clumsy or downright impossible.

• e.g., temporarily borrowing an *affine* element from a container (an array; a region; a user-defined data structure; ...).

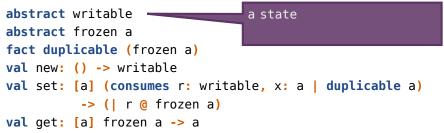
Work-arounds: see previous slide.

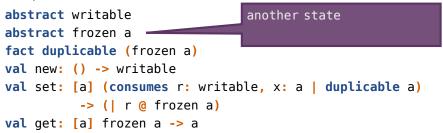
Introduction

Write-once references: interface & implementation

A usage protocol can be described in a module signature:

- A state is a (user-defined) type.
- A transition is a (user-defined) function.

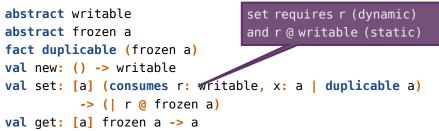


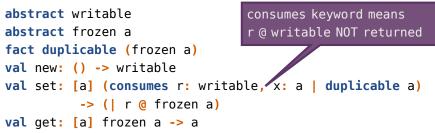


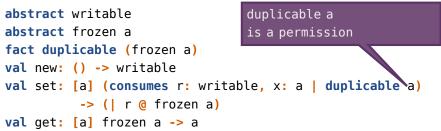
```
abstract writable
abstract frozen a
fact duplicable (frozen a)
val new: () -> writable
val set: [a] (consumes r: writable, x: a | duplicable a)
            -> (| r @ frozen a)
val get: [a] frozen a -> a
```

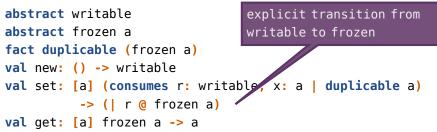
This protocol has two states and four transitions.

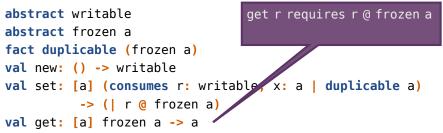
abstract writable abstract frozen a fact duplicable (frozen a) val new: () -> writable val set: [a] (consumes r: writable, x: a | duplicable a) -> (| r @ frozen a) val get: [a] frozen a -> a







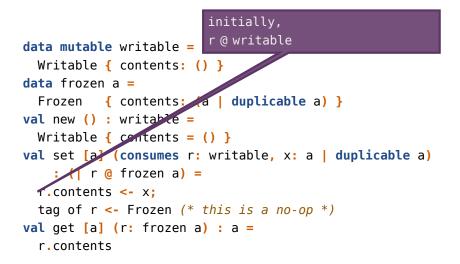


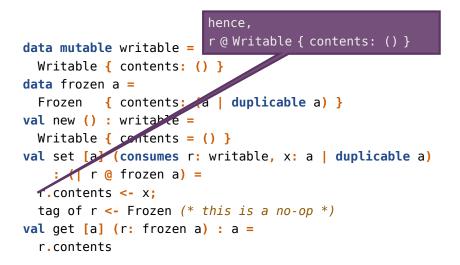


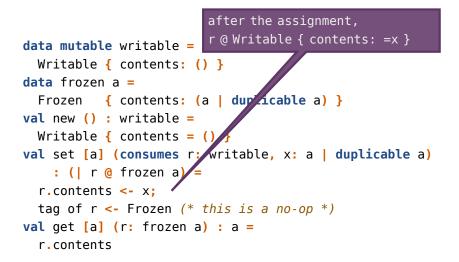
```
data mutable writable =
 Writable { contents: () }
data frozen a =
  Frozen { contents: (a | duplicable a) }
val new () : writable =
  Writable { contents = () }
val set [a] (consumes r: writable, x: a | duplicable a)
    : (| r @ frozen a) =
  r.contents <- x:
  tag of r <- Frozen (* this is a no-op *)</pre>
val get [a] (r: frozen a) : a =
  r.contents
```

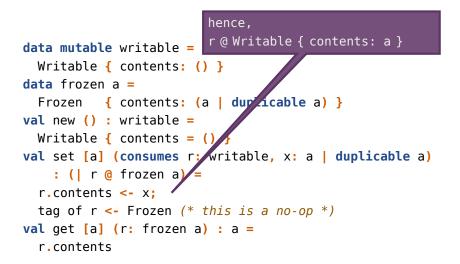
```
a field of type ()
data mutable writable =
 Writable { contents: () 🚩
data frozen a =
  Frozen { contents: (a | duplicable a) }
val new () : writable =
 Writable { contents = () }
val set [a] (consumes r: writable, x: a | duplicable a)
    : (| r @ frozen a) =
  r.contents <- x:
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val get [a] (r: frozen a) : a =
  r.contents
```

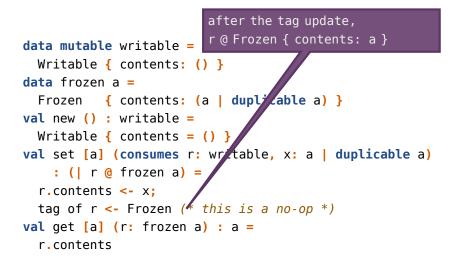
```
a field of type a
                          where a must be duplicable
data mutable writable =
 Writable { contents: () }
data frozen a =
  Frozen { contents: {a | duplicable a) }
val new () : writable =
 Writable { contents = () }
val set [a] (consumes r: writable, x: a | duplicable a)
    : (| r @ frozen a) =
  r.contents <- x:
  tag of r <- Frozen (* this is a no-op *)</pre>
val get [a] (r: frozen a) : a =
  r.contents
```

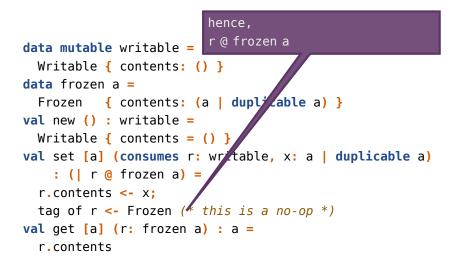












Outline

Introduction

- Algebraic data structures
 - Principles
 - Computing the length of a list
 - Melding mutable lists
 - Concatenating immutable lists
- Sharing mutable data
- Conclusion

Algebraic data structures

Principles

```
The algebraic data type of immutable lists is defined as in ML:
    data list a =
        Nil
        Cons { head: a; tail: list a }
```

For instance,

- x @ list int provides (read) access to an immutable list of integers, rooted at x.
- x @ mlist int provides (exclusive, read/write) access to a mutable list of integers at x.
- x @ list (ref int) offers read access to the spine and read/write access to the elements, which are distinct cells.

Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.

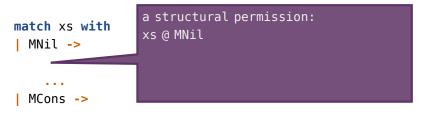
```
match xs with
| MNil ->
| MCons ->
let x = xs.head in
...
end
```

Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.



```
let x = xs.head in
...
end
```

Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.

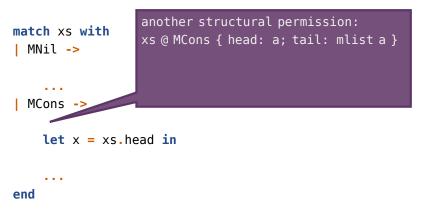


```
let x = xs.head in
```

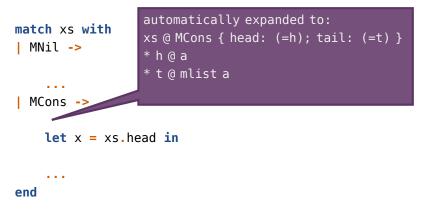
end

. . .

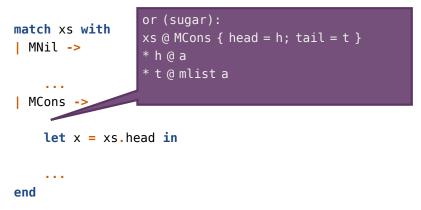
Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.



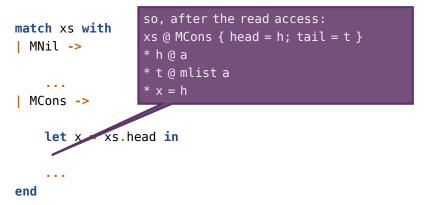
Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.



Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.



Permission refinement takes place at case analysis.



This illustrates two mechanisms:

- A nominal permission can be *unfolded* and *refined*, yielding a structural permission.
- A structural permission can be *decomposed*, yielding separate permissions for the block and its fields.

These reasoning steps are implicit and reversible.

Algebraic data structures

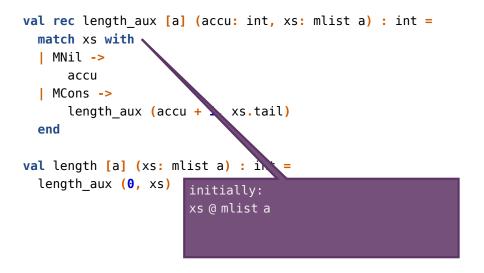
Computing the length of a list

```
Here is the type of the length function for mutable lists.
val length: [a] mlist a -> int
```

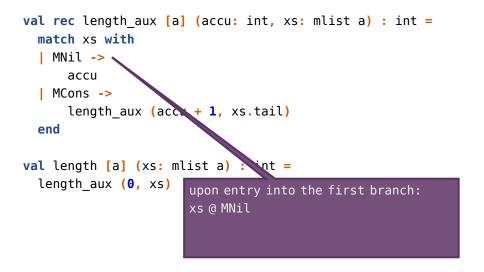
It should be understood as follows:

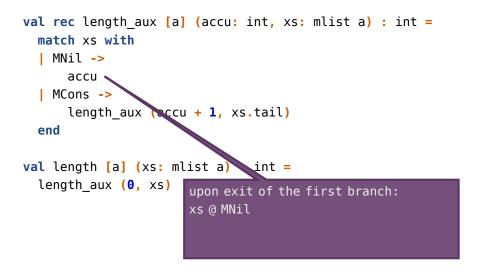
- length requires one argument xs, along with the permission xs @ mlist a.
- length returns one result n, along with the permission xs @ mlist a * n @ int.

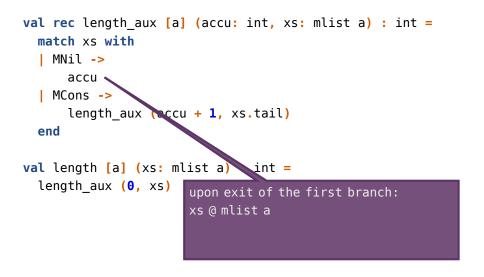
```
val length [a] (xs: mlist a) : int =
  length_aux (0, xs)
```



Implementation







```
val rec length aux [a] (accu: int, xs: mlist a) : int =
  match xs with
    MNil ->
      accu
   MCons ->
      length_aux (accu + 1, xs.tail)
  end
val length [a] (xs: mlist a) int =
  length aux (0, xs)
                       upon entry into the second branch:
                       xs @ MCons { head = h; tail = t }
                       h @ a
                       t@mlista
```

```
val rec length aux [a] (accu: int, xs: mlist a) : int =
  match xs with
    MNil ->
      accu
   MCons ->
      length aux (accu + 1, xs.tail)
  end
val length [a] (xs: mlist a) : int =
  length aux (0, xs)
                       after the call, nothing has changed:
                       xs @ MCons { head = h; tail = t }
                       h @ a
                       t@mlista
```

```
val rec length aux [a] (accu: int, xs: mlist a) : int =
  match xs with
    MNil ->
      accu
   MCons ->
      length aux (accu + 1, xs.tail)
  end
val length [a] (xs: mlist a) : int =
  length aux (0, xs)
                       thus, by recombining:
                       xs @ MCons { head: a; tail: mlist a }
```

```
val rec length aux [a] (accu: int, xs: mlist a) : int =
  match xs with
    MNil ->
      accu
   MCons ->
      length aux (accu + 1, xs.tail)
  end
val length [a] (xs: mlist a) : int =
  length aux (0, xs)
                      thus, by folding:
                      xs@mlista
```

The analysis of this code is surprisingly simple.

- This is a *tail-recursive* function, i.e., a loop in disguise.
- As we go, there is a *list* ahead of us and a *list segment* behind us.
- Ownership of the latter is *implicit*, i.e., *framed out*.

Recursive reasoning, iterative execution.

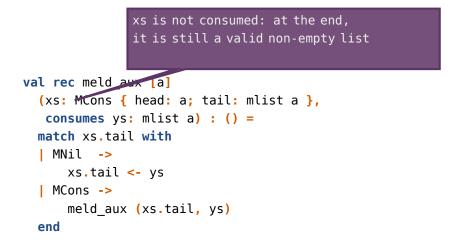


(Now skipping ahead...)

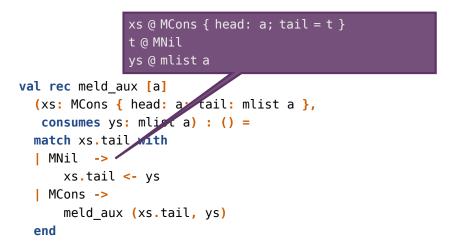
Algebraic data structures

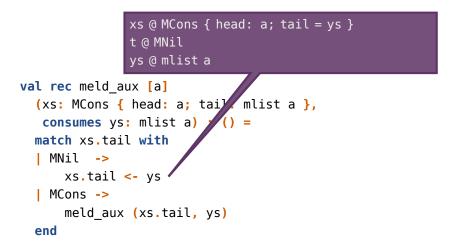
Melding mutable lists

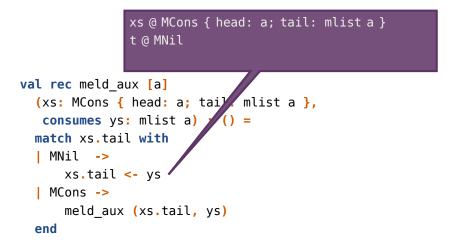
```
val rec meld_aux [a]
 (xs: MCons { head: a; tail: mlist a },
    consumes ys: mlist a) : () =
    match xs.tail with
    | MNil ->
        xs.tail <- ys
    | MCons ->
        meld_aux (xs.tail, ys)
end
```

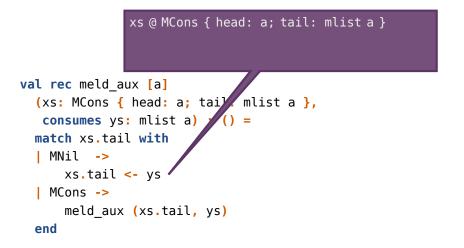


```
at the end, ys is accessible through xs,
               hence must no longer be used directly
val rec meld aux [a]
  (xs: MCons { head: a; tail: mlist a },
   consumes vs: mlist a) : () =
  match xs.tail with
   MNil ->
      xs.tail <- ys
   MCons ->
      meld aux (xs.tail, ys)
  end
```









```
xs @ MCons { head: a; tail = t }
               t @ MCons { head: a; tail: mlist a }
               ys@mlista
val rec meld aux [a]
  (xs: MCons { head: a; tml: mlist a },
   consumes ys: mlist a : () =
  match xs.tail with
   MNil ->
      xs.tail
                 vs
   MCons ->
      meld aux (xs.tail, ys)
  end
```

```
xs @ MCons { head: a; tail = t }
               t @ MCons { head: a; tail: mlist a }
val rec meld aux [a]
  (xs: MCons { head: a; tail: ml st a },
   consumes ys: mlist a) : () =
  match xs.tail with
   MNil ->
      xs.tail <- ys
   MCons ->
      meld aux (xs.tail, ys)
  end
```

```
xs @ MCons { head: a; tail = t }
               t@mlista
val rec meld aux [a]
  (xs: MCons { head: a; tail: ml st a },
   consumes ys: mlist a) : () =
  match xs.tail with
   MNil ->
      xs.tail <- ys</pre>
   MCons ->
      meld aux (xs.tail, ys)
  end
```

```
xs @ MCons { head: a; tail: mlist a }
val rec meld aux [a]
  (xs: MCons { head: a; tail: ml st a },
   consumes ys: mlist a) : () =
  match xs.tail with
   MNil ->
      xs.tail <- ys</pre>
   MCons ->
      meld_aux (xs.tail, ys)
  end
```

Algebraic data structures

Three states



Cons
head
tail



An MCons cell:

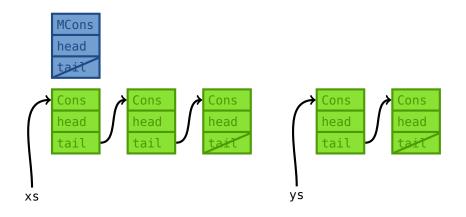
- mutable,
- uninitialized tail,
- type: MCons { head: a; tail: () }

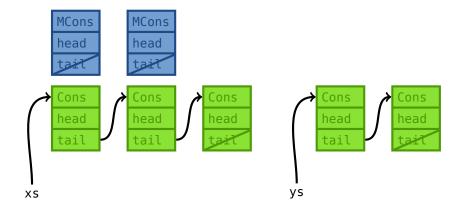
An isolated Cons cell:

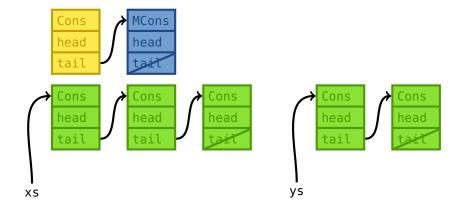
- immutable,
- not the start of a well-formed list,
- type: Cons { head: a; tail = t }

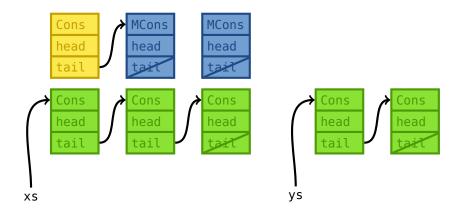
A list cell:

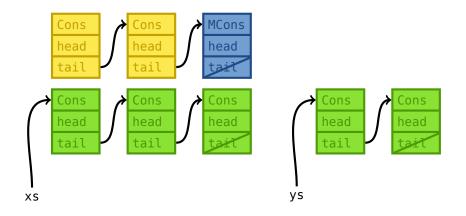
- immutable,
- the start of a well-formed list,
- type list a

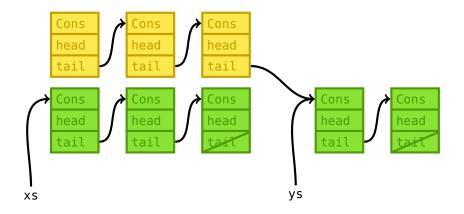


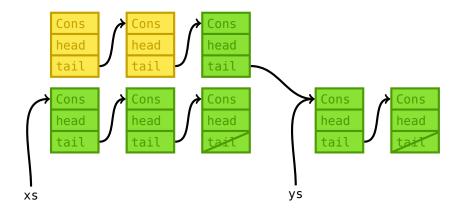


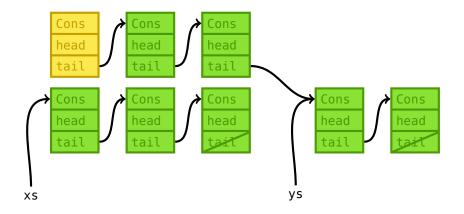


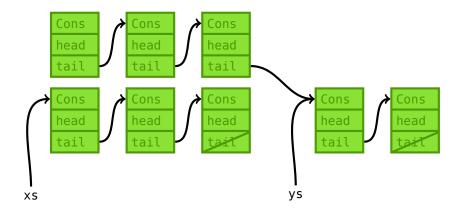




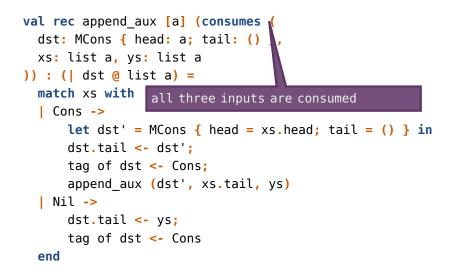


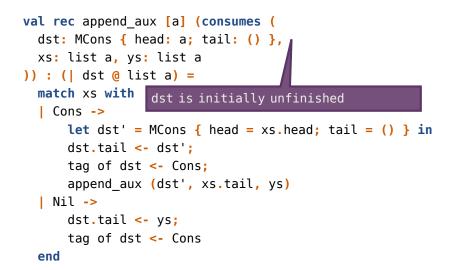


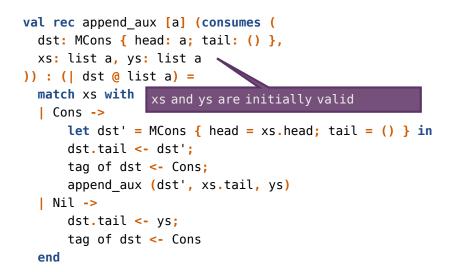


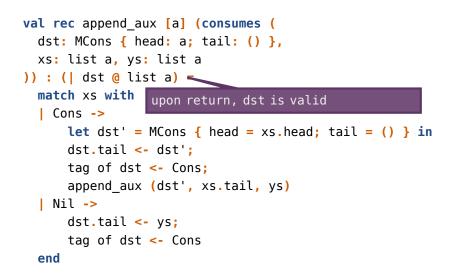


```
val rec append aux [a] (consumes (
  dst: MCons { head: a; tail: () },
  xs: list a, ys: list a
)) : (| dst @ list a) =
  match xs with
  Cons ->
      let dst' = MCons { head = xs.head; tail = () } in
      dst.tail <- dst':</pre>
      tag of dst <- Cons;
      append aux (dst', xs.tail, ys)
  | Nil ->
      dst.tail <- ys;
      tag of dst <- Cons
  end
```



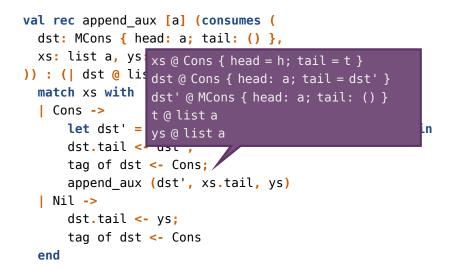


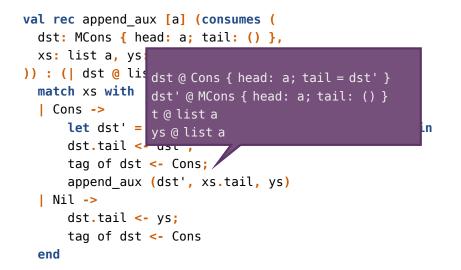


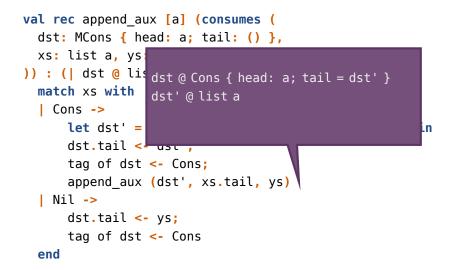


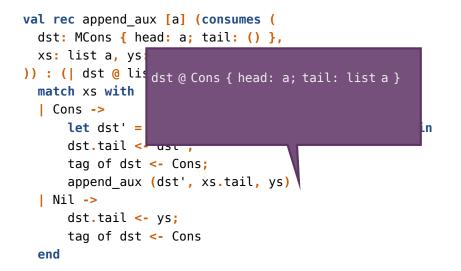
```
val rec append aux [a] (consumes (
  dst: MCons { head: a; tail: () },
  xs: list a, ys: list a
)) : (| dst @ list a) =
  match xs with
                 dst.tail is initialized
  Cons ->
      let dst' = MCons { head = xs.head; tail = () } in
      dst.tail <- dst':</pre>
      tag of dst <- Cons;
      append aux (dst', xs.tail, ys)
   Nil ->
      dst.tail <- ys;
      tag of dst <- Cons
  end
```

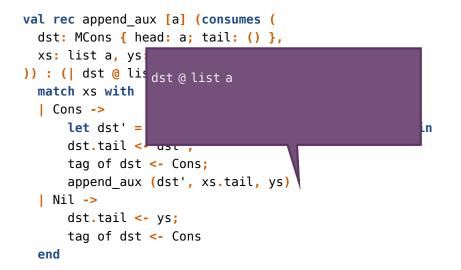
```
val rec append aux [a] (consumes (
  dst: MCons { head: a; tail: () },
  xs: list a, ys: list a
)) : (| dst @ list a) =
  match xs with
                  dst is frozen
  Cons ->
                                  xs.head; tail = () } in
      let dst' = MCons { head ]
      dst.tail <- dst';</pre>
      tag of dst <- Cons;</pre>
      append aux (dst', xs.tail, ys)
   Nil ->
      dst.tail <- ys;
      tag of dst <- Cons
  end
```











```
val append [a] (consumes (xs: list a, ys: list a))
: list a =
  match xs with
  | Cons ->
     let dst = MCons { head = xs.head; tail = () } in
     append_aux (dst, xs.tail, ys);
     dst
     | Nil ->
        ys
     end
```

Remark

```
The type of append:
   [a] (consumes (list a, list a)) -> list a
is a subtype of:
   [a] (list a, list a | duplicable a) -> list a
```

The arguments are consumed only if not duplicable.

Outline

Introduction

- Algebraic data structures
- Sharing mutable data
 - Nesting and regions
 - Adoption and abandon
 - Locks
- Conclusion

Sharing mutable data

Nesting and regions

Nesting (Boyland, 2010) is a static mechanism for organizing permissions into a hierarchy.

Conceptually, the hierarchy is constructed as the program runs. Nesting is *monotonic*: the hierarchy grows with time. Nesting can be *axiomatized* in Mezzo.

This extension has not been proven sound. It could be (I think). Details omitted.

Static *regions* can be *defined* on top of nesting.

```
An affine type of regions - internally defined as the unit type:

abstract region

val newregion: () -> region
```

A *duplicable* type of references that inhabit a region: **abstract** rref (rho : value) a **fact duplicable** (rref rho a)

These references can be shared without restriction.

```
val newrref: (consumes x: a | rho @ region) -> rref rho a
val get: (r: rref rho a | duplicable a | rho @ region) -> a
val set: (r: rref rho a, consumes x: a | rho @ region) -> ()
```

All three are polymorphic in rho and a. Quantifiers omitted. The token rho @ region is required to use *any* reference in rho. The references are collectively "owned by the region". This subsumes Haskell's ST monad. Nesting and regions have *no runtime cost*.

However,

- get must be restricted to duplicable elements (prev. slide).
- Handling affine elements requires a more clumsy mechanism for *focusing* on *at most one element* at a time.
 - Focusing on two elements would entail a proof obligation: $x \neq y$.
- Membership in a region *cannot* be revoked.

Sharing mutable data

Adoption and abandon

What if something like regions existed *at runtime*? Old idea, if one thinks of a region as a "memory allocation area". Here, however, there is a single garbage-collected heap. We are thinking of a "region" as a "unit of ownership". Imagine a "region" is a runtime object that maintains a list of its "members".

We prefer to speak of *adopter* and *adoptees*.

Conceptually,

- Adoption adds an adoptee to the list.
- Abandon takes an adoptee out of the list,
 - after checking at runtime that it is there!

This removes the difficulties with static regions.

- an adopter-adoptee relationship *can* be revoked.
- "focusing" amounts to *taking* an adoptee away from its adopter, then *giving* it back.
- "focusing" on multiple elements is permitted.
 - they must be distinct, or the program *fails* at runtime!

Searching a linked list of adoptees would be too slow. Instead, *each adoptee points to its adopter* (if it has one). Every object has a special adopter field, which may be null.

- Adoption, give x to y, means: x.adopter <- y
- Abandon, take x from y, means:

if x.adopter == y
then x.adopter <- null
else fail</pre>

An adopter owns its adoptees.

Adoption and abandon are very much like *inserting* and *extracting* an element out of a *container*:

- both require a permission for the adopter;
- adoption *consumes* a permission for the new adoptee; abandon allows *recovering* it.

An adopter owns its adoptees.

Adoption and abandon are very much like *inserting* and *extracting* an element out of a *contained*

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Sharing mutable data

Locks

Regions and adoption-and-abandon serve a common purpose:

- move from one-token-per-object to one-token-per-group;
- introduce a *duplicable* type of pointer-into-the-group;
- thus permitting *aliasing* within a group.

A problem remains, though:

- every bit of mutable state is controlled by *some* unique token;
- i.e., every side effect *must* be advertised in a function's type;
- thus, multiple clients *must* coordinate and exchange a token.

There is a certain lack of modularity.

Consider a "counter" abstraction, encapsulated as a function.

- it has abstract state: its type is {p : perm} ((| p) -> int | p).
- it cannot be shared by two threads,
 - unless they synchronize and exchange p;
 - without synchronization, there would be a data race!

A well-typed Mezzo program is data-race free.

Consider a "counter" abstraction, encapsulated as a function.

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 - without synchronization, here yould be a data race!

A well-typed Mezzo program is data-race free.

Locks and hidden state

Introducing a *lock* at the same time:

- removes the data race,
- allows the counter to have type () -> int.

The counter now has *hidden state*.

Let's see how this works...

The axiomatization of locks begins with two abstract types: **abstract** lock (p: perm) **fact** duplicable (lock p)

abstract locked

The permission p is the *lock invariant*.

```
The basic operations are:

val new:

(| consumes p) -> lock p

val acquire:

(l: lock p) -> (| p * l @ locked)

val release:

(l: lock p | consumes (p * l @ locked)) -> ()

All three are polymorphic in p. Quantifiers omitted.
```

While the lock is unlocked, one can think of p as *owned by the lock*. The lock is *shareable*, since lock p is duplicable. Hence, a lock allows *sharing* and *hiding* mutable state. The pattern of *hiding* a function's internal state can be encoded once and for all as a second-order function:

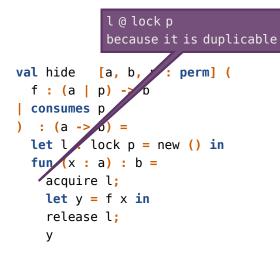
```
val hide : [a, b, p : perm] (
   f : (a | p) -> b
   | consumes p
) -> (a -> b)
```

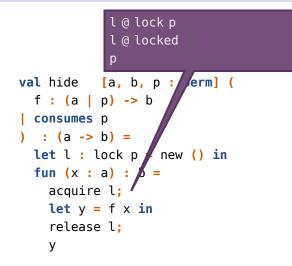
Hiding as a design pattern

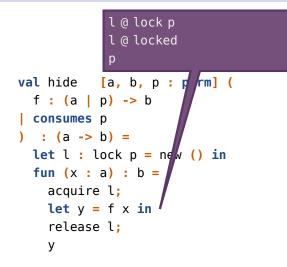
```
val hide [a, b, p : perm] (
  f : (a | p) -> b
  | consumes p
) : (a -> b) =
  let l : lock p = new () in
  fun (x : a) : b =
    acquire l;
    let y = f x in
    release l;
    y
```

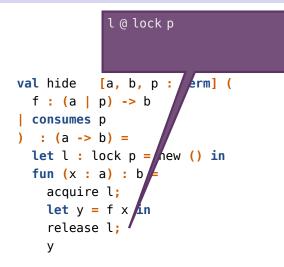
Hiding as a design pattern

```
l@lockp
val hide [a, b, p : perm
  f: (a | p) -> b
 consumes p
) : (a -> b) =
  let l : lock p = new () in '
  fun (x : a) : b =
   acquire l;
   let y = f x in
    release l;
    y
```









Regarding regions versus adoption and abandon,

- they serve the same purpose, namely one-token-per-group;
- use regions if possible, otherwise adoption and abandon.

Regarding locks,

- they serve a different purpose, namely no-token-at-all;
- they are typically used *in conjunction* with the above.
 - a lock protects a token that controls a group of objects.

Outline

Introduction

- Algebraic data structures
- Sharing mutable data
- Conclusion

Mezzo draws inspiration from many sources. Most influential:

- Linear and affine types (Wadler, 1990) (Plasmeijer et al., 1992).
 - not every value can be copied!
- Alias types (Smith, Walker & Morrisett, 2000),
 - L³ (Ahmed, Fluet & Morrisett 2007).
 - copying a value is harmless,
 - but not every capability can be copied!
 - keep track of equations between values via singleton types.
- Regions and focusing in Vault (Fähndrich & DeLine, 2002);
- Separation logic (Reynolds, 2002) (O'Hearn, 2007).
 - ownership is in the eye of the beholder.
 - separation by default; local reasoning.
 - a lock owns its invariant.

A *high-level* underlying untyped programming language:

- algebraic data types preferred to records and null pointers;
- (tail) recursion preferred to iteration;
- garbage collection, first-class functions, etc.

A *conceptual framework* that helps structure programs.

- should help design more reliable programs;
- could help carry out proofs of programs.

At the present time I think we are on the verge of discovering at last what programming languages should really be like. [...] My dream is that by 1984 we will see a consensus developing for a really good programming language [...] At the present time I think we are on the verge of discovering at last what programming languages should really be like. [...] My dream is that by 1984 we will see a consensus developing for a really good programming language [...]

Donald E. Knuth, 1974.

Technically, some novel features of Mezzo are:

- the permission discipline *replaces* the type discipline;
- *a new view of algebraic data types*, with nominal and structural permissions, and a new "tag update" instruction;
- a new, lightweight treatment of the distinction between duplicable and affine data;
- adoption and abandon.

The project was launched in late 2011 and has involved

- Jonathan Protzenko (Ph.D student, soon to graduate),
- Thibaut Balabonski (post-doc researcher),
- · Henri Chataing, Armaël Guéneau, Cyprien Mangin (interns),
- and myself (INRIA researcher).

We currently have:

- a type soundness proof for a subset of Mezzo (next lecture!);
- a working type-checker;
- a "compiler" down to untyped OCaml.

Many questions!

- Can we improve type inference and type error reports?
- Is this a good mix between static and dynamic mechanisms?
- What about temporary read-only views of mutable objects?
- Can we express complex object protocols?
- What about specifications & proofs of programs?

Thank you

More information online: http://gallium.inria.fr/~protzenk/mezzo-lang/