### An overview of Mezzo

**François Pottier** 

INRIA

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# Acknowledgements

Jonathan Protzenko, Thibaut Balabonski, Henri Chataing, Armaël Guéneau, Cyprien Mangin. An *experimental* programming language in the tradition of ML. Try it out in your browser:

http://gallium.inria.fr/~protzenk/mezzo-web/

Or install it:

opam install mezzo

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.

Could a more ambitious static discipline:

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

# A quick comparison

In comparison with Tobias Wrigstad's talk (yesterday),

- data race freedom and ownership transfer are goals too;
- getting rid of GC is not;
- types and permissions *do not* influence code generation; they are erased at runtime.

## Outline

- A first example and a few principles
  - Write-once references: usage
  - Mezzo: (some) design principles
  - Write-once references: interface & implementation
  - Mezzo: the good and the bad
- Algebraic data structures
- Sharing mutable data
- Conclusion

### A first example and a few principles

### 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) *)
```



```
val r1 = new ()
(* r1 @ writable *)
val r_{2} = r_{1}
(* r1 @ writable * r2 = r1 *)
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val rs = (r1, r2)
(* r1 @ frozen int * r2 = r1 * x2 @ int
 * rs @ (=r1, =r2) *)
(* rs @ (frozen int, frozen int) *)
```



### A first example and a few principles

### Mezzo: (some) 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. The basic rules are:

- *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.

## A first example and a few principles

### 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.

```
This protocol has two states and four transitions.

This is the interface file woref.mzi:

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.

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val get: [a] frozen a -> a
```





This is the implementation file woref.mz:

```
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;</pre>
  tag of r <- Frozen (* this is a no-op *)
val get [a] (r: frozen a) : a =
  r.contents
```



```
This is the implementation 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 *)
val get [a] (r: frozen a) : a =
  r.contents
```













## A first example and a few principles

### Mezzo: the good and the bad

The uniqueness of read/write permissions:

- rules out several categories of errors:
  - data races; hence, *shared-memory concurrency is safe*;
  - representation exposure;
  - violations of (certain) object protocols.
- *allows* the type of an object to vary with time, which enables:
  - explicit memory re-use;
  - gradual initialization;
  - describing (certain) object protocols.

Here are some other positive aspects:

- all of the *power* of ML, and more;
  - higher-order functions, pattern matching, polymorphism, etc.
- no need to annotate types with owners;
  - to have a permission is to own
- ownership transfer is easy;
  - just pass (or return, or store, or extract) a permission
- no need to annotate function types with effects.
  - just pass and return a permission

Moving an element *into* or *out of* a container is easy. Here is a typical container interface:

```
abstract bag a
val new: [a] () -> bag a
val insert: [a] (bag a, consumes a) -> ()
val extract: [a] bag a -> option a
```

The discipline *forbids sharing* mutable data.

For this reason, *borrowing* an element from a container is typically restricted to *duplicable* elements:

```
val find:
  [a]
  duplicable a =>
  (a -> bool) -> list a -> option a
```

This affects user-defined data structures, arrays, regions, etc.

#### 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.

# Outline

### • A first example and a few principles

### • Algebraic data structures

- (More) Principles
- Computing the length of a list
- Melding mutable lists
- Concatenating immutable lists
- Sharing mutable data
- Conclusion

## Algebraic data structures

## (More) 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.



### 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
```















```
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

#### Concatenating immutable lists

### 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



















### Concatenating immutable lists (1/2)

```
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 is frozen
  Cons ->
                                 xs.head; tail = () } in
      let dst' = MCons { head
      dst.tail <- dst';</pre>
      tag of dst <- Cons;
      append aux (dst', xs.tail, ys)
   Nil ->
      dst.tail <- ys;</pre>
      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

- A first example and a few principles
- Algebraic data structures
- Sharing mutable data
  - Regions (and nesting)
  - Adoption and abandon
  - Locks
- Conclusion

An affine permission is a (static) *unique token*.

We have seen that we can

- *aggregate* several tokens, yielding a token for a (tree-structured) composite object
- conversely, *split* a token for a tree into separate tokens for the root and sub-trees

We have seen that *pointer* and *permission* are distinct concepts: either one can exist without the other.

We have exploited this *at a very local scale*, e.g. when type-checking meld and append.

Yet, we have *not* exploited this in algebraic data type definitions.

 we always marry a pointer to a sub-tree and a permission to access it As long as we stick to this style, we cannot express:

- aliasing, where an object is accessible via two pointers;
- shared memory, where an object is accessible to two threads.

# What do we need?

We need ways of saying, roughly,

- "this is a pointer..."
- "...without a permission..."
- "...but here is how to get the permission when needed."

### Sharing mutable data

#### **Regions (and nesting)**

A region is a *group* of objects (of identical type). There is *one permission for the group*, instead of one per object. A region does not exist at runtime. It is imaginary. See e.g. Haskell's ST monad. See also Cyclone (Swamy et al., 2006). An affine type of regions - internally defined as the unit type: **abstract** region **val** newregion: () -> region

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

These objects can be shared without restriction.

# Regions

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

All three are polymorphic in r and a. Quantifiers omitted. The token r @ region is required to use *any* reference in r. The references are collectively "owned by the region". Regions have no runtime cost.

However,

- get is 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, also known as *multi-focusing*, would entail a proof obligation: x ≠ y.
- Membership in a region *cannot* be revoked.

- *Nesting* (Boyland, 2010) is a static mechanism for organizing permissions into a hierarchy.
- The hierarchy is constructed as the program runs and grows with time.
- Nesting *can* be axiomatized in Mezzo (by adding a few primitive operations which do nothing at runtime).
- *Regions* can be defined as a library on top of nesting.
- Like regions, nesting has limitations (prev. slide).

### 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".

• Tofte and Talpin, 1994

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 (a.k.a. give) adds an adoptee to the list.
- Abandon (a.k.a. take) extracts an adoptee from the list,
  - and fails at runtime if it isn't in the list!

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!

A FIFO queue as a linked list with first and last pointers. There is *aliasing*. This cannot be type-checked in vanilla Mezzo. We let the "queue" object adopt all of the "list cell" objects. The code type-checks (but could fail at runtime if we mistakenly break our intended invariant).

See P. and Protzenko, ICFP 2013.

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

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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- it cannot be shared by
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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.
```

From concurrent separation logic (O'Hearn, 2007). 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)
```

```
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.



- A first example and a few principles
- 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),
  - L<sup>3</sup> (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.

It is a *high-level* programming language:

- algebraic data types preferred to records and null pointers;
- (tail) recursion preferred to iteration;
- garbage collection, first-class functions, polymorphism, etc.
- to some extent, lightweight types (i.e., no owner annotations).

## Shortcomings

It is far from perfect:

- type inference can be unpredictable;
- it takes a black belt to understand type errors;
- there is currently no interoperability with OCaml.

#### Food for thought

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Donald E. Knuth, 1974.

## Thank you

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

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;
- 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?