

Programming Languages and Compilers (CS 421)

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Based in part on slides by Mattox Beckman, as updated by Vikram Adve and Gul Agha

Nested Recursive Types

```
# type 'a labeled_tree =
  TreeNode of ('a * 'a labeled_tree
    list);;
type 'a labeled_tree = TreeNode of ('a
  * 'a labeled_tree list)
```

Nested Recursive Type Values

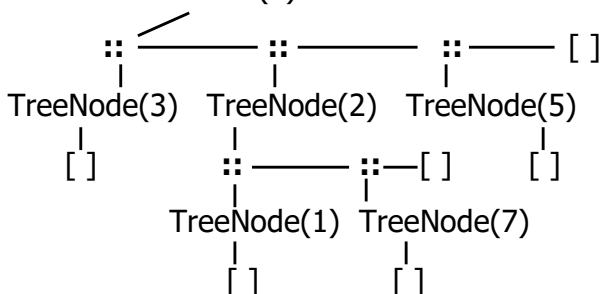
```
# let ltree =
  TreeNode(5,
    [TreeNode(3, []);
     TreeNode(2, [TreeNode(1, []);
                   TreeNode(7, [])]);
     TreeNode(5, [])]);;
```

Nested Recursive Type Values

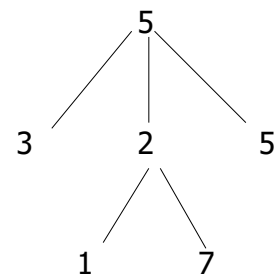
```
val ltree : int labeled_tree =
  TreeNode
    (5,
     [TreeNode(3, []);
      TreeNode(2,
        [TreeNode(1, []);
         TreeNode(7, [])]);
      TreeNode(5, [])])
```

Nested Recursive Type Values

Ltree = TreeNode(5)



Nested Recursive Type Values



Mutually Recursive Functions

```
# let rec flatten_tree labtree =  
  match labtree with TreeNode (x,treelist)  
  -> x::flatten_tree_list treelist  
  and flatten_tree_list treelist =  
  match treelist with [] -> []  
  | labtree::labtrees  
  -> flatten_tree labtree  
  @ flatten_tree_list labtrees;;
```

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Mutually Recursive Functions

```
val flatten_tree : 'a labeled_tree -> 'a list =  
  <fun>  
val flatten_tree_list : 'a labeled_tree list -> 'a  
  list = <fun>  
# flatten_tree ltree;;  
- : int list = [5; 3; 2; 1; 7; 5]
```

- Nested recursive types lead to mutually recursive functions

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Why Data Types?

- Data types play a key role in:
 - *Data abstraction* in the design of programs
 - *Type checking* in the analysis of programs
 - *Compile-time code generation* in the translation and execution of programs
 - Data layout (how many words; which are data and which are pointers) dictated by type

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Terminology

- Type: A type t defines a set of possible data values
 - E.g. `short` in C is $\{x \mid 2^{15} - 1 \geq x \geq -2^{15}\}$
 - A value in this set is said to have type t
- Type system: rules of a language assigning types to expressions

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Types as Specifications

- Types describe properties
- Different type systems describe different properties, eg
 - Data is read-write versus read-only
 - Operation has authority to access data
 - Data came from “right” source
 - Operation might or could not raise an exception
- Common type systems focus on types describing same data layout and access methods

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Sound Type System

- If an expression is assigned type t , and it evaluates to a value v , then v is in the set of values defined by t
- SML, OCAML, Scheme and Ada have sound type systems
- Most implementations of C and C++ do not

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Strongly Typed Language

- When no application of an operator to arguments can lead to a run-time type error, language is *strongly typed*
 - Eg: `1 + 2.3;;`
- Depends on definition of “type error”

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Strongly Typed Language

- C++ claimed to be “strongly typed”, but
 - Union types allow creating a value at one type and using it at another
 - Type coercions may cause unexpected (undesirable) effects
 - No array bounds check (in fact, no runtime checks at all)
- SML, OCAML “strongly typed” but still must do dynamic array bounds checks, runtime type case analysis, and other checks

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Static vs Dynamic Types

- *Static type*: type assigned to an expression at compile time
- *Dynamic type*: type assigned to a storage location at run time
- *Statically typed language*: static type assigned to every expression at compile time
- *Dynamically typed language*: type of an expression determined at run time

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Type Checking

- When is `op(arg1,...,argn)` allowed?
- *Type checking* assures that operations are applied to the right number of arguments of the right types
 - Right type may mean same type as was specified, or may mean that there is a predefined implicit coercion that will be applied
- Used to resolve overloaded operations

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Type Checking

- Type checking may be done *statically* at compile time or *dynamically* at run time
- Dynamically typed (aka untyped) languages (eg LISP, Prolog) do only dynamic type checking
- Statically typed languages can do most type checking statically

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Dynamic Type Checking

- Performed at run-time before each operation is applied
- Types of variables and operations left unspecified until run-time
 - Same variable may be used at different types

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Dynamic Type Checking

- Data object must contain type information
- Errors aren't detected until violating application is executed (maybe years after the code was written)

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Static Type Checking

- Performed after parsing, before code generation
- Type of every variable and signature of every operator must be known at compile time

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Static Type Checking

- Can eliminate need to store type information in data object if no dynamic type checking is needed
- Catches many programming errors at earliest point
- Can't check types that depend on dynamically computed values
 - Eg: array bounds

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Static Type Checking

- Typically places restrictions on languages
 - Garbage collection
 - References instead of pointers
 - All variables initialized when created
 - Variable only used at one type
 - Union types allow for work-arounds, but effectively introduce dynamic type checks

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Type Declarations

- **Type declarations**: explicit assignment of types to variables (signatures to functions) in the code of a program
 - Must be checked in a strongly typed language
 - Often not necessary for strong typing or even static typing (depends on the type system)

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Type Inference

- **Type inference**: A program analysis to assign a type to an expression from the program context of the expression
 - Fully static type inference first introduced by Robin Miller in ML
 - Haskell, OCAML, SML all use type inference
 - Records are a problem for type inference

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Format of Type Judgments

- A *type judgement* has the form $\Gamma \vdash \text{exp} : \tau$
- Γ is a typing environment
 - Supplies the types of variables (and function names when function names are not variables)
 - Γ is a set of the form $\{x:\sigma, \dots\}$
 - For any x at most one σ such that $(x:\sigma \in \Gamma)$
- exp is a program expression
- τ is a type to be assigned to exp
- \vdash pronounced “turnstile”, or “entails” (or “satisfies” or, informally, “shows”)

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Axioms – Constants (Monomorphic)

$\Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}$ (assuming n is an integer constant)

$\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}$

$\Gamma \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}$

- These rules are true with any typing environment
- Γ, n are meta-variables

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Axioms – Variables (Monomorphic Rule)

Notation: Let $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$ if $x:\sigma \in \Gamma$

Note: if such σ exists, its unique

Variable axiom:

$\Gamma \vdash x : \sigma$ if $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$

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Simple Rules – Arithmetic (Mono)

Primitive Binary operators ($\oplus \in \{+, -, *, \dots\}$):

$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2 \quad (\oplus) : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \oplus e_2 : \tau_3}$

Special case: Relations ($\sim \in \{<, >, =, <=, >=\}$):

$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad (\sim) : \tau \rightarrow \tau \rightarrow \text{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \sim e_2 : \text{bool}}$

For the moment, think τ is `int`

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Example: $\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}$

What do we need to show first?

$\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}$

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Example: $\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}$

What do we need for the left side?

$\frac{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 : \text{int} \quad \{x:\text{int}\} \vdash 3 : \text{int}}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}}$ Bin

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Example: $\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}$

How to finish?

$$\frac{\frac{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x:\text{int} \quad \{x:\text{int}\} \vdash 2:\text{int}}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 : \text{int}}_{\text{Bin}} \quad \{x:\text{int}\} \vdash 3 : \text{int}}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}}_{\text{Bin}}$$

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Example: $\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}$

Complete Proof (type derivation)

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x:\text{int}}_{\text{Var}} \quad \frac{}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash 2:\text{int}}_{\text{Const}}}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 : \text{int}}_{\text{Bin}} \quad \frac{}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash 3 : \text{int}}_{\text{Const}}}{\{x:\text{int}\} \vdash x + 2 = 3 : \text{bool}}_{\text{Bin}}$$

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Simple Rules - Booleans

Connectives

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ \&\& \ e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \text{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 \ || \ e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

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Type Variables in Rules

■ If_then_else rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3) : \tau}$$

- τ is a type variable (meta-variable)
- Can take any type at all
- All instances in a rule application must get same type
- Then branch, else branch and if_then_else must all have same type

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Example derivation: if-then-else-

- $\Gamma = \{x:\text{int}, \text{int_of_float}:\text{float} \rightarrow \text{int}, y:\text{float}\}$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash (\text{fun } y \rightarrow y > 3) x : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash x+2 : \text{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash \text{int_of_float } y : \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } (\text{fun } y \rightarrow y > 3) x \text{ then } x + 2 \text{ else int_of_float } y : \text{int}}$$

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Function Application

■ Application rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_1}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1 \ e_2) : \tau_2}$$

- If you have a function expression e_1 of type $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ applied to an argument e_2 of type τ_1 , the resulting expression $e_1 \ e_2$ has type τ_2

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750 minutes

Example: Application

- $\Gamma = \{x:\text{int}, \text{int_of_float}:\text{float} \rightarrow \text{int}, y:\text{float}\}$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash (\text{fun } y \rightarrow y > 3) : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash x : \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{fun } y \rightarrow y > 3) x : \text{bool}}$$

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Fun Rule

- Rules describe types, but also how the environment Γ may change
- Can only do what rule allows!
- fun rule:

$$\frac{\{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \vdash e : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2}$$

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Fun Examples

$$\frac{\{y : \text{int}\} + \Gamma \vdash y + 3 : \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash \text{fun } y \rightarrow y + 3 : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}}$$

$$\frac{\{f : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}\} + \Gamma \vdash f \ 2 :: [\text{true}] : \text{bool list}}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{fun } f \rightarrow (f \ 2) :: [\text{true}]) : (\text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}) \rightarrow \text{bool list}}$$

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(Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

- let rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2) : \tau_2}$$

- let rec rule:

$$\frac{\{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \quad \{x : \tau_1\} + \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{let rec } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2) : \tau_2}$$

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Curry - Howard Isomorphism

- Type Systems are logics; logics are type systems
- Types are propositions; propositions are types
- Terms are proofs; proofs are terms
- Function space arrow corresponds to implication; application corresponds to modus ponens

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Curry - Howard Isomorphism

- Modus Ponens

$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B \quad A}{B}$$

- Application

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \alpha \rightarrow \beta \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \alpha}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1 e_2) : \beta}$$