Programming Languages and Compilers (CS 421)



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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

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Terminology

- Type: A type t defines a set of possible data values
 - E.g. short in C is $\{x \mid 2^{15} 1 \ge x \ge -2^{15}\}$
 - 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



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



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
 - Eq: 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
 - Haskle, 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

 Γ |- exp : τ

- Γ is a typing environment
 - Supplies the types of variables and functions
 - Γ is a list of the form [x: σ ,...]
- exp is a program expression
- \bullet τ is a type to be assigned to exp
- |- pronounced "turnstyle", or "entails" (or "satisfies")



Axioms - Constants

|-n: int (assuming n is an integer constant)

|- true : bool |- false : bool

- These rules are true with any typing environment
- *n* is a meta-variable

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Axioms – Variables (Monomorphic Rule)

Notation: Let $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$ if $x : \sigma \in \Gamma$ and there is no $x : \tau$ to the left of $x : \sigma$ in Γ

Variable axiom:

$$\overline{\Gamma \mid -x:\sigma} \quad \text{if } \Gamma(x)=\sigma$$

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Simple Rules - Arithmetic

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

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1:\tau \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2:\tau \quad (\oplus):\tau \to \tau \to \tau}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \oplus e_2:\tau}$$

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

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \tau \qquad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \sim e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

For the moment, think τ is int

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Simple Rules - Booleans

Connectives

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : bool \qquad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : bool}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \&\& e_2 : bool}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \text{bool} \qquad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \text{bool}}{\Gamma \mid -e_1 \mid \mid e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

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Type Variables in Rules

If_then_else rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \mathsf{bool} \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \tau \quad \Gamma \mid -e_3 : \tau}{\Gamma \mid - (\mathsf{if} \ e_1 \ \mathsf{then} \ e_2 \ \mathsf{else} \ e_3) : \tau}$$

- 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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Function Application

Application rule:

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

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



Fun Rule

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

$$\frac{[x:\tau_1] + \Gamma \mid -e:\tau_2}{\Gamma \mid -\text{ fun } x -> e:\tau_1 \to \tau_2}$$

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Fun Examples

$$\frac{[y:int] + \Gamma |- y + 3:int}{\Gamma |- fun y -> y + 3:int \rightarrow int}$$

[f: int → bool] +
$$\Gamma$$
 |- f 2 :: [true] : bool list
 Γ |- (fun f -> f 2 :: [true])
: (int → bool) → bool list

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(Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

let rule:

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

let rec rule:

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

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Which rule do we apply?

?

|- (let rec one = 1 :: one in
let
$$x = 2$$
 in
fun $y \rightarrow (x :: y :: one)$) : int \rightarrow int list

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Example

Let rec rule: (2) [one : int list] |- (1) (let x = 2 in

[one : int list] |- fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) (1 :: one) : int list : int \rightarrow int list

|- (let rec one = 1 :: one in let x = 2 in fun $y \rightarrow (x :: y :: one)$) : int \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 1

• Which rule?

[one : int list] |- (1 :: one) : int list



Proof of 1

Application

[one: int list] |-[one: int list] |-((::) 1): int list \rightarrow int list one: int list [one : int list] |- (1 :: one) : int list

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Proof of 3

Constants Rule

Constants Rule

[one: int list] |-[one: int list] |-

(::): int \rightarrow int list \rightarrow int list \rightarrow 1: int

[one : int list] |-((::) 1) : int list \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 4

Rule for variables

[one: int list] |- one:int list

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Proof of 2

(5) [x:int; one : int list] |-

Constant

fun y ->

(x :: y :: one)) [one: int list] |- 2:int : int \rightarrow int list

[one: int list] |- (let x = 2 in

fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) : int \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 5

[x:int; one : int list] \mid - fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) : int \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 5

[y:int; x:int; one : int list] |-(x :: y :: one) : int list [x:int; one : int list] \mid - fun y -> (x :: y :: one))

: int \rightarrow int list

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Proof of 5

6

 $\overline{7}$

[y:int; x:int; one : int list] |- [y:int; x:int; one : int list] |-

((::) x):int list \rightarrow int list

(y :: one) : int list

[y:int; x:int; one : int list] |- (x :: y :: one) : int list [x:int; one : int list] |- fun y -> (x :: y :: one))

: int → int list

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Proof of 6

Constant

Variable

[...] |- (::)

: int→ int list→ int list [...; x:int;...] |- x:int [y:int; x:int; one : int list] |- ((::) x)

:int list→ int list

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Proof of 7

Pf of 6 [y/x]

Variable



[y:int; x:int; one : int list] |- (y :: one) : int list

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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
- Functions 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

$$\frac{\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \alpha \to \beta \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \alpha}{\Gamma \mid -(e_1 e_2) : \beta}$$

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Mia Copa

- The above system can't handle polymorphism as in OCAML
- No type variables in type language (only metavariable in the logic)
- Would need:
 - Object level type variables and some kind of type quantification
 - let and let rec rules to introduce polymorphism
 - Explicit rule to eliminate (instantiate) polymorphism