Programming Languages and Compilers (CS 421)

Elsa L Gunter 2112 SC, UIUC

http://courses.engr.illinois.edu/cs421

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

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

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

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

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*

Depends on definition of "type error"

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

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

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

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

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)

Static Type Checking

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

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

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

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)

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

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 set of the form $\{x:\sigma,\ldots\}$
 - 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
- pronounced "turnstyle", or "entails" (or "satisfies" or, informally, "shows")



 $\Gamma \mid -n$: int (assuming *n* is an integer constant)

 Γ |- true : bool Γ |- false : bool

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

Axioms – Variables (Monomorphic Rule)

Notation: Let $\Gamma(x) = \sigma$ if $x : \sigma \in \Gamma$ Note: if such σ exits, its unique

Variable axiom:

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

Simple Rules - Arithmetic

Primitive operators ($\oplus \in \{+, -, *, ...\}$): $\frac{\Gamma \mid - e_1:\tau_1 \qquad \Gamma \mid - e_2:\tau_2 \quad (\oplus):\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3}{\Gamma \mid - e_1 \oplus e_2:\tau_3}$

Relations ($\sim \in \{ <, >, =, <=, >= \}$): $\frac{\Gamma \mid - e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma \mid - e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \mid - e_1 \sim e_2 : \text{bool}}$

For the moment, think τ is int



What do we need to show first?

$\{x:int\} | - x + 2 = 3 : bool$



What do we need for the left side?

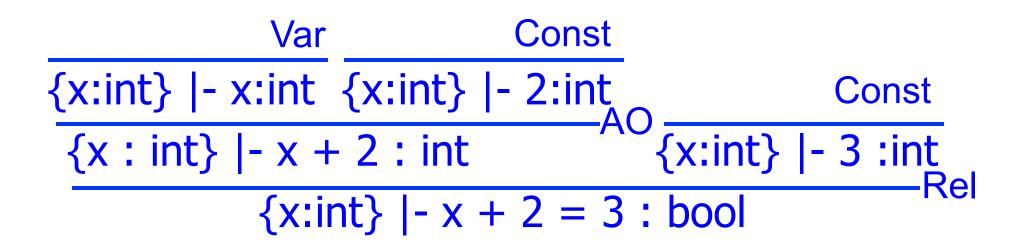


How to finish?

$$\begin{array}{l} \{x:int\} \mid -x:int \ \{x:int\} \mid -2:int \\ AO \\ \{x:int\} \mid -x+2:int \\ \{x:int\} \mid -x+2=3:bool \end{array}$$

Example: $\{x:int\} | - x + 2 = 3 : bool$

Complete Proof (type derivation)





Connectives

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

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

Type Variables in Rules

If_then_else rule:

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

- 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

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 e_2 of type τ_1 , the resulting expression e_1e_2 has type τ_2

Fun Rule

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

$$\{x:\tau_1\} + \Gamma \mid e:\tau_2$$

$$\Gamma \mid fun \ x \to e:\tau_1 \to \tau_2$$



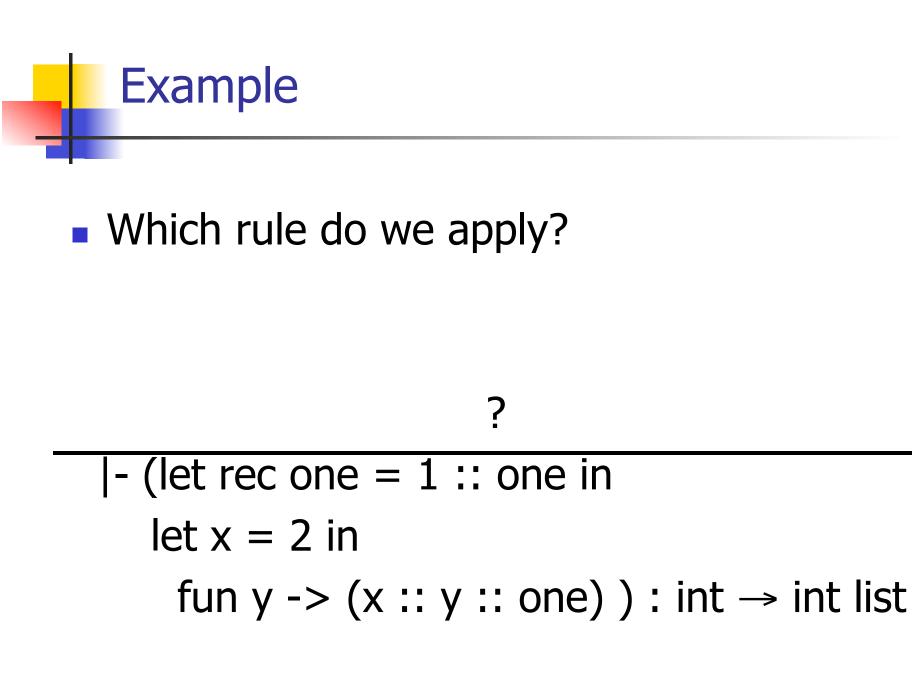
$$\frac{\{y : int\} + \Gamma \mid -y + 3 : int}{\Gamma \mid -fun \mid y - > y + 3 : int \rightarrow int}$$

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

(Monomorphic) Let and Let Rec

- let rule: $\Gamma \mid -e_{1} : \tau_{1} \quad \{x : \tau_{1}\} + \Gamma \mid -e_{2} : \tau_{2}$ $\Gamma \mid -(\text{let } x = e_{1} \text{ in } e_{2}) : \tau_{2}$
- Iet rec rule:

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





(2) {one : int list} |-• Let rec rule: (let x = 2 in)fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) {one : int list} |-(1 :: one) : int list : int \rightarrow int list |-(let rec one = 1 :: one in)|let x = 2 in fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) : int \rightarrow int list



Which rule?

{one : int list} |- (1 :: one) : int list



Application

 $(3) \qquad (4) \\ \{ \text{one : int list} \} | - \\ ((::) 1): \text{ int list} \rightarrow \text{ int list} \qquad \text{one : int list} \\ \{ \text{one : int list} \} | - (1 :: \text{ one}) : \text{ int list} \\ \end{cases}$



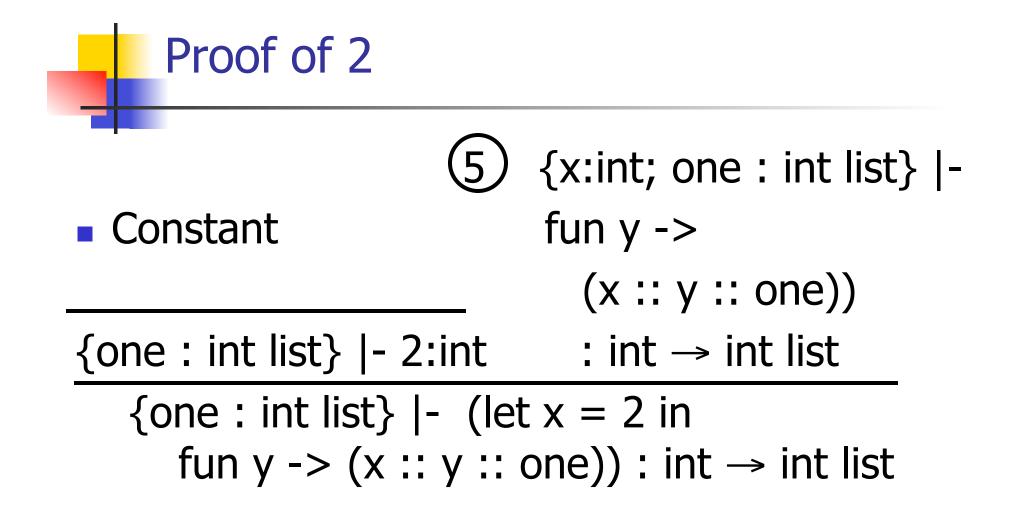
Constants Rule

Constants Rule



Rule for variables

{one : int list} |- one:int list



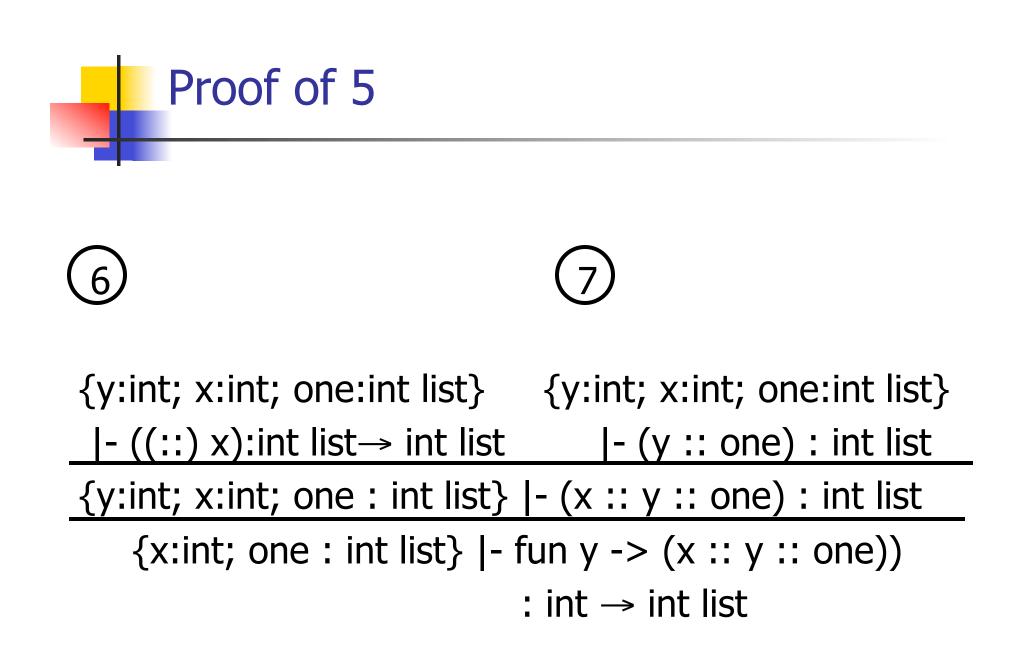


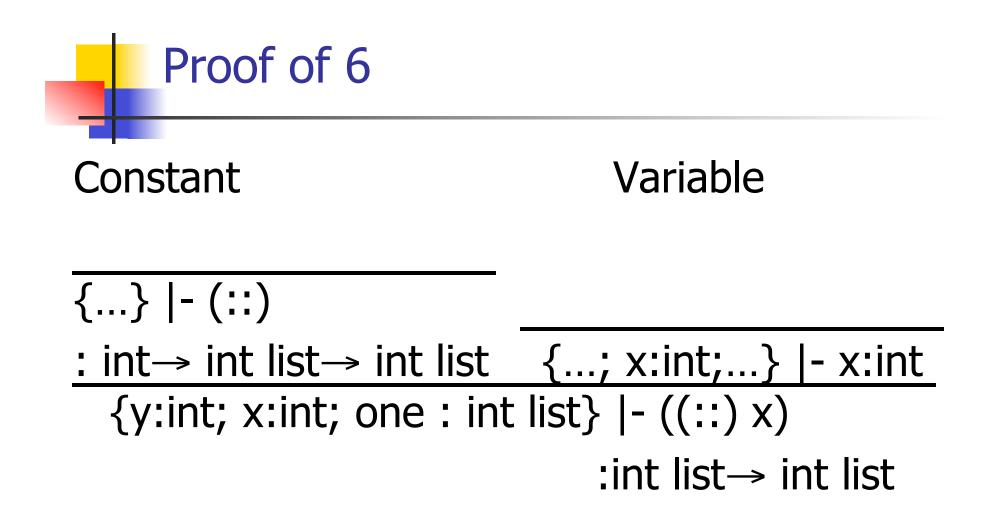
? {x:int; one : int list} - fun y -> (x :: y :: one)) : int \rightarrow int list

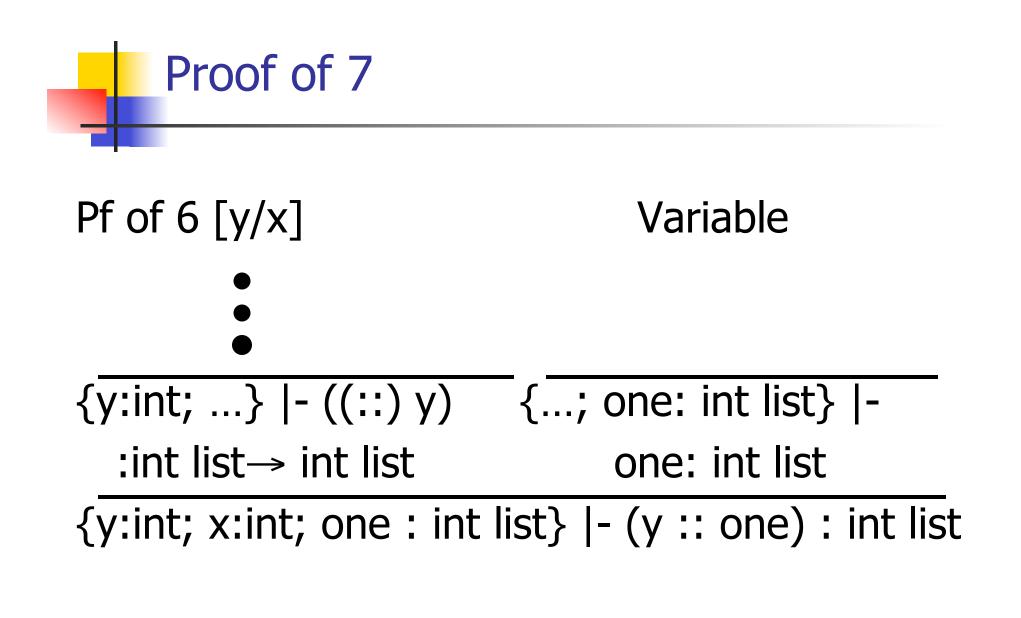


?

{y:int; x:int; one : int list} |-(x :: y :: one) : int list{x:int; one : int list} |-fun y -> (x :: y :: one)): int \rightarrow int list







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



Modus Ponens

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{A} \Rightarrow \mathsf{B} & \mathsf{A} \\ & \mathsf{B} \end{array}$$

• Application $\Gamma \mid -e_1 : \alpha \rightarrow \beta \quad \Gamma \mid -e_2 : \alpha$ $\Gamma \mid -(e_1 \ e_2) : \beta$

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
 - Iet and let rec rules to introduce polymorphism
 - Explicit rule to eliminate (instantiate) polymorphism