

INF5110 – Compiler Construction

Spring 2017



1. Types and type checking

- Intro

- Various types and their representation

- Equality of types

- Type checking

- References

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General remarks and overview

- Goal here:
 - what are *types*?
 - static vs. dynamic typing
 - how to describe types *syntactically*
 - how to *represent* and use types in a compiler
- coverage of various types
 - basic types (often predefined/built-in)
 - type constructors
 - values of a type and operators
 - representation at run-time
 - run-time tests and special problems (array, union, record, pointers)
- specification and implementation of type systems/type checkers
- advanced concepts

Why types?

- crucial, user-visible *abstraction* describing program behavior.
- one view: type describes a set of (mostly related) *values*
- static typing: checking/enforcing a type discipline at compile time
- dynamic typing: same at run-time, mixtures possible
- completely untyped languages: very rare, types were part of PLs from the start.

Milner's dictum ("type safety")

Well-typed programs cannot go wrong!

- *strong* typing:¹ rigourously prevent "misuse" of data
- types useful for later phases and optimizations
- documentation and partial specification

¹Terminology rather fuzzy, and perhaps changed a bit over time. Also what "rigorous" means.

Conceptually

- semantic view: A set of values *plus* a set of corresponding operations
- syntactic view: notation to *construct* basic elements of the type (its values) *plus* “procedures” operating on them
- compiler implementor’s view: data of the same type have same underlying memory representation

further classification:

- built-in/predefined vs. *user-defined* types
- basic/base/elementary/primitive types vs. compound types
- type constructors: building more complex types from simpler ones
- reference vs. value types

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Some typical base types

base types

int	0, 1, ...	+, -, *, /	integers
real	5.05E4 ...	+, -, *	real numbers
bool	true, false	and or (!) ...	booleans
char	'a'		characters
:			

- often HW support for some of those (including some of the op's)
- mostly: elements of `int` are not exactly mathematical *integers*, same for `real`
- often variations offered: `int32`, `int64`
- often implicit *conversions* and relations between basic types
 - which the type system has to specify/check for legality
 - which the compiler has to implement

Some compound types

compound types		
array[0..9] of real		a[i+1]
list	[], [1;2;3]	concat
string	"text"	concat ...
struct / record		r.x
...		

- mostly reference types
- when built in, special “easy syntax” (same for basic built-in types)
 - 4 + 5 as opposed to plus(4,5)
 - a[6] as opposed to array_access(a, 6) ...
- parser/lexer aware of built-in types/operators (special precedences, associativity, etc.)
- cf. functionality “built-in/predefined” via libraries

Abstract data types

- unit of *data* together with *functions/procedures/operations* ... operating on them
- encapsulation + interface
- often: separation between exported and internal operations
 - for instance public, private ...
 - or via separate interfaces
- (static) classes in Java: may be used/seen as ADTs, methods are then the “operations”

```
ADT begin
  integer i;
  real x;
  int proc total(int a) {
    return i * x + a // or: "total = i * x + a"
  }
end
```

Type constructors: building new types

- array type
- record type (also known as struct-types)
- union type
- pair/tuple type
- pointer type
 - explicit as in C
 - implicit distinction between reference and value types, hidden from programmers (e.g. Java)
- *signatures* (specifying methods / procedures / subroutines / functions) as type
- function type constructor, incl. higher-order types (in functional languages)
- (names of) classes and subclasses
- ...

Array type

```
array [<indextype >] of <component type>
```

- elements (arrays) = (finite) functions from index-type to component type
- allowed index-types:
 - non-negative (unsigned) integers?, from ... to ...?
 - other types?: enumerated types, characters
- things to keep in mind:
 - indexing outside the array bounds?
 - are the array bounds (statically) known to the compiler?
 - *dynamic* arrays (extensible at run-time)?

One and more-dimensional arrays

- one-dimensional: efficiently implementable in standard hardware (relative memory addressing, known offset)
- two or more dimensions

```
array [1..4] of array [1..3] of real  
array [1..4, 1..3] of real
```

- one can see it as “array of arrays” (Java), an array is typically a reference type
- conceptually “two-dimensional”- *linear layout* in memory (language dependent)

Records (“structs”)

```
struct {  
    real r;  
    int i;  
}
```

- values: “labelled tuples” ($\text{real} \times \text{int}$)
- constructing elements, e.g.

```
struct point {int x; int y};  
struct point pt = { 300, 42 };
```

struct point

- access (read or update): *dot-notation* `x.i`
- implementation: linear memory layout given by the (types of the) attributes
- attributes accessible by statically fixed *offsets*
- *fast* access
- cf. objects as in Java

Tuple/product types

- $T_1 \times T_2$ (or in ascii $T_1 * T_2$)
- elements are *tuples*: for instance: $(1, \text{"text"})$ is element of $\text{int} * \text{string}$
- generalization to n -tuples:

value	type
$(1, \text{"text"}, \text{true})$	$\text{int} * \text{string} * \text{bool}$
$(1, (\text{"text"}, \text{true}))$	$\text{int} * (\text{string} * \text{bool})$

- structs can be seen as “labeled tuples”, resp. tuples as “anonymous structs”
- tuple types: common in functional languages,
- in C/Java-like languages: n -ary tuple types often only implicit as *input* types for procedures/methods (part of the “signature”)

Union types (C-style again)

```
union {  
  real r;  
  int i  
}
```

- related to *sum types* (outside C)
- (more or less) represents *disjoint union* of values of “participating” types
- access in C (confusingly enough): dot-notation `u.i`

Union types in C and type safety

- union types in C: bad example for (safe) type disciplines, as it's simply type-unsafe, basically an *unsafe* hack ...

Union type (in C):

- nothing much more than a directive to allocate enough memory to hold largest member of the union.
- in the above example: `real` takes more space than `int`

Explanation


- role of type here is more: implementor's (= low level) focus and memory allocation need, not "proper usage focus" or assuring strong typing
- ⇒ bad example of modern use of types
- better (type-safe) implementations known since
- ⇒ *variant record* ("tagged"/"discriminated" union) or even inductive data types^a

Variant records from Pascal

```
record case isReal: boolean of  
  true: (r:real);  
  false: (i:integer);
```

- “variant record”
- non-overlapping memory layout²
- programmer responsible to set and check the “discriminator” self
- enforcing type-safety-wise: not really an improvement :-)

```
record case boolean of  
  true: (r:real);  
  false: (i:integer);
```

²Again, it's a implementor-centric, not user-centric view 

Pointer types

- *pointer* type: notation in C: `int*`
- “ * ”: can be seen as type constructor

```
int* p;
```

- random other languages: `^integer` in Pascal, `int ref` in ML
- value: *address* of (or reference/pointer to) values of the underlying type
- operations: *dereferencing* and determining the address of an data item (and C allows “ *pointer arithmetic* ”)

```
var a: ^integer (* pointer to an integer *)
var b: integer
...
a := &i (* i an int var *)
      (* a := new integer ok too *)
b := ^a + b
```

Implicit dereferencing

- many languages: more or less hide existence of pointers
- cf. reference vs. value types often: automatic/implicit dereferencing

```
C r; //  
C r = new C();
```

- “sloppy” speaking: “ r is an object (which is an instance of class C /which is of type C)”,
- slightly more precise: variable “ r contains an object... ”
- precise: variable “ r will contain a reference to an object”
- r.field corresponds to something like “ (*r).field, similar in Simula
- programming with pointers:
 - “popular” source of errors
 - test for non-null-ness often required
 - explicit pointers: can lead to problems in block-structured language (when handled non-expertly)
 - watch out for parameter passing
 - aliasing

Function variables

```
program Funcvar;
var pv : Procedure (x: integer);

  Procedure Q();
  var
    a : integer;
    Procedure P(i : integer);
    begin
      a:= a+i;      (* a def'ed outside      *)
    end;
  begin
    pv := @P;      (* ''return'' P,          *)
  end;             (* "@ dependent on dialect *)
begin             (* here: free Pascal      *)
  Q();
  pv(1);
end.
```

Function variables and nested scopes

- tricky part here: nested scope + function definition *escaping* surrounding function/scope.
- here: inner procedure “returned” via assignment to function variable³
- think about *stack discipline* of dynamic memory management?
- related also: functions allowed as return value?
 - Pascal: not directly possible (unless one “returns” them via function-typed reference variables like here)
 - C: possible, but *nested* function definitions not allowed
- combination of nested function definitions and functions as official return values (and arguments): *higher-order functions*
- Note: functions as arguments less problematic than as return values.

³For the sake of the lecture: Let’s not distinguish conceptually between functions and procedures. But in Pascal, a procedure does not return a value, functions do.

Function signatures

- define the “header” (also “signature”) of a function⁴
- in the discussion: we don't distinguish mostly: functions, procedures, methods, subroutines.
- functional type (independent of the name f): $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

Modula-2

```
var f: procedure (integer): integer;
```

C

```
int (*f) (int)
```

- *values*: all functions ... with the given signature
- problems with block structure and free use of procedure variables.

⁴Actually, an identifier of the function is mentioned as well.

Escaping: function var's outside the block structure

```
1  program Funcvar;
2  var pv : Procedure (x: integer);
3
4  Procedure Q();
5  var
6  a : integer;
7  Procedure P(i : integer);
8  begin
9  a:= a+i;      (* a def'ed outside      *)
10 end;
11 begin
12 pv := @P;    (* ''return'' P,          *)
13 end;        (* "@" dependent on dialect *)
14 begin      (* here: free Pascal      *)
15 Q();
16 pv(1);
17 end.
```

- at line 15: variable `a` no longer exists
- possible safe usage: only assign to such variables (here `pv`) a new value (= function) at the same blocklevel the variable is declared
- note: function *parameters* less problematic (stack-discipline)

Classes and subclasses

Parent class

```
class A {  
  int i;  
  void f() {...}  
}
```

Subclass B

```
class B extends A {  
  int i  
  void f() {...}  
}
```

Subclass C

```
class C extends A {  
  int i  
  void f() {...}  
}
```

- classes resemble records, and subclasses variant types, but additionally
 - visibility: local methods possible (besides fields)
 - subclasses
 - objects mostly created dynamically, *no* references into the stack
 - subtyping and polymorphism (subtype polymorphism): a reference typed by A can also point to B or C objects
- special problems: not really many, nil-pointer still possible

Access to object members: late binding

- notation `rA.i` or `rA.f()`
- dynamic binding, late-binding, virtual access, dynamic dispatch
...: all mean roughly the same
- central mechanism in many OO language, in connection with inheritance

Virtual access `rA.f()` (methods)

“deepest” `f` in the run-time class of the *object*, `rA` points to
(independent from the *static* class type of `rA`.)

- remember: “most-closely nested” access of variables in nested lexical block
- Java:
 - methods “in” objects are only dynamically bound (but there are class methods too)
 - instance variables not, neither static methods “in” classes.

Example: fields and methods

```
public class Shadow {
    public static void main(String [] args){
        C2 c2 = new C2();
        c2.n();
    }
}

class C1 {
    String s = "C1";
    void m () {System.out.print(this.s);}
}

class C2 extends C1 {
    String s = "C2";
    void n () {this.m();}
}
```

Inductive types in ML and similar

- *type-safe* and powerful
- allows *pattern matching*

```
IsReal of real | IsInteger of int
```

- allows *recursive* definitions \Rightarrow inductive data types:

```
type int_bintree =  
  Node of int * int_bintree * bintree  
| Nil
```

- Node, Leaf, IsReal: *constructors* (cf. languages like Java)
- constructors used as discriminators in “union” types

```
type exp =  
  Plus of exp * exp  
| Minus of exp * exp  
| Number of int  
| Var of string
```

Recursive data types in C

does not work

```
struct intBST {
    int val;
    int isNull;
    struct intBST left, right;
}
```

“indirect” recursion

```
struct intBST {
    int val;
    struct intBST *left, *right;
};
typedef struct intBST * intBST;
```

In Java: references implicit

```
class BSTnode {
    int val;
    BSTnode left, right;
```

- note: *implementation* in ML: also uses “pointers” (but hidden from the user)
- no nil-pointers in ML (and NIL is not a nil-point, it’s a constructor)

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Example with interfaces

```
interface I1 { int m (int x) ; }
interface I2 { int m (int x); }
class C1 implements I1 {
    public int m(int y) {return y++; }
}
class C2 implements I2 {
    public int m(int y) {return y++; }
}

public class Noduck1 {
    public static void main(String[] arg) {
        I1 x1 = new C1();           // I2 not possible
        I2 x2 = new C2();
        x1 = x2;
    }
}
```

analogous effects when using classes in their roles as types

Structural vs. nominal equality

a, b

```
var a, b: record  
  int i;  
  double d  
end
```

c

```
var c: record  
  int i;  
  double d  
end
```

typedef

```
typedef idRecord: record  
  int i;  
  double d  
end
```

```
var d: idRecord;  
var e: idRecord;;
```

what's possible?

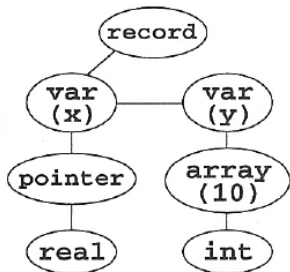
```
a := c;  
a := d;  
  
a := b;  
d := e;
```

Types in the AST

- types are part of the syntax, as well
- represent: either in a separate symbol table, or part of the AST

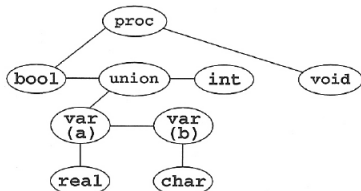
Record type

```
record
  x: pointer to real;
  y: array [10] of int
end
```



Procedure header

```
proc (bool ,
      union a: real; b: char end ,
      int ) : void
end
```



Structured types without names

var-decls → *var-decls* ; *var-decl* | *var-decl*
var-decl → **id** : *type-exp*
type-exp → *simple-type* | *structured-type*
simple-type → **int** | **bool** | **real** | **char** | **void**
structured-type → **array** [*num*] : *type-exp*
 | **record** *var-decls* **end**
 | **union** *var-decls* **end**
 | **pointerto** *type-exp*
 | **proc** (*type-exps*) *type-exp*
type-exps → *type-exps* , *type-exp* | *type-exp*

Structural equality

```
function typeEqual ( t1, t2 : TypeExp ) : Boolean;  
var temp : Boolean ;  
    p1, p2 : TypeExp ;  
begin  
  if t1 and t2 are of simple type then return t1 = t2  
  else if t1.kind = array and t2.kind = array then  
    return t1.size = t2.size and typeEqual ( t1.child1, t2.child1 )  
  else if t1.kind = record and t2.kind = record  
    or t1.kind = union and t2.kind = union then  
    begin  
      p1 := t1.child1 ;  
      p2 := t2.child1 ;  
      temp := true ;  
      while temp and p1 ≠ nil and p2 ≠ nil do  
        if p1.name ≠ p2.name then  
          temp := false  
        else if not typeEqual ( p1.child1 , p2.child1 )  
          then temp := false  
        else begin  
          p1 := p1.sibling ;  
          p2 := p2.sibling ;  
        end;  
      return temp and p1 = nil and p2 = nil ;  
    end  
  else if t1.kind = pointer and t2.kind = pointer then  
    return typeEqual ( t1.child1 , t2.child1 )  
  else if t1.kind = proc and t2.kind = proc then  
    begin  
      p1 := t1.child1 ;  
      p2 := t2.child1 ;  
      temp := true ;  
      while temp and p1 ≠ nil and p2 ≠ nil do  
        if not typeEqual ( p1.child1 , p2.child1 )  
          then temp := false  
        else begin  
          p1 := p1.sibling ;  
          p2 := p2.sibling ;  
        end;  
      return temp and p1 = nil and p2 = nil  
        and typeEqual ( t1.child2 , t2.child2 )  
    end  
  else return false ;  
end ; (* typeEqual *)
```

Test av om to typer er like
(struktur-likhet)
ved rekursiv gjennomgang

Rekursive kall

Om også navnelikhet
er lov, skal dette med

else if t1 and t2 are type names then
return typeEqual(getTypeExp(t1), getTypeExp(t2))

Types with names

<i>var-decls</i>	→	<i>var-decls</i> ; <i>var-decl</i> <i>var-decl</i>	
<i>var-decl</i>	→	id : <i>simple-type-exp</i>	
<i>type-decls</i>	→	<i>type-decls</i> ; <i>type-decl</i> <i>type-decl</i>	
<i>type-decl</i>	→	id = <i>type-exp</i>	
<i>type-exp</i>	→	<i>simple-type-exp</i> <i>structured-type</i>	
<i>simple-type-exp</i>	→	<i>simple-type</i> id	identifiers
<i>simple-type</i>	→	int bool real char void	
<i>structured-type</i>	→	array [<i>num</i>] : <i>simple-type-exp</i>	
		record <i>var-decls</i> end	
		union <i>var-decls</i> end	
		pointerto <i>simple-type-exp</i>	
		proc (<i>type-exps</i>) <i>simple-type-exp</i>	
<i>type-exps</i>	→	<i>type-exps</i> , <i>simple-type-exp</i>	
		<i>simple-type-exp</i>	

Name equality

- all types have “names”, and two types are equal iff their names are equal
- type equality checking: obviously simpler
- of course: type names may have *scopes*

```
function typeEqual ( t1, t2 : TypeExp ) : Boolean;  
var temp : Boolean ;  
    p1, p2 : TypeExp ;  
begin  
    if t1 and t2 are of simple type then  
        return t1 = t2  
    else if t1 and t2 are type names then  
        return t1 = t2  
    else return false ;  
end;
```

Type aliases

- languages with type aliases (type synonyms): C, Pascal, ML
....
- often very convenient (type `Coordinate = float * float`)
- light-weight mechanism

type alias; make `t1` known also under name `t2`

```
t2 = t1 // t2 is the 'same type'.
```

- also here: different choices wrt. *type equality*

Alias if simple types

```
t1 = int;  
t2 = int;
```

- often: `t1` and `t2` are the “same” type

Alias of structured types

```
t1 = array [10] of int;  
t2 = array [10] of int;  
t3 = t2
```

- mostly `t3 ≠ t1 ≠ t2`

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Type checking of expressions (and statements)

- types of subexpressions must “fit” to the expected types the constructs can operate on⁵
 - type checking: a *bottom-up* task
- ⇒ *synthesized* attributes, when using AGs
- Here: using an attribute grammar specification of the type checker
 - type checking conceptually done *while parsing* (as actions of the parser)
 - also common: type checker operates on the AST *after* the parser has done its job⁶
 - type **system** vs. type **checker**
 - type system: specification of the rules governing the use of types in a language, type discipline
 - type checker: algorithmic formulation of the type system (resp. implementation thereof)

⁵In case (operator) overloading: that may complicate the picture slightly. Operators are selected depending on the type of the subexpressions.

⁶one can, however, use grammars as specification of that *abstract* syntax tree as well, i.e., as a “second” grammar besides the grammar for concrete parsing.

Grammar for statements and expressions

program → *var-decls*; *stmts*
var-decls → *var-decls*; *var-decl* | *var-decl*
var-decl → **id**: *type-exp*
type-exp → **int** | **bool** | **array** [*num*] : *type-exp*
stmts → *stmts*; *stmt* | *stmt*
stmt → **if** *exp* **then** *stmt* | **id** := *exp*
exp → *exp* + *exp* | *exp* **or** *exp* | *exp* [*exp*]

Type checking as semantic rules

Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
$var\text{-}decl \rightarrow id : type\text{-}exp$	$insert(id.name, type\text{-}exp.type)$
$type\text{-}exp \rightarrow int$	$type\text{-}exp.type := integer$
$type\text{-}exp \rightarrow bool$	$type\text{-}exp.type := boolean$
$type\text{-}exp_1 \rightarrow array$ $[num] \text{ of } type\text{-}exp_2$	$type\text{-}exp_1.type :=$ $makeTypeNode(array, num.size,$ $type\text{-}exp_2.type)$
$stmt \rightarrow if \ exp \ then \ stmt$	if not $typeEqual(exp.type, boolean)$ then $type\text{-}error(stmt)$
$stmt \rightarrow id := exp$	if not $typeEqual(lookup(id.name),$ $exp.type)$ then $type\text{-}error(stmt)$
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 + exp_3$	if not ($typeEqual(exp_2.type, integer)$ and $typeEqual(exp_3.type, integer)$) then $type\text{-}error(exp_1)$; $exp_1.type := integer$
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 \text{ or } exp_3$	if not ($typeEqual(exp_2.type, boolean)$ and $typeEqual(exp_3.type, boolean)$) then $type\text{-}error(exp_1)$; $exp_1.type := boolean$
$exp_1 \rightarrow exp_2 [exp_3]$	if $isArrayType(exp_2.type)$ and $typeEqual(exp_3.type, integer)$ then $exp_1.type := exp_2.type.child1$ else $type\text{-}error(exp_1)$
$exp \rightarrow num$	$exp.type := integer$
$exp \rightarrow true$	$exp.type := boolean$
$exp \rightarrow false$	$exp.type := boolean$
$exp \rightarrow id$	$exp.type := lookup(id.name)$

Type checking (expressions)

$$\frac{\Gamma(x) = T}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \text{ TE-Id}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{true} : \mathbf{bool}} \text{ TE-True}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{false} : \mathbf{bool}} \text{ T-False}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash n : \mathbf{int}} \text{ TE-Num}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_2 : \mathit{array_of} T \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_3 : \mathbf{int}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_2[\mathit{exp}_3] : T} \text{ TE-Array}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_1 : \mathbf{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_3 : \mathbf{bool}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_2 \text{ or } \mathit{exp}_3 : \mathbf{bool}} \text{ Te-Or}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_1 : \mathbf{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_3 : \mathbf{int}}{\Gamma \vdash \mathit{exp}_3 + \mathit{exp}_3 : \mathbf{int}} \text{ TE-Plus}$$

- *Overloading*
 - common for (at least) standard, built-in operations
 - also possible for user defined functions/methods ...
 - disambiguation via (static) types of arguments
 - “ad-hoc” polymorphism
 - implementation:
 - put types of parameters as “part” of the name
 - look-up gives back a set of alternatives
- type-conversions: can be problematic in connection with overloading
- (generic) polymorphism
`swap(var x,y: anytype)`

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