

Type Checking

# New Lecture Style

- Response to suggestion: today I will pause for five seconds at the end of every slide.
- Think about whether or not you like this.
- If I fail to pause at the end of a slide you should jeer me with great gusto.

# Passing Out Review Forms



# One-Slide Summary

- A type environment gives types for free variables. You typecheck a let-body with an environment that has been updated to contain the new let-variable.
- If an object of type X could be used when one of type Y is acceptable then we say X is a subtype of Y, also written X ≤ Y.
- A type system is sound if ∀ E.
   dynamic\_type(E) ≤ static\_type(E)

#### Lecture Outline

- Typing Rules
- Typing Environments
- "Let" Rules
- Subtyping
- Wrong Rules

Example: 1 + 2

⊢1: Int ⊢2: Int

# Soundness

- A type system is sound if
  - Whenever ⊢e: T
  - Then  ${\bf e}$  evaluates to a value of type  ${\bf T}$
- We only want sound rules
  - But some sound rules are better than others:

\_\_ (i is an integer)

⊢ i : Object

# **Type Checking Proofs**

- Type checking proves facts e: T
  - One type rule is used for each kind of expression
- In the type rule used for a node e
  - The hypotheses are the proofs of types of e's subexpressions
  - The conclusion is the proof of type of e itself

### **Rules for Constants**

⊢ false : Bool [Bool]

F s : String (s is a string constant)

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#### Rule for New

new T produces an object of type TIgnore SELF\_TYPE for now . . .

# Two More Rules



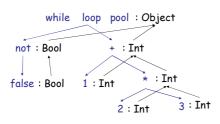
⊢ e : Bool [Not]

 $\vdash e_1 : Bool$  $\vdash e_2 : T$ 

 $\frac{1 \cdot c_2 \cdot r}{\text{H while } e_1 \text{ loop } e_2 \text{ pool : Object}} [\text{Loop}]$ 

# Typing: Example

• Typing for while not false loop 1 + 2 \* 3 pool



### **Typing Derivations**

 The typing reasoning can be expressed as a tree:

		⊢ 2 : Int	⊢ 3 : Int
⊢ false : Bool	⊢ 1 : Int	<b>⊢2</b> *	3 : Int
⊢ not false : Bool	H	- 1 + 2 * 3: li	nt
⊢ while not fa	alse loop 1 +	2 * 3 : Objec	t

- The **root** of the tree is the whole expression
- Each node is an instance of a typing rule
- Leaves are the rules with no hypotheses

#### A Problem

• What is the type of a variable reference?

• The local, structural rule does *not* carry enough information to give x a type.

# A Solution: Put more information in the rules!

- A type environment gives types for free variables
  - A type environment is a mapping from Object\_Identifiers to Types
  - A variable is **free** in an expression if:
    - The expression contains an occurrence of the variable that refers to a declaration *outside* the expression
  - in the expression "x", the variable "x" is free
  - in "let x: Int in x + y" only "y" is free
  - in " $\underline{x}$  + let x : Int in x +  $\underline{y}$ " both " $\underline{x}$ ", " $\underline{y}$ " are free

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# Type Environments

Let 0 be a function from Object\_Identifiers to Types

The sentence  $0 \vdash e : T$ 

is read: Under the assumption that variables have the types given by O, it is provable that the expression e has the type T

#### **Modified Rules**

The type environment is added to the earlier rules:

$$\frac{\phantom{a}}{\phantom{a}} \text{O} \vdash i : \text{Int} \qquad \text{(i is an integer)}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
0 \vdash e_1 : Int \\
0 \vdash e_2 : Int \\
\hline
0 \vdash e_1 + e_2 : Int
\end{array}$$
[Add]

#### **New Rules**

And we can write new rules:

Equivalently:

$$\frac{O(x) = T}{O \vdash x : T} [Var]$$

#### Let

$$\frac{O[T_0/x] \vdash e_1 : T_1}{O \vdash let \ x : T_0 \ in \ e_1 : T_1} \quad [Let-No-Init]$$

 $O[T_0/x]$  means "O modified to map x to  $T_0$  and behaving as O on all other arguments":

$$O[T_0/x] (x) = T_0$$
  
 $O[T_0/x] (y) = O(y)$ 

# Let Example

- Consider the Cool expression
  - let  $x: T_0$  in (let  $y: T_1$  in  $E_{x, y}$ ) + (let  $x: T_2$  in  $F_{x, y}$ ) (where  $E_{x, y}$  and  $F_{x, y}$  are some Cool expression that contain occurrences of "x" and "y")
- Scope
  - of "y" is  $E_{x,y}$
  - of outer "x" is E<sub>x, y</sub>
  - of inner "x" is  $F_{x, y}$
- This is captured precisely in the typing rule.

# Let. Example. AST Type env. Types $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } y : T_1 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } y : T_1 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } y : T_1 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } y : T_1 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } x : T_2 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } x : T_2 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } x : T_2 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } x : T_2 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } x : T_2 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$ $O[T_0/x] \vdash \text{ let } x : T_2 \text{ in} : \text{ int}$

#### **Notes**

- The type environment gives types to the free identifiers in the current scope
- The type environment is passed down the AST from the root towards the leaves
- Types are computed up the AST from the leaves towards the root

#### Let with Initialization

Now consider let with initialization:

$$\begin{array}{c} O \vdash e_0 : T_0 \\ \hline O[T_0/x] \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ \hline O \vdash \text{let } x : T_0 \leftarrow e_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1 \end{array} \text{[Let-Init]}$$

This rule is weak. Why?

#### Let with Initialization

• Consider the example:

class C inherits P 
$$\{ ... \}$$
  
...  
let x : P  $\leftarrow$  new C in ...

- The previous let rule does not allow this code
  - We say that the rule is too weak or incomplete

# Subtyping

- Define a relation  $X \le Y$  on classes to say that:
  - An object of type X could be used when one of type Y is acceptable, or equivalently
  - X conforms with Y
  - In Cool this means that X is a subclass of Y
- Define a relation ≤ on classes

 $X \leq Y$  if X inherits from Y

 $X \le Z$  if  $X \le Y$  and  $Y \le Z$ 

### Let With Initialization (Better)

$$\begin{aligned} O \vdash e_0 : T \\ T &\leq T_0 \\ O[T_0/x] \vdash e_1 : T_1 \end{aligned} \text{[Let-Init]}$$
 
$$O \vdash \text{let } x : T_0 \leftarrow e_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1$$

- Both rules for let are sound
- But more programs type check with this new rule (it is more complete)

# Type System Tug-of-War

- There is a tension between
  - Flexible rules that do not constrain programming
  - Restrictive rules that ensure safety of execution



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# Expressiveness of Static Type Systems

- A static type system enables a compiler to detect many common programming errors
- The cost is that some correct programs are disallowed
  - Some argue for dynamic type checking instead
  - Others argue for more expressive static type checking
- But more expressive type systems are also more complex

# **Dynamic And Static Types**

- The dynamic type of an object is the class C that is used in the "new C" expression that creates the object
  - A run-time notion
  - Even languages that are not statically typed have the notion of dynamic type
- The static type of an expression is a notation that captures all possible dynamic types the expression could take
  - A compile-time notion

# Dynamic and Static Types. (Cont.)

- In early type systems the set of static types correspond directly with the dynamic types
- Soundness theorem: for all expressions E
   dynamic\_type(E) = static\_type(E)
   (in all executions, E evaluates to values of the
   type inferred by the compiler)
- This gets more complicated in advanced type systems (e.g., Java, Cool)

# Dynamic and Static Types in COOL

• A variable of static type A can hold values of static type B, if B  $\leq$  A

# Dynamic and Static Types

Soundness theorem for the Cool type system:

 $\forall$  E. dynamic\_type(E)  $\leq$  static\_type(E)

#### Why is this Ok?

- For E, compiler uses static\_type(E)
- All operations that can be used on an object of type C can also be used on an object of type C'  $\leq$  C
  - $\bullet$  Such as fetching the value of an attribute
  - $\bullet$  Or invoking a method on the object
- Subclasses can *only add* attributes or methods
- Methods can be redefined but with the same types!

# Subtyping Example

• Consider the following Cool class definitions

```
Class A { a() : int { 0 }; }
Class B inherits A { b() : int { 1 }; }
```

- An instance of B has methods "a" and "b"
- An instance of A has method "a"
  - A type error occurs if we try to invoke method "b" on an instance of A


### Example of Wrong Let Rule (1)

• Now consider a hypothetical wrong let rule:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} O \vdash e_0 : T & T \leq T_0 & O \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ \hline O \vdash let x : T_0 \leftarrow e_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1 \\ \end{array}$$

- · How is it different from the correct rule?
- · The following good program does not typecheck

let 
$$x : Int \leftarrow 0 in x + 1$$

· Why?

# Example of Wrong Let Rule (2)

• Now consider a hypothetical wrong let rule:

$$0 \vdash e_0 : T \quad T_0 \le T \quad 0[T_0/x] \vdash e_1 : T_1$$
  
 $0 \vdash let x : T_0 \leftarrow e_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1$ 

- · How is it different from the correct rule?
- The following bad program is well typed
   let x : B ← new A in x.b()
- · Why is this program bad?

#### Example of Wrong Let Rule (3)

• Now consider a hypothetical wrong let rule:

- How is it different from the correct rule?
- The following good program is not well typed let  $x : A \leftarrow \text{new B in } \{... \times \leftarrow \text{new } A; \times .a(); \}$
- · Why is this program not well typed?

# Typing Rule Notation

- The typing rules use very concise notation
- They are very carefully constructed
- Virtually any change in a rule either:
  - Makes the type system unsound (bad programs are accepted as well typed)
  - Or, makes the type system less usable (incomplete) (good programs are rejected)
- But some good programs will be rejected anyway
  - The notion of a good program is undecidable

Assignment

More uses of subtyping:

$$\begin{aligned} & O(id) = T_0 \\ & O \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ & T_1 \leq T_0 \\ \hline & O \vdash id \leftarrow e_1 : T_1 \end{aligned} \quad \text{[Assign]}$$

#### **Initialized Attributes**

- Let O<sub>C</sub>(x) = T for all attributes x:T in class C
   O<sub>C</sub> represents the class-wide scope
- Attribute initialization is similar to let, except for the scope of names

$$\begin{aligned} &O_{C}(id) = T_{0} \\ &O_{C} \vdash e_{1} : T_{1} \\ & \underline{T_{1} \leq T_{0}} \\ &O_{C} \vdash id : T_{0} \leftarrow e_{1} ; \end{aligned} [Attr-Init]$$

#### If-Then-Else

• Consider:

if e<sub>0</sub> then e<sub>1</sub> else e<sub>2</sub> fi

- The result can be either e<sub>1</sub> or e<sub>2</sub>
- The dynamic type is either e<sub>1</sub>'s or e<sub>2</sub>'s type
- The best we can do statically is the smallest supertype larger than the type of e<sub>1</sub> and e<sub>2</sub>

### If-Then-Else example

• Consider the class hierarchy



· ... and the expression

if ... then new A else new B fi

- Its type should allow for the dynamic type to be both A or B
  - Smallest supertype is P

# Least Upper Bounds

- Define: lub(X,Y) to be the least upper bound of X and Y. lub(X,Y) is Z if
  - $X \leq Z \wedge Y \leq Z$ 
    - Z is an upper bound
  - $X \le Z' \land Y \le Z' \Rightarrow Z \le Z'$

Z is least among upper bounds

 In Cool, the least upper bound of two types is their least common ancestor in the inheritance tree

#### If-Then-Else Revisited

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{O} \vdash \mathsf{e}_0 : \mathsf{Bool} \\ \mathsf{O} \vdash \mathsf{e}_1 : \mathsf{T}_1 \\ \mathsf{O} \vdash \mathsf{e}_2 : \mathsf{T}_2 \\ \\ \mathsf{O} \vdash \mathsf{if} \; \mathsf{e}_0 \; \mathsf{then} \; \mathsf{e}_1 \; \mathsf{else} \; \mathsf{e}_2 \; \mathsf{fi} : \mathsf{lub}(\mathsf{T}_1, \, \mathsf{T}_2) \\ & \qquad \qquad [\mathsf{If}\text{-Then-Else}] \end{aligned}$$

#### Case

• The rule for case expressions takes a lub over all branches

$$\begin{aligned} O \vdash e_0 : T_0 & [\textit{Case}] \\ O[T_1/x_1] \vdash e_1 : T_1' & ... \\ O[T_n/x_n] \vdash e_n : T_n' & \\ O \vdash \text{case } e_0 \text{ of } x_1 : T_1 \Rightarrow e_1; \\ ...; x_n : T_n \Rightarrow e_n; \text{ esac } : \text{lub}(T_1', ..., T_n') & \end{aligned}$$

# Next Time (Post-Midterm)

- Type checking method dispatch
- Type checking with SELF\_TYPE in COOL

### Homework

- Today: WA3 dueFriday: PA3 due
  - Parsing!
- Tuesday Feb 27 Midterm 1 in Class
  - 9:35 10:40
  - One page of notes (front and back) handwritten by you
- Next Thursday: Read Chapter 7.2

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