

# CSC 425 - Principles of Compiler Design I

## Type Checking

# Outline

- General properties of type systems
- Types in programming languages
- Notation for type rules
  - logical rules of inference
- Common type rules

# Static Checking

- Static checking refers to the compile-time checking of programs in order to ensure that the semantic conditions of the language are being followed
- Examples of static checks include:
  - Type checks
  - Control flow checks
  - Uniqueness checks
  - Name related checks

# Static Checking

- Control flow checks: statement that cause the flow of control to leave a construct must have some place where control can be transferred; for example, `break` statements in C
- Uniqueness checks: a language may dictate that in some contexts, an entity can be defined exactly once; for example, identifier declarations, labels, values in case expressions
- Name related checks: sometimes the same name must appear two or more times; for example, in Ada a loop or block can have a name that must then appear both at the beginning and at the end

# Types and Type Checking

- A type is a set of values together with a set of operations that can be performed on them
- The purpose of type checking is to verify that operations performed on a value are in fact permissible
- The type of an identifier is typically available from declarations, but we may have to keep track of the type of intermediate expressions

# Type Expressions and Type Constructors

- A language usually provides a set of base types that it supports together with ways to construct other types using type constructors
- Through type expressions we are able to represent types that are defined in a program

# Type Expressions

- A base type is a type expression
- A type name is a type expression
- A type constructor applied to type expressions is a type expression, for example:
  - arrays: if  $T$  is a type expression and  $I$  is a range of integers, then  $array(I, T)$  is a type expression
  - records: if  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  are type expressions and  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  are field names, then  $record((f_1, T_1), \dots, (f_n, T_n))$  is a type expression
  - pointers: if  $T$  is a type expression, then  $pointer(T)$  is a type expression
  - functions: if  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  and  $T$  are type expressions, then so is  $(T_1, \dots, T_n) \rightarrow T$

# Notions of Type Equivalence

- Name equivalence: in many languages, for example, Pascal, types can be given names. Name equivalence views each distinct name as a distinct type. Two type expressions are name equivalent if and only if they are identical
- Structural equivalence: two expressions are structurally equivalent if and only if they have the same structure, that is, if they are formed by applying the same constructor to structurally equivalent type expressions



## Example of Type Equivalence

- In the Pascal fragment:

```
type nextptr = ^node;  
    prevptr = ^node;  
var p : nextptr;  
    q : prevptr;
```

p is not name equivalent to q, but p and q are structurally equivalent

# Static Type Systems and their Expressiveness

- 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, a more expressive type system is also more complex

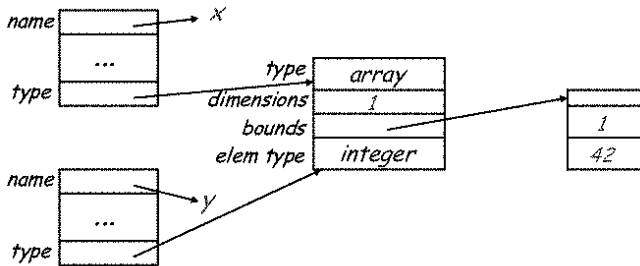
# Compile-time Representation of Types

- Need to represent type expressions in a way that is both easy to construct and easy to check
- Approach: Type Graphs
  - Basic types can have predefined “internal values”, for example, small integer values
  - Named types can be represented using a pointer into a hash table
  - Composite type expressions: the node for  $f(T_1, \dots, T_n)$  contains a value representing the type constructor  $f$ , and pointers to the nodes for the expressions  $T_1, \dots, T_n$

# Compile-time Representation of Types

## ■ Example:

```
var x, y : array[1..42] of integer;
```



# Compile-time Representation of Types

- Approach: Type Encodings

- Basic types use a predefined encoding of the low-order bits

Basic Type	Encoding
boolean	0000
char	0001
integer	0002

- The encoding of a type expression  $op(T)$  is obtained by concatenating the bits encoding  $op$  to the left of the encoding of  $T$

Type Expression	Encoding
char	00 00 00 0001
array(char)	00 00 01 0001
ptr(array(char))	00 10 01 0001
ptr(ptr(array(char)))	10 10 01 0001

# Compile-time Representation of Types

- Type encodings are simple and efficient
- On the other hand, named types and type constructors that take more than one type expression as arguments are hard to represent as encodings. Also, recursive types cannot be represented directly.
- Recursive types (for example, lists and trees) are not a problem for type graphs; the graph simply contains a cycle

# Types in an Example Programming Language

- Let us assume that types are:
  - base types: integers and floats
  - arrays of a base type
  - booleans (used in conditional expressions)
- The user declares types for all identifiers
- The compiler infers a type for every expression

# Type Checking and Type Inference

- Type checking is the process of verifying fully typed programs
- Type inference is the process of filling in missing type information
- The two are different, but are often used interchangeably



# Rules of Inference

- We have seen two examples of formal notation for specifying parts of a compiler
  - Regular expressions (for the lexer)
  - Context-free grammars (for the parser)
- The appropriate formalism for type checking is logical rules of inference

# Why Rules of Inference?

- Inference rules have the form: *If Hypothesis is true, then Conclusion is true*
- Type checking computes via reasoning: *If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  have certain types, then  $E_3$  has a certain type*
- Rules of inference are a compact notation for “If-Then” statements

# From English to an Inference Rule

- The notation is easy to read (with practice)
- Start with a simplified system and gradually add features
- Building blocks:
  - Symbol  $\wedge$  is “and”
  - Symbol  $\Rightarrow$  is “if-then”
  - $x : T$  is “ $x$ ” has type “ $T$ ”
- Example:
  - If  $e_1$  has type  $int$  and  $e_2$  has type  $int$ , then  $e_1 + e_2$  has type  $int$
  - $(e_1 \text{ has type } int \wedge e_2 \text{ has type } int) \Rightarrow e_1 + e_2 \text{ has type } int$
  - $(e_1 : int \wedge e_2 : int) \Rightarrow e_1 + e_2 : int$
- The statement  $(e_1 : int \wedge e_2 : int) \Rightarrow e_1 + e_2 : int$  is a special case of  $H_1 \wedge \dots \wedge H_n \Rightarrow C$ ; this is an inference rule

# Notation for Inference Rules

- By tradition, inference rules are written

$$\frac{\vdash \textit{Hypothesis}_1 \dots \vdash \textit{Hypothesis}_n}{\vdash \textit{Conclusion}}$$

- Type rules have hypotheses and conclusions of the form:

$$\vdash e : T$$

- $\vdash$  means “it is provable that ...”

# Example Rules

- Example

$$\frac{i \text{ is an integer}}{\vdash i : int} [\text{Int}]$$

$$\frac{\vdash e_1 : int \quad \vdash e_2 : int}{\vdash e_1 + e_2 : int} [\text{Add}]$$

- These rules give templates describing how to type integers and + expressions
- By filling in the templates, we can produce complete typings for expressions

Example:  $1 + 2$

$$\frac{\frac{1 \text{ is an integer}}{\vdash 1 : int} [Int] \quad \frac{2 \text{ is an integer}}{\vdash 2 : int} [Int]}{\vdash 1 + 2 : int} [Add]$$

# Soundness

- A type system is sound if, whenever  $\vdash e : T$ , then  $e$  evaluates to a value of type  $T$
- We only want sound rules, but some sound rules are better than others:

$$\frac{i \text{ is an integer}}{\vdash i : \textit{number}}$$

# Type Checking Proofs

- Type checking proves facts  $e : T$ 
  - Proof is on the structure of the AST
  - Proof has the shape of the AST
  - One type rule is used for each kind of AST node
- In the type rule used for a node  $e$ 
  - Hypotheses are the proofs of types of  $e$ 's subexpressions
  - Conclusion is the type of  $e$
- Types are computed in a bottom-up pass over the AST



# Rules for Constants

$$\frac{i \text{ is an integer}}{\vdash i : \textit{number}} [\text{Int}]$$
$$\frac{}{\vdash \textit{true} : \textit{bool}} [\text{Bool}]$$
$$\frac{}{\vdash \textit{false} : \textit{bool}} [\text{Bool}]$$
$$\frac{f \text{ is a floating point number}}{\vdash \textit{false} : \textit{bool}} [\text{Float}]$$

## Some Other Rules

$$\frac{\vdash e_1 : \mathit{int} \quad \vdash e_2 : \mathit{int}}{\vdash e_1 + e_2 : \mathit{int}} [\text{Add}]$$

$$\frac{\vdash e : \mathit{bool}}{\vdash \mathit{not } e : \mathit{bool}} [\text{Not}]$$

$$\frac{\vdash e_1 : \mathit{bool} \quad \vdash e_2 : T}{\vdash \mathit{while } e_1 \mathit{ do } e_2 : T} [\text{While}]$$

# A Problem

- What is the type of a variable reference?

$$\frac{x \text{ is an identifier}}{\vdash x :?} [\text{Var}]$$

- 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 give types for free variables
  - A type environment is a function from identifiers to types
  - A variable is free in an expression if it is not defined within the expression

# Type Environments

- Let  $E$  be a function from identifiers to types
- The sentence

$$E \vdash e : T$$

is read: under the assumption that variables have the types given by  $E$ , it is provable that the expression  $e$  has type  $T$

# Type Environments and Rules

- The type environment is added to the earlier rules, for example

$$\frac{i \text{ is an integer}}{E \vdash i : int} [\text{Int}]$$

$$\frac{E \vdash e_1 : int \quad E \vdash e_2 : int}{E \vdash e_1 + e_2 : int} [\text{Add}]$$

- And we can now write a rule for variables:

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

# Type Checking Expressions

Production	Semantic Rules
$E \rightarrow id$	$\{ \text{if}(\text{declared}(id.name))$ $\text{then } E.type := \text{lookup}(id.name).type$ $\text{else } E.type := \text{error}()\}$
$E \rightarrow int$	$\{ E.type := integer \}$
$E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$	$\{ \text{if}(E_1.type == integer \wedge E_2.type == integer)$ $\text{then } E.type := integer$ $\text{else } E.type := \text{error}()\}$

# Type Checking Expressions

- May have automatic type coercion
- Example:

$E_1.type$	$E_2.type$	E.type
<i>integer</i>	<i>integer</i>	<i>integer</i>
<i>integer</i>	<i>float</i>	<i>float</i>
<i>float</i>	<i>integer</i>	<i>float</i>
<i>float</i>	<i>float</i>	<i>float</i>



# Type Checking of Statements: Assignment

- Semantic Rules:

$$S \rightarrow Lval := Rval \quad \{check\_types(Lval.type, Rval.type)\}$$

- Note that in general  $Lval$  can be a variable or it may be a more complicated expression, for example, a dereferenced pointer, an array element, or a record field
- Type checking involves ensuring that:
  - $Lval$  is a type that can be assigned to, for example, it is not a function or a procedure
  - The types of  $Lval$  and  $Rval$  are “compatible”, that is, the language rules provide for coercion of the type of  $Rval$  to the type of  $Lval$

# Type Checking of Statements: Assignment

- Semantic Rules:

*Loop*  $\rightarrow$  *while E do S* {*check\_types(E.type, bool)*}

*Cond*  $\rightarrow$  *if E then S<sub>1</sub> else S<sub>2</sub>* {*check\_types(E.type, bool)*}