

# Semantics

CMPT 379: Compilers

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# Equality of types

- Main semantic tasks involve liveness analysis and checking equality
- Equality checking of types (basic types) is crucial in ensuring that code generation can target the correct instructions
- Coercions also rely on equality checking of types
- But what about those objects in PLs (records, functions, etc) that are not basic types?
- Can we perform any semantic checks on these as well?

# Type Systems

- So far we have seen simple cases of type checking and coercion
- Basic types for data types: *boolean*, *char*, *integer*, *real*
- A basic type for lack of a type: *void*
- A basic type for a type error: *type\_error*
- Based on these basic types we can build new types using type constructors

# Type Constructors

- Arrays: `int p[10];`
  - type: *array(10, integer)*
  - multi-dim arrays: `int p[3][2]: array(3, array(2, integer))`
- Products/tuples: `pair<int, char> p(10,'a');`
  - type: *integer × char*
- Records: `struct { int p; char q; } data;`
  - Type: *record((p × integer) × (q × char))*
- Pointers: `int *p;`
  - Type: *pointer(integer)*

# Type Constructors

- Functions: `int foo (int p, char q) { return 2; }`
  - Type:  $integer \times char \rightarrow integer$
  - A function maps elements from the domain to the range
  - Function types map a domain type  $D$  to a range type  $R$
  - A type for a function is denoted by  $D \rightarrow R$
- In addition, type expressions can contain type variables
  - Example:  $\alpha \times \beta \rightarrow \alpha$

# Equivalence of Type Exprs

- Check equivalence of type exprs:  $s$  and  $t$
- If  $s$  and  $t$  are basic types, then return true
- If  $s = \text{array}(s_1, t_1)$  and  $t = \text{array}(s_2, t_2)$  then return true if  $\text{equal}(s_1, s_2)$  and  $\text{equal}(t_1, t_2)$
- If  $s = s_1 \times t_1$  and  $t = s_2 \times t_2$  then return true if  $\text{equal}(s_1, s_2)$  and  $\text{equal}(t_1, t_2)$
- If  $s = \text{pointer}(s_1)$  and  $t = \text{pointer}(t_1)$  then return true if  $\text{equal}(s_1, t_1)$

# Polymorphic Functions

- Consider the following ML program:

```
fun null [] = true  
    | null (_::_) = false;  
fun tl (_::xs) = xs;  
fun length (alist) =  
    if null(alist) then 0  
    else length(tl(alist)) + 1;
```

- *null* tests if a list is empty
- *tl* removes first element and returns rest

# Polymorphic Functions

- *length* is a polymorphic function (different from polymorphism in object inheritance)
- The function *length* accepts lists with elements of any basic type:  
*length(['a', 'b', 'c'])*  
*length([1, 2, 3])*  
*length([ [1,2,3], [4,5,6] ])*
- The type for *length* is  $list(\alpha) \rightarrow integer$
- $\alpha$  can stand for any basic type: *integer* or *char*



# Polymorphic Functions

- Consider the following ML program:

***fun** map f [] = []*

*| map f (x::xs) = (f(x)) :: map f xs;*

- *map* takes two arguments: a function *f* and a list
- It applies *f* to each element of the list and creates a new list with the range of *f*
- Type of *map*:  $(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow list(\alpha) \rightarrow list(\beta)$

# Type Inference

- *Type inference* is the problem of determining the type of a statement from its body
- Similar to type checking and coercion
- But inference can be much more expressive when type variables can be used
- For example, the type of the *map* function on previous page uses type variables

# Type Variable Substitution

- We can take a type variable in a type expression and substitute a value
- In  $list(\alpha)$  we can substitute the type *integer* for the variable  $\alpha$  to get  $list(integer)$
- $list(integer) < list(\alpha)$  means  $list(integer)$  is an instance of  $list(\alpha)$
- $S(t)$  is a substitution for type expr  $t$
- Replacing *integer* for  $\alpha$  is a substitution

# Type Variable Substitution

- $s < t$  means  $s$  is an instance of  $t$
- Or  $s$  is more specific than  $t$
- Or  $t$  is more general than  $s$
- Some more examples:
  - $integer \rightarrow integer < \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
  - $(integer \rightarrow integer) \rightarrow (integer \rightarrow integer) < \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
  - $list(\alpha) < \beta$
  - $\alpha < \beta$  and  $\beta < \alpha$

# Type Expr Unification

- Incorrect type variable substitutions:
  - $integer < boolean$  (in some languages  $boolean < integer$  is true)
  - $integer \rightarrow boolean < \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
  - $integer \rightarrow \alpha < \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
- In general, there are many possible substitutions
- Type exprs  $s$  and  $t$  unify if there is a substitution  $S$  that is most general such that  $S(s) = S(t)$
- Such a substitution  $S$  is the *most general unifier* which imposes the fewest constraints on variables

# Example of Type Inference

- Example:

```
fun length (alist) =  
    if null(aalist) then 0  
    else length(tl(aalist)) + 1;
```

- $length : \alpha_1$
- $null : list(\alpha_2) \rightarrow boolean$
- $alist : list(\alpha_2)$
- $null(alist) : boolean$

## Example (cont'd)

- $0 : \text{integer}$
- $tl : \text{list}(\alpha_3) \rightarrow \text{list}(\alpha_3)$
- $tl(alist) : \text{list}(\alpha_2)$
- $\text{length} : \text{list}(\alpha_2) \rightarrow \alpha_4$
- $\text{length}(tl(alist)) : \alpha_4$
- $1 : \text{integer}$
- $+ : \text{integer} \times \text{integer} \rightarrow \text{integer}$
- $\text{if} : \text{boolean} \times \alpha_5 \times \alpha_5 \rightarrow \alpha_5$

***fun** length (alist) =  
if null(alist) **then** 0  
else length(tl(alist)) + 1;*

*list( $\alpha_2$ )  $\rightarrow$   $\alpha_4 < \alpha_1$*

*integer  $< \alpha_5$*

*integer  $< \alpha_4$*

*length : list( $\alpha_2$ )  $\rightarrow$  integer*

# Unification

- Algorithm for finding the ***most general substitution***  $S$  such that  $S(s) = S(t)$
- Also called the ***most general unifier***
- $unify(m, n)$  unifies two type exprs  $m$  and  $n$  and returns true/false if they can be unified
- Side effect is to keep track of the *mgu* substitution for unification to succeed

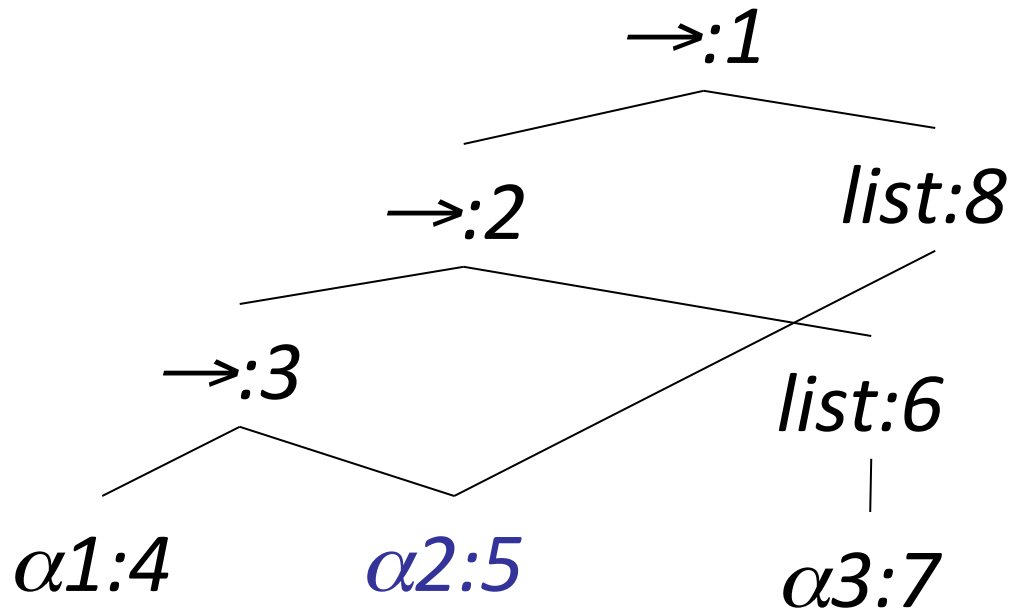


# Unification Algorithm

- We will explain the algorithm using an example:
  - $E: ((\alpha1 \rightarrow \alpha2) \rightarrow list(\alpha3)) \rightarrow list(\alpha2)$
  - $F: ((\alpha3 \rightarrow \alpha4) \rightarrow list(\alpha3)) \rightarrow \alpha5$
- What is the most general unifier?
  - $S_1(E) = S_1(F) ((\alpha1 \rightarrow \alpha1) \rightarrow list(\alpha1)) \rightarrow list(\alpha1)$
  - ✓ –  $S_2(E) = S_2(F) ((\alpha1 \rightarrow \alpha2) \rightarrow list(\alpha1)) \rightarrow list(\alpha2)$
  - ✓ –  $S_3(E) = S_3(F) ((\alpha3 \rightarrow \alpha2) \rightarrow list(\alpha3)) \rightarrow list(\alpha2)$

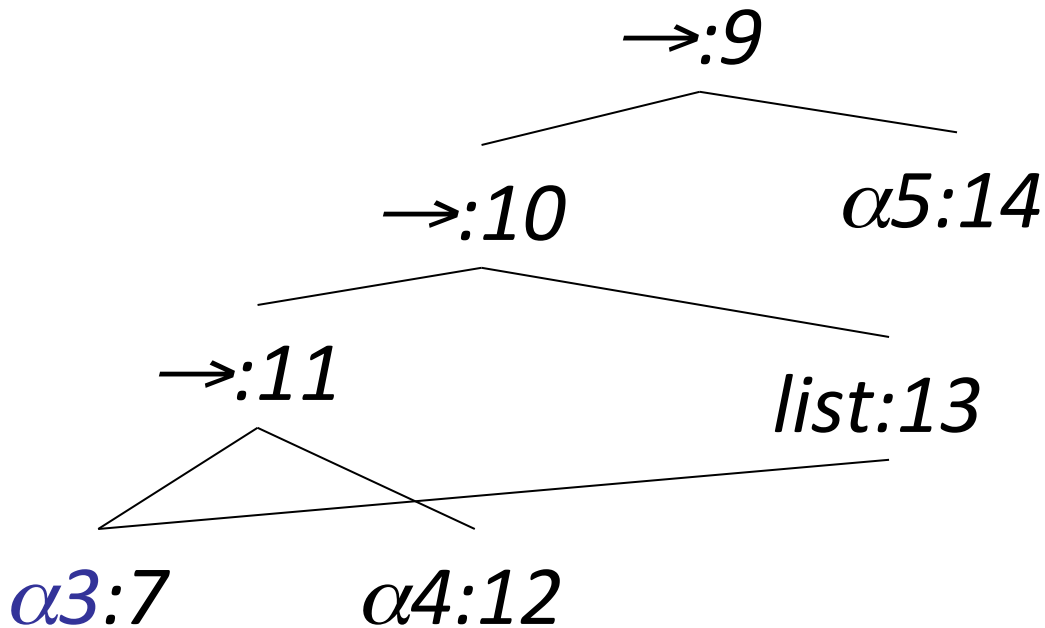
# Unification Algorithm

E:  $((\alpha1 \rightarrow \alpha2) \rightarrow list(\alpha3)) \rightarrow list(\alpha2)$

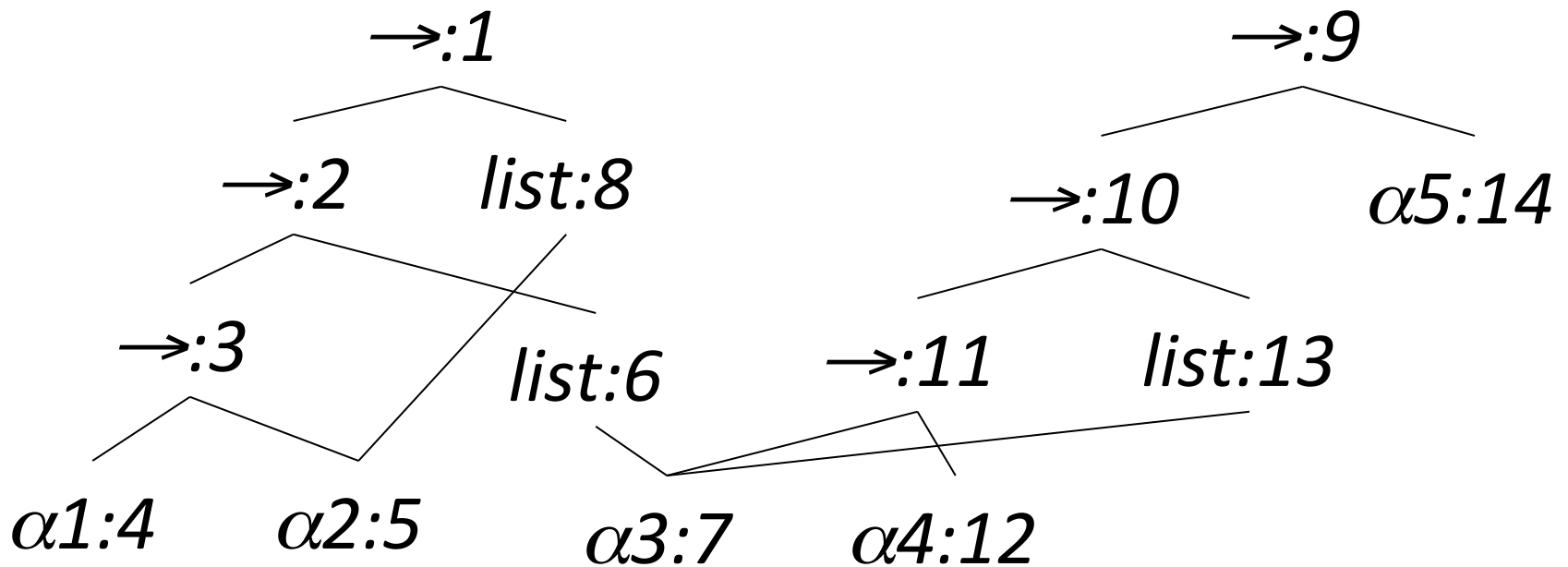


# Unification Algorithm

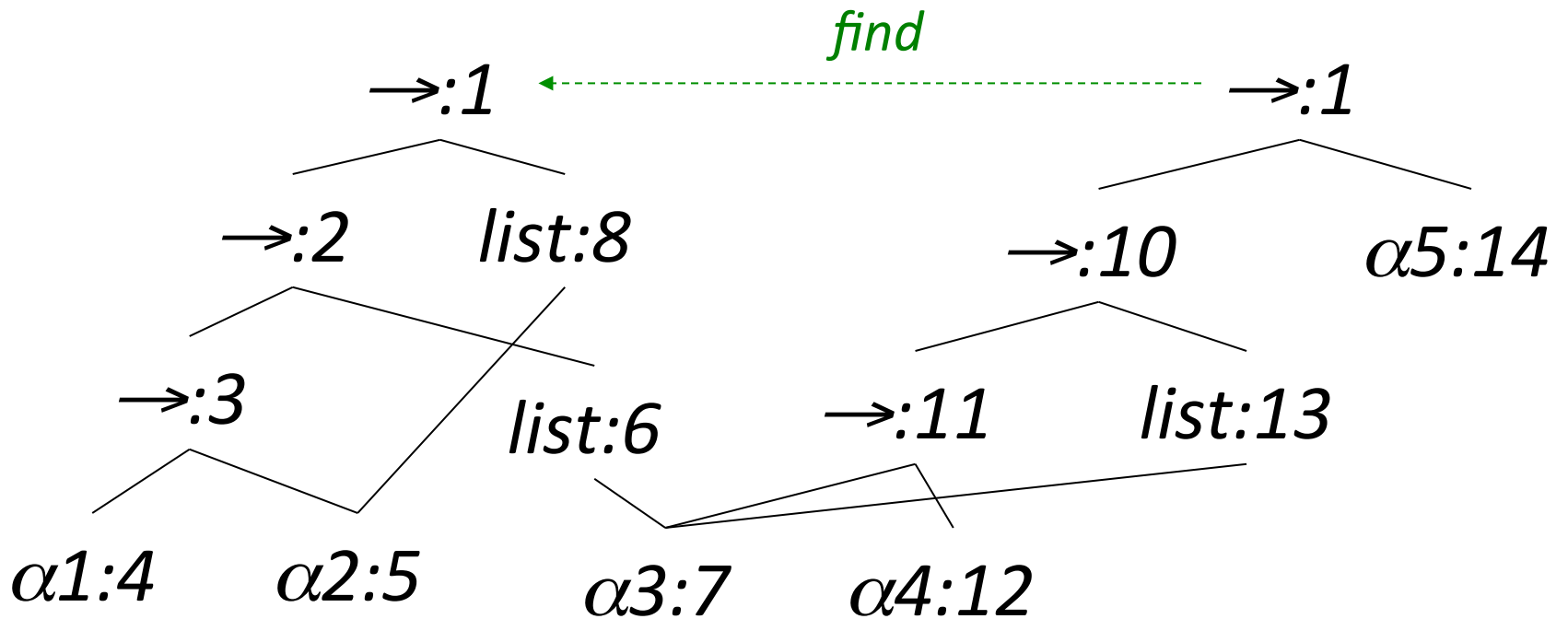
$F: ((\alpha 3 \rightarrow \alpha 4) \rightarrow \text{list}(\alpha 3)) \rightarrow \alpha 5$



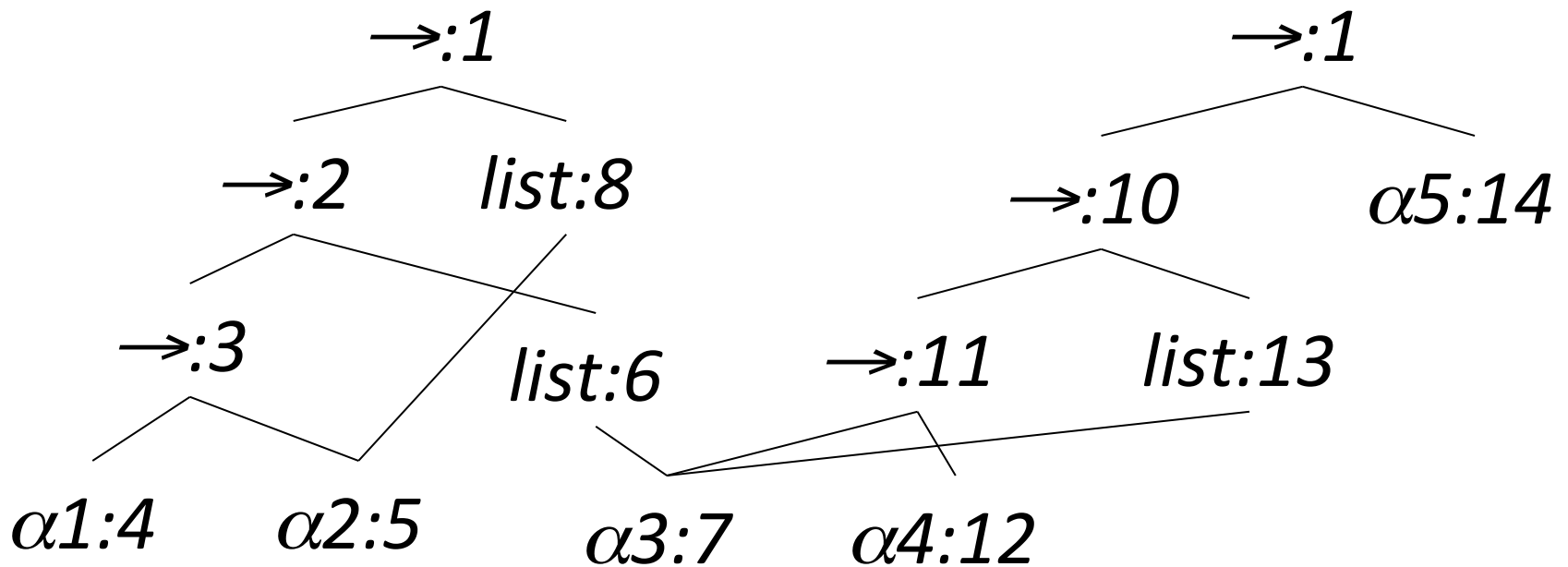
# Unify(1,9)



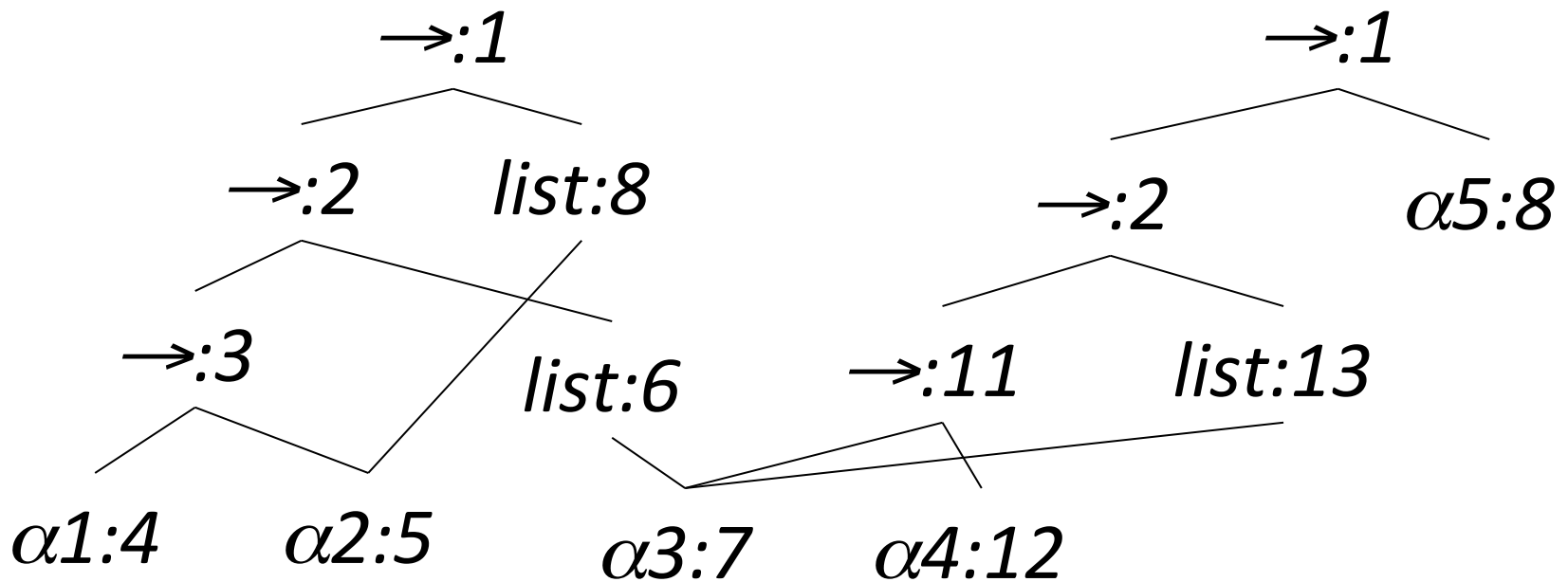
# Unify(1,9)



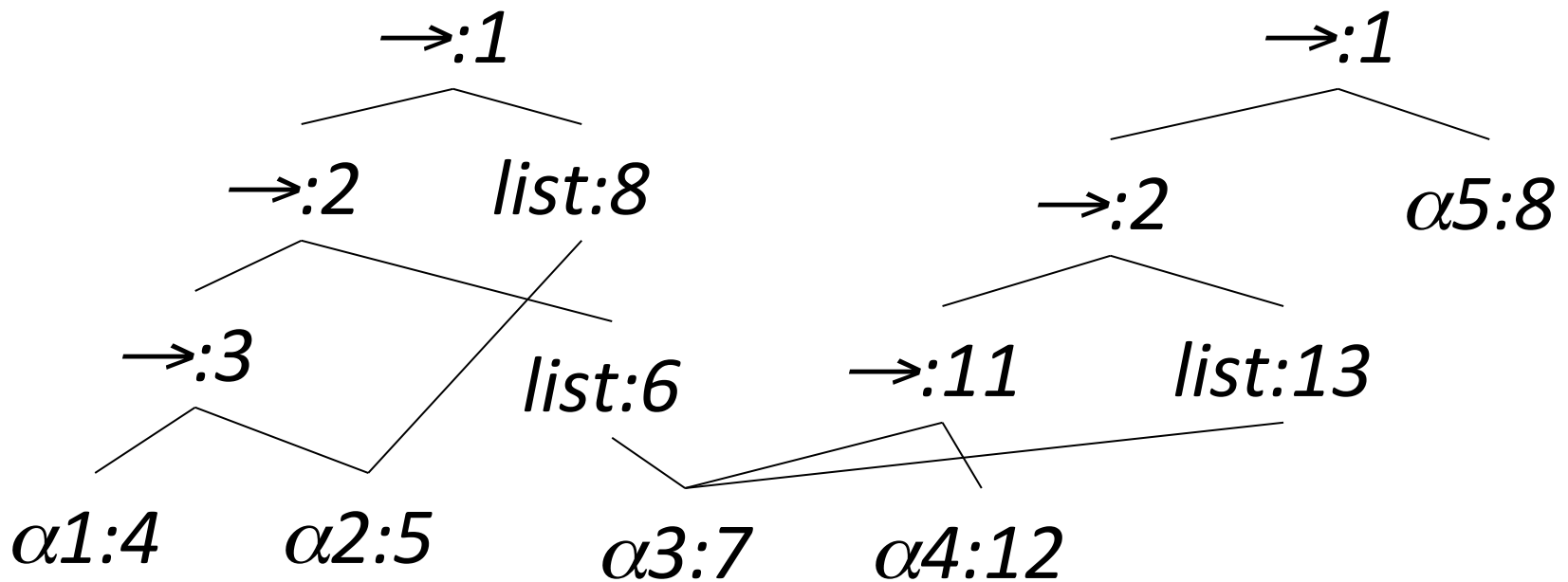
# Unify(2,10) *and* Unify(8,14)



Unify(2,10) *and* Unify(8,14)

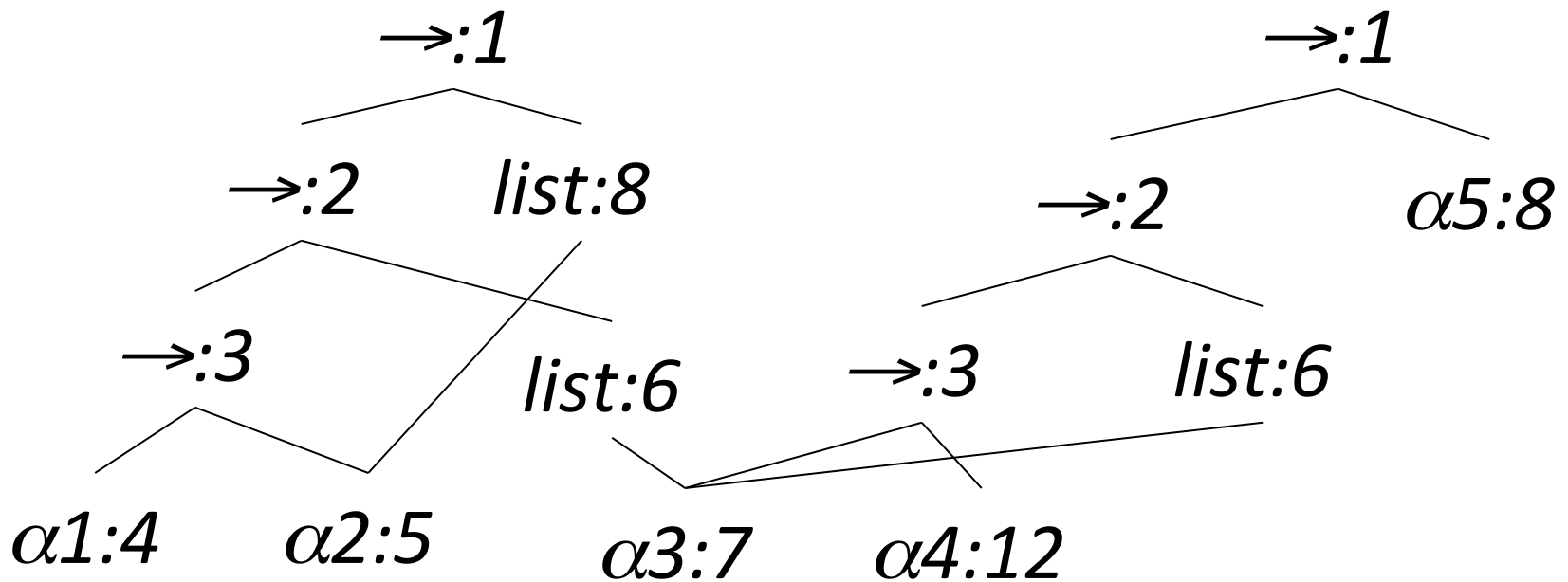


Unify(3,11) *and* Unify(6,13)

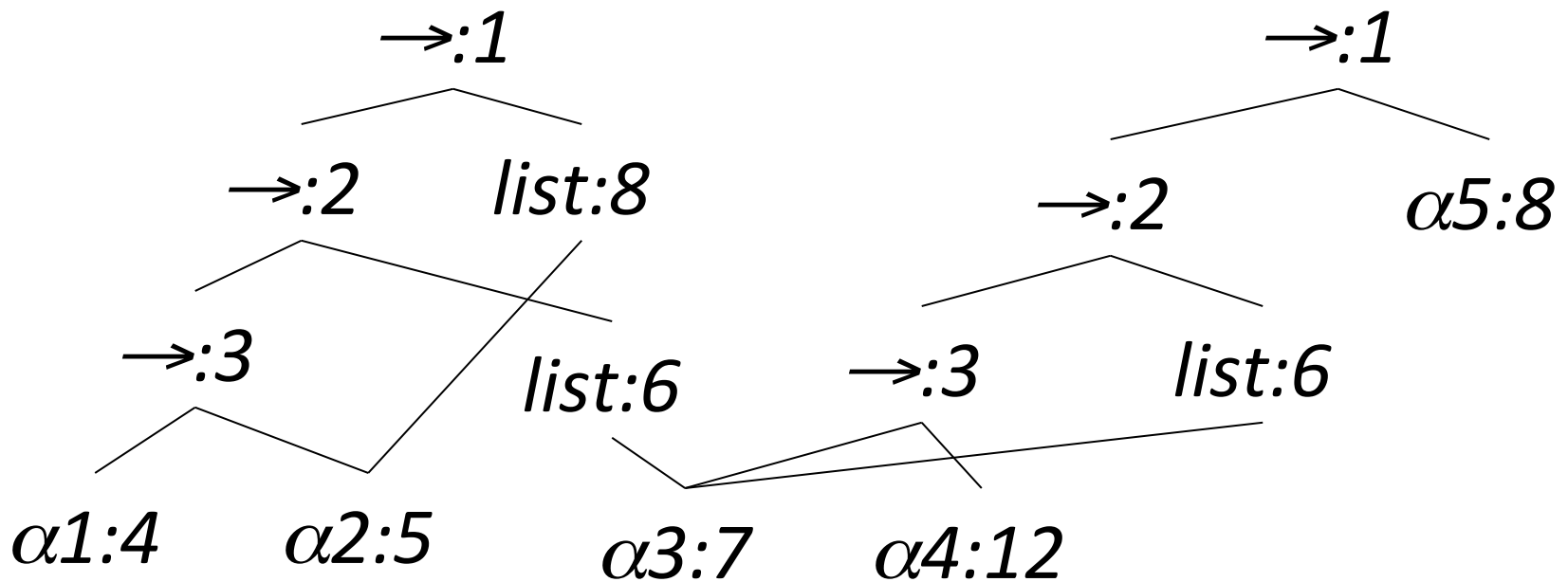




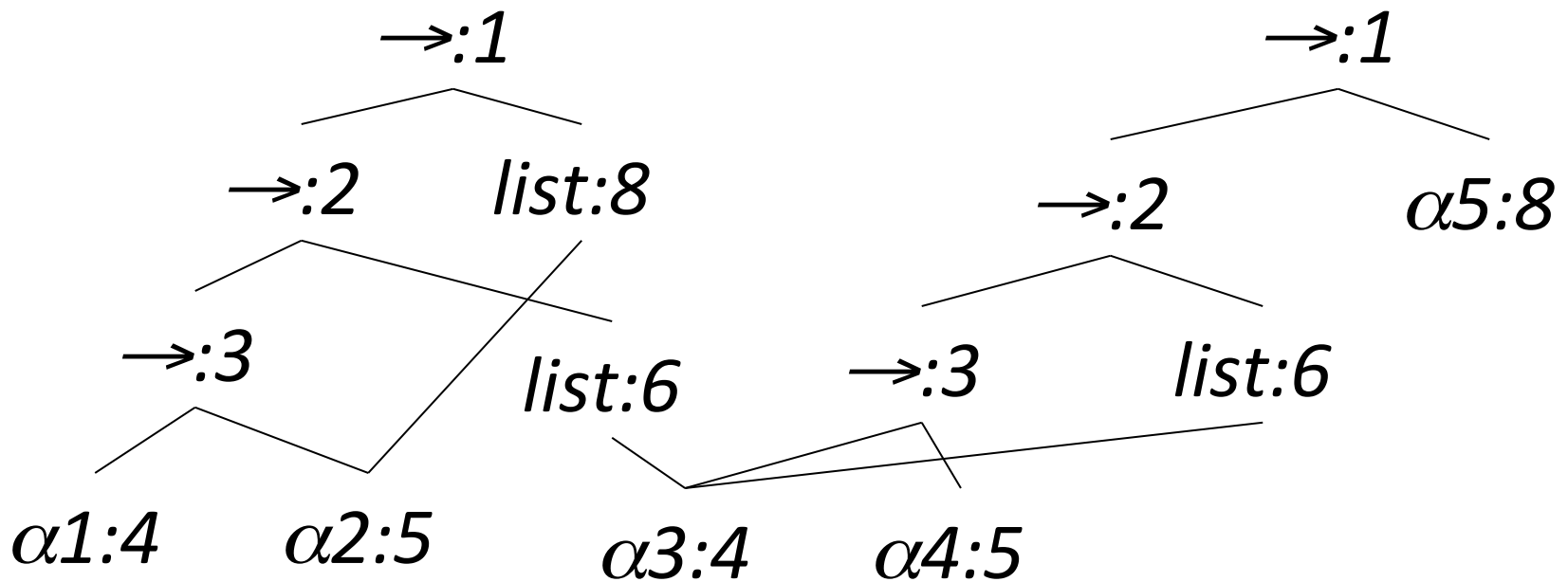
Unify(3,11) *and* Unify(6,13)



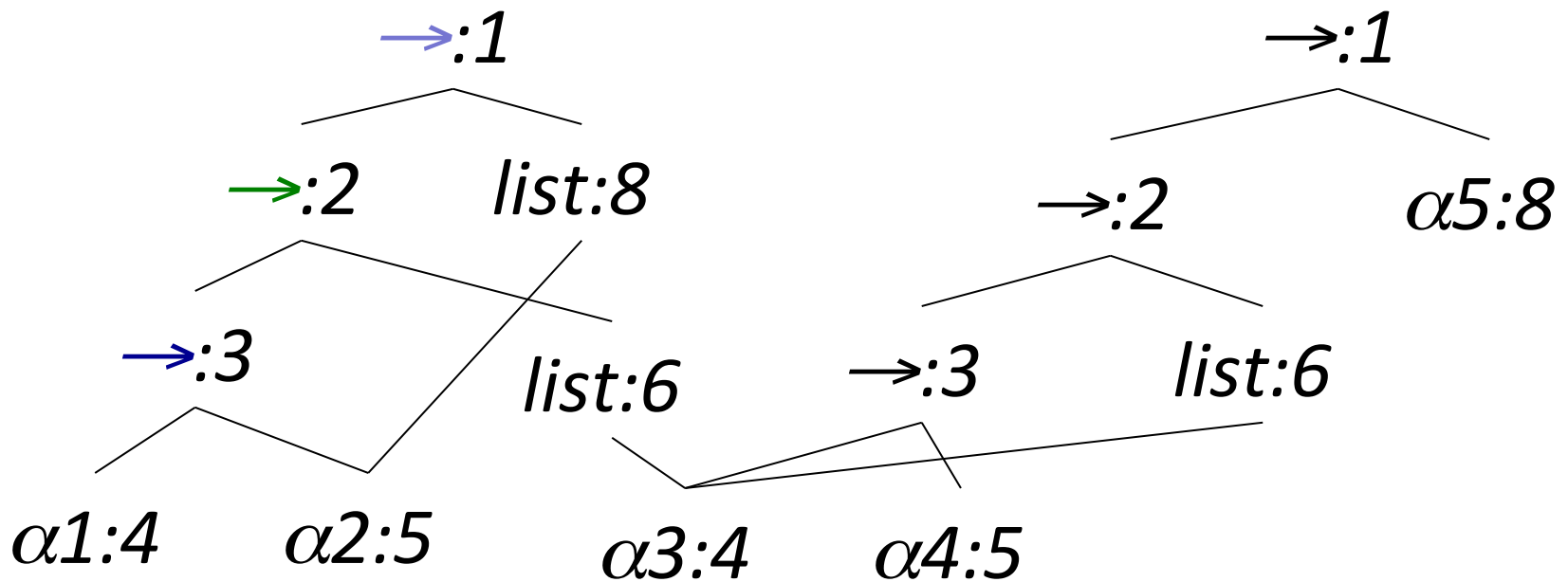
Unify(4,7) *and* Unify(5,12)



Unify(4,7) *and* Unify(5,12)



# Unification success

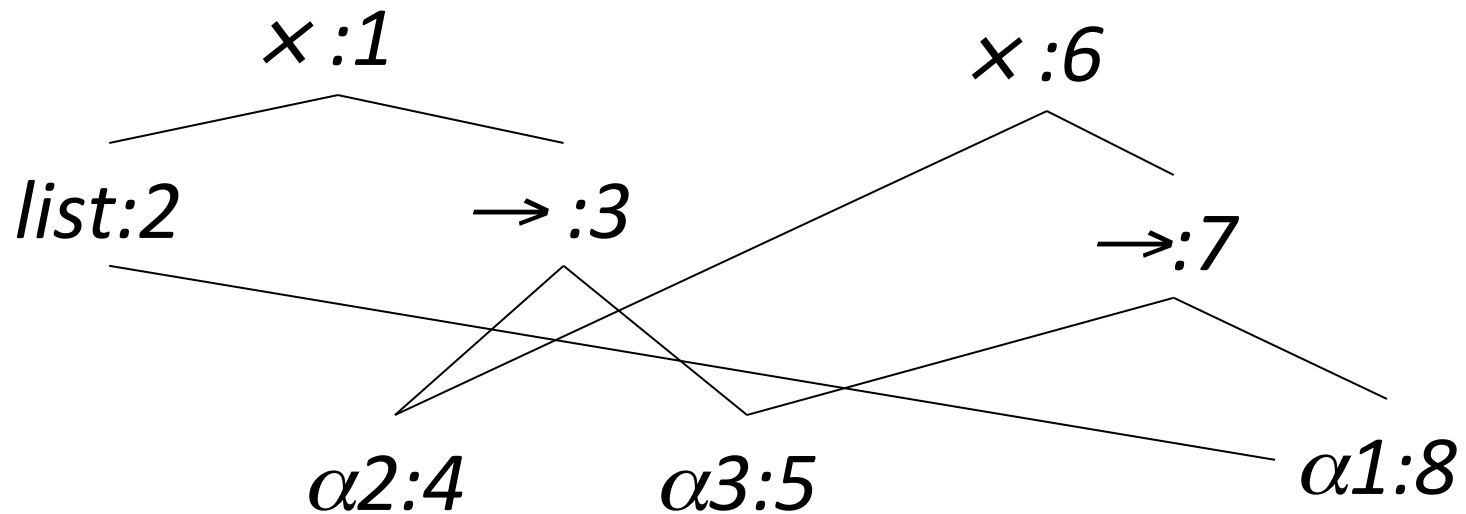


$$((\alpha1 \rightarrow \alpha2) \rightarrow list(\alpha1)) \rightarrow list(\alpha2)$$

# Unification: Occur Check

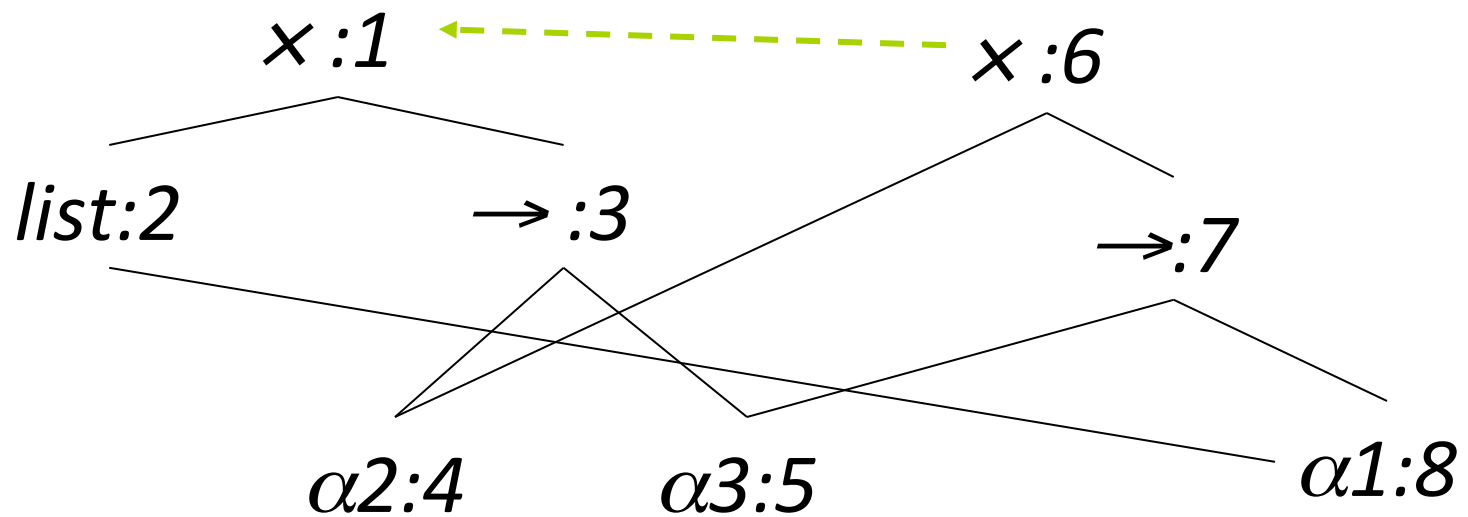
$list(\alpha 1) \times (\alpha 2 \rightarrow \alpha 3)$

$\alpha 2 \times (\alpha 3 \rightarrow \alpha 1)$



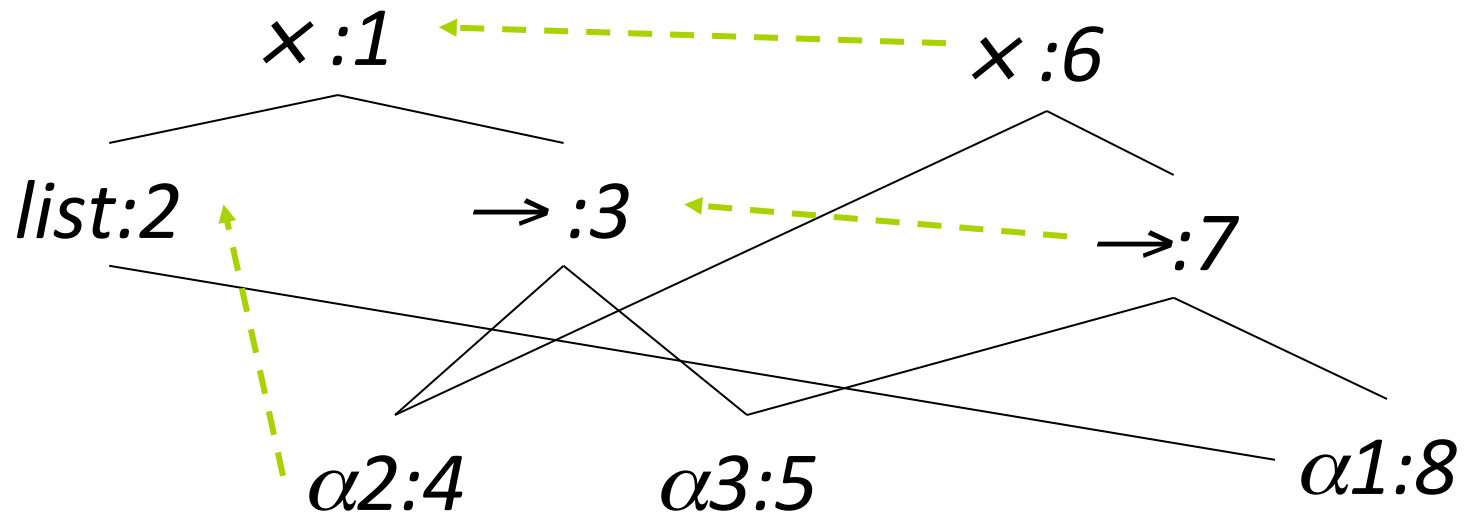
# Unify(1,6)

6--1



# Unify(2,4) and Unify(3,7)

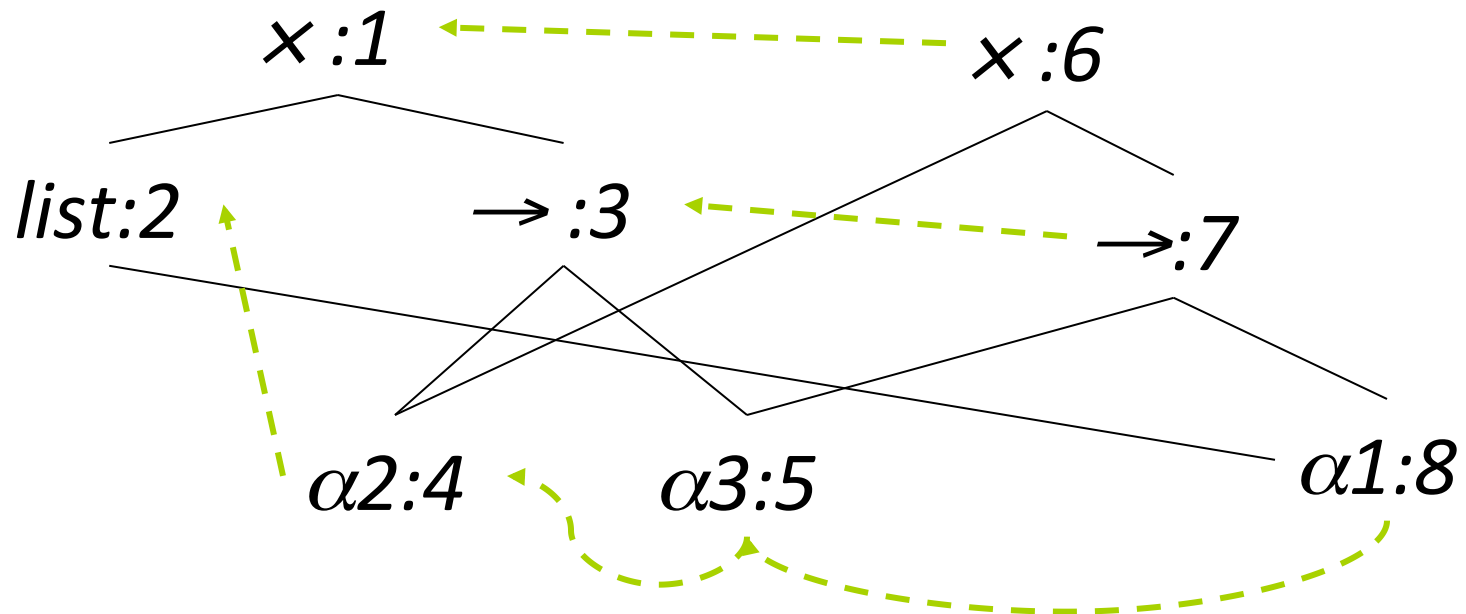
6--1, 4--2, 7--3



# Unify(4,5) and Unify(5,8)

6--1, 4--2, 7--3, 5--4, 8--5

- $list(\alpha1)$
- $= list(\alpha2)$
- $= list(list(\alpha1))$





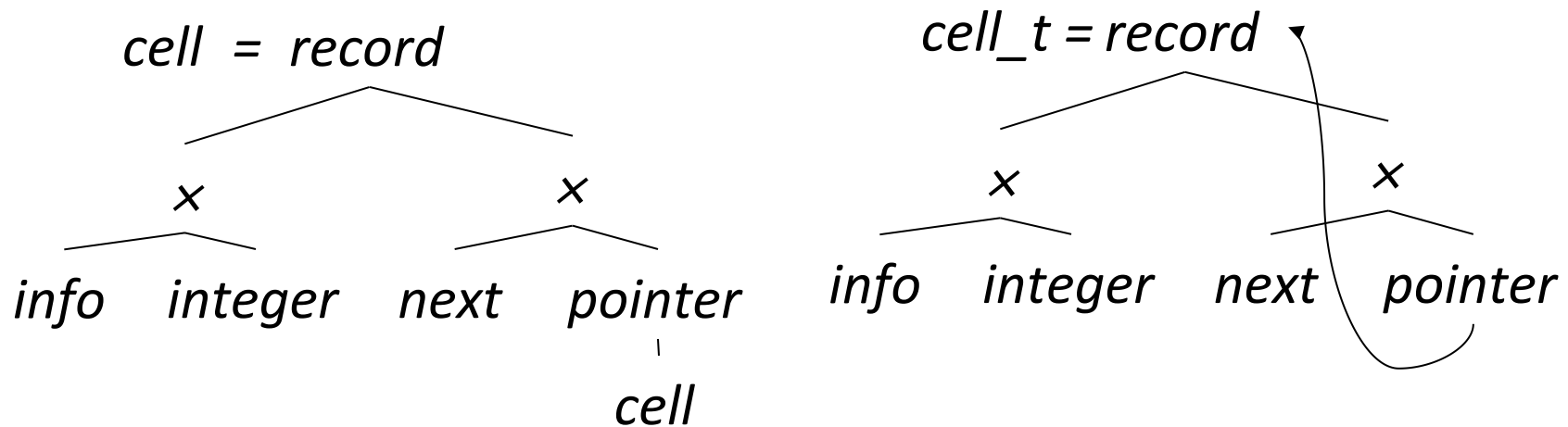
# Occur Check

- Our unification algorithm creates a cycle in *find* for some inputs
- The cycle leads to an infinite loop. Note that Algorithm 6.32 in the Purple Dragon book has this bug
- A solution to this is to unify only if no cycles are created: the *occur check*
- Makes unification slower but correct

# Recursive types

- Recursive types arise naturally in PLs
- For example, in pseudo-C:

```
struct cell { int info; cell_t *next; } cell_t;
```

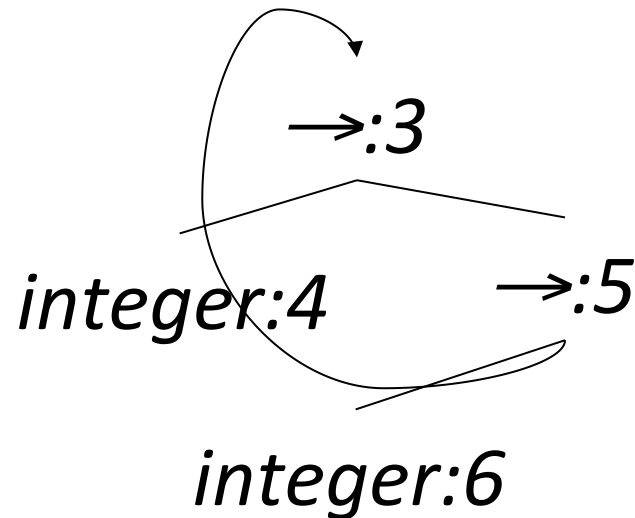
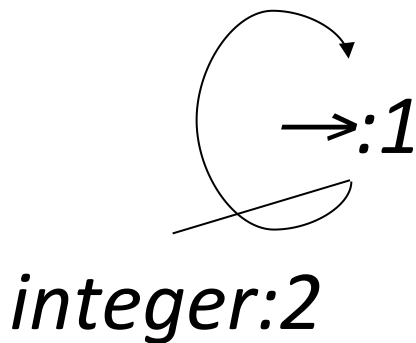


# Recursive type equivalence

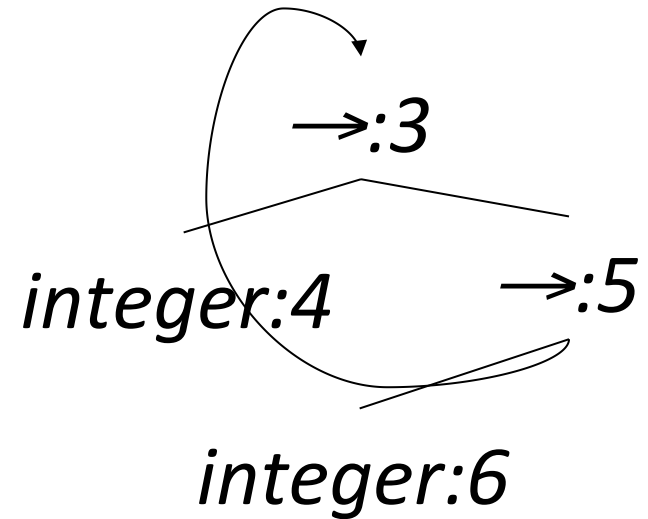
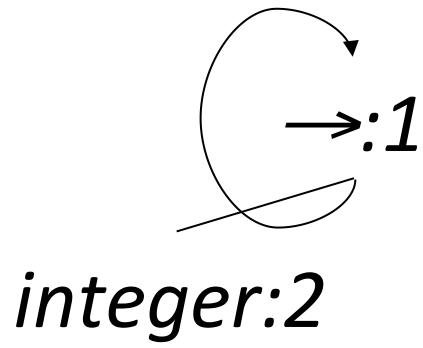
- Are these recursive type expressions equivalent:

$$\alpha1 = \text{integer} \rightarrow \alpha1$$

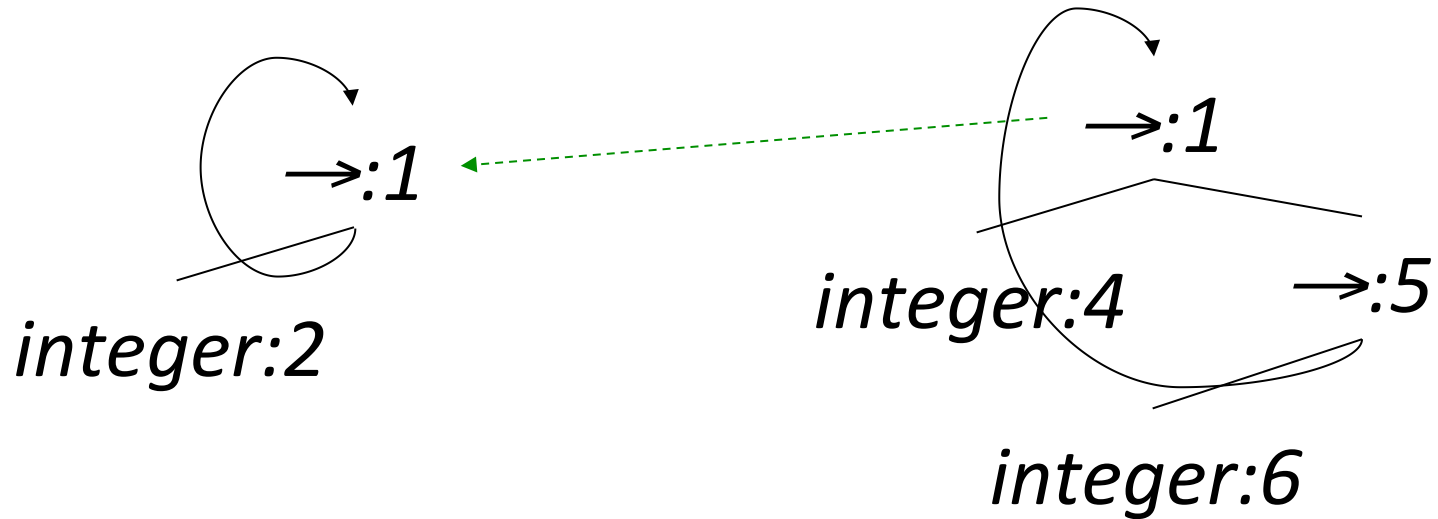
$$\alpha2 = \text{integer} \rightarrow (\text{integer} \rightarrow \alpha2)$$



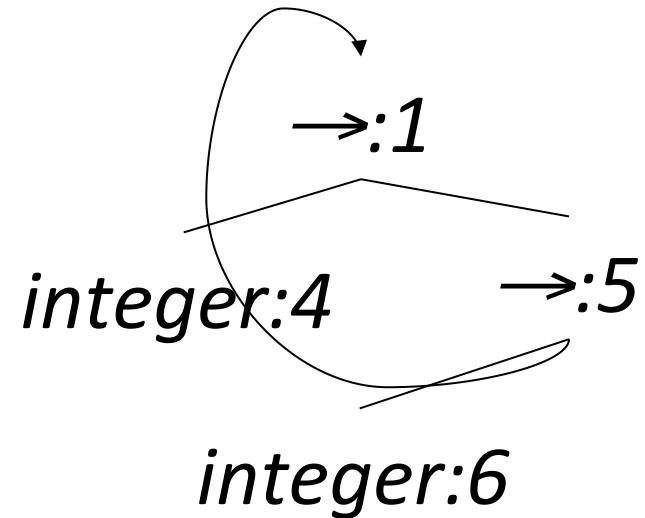
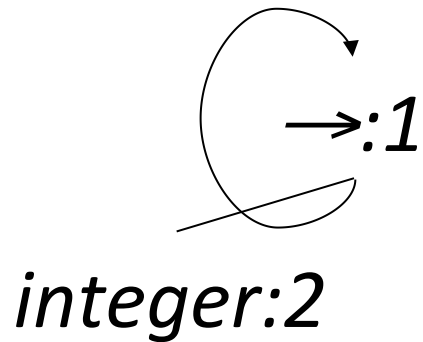
# Unify(1,3)



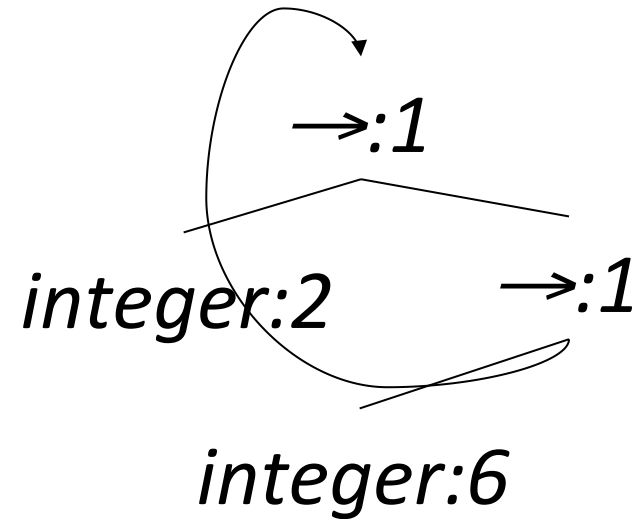
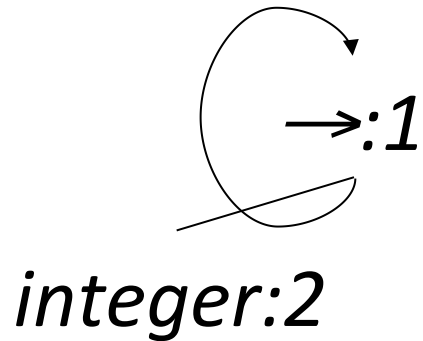
# Unify(1,3)



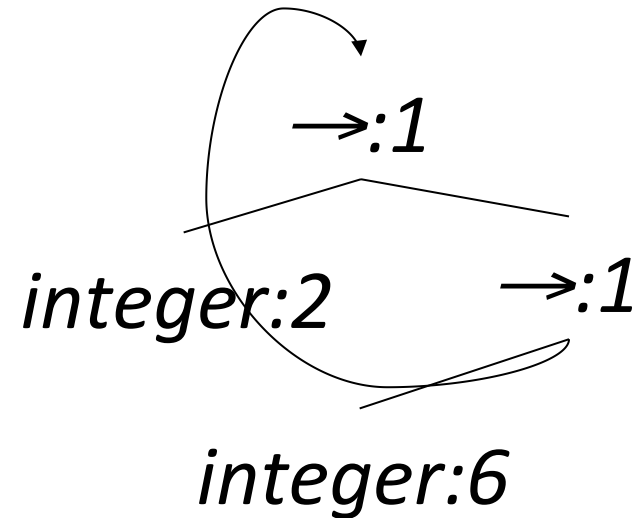
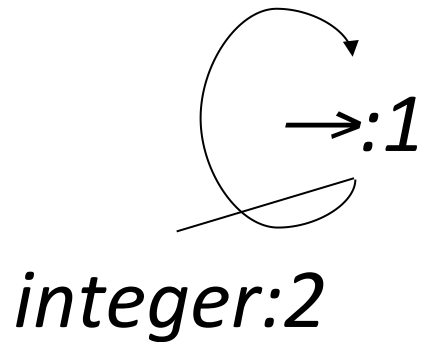
Unify(2,4) *and* Unify(1,5)



Unify(2,4) *and* Unify(1,5)

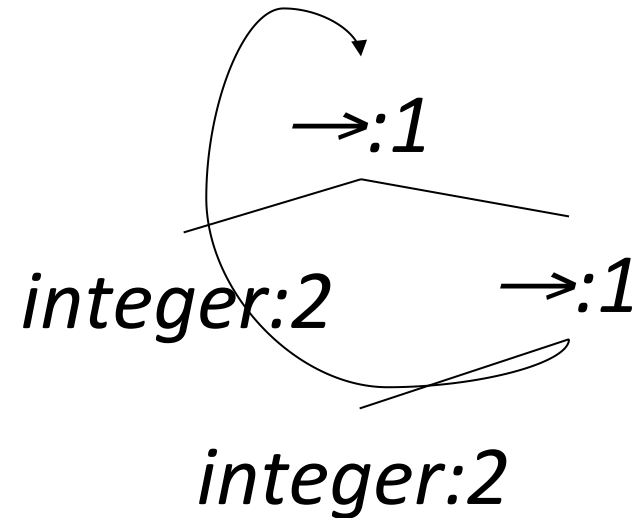
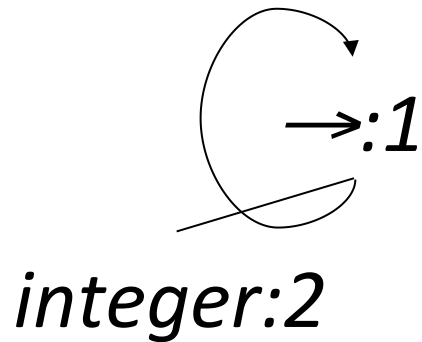


Unify(2,6) *and* Unify(1,1)





# Unify(2,6) *and* Unify(1,1)



Unification is successful!

# Summary

- Semantic analysis: checking various well-formedness conditions
- Most common semantic conditions involve types of variables
- Symbol tables
- Discovering types for variables and functions using inference (unification)