

Lecture 17

CS 131: COMPILERS

Announcements

- Midterm: graded by November 28th



Scope, Types, and Context

STATIC ANALYSIS

Variable Scoping

- Consider the problem of determining whether a programmer-declared variable is in scope.
- Issues:
 - Which variables are available at a given point in the program?
 - Shadowing – is it permissible to re-use the same identifier, or is it an error?
- Example: The following program is syntactically correct but not well-formed. (y and q are used without being defined anywhere)

```
int fact(int x) {  
    var acc = 1;  
    while (x > 0) {  
        acc = acc * y;  
        x = q - 1;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```

Q: Can we solve this problem by changing the parser to rule out such programs?

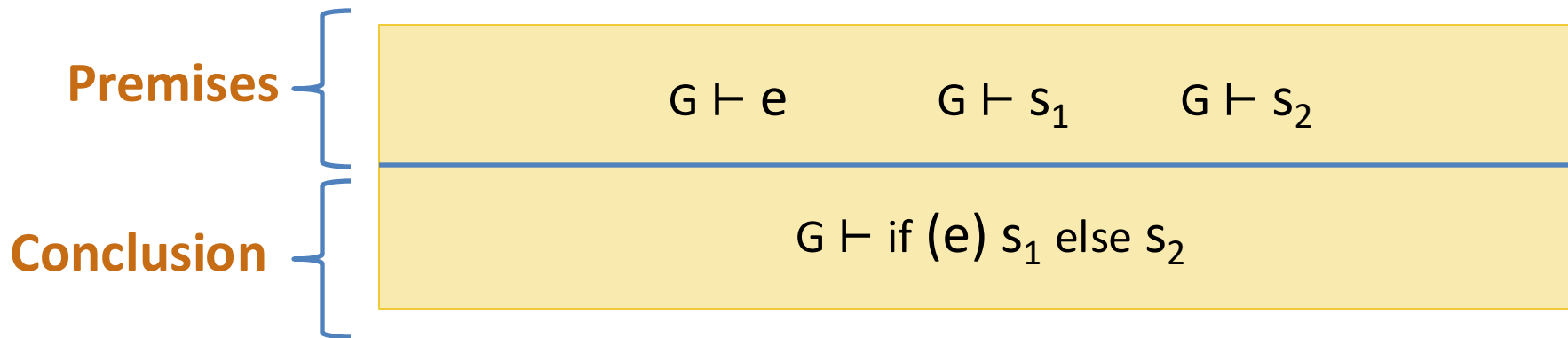
Inference Rules

- We can read a judgment $G \vdash e$ as
“the expression e is well scoped and has free variables in G ”
- For any environment G , expression e , and statements s_1, s_2 .

$$G \vdash \text{if } (e) s_1 \text{ else } s_2$$

holds if $G \vdash e$ and $G \vdash s_1$ and $G \vdash s_2$ all hold.

- More succinctly: we summarize these constraints as an *inference rule*:



- Such a rule can be used for *any* substitution of the syntactic metavariables G, e, s_1 and s_2 .

Scope-Checking Lambda Calculus

- Consider how to identify “well-scoped” lambda calculus terms
 - Given: G , a set of variable identifiers, e , a term of the lambda calculus
 - Judgment*: $G \vdash e$ “the free variables of e are included in G ”

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

“the variable x is free, but in scope”

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

“ G contains the free variables of e_1 and e_2 ”

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

“ x is available in the function body e ”

Scope-checking Code

- Compare the OCaml code to the inference rules:
 - structural recursion over syntax
 - the check either “succeeds” or “fails”

```
let rec scope_check (g:VarSet.t) (e:exp) : unit =  
  begin match e with  
  | Var x -> if VarSet.member x g then () else failwith (x ^ "not in scope")  
  | App(e1, e2) -> ignore (scope_check g e1); scope_check g e2  
  | Fun(x, e) -> scope_check (VarSet.union g (VarSet.singleton x)) e  
  end
```

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

VAR

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

APP

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

FUN

- The inference rules are a *specification* of the intended behavior of this scope checking code.
 - they don't specify the order in which the premises are checked

Judgments

- A **judgment** is a (meta-syntactic) notation that *names* a relation among one or more sets.
 - The sets are usually built from object-language syntax elements and other “math” sets (*e.g.*, integers, natural numbers, *etc.*)
 - We usually describe them using metavariables that range over the sets.
 - Often use domain-specific notation to ease reading.
 - The meaning of judgments, *i.e.*, which sets they represent, is defined by (collections of) inference rules
- Example: When we say “ $G \vdash e$ is a judgment where G is a context of variables and e is a term, defined by these [...] inference rules” that is shorthand for this “math speak”:
 - Let Var be the set of all (syntactic) variables
 - Let Exp be the set $\{e \mid e \text{ is a term of the untyped lambda calculus}\}$
 - Let $\mathbf{P}(\text{Var})$ be the (finite) powerset of variables (set of all finite sets)
 - Define $\text{well-scoped} \subseteq (\mathbf{P}(\text{Var}), \text{Exp})$ to be a relation satisfying the properties defined by the associated inference rules [...]
 - Then “ $G \vdash e$ ” is notation that means that $(G, e) \in \text{well-scoped}$

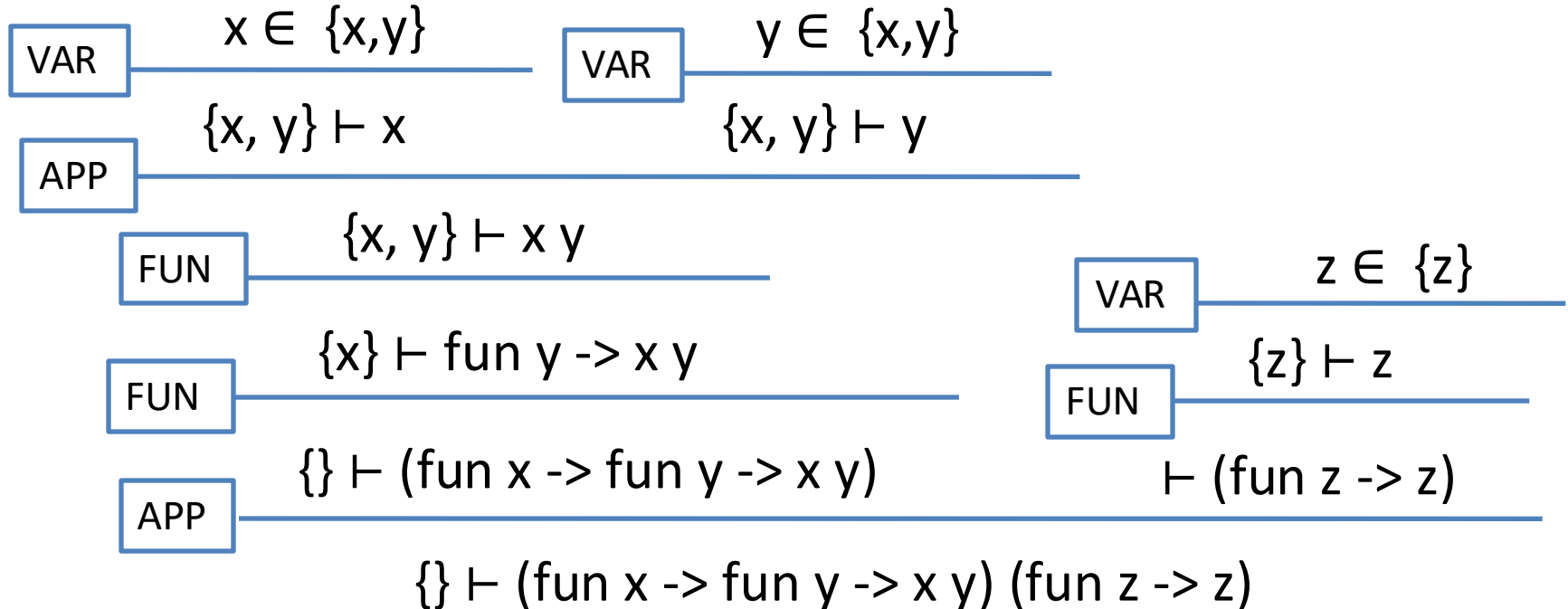
Checking Derivations

- A *derivation* or *proof tree* has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms*
 - *axiom*: rule with no premises that are judgments
 - Example: the VAR rule is an axiom (it doesn't have any \vdash)
- Goal of the static checking algorithm: *verify that such a tree exists*.

Example: we can scope check the following lambda calculus term by finding a derivation tree for it:

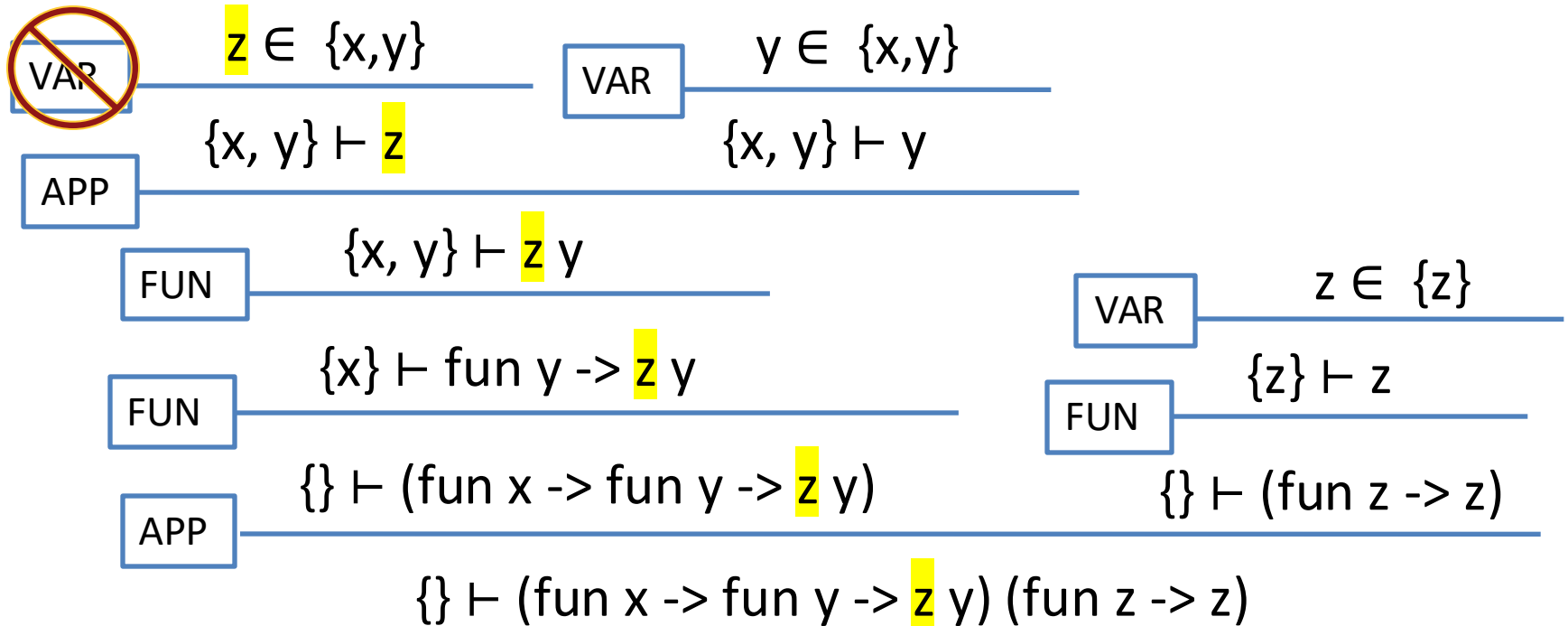
$(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow x \ y) (\text{fun } z \rightarrow z)$

Example Derivation Tree



- Note: the OCaml function `scope_check` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `scope_check` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x \in E$ is implemented by the function `VarSet.mem`

Example Failed Derivation



- This program is *not* well scoped
 - The variable z is not bound in the body of the left function.
 - The typing derivation fails because the VAR rule cannot succeed
 - (The other parts of the derivation are OK, though!)

Uses of the inference rules

- We can do proofs by induction on the structure of the derivation.
- For example:

Lemma: If $G \vdash e$ then $\text{fv}(e) \subseteq G$.

Proof.

By induction on the derivation that $G \vdash e$.

- case: VAR then we have $e = x$ (for some variable x) and $x \in G$. But $\text{fv}(e) = \text{fv}(x) = \{x\}$, but then $\{x\} \subseteq G$.
- case: APP then we have $e = e_1 e_2$ (for some $e_1 e_2$) and, by induction, we have $\text{fv}(e_1) \subseteq G$ and $\text{fv}(e_2) \subseteq G$, so $\text{fv}(e_1 e_2) = \text{fv}(e_1) \cup \text{fv}(e_2) \subseteq G$
- case: FUN then we have $e = (\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1)$ for some x, e_1 and, by induction, we have $\text{fv}(e_1) \subseteq G \cup \{x\}$, but then we also have $\text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1) = \text{fv}(e_1) \setminus \{x\} \subseteq ((G \cup \{x\}) \setminus \{x\}) \subseteq G$

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e_1}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1}$$

$\text{fv}(x)$	$=$	$\{x\}$
$\text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp})$	$=$	$\text{fv}(\text{exp}) \setminus \{x\}$ (<i>'x' is a bound in exp</i>)
$\text{fv}(\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2)$	$=$	$\text{fv}(\text{exp}_1) \cup \text{fv}(\text{exp}_2)$



See [tc.ml](#)

STATICALLY RULING OUT PARTIALITY: TYPE CHECKING

Adding Integers to Lambda Calculus

exp ::=

| ...

| n

constant integers

| exp₁ + exp₂

binary arithmetic operation

val ::=

| fun x -> exp

functions are values

| n

integers are values

n{v/x} = n

constants have no free vars.

(e₁ + e₂){v/x} = (e₁{v/x} + e₂{v/x}) *substitute everywhere*

exp₁ ↓ n₁ exp₂ ↓ n₂

exp₁ + exp₂ ↓ (n₁ **[[+]]** n₂)

Object-level '+'

Meta-level '+'

NOTE: there are no rules for the case where exp₁ or exp₂ evaluate to functions! The semantics is *undefined* in those cases.

Type Checking / Static Analysis

- Recall the interpreter from the Eval3 module:

```
let rec eval env e =
```

```
  match e with
```

```
  | ...
```

```
  | Add (e1, e2) ->
```

```
    (match (eval env e1, eval env e2) with
```

```
      | (IntV i1, IntV i2) -> IntV (i1 + i2)
```

```
      | _ -> failwith "tried to add non-integers")
```

```
  | ...
```

- The interpreter might fail at runtime.
 - Not all operations are defined for all values (*e.g.*, $3/0$, $3 + \text{true}$, ...)
- A compiler can't generate sensible code for this case.
 - A naïve implementation might “add” an integer and a function pointer

Type Judgments

- In the judgment: $E \vdash e : t$
 - E is a **typing environment** or a **type context**
 - E maps variables to types. It is just a set of bindings of the form:
 $x_1 : t_1, x_2 : t_2, \dots, x_n : t_n$
- For example: $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash \text{if } (b) \ 3 \text{ else } x : \text{int}$
- What do we need to know to decide whether “if (b) 3 else x” has type int in the environment $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool}$?
 - b must be a bool i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash b : \text{bool}$
 - 3 must be an int i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash 3 : \text{int}$
 - x must be an int i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash x : \text{int}$

Simply-typed Lambda Calculus

- Consider how to identify “well-scoped” lambda calculus terms
 - Recall the free variable calculation
 - Given: G , a map of variable identifiers to types, e , a term of the lambda calculus
 - Judgment*: $G \vdash e : T$ means “the expression e computes a value of type T , assuming its free variables have the types given in G ”

$$\frac{x:T \in G}{G \vdash x : T} \quad \text{“the variable } x \text{ has type } T \text{ and is in scope”}$$

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S}$$

“ e_1 is a function from T_2 to T and e_2 is an expression of type T_2 ”

$$\frac{G, x : T \vdash e : S}{G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S} \quad \text{“Given an input of type } T, \text{ this function computes a result of type } S\text{”}$$

Adding Integers

- For the language in “tc.ml” we have five inference rules:

INT

$$\frac{}{G \vdash i : \text{int}}$$

VAR

$$\frac{x : T \in G}{G \vdash x : T}$$

ADD

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}}$$

FUN

$$\frac{G, x : T \vdash e : S}{G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S}$$

APP

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S}$$

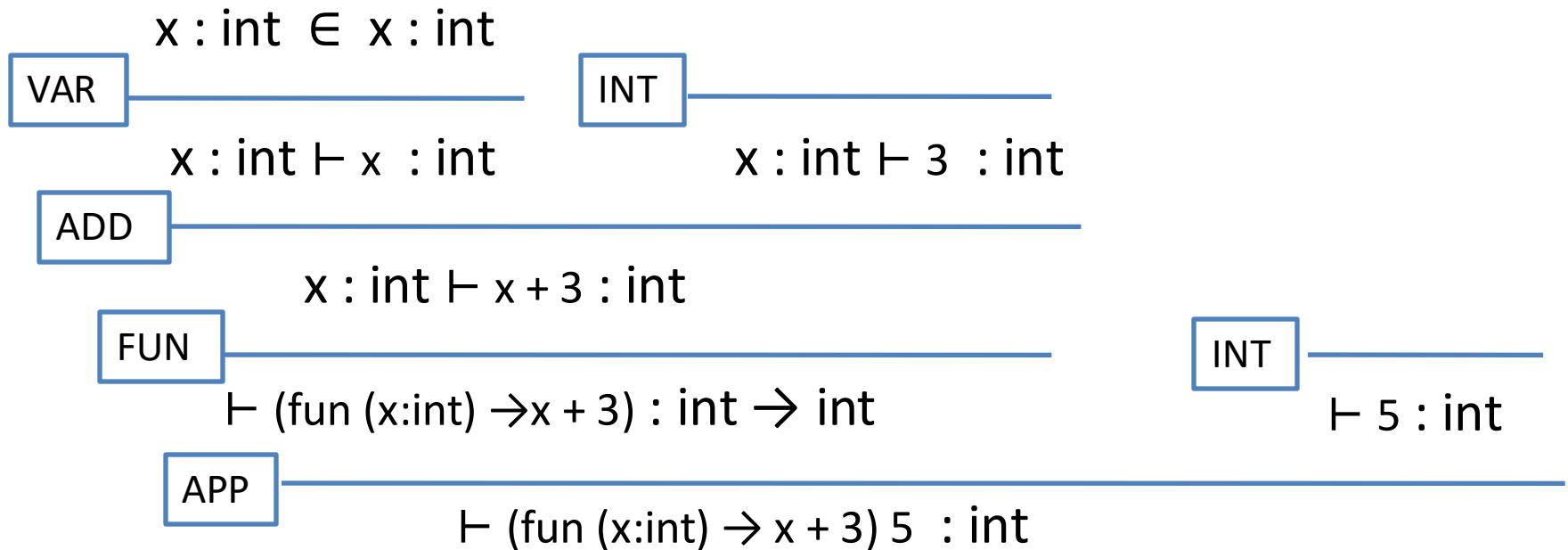
- Note how these rules correspond to the code.
- By convention, if G is empty we leave that spot blank.

Type Checking Derivations

- A *derivation* or *proof tree* has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms* (i.e. rules with no premises)
 - Example: the INT rule is an axiom
- Goal of the typechecker: verify that such a tree exists.
- Example: Find a tree for the following program using the inference rules on the previous slide:

$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x + 3) \ 5 \ : \text{int}$

Example Derivation Tree



- Note: the OCaml function typecheck verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running typecheck is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x : \text{int} \in E$ is implemented by the function lookup

Ill-typed Programs

- Programs without derivations are ill-typed


Example: There is no type T such that

$$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x \ 3) \ 5 : T$$

$x : \text{int} \rightarrow T \notin x : \text{int}$ 

VAR

$x : \text{int} \vdash x : \text{int} \rightarrow T$

$x : \text{int} \vdash 3 : \text{int}$ 

APP

$x : \text{int} \vdash x \ 3 : T$

FUN

$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x \ 3) : \text{int} \rightarrow T$

$\vdash 5 : \text{int}$ 

APP

$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x \ 3) \ 5 : T$

Type Safety

"Well typed programs do not go wrong."

– Robin Milner, 1978

Theorem: (simply typed lambda calculus with integers)

If $\vdash e : t$ then there exists a value v such that $e \Downarrow v$.

- Note: this is a *very* strong property.
 - Well-typed programs cannot "go wrong" by trying to execute undefined code (such as `3 + (fun x -> 2)`)
 - Simply-typed lambda calculus is guaranteed to terminate! (i.e. it isn't Turing complete)

Notes about this Typechecker

- The interpreter evaluates the body of a function only when it's applied.
- The typechecker always checks the body of the function
 - even if it's never applied
 - We *assume* the input has some type (say t_1) and reflect this in the type of the function ($t_1 \rightarrow t_2$).
- Dually, at a call site $(e_1 \ e_2)$, we don't know what *closure* we're going to get.
 - But we can calculate e_1 's type, check that e_2 is an argument of the right type, and determine what type e_1 will return.
- Question: Why is this an approximation?
- Question: What if `well_typed` always returns false?



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TYPECHECKING OAT