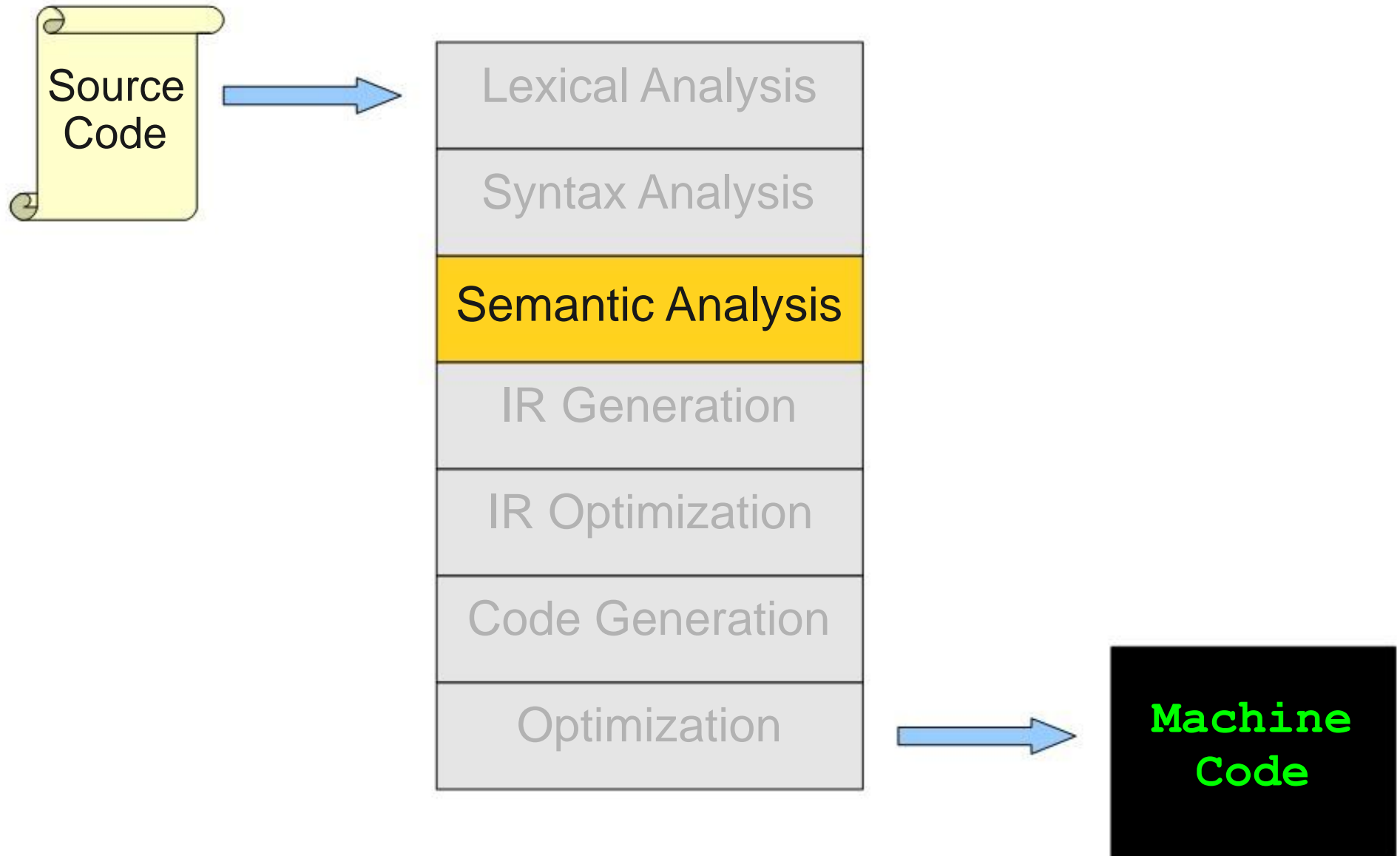


Type Checking

Where We Are



Type-Checking

- **Type errors** arise when operations are performed on values that do not support that operation.
- **Static type checking.**
 - Analyze the program during compile-time to prove the type of values. E.g. C, C++, Java
 - **Explicitly declare type at compile time.** Never let bad things happen at runtime.

Ex: `int x;`
`x=1;`
`{ float x; x =2.0 }; // most-closely nested rule`
`x= 0;`

Type-Checking

- **Dynamic type** checking.
 - **Check operations at runtime** before performing them.
 - More flexible than static type checking, but usually less efficient.
E.g. LISP, Python, Perl

Ex: Class A { ... }
 Class B inherits Class A { ... }
 Class Main { Class A **x** ; // type of x is A
 if(Condition==True)
 x = new **A**; // dynamic type of x is A
 else
 x = new **B**; // dynamic type of x is B
 }

Type Systems

- **Strong type system** is a system that require the programmer to do an explicit type conversion (casting).
 - Java, C++, C#, Python, etc.
 - There is no way you can add a number to a string without doing an explicit conversion.
- **Weak type system** is a system that do automatic type conversion.
 - Visual BASIC, JavaScript, Perl, PHP
 - You can do things like adding numbers to strings and the language will do an implicit coercion for you.

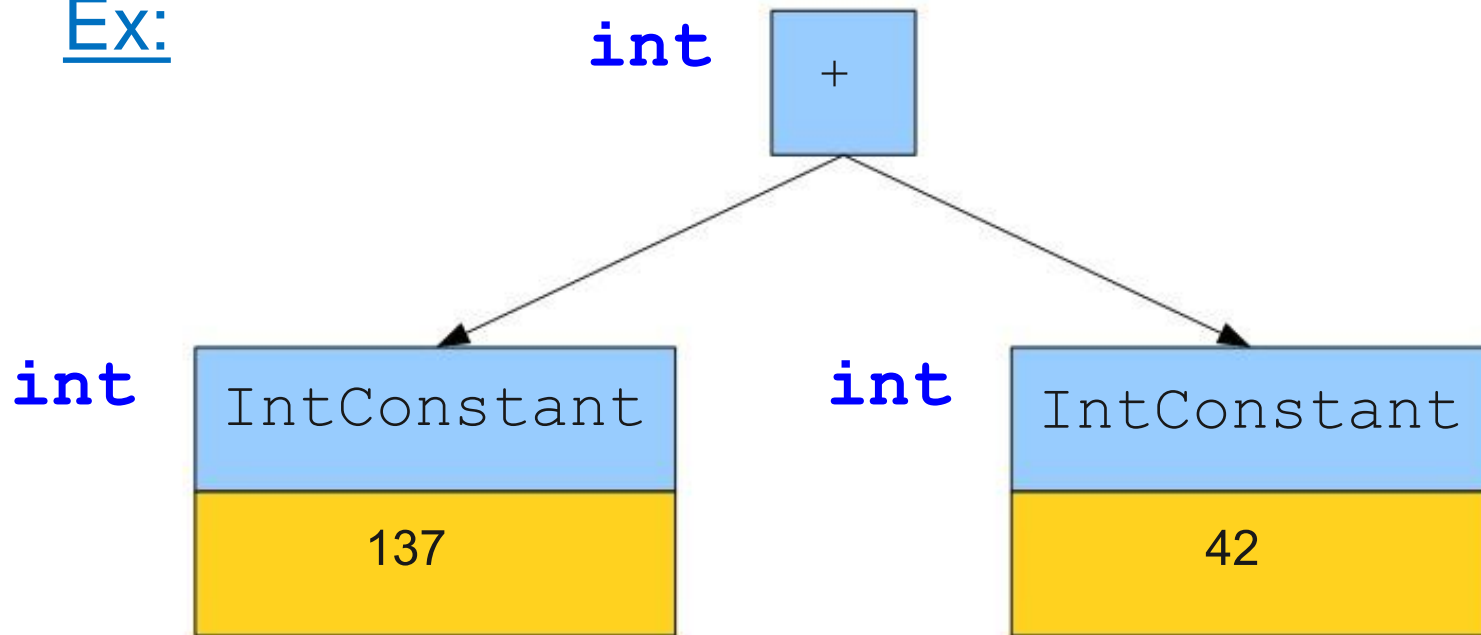
Type Wars

- Endless debate about what the “right” system is.
- **Dynamic type** systems make it easier to prototype; **static type** systems have fewer bugs.
- **Strongly-typed** languages are more efficient, **weakly-typed** systems are less effort on programming.

Inferring Expression Types

- How do we determine the type of an expression?
- Think of process as **logical inference**.

Ex:



Sample Inference Rules

- “If x is an **identifier** that refers to an object of **type t** , then x has type t .”
- “If e is an **integer constant**, then e has type **int**.”
- “If the operands e_1 and e_2 of $e_1 + e_2$ are known to have types **int** and **int**, then $e_1 + e_2$ has type **int**.”

Type Checking as Proofs

- We begin with a set of **axioms**, then apply our **inference rules** to determine the types of expressions.
- We will encode our **axioms** and **inference rules** using this syntax:

Preconditions

Postconditions

- This is read “if **preconditions** are true, we can infer **postconditions**.”

Formal Notation for Type Systems

- We write

$$\vdash e : T$$

if the expression **e** has type **T**.

- The symbol \vdash means “we can infer...”

Our Starting Axioms

$\vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}$

$\vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}$

Without any hypotheses, it is provable that both **true** and **false constants** have type Boolean.

Some Simple Inference Rules

i is an integer constant

$\vdash i : \text{int}$

s is a string constant

$\vdash s : \text{string}$

d is a double constant

$\vdash d : \text{double}$

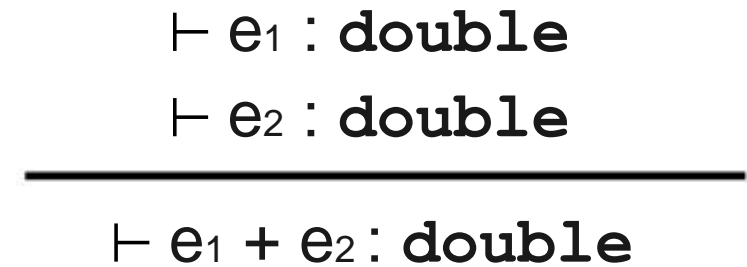
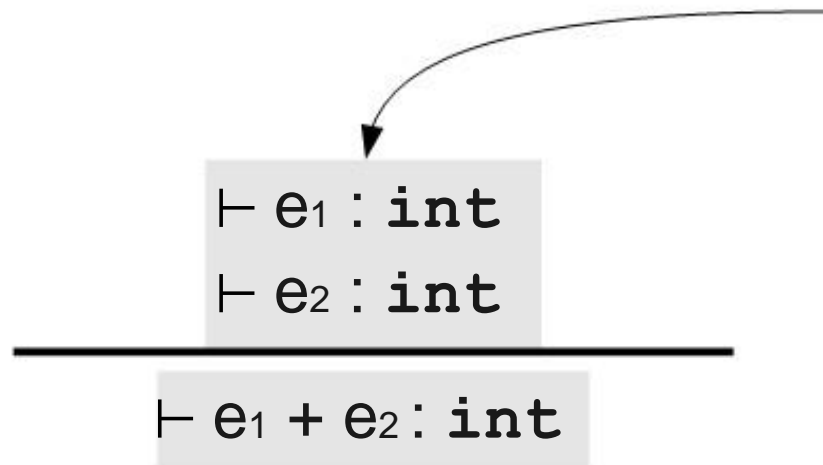
e : *bool*

$\vdash !e : \text{bool}$

Negation of *e*

More Complex Inference Rules

If we can show that e_1
and e_2 have type `int`...



... then we can show
that $e_1 + e_2$ has type `int` as well

Even More Complex Inference Rules

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \vdash e_1 : T \\ \vdash e_2 : T \\ T \text{ is a primitive type} \end{array}}{\vdash e_1 == e_2 : \mathbf{bool}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \vdash e_1 : T \\ \vdash e_2 : T \\ T \text{ is a primitive type} \end{array}}{\vdash e_1 != e_2 : \mathbf{bool}}$$

Why Specify Types this Way?

- Gives a **rigorous definition of types** independent of any particular implementation.
- Gives **maximum flexibility in implementation.**
- Allows formal verification of program properties.
This is what's **used in the literature.**

Strengthening our Inference Rules

- Since the same object may have different types in different scopes, we need to strengthen our inference rules to remember under what circumstances the inference rules are valid.
- We write $S \vdash e : T$
if in scope S , the expression e has type T .
- Types are now proven relative to the scope they are in.

Old Rules Revisited

$$S \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}$$

$$S \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}$$

i is an integer constant

$$S \vdash i : \text{int}$$

s is a string constant

$$S \vdash s : \text{string}$$

d is a double constant

$$S \vdash d : \text{double}$$
$$S \vdash e_1 : \text{double}$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : \text{double}$$

$$S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{double}$$
$$S \vdash e_1 : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : \text{int}$$

$$S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}$$

Rule for Identifier

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} x \text{ is an identifier.} \\ x \text{ is a variable in scope } S \text{ with type } T. \end{array}}{S \vdash x : T}$$

Rules for Functions

f is an identifier.

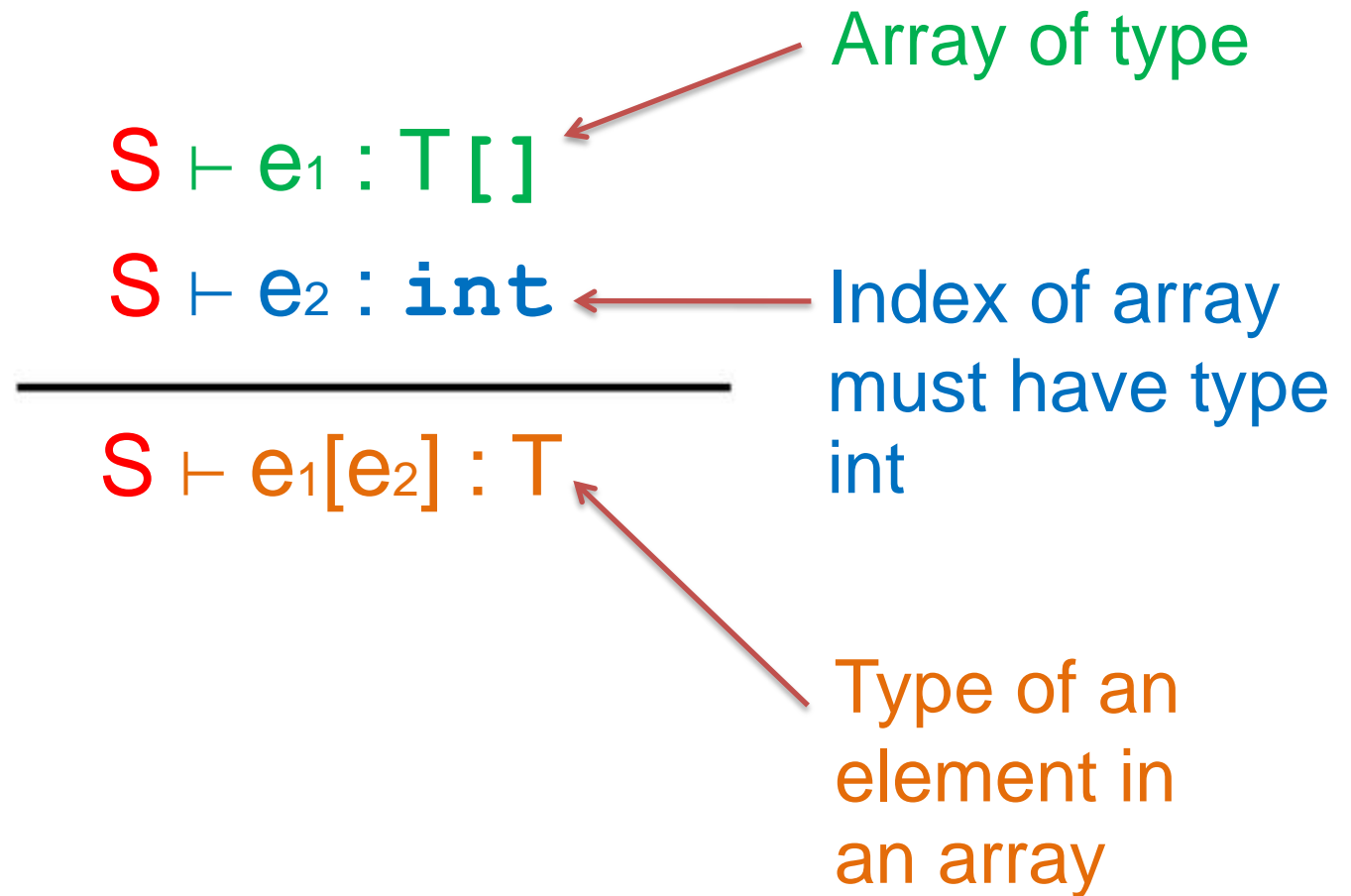
f is a function in scope S .

f has type $(T_1, \dots, T_n) \rightarrow U$

$S \vdash e_i : T_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

$S \vdash f(e_1, \dots, e_n) : U$

Rules for Arrays



Rule for Assignment

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} S \vdash e_1 : T \\ S \vdash e_2 : T \end{array}}{S \vdash e_1 = e_2 : T}$$

Rule for Assignment

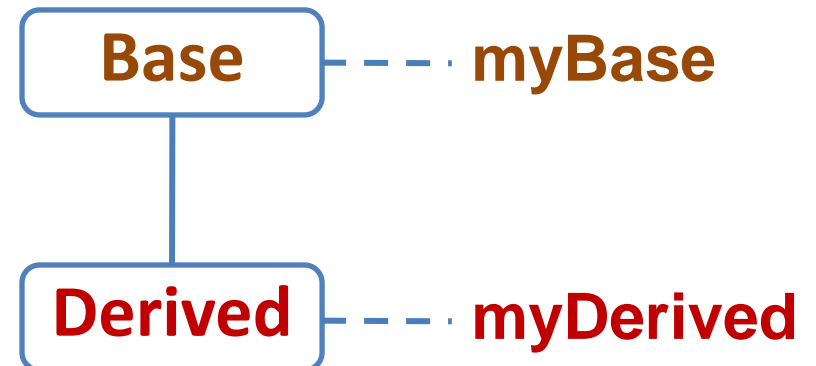
$$S \vdash e_1 : T$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : T$$

Problem

$$S \vdash e_1 = e_2 : T$$

If **Derived** extends **Base**, will this rule work for this code?

```
Base    myBase;  
Derived myDerived;  
myBase = myDerived;
```



- Some information in **myDerived** will be thrown away after the assignment statement.
- We need **partial orders** to solve this problem.

Properties of Inheritance Structures

- Any class is convertible to itself. (**Reflexivity**)
- If A is convertible to B and B is convertible to C, then A is convertible to C. (**Transitivity**)
- If A is convertible to B and B is convertible to A, then A and B are the same type. (**Antisymmetry**)
- The above properties define the **partial orders** over types.

- Base class has more objects, but fewer data and function members
- When we say the class is bigger, it means the class has more data and function members, i.e., Derived class is bigger than Base class.

Types and Partial Orders

- We say that $A \leq B$ if A is convertible to B .
- We have that
 - $A \leq A$
 - $A \leq B$ and $B \leq C$ implies $A \leq C$
 - $A \leq B$ and $B \leq A$ implies $A = B$

Types and Partial Orders

- **Bigger type** must be explicitly convertible to **Small type**. However, there might be a **lost in conversion**.

Ex: **double** x = 1234.7; **int** a;

 a = (int)**x**; // Cast **double** into **int**.

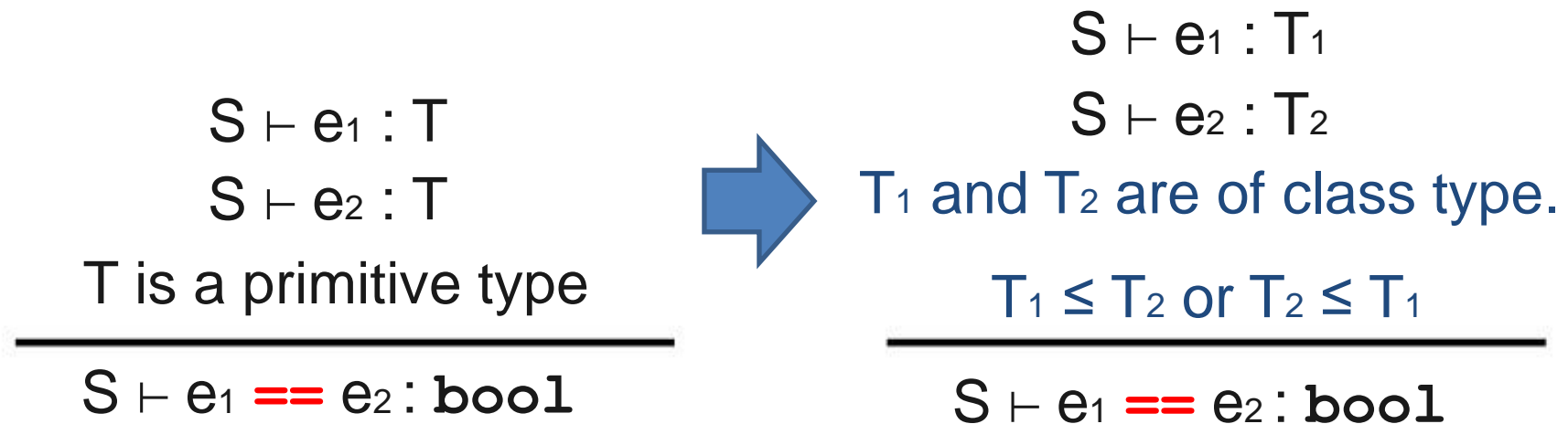
In OOP, subclass (bigger) \leq superclass (smaller), not vice versa.

- There are pairs of types (/classes) that can not be convertible (neither implicit nor explicit). E.g. In C#, string is not convertible with Integer.

Updated Rule for Assignment

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} S \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ S \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ T_2 \leq T_1 \end{array}}{S \vdash e_1 = e_2 : T_1}$$

Updated Rule for Comparisons



This makes the comparison between
int and string impossible.

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if (( (x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

Something is wrong here !

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if (( (x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

x is an identifier.
 x is a variable in scope S with type T .

$$S \vdash x : T$$

Facts
$S \vdash x : \text{int}$
$S \vdash y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash z : \text{int}$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} S \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ S \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ T_1 \leq T_2 \text{ or } T_2 \leq T_1 \end{array}}{S \vdash e_1 == e_2 : \mathbf{bool}}$$

Facts
$S \vdash \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{int}$
$S \vdash \mathbf{y} : \mathbf{int}$
$S \vdash \mathbf{z} : \mathbf{int}$
$S \vdash \mathbf{x} == \mathbf{y} : \mathbf{bool}$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

i is an integer constant

$S \vdash i : \text{int}$

Facts
$S \vdash x : \text{int}$
$S \vdash y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash z : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x == y : \text{bool}$
$S \vdash 5 : \text{int}$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$S \vdash e_1 : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : \text{int}$$

$$S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}$$

Facts

$$S \vdash x : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash z : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x == y : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash 5 : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash \mathbf{x + y} : \text{int}$$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} S \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \\ S \vdash e_2 : \text{int} \end{array}}{S \vdash e_1 < e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

Facts
$S \vdash x : \text{int}$
$S \vdash y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash z : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x == y : \text{bool}$
$S \vdash 5 : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x + y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash \mathbf{x + y < z} : \text{bool}$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} S \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ S \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ T_1 \leq T_2 \text{ or } T_2 \leq T_1 \end{array}}{S \vdash e_1 == e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

Facts
$S \vdash x : \text{int}$
$S \vdash y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash z : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x == y : \text{bool}$
$S \vdash 5 : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x + y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x + y < z : \text{bool}$
$S \vdash x == z : \text{bool}$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if (((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} S \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \\ S \vdash e_2 : \text{int} \end{array}}{S \vdash e_1 > e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

Facts
$S \vdash x : \text{int}$
$S \vdash y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash z : \text{int}$
$S \vdash \mathbf{x == y} : \text{bool}$
$S \vdash \mathbf{5} : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x + y : \text{int}$
$S \vdash x + y < z : \text{bool}$
$S \vdash x == z : \text{bool}$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if (((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$S \vdash e_1 : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : \text{int}$$

$$S \vdash e_1 > e_2 : \text{bool}$$

> Error: Cannot compare int and bool

Facts

$$S \vdash x : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash z : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash \mathbf{x == y} : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash \mathbf{5} : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x + y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x + y < z : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash x == z : \text{bool}$$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if (((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$S \vdash e_1 : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : \text{bool}$$

$$S \vdash e_1 \text{ \&\& } e_2 : \text{bool}$$

```
> Error: Cannot compare int and bool  
Error: Cannot compare ??? and bool
```

Facts

$$S \vdash x : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash z : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x == y : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash 5 : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x + y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x + y < z : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash x == z : \text{bool}$$

Example: Type Inference

```
int x, y, z;  
if ( ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

$$S \vdash e_1 : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash e_2 : \text{bool}$$

$$S \vdash e_1 \text{ || } e_2 : \text{bool}$$

```
> Error: Cannot compare int and bool  
Error: Cannot compare ??? and bool  
Error: Cannot compare ??? and bool
```

Facts

$$S \vdash x : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash z : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x == y : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash 5 : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x + y : \text{int}$$
$$S \vdash x + y < z : \text{bool}$$
$$S \vdash x == z : \text{bool}$$

Cascading Errors

- A **type error** occurs when we cannot prove the type of an expression.
- Type errors can easily **cascade**:
 - Can't prove a type for e_1 , so can't prove a type for $e_1 + e_2$, so can't prove a type for $(e_1 + e_2) + e_3$, etc.
 - Cascade of type error is annoying. Type error recovery method could be applied.

Cascading Errors

Solution (Type-Error Recovery)

- Define a new type called “**NoType**” which is a subtype of Boolean type. **NoType** \leq Boolean type.
- When we see **NoType**, we don’t produce an error message.

```
int x, y, z;  
if (((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
    Boolean           Int
```

$$\frac{S \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad S \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{S \vdash e_1 > e_2 : \text{bool}}$$

> Error: Cannot compare int with bool


After report an error, we conclude **(x==y) > 5** having **NoType**.

Cascading Errors

Solution

- Define a new type called “NoType” which is a subtype of Boolean type. $\text{NoType} \leq \text{Boolean type}$.
- When we see NoType, we don’t produce an error message.

```
int x, y, z;  
if (((x == y) > 5) && x + y < z) || x == z) {
```



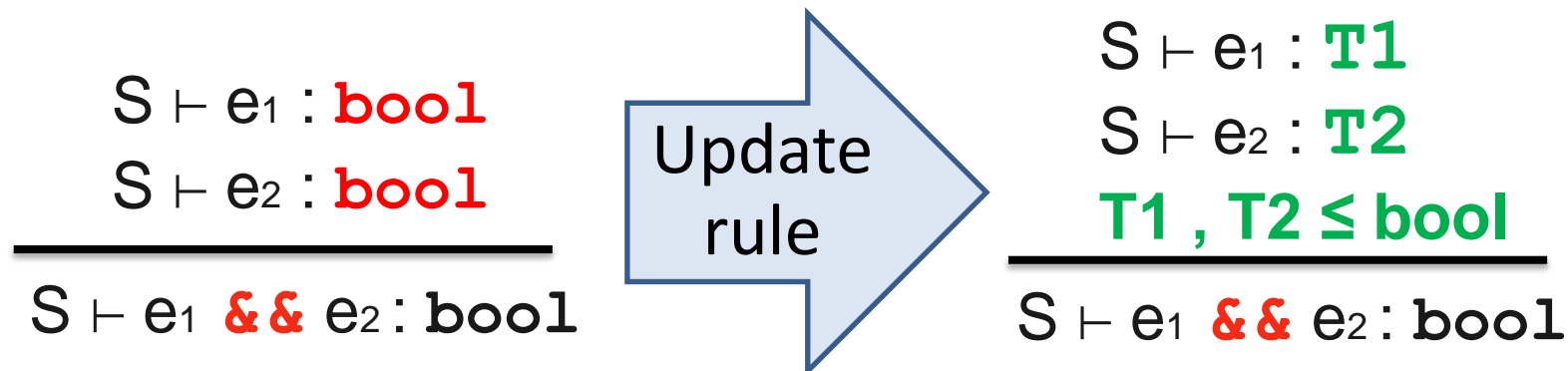
NoType **Bool**

Cascading Errors

Solution

- Define a new type called “NoType” which is a subtype of Boolean type. $\text{NoType} \leq \text{Boolean type}$.
- When we see NoType, we don't produce an error message.

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {
```



Cascading Errors

Solution

- Define a new type called “NoType” which is a subtype of Boolean type. $\text{NoType} \leq \text{Boolean type}$.
- When we see NoType, we don’t produce an error message.

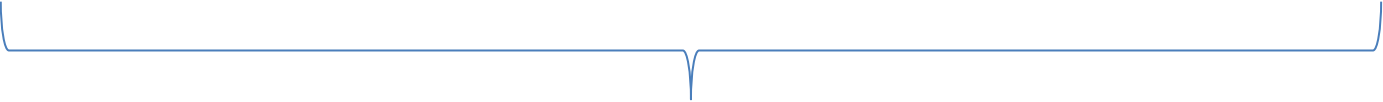
```
int x, y, z;  
if (((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
      
}
```

Bool Bool

Cascading Errors

Solution

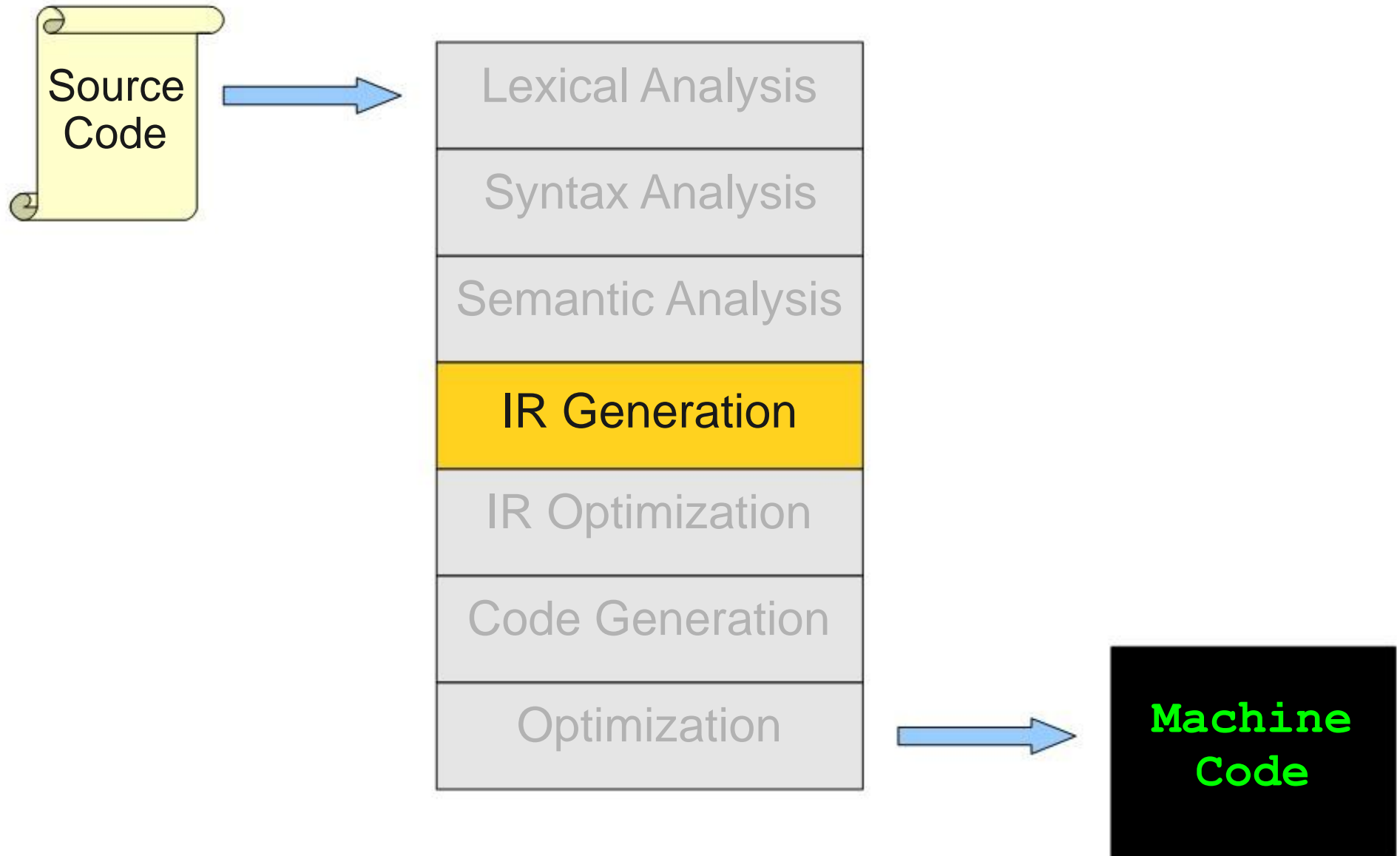
- Define a new type called “NoType” which is a subtype of Boolean type. $\text{NoType} \leq \text{Boolean type}$.
- When we see NoType, we don’t produce an error message.

```
int x, y, z;  
if ((x == y) > 5 && x + y < z) || x == z) {  
      
    Bool
```

No more error message.

IR Generation

Where We Are



What is IR Generation?

- **Intermediate Representation Generation.**
- The final phase of the compiler front-end.
- Goal: Translate the program into the format (**assembly-like**) expected by the compiler back-end.

Why do IR Generation?

- Working with an intermediate language makes **optimizations easier and clearer.**

Outline

- **Runtime Environments**
- **Three-Address Code**
- **TAC generation**

Runtime Environment

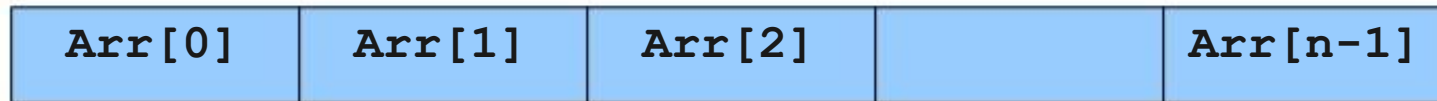
- A **runtime environment** is a **set of data structures** maintained at runtime (E.g. the stack, the heap, static data, etc.).
 - What do **objects** look like in memory?
 - What do **functions** look like in memory?
 - **Where** in memory should they be placed?
 - How are **function calls** implemented?

Encoding Primitive Types

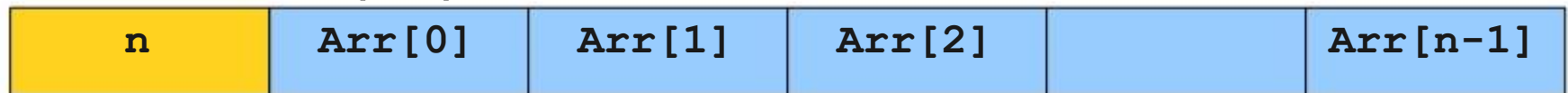
- **Primitive integral types** (`byte`, `char`, `short`, `int`, `long`, `unsigned`, `uint16_t`, etc.) typically map directly to the underlying machine type.
- **Primitive real-valued types** (`float`, `double`, `long double`) typically map directly to underlying machine type.
- **Pointers** typically implemented as **integers** holding memory addresses.

Encoding Arrays

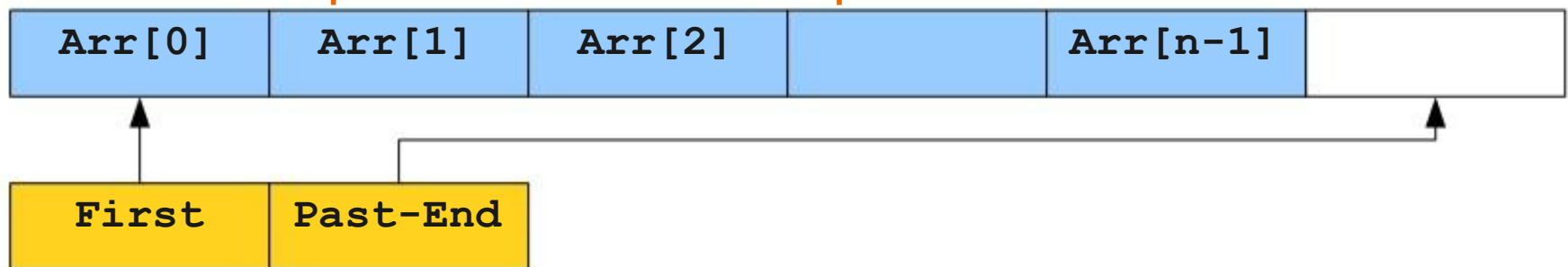
- **C-style** arrays: Elements laid out consecutively in memory.



- **Java-style** arrays: Elements laid out consecutively in memory with **size information** prepended.



- **D-style** arrays: Elements laid out consecutively in memory; array variables store **pointers to first and past-the-end elements**.



D is a language with C-like syntax and static typing. (<http://dlang.org/index.html>)

Encoding Multidimensional Arrays

- Often represented as an array of arrays.

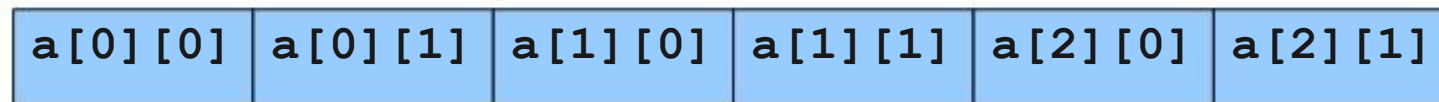
- C-style** arrays:

`int a[3][2];`

4 Bytes

How do you know an address for an element $a[i][j]$?

$$= \text{base address} + (i - 0) * 4 * 2 + (j - 0) * 4$$



Array of size 2

Array of size 2

Array of size 2

Row size

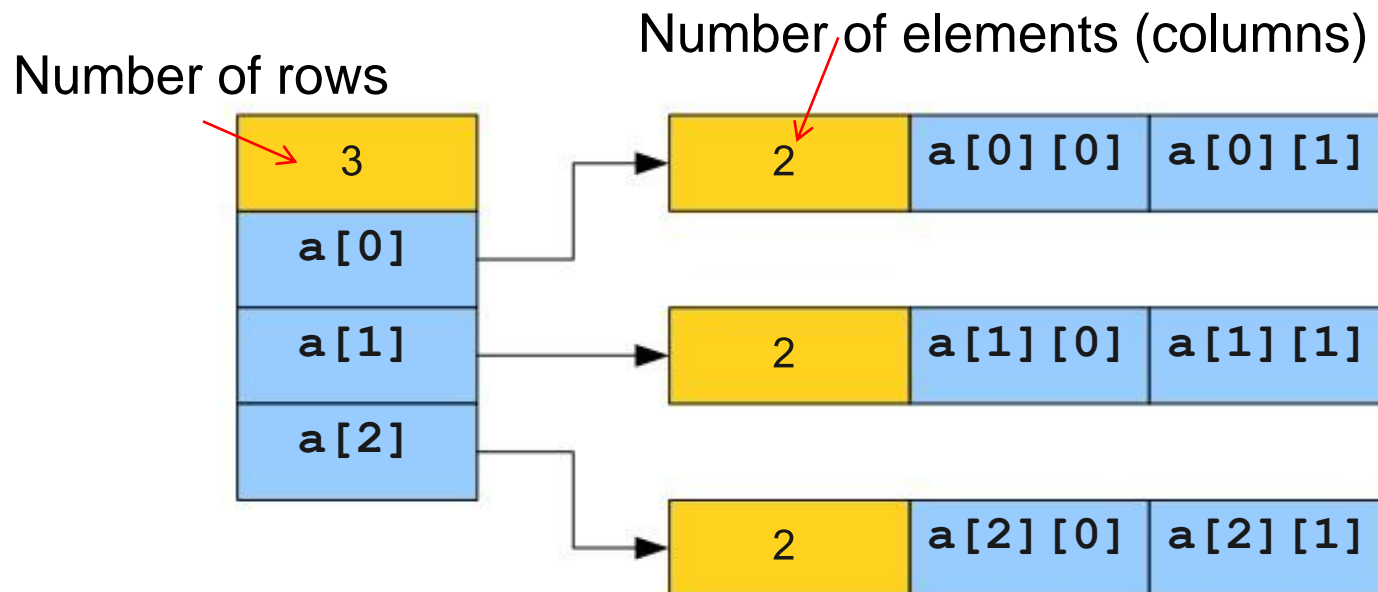
Element size

Base address

Encoding Multidimensional Arrays

- **Java-style** arrays:

```
int[][] a = new int [3][2];
```



Implementing Function Calls

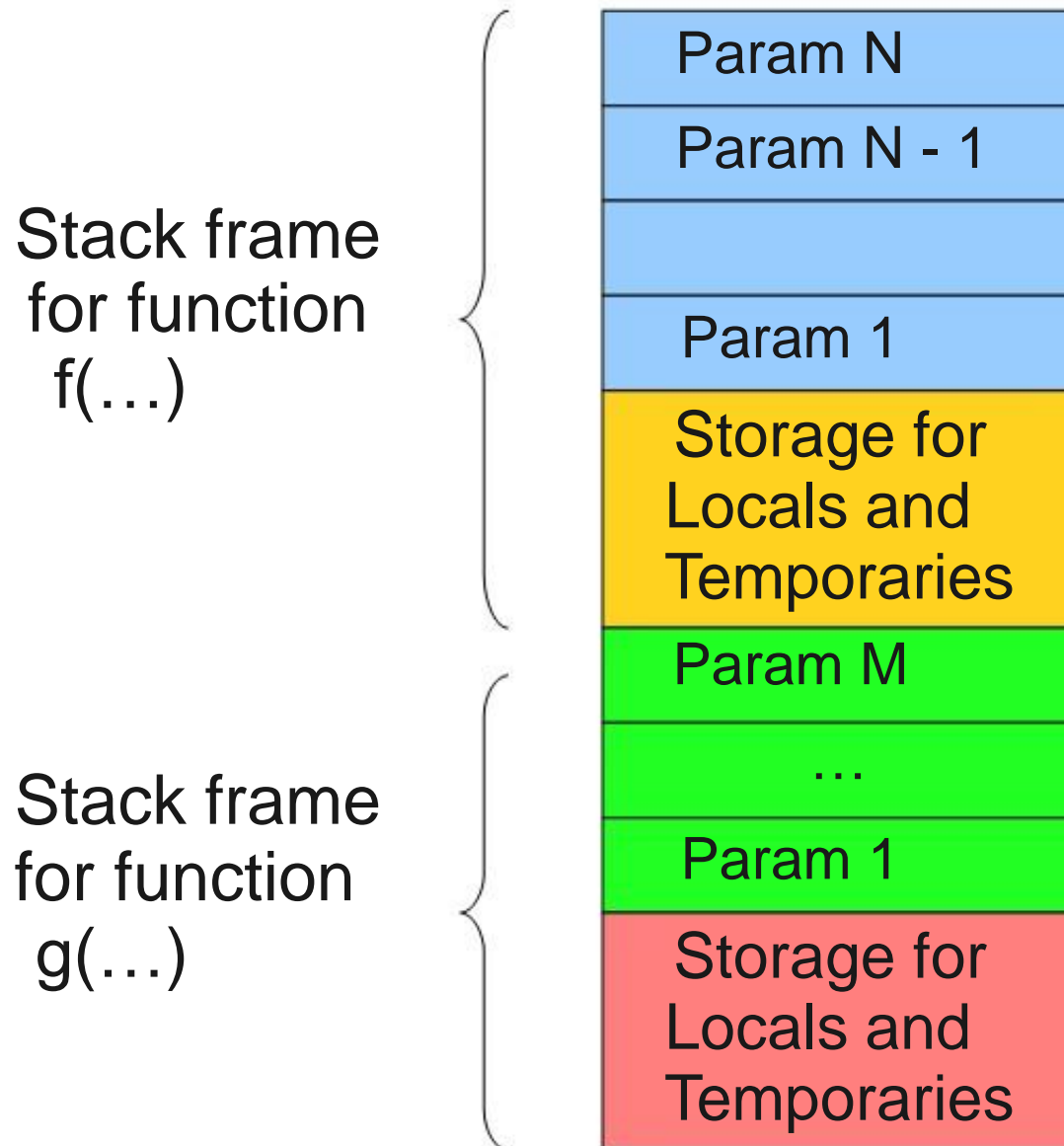
- Function calls are often implemented using a **stack of activation records** (or **stack frames**).
- **Calling** a function **pushes** a new activation record onto the stack.
- **Returning** from a function **pops** the current activation record from the stack.

Implementing Function Calls

- Each **activation record** needs to hold
 - All of its **parameters**.
 - All of its **local variables**.
 - All **temporary variables**.
- **Caller** responsible for pushing and popping space for callee's **arguments**.
- **Callee** responsible for pushing and popping space for its own **temporaries**.



A Logical Stack Frame (Logical Activation Record)



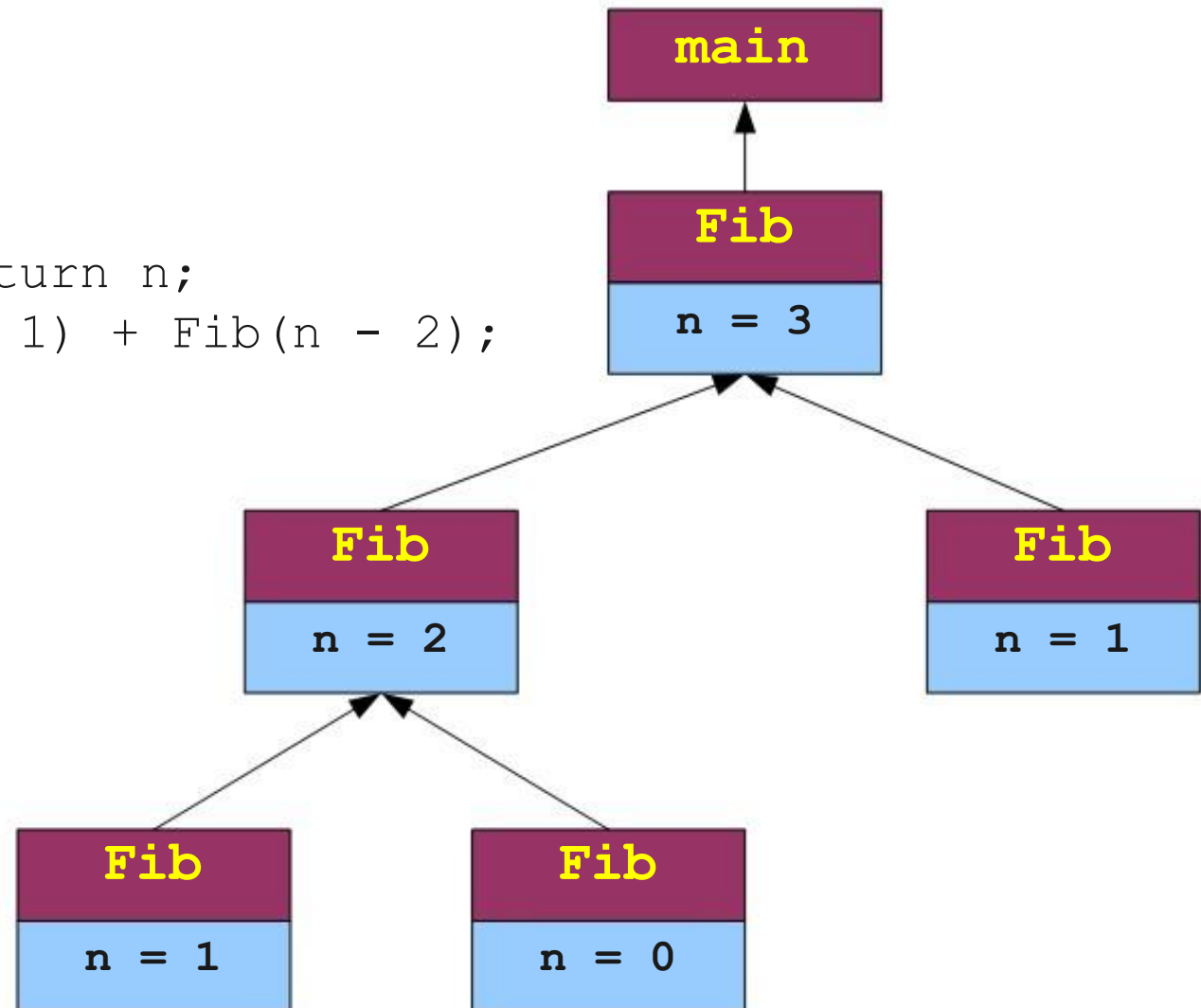
Activation Trees

- An **activation tree** is a tree structure representing all of the function calls made by a program on execution.
- Each **node** in the tree is an **activation record**.
- Each activation record stores a **control link** to the activation record of the function that invoked it.

Activation Trees

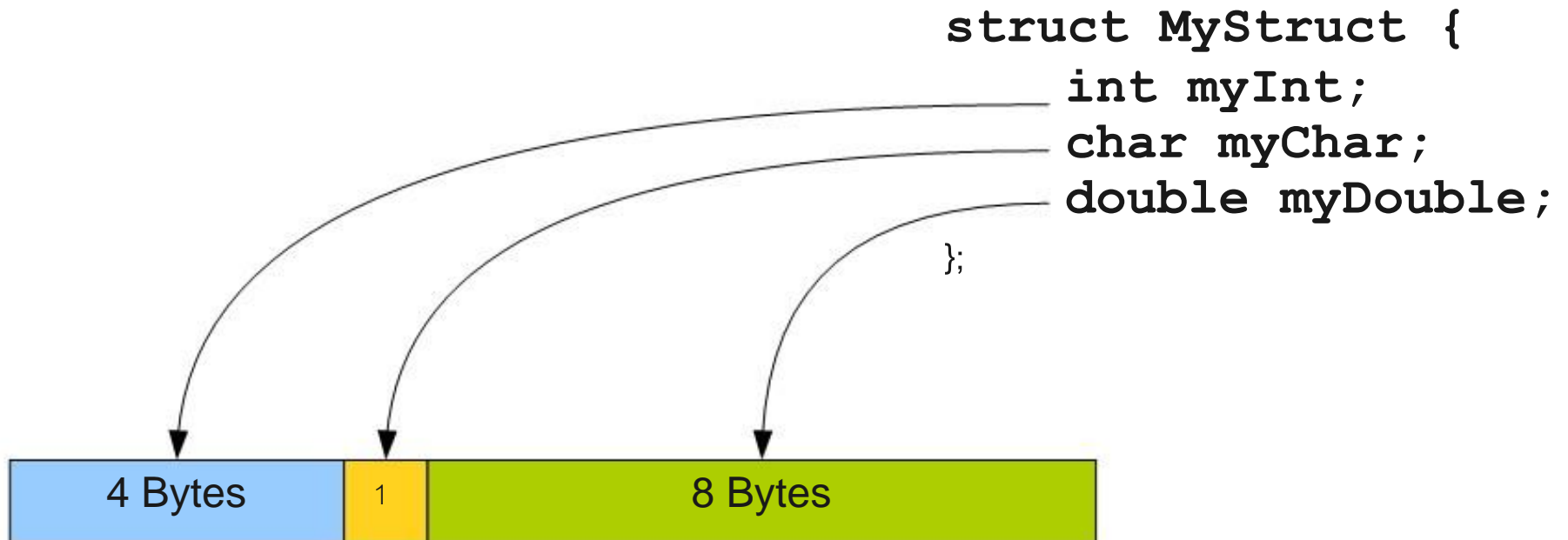
```
int main() {  
    Fib(3);  
}
```

```
int Fib(int n) {  
    if (n <= 1) return n;  
    return Fib(n - 1) + Fib(n - 2);  
}
```

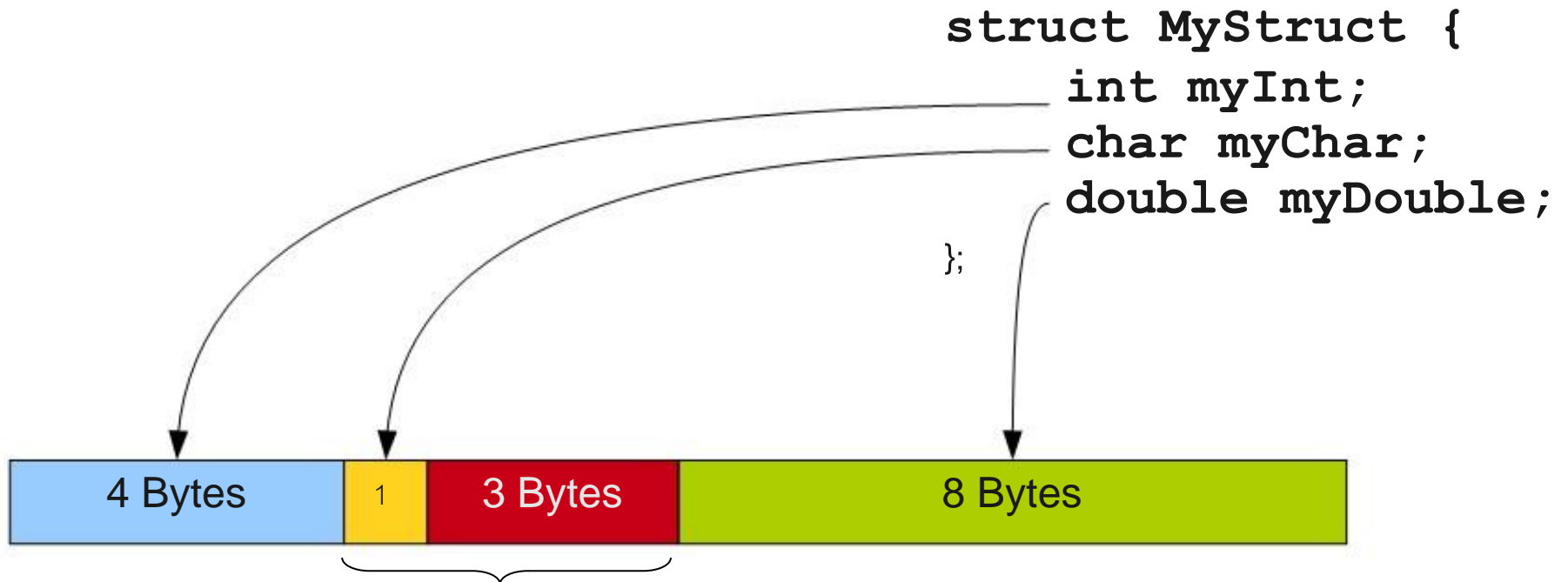


Encoding C-Style `struct`s

- A **struct** is a type containing a collection of named values.
- Most common approach: lay each field out in the order it's declared.



Encoding C-Style structs



Physical memory layout : Assume that memory is allocated **4-byte/block**

OOP Inheritance

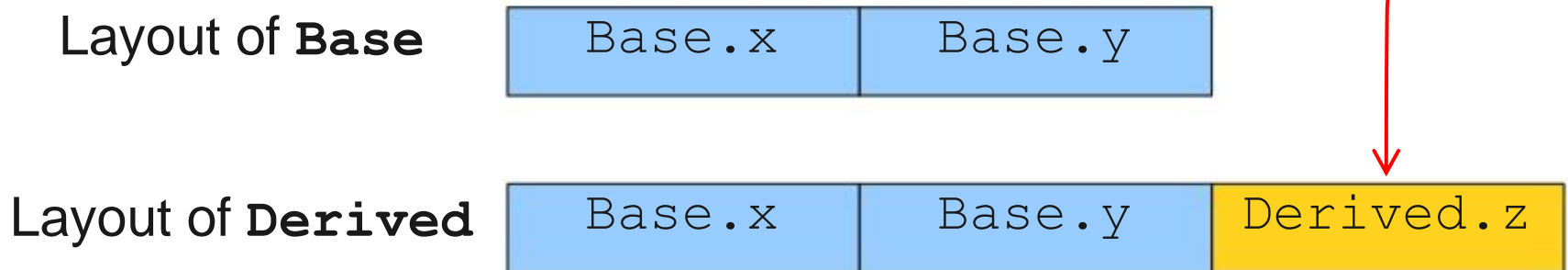
- Consider the following code:

```
class Base {  
    int x;  
    int y;  
}  
class Derived extends Base {  
    int z;  
}
```

- What will **Derived** look like in memory?

An Observation

- Child object has the same memory layout as parent objects.
- Child object needs more space to place the newly added fields



Implementing Dynamic Dispatch

- **Dynamic dispatch** means determining which function to call at runtime based on the dynamic type of the object.

Example:

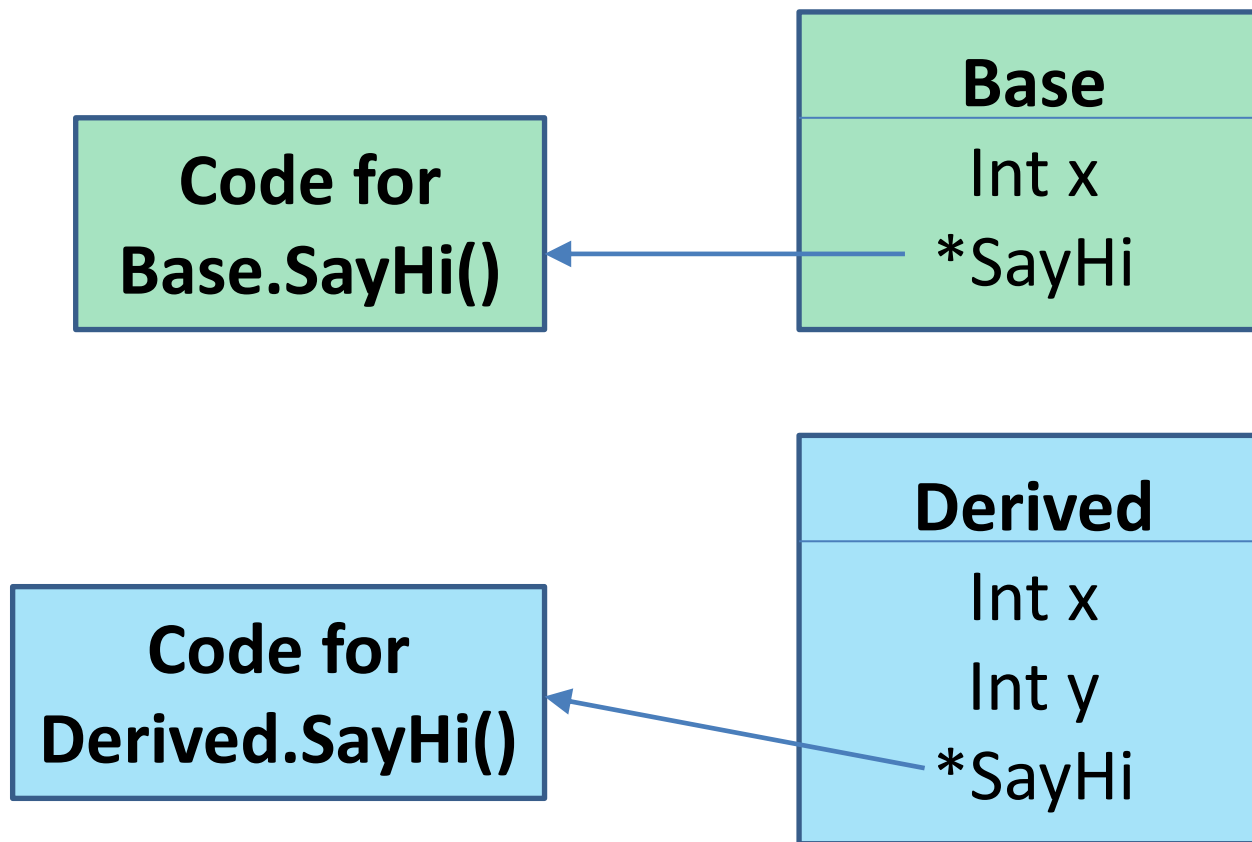
```
class Base {  
    int x;  
    void sayHi() {  
        Print("Base");  
    }  
}
```

```
class Derived extends Base {  
    int y;  
    void sayHi() {  
        Print("Derived");  
    }  
}
```

Virtual function tables can solve the problem.

Virtual Function Tables

- A **virtual function table** (or **vtable**) is an array of pointers to the code of the member function for a particular class.



This is a Pretty Good Idea

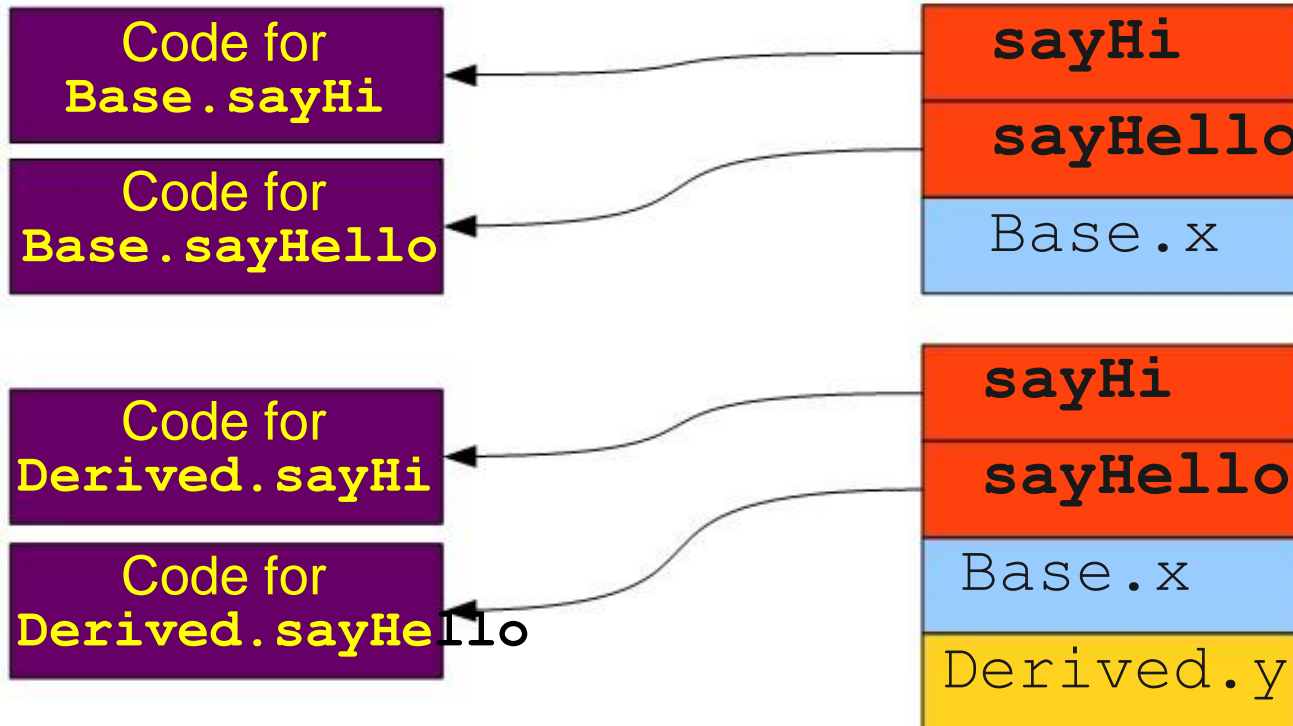
- Advantages:
 - Time to determine function to call is $O(1)$.
- What are the disadvantages?
 - Each object has its own virtual function table.
 - Wasteful space.

A Common Optimization

```
class Base {  
    int x;  
    void sayHi() {  
        Print("Base1");  
    }  
    void sayHello() {  
        Print("Base2");  
    }  
}
```

```
class Derived extends Base {  
    int y;  
    void sayHi() {  
        Print("Derived1");  
    }  
    Derived sayHello() {  
        Print("Derived2");  
    }  
}
```

Before optimization

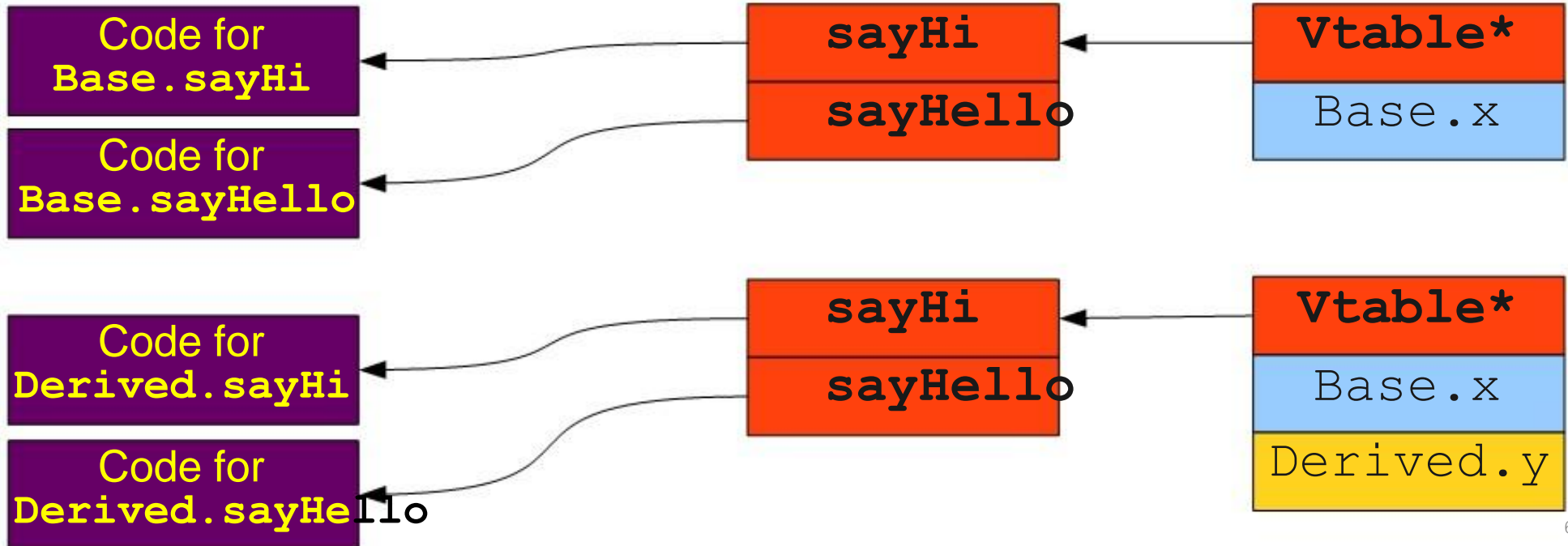


A Common Optimization

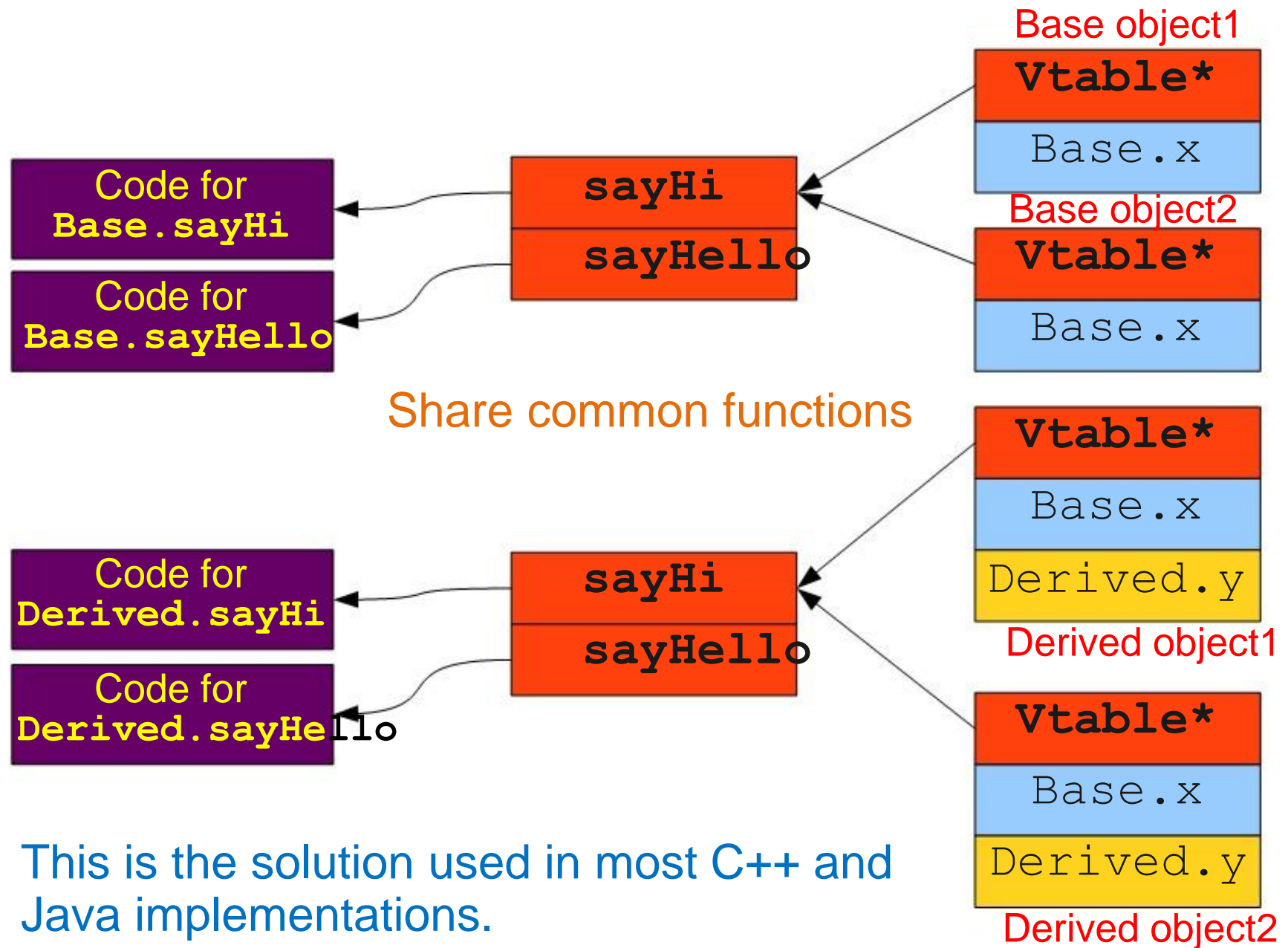
```
class Base {  
    int x;  
    void sayHi() {  
        Print("Base1");  
    }  
    void sayHello() {  
        Print("Base2");  
    }  
}
```

```
class Derived extends Base {  
    int y;  
    void sayHi() {  
        Print("Derived1");  
    }  
    Derived sayHello() {  
        Print("Derived2");  
    }  
}
```

After optimization



Objects in Memory



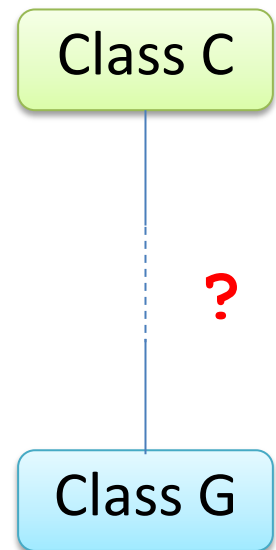
Implementing Dynamic Type Checks

Dynamic Type Checks

- Some languages require dynamic type checking.

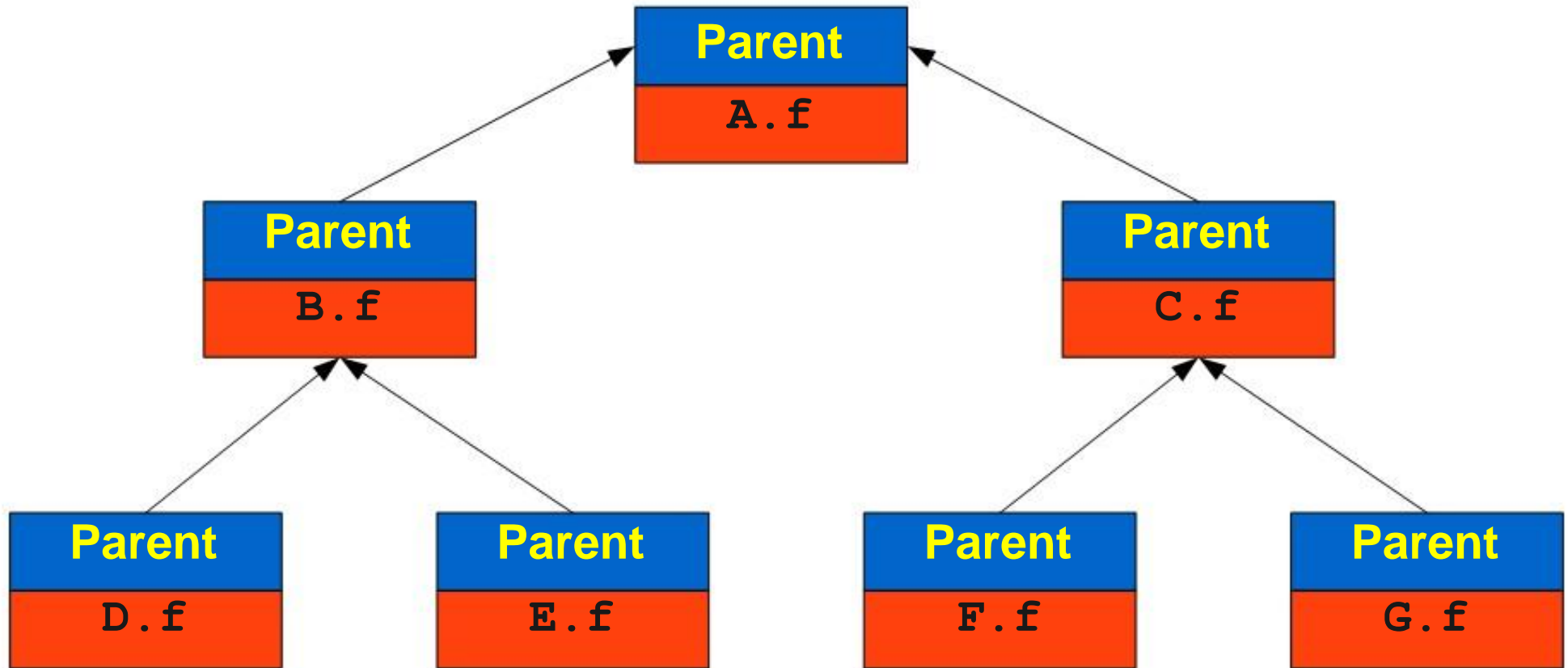
Ex:

```
If (...)
    G myObject = New instance of B
Else
    G myObject = New instance of C
if (myObject instanceof C) {
    /* ... */
}
```



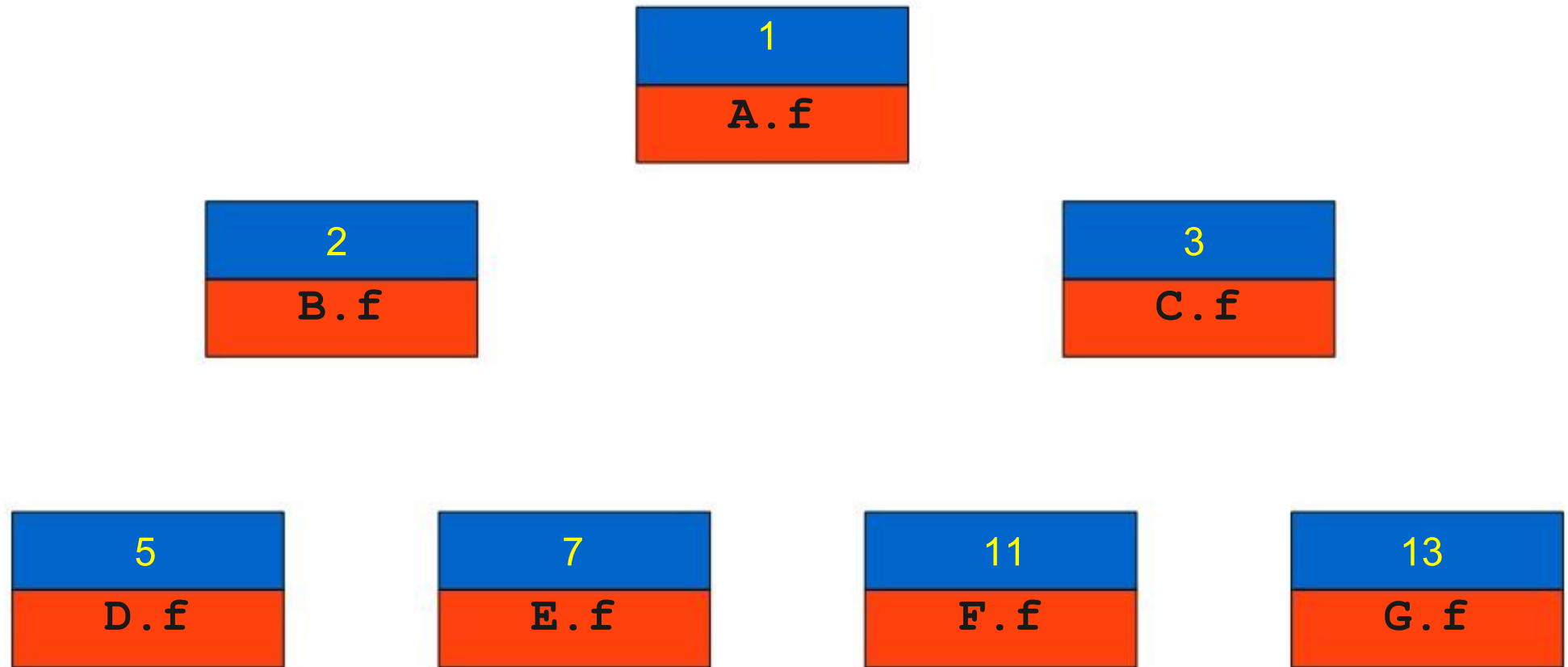
- May want to determine whether the dynamic type is **convertible** to some other type.
- How can we implement this?

Example



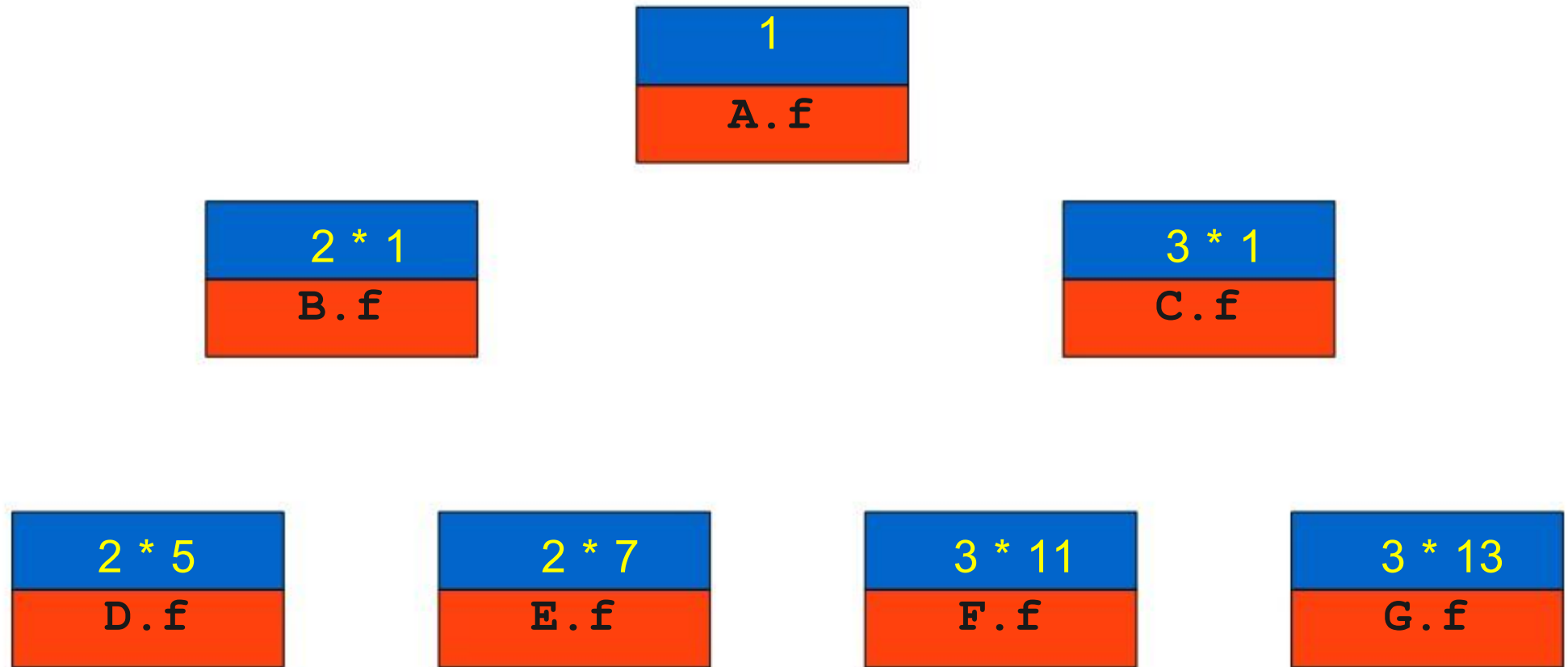
It takes $O(\log n)$ time to find out whether X is convertible to Y .
Is there any better idea ?

A Marvelous Idea



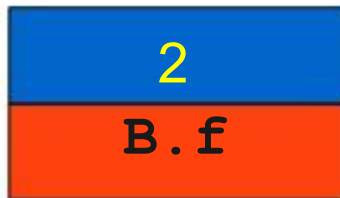
These are prime numbers.

A Marvelous Idea

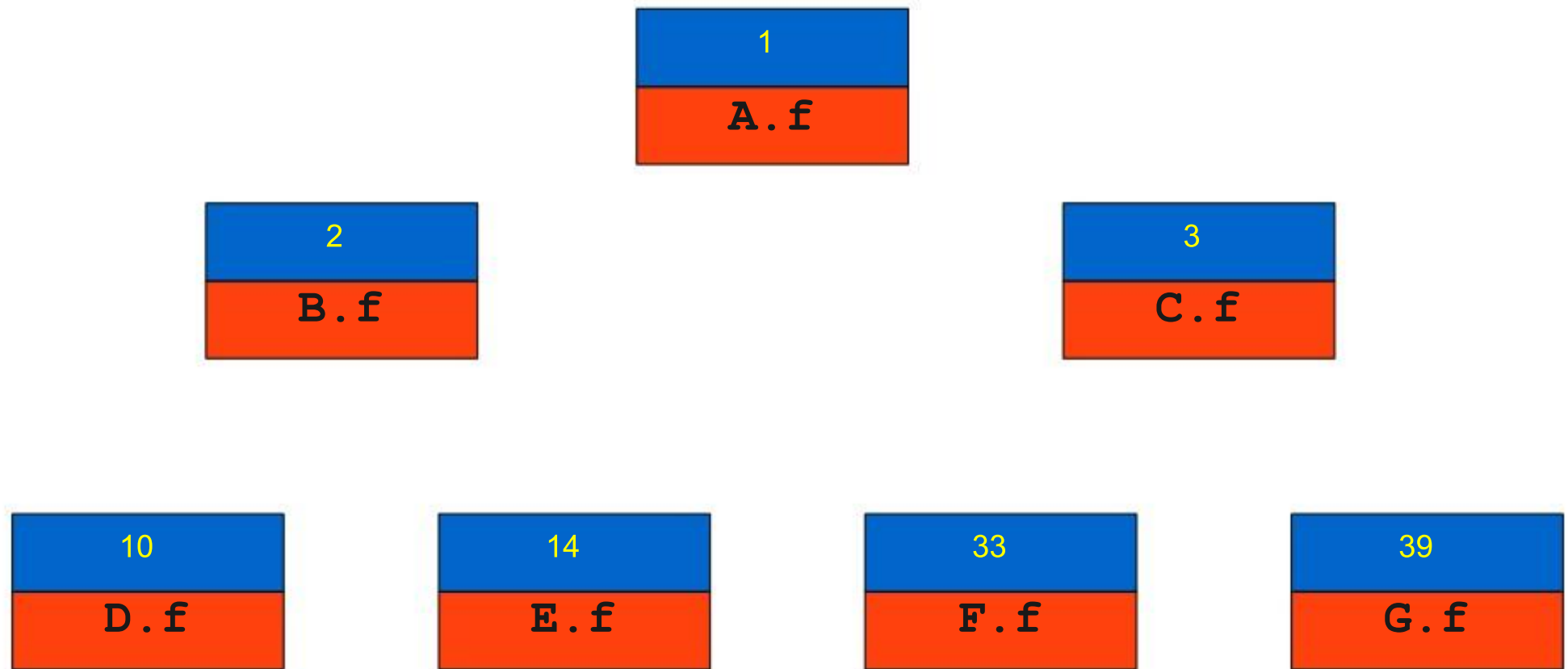


Multiply prime numbers of the class and it's parent.

A Marvelous Idea

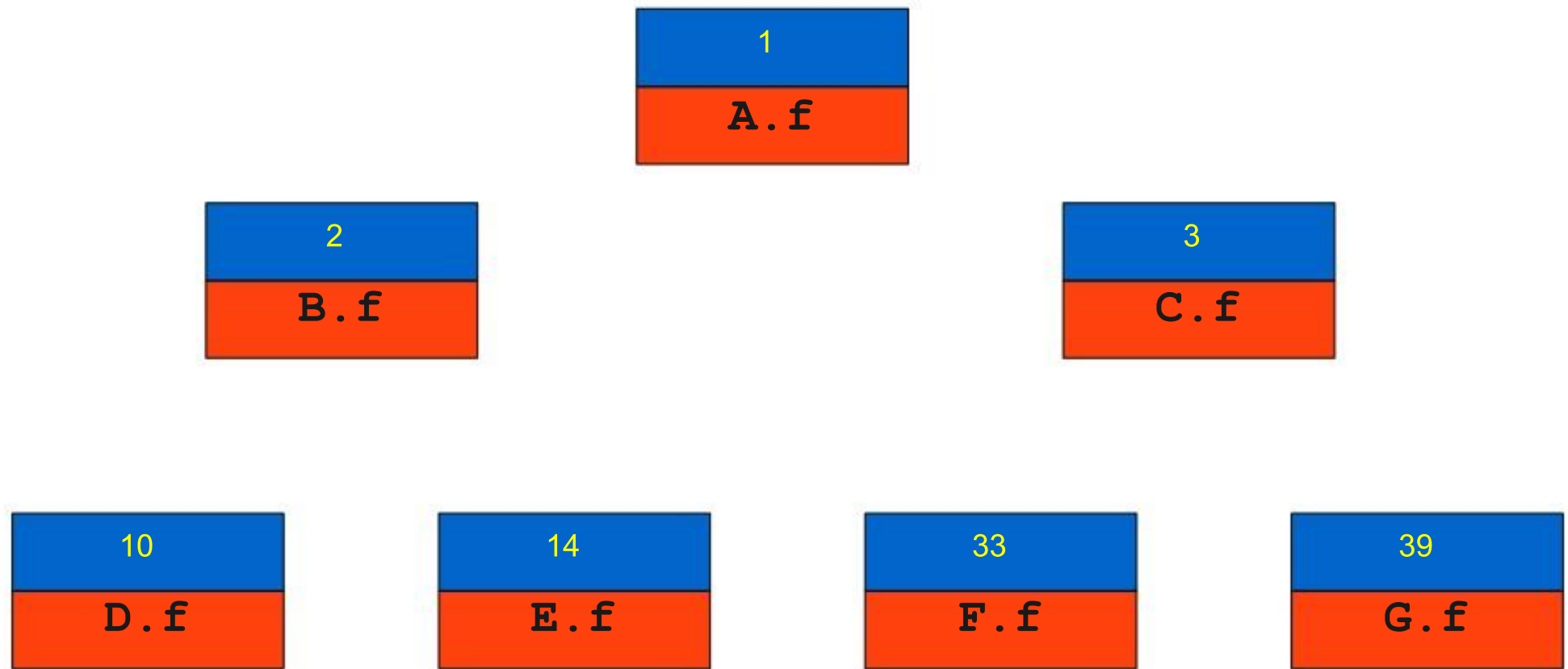


A Marvelous Idea



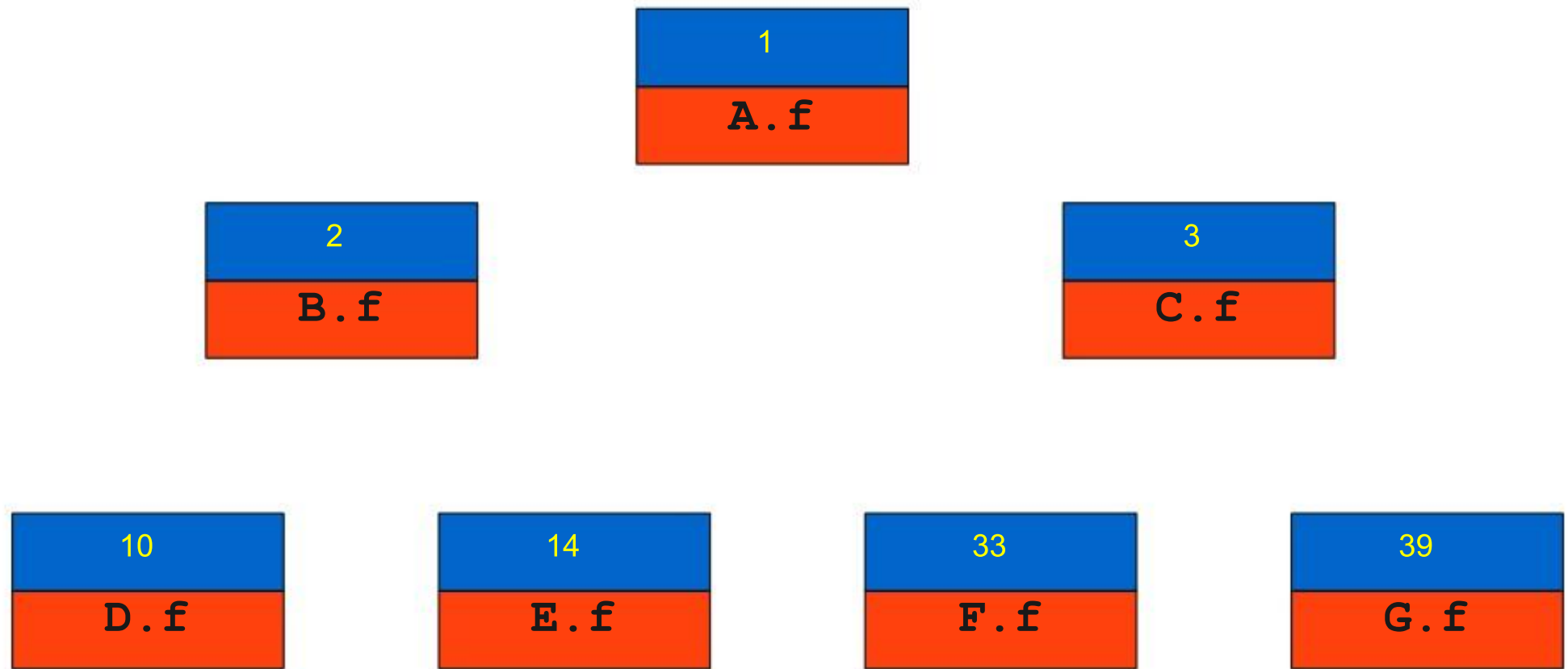
```
G myObject = /* ... */  
if (myObject instanceof C) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

A Marvelous Idea



```
G myObject = /* ... */  
if (myObject->vtable.key % 3 == 0) {  
    /* ... */  
}
```

A Marvelous Idea



```
G myObject = /* ... */  
if (39 % 3 == 0) { // myObject is an instance of class C  
    /* ... */  
}
```