STATICS

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Reading: PFPL, §4.1, 4.2

1 The phase distinction

The lifetime of a computer program is divided into two phases:

- the **static** phase which comprises everything that occurs *before* running a program; and
- the **dynamic** phase which comprises everything that happens when a program is actually run.

Thus, the **statics** of a program include things such as lexing, parsing, type-checking, static analysis, etc. In contrast, the **dynamics** of a program include its runtime behaviour: final value, side-effects, exceptions, etc.

In this unit both the statics and the dynamics of a PL will be specified in a fairly idealised, mathematical manner. We will use **abstract syntax** as the syntax of our program; this will absolve us from having to deal with lexing, parsing, grammars, and so on. Our only statics will be a **type system** for this abstract syntax.

Correspondingly, our dynamics will be given by specifying the **operational semantics** of our programs. These will also be presented in a mathematical style, by specifying a little **abstract machine** that evaluates a program.

2 Typing judgements

In this unit we will concern ourselves with **typing judgments** of the following form:

$$\underbrace{\Gamma}_{\text{context}} \vdash \underbrace{e}_{\text{term}} : \underbrace{\sigma}_{\text{type}}$$

A typing judgement is a ternary relation between three elements:

- the **context**—an unordered list Γ of variable-type bindings
- the term —the program e that is being typed
- the **type** of the term—which classifies what the program computes

We read $\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma$ as "the program e has type σ in context Γ ."

The **context** Γ consists of (variable, type) pairs. E.g. the context $\Gamma = x : \sigma, y : \tau$ declares two **free variables**:

- x, which stands for a term of type σ
- y, which stands for a term of type τ

These are in no particular order: the context $x:\sigma,y:\tau$ is the same as the context $y:\tau,x:\sigma$.

Thus, we can read the judgement $x: \tau \vdash e: \sigma$ as follows: "assuming that the free variable x stands for a program that computes a value of type τ , the program e computes a value of type σ ."

We will only say that "e is a **term**" if there exist Γ and σ such that the judgement $\Gamma \vdash e : \sigma$ is evident. However, we will identify a larger class of programs, which we will call **pre-terms**. These will have the same 'shape' as terms, but they will not necessary be well-typed. In short, the well-typed pre-terms will be called terms.

Finally, in this unit we will only consider so-called **simple types**, which will come from an inductively generated syntax (see next section).

3 A little language of numbers and strings

To illustrate the aforementioned concepts we will present the statics of a language of numbers and strings.

The abstract syntax, types, and pre-terms of the language are presented by the following syntax chart.

```
numbers
types
                        Num
                        Str
                                                               strings
pre-terms e := x
                                                               variables
                        num[n]
                                                               numeral
                                                               string literals
                        str[s]
                                                               addition
                        \mathsf{plus}(e_1; e_2)
                                          e_1 + e_2
                        \mathsf{times}(e_1; e_2) \quad e_1 * e_2
                                                               multiplication
                         cat(e_1; e_2)
                                          e_1 +\!\!\!\!+ e_2
                                                               concatenation
                         len(e)
                                                               length
                        let(e_1; x. e_2) let e_1 \Leftarrow x in e_2 let-definition
```

This notation is sometimes called an extended Backus-Naur form. It generates syntax trees.

The first symbol represents the **syntactic category** (e.g. type τ , expression e, etc.).

The second column (immediately to the right of ::=) is the **abstract syntax**: it corresponds closely to the way you would represent the expression in a high-level functional programming language as an abstract syntax tree. Subscripted occurrences (e.g. e_1 , e_2) are recursive occurrences of the same syntactic element. For example, $\mathsf{cat}(e_1; e_2)$ is an expression, provided e_1 and e_2 are also expressions. We tacitly assume $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $s \in \Sigma^*$ for some alphabet Σ . We also tacitly assume that variables x come from some predetermined, infinite supply.

The third column is the **concrete syntax**: it is a user-friendly abbreviation for the abstract syntax.

In this language a type τ is either a Num or a Str. A pre-term e is given by one of the many forms listed above.

The following rules generate the typing judgements, and hence the well-typed **terms** of the language.

Some points about variables and binding:

- Writing $\Gamma, x : \sigma$ insinuates that x does not occur elsewhere in Γ .
- x is **bound** within e_2 in let $(e_1; x. e_2)$. Thus, it is subject to α -conversion.

An example derivation; for any $s \in \Sigma^*$:

In words: if we plug in a program that computes a string for x: Str, this program will append the string $s \in \Sigma^*$ to it; it will then compute its length, and add 1 to it.