

Programming Languages

Values and Types

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What are Value and Type?

- **Value** anything that exist, that can be computed, stored, take part in data structure.
Constants, variable content, parameters, function return values, operator results...
- **Type** set of values of same kind.
C types:
 - `int`, `char`, `long`,...
 - `float`, `double`
 - `pointers`
 - `structures`: `struct`, `union`
 - `arrays`

■ Haskell types

- Bool, Int, Float, ...
- Char, String
- tuples, (N-tuples), records
- lists
- functions

■ Python types

- bool, int, float, complex
- str, bytes, tuple, list, set, dict
- classes, functions

■ Each type represents a set of values. Is that enough?

What about the following set? Is it a type?

`{"ahmet", 1 , 4 , 23.453, 2.32, 'b'}`

- Values should exhibit a similar behavior. The **same** group of operations should be defined on them.

Primitive vs Composite Types

- **Primitive Types:** Values that cannot be decomposed into other sub values.
C: int, float, double, char, long, short, pointers
Haskell: Bool, Int, Float, function values
Python: bool, int, float, str, functions
- **cardinality of a type:** The number of distinct values that a datatype has. Denoted as: " $\#Type$ ".
 $\#Bool = 2$ $\#char = 256$ $\#short = 2^{16}$
 $\#int = 2^{32}$ $\#double = 2^{32}, \dots$
- What does cardinality mean? How many bits required to store the datatype?

User Defined Primitive Types

- **enumerated types**

```
enum days {mon, tue, wed, thu, fri, sat, sun};  
enum months {jan, feb, mar, apr, .... };
```

- **ranges** (Pascal and Ada)

```
type Day = 1..31;  
var g:Day;
```

- **Discrete Ordinal Primitive Types** Datatypes values have one to one mapping to a range of integers.

C: Every ordinal type is an alias for integers.

Pascal, Ada: distinct types

- DOPT's are important as they

- i. can be array indices, switch/case labels

- ii. can be used as for loop variable (some languages like pascal)

Composite Datatypes

User defined types with composition of one or more other datatypes. Depending on composition type:

- Cartesian Product (struct, tuples, records)
- Disjoint union (union (C), variant record (pascal), Data (haskell))
- Mapping (arrays, functions)
- Powerset (set datatype (Pascal))
- Recursive compositions (lists, trees, complex data structures)

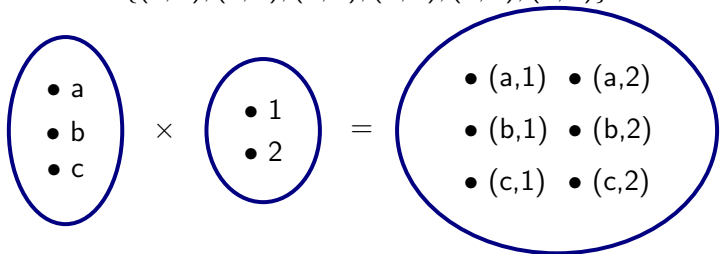
Cartesian Product

■ $S \times T = \{(x, y) \mid x \in S, y \in T\}$

■ Example:

$$S = \{a, b, c\} \quad T = \{1, 2\}$$

$$S \times T = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (b, 1), (b, 2), (c, 1), (c, 2)\}$$



■ $\#(S \times T) = \#S \cdot \#T$

- C struct, Pascal record, functional languages **tuple**
- **in C:** $\text{string} \times \text{int}$

```
struct Person {
    char name[20];
    int no;
} x = {"Osman_Hamdi", 23141};
```

- **in Haskell:** $\text{string} \times \text{int}$

```
type People=(String,Int)
...
x = ("Osman_Hamdi", 23141)::People
```

- **in Python:** $\text{string} \times \text{int}$

```
x = ( "Osman_Hamdi", 23141)
type(x)
<type 'tuple'>
```

- Multiple Cartesian products:

C: $\text{string} \times \text{int} \times \{\text{MALE}, \text{FEMALE}\}$

```
struct Person {
    char name[20];
    int no;
    enum Sex {MALE, FEMALE} sex;
} x = {"Osman_Hamdi", 23141, FEMALE};
```

Haskell: $\text{string} \times \text{int} \times \text{float} \times \text{string}$

```
x = ("Osman_Hamdi", 23141, 3.98, "Yazar")
```

Python: $\text{str} \times \text{int} \times \text{float} \times \text{str}$

```
x = ("Osman_Hamdi", 23141, 3.98, "Yazar")
```

Homogeneous Cartesian Products

$$S^n = \overbrace{S \times S \times S \times \dots \times S}^n$$

double⁴ :

```
struct quad { double x,y,z,q; };
```

- $S^0 = \{()\}$ is 0-tuple.
- **not** empty set. A set with a single value.
- terminating value (nil) for functional language lists.
- C **void**. Means no value. Error on evaluation.
- Python: `()` . **None** used for no value.

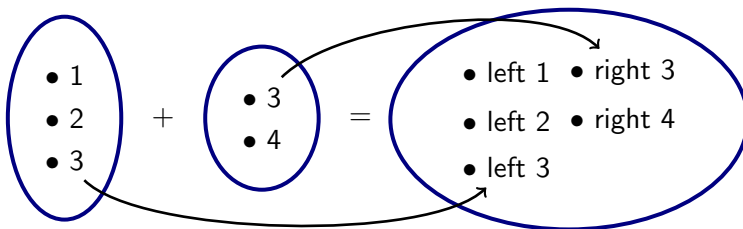
Disjoint Union

■ $S + T = \{\text{left } x \mid x \in S\} \cup \{\text{right } x \mid x \in T\}$

■ Example:

$$S = \{1, 2, 3\} \quad T = \{3, 4\}$$

$$S + T = \{\text{left } 1, \text{left } 2, \text{left } 3, \text{right } 3, \text{right } 4\}$$



■ $\#(S + T) = \#S + \#T$

■ C union's are disjoint union?

■ C: int + double:

```
union number { double real; int integer; } x;
```

■ C union's are not safe! Same storage is shared. Valid field is unknown:

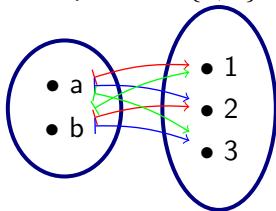
```
x.real=3.14; printf("%d\n",x.integer);
```

■ Haskell: Float + Int + (Int × Int):

```
data Number = RealVal Float | IntVal Int | Rational (Int,Int)
x = Rational (3,4)
y = RealVal 3.14
z = IntVal 12      {-- You cannot access different values --}
```

Mappings

- The set of all possible mappings
- $S \mapsto T = \{V \mid \forall(x \in S)\exists(y \in T), (x \mapsto y) \in V\}$
- Example: $S = \{a, b\}$ $T = \{1, 2, 3\}$



Each color is a value in the mapping. Other 6 values are not drawn

$$S \mapsto T = \{\{a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 1\}, \{a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 2\}, \{a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 3\}, \\ \{a \mapsto 2, b \mapsto 1\}, \{a \mapsto 2, b \mapsto 2\}, \{a \mapsto 2, b \mapsto 3\}, \\ \{a \mapsto 3, b \mapsto 1\}, \{a \mapsto 3, b \mapsto 2\}, \{a \mapsto 3, b \mapsto 3\}\}$$

- $\#(S \mapsto T) = \#T^{\#S}$

Arrays

- `double a[3]={1.2,2.4,-2.1};`
 $a \in (\{0, 1, 2\} \mapsto \text{double})$
 $a = (0 \mapsto 1.2, 1 \mapsto 2.4, 2 \mapsto -2.1)$
- Arrays define a mapping from an integer range (or DOPT) to any other type
- **C:** $T \ x[N] \Rightarrow x \in (\{0, 1, \dots, N-1\} \mapsto T)$
- Other array index types (Pascal):

```

type
  Day = (Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat, Sun);
  Month = (Jan, Feb, Mar, Apr, May, Jun, Jul, Aug, Sep, Oct, Nov, Dec);
var
  x : array Day of real;
  y : array Month of integer;
...
  x[Tue] := 2.4;
  y[Feb] := 28;

```

Functions

- C function:

```
int f(int a) {  
    if (a%2 == 0) return 0;  
    else return 1;  
}
```

- $f : \text{int} \mapsto \{0, 1\}$

regardless of the function body: $f : \text{int} \mapsto \text{int}$

- Haskell:

```
f a = if mod a 2 == 0 then 0 else 1
```

- in C, f expression is a pointer type $\text{int} (*) (\text{int})$
in Haskell it is a mapping: $\text{int} \mapsto \text{int}$

Array and Function Difference

Arrays:

- Values stored in memory
- Restricted: only integer domain
- `double` \rightarrow `double` ?

Functions

- Defined by algorithms
- Efficiency, resource usage
- All types of mappings possible
- Side effect, output, error, termination problem.

Cartesian Mappings

- Cartesian mappings:
`double a[3][4];`
`double f(int m, int n);`
- Cartesian mapping versus mappings of mappings:
 $\text{int} \times \text{int} \mapsto \text{double}$ and $\text{int} \mapsto (\text{int} \mapsto \text{double})$
- For cartesian mapping, you need two or more values to get the value of the mapping
- In mapping of mappings, you get a new mapping as you supply a value.

Cartesian Mapping vs Nested mapping

■ Pascal arrays

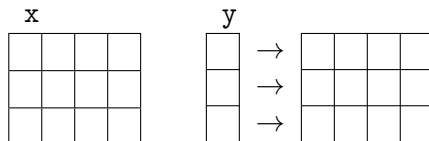
```
var
  x : array [1..3,1..4] of double;
  y : array [1..3] of array [1..4] of double;
...
x[1,3] := x[2,3]+1;      y[1,3] := y[2,3]+1;
```



Row operations:

y[1] := y[2] ; ✓

x[1] := x[2] ; ✗



- Haskell functions:

```
f (x,y) = x+y  
g x y = x+y  
...  
f (3+2)  
g 3 2
```

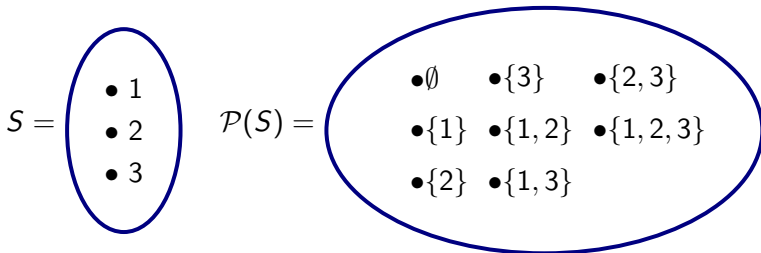
- `g 3` ✓
`f 3` ✗

- Reuse the old definition to define a new function:

```
increment = g 1  
increment 1  
2
```

Powerset

- $\mathcal{P}(S) = \{T \mid T \subseteq S\}$
- The set of all subsets
-



- $\#\mathcal{P}(S) = 2^{\#S}$

- Set datatype is restricted and special datatype. Only exists in **Pascal** and special set languages like **SetL**
- set operations (Pascal)

```

type
  color = (red, green, blue, white, black);
  colorset = set of color;
var
  a, b : colorset;
...
a := [red, blue];
b := a*b;                                (* intersection *)
b := a+[green, red];                      (* union *)
b := a-[blue];                            (* difference *)
if (green in b) then ...                  (* element test *)
if (a = []) then ...                      (* set equality *)

```

- in **C++** and **Python** implemented as class.

Recursive Types

- $S = \dots S \dots$
- Types including themselves in composition.

Lists

- $S = \text{Int} \times S + \{\text{null}\}$

$$S = \{\text{right empty}\} \cup \{\text{left}(x, \text{empty}) \mid x \in \text{Int}\} \cup \\ \{\text{left}(x, \text{left}(y, \text{empty})) \mid x, y \in \text{Int}\} \cup \\ \{\text{left}(x, \text{left}(y, \text{left}(z, \text{empty}))) \mid x, y, z \in \text{Int}\} \cup \dots$$

- $S =$
 $\{\text{right empty}, \text{left}(1, \text{empty}), \text{left}(2, \text{empty}), \text{left}(3, \text{empty}), \dots,$
 $\text{left}(1, \text{left}(1, \text{empty})), \text{left}(1, \text{left}(2, \text{empty})), \text{left}(1, \text{left}(3, \text{empty})), \dots$
 $\text{left}(1, \text{left}(1, \text{left}(1, \text{empty}))), \text{left}(1, \text{left}(1, \text{left}(2, \text{empty}))), \dots\}$

- C lists: pointer based. Not actual recursion.

```
struct List {  
    int x;  
    List *next;  
} a;
```

- Haskell lists.

```
data List = Left (Int,List) | Empty  
  
x = Left (1, Left(2, Left(3,Empty)))  {-- [1,2,3] list --}  
y = Empty                             {-- empty list, [] --}
```


- Polymorphic lists: a single definition defines lists of many types.
- $List\ \alpha = \alpha \times (List\ \alpha) + \{empty\}$

```
data List alpha = Left (alpha, List alpha) | Empty
```

```
x = Left (1, Left (2, Left (3, Empty)))      {-- [1,2,3] list --}
y = Left ("ali", Left ("ahmet", Empty))      {-- ["ali", "ahmet"] --}
z = Left (23.1, Left (32.2, Left (1.0, Empty))) {-- [23.1, 32.2, 1.0] --}
```

- $Left(1, Left("ali", Left(15.23, Empty))) \in List\ \alpha$? No.
Most languages only permits homogeneous lists.

Haskell Lists

- binary operator ":" for list construction:
data [alpha] = (alpha : [alpha]) | []
- `x = (1:(2:(3:[])))`
- Syntactic sugar:
`[1,2,3] ≡ (1:(2:(3:[])))`
`["ali"] ≡ ("ali":[])`

General Recursive Types

- $T = \dots T \dots$
- Formula requires a minimal solution to be representable:
 $S = \text{Int} \times S$
Is it possible to write a single value? No minimum solution here!
- List example:
 $x = \text{Left}(1, \text{Left}(2, x))$
 $x \in S$? Yes
can we process $[1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 2, \dots]$ value?
- Some languages like Haskell lets user define such values. All iterations go infinite. Useful in some domains though.
- Most languages allow only a subset of S , the subset of finite values.

- $Tree\ \alpha = empty + node\ \alpha \times Tree\alpha \times Tree\alpha$

$$Tree\ \alpha = \{empty\} \cup \{node(x, empty, empty) \mid x \in \alpha\} \cup \\ \{node(x, node(y, empty, empty), empty) \mid x, y \in \alpha\} \cup \\ \{node(x, empty, node(y, empty, empty)) \mid x, y \in \alpha\} \cup \\ \{node(x, node(y, empty, empty), node(z, empty, empty)) \mid x, y, z \in \alpha\} \cup \dots$$

- C++ (pointers and template definition)

```
template<class Alpha>
struct Tree {
    Alpha x;
    Tree *left, *right;
} root;
```

- Haskell

```
data Tree alpha = Empty |
                  Node (alpha, Tree alpha, Tree alpha)

x = Node (1, Node (2, Empty, Empty), Node (3, Empty, Empty))
y = Node (3, Empty, Empty)
```

Strings

- Language design choice:
 - 1 Primitive type (ML, Python):
Language keeps an internal table of strings
 - 2 Character array (C, Pascal, ...)
 - 3 Character list (Haskell, Prolog, Lisp)
- Design choice affects the complexity and efficiency of:
concatenation, assignment, equality, lexical order,
decomposition

Type Systems

- Types are required to provide data processing, integrity checking, efficiency, access controls. Type compatibility on operators is essential.
- Simple bugs can be avoided at compile time.
- Irrelevant operations:

```
y=true * 12;  
x=12; x[1]=6;  
y=5; x.a = 4;
```
- When to do type checking? Latest time is before the operation. Two options:
 - 1 Compile time → static type checking
 - 2 Run time → dynamic type checking

Static Type Checking

- Compile time type information is used to do type checking.
- All incompatibilities are resolved at compile time. Variables have a fixed time during their lifetime.
- Most languages do static type checking
- User defined constants, variable and function types:
 - Strict type checking. User has to declare all types (C, C++, Fortran,...)
 - Languages with type inference (Haskell, ML, Scheme...)
- No type operations after compilation. All issues are resolved. Direct machine code instructions.

Dynamic Type Checking

- Run-time type checking. No checking until the operation is to be executed.
- Interpreted languages like Lisp, Prolog, PHP, Perl, Python.
- Python:

```
def whichmonth(inp):  
    if isinstance(inp, int):  
        return inp  
    elif isinstance(inp, str):  
        if inp == "January":  
            return 1  
        elif inp == "February":  
            return 2  
        ....  
        elif inp == "December":  
            return 12  
    ...  
inp = input()      /* user input at run time? */  
month=whichmonth(inp)
```


- Run time decision based on users choice is possible.
- Has to carry type information along with variable at run time.
- Type of a variable can change at run-time (depends on the language).

Static vs Dynamic Type Checking

- Static type checking is **faster**. Dynamic type checking does type checking before each operation at run time. Also uses extra memory to keep run-time type information.
- Static type checking is more restrictive meaning **safer**. Bugs avoided at compile time, earlier is better.
- Dynamic type checking is less restrictive meaning more **flexible**. Operations working on dynamic run-time type information can be defined.

Type Equality

- $S \stackrel{?}{=} T$ How to decide?
 - **Name Equivalence**: Types should be defined at the same exact place.
 - **Structural Equivalence**: Types should have same value set. (mathematical set equality).
- Most languages use **name equivalence**.
- C example:

```
typedef struct Comp { double x, y;}   Complex;
struct COMP { double x,y; };

struct Comp a;
Complex b;
struct COMP c;

/* ... */
a=b;    /* Valid, equal types */
a=c;    /* Compile error, incompatible types */
```

Structural Equality

$S \equiv T$ if and only if:

- 1 S and T are primitive types and $S = T$ (same type),
- 2 if $S = A \times B$, $T = A' \times B'$, $A \equiv A'$, and $B \equiv B'$,
- 3 if $S = A + B$, $T = A' + B'$, and $(A \equiv A' \text{ and } B \equiv B')$ or $(A \equiv B' \text{ and } B \equiv A')$,
- 4 if $S = A \mapsto B$, $T = A' \mapsto B'$, $A \equiv A'$ and $B \equiv B'$,
- 5 if $S = \mathcal{P}(A)$, $T = \mathcal{P}(A')$, and $A \equiv A'$.

Otherwise $S \not\equiv T$

- Harder to implement structural equality. Especially recursive cases.
- $T = \{nil\} + A \times T$, $T' = \{nil\} + A \times T'$
 $T = \{nil\} + A \times T'$, $T' = \{nil\} + A \times T$
- `struct Circle { double x,y,a;};`
`struct Square { double x,y,a;};`
 Two types have a semantical difference. User errors may need less tolerance in such cases.
- Automated type conversion is a different concept. Does not necessarily conflicts with name equivalence.

```
enum Day {Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat, Sun} x;  
x=3;
```

Type Completeness

- First order values:
 - Assignment
 - Function parameter
 - Take part in compositions
 - Return value from a function
- Most imperative languages (Pascal, Fortran) classify functions as second order value. (C represents function names as pointers)
- Functions are first order values in most functional languages like Haskell and Scheme .
- Arrays, structures (records)?
- **Type completeness principle:** First order values should take part in all operations above, no arbitrary restrictions should exist.

C Types:

	Primitive	Array	Struct	Func.
Assignment	✓	×	✓	×
Function parameter	✓	×	✓	×
Function return	✓	×	✓	×
In compositions	✓	✓	✓	×

Haskell Types:

	Primitive	Array	Struct	Func.
Variable definition	✓	✓	✓	✓
Function parameter	✓	✓	✓	✓
Function return	✓	✓	✓	✓
In compositions	✓	✓	✓	✓

Pascal Types:

	Primitive	Array	Struct.	Func.
Assignment	✓	✓	✓	×
Function parameter	✓	✓	✓	×
Function return	✓	×	×	×
In compositions	✓	✓	✓	×

Expressions

Program segments that gives a value when evaluated:

- Literals
- Variable and constant access
- Aggregates
- Variable references
- Function calls
- Conditional expressions
- Iterative expressions (Haskell)

Literals/Variable and Constant Access

- **Literals:** Constants with same value with their notation
123, 0755, 0xa12, 12451233L, -123.342,
-1.23342e-2, 'c', '\021', "ayse", True, False

- **Variable and constant access:** User defined constants and variables give their content when evaluated.

```
int x;  
#define pi 3.1416  
x=pi*r*r
```

Aggregates

- Used to construct composite values without any declaration/definition. Haskell:

```
x=(12,"ali",True)           {-- 3 Tuple --}
y={name="ali", no=12}       {-- record  --}
f=\x -> x*x                 {-- function --}
l=[1,2,3,4]                 {-- recursive type, list --}
```

- Python:

```
x = (12, "ali", True)
y = [ 1, 2, [2, 3], "a"]
z = { 'name':'ali', 'no':'12' }
f = lambda x:x+1
```

■ Ansi C has aggregates

only at the definition. There is no aggregates in the statements!

```
struct Person { char name[20], int no };
struct Person p = {"Ali_Cin", 332314};
double arr[3][2] = {{0,1}, {1.2,4}, {12, 1.4}};
p={"Veli_Cin",123412}; × /* not possible in ANSI C!*/
```

■ C99 Compound literals allow array and structure aggregates

```
int (*arr)[2];
arr = {{0, 1}, {1.2,4}, {12, 1.4}}; ✓
p = (struct person) {"Veli_Cin",123412}; ✓ /* C99 */
```

■ C++11 has function aggregates (lambda)

```
void sort(int a[], int n, (*f)(int,int)) {
    ...
}
auto f = [](int a) { return a+1; } ;
...
sort(arr, n, [](int a, int b) { return a-b;});
n = f(n)
```

Variable References

- Variable access vs variable reference
- value vs l-value
- **pointers are not references!** You can use pointers as references with special operators.
- Some languages regard references like first order values (Java, C++ partially)
- Some languages distinguish the reference from the content of the variable (Unix shells, ML)

Function Calls

- $F(Gp_1, Gp_2, \dots, Gp_n)$
- Function name followed by actual parameter list. Function is called, executed and the returned value is substituted in the expression position.
- **Actual parameters:** parameters send in the call
- **Formal parameters:** parameter names used in function definition
- Operators can be considered as function calls. The difference is the infix notation.
- $\oplus(a, b)$ vs $a \oplus b$
- languages has built-in mechanisms for operators. Some languages allow user defined operators (operator overloading): C++, Haskell.

Conditional Expressions

- Evaluate to different values based on a condition.
- Haskell: `if condition then exp1 else exp2` .
`case value of p1 -> exp1 ; p2 -> exp2 ...`
- C: `(condition)?exp1:exp2` ;

```
x = (a>b)?a:b;  
y = ((a>b)?sin:cos)(x);      /* Does it work? try yourself... */
```

- Python: `exp1 if condition else exp2`
- `if .. else` in C is **not** conditional expression but conditional statement. No value when evaluated!

■ Haskell:

```
x = if (a>b) then a else b
y = (if (a>b) then (+) else ((*)) x y
data Day = Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun
convert a = case a of
    Left (x,rest) -> x : (convert rest)
    Empty -> []
daynumber g = case g of
    Mon -> 1
    Tue -> 2
    ...
    Sun -> 7
```

- case checks for a pattern and evaluate the RHS expression with substituting variables according to pattern at LHS.

Iterative Expressions

- Expressions that do a group of operations on elements of a list or data structure, and returns a value.
- $[\textit{expr} \mid \textit{variable} \leftarrow \textit{list} , \textit{condition}]$
- Similar to set notation in math:
 $\{ \textit{expr} \mid \textit{var} \in \textit{list}, \textit{condition} \}$
- Haskell:

```
x = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12]
y = [ a*2 | a <- x ]                {-- [2,4,6,8,...24 ] --}
z = [ a | a <- x, mod a 3 == 1 ]    {-- [1,4,7,10] --}
```

- Python:

```
x = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12]
y = [ a*2 for a in x ]              # [2,4,6,8,...24 ]
z = [ a for a in x if a % 3 == 1 ]  # [1,4,7,10]
z = { a:a*a for a in x }           # {1:1,4:16,7:49,10:100}
```


Block Expressions

- Some languages allow multiple/statements in a block to calculate a value.
- GCC extension for compound statement expressions:

```
double s, i, arr[10];  
s = ( { double t = 0;  
      for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)  
          t += arr[i];  
      t; } ) + 1;
```

Value of the last expression is the value of the block.

- ML has similar block expression syntax.
- This allows arbitrary computation for evaluation of the expression.

Summary

- Value and type
- Primitive types
- Composite types
- Recursive types
- When to type check
- How to type check
- Expressions