Type Systems

Pierce Ch. 3, 8, 11, 15

Goals

Define the simple language of expressions

A small subset of Lisp, with minor modifications

Define the type system of this language

Mathematical definition using standard machinery:

inference rules from formal logic

Understand the relationship between semantics and type systems

And more generally, the role of types in programming languages

A Simple Subset of Lisp (with minor tweaks)

const represents a numeric atom for a natural number (0, 1, 2, ...)

T and F are literal atoms for "true" and "false" (not like real Lisp)

IF-THEN-ELSE is part of real Lisp. In our fake language, if the first expression evaluates to **T**, we evaluate the second expression; if the first expression evaluates to **F**, we evaluate the third expression; otherwise undefined

INT, EQ, PLUS, LESS were defined in Project 3

Other Ways to Define the Syntax

Inductive definition: the smallest set S such that

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{ const, T, F } \subseteq S if E \in S, then (INT E) \in S if E<sub>1</sub>,E<sub>2</sub> \in S, then { (EQ E<sub>1</sub> E<sub>2</sub>), (PLUS E<sub>1</sub> E<sub>2</sub>), (LESS E<sub>1</sub> E<sub>2</sub>) } \subseteq S if E<sub>1</sub>,E<sub>2</sub>,E<sub>3</sub> \in S, then (IF E<sub>1</sub> THEN E<sub>2</sub> ELSE E<sub>3</sub>) \in S
```

Now the same thing, written as inference rules (formal logic)

const
$$\in$$
 ST \in SF \in Saxioms (no premises) $E \in$ S $E_1 \in$ S $E_2 \in$ S $E_1 \in$ S $E_2 \in$ S $E_2 \in$ S(INT E) \in S(EQ E1 E2) \in S(IF E1 THEN E2 ELSE E3) \in S

If we have established the premises (above the line), we can derive the conclusion (below the line)

Language Semantics

Defined in Project 3 through function *eval* "Running a program": expression evaluates to value, which is an atom T or F or const (IF F THEN 0 ELSE 31) evaluates to 31 (INT (PLUS 5 6)) evaluates to T Run-time error: when eval(E) is undefined (PLUS (EQ 1 2) 5) (IF 8 THEN 1 ELSE 2)

Can we prevent some of these errors?

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Type System and Type Checking

A type system can help us prove that certain programs are "good" without running them

If a program is well-typed, it will not "go wrong" at run time

Guarantees are only for **some** run-time errors, **not all**:

E.g. cannot assure the absence of "division by zero" or "array index out of bounds" or "CAR applied to an empty list" - they depend on particular values from a type

But can catch "PLUS with a boolean operand" error

Typed Expressions

Goal: without evaluating an expression, can we guarantee that its evaluation will not produce a runtime error? (static a.k.a. compile-time analysis)

Solution: define types, and establish a relationship between expressions and types

For our simple language

Type Bool = set of all expressions that evaluate to T or F Type Nat = set of all expressions that evaluate to const To determine that an expression E has type F (i.e., $F \in F$), will only look at the structure of E but will **not** evaluate E

Typing Relation

Relation : \subseteq S \times { Bool, Nat }

E: T is just another notation for $E \in T$

T : Bool

F: Bool

const : Nat

 E_1 : Bool E_2 : T E_3 : T

(IF E_1 THEN E_2 ELSE E_3): T

 $E_1: T_1 \ E_2: T_2$

 $(EQ E_1 E_2)$: Bool

E: T

(INT E): Bool

 E_1 : Nat E_2 : Nat

(PLUS $E_1 E_2$): Nat

 E_1 : Nat E_2 : Nat

(LESS $E_1 E_2$): Bool

Example: Typing Derivation

(IF (INT 5) THEN 6 ELSE (PLUS 7 8)):?

5 : Nat

(INT 5) : Bool

7: Nat **8**: Nat

(PLUS 7 8): Nat

(IF (INT 5) THEN 6 ELSE (PLUS 7 8)) : Nat

This structure is a derivation tree: the leaves are instances of axioms, the inner nodes are instances of non-axiom rules

6 : Nat

More on the Typing Relation

E is typable (or well-typed) if exists T such that E:T

In our type system, each well-typed expression has one type; in general, an expression may have multiple types (e.g., when the type system has subtypes)

Safety (a.k.a. soundness) of a type system: a welltyped program will not have a run-time error For our type system: for a well- typed **E:T** we know that *eval*(E) is defined and is a value of type T

This property does not work in the other direction: an expression which is not well-typed may or may have a run-time error (*conservative* static analysis)

(IF (INT 33) THEN 44 ELSE (PLUS T F)) is not well-typed but runs fine

Lists

Semantics: a value now can also be a list value

Either NIL, or CONS applied to a value and a list value

Typing: need to add list types of the form "List (T)"

Example: List (List (Nat))

Note that lists will be homogeneous – all elements will have the same type. This is not the case for real Lisp – lists there are heterogeneous.

Typing Relation

NIL: List (T) for any T

 $E_1:T$ $E_2:List(T)$

(CONS $E_1 E_2$): List (T)

E: List (T)

(NULL E): Bool

E : List (T)

(CAR E): T

E: List (T)

(CDR E) : List(T)

Example 1: (CONS (NULL NIL) (CONS F NIL))

Example 2: (CONS F T)

Example 3: (NULL NIL)

Example 4: (CONS (NULL NIL) (CONS 8 NIL))

Brief Overview of Terminology

Polymorphism

Statically vs dynamically typed languages

Type safety vs language safety

Polymorphism

- Poly = many, morph = form
- A piece of code has multiple types

Example 1: subtype polymorphism

- An expression has multiple types
- Typical for object-oriented languages (class Y extends X)

Example 2: parametric polymorphism

- E.g. f(x)=x has types Bool→Bool, Nat→Nat, ...
- Use a **type parameter** T; define type type $T \rightarrow T$
- Generics in C++ and Java e.g. Map<K,V>
- ML and similar functional languages

Example 3: coercion and overloading

Coercion and Overloading

Automatic coercion (conversion) to another type is performed silently: e.g. in Java byte can be "widened" to short, int, long, float, or double

- E.g. in assignment conversion, the right-hand-side is converted to the type of the left-hand-side var
- E.g. numeric promotion converts operands of a numeric operator to a common type, e.g. for +

Overloading: multiple definitions of the same name e.g. in Java name + has several types:

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double \times double \rightarrow doublefloat \times float \rightarrow floatlong \times long \rightarrow longint \times int \rightarrow intdouble \rightarrow doublefloat \rightarrow floatlong \rightarrow longint \rightarrow int
```

Terminology

Statically typed language: expressions have static (compile-time) types, and we do static type checking Goal: prove the absence of certain type-related bad behaviors before running the program Declared types: C/C++/Java/... (programmer gives types) Inferred types: ML/Haskell – no programmer-declared types; compiler infers, based on use in operators/functions Type safety: all bad behaviors of certain type-related kinds are excluded - e.g., Java, but not C (due to arbitrary typecasting in C)

Dynamically typed language: run-time checks to catch type-related bad behaviors (e.g. Lisp, Perl)

E.g., in our projects, PLUS must be applied to numbers

Terminology

Want more than static type safety – want language safety
Cannot "break" the abstractions of the language (typerelated and otherwise); e.g. no buffer overflows, seg faults,
return address overriding, garbage values, etc.

Example: C is unsafe for many reasons, one of which is the lack of type safety: e.g., double pi = 3.14; int* ptr = (int*) π int x = *ptr;

Other reasons: null pointers lead to seg faults (OS concept, not PL concept); buffer overflows lead to stack smashing & garbage values

Example: Java is safe – combination of static type safety & run-time checks. Static type safety ensures that an well-typed program will not do type-related "bad" things. Run-time checks catch things that cannot be caught statically via types: null pointers, array index out of bounds, etc.

Example: Lisp is safe – checks for type-related correctness ("operands of PLUS must be numbers") and special "bad" values (e.g. divide by 0)