

# Types

## A Type is a Set of Values

Consider the statement:

```
let mut n : i32;
```

Here we declare `n` to be a variable of type `i32`; what we mean, `n` can take on any value from the set of all 32 bit integer values.

# Types

**Def:** A type is a set of values.

**Def:** A primitive type is a type a programmer can use but not define.

**Def:** A constructed type is a user defined type.

Example: Java, primitive type

<u>float</u> q;	}	q is of type float, only a value that is a member of the set of all floating point values can be assigned to q.
type float $\Rightarrow$ set of all possible floating point values		

# Types

Example: Java, constructed type

```
class Rectangle { int xdim; int ydim; };
```

```
Rectangle r = new Rectangle();
```



Now the variable `c` only accepts values that are members of type `Rectangle`;  
☞ object instantiations of class `Rectangle`.

# Types

Example: Rust, constructed type

```
1 struct Rectangle { xdim: i32, ydim: i32}  
2  
3 fn main() {  
4     let r = Rectangle{xdim:3, ydim:4};  
5 }
```

an element of  
type Rectangle.

# Types

Example: C, constructed type

int a[3];

the variable a will accept values  
which are arrays of 3 integers.

e.g.: `int a[3] = {1,2,3};`  
`int a[3] = {7,24,9}`

Example: Rust, constructed type

let a : [i64;3] = ...;

the variable a will accept values  
which are arrays of 3 i64 integers.

# Subtypes

**Def:** a subtype is a subset of the elements of a type.

Example: Java

Short is a subtype of int:  $\text{short} \subset \text{int}$

Observations:

- (1) converting a value of a subtype to a values of the super-type is called widening type conversion. (safe)
- (2) converting a value of a supertype to a value of a subtype is called narrowing type conversion. (not safe)

Example: Java

$\text{float} \subset \text{double}$

Subtypes give rise to type hierarchies and type hierarchies allow for automatic type coercion – widening conversions!

# Subtypes

- Rust does NOT have subtypes
  - Therefore, it does NOT support automatic type coercion
  - It is an error in Rust to do:

```
let x : i64 = 3;  
let i : f64 = x;
```
  - You would have to explicitly cast the integer variable as a floating point:

```
let x : i64 = 3;  
let i : f64 = x as f64;
```

# Function Types

Rust and Haskell (as we will see) treat functions as just another data type that can be manipulated in a very elegant way.

- ☞ Functions can be passed as values; just as values that belong to other data types
- ☞ Functions belong to **function types**

Example: in Rust consider the function type

$\text{fn}(f64) \rightarrow f64$

This type represents the set of all functions from f64 to f64.

Looking at the Rust standard library `std::f64` we can find some examples from this set of functions

floor:  $\text{fn}(f64) \rightarrow f64$

ceil:  $\text{fn}(f64) \rightarrow f64$

round:  $\text{fn}(f64) \rightarrow f64$



# Function Types

## Example: Functions as values

```
1  fn myround (x:f64) -> i64 {  
2    x.round() as i64  
3  }  
4  
5  fn main () {  
6    let foo = myround;  
7    let v : i64 = foo(3.4);  
8    println!("{}", v);  
9  }
```

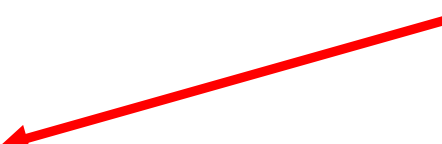
## Example: Functions as function arguments

☞ A function is just an element of a particular function set.

# Function Types

## Example: Functions as function arguments

```
1  fn myfloor (x:f64) -> i64 {  
2    x.floor() as i64  
3  }  
4  
5  fn myceil (x:f64) -> i64 {  
6    x.ceil() as i64  
7  }  
8  
9  fn myfun (x: fn(f64)->i64, v:f64) -> i64 {  
10    x(v)  
11  }  
12  
13  fn main () {  
14    println!("{}", myfun(mylfloor, 3.4));  
15    println!("{}", myfun(myceil, 3.4));  
16  }
```



☞ A function is just an element of a particular function set.

# Why do we use types?

- Types allow the computer/language system to assist the developer write better programs.  
Type mismatches in a program usually indicate some sort of programming error.
  - Static type checking – check the types of all statements and expressions at compile time.
  - Dynamic type checking – check the types at runtime.

# Type Equivalence

- I. Name (nominal) Equivalence – two objects are of the same type if and only if they share the same type name.

## Example: Rust

```
1 struct Type1 {x:i64, y:i64}
2 struct Type2 {x:i64, y:i64}
3
4 fn main () {
5     let x: Type1 = Type1{x:1,y:2};
6     let y: Type2 = x;
7     println!("{:?}",y);
8 }
```

Error; even though the types look the same, their names are different, therefore, Rust will not compile.

☞ Rust uses name equivalence

# Type Equivalence

II. Structural Equivalence – two objects are of the same type if and only if they share the same type structure.

Example: Haskell

```
1  type Type1 = (Integer, Integer)
2  type Type2 = (Integer, Integer)
3
4  x :: Type1
5  y :: Type2
6
7  x = (1, 2)
8  y = x
```

Even though the type names are different, Haskell correctly recognizes this statement.

☞ Haskell uses structural equivalence.

# Type Inference

- Type inference refers to the automatic detection of the data type of an expression in a programming language.
- To see how this might work let's work through an example.

# Type Inference

- Assume we have the following statement in a programming language like Rust:

```
let x : i64 = 3;  
let y : i64 = 2 * x;
```

- We want to make sure that all the assignments are legal.
- We will use the type notation ' $3.\{i64\}$ ' indicating that this syntactic unit has the type `i64`.

# Type Inference

- We start at the primitives on the right side of the assignments starting with the first statement and then stepping through all the remaining statements

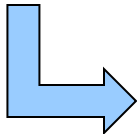


# Type Inference

```
let x : i64 = 3.{i64};  
let y : i64 = 2 * x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3.{i64}; ✓  
let y : i64 = 2 * x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : i64 = 2.{i64} * x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : i64 = 2.{i64} * x.{i64};
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : i64 = 2 * .{fn(i64,i64)->i64} x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : i64 = 2 * .{fn(i64,i64)->i64} x; ✓
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : i64 = 2 * x; ✓
```

# Type Inference

- Let's try a program with a bug in it:

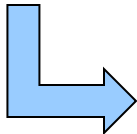
```
let x : i64 = 3;  
let y : f64 = 2 * x;
```

# Type Inference

```
let x : i64 = 3.{i64};  
let y : f64 = 2 * x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3.{i64}; ✓  
let y : f64 = 2 * x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : f64 = 2.{i64} * x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : f64 = 2.{i64} * x.{i64};
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : f64 = 2 *.{fn(i64,i64)->i64} x;
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : f64 = 2 *.{fn(i64,i64)->i64} x; ✗
```



```
let x : i64 = 3; ✓  
let y : f64 = 2 * x; ✗
```

# Exercises

- Describe the type associated with the set of values  $\{-1, -2, -3, -4, \dots\}$ , call this type  $Q$ .
- Describe the type associated with the set of values  $\{-2, -4, -6, -8, \dots\}$ , call this type  $P$ .
- Is there a subtype-supertype relationship between these types? If so, what is it?
- Let  $x$  be a variable of type  $Q$  and  $y$  be a variable of type  $P$ , then is the assignment
$$x := y$$
a safe assignment? Why? Why not?
- Describe the type associated with set  $Q \rightarrow P$ .

# Take Away

- Types are sets of values, typically with a common representation and common set of operations.
- Types in programming languages allows compilers and interpreters to check for consistency in your programs.
- Inconsistencies usually show up a type mismatches.
- Type equivalence between constructed types can be established in one of two ways, name equivalence or structural equivalence.