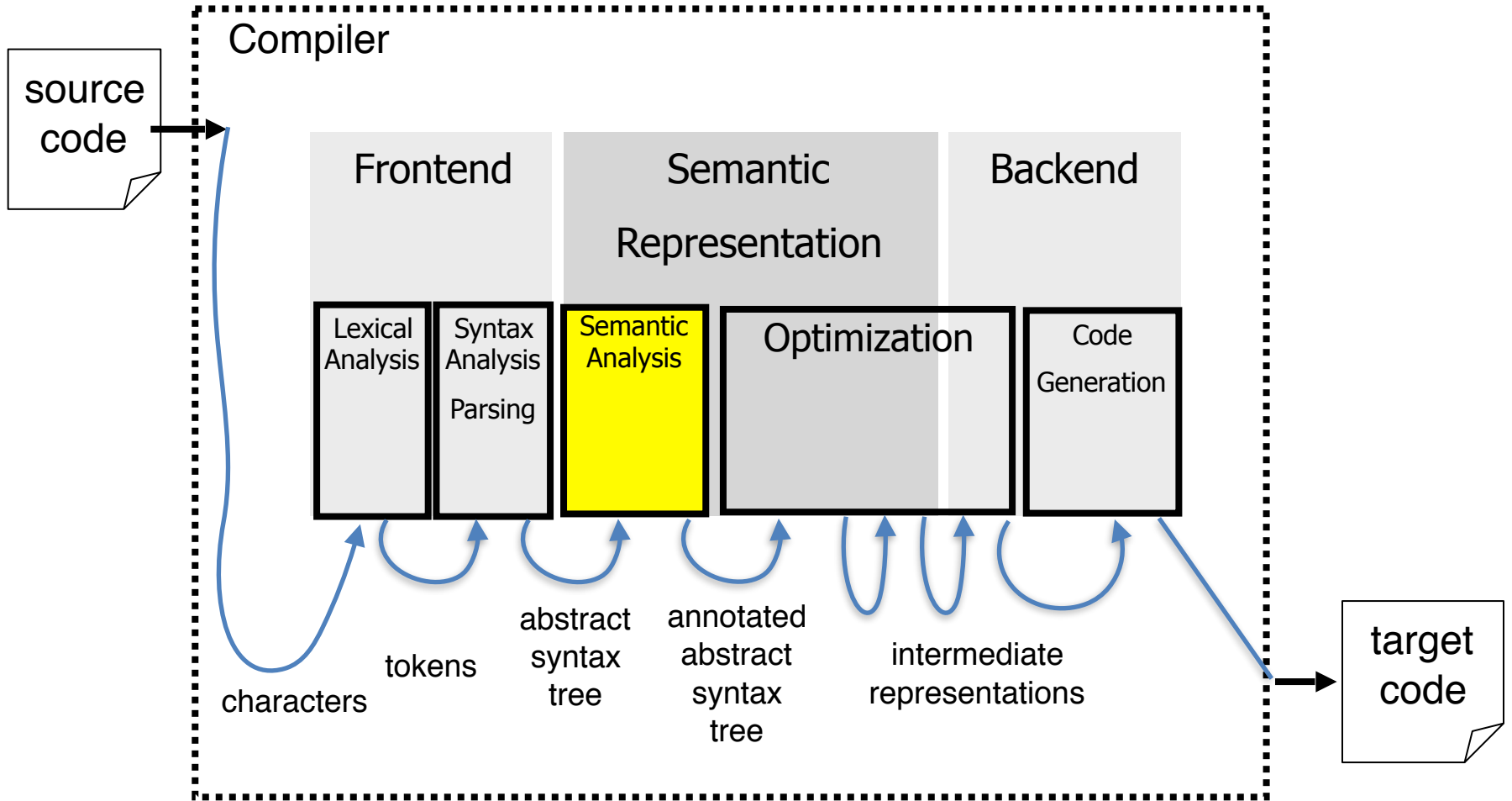


Type Checking



Recap: semantic analysis

- Scope rules
- Symbol tables
- Inheritance graph

Types

- What is a type?
 - simplest answer: a set of values
 - examples: integers, real numbers, booleans, ...
- Why do we care?
 - safety: guarantee that certain errors cannot occur at runtime
 - abstraction: hide implementation details

Type declarations

- Explicit type declarations

```
TYPE Int_Array = ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Integer;
```

- Anonymous types

```
Var a : ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Real;
```

Type declarations

```
Var a : ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Real;
```



```
TYPE #type01_in_line_73 = ARRAY [Integer 1..42] OF Real;  
Var a : #type01_in_line_73;
```

Forward references

```
TYPE Ptr_List_Entry = POINTER TO List_Entry;  
TYPE List_Entry =  
    RECORD  
        Element : Integer;  
        Next : Ptr_List_Entry;  
    END RECORD;
```

- Forward references must be resolved
- A forward ref is added to the symbol table (as forward ref), and **later updated when the type declaration is met**
- At the end of scope, check that all forward refs have been resolved
- Must add check for **circularity**

Type equivalence: **name** equivalence

```
Type t1 = ARRAY[Integer] OF Integer;  
Type t2 = ARRAY[Integer] OF Integer;
```

t1 not (name) equivalent to t2

```
Type t3 = ARRAY[Integer] OF Integer;  
Type t4 = t3
```

t3 equivalent to t4

Type equivalence: **structural** equivalence

```
Type t5 = RECORD c: Integer; p: POINTER TO t5; END
RECORD;
Type t6 = RECORD c: Integer; p: POINTER TO t6; END
RECORD;
Type t7 =
  RECORD
    c: Integer;
    p: POINTER TO
      RECORD
        c: Integer;
        p: POINTER to t5;
      END RECORD;
  END RECORD;
```

t5, t6, t7 are all (structurally) equivalent

In practice...

- Almost all modern languages use **name equivalence**
- Why?

Types: strong vs. weak

Output: 73

warning: initialization makes
integer from pointer without a cast

- Coercion
- Strongly typed:
C, C++, Java,...
- Weakly typed:
Perl, PHP, ...
- Not everybody
agrees on this
classification

perl

```
$a=31;  
$b="42x";  
$c=$a+$b;  
print $c;
```

C

```
main() {  
    int a=31;  
    char b[3]="42x";  
    int c=a+b;  
}
```

error: Incompatible type for declaration.
Can't convert java.lang.String to int

Java

```
class A {  
    public static void main() {  
        int a=31;  
        String b ="42x";  
        int c=a+b;  
    }  
}
```

Types: strong vs. weak

Output: 73

warning: initialization makes
integer from pointer without a cast

- Coercion
- Strongly typed:
C, C++, Java,...
- Weakly typed:
Perl, PHP, ...
- Not everybody
agrees on this
classification

perl

```
$a=31;  
$b="42x";  
$c=$a+$b;  
print $c;
```

C

```
main() {  
    int a=31;  
    char b[3]="42x";  
    int c=a+b;  
}
```

Java

```
public class... {  
    public static void main() {  
        int a=31;  
        String b ="42x";  
        String c=b+a;  
    }  
}
```

OK

Coercions

- Suppose that at some point in the program, we expect a value of type T1 and find a value of type T2
- Is that acceptable?

```
float x = 3.141;  
int y = x;
```

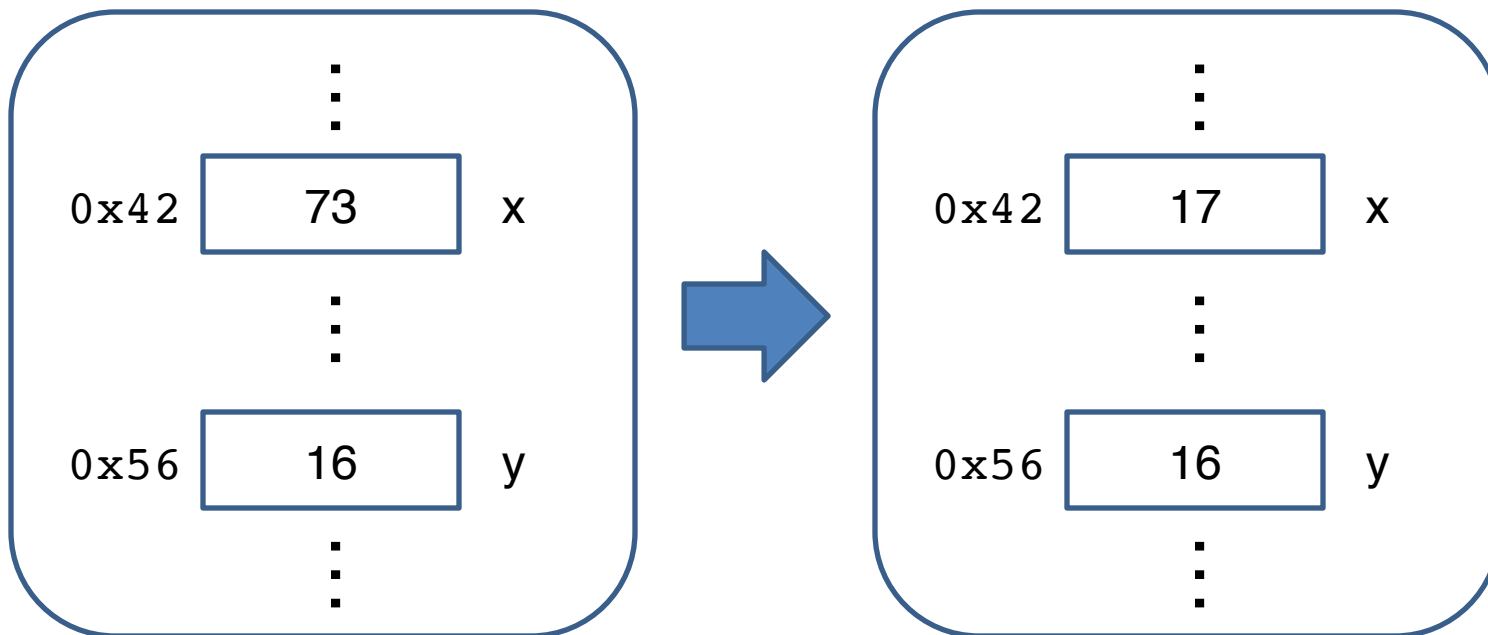
I-values and r-values

`dst := src`

- What is dst? dst is a **memory location** where the value should be stored
- What is src? src is a **value**
- “location” on the left of the assignment called an l-value
- “value” on the right of the assignment is called an r-value

Example: l-values and r-values

$x := y + 1$



Example: l-values and r-values

$x := A + 1$

$x := A[1]$

$x := A[A[1]]$

l-values and r-values

		expected	
found		lvalue	rvalue
	lvalue	ok	deref
	rvalue	error	ok

So far...

- Static correctness checking
- **Identification**: match applied occurrences of identifier to its defining occurrence
 - symbol table maintains this information
- **Checking**: which type combinations are legal
 - type equivalence: nominal vs structural
 - type coercion
 - each node in the AST of an expression represents either an l-value (location) or an r-value (value)

Type table

- All types in a compilation unit are collected in a type table
- For each type, its table entry contains
 - type constructor: basic, record, array, pointer,...
 - size and alignment requirements
 - to be used later in code generation
 - types of components (if applicable)
 - example: types of record fields

How does this magic happen?

- We probably need to go over the AST?
- How does this relate to the clean formalism of the parser?
- Different approaches
 - attribute grammars
 - type systems

TYPE RULES

Type system (textbook definition)

- “A type system is a tractable **syntactic** method for **proving the absence of certain program behaviors** by classifying phrases according to the kinds of values they compute”

-- Types and Programming Languages
/ Benjamin C. Pierce

Type system

- A type system of a programming language is a way to define how “good” programs behave
 - Good programs = well-typed programs
 - Bad programs = not well typed
- **Type checking**
 - Static typing: most checking at compile time
 - Dynamic typing: most checking at runtime
- **Type inference**
 - Automatically infer types for a program or show that there is no valid typing

Type checking: static vs. dynamic

- Static type checking is **conservative**
 - Any program that is determined to be well-typed is free from certain kinds of errors
 - May reject programs that cannot be statically determined as well typed
 - Why?
- Dynamic type checking
 - May accept more programs as valid (runtime info)
 - Errors not caught at compile time
 - Runtime cost

Type rules

- which types can be combined with certain operator
- assignment of expression to variable
- formal and actual parameters of a method call

string string
"drive" + "drink"
string

int string
42 + "the answer"
ERROR

Type rules

- Specify for each operator
 - types of operands
 - type of result
- Basic types
 - building blocks for the type rules
 - example: int, boolean, (sometimes) string
- Type expressions
 - array types
 - function types
 - record types and classes

Type rules

If $E1$ has type int and $E2$ has type int ,
then $E1 + E2$ has type int

$$\frac{E1 : \text{int} \qquad E2 : \text{int}}{E1 + E2 : \text{int}}$$

Notations for rules

- An inference rule consists of **premises** and **conclusion**

$$\frac{A \quad B}{C}$$

- An inference rule without any premises is an **axiom**

$$\frac{}{A} \qquad \frac{}{B}$$

- A proof is a sequence of lines, each of which is either an axiom or follows from earlier lines by an inference rule

$$\frac{\frac{}{A} \quad \frac{}{B}}{C}$$

More type rules

$$\frac{}{\text{true} : \text{boolean}}$$
$$\frac{}{\text{false} : \text{boolean}}$$
$$\frac{}{\text{int-literal} : \text{int}}$$
$$\frac{}{\text{string-literal} : \text{string}}$$
$$\frac{E1 : \text{int} \quad E2 : \text{int}}{E1 \text{ op } E2 : \text{int}}$$
$$\text{op} \in \{ +, -, /, *, \% \}$$
$$\frac{E1 : \text{int} \quad E2 : \text{int}}{E1 \text{ op } E2 : \text{boolean}}$$
$$\text{op} \in \{ <=, <, >, >= \}$$
$$\frac{E1 : T \quad E2 : T}{E1 \text{ op } E2 : \text{boolean}}$$
$$\text{op} \in \{ ==, != \}$$

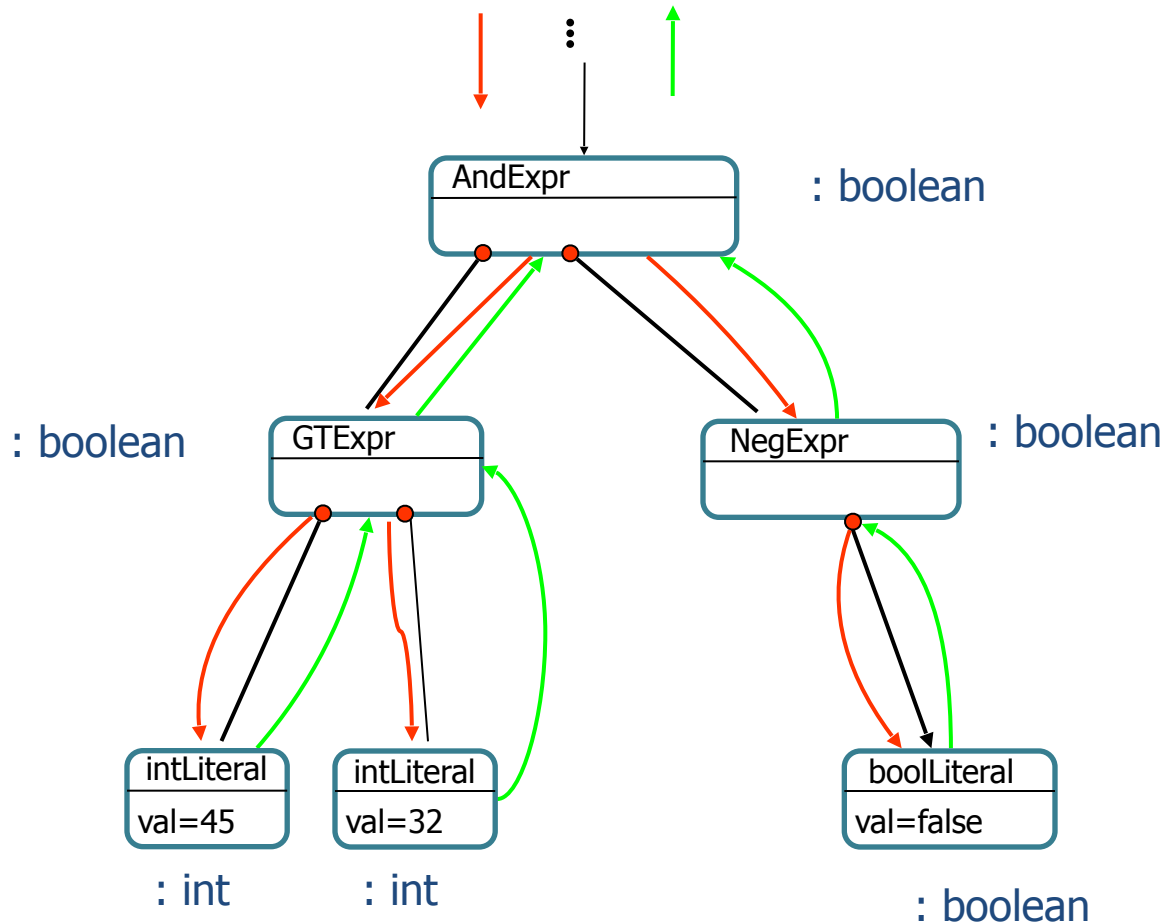
And even more type rules

$$\frac{E1 : \text{boolean} \quad E2 : \text{boolean}}{E1 \text{ op } E2 : \text{boolean}} \quad \text{op} \in \{ \&\&, || \}$$
$$\frac{E1 : \text{int}}{- E1 : \text{int}}$$
$$\frac{E1 : \text{boolean}}{! E1 : \text{boolean}}$$
$$\frac{E1 : T[]}{E1.\text{length} : \text{int}}$$
$$\frac{E1 : T[] \quad E2 : \text{int}}{E1[E2] : T}$$
$$\frac{E1 : \text{int}}{\text{new } T[E1] : T[]}$$

Type Checking

- Traverse AST
- Assign types for AST nodes
- Use typing rules to compute node types

Example



`45 > 32 && !false`

$E1 : \text{boolean}$	$E2 : \text{boolean}$
-----------------------	-----------------------

$E1 \text{ op } E2 : \text{boolean}$

$\text{op} \in \{ \&\&, || \}$

$E1 : \text{boolean}$

$!E1 : \text{boolean}$

$E1 : \text{int}$	$E2 : \text{int}$
-------------------	-------------------

$E1 \text{ op } E2 : \text{boolean}$

$\text{op} \in \{ <=, <, >, >= \}$

`false` : `boolean`

`int-literal` : `int`

Cool Types

- The types are
 - Class names
 - SELF_TYPE
- The user **declares** types for identifiers
- The semantic analysis **infers** types for expressions
 - every expression has a unique type
- Cool **type rules** specify which operations are valid for which types
- The goal of **type checking** is to ensure that operations are used with the correct types
 - enforces intended interpretation of values
- Cool is **statically** typed: type checking during compilation

Plan

- Cool type rules
- Implementing type checking for Cool

Notations for rules

Environment₁ ⊢ Statement₁

Environment₂ ⊢ Statement₂

...

Environment_n ⊢ Statement_n

Environment ⊢ Statement

[NAME] conditions

- $A \vdash B$ means “given A, it is provable that B”
- $A \vdash B$ is called a judgement
- A is called context or environment
- B is called statement

Cool type judgements

- Cool type rules have judgements of the form

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{O}, \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{C}}_{\text{type environment}} \vdash e : T$$

- **O** gives types to free identifiers in the current scope
- **M** gives information about the formal parameters and return type of methods
- **C** is the class in which expression e appears

Cool type environment

$$\underbrace{O, M, C}_{\text{type environment}} \vdash e : T$$

- **O** mapping Object Id's to types
 - symbol table for the current scope
 - $O(x) = T$
- **M** mapping methods to method signatures
 - $M(C, f) = (A, B, D)$
means there is a method $f(a:A, b:B): D$ defined in class C (or its ancestor)
- **C** the class in which expression e appears
 - used when `SELF_TYPE` is involved

Cool type environment

$$\underbrace{O, M, C}_{\text{type environment}} \vdash e : T$$

- Why separate object/methods?
- In Cool, the method and object identifiers live in different name spaces

Type rules

- Rules are schemas for inferring types of expressions

$$O, M, K \vdash e1 : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash e2 : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash e1 + e2 : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, C \vdash \text{int_const} : \text{Int}$$

$$O(\text{id}) = T$$

$$O, M, C \vdash \text{id} : T$$

- Infer types by instantiating the schemas

$$O, M, K \vdash 1 : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash 2 : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash 1 + 2 : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, C \vdash 1 : \text{Int}$$

$$O(y) = \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, C \vdash y : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash y : \text{Int}$$

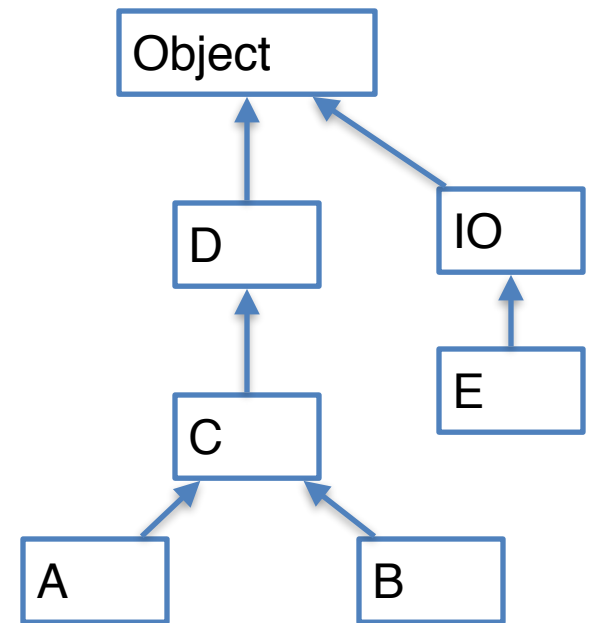
$$O, M, K \vdash (1 + 2) : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash y + (1 + 2) : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, C \vdash 2 : \text{Int}$$

Subtyping

- Define a relation \leq on classes
 - $X \leq X$
 - $X \leq Y$ if X inherits from Y
 - $X \leq Z$ if $X \leq Y$ and $Y \leq Z$
- Example
 - $A \leq C$
 - $B \leq \text{Object}$
 - $E \not\leq D$ and $D \not\leq E$



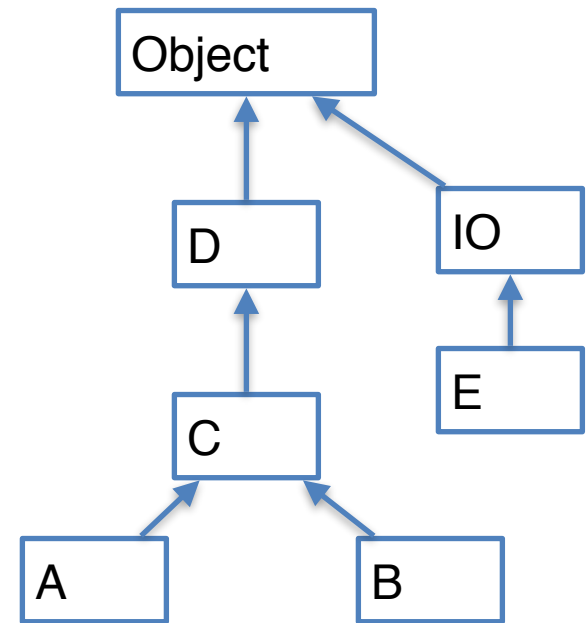
Least upper bounds

- Z is the least upper bound of X and Y
- $\text{lub}(X, Y) = Z$
 - $X \leq Z$ and $Y \leq Z$
 Z is **upper** bound
 - $X \leq Z'$ and $Y \leq Z' \Rightarrow Z \leq Z'$
 Z is the **least** upper bound

Least upper bounds

- In Cool, the least upper bound of two types is their **least common ancestor** in the inheritance tree

- Example
 - $\text{lub}(A, B) = C$
 - $\text{lub}(C, D) = D$
 - $\text{lub}(C, E) = \text{Object}$



Type rules: Assign

$O(x) = T_0$

$O, M, K \vdash e_1 : T_1$

$T_1 \leq T_0$

$O, M, K \vdash x \leftarrow e_1 : T_1$

[Assign]

```
class A {  
    foo() : A { ... }  
};
```

```
class B inherits A { };
```

...

```
let x:B in x ← (new B).foo();
```

```
let x:A in x ← (new B).foo();
```

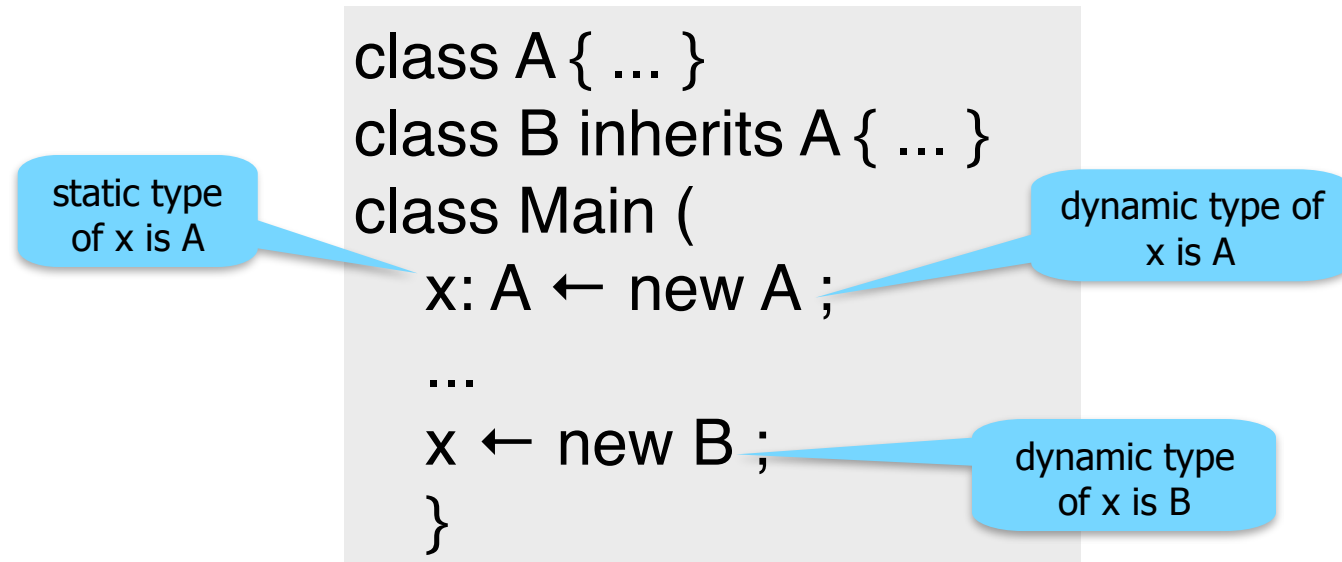
```
let x:Object in x ← (new B).foo();
```

ERROR

OK

OK

Example: dynamic vs static types



- A variable of static type A can hold the value of static type B if $B \leq A$

Types: dynamic vs static

- The **dynamic** type of an object is the class that is used in the new expression
 - a runtime notion
 - **even languages that are statically typed have dynamic types**
- The **static** type of an expression captures all the dynamic types that the expression could have
 - a compile-time notion

Soundness

- A type system is **sound** if
for all expressions e
 $\text{dynamic_type}(e) \leq \text{static_type}(e)$
- If the inferred type of e is T
then in **all executions** of the program,
 e evaluates to a value of type $\leq T$
- We only want sound rules
- But some sound rules are better than others

Let rule with initialization

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} O, M, K \vdash e_0 : T \\ O(\mathbf{T}/x) \vdash e_1 : T_1 \end{array}}{O, M, K \vdash \text{let } x: T \leftarrow e_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1} \text{ [Let Weak Rule]}$$
$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} O, M, K \vdash e_0 : T \\ O(\mathbf{T}_0/x) \vdash e_1 : T_1 \\ T \leq T_0 \end{array}}{O, M, K \vdash \text{let } x: T_0 \leftarrow e_0 \text{ in } e_1 : T_1} \text{ [Let]}$$

```
class A {  
    foo():C { ... }  
};  
class B inherits A { };  
...  
let x:A ← new B in x.foo();
```

- Both rules are sound but the second one type checks more programs (using subtyping)

Conditional

$O, M, K \vdash e_0 : \text{Bool}$

$O, M, K \vdash e_1 : T_1$

$O, M, K \vdash e_2 : T_2$

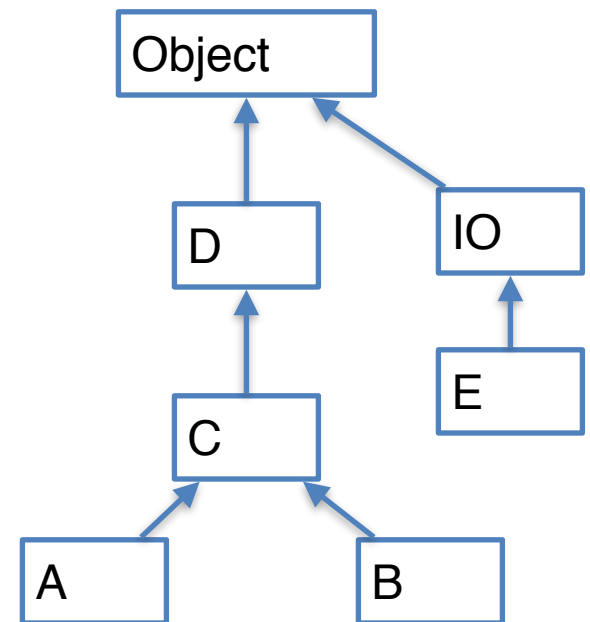
$O, M, K \vdash \text{if } e_0 \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2 \text{ fi} : \text{lub}(T_1, T_2)$

```
foo(a:A, b:B, c:C, e:E) : D {  
  if (a < b) then e else c fi  
}
```

ERROR

$\text{lub}(E, C) = \text{Object}$

Is $\text{Object} \leq D$?



Case

$O, M, K \vdash e : T$

$O[X/x], M, K \vdash e_1 : E$

$O[Y/y], M, K \vdash e_2 : F$

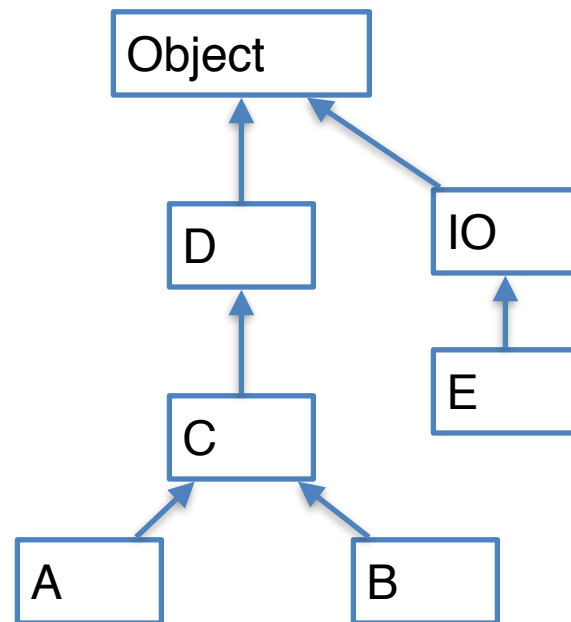
$O[Z/z], M, K \vdash e_3 : G$

$O, M, K \vdash \text{case } e \text{ of } x: X \Rightarrow e_1; y: Y \Rightarrow e_2; z: Z \Rightarrow e_3 \text{ esac} : \text{lub}(E, F, G)$

```
foo(d:D) : D {
  case d of
    x : IO => let a:A ← (new A) in x;
    y : E => (new B);
    z : C => z;
  esac
};
```

ERROR

$\text{lub}(\text{IO}, B, C) = \text{Object}$ and $\text{Object} \leq D$



Case

$O, M, K \vdash e : T$

$O[X/x], M, K \vdash e_1 : E$

$O[Y/y], M, K \vdash e_2 : F$

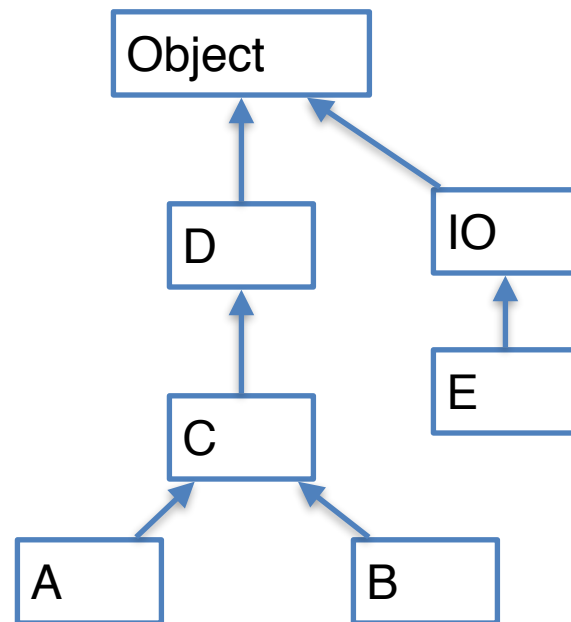
$O[Z/z], M, K \vdash e_3 : G$

$O, M, K \vdash \text{case } e \text{ of } x: X \Rightarrow e_1; y: Y \Rightarrow e_2; z: Z \Rightarrow e_3 \text{ esac} : \text{lub}(E, F, G)$

```
foo(d:D) : D {  
  case d of  
    x : IO => let a:A ← (new A) in a;  
    y : E => (new B);  
    z : C => z;  
  esac  
};
```

OK

$\text{lub}(A, B, C) = C$ and $C \leq D$



Cool type rules

- ✓ Arithmetic and boolean expressions
- ✓ Object identifiers
- ✓ Conditionals
- ✓ Let
- ✓ Case
 - SELF_TYPE and self
 - Allocation: new
 - Dispatch: dynamic and static
 - Error handling

Motivation for SELF_TYPE

- What can be the dynamic type of object returned by foo() ?
 - any subtype of A

```
class A {  
  foo() : A { self } ;  
};  
class B inherits A { ... };  
class Main {  
  B x ← (new B).foo();  
};
```

ERROR

```
class A {  
  foo() : SELF_TYPE { self } ;  
};  
class B inherits A { ... };  
class Main {  
  B x ← (new B).foo();  
};
```

OK

SELF_TYPE

- Research idea
- Helps type checker to accept more correct programs
 - $C, M, K \vdash (\text{new } A).\text{foo}() : A$
 - $C, M, K \vdash (\text{new } B).\text{foo}() : B$
- SELF_TYPE is **NOT a dynamic type**
 - Meaning of SELF_TYPE depends on where it appears textually
 - SELF TYPE may refer to the class C in which it appears, or any subtype of C

Where can SELF_TYPE appear ?

- Parser checks that SELF_TYPE appears only where a type is expected
 - How ?
- But SELF_TYPE is not allowed everywhere a type can appear

Where can SELF_TYPE appear ?

- `class T1 inherits T2 { ... }`
 - `T1, T2` cannot be `SELF_TYPE`
- `x : SELF_TYPE`
 - attribute
 - `let`
 - not in `case`
- `new SELF_TYPE`
 - creates an object of the same type as `self`
- `e@T.foo(e1)`
 - `T` cannot be `SELF_TYPE`
- `foo(x:T1):T2 {...}`
 - only `T2` can be `SELF_TYPE`

Example: new

```
class A {  
    foo() : A { new SELF_TYPE };  
};  
class B inherits A { ... }  
...  
(new A).foo();      creates A object  
(new B).foo();      creates B object
```


Subtyping for SELF_TYPE

- $\text{SELF_TYPE}_C \leq \text{SELF_TYPE}_C$
- $\text{SELF_TYPE}_C \leq C$
- It is always safe to replace SELF_TYPE_C with C
- $\text{SELF_TYPE}_C \leq T$ if $C \leq T$
- $T \leq \text{SELF_TYPE}_C$ is always false
 - because SELF_TYPE_C can denote **any** subtype of C

$\text{lub}(T, T')$ for SELF_TYPE

- $\text{lub}(\text{SELF_TYPE}_c, \text{SELF_TYPE}_c) = \text{SELF_TYPE}_c$
- $\text{lub}(T, \text{SELF_TYPE}_c) = \text{lub}(T, C)$
 - the best we can do

Type rules for **self** and **new**

$O, M, K \vdash \text{self} : \text{SELF_TYPE}_k$

$O, M, K \vdash \text{new SELF_TYPE} : \text{SELF_TYPE}_k$

Other rules

- A use of SELF_TYPE refers to any subtype of the current class
- Except in dispatch
 - because the method return type of SELF_TYPE might have nothing to do with the current class

Dispatch

$O, M, K \vdash c : C$

$O, M, K \vdash a : A$

$O, M, K \vdash b : B$

$M(C, \text{foo}) = (A_1, B_1, D_1)$

$A \leq A_1, B \leq B_1, D_1 \neq \text{SELF_TYPE}$

$O, M, K \vdash c.\text{foo}(a, b) : D_1$

which class is used to find
the declaration of foo() ?

```
class C1 {  
    foo(a:A1, b:B1) : D1 { new D1 ;  
};  
};  
class C inherits C1 {...};  
...  
(new C).foo( (new A) , (new B) );
```

$O, M, K \vdash c : C$

$O, M, K \vdash a : A$

$O, M, K \vdash b : B$

$M(C, \text{foo}) = (A_1, B_1, \text{SELF_TYPE})$

$A \leq A_1, B \leq B_1$

$O, M, K \vdash c.\text{foo}(a, b) : C$

Example: self

```
class A {  
    foo() : A { self };  
};  
class B inherits A { ... }  
...  
(new A).foo();      returns A object  
(new B).foo();      returns B object
```

Static Dispatch

$O, M, K \vdash c : C$

$O, M, K \vdash a : A$

$O, M, K \vdash b : B$

$M(C_1, f) = (A_1, B_1, D_1)$

$A \leq A_1, B \leq B_1, C \leq C_1, \mathbf{D_1 \neq SELF_TYPE}$

$O, M, K \vdash c@C_1.f(a, b): D_1$

if we dispatch a method
returning SELF_TYPE in
class C_1 , do we get back C_1 ?

No. SELF_TYPE is the type of self,
which may be a subtype of the class
in which the method appears

```
class C1 {
  foo(a:A1, b:B1) : D1 { new D1 ; };
};
class C inherits C1 {...};
...
(new C)@C1.foo( (new A) , (new B) );
```

$O, M, K \vdash c : C$

$O, M, K \vdash a : A$

$O, M, K \vdash b : B$

$M(C_1, f) = (A_1, B_1, \mathbf{SELF_TYPE})$

$A \leq A_1, B \leq B_1, C \leq C_1$

$O, M, K \vdash c@C_1.f@(a, b): C$

SELF_TYPE Example

```
class A {  
  delegate : B;  
  callMe() SELF_TYPE  
    { delegate.callMe(); } ; ERROR  
};  
class B {  
  callMe() : SELF_TYPE { self };  
};  
class Main {  
  A a ← (new A).callMe();  
};
```


Error Handling

- Error detection is easy
- Error recovery: what type is assigned to an expression with no legitimate type ?
 - influences type of enclosing expressions
 - cascading errors

```
let y : Int ← x + 2 in y + 3
```

- Better solution: special type No_Type
 - inheritance graph can be cyclic

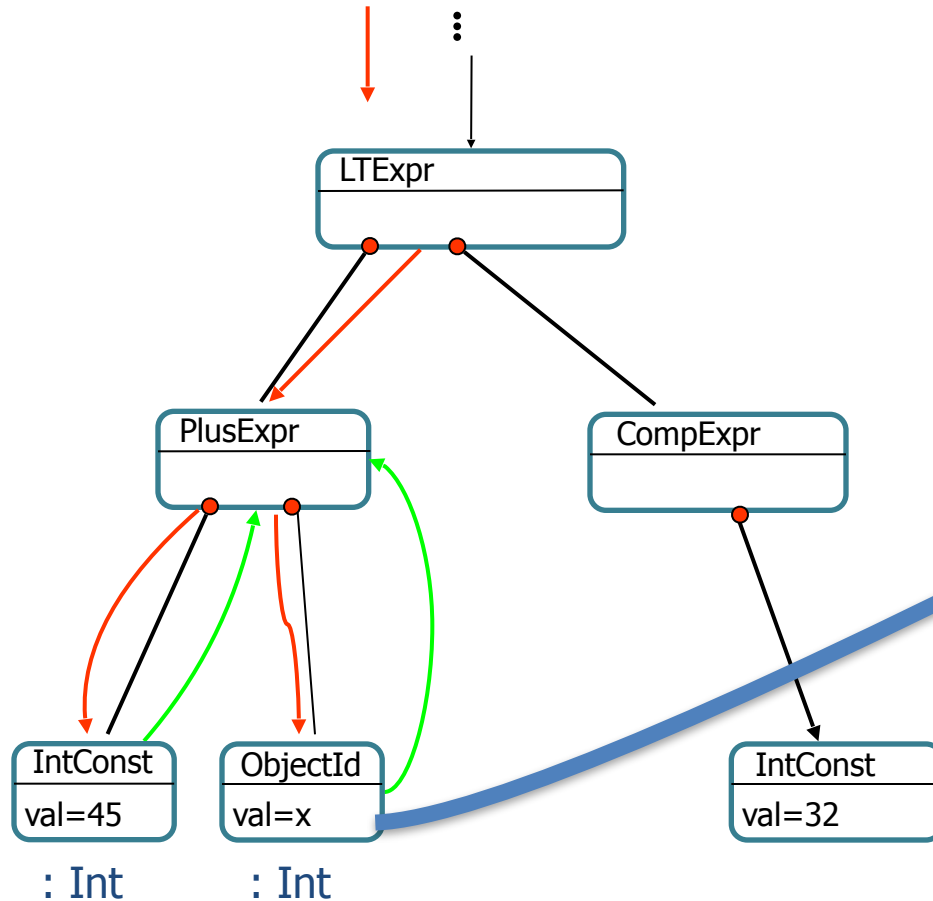
Implementation of Cool Types

- How are types represented ?
 - **Symbol**
 - compare types by comparing **Symbol**
- When are types are created?
 - during lexer/parsing
 - predefined types

Type Checking Implementation

- Single traversal over AST
- Types passed **up** the tree
- Type environment passed **down** the tree

Example



globals

Symbol	kind		
Foo	class		

Foo

Symbol	kind	type
test	method	Int->Int
x	var	Int

test

Symbol	kind	type
c	var	Int

Lookup(x)

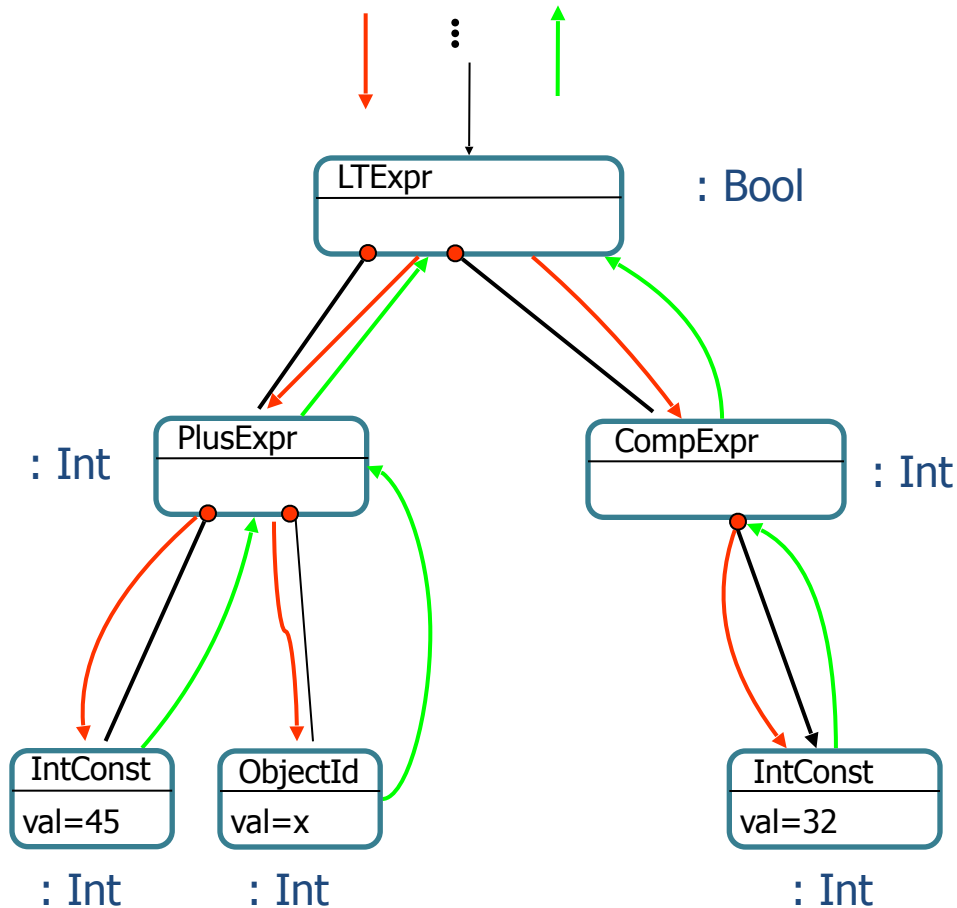
$$(45 + x) < (\sim 32)$$

$$O(x) = \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash x : \text{Int}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash \text{int-literal} : \text{Int}$$

Example



$(45 + x) < (\sim 32)$

$$\frac{O, M, K \vdash e1 : \text{Int} \quad O, M, K \vdash e2 : \text{Int}}{O, M, K \vdash e1 < e2 : \text{Bool}}$$

$$\frac{O, M, K \vdash e : \text{Int}}{O, M, K \vdash \sim e : \text{Int}}$$

$$\frac{O, M, K \vdash e1 : \text{Int} \quad O, M, K \vdash e2 : \text{Int}}{O, M, K \vdash e1 + e2 : \text{Int}}$$

$$\frac{O(x) = \text{Int}}{O, M, K \vdash x : \text{Int}}$$

$$O, M, K \vdash \text{int-literal} : \text{Int}$$

Soundness of type rules

- Type is a set of values
- Soundness of static type rules
 - for every expression e ,
for every value v of e at runtime
 $v \in \text{values_of}(\text{static_type}(e))$
 - $\text{static_type}(e)$ may actually describe more values
 - can reject correct programs
- More complicated with subtyping (inheritance)

Static type checking: pros and cons

- Catches many programming errors
- Proves properties of your code
- Avoids the overhead of runtime type checks
- Restrictive: may reject correct programs
- Rapid prototyping is difficult
- Complicates the programming language and the compiler
- In practice, most code is written in statically typed languages with escape mechanisms
 - Unsafe casts in C, Java
 - union in C

Types

- Type checking
 - Static: C, Java, Cool, ML
 - Dynamic: machine code, scripting languages such as python, ruby
 - JavaScript is untyped
- Strong vs weak types (coercion)
 - Python is strongly typed
 - Perl is weakly typed

Summary: type checking

- Type equivalence: nominal vs structural
- Expressions: locations (l-values) and values (r-values)
- Type coercions
- Types: strong vs weak types
- Types: dynamic vs static
- Type checking: dynamic vs static
- Type checking vs inference
- Subtyping relation and least upper bounds
- Soundness of type rules (conservative, provable)

Quick Quiz

- Which type rules use subtyping relation \leq ?
- Which type rules use lub?
- Which type rules have a special case for SELF_TYPE?
- Where can SELF_TYPE appear in Cool program?
- How to extend subtyping for SELF_TYPE?