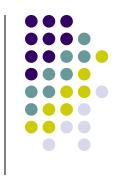


 As we saw previously, any programming language that has some complexity to it allows us to create syntactically correct statements that semantically do not make any sense:

```
declare z = function (x) return x+1;
put z+1; // ???
```

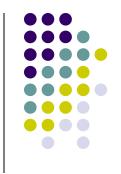
- The error in the expression can easily be caught by an interpreter or compiler by tagging the operands with type names: z.{function} + i.{int}
- Now it is simple for the language processor to find the problem: it is only allowed to apply addition to {int} terms, e.g., j.{int} + i.{int}

Type Systems



- A principled approach to tagging terms and expressions with type names is called a type system
- Every modern programming language has one
- We have
 - Implicit type systems type systems where the system automatically recognizes the type of a variable or constant
 - Explicit type systems type systems where the user has to explicitly declare the type of variables (and sometimes constants).

Why do we use type systems?



- Types allow the language system to assist the developer in writing 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 <u>runtime</u>.





A Type is a Set of Values

Consider the statement:

int n;

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

Also observe that the elements in a type share a common representation: each element is encoded in the same way (float, double, char, etc.)

Also, all elements of a type share the same operations the language supports for them.

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

float q;

float q;

a value that is a member of the set of all floating point values can be assigned to q.

possible floating point values

Types



Example: Java, constructed type

```
class Foobar { int i; String s; };
Foobar c = new Foobar();
```

Now the variable c only accepts values that are members of type Foobar; object instantiations of class Foobar; objects are the values of type Foobar...

Types



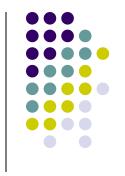
Example: C, constructed type

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

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

We will have more to say about this later on.

Subtypes



- We saw that the notion of a type as a set of values is a nice model for explaining variable declarations and object-oriented structures
- But it is also essential to developing the notion of a subtype





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

Example: Java

'Short' is a subtype of 'int', that is, all the values in set 'short' are also in set 'int': short ⊂ int

Example: Java

'Float' is a subtype of 'double' (all the values in set 'float' are also in set 'double)': float ⊂ double

Observations:

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





Consider this example in Java with an implicit *narrowing* conversion:

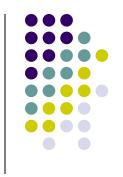
```
int i = 33000;
short j = i;  //problematic, short is only 2 bytes, overflow!
```

On the other hand this example in Java with an implicit widening conversion has no problems:

```
short i = 20000;
int j = i;
```

Compilers/interpreters will often insert widening conversions but will flag errors when a supertype needs to be converted to a subtype.

Subtypes



- An important implication of subtypes in programming languages is the notion of type hierarchies
- Here the types of a language are ordered along the subtype relation, e.g. in Java
 - int ⊂ float ⊂ string





I. <u>Name Equivalence</u> – two objects are of the same type of and only if they share the same *type name*.

Example: Java

```
Class Foobar {
  int i;
  float f;
}
```

```
Class Goobar {
  int i;
  float f;
}
```

```
Foobar o = new Goobar();
```

Error; even though the types look the same, their names are different, therefore, Java will raise an error.





II. <u>Structural Equivalence</u> – two objects are of the same type if and only if they share the same *type structure*.

```
Example: ML
```

- type person = int * int * string * string;
- type mytuple = int * int * string * string;
- val joe:person = (38, 185, "married", "pilot"):mytuple;

```
class Person {
    int age;
    int weight;
    String mstatus;
    String profession;
  }
```

Think of this as:

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

ML uses structural equivalence.





- An interesting implication of type systems is polymorphism:
 - Function overloading
 - Subtype polymorphism

<u>Def</u>: A function is *polymorphic* if it has at least two possible types.

Function Overloading

<u>Def:</u> An *overloaded function* is one that has at least two definitions, all of different types.

```
Example: In Java the '+' operator is overloaded.
```

```
String s = "abc".{String} + "def".{String};
int i = 3.{int} + 5.{int};
```





Subtype Polymorphism

<u>Def</u>: A function exhibits *subtype polymorphism* if one or more of its formal parameters has subtypes.



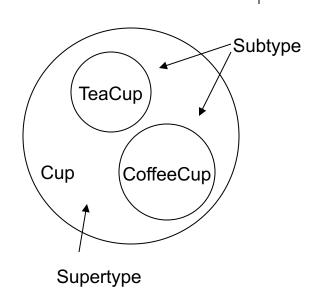
```
Example: Java
void g (double a) { ... }
int ⊂ double
float ⊂ double
                  all legal types that can be passed to function 'g'.
short ⊂ double
byte ⊂ double
char ⊂ double
                Legal because of subtype polymorphism
```

```
class Cup { ... };
class CoffeeCup extends Cup { ... };
class TeaCup extends Cup { ... };
```

```
void fill (Cup c) {...}

TeaCup t = new TeaCup();
CoffeeCup k = new CoffeeCup();

fill(t);
fill(k);
subtype polymorphism
```



```
TeaCup t = new TeaCup();
Cup c = t; ✓ widening type conversion: TeaCup → Cup
safe!
```