Type Checking in COOL (II)

Lecture 10

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Lecture Outline

- · Type systems and their expressiveness
- · Type checking with SELF_TYPE in COOL
- · Error recovery in semantic analysis

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Expressiveness of Static Type Systems

- · Static type systems detect common errors
- · But some correct programs are disallowed
 - Some argue for dynamic type checking instead
 - Others argue for more expressive static type checking
- But more expressive type systems are more complex

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Dynamic And Static Types

- The <u>dynamic type</u> of an object is the class C that is used in the "new C" expression that created it
 - A run-time notion
 - Even languages that are not statically typed have the notion of dynamic type
- The <u>static type</u> of an expression captures all dynamic types the expression could have
 - A compile-time notion

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Dynamic and Static Types. (Cont.)

- In early type systems the set of static types correspond directly with the dynamic types
- Soundness theorem: for all expressions E dynamic_type(E) = static_type(E) (in all executions, E evaluates to values of the type inferred by the compiler)
- This gets more complicated in advanced type systems

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Dynamic and Static Types in COOL

```
class A \{ ... \}
class B inherits A \{ ... \}
class Main \{ \\ x:A \leftarrow new A; \longrightarrow dynamic type A \\ ... \\ x \leftarrow new B; \longrightarrow Here, x's value has dynamic type B <math>\}
```

 A variable of static type A can hold values of static type B, if B ≤ A

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Dynamic and Static Types

Soundness theorem for the Cool type system:

```
\forall E. dynamic_type(E) \leq static_type(E)
```

Why is this Ok?

- All operations that can be used on an object of type C can also be used on an object of type $C' \leq C$
 - · Such as fetching the value of an attribute
 - · Or invoking a method on the object
- Subclasses only add attributes or methods
- Methods can be redefined but with same type!

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An Example

- Class Count incorporates a counter
- The inc method works for any subclass
- But there is disaster lurking in the type system

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An Example (Cont.)

· Consider a subclass Stock of Count

```
class Stock inherits Count {
  name : String; -- name of item
};
```

· And the following use of Stock:

```
class Main {
   Stock a ← (new Stock).inc (); Type checking error!
   ... a.name ...
};
```

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What Went Wrong?

- (new Stock).inc() has dynamic type Stock
- So it is legitimate to write

Stock a ← (new Stock).inc ()

- But this is not well-typed
 - (new Stock).inc() has static type Count
- · The type checker "loses" type information
 - This makes inheriting inc useless
 - So, we must redefine inc for each of the subclasses, with a specialized return type

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SELF_TYPE to the Rescue

- · We will extend the type system
- Insight:
 - inc returns "self"
 - Therefore the return value has same type as "self"
 - Which could be Count or any subtype of Count!
- Introduce the keyword SELF_TYPE to use for the return value of such functions
 - We will also need to modify the typing rules to handle SELF_TYPE

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SELF_TYPE to the Rescue (Cont.)

- SELF_TYPE allows the return type of inc to change when inc is inherited
- Modify the declaration of inc to read inc(): SELF_TYPE { ... }
- The type checker can now prove:

```
C,M ⊢ (new Count).inc() : Count
C,M ⊢ (new Stock).inc() : Stock
```

· The program from before is now well typed

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Notes About SELF_TYPE

- SELF_TYPE is not a dynamic type
 - It is a static type
 - It helps the type checker to keep better track of types
 - It enables the type checker to accept more correct programs
- In short, having SELF_TYPE increases the expressive power of the type system

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13

SELF_TYPE and Dynamic Types (Example)

- What can be the dynamic type of the object returned by inc?
 - Answer: whatever could be the type of "self"

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

class C inherits Count { };
(inc could be invoked through any of these classes)

- Answer: Count or any subtype of Count

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SELF_TYPE and Dynamic Types (Example)

 In general, if SELF_TYPE appears textually in the class C as the declared type of E then

 $dynamic_type(E) \leq C$

- Note: The meaning of SELF_TYPE depends on where it appears
 - We write SELF_TYPE_C to refer to an occurrence of SELF_TYPE in the body of C
- · This suggests a typing rule:

$$SELF_TYPE_{C} \leq C \tag{*}$$

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15

17

Type Checking

- Rule (*) has an important consequence:
 - In type checking it is always safe to replace SELF_TYPE $_{\!\it C}$ by $^{\it C}$
- This suggests one way to handle SELF_TYPE :
 - Replace all occurrences of SELF_TYPE $_{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$ by $^{\!\scriptscriptstyle C}$
- This would be correct but it is like not having SELF_TYPE at all

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Operations on SELF_TYPE

- · Recall the operations on types
 - $T_1 \le T_2$ T_1 is a subtype of T_2
 - lub(T_1, T_2) the least-upper bound of T_1 and T_2
- We must extend these operations to handle SELF_TYPE

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Extending ≤

Let T and T' be any types but SELF_TYPE There are four cases in the definition of \leq

- 1. $SELF_TYPE_c \leq SELF_TYPE_c$
 - In Cool we never need to compare SELF_TYPEs coming from different classes
- 2. SELF_TYPE_C \leq T if $C \leq$ T
 - SELF_TYPE_C can be any subtype of C
 - · This includes C itself
 - · Thus this is the most flexible rule we can allow

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Extending \leq (Cont.)

- 3. $T \le SELF_TYPE_C$ always false Note: $SELF_TYPE_C$ can denote any subtype of C.
- 4. $T \le T'$ (according to the rules from before)

Based on these rules we can extend lub ...

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10

Extending lub(T,T')

Let T and T' be any types but SELF_TYPE Again there are four cases:

- 1. $lub(SELF_TYPE_c, SELF_TYPE_c) = SELF_TYPE_c$
- 2. $lub(SELF_TYPE_C, T) = lub(C, T)$ This is the best we can do because $SELF_TYPE_C \le C$
- 3. $lub(T, SELF_TYPE_c) = lub(C, T)$
- 4. lub(T, T') defined as before

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Where Can SELF_TYPE Appear in COOL?

- The parser checks that SELF_TYPE appears only where a type is expected
- But SELF_TYPE is not allowed everywhere a type can appear:
- class T inherits T' {...}
 T, T' cannot be SELF_TYPE
 x : T
- T can be SELF_TYPE
 - An attribute whose type is \leq SELF_TYPE_C

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Where Can SELF_TYPE Appear in COOL?

- 3. let x : T in E
 - T can be SELF_TYPE
 - x has a type ≤ SELF_TYPE_C
- 4. new T
 - T can be SELF_TYPE
 - · Creates an object of the same type as self
- 5. $m@T(E_1,...,E_n)$
 - T cannot be SELF_TYPE

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Where Can SELF_TYPE Not Appear in COOL?

```
6. m(x : T) : T' { ... }Only T' can be SELF_TYPE!
```

What could go wrong if T were SELF_TYPE?

```
class A { comp(x : SELF_TYPE) : Bool {...}; };
class B inherits A {
    b : int;
    comp(x : SELF_TYPE) : Bool { ... x.b ...}; };
...
let x : A ← new B in ... x.comp(new A); ...
...

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```

Typing Rules for SELF_TYPE

- Since occurrences of SELF_TYPE depend on the enclosing class we need to include that context during type checking
- · Recall the form of a typing judgment:

```
O,M,C ⊢ e : T
```

(An expression e occurring in the body of C has static type T given a variable type environment O and method signatures M)

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Type Checking Rules

- The next step is to design type rules using SELF_TYPE for each language construct
- · Most of the rules remain the same except that ≤ and lub are the new ones
- Example:

```
O(Id) = T_0
O,M,C \vdash e_1 : T_0
T_1 \leq T_0
O,M,C \vdash Id \leftarrow e_1 : T_1
```

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What's Different?

· Recall the old rule for dispatch

```
O,M,C \vdash e_0 : T_0
\begin{aligned} &O,M,C \vdash e_n : T_n \\ &M(T_0, \, f) = (T_1{}',...,T_n{}',T_{n+1}{}') \end{aligned}
T_{n+1}' \neq SELF_TYPE
T_i \le T_i' 1 \le i \le n
O,M,C \vdash e_0.f(e_1,...,e_n) : T_{n+1}
```

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26

What's Different?

· If the return type of the method is SELF_TYPE then the type of the dispatch is the type of the dispatch expression:

```
\mathsf{O},\mathsf{M},\mathsf{C}\vdash\mathsf{e}_0:\mathsf{T}_0
O,M,C \vdash e_n : T_n
M(T_0, f) = (T_1, ..., T_n, SELF_TYPE)
T_i \le T_i' 1 \le i \le n
\overline{O,M,C} \vdash e_0.f(e_1,...,e_n) : T_0
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```

What's Different?

- · Note this rule handles the Stock example
- Formal parameters cannot be SELF_TYPE
- Actual arguments can be SELF_TYPE
 - The extended ≤ relation handles this case
- The type T_0 of the dispatch expression could be SELF_TYPE Which class is used to find the declaration of f?

 - Answer: it is safe to use the class where the dispatch appears

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Static Dispatch

· Recall the original rule for static dispatch

```
\mathsf{O}, \mathsf{M}, \mathsf{C} \vdash \mathsf{e}_0 : \mathsf{T}_0
\mathsf{O},\mathsf{M},\mathsf{C}\vdash e_n:\mathsf{T}_n
T_0 \leq T
M(T, f) = (T_1', ..., T_n', T_{n+1}')

T_{n+1}' \neq SELF_TYPE
T_i \leq T_i' \qquad 1 \leq i \leq n
O,M,C \vdash e_0@T.f(e_1,...,e_n) : T_{n+1}
```

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Static Dispatch

· If the return type of the method is SELF_TYPE we have:

$$\begin{array}{l} O,M,C \vdash e_0 : T_0 \\ \vdots \\ O,M,C \vdash e_n : T_n \\ T_0 \leq T \\ M(T,f) = (T_1',...,T_n',SELF_TYPE) \\ T_i \leq T_i' \qquad 1 \leq i \leq n \\ \hline O,M,C \vdash e_0@T.f(e_1,...,e_n) : T_0 \end{array}$$

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Static Dispatch

- · Why is this rule correct?
- If we dispatch a method returning SELF_TYPE in class T, don't we get back a T?
- No. SELF_TYPE is the type of the self parameter, which may be a subtype of the class in which the method appears

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31

New Rules

• There are two new rules using SELF_TYPE

O,M,C ⊢ self : SELF_TYPE_C

O,M,C ⊢ new SELF_TYPE : SELF_TYPE_C

 There are a number of other places where SELF_TYPE is used

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Summary of SELF_TYPE

- SELF_TYPE can be used only in a few places. Be sure it isn't used anywhere else.
- A use of SELF_TYPE always refers to any subtype of the current class
 - The exception is the type checking of dispatch. The method return type of SELF_TYPE might have nothing to do with the current class

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Why Cover SELF_TYPE ?

- SELF_TYPE is a research idea
- It adds more expressiveness to the type system
- SELF_TYPE is itself not so important
 except for the project
- Rather, SELF_TYPE is meant to illustrate that type checking can be quite subtle
- In practice, there should be a balance between the complexity of the type system and its expressiveness

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Error Recovery

- As with parsing, it is important to recover from type errors
- · Detecting where errors occur is easier than in parsing
 - There is no reason to skip over portions of code
- The Problem:
 - What type is assigned to an expression with no legitimate type?
 - This type will influence the typing of the enclosing expression

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35

Error Recovery Attempt

Assign type Object to ill-typed expressions

let y: Int \leftarrow x + 2 in y + 3

- Since x is undeclared its type is Object
- · But now we have Object + Int
- · This will generate another typing error
- We then say that that Object + Int = Object
- Then the initializer's type will not be Int
- ⇒ a workable solution but with cascading errors

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Better Error Recovery

- We can introduce a new type called $\ensuremath{\mathsf{No_type}}$ for use with ill-typed expressions
- Define No_type $\leq C$ for all types C
- Every operation is defined for No_type
 With a No_type result

• Only one typing error for: let $y : Int \leftarrow x + 2$ in y + 3

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Notes

- · A "real" compiler would use something like No_type
- · However, there are some implementation issues
 - The class hierarchy is not a tree anymore
- The Object solution is fine in the class project

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