

Copyright (C) 2021 Timothy Fossum

Permission is granted to copy, distribute and/or modify this document under the terms of the GNU Free Documentation License, Version 1.1 or any later version published by the Free Software Foundation. A copy of the license is included in the file "COPYING", entitled "GNU Free Documentation License".

Types

Our approach to types is to create a language that is *strongly static* in its syntax to provide type information for values, and every program must pass proper type matching prior to evaluating the program.

A *static typed* language is one in which type information can be determined at “compile time” rather than at runtime. In this way, any type errors are caught before the program is evaluated. Saying that a language is *strongly typed* means there are no type “holes” in the system: the declared type of a symbol (variable or procedure parameter) dictates the types of the values that can be bound to that symbol. Everything is type checked, without exception, and all expressions must conform to type rules.

Our typed language is based on the SET language. In the SET language, the integer value 0 is considered false, and all other values – including non-integer numbers – are true when used in conditional expressions. The Java programming language, which is statically typed, requires that the test expression in an `if` statement evaluates to a boolean. We follow this example in our typed language by defining *primitive types*, `int` and `bool`, corresponding to integer and boolean values, respectively. To implement this, we add a new `BoolVal` class to the `Val` class. With this addition, we can require that the test expression in an `if` statement be an instance of `BoolVal`.

Types

Observe that the `int` type in our (as yet unnamed) language is *not* the same as the `int` type in Java, even though they are closely related and have the same syntactic category. There should be no confusion about `bool`, since in Java the corresponding type is `boolean`.

Our objective is to associate a type with every instance of the constructor. For example, an `IntVal` has type `int`, and a `BoolVal` has type `bool`. The constructor for a procedure object is a `ProcVal`, so we need a way to give a type to a `ProcVal`.

When we define a procedure, we *declare* the types of each of the procedure's formal parameters and the procedure's return type. We show how to do this in the next section. Once we know these declared types, we can define the type of the procedure object.

We use the notation

$$[t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \Rightarrow t]$$

to represent the type of a procedure that has n formal parameters of types t_1, \dots, t_n , respectively, and that returns a value of type t .

To simplify things, we do not permit the creation of new (named) types. The only types in the language are `int`, `bool`, or procedure.

Types (continued)

A *type* is one of the two primitive types or a procedure type. A *type expression* is a syntactic category in our typed language that describes a type:

```
<typeExp>:PrimTypeExp ::= _<primType>
                                     PrimTypeExp (PrimType _primType)
<typeExp>:ProcTypeExp ::= _LBRACK_<typeExps>_R_ARROW_<typeExp>
                                     ProcTypeExp (TypeExps _typeExps, _typeExp)
<primType>:IntPrimType ::= _INT
                                     IntPrimType ()
<primType>:BoolPrimType ::= _BOOL
                                     BoolPrimType ()
<typeExps> ::= _<typeExp>_+COMMA
                                     TypeExps (List<TypeExp> _typeExps)
```

Types (continued)

Here are some examples of type expressions:

1. `int`
2. `bool`
3. `[_bool, _int => _int_]`
4. `[_[int=>bool], _[int, int=>int]_ => _[int, int=>bool]_]`
5. `[_=>_int_]_`

Type expressions 1 and 2 describe primitive `int` and `bool` types. Type expression 3 describes a procedure type that takes `t` of type `bool` and `int`, respectively, and that returns an `int`. Expression 4 describes a procedure type that takes two procedure parameters of type `[int=>bool]` and `[int, int=>int]`, respectively, and that returns a procedure of type `[int, int=>bool]`. Type expression 5 describes a procedure type that takes no parameters and that returns an `int`. Observe that **any type expression that starts with a '[' must be a procedure type**.

Our typed language now requires that every procedure expression be annotated with type expressions for each of the procedure's formal parameters – its *formal parameter types* – and a type expression for the procedure's *declared return type*. Together, these annotations completely determine the procedure's type, called (not surprisingly) the *defined type* of the procedure.

Types (continued)

The following examples show how to modify a procedure expression in the SET language by adding type annotations so that it conforms to the TYPE0 language rules (see Slide 9 for the start of the discussion of the TYPE0 language).

```
% SET language, no type annotations
proc(t) +(t,5)

% the same procedure in the TYPE0 language with type annotations
proc(t:int):int +(t,5)
% defined type [int=>int], return type int

% SET language, no type annotations
proc(f,x) .f(x)

% the same procedure in the TYPE0 language with type annotations
proc(f:[int=>int], x:int):int .f(x)
% defined type [[int=>int],int=>int], return type int
```

When used in an expression, a procedure *application* is considered to have a type equal to the *return type* of the procedure. For example, the type of the procedure application `+(t,5)` is `int`:

```
.proc(t:int):int +(t,5) (4) % evaluates to 9, an int
```

We will shortly define grammar rules for the TYPE0 language that allow expressions such as these.

Types (continued)

Every expression has a type. The type of a variable (VarExp) is bound to the variable in the current type environment. All have a type binding.

A *type error* is one of the following:

- an attempt to define a procedure whose declared return type does not match the type of the body of the procedure;
- an attempt to apply a non-procedure as a procedure;
- an attempt to apply a procedure to the wrong number of actual parameters;
- an attempt to apply a procedure to actual parameters whose type does not match the declared types of the corresponding formal parameters;
- an attempt to use a non-boolean as the test in an `if` expression;
- an attempt to have expressions of different types in the `then` and `else` branches of an `if` expression;
- an attempt to assign a value to a LHS variable in a `set` expression whose type does not match the type of the RHS expression.

In the above, we consider primitive procedures such as `+`, `add1`, procedures for the purposes of type checking. These primitive procedures are pre-defined procedure types.

Types (continued)

Our static type checking implementation also detects errors where an identifier is referred to in a particular expression without appearing on the LHS of a `let` or `letrec` or in a top-level `define` – *i.e.*, if the identifier occurs in an expression. It also detects errors where the same identifier appears twice on the LHS of a `let` or `letrec` or if the same identifier appears twice in the formal parameter list of a `proc`.

A variable is in *declaration position* if it occurs on the LHS of a `letrec` definition, or if it appears as a formal parameter in a procedure definition. These occurrences determine the *defined type* of the variable according to the following rules:

- The defined type of a variable appearing in declaration position `let`, or `letrec` is the type of its RHS expression.
- The defined type of a variable appearing in a formal parameter list is the type in the procedure definition.

When a variable appears in an expression, the type of the variable is using static scope rules.

Types (continued)

Notice that static scope rules make it possible to determine the type of variables that appear free in a procedure body – in other words, variables that are not declared as procedure formal parameters.

Numeric literals all have type `int`. We predefine the identifiers `true` and `false` to have type `bool`, with the obvious semantics in test expressions and boolean expressions.

The type of a `let` or `letrec` expression is the type of the expression being defined.

Observe that the expressed value of the `testExp` in an `IfExp` can be either an `IntVal`, so an expression like

```
if 0 then 3 else 4
```

that we have seen in Language SET won't work in our typed language.

Since the type of a variable is determined by static scope rules, the only “interesting” types are those of procedures. We need to add syntax rules for procedure definitions that permit us to declare the types of its formal parameter and its return type.

Language TYPE0

We define a language named TYPE0 that is based on the SET language. The main change is that it implements type syntax. We first require that a procedure definition include a type declaration. We then modify the `<proc>` grammar rule – declare the types of each of its formal parameters and the return type of the procedure. Each of these declarations are given a type, an expression, described earlier, in the following grammar rules related to procedure definitions. Notice that these grammar rules are similar to the original grammar rules for the SET language, with the exception that they include type declarations.

```
<proc>      ::= _PROC _LPAREN _<formals> _RPAREN _COLON _<typeExp> _<testExp>
              Proc (Formals _formals, _TypeExp _typeExp, _TestExp _testExp)

<formals>    ::= _** _<VAR> _COLON _<typeExp> _+ COMMA
              Formals (List<Token> _varList, _List<TypeExp> _typeList)
```

These changes do *not* affect the behavior of the `eval` methods that implement the semantics of the SET language. Thus the resulting TYPE0 language has the same semantics as the SET language, except for the presence of `bool` and `int` types. Any type information in a program is simply ignored.

Language TYPE0 (continued)

A procedure definition in our TYPE0 language now looks like this,

```
define add2 = proc(x:int):int add1(add1(x))
```

This says that the *declared type* of the formal parameter `x` is the *declared return type* of `add2` is `int`, so that the *defined type* is `[int=>int]`.

Since we have made changes to our syntax, our expression parser is a bit more complicated, but because our `eval` methods are not affected by these changes, the `eval` methods in the code file for the SET language are unchanged in the code file for TYPE0.

Notice, however, that we have not implemented any of our type checking yet. Type checking is taking place.

Language TYPE0 (continued)

Our TYPE0 language has two new expressions: a `TrueExp` and a `FalseExp`. We will create and abstract syntax:

```
<exp>:TrueExp    ::= _TRUE
                        TrueExp()
<exp>:FalseExp   ::= _FALSE
                        FalseExp()
```

What should the `eval` method return for these classes? In Language SET, we used `0` to be false and everything else to be true. Once we have syntax for `true` and `false` expressions in Language TYPE0, we introduce corresponding semantics using the `BoolVal` classes that represent the values of these expressions. The `BoolVal` class is simply a Java class for Java boolean values. The code for the `BoolVal` class is in the `val` file.

Once we have the `BoolVal` class, we can define the `eval` behavior for the `TrueExp` and `FalseExp` classes. Here's the code for `TrueExp` – the code for `FalseExp` is similar:

```
public Val eval(Env env) {
    return new BoolVal(true);
}
```

Obviously the `isTrue` Java method applied to a `BoolVal` object constructed with `true` (in Java), and similarly the `isTrue` Java method applied to a `BoolVal` object constructed with `false` must return `false`. The `isTrue` method applied to *any* other value (or a `ProcVal`) must throw an exception.

Language TYPE0 (continued)

We can add a number of new primitives applied to `IntVal` arguments that return such as the following, with obvious meanings:

```
<?  
<=?  
>?  
>=?  
=?  
<>?
```

The purpose of the `?` at the end of these is to remind you that they are testing `IntVal`s to see if they return boolean values (they are *predicates*). We also change the value returned by `<=?` primitive to a `BoolVal`.

The following expressions evaluate as indicated:

```
<?(3,3)           % => false (actually, a false BoolVal)  
<=?(3,3)          % => true  
<>?(x,y)           % => depends on the current bindings  
=?(proc(t) t, proc(u) u) % => exception -- a proc is not an IntVal  
if 1 then 2 else 3  % => exception -- 1 is not a boolean  
zero?(1)           % => false  
zero?(0)           % => true  
zero?(proc(t) t)   % => exception -- a proc is not an IntVal
```

Language TYPE1

Now that we have built the syntax for type expressions and incorporated it into the language, we begin to implement type checking. Our strategy is to determine the type of any expression as we evaluate it, and perform type checks along the way.

Our first step is to define `Type` as a *semantic* entity in our implementation. We introduce `Type` as an abstract class with three subclasses:

```
IntType  
BoolType  
ProcType
```

These correspond to the three classes that extend the `Val` class. Observe that `Val` objects are used to evaluate expressions, whereas `Type` objects are used for type checking. They have the same syntax but are used in different ways.

Neither `BoolType` nor `IntType` has any instance variables. A `ProcType` object has one instance variable, as described here:

```
ProcType(List<Type>_paramTypeList, _Type_returnType)
```

An expression is of type `IntType` if it evaluates to an integer. Similarly for a `BoolType`.

When we evaluate an expression, we use an environment to determine its expressed value. When we are doing type checking, we don't care what the expressed value actually is: only the type matters.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Our approach is to evaluate the type (`Type`) of an expression, doing sub-expressions along the way. If there are no type errors, we can then return the value (`Val`) of the expression and return this value as we have done before.

First, when we encounter a variable in an expression, we want to determine its type. If the variable is a formal parameter in the body of a function, its type is determined by the type declaration of the formal parameter. Otherwise, its type can be determined using static scope rules. This suggests we need a way of binding the variable to its type during type checking, similar to binding the variable to its value during expression evaluation. We can do this by creating a *type environment* that is almost identical to a value environment that we have been using so far, except that our type environment binds types rather than to values.

The appropriate classes are shown on the next slide.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

```
abstract class TypeEnv
    public static TypeEnv emptyTypeEnv() // returns an empty environment
    public abstract Type applyTypeEnv(String sym)
    public abstract TypeEnv extendTypeEnv(TypeBindings typeBindings, TypeEnv nextEnv)
    public abstract TypeEnv extendTypeEnv(List<String> idList, TypeEnv nextEnv)

class TypeEnvNull extends TypeEnv // empty type environment constructor

class TypeEnvNode extends TypeEnv
    public TypeBindings typeBindings // local bindings
    public TypeEnv typeEnv // next environment

class TypeBindings
    public List<TypeBinding> typeBindingList

class TypeBinding
    public String sym
    public Type type

abstract class Type

class IntType extends Type
class BoolType extends Type
class ProcType extends Type
```


Language TYPE1 (continued)

The definitions of the classes relating to type environments is given in the `tenv1` file.

Since most of our type checking rules relate to type equality, we must define what types to be equal. There are only three basic types, and for each of them we define a method. This `void` method silently returns if the types are the same, otherwise the `typeMismatch` method in the `Type` class; this method throws a runtime exception with an appropriate message.

The two primitive types are simple. For the `BoolType` class, the `checkEquals` method is defined as follows:

```
public void checkEquals(Type t) {
    t.checkBoolType(this);
}

public void checkBoolType(BoolType t) {
    // if we get here, this must be a BoolType
}
```

The default `checkBoolType` method in the `Type` class – defined for all other types – throws a type mismatch exception.

A similar definition works for the `IntType`.

We are left to define `checkEquals` for the `ProcType` class. This is easy: two `ProcType` objects are equal if they both have the same number of formal parameter types and if their parameter types are pairwise equal (in the proper order), and if they both have the

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Here is the definition of `checkEquals` in the `ProcType` class:

```
public void checkEquals(Type t) {
    t.checkProcType(this);
}

// check to see if the type of the ProcType object t is the same as
// as this ProcType object
public void checkProcType(ProcType t) {
    // first check the return types
    this.returnType.checkEquals(t.returnType);
    // then check the types of the formal parameters
    checkEqualTypes(this.paramTypeList, t.paramTypeList);
}
```

The `checkEqualTypes` static method in the `Type` class is straight-forward: find the sizes; then iterate through both of the lists, checking pairwise for type equality.

```
public static void checkEqualTypes(List<Type> t1List, List<Type> t2List) {
    if (t1List.size() != t2List.size())
        throw new PLCCEException("Type error", "argument number mismatch");
    Iterator<Type> t1i = t1List.iterator();
    Iterator<Type> t2i = t2List.iterator();
    while (t1i.hasNext()) {
        Type t1 = t1i.next();
        Type t2 = t2i.next();
        t1.checkEquals(t2);
    }
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

At this point we can also add primitives operations for `and`, `or`, and `not`.

```
<prim>AndPrim  ::= _AND
<prim>OrPrim   ::= _OR
<prim>NotPrim  ::= _NOT
```

Here is the `apply` code for an `AndPrim` object:

```
public Val apply(Val [] va) {
    if (va.length != 2)
        throw new RuntimeException("two arguments expected");
    boolean b0 = va[0].boolVal().val;
    boolean b1 = va[1].boolVal().val;
    return new BoolVal(b0 && b1);
}
```

It's easy to see how the `apply` code should be implemented for the other two primitives, `or` and `not`.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Although primitives are not procedures (you can't bind a variable to a primitive, for example), they do have specific type behaviors that can be described using procedure types. The `+` primitive behaves like `[int, int=>int]`, the `*` primitive behaves like `[int=>int]`. Each of the primitives are associated with a `ProcType` that is used for type checking. We define these types in the `Type` class as static instance variables.

Rather than building each of these types by hand with constructors, we use a special static method `compile` in the `Type` class that takes a string representation of a procedure type such as `[int, int=>int]` (if the string is `"ii>i"`) and returns a `ProcType` object with the proper operand types and result type. You can see how the `compile` method works in the following example definitions and their corresponding interpretation.

```
public static ProcType ii_i = compile("ii>i"); // [int, int=>int]
public static ProcType i_i  = compile("i>i");  // [int=>int]
public static ProcType ii_b = compile("ii>b"); // [int, int=>boolean]
public static ProcType bb_b = compile("bb>b"); // [boolean, boolean=>boolean]
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The `definedType` method in the `Prim` class asks the primitive procedure type is, and the object returns the appropriate type from a table compiled in the `Type` class. For example, in the `AddPrim` class, we

```
public ProcType definedType() {  
    return Type.ii_i;  
}
```

When declaring the formal parameter types of procedures and procedure expressions, we ensure that there are no duplicate variable names. The `:init` hook during parsing.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

While the type environment classes are similar to those for expression environments, it is unnecessary to use references, since we never modify the environment. Therefore type environments are similar to the environment in language V6. The essential changes are to replace `Var` with `TypeEnv`, and `Binding` with `TypeBinding`.

We are now prepared to write the code to type-check expressions. We initialize a top-level type environment, which we call `initTypeEnv` in the `Program` class, where we also define the top-level expression.

```
static TypeEnv tenv = TypeEnv.initTypeEnv();
```

In the `Eval` class's `$run` method, we type-check by applying the type checker to the `exp` object – the “program” that we are to evaluate. The actual evaluation of this is irrelevant, since its purpose is simply to carry out type checking before expression evaluation. If the type checking succeeds, the `$run` method returns the string representation of the value of the expression.

```
public void $run() {  
    exp.evalType(Program.tenv); // type check first  
    Val val = exp.eval(Program.env);  
    System.out.println(val);  
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The type of a `LitExp` is easy:

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    return Type.intType; // a singleton in the Type
}
```

So are the types of a `TrueExp` and a `FalseExp`. For both the `TrueExp` and `FalseExp` we have

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    return Type.boolType;
}
```

The type of a `VarExp` looks up the type of the variable in the type environment result:

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    return tenv.applyTypeEnv(var);
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The type of a `LetExp` involves checking the LHS variable list for duplicates (done during parsing), determining the types of the RHS expressions using the current type environment, extending the current type environment by binding the types of the RHS expressions to the types of the LHS expressions, and evaluating the type of the `LetExp` in this extended environment.

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    TypeEnv ntenv = letDecls.addTypeBindings(tenv);
    return exp.evalType(ntenv);
}
```

Most of the work is done in the `addTypeBindings` method in the `LetDecls` class, which we show here.

```
public TypeEnv addTypeBindings(TypeEnv tenv) {
    List<String> idList = new ArrayList<String>();
    for(Token t : varList) // LHS tokens
        idList.add(t.toString());
    Rands rands = new Rands(expList); // RHS expressions
    List<Type> typeList = rands.evalTypeRands(tenv);
    TypeBindings typeBindings = new TypeBindings(idList, typeList);
    return tenv.extendTypeEnv(typeBindings);
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The `Rands` object must define the `evalTypeRands` method, which is straight that this is where static scope rules come into play: in a `let` expression, the expressions are evaluated in the enclosing type environment, `tenv`.

```
public List<Type> evalTypeRands(TypeEnv tenv) {  
    List<Type> typeList = new ArrayList<Type>();  
    for (Exp e : expList)  
        typeList.add(e.evalType(tenv));  
    return typeList;  
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

In order to determine the defined type of a procedure, we need to give meaning to the type expressions used to declare the types of a procedure's parameters and return type. Specifically, we need to take a type expression, apply the `<typeExp>` grammar rules and evaluate its `Type`: in other words, the semantics of a type expression is its `Type`. This is parallel to taking a value expression, applying the `<exp>` grammar rules and evaluating its `Val`. Both of these are examples of semantics.

For each type expression, we implement a `toType` method that returns the corresponding instance of `Type`. One thing to observe is that a type expression does not involve any variables, so there is no need to keep track of a type environment.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

For example, a type expression of the form `[int=>bool]` would evaluate to a `List` object containing two type expressions of the form `int` would evaluate to a `IntType`.

Here's the definition of `toType` for the `PrimTypeExp` class (representing expressions of the form `int` or `bool`) in the code file:

```
PrimTypeExp
%%%
    public Type toType() {
        return primType.toType(); // intType or boolType
    }
%%%
```

For the `BoolPrimType` class, which corresponds to grammar rules for the `bool` tokens, we simply return `boolType`.

```
BoolPrimType
%%%
    public Type toType() {
        return Type.boolType; // a singleton in the Type class
    }
%%%
```

Similar remarks apply to `IntPrimType`.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

For a `ProcTypeExp`, we

0. determine the types (using the `toType` method) of the (formal parameter) type expressions that appear to the left of the '`=>`' token and insert them into a `List<Type>` object,
1. determine the type of the (return) type expression that appears to the right of the '`=>`' token, and then
2. construct the appropriate `ProcType` object.

```
ProcTypeExp
%%%
    public Type toType() {
        List<Type> paramTypeList = typeExps.toTypes();
        Type returnType = typeExp.toType();
        return new ProcType(paramTypeList, returnType);
    }
%%%
```

The `toTypes()` method in the `TypeExps` class is straight-forward: it iterates over its `typeExpList` and calling `toType` on each of its type expressions.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

We are now in a position to determine the *defined type* of a `proc`. When we say the defined type, we mean the type of the procedure (a `ProcType`) as determined by the declared types of each of the formal parameters and the declared return type. For example,

```
proc(x:int):bool ...
```

has a formal parameter of declared type `int` and a declared return type of `bool`, so the defined type of this procedure is `[int=>bool]`. *The defined type of a procedure is not dependent on the type environment in which the procedure appears, nor on the names of the formal parameters.*

However, the type of the procedure *body* is dependent on the type environment in which the procedure is evaluated, since the procedure body may have free variables that are free with respect to the procedure's formal parameters but that are bound by types defined in an enclosing environment. One of our type checks is that the procedure's declared return type is the same as the type of the procedure body.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The `definedType` method in the `Proc` class evaluates the procedure's defined type. It returns a `ProcType`: it gets the declared types of the formal parameters from the `Formals` class, and the declared return type from the procedure's `typeExp`. The defined type is determined by the declared types of the formal parameters and the procedure's declared return type.

```
Proc
%%%
    public ProcType definedType() {
        List<Type> declaredTypeList = formals.formalTypeList();
        Type declaredReturnType = typeExp.toType();
        return new ProcType(declaredTypeList, declaredReturnType);
    }
%%%
```

The `Formals` class defines the `formalTypeList` method:

```
Formals
%%%
    public List<Type> formalTypeList() {
        List<Type> typeList = new ArrayList<Type>(typeExpList.size());
        for (TypeExp texp : typeExpList)
            typeList.add(texp.toType());
        return typeList;
    }
%%%
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

We are now ready to define `evalType` in the `Proc` class.

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    // retrieve the declared return type of the proc
    Type declaredReturnType = typeExp.toType();
    // bind the formal parameters to their declared
    TypeBindings typeBindings = formals.declaredType();
    // extend the tenv by the formal param type bindings
    TypeEnv ntenv = tenv.extendTypeEnv(typeBindings);
    // evaluate the type of the body using this extended
    // type environment
    Type expType = exp.evalType(ntenv);
    // and check that the declared return type matches
    Type.checkEquals(declaredReturnType, expType);
    // finally build the ProcType
    List<Type> formalTypeList = formals.formalTypeList();
    return new ProcType(formalTypeList, declaredReturnType);
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Type checking for an `if` expression involves making sure that the `test` expression has type `bool` and that the true part and the false part have the same type. For a `IfExp`, we have:

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    Type testType = testExp.evalType(tenv);
    testType.checkBoolType(Type.boolType);
    Type trueExpType = trueExp.evalType(tenv);
    Type falseExpType = falseExp.evalType(tenv);
    Type.checkEquals(trueExpType, falseExpType);
    return trueExpType; // same as falseExpType if v
}
```


Language TYPE1 (continued)

What is the type of a $\{_ \dots _ \}$ expression? Since the purpose of is normally to perform side-effects and to return only the value of the last expression, we assume that the type of ' $\{_ \dots _ \}$ ' is the type of the last expression. The types of the previous sub-expressions are ignored and the last expression must not have type errors.

Thus the expression

```
let
  x = 1
  double = proc(t:int):int set t = *(2,t)
in
  { if zero?(x) then 0 else set x = add1(x)
    ; .double(x)
    ; proc():int x
  }
```

has type $[=>\text{int_}]$.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The following method implements type checking in the SeqExp class:

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    Type t = exp.evalType(tenv);
    for (Exp e : seqExps.expList)
        t = e.evalType(tenv);
    return t;
}
```

In a set expression, we look up the type of the LHS variable and it matches the type of the RHS expression. The following method implements type checking in the SetExp class:

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    Type varType = tenv.applyTypeEnv(var);
    Type expType = exp.evalType(tenv);
    Type.checkEquals(varType, expType);
    return varType;
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

A `letrec` expression is treated similar to a `let` expression, except the RHS procedures must be evaluated in an environment that has bindings for the LHS variables. Since the defined type of a RHS procedure can be determined solely by declared types of its parameters and return type, the type of the RHS variables can be determined independent of any environment. So we add LHS variables to extend the type environment and then evaluate the type of the procedure *bodies* using this extended environment, for the purpose of checking consistency with their declared return types. The `addLetrecTypeBindings` method of the `LetDecls` class does all the work.

```
public TypeEnv addLetrecTypeBindings(TypeEnv tenv) {
    tenv = tenv.extendTypeEnv(new TypeBindings(varList,
        Iterator<Token> varIter = varList.iterator();
        Iterator<Exp> expIter = expList.iterator();
        while (varIter.hasNext()) {
            String str = varIter.next().toString();
            Type typ = expIter.next().evalType(tenv);
            tenv.add(new TypeBinding(str, typ));
        }
    return tenv;
}
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Once we have type checked the RHS entries and built the extended environment with bindings for the LHS variables, we can evaluate the type of the procedure body using this extended environment.

```
LetrecExp
%%%
    public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
        TypeEnv ntenv = letDecls.addLetrecTypeBindings(tenv);
        return exp.evalType(ntenv);
    }
    %%%
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Two to go: AppExp and PrimappExp. Both of these are similar to check if the formal parameter types of the operator agree in number with the actual parameter (operand) types.

For an AppExp, we must ensure that the thing we are applying is a procedure – it must evaluate to a ProcType. We then check that the actual expression types match the declared types of the formal parameters. The ProcType object already knows (and has checked the validity of) the type of an application is simply the return type of the procedure.

```
AppExp
%%%
    public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
        Type tt = exp.evalType(tenv);
        ProcType pt = tt.procType(); // make sure tt
        List<Type> argTypeList = rands.evalTypeRands
        Type.checkEqualTypes(pt.paramTypeList, argTy
        return pt.returnType;
    }
    %%%
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

For PrimappExp, we do the same thing, except that we simply ask the primitive to identify its type using its definedType method:

```
public Type evalType(TypeEnv tenv) {
    ProcType pt = prim.definedType();
    List<Type> argTypeList = rands.evalTypeRands
    Type.checkEqualTypes(pt.paramTypeList, argTy
    return pt.returnType;
}
```

Notice that the type of a primitive is defined statically. The definedType method just retrieves the type, which must be a ProcType.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

We are left to handle top-level `defines`. While this seems to be straightforward, we are faced with problems of unbound variables. For example, suppose we want to make the following definitions:

```
define odd? =  
  proc(x:int):bool if zero?(x) then false else .even?  
define even? =  
  proc(x:int):bool if zero?(x) then true else .odd?
```

When the procedure body of `odd?` is first encountered, the variable `even?` is unbound, so the type of the body of the procedure cannot be evaluated. To type-check `odd?` fails with a type error.

We can remedy this situation in two ways:

- forbid top-level `defines` altogether; or
- create a mechanism to deal with unbound variables that `defines` work.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

We take the second approach, with some restrictions.

First, we create a new top-level operator `declare` that has a syntax similar to `define`. We declare the type of a formal parameter in a procedure. This allows us to give a type to an identifier without actually creating a value binding for the identifier.

Pascal provides such a mechanism with *forward* declarations, as do C and C++. In Java, procedure declarations. Java does not suffer from this problem, in part because the order of declaration of fields and methods is not significant.

A declaration has the following concrete and abstract syntax:

```
<program>:Declare ::= _DECLARE_<VAR>_COLON_<typeExp>  
                Declare(Token_var, _TypeExp_typeE
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The rules for top-level `defines` and `declares` are:

0. A top-level identifier definition serves as a declaration for the purpose of determining the type of the identifier.
1. It is an error for a top-level identifier to be declared (hence defined) more than once.
2. If an identifier declaration precedes its definition, it is an error and defined types are not identical.
3. It is an error for a declaration not to have a subsequent definition. This error need not be checked.

Although you cannot define a top-level variable more than once, you can define a top-level variable using `set` if the variable has been previously declared. The type rule for variable assignment still requires that the RHS type of the assignment agree with the declared type of the variable.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

Examples of top-level declarations/definitions:

1. `define x = 3 % type int`
`define x = 4 % error - multiple definitions for x`
2. `define x = 3 % type int`
`set x = 4 % ok - types agree`
`set x = true % error - type of RHS must be int`
3. `define fact = proc(x:int):int`
`if zero?(x) then 1 else *(x,.fact(sub1(x)))`
`% error - fact on the RHS has no type binding!`
4. `declare fact : [int=>int]`
`define fact = proc(x:int):int`
`if zero?(x) then 1 else *(x,.fact(sub1(x))) % ok`
5. `declare f : [=>bool]`
`define y = 2`
`define f = proc():int y`
`% error - defined type of f does not match declared type`
6. `declare f : [=>bool]`
`define y = 2`
`define f = proc():bool y`
`% error - body type y does not match declared type`

Language TYPE1 (continued)

As a final example, consider

```
declare f : [=>int]
declare y : int
define f = proc():int y
.f() % error - no binding for y
```

The definition for `f` is type valid, but `y` has no defined value binding; procedure application `.f()` results in a run-time error.

If we subsequently give a value definition for `y`, the procedure application as the following shows:

```
declare f : [=>int]
declare y : int
define f = proc():int y
define y = 3
.f() % ok - returns 3
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

We implement top-level declarations as follows:

```
Declare
%%%
// calling $run may trigger a modification
// of the initial type environment
public void $run() {
    TypeEnv tenv = Program.tenv; // top-level type environment
    Type tv; // variable's declared type
    String sym = var.toString(); // the LHS symbol
    try {
        // look up the variable in the initial type environment
        tv = tenv.applyTypeEnv(sym);
    } catch (PLCCEException e) {
        // no type binding -- must be a new type declaration
        // that we add to the top-level type environment
        tv = typeExp.toType();
        tenv.add(new TypeBinding(sym, tv)); // type binding
        System.out.println(sym + ":" + tv);
        return;
    }
    throw new PLCCEException(sym + ": duplicate variable declaration");
}
%%%
```

If a type binding (either through a declaration or definition) already exists, it is flagged as an error. Otherwise a top-level binding is made between the identifier and the type expression. The `$run` behavior of a variable declaration/definition is to declare/define the variable along with its declared/defined type.

Language TYPE1 (continued)

We expand on top-level definitions as follows. Notice that this code is in two parts where the variable hasn't been declared/defined before:

```
Define
%%%
// calling $run may trigger a modification
// of the initial type and value environments
public void $run() {
    Env env = Program.env;          // top-level environment
    TypeEnv tenv = Program.tenv;    // top-level type environment
    Type rhst; // RHS expression type
    Val rhsv; // RHS expression value
    Type lhst; // LHS variable declared type
    Val lhsv; // LHS variable's current value
    String sym = var.toString(); // the LHS symbol
    try {
        // look up the LHS variable in the initial type environment
        lhst = tenv.applyTypeEnv(sym);
    } catch (RuntimeException e) {
        // no type binding -- must be a new variable definition
        rhst = exp.evalType(tenv);
        tenv.add(new TypeBinding(sym, rhst));          // type binding
        rhsv = exp.eval(env);
        env.add(new Binding(sym, new ValRef(rhsv))); // value binding
        System.out.println(sym + ":" + rhst);
        return
    }
    ...
}
%%%
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The second part is where the variable has a declaration but possibly not a definition:

```
Define
%%%
...
// the variable has a declared type, lhst -- see if it has a value
try {
    // look up the value of var in the initial environment
    lhsv = env.applyEnv(sym);
} catch (RuntimeException e) {
    // the variable has a declared type, but no value
    // so we want to add the value binding to the top-level environment
    // first check the defined type of the RHS
    rhst = exp.evalType(tenv);
    // the declared and defined types must be the same
    Type.checkEquals(lhst, rhst);
    // get the RHS expression value
    rhsv = exp.eval(env);
    // and bind it to the variable
    env.add(new Binding(sym, new ValRef(rhsv)));
    System.out.println(sym + ":" + lhst);
    return;
}
// the variable has a value, so must be a duplicate definition
throw new RuntimeException(sym + ": duplicate variable definition");
}
%%%
```

Language TYPE1 (continued)

The code on the previous slide implements a top-level definition, binding an identifier in the initial environment. According to our type rules, if a type binding already exists, it is flagged as an error. If a declared type binding exists, and a value binding, the expression type is checked for conformance with the declared type. If a declared type binding does not exist, the top-level type environment is extended to include the type binding. In case there are no errors, the environment is extended to include the value binding.

Armed with both `declare` and `define`, we can now implement `even?` procedures:

```
declare odd? : [int=>bool]
define even? =
  proc(t:int):bool if zero?(t) then true else .odd
define odd? =
  proc(t:int):bool if zero?(t) then false else .even
```