#### **CS 162 Programming languages**

# Lecture 9: Type Checking

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### Outline

- We will talk about types
- What types compute
- Why types are useful
- Brief survey of types in the real world

#### Motivation

- When writing programs, everything is great as long as the program works.
- Unfortunately, this is usually not the case
- Programs crash, don't compute what we want them to compute, etc.
- This is arguably the biggest problem software faces today

#### Software correctness

- We would really want to prove that software has the properties we care about
- And in some sense, we seem to have all the ingredients:
  - A formal understanding of syntax
  - A rigorous mathematic notation to express meaning of programs
  - Some proofs in class showing that a small toy program must evaluate to a certain integer
- So what is the problem?

#### Software correctness

- Problem: Rice's theorem. Any non-trivial property about a Turing machine is undecidable
- This means that we can never give an algorithm, that for all programs can decide if this program has an error on some inputs.
- What can we do?
- Give up?

### Big idea

- Big Idea: Just because we cannot prove something about the original program does not mean we cannot prove something about an *abstraction* of the program.
- Strategy: In addition to the operational semantics, we will also define *abstract semantics* that will overapproximate the states a program is in.
- Example: In  $\lambda^+$ , the operational semantics compute a concrete integer or list, while our abstract semantics only compute the if the result is of kind integer or list.

#### Abstraction

- Of course, any abstraction will be less precise than the program
- One popular abstraction: types
- Let's assume we have types Int and List
- Example: let x = 10 in x
- Operational semantics yield concrete value 10
- Abstract semantics that only differentiate the kind (or type) of the expression yield: Integer

#### Abstraction

- But we don't just want any abstraction, we need abstractions that *overapproximate* the result of the concrete program
- Recall the example: let x = 10 in x
- Abstract value *Integer* overapproximates 10 since 10 is a kind of integer
- On the other hand, abstract value *List* does not overapproximate 10.

### Soundness

• Specifically, we only care about abstract semantics that are sound

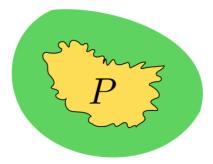
• Soundness means that for any program: If we evaluate it under *concrete* semantics (operational semantics) and our *abstract* semantics, the abstract value obtained overapproximates the concrete value.

### Soundness

- The reason we only care about sound abstract semantics is the following:
- Theorem: If some abstract semantics are sound and an expression is of abstract value x, then its concrete value y is always part of the abstract value x.
- Why is this useful?
- This means that if a program has no error in the abstract semantics, it is guaranteed not to have an error in the concrete semantics.
- ASTREE tools: http://www.astree.ens.fr/

### Cost of abstraction

• But using an abstraction comes at a cost:



- What do we know if a program has an error in the abstract semantics?
- Nothing. We only know that the program may have an error (or not)
- If under some abstract semantics a program has an error, but the program in fact never has this error under concrete semantics, we say this is a false positive
- Finding the right abstractions is key! Abstraction must match properties of interest to be proven.

### Types

- In this class, we will focus on one kind of abstraction: types
- This means abstract values are the types in the language
- What is a type? An abstract value representing an (usually) infinite set of concrete values
- Question: For proving what kind of properties are types as abstract values useful?
- Answer: To avoid run-time type errors!

## Type checking v.s. Type inference

- We saw earlier that types are just a kind of abstract value
- Two strategies to compute types:
  - Ask the programmer
  - Compute types of expressions from the known types of concrete values.
- Most popular languages use the strategy, known as type checking

## Type checking

- Type checking: The programmer provides some types (typically, every variable) and the compiler complains if some types are inconsistent.
- Languages with type checking: C, C++, Java, ...
- We will (formally) study type checking first.

### Type inference

- In languages with type inference, you don't have to write any types!
- The compiler automatically computes the "best" type of every expression and reports an error if the computed types are not compatible
- Very cool and intriguing idea. We will learn exactly how it works in a few lectures
- There are languages with this feature: ML, OCaml, Haskell, Go

### Operational semantics in $\lambda^+$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow i_1}{e_1 \oplus e_2 \Downarrow i_1 \oplus i_2} \text{ Arith}$$
 
$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow i_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow i_2 \quad i_1 \odot i_2 \text{ holds}}{e_1 \odot e_2 \Downarrow \text{ true}} \text{ PredTrue}$$
 
$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow i_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow i_2 \quad i_1 \odot i_2 \text{ does not hold}}{e_1 \odot e_2 \Downarrow \text{ false}} \text{ PredFalse}$$
 
$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow \text{ true} \quad e_2 \Downarrow v}{\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \Downarrow v} \text{ If True}$$
 
$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow \text{ false} \quad e_3 \Downarrow v}{\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \Downarrow v} \text{ If False}$$
 
$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow \text{ false} \quad e_3 \Downarrow v}{\text{Imbda } x. e \Downarrow \text{ lambda } x. e} \text{ LAMBDA}$$

## Types in $\lambda^+$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hline{\Gamma \vdash i : \mathsf{Int}} & \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathsf{Int} & \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \mathsf{Int} & \Box \in \{+,-,*\} \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash i : \mathsf{Int} & \Gamma \vdash e_1 \ \Box \ e_2 : \mathsf{Int} \\ \hline \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash e_1 \ \Box \ e_2 : \mathsf{Int} \\ \hline \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash e_1 : T_1 & x : T_1, \Gamma \vdash e_2 : T_2 \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \mathsf{let} \ x = e_1 \ \mathsf{in} \ e_2 : T_2 \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash (\mathsf{lambda} \ x : T_1, \Gamma \vdash e : T_2 \\ \hline \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash (\mathsf{lambda} \ x : T_1. \ e) : T_1 \to T_2 \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash (e_1 \ e_2) : T_2 \\ \hline \\ \hline \end{array}$$