

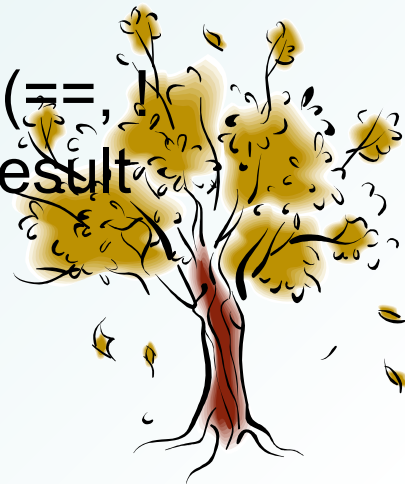
## 6.4 Data types and type checking

- Type inference
  - type checking
- the principal tasks of a compiler



## 6.4 Data types and type checking

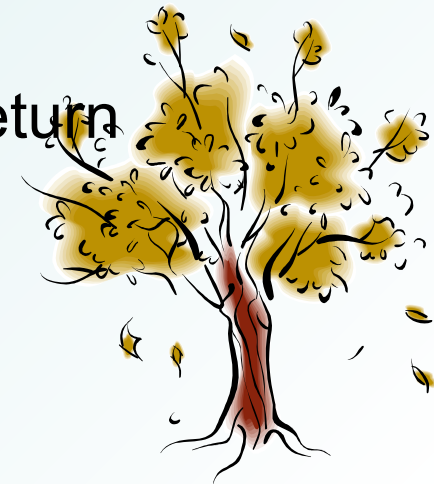
- **Type checking** = set of rules that ensure the type consistency of different constructs in the program
- **Examples:**
  - The type of a variable must match the type from its **declaration**
  - The operands of **arithmetic expressions** (+, \*, -, /) must have integer types; the result has integer type
  - The operands of **comparison** expressions (==, !=, <, >, <=, >=) must have integer or string types; the result has boolean type



## 6.4 Data types and type checking

- **More examples:**

- For each **assignment** statement, the type of the updated variable must match the type of the expression being assigned *match <-> equivalent*
- For each **call** statement `foo(v1, ..., vn)`, the type of each actual argument  $v_i$  must match the type of the corresponding formal argument  $f_i$  from the declaration of function `foo`
- The type of the **return value** must match the return type from the declaration of the function



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

- data type forms:  
a set of values with certain operations on those values.
- type information can be explicit and implicit.  
For instance  
var x: array[1..10] of real (explicit)  
const greeting = "Hello" (implicitly array [1..6] of char)



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### simple types

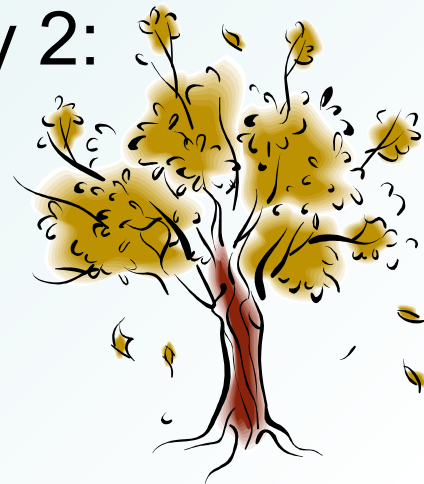
- such as int ,double, boolean, char. *atomic*
- the values exhibit no explicit internal structure, and the typical representation is also simple and predefined.
- void: has no value , represent the empty set.
- new simply type defined such as subrange types and enumerated types.



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### Structured type

- New data types can be created using type constructors.
- Such constructors can be viewed as functions :  
take existing types as parameters .  
return new types with a structure that depends on the constructor.
- Array: Type parameter: There's actually 2:  
index type  
component type.



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### Array

- Arrays are commonly allocated contiguous storage from smaller to larger indexes.
- allow for the use of automatic offset calculations during execution.
- The amount of memory needed is  $n * \text{size}$ .





## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

record

- a record or structure type constructor takes a list of names and associated types and constructs a new type.

struct

```
{double r;  
int i;}
```

- different types may be combined .
- the names are used to access the different components.





## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### union

- correspond to the set union operation

### union

```
{double r;  
int i;}
```

- disjoint union, each value is viewed as either a real or an integer, but never both.
- Allocate memory in parallel for each component.



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### pointer

- values that are references to values of another type. Most useful in describing recursive types.
- A value of a pointer type is a memory address whose location holds a value of its base type.

$^{\text{integer}}$

$^{\text{integer}}$

- allocated space based on the address size of the target machine.



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### function

- an array can be viewed as a function from its index set to its component set.
- Many language have a more general ability to describe function types.
- The allocated space depend on the address size of the target machine. According to the language and the organization of the runtime environment, it should allocate for :

A code pointer alone

Environment pointer.



## 6.4.1 Type expressions and type constructors

### class

- similar to a record declaration, except it includes the definition of operations (methods or member functions)
- beyond type system such as inheritance and dynamic binding, must be maintained by separate data structures.



## 6.4.2 Type names, type declarations and recursive type

- type declarations(type definition): mechanism for a programmer to assign names to type expressions.
- Such as : typedef, = , associated directly with a struct or union constructor.

```
typedef struct  
    {double r;  
      int i;  
    } RealIntRec;    (C)
```



## 6.4.2 Type names, type declarations and recursive type

- The C language has an additional type naming mechanism in which a name can be associated directly with a **struct** or **union** constructor. Without using a **typedef** directly.

```
struct RealIntRec  
{double r;  
  int i;  
}; (C)
```



## 6.4.2 Type names, type declarations and recursive type

- type declarations cause the declared type names to be entered into the **symbol table** just as variable declarations.
- Usually the type names can't be reused as variable names.
- The C language has a small *exception* to this rule in that names associated to struct or union declarations can be reused as typedef names.

```
struct RealIntRec
```

```
{ double r;
```

```
int i;
```

```
};
```

```
typedef struct RealIntRec RealIntRec;
```





## 6.4.2 Type names, type declarations and recursive type

- Since type names can appear in type expressions, questions arise about the recursive use of **type names**.
- Such **recursive data types** are extremely important in **modern programming languages** include lists, trees, and many other structures.



## 6.4.2 Type names, type declarations and recursive type

Two general groups about language:

1 、 permit the direct use of recursion in type declarations.

```
datatype intBST = Nil | Node of int*intBST*intBST (ML)
```

2 、 do not permit direct use of recursion in type declarations.

```
struct intBST  
{ int val;  
  struct intBST *left, *right;  
}  
typedef struct intBST * intBST (C)
```



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

- **type equivalence:** two type expression represent the same type.
- There are many possible ways for type equivalence to be defined by a language.
- We represent type equivalence as it would be in a compiler semantic analyzer.

*function `typeEqual (t1,t2:TypeExp): Boolean;`*



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

A simple grammar for type expressions:

var-decls  $\rightarrow$  var-decls ; var-decl | var-decl

var-decl  $\rightarrow$  id : type-exp

type-exp  $\rightarrow$  simple-type | structured-type

simple-type  $\rightarrow$  int | bool | real | char | void

structured-type  $\rightarrow$  array [ num ] of type-exp |

record var-decls end |

union var-decls end |

pointer to type-exp |

proc ( type-exps ) type-exp

type-exps  $\rightarrow$  type-exps, type-exp | type-exp



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

The type expression can be represented by a syntax tree .

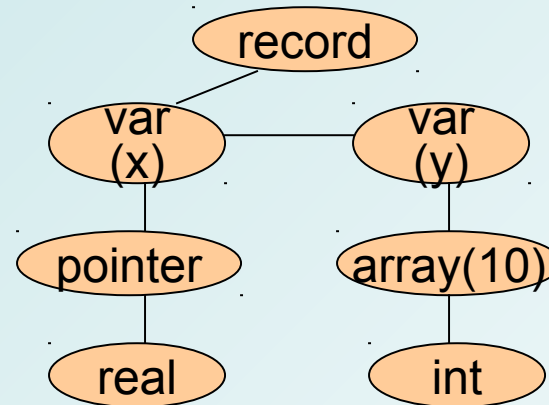
The type expression:

record

x: pointer to real;

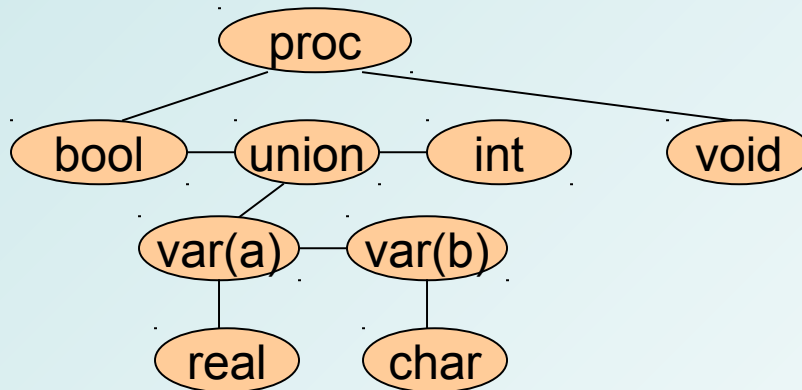
y: array [10] of int

end



The type expression:

proc (bool, union a:real; b:char end, int): void



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Classification of type equivalence

- 1 、 Structural equivalence
- 2 、 Name equivalence
- 3 、 Declaration equivalence

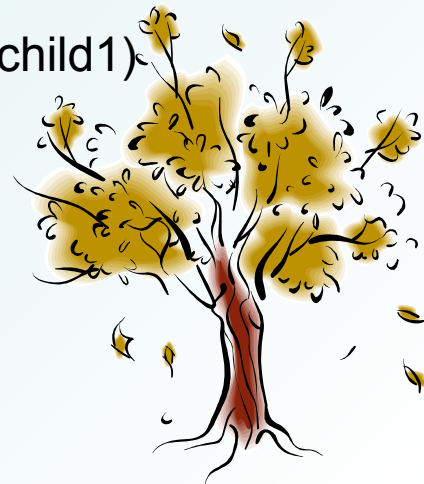


## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Structural equivalence

- two types are the same if and only if they have the same structure.
- two types are the same if and only if they have syntax trees that are identical in structure.

```
function typeEqual (t1,t2:TypeExp): Boolean:  
  var temp: Boolean;  
    p1, p2: TypeExp;  
  Begin  
    If t1 and t2 are of simple type then return t1=t2;  
    Else if t1.kind = array and t2.kind = array then  
      return t1.size = t2.size and TypeEqual(t1.child1, t2.child1);  
    Else if t1.kind = record and t2.kind = record  
      or t1.kind = union and t2.kind = union then  
      begin  
        p1 :=t1.child1;  
        p2 :=t2.child1;  
        temp :=true;
```





## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Structural equivalence

```
while temp and p1 != nil and p2!=nil do
  If p1.name !=p2.name then
temp := false
  else if not typeEqual(p1.child1, p2.child1)
  then temp :=false
  else begin
    p1 := p1.sibling;
    p2 := p2.sibling;
  end;
return temp and p1 = nil and p2 = nil;
end
else if t1.kind = pointer and t2.kind = pointer then
  return typeEqual(t1.child1, t2.child1)
```



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Structural equivalence

```
else if t1.kind = proc and t2.kind = proc then
begin
  p1 :=t1.child1;
  p2 :=t2.child1;
  temp :=true;
  while temp and p1 !=nil and p2 !=nil do
  if not typeEqual(p1.child1,p2.child1)
  then temp :=false
  else begin
    p1:=p1.sibling;
    p2:=p2.sibling;
  end;
  return temp and p1 = nil and p2 = nil
    and typeEqual(t1.child2,t2.child2);
end
else return false;
end;
```



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

- two arrays are equivalent: the same size and component type.
- two records are equivalent: the same components with the same names and in the same order.

different choices:

The size of the array can be ignored

The components of a structure or union can be in a different order.



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Name equivalence

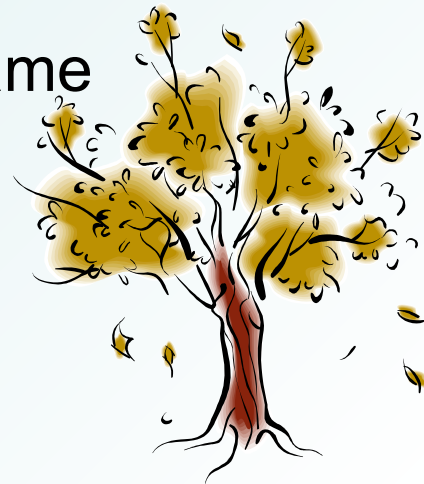
- restricted variable declarations and type subexpressions to simple types and type names.

```
t1 = array [10] of int;  
t2 = array [10] of int;  
t3 = record  
  x: t1;  
  y: t2  
end
```

- two type expressions are **equivalent** if and only if they are either the same simple type or are the same type name.

```
t1 = int;  
t2 = int;
```

t1 and t2 are not equivalent.



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Name equivalence

var-decls  $\rightarrow$  var-decls; var-decl | var-decl  
var-decl  $\rightarrow$  id: simple-type-exp  
type-decls  $\rightarrow$  type-decls; type-decl | type-decl  
type-decl  $\rightarrow$  id = type-exp  
type-exp  $\rightarrow$  simple-type-exp | structured-type  
simple-type-exp  $\rightarrow$  simple-type | id  
simple-type  $\rightarrow$  int | bool | real | char | void  
structured-type  $\rightarrow$  array [num] of simple-type-exp |  
    record var-decls end |  
    union var-decls end |  
    pointer to simple-type-exp |  
    proc (type-exps) simple-type-exp  
type-exps  $\rightarrow$  type-exps, simple-type-exp | simple-type-exp



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Name equivalence

```
function typeEqual (t1,t2:TypeExp): Boolean;  
var temp : Boolean;  
    p1,p2 : TypeExp;  
begin  
    if t1 and t2 are of simple type then  
        return t1 = t2  
    else if t1 and t2 are type names then  
        return t1 = t2  
    else return false;  
end;
```



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Name equivalence

One complication in name equivalence:

type expressions can be allowed in variable declarations or subexpressions of type expressions.

a type expression may have no explicit name given to it, a compiler will have to generate an internal name for the type expression that is different from any other names.

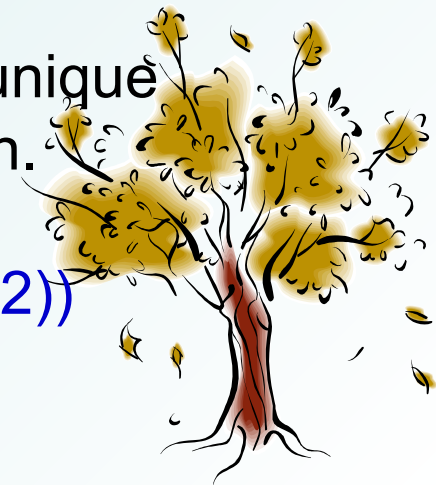
```
x:array [10] of int;
```

```
y:array [10] of int;
```

The variable x and y are assigned different ( and unique ) type names corresponding to the type expression.

if t1 and t2 are type names then

```
return typeEqual( getTypeExp(t1),getTypeExp(t2))
```





## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

### Declaration equivalence

- weaker version of name equivalence

`t2 = t1;` are interpreted as establishing type **aliases**, rather than new types.

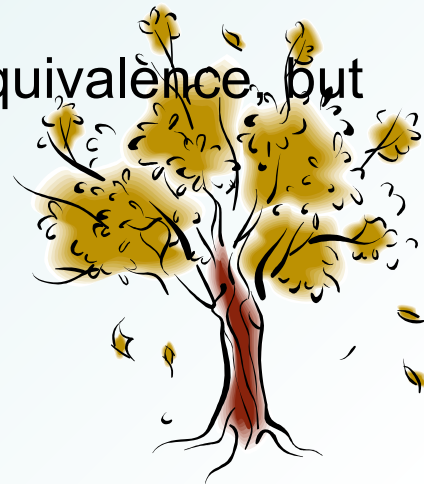
- Every type name is equivalent to some base type name, which is either a predefined type or is given by a type expression resulting from the application of a type constructor.

t1 = array [10] of int;

t2 = array [10] of int;

t3 = t1;

type names t1 and t3 are equivalent under declaration equivalence, but neither is equivalent to t2.



## 6.4.3 Type equivalence

- Pascal uniformly uses declaration equivalence
- C uses declaration equivalence for structures and unions, but structural equivalence for pointers and arrays.
- A language will offer a choice of structural, declaration or name equivalence.



## 6.4.4 Type inference and type checking

program  $\rightarrow$  var-decls; stmts

var-decls  $\rightarrow$  var-decls; var-decl | var-decl

var-decl  $\rightarrow$  id: type-exp

type-exp  $\rightarrow$  int | bool | array [num] of type-exp

stmts  $\rightarrow$  stmts; stmt | stmt

stmt  $\rightarrow$  if exp then stmt | id := exp

Table 6.10 (p.330)  
Attributes grammar for type  
checking of this grammar



Grammar Rule	Semantic Rules
$\text{var-decl} \rightarrow \text{id} : \text{type-exp}$	$\text{insert}(\text{id.name}, \text{type-exp.type})$
$\text{type-exp} \rightarrow \text{int}$	$\text{type-exp.type} := \text{integer}$
$\text{type-exp} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	$\text{type-exp.type} := \text{boolean}$
$\text{type-exp}_1 \rightarrow \text{array}$ $[\text{num}] \text{ of type-exp}_2$	$\text{type-exp}_1.\text{type} :=$ $\text{makeTypeNode}(\text{array}, \text{num.size},$ $\text{type-exp}_2.\text{type})$
$\text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{if exp then stmt}$	<b>if not</b> $\text{typeEqual}(\text{exp.type}, \text{boolean})$ <b>then</b> $\text{type-error}(\text{stmt})$
$\text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{id} := \text{exp}$	<b>if not</b> $\text{typeEqual}(\text{lookup}(\text{id.name}),$ $\text{exp.type})$ <b>then</b> $\text{type-error}(\text{stmt})$
$\text{exp}_1 \rightarrow \text{exp}_2 + \text{exp}_3$	<b>if not</b> ( $\text{typeEqual}(\text{exp}_2.\text{type}, \text{integer})$ <b>and</b> $\text{typeEqual}(\text{exp}_3.\text{type}, \text{integer}))$ <b>then</b> $\text{type-error}(\text{exp}_1)$ ; $\text{exp}_1.\text{type} := \text{integer}$
$\text{exp}_1 \rightarrow \text{exp}_2 \text{ or } \text{exp}_3$	<b>if not</b> ( $\text{typeEqual}(\text{exp}_2.\text{type}, \text{boolean})$ <b>and</b> $\text{typeEqual}(\text{exp}_3.\text{type}, \text{boolean}))$ <b>then</b> $\text{type-error}(\text{exp}_1)$ ; $\text{exp}_1.\text{type} := \text{boolean}$
$\text{exp}_1 \rightarrow \text{exp}_2 [\text{exp}_3]$	<b>if</b> $\text{isArrayType}(\text{exp}_2.\text{type})$ <b>and</b> $\text{typeEqual}(\text{exp}_3.\text{type}, \text{integer})$ <b>then</b> $\text{exp}_1.\text{type} := \text{exp}_2.\text{type.child1}$ <b>else</b> $\text{type-error}(\text{exp}_1)$





## 6.4.4 Type inference and type checking

1. Declarations: cause the type of an identifier to be entered into the symbol table. Insert (id.name, type-exp.type);
2. Statements: substructures will need to be checked for type correctness.

if not typeEqual(exp.type,boolean)  
then type-error(stmt)

3. Expression:



## 6.4.4 Type inference and type checking

- The behavior of such a type checker in the presence of errors:
  - the primary issues are when to generate an error message.
  - how to continue to check types in the presence of errors.



## 6.4.5 Additional topics in type checking

- **Overloading:** the same operator name is used for two different operations.

`procedure max(x,y: integer):integer;`

`procedure max(x,y: real):real;`

In C and Pascal : illegal ( redecleration )

In Ada and C++ : legal

- **type conversion and coercion**

allow arithmetic expressions of mixed type.

There are two approaches a language can take to such conversions.

Require the programmer supply a conversion function (Modula-2)

The type checker supply the conversion automatically.  
( coercion )





## 6.4.5 Additional topics in type checking

- Polymorphic typing

Allow language constructs to have more than one type.

procedure swap (var x,y: anytype);

var x, y: integer;

a, b: char;

.....

swap(x,y);

swap(a,b);

swap(x,a);

A type checker must in every situation where swap is used determine an actual type that matches this type pattern or declare a type error. (involve sophisticated pattern matching techniques)

