
CSc 520

Principles of Programming Languages

13 : Types — Introduction

Christian Collberg

collberg+520@gmail.com

Department of Computer Science
University of Arizona

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Why types?

- Types save typing.
- What does $a+b$ mean?
- In Java it could be
 1. $a +_{\text{int}} b$.
 2. $a +_{\text{float}} b$.
 3. $a \text{ concat}_{\text{string}} b$.
 4. $\text{int2float}(a) +_{\text{float}} b$.
 5. $a +_{\text{float}} \text{int2float}(b)$.
 6. $\text{int2string}(a) \text{ concat}_{\text{string}} b$.etc, all depending on the types of a and b .

Why types...?

- In Icon variables are not given explicit types. Instead, operations carry the types:
 1. $a | b$ means binary or on integers.
 2. $a | | b$ means string concatenation.
 3. $a | | | b$ means list concatenation.Icon has **lots** of operators...
- In other words, without types, we would have to be much more explicit about which operations are performed where.

Why types...?

- Icon programs become a bit wordier since every operator effectively encode the required type of the operands.
- On the other hand, it also becomes more readable since we can see directly from the operator what operation will be performed.

```
global x,y,z
procedure p( )
    x := x + y      # integer addition
    x := x || y     # string concatenation
    x := x ||| y    # list concatenation
end
```

Why types...?

- To figure out which operation is performed in a Java program, we have to find the declarations of all variables to find their declared type:

```
int x;  
String y;  
float z;  
void p() {  
    x = x + 5;          /* integer addition */  
    z = z + 5.0;        /* float addition */  
    y = y + "X";        /* string concatenation */  
}
```

Why types...?

- **Types prevent errors.**
 - Types save the programmer from himself.
 - Types prevent us from adding a character and a record.

```
int A[20];  
float x;  
void p() {  
    A[5] = x;  
    A[x] = 5;  
    x = x + A;  
}
```

Why types...?

- **Types permit optimization**. A compiler can generate better code for $a+b$ if it knows that both variables must be integers, than if the exact types aren't known until runtime:

```
global a,b
procedure p() {
    a = new array [20]
    ...
    b = new array [20]
    ...
    a = a + b    /* what operation is performed
}

```

Type Systems

- A type system consists of
 - a mechanism for defining types,
 - rules for type equivalence,
 - rules for type compatibility,
 - rules for type inference.

Type Systems...

- **Type equivalence** determines when the types of two values are the same:

```
TYPE A = ARRAY [0..10] OF CHAR;  
TYPE B = ARRAY [0..10] OF CHAR;  
VAR a : A;  
VAR b : B;  
BEGIN  
    a := b; (* legal? *)  
END
```

- Are the types of a and b the same?

Type Systems...

- **Type compatibility** determines when a value of a given type can be used in a given context:

```
VAR a : float;  
VAR b : int;  
BEGIN  
    a := a + b;  
END
```

- Can you add an `int` and a `float`?

Type Systems...

- **Type inference** defines the type of an expression based on its parts and surrounding context:

```
global a,b,c
procedure p(x)
    if x = 5 then
        a := x
    else
        a := "hello"
    write(a)
end
procedure main()
    p(5)
end
```

- What type of data can be written here?

Type Checking

- **Type checking** ensures that a program obeys a language's type rules.
- A **type clash** is a violation of the typing rules.

```
class C {  
    void p() {  
        int x = new C();  
    }  
}
```

Type Checking — Strong Typing

- Language L is **strongly typed** if
 - \oplus is an operator in L that expects an object of type T ,
 - L prohibits \oplus from accepting objects of any other type,
 - and L requires an implementation (a compiler, interpreter, etc) to enforce this prohibition.
- In other words, a strongly typed language does not allow us to perform operations on the “wrong” type of data.

Type Checking — Weak Typing

- In a **weakly typed** language there are ways to “escape” the type system.
- In C, for example, it is possible to cast a pointer to a `float`, add 3.14 to it, and cast it back to a pointer:

```
int main() {  
    int* p = (int*) malloc (sizeof(int));  
    float f = *((float*) &p) + 3.14;  
    p = (int*)(*(int *)&f);  
}
```

- Such operations are probably meaningless and a strongly typed language would prohibit them.

Type Checking — Static/Dynamic Typing

- A language **statically typed** if type checking is done at compile-time.
- A language **dynamically typed** if type checking is done at run-time.
- In practice, even languages which are considered statically typed do some checking at run-time.
- Languages can usually be classified as **mostly strongly typed**, **mostly statically typed**, etc.

Terminology

- Benjamin C. Pierce has said:

I spent a few weeks . . . trying to sort out the terminology of *strongly typed*, *statically typed*, *safe*, etc., and found it amazingly difficult. . . . The usage of these terms is so various as to render them almost useless.

- It is possible to say

My language is more strongly typed than your language.

but harder to argue that

My language is strongly typed/statically typed, etc.

Examples — Pascal

- Pascal is mostly strongly and statically typed.
- **Untagged variant records** are a loophole. They allow us to turn a value of one type into an object of some unrelated type.
- Unlike C, array bounds are checked.

Pascal – Untagged Variant Records

```
type rec = record
    a : integer;
    case boolean of
        true : (x : integer);
        false : (y : char);
    end;
```

```
var r: rec;
begin
    r.x := 55; r.y := 'A'; write(r.x);
end.
```

- This construct is used to bypass Pascal's strong typing.

Examples — C

- C is weakly and statically typed.
- Pointers can be cast willy-nilly which makes it easy to bypass the type system.
- Array references are not checked:

```
int main() {  
    int A[20];  
    int B[20];  
    A[25] = 5;  
}
```

Negative indices were used in the old days to overwrite the operating systems.

- Today, buffer overflows are how most viruses compromise security.

Examples — Ada

- Ada is strongly and mostly statically typed.
- Unlike Pascal, variant records must be tagged:

```
type Device is (Printer, Disk, Drum);  
type Peripheral(Unit : Device := Disk) is record  
    case Unit is  
        when Printer => Line_Count : Integer ;  
        when others => Cylinder    : CIndex;  
    end case;  
end record;
```

Examples — Ada...

- It is, however, possible to do **non-converting casts** (similar to C), but in a very explicit way:

```
function float2int is
    new unchecked_conversion(float, integer);
...
f := float2int(i);
```

- Some errors can't be checked at compile-time:

```
I, J : Integer range 1 .. 10 := 5;
K      : Integer range 1 .. 20 := 15;
I := J;    -- identical ranges
K := J;    -- compatible ranges
J := K;    -- will raise an exception if K>10
```

Examples — Scheme

- Scheme is completely dynamically typed, so programmers often insert extra checks:

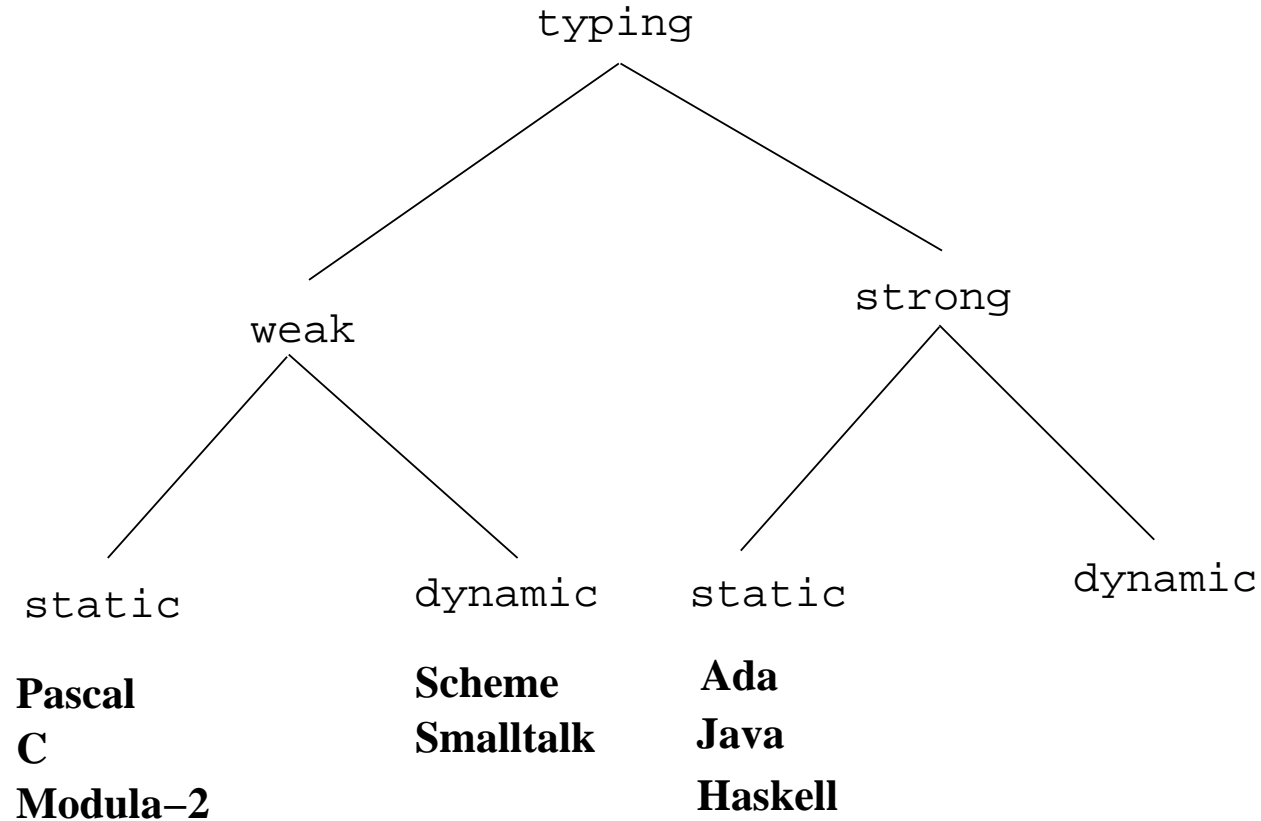
```
(define (sum l)
  (cond
    ((null? l) 0)
    ((not (list? l))
     (error "list expected"))
    ((not (number? (car l)))
     (error "list of numbers expected"))
    (else (+ (car l) (sum (cdr l)))))
  ) )
```

Examples — Java

- Java is strongly and mostly statically typed.
- An exception is thrown here because an A-object can't be cast to a B-object:

```
class A {}  
class B extends A {  
    int x;  
}  
void p() {  
    B b = (B) new A();  
}
```

Typing



Type Inference

- In statically typed languages types are inferred in the compiler, before the program is run:

```
procedure p (x : integer);  
var z : real;  
var c : char;  
begin  
    write(x + z);    /* convert x to real,  
                      write a real */  
    write(c + z);    /* type error */  
end
```

Type Inference...

- Haskell and similar languages don't require the programmer to give types to variables and functions.
- Instead, the compiler infers types.
- Given

```
len [] = 0  
len _:xs = 1 + len xs
```

the Haskell translator will infer a **most general type**:

```
len :: [a] -> Int
```

- Haskell is strongly and statically typed, although the programmer rarely have to provide explicit type information.

So, What is a Type?

- There are three ways to think about types:
 1. **denotational view** — a type is a set of values;
 2. **constructive view** — a type is what we can construct from the type constructors in the language;
 3. **abstraction-based view** — a type denotes a data object and a well-defined set of allowable operators on this object.
- At different times, we may look at a type in any of these ways.

Denotational View

- A type T is a set of values $\{t_0, t_1, t_2 \dots\}$.
- A value v is of type T if it belongs to the set.
- A variable v is of type T if it is guaranteed to always hold a value in the set.
- A `char` type in Pascal is the set of 128 seven-bit ASCII characters:

$\{ \dots ,$
 `"0"` , . . . , `"9"` , . . . ,
 `"A"` , . . . , `"Z"` , . . . ,
 `"a"` . . . , `"z"` , . . . $\}$

Constructive View

- A Pascal type is (roughly)

type ::=

```
integer | real | char | boolean ...  
[ expr .. expr ] |  
SET OF type |  
ARRAY type OF type |  
RECORD [field_list] END
```

- I.e., a Pascal type is either one of the built-in types, or ones we define ourselves by composing **type constructors**, such as ARRAY, RECORD, etc:

```
END T = RECORD  
    a : real;  
    b : ARRAY [ "a" .. "z" ] OF SET OF char;  
END;
```

Abstraction-Based View

- A type is an **abstract data type**.
- The next slides shows what the Modula-3 language manual says about the operations that are allowed on Words.
- The allowed operations include arithmetic and logical operations.
- There is no “pointer dereferencing” operation defined, however, so apparently this operation is not allowed.

Abstraction-Based View...

```
INTERFACE Word;
  TYPE T = INTEGER;
  PROCEDURE Plus (x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Times (x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Minus (x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Divide(x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Mod(x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE LT(x,y: T): BOOLEAN;
  PROCEDURE LE(x,y: T): BOOLEAN;
  PROCEDURE GT(x,y: T): BOOLEAN;
  PROCEDURE GE(x,y: T): BOOLEAN;
  PROCEDURE And(x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Or (x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Xor(x,y: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Not (x: T): T;
  PROCEDURE Shift(x: T; n: INTEGER): T;
  PROCEDURE Rotate(x: T; n: INTEGER): T;
  PROCEDURE Extract(x: T; i, n: CARDINAL): T;
  PROCEDURE Insert(x: T; y: T; i, n: CARDINAL): T;
```

END Word.

Readings and References

- Read Scott, pp.307–312.