

Lecture 10 — Type-checking MiniJava

- Once a program has been parsed and transformed to an AST, some other checks must be made before translation to executable form. The main check is *type-checking*. We will discuss type-checking, and introduce a notation for specifying type rules that we will use for several other purposes this semester. Note that type-checking is done only in statically-typed languages.
 - Static typing vs. dynamic typing
 - Proof systems to specify type rules
 - MiniJava type rules (with and without inheritance)

“Context-sensitive syntax”

- A program can be malformed even though it conforms to the context-free grammar of the language, e.g.
 - `switch (...) { case 1: ... case 1: ...`
 - `int x; float x; ...`
- Before attempting to generate executable code, need to make sure program is well-formed.
- These types of checks can be performed by the usual recursive traversal of the AST.

Statically- vs. dynamically-typed languages

- One type of well-formedness check is *type-checking*, e.g.:
 - `(new C())+10`
 - `(new C()).x`, where class `C` does not have a field `x`
- *Statically-typed languages* check types *before* attempting to generate code or execute the program.
- *Dynamically-typed languages* do not check types before execution, so type errors only show up *during* execution.
- How can we tell whether a language is statically or dynamically typed?

Statically- vs. dynamically-typed languages (cont.)

- C
- C++
- Java
- Python
- Javascript
- OCaml
- Scala
- LISP

Type-checking

- In addition to checking type correctness, a type-checker will record the type of every name (variable, method, etc.), so that the correct code can be generated. E.g.
 - $x+y$ generates an integer add instruction if x and y are integers; a floating-point instruction if they are floats; etc.
- Type checkers can record types in two ways:
 - Construct a *symbol table* indexed by *class*, by *class* \times *name* (for fields and methods), and by *class* \times *method* \times *name* (local variables).
 - Change the abstract syntax so that every use of a variable includes its type; iterate over the AST filling in those types at every use.

Proof systems

- Proof systems are a convenient way to present the type rules of a language. In effect, they are just a nice notation for expressing recursive functions on ASTs.
- A *proof system* is:
 - A set of *judgments* — assertions (true-false statements), usually presented in some concise mathematical notation.
 - A set of *axioms* — judgments that are known to be true.
 - A set of *rules of inference* of the form:

$$\begin{array}{c} J \\ J_1 \\ \vdots \\ J_k \end{array}$$

asserting that J is true if J_1, \dots, J_k are true.

Proof systems (cont.)

- Axioms are usually given as *patterns* that represent an infinite set of axioms; similarly for rule of inference:

$n : \text{int}$ (read: “integer constant n has type int”)

is shorthand for the axioms “ $0 : \text{int}$ ”, “ $1 : \text{int}$ ”, etc.

$e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}$	(“expression $e_1 + e_2$ has type int”)
$e_1 : \text{int}$	(“if expression e_1 has type int”)
$e_2 : \text{int}$	(“and expression e_2 has type int”)

is shorthand for

$x + y : \text{int}$	$3 + f(a) : \text{int}$	etc.
$x : \text{int}$	$3 : \text{int}$	
$y : \text{int}$	$f(a) : \text{int}$	

Proof systems (cont.)

- Given a proof system, a *proof* (of judgment J) is a tree (rooted at J) where each node is labelled with a judgment. Leaf nodes are labelled with axioms. An internal node labelled with judgment J_0 just have children labelled J_1, \dots, J_k , where the proof system has a rule of inference inferring J_0 from J_1, \dots, J_k .
- A proof tree proves its root judgment because the leaf nodes are assumed true, and every internal node is proven by its children (according to a rule of inference).

Proof systems for type-checking

- A proof system for type-checking will give an axiom or rule of inference showing how to type-check expressions or statements formed from each abstract syntax operator.
- It may have more than one rule for a single abstract syntax constructor, e.g.

$e_1 + e_2 : \mathbf{int}$

$e_1 : \mathbf{int}$

$e_2 : \mathbf{int}$

$e_1 + e_2 : \mathbf{float}$

$e_1 : \mathbf{float}$

$e_2 : \mathbf{float}$

Proof systems for type-checking (cont.)

- Any applicable rule can be used. The proof system needs to be designed so that if two rules are applicable to one expression, they must not produce conflicting results.
- E.g. $e_1 + e_2 : \text{string}$ $e_1 + e_2 : \text{string}$
 $e_1 : \text{string}$ $e_2 : \text{string}$

Type-checking rules for MJ

- We give several kinds of judgments. Γ is a *type environment*, giving the types of variables.

$\vdash \pi$ π is a type-correct program

$\pi \vdash \kappa$ κ is a type-correct class in program π

$\pi, \Gamma \vdash \mu$ μ a type-correct method in a class whose fields are given in Γ .

$\pi, \Gamma \vdash S$ S is a type-correct statement, when Γ gives all variable declarations surrounding S (fields, parameters, locals)

$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e : \tau$ e is a type-correct expression of type τ , where Γ gives the types of any variables occurring in e .

Type-checking rules for expressions

$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash x$$
$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash \text{not } e$$
$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e_1 * e_2 : \text{int}$$
$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}$$

Type-checking rules for expressions

$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{string}$

$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{string}$

$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e_0.f(e_1, \dots, e_n)$ (*ignore subclassing for now*)

Type-checking rules for statements

$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash \text{if } (e) S_1 \text{ else } S_2$$
$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash x = e$$

Type-checking rules for programs and classes

$\vdash \pi$ where $\pi = cl_1 \dots cl_n$

$\pi \vdash \text{class } c \{ fld_1 \dots fld_k \mu_1 \dots \mu_m \}$

Type-checking rules for methods

$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash \tau \quad f \text{ (args) } \{ S_1 \dots S_n \text{ return } e \}$$

Subclasses

- Write $C < B$ if C is B or a descendant of B .
- Rules that take subclasses into account: assignment, method call, method definition.
- Basic rule of inheritance: Wherever an object of a class C can be safely used as a receiver of a method, an object of a descendant class D can also be used safely:
 - If the method refers to a field of C , objects of D inherit that field.
 - If the method calls a method f using `this` as the receiver, `this` inherits (or redefines) f .

Type-checking rules, with subclasses

$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash x=e$$
$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash \tau \ f \ (args) \ \{ \ S_1 \ \dots \ S_n \ \text{return } e \ \}$$

Type-checking rules, with subclasses (cont.)

$$\pi, \Gamma \vdash e_0.f(e_1, \dots, e_n) : \tau$$
$$\pi \vdash \text{class } c \text{ extends } s \{ fld_1 \dots fld_k \mu_1 \dots \mu_m \}$$

Type-correctness theorem

Theorem Suppose $\vdash \pi$. Then when we execute π , there will be no type errors raised.

- To prove, we need to define precisely what “execute π ” means. We will start to do that next week.
- Note this implies that there is no need to check types at run time, because any argument to an operator or method is guaranteed to have the correct type. Dynamically-typed languages cannot make that guarantee, so types must be checked at run-time. This is the main reason dynamically-typed languages are inefficient.

Wrap-up

- **Today we discussed:**
 - Using proof systems to specify type rules
 - Type rules for MiniJava
- **We discussed it because:**
 - Type-checking is the next step in a compiler for a statically-typed language like MJ.
- **After the mid-term, we will begin to talk about executing MJ programs. (There will not be an MP on type-checking MJ, because it is complicated without being interesting.)**
- **What to do now:**
 - Mid-term 1 Monday night, 7PM. *See web page for correct room.*
 - Review session for mid-term Sunday night; see web page for time and location.