Data Types

CSE 307 – Principles of Programming Languages
Stony Brook University

http://www.cs.stonybrook.edu/~cse307
Data Types

• We all have developed an intuitive notion of what types are; what's behind the intuition?
  • collection of values from a "domain" (the denotational approach)
  • internal structure of data, described down to the level of a small set of fundamental types (the structural approach)
  • equivalence class of objects (the implementor's approach)
  • collection of well-defined operations that can be applied to objects of that type (the abstraction approach)
Data Types

- Computers are naturally untyped.
- Encoding by a type is necessary to store data:
  - as integer: -1, -396, 2, 51, 539
  - as float: -3.168, 384.0, 1.234e5
  - as Strings: "SBCS" (ASCII, Unicode UTF-16, etc.)
- So how do we know what it means?
  - We associate types with:
    - Expressions
    - Objects (anything that can have a name)
      - Type checking can also be done with user-defined types:
        speed = 100 mile/hour  
        time = 2 hour  
        distance = speed * time (mile)
        distance + 5 miles (ok!)
        distance + 5 hours (bad!)
Data Types

- What has a type?
- things that have values:
  - constants,
  - variables,
  - fields,
  - parameters,
  - subroutines.
- objects.

- A name (identifier) might have a type, but refer to an object of a different (compatible type):
  double a = 1;
  Person p = new Student("John");
What are types good for?

- implicit context for operators ("+" is concatenation for Strings vs. integer summation for integers, etc.)
- type checking - make sure that certain meaningless operations do not occur
  - type checking cannot prevent all meaningless operations
  - It catches enough of them to be useful

- Polymorphism results when the compiler finds that it doesn't need to know certain things
Data Types

- **STATIC TYPING** means that the compiler can do all the checking at compile time:
  - types are computed and checked at compile time.
- **DYNAMIN TYPING**: types wait until runtime.
- **STRONG TYPING** means that the language prevents you from applying an operation to data on which it is not appropriate:
  - unlike types cause type errors.
- **WEAK TYPING**: unlike types cause conversions.
Data Types

- Examples:
  - Java is strongly typed, with a non-trivial mix of things that can be checked statically and things that have to be checked dynamically (for instance, for dynamic binding):
    ```
    String a = 1;  // compile-time error.
    double d = 10.0;
    int i = d;      // compile-time error.
    ```
  - Python is strong dynamic typed:
    ```
    int a = 1
    b = "2"
    a + b          // run-time error
    ```
  - Perl is weak dynamic typed:
    ```
    $a = 1
    $b = "2"
    $a + $b        // no error.
    ```
Data Types

- There is a trade-off here:
  - Strong-static: verbose code (everything is typed), errors at compile time (cheap)
  - Strong-dynamic: less writing, errors at runtime
  - Weak-dynamic: the least code writing, potential errors at runtime, approximations in many cases
Duck typing is concerned with establishing the suitability of an object for some purpose.

JavaScript uses duck dynamic typing

```javascript
var Duck = function() {
    this.quack = function() {alert('Quaaaaaack!');};
    return this;
};
var inTheForest = function(object) {
    object.quack();
};
var donald = new Duck();
inTheForest(donald);
```
Type Systems

- **ORTHOGONALITY:**
  - A collection of features is orthogonal if there are no restrictions on the ways in which the features can be combined
  - For example:
    - Prolog is more orthogonal than ML (because it allows arrays of elements of different types, for instance)
  - Orthogonality is nice primarily because it makes a language easy to understand, easy to use, and easy to reason about
What do we mean by type

- Three main schools of thought:
  - Denotational: a type is a shorthand for a set of values (e.g., the byte domain is: \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 255\})
    - Some are simple (set of integers),
    - Some are complex (set of functions from variables to values).
    - Everything in the program is computing values in an appropriate set.
  - Constructive: a type is built out of components:
    - int, real, string,
    - record, tuple, map.
  - Abstraction: a type is what it does:
    - OO thinking.
Type Checking

• A type system has rules for:
  • type equivalence (when are the types of two values the same?)
  • type compatibility (when can a value of type A be used in a context that expects type B?)
  • type inference (what is the type of an expression, given the types of the operands?)

\[
\begin{align*}
a & : \text{int} \\
b & : \text{int}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{-------------------}
\]

\[
a + b & : \text{int}
\]
Equality Testing

• What should \( a == b \) do?
  • Are they the same object?
  • Bitwise-identical?
  • Otherwise the same?

• Languages can have different equality operators
  • Ex. Java's == vs equals
Type Casts

- Two casts: converting and non-converting.
  - Converting cast changes the meaning of the type in question.
  - Non-converting casts means to interpret the bits as the same type.
- Type coercion: May need to perform a runtime semantic check. Example: Java references:

  ```java
  Object o = "...";
  String s = (String) o;
  // maybe after “if(o instanceof String)…”
  ```
Type Checking

- The format does not matter:

```c
struct {
    int a, b;
}
```

is the same as

```c
struct {
    int a, b;
}
```

and

```c
struct {
    int a;
    int b;
}
```
Type Checking

• Two major approaches: structural equivalence and name equivalence
• Name equivalence is based on declarations
• Structural equivalence is based on some notion of meaning behind those declarations
Name equivalence: there are other times when aliased types should probably not be the same:

```plaintext
TYPE  celsius_temp = REAL,
      fahrenheit_temp = REAL;
VAR   c : celsius_temp,
      f : fahrenheit_temp;
...

f := c; (* this should probably be an error *)
```
Type Checking

Structural equivalence:

```pascal
type R2 = record
  a, b : integer
end;

should probably be considered the same as

type R3 = record
  a : integer;
  b : integer
end;
```
Type Checking

• Name equivalence:
  
  TYPE new_type = old_type;
  
  new_type is said to be an alias for old_type.

• Example:
  
  TYPE stack_element = INTEGER; (* alias *)

  MODULE stack;

  IMPORT stack_element;

  EXPORT push, pop;

  ...

  PROCEDURE push(elem : stack_element);

  ...

  PROCEDURE pop() : stack_element;

  ...
Type Checking

• Structural equivalence depends on simple comparison of type descriptions substitute out all names
  • expand all the way to built-in types
• Original types are equivalent if the expanded type descriptions are the same
Type Checking

- Types can be discrete (countable/finite in implementation):
  - boolean:
    - in C, 0 or not 0.
  - integer types:
    - different precisions (or even multiple precision),
    - different signedness,
    - Why do we define required precision? Leave it up to implementer.
  - floating point numbers:
    - only numbers with denominators that are a power of 10 can be represented precisely.
  - decimal types:
    - allow precise representation of decimals.
    - useful for money: Visual Studio .NET: decimal myMoney = 300.5m;
Type Systems

- rational types:
  - represent ratios precisely
- complex numbers
- subrange numbers
  - subset of the above (for i in range(1:10))
  - Constraint logic programming: X in 1..100
- character
  - often another way of designating an 8 or 16 or 32 bit integer.
  - Ascii, Unicode (UTF-16, UTF-8), BIG-5, Shift-JIS, latin-1
Type Systems

- Types can be composite:
  - arrays
    - Strings (most languages represent Strings like arrays)
      - list of characters: null-terminated.
      - With length + get characters.
  - sets
  - pointers
  - lists
  - records (unions)
  - files
  - functions, classes, etc.
Record Types

• A record consists of a number of fields:
  • Each has its own type:
    struct MyStruct {
      boolean ok;
      int bar;
    };
    MyStruct foo;
  • There is a way to access the field:
    foo.bar; <- C, C++, Java style.
    bar of foo <- Cobol/Algol style
    person.name <- F-logic path expressions
Record Types

• When a language has value semantics, it's possible to assign the entire record in one path expression:
  a.b.c.d.e = 1;

• With statement: accessing a deeply nested field can take a while. Some languages (JS) allow a with statement:
  with a.b.c.d {
    e = 1;
    f = 2;
  }

• Variant records (a and b take up the same memory, saves memory, but usually unsafe, tagging can make safe again):
  union {
    int a;
    float b;
  }
Arrays

- Arrays = areas of memory of the same type.
  - Stored consecutively.
    - Element access = O(1)
- Two possible layouts of memory:
  - Row-pointer layout,
  - Row-major and Column-major:
    - storing multidimensional arrays in linear memory
    - Example: int A[2][3] = { {1, 2, 3}, {4, 5, 6} };
      - Row-major: A is laid out contiguously in linear memory as: 123456
        - offset = row*NUMCOLS + column
      - Column-major: A is laid: 142536
        - offset = row + column*NUMROWS
- Row-major order is used in C, PL/I, Python and others.
- Column-major order is used in Fortran, MATLAB, GNU Octave, R, Rasdaman, X10 and Scilab.
Arrays

- Row-major generalizes to higher dimensions, so a $2 \times 3 \times 4$ array looks like:

```c
int A[2][3][4] = {{{1,2,3,4}, {5,6,7,8}, {9,10,11,12}}, {{13,14,15,16}, {17,18,19,20}, {21,22,23,24}}};
```

- is laid out in linear memory as:

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24
```

- Efficiency issues due to caching.
  - Can effect behavior of algorithms.

- Row/Column major require dimension to be part of the type.
Arrays

- Indexing is a special operator, since it can be used as an l-value.
- In languages that let you overload operators, often need two variants:
  - `__getindex__` and `__setindex__`
- Different number of parameters (row, columns, depth indexes)
Sets

• Set: contains **distinct** elements without order.

• Bag: Allows the same element to be contained inside it multiple times.

• Three ways to implement sets:
  • Hash Maps (without values).
  • When we know # of values, can assign each value a bit in a bit vector.
Maps/Dictionaries

• Map keys to values.
• Multimap: Maps key to set of values.
• Can be implemented in the same way as sets.
Lists

• Prolog-style Linked lists (same with SML) vs. Python-style Array lists:
  • Prolog: matching against lists.
    • Head,
    • Tail.
    Can match more complex patterns: [], [1,2,3], [a,1,X | T].
  • Python lists: Array-lists are efficient for element extraction, doubling-resize
Representation of Lists in Prolog

• List is handled as binary tree in Prolog
  
  [Head | Tail] OR .(Head, Tail)

• Where Head is an atom and Tail is a list

• We can write [a,b,c] or .(a,.(b,.(c,[]))).
Append example in Prolog

\[
\text{append}([], L, L).
\]
\[
\text{append}([X|L], M, [X|N]) :- \text{append}(L, M, N).
\]

append([1,2],[3,4],X)?
Append example in Prolog

\begin{align*}
\text{append}([], L, L). \\
\text{append}([X|L], M, [X|N]) & : \text{ append}(L, M, N). \\
\text{append}([1,2], [3,4], X) \text{?} & \quad X=1, L=[2], M=[3,4], A=[X|N]
\end{align*}
Append example in Prolog

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{append}([],L,L). \\
\text{append}([X|L],M,[X|N]) & :\neg \text{ append}(L,M,N).
\end{align*}
\]
Append example in Prolog

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{append}(\text{[]} , L , L) . \\
\text{append}(\text{[X|L]} , M , \text{[X|N']} ) & : - \text{append}(L , M , N') .
\end{align*}
\]

append([2],[3,4],N) ?  \quad X=2, L=[] , M=[3,4] , N=[2|N'] \\
append([1,2],[3,4],X) ?  \quad X=1, L=[2] , M=[3,4] , A=[1|N]
Append example in Prolog

\[
\text{append}([], L, L).
\]

\[
\text{append}([X|L], M, [X|N']) :- \text{append}(L, M, N').
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>L</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>append([], [3,4], N')?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[3,4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>append([2], [3,4], N)?</td>
<td>X=2</td>
<td>L=[]</td>
<td>M=[3,4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>append([1,2], [3,4], X)?</td>
<td>X=1</td>
<td>L=[2]</td>
<td>M=[3,4]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Append example in Prolog

append([], L, L).
append([X|L], M, [X|N']) :- append(L, M, N').

append([], [3,4], N')?
L = [3,4], N' = L

append([2], [3,4], N)?
X=2, L=[], M=[3,4], N=[2|N']

append([1,2], [3,4], X)?
X=1, L=[2], M=[3,4], A=[1|N]
Append example in Prolog

append([], L, L).
append([X|L], M, [X|N']) :- append(L, M, N').

<table>
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<th>Result</th>
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<td>append([], [3,4], N')?</td>
<td>L = [3,4], N' = L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>append([2], [3,4], N)?</td>
<td>X=2, L=[], M=[3,4], N=[2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>append([1,2], [3,4], X)?</td>
<td>X=1, L=[2], M=[3,4], A=[1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = [1|N]
N = [2|N']
N' = L
L = [3,4]
Answer: A = [1,2,3,4]
More List Examples in Prolog

member(X,[X|R]).
member(X,[Y|R]) :- member(X,R)

• *X is a member of a list whose first element is X.*
• *X is a member of a list whose tail is R if X is a member of R.*

?- member(2,[1,2,3]).
Yes

?- member(X,[1,2,3]).
X = 1 ;
X = 2 ;
X = 3 ;
No
select(X,[X|R],R).
select(X,[F|R],[F|S]) :- select(X,R,S).

- When $X$ is selected from $[X|R]$, $R$ results.
- When $X$ is selected from the tail of $[X|R]$, $[X|S]$ results, where $S$ is the result of taking $X$ out of $R$.

?- select(X,[1,2,3],L).
X=1  L=[2,3] ;
X=2  L=[1,3] ;
X=3  L=[1,2] ;
No
More List Examples in Prolog

reverse([X|Y],Z,W) :- reverse(Y,[X|Z],W).
reverse([],X,X).

?- reverse([1,2,3],[],X).
X = [3,2,1]
Yes
More List Examples in Prolog

\[
\text{perm([],[]).}
\]
\[
\text{perm([X|Y],Z) :- perm(Y,W), select(X,Z,W).}
\]

\[
?- \text{perm([1,2,3],P).}
\]
\[
P = [1,2,3] ;
\]
\[
P = [2,1,3] ;
\]
\[
P = [2,3,1] ;
\]
\[
P = [1,3,2] ;
\]
\[
P = [3,1,2] ;
\]
\[
P = [3,2,1]
\]
Pointers/Reference Types

• Even in languages with value semantics, it's necessary to have a pointer or reference type.
  
  ```
  class BinTree {
    int value;
    BinTree left;
    BinTree right;
  }
  ```

  • It is value-only (it will be infinitely-size structure).

  • The question is, what sort of operations to allow:
    • pointers usually need an explicit address to be taken
      ```
      BinTree bt1;
      BinTree bt2;
      BinTree *foo = &bt1;
      ```
Pointers/Reference Types

- Pointers tend to allow pointer arithmetic: `foo += 1`
- Only useful when in an array.
  - Leave the bounds of your array, and you can have security holes.
- Problem: Can point to something that isn't a BinTree, or even out of memory.
- In Java, references are assigned an object, and don't allow pointer arithmetic.
- Can be NULL.
Files and Input/Output

• Input/output (I/O) facilities allow a program to communicate with the outside world
  • interactive I/O and I/O with files
• Interactive I/O generally implies communication with human users or physical devices
• Files generally refer to off-line storage implemented by the operating system
• Files may be further categorized into
  • temporary
  • persistent