

# CSE504 Compiler Design

## Type Checking

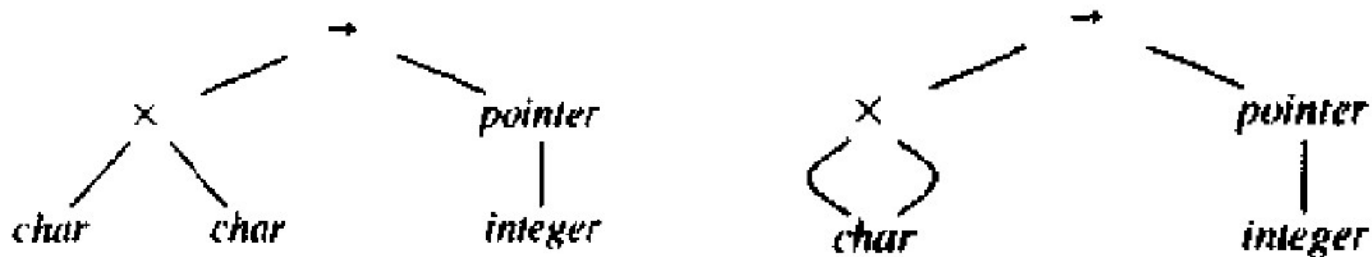
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# Type Expressions

- Type Expressions
  - Basic type or constructed type by applying type constructors to type expressions.
- Basic type:
  - `boolean`, `integer`, `real`, `type_error`, `void`, ...
- Type name is a type expression
- Type constructor
  - Arrays: if T is a type expression, then `array(I,T)` is a type expression (I is the size of the array)
    - `array[10] of integer`: `array(10, integer)`
  - Products: if T1 and T2 are type expressions, then `T1 * T2` is a type expression (Cartesian product)
    - `integer * integer`

# Type Expressions

- Records: similar to products, but the fields have names
  - `record( (row * integer) * (column * integer) )`
- Pointers: if T is a type, then **pointer(T)** is a type
  - `pointer(integer)`
- Functions: if D and R are types, **D -> R** is a type
  - `integer * integer -> integer`
- Type expressions may contain variables whose values are type expressions.
- Tree and dag representation of `(char * char) -> pointer(integer)`



# Type Systems

- Type system
  - A collection of **rules for assigning type expressions to the various parts of a program**
  - A type checker implements a type system
- Type checking
  - **Static type checking**: checking is done by a compiler
  - **Dynamic type checking**: checking is done when the target program runs
  - **Sound type system**: if a type system assigns a type to a program part, type error shouldn't occur for the program part.
  - A language is **strongly typed**: static type checking guarantees that type errors cannot occur during the runtime.

- Difficult to achieve

```
int a[100];  
a[ a_very_complex_function() ] = 1;
```

# A Simple Type Checker

- A Simple Language

P -> D ; E

D -> D ; D | id : T

T -> char | integer

    | array [ num ] of T

    | ^ T

E -> literal | num | id

    | E mod E

    | E [ E ]

    | E ^

# Type of an Id

- A Part of Translation Scheme

P -> D ; E

D -> D ; D

D -> id : T { addtype(id.entry, T.type) }

T -> char { T.type := char }

T -> integer { T.type := integer }

T -> ^ T1 { T.type := pointer(T1.type) }

T -> array [ num ] of T1 {  
T.type := array(num.val, T1.type) }

# Type Checking of Expressions

```
E -> literal    { E.type := char }
E -> num        { E.type := integer }
E -> id         { E.type := lookup(id.entry) }
E -> E1 mod E2 { E.Type :=
    if E1.type = integer and E2.type = integer
    then integer
    else type_error }
E -> E1 [ E2 ] { E.type :=
    if E2.type = integer and E1.type = array(s,t)
    then t
    else type_error }
E -> E1^        { E.type :=
    if E1.type = pointer(t)
    then t
    else type_error }
```

# Type Checking of Statements

```
S -> id := E      { S.type :=  
    if id.type = E.type  
    then void else type_error }  
S -> if E then S1 { S.type :=  
    if E.type = boolean  
    then S1.type else type_error }  
S -> while E do S1 { S.type :=  
    if E.type = boolean  
    then S1.type else type_error }  
S -> S1 ; S2      { S.type :=  
    if S1.type = void and S2.type = void  
    then void else type_error }
```



# Type Checking of Functions

- Type expression for functions

```
T -> T1 '->' T2 {  
    T.type := T1.type -> T2.type }
```

- Rules for checking a function application

```
E -> E1 ( E2 ) { E.type :=  
    if E2.type = s and E1.type = s->t  
    then t else type_error }
```

- For more than one arguments

–  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  can be views as a single argument type  
 $T_1 * \dots * T_n$

# Equivalence of Type Expressions

- “Two type expressions are equal” what does that mean?
- Structural Equivalence
  - Two expressions are either the same basic type,
  - They are formed by applying the same constructor to structurally equivalent types.

# Structural Equivalence

```
function sequiv(s, t): boolean
begin
  if s and t are the same basic type then
    return true
  else if s = array(s1,s2) and t = array(t1,t2) then
    return s1 = t1 and sequiv(s2,t2)
  else if s = s1*s2 and t = t1*t2 then
    return sequiv(s1,t1) and sequiv(s2,t2)
  else if s = pointer(s1) and t = pointer(t1) then
    return sequiv(s1,t1)
  else if s = s1->s2 and t = t1->t2 then
    return sequiv(s1,t1) and sequiv(s2,t2)
  else
    return false
end
```

# Names for Type Expressions

- In some languages types can have names

```
type link = ^cell;  
var next : link;  
    last : link;  
    p     : ^cell;  
    q, r  : ^cell;
```

- Allow type expressions to be named, and allow the names to appear in type expressions
- `p: pointer(cell) type, next: link type`
- Name Equivalence
  - Views each type name as a distinct type.
  - `last` and `p` are not the same type
- Structural Equivalence
  - Names are replaced by the type expressions they define.
  - `next, last, p, q, and r` are the same type

# Type Conversions

- Coercions: Implicit conversion from one type to another by the compiler

```
E -> num          { E.type := integer }
E -> num . num    { E.type := real   }
E -> id           { E.type = lookup(id.entry) }
E -> E1 op E2    { E.type :=
  if E1.type = integer and E2.type = integer then
    integer
  else if E1.type = real and E2.type = integer then
    real
  else if E1.type = integer and E2.type = real then
    real
  else if E1.type = real and E2.type = real then
    real
  else
    type_error }
```

# Overloading

- An overloaded symbol has different meanings depending on its context
  - E.g. +: integer addition, real addition, complex addition, string concatenation, ...
  - Overloading is said to be **resolved** if a unique meaning is determined.

# Set of Possible Types

- It is not always possible to resolve overloading immediately.

– E.g.)

```
function "*" (i, j: integer) return integer;  
function "*" (i, j: integer) return complex;  
function "*" (i, j: complex) return complex;
```

- $3*5$  : either integer or complex
- $2*(3*5)$  :  $3*5$  must be integer because  $*$  takes same arg. types
- $z*(3*5)$  :  $3*5$  must be complex if  $z$  is a complex type.

```
E -> E1 { E.types := E1.types }
```

```
E -> id { E.types := lookup(id.entry) }
```

```
E -> E1(E2) { E.types :=  
  { t | s->t ∈ E1.types and s ∈ E2.types } }
```

# Narrowing the Set of Possible Types

- Two depth-first traversals
  - Synthesize types during the first path
  - Update type during the second path

<code>E -&gt; E1</code>	<code>E.types := E1.types</code> <code>E.type := if E1.types = {t}</code> <code>          then t else type_error</code>
<code>E -&gt; id</code>	<code>E.types := lookup(id.entry)</code>
<code>E -&gt; E1(E2)</code>	<code>E.types :=</code> <code>    {r s in E2.types and s-&gt;r in E1.types}</code> <code>t := E.type</code> <code>S := {s s in E2.types and s-&gt;t in E1.types}</code> <code>E2.type := if S={s}</code> <code>          then s else type_error</code> <code>E1.type := if S={s}</code> <code>          then s-&gt;t else type_error</code>



# Polymorphic Functions

- Polymorphic functions
  - The statements in the body can be executed with arguments of different types.
- Type Variables
  - Variables representing type expressions.
  - Allow us to talk about unknown types.
  - Checking consistent usage of identifiers that don't need to be declared.

# Polymorphic Functions

- Type Inference

- Problem of **determining the type of a language construct** from the way it is used.

- E.g. 

```
function deref (p)
begin
    return p^
end;
```

- From `deref (p)`, assume that the type of `p` is  $\beta$

- From `p^`, infer that the type of `p` is  $\beta = \text{pointer}(\alpha)$

- The type of `deref` is  $\text{pointer}(\alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$

# Language with Polymorphic Functions

- Grammar for language with polymorphic functions

```
P -> D ; E
D -> D ; D | id : Q
Q -> ∀ type_var . Q | T
T -> T '->' T
    | T * T
    | unary ( T )
    | basic_type
    | type_var
    | ( T )
E -> E ( E ) | E, E | id
```

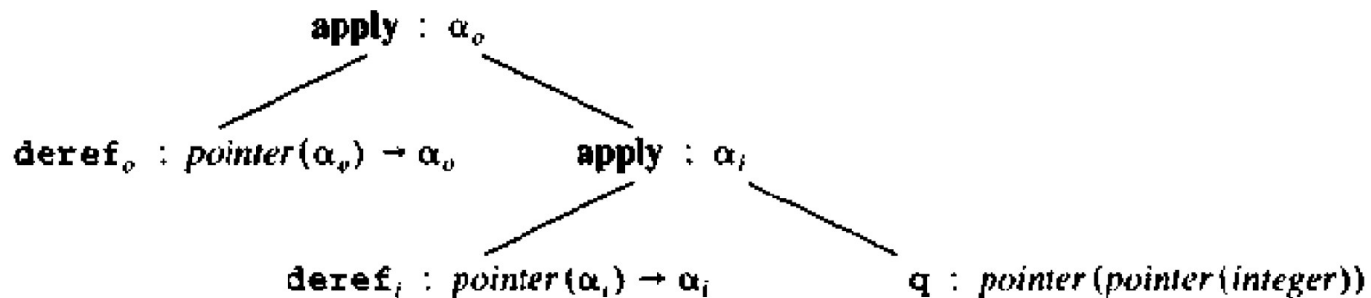
# Language with Polymorphic Functions

- Example Program

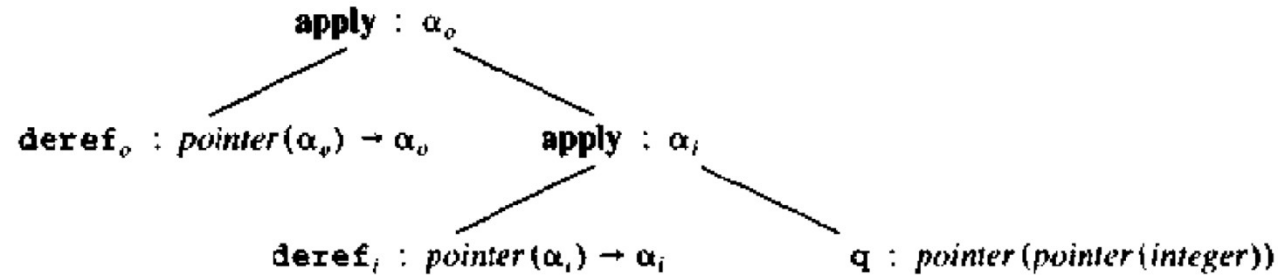
deref:  $\forall \alpha. \text{pointer}(\alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$ ;

q :  $\text{pointer}(\text{pointer}(\text{integer}))$ ;

deref(deref(q))



# Type-Checking Polymorphic Functions



- Distinct occurrences of a polymorphic function may have different types
  - $\text{deref}_o$  and  $\text{deref}_i$  have different types
- Equivalence of type need to be updated
  - Unification: make  $s$  and  $t$  structurally equivalent by replacing the type variables in  $s$  and  $t$  by type expressions
- Record the effect of unifying two expressions
  - If after unification a type variable  $\alpha$  represents a type  $t$  then it should keep represent  $t$  through out type-checking.

# Substitution

- Substitution:
  - $S(\alpha)$  : mapping from type variables to type expressions
  - $S(t)$  : consistent replacement of type variables with their mapped type expressions (=  $\text{subst}(t)$ )

```
function subst(t:type_expr) : type_expr
begin
    if t is a basic type then return t
    if t is a variable then return S(t)
    if t is t1->t2 then
        return subst(t1)->subst(t2)
end
```

# Instance

- $S$  is the substitution function,  $S(t)$  is an instance of  $t$ .
- We write  $s < t$  to indicate that  $s$  is an instance of  $t$ 
  - $\text{pointer}(\text{integer}) < \text{pointer}(\alpha)$
  - $\text{integer} \rightarrow \text{integer} < \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
  - $\text{pointer}(\alpha) < \beta$
  - $\alpha < \beta$
  
  - $\text{integer} ? \text{real}$
  - $\text{integer} \rightarrow \text{real} ? \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$
  - $\text{integer} \rightarrow \alpha ? \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$  (all occurrences of  $\alpha$  must be replaced)

# Unification

- Two type expressions  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  **unify** if there is a substitution  $S$  such that
$$S(t_1) = S(t_2)$$
- A substitution is the **most general unifier** if
  - $S(t_1) = S(t_2)$
  - for any other unifier  $S'$ ,  $S'$  is an instance of  $S$  (for any  $t$ ,  $S'(t) < S(t)$ )



# Checking Polymorphic Functions

```
E -> E1 ( E2 ) {
    p := mkleaf(newtypevar)
    unify(E1.type, mknode(->, E2.type, p))
    E.type := p
}
E -> E1, E2 {
    E.type := mknode(*, E1.type, E2.type)
}
E -> id {
    E.type := fresh(id.type)
}
```

- **Type Checking rule for  $E \rightarrow E1 (E2)$** 
  - If  $E1.type = \alpha$  and  $E2.type = \beta$ , then  $E.type = \beta \rightarrow \gamma$

# Unification Algorithm

```
boolean unify(Node m, Node n) {  
    s = find(m); t = find(n);  
    if ( s = t ) return true;  
    else if ( nodes s and t represent the same basic type ) return true;  
    else if ( s is an op-node with children s1 and s2 and  
              t is an op-node with children t1 and t2 ) {  
        union(s, t);  
        return unify(s1, t1) and unify(s2, t2);  
    }  
    else if s or t represents a variable {  
        union(s, t);  
        return true;  
    }  
    else return false;  
}
```

*find(n)* returns the representative of n  
*union* prefers to make non-variable node  
a representative node

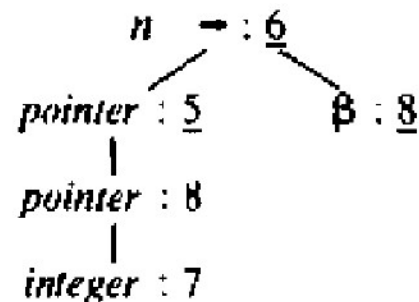
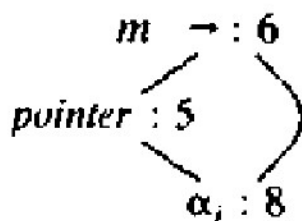
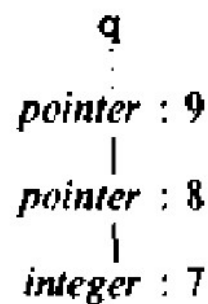
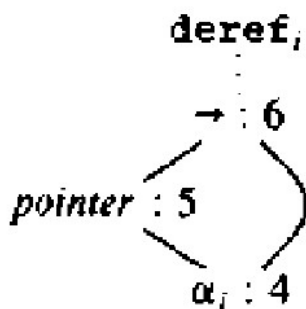
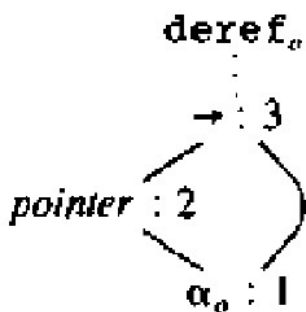
# Checking Polymorphic Functions

- E.g.

deref:  $\forall \alpha. \text{pointer}(\alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$ ;

q :  $\text{pointer}(\text{pointer}(\text{integer}))$ ;

deref(deref(q))



# Unification

- Quiz
  - Draw a dag for the following type expressions
  - Unify the following two type expressions
    - $((\alpha1 \rightarrow \alpha2) * list(\alpha3)) \rightarrow list(\alpha2)$
    - $((\alpha3 \rightarrow \alpha4) * list(\alpha3)) \rightarrow \alpha5$
  - Check the structural equivalence of the following two type expressions
    - $e: real \rightarrow e$
    - $f: real \rightarrow (real \rightarrow f)$