

Lecture 18

CIS 341: COMPILERS

Announcements

- HW5: OAT v. 2.0
 - records, function pointers, type checking, array-bounds checks, etc.
 - Due: Friday, April 13rd
 - Available soon afternoon
 - **Start Early!**

- Talk:

Quantum Computation and Cryptography: a changing landscape

Andrea Coladangelo, Berkeley

Today: 3:30 in Wu & Chen Auditorium



Beyond describing “structure”... describing “properties”

Types as sets

Subsumption

TYPES, MORE GENERALLY

What are types, anyway?

- A *type* is just a predicate on the set of values in a system.
 - For example, the type “int” can be thought of as a boolean function that returns “true” on integers and “false” otherwise.
 - Equivalently, we can think of a type as just a *subset* of all values.
- For efficiency and tractability, the predicates are usually taken to be very simple.
 - Types are an *abstraction* mechanism
- We can easily add new types that distinguish different subsets of values:

```
type tp =  
  | IntT           (* type of integers *)  
  | PosT | NegT | ZeroT (* refinements of ints *)  
  | BoolT         (* type of booleans *)  
  | TrueT | FalseT (* subsets of booleans *)  
  | AnyT          (* any value *)
```

Modifying the typing rules

- We need to refine the typing rules too...
- Some easy cases:
 - Just split up the integers into their more refined cases:

P-INT

$i > 0$

$G \vdash i : \text{Pos}$

N-INT

$i < 0$

$G \vdash i : \text{Neg}$

ZERO

$G \vdash 0 : \text{Zero}$

- Same for booleans:

TRUE

$G \vdash \text{true} : \text{True}$

FALSE

$G \vdash \text{false} : \text{False}$

What about “if”?

- Two cases are easy:

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{IF-T}} \quad G \vdash e_1 : \text{True} \quad G \vdash e_2 : T \\ \hline G \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{IF-F}} \quad G \vdash e_1 : \text{False} \quad E \vdash e_3 : T \\ \hline G \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T \end{array}$$

- What happens when we don't know statically which branch will be taken?
- Consider the typechecking problem:

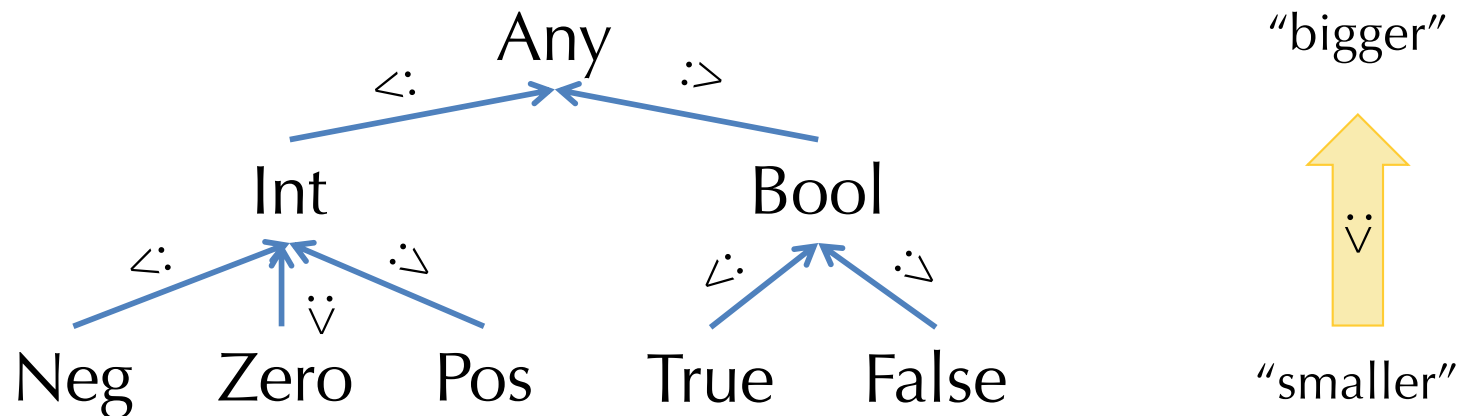
$x:\text{bool} \vdash \text{if } (x) 3 \text{ else } -1 : ?$

The true branch has type Pos and the false branch has type Neg.

- What should be the result type of the whole if?

Subtyping and Upper Bounds

- If we think of types as sets of values, we have a natural inclusion relation: $\text{Pos} \subseteq \text{Int}$
- This subset relation gives rise to a *subtype* relation: $\text{Pos} <: \text{Int}$
- Such inclusions give rise to a *subtyping hierarchy*:



- Given any two types T_1 and T_2 , we can calculate their *least upper bound* (LUB) according to the hierarchy.
 - Definition: $\text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$ is the smallest T such that $T_1 <: T$ and $T_2 <: T$
 - Example: $\text{LUB}(\text{True}, \text{False}) = \text{Bool}$, $\text{LUB}(\text{Int}, \text{Bool}) = \text{Any}$
- Note: might want to add types for “NonZero”, “NonNegative”, and “NonPositive” so that set union on values corresponds to taking LUBs on types.

“If” Typing Rule Revisited

- For statically unknown conditionals, we want the return value to be the LUB of the types of the branches:

IF-BOOL

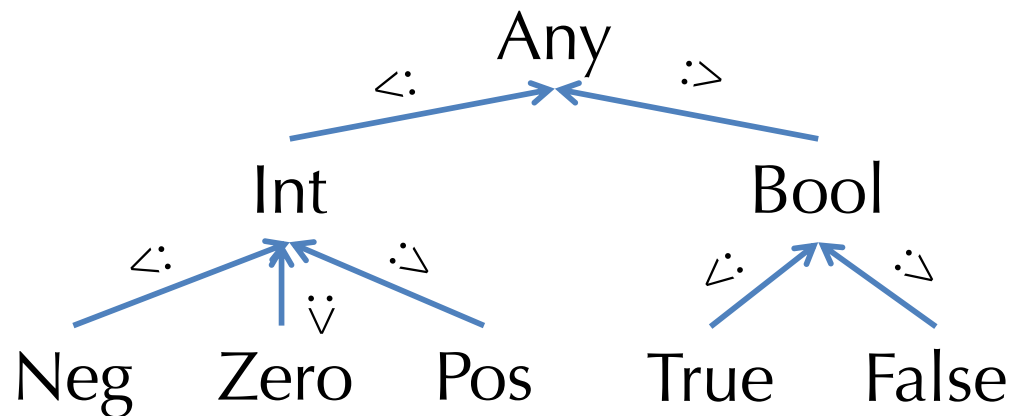
$$G \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad E \vdash e_2 : T_1 \quad G \vdash e_3 : T_2$$

$$G \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : \text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$$

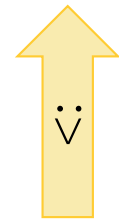
- Note: $\text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$ is the most precise type (according to the hierarchy) that can describe any value that has either type T_1 or type T_2 .
- In math notation, $\text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$ is sometimes written $T_1 \vee T_2$
- LUB is also called the *join* operation.

Subtyping Hierarchy

- A *subtyping hierarchy*:



“bigger”



“smaller”

- The subtyping relation is a *partial order*:
 - Reflexive: $T <: T$ for any type T
 - Transitive: $T_1 <: T_2$ and $T_2 <: T_3$ then $T_1 <: T_3$
 - Antisymmetric: If $T_1 <: T_2$ and $T_2 <: T_1$ then $T_1 = T_2$

Soundness of Subtyping Relations

- We don't have to treat every subset of the integers as a type.
 - e.g., we left out the type NonNeg
- A subtyping relation $T_1 <: T_2$ is *sound* if it approximates the underlying semantic subset relation.
- Formally: write $\llbracket T \rrbracket$ for the subset of (closed) values of type T
 - i.e., $\llbracket T \rrbracket = \{v \mid \vdash v : T\}$
 - e.g., $\llbracket \text{Zero} \rrbracket = \{0\}$, $\llbracket \text{Pos} \rrbracket = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- If $T_1 <: T_2$ implies $\llbracket T_1 \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket T_2 \rrbracket$, then $T_1 <: T_2$ is sound.
 - e.g., $\text{Pos} <: \text{Int}$ is sound, since $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\} \subseteq \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
 - e.g., $\text{Int} <: \text{Pos}$ is *not* sound, since it is *not* the case that $\{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Soundness of LUBs

- Whenever you have a sound subtyping relation, it follows that:
$$\llbracket \text{LUB}(T_1, T_2) \rrbracket \supseteq \llbracket T_1 \rrbracket \cup \llbracket T_2 \rrbracket$$
 - Note that the LUB is an over approximation of the “semantic union”
 - Example: $\llbracket \text{LUB}(\text{Zero}, \text{Pos}) \rrbracket = \llbracket \text{Int} \rrbracket = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} \supseteq \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \{0\} \cup \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \llbracket \text{Zero} \rrbracket \cup \llbracket \text{Pos} \rrbracket$
- Using LUBs in the typing rules yields sound approximations of the program behavior (as if the IF-B rule).
- It just so happens that LUBs on these specific subtypes of Int are *sound* for +

ADD

$$G \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad G \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad T_1 <: \text{Int} \quad T_2 <: \text{Int}$$

$$G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : T_1 \vee T_2$$

Subsumption Rule

- When we add subtyping judgments of the form $T <: S$ we can uniformly integrate it into the type system generically:

SUBSUMPTION

$$G \vdash e : T \quad T <: S$$

$$G \vdash e : S$$

- Subsumption allows any value of type T to be treated as an S whenever $T <: S$.
- Adding this rule makes the search for typing derivations more difficult:
 - this rule can be applied *anywhere*, since $T <: T$.
 - But careful engineering of the typing system can incorporate the subsumption rule into a deterministic algorithm.
 - See, e.g., the OAT type system

Downcasting

- What happens if we have an `Int` but need something of type `Pos`?
 - At compile time, we don't know whether the `Int` is greater than zero.
 - At run time, we do.

- Add a “checked downcast”

$$G \vdash e_1 : \text{Int} \quad G, x : \text{Pos} \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad G \vdash e_3 : T_3$$

$$G \vdash \text{ifPos } (x = e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T_2 \vee T_3$$

- At runtime, `ifPos` checks whether `e1` is `> 0`. If so, branches to `e2` and otherwise branches to `e3`.
- Inside the expression `e2`, `x` is the name for `e1`'s value, which is known to be strictly positive because of the dynamic check.
- Note that such rules force the programmer to add the appropriate checks, and can be used in other contexts too:
 - We could give integer division the type: `Int → NonZero → Int`



SUBTYPING OTHER TYPES

Extending Subtyping to Other Types

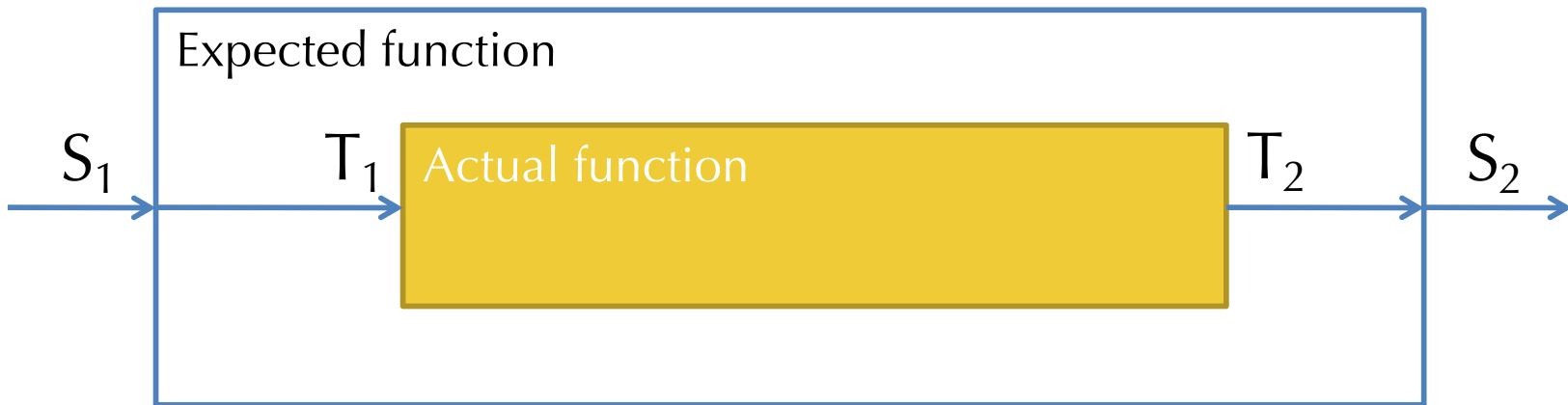
- What about subtyping for tuples?
 - Intuition: whenever a program expects something of type $S_1 * S_2$, it is sound to give it a $T_1 * T_2$.
 - Example: $(\text{Pos} * \text{Neg}) <: (\text{Int} * \text{Int})$

$$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \quad T_2 <: S_2}{(T_1 * T_2) <: (S_1 * S_2)}$$

- What about functions? When is $T_1 \rightarrow T_2 <: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$?

Subtyping for Function Types

- One way to see it:



- Need to convert an S_1 to a T_1 and T_2 to S_2 , so the argument type is *contravariant* and the output type is *covariant*.

$$\frac{S_1 <: T_1 \quad T_2 <: S_2}{(T_1 \rightarrow T_2) <: (S_1 \rightarrow S_2)}$$

Immutable Records

- Record type: $\{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}$
 - Each lab_i is a label drawn from a set of identifiers.

RECORD

$G \vdash e_1 : T_1 \quad G \vdash e_2 : T_2 \quad \dots \quad G \vdash e_n : T_n$

$G \vdash \{\text{lab}_1 = e_1; \text{lab}_2 = e_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n = e_n\} : \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}$

PROJECTION

$G \vdash e : \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}$

$G \vdash e.\text{lab}_i : T_i$

Immutable Record Subtyping

- Depth subtyping:
 - Corresponding fields may be subtypes

DEPTH

$$T_1 <: U_1 \quad T_2 <: U_2 \quad \dots \quad T_n <: U_n$$

$$\{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\} <: \{\text{lab}_1:U_1; \text{lab}_2:U_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:U_n\}$$

- Width subtyping:
 - Subtype record may have *more* fields on the right:

WIDTH

$$m \leq n$$

$$\{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\} <: \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_m:T_m\}$$

Depth & Width Subtyping vs. Layout

- Width subtyping (without depth) is compatible with "inlined" record representation as with C structs:

`{x:int; y:int; z:int} <: {x:int; y:int}`
[Width Subtyping]



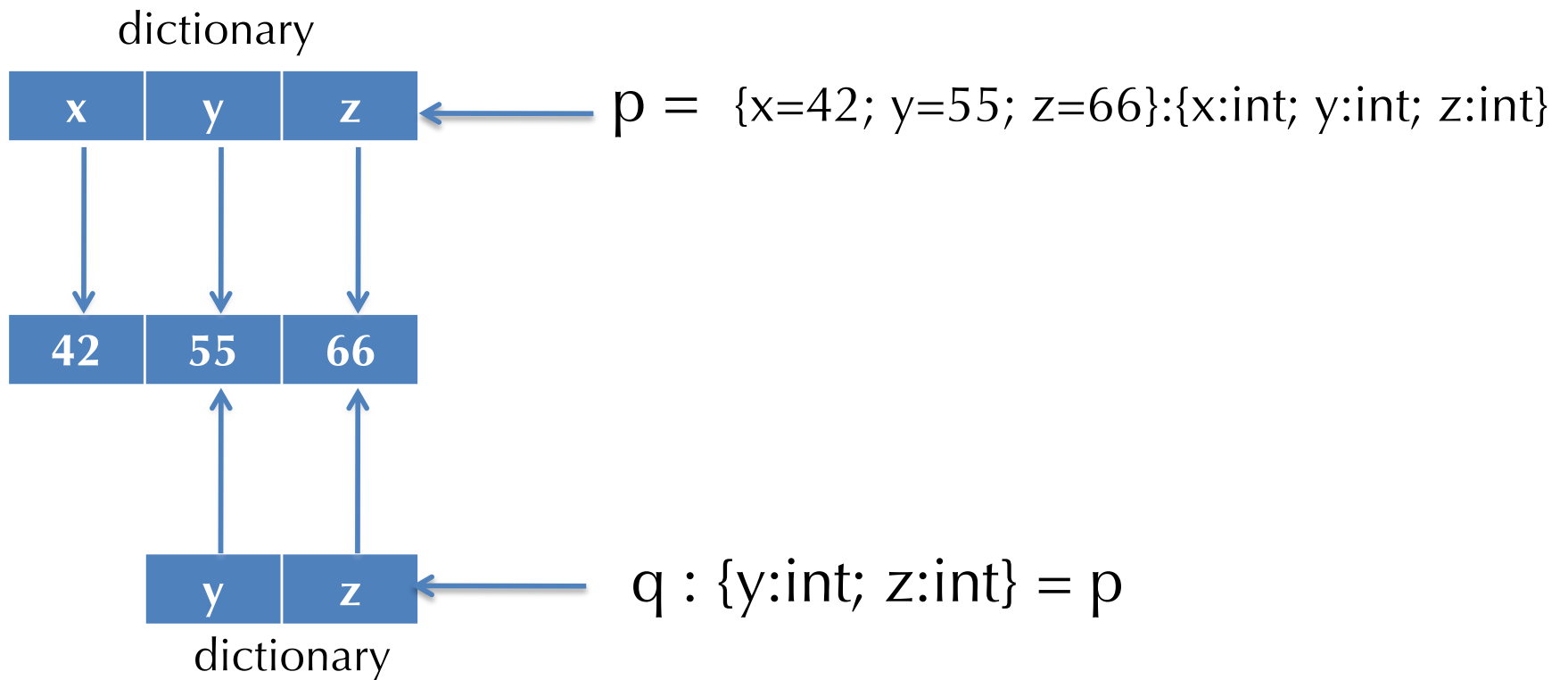
- The layout and underlying field indices for 'x' and 'y' are identical.
 - The 'z' field is just ignored
- Depth subtyping (without width) is similarly compatible, assuming that the space used by A is the same as the space used by B whenever $A <: B$
- But... they don't mix without more work

Immutable Record Subtyping (cont'd)

- Width subtyping assumes an implementation in which order of fields in a record matters:
 $\{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\} \neq \{y:\text{int}; x:\text{int}\}$
- But: $\{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}; z:\text{int}\} <: \{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\}$
 - Implementation: a record is a struct, subtypes just add fields at the *end* of the struct.
- Alternative: allow permutation of record fields:
 $\{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\} = \{y:\text{int}; x:\text{int}\}$
 - Implementation: compiler sorts the fields before code generation.
 - Need to know *all* of the fields to generate the code
- Permutation is not directly compatible with width subtyping:
 $\{x:\text{int}; z:\text{int}; y:\text{int}\} = \{x:\text{int}; y:\text{int}; z:\text{int}\} <:/: \{y:\text{int}; z:\text{int}\}$

If you want both:

- If you want permutability & dropping, you need to either copy (to rearrange the fields) or use a dictionary like this:





MUTABILITY & SUBTYPING

NULL

- What is the type of `null`?

- Consider:

```
int[] a = null;    // OK?  
int x   = null;    // not OK?  
string s = null;   // OK?
```

NULL

$G \vdash \text{null} : r$

- Null has any *reference type*
 - Null is generic
- What about type safety?
 - Requires defined behavior when dereferencing null
e.g. Java's `NullPointerException`
 - Requires a safety check for every dereference operation
(typically implemented using low-level hardware "trap" mechanisms.)

Subtyping and References

- What is the proper subtyping relationship for references and arrays?
- Suppose we have NonZero as a type and the division operation has type: $\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{NonZero} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 - Recall that $\text{NonZero} <: \text{Int}$
- Should $(\text{NonZero ref}) <: (\text{Int ref})$?
- Consider this program:

```
Int bad(NonZero ref r) {  
  Int ref a = r;    (* OK because (NonZero ref <: Int ref*)  
  a := 0;           (* OK because 0 : Zero <: Int *)  
  return (42 / !r) (* OK because !r has type NonZero *)  
}
```

Mutable Structures are Invariant

- Covariant reference types are unsound
 - As demonstrated in the previous example
- Contravariant reference types are also unsound
 - *i.e.*, If $T_1 <: T_2$ then $\text{ref } T_2 <: \text{ref } T_1$ is also unsound
 - Exercise: construct a program that breaks contravariant references.
- Moral: Mutable structures are *invariant*:
 $T_1 \text{ ref } <: T_2 \text{ ref} \implies T_1 = T_2$
- Same holds for arrays, OCaml-style mutable records, object fields, etc.
 - Note: Java and C# get this wrong. They allow covariant array subtyping, but then compensate by adding a dynamic check on every array update!

Another Way to See It

- We can think of a reference cell as an immutable record (object) with two functions (methods) and some hidden state:

$$T \text{ ref} \simeq \{\text{get}: \text{unit} \rightarrow T; \text{set}: T \rightarrow \text{unit}\}$$

- get returns the value hidden in the state.
 - set updates the value hidden in the state.
- When is $T \text{ ref} <: S \text{ ref}$?
- Records with depth subtyping:
 - extends pointwise over each component.
$$\{\text{get}: \text{unit} \rightarrow T; \text{set}: T \rightarrow \text{unit}\} <: \{\text{get}: \text{unit} \rightarrow S; \text{set}: S \rightarrow \text{unit}\}$$
 - get components are subtypes: $\text{unit} \rightarrow T <: \text{unit} \rightarrow S$
 - set components are subtypes: $T \rightarrow \text{unit} <: S \rightarrow \text{unit}$
- From get, we must have $T <: S$ (covariant return)
- From set, we must have $S <: T$ (contravariant arg.)
- From $T <: S$ and $S <: T$ we conclude $T = S$.



STRUCTURAL VS. NOMINAL TYPES

Structural vs. Nominal Typing

- Is type equality / subsumption defined by the *structure* of the data or the *name* of the data?
- Example 1: type abbreviations (OCaml) vs. “newtypes” (a la Haskell)

```
(* OCaml: *)  
type cents = int      (* cents = int in this scope *)  
type age = int  
  
let foo (x:cents) (y:age) = x + y
```

```
(* Haskell: *)  
newtype Cents = Cents Integer  (* Integer and Cents are  
                                isomorphic, not identical. *)  
newtype Age = Age Integer  
  
foo :: Cents -> Age -> Int  
foo x y = x + y                (* Ill typed! *)
```

- Type abbreviations are treated “structurally”
Newtypes are treated “by name”

Nominal Subtyping in Java

- In Java, Classes and Interfaces must be named and their relationships *explicitly* declared:

```
(* Java: *)
interface Foo {
    int foo();
}

class C {          /* Does not implement the Foo interface */
    int foo() {return 2;}
}

class D implements Foo {
    int foo() {return 341;}
}
```

- Similarly for inheritance: programmers must declare the subclass relation via the “**extends**” keyword.
 - Typechecker still checks that the classes are structurally compatible



See oat.pdf in HW5

OAT'S TYPE SYSTEM

OAT's Treatment of Types

- Primitive (non-reference) types:
 - `int`, `bool`
- Definitely-non-null reference types: `R`
 - (named) mutable structs with (right-oriented) *width* subtyping
 - `string`
 - arrays (including length information, per HW4)
- Possibly-null reference types: `R?`
 - Subtyping: `R <: R?`
 - *Checked downcast* syntax `if?`:

```
int sum(int[]? arr) {  
    var z = 0;  
    if?(int[] a = arr) {  
        for(var i = 0; i < length(a); i = i + 1;) {  
            z = z + a[i];  
        }  
    }  
    return z;  
}
```

OAT Features

- Named structure types with mutable fields
 - but using structural, width subtyping
- Typed function pointers
- Polymorphic operations: `length` and `== / !=`
 - need special case handling in the typechecker
- Type-annotated null values: `t null` always has type `t`?
- Definitely-not-null values means we need an "atomic" array initialization syntax
 - `null` is not allowed as a value of type `int[]`, so to construct a record containing a field of type `int[]`, we need to initialize it
 - subtlety: `int[][]` cannot be initialized by default, but `int[]` can be

OAT "Returns" Analysis

- Typesafe, statement-oriented imperative languages like OAT (or Java) must ensure that a function (always) returns a value of the appropriate type.
 - Does the returned expression's type match the one declared by the function?
 - Do all paths through the code return appropriately?
- OAT's statement checking judgment
 - takes the expected return type as input: what type should the statement return (or `void` if none)
 - produces a boolean flag as output: does the statement definitely return?