

CS4212: Compiler Design

Week 9: Types and Type Checking

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(Untyped) Lambda Calculus

- The **lambda calculus** is a minimal programming language.
 - Note: we're writing (fun x -> e) lambda-calculus notation: $\lambda x. e$
- It has **variables**, **functions**, and **function application**.
 - That's it!
 - It's Turing Complete.
 - It's the foundation for a *lot* of research in programming languages.
 - Basis for “functional” languages like Scala, OCaml, Haskell, etc.

Abstract syntax in OCaml:

```
type exp =  
  | Var of var      (* variables *)  
  | Fun of var * exp (* functions: fun x → e *)  
  | App of exp * exp (* function application *)
```

Concrete syntax:

```
exp ::=  
  | x           variables  
  | fun x → exp functions  
  | exp1 exp2 function application  
  | ( exp )    parentheses
```

More Examples

Pairs and zero-checking

Recap: Operational Semantics of Lambda Calculus

- Substitution function (in Math):

$x\{v/x\} = v$	<i>(replace the free x by v)</i>
$y\{v/x\} = y$	<i>(assuming $y \neq x$)</i>
$(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp})\{v/x\} = (\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp})$	<i>(x is bound in exp)</i>
$(\text{fun } y \rightarrow \text{exp})\{v/x\} = (\text{fun } y \rightarrow \text{exp}\{v/x\})$	<i>(assuming $y \neq x$)</i>
$(e_1 e_2)\{v/x\} = (e_1\{v/x\} e_2\{v/x\})$	<i>(substitute everywhere)</i>

- Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} (x y) \{(\text{fun } z \rightarrow z z)/y\} \\ = x (\text{fun } z \rightarrow z z) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x y) \{(\text{fun } z \rightarrow z z)/y\} \\ = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x (\text{fun } z \rightarrow z z) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x) \{(\text{fun } z \rightarrow z z)/x\} \\ = \text{fun } x \rightarrow x \quad // x \text{ is not free!} \end{aligned}$$

Free Variables and Scoping

```
let add = fun x → fun y → x + y
```

```
let inc = add 1
```

- The result of `add 1` is a function
- After calling `add`, we can't throw away its argument (or its local variables) because those are needed in the function returned by `add`.
- We say that the variable `x` is *free* in `fun y → x + y`
 - Free variables are defined in an outer scope
- We say that the variable `y` is *bound* by “`fun y`” and its scope is the body “`x + y`” in the expression `fun y → x + y`
- A term with no free variables is called *closed*.
- A term with one or more free variables is called *open*.

Free Variable Calculation

- An OCaml function to calculate the set of free variables in a lambda expression:

```
let rec free_vars (e:exp) : VarSet.t =  
  begin match e with  
  | Var x      -> VarSet.singleton x  
  | Fun(x, body) -> VarSet.remove x (free_vars body)  
  | App(e1, e2) -> VarSet.union (free_vars e1) (free_vars e2)  
  end
```

- A lambda expression e is *closed* if `free_vars e` returns `VarSet.empty`
- In mathematical notation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fv}(x) &= \{x\} \\ \text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp}) &= \text{fv}(\text{exp}) \setminus \{x\} \quad (\text{'x' is a bound in exp}) \\ \text{fv}(\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2) &= \text{fv}(\text{exp}_1) \cup \text{fv}(\text{exp}_2) \end{aligned}$$

Operational Semantics

- Specified using just two inference rules with judgments of the form $\text{exp} \Downarrow \text{val}$
 - Read this notation as “program exp evaluates to value val ”
 - This is *call-by-value* semantics: function arguments are evaluated before substitution

$$\frac{}{v \Downarrow v}$$

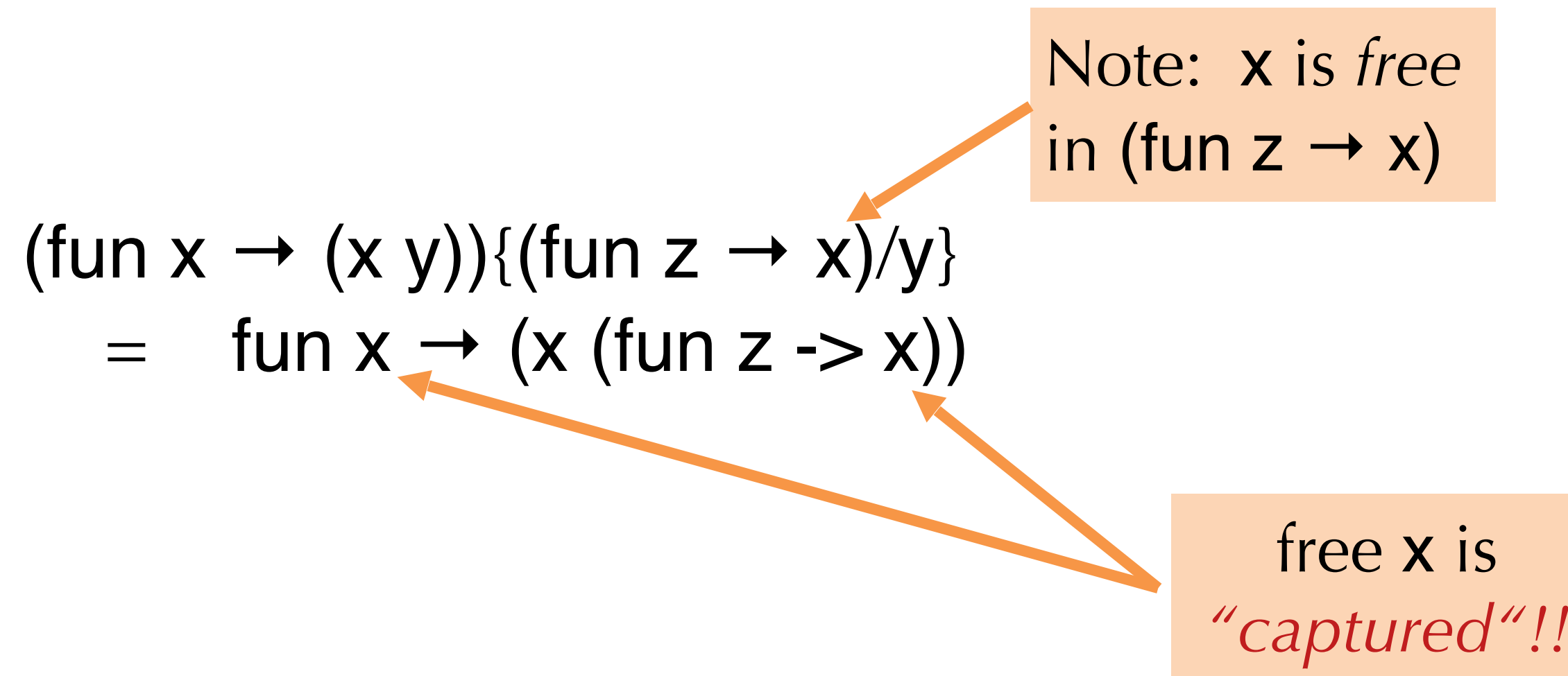
“Values evaluate to themselves”

$$\frac{\text{exp}_1 \Downarrow (\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp}_3) \quad \text{exp}_2 \Downarrow v \quad \text{exp}_3\{v/x\} \Downarrow w}{\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2 \Downarrow w}$$

“To evaluate function application: Evaluate the function to a value, evaluate the argument to a value, and then substitute the argument for the function. ”

Variable Capture

- Note that if we try to naively "substitute" an open term, a bound variable might *capture* the free variables:



- Usually *not* the desired behaviour
 - This property is sometimes called "dynamic scoping"
The meaning of " x " is determined by where it is bound dynamically, not where it is bound statically.
 - Some languages (e.g. emacs lisp) are implemented with this as a "feature"
 - But: it leads to hard-to-debug scoping issues

Alpha Equivalence

- Note that the names of bound variables don't matter to the semantics
 - i.e. it doesn't matter which variable names you use, as long as you use them consistently:

$(\text{fun } x \rightarrow y \ x)$ is the "same" as $(\text{fun } z \rightarrow y \ z)$

the choice of "x" or "z" is arbitrary, so long as we consistently rename them

Two terms that differ only by consistent renaming of *bound* variables are called *alpha equivalent*

- The names of *free* variables **do** matter:
 - $(\text{fun } x \rightarrow y \ x)$ is *not* the "same" as $(\text{fun } x \rightarrow z \ x)$

Intuitively: *y* and *z* can refer to different things from some outer scope

Students who cheat by "renaming variables" are trying to exploit alpha equivalence...

Fixing Substitution

- Consider the substitution operation:

$$e_1\{e_2/x\}$$

- To avoid capture, we define substitution to pick an alpha equivalent version of e_1 such that the bound names of e_1 don't mention the free names of e_2 .
 - Then do the "naïve" substitution.

For example: $(\text{fun } x \rightarrow (x \ y))\{(\text{fun } z \rightarrow x)/y\}$
 $= (\text{fun } x' \rightarrow (x' (\text{fun } z \rightarrow x)))$

rename x to x'

This is fine:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\text{fun } x \rightarrow (x \ y))\{(\text{fun } x \rightarrow x)/y\} \\ &= (\text{fun } x \rightarrow (x (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x))) \\ &= (\text{fun } a \rightarrow (a (\text{fun } b \rightarrow b))) \end{aligned}$$

Demo: Implementing the Interpreter

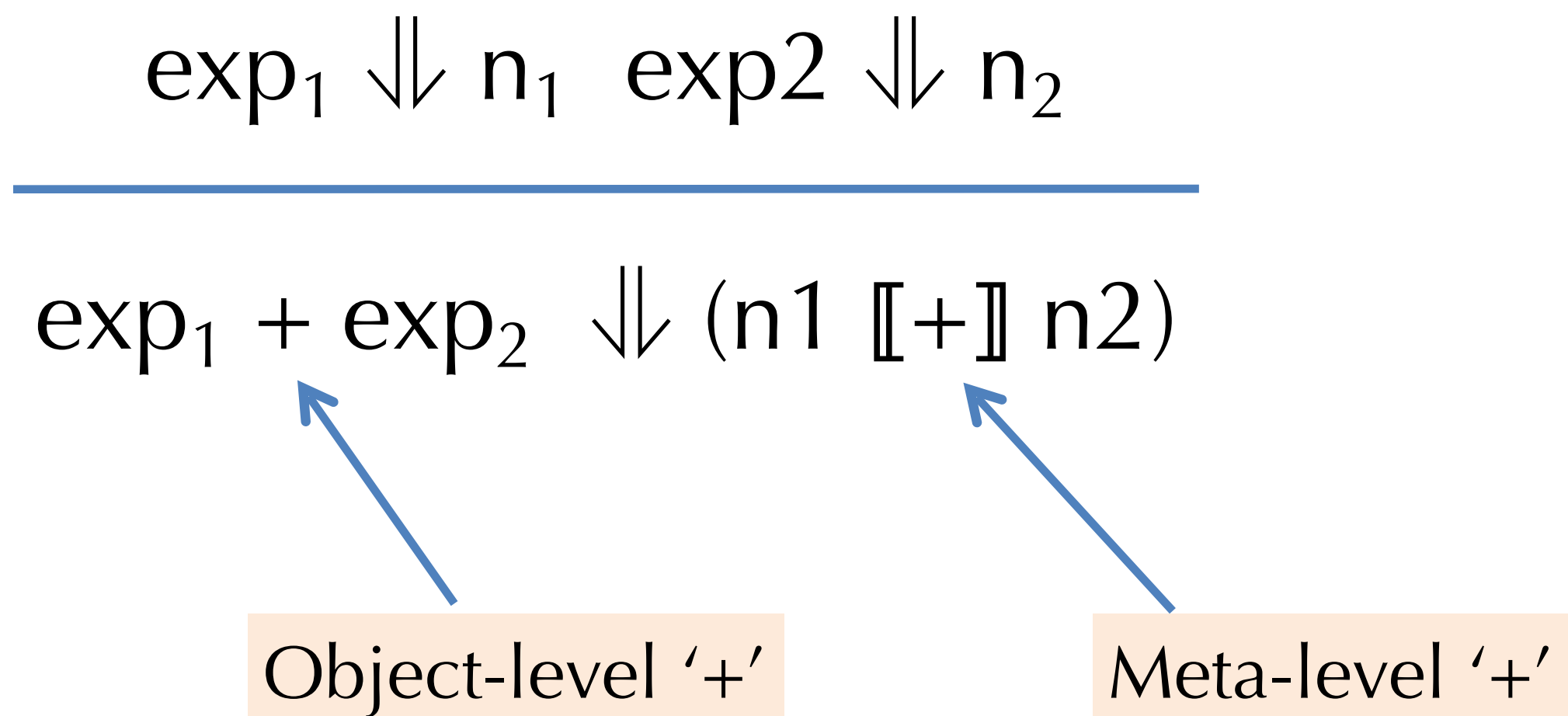
- <https://github.com/cs4212/week-08-lambda-2023>
- lambda.ml – untyped lambda-calculus
- lambda_int.ml – untyped lambda-calculus with integers
- stlc.ml – simply-typed lambda-calculus

Adding Integers to Lambda Calculus

exp ::=
| ...
| n *constant integers*
| exp₁ + exp₂ *binary arithmetic operation*

val ::=
| fun x → exp *functions are values*
| n *integers are values*

n{v/x} = n *constants have no free vars.*
(e₁ + e₂){v/x} = (e₁{v/x} + e₂{v/x}) *substitute everywhere*



Semantic Analysis

Variable Scoping

- Consider the problem of determining whether a programmer-declared variable is in scope.
- Issues:
 - Which variables are available at a given point in the program?
 - Shadowing – is it permissible to re-use the same identifier, or is it an error?
- Example: The following program is syntactically correct but not well-formed.
Why?

```
int fact(int x) {  
    var acc = 1;  
    while (x > 0) {  
        acc = acc * y;  
        x = q - 1;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```

Q: Can we solve this problem by changing the parser to rule out such programs?

Need for *Static Semantic Analysis*

- Recall the interpreter from the Eval2 module in lambda_int.ml:

```
let rec eval env e =
  match e with
  | ...
  | Add (e1, e2) ->
    (match (eval env e1, eval env e2) with
     | (IntV i1, IntV i2) -> IntV (i1 + i2)
     | _ -> failwith "tried to add non-integers")
  | ...
```

- The interpreter might fail at runtime.
 - Not all operations are defined for all values (e.g. 3/0, 3 + true, ...)
- A compiler can't generate sensible code for this case.
 - A naïve implementation might “add” an integer and a function pointer

Semantic Analysis

- The *semantic analysis* phase
 - Resolve symbol occurrences to declarations / binders
 - `ex.c:3:11: error: 'i' undeclared (first use in this function)`
 - Type-check AST
 - `ex.c:4:5: warning: assignment makes integer from pointer without a cast`
- Main data structure manipulated by semantic analysis: *symbol table*
 - Mapping from symbols to information about those symbols (its type, location in source text, ...)
 - Symbol table is used to help translation into IR
 - Semantic analysis may also decorate AST (e.g., attach type information to expressions, or replace symbols with references to their symbol table entry).
 - Semantic analysis may not be a separate phase – e.g., may be incorporated into IR translation

Warm-Up: Scope-Checking Lambda Calculus

- Consider how to identify “well-scoped” lambda calculus terms
 - Recall the free variable calculation
 - Given: G , a set of variable identifiers, e , a term of the lambda calculus
 - *Judgment*: $G \vdash e$ means “the free variables of e are included in G ” ($fv(e) \subseteq G$)

$$\begin{aligned}fv(x) &= \{x\} \\fv(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp}) &= fv(\text{exp}) \setminus \{x\} \quad (\textit{'x' is a bound in exp}) \\fv(\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2) &= fv(\text{exp}_1) \cup fv(\text{exp}_2)\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

“the variable x is free”

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 \text{ } e_2}$$

“ G contains the free variables of e_1 and e_2 ”

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

“ x is available in the function body”

Scope-Checking Code

- Compare the OCaml code to the inference rules:
 - structural recursion over syntax
 - the check either "succeeds" or "fails"

```
let rec scope_check (g:VarSet.t) (e:exp) : unit =  
  begin match e with  
  | Var x -> if VarSet.member x g then () else failwith (x ^ "not in scope")  
  | App(e1, e2) -> ignore (scope_check g e1); scope_check g e2  
  | Fun(x, e) -> scope_check (VarSet.union g (VarSet.singleton x)) e  
  end
```

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

Semantic Analysis via Types

What is a Type?

- *Intrinsic view (Church-style)*: a type is syntactically part of a program.
 - A program that cannot be typed is not a program at all
 - Types do not have inherent meaning – they are just used to define the syntax of a program
- *Extrinsic view (Curry-style)*: a type is a *property* of a program.
 - For any program and every type, either the program has that type or not
 - A program may have multiple types
 - A program may have no types

Why Types?

- *Type checking* (ensuring that the program is ascribed a “correct” type) catches errors at compile time, eliminating a class of mistakes that would otherwise lead to run-time errors, provided type information
- *Type inference* derives type information from the code (think function parameters in OCaml vs Java)
- *Type information* is sometimes necessary for code generation
 - Floating-point + is not the same instruction as integer + is not the same as pointer/integer +
 - pointer/integer compiled differently depending on pointer type
 - Assignment $x = y$ compiled differently if y is an **int** or a **struct**

What is a type system?

- A type system consists of a system of judgements and inference rules
 - (Extrinsic view) A judgement is a *claim*, which may or may not be valid
 - $\vdash 3 : \text{int}$ - “3 has type integer”
 - $\vdash (1 + 2) : \text{bool}$ - “(1+2) has type boolean”
 - **Inference rules** are used to derive *valid* judgements from other valid judgements.

$$\text{ADD} \frac{\vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{\vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}}$$

Read: “If e_1 and e_2 have type int , so does $e_1 + e_2$ ”

- Type system might involve many different kinds of judgement
 - Well-typed expressions
 - Well-formed types
 - Well-formed statements
 - ...

Inference Rules, General Form

- An *inference rule* consists of a list of premises J_1, \dots, J_n and one conclusion J (optionally: a side-condition):

$$\frac{J_1 \quad J_2 \quad \dots \quad J_n}{J} \text{SIDE-CONDITION}$$

- Side-condition: additional premise, but not a judgement
- Read *top-down*: If J_1 and J_2 and ... and J_n are valid, and the side condition holds, then J is valid.
- Read *bottom-up*: To prove J is valid, sufficient to prove J_1, J_2, \dots, J_n are valid

Type Judgments

- In the judgment: $G \vdash e : t$
 - G is a *typing environment* or a *type context*
 - G maps variables to types. It is just a set of bindings of the form:
 $x_1 : t_1, x_2 : t_2, \dots, x_n : t_n$
- A type judgement takes the form $G \vdash e : t$
“Under the type environment G , the expression e has type t ”
- For example:
 $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash \text{if } (b) \ 3 \ \text{else } x : \text{int}$
- What do we need to *check* to decide whether “if (b) 3 else x” has type **int** in the environment **x : int, b : bool**?
 - b must be a bool i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash b : \text{bool}$
 - 3 must be an int i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash 3 : \text{int}$
 - x must be an int i.e. $x : \text{int}, b : \text{bool} \vdash x : \text{int}$

Simply-typed Lambda Calculus with Integers

- For the language in “stlc.ml” we have five inference rules:

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{INT}} \\ \hline G \vdash i : \text{int} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{VAR}} \\ x : T \in G \\ \hline G \vdash x : T \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{ADD}} \\ G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int} \\ \hline G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{FUN}} \\ G, x : T \vdash e : S \\ \hline G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{APP}} \\ G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T \\ \hline G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S \end{array}$$

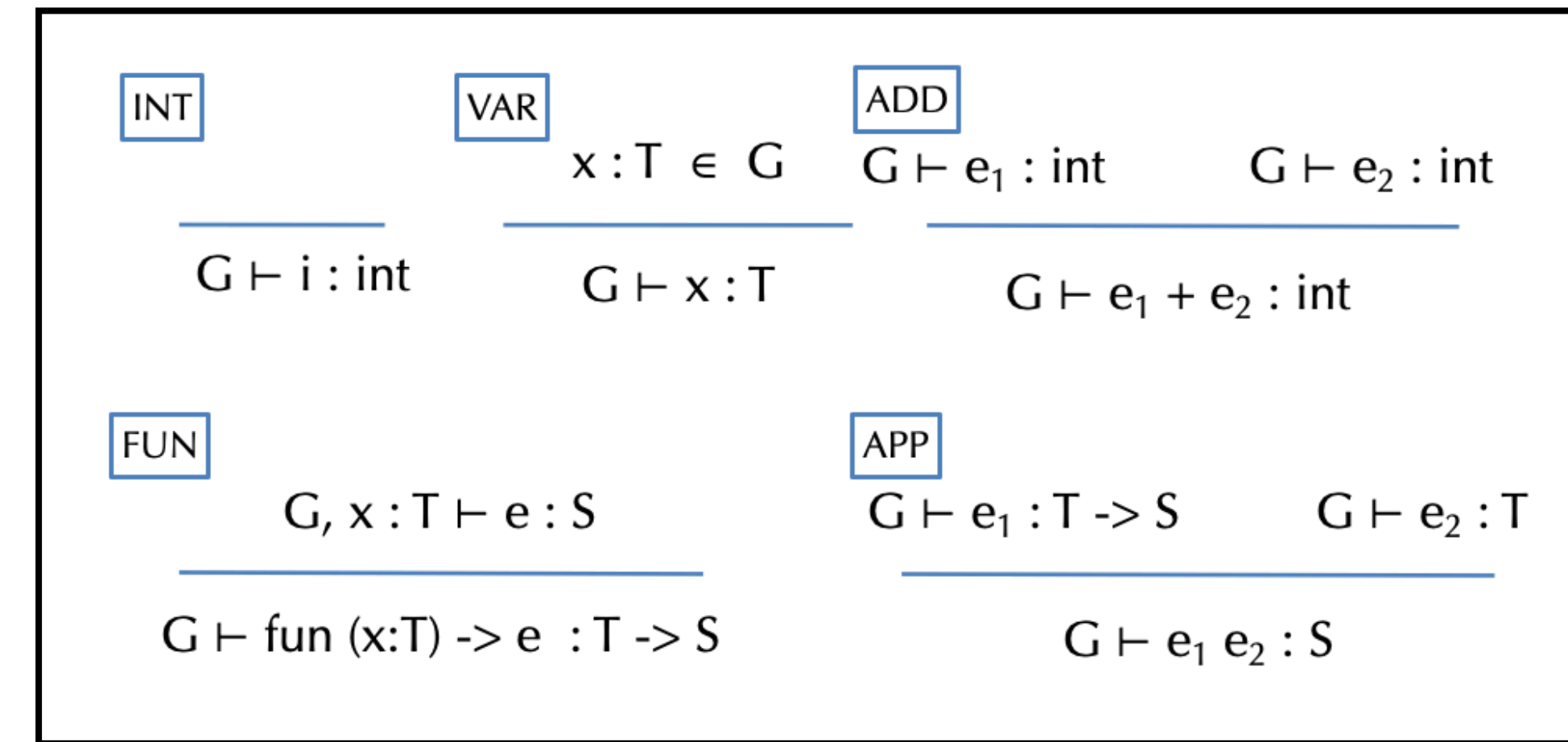
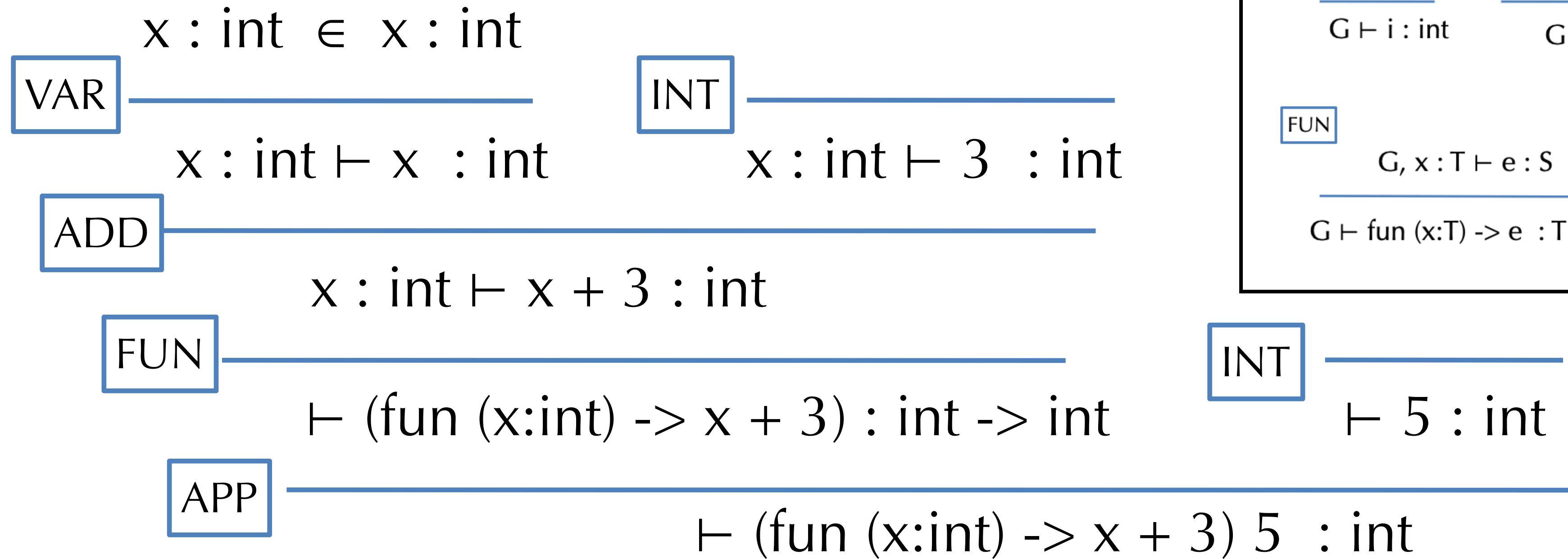
- Note how these rules correspond to the OCaml code.

Model for Type Checking

- A *derivation* or *proof tree* has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms* (i.e. rules with no premises)
 - Example: the INT rule is an axiom
- Goal of the type checker: verify that *such a tree exists*.
- **Example:** Find a tree for the following program using the inference rules on the previous slide:

$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x + 3) 5 : \text{int}$

Example Derivation Tree



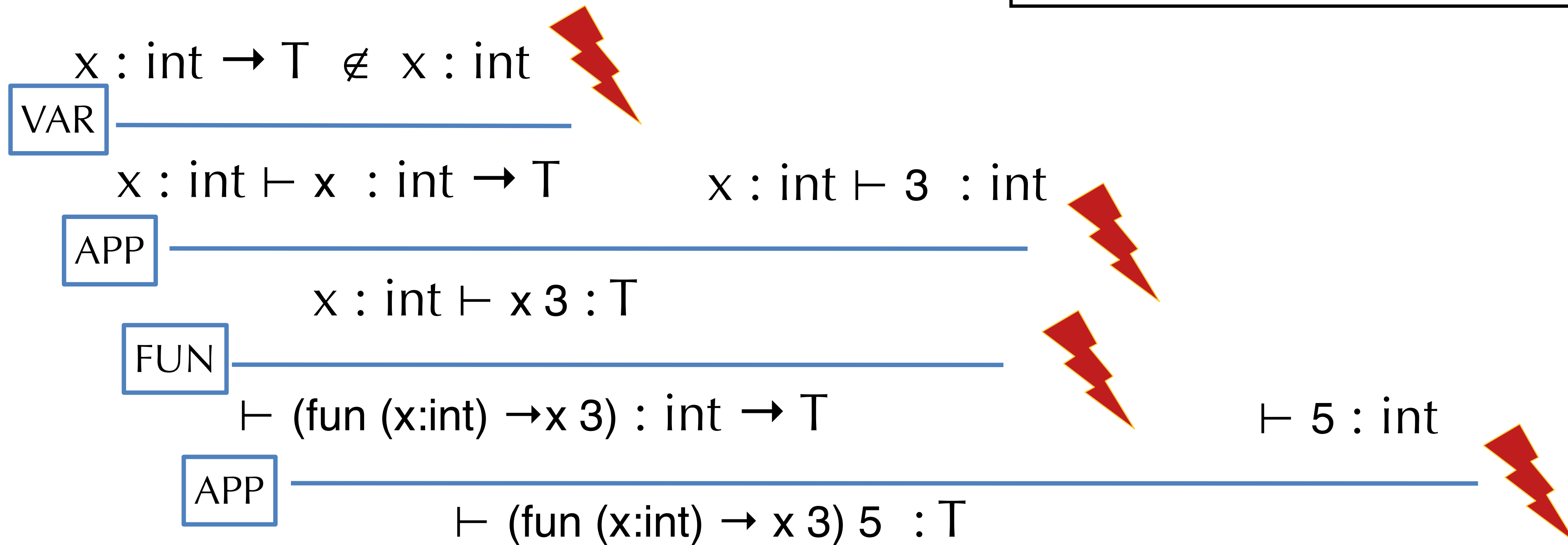
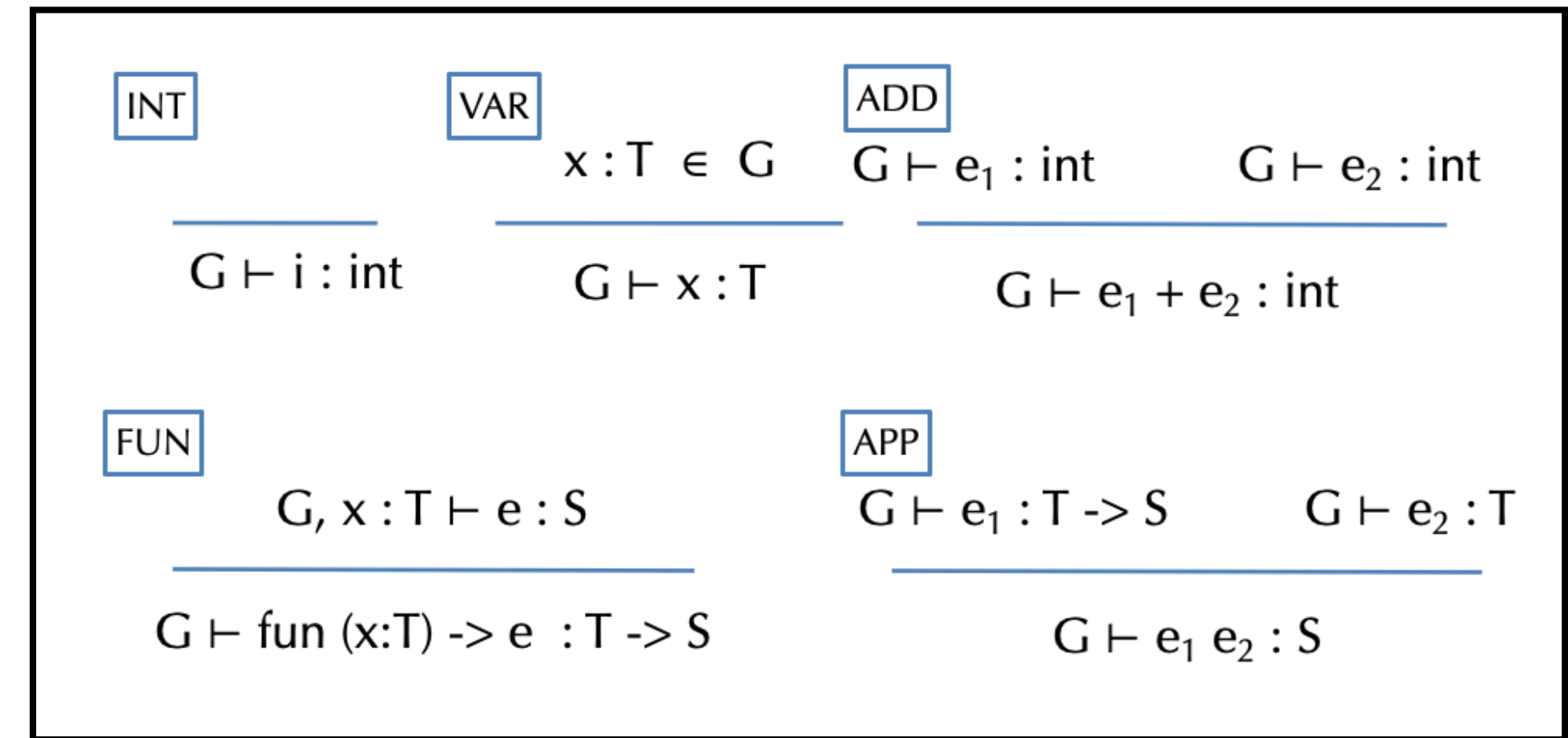
- Note: the OCaml function `typecheck` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `typecheck` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that `x : int ∈ E` is implemented by the function `lookup`

Ill-typed Programs

- Programs without derivations are ill-typed

Example: There is no type T such that

$$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x \ 3) \ 5 : T$$



Simply-typed Lambda Calculus with Integers

- For the language in “stlc.ml” we have five inference rules:

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{INT}} \\ \hline G \vdash i : \text{int} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{VAR}} \\ x : T \in G \\ \hline G \vdash x : T \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{ADD}} \\ G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int} \\ \hline G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{FUN}} \\ G, x : T \vdash e : S \\ \hline G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \boxed{\text{APP}} \\ G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T \\ \hline G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S \end{array}$$

- Note how these rules correspond to the OCaml code.

Implementing a Type Checker for Lambda Calculus

See [stlc.ml](#)

Exercise

- Implement the missing parts of the type-checker

Notes about this Type Checker

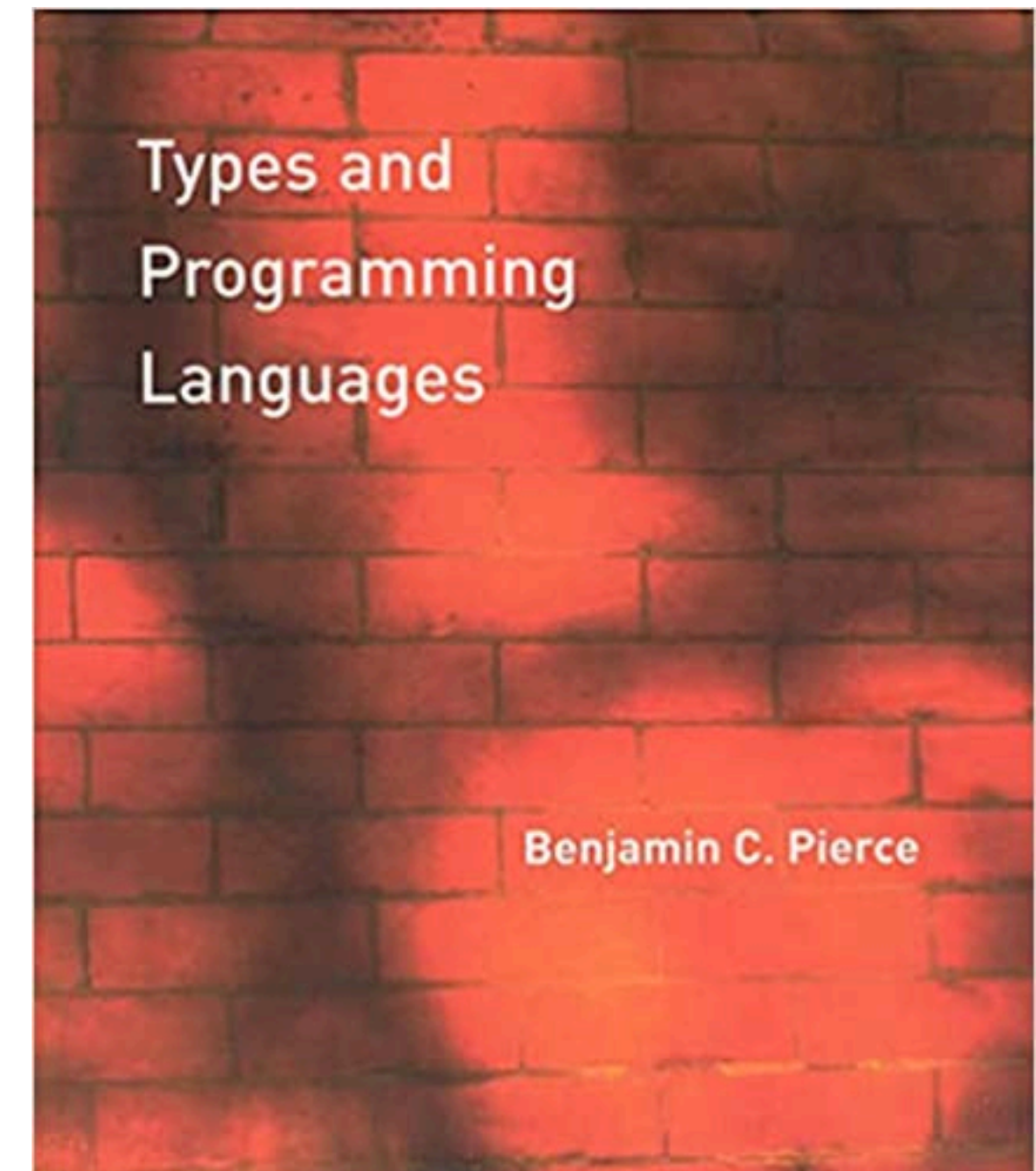
- In the interpreter, we only evaluate the body of a function when it's applied.
- In the type checker, we always check the body of the function (even if it's never applied.)
 - We *assume* the input has some type (say t_1) and reflect this in the type of the function ($t_1 \rightarrow t_2$).
- Dually, at a call site $(e_1 e_2)$, we don't know what *closure* we're going to get as e_1 .
 - But we can calculate e_1 's type, check that e_2 is an argument of the right type, and also determine what type will $(e_1 e_2)$ have.
- **Question:** Why is this a valid approximation of the dynamic program behaviour?

Contexts and Inference Rules

- Need to keep track of contextual information.
 - What variables are in scope?
 - What are their types?
 - What information do we have about each syntactic construct?
- What relationships are there among the syntactic objects?
 - e.g. is one type a subtype of another?
- How do we describe this information?
 - In the compiler there's a mapping from variables to information we know about them – the "context".
 - The compiler has a collection of (mutually recursive) functions that follow the structure of the syntax.

Why Inference Rules?

- They are a compact, precise way of specifying language properties.
 - E.g. ~20 pages for full Java vs. 100's of pages of prose Java Language Spec.
 - Check out **oat-v1-typing.pdf**
- Inference rules correspond closely to the *recursive AST traversal* that implements them
- Type checking (and *type inference*) is nothing more than attempting to *prove* a judgment ($G \vdash e : t$) by searching backwards through the rules.
- Strong mathematical foundations
 - The “Curry-Howard correspondence”:
 - Programming Language ~ Logic,
 - Program ~ Proof,
 - Type ~ Proposition
- Talk to me you're interested in type systems!



Type Safety

Theorem: (type soundness of simply typed lambda calculus with integers)

If $\vdash e : t$ then there exists a value v such that $e \Downarrow v$.

"Well typed programs do not go wrong."

– Robin Milner, 1978

Next Lecture

- More on types and type safety
- Advanced type features
- Mistakes in type system design