

CS4212: Compiler Design

Week 11: Type Safety Typing for Advanced Features

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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:

<div style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 5px;">INT</div> $\frac{}{G \vdash i : \text{int}}$	<div style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 5px;">VAR</div> $\frac{x : T \in G}{G \vdash x : T}$	<div style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 5px;">ADD</div> $\frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}}$
<div style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 5px;">FUN</div> $\frac{G, x : T \vdash e : S}{G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S}$	<div style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 5px;">APP</div> $\frac{G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S}$	

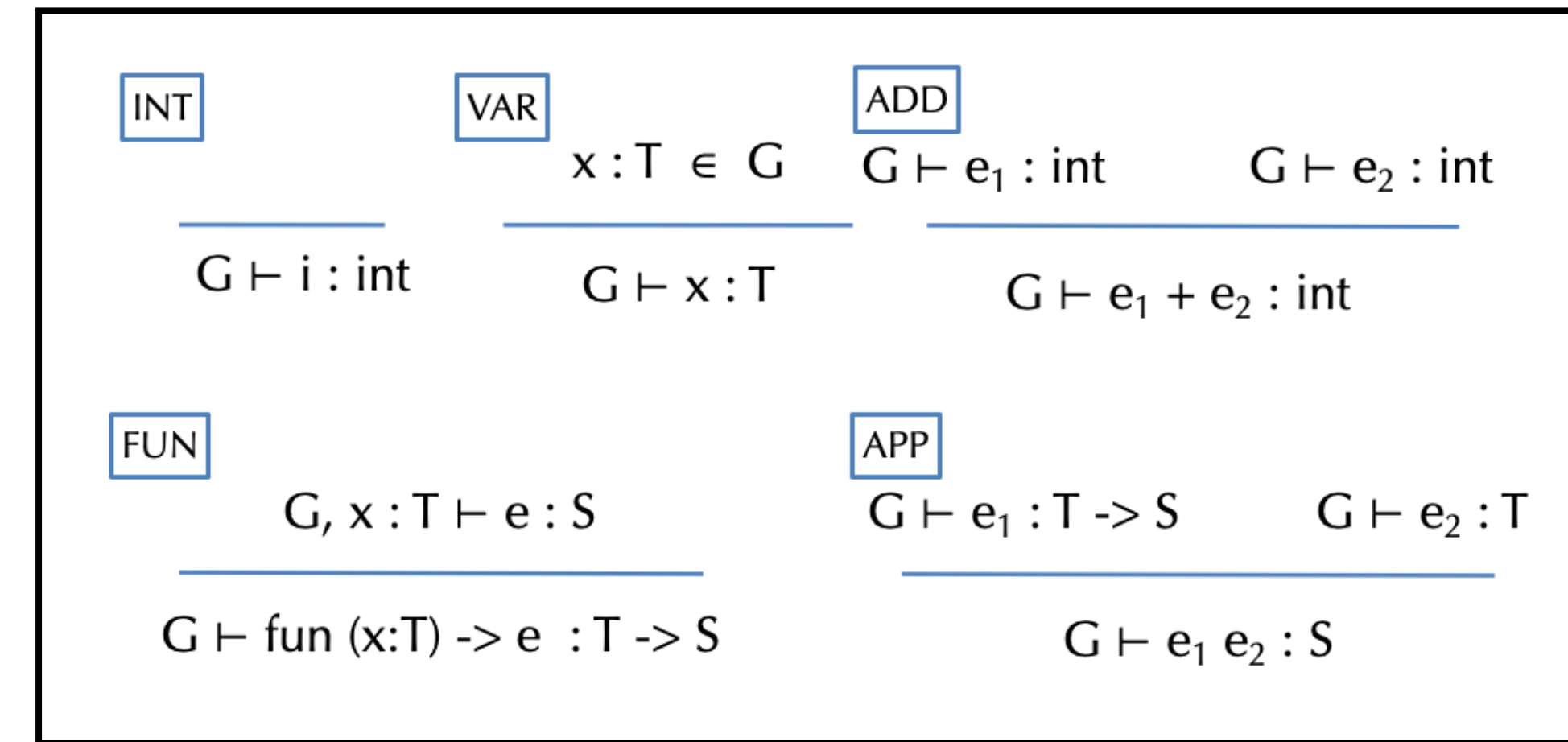
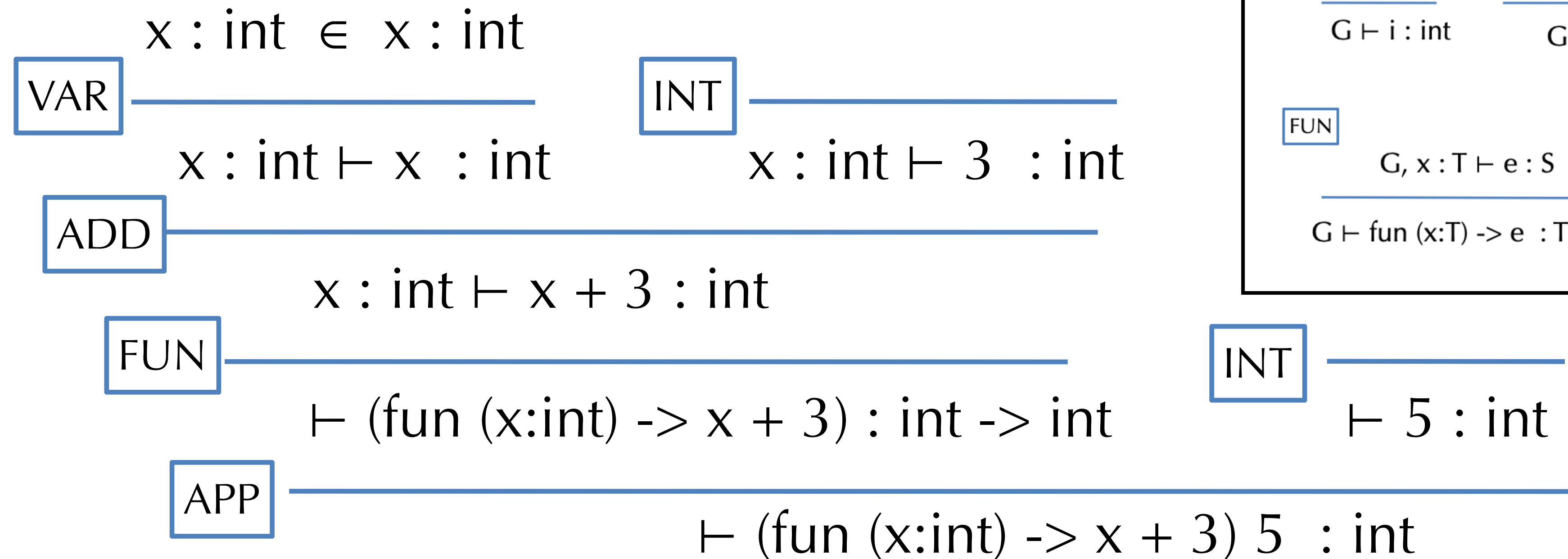
- Note how these rules correspond to the OCaml code.

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



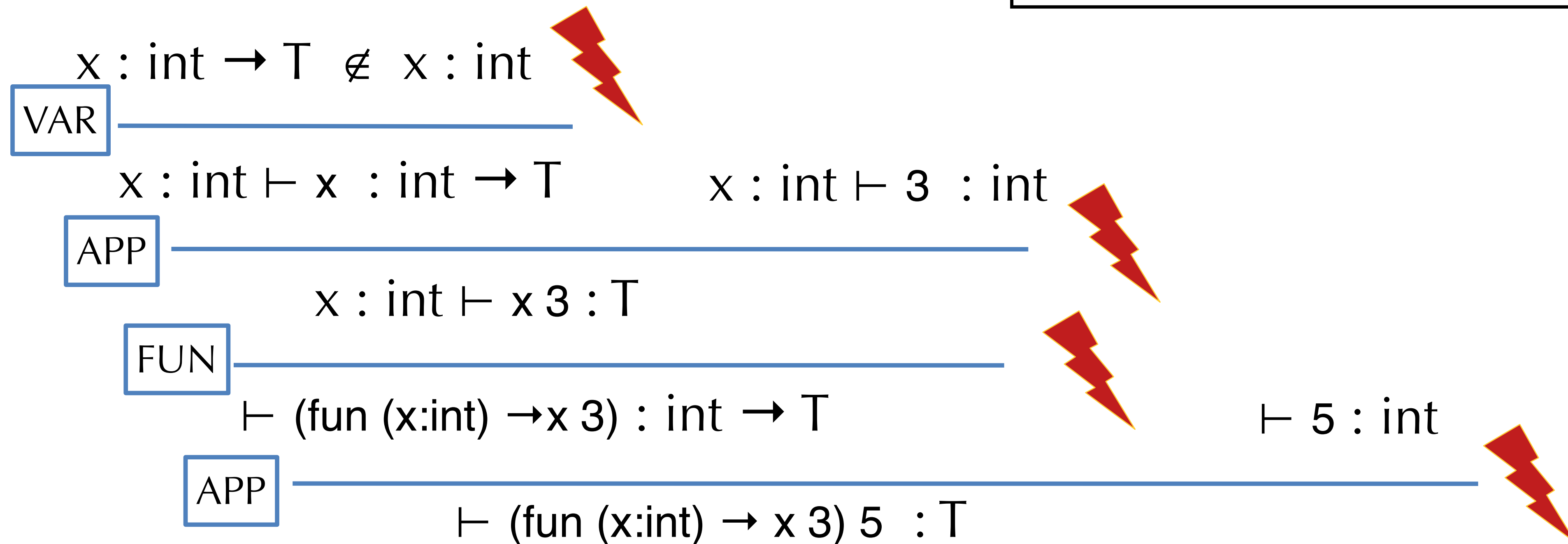
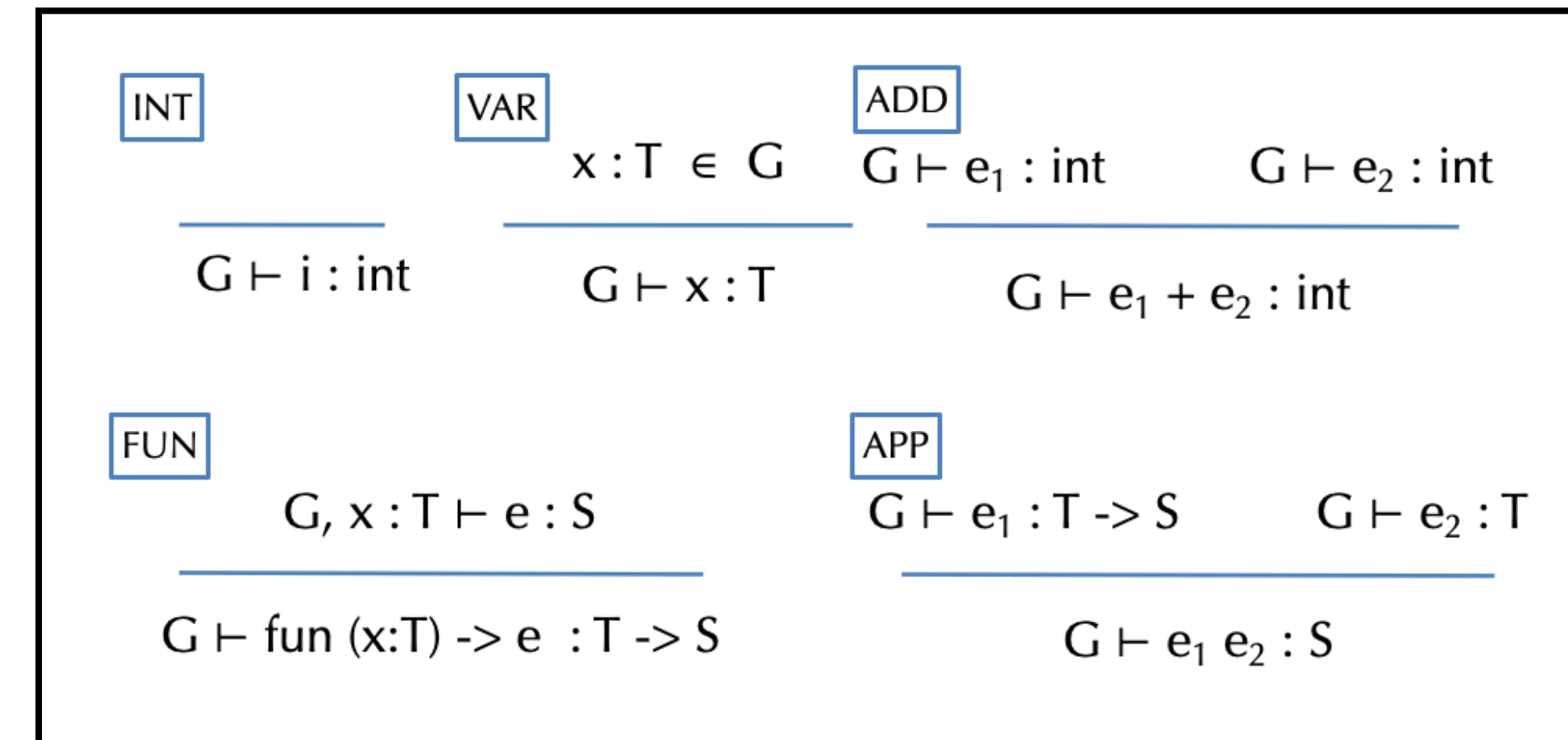
- Note: the OCaml function `typecheck` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `typecheck` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x : \text{int} \in E$ is implemented by the function `lookup`

Ill-typed Programs

- Programs without derivations are ill-typed

Example: There is no type T such that

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



Implementing a Type Checker for Lambda Calculus

See [stlc.ml](#)

Exercise

- Implement the missing parts of the type-checker

Notes about this Type Checker

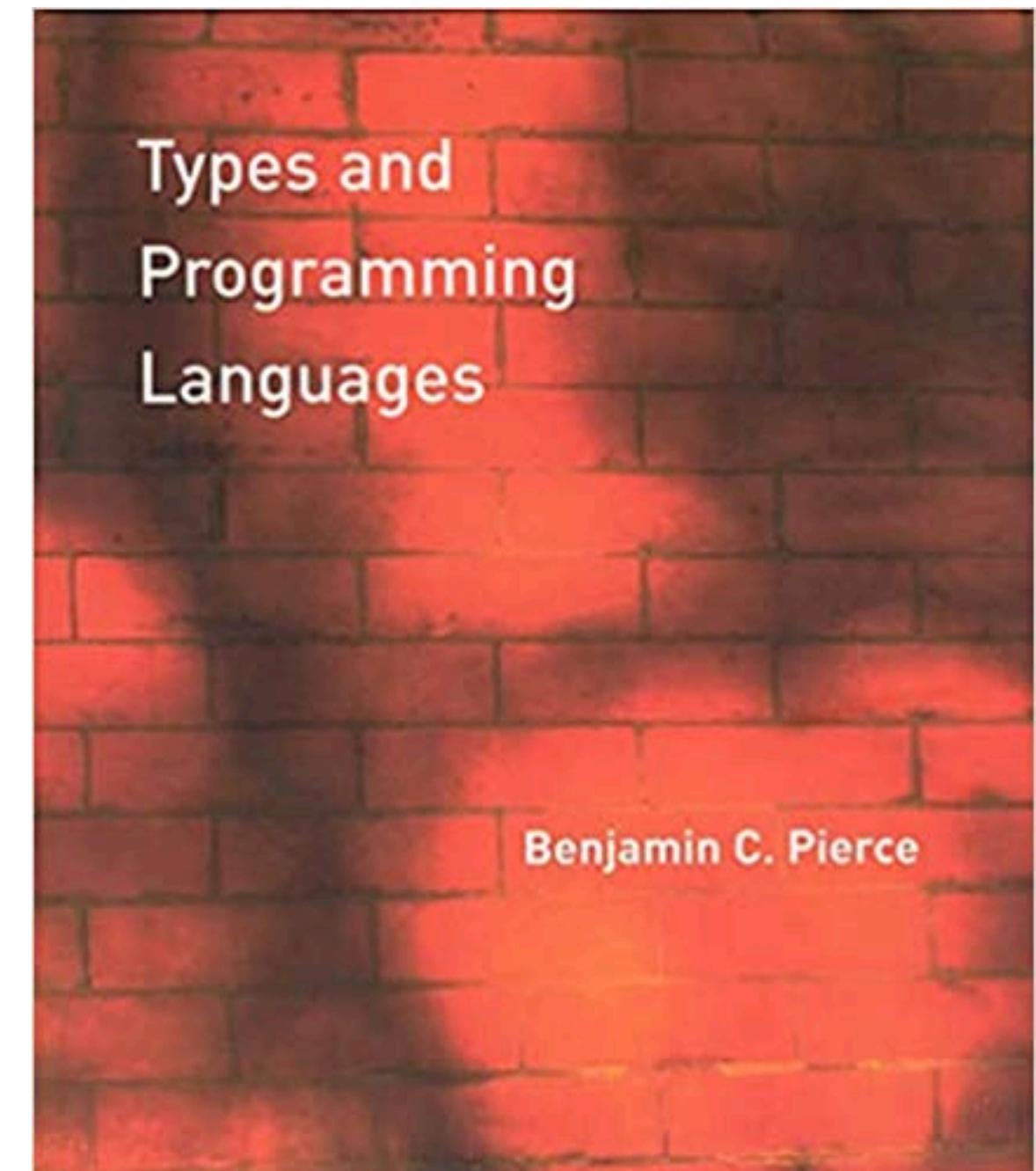
- In the interpreter, we only evaluate the body of a function when it's applied.
- In the type checker, we always check the body of the function (even if it's never applied.)
 - We *assume* the input has some type (say t_1) and reflect this in the type of the function ($t_1 \rightarrow t_2$).
- Dually, 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!



Types and Type Safety

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

- Note: this is a *very* strong property.
 - Well-typed programs cannot "go wrong" by trying to execute undefined code (such as $3 + (\text{fun } x \rightarrow 2)$)
 - Simply-typed lambda calculus is guaranteed to terminate! (i.e. it *isn't* Turing complete)

Tuples

- ML-style tuples with statically known number of products:
- First: add a new type constructor: $T_1 * \dots * T_n$

TUPLE

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

$$G \vdash (e_1, \dots, e_n) : T_1 * \dots * T_n$$

PROJ

$$G \vdash e : T_1 * \dots * T_n \quad 1 \leq i \leq n$$

$$G \vdash \#i e : T_i$$

A note on Curry-Howard Correspondence

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \boxed{\text{INT}} \\
 \hline
 G \vdash i : \text{int}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \boxed{\text{VAR}} \\
 \frac{x:T \in G}{G \vdash x:T}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \boxed{\text{ADD}} \\
 \frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \boxed{\text{TUPLE}} \\
 \hline
 G \vdash (e_1, \dots, e_n) : T_1 * \dots * T_n
 \end{array}$$

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

Arrays

- Array constructs are not hard
- First: add a new type constructor: $T[]$

$$\boxed{\text{NEW}} \quad \frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash \text{new } T[e_1](e_2) : T[]}$$

e_1 is the size of the newly allocated array. e_2 initialises the elements of the array.

$$\boxed{\text{INDEX}} \quad \frac{G \vdash e_1 : T[] \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{G \vdash e_1[e_2] : T}$$

$$\boxed{\text{UPDATE}} \quad \frac{G \vdash e_1 : T[] \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_3 : T}{G \vdash e_1[e_2] = e_3 \text{ ok}}$$

Note: These rules don't ensure that the array index is in bounds – that should be checked *dynamically*.

References

- OCaml-style references (note that in OCaml references are expressions)
- First, add a new type constructor: $T \text{ ref}$

REF

$$\frac{G \vdash e : T}{G \vdash \text{ref } e : T \text{ ref}}$$

DEREF

$$\frac{G \vdash e : T \text{ ref}}{G \vdash !e : T}$$

ASSIGN

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 : T \text{ ref} \quad E \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash e_1 := e_2 : \text{unit}}$$

Note the similarity with the rules for arrays...

Well-Formed Types

- In languages with type definitions, need additional rules to define well-formed types
- Judgements take the form $H \vdash t$

- H is set of type names
- t is a type
- $H \vdash t$

means

“Assuming H lists well-formed types, t is a well-formed type”

INT

$$\frac{}{H \vdash \text{int}}$$

BOOL

$$\frac{}{H \vdash \text{bool}}$$

ARROW

$$\frac{H \vdash t_1 \quad H \vdash t_2}{H \vdash t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$$

NAMED

$$\frac{}{H \vdash s} \quad s \in H$$

- Note: also need to modify the typing rules and judgements. E.g.,

FUN

$$\frac{H \vdash t_1 \quad H, \Gamma \{x \mapsto t_1\} \vdash e : t_2}{H, \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{fun} (x : t_1) \rightarrow e : t_1 \rightarrow t_2}$$

Type-Checking Statements

- In languages with statements, need additional rules to define well-formed statements

- E.g., judgements may take the form $H;G;rt \vdash s$

- H maps type names to their definitions
- G is a type environment (variables \rightarrow types)
- rt is a type
- $H;G;rt \vdash s$

means

“with type definitions H , assuming type environment G , s is a valid statement within the context of a function that returns a value of type rt ”

ASSIGN

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \Gamma(x)}{D; \Gamma; rt \vdash x := e}$$

RETURN

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : rt}{D; \Gamma; rt \vdash \mathbf{return} e}$$

DECL

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : t \quad D; \Gamma\{x \mapsto t\}; rt \vdash s_2}{D; \Gamma; rt \vdash \mathbf{var} x = e; s_2}$$

Type Safety For General Languages

Theorem: (Type Safety)

If $\vdash P : t$ is a well-typed program, then either:

- (a) the program terminates in a well-defined way, or
- (b) the program continues computing forever

- Well-defined termination could include:
 - halting with a return value
 - raising an exception
- Type safety rules out undefined behaviours:
 - abusing "unsafe" casts: converting pointers to integers, etc.
 - treating non-code values as code (and vice-versa)
 - breaking the type abstractions of the language (e.g., via Java/Ruby reflection)
- What is "defined" depends on the language semantics...

A good place for a break

Types as Sets

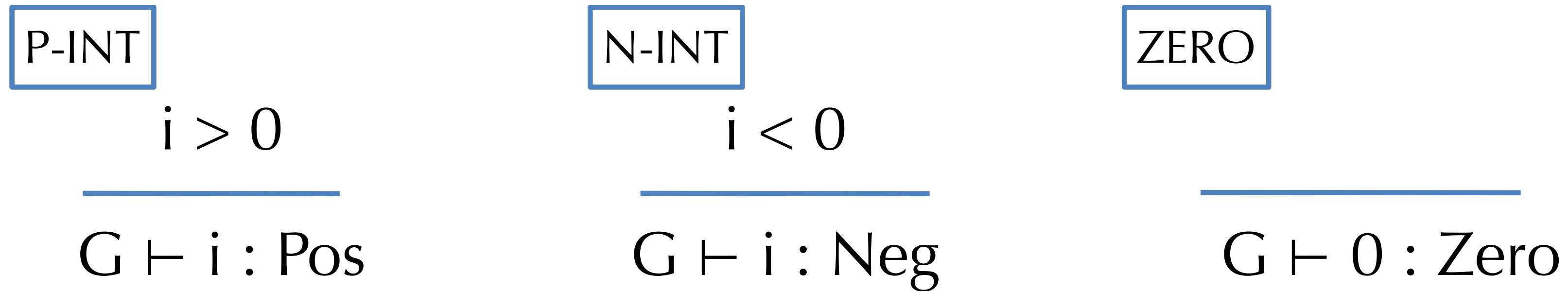
What are types, anyway?

- 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:



- Same for booleans:



What about “if”?

- Two cases are easy:

$$\boxed{\text{IF-T}} \quad \frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{True} \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T}$$

$$\boxed{\text{IF-F}} \quad \frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{False} \quad G \vdash e_3 : T}{G \vdash \text{if } (e_1) e_2 \text{ else } e_3 : T}$$

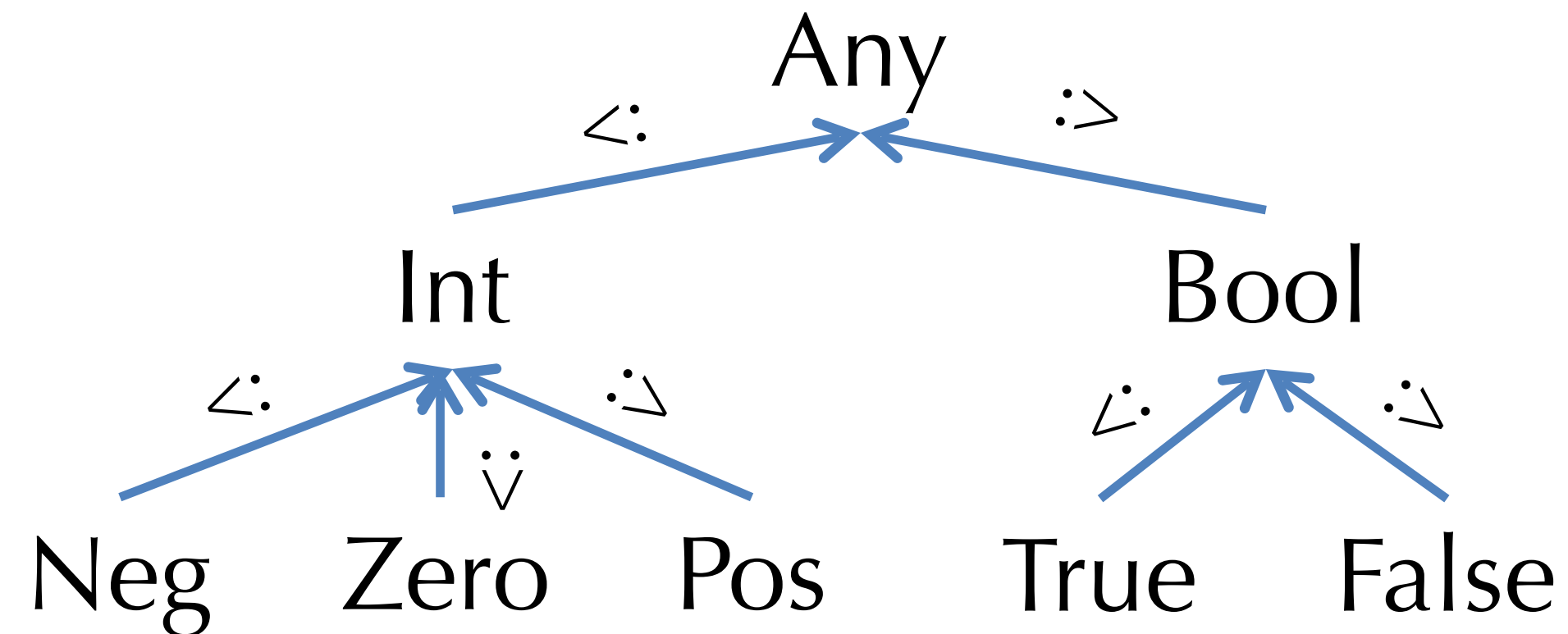
- What happens when we don't know statically which branch will be taken?
- Consider the type checking problem:

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

- 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: $\text{Pos} <: \text{Int}$ (sometimes also typeset as \leq)
- 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.
 - 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

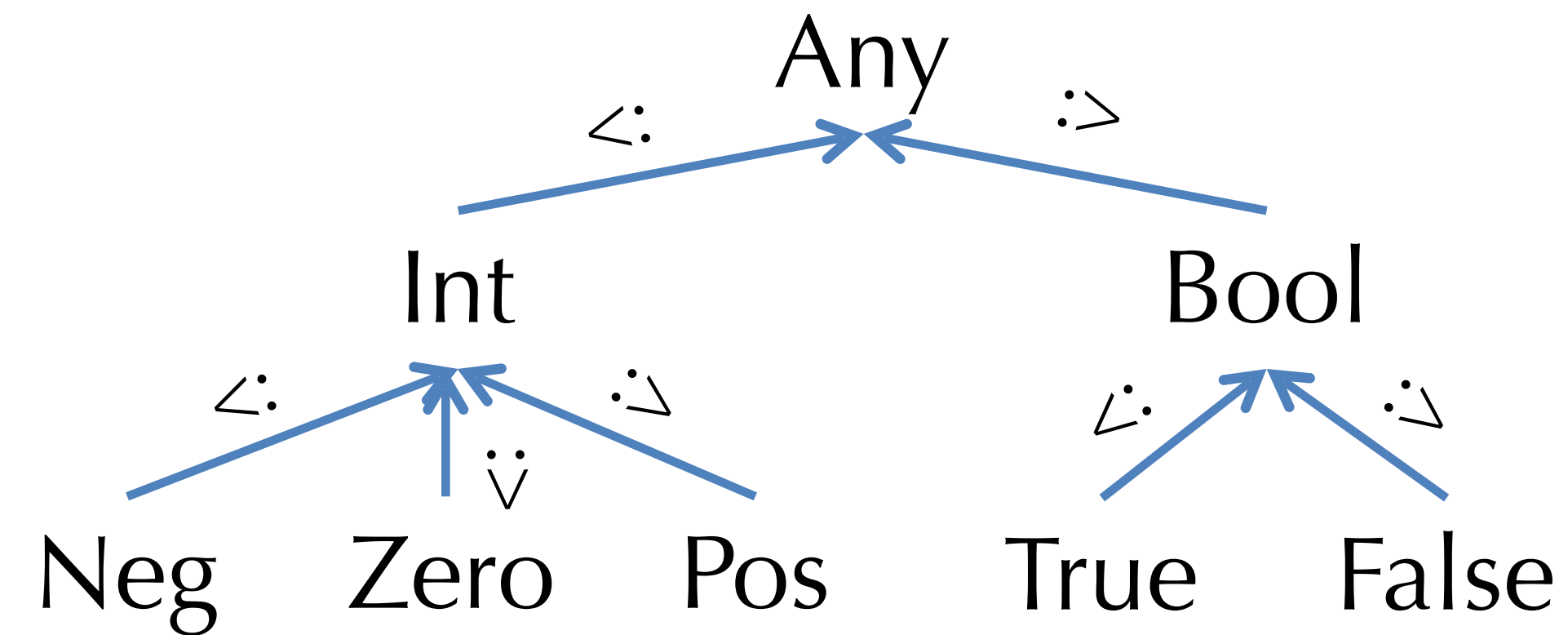
$$G \vdash e_1 : \text{bool} \quad E \vdash e_2 : T_1 \quad G \vdash e_3 : T_2$$

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

- Note that $\text{LUB}(T_1, T_2)$ is the most precise type (according to the hierarchy) that is able to 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*:



- 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 $\{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\} \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

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)

Subtyping in the Wild

Extending Subtyping to Other Types

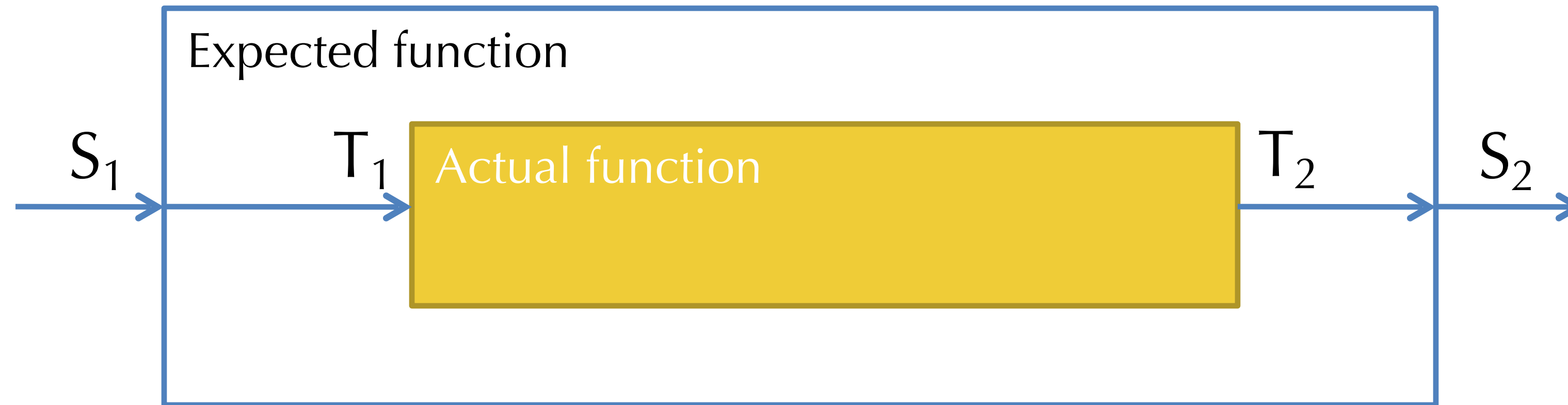
- What about subtyping for tuples?
 - Intuition: whenever a program expects something of type $S_1 * S_2$, it is sound to give it a $T_1 * T_2$.
 - Example: $(\text{Pos} * \text{Neg}) <: (\text{Int} * \text{Int})$

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

- 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.

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

$$\boxed{\text{PROJECTION}} \quad \frac{G \vdash e : \{\text{lab}_1:T_1; \text{lab}_2:T_2; \dots ; \text{lab}_n:T_n\}}{G \vdash e.\text{lab}_i : T_i}$$

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:

WIDTH

$$m \leq n$$

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

Mutability and Subtyping

NULL

- What is the type of null?
- Consider:
 `int[] a = null; // OK?`
 `int x = null; // OK? (nope)`
 `string s = null; // OK?`

$$\boxed{\text{NULL}} \quad \frac{}{G \vdash \text{null} : r}$$

- 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

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** (well-typed programs *do go wrong*)
 - 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:

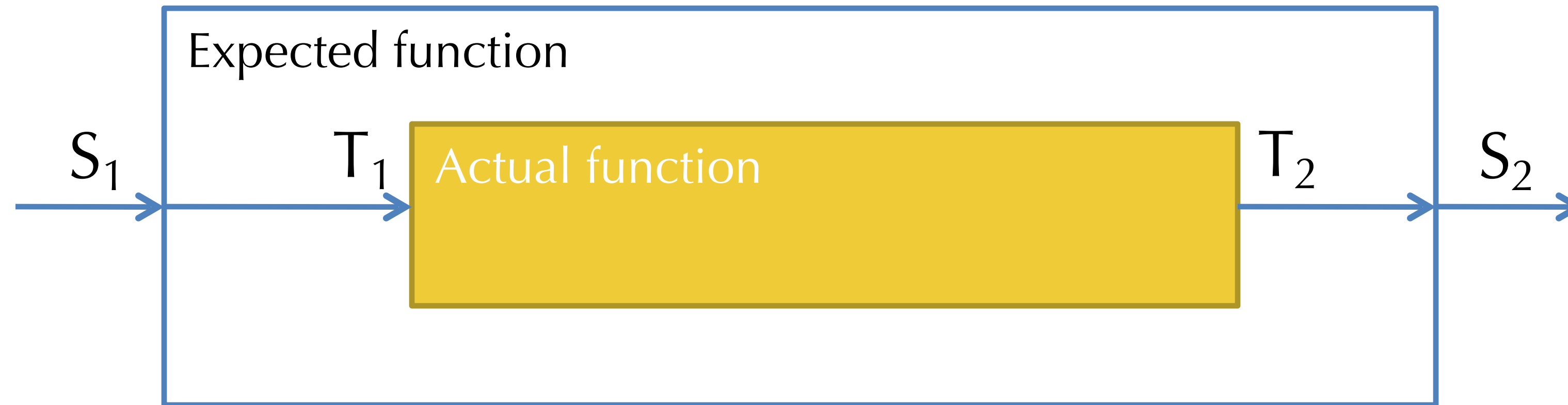
$$T_1 \text{ ref } <: T_2 \text{ ref} \quad \text{implies} \quad T_1 = T_2$$
- Same holds for arrays, OCaml-style mutable records, object fields, etc.
 - Note: Java and C# get this wrong. They allow covariant array subtyping, but then compensate by adding a dynamic check on *every* array update!

Let $\Gamma = [x \mapsto \text{nat array}]$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{NATINT} \frac{}{\text{nat} <: \text{int}} \\
 \text{VAR} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \text{nat array}} \quad \text{ARRAY} \frac{}{\text{nat array} <: \text{int array}} \\
 \text{SUB} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \text{int array}} \\
 \text{ASSN} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x[0] := -1} \quad \text{NAT} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash 0 : \text{nat}} \quad \text{INT} \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash -1 : \text{int}}
 \end{array}$$

Reminder: 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*.

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

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:
$$T \text{ ref} \approx \{\text{get}: \text{unit} \rightarrow T; \text{ set}: T \rightarrow \text{unit}\}$$
 - 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 are like tuples: 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 $T = S$.

Demo: Arrays in Java

- Check out <https://github.com/cs4212/week-10-java-arrays>
- The code shows the run-time issue with covariant array subtyping

Structural vs. Nominal Subtyping

Structural vs. Nominal Typing

- Is type equality / subsumption defined by the *structure* of the data or the *name* of the data?
- Example: 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 4230;}
}
```

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

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: $R \leq R?$
 - *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;  
}
```

Full 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
 - for example, `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

- Type-safe, 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?

$$H; G; L_1; rt \vdash stmt \Rightarrow L_2; returns$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{H; G; L \vdash exp : t' \quad H \vdash t' \leq t}{H; G; L; t \vdash \text{return } exp; \Rightarrow L; \top} \text{TYP_RET T}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \frac{
 \begin{array}{l}
 H; G; L \vdash exp : \text{bool} \\
 H; G; L; rt \vdash block_1; r_1 \\
 H; G; L; rt \vdash block_2; r_2
 \end{array}
 }{H; G; L; rt \vdash \text{if}(exp) block_1 \text{ else } block_2 \Rightarrow L; r_1 \wedge r_2} \text{TYP_IF}
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{
 \begin{array}{l}
 H; G; L \vdash exp : \text{bool} \\
 H; G; L; rt \vdash block; r
 \end{array}
 }{H; G; L; rt \vdash \text{while}(exp) block \Rightarrow L; \perp} \text{TYP_WHILE}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \frac{
 \begin{array}{l}
 H; G; L \vdash exp : (t_1, \dots, t_n) \rightarrow \text{void} \\
 H; G; L \vdash exp_1 : t'_1 \quad \dots \quad H; G; L \vdash exp_n : t'_n \\
 H \vdash t'_1 \leq t_1 \quad \dots \quad H \vdash t'_n \leq t_n
 \end{array}
 }{H; G; L; rt \vdash exp(exp_1, \dots, exp_n); \Rightarrow L; \perp} \text{TYP_SCALL}
 \end{array}$$

Example: Typing in Oat

Checking Derivations

- 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 1: Find a tree for the following program using the inference rules in Oat specification

```
var x1 = 0;  
var x2 = x1 + x1;  
x1 = x1 - x2;  
return(x1);
```

Example 2: There is no tree for this ill-typed program:

```
int f() {  
    var x = int[] null;  
    x = new int[] {3,4};  
    return x[0];  
}
```

Example Derivation

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

D_1
 D_2
 D_2
 D_4

$$H; G; L_0; rt \vdash_{ss} stmt_1 .. stmt_n \Rightarrow L_n; returns$$

$$H; G; L_0; rt \vdash stmt_1 \Rightarrow L_1; \perp$$

...

$$H; G; L_{n-2}; rt \vdash stmt_{n-1} \Rightarrow L_{n-1}; \perp$$

$$H; G; L_{n-1}; rt \vdash stmt_n \Rightarrow L_n; r$$

$$\frac{H; G; L_{n-1}; rt \vdash stmt_n \Rightarrow L_n; r}{H; G; L_0; rt \vdash_{ss} stmt_1 .. stmt_{n-1} stmt_n \Rightarrow L_n; r} \text{ TYP_STMTS}$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_1 \quad \mathcal{D}_2 \quad \mathcal{D}_3 \quad \mathcal{D}_4}{H; G; \cdot; \text{int} \vdash_{ss} \text{var } x_1 = 0; \text{var } x_2 = x_1 + x_2; x_1 = x_1 - x_2; \text{return } x_1; \Rightarrow x_1 : \text{int}, x_2 : \text{int}, \cdot; \top} \text{ TYP_STMTS}$$

Example Derivation

$$\frac{H;G;L_1 \vdash vdecl \Rightarrow L_2}{H;G;L_1;rt \vdash vdecl; \Rightarrow L_2; \perp} \text{ TYP_STMTDECL}$$

$$\frac{H;G;L \vdash exp : t \quad x \notin L}{H;G;L \vdash \text{var } x = exp \Rightarrow L, x:t} \text{ TYP_DECL}$$

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

$$\frac{}{H;G;L \vdash integer : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_INT}$$

$\mathcal{D}_1 =$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{H;G;\cdot \vdash 0 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_INT} \quad x_1 \notin \cdot}{H;G;\cdot \vdash \text{var } x_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \cdot, x_1:\text{int}} \text{ TYP_DECL}}{H;G;:\text{int} \vdash \text{var } x_1 = 0; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_1:\text{int}; \perp} \text{ TYP_STMTDECL}$$

Example Derivation

$$\frac{H;G;L_1 \vdash vdecl \Rightarrow L_2}{H;G;L_1;rt \vdash vdecl; \Rightarrow L_2; \perp} \text{ TYP_STMTDECL}$$

$$\frac{H;G;L \vdash exp : t \quad x \notin L}{H;G;L \vdash \text{var } x = exp \Rightarrow L, x:t} \text{ TYP_DECL}$$

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

$$\frac{}{H;G;L \vdash integer : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_INT}$$

$$\frac{id:t \in L}{H;G;L \vdash id : t} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}$$

$\mathcal{D}_2 =$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{\vdash +:(\text{int}, \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}} \text{ TYP_INTOPS} \quad \frac{}{x_1:\text{int} \in \cdot, x_1:\text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int} \vdash x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL} \quad \frac{\frac{}{x_1:\text{int} \in \cdot, x_1:\text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int} \vdash x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int} \vdash x_1 + x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_BOP} \quad \frac{}{x_2 \notin \cdot, x_1:\text{int}} \text{ TYP_DECL}}{H;G;\cdot \vdash \text{var } x_2 = x_1 + x_1 \Rightarrow \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}} \text{ TYP_DECL} \quad \frac{}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}; \text{int} \vdash \text{var } x_2 = x_1 + x_1; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}; \perp} \text{ TYP__STMTDECL}$$

Example Derivation

$$\frac{H;G;L_1 \vdash vdecl \Rightarrow L_2}{H;G;L_1;rt \vdash vdecl; \Rightarrow L_2; \perp} \text{ TYP_STMTDECL}$$

$$\frac{H;G;L \vdash exp : t \quad x \notin L}{H;G;L \vdash \text{var } x = exp \Rightarrow L, x:t} \text{ TYP_DECL}$$

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

$$\frac{}{H;G;L \vdash integer : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_INT}$$

$$\frac{id:t \in L}{H;G;L \vdash id : t} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}$$

$\mathcal{D}_5 =$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{}{\vdash -:(\text{int}, \text{int}) \rightarrow \text{int}} \text{ TYP_INTOPS} \quad \frac{x_1:\text{int} \in \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int} \vdash x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int} \vdash x_1 - x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_BOP} \quad \frac{x_2:\text{int} \in \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int} \vdash x_2 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}}$$

$\mathcal{D}_3 =$

$$\frac{G \vdash x_1 \text{ not a global function id} \quad \frac{x_1:\text{int} \in \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int} \vdash x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL} \quad \frac{}{H \vdash \text{int} \leq \text{int}} \text{ SUB_SUB_INT} \quad \mathcal{D}_5}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}; \text{int} \vdash x_1 = x_1 - x_2; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}; \perp} \text{ TYP_ASSN}$$

Example Derivation

$$\frac{H;G;L \vdash \text{exp} : t' \quad H \vdash t' \leq t}{H;G;L;t \vdash \text{return exp}; \Rightarrow L;\top} \text{ TYP_RETT}$$

$$\frac{}{H \vdash \text{int} \leq \text{int}} \text{ SUB_SUB_INT}$$

```
var x1 = 0;
var x2 = x1 + x1;
x1 = x1 - x2;
return(x1);
```

$$\frac{id:t \in L}{H;G;L \vdash id : t} \text{ TYP_LOCAL}$$

$\mathcal{D}_4 =$

$$\frac{\frac{x_1:\text{int} \in \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int} \vdash x_1 : \text{int}} \text{ TYP_LOCAL} \quad \frac{}{H \vdash \text{int} \leq \text{int}} \text{ SUB_SUB_INT}}{H;G;\cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}; \text{int} \vdash \text{return } x_1; \Rightarrow \cdot, x_1:\text{int}, x_2:\text{int}; \top} \text{ TYP_RETT}$$

Example: Ill-Typed Oat Program

```
int f() {  
    var x = int[] null;  
    x = new int[] {3,4};  
    return x[0];  
}
```

Next in this Module

- Making our programs *faster*