Programming Paradigms

Type Systems (Part 1)

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Overview

Introduction

- Types in Programming Languages
- Type Equivalence
- Type Compatibility and Conversions
- Formally Defined Type Systems
 - Arithmetic Expressions
 - Lambda Calculus

What values do these JavaScript expressions evaluate to?

"" == 0 1 == true "true" == 1 false == "false"

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"" == 0 1 == true"true" == 1 false == "false" // false

// true // true // false

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Number and string: String is coerced into a number (here: 0 and NaN)

What values do these JavaScript expressions evaluate to?

"" == 0 1 == true "true" == 1 false == "false"



Number and boolean: Boolean gets converted to number (here: 1)

What values do these JavaScript expressions evaluate to?

"" == 0 // true
1 == true // true
"true" == 1 // false
false == "false" // false <</pre>

Boolean and another type:

- Boolean gets coerced to a number (here: 0)
- String also get coerced to a number (here: NaN)
- The two numbers differ



- Most PLs: Expressions and memory objects have types
- Examples
 - Assignment x=4 (implicitly) says x has a number type
 - Declaration int n; says n has integer type
 - Expression a+b has a type, which depends on the type of a and b
 - □ new X() has a type

Reason 1: Provide context for operations

Meaning of a+b depends on types of a and b

□ E.g., addition vs. string concatenation

Meaning of new x depends in the type of x

 \Box E.g., which initialization code to call?

PL implementation uses this context information

Reason 2: Limit valid operations

- Many syntactically valid operations don't make any sense
 - □ Adding a character and a record
 - □ Computing the logarithm of a set

Helps developers find bugs early

Reason 3: Code readability and understandability

- Types = stylized documentation
- Makes maintaining and extending code easier

But: Sometimes, types make code harder to write

Reason 4: Compile-time optimizations

- Compiler knows that some behavior is impossible
 - E.g., assignment of type T1 may not influence values
 of type T2

Works both for explicitly specified and implicitly inferred types

Bits Are Untyped

- (Most) hardware stores and computes on raw bits
 - □ Bits may be code, integer data, addresses, etc.
- (Most) assembly languages are untyped
 - Operation of any kind can be applied to values at arbitrary locations

Type Systems

Definition of types and their association with PL constructs

 Every PL construct that has/refers to a value has a type (e.g., named constants, variables, record fields, functions)

Rules for

- Type equivalence
- Type compatibility
- Type inference

Type Checking

Ensure that program obeys the type compatibility rules

Example (Java):

int a = 3; String b = a - 2;

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int a = 3; String b = a - 2;

Type error: Can't assign int value to String variable

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Strongly Typed PLs

PL implementation enforces: Operations only on values of proper type

- Most PLs since 1970s
- C is mostly strongly typed
 - □ Exceptions, e.g.,:
 - Subroutines with variable number of parameters
 - Interoperability of pointers and arrays

Statically Typed PLs

Strongly typed and checked at compile-time

- Strictly speaking, practically no PL is statically typed
 - E.g., Java: Upcasts and reflection allow for runtime type errors
- In practice, means "mostly statically typed"

Dynamically Typed PLs

Type checking is delayed until runtime

- Type errors found only later in development process
- Common in "scripting languages", e.g., JavaScript and Python
- Note: Every value has a type and type errors manifest as runtime errors

Gradual Typing

Middleground between statically and dynamically typed PLs

- Annotating types is optional
 - Can quickly write code and add types later
- Static type checker warns about errors obvious from the available types
 - □ No guarantee to find all type errors

Quiz: * Typed PLs

Which of the following statements is true?

- In a dynamically typed language, no type errors can occur.
- In practical, statically typed languages, all type errors are caught before running the code.
- Gradual typing let's programmers choose which types to annotate.
- Strong typing exists only in statically typed PLs.

Quiz: * Typed PLs

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- In a dynamically typed language, no type errors can occur.
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 - errors are caught before running the code.
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Polymorphism

- Greek origin: "Having multiple forms"
 Two kinds
 - Parametric polymorphism: Code takes (set of)
 type(s) as parameter
 - E.g., generics in Java, containers in C++
 - Subtype polymorphism: Extending of refining a supertype
 - E.g., subclasses in Java or C++

Polymorphic Variables

In some PLs, a single variable may refer to objects of completely different types

Example (pseudo language):

- a = "abc" b = 42 a = b
- a = "def"

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- a = b // a holds an int
- a = "def" // a holds a string (again)

Type-correct in most dynamically typed (and even some statically typed) PLs

Special Types and Values

- void type: Indicates the absence of a type and has only one (trivial) value
- null value: Means "does not hold a value of its type"
- Option types: Indicates that the value may or may not hold a value of a specific type
 - E.g., Option[int] in Python means int or None

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Type Equivalence

Prerequisite for type checking: Clarify whether two types are equivalent

Two approaches

- Structural equivalence
 - □ Same structure means same type
 - □ Compares structure recursively
- Name equivalence (aka nominal equivalence)
 - □ Same type name means same type

Example: OCaml

Objects: Structurally typed by the names and types of their methods

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let x =object val mutable x = 5method get_x = xmethod set_x y = x < -yend;; **Creates an object** with one field and two methods

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Objects: Structurally typed by the names and types of their methods

let y =let x =object object val mutable x = 5method get_x = 2method set_x y =method get_x = xmethod set_x y = x < -yPrintf.printf "%d\n" y end;; end;; **Creates an object Creates an object** with one field and with two methods two methods

Example: OCaml

Objects: Structurally typed by the names and types of their methods

| let x = | let y = |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| object | object |
| val mutable $x = 5$ | method get_x = 2 |
| method get_x = x | method set_x y = |
| method set_x y = x <- y | Printf.printf "%d\n" y |
| end;; | end;; |

x = y; ; **--- Type-correct assignment**

Variation Across Languages

Do names matter?

- Same memory representation, but differently named
- □ E.g., different field names in a record

Does order matter?

- Different memory representation, but lossless reordering possible
- □ E.g., same fields but in different order

Limitation of Structural Equivalence

- Cannot distinguish different concepts that happen to be represented the same way
- Example (Pascal-like syntax):

```
type student = record type school = record name, address : string; age: integer VS. age: integer end;
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```
{ This is allowed: }
x : student; y : school;
x := y;
```

Name Equivalence

- Types with different names are different
- Assumption: Programmer wants it that way
- Used in many modern languages, e.g., Java

Limitations of Name Equivalence

Alias types cause difficulties
 Example:

{ Here, we want both types to be the same } type stack_element = integer;

{Here, we want distinct types,
 to prevent mixed computations}
type celsius = real;
type fahrenheit = real;

Quiz: Type Equivalence

type foo = record
x : integer;

y : integer

end;

type bar = record m : integer; n : integer end;

- a : foo;
- b : bar;

a := b;

b := a;

Is this pseudo-code type-correct in a

(a) PL with structural type equivalence,

(b) PL with nominal type equivalence?

Quiz: Type Equivalence

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x : integer;

y : integer

end;

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- a : foo;
- b : bar;

a := b;

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Is this pseudo-code type-correct in a

(a) PL with structural type equivalence, \rightarrow Yes (b) PL with nominal type equivalence? $\rightarrow No$