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The Basics

What is a Type?

- A set of values
- + A set of operations on those values

Type errors happen when we try to perform operations on values that do not support them.

Type expressions are textual representations of type

- primitive: *int*, *boolean*, *real*, *date*, *time*, *char*, *pointer*, ...
- complex: *timestamp*, *latitude*, *longitude*, *student-id*, ...

What about *string*? Or *String*?



The Basics

What is a Type?

- A set of values
- + A set of operations on those values

Type errors happen when we try to perform operations on values that do not support them.

Type expressions are textual representations of type

- primitive: int, boolean, real, date, time, char, pointer, ...
- complex: *string, timestamp, latitude, longitude, student-id, ...*

Type systems consist of rules governing what operations are permitted on what values.

- strong type systems prevent type errors at runtime.
- weak type systems allow encourage type errors at runtime.
- Type systems can be documented and reasoned about using inferences rules.

Specifying a Type System with Inference Rules

preconditions postconditions

We can use inference rules from mathematics and Axiomatic Semantics. Why?

- It's fun.
- It's accurate. We need a rigorous definition of types and type systems so that we can enforce them in the compiler.
- It gives flexibility in implementation because it's not tied to any grammar.
- It allows for formal verification of program properties.
- It's what used in the computer science literature.

Inference Rules

An inference rule is written

$$\frac{f_1, f_2, \dots f_n}{f_0}$$

It expresses that **if** $f_1, f_2, ..., f_n$ are theorems — that is, they are proven well-formed formulae (WFF) — **then** we can infer that f_0 is another theorem.

That's nice, but how do we know? How can we actually prove things?

Let's look at famous inference rule: Modus Ponens.

Modus Ponens

$$p, p \Rightarrow q$$
$$q$$

Modus Ponens ("the mode that affirms") can be read: **if**

we have *p* (meaning, *p* is true) **and** *p* implies *q*

then

we can infer that *q* is true. **end if**

The implication/conditional operator (\Rightarrow) is like a contract: if *p* then *q*.

Inference Rule vs. Propositional Connective

Modus Ponens

$$\frac{p, \ p \Rightarrow q}{q} \quad \longleftarrow \quad \text{Inference Rule}$$

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Propositional Connective

The implication/conditional operator (\Rightarrow) is like a contract: if *p* then *q*.

Let's review this in Propositional logic.

Truth Tables

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not. (propositional connectors)

Truth Tables

pqp000010100111

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like **and**, or, and not.

Truth Tables

р	q	p v d	р и q	
0	0	0	0	
0	1	0	1	
1	0	0	1	
1	1	1	1	

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, **or**, and not.

Truth Tables



Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and **not**.

Do we need more? (Do we even need all of these?)

Truth Tables



Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not.

Do we need more? No. (Do we even need all of these? No.)

 $p\mathbf{v}q = \neg (\neg p\mathbf{v}\neg q)$

Truth Tables

d |bvd |b∧d | →b | b⇒d $\left(\right)$ 1 $\left(\right)$ 0 $\left(\right)$ 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 | 1 1 1 0

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not.

Truth Tables



These are vacuously true because *p* is false and false can imply anything because it's an invalid premise.

Also, we take "if p then q" to be false **only** when p is true and q is false.

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not.

Truth Tables



This is false because p is true and q is false, and "true implies false" is false.

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not.

Truth Tables



This is true because p is true and q is true, and "true implies true" is true.

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Truth Tables

	I	I	I	I	I		
р	q	р л q	р и q	¬p	p⇒q	¬p v q ¯	
0	0	0	0	1	1		
0	1	0	1	1	1		
1	0	0	1	0	0		
1	1	1	1	0	1		

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not.

Implication is like a contract: "if *p* then *q*" or " $p \Rightarrow q$ ". Implication can also be written as $\neg p \lor q$.



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Truth Tables



Truth Tables

р	q	p v d	pVq	¬р	p⇒q	¬p v q	p v d⇒(b⇒d)	
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	What's the opposite
0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	of a tautology, where
1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	the statement is
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	always false?

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р	q	p v d	pVq	¬р	p⇒q	¬p v q	p v d⇒(b⇒d)	
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1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	always false?
								A contradiction.

Propositional logic has only false and true, no variables. It also has logical operators like and, or, and not.

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Truth Tables

A contradiction



Propositional logic has only false and true, no It also has logical operators like and, or, and n Contradictions cannot exist.

Implication is like a contract: "if *p* then *q*" or " $p \Rightarrow q$ ". Implication can also be written as $\neg p \lor q$.

Back to that Famous Inference Rule

Propositional Logic for Modus Ponens

Modus Ponens

$$p, p \Rightarrow q$$
$$q$$

can be written "if *p* and $p \Rightarrow q$ then *q*", which can be written

$$(p \land (p \Rightarrow q)) \Rightarrow q$$

Propositional Logic for Modus Ponens



Modus Ponens

$$\frac{p, \ p \Rightarrow q}{q}$$

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Propositional Logic for Modus Ponens



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Propositional Logic for Modus Ponens



Inference Rules for Type Systems

With Modus Ponens proved and used as the basis for inference rules, we need to move from Propositional logic to Predicate logic.

The complexity of reasoning about type systems cannot be handled with truth tables because we need to accommodate ideas like *any*, *all*, or *some*. Also, we need variables and functions. This leads us to . . .

First Order Logic

- variables
- domains
- named constants
- relations (>, <, etc.)
- functions (math operations)
- logical operators
- quantifiers (for-all " \forall " and there-exists " \exists ")

Now we can reason about type systems.

Primitives / Literals / Intrinsic Types

Boolean literals

 \vdash *true*: boolean

 \vdash *false*: boolean

An empty pre-condition means "under any circumstances".

String literals

s is a string literal or constant \vdash s: string

Integer literals

i is an integer literal or constant $\vdash i$: integer

Type Systems		
Addition		
Boolean literals	We cannot add Booleans are given to support that.	because no inference rules
String literals	$\vdash e_1 : \text{string} \\ \vdash e_2 : \text{string} \\ \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{string}$	This would be better labeled as <i>concatenation</i> , since it's not really addition. Maybe we should choose a different operator, like "•".
	L a integar	

Integer literals

 $\vdash e_1 : \text{integer}$ $\vdash e_2 : \text{integer}$ $\vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{integer}$

Something is missing here . . .

Assignment

 $\vdash e_1 : T$ $\vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $\vdash e_1 = e_2 : T$

$\vdash e_1$: T
$\vdash e_2$: T
T is a primitive type
$\vdash e_1 > e_2$: boolean

Comparisons

 $\vdash e_1 : T$ $\vdash e_1 : T$ $\vdash e_2 : T$ $\vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive typeT is a primitive type $\vdash e_1 != e_2 : boolean$ $\vdash e_1 < e_2 : boolean$

I've got a bad feeling about this . . .

```
string x = "I have a";
string y = "bad feeling";
int aboutThis(int x) {
  return x + y;
}
main() {
  int z;
  z = aboutThis(42);
  print(z);
}
```







Example - No Context

	Things we know			
<pre>string x = "I have a";</pre>	x: string			
<pre>string y = "bad feeling";</pre>	y: string			
	x: int			
<pre>int aboutThis(int x) {</pre>	z: int			
return x + y;				
}	Things we wonder about			
	Is x + y a legal operation	n under our type rules?		
<pre>main() {</pre>				
int z;				
z = aboutThis(42);	$\vdash e_1$: string	$\vdash e_1$: integer		
<pre>princ(2); }</pre>	$\vdash e_2$: string	$\vdash e_2$: integer		
5	$-e_1 + e_2$: string	$\vdash e_1 + e_2$: integer		

The problem is that our type rules lack context. We need to strengthen them to specify under what circumstances they apply. In other words, we need **scope**.

Addition with Scope Context

Boolean literals

We cannot add Booleans because no inference rules are given to support that.

	$S \vdash e_1$: string	e_1 is a string in scope S
String literals	$S \vdash e_2$: string	e_2 is a string in scope S
String incrais	$\mathbf{S} \vdash e_1 \cdot e_2$: string	$e_1 \cdot e_2$ results in a string in scope S

	$S \vdash e_1$: integer	<i>e</i> ¹ is an integer in scope S
Integer literals	$S \vdash e_2$: integer	e_2 is an integer in scope S
	$S \vdash e_1 + e_2$: integer	$e_1 + e_2$ results in an integer in scope S

This is better . . .

Assignment with Scope Context $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 = e_2 : T$

$S \vdash e_1 : T$	$\mathrm{S} \vdash e_{\scriptscriptstyle 1} : \mathrm{T}$
$S \vdash e_2 : T$	$\mathrm{S} \vdash e_2:\mathrm{T}$
T is a primitive type	T is a primitive type
$S \vdash e_1 == e_2$: boolean	$S \vdash e_1 > e_2$: boolean
$S \vdash e_1 : T$	$\mathrm{S} \vdash e_1 : \mathrm{T}$
$S \vdash e_2$: T	$\mathbf{S} \vdash e_2 \cdot \mathbf{T}$

Comparisons with Scope Context

 $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 != e_2 : \text{ boolean}$ $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 < e_2 :$ boolean

I've got a good feeling about this.

Addition with Scope Context $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : T$

Implementation in Prolog

Addition with Scope Context $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : T$

Implementation in Prolog

@	SWISH File-	Edit -	Examples -	Help -		
ا 🥨	Program 🗶 🕂					type(i, X)
1	/* Facts */				X =	int
2	<pre>type(i, int).</pre>					
3	<pre>type(j, int).</pre>				?-	type(i, X)
4	<pre>type(x, real).</pre>					
5	<pre>type(y, real).</pre>					
б						
7	/* Rules */					
8	<pre>expectedtype(plus)</pre>	(E1,E2),T)	:- type(E1	,T),		
9			type(E2	,T).		

Addition with Scope Context $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : T$

Implementation in Prolog

@	SWISH File - Edit - Examples - Help	lp ▼
ا 🥨	Rrogram 🗶 🕂	expectedtype(plus(i,j),X)
1	/* Facts */	$\mathbf{X} = int$
2	<pre>type(i, int).</pre>	
3	<pre>type(j, int).</pre>	?- expected type $(plus(i, j), \mathbf{X})$
4	<pre>type(x, real).</pre>	
5	<pre>type(y, real).</pre>	
6		
7	/* Rules */	
8	<pre>expectedtype(plus(E1,E2),T) := type(E1,T),</pre>	
9	type(E2,T).	

Addition with Scope Context $S \vdash e_1 : T$ $S \vdash e_2 : T$ T is a primitive type $S \vdash e_1 + e_2 : T$

Implementation in Prolog

	SWISH File - Edit - Examples - Help -	0	
@	A Program × +	(()	expectedtype(plus(i,y),X)
1	/* Facts */	false	
2	<pre>type(i, int).</pre>		
3	<pre>type(j, int).</pre>	?- e	expected type(plus(i, y), X)
4	<pre>type(x, real).</pre>		
5	<pre>type(y, real).</pre>		
6			
7	/* Rules */		
8	<pre>expectedtype(plus(E1,E2),T) :- type(E1,T),</pre>		
9	type(E2,T).		

Type Equivalence and Compatibility

What does it mean to say that two variable/values are equivalent?

1 [?]= 1.0 1.0 [?]= 1.000 "c" [?]= 'c'

There are two approaches:

Name Equivalence

Types are equivalent if they have the same name. I.e., they are the same if the programmer says they are the same. Restrictive, but easier to implement than structural equivalence.

Structural Equivalence

Types are equivalent if they have the same structure. I.e., they are the same if they are built the same: **same parts** in the **same order**. Flexible, but harder to implement than name equivalence. Type Equivalence and Compatibility

Name Equivalence

Types are equivalent if they have the same name.

first and *last* are the same type. *head* and *tail* are the same type. *first* and *head* are different types.

type link = tcell; var first : link; last : link; head : tcell; tail : tcell;

Structural Equivalence

Types are equivalent if they have the same structure.

first, last, head, and tail are all the same type.

Type Equivalence and Compatibility

Name Equivalence

Types are equivalent if they have the same name.

MyRec and *YourRec* are different types. *a1*, *a2*, and *a3* are all different types.

```
val MyRec = { a=1, b=2 };
val YourRec = { a=1, b=2 };
var a1 = array[1..10] of int;
var a2 = array[1..2*5] of int;
var a3 = array[0..9] of int;
```

Structural Equivalence

Types are equivalent if they have the same structure.

MyRec and *YourRec* are the same type. *a1*, *a2*, and *a3* are all the same type.