

Lecture 12: Data Types (and Some Leftover ML)

COMP 524 Programming Language Concepts

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Goals

- Introduce concepts pertaining to data types
- Examine the ML type system, polymorphism, and higher order functions
 - map, foldl, and foldr built-ins especially



Data Types

- Computers manipulate **sequences of bits**
- We manipulate **higher level data** (numbers, strings, etc.)
- **Data types** transform bits into higher level data



Data Types:

- Types provide **implicit context**
 - **Compilers can infer information**, so programmers write less code.
 - e.g., The expression **a+b** in Java may be adding two **integer**, two **floats** or two strings depending on **context**
- Types provide a set of **semantically valid operations**
 - Compilers can **detect semantic mistakes**
 - e.g., Python's list type supports `append()` and `pop()`, but complex numbers do not



Type Systems

- A type system consists of
 1. A mechanism to **define types** and **associate them with language constructs**
 2. A set of rules for “**type equivalence,**” “**type compatibility,**” and “**type inference.**”



Type Systems

- A type system consists of

1. A mechanism to **define types** and **associate them with languages**

2. A set of rules for “**type equivalence**,” “**type compatibility**,” and “**type inference**.”

Discuss these in detail



Type Systems: Type Checking

- **Type Checking** is the process of ensuring that a program **obeys the language's type compatibility rules**
 - Strongly typed.
 - Weakly typed.



Strongly Typed

- **Strongly typed** languages **always detect type errors**
 - All **expressions and objects** must have a type
 - All operations must be applied in **appropriate type contexts**
- **Statically typed** languages are **strongly typed** languages in which **all type checking occurs at compile time**



Even FUNCTIONS!

Strongly typed

- **Strongly typed** languages **do not detect type errors**
 - All **expressions and objects** must have a type
 - All operations must be applied in **appropriate type contexts**
- **Statically typed** languages are **strongly typed** languages in which **all type checking occurs at compile time**



Weakly Typed

- In **weakly typed** languages “anything can go”
 - Characteristic of assembly language
 - See also: Perl and earlier scripting languages
- On the other end of the spectrum, strongly typed languages don't allow **implicit conversion**



What is a type?

- Three points of view
 - **Denotational**: Set of values
 - **Constructive**: A type is “**built-in**” or “**composite**”
 - **Abstraction-based**: A type is an interface that defines a set of consistent operations



Denotation

- Under denotation, a **value has a given type if it belongs to a set.**
- An object has a type, **if its value is guaranteed to be in a certain set.**
- A set of values is called a **domain** (i.e., its type).
- Similar to **enum** in C



Built-in Types

- Built-in/primitive/elementary types
 - Mimic hardware units
 - e.g., boolean, character, integer, real (float)
- Implementation **varies** across languages
- Characters are **traditionally** one-byte quantities using the ASCII character set



Built-in Types: Unicode

- Newer languages have built-in characters that support Unicode character sets
- **Unicode is implemented using two-byte quantities.**



Built-in Types: Unicode

- Newer languages have built-in characters that support Unicode character sets
- **Unicode is implemented using two-byte quantities.**

This is very important for moving legacy code.



Built-in Types: Numeric Types

- Most languages support **integers and floats**
 - (Their value range is implementation dependent)
- Some languages support other numeric types
 - Complex Numbers (e.g., Fortran, Python)
 - Rational Number (e.g., scheme, common Lisp)
 - Signed and Unsigned integers (e.g., C, Modula-2)
 - Fixed point Numbers (e.g., Ada, Cobol)
- Some languages distinguish numeric types depending on their precision.



Composite

- A composite type is created by **applying type constructors to simpler types**
 - Records
 - Structs
 - Arrays
 - Sets
 - Classes



Classification of Types: Enumerations

- **Enumerations** improve program readability and error checking.
- First introduced in Pascal (but also exist in C):
 - type weekday = (sun, mon, tue, wed, thu, fri, sat);
 - They are **defined in order**, so they can be used in enumeration controlled loops



Classification of Types: Subranges

- **Subranges** define a **valid range of values** for a variable.
 - e.g., Type `test_score = 0..100`;
- The improve **readability** and **error checking**



Classification of Types: Orthogonality

- Recall, **orthogonality** means that **all features behaves consistently**.
 - e.g., $a=b$ always denotes **assignment**.
- This makes life much easier when reasoning about different types.



Type Checking

Now that we've discussed the basics of types, let's go back to **equivalence**, **compatibility** and **inference**.



Type Checking

- **Type Equivalence**: When are the **types of two values are the same**?
- **Type Compatibility**: Can a value of **A be used when type B is expected**?
- **Type Inference**: What is the **type of an expression**, given the type of the **operands**?



Type Checking

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Type Equivalence

- Type Equivalence is defined in terms of **structural** and **name equivalence**.



Structural Equivalence

- Two types are structurally equivalent if they have the same **components** put together **in the same way**

```
typedef struct{int a,b;} foo1
```

Equivalent!



```
typedef struct{  
    int a,b;  
}foo2
```



Structural Equivalence

- Two types are structurally equivalent if they have the same **components** put together **in the same way**

```
typedef struct{int a,b;} foo1
```

Equivalent?



Yes, in most languages.

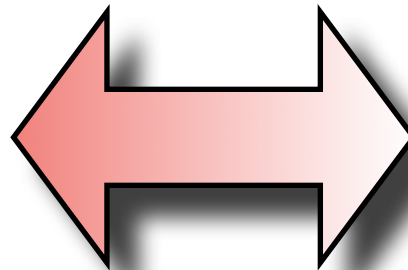
```
typedef struct{  
    int b;  
    int a;  
}foo2
```



Structural Equivalence

Equivalent...

```
typedef struct{  
  char *name;  
  char *addre;  
  int age;  
} student;
```



```
typedef struct{  
  char *name;  
  char *addre;  
  int age;  
} school;
```

... but probably not intentional.



Name Equivalence.

- **Name equivalence** assumes that **two definitions with different names are not the same.**
- Solves the “student-school” problem



Name Equivalence: Aliases

- Under name equivalence it is possible to define a new type via

```
TYPE new_type = old_type;
```

- Such a construction is called an **alias**.



```
TYPE new_type = old_type;
```

- Two ways to interpret an alias:
 - **Strict name equivalence**
 - **New_type** is a different type than **old_type**.
 - **Loose name equivalence**
 - **New_type** is the same type as **old_type**.



Problem with Loose

```
TYPE celsius_temp = REAL;  
     farhen_temp = REAL;  
VAR  c: celsius_temp;  
     f: farhen_temp;  
...  
f:=c;(* probably should be an error*)
```



Type Conversion

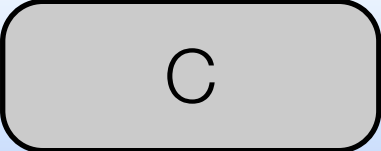
- A value of one type **can be used in a context of another** type using **type conversion** or **type cast**



Converting Type Cast

- Under a **converting type cast**, the **underlying bits are changed**

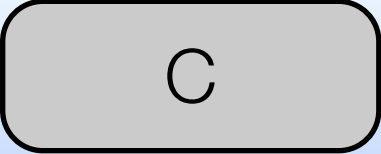
```
int i;  
float f= 3.4;  
i = (int) f;  
/* runtime */
```



Non-Converting Type Cast

- Under a **Non-converting type cast**, the **underlying bits are not altered.**

```
int i;  
float f= 3.4;  
i = *((int*) & f);  
/* Compile time*/
```



Type Checking

- **Type Equivalence:** When are the **types of two values** are the same?
- **Type Compatibility:** Can a value of **A** be used when **type B is expected**?
- **Type Inference:** What is the **type of an expression**, given the type of the **operands**?



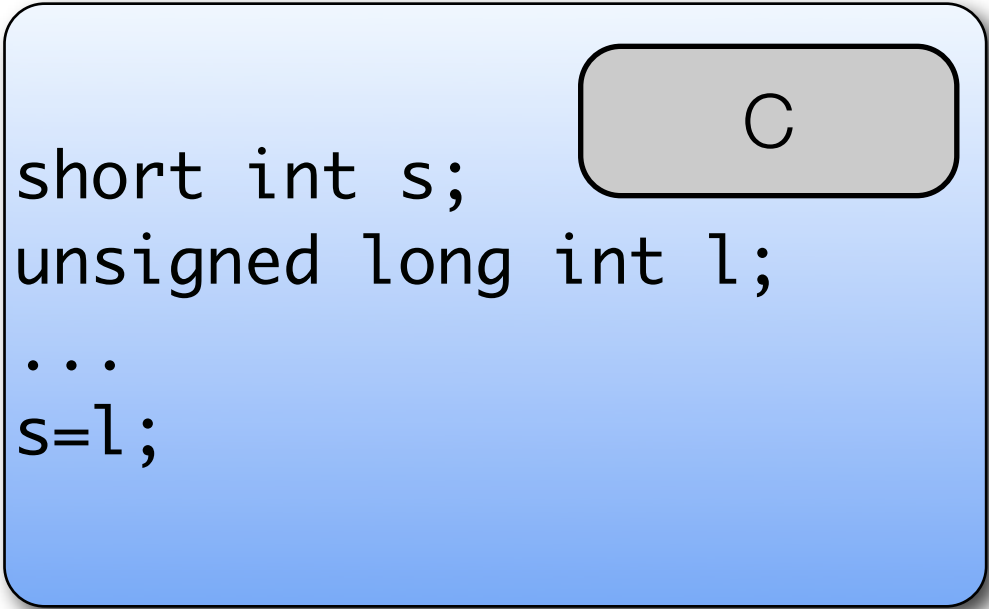
Type Compatibility

- Most languages **do not require type equivalence in every context**
- Two types **T and S are compatible** in Ada if any of the following conditions are true:
 - T and S are equivalent
 - T is a subtype of S
 - S is a subtype of T
 - T and S are arrays with the same number elements and same type of elements



Type Compatibility

- Type **coercion** allows a value of **one type to be used in a context that expects another**.



short int s; C
unsigned long int l;
...
s=l;



Type Co

This makes the system
type weaker.

- Type **co**... **type to be used in
a context that expects another.**

```
short int s;  
unsigned long int l;  
...  
s=l;
```

C



Generic Reference Types

- It is often useful to have a **generic reference type** that can hold any type of object
 - in Java this is **Object**
 - In C and C++ this is **void ***

```
void* v;  
int* i;  
...  
v=i;
```

C



Type Checking

- **Type Equivalence:** When are the **types of two values** are the same?
- **Type Compatibility:** Can a value of **A** be used when **type B** is expected?
- **Type Inference:** What is the **type of an expression**, given the type of the **operands**?



Type Inference

- Usually the type of the **overall expression is easy**.
- However, for **subranges** and **composite** objects is not so simple.



Subranges

```
type Atype = 0..20;  
      Btype = 10..20;  
var a: Atype;  
    b: Btype;  
  
...  
a+b;
```

Pascal

What is the type of a+b?



Types in ML: Type Inference Extreme

- Full-blown type inference
- The “feel” of untyped declarations without losing the checks provided by strong typing
- Accommodates polymorphism:

```
fun fib n =  
  let fun fib_helper f1 f2 i =  
        if i = n then f2 else fib_helper f2 (f1 + f2) (i + 1)  
      in  
        fib_helper 0 1 0  
      end;
```

- ML figures out that fib is a function that takes an integer and returns an integer through a series of deductions, usually starting with any literals



ML Type Correctness = Type Consistency

- The key to ML's type inference is the absence of inconsistency or ambiguity.
 - Functions whose type cannot be inferred by the operators or literals used will require explicit type declarations:

```
fun isquare x = x * x; (* Defaults to int -> int *)  
fun rsquare x:real = x * x; (* real -> real *)
```

- But polymorphism is used where possible...



Polymorphism in ML

- Functions that do not use literals or type-specific operations in their definitions are recognized by the interpreter as polymorphic:

```
- fun twice f x = f (f x);  
val twice = fn : ('a -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a
```

```
- twice (fn x => x / 2.0) 1.0;  
val it = 0.25 : real
```

```
- twice (fn x => x ^ "ee") "whoop";  
val it = "whoopeeee" : string
```



Type Unification

- Part of ML's type inference is **unification** — composing or combining multiple types in a consistent manner
 - Example: E1 has type `'a * int` and E2 has type `string * 'b`
 - `if true then E1 else E2` is inferred as having type `string * int`
- Application for polymorphic operations on data structures
 - List manipulation orthogonal to type of list
 - Operations on user-defined data types
 - e.g. binary tree insertion, deletion, search
 - Higher order functions



Built-in Higher Order Functions: `map`

- `map` applies a given function to every element in the list

Is actually a `curried` function of type `('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list`

- Format: `map function list`

```
- fun times2 x = x * 2.0;  
val times2 = fn : real -> real  
- map times2 [2.5,5.0,7.5];  
val it = [5.0,10.0,15.0] : real list
```

- Can also use anonymous function:

```
- map (fn x => 2 * x) [1,2,3];  
val it = [2,4,6] : int list
```



Built-in Higher Order Functions: `foldr` and `foldl`

- `foldr` combines elements of a list using a given operation
 - Known in functional programming circles as reduce
- Again, a `curried` function
 - Type is `('a * 'b -> 'b) -> 'b -> 'a list -> 'b`
- Format: `foldr binary_function start_value list`

```
- foldr (op +) 0 [1,2,3,4];  
val it = 10 : int
```
- `op` keyword before an operator gives the underlying function
 - e.g., can pass `(op <)` as an argument of type `int * int -> bool`



Built-in Higher Order Functions: `foldr` and `foldl`

- More examples:

```
- foldr op* 1.0 [2.0, 4.0];  
val it = 8.0 : real  
  
- foldr (op ^) "" ["abc","def","ghi"];  
val it = "abcdefghi" : string
```

- `foldl` is a left-to-right version of `foldr`

- Different results for operations like subtraction:

```
- foldl (op -) 0 [1,2,3,4]; (* 4-(3-(2-(1-0))) = 2 *)  
val it = 2 : int  
  
- foldr (op -) 0 [1,2,3,4]; (* 1-(2-(3-(4-0))) = ~2 *)  
val it = ~2 : int
```



Records

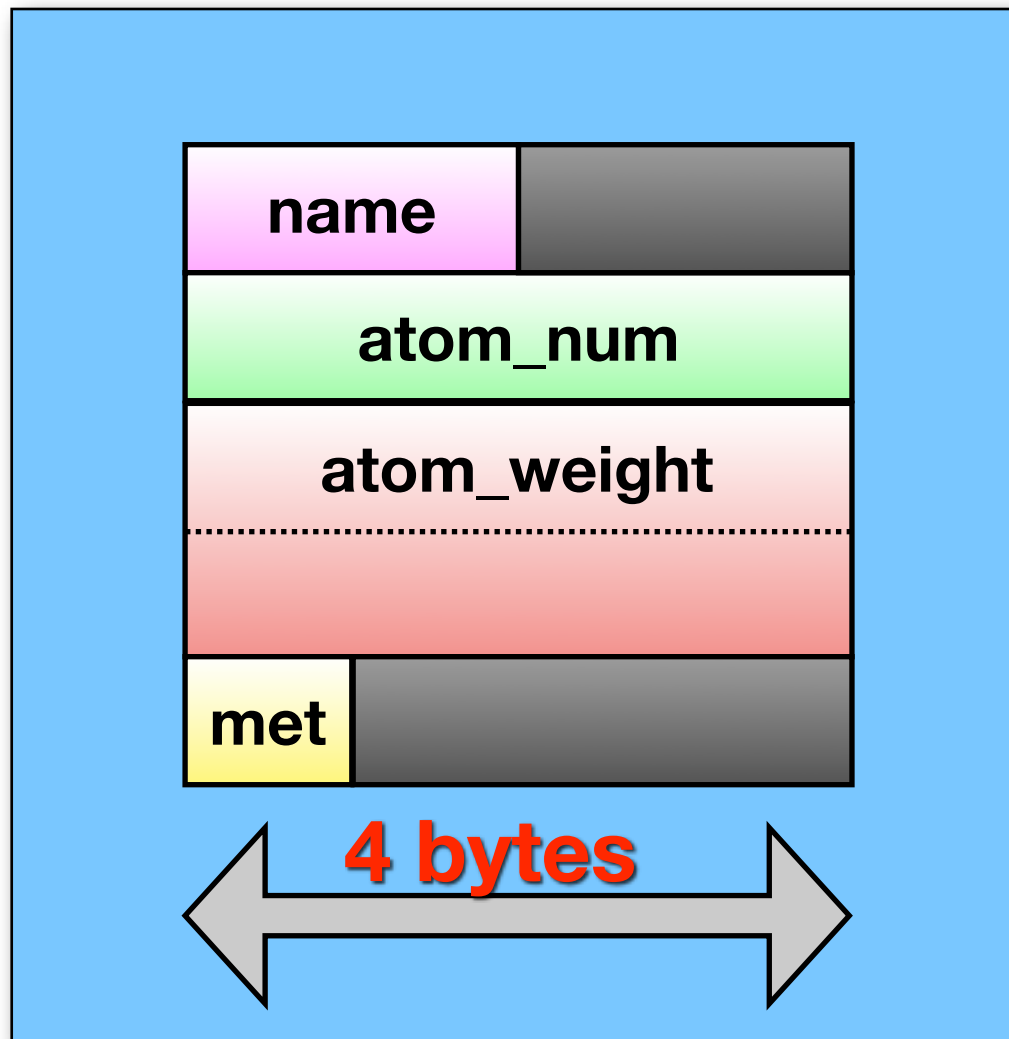
- **Records** (structs in C and C++) allow **for a collection of related data to be manipulated together.**

```
struct foo{  
    int a;  
    int b;  
}
```



Record: Memory Layout

- There may be **holes** in the allocation of memory



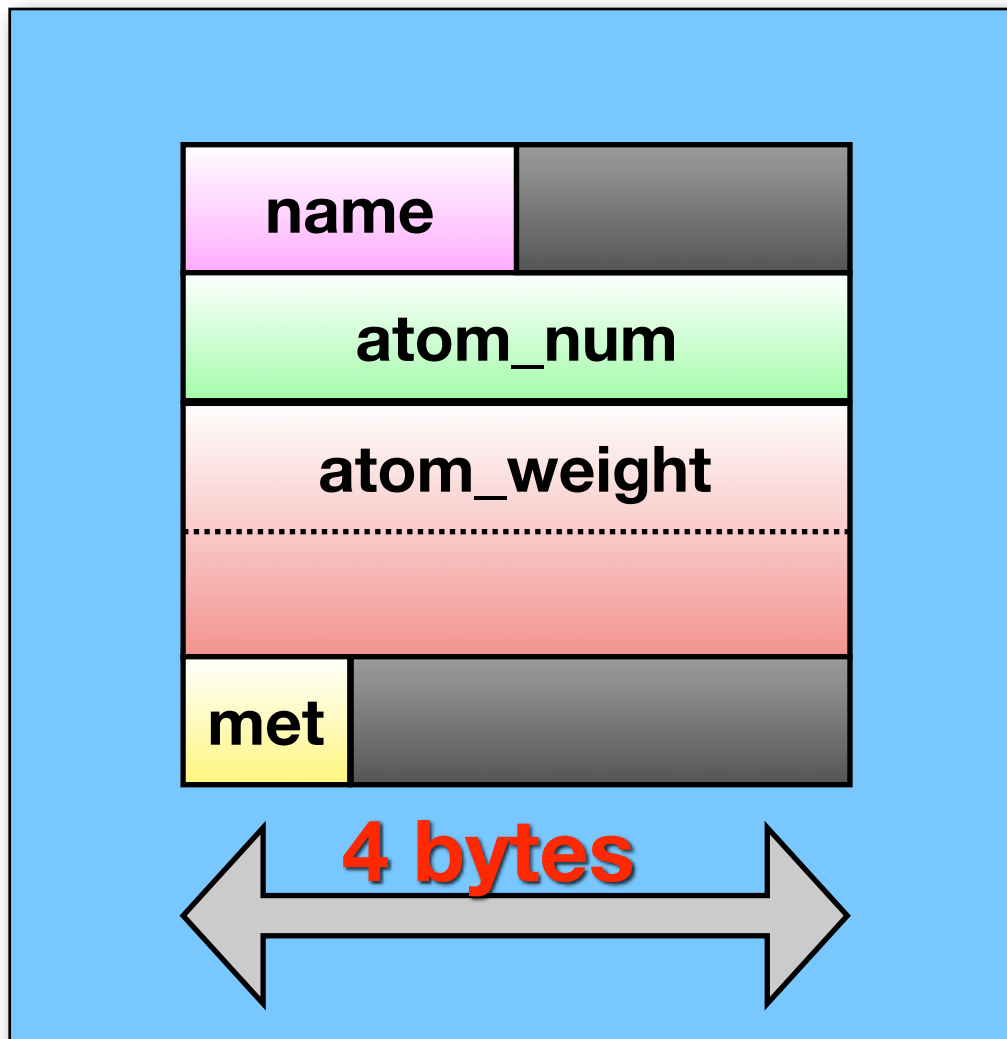
```
type ore = record
  name : two_char;
  atom_num: integer;
  atom_weight: real;
  met: Boolean;
end;
```



Record: Memory Layout

Holes waste space and complicate comparisons.

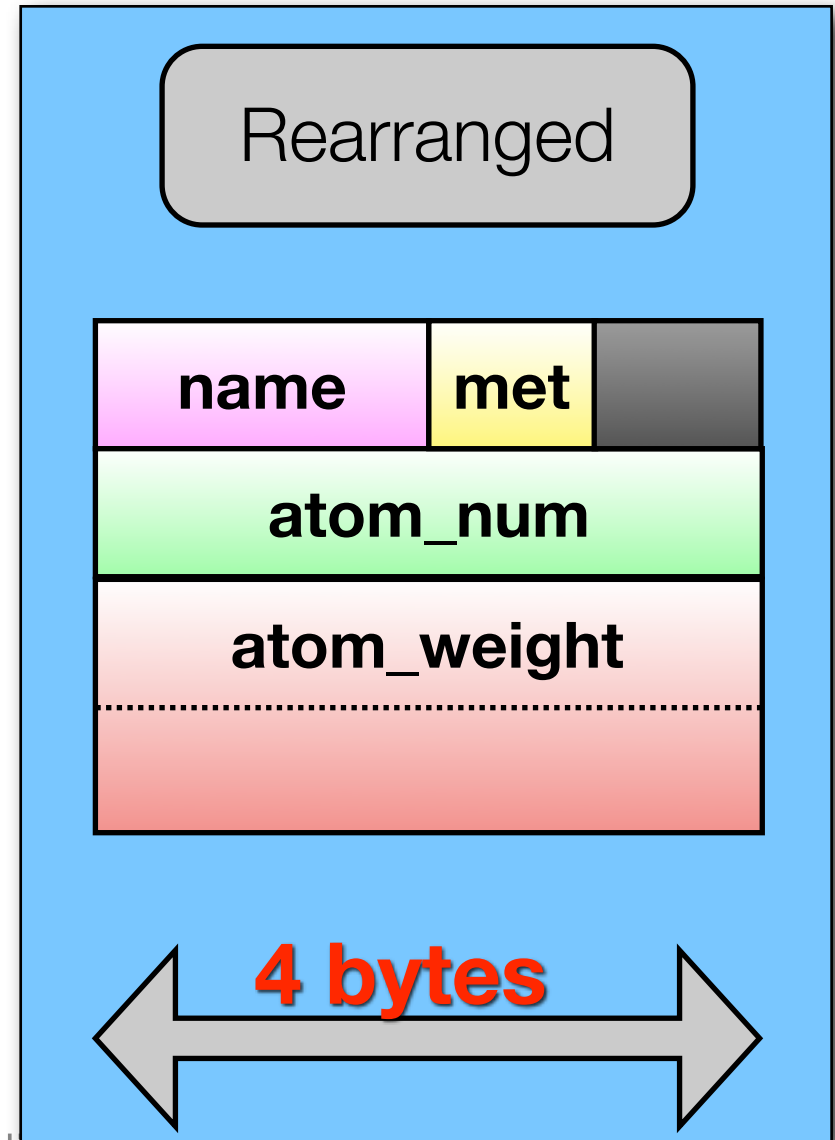
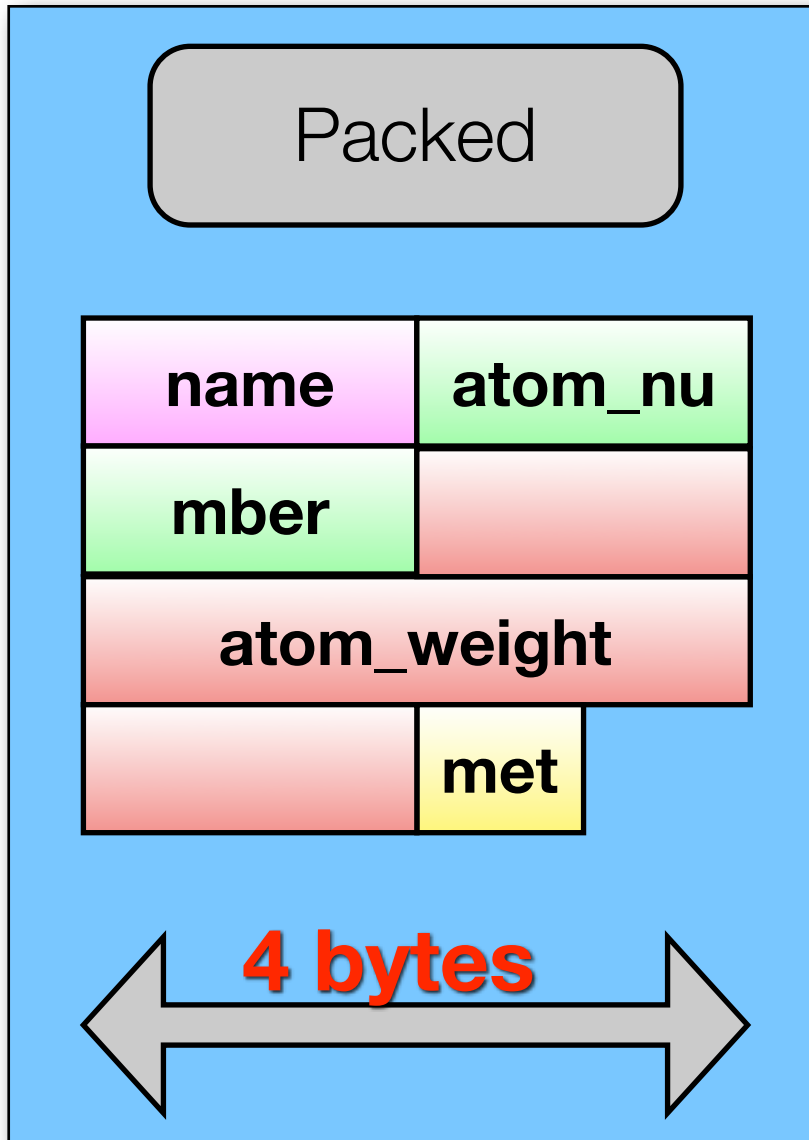
- There may be **holes** in



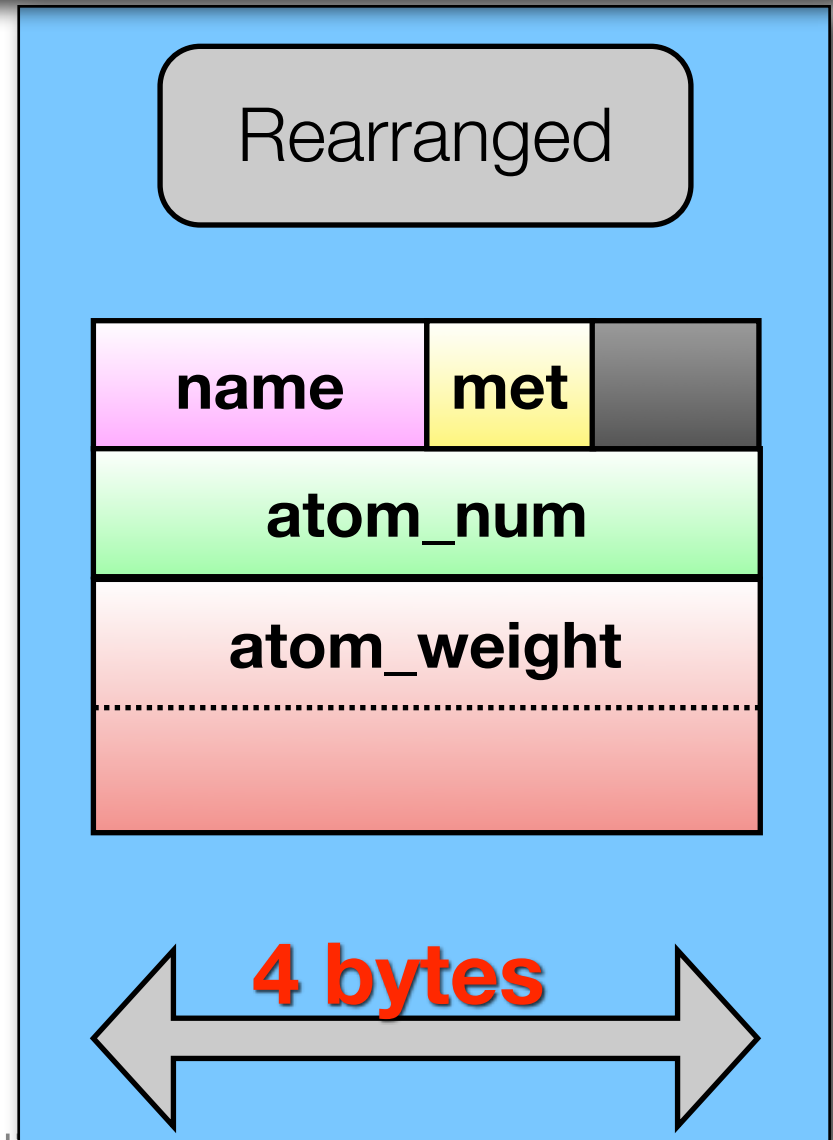
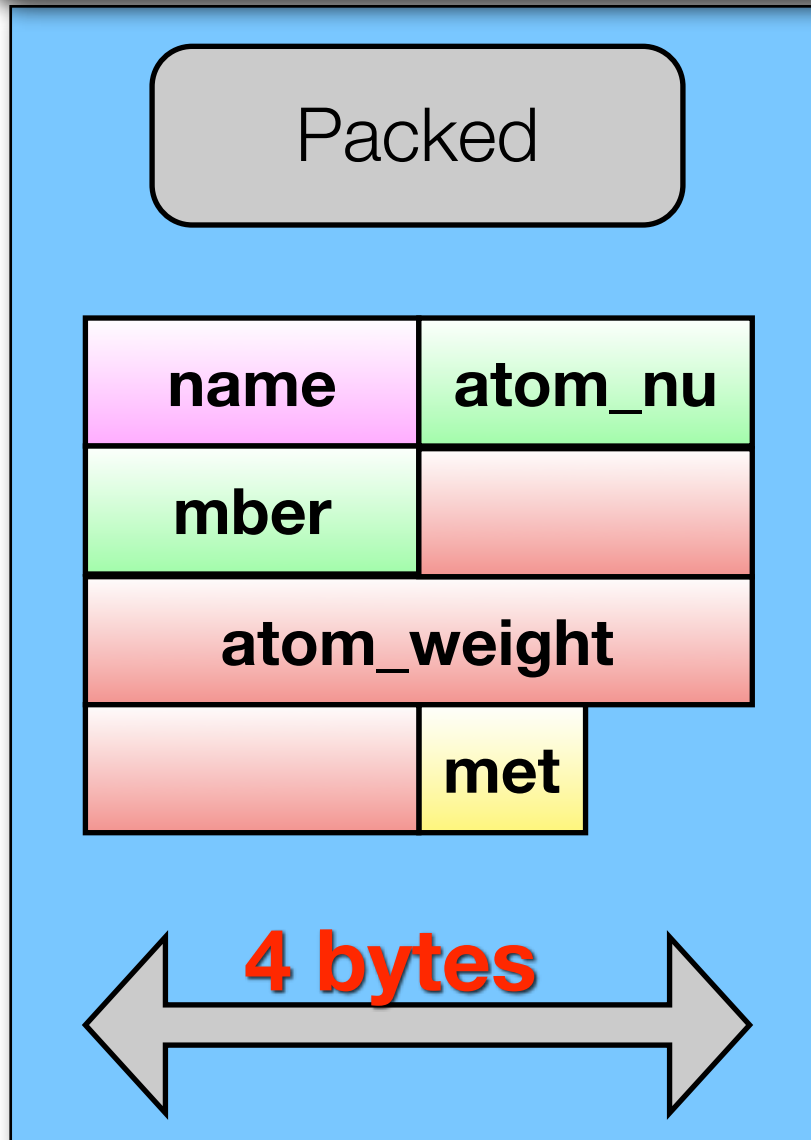
```
type ore = record
  name : two_char;
  atom_num: integer;
  atom_weight: real;
  met: Boolean;
end;
```



Other arrangements



Packed layouts require multiple instructions for **accessing elements** and **assignments**.



Variant Records

- A **variant record (union)** provides **two or more alternative fields** or collections of field **but only one bit is valid at any given time**

```
struct element{
  char* Full_name;
  union{
    int atom_num;
    char atom_sym[2];
  }
}
```

element can contain **atom_num** or **atom_sym**, but not both.



Variant Records

```
struct element{  
    char* Full_name;  
    union{  
        int atom_num;  
        char atom_sym[2];  
    }  
}
```

