Type Checking

Chapter 6, Section 6.3, 6.5

Inside the Compiler: Front End

- Lexical analyzer (aka scanner)
 - Converts ASCII or Unicode to a stream of tokens
- Syntax analyzer (aka parser)
 - Creates a parse tree (or AST) from the token stream
- Semantic analyzer
 - Type checking and conversions; other semantic checks
- Generator of intermediate code
 - Creates lower-level intermediate representation (IR):
 e.g., three-address code

Types in Compilers

- Type checking: at compile time, guarantee that the run-time behavior of the program will be correct
 - The type of the operands match the type of the operator (e.g., in Java && requires boolean operands)
 - The types of actual parameters in a function call match the types of the formal parameters
 - Many other examples based on the type system of the language
- Code generation
 - Allocation of memory based on types (e.g., how many bytes do we need for a struct with an int and a float?)
 - Insert explicit type conversions

Outline

- Useful machinery: attribute grammars
- Analysis of declarations
 - Representation of types
- Type checking
 - What is the type of an expression, given the types of its subexpressions? (synthesized attributes)
 - Is there a type error in the program?
- Implicit type conversions: not in the source code, but must be accounted for during type checking and code generation
 - E.g., int can be "silently promoted" to double

Attribute Grammars

- Given a context-free grammar: for each non-terminal, define zero, one, or more attributes

 Called "syntax-directed definitions" in the Dragon Book
- An evaluation rule for each production
- Example: value of an expression with constants only
 - $E \rightarrow E_{1} + T$ | T | T $E.val = E_{1}.val + T.val$ E.val = T.val E.val = T.val $E.val = T_{1}.val * F.val$ T.val = F.val $F \rightarrow (E)$ F.val = E.val F.val = const.lexval
 - Attribute val for each E, T, and F node
 - Attribute *lexval* for each const code

Attribute Grammars

- An attribute of a non-terminal X can be either synthesized or inherited (but not both)
 - Synthesized attribute X.a: computed from attributes of X's children (this is an oversimplification)
 - Inherited attribute X.a: computed from attributes of X's parent (this is an oversimplification)
- A *lexval* attribute for a terminal (i.e., leaf node)
 - Not computed by evaluation rules, but just provided by the lexical analyzer (e.g., *lexval* for each **const** code)

Back to Types: Type Expressions

- What is a type and how do we represent it inside a compiler? We will use type expressions for this
- A primitive type is a type expression (e.g., boolean, char, byte, integer, long, float, double, void)
- An array type constructor, applied to
 - non-array type (for the array elements)
 - sequence of integers (for sizes of array dimensions) and a non-array type expression
 - E.g., array(integer, 10, 20) to represent the type of array
 x with declaration int x[10][20];
- In our projects:
 - Types.INT and Types.DOUBLE for primitive types
 - No representation for array types; you need to add it

Type Expressions

- A **record** type constructor, applied to a list of pairs (field name, type expression), is a type expression
 - E.g., record { x:float, y:float, rgb:array(byte,3) } could be the type expression for a C struct with fields x, y for point coordinates and field rgb for RGB point color
- A function type constructor →, applied to two type expressions, is a type expression
 - E.g., suppose we have a function that takes an array of 10 floats and returns their sum array(float,10) → float

Type Expressions

- A tuple type constructor ×, applied to a list of type expressions
 - − E.g., record { x:float, y:float, rgb:array(byte,3) } × float
 → record { x:float, y:float, rgb:array(byte,3) } is a function taking two parameters: a record and a float
- Type expressions can naturally be represented with trees or DAGs (details in Dragon Book)
- From the type expression, we can determine how many bytes will be needed in the generated code
 - Note: there may be hardware alignment constraints e.g., each integer must start at an address divisible by 4; so, for type record { integer, boolean, integer } padding may be needed between the second and the third field (unused 3 bytes)

Declarations in Our Projects

decl \rightarrow int id arrayDecl; | double id arrayDecl; arrayDecl \rightarrow [int_const] arrayDecl; | ε

AST representation:

class Decl with fields String id, int type, List<Integer> dims

Project 3: create a symbol table and use for type checking

- Create representation for array types
- After parsing, examine all declarations and populate the symbol table with each **id** and its type
- Semantic check: (as in C) re-declarations are not allowed
- Then, examine all expressions and check them

Type Checking

- Look at expressions to see if declared types are consistent with variable usage
- Many checks of the form if (type expression 1 == type expression 2) OK otherwise report type error
- Checking: (1) types of subexpressions OK?
 (2) decide the type of the whole expression

Example (subset of the language for the project)

- *E* → id | int_const | double_const
- $E \rightarrow id [E_1]$ for simplicity, here we discuss only 1-dimensional arrays
- $E \longrightarrow E_1 + E_2 \mid E_1 < E_2 \mid E_1 = E_2$
- We will use a synthesized attribute *E.type*
- First version of checking: strict matching of types
- Second version (for the project): allow type conversions, similarly to C

Attribute Grammar for Strict Type Checking

$E \rightarrow id$

- Error if the variable is not declared
- E.type = getType(id.lexval) // get from symbol table

$E \rightarrow int_const$

-E.type = int

$E \rightarrow double_const$

- E.type = double

Attribute Grammar for Strict Type Checking

$E \longrightarrow \mathsf{id} [E_1]$

- Error if the variable is not declared
- If (getType(id.lexval) is not array(X,Y)) error
- If (E₁.type is not int) error
- -E.type = X
- $E \longrightarrow E_1 = E_2$
 - If (*E*₁.*type* is not *int* or *double*) error
 - If (*E*₂.*type* is not *int* or *double*) error
 - If (*E*₁.*type* is not the same as *E*₂.*type*) error
 - $-E.type = E_1.type$

Project 3: Also need to check that the left-hand-side of an assignment operator has an l-value: it can only be id or id $[E_1]$

Attribute Grammar for Strict Type Checking

- $E \longrightarrow E_1 + E_2$
 - If (E₁.type is not int or double) error
 - If (E₂.type is not int or double) error
 - If (*E*₁.*type* is not the same as *E*₂.*type*) error
 - $-E.type = E_1.type$
- $E \rightarrow E_1 < E_2$
 - If (E₁.type is not int or double) error
 - If (*E*₂.*type* is not *int* or *double*) error
 - If (*E*₁.*type* is not the same as *E*₂.*type*) error
 - -E.type = int

In C there are no boolean types; the result of < is an integer

Implicit Type Conversions

- Values of one type are converted to another type
 - E.g. addition: 3.0 + 4 : silently converts 4 to 4.0
 - E.g. our earlier typechecking rules imply that operator + has types *int* × *int* \rightarrow *int* and *double* × *double* \rightarrow *double*
 - But now we also allow *double* \times *int* \rightarrow *double* and *int* \times *double* \rightarrow *double*
- In general, whenever the type of an expression is not appropriate
 - The compiler silently converts it to another type
 - Or, if not possible: compile-time error

Example: Conversions in Java [no need to remember this]

- Widening: converting a value into a "larger" type; performed silently by the compiler
- Widening primitive conversions in Java
 - byte to short, int, long, float, or double
 - short to int, long, float, or double
 - char to int, long, float, or double
 - int to long, float, or double
 - long to float or double
 - float to double

Some Examples: Conversions in Java

- Assignment conversion: when the value of an expression is assigned to a variable, convert the expr. value to the type of the variable
- Call conversion: applied to each argument of a call

 The type of the argument expression is converted to
 the type of the corresponding formal parameter
- Binary numeric conversion: for +, -, *, etc.
 - If either operand is *double*, the other is converted to *double*
 - Otherwise, if either operand is *float*, the other is converted to *float*
 - Otherwise, if either operand is *long*, the other is converted to *long*
 - Otherwise, both are converted to *int*

Back to Our Simplified Language

- Let us allow implicit widening conversions from int to double. What will be affected?
- For all binary operators: remove "If (*E₁.type* is not the same as *E₂.type*) error"
- Old rule for $E \rightarrow E_1 + E_2$
 - If $(E_1.type$ is not *int* or *double*) error
 - If (E₂.type is not int or double) error
 - If $(E_1.type)$ is not the same as $E_2.type$) error
 - $-E.type = E_1.type$
- New rule
 - First two checks are the same
 - $E.type = E_1.type$, if $E_2.type$ is integer
 - E.type = double, otherwise

How About Assignments?

- New rule for $E \rightarrow E_1 = E_2$ (assignment conversion, as in C: right-hand-side value will be converted to the type of the left-hand side expression, if possible)
 - If (*E*₁.*type* is not *int* or *double*) error
 - If (*E*₂.*type* is not *int* or *double*) error
 - If (*E*₁.*type* is *int* and *E*₂.*type* is *double*) error
 - $-E.type = E_1.type$

Project 3

- Type checking based on this approach
- For each AST node representing an expression, remember its type

– E.g., add a field in class Expr and set it to E.type

- In preparation for Project 4: for each binary expression, create a temporary variable of the corresponding type
 - E.g., for a = b + c + d; Project 4 will create code
 _t1 = b + c;
 a = t1 + d;

For this, we will need to determine the type of $_{1}$, which is the same at the type of expression **b** + **c**