



 As we saw previously, any programming language that has some complexity to it allows us to create syntactically correct statements that semantically do not make any sense:





- The error in the expression can easily be caught by an interpreter or compiler by tagging the operands with type names: z.{function} + i.{int}
- Now it is simple for the language processor to find the problem: it is only allowed to apply addition to {int} terms, e.g., j.{int} + i.{int}

Type Systems



- A principled approach to tagging terms and expressions with type names is called a *type system*
- Every modern programming language has one

Why do we use type systems?



- Types allow the language system to assist the developer in writing better programs. Type mismatches in a program usually indicate some sort of programming error.
 - <u>Static type checking</u> check the types of all statements and expressions at <u>compile time</u>.
 - <u>Dynamic type checking</u> check the types at <u>runtime</u>.
 - Languages with a static type system can be type checked dynamically and statically
 - Languages with a dynamic type system can only be type checked dynamically
 - New research: <u>gradual typing</u> type check as much as possible statically and then do the rest dynamical.



A Type is a Set of Values

Consider the statement:

int n;

Here we declare n to be a variable of *type* int; what we mean, n can take on any value from the *set of all integer values*.

Also observe that the elements in a type share a common representation: each element is encoded in the same way (float, double, char, etc.)

Also, all elements of a type share the same operations the language supports for them.



Def: A *type* is a set of values.

Def: A *primitive type* is a type a programmer can use but not define.

Def: A *constructed type* is a user-defined type.

Example: Java, primitive type

float q;

q is of type float, only a value that is a member of the set of all floating point values can be assigned to q.

type float \Rightarrow set of all possible floating point values



Example: Java, constructed type

class Foobar { int i; String s; };

Foobar c = new Foobar();

Now the variable c only accepts values that are members of type Foobar; *copiect instantiations* of class Foobar; objects are the values of type Foobar...



Example: C, constructed type

int a[3];

the variable a will accept values which are arrays of 3 integers.

e.g.: int a[3] = {1,2,3}; int a[3] = {7,24,9}

We will have more to say about this later on.



- We saw that the notion of a type as a set of values is a nice model for explaining variable declarations and object-oriented structures
- But it is also essential to developing the notion of a *subtype*

Def: a *subtype* is a *subset* of the elements of a type.

Example: Java

'Short' is a subtype of 'int', that is, all the values in set 'short' are also in set 'int': short \subset int

Example: Java

'Float' is a subtype of 'double' (all the values in set 'float' are also in set 'double)': float \subset double

Observations:

- (1) converting a value of a subtype to a value of the supertype is called a *widening* type conversion. (safe)
- (2) converting a value of a supertype to a value of a subtype is called a *narrowing* type conversion. (not safe information loss)





Consider this example in Java with an implicit *narrowing* conversion:

int i = 33000; short j = i; //problematic, short is only 2 bytes, overflow!

On the other hand this example in Java with an implicit *widening* conversion has no problems:

```
short i = 20000;
int j = i;
```

Compilers/interpreters will often insert widening conversions but will flag errors when a supertype needs to be converted to a subtype.



- An important implication of subtypes in programming languages is the notion of *type hierarchies*
- Here the types of a language are ordered along the subtype relation, e.g. in Java
 - int ⊂ float ⊂ string

Type Equivalence

I. <u>Name Equivalence</u> – two objects are of the same type of and only if they share the same *type name*.

```
Example: Java
```

```
Class Foobar {

int i;

float f;

}

Class Goobar {

int i;

float f;

}
```

```
Foobar o = new Goobar();
```



```
Error; even though the types look
the same, their names are different,
therefore, Java will raise an error.
```

Java uses name equivalence

Type Equivalence



Think of this as:

II. <u>Structural Equivalence</u> – two objects are of the same type if and only if they share the same *type structure*.



Even though the type names are different, ML correctly recognizes this statement.

ML uses structural equivalence.



- An interesting implication of type systems is *polymorphism*:
 - Function overloading
 - Subtype polymorphism

<u>Def</u>: A function is *polymorphic* if it has at least two possible types.

polymorphism = comes from Greek meaning 'many forms'

Function Overloading

<u>Def:</u> An *overloaded function* is one that has at least two definitions, all of different types.

Example: In Java the '+' operator is overloaded.

```
String s = "abc".{String} + "def".{String};
```

int i = $3.{int} + 5.{int};$





Subtype Polymorphism – essential for OO programming!

<u>Def</u>: A function exhibits *subtype polymorphism* if one or more of its formal parameters has subtypes.



Example: Java

```
void g (double a) { ... }
```

 $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text{int} \subset \text{double} \\ \text{float} \subset \text{double} \\ \text{short} \subset \text{double} \\ \text{byte} \subset \text{double} \\ \text{char} \subset \text{double} \end{array}\right\} \text{ all legal types that can be passed to function 'g'.}$ $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text{int i = 10;} \\ g(i); \end{array}\right\} \text{ Legal because of subtype polymorphism} \end{array}\right.$

Example: Java

```
class Cup { ... };
class CoffeeCup extends Cup { ... };
class TeaCup extends Cup { ... };
```

void fill (Cup c) {...}

```
TeaCup t = new TeaCup();
CoffeeCup k = new CoffeeCup();
```

fill(t); fill(k);



