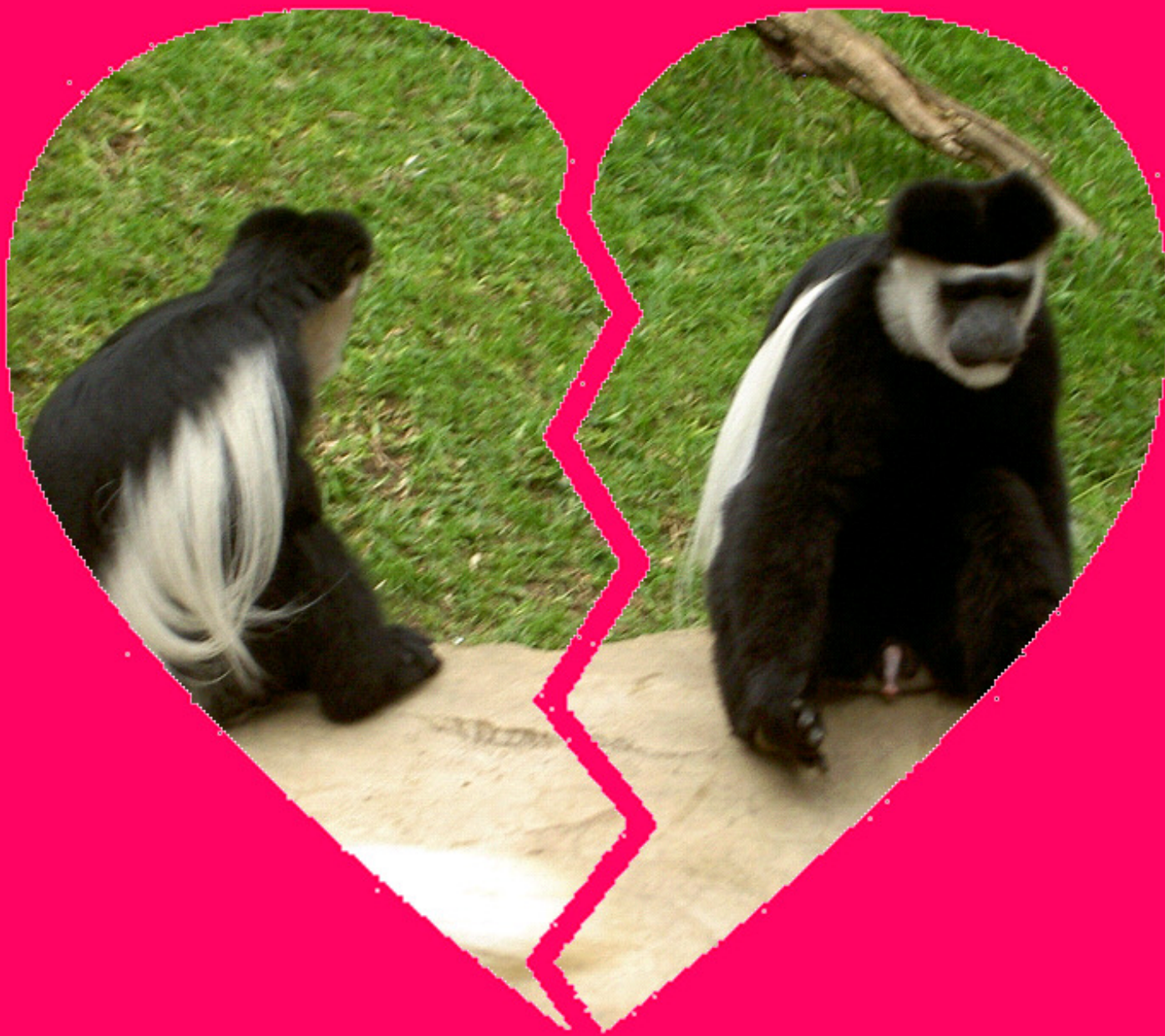


**Sorry, you're
not my type**



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YAPC::EU::2006





Type Systems

$\overline{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{int}}$ (provided n is an integer)

$\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}}$
 $\overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}}$

$\overline{\Gamma \vdash x : T}$ (provided $\Gamma(x) = T$)

$\overline{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \text{int}} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash t_1 + t_2 : \text{int}}$

$\overline{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T \quad \Gamma \vdash t_3 : T} \quad \overline{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 : T}$

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An overview of type systems

What Is A Type?

- TMTOWTDI (There's More Than One Way To Define It)
- A common definition: a type classifies a value (e.g. 42 is an integer, "monkey" is a string...)
- Another definition: a type defines the representation of and set of operations that can be performed on a value.

What Is A Type System?

- Real programs consist of terms that compute values.
 - “ $29 + 13$ ”
- A type system classifies a term in a program according to the type of values that it will compute.
 - “ $29 + 13$ ” will have type “integer”
- Vary greatly between languages.

Why Type Systems Are Good

- The biggest win is that we can ensure that our programs cannot perform certain bad operations.
- For example, most high level languages only allow a reference to be used in a de-reference operations.
- Not the case in all languages; in C can create a pointer from any integer => programs can segfault.

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Why Type Systems Are Good

- Perl 5's type system only allows references to be de-referenced; you get a runtime "type error" if you try to de-reference an integer (with strict on).

```
$ cat test.pl
#!/usr/bin/perl
use strict;
my $bar = 0xdeadbeef;
print $$bar;
$ perl test.pl
Can't use string ("3735928559") as a SCALAR ref while
"strict refs" in use at test.pl line 4.
```

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Why Type Systems Are Good

- Compare that with what C's type system lets you do.

```
int main()
{
    int x = 0xdeadbeef;
    int* p = (int*)x; /* int becomes int pointer! */
    int y = *p; /* Dereference...KABOOM! */
    return 0;
}
```

- This program will produce a segfault when you run it.
- Perl is **type safe**, while C is not.

Why Type Systems Are Good

- Types also provide optimisation hints.
- In Perl 6, you can (optionally) specify types.

```
my int $x = 42;  
my int @array;
```

- The lowercase “int” type allows the compiler to use a native integer to represent the value => JITed code fast!
- Allows for more compact arrays.

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A Quote From The Perl 6 Design Docs

Perl 6 has an optional type system that helps you write **safer code** that **performs better**. The compiler is free to infer what type information it can from the types you supply, but **will not complain about missing type information unless you ask it to**.

Type Systems Can Be A Pain Too

- The choice of type system greatly affects how a language feels to work in.
- Let's compare writing a simple program in Perl 5 and C# 1.0.
- The user can enter a number of integers, followed by a blank line. The average is then computed.

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The Perl Implementation

```
my @values;
while (my $num = <>) {
    chop $num;
    if ($num) {
        push @values, $num;
    } else {
        last;
    }
}

my $total = 0;
foreach my $v (@values) {
    $total += $v;
}

my $average = $total / @values;
print "Average: $average\n";
```

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The C# Implementation

```
ArrayList values = new ArrayList();
bool finished = false;
while (!finished) {
    String s = Console.ReadLine();
    if (s != "") {
        double value = Double.Parse(s);
        values.Add(value);
    } else {
        finished = true;
    }
}
double total = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < values.Count; i++)
    total += (double) values[i];
double average = total / (double) values.Count;
Console.WriteLine("Average: " + average + "\n");
```


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Type Annotations

```
ArrayList values = new ArrayList();
bool finished = false;
while (!finished) {
    String s = Console.ReadLine();
    if (s != "") {
        double value = Double.Parse(s);
        values.Add(value);
    } else {
        finished = true;
    }
}
double total = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < values.Count; i++)
    total += (double) values[i];
double average = total / (double) values.Count;
Console.WriteLine("Average: " + average + "\n");
```

**Need to write
explicit type
annotations =>
more to type**

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Type System Not Expressive Enough

- The most annoying problem is that we have to cast a value when removing it from a collection.

```
total += (double) values[i];
```

- Type system not expressive enough for us to indicate that the collection will only ever contain doubles.
- C# 2.0 added generics to resolve this
=> much nicer language to work in.

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Notation

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Types

- We usually specify that a term has a type by placing a colon between the two.

42 : int

1 + 5 : int

true : bool

- Notation exists for more complex types; I'll only detail functional types.

Functional Types

- Functional types (that is, types of functions) use an arrow notation
 - The type of the arguments go to the left of the arrow.
 - The type of the return value goes to the right of the arrow.

```
sub double (int $x) { 2 * $x } : int → int
```

```
sub iszero (int $x) { $x == 0 } : int → bool
```

Type Environments

- A type environment, often written Γ (uppercase Greek letter gamma), maps names (of variables in languages that have them) to types.
- For example, the following type environment tells us the types of the scalars x and b .

$$\Gamma = \{ x \rightarrow int, b \rightarrow bool \}$$

Type Environments

- The type environment Γ on the last slide allows us to determine the following typing:

$$2 * \$x : int$$

- Formally we write this as follows:

$$\Gamma \vdash 2 * \$x : int$$

- Which we read as “gamma proves that $2 * \$x$ has type int ”.

Typing Rules

- We describe a type system formally using a group of inductive typing rules.
- Inductive means...
 - The type of a term in a program is defined in terms of its sub-terms.
 - There are a set of terms that do not break down any further, known as base cases.

Typing Rules

- Here are some typing rules for base cases. The line above them indicates that they do not depend on any other rules to determine the type.

$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash n : int} \text{ (provided } n \text{ is an integer)}$$
$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash true : bool}$$
$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash false : bool}$$
$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \text{ (provided } \Gamma(x) = T)$$

Typing Rules

- Addition may have the following typing rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{int} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : \text{int}}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 + t_2 : \text{int}}$$

- You can read this as “we can prove that $t_1 + t_2$ has type `int` provided that t_1 has type `int` and t_2 has type `int`”.
- The conditions above the line must be true for the what is below the line to be.

Typing Rules

- The typing rule for “if” is a little more complex; we introduce a type variable T :

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T \quad \Gamma \vdash t_3 : T}{\Gamma \vdash \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 : T}$$

- This specifies that the condition of the if statement must be a boolean and the branches of the if must have the same type (not true of all languages!)

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Terminology

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Type Checking

- Given a type environment, a term and the type that we believe the term to have, type checking verifies that the term does indeed have that type.

Given a type environment Γ , a term t and a type T , show that $\Gamma \vdash t : T$

- This is the process by which C# would decide to reject the following program:

```
int x = 5;  
int y = 13;  
string z = x + y;  /* x + y doesn't have type string */
```

Type Inference

- Given a type environment and a term, type inference finds the type that the term has, if it does indeed have one.

Given a type environment Γ and a term t , find a type T such that $\Gamma \vdash t : T$

- Often seen in functional languages (ML, Haskell).
- Computationally harder than type checking; type inference problem is undecidable for some type systems!

Static vs. Dynamic Typing

- The distinction being made is when type checking takes place.
- Statically typed languages will type check the entire program at compile time.
- Dynamically typed languages usually require values to carry their types around with them and perform a check at runtime when a value is used.

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Static vs. Dynamic Typing Example

- The following program may work fine in a dynamically typed language, but fail to compile under a statically typed one.

```
x = "foo"  
if (complex condition that is always true)  
    x = 39  
y = x + 3
```

- Value always an integer by the time x is used in the add operation; static type check can't determine this.

Hybrid Type Systems

- We'd like the expressiveness of dynamic typing along with the elimination of runtime checks achievable from static typing.
- Hybrid type systems check what they can statically and insert dynamic checks for what they can't decide.

“Static when possible, dynamic when needed.”

Duck Typing

- If two objects provide the same interface required for an operation (for example, the same set of methods) then they are interchangeable.
- Works regardless of the class inheritance hierarchy.
- A form of dynamic typing.
- Used heavily in Ruby.

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Duck Typing

- Need to be careful: both “firework” and “diagram” implement the “explode” method, but they do different things!



Strong vs. Weak Typing

- A vague definition: “how strictly are type rules enforced?”
- A strongly typed language (e.g. C#) would reject the following program; a weakly typed language (Visual Basic, Perl) would accept it.

```
x = 42;  
y = "20"  
z = x + y
```

Strong vs. Weak Typing

- Strongly typed languages generally enforce that coercions between types that may cause data loss (such as string to integer) must be written explicitly as casts.
- Weakly typed languages assume the programmer knows what they are doing (not always a good assumption!) and performs a coercion implicitly.

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Polymorphism

Polymorphism

- Again, TMTOWTDI (both for $D = \text{Define}$ and $D = \text{Do}$).
- One definition: polymorphism occurs when a term or value can be classified as having more than one type.
- Another definition: polymorphism allows the same code to operate on values of different types.

Polymorphism

- Many ways to achieve polymorphism.
- I will quickly look at three of them that feature in Perl 6 in some form.
 - Subclassing
 - Parametric polymorphism (aka generics and parameterized types)
 - Refinement types
- See proceedings for detail++.

Subclassing

- More commonly known as inheritance.
- A key part of object oriented programming.
- A subclass may be used in place of a parent class because it only adds to the behaviours and representation that the parent class has.
- Found in the many OO languages.

Subclassing

- Perl 6 has some nicer syntax for defining a subclass than Perl 5:

```
class Melon is Fruit {  
    ...  
}
```

- We formalize subclassing by adding a sub-typing rule that looks something like this (we really need to define “isa”).

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : S \quad S \text{ isa } T}{\Gamma \vdash t : T}$$

Parametric Polymorphism

- Key idea: a type can take type parameters, just as a function takes function parameters.
- We could define the types “integer list”, “string list”, etc.
- Parametric polymorphism allows us to give the list the type “ α list”, where α is a type parameter that we supply when using the list.

Parametric Polymorphism

- For example, we could implement a parametric List type in C# 2.0 that looks something like this:

```
public class List<T>
{
    public void Add(T value)
    {
        ...
    }
    public T Get(int index)
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

Parametric Polymorphism

- The type parameter is supplied when an instance of the list class is created.

```
List<int> = new List<int>();
```

- Perl 6 provides parametric polymorphism in an interesting way!
- A role (basically a group of methods that are composed into a class) is implicitly parameterized on the type of the invocant.

Refinement Types

- A refinement type is obtained by adding constraints to an existing type.
- For example, the type `EvenInt` is a refinement of the `Int` type that only contains even integers.
- In Perl 6, `EvenInt` would be defined like this:

```
subset EvenInt of Int where { $^n % 2 == 0 }
```

Refinement Types

- Anonymous refinement types in Perl 6 will be very useful!

```
sub Halve (Int $n where { $^n % 2 == 0 }) returns Int
{
    return $n / 2;
}
```

- Can use a more refined type in place of a less refined one, providing yet another path to polymorphic code!

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Any questions?