CSc 520

Principles of Programming Languages

26: Types — Classification

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Scalar Types

- Also called simple types.
- The scalar types include:
 - 1. discrete types
 - 2. real
 - 3. rational
 - 4. complex

Enumerable Types

- Also called discrete types or ordinal types.
- Discrete types are countable, or 1-to-1 with the integers.
- Examples:
 - 1. integer
 - 2. boolean
 - 3. char
 - 4. subranges
 - 5. enumeration types

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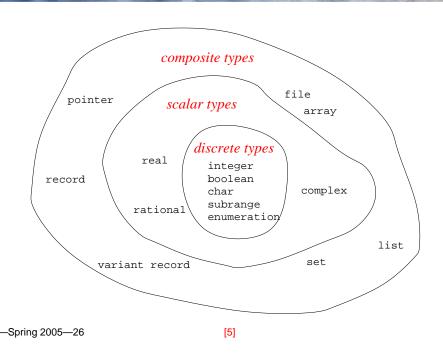
Composite Types

- Also called constructed types.
- They are created by applying type constructors to other, simpler, types.
- The composit types include:
 - 1. records
 - 2. variant records
 - 3. arrays
 - 4. sets
 - 5. pointers
 - 6. lists
 - 7. files

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Types — Overview



Discreet Types — **Subranges**

- Subranges can be used to force additional runtime checks.
- Some languages use subrange types as array index types.

```
TYPE S1 = [0..10];
TYPE S2 = ['a'..'z'];
TYPE Color = (white,blue,yellow,green,red);
TYPE S3 = [blue..green];
TYPE A = ARRAY S3 OF INTEGER;
VAR X : S3 := white; (* \( \infty \) error *)
```

Discreet Types — **Enumerations**

- Pascal, Ada, Modula-2, C have some variant of enumeration types.
- C's enumerations are just syntactic sugar for integer constants.
- In Pascal and Ada, enumerations are real types, incompatible with other types.
- In Ada and C, enumeration values can be user specified.

Structured Types

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Arrays – Storage Layout

Most languages lay out arrays in row-major order. FORTRAN uses column-major.

				0	A[1
			_	1	A[1
	A[1,1]	A[1,2]		2	A[2
	A[2,1]	A[2,2]		3	A[2
	A[3,1]	A[3,2]		4	A[3
	A[4,1]	A[4,2]		5	A[3
•				6	A[4
				7	A[4

0	A[1,1]		0	A[1,1]
1	A[1,2]		1	A[2,1]
2	A[2,1]		2	A[3,1]
3	A[2,2]		3	A[4,1]
4	A[3,1]		4	A[1,2]
5	A[3,2]		5	A[2,2]
6	A[4,1]		6	A[3,2]
7	A[4,2]		7	A[4,2]
Row Major			Column Major	

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Matrix

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Array Indexing – 2 Dimensions

VAR A :ARRAY $[l_1 \ldots h_1][l_2 \ldots h_2]$ OF T;

$$\begin{array}{rcl} w_1 & \equiv & h_1 - l_1 + 1 \\ w_2 & \equiv & h_2 - l_2 + 1 \\ \text{L-VAL}(A[i_1,i_2]) & \equiv & \text{A}_{\text{addr}} + ((i_1 - l_1) * w_2 + i_2 + l_2) * \text{A}_{\text{elsz}} \\ & \equiv & \text{A}_{\text{addr}} + (i_1 * w_2 + i_2) * \text{A}_{\text{elsz}} - \\ & & & (l_1 * w_2 - l_2) * \text{A}_{\text{elsz}} \end{array}$$

$$C & \equiv & \text{A}_{\text{addr}} - (l_1 * w_2 - l_2) * \text{A}_{\text{elsz}} \\ \text{L-VAL}(A[i_1,i_2]) & \equiv & (i_1 * w_2 + i_2) * \text{A}_{\text{elsz}} + C \end{array}$$

C can be computed at compile-time.

Array Indexing – 1 Dimensions

- How do we compute the address (L-value) of the n:th element of a 1-dimensional array?
- ullet A_{elsz} is A's element-size, A_{addr} is its base address.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{L} - \mathbf{VAL}(A[i]) & \equiv & \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{addr}} + (i-l) * \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{elsz}} \\ & \equiv & \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{addr}} + (l * \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{elsz}}) + i * \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{elsz}} \\ & C & \equiv & \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{addr}} + (l * \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{elsz}}) \\ & \mathbf{L} - \mathbf{VAL}(A[i]) & \equiv & C + i * \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{elsz}} \end{split}$$

Note that C can be computed at compile-time.

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Array Indexing – n **Dimensions**

VAR A : ARRAY
$$[l_1...l_1]$$
 ... $[l_n...l_n]$ OF T;

$$w_k \equiv h_k - l_k + 1$$

$$C \equiv \\ \mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{addr}} - ((\cdots (l_1*w_2 + l_2)*w_3 + l_3)\cdots)*w_n + l_n)*\mathbf{A}_{\mathtt{elsz}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{L} - \mathbf{VAL}(A[i_1, i_2, ..., i_n]) &\equiv \\ &((\cdots (i_1 * w_2 + i_2) * w_3 + i_3) \cdots) * w_n + i_n) * \mathbf{A}_{\texttt{elsz}} + C \end{aligned}$$

Record Types

Pascal, C, Modula-2, Ada and other languages have variant records (C's union type):

Depending on the tag value R1 has a real, integer, or char field.

The size of a variant part is the max of the sizes of its constituent fields.

```
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```

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Pointer Types

• In order to build recursive structures, most languages allow some way of declaring recursive types. These are necessary in order to construct linked structures such as lists and trees:

Note that P is declared before its use. Languages such as Pascal and C don't allow forward declarations, but make an exception for pointers.

Record Types...

Oberon has extensible record types:

```
TYPE R3 = RECORD

a : INTEGER;

END;

TYPE R4 = (R3) RECORD

b : REAL;

END;
```

R4 has both the a and the b field.

Extensible records are similar to classes in other languages.

```
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```

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Procedure Types

- C, Modula-2, and other languages support procedure types. You can treat the address of a procedure like any other object.
- Languages differ in whether they allow procedures whose address is taken to be nested or not. (Why?)

```
TYPE P = PROCEDURE(x:INTEGER; VAR Y:CHAR):REAL;
VAR z : P; VAR c : CHAR; VAR r : REAL;
PROCEDURE M (x:INTEGER; VAR Y:CHAR):REAL;
BEGIN···END;
BEGIN
z := M; /* z holds the address of M. */
r := z(44,c);
END.
```

Class Types

- Java's classes are just pointer to record types. Some languages (Object Pascal, Oberon, MODULA-3) define classes just like records.
- Nore about classes later.

Readings and References

Read Scott, pp.323–330.

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Set Types

- Pascal and Modula-2 support sets of ordinal types.
- Sets are implemented as bitvectors.
- Many implementations restrict the size of a set to 32 (the size of a machine word), or 256 (so you can declare a set of char).

```
type letset = set of 'A' .. 'z';
var x, y, z, w: letset;
begin
    x := ['A'...'Z','a']; y := ['a'...'z'];
    z := x + y; (* set union *)
    z := x * y; (* set intersection *)
    w := x - y; (* set difference *)
    if 'A' in z then ...; (* set membership *)
    end.
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```