

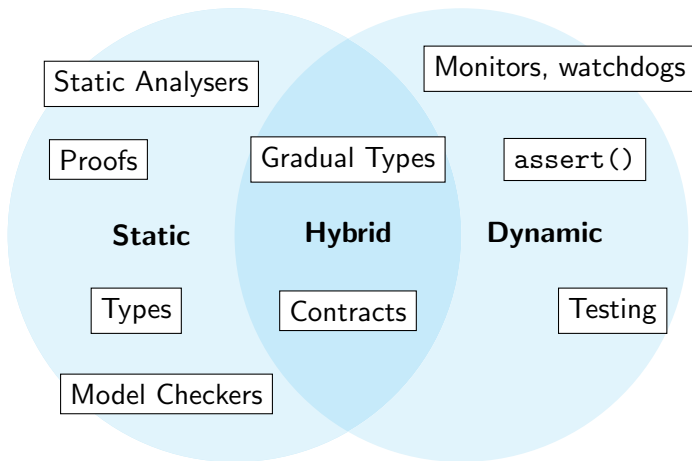
COMP3141

Software System Design and Implementation

Static Assurance with Types

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Methods of Assurance



Static means of assurance analyse a program **without running it.**

Static vs. Dynamic

- Static checks can be **exhaustive**.

Exhaustivity

An exhaustive check is a check that is able to analyse all possible executions of a program.

- **However**, some properties cannot be checked statically in general (**halting problem**), or are intractable to feasibly check statically (**state space explosion**).
- Dynamic checks cannot be exhaustive, but can be used to check some properties where static methods are unsuitable.

Compiler Integration

Most static and all dynamic methods of assurance are **not** integrated into the compilation process.

- You can compile and run your program even if it fails tests.
- You can change your program to diverge from your model checker model.
- Your proofs can diverge from your implementation.

Types

Because types **are** integrated into the compiler, they cannot diverge from the source code. This means that type signatures are a kind of **machine-checked documentation** for your code.

Types

Types are the **most widely used** kind of formal verification in programming today.

- They are checked automatically by the compiler.
- They can be extended to encompass properties and proof systems with very high expressivity (covered next week).
- They are an **exhaustive analysis**.

This week, we'll look at techniques to encode various correctness conditions **inside Haskell's type system**.



Phantom Types

Definition

A type parameter is *phantom* if it does not appear in the right hand side of the type definition.

```
newtype Size x = S Int
```

Lets examine each one of the following use cases:

- We can use this parameter to track what **data invariants** have been established about a value.
- We can use this parameter to track information about the representation (e.g. units of measure).
- We can use this parameter to enforce an **ordering** of operations performed on these values (*type state*).



Validation

```
data UG -- empty type
data PG
data StudentID x = SID Int
```

We can define a **smart constructor** that specialises the type parameter:

```
sid :: Int -> Either (StudentID UG)
                      (StudentID PG)
```

(Recalling the following definition of Either)

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right b
```

And then define functions:

```
enrolInCOMP3141 :: StudentID UG -> IO ()
lookupTranscript :: StudentID x -> IO String
```

Units of Measure

In 1999, software confusing units of measure (pounds and newtons) caused a mars orbiter to burn up on atmospheric entry.

```
data Kilometres
data Miles
data Value x = U Int
sydneyToMelbourne = (U 877 :: Value Kilometres)
losAngelesToSanFran = (U 383 :: Value Miles)
```

In addition to tagging values, we can also enforce constraints on units:

```
data Square a
area :: Value m -> Value m -> Value (Square m)
area (U x) (U y) = U (x * y)
```

Note the arguments to area must have the same units.

Type State



Example

A Socket can either be ready to receive data, or busy. If the socket is busy, the user must first use the `wait` operation, which blocks until the socket is ready. If the socket is ready, the user can use the `send` operation to send string data, which will make the socket busy again.

```
data Busy
```

```
data Ready
```

```
newtype Socket s = Socket ...
```

```
wait :: Socket Busy -> IO (Socket Ready)
```

```
send :: Socket Ready -> String -> IO (Socket Busy)
```



What assumptions are we making here?

Linearity and Type State

The previous code assumed that we didn't re-use old Sockets:

```
send2 :: Socket Ready -> String -> String
      -> IO (Socket Busy)
send2 s x y = do s' <- send s x
                  s'' <- wait s'
                  s''' <- send s'' y
                  pure s'''
```

But we can just re-use old values to send without waiting:

```
send2' s x y = do _ <- send s x
                  s' <- send s y
                  pure s'
```

Linear type systems
can solve this, but
not in Haskell (yet).

Datatype Promotion

```
data UG
data PG
data StudentID x = SID Int
```

Defining empty data types for our tags is **untyped**. We can have `StudentID UG`, but also `StudentID String`.

Recall

Haskell types themselves have types, called **kinds**. Can we make the kind of our tag types more precise than `*`?

The `DataKinds` language extension lets us use data types as kinds:

```
{-# LANGUAGE DataKinds, KindSignatures #-}
data Stream = UG | PG
data StudentID (x :: Stream) = SID Int
-- rest as before
```

Motivation: Evaluation

```
data Expr = BConst Bool
          | IConst Int
          | Times Expr Expr
          | Less Expr Expr
          | And Expr Expr
          | If Expr Expr Expr
data Value = BVal Bool | IVal Int
```

Example

Define an expression evaluator:

```
eval :: Expr -> Value
```

Motivation: Partiality

Unfortunately the `eval` function is **partial**, undefined for input expressions that are not well-typed, like:

```
And (ICons 3) (BConst True)
```

Recall

With any partial function, we can make it total by either **expanding** the co-domain (e.g. with a `Maybe` type), or **constraining** the domain.

Can we use phantom types to constrain the domain of `eval` to only accept well-typed expressions?

Attempt: Phantom Types

Let's try adding a phantom parameter to Expr, and defining typed constructors with precise types:

```
data Expr t = ...  
bConst :: Bool -> Expr Bool  
bConst = BConst  
iConst :: Int -> Expr Int  
iConst = IConst  
times :: Expr Int -> Expr Int -> Expr Int  
times = Times  
less :: Expr Int -> Expr Int -> Expr Bool  
less = Less  
and :: Expr Bool -> Expr Bool -> Expr Bool  
and = And  
if'  :: Expr Bool -> Expr a -> Expr a -> Expr a  
if' = If
```

Attempt: Phantom Types

This makes invalid expressions into type errors (yay!):

```
-- Couldn't match Int and Bool  
and (iCons 3) (bConst True)
```

How about our eval function? What should its type be now?

```
eval :: Expr t -> t
```

Bad News

Inside eval, the Haskell type checker cannot be sure that we used our typed constructors, so in e.g. the IConst case:

```
eval :: Expr t -> t  
eval (IConst i) = i -- type error
```

We are unable to tell that the type t is definitely Int.

Phantom types aren't strong enough!

GADTs

Generalised Algebraic Datatypes (*GADTs*) is an extension to Haskell that, among other things, allows data types to be specified by writing the types of their constructors:

```
{-# LANGUAGE GADTs, KindSignatures #-}  
-- Unary natural numbers, e.g. 3 is S (S (S Z))  
data Nat = Z | S Nat  
-- is the same as  
data Nat :: * where  
  Z :: Nat  
  S :: Nat -> Nat
```

When combined with the *type indexing* trick of phantom types, this becomes very powerful!

Expressions as a GADT

```
data Expr :: * -> * where
  BConst :: Bool -> Expr Bool
  IConst  :: Int -> Expr Int
  Times   :: Expr Int -> Expr Int -> Expr Int
  Less    :: Expr Int -> Expr Int -> Expr Bool
  And     :: Expr Bool -> Expr Bool -> Expr Bool
  If      :: Expr Bool -> Expr a -> Expr a -> Expr a
```

Observation

There is now only *one* set of *precisely-typed* constructors.

Inside `eval` now, the Haskell type checker accepts our previously problematic case:

```
eval :: Expr t -> t
eval (IConst i) = i -- OK now
```

GHC now knows that if we have `IConst`, the type `t` must be `Int`.

Lists

We could define our own list type using GADT syntax as follows:

```
data List (a :: *) :: * where
  Nil  :: List a
  Cons :: a -> List a -> List a
```

But, if we define head (hd) and tail (tl) functions, they're **partial** (boo!):

```
hd (Cons x xs) = x
tl (Cons x xs) = xs
```

We will constrain the domain of these functions by tracking the **length** of the list **on the type level**.

Vectors

As before, define a natural number kind to use on the type level:

```
data Nat = Z | S Nat
```

Now our length-indexed list can be defined, called a `Vec`:

```
data Vec (a :: *) :: Nat -> * where
  Nil  :: Vec a Z
  Cons :: a -> Vec a n -> Vec a (S n)
```

Now `hd` and `tl` can be total:

```
hd :: Vec a (S n) -> a
hd (Cons x xs) = x
tl :: Vec a (S n) -> Vec a n
tl (Cons x xs) = xs
```

Vectors, continued

Our map for vectors is as follows:

```
mapVec :: (a -> b) -> Vec a n -> Vec b n
mapVec f Nil = Nil
mapVec f (Cons x xs) = Cons (f x) (mapVec f xs)
```

Properties

Using this type, it's impossible to write a mapVec function that changes the length of the vector.

Properties are verified by the compiler!

Tradeoffs

The benefits of this extra static checking are obvious, however:

- It can be difficult to convince the Haskell type checker that your code is correct, even when it is.
- Type-level encodings can make types more verbose and programs harder to understand.
- Sometimes excessively detailed types can make type-checking very slow, hindering productivity.

Pragmatism

We should use type-based encodings only when the assurance advantages outweigh the clarity disadvantages.

The typical use case for these richly-typed structures is to eliminate **partial functions** from our code base.

If we never use partial list functions, length-indexed vectors are not particularly useful.

Appending Vectors

Example (Problem)

```
appendV :: Vec a m -> Vec a n -> Vec a ???
```

We want to write $m + n$ in the `???` above, but we do not have addition defined for kind `Nat`.

We can define a normal Haskell function easily enough:

```
plus :: Nat -> Nat -> Nat
plus Z y = y
plus (S x) y = S (plus x y)
```

This function is not applicable to **type-level** Nats, though.
 \Rightarrow we need a **type level function**.

Type Families

Type level functions, also called *type families*, are defined in Haskell like so:

```
{-# LANGUAGE TypeFamilies #-}  
type family Plus (x :: Nat) (y :: Nat) :: Nat where  
    Plus Z      y = y  
    Plus (S x) y = S (Plus x y)
```

We can use our type family to define appendV:

```
appendV :: Vec a m -> Vec a n -> Vec a (Plus m n)  
appendV Nil          ys = ys  
appendV (Cons x xs) ys = Cons x (appendV xs ys)
```

Recursion

If we had implemented Plus by recursing on the second argument instead of the first:

```
{-# LANGUAGE TypeFamilies #-}  
type family Plus' (x :: Nat) (y :: Nat) :: Nat where  
  Plus' x Z      = x  
  Plus' x (S y) = S (Plus' x y)
```

Then our appendV code would not type check.

```
appendV :: Vec a m -> Vec a n -> Vec a (Plus' m n)  
appendV Nil          ys = ys  
appendV (Cons x xs) ys = Cons x (appendV xs ys)
```

Why?

Answer

Consider the Nil case. We know $m = Z$, and must show that our desired return type $\text{Plus}' Z n$ equals our given return type n , but that fact is not immediately apparent from the equations.

Type-driven development

- This lecture is only a taste of the full power of type-based specifications.
- Languages supporting **dependent types** (Idris, Agda) completely merge the type and value level languages, and support machine-checked proofs about programs.
- Haskell is also gaining more of these typing features all the time.

Next week: Fancy theory about types!

- Deep connections between types, logic and proof.
- Algebraic type structure for generic algorithms and refactoring.
- Using polymorphic types to infer properties for free.

Homework

- ① Assignment 2 is **released**. Due on **7th August, 9 AM**.
- ② The last programming exercise has been released, due next week.
- ③ This week's quiz is also up, due in Friday of Week 9.