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Software System Design and Implementation

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Static Assurance with Types

Liam O'Connor

University of Edinburgh, IFCS (and UNSW)

Term 2 2020

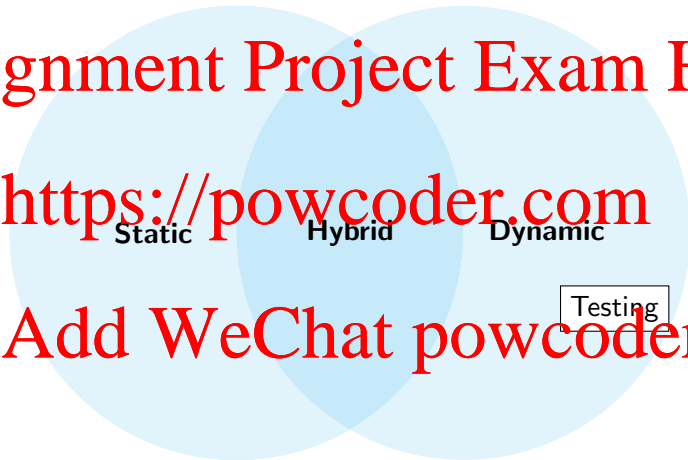
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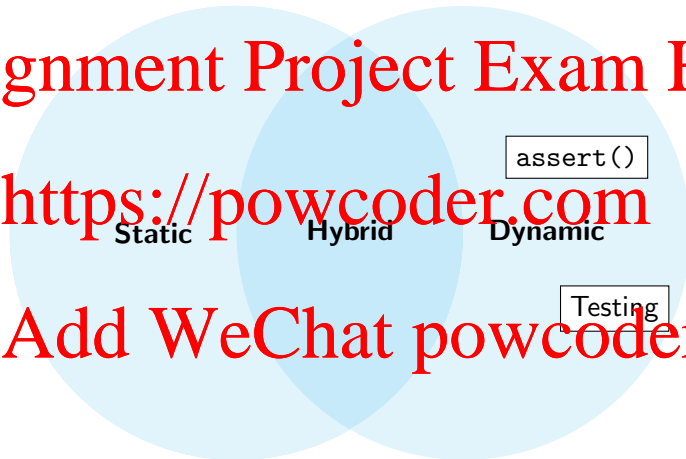


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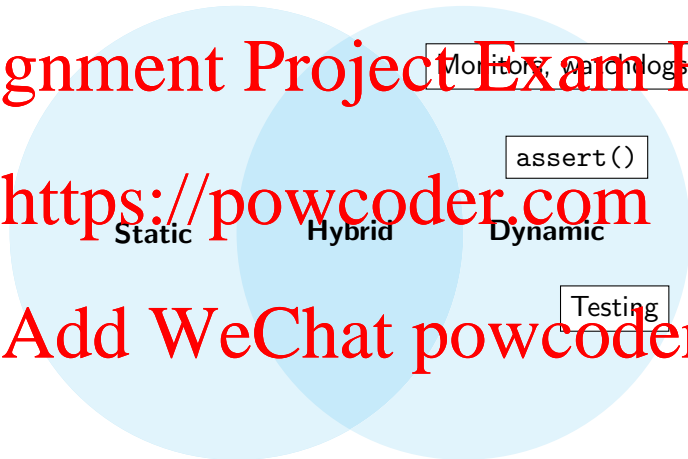


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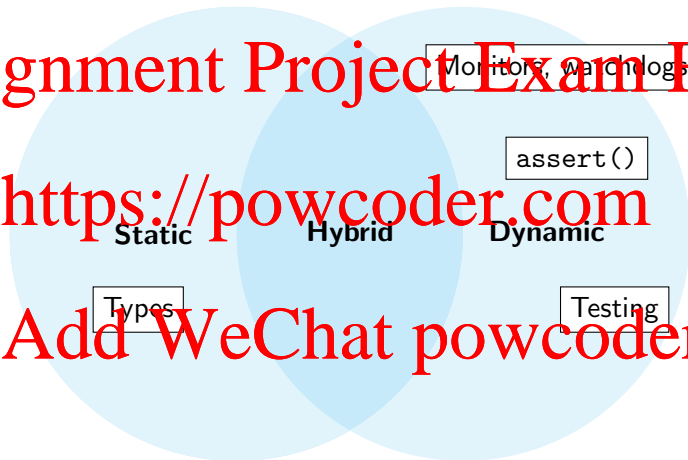


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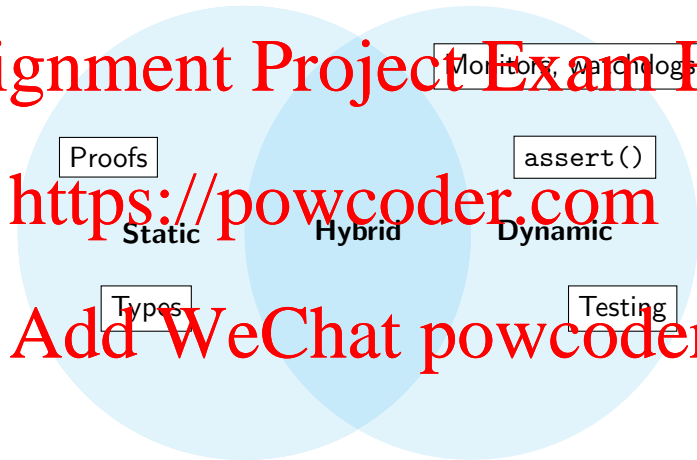
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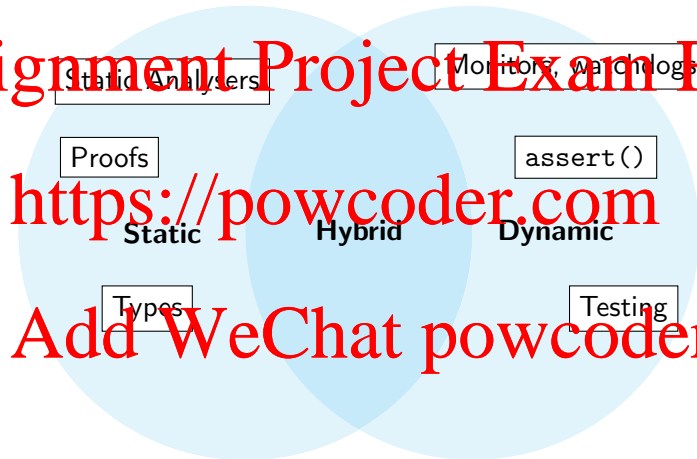
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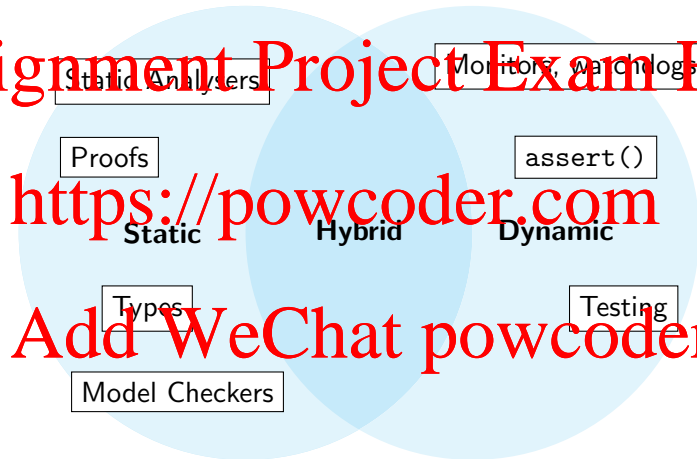


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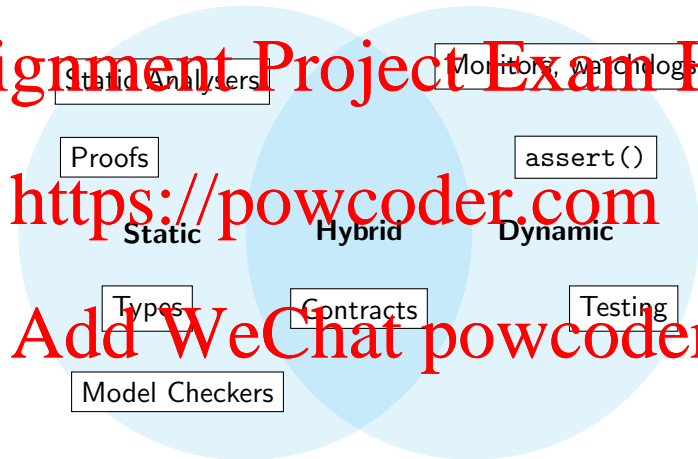


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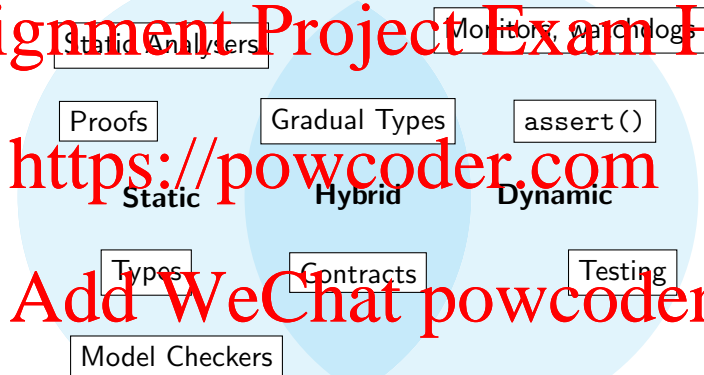
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Methods of Assurance

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

Static vs. Dynamic

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- Static checks can be exhaustive.

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Exhaustivity

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

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Static vs. Dynamic

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- 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 easily check statically (**state space explosion**).
- Dynamic checks cannot be exhaustive, but can be used to check some properties where static methods are unsuitable.

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Compiler Integration

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

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- 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

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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.

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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 s = S Int
```

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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.

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- 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*).

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Validation

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

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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
```

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

(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)
```

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```
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sydneyToMelbourne = (U 877 :: Value Kilometres)
```

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```

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.

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```
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''
```

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

```
send2' s x y = do _ <- send s x  
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Linear type systems
can solve this, but
not in Haskell (yet).

Datatype Promotion

data UG

data PG

data StudentID x = SID Int

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

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Recall

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

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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
```

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Motivation: Partiality

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

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

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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.

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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:

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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
```

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Attempt: Phantom Types

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

```
-- Couldn't match Int and Bool  
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```

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[eval : Expr t ->](https://powcoder.com)
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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`.

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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
```

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```

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

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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
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If :: Expr Bool -> Expr a -> Expr a -> Expr a
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Observation

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

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

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

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

```
eval (IConst i) = i -- OK now
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Expressions as a GADT

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```
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```
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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

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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
```

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

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

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Vectors

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

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

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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)
```

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```
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```
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)
```

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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.

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- Type-level encodings can make types more verbose and programs harder to understand.

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

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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.

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) Assignment Project Exam Help

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

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Appending Vectors

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Example (Problem)

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

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Appending Vectors

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

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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)
```

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This function is not applicable to **type-level** Nats, though.

⇒ we need a **type level function**.

Type Families

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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      j = j  
  Plus (S x) y = S (Plus x y)
```

We can use our type family to define appendV:

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

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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)
```

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Then our appendV code would not type check.

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Why?

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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

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- 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.

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Homework

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- 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.

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