

# CPSC 311: Definition of Programming Languages: More strings, leading into type safety ("15-strings")

**DRAFT**

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## Topics covered

- 2015-10-21 lecture: Sections 1 and 2
- 2015-10-23 lecture: Sections 3 and 4 (?)

## Logistics

- a2 stats: mean 78%, median 88%
- There was a wonderful bug in a3.rkt, which I fixed; see Piazza / check your email. I suggest fixing your copy of a3.rkt, but if you exploit the bug to do Problem 2, you could get full marks. You'll probably learn more if you don't do that, though.
- Practice midterm will be posted **today** (Friday)

## 1 a3: lists

List  $A$  is the type of lists whose elements are of type  $A$ . Not like a Racket list, where a list is an arbitrary sequence of stuff.

Expanding on the terse remark that `list-case` is "is a kind of **type-case** for lists":

```
(define-type List-Num
  [numlist-empty ()]
  [numlist-cons (head number?) (tail List-Num?)])

(type-case List-Num xs
  [numlist-empty ()      branch for when xs is numlist-empty]
  [numlist-cons (h t)    branch for when xs is numlist-cons])

{list-case xs {empty => branch for when xs is empty}
  {cons h t => branch for when xs is cons}}
```

## §1 a3: lists

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Within the `numlist-cons` branch of the Racket/PLAI **type-case**, the identifiers `h` and `t` are bound to the first and second arguments of `numlist-cons`. Similarly, within the `cons` branch of the Fun `list`-case, the identifiers `h` and `t` are bound to the head (first element) and tail (remaining elements) of the list `xs`.

### 1.1 A useful way to read typing rules

The next page illustrates how to “expand” typing rules so you can implement them more directly. When you make a recursive call to derive a premise, you can’t constrain in advance what result you get. If you write the rule a little differently, you get something that matches the code you write more closely.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \quad A = \text{List } A \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Empty}} : B \quad xh : A, xt : \text{List } A, \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Cons}} : B_2 \quad B_2 = B}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{list-case } e \ e_{\text{Empty}} \ xh \ xt \ e_{\text{Cons}}) : B}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}/* A_1 A_2) \quad \Gamma \vdash e : A \quad A = A_1 * A_2 \quad x_1 : A_1, x_2 : A_2, \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Body}} : B}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{par-case } e \ x_1 \ x_2 \ e_{\text{Body}}) : B}$$

$$\frac{u : B, \Gamma \vdash e : B_2 \quad B_2 = B}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{rec } u \ B \ e) : B}$$

arguments to type of inputs  
 $\Gamma \vdash e : A$   
 result of type of output  
 $A$

You can't pass an input to an output...  
 but you can get the output and then call

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Then}} : A \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Else}} : A}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{ite } e \ e_{\text{Then}} \ e_{\text{Else}}) : A} \quad \text{Type-ite}$$

type = ?  
 or do a type-case.

$$\left[ \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : B_1 \quad B_1 = \text{Bool} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Then}} : B_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Else}} : B_3 \quad B_2 = B_3 \quad B_3 = A}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{ite } e \ e_{\text{Then}} \ e_{\text{Else}}) : A} \right]$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \quad x : A, \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Body}} : B}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{with } x \ e \ e_{\text{Body}}) : B} \quad \text{Type-with}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : A \quad x : A, \Gamma \vdash e_{\text{Body}} : B}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{with } x \ e \ e_{\text{Body}}) : B}$$

## 2 Strings, continued

### 2.1 BNFs

```
Strings  ⟨S⟩ ::= whatever a Racket string is
Cats     ⟨C⟩ ::= ⟨S⟩
          | {+ ⟨C⟩ ⟨C⟩}
```

Instead of studying the above (very small!) language, we'll add its features to one of our versions of Fun, so that we can see, in a slightly more realistic language, how to define evaluation and typing for these features.

```
Expressions  ⟨E⟩ ::= ...whatever is in typed-lam.rkt
              | ⟨S⟩
              | {cat ⟨C⟩ ⟨C⟩}

              | {cat ⟨E⟩ ⟨E⟩}
              | {nth ⟨E⟩ ⟨E⟩}
```

I've crossed out one of the productions, because I want strings to be interoperable with Fun expressions, so that we can cat two identifiers, or cat the result of applying two functions, etc.

What is the semantics of nth? It will return the 1-character string at a given index into the string, which will illustrate some language design alternatives.

### 2.2 Abstract syntax

```
(define-type E
  .
  .
  .
  [str (s string?)]
  [cat (str1 E?) (str2 E?)]
  [nth (str E?) (index E?)]
)
```

## §2 Strings, continued

### 2.3 Evaluation rules

$e \Downarrow v$  Expression  $e$  evaluates to value  $v$

$$\frac{}{(\text{str } s) \Downarrow (\text{str } s)} \text{ Eval-str} \qquad \frac{e1 \Downarrow (\text{str } s1) \quad e2 \Downarrow (\text{str } s2)}{(\text{cat } e1 \ e2) \Downarrow (\text{str } s1 \ s2)} \text{ Eval-cat}$$
$$\frac{eS \Downarrow (\text{str } s1) \quad eIdx \Downarrow (\text{num } n) \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \quad n < \text{len}(s1)}{(\text{nth } eS \ eIdx) \Downarrow (\text{str } s1_n)} \text{ Eval-nth}$$

The difference between the string  $s1$  and  $(\text{str } s1)$  is that  $s1$  is a sequence of characters, for which we can define (or assume) various mathematical functions, while  $(\text{str } s1)$  is abstract syntax.

In writing the rule Eval-nth, we assumed that  $\mathbb{N}$  are the natural numbers (and that they start at 0, which is the usual convention in computer science but not necessarily other fields), that  $\text{len}(s)$  is a (mathematical) function that returns the number of characters in  $s$ , and that a subscript like

$s1_n$

denotes the  $n$ th character of the string  $s1$ .

We arrived at the third and fourth premises of Eval-nth by something like the following process.

- First, we voted overwhelmingly (apparently influenced by the federal election) that strings should be indexed from 0 rather than 1.
- Second, we decided (less democratically) to require  $n$  to be an integer, rather than taking the floor  $\lfloor n \rfloor$ . (Because Fun’s numbers are the same as Racket’s numbers, a num in Fun can be floating-point, rational, or even complex.)
- Third, we decided that  $n$  should be required to be in the range  $0 \leq n < \text{len}(s1)$ , rejecting a suggestion that we define it “circularly” by taking  $n \bmod \text{len}(s1)$ .

(Another possible suggestion: “pin”  $n$  to the range, by returning the 0th character when  $n < 0$ , and the last character when  $n \geq \text{len}(s1)$ . Both this suggestion and the “circular” suggestion don’t entirely succeed in their questionable goal of always returning *something*: what should evaluation do if the string’s length is zero?)

### 2.4 Errors

What if  $eIdx$  evaluates to something that isn’t a num?

What if  $eS$  evaluates to something that isn’t a str?

Both of these can be easily prevented using types.

What if  $eIdx$  does evaluate to  $(\text{num } n)$ , but  $n$  is not an integer? This is feasible to prevent using types, say, by removing the type Num and putting in Int and Float types instead, but we won’t pursue that now.

## §2 Strings, continued

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What if  $n$  falls outside the string? This is much more difficult to prevent with a type system, but it is possible. (During the lecture, an abbreviated and questionable attempt to explain how to do this occurred.)

### 2.5 “Going wrong”

A slogan of types advocates is: “Well-typed programs don’t go wrong.”

This slogan only makes sense if we specifically define what “wrong” means. Then, there are *particular kinds of errors* that are prevented by the typing rules.

The slogan comes from a paper by Robin Milner (the main inventor of Standard ML), who—in his defence—*did* precisely define what he thought “wrong” meant: essentially, it prevented “agreement errors” like trying to apply a number (that is, to call a number as if it were a function), or passing a list to a function that expects an integer, and so on. As you all know by now, such errors happen fairly often, so there’s a strong argument for preventing them.

## §2 Strings, continued

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### 3 Typing rules

$\Gamma \vdash e : A$  Under assumptions  $\Gamma$ , expression  $e$  has type  $A$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{str } s) : \text{String}} \text{Type-str} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e1 : \text{String} \quad \Gamma \vdash e2 : \text{String}}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{cat } e1 \ e2) : \text{String}} \text{Type-cat}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash eS : \text{String} \quad \Gamma \vdash eIdx : \text{Num}}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{nth } eS \ eIdx) : \text{String}} \text{Type-nth}$$

“Expanding” the above rules as discussed above gives:

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{str } s) : \text{String}} \text{Type-str} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e1 : A1 \quad A1 = \text{String} \quad \Gamma \vdash e2 : A2 \quad A2 = \text{String}}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{cat } e1 \ e2) : \text{String}} \text{Type-cat}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash eS : A1 \quad A1 = \text{String} \quad \Gamma \vdash eIdx : A2 \quad A2 = \text{Num}}{\Gamma \vdash (\text{nth } eS \ eIdx) : \text{String}} \text{Type-nth}$$

### 4 Type safety

The standard way of showing that a type system really prevents (certain kinds of) errors is to prove *type safety*.

Type safety is a result about the *relationship* between the static semantics and the dynamic semantics. Thus, changing either set of rules can break type safety.

Type safety is more usefully stated for a small-step semantics ( $e1 \rightarrow e2$ ) rather than for a big-step evaluation semantics, but you're more familiar with the big-step semantics, so we'll start with that.

Type safety can be divided into two parts: *preservation* and *progress*.

#### 4.1 Preservation

Preservation says, roughly, that evaluation “preserves types”: if you run a program of type `Bool`, and it evaluates to a value, that value will also have type `Bool`.

For the **big-step semantics**  $e \Downarrow v$ , preservation can be stated as:

If  $\emptyset \vdash e : A$   
and  $e \Downarrow v$   
then  $\emptyset \vdash v : A$ .

Preservation is a limited statement that can best be characterized as: “If you got a value, *then* it is a reasonable value.” For example, preservation tells you that if the typing rules say that `(app (lam x Num x) (num 3))` is a `Num`, you won't somehow get a `Bool` instead.

The above preservation statement is actually even more limited than it might appear: if evaluation loops infinitely due to a `rec`, the above preservation result doesn't help us, because we can only apply it if  $e \Downarrow v$  holds.

Nonetheless, preservation should still tell us that some, maybe all, of the errors that `interp` can raise will never happen. (You should be skeptical of even this claim! What could go wrong?)



## §4 Type safety

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For the **small-step semantics**  $e1 \longrightarrow e2$ , preservation can be stated as:

If  $\emptyset \vdash e1 : A$   
and  $e1 \longrightarrow e2$   
then  $\emptyset \vdash e2 : A$ .

### 4.2 Progress

For the small-step semantics, **progress** can be stated as:

If  $\emptyset \vdash e1 : A$  then **either**

- $e1$  is a value, or
- $e1 \longrightarrow e2$ .

For a big-step semantics  $e \Downarrow v$ , there is (for most languages) no directly corresponding progress result. The following doesn't hold for Typed Fun, for example, because of `rec`.

If  $\emptyset \vdash e : A$   
then  $e \Downarrow v$ .

A key benefit of small-step semantics is that preservation and progress tell us that running a program, even one that loops infinitely, won't launch the missiles along the way.