

Types, Expressions, and Arrays

CS 536: Science of Programming, Spring 2023

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A. Why?

- Expressions represent values relative to a state.
- Types describe common properties of sets of values.
- The value of an array is a function value from index values to array values.

B. Outcomes

At the end of this class, you should

- Know what expressions and their values we'll be using in our language
- Know how states are expanded to include values of arrays

C. Types and Expressions

- Let's start looking at programming language we'll be using.
- The **datatypes** will be pretty simple (no records or function types, for example).
 - Primitive types: *int* (integers) and *bool* (boolean). We can add other types like characters, strings, and floating-point numbers, but for what we're doing, integers and booleans are enough.
 - Composite types: Multi-dimensional arrays of primitive types of values, with integer indexes.
- **Expressions** are built from
 - **Constants**: Integers (0, 1, -1, ...) and boolean constants (*T*, *F*).
 - **Simple variables** of primitive types.
 - **Operations**
 - On integers: Binary +, -, *, /, *min*, *max*, %, =, ≠, <, ≤, >, ≥, *divides*, Unary -, *sqrt*.
 - / and *sqrt* truncate toward zero, to an integer. E.g., $13 / 3 = 4$, $13 / -3 = -4$, and $\text{sqrt}(17) = 4$. Division and mod (%) by zero and *sqrt* of negative values generate runtime errors.
 - On booleans: ¬, ∧, ∨, →, ↔, =, ≠ (note = and ↔ mean the same thing).
 - On arrays: *size* and array element selection.
 - **Conditional expressions**
 - **if *B* then *e*₁ else *e*₂ fi**. Semantically, if *B* evaluates to true, then evaluate *e*₁; if *B* evaluates to false, then evaluate *e*₂. The C / Java syntax (*B* ? *e*₁ : *e*₂) is also okay.

- Restrictions: To ensure that the entire conditional expression has a consistent type, e_1 and e_2 must have the same type. (This is sometimes called “balancing”.) The type must also be simple (not an array type or function type).
- **Arrays**
 - As usual, $b[e]$ is array element selection. $size(b)$ gives the length of b . For multi-dimensional arrays, we have $b[e_1][e_2]...[e_n]$ and $size1(b)$, $size2(b)$, etc. Arrays are zero-origin and fixed-size.
 - You can have array parameters with functions and predicates (as in $size(b)$).
 - **Restrictions:** No array assignments, no expressions of type array; this includes array slices ($b[e_1]$ of a two-dimensional array, for example). To support these, we'd need identifiers to map to memory locations, with a separate function mapping locations to values. (This is also why we don't have pointers.)
- **General restrictions**
 - No expressions with functional or array values. (So they all have primitive types.)
 - **Example:** $if\ B\ then\ f(x)\ else\ g(x)\ fi$ is legal; $if\ B\ then\ f\ else\ g\ fi\ (x)$ is not.
 - We don't have assignment expressions (we'll see later how to simulate them).
 - We don't have records (adding them isn't that hard, but they don't really add much. theoretically speaking).
- We won't explicitly declare variables; we will assume we can infer the types. The default type is integer.
- **Notation:** c and d are constants; e and s are general expressions; B and C are boolean expressions, a and b are array names, and u , v , etc. are variables. Greek letters like α and β stand for semantic values.

D. Examples of Expressions

- **Example 1:** $if\ x < 0\ then\ 0\ else\ sqrt(x)\ fi$ yields 0 if x is negative, otherwise it yields the square root of x .
- **Example 2:** $if\ x < 0\ then\ x+y\ else\ x*y+z\ fi$ means “If $x < 0$ evaluates to true, then we evaluate $x+y$ and add the result to z , otherwise evaluate $x*y$ and add the result to z .” (x , y , and z must all be integers.)
- **Example 3:** $if\ i < 0\ then\ b[0]\ else\ i \geq size(b)\ then\ b[size(b)-1]\ else\ b[i]\ fi$ yields $b[i]$ if i is in range; if i is negative, it yields $b[0]$; if i is too large, it yields the last element of b .
- **Example 4:** $b[\ if\ i < 0\ then\ 0\ else\ i \geq size(b)\ then\ size(b)-1\ else\ i\ fi]$ yields the same value as Example 3, but it does this by calculating the index first.
- **Example 5:** A (conditional) expression can't yield a function, so $if\ B\ then\ f(x)\ else\ g(x)\ fi$ is legal; $if\ B\ then\ f\ else\ g\ fi\ (x)$ is not.
- **Example 6:** We can't have array-valued expressions, so (assuming a and b are 1-dimensional arrays), $if\ x\ then\ a[0]\ else\ b[0]\ fi$ is legal, $if\ x\ then\ a\ else\ b\ fi[0]$ is not.

E. Syntactic Values and Semantic Values

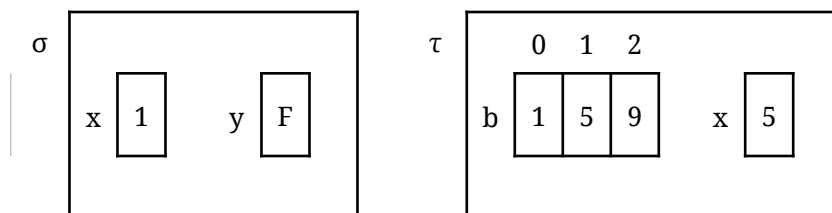
- When we discuss the meanings of programs, some of the items are syntactic (like expressions) and some items are semantic (values, states). So there's a problem with symbols like “2” or “+”. Sometimes we use them in our programs; this is a syntactic use. But sometimes we mean a mathematical value, the thing denoted by “2” or “two” or “plus” or so on.
- In general, the context tells you whether something is syntactic or semantic. E.g.,
 - **Example 7:** In “Does x occur in the predicate p ?” since p is a predicate, it is syntactic, so for x to occur in it, x must be syntactic also.
 - **Example 8:** In $z \equiv 2+2$, the \equiv symbol is for syntactic equality, so both z and $2+2$ are syntactic.
 - **Example 9:** In “ $\sigma(2+2) = 2+2 = 4$ ”, the σ is semantic (a state) and the first $2+2$ is syntactic, since we're looking for its value in σ . The second $2+2$ is semantic because σ takes expressions and returns semantic values. (Hence the second $+$ sign is semantic). The result 4 is also semantic. Also, the two equal signs are semantic equality.
 - **Example 10:** “The value in σ of $2+2$ is two plus two, which is four” is the same as Example 9 but it uses English to write out the semantic values and operations.

F. Semantic Values and Values of Expressions

- **Notation:** In this section, if I really want to emphasize that something is semantic, I'll underline it. So just 2 is syntactic (i.e., the keystroke), but 2 is semantic (i.e., the number in \mathbb{N}). The same semantic value often can be described in different ways: 2, two, 1+1, and one plus one, for example.
- **Example 11:** Rewriting Examples 9 and 10: $\sigma(2+2) = \underline{2+2} = \underline{4}$ or: the value in σ of $2+2$ is two plus two, which is four. Technically, the equality tests could be underlined, but $\sigma(2+2) \equiv \underline{2+2} = \underline{4}$ really seems like more trouble than it's worth. Furthermore, \equiv (underlined equal) looks a lot like \equiv (syntactic equality).
- **Example 12:** If $\underline{\sigma}$ is the state that maps x to 5, we could rewrite “ $\sigma = \{x=5\}$ ” as “ $\underline{\sigma} = \{x=\underline{5}\} = \{(x, \underline{5})\}$ ”.
- In general, expressions have values relative to a state. E.g., relative to $\{x = \underline{1}, y = \underline{2}\}$, the expression $x+y$ has the value 3. Recall that we write $\sigma(x)$ for the value of the variable x and extend this to $\sigma(e)$ for the value of the expression e .
- The value of $\sigma(e)$ depends on what kind of expression e is, so we use recursion on the structure of e (the base cases are variables and constants and we recursively evaluate subexpressions).
 - $\sigma(x)$ = the value that σ binds variable x to
 - $\sigma(c)$ = the value of the constant c . E.g., $\sigma(2) = \underline{2}$. (Note σ is irrelevant here.)
 - $\sigma(e_1 + e_2) = \sigma(e_1)$ plus $\sigma(e_2)$ [and similar for $-$, $*$, etc.]
 - $\sigma(e_1 < e_2) = \underline{T}$ iff $\sigma(e_1)$ is less than $\sigma(e_2)$ [similar for \leq , $=$, etc].

- $\sigma(e_1 \wedge e_2) = \underline{T}$ iff $\sigma(e_1)$ and $\sigma(e_2)$ are both $= \underline{T}$ [similar for \vee , etc].
- $\sigma(\text{if } B \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_2 \text{ fi}) = \sigma(e_1)$ if $\sigma(B) = \underline{T}$. It $= \sigma(e_2)$ if $\sigma(B) = \underline{F}$.
- We'll put off the $\sigma(b[e])$ case, the value of the array indexing expression $b[e]$, for just a bit until we look at the value of an array variable.
- **Example 13:** Let $\sigma = \{x = 1\}$, let $\tau = \sigma \cup \{y = 1\}$, and let $e \equiv (x = \text{if } y > 0 \text{ then } 17 \text{ else } y \text{ fi})$.
 - To calculate e , first we look up $\tau(x)$ and get $\underline{1}$. (Since τ extends σ with a binding for y , τ behaves like σ except on y .)
 - Now we need $\tau(\text{if } y > 0 \text{ then } 17 \text{ else } y \text{ fi})$.
 - $\tau(y > 0)$ means "Is $\tau(y)$ greater than zero?" Since $\tau(y) = \underline{1}$, the answer is \underline{T} .
 - $\tau(y > 0) = \underline{T}$ so $\tau(\text{if } y > 0 \text{ then } 17 \text{ else } y \text{ fi}) = \tau(17)$. I.e., since the test evaluates to \underline{T} , the value of the conditional is the value of 17.
 - $\tau(17) = \underline{17}$, of course.
 - So $\tau(\text{if } y > 0 \text{ then } 17 \text{ else } y \text{ fi}) = \underline{17}$.
 - For the overall expression, we're comparing $\tau(x)$ and $\tau(\text{if } y > 0 \text{ then } 17 \text{ else } y \text{ fi})$ for equality. I.e., we test $\underline{1} = \underline{17}$ and we get \underline{F} .
 - So $\tau(e) = \underline{F}$.
- **The empty state:** Since a state is a set of bindings, the empty set \emptyset is a state (the empty state). It's proper for any expression or predicate that doesn't include variables. E.g., In state \emptyset , the expression $2+2$ evaluates to four. (In fact, since we don't care about bindings for variables that don't appear in an expression, we can say that in any state σ , $2+2$ evaluates to 4.
- **Example 14:** Let $\sigma = \emptyset$ (the empty state) then
 - $\sigma(2+2 = 4) = \sigma(2+2)$ equals $\sigma(4) = \dots = \underline{4}$ equals $\underline{4} = \underline{T}$.
- With operators, you have to distinguish the syntactic symbol from the semantic symbol. So $\sigma(v+w) = \sigma(v) \underline{+} \sigma(w)$ is correct: The second plus is the semantic meaning of the syntactic symbol $+$. You could also write $\sigma(v+w) = \sigma(v) \textit{plus} \sigma(w)$; here, *plus* has a semantic meaning. (If the language under discussion includes an infix binary plus operator, then $\sigma(v \text{ plus } w)$ would be legal.)

G. Arrays and Their Values



- Compare the usual way we write states on the blackboard. Below, the left state is $\sigma = \{x = 1, y = F\} = \{(x, 1), (y, F)\}$. The right one, τ , defines an array variable b and an integer x .

- We'll take the value of an array to be a function from index values to stored values, so $\tau(b[0]) = 3$, $\tau(b[1]) = 5$, and $\tau(b[2]) = 9$. We could write $\tau = \{b[0] = 3, b[1] = 5, b[2] = 9, x = 5\} = \{(b[0], 3), (b[1], 5), (b[2], 9), (x, 5)\}$, but a more convenient notation would be nice.
- **Notation:** Let β be the function with $\beta(0) = 3$, $\beta(1) = 5$, $\beta(2) = 9$, then we can say $\tau = \{b = \beta, x = 5\} = \{(b, \beta), (x, 5)\}$. (I'm using a greek letter β because the function is semantic, taking index values to memory values.). Since a function is a set of ordered pairs, we can also write $\beta = \{(0, 3), (1, 5), (2, 9)\}$. Since β is actually a sequence, let's allow ourselves to abbreviate this to $\beta = (3, 5, 9)$. (Note this last notation looks like the graphical picture of τ .)
- We have a number of ways to express τ , all valid. Going from shortest to longest we have
 - $\tau = \{b = \beta, x = 5\}$ where $\beta = (3, 5, 9)$ A sequence
 - $\tau = \{b[0] = 3, b[1] = 5, b[2] = 9, x = 5\}$ A set of individual bindings
 - $\tau = \{b = \beta, x = 5\}$ where $\beta = \{(0, 3), (1, 5), (2, 9)\}$ A set of ordered pairs
 - $\tau = \{b = \beta, x = 5\}$ where $\beta(0) = 3, \beta(1) = 5, \beta(2) = 9$ A list of individual bindings

H. Value of An Array Indexing Expression

- Going back to the definition of the value of an expression in a state, here's the array case:
- $\sigma(b[e]) = \beta(\alpha)$ where $\beta = \sigma(b)$ and $\alpha = \sigma(e)$. The variable b is an array name, so $\sigma(b) =$ a function we're calling β . We call β on the **value** of the index expression e , hence $\alpha = \sigma(e)$, and the value $\beta(\alpha)$ is the meaning of $b[e]$.
- You can also write $\sigma(b[e]) = (\sigma(b))(\sigma(e))$ if you don't want to define α and β . Function application is left-associative, so $\sigma(b)(\sigma(e)) = (\sigma(b))(\sigma(e))$. I.e., $\sigma(b)$ is a function we're applying to $\sigma(e)$.
- So another way to write the definition is $\sigma(b[e]) = \sigma(b)(\sigma(e)) = \beta(\alpha)$ where $\beta = \sigma(b)$ and $\alpha = \sigma(e)$.
- With our earlier example then, $\sigma(b[x-4]) = \sigma(b)(\sigma(x-4)) = \beta(\sigma(x) \text{ minus four}) = \beta(5 \text{ minus four}) = \beta(1) = 5$, where β is as described earlier, $\beta = (3, 5, 9)$.
- **Example 15:** Let $\sigma = \{x = 1, b = \alpha\}$ where $\alpha = (2, 0, 4)$. Then
 - $\sigma(x) = 1$
 - $\sigma(x+1) = \sigma(x) + \sigma(1) = 1+1 = 2$
 - $\sigma(b) = \alpha$
 - $\sigma(b[x+1]) = (\sigma(b))(\sigma(x+1)) = \alpha(2) = 4$
 - If we don't want to write out the intermediate steps first, we could write
 - $\sigma(b[x+1]) = (\sigma(b))(\sigma(x+1)) = \alpha(\sigma(x)+1) = \alpha(1+1) = \alpha(2) = 4$.
- **Example 16:** Let $\sigma = \{x = 1, b = \alpha\}$ where $\alpha = (2, 0, 4)$, then
 - $\sigma(b[x+1]-2) = \sigma(b[x+1]) - \sigma(2) = (\sigma(b))(\sigma(x+1)) - 2$
 $= (\sigma(b))(\sigma(x)+1) - 2$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \alpha(\underline{1+1}) - \underline{2} \\ &= \underline{\alpha(2)-2} = \underline{4-2} = \underline{2}. \end{aligned}$$