

Programming Languages and Types

Klaus Ostermann

based on slides by Benjamin C. Pierce

Where we're going

Type Systems...

Type systems are one of the most fascinating and powerful aspects of programming languages.

I could take for hours about why type systems are important etc., but instead we will skip directly to our first type system (after discussing some preliminaries).

Going Meta...

In this part of the course we will be more mathematical than in the first part.

We will define languages in terms of formal syntax, operational semantics, and type system.

We treat *programs as mathematical objects* — i.e., we will be building mathematical theories whose basic objects of study are programs (and whole programming languages).

Jargon: We will be studying the *metatheory* of programming languages.

Basics of Induction (Review)

Induction

Principle of *ordinary induction* on natural numbers:

Suppose that P is a predicate on the natural numbers.

Then:

If $P(0)$

and, for all i , $P(i)$ implies $P(i + 1)$,

then $P(n)$ holds for all n .

Example

Theorem: $2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$, for every n .

Proof: Let $P(i)$ be “ $2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^i = 2^{i+1} - 1$.”

- ▶ Show $P(0)$:

$$2^0 = 1 = 2^1 - 1$$

- ▶ Show that $P(i)$ implies $P(i + 1)$:

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{i+1} &= (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^i) + 2^{i+1} \\ &= (2^{i+1} - 1) + 2^{i+1} && \text{by IH} \\ &= 2 \cdot (2^{i+1}) - 1 \\ &= 2^{i+2} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ The result ($P(n)$ for all n) follows by the principle of (ordinary) induction.

Shorthand form

Theorem: $2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$, for every n .

Proof: By induction on n .

- ▶ Base case ($n = 0$):

$$2^0 = 1 = 2^1 - 1$$

- ▶ Inductive case ($n = i + 1$):

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{i+1} &= (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^i) + 2^{i+1} \\ &= (2^{i+1} - 1) + 2^{i+1} && \text{IH} \\ &= 2 \cdot (2^{i+1}) - 1 \\ &= 2^{i+2} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Complete Induction

Principle of *complete induction* on natural numbers:

Suppose that P is a predicate on the natural numbers.

Then:

*If, for each natural number n ,
given $P(i)$ for all $i < n$
we can show $P(n)$,
then $P(n)$ holds for all n .*

Complete versus ordinary induction

Ordinary and complete induction are *interderivable* — assuming one, we can prove the other.

Thus, the choice of which to use for a particular proof is purely a question of style.

We'll see some other (equivalent) styles as we go along.

Syntax

Simple Arithmetic Expressions

Here is a BNF grammar for a very simple language of arithmetic expressions:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <code>t ::=</code> | <i>terms</i> |
| <code> true</code> | <i>constant true</i> |
| <code> false</code> | <i>constant false</i> |
| <code> if t then t else t</code> | <i>conditional</i> |
| <code> 0</code> | <i>constant zero</i> |
| <code> succ t</code> | <i>successor</i> |
| <code> pred t</code> | <i>predecessor</i> |
| <code> iszero t</code> | <i>zero test</i> |

Terminology:

- ▶ `t` here is a *metavariable*

Abstract vs. concrete syntax

Q: Does this grammar define a set of *character strings*, a set of *token lists*, or a set of *abstract syntax trees*?

Abstract vs. concrete syntax

Q: Does this grammar define a set of *character strings*, a set of *token lists*, or a set of *abstract syntax trees*?

A: In a sense, all three. But we are primarily interested, here, in abstract syntax trees.

For this reason, grammars like the one on the previous slide are sometimes called *abstract grammars*. An abstract grammar *defines* a set of abstract syntax trees and *suggests* a mapping from character strings to trees.

We then *write* terms as linear character strings rather than trees simply for convenience. If there is any potential confusion about what tree is intended, we use parentheses to disambiguate.

Q: So, are

`succ 0`

`succ (0)`

`((succ (((((0)))))))`

“the same term”?

What about

`succ 0`

`pred (succ (succ 0))`

?

A more explicit form of the definition

The set \mathcal{T} of *terms* is the smallest set such that

1. $\{\text{true}, \text{false}, 0\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$;
2. if $t_1 \in \mathcal{T}$, then $\{\text{succ } t_1, \text{pred } t_1, \text{iszero } t_1\} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$;
3. if $t_1 \in \mathcal{T}$, $t_2 \in \mathcal{T}$, and $t_3 \in \mathcal{T}$, then
if t_1 then t_2 else $t_3 \in \mathcal{T}$.

Inference rules

An alternate notation for the same definition:

$$\frac{\text{true} \in \mathcal{T}}{t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{\text{false} \in \mathcal{T}}{t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{0 \in \mathcal{T}}{t_1 \in \mathcal{T}}$$
$$\frac{}{\text{succ } t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{}{\text{pred } t_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \quad \frac{}{\text{iszero } t_1 \in \mathcal{T}}$$
$$\frac{t_1 \in \mathcal{T} \quad t_2 \in \mathcal{T} \quad t_3 \in \mathcal{T}}{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \in \mathcal{T}}$$

Note that “the smallest set closed under...” is implied (but often not stated explicitly).

Terminology:

- ▶ axiom vs. rule
- ▶ concrete rule vs. rule scheme

Terms, concretely

Define an infinite sequence of sets, $\mathcal{S}_0, \mathcal{S}_1, \mathcal{S}_2, \dots$, as follows:

$$\mathcal{S}_0 = \emptyset$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_{i+1} = & \{ \text{true}, \text{false}, 0 \} \\ & \cup \{ \text{succ } t_1, \text{pred } t_1, \text{iszero } t_1 \mid t_1 \in \mathcal{S}_i \} \\ & \cup \{ \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \mid t_1, t_2, t_3 \in \mathcal{S}_i \} \end{aligned}$$

Now let

$$\mathcal{S} = \bigcup_i \mathcal{S}_i$$

Comparing the definitions

We have seen two different presentations of terms:

1. as the *smallest* set that is *closed* under certain rules (\mathcal{T})
 - ▶ explicit inductive definition
 - ▶ BNF shorthand
 - ▶ inference rule shorthand
2. as the *limit* (\mathcal{S}) of a series of sets (of larger and larger terms)

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2. as the *limit* (\mathcal{S}) of a series of sets (of larger and larger terms)

What does it mean to assert that “these presentations are equivalent”?

Induction on Syntax

Why two definitions?

The two ways of defining the set of terms are both useful:

1. the definition of terms as the smallest set with a certain closure property is compact and easy to read
2. the definition of the set of terms as the limit of a sequence gives us an *induction principle* for proving things about terms...

Induction on Terms

Definition: The *depth* of a term t is the smallest i such that $t \in \mathcal{S}_i$.

From the definition of \mathcal{S} , it is clear that, if a term t is in \mathcal{S}_i , then all of its immediate subterms must be in \mathcal{S}_{i-1} , i.e., they must have strictly smaller depths.

This observation justifies the *principle of induction on terms*. Let P be a predicate on terms.

*If, for each term s ,
given $P(r)$ for all immediate subterms r of s
we can show $P(s)$,
then $P(t)$ holds for all t .*

Inductive Function Definitions

The set of constants appearing in a term t , written $Consts(t)$, is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} Consts(\text{true}) &= \{\text{true}\} \\ Consts(\text{false}) &= \{\text{false}\} \\ Consts(0) &= \{0\} \\ Consts(\text{succ } t_1) &= Consts(t_1) \\ Consts(\text{pred } t_1) &= Consts(t_1) \\ Consts(\text{iszero } t_1) &= Consts(t_1) \\ Consts(\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3) &= Consts(t_1) \cup Consts(t_2) \\ &\quad \cup Consts(t_3) \end{aligned}$$

Simple, right?

First question:

Normally, a “definition” just assigns a convenient name to a previously-known thing. But here, the “thing” on the right-hand side involves the very name that we are “defining”!

So in what sense is this a definition??

Second question:

Suppose we had written this instead...

The set of constants appearing in a term t , written $BadConsts(t)$, is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}BadConsts(true) &= \{true\} \\BadConsts(false) &= \{false\} \\BadConsts(0) &= \{0\} \\BadConsts(0) &= \{\} \\BadConsts(succ\ t_1) &= BadConsts(t_1) \\BadConsts(pred\ t_1) &= BadConsts(t_1) \\BadConsts(iszero\ t_1) &= BadConsts(iszero\ (iszero\ t_1))\end{aligned}$$

What is the essential difference between these two definitions?

How do we tell the difference between well-formed inductive definitions and ill-formed ones?

What, exactly, does a well-formed inductive definition mean?

What is a function?

Recall that a *function* f from A (its domain) to B (its co-domain) can be viewed as a two-place *relation* (called the “graph” of the function) with certain properties:

- ▶ It is *total*: Every element of its domain occurs at least once in its graph. More precisely:

For every $a \in A$, there exists some $b \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in f$.

- ▶ It is *deterministic*: every element of its domain occurs at most once in its graph. More precisely:

If $(a, b_1) \in f$ and $(a, b_2) \in f$, then $b_1 = b_2$.

We have seen how to define relations inductively. E.g....

Let *Consts* be the smallest two-place relation closed under the following rules:

$$(\text{true}, \{\text{true}\}) \in \text{Consts}$$

$$(\text{false}, \{\text{false}\}) \in \text{Consts}$$

$$(0, \{0\}) \in \text{Consts}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{Consts}}{(\text{succ } \text{t}_1, C) \in \text{Consts}}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{Consts}}{(\text{pred } \text{t}_1, C) \in \text{Consts}}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{Consts}}{(\text{iszero } \text{t}_1, C) \in \text{Consts}}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}_1, C_1) \in \text{Consts} \quad (\text{t}_2, C_2) \in \text{Consts} \quad (\text{t}_3, C_3) \in \text{Consts}}{(\text{if } \text{t}_1 \text{ then } \text{t}_2 \text{ else } \text{t}_3, (C_1 \cup C_2 \cup C_3)) \in \text{Consts}}$$

This definition certainly defines a *relation* (i.e., the smallest one with a certain closure property).

Q: How can we be sure that this relation is a *function*?

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Q: How can we be sure that this relation is a *function*?

A: *Prove it!*

Theorem:

The relation *Consts* defined by the inference rules a couple of slides ago is total and deterministic.

I.e., for each term t there is exactly one set of terms C such that $(t, C) \in \text{Consts}$.

Proof:

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Proof: By induction on t .

To apply the induction principle for terms, we must show, for an arbitrary term t , that if

for each immediate subterm s of t , there is exactly one set of terms C_s such that $(s, C_s) \in \text{Consts}$

then

there is exactly one set of terms C such that $(t, C) \in \text{Consts}$.

Proceed by cases on the form of t .

- ▶ If t is 0 , $true$, or $false$, then we can immediately see from the definition of *Consts* that there is exactly one set of terms C (namely $\{t\}$) such that $(t, C) \in \text{Consts}$.

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Similarly when t is `pred` t_1 or `iszero` t_1 .

- ▶ If t is `if s_1 then s_2 else s_3` , then the induction hypothesis tells us
 - ▶ there is exactly one set of terms C_1 such that $(t_1, C_1) \in \text{Consts}$
 - ▶ there is exactly one set of terms C_2 such that $(t_2, C_2) \in \text{Consts}$
 - ▶ there is exactly one set of terms C_3 such that $(t_3, C_3) \in \text{Consts}$

But then it is clear from the definition of *Consts* that there is exactly one set C (namely $C_1 \cup C_2 \cup C_3$) such that $(t, C) \in \text{Consts}$.

How about the bad definition?

$$(\text{true}, \{\text{true}\}) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$(\text{false}, \{\text{false}\}) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$(0, \{0\}) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$(0, \{\}) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}}{(\text{succ } \text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}}$$

$$(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$\frac{(\text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}}{(\text{pred } \text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}}$$

$$(\text{iszero } (\text{iszero } \text{t}_1), C) \in \text{BadConsts}$$

$$\frac{(\text{iszero } (\text{iszero } \text{t}_1), C) \in \text{BadConsts}}{(\text{iszero } \text{t}_1, C) \in \text{BadConsts}}$$

This set of rules defines a perfectly good *relation* — it's just that this relation does not happen to be a function!

Just for fun, let's calculate some cases of this relation...

- ▶ For what values of C do we have $(\text{false}, C) \in \text{BadConsts}$?

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- ▶ For what values of C do we have $(\text{iszero } 0, C) \in \text{BadConsts}$?

Another Inductive Definition

$size(true) = 1$
 $size(false) = 1$
 $size(0) = 1$
 $size(succ\ t_1) = size(t_1) + 1$
 $size(pred\ t_1) = size(t_1) + 1$
 $size(iszero\ t_1) = size(t_1) + 1$
 $size(if\ t_1\ then\ t_2\ else\ t_3) = size(t_1) + size(t_2) + size(t_3) + 1$

Another proof by induction

Theorem: The number of distinct constants in a term is at most the size of the term. I.e., $|Consts(t)| \leq size(t)$.

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There are “three” cases to consider:

Case: t is a constant

Immediate: $|Consts(t)| = |\{t\}| = 1 = size(t)$.

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There are “three” cases to consider:

Case: t is a constant

Immediate: $|Consts(t)| = |\{t\}| = 1 = size(t)$.

Case: $t = succ\ t_1, pred\ t_1, \text{ or } iszero\ t_1$

By the induction hypothesis, $|Consts(t_1)| \leq size(t_1)$. We now calculate as follows:

$|Consts(t)| = |Consts(t_1)| \leq size(t_1) < size(t)$.

Case: $t = \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$

By the induction hypothesis, $|\text{Consts}(t_1)| \leq \text{size}(t_1)$,
 $|\text{Consts}(t_2)| \leq \text{size}(t_2)$, and $|\text{Consts}(t_3)| \leq \text{size}(t_3)$. We now
calculate as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Consts}(t)| &= |\text{Consts}(t_1) \cup \text{Consts}(t_2) \cup \text{Consts}(t_3)| \\ &\leq |\text{Consts}(t_1)| + |\text{Consts}(t_2)| + |\text{Consts}(t_3)| \\ &\leq \text{size}(t_1) + \text{size}(t_2) + \text{size}(t_3) \\ &< \text{size}(t). \end{aligned}$$

Structural Operational Semantics (SOS)

Abstract Machines

An *abstract machine* consists of:

- ▶ a set of *states*
- ▶ a *transition relation* on states, written \longrightarrow

We read “ $t \longrightarrow t'$ ” as “ t reduces to t' ”.

A state records *all* the information in the machine at a given moment. For example, an abstract-machine-style description of a conventional microprocessor would include the program counter, the contents of the registers, the contents of main memory, and the machine code program being executed.

Abstract Machines

For the very simple languages we are considering at the moment, however, the term being reduced is the whole state of the abstract machine.

Nb. Often, the transition relation is actually a partial function: i.e., from a given state, there is at most one possible next state. But in general there may be many.

Operational semantics for Booleans

Syntax of terms and values

`t ::=`

`true`

`false`

`if t then t else t`

terms

constant true

constant false

conditional

`v ::=`

`true`

`false`

values

true value

false value

Reduction relation for Booleans

The reduction relation $t \rightarrow t'$ is the smallest relation closed under the following rules:

`if true then t2 else t3 → t2 (E-IFTRUE)`

`if false then t2 else t3 → t3 (E-IFFALSE)`

$$\frac{t_1 \rightarrow t'_1}{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \rightarrow \text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3} \text{ (E-IF)}$$

Terminology

Computation rules:

`if true then t2 else t3 → t2 (E-IFTRUE)`

`if false then t2 else t3 → t3 (E-IFFALSE)`

Congruence rule:

$$\frac{t_1 \rightarrow t'_1}{\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \rightarrow \text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3} \text{ (E-IF)}$$

Computation rules perform “real” computation steps.

Congruence rules determine *where* computation rules can be applied next.

Reduction, more explicitly

\longrightarrow is the smallest two-place relation closed under the following rules:

$$((\text{if true then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3), t_2) \in \longrightarrow$$

$$((\text{if false then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3), t_3) \in \longrightarrow$$

$$\frac{(t_1, t'_1) \in \longrightarrow}{((\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3), (\text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3)) \in \longrightarrow}$$

The notation $t \longrightarrow t'$ is short-hand for $(t, t') \in \longrightarrow$.

Digression

Suppose we wanted to change our evaluation strategy so that the `then` and `else` branches of an `if` get reduced (in that order) before the guard. How would we need to change the rules?

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Suppose, moreover, that if the evaluation of the `then` and `else` branches leads to the same value, we want to immediately produce that value (“short-circuiting” the reduction of the guard). How would we need to change the rules?

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Suppose, moreover, that if the evaluation of the `then` and `else` branches leads to the same value, we want to immediately produce that value (“short-circuiting” the reduction of the guard). How would we need to change the rules?

Of the rules we just invented, which are computation rules and which are congruence rules?

Reasoning about Reduction

Derivations

We can record the “justification” for a particular pair of terms that are in the reduction relation in the form of a tree.

(on the board)

Terminology:

- ▶ These trees are called *derivation trees* (or just *derivations*).
- ▶ The final statement in a derivation is its *conclusion*.
- ▶ We say that the derivation is a *witness* for its conclusion (or a *proof* of its conclusion) — it records all the reasoning steps that justify the conclusion.

Observation

Lemma: Suppose we are given a derivation tree \mathcal{D} witnessing the pair (t, t') in the reduction relation. Then either

1. the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IFTRUE and we have $t = \text{if true then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ and $t' = t_2$, for some t_2 and t_3 , or
2. the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IFFALSE and we have $t = \text{if false then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ and $t' = t_3$, for some t_2 and t_3 , or
3. the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IF and we have $t = \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ and $t' = \text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$, for some t_1, t'_1, t_2 , and t_3 ; moreover, the immediate subderivation of \mathcal{D} witnesses $(t_1, t'_1) \in \rightarrow$.

Induction on Derivations

We can now write proofs about reduction “by induction on derivation trees.”

Given an arbitrary derivation \mathcal{D} with conclusion $t \rightarrow t'$, we assume the desired result for its immediate sub-derivation (if any) and proceed by a case analysis (using the previous lemma) of the final reduction rule used in constructing the derivation tree.

E.g....

Induction on Derivations — Example

Theorem: If $t \longrightarrow t'$, i.e., if $(t, t') \in \longrightarrow$, then $size(t) > size(t')$.

Proof: By induction on a derivation \mathcal{D} of $t \longrightarrow t'$.

1. Suppose the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IFTRUE, with $t = \text{if true then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ and $t' = t_2$. Then the result is immediate from the definition of *size*.
2. Suppose the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IFFALSE, with $t = \text{if false then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ and $t' = t_3$. Then the result is again immediate from the definition of *size*.
3. Suppose the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IF, with $t = \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$ and $t' = \text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$, where $(t_1, t'_1) \in \longrightarrow$ is witnessed by a derivation \mathcal{D}_1 . By the induction hypothesis, $size(t_1) > size(t'_1)$. But then, by the definition of *size*, we have $size(t) > size(t')$.

Normal forms

A *normal form* is a term that cannot be evaluated any further — i.e., a term t is a normal form (or “is in normal form”) if there is no t' such that $t \rightarrow t'$.

A normal form is a state where the abstract machine is halted — i.e., it can be regarded as a “result” of evaluation.

Normal forms

A *normal form* is a term that cannot be evaluated any further — i.e., a term t is a normal form (or “is in normal form”) if there is no t' such that $t \rightarrow t'$.

A normal form is a state where the abstract machine is halted — i.e., it can be regarded as a “result” of evaluation.

Recall that we intended the set of *values* (the boolean constants `true` and `false`) to be exactly the possible “results of evaluation.” Did we get this definition right?

Values = normal forms

Theorem: A term t is a value iff it is in normal form.

Proof:

The \implies direction is immediate from the definition of the reduction relation.

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For the \impliedby direction, it is convenient to prove the contrapositive: If t is *not* a value, then it is *not* a normal form. The argument goes by induction on t .

Note, first, that t must have the form `if t_1 then t_2 else t_3` (otherwise it would be a value). If t_1 is `true` or `false`, then rule E-IFTRUE or E-IFFALSE applies to t , and we are done.

Otherwise, t_1 is not a value and so, by the induction hypothesis, there is some t'_1 such that $t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1$. But then rule E-IF yields

$$\text{if } t_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3 \longrightarrow \text{if } t'_1 \text{ then } t_2 \text{ else } t_3$$

i.e., t is not in normal form.

Numbers

New syntactic forms

`t ::= ...`

`0`

`succ t`

`pred t`

`iszero t`

terms

constant zero

successor

predecessor

zero test

`v ::= ...`

`nv`

values

numeric value

`nv ::=`

`0`

`succ nv`

numeric values

zero value

successor value

New reduction rules

$$\boxed{t \longrightarrow t'}$$

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\text{succ } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{succ } t'_1} \quad (\text{E-SUCC})$$

$$\text{pred } 0 \longrightarrow 0 \quad (\text{E-PREDZERO})$$

$$\text{pred } (\text{succ } nv_1) \longrightarrow nv_1 \quad (\text{E-PREDSUCC})$$

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\text{pred } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{pred } t'_1} \quad (\text{E-PRED})$$

$$\text{iszero } 0 \longrightarrow \text{true} \quad (\text{E-ISZEROZERO})$$

$$\text{iszero } (\text{succ } nv_1) \longrightarrow \text{false} \quad (\text{E-ISZEROSUCC})$$

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1}{\text{iszero } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{iszero } t'_1} \quad (\text{E-ISZERO})$$

Values are normal forms

Our observation a few slides ago that all values are in normal form still holds for the extended language.

Is the converse true? I.e., is every normal form a value?

Values are normal forms, but we have stuck terms

Our observation a few slides ago that all values are in normal form still holds for the extended language.

Is the converse true? I.e., is every normal form a value?

No: some terms are *stuck*.

Formally, a stuck term is one that is a normal form but not a value.
What are some examples?

Stuck terms model run-time errors.

Multi-step reduction.

The *multi-step reduction* relation, \longrightarrow^* , is the reflexive, transitive closure of single-step evaluation. We also call it the *evaluation relation*.

I.e., it is the smallest relation closed under the following rules:

$$\frac{t \longrightarrow t'}{t \longrightarrow^* t'}$$

$$t \longrightarrow^* t$$

$$\frac{t \longrightarrow^* t' \quad t' \longrightarrow^* t''}{t \longrightarrow^* t''}$$

Termination of reduction

Theorem: For every t there is some normal form t' such that $t \longrightarrow^* t'$.

Proof:

Termination of reduction

Theorem: For every t there is some normal form t' such that $t \longrightarrow^* t'$.

Proof:

- ▶ First, recall that reduction strictly reduces the size of the term:

$$\text{if } t \longrightarrow t', \text{ then } \text{size}(t) > \text{size}(t')$$

- ▶ Now, assume (for a contradiction) that

$$t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, \dots$$

is an infinite-length sequence such that

$$t_0 \longrightarrow t_1 \longrightarrow t_2 \longrightarrow t_3 \longrightarrow t_4 \longrightarrow \dots$$

- ▶ Then

$$\text{size}(t_0) > \text{size}(t_1) > \text{size}(t_2) > \text{size}(t_3) > \dots$$

- ▶ But such a sequence cannot exist — contradiction!

Termination Proofs

Most termination proofs have the same basic form:

Theorem: *The relation $R \subseteq X \times X$ is terminating — i.e., there are no infinite sequences x_0, x_1, x_2 , etc. such that $(x_i, x_{i+1}) \in R$ for each i .*

Proof:

1. Choose
 - ▶ a well-founded set $(W, <)$ — i.e., a set W with a partial order $<$ such that there are no infinite descending chains $w_0 > w_1 > w_2 > \dots$ in W
 - ▶ a function f from X to W
2. Show $f(x) > f(y)$ for all $(x, y) \in R$
3. Conclude that there are no infinite sequences x_0, x_1, x_2 , etc. such that $(x_i, x_{i+1}) \in R$ for each i , since, if there were, we could construct an infinite descending chain in W .