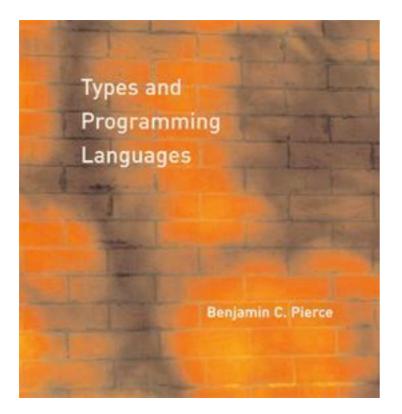
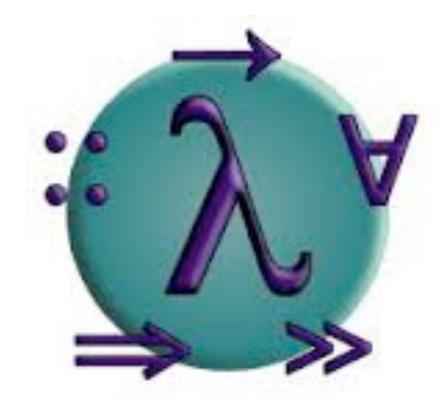
Programming Languages Fall 2014





Lecture 3: Induction and Operational Semantics

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Recursive Data Types (trees)

Prelude> eval (ATimes (APlus (ANum 5) (ANum 6)) (ANum 7)) 77

-- this tree corresponds to the expression ((5+6)*7)

HW2: lexer vl

```
*Main> mylex "(( 12 +340 )* )"
[LParen, LParen, Number 12, Plus, Number 340, RParen, Times, RParen]
mylex' :: [Char] -> [Token]
mylex' [] = []
mylex' (x:xs)
        x `elem` ['0'..'9'] = (Number (digitToInt x)):(mylex' xs)

      x == '('
      = LParen:(mylex' xs)

      x == ')'
      = RParen:(mylex' xs)

      x == '+'
      = Plus:(mylex' xs)

      x == '-'
      = Minus:(mylex' xs)

      x == '*'
      = Times:(mylex' xs)

      x == ''
      = mylex' xs

        otherwise
                          = error "Bad"
mylex2 :: [Token] -> Int -> Bool -> [Token]
mylex2 [] False = []
mylex2 [] x True = [Number x]
mylex2 ((Number y):xs) d state = mylex2 xs (d*10+y) True
mylex2 (x:xs) d True = (Number d):x:(mylex2 xs 0 False)
mylex2 (x:xs) d False = x:(mylex2 xs 0 False)
mylex :: [Char] -> [Token]
mylex xs = mylex2 (mylex' xs) 0 False
```

HW2: lexer v2

```
*Main> mylex "(( 12 +340 )* )"
[LParen,LParen,Number 12,Plus,Number 340,RParen,Times,RParen]
mylex' :: [Char] -> [Token]
mylex' [] = []
mylex' (x:xs)
      x `elem` ['0'..'9'] = (Number (digitToInt x)):(mylex' xs)
     isOperator x = (operatorToToken x):(mylex' xs)
x == ' ' = mylex' xs
      otherwise = error "Bad"
isOperator x = x `elem` ['+', '-', '*', '(', ')']
operatorToToken '*' = Times
operatorToToken '-' = Minus
operatorToToken '+' = Plus
operatorToToken '(' = LParen
operatorToToken ')' = RParen
• • •
```

HW2: parser (assuming correct input)

```
*Main> parse [LParen, Number 3, Times, LParen, Number 5, Plus, Number 6,
RParen, RParen, Times]
(ATimes (ANum 3) (APlus (ANum 5) (ANum 6)),[Times])
*Main> calc "((1+2)*3)"
9
```

```
parse :: [Token] -> (Ast, [Token])
parse ((Number y):xs) = (ANum y, xs)
parse (LParen:xs) = ((opToNode op) left right, remainder)
    where (left, op:rest) = parse xs
        (right, RParen:remainder) = parse rest
opToNode :: Token -> Ast -> Ast -> Ast
opToNode Times = ATimes
opToNode Plus = APlus
opToNode Minus = AMinus
calc :: [Char] -> Int
calc = eval . fst . parse . mylex
```

Going Meta...

The functional programming style used in OCaml is based on treating programs as data — i.e., on writing functions that manipulate other functions as their inputs and outputs.

Everything in this course is based on treating 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.

Warning!

The material in the next couple of lectures is more slippery than it may first appear.

"I believe it when I hear it" is not a sufficient test of understanding.

A much better test is "I can explain it so that someone else believes it."

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

Proof:

- Let P(i) be "2⁰ + 2¹ + ... + 2ⁱ = 2ⁱ⁺¹ 1."
- Show P(0):

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

• Show that P(i) implies P(i+1):

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i+1} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i}) + 2^{i+1}$$
$$= (2^{i+1} - 1) + 2^{i+1} \qquad by IH$$
$$= 2 \cdot (2^{i+1}) - 1$$
$$= 2^{i+2} - 1$$

• The result (P(n) for all n) follows by the principle of induction.

Shorthand form

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

Proof: By induction on n.

• Base case (n = 0):

$$2^{\circ} = 1 = 2^{1} - 1$$

• Inductive case (n = i + 1):

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i+1} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{i}) + 2^{i+1}$$
$$= (2^{i+1} - 1) + 2^{i+1} \qquad \text{IH}$$
$$= 2 \cdot (2^{i+1}) - 1$$
$$= 2^{i+2} - 1$$

What's wrong w/ this induction?

Theorem(?!): All horses are the same color.

Proof: Let P(n) be the predicate "in all non-empty collections of n horses, all the horses are the same color." We show that P(n) holds for all n by induction on n (using 1 as the base case). **Base case**: Clearly, P(1) holds.

Induction case: Given P(n), we must show P(n+1).

Consider an arbitrary collection of n + 1 horses. Remove one horse temporarily. Now we have n horses and hence, by the induction hypothesis, these n horses are all the same color. Now call the exiled horse back and send a different horse away. Again, we have a collection of n horses, which, by the induction hypothesis, are all the same color. Moreover, these n horses are the same color as the first collection. Thus, the horse we brought back was the same color as the second horse we sent away, and all the n + 1 horses are the same color.

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.
```

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.
```

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

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.



Simple Arithmetic Expressions

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

t	::=		terms
		true	constant true
		false	constant false
		if t then t else t	conditional
		0	constant zero
		succ t	successor
		pred t	predecessor
		iszero t	zero test

Terminology:

t here is a metavariable

Abstract vs. concrete syntax

Q1: 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

Q1: 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. {true, false, 0} $\subseteq \mathcal{T}$;
- 2. if $t_1 \in \mathcal{T}$, then {succ t_1 , pred t_1 , 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:

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \operatorname{true} \in \mathcal{T} & \operatorname{false} \in \mathcal{T} & 0 \in \mathcal{T} \\ \\ \frac{\operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{succ} \operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T}} & \frac{\operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{pred} \operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T}} & \frac{\operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{iszero} \operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T}} \\ \\ \\ \frac{\operatorname{t}_1 \in \mathcal{T} & \operatorname{t}_2 \in \mathcal{T} & \operatorname{t}_3 \in \mathcal{T}}{\operatorname{if} \operatorname{t}_1 \operatorname{then} \operatorname{t}_2 \operatorname{else} \operatorname{t}_3 \in \mathcal{T}} \end{array}$

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, S_0 , S_1 , S_2 , ..., as follows:

$$S_{i} = \emptyset$$

$$S_{i+1} = \{ \text{true, false, 0} \}$$

$$\bigcup \{ \text{succ } t_{1}, \text{ pred } t_{1}, \text{ iszero } t_{1} \mid t_{1} \in S_{i} \}$$

$$\bigcup \{ \text{if } t_{1} \text{ then } t_{2} \text{ else } t_{3} \mid t_{1}, t_{2}, t_{3} \in S_{i} \}$$

Now let

$$S = \bigcup_{i} S_{i}$$

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 (S) of a series of sets (of larger and larger terms)

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

prove it! (HW3)

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 $t \in S_i$.

From the definition of S, it is clear that, if a term t is in S_i , then all of its immediate subterms must be in 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:

Consts (true)	=	{true}
Consts (false)	=	{false}
Consts(0)	=	{0}
$Consts(succ t_1)$	=	$Consts(t_1)$
$Consts(pred t_1)$	=	$Consts(t_1)$
Consts (iszero t ₁)	=	$Consts(t_1)$
$Consts(if t_1 then t_2 else t_3)$	=	$\textbf{Consts}(\texttt{t}_1) \cup \textbf{Consts}(\texttt{t}_2) \cup \textbf{Consts}(\texttt{t}_3)$

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:

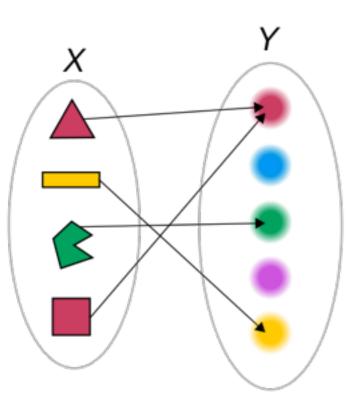
BadConsts (true)	=	{true}
BadConsts (false)	=	{false}
BadConsts(0)	=	{0}
BadConsts(0)	=	{}
$BadConsts(succ t_1)$	=	$BadConsts(t_1)$
$BadConsts(pred t_1)$	=	$BadConsts(t_1)$
$BadConsts(iszero t_1)$	—	$BadConsts(iszero (iszero t_1))$

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?

First, recall that a function 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
- It is deterministic: every element of its domain occurs at most once in its graph.



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

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

```
(true, {true}) \in Consts
                            (false, \{false\}) \in Consts
                                 (0, \{0\}) \in Consts
                                 (t_1, C) \in Consts
                              (\texttt{succ } t_1, C) \in \texttt{Consts}
                                 (t_1, C) \in Consts
                              (pred t_1, C) \in Consts
                                 (t_1, C) \in Consts
                             (iszero t_1, C) \in Consts
       (t_1, C_1) \in Consts (t_2, C_2) \in Consts (t_3, C_3) \in Consts
(if t_1 then t_2 else t_3, (Consts(t_1) \cup Consts(t_2) \cup Consts(t_3))) \in 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.

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

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 $(s,C_s)\in Consts$

then

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

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) ∈ Consts.

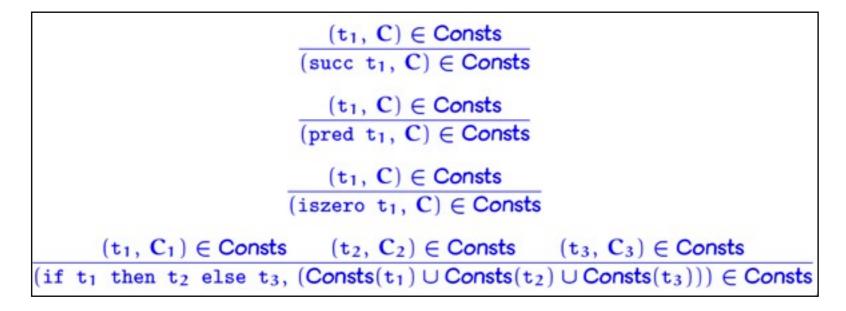
Proceed by cases on the form of t.

- ♦ 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) ∈ Consts.
- ♦ If t is succ t₁, then the induction hypothesis tells us that there is exactly one set of terms C_1 such that $(t_1, C_1) \in Consts$. But then it is clear from the definition of Consts that there is exactly one set C (namely C_1) such that $(t, C) \in Consts$.

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Similarly when t is pred t_1 or iszero t_1 .



XIS 500, 15 September

♦ If t is if s₁ then s₂ else s₃, then the induction hypothesis tells us
• there is exactly one set of terms C₁ such that (t₁, C₁) ∈ Consts
• there is exactly one set of terms C₂ such that (t₂, C₃) ∈ Consts
• there is exactly one set of terms C₃ such that (t₃, C₃) ∈ Consts
But then it is clear from the definition of Consts that there is exactly one set C (namely C₁ ∪ C₂ ∪ C₃) such that (t, C) ∈ Consts.

	17	$(t_1, C) \in Consts$ (pred $t_1, C) \in Consts$	
		$(t_1, C) \in Consts$ iszero $t_1, C) \in Consts$	
(t_1, C)	30780 S.G. 308	$(t_2, C_2) \in Consts$	Manager and the second second

XIS 500, 15 September

How about the bad definition?

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

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

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

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

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

 $\frac{(t_1, C) \in BadConsts}{(pred t_1, C) \in BadConsts}$

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

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 $(false, C) \in Consts$?
- For what values of C do we have $(succ 0, C) \in Consts$?
- For what values of C do we have (if false then 0 else $0, C) \in Consts$?
- For what values of C do we have $(iszero 0, C) \in Consts?$

Another Inductive Definition

<pre>size(true)</pre>	=	1
<pre>size(false)</pre>	=	1
size(0)	=	1
$size(succ t_1)$	=	$size(t_1) + 1$
<pre>size(pred t1)</pre>	=	$size(t_1) + 1$
size(iszero t ₁)	=	$size(t_1) + 1$
$size(if t_1 then t_2 else t_3)$	=	$size(t_1) + size(t_2) + size(t_3) + 1$

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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Assuming the desired property for immediate subterms of t, we must prove it for t itself.

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:

```
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```

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

```
Case: t = succ t_1, pred t_1, or iszero t_1
```

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

Case: $t = if t_1$ then t_2 else t_3

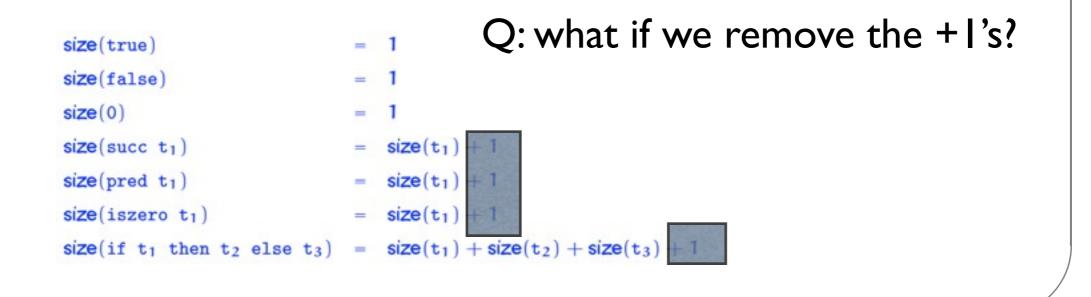
By the induction hypothesis, $|Consts(t_1)| \le size(t_1)$, $|Consts(t_2)| \le size(t_2)$, and $|Consts(t_3)| \le size(t_3)$. We now calculate as follows:

```
|Consts(t)| = |Consts(t_1) \cup Consts(t_2) \cup Consts(t_3)|
```

 $\leq |\text{Consts}(t_1)| + |\text{Consts}(t_2)| + |\text{Consts}(t_3)|$

$$\leq$$
 size(t₁) + size(t₂) + size(t₃)

< size(t).



Operational Semantics

Abstract Machines

An abstract machine consists of:

- ♦ a set of states
- \blacklozenge a transition relation on states, written \longrightarrow

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.

For the very simple languages we are considering at the moment, however, the term being evaluated 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

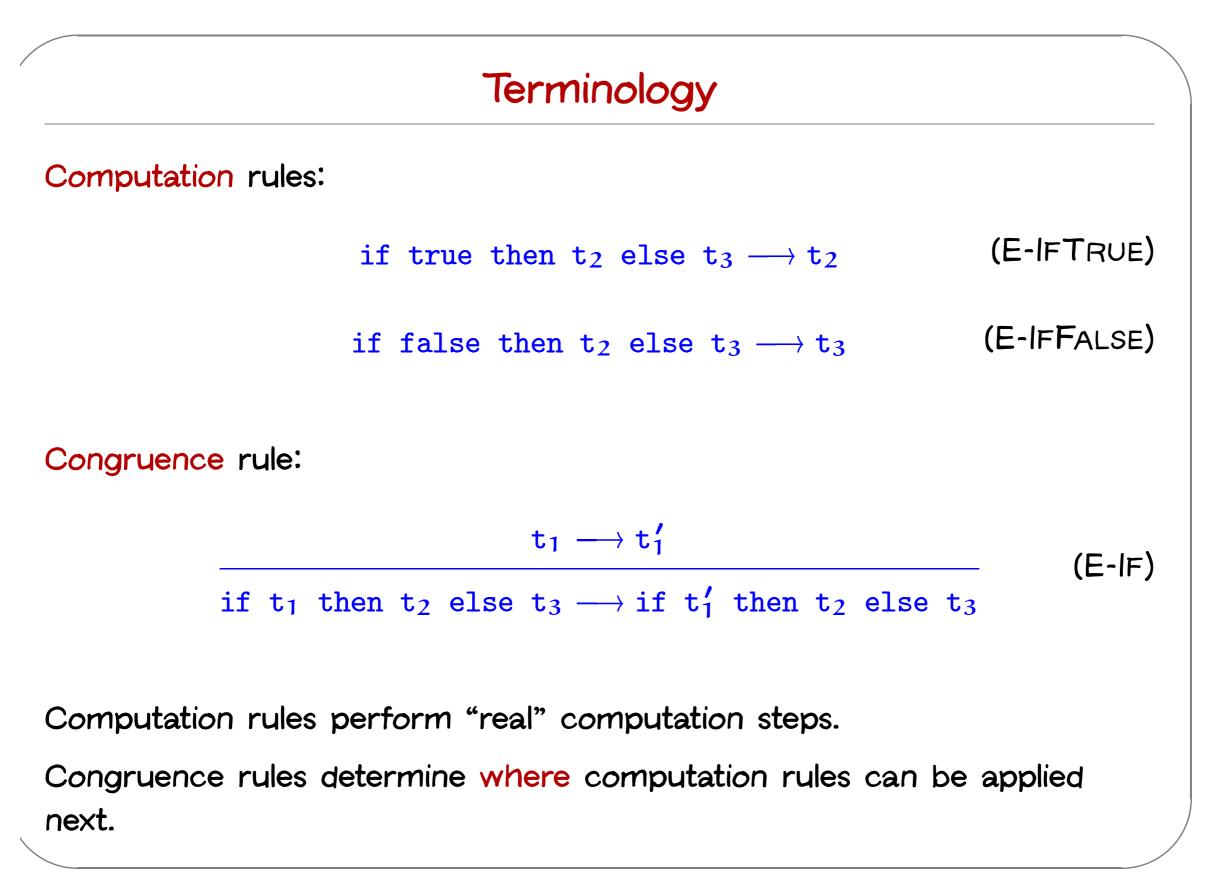
Syntax	of	terms	and	val	ues	
t ::=						

••	
	true
	false
	if t then t else t

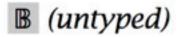
v ::=

true false terms constant true constant false conditional values true value false value The evaluation relation ${\bf t} \longrightarrow {\bf t'}$ is the smallest relation closed under the following rules:

if true then
$$t_2$$
 else $t_3 \longrightarrow t_2$ (E-IFTRUE)
if false then t_2 else $t_3 \longrightarrow t_3$ (E-IFFALSE)
 $t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1$ (E-IF)
if t_1 then t_2 else $t_3 \longrightarrow$ if t'_1 then t_2 else t_3



Syntax/Semantics of Untyped Booleans



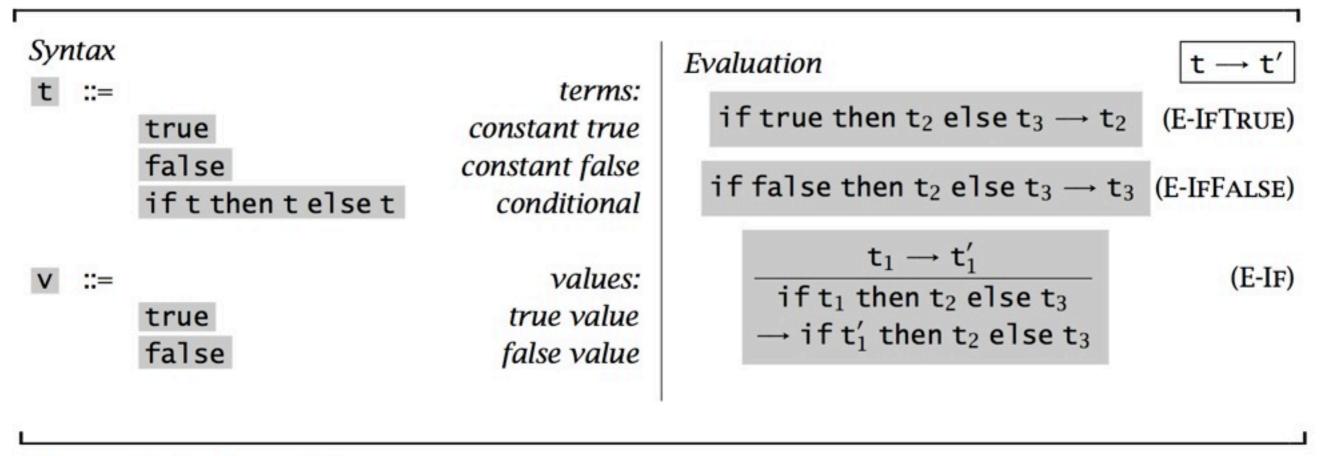


Figure 3-1: Booleans (B)

syntax is about structure and grammaticality, but no meaning

semantics is about the meaning and relationship to the real world Evaluation, more explicitly

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

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

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

$$(t_1, t'_1) \in \longrightarrow$$

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

Digression

Suppose we wanted to change our evaluation strategy so that the then and else branches of an if get evaluated (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 evaluation 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 evaluation 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?

Evaluation, more explicitly

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

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

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

$$(t_1, t'_1) \in \longrightarrow$$

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

Even more explicitly...

What is the generating function corresponding to these rules?

(exercise)

Reasoning about Evaluation

Derivations

We can record the "justification" for a particular pair of terms that are in the evaluation 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.

Derivation Tree

- currently, the derivation tree is always a sequence, never branching, since no rules require more than one premises
- but later in this course we'll see real trees

$$s \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} if true then false else false t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} if s then true else true u \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} if false then true else true$$

$$\frac{1}{s \rightarrow false} \xrightarrow{E-IFTRUE} E-IF$$

$$t \rightarrow u \qquad E-IF$$

if t then false else false \rightarrow if u then false else false

Observation

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

- 1. the final rule used in \mathcal{D} is E-IFTRUE and we have t = if true then t_2 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 $t = if false then t_2 else t_3$ 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

 $t = if t_1$ then t_2 else t_3 and $t' = if t'_1$ then t_2 else t_3 , for some t_1, t'_1, t_2 , and t_3 ; moreover, the immediate subderivation of \mathcal{D} witnesses $(t_1, t'_1) \in \longrightarrow$.

Induction on Derivations

We can now write proofs about evaluation "by induction on derivation trees."

Given an arbitrary derivation \mathcal{D} with conclusion $t \longrightarrow t'$, 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 evaluation rule used in constructing the derivation tree.

E.g....

Induction on Derivations — Example

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

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 = if true then t_2 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 $t = if false then t_2 else t_3$ 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 $t = if t_1$ then t_2 else t_3 and $t' = if t'_1$ then t_2 else t_3 , where $(t_1, t'_1) \in \longrightarrow$ is witnessed by a derivation \mathcal{D}_{∞} . 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

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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:

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Proof: The \implies direction is immediate from the definition of the evaluation relation.

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For the \leftarrow direction, it is convenient to prove the contrapositive: If t is not a value, then it is not a normal form.

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 evaluation relation.

For the \leftarrow 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

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

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

Numbers

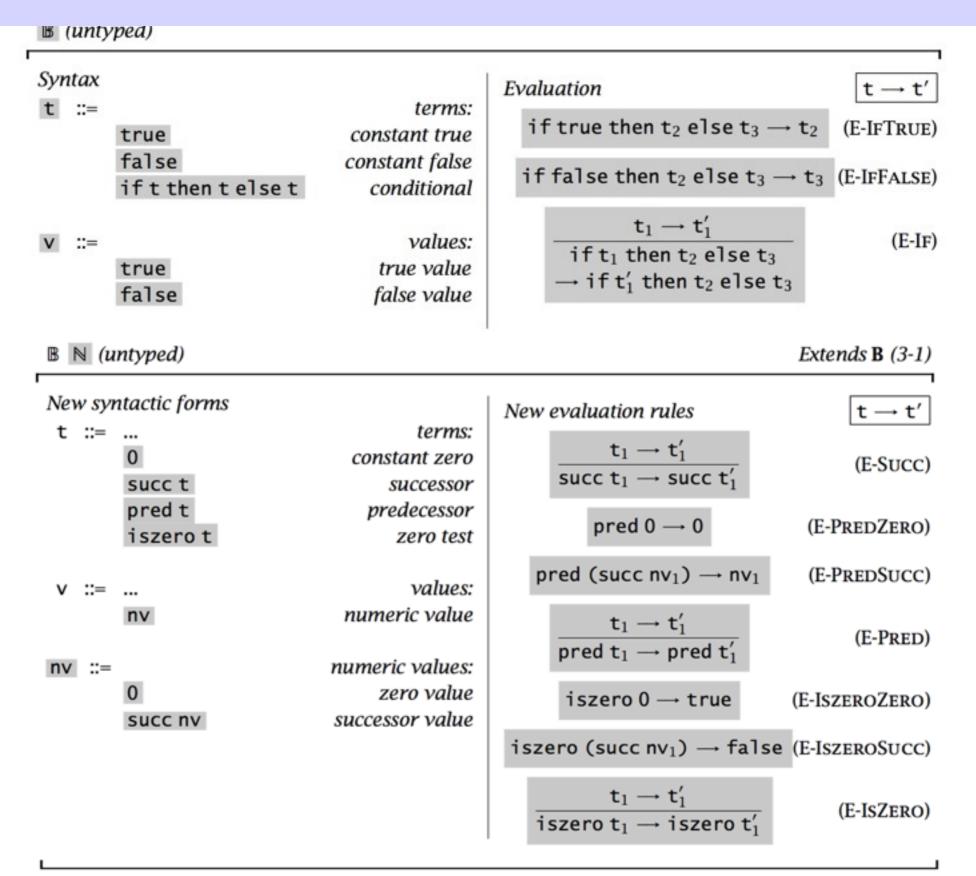
New syntactic forms				
t ::=	•••	terms		
	0	constant zero		
	succ t	successor		
	pred t	predecessor		
	iszero t	zero test		
v ::=	•••	values		
	nv	numeric value		
nv ::=		numeric values		
	0	zero value		
	succ nv	successor value		

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New evaluation rules $t \longrightarrow t'$ $t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1$ (E-Succ) succ $t_1 \longrightarrow succ t'_1$ (E-PREDZERO) pred $0 \longrightarrow 0$ (E-PREDSUCC) pred (succ nv_1) $\longrightarrow nv_1$ $t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1$ (E-PRED) pred $t_1 \longrightarrow \text{pred } t'_1$ (E-ISZEROZERO) iszero $0 \longrightarrow true$ (E-IszeroSucc) iszero (succ nv_1) \longrightarrow false $t_1 \longrightarrow t'_1$ (E-IsZERO) iszero $t_1 \longrightarrow iszero t'_1$

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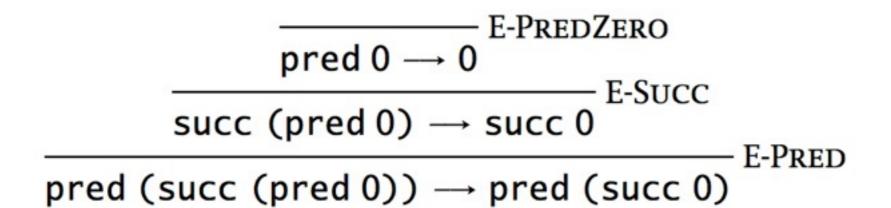
Syntax/Semantics of Arithmetics



A Derivation Tree

B ℕ (untyped)			Extends B (3-1)	
New syntactic forms t ::= terms: 0 constant zero succt successor	New evaluation rules $\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \rightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{ \mathtt{succ} \mathtt{t}_1 \rightarrow \mathtt{succ} \mathtt{t}_1'}$	$t \rightarrow t'$ (E-SUCC)		
pred t iszero t	iszero t zero test	pred $0 \longrightarrow 0$	(E-PredZero)	
v ::=		$\texttt{pred (succ nv}_1) \rightarrow \texttt{nv}_1$	(E-PREDSUCC)	
			$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \mathtt{t}_1'}{\texttt{pred} \mathtt{t}_1 \longrightarrow \texttt{pred} \mathtt{t}_1'}$	(E-Pred)
0		iszero 0 \rightarrow true	(E-ISZEROZERO)	
		iszero (succ nv ₁) \rightarrow false	e (E-ISZEROSUCC)	
		$\frac{\texttt{t}_1 \rightarrow \texttt{t}_1'}{\texttt{iszero}\texttt{t}_1 \rightarrow \texttt{iszero}\texttt{t}_1'}$	(E-ISZERO)	

Figure 3-2: Arithmetic expressions (NB)



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?

Stuck terms

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.

Stuck terms model run-time errors.

if 0 then true else false

syntax says it's grammatical, but there is no semantic rule to apply

what's the problem? => type mismatch
the "t" in "if t ..." should be a boolean!
 (don't think in the C/C++ way!)

(untyped) Syntax t ::= terms: true constant true false constant false if t then t else t conditional values: V ::= true value true false false value $\mathbb{B} \mathbb{N}$ (untyped) New syntactic forms t ::= ... terms: 0 constant zero succ t successor pred t predecessor iszero t zero test values: v ::= ... numeric value nv numeric values: nv ::= zero value successor value succ nv

Syntactic Error and Types

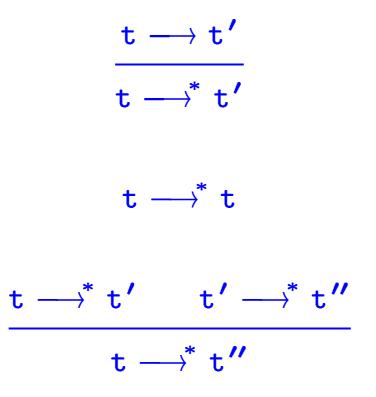
- syntactic error: I want to going.
 I eat with slowly.
- semantic error: colorless green ideas sleep furiously (Chomsky)
- PL's job is to catch more errors as (static) syntactic errors.

B (typed)	Extends B (3-1)			
New syntactic forms	New typing rules	t:T		
T ::= types: Bool type of booleans	true:Bool	(T-TRUE)	S	\rightarrow NP VP
boot spe of booleans	false:Bool	(T-FALSE)	S	\rightarrow S conj S
	t_1 : Bool t_2 : T t_3 :	т	NP	\rightarrow Noun
	if t_1 then t_2 else t_3 : T	— (T-IF)	NP	\rightarrow Det Noun
Figure 8-1: Typing rules for booleans (B)			NP	\rightarrow NP PP
	Euton do N	(2,2) and $(2,1)$	NP	\rightarrow NP conj NP
$\mathbb{B} \mathbb{N}$ (typed)	Extends	NB (3-2) and 8-1	VP	\rightarrow Verb
New syntactic forms T ::= types:	t ₁ :Nat (T-SUCC)	VP	\rightarrow Verb NP	
Nat type of natural numbers	<pre>succ t1 : Nat</pre>		VP	\rightarrow Verb NP NP
New typing rules t:T	$\frac{t_1 : Nat}{pred t_1 : Nat}$	(T-Pred)	VP	\rightarrow VP PP
0:Nat (T-ZERO)	t ₁ :Nat	(T Ic7mo)	PP	\rightarrow P NP
	iszerot ₁ :Bool	(T-ISZERO)		00

Multi-step evaluation.

The multi-step evaluation relation, \longrightarrow^* , is the reflexive, transitive closure of single-step evaluation.

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



Termination of evaluation

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

Termination of evaluation

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

First, recall that single-step evaluation strictly reduces the size of the term:

```
if t \rightarrow t', then size(t) > size(t')
```

♦ Now, assume (for a contradiction) that

```
t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, \ldots
```

is an infinite-length sequence such that

 $\texttt{t}_0, \longrightarrow \texttt{t}_1, \longrightarrow \texttt{t}_2, \longrightarrow \texttt{t}_3, \longrightarrow \texttt{t}_4 \longrightarrow \boldsymbol{\cdot}_{\textbf{\cdot}_{ \dots} {\cdot}_{\textbf{\cdot}_{\textbf{\cdot}_{\textbf{\cdot}_{\textbf{\cdot}_{n}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}$

Then

```
size(t_0), size(t_1), size(t_2), size(t_3), size(t_4), ...
```

is an infinite, strictly decreasing, sequence of natural numbers.

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
 - \bullet 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 $(x_i, x_{i+1}) \in \mathbb{R}$ for each i), since, if there were, we could construct an infinite descending chain in W.

Big-Step Semantics

v↓v	(B-VALUE)
$\begin{array}{ccc} \texttt{t}_1 \Downarrow \texttt{true} & \texttt{t}_2 \Downarrow \texttt{v}_2 \\ \hline \texttt{ift}_1 \texttt{thent}_2 \texttt{elset}_3 \Downarrow \texttt{v}_2 \end{array}$	(B-IFTRUE)
$\begin{array}{ccc} t_1 \Downarrow false & t_3 \Downarrow v_3 \\ \hline ift_1 then t_2 else t_3 \Downarrow v_3 \end{array}$	(B-IFFALSE)
$\frac{\texttt{t}_1 \Downarrow \texttt{nv}_1}{\texttt{succ } \texttt{t}_1 \Downarrow \texttt{succ } \texttt{nv}_1}$	(B-Succ)
$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \Downarrow \mathtt{0}}{\mathtt{pred} \mathtt{t}_1 \Downarrow \mathtt{0}}$	(B-PredZero)
$\frac{\mathtt{t}_1 \Downarrow \mathtt{succ} \mathtt{nv}_1}{\mathtt{pred} \mathtt{t}_1 \Downarrow \mathtt{nv}_1}$	(B-PREDSUCC)
$\frac{\texttt{t}_1 \Downarrow \texttt{0}}{\texttt{iszero} \texttt{t}_1 \Downarrow \texttt{true}}$	(B-ISZEROZERO)
t ₁ ↓ succ nv ₁ iszero t ₁ ↓ false	(B-ISZEROSUCC)

Show that the small-step and big-step semantics for this language coincide, i.e. $t \rightarrow^* v$ iff $t \Downarrow v$.

When will a derivation tree branch?