

MPRI course 2-4-2
 “Functional programming languages”
 Answers to the exercises

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Part I: Operational semantics

Exercise I.1 Note that terms that can reduce are necessarily applications $a = a_1 a_2$. This is true for head reductions (the β_v rule) and extends to reductions under contexts because non-trivial contexts are also applications. Since values are not applications, it follows that values do not reduce.

Now, assume $a = E_1[a_1] = E_2[a_2]$ where a_1 and a_2 reduce by head reduction and E_1, E_2 are evaluation contexts. We show $E_1 = E_2$ and $a_1 = a_2$ by induction over the structure of a . By the previous remark, a must be an application $b c$. We argue by case on whether b or c are applications.

- Case 1: b is an application. b is not a λ -abstraction, so a cannot head-reduce by β_v , and therefore we cannot have $E_i = []$ for $i = 1, 2$. Similarly, b is not a value, therefore we cannot have $E_i = b E'_i$. The only case that remains possible is $E_i = E'_i c$ for $i = 1, 2$. We therefore have two decompositions $b = E'_1[a_1] = E'_2[a_2]$. Applying the induction hypothesis to b , which is a strict subterm of a , it follows that $a_1 = a_2$ and $E'_1 = E'_2$, and therefore $E_1 = E_2$ as well.
- Case 2: b is not an application but c is. b cannot reduce, so the case $E_i = E'_i c$ is impossible. c is not a value, so the case $E_i = []$ is also impossible. The only possibility is therefore that b is a value and $E_i = b E'_i$. The result follows from the induction hypothesis applied to c and its two decompositions $c = E'_1[a_1] = E'_2[a_2]$.
- Case 3: neither b nor c are applications. The only possibility is $E_1 = E_2 = []$ and $a_1 = a_2 = a$.

Exercise I.2 For each proposed rule $a \rightarrow b$, we expand the derived forms in a (written \approx below), perform reductions with the rules for the core constructs, then reintroduce derived forms in the result when necessary. For the `let` rule, this gives:

$$(\text{let } x = v \text{ in } a) \approx (\lambda x.a) v \rightarrow a[x \leftarrow v]$$

by β_v -reduction. For `if/then/else`:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if true then } a \text{ else } b &\approx \text{match True() with True() } \rightarrow a \mid \text{False() } \rightarrow b \\ &\rightarrow a \\ \text{if false then } a \text{ else } b &\approx \text{match False() with True() } \rightarrow a \mid \text{False() } \rightarrow b \\ &\rightarrow \text{match False() with False() } \rightarrow b \\ &\rightarrow b \end{aligned}$$

by **match**-reduction. Note that the second rule actually corresponds to two reductions in the base language. Finally, for pairs and projections:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fst}(v_1, v_2) &\approx (\text{match Pair}(v_1, v_2) \text{ with Pair}(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow x_1) \rightarrow x_1[x_1 \leftarrow v_1, x_2 \leftarrow v_2] = v_1 \\ \text{snd}(v_1, v_2) &\approx (\text{match Pair}(v_1, v_2) \text{ with Pair}(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow x_2) \rightarrow x_2[x_1 \leftarrow v_1, x_2 \leftarrow v_2] = v_2 \end{aligned}$$

again by **match** reductions.

Exercise I.3 Assume $1 \ 2 \Rightarrow v$ for some v . There is only one evaluation rule that can conclude this:

$$\frac{1 \Rightarrow \lambda x.c \quad 2 \Rightarrow v' \quad c[x \leftarrow v'] \Rightarrow v}{1 \ 2 \Rightarrow v}$$

but of course 1 evaluates only to 1 and not to any λ -abstraction.

Now, assume that we have a derivation $a' \Rightarrow v$. By examination of the rules that can conclude this derivation, it can only be of the following form:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \lambda x.x \Rightarrow \lambda x.x \quad \lambda x.x \Rightarrow \lambda x.x \quad (x \ x)[x \leftarrow \lambda x.x] = a' \Rightarrow v \end{array}}{(\lambda x. \ x \ x) (\lambda x. \ x \ x) \Rightarrow v}$$

Therefore, any derivation D of $a' \Rightarrow v$ contains a sub-derivation D' of $a' \Rightarrow v$ that is strictly smaller than D . Since derivations for the \Rightarrow predicate are finite, this is impossible.

The difference between these two examples is visible on their reduction sequences: a is an erroneous evaluation (it is a value that does not reduce), while a' reduces infinitely. The evaluation relation does not hold in these two cases.

Exercise I.4 The base case for the induction is $a = (\lambda x.c) \ v' \rightarrow c[x \leftarrow v'] = b$. We can build the following derivation of $a \Rightarrow v$ from that of $b \Rightarrow v$:

$$\frac{\lambda x.c \Rightarrow \lambda x.c \quad v' \Rightarrow v' \quad c[x \leftarrow v'] = b \Rightarrow v}{a = (\lambda x.c) \ v' \Rightarrow v}$$

using the fact that $v' \Rightarrow v'$ for all values v' (check it by case over v').

The first inductive case is $a = a' \ c \rightarrow b' \ c = b$ where $a' \rightarrow b'$. The evaluation derivation for $b \Rightarrow v$ is of the following form:

$$\frac{b' \Rightarrow \lambda x.d \quad c \Rightarrow v' \quad d[x \leftarrow v'] \Rightarrow v}{b' \ c \Rightarrow v}$$

Applying the induction hypothesis to the reduction $a' \rightarrow b'$ and the evaluation $b' \Rightarrow \lambda x.d$, it follows that $a' \Rightarrow \lambda x.d$. We can therefore build the following derivation:

$$\frac{a' \Rightarrow \lambda x.d \quad c \Rightarrow v' \quad d[x \leftarrow v'] \Rightarrow v}{a' \ c \Rightarrow v}$$

which concludes $a \Rightarrow v$ as claimed.

The second inductive case is $a = v' a' \rightarrow v' b' = b$ where $a' \rightarrow b'$. The evaluation derivation for $b \Rightarrow v$ is of the following form:

$$\frac{v' \Rightarrow \lambda x.c \quad b' \Rightarrow v'' \quad c[x \leftarrow v''] \Rightarrow v}{v' b' \Rightarrow v}$$

Applying the induction hypothesis to the reduction $a' \rightarrow b'$ and the evaluation $b' \Rightarrow v''$, it follows that $a' \Rightarrow v''$. We can therefore build the following derivation:

$$\frac{v' \Rightarrow \lambda x.c \quad a' \Rightarrow v'' \quad c[x \leftarrow v''] \Rightarrow v}{v' a' \Rightarrow v}$$

which concludes $a \Rightarrow v$ as claimed.

Exercise I.5 For question 1, define $I = \lambda x.x$ and take $a = (I I) (I I)$. We can reduce on the left of the top-level application to $a_1 = I (I I)$. But we can also reduce on the right, obtaining $a_2 = (I I) I$.

For question 2, the reduction sequences built during the proof of theorem 3 happen to use only left-to-right reductions, but remain valid with non-deterministic reductions. Concerning theorem 4, the proof of the second inductive case (see exercise I.4) never uses the hypothesis that the left part of the application is a value, therefore it remains valid if the reduction rule (app-r) is replaced by (app-r'). We therefore have the following equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned} & a \xrightarrow{*} v \text{ with the left-to-right evaluation strategy} \\ \text{if and only if} & \quad a \Rightarrow v \\ \text{if and only if} & \quad a \xrightarrow{*} v \text{ with the non-deterministic evaluation strategy.} \end{aligned}$$

Question 3: in light of question 2, we must look for a term that does not evaluate to a value, but instead diverges or causes an error. An example is $a = (1\ 2)\ \omega$, where ω is a term that reduces infinitely. With left-to-right reductions, a cannot reduce and is not a value, therefore its evaluation terminates immediately on an error. With non-deterministic reductions, we can choose to reduce infinitely often in the argument part of the top-level evaluation, therefore observing divergence.

Part II: Abstract machines

Exercise II.1

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N}(\underline{n}) &= \text{ACCESS}(n); \text{APPLY} \\ \mathcal{N}(\lambda.a) &= \text{GRAB}; \mathcal{N}(a) \\ \mathcal{N}(a\ b) &= \text{CLOSURE}(\mathcal{N}(b)); \mathcal{N}(a) \end{aligned}$$

We represent function arguments and values of variables by zero-argument closures, i.e. thunks. The ACCESS instruction of Krivine's machine is simulated in the ZAM by an ACCESS (which fetches the thunk associated with the variable) followed by an APPLY (which jumps to this thunk, forcing its evaluation). The GRAB ZAM instruction behaves like the GRAB of Krivine's machine if we never push a mark on the stack, which is the case in the compilation scheme above. Finally, the PUSH instruction of Krivine's machine and the CLOSURE instruction of the ZAM behave identically.

Exercise II.2 Quite simply:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{C}(\underline{n}, k) &= \text{ACCESS}(n); k \\
\mathcal{C}(\lambda.a, k) &= \text{CLOSURE}(\mathcal{T}(a)); k \\
\mathcal{C}(\text{let } a \text{ in } b, k) &= \mathcal{C}(a, \text{GRAB}; \mathcal{C}(b, \text{ENDLET}; k)) \\
\mathcal{C}(a \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_n, k) &= \text{PUSHRETADDR}(k); \mathcal{C}(a_n, \ \dots \ \mathcal{C}(a_1, \ \mathcal{C}(a, \ \text{APPLY}; k)))
\end{aligned}$$

The \mathcal{T} schema is adjusted accordingly:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{T}(\lambda.a) &= \text{GRAB}; \mathcal{T}(a) \\
\mathcal{T}(\text{let } a \text{ in } b) &= \mathcal{C}(a, \text{GRAB}; \mathcal{T}(b)) \\
\mathcal{T}(a \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_n) &= \mathcal{C}(a_n, \ \dots \ \mathcal{C}(a_1, \ \mathcal{C}(a, \ \text{TAILAPPLY}))) \\
\mathcal{T}(a) &= \mathcal{C}(a, \text{RETURN}) \quad (\text{otherwise})
\end{aligned}$$

Exercise II.3 At the level of the instruction set, we can add a $\text{COND}(c_1, c_2)$ instruction that tests the boolean value at the top of the stack and continues execution with one of two possible instruction sequences, c_1 if the boolean is `true`, c_2 otherwise. The transitions for this new instruction can be:

Machine state before			Machine state after		
Code	Env	Stack	Code	Env	Stack
$\text{COND}(c_1, c_2); c$	e	<code>true.s</code>	c_1	e	s
$\text{COND}(c_1, c_2); c$	e	<code>false.s</code>	c_2	e	s

In the compilation scheme, the translation of `if/then/else` in tail-call position is straightforward:

$$\mathcal{T}(\text{if } a \text{ then } a_1 \text{ else } a_2) = \mathcal{C}(a, \text{COND}(\mathcal{T}(a_1), \mathcal{T}(a_2)))$$

An `if/then/else` in non-tail-call position is more delicate. The naive approach just duplicates the continuation code k in both arms of the conditional:

$$\mathcal{C}(\text{if } a \text{ then } a_1 \text{ else } a_2, k) = \mathcal{C}(a, \text{COND}(\mathcal{C}(a_1, k), \mathcal{C}(a_2, k)))$$

However, this can cause code size explosion if many conditionals are nested. Another approach uses `PUSHRETADDR` and `RETURN` to share the continuation code k between both branches:

$$\mathcal{C}(\text{if } a \text{ then } a_1 \text{ else } a_2, k) = \text{PUSHRETADDR}(k); \mathcal{C}(a, \text{COND}(\mathcal{C}(a_1, \text{RETURN}), \mathcal{C}(a_2, \text{RETURN})))$$

Yet another solution modifies the dynamic semantics (the transition rule) for `COND`, so that the code c that follows the `COND` is not discarded, but magically appended to whatever arm is taken:

Machine state before			Machine state after		
Code	Env	Stack	Code	Env	Stack
$\text{COND}(c_1, c_2); c$	e	<code>true.s</code>	$c_1.c$	e	s
$\text{COND}(c_1, c_2); c$	e	<code>false.s</code>	$c_2.c$	e	s

In this case, compilation without code duplication is straightforward:

$$\mathcal{C}(\text{if } a \text{ then } a_1 \text{ else } a_2, k) = \mathcal{C}(a, \text{COND}(\mathcal{C}(a_1, \varepsilon), \mathcal{C}(a_2, \varepsilon)); k)$$

However, it looks like the machine is generating new code sequences on the fly during execution, which is not very realistic. To address this issue, “real” abstract machines (like Caml’s or Java’s) introduce conditional and unconditional branch instructions that skip over a given number of instructions.

Exercise II.4 Since the machine state decompiles to a , the machine state is of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \text{code} &= \mathcal{C}(a') \\ \text{env} &= \mathcal{C}(e') \\ \text{stack} &= \mathcal{C}(a_1[e_1] \dots a_n[e_n]) \end{aligned}$$

and $a = a'[e'] a_1[e_1] \dots a_n[e_n]$. We now argue by case over a' :

1. a' is a variable m . Since a can reduce, it must be the case that $a' \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} e'(m)$, i.e. the m -th element of e' is defined. The machine code is $\mathcal{C}(a') = \text{ACCESS}(m)$. The machine can perform an ACCESS transition.
2. a' is an abstraction $\lambda.a''$. In this case, $n > 0$, otherwise a could not reduce. The code is $\mathcal{C}(a') = \text{GRAB}; \mathcal{C}(a'')$ and the stack is not empty, therefore the machine can perform a GRAB transition.
3. a' is an application $b c$. The code is $\mathcal{C}(a') = \text{PUSH}(\mathcal{C}(b)); \mathcal{C}(c)$. The machine can perform a PUSH transition.

Exercise II.5 We write $\mathcal{D}(c, S) = a$ to mean that the symbolic machine, started in code c and symbolic stack S , stops on the configuration $(\varepsilon, a, \varepsilon)$. By definition of the transitions of the symbolic machine, this partial function \mathcal{D} satisfies the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}(\varepsilon, a, \varepsilon) &= a \\ \mathcal{D}(\text{CONST}(N).c, S) &= \mathcal{D}(c, N.S) \\ \mathcal{D}(\text{ADD}.c, b.a.S) &= \mathcal{D}(c, (a + b).S) \\ \mathcal{D}(\text{SUB}.c, b.a.S) &= \mathcal{D}(c, (a - b).S) \end{aligned}$$

By definition of decompilation, the concrete machine state (c, s) decompiles to a iff $\mathcal{D}(c, s) = a$.

We start by the following technical lemma that shows the compatibility between symbolic execution and reduction of one expression contained in the symbolic stack.

Lemma 1 (Compatibility) *Let s be a stack of integer values, a an expression and S a stack of expressions. Assume that $\mathcal{D}(c, S.a.s) = r$ and that $a \rightarrow a'$. Then, there exists r' such that $\mathcal{D}(c, S.a'.s) = r'$ and $r \rightarrow r'$.*

Proof: By induction on c and case analysis on the first instruction and on S . The interesting case is $c = \text{ADD}; c'$.

If S is empty, we have $s = n.s'$ for some n and s' , and $r = \mathcal{D}(\text{ADD}; c', a.n.s') = \mathcal{D}(c', (n+a).s')$. Note that $n+a \rightarrow n+a'$. By induction hypothesis, it follows that there exists r' such that $r \rightarrow r'$ and $\mathcal{D}(c', (n+a').s') = r'$. This is the desired result, since $\mathcal{D}(\text{ADD}; c', a'.n.s') = \mathcal{D}(c', (n+a').s') = r'$.

If $S = b.\varepsilon$ is empty, we have $r = \mathcal{D}(\text{ADD}; c', b.a.s) = \mathcal{D}(c', (a+b).s')$. Note that $a+b \rightarrow a'+b$. The result follows by induction hypothesis.

If $S = b_1.b_2.S'$, we have $r = \mathcal{D}(\text{ADD}; c', b_1.b_2.S'.a.s) = \mathcal{D}(c', (b_2+b_1).S'.a.s')$. The result follows by induction hypothesis. \square

Lemma 2 (Simulation) *If the HP calculator performs a transition from (c, s) to (c', s') , and $\mathcal{D}(c, s) = a$, there exists a' such that $a \xrightarrow{*} a'$ and $\mathcal{D}(c', s') = a'$.*

Proof: By case analysis on the transition.

Case CONST transition: $(\text{CONST}(N); c, s) \rightarrow (c, N.s)$. We have $\mathcal{D}(\text{CONST}(N); c, s) = \mathcal{D}(c, N.s)$ since the symbolic machine can perform the same transition. Therefore by definition of decompilation, the two states decompile to the same term. The result follows by taking $a' = a$.

Case ADD transition: $(\text{ADD}; c, n_2.n_1.s) \rightarrow (c, n.s)$ where the integer n is the sum of n_1 and n_2 . We have $a = \mathcal{D}(\text{ADD}; c, n_2.n_1.s) = \mathcal{D}(c, b.s)$ where b is the expression $n_1 + n_2$. Since $b \rightarrow n$, the compatibility lemma therefore shows the existence of a' such that $a \rightarrow a'$ and $\mathcal{D}(c, n.s) = a'$. This is the desired result.

Case SUB transition: similar to the previous case. \square

Lemma 3 (Progress) *If $\mathcal{D}(c, s) = a$ and a can reduce, the machine can perform one transition from the state (c, s) .*

Proof: By case on the code c . If c is empty, by definition of decompilation we must have $s = n.\varepsilon$ and $a = n$ for some integer n , which contradicts the hypothesis that a reduces. If c starts with a $\text{CONST}(N)$ instruction, the machine can perform a CONST transition. If c starts with an ADD or SUB instruction, the stack s must contain at least two elements, otherwise the symbolic machine would get stuck and the decompilation of (c, s) would be undefined. Therefore, the concrete machine can perform an ADD or SUB transition. \square

Lemma 4 (Initial state) *The state $(\mathcal{C}(a), \varepsilon)$ decompiles to a .*

Proof: We show by induction on a that the symbolic machine can perform transitions from $(\mathcal{C}(a).k, S)$ to $(k, a.S)$ for all codes k and symbolic stack S . (The proof is similar to that of theorem 10 in lecture II.) The result follows by taking $k = \varepsilon$ and $S = \varepsilon$. \square

Lemma 5 (Final state) *The state $(\varepsilon, n.\varepsilon)$ decompiles to the expression n .*

Proof: Obvious by definition of decompilation. \square

Exercise II.6 We show that for all n and a , if $a \Rightarrow \infty$, there exists a reduction sequence of length $\geq n$ starting from a . The proof is by induction over n and sub-induction over a . By hypothesis $a \Rightarrow \infty$, there are three cases to consider:

Case $a = b\ c$ and $b \Rightarrow \infty$. By induction hypothesis applied to n and b , we have a reduction sequence $b \xrightarrow{*} b'$ of length $\geq n$. Therefore, $a = b\ c \xrightarrow{*} b'\ c$ is a reduction sequence of length $\geq n$.

Case $a = b\ c$ and $b \Rightarrow v$ and $c \Rightarrow \infty$. By theorem 3 of lecture I, $b \xrightarrow{*} v$. By induction hypothesis applied to n and c , we have a reduction sequence $c \xrightarrow{*} c'$ of length $\geq n$. Therefore, $a = b\ c \xrightarrow{*} v\ c \xrightarrow{*} v\ c'$ is a reduction sequence of length $\geq n$.

Case $a = b\ c$ and $b \Rightarrow \lambda x.d$ and $c \Rightarrow v$ and $d[x \leftarrow v] \Rightarrow \infty$. By theorem 3 of lecture I, $a \xrightarrow{*} \lambda x.d$ and $b \xrightarrow{*} v$. By induction hypothesis applied to $n - 1$ and $d[x \leftarrow v]$, we have a reduction sequence $d[x \leftarrow v] \xrightarrow{*} e$ of length $\geq n - 1$. Therefore,

$$a = b\ c \xrightarrow{*} (\lambda x.d)\ c \xrightarrow{*} (\lambda x.d)\ v \rightarrow d[x \leftarrow v] \xrightarrow{*} e$$

is a reduction sequence of length $\geq 1 + (n - 1) = n$.

Part III: Program transformations

Exercise III.1 The translation rule for λ -abstraction needs to be changed:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \lambda x.a \rrbracket &= \text{tuple}(\lambda c, x. \text{let } x_1 = \text{field}_1(c) \text{ in} \\ &\quad \dots \\ &\quad \text{let } x_n = \text{field}_n(c) \text{ in} \\ &\quad \llbracket a \rrbracket, \\ &\quad x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

so that the variables x_1, \dots, x_n are not just the free variables of $\lambda x.a$, but all variables currently in scope. To do this, the translation scheme should take the list of such variables as an additional argument V :

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket x \rrbracket_V &= x \\ \llbracket \lambda x.a \rrbracket_V &= \text{tuple}(\lambda c, x. \text{let } x_1 = \text{field}_1(c) \text{ in} \\ &\quad \dots \\ &\quad \text{let } x_n = \text{field}_n(c) \text{ in} \\ &\quad \llbracket a \rrbracket_{x.V}, \\ &\quad x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ &\quad \text{where } V = x_1 \dots x_n \\ \llbracket a\ b \rrbracket_V &= \text{let } c = \llbracket a \rrbracket_V \text{ in } \text{field}_0(c)(c, \llbracket b \rrbracket_V) \\ \llbracket \text{let } x = a \text{ in } b \rrbracket_V &= \text{let } x = \llbracket a \rrbracket_V \text{ in } \llbracket b \rrbracket_{x.V} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise III.2 For a two-argument function $\lambda x.\lambda x'.a$, the two-argument method `apply2` will be defined as `return` $\llbracket a \rrbracket$. The one-argument method `apply` will build an intermediate closure (corresponding to $\lambda x'.a$) which, when applied, will call back to `apply2`.

Symmetrically, for a one-argument function $\lambda x.a$, we define `apply` as `return [[a]]` and `apply2` as calling `apply` on the first argument, then applying again the result to the second argument.

We encapsulate this construction in the following generic classes, from which we will inherit later:

```

abstract class Closure {
  abstract Object apply(Object arg);
  Object apply2(Object arg1, Object arg2) {
    return ((Closure)apply(arg1)).apply(arg2);
  }
}
abstract class Closure2 extends Closure {
  Object apply(Object arg) {
    return new PartialApplication(this, arg);
  }
  abstract Object apply2(Object arg1, Object arg2);
}
class PartialApplication extends Closure2 {
  Closure2 fn; Object arg1;
  PartialApplication(Closure2 fn, Object arg1) {
    this.fn = fn; this.arg1 = arg1;
  }
  Object apply(Object arg2) {
    return fn.apply2(arg1, arg2);
  }
}

```

Now, the class generated for a two-argument function $\lambda x.\lambda y.a$ of free variables x_1, \dots, x_n is

```

class C $\lambda x.\lambda y.a$  extends Closure2 {
  Object x1; ...; Object xn;
  C $\lambda x.\lambda y.a$ (Object x1, ..., Object xn) {
    this.x1 = x1; ...; this.xn = xn;
  }
  Object apply2(Object x, Object y) { return [[a]]; }
}

```

The class generated for a one-argument function $\lambda x.a$ of free variables x_1, \dots, x_n is

```

class C $\lambda x.a$  extends Closure {
  Object x1; ...; Object xn;
  C $\lambda x.a$ (Object x1, ..., Object xn) {
    this.x1 = x1; ...; this.xn = xn;
  }
  Object apply(Object x) { return [[a]]; }
}

```

Finally, the translation of expressions receives one additional case for curried applications to two arguments:

$$\llbracket a \ b \ c \rrbracket = \llbracket a \rrbracket.\text{apply2}(\llbracket b \rrbracket, \llbracket c \rrbracket)$$

Exercise III.3 Quite simply,

$$\llbracket \text{lettry } x = a \text{ in } b \text{ with } y \rightarrow c \rrbracket = \text{match } \llbracket a \rrbracket \text{ with } V(x) \rightarrow \llbracket b \rrbracket \mid E(y) \rightarrow \llbracket c \rrbracket$$

Note that `try a with x → b` can then be viewed as syntactic sugar for

`lettry y = a in y with x → b`

Exercise III.4

$$\frac{N / s \Rightarrow N / s \qquad \lambda x.a / s \Rightarrow \lambda x.a / s}{a / s \Rightarrow \lambda x.c / s_1 \quad b / s_1 \Rightarrow v' / s_2 \quad c[x \leftarrow v'] / s_2 \Rightarrow v / s'} \quad \frac{a / s \Rightarrow v / s'}{\text{ref } a / s \Rightarrow \ell / s' + \ell \mapsto v}$$

$$\frac{a / s \Rightarrow \ell / s'}{!a / s \Rightarrow s'(\ell) / s'} \qquad \frac{a / s \Rightarrow \ell / s_1 \quad b / s_1 \Rightarrow v / s'}{(a := b) / s \Rightarrow () / s' + \ell \mapsto v}$$

Exercise III.5 After the assignment

`fact := λn. if n = 0 then 1 else n * (!fact) (n-1)`

the reference `fact` contains a function which, when applied to $n \neq 0$, will apply the current contents of `fact`, that is, itself, to $n - 1$. Therefore, the function `!fact` will compute the factorial of its argument.

More generally, a recursive function $\mu f.\lambda x.a$ can be encoded as

```
let f = ref (λx. Ω) in
f := (λx. a[f ← !f]);
!f
```

In an untyped setting, any expression Ω will do. In a typed language, Ω must have the same type as the function body a . A simple solution is to define Ω as an infinite loop (of type $\forall \alpha.\alpha$) or as `raise` of an exception (idem).

Exercise III.6

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket a \ op \ b \rrbracket &= \lambda k. \llbracket a \rrbracket (\lambda v_a. \llbracket b \rrbracket (\lambda v_b. k(v_a \ op \ v_b))) \\ \llbracket C(a_1, \dots, a_n) \rrbracket &= \lambda k. \llbracket a_1 \rrbracket (\lambda v_1. \dots \llbracket a_n \rrbracket (\lambda v_n. k(C(v_1, \dots, v_n)))) \\ \llbracket \text{match } a \text{ with } C(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow b \mid \dots \rrbracket &= \lambda k. \llbracket a \rrbracket (\lambda v. \text{match } v \text{ with } C(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow \llbracket b \rrbracket k \mid \dots) \end{aligned}$$

Exercise III.7 We use a global reference to maintain a stack of continuations expecting exception values.

```
let exn_handlers = ref ([]: exn cont list)

let push_handler k =
  exn_handlers := k :: !exn_handlers

let pop_handler () =
  match !exn_handlers with
  | [] -> failwith "abort on uncaught exception"
  | k :: rem -> exn_handlers := rem; k
```

At any time, the top of this stack is the continuation that should be invoked to raise an exception.

```
let raise_exn =
  throw (pop_handler ()) exn
```

Now, we should arrange that the continuation at the top of the exception stack always branches one way or another to the `with` part of the nearest `try...with`. We encode `try...with` as a call to a library function `trywith`:

$$\llbracket \text{raise } a \rrbracket = \text{raise } a$$

$$\llbracket \text{try } a \text{ with } x \rightarrow b \rrbracket = \text{trywith } (\lambda_.a) (\lambda x.b)$$

The tricky part is the definition of the `trywith` function. In pseudo-code:

```
let trywith a b =
  push_handler <a continuation that evaluates b of its
    argument and returns from trywith>;
  let res = a () in
  pop_handler ();
  res
```

This way, if `a ()` evaluates without raising exceptions, we push a continuation that will never be called, compute `a ()`, pop the continuation and return the result of `a ()`. If `a ()` raises an exception `e`, the continuation will be popped and invoked, causing `b e` to be evaluated and its value returned as the result of the `trywith`.

The really tricky part is to capture the right continuation to push on the stack. The only way is to pretend we are going to apply `b` to some argument, and do a `callcc` in this argument:

```
b (callcc (fun k -> push_handler k; ...))
```

However, we do not want to evaluate this application of `b` if the continuation `k` is not thrown. We therefore use a second `callcc/throw` to jump over the application of `b` in the case where `a ()` terminates normally:

```
callcc (fun k1 -> b (callcc (fun k -> push_handler k; ...; throw k1 ...)))
```

We can now fill the ..., obtaining:

```

let trywith a b =
  callcc (fun k1 ->
    b (callcc (fun k2 ->
      push_handler k2;
      let res = a () in
      pop_handler ();
      throw k1 res)))

```

Part IV: Monads

Exercise IV.1 The precise statement of the theorem we are going to prove is

Theorem 1 *If $a \Rightarrow r$ in the natural semantics for exceptions, then $\llbracket a \rrbracket \approx \llbracket r \rrbracket_r$, where $\llbracket r \rrbracket_r$ is defined by*

$$\llbracket v \rrbracket_r = \mathbf{ret} \llbracket v \rrbracket_v \quad \llbracket \mathbf{raise} \ v \rrbracket_r = \mathbf{raise} \llbracket v \rrbracket_v$$

The proof is by induction on a derivation of $a \Rightarrow r$ and case analysis on the last rule used. The cases where a is a core language construct that evaluates to a value v have already been proved in the generic proof given in the slides.

Case $(\mathbf{try} \ b \ \mathbf{with} \ x \rightarrow c) \Rightarrow v$ because $b \Rightarrow v$: by induction hypothesis, $\llbracket b \rrbracket \approx \mathbf{ret} \llbracket v \rrbracket_v$. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \mathbf{try} \ a \ \mathbf{with} \ x \rightarrow b \rrbracket &= \mathbf{trywith} \llbracket a \rrbracket (\lambda x. \llbracket b \rrbracket) \\ &\approx \mathbf{trywith} (\mathbf{ret} \llbracket v \rrbracket_v) (\lambda x. \llbracket b \rrbracket) \\ &\approx \mathbf{ret} \llbracket v \rrbracket_v \end{aligned}$$

assuming that $\mathbf{trywith}$ satisfies hypotheses similar to those of \mathbf{bind} , namely

- 5 $\mathbf{trywith} (\mathbf{ret} \ v) (\lambda x. b) \approx \mathbf{ret} \ v$
- 6 $\mathbf{trywith} \ a (\lambda x. b) \approx \mathbf{trywith} \ a' (\lambda x. b)$ if $a \approx a'$

Case $(\mathbf{try} \ b \ \mathbf{with} \ x \rightarrow c) \Rightarrow r$ because $b \Rightarrow \mathbf{raise} \ v$ and $c[x \leftarrow v] \Rightarrow r$. By induction hypothesis, $\llbracket b \rrbracket \approx \mathbf{raise} \ v'$ and $\llbracket c[x \leftarrow v] \rrbracket \approx \llbracket r \rrbracket_r$.

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \mathbf{try} \ b \ \mathbf{with} \ x \rightarrow c \rrbracket &= \mathbf{trywith} \llbracket b \rrbracket (\lambda x. \llbracket c \rrbracket) \\ &\approx \mathbf{trywith} (\mathbf{raise} \llbracket v \rrbracket_v) (\lambda x. \llbracket c \rrbracket) \\ &\approx \llbracket c \rrbracket[x \leftarrow \llbracket v \rrbracket_v] = \llbracket c[x \leftarrow v] \rrbracket \\ &\approx \llbracket r \rrbracket_r \end{aligned}$$

with one additional hypothesis:

- 7 $\mathbf{trywith} (\mathbf{raise} \ v) (\lambda x. b) \approx b[x \leftarrow v]$

Case $b \Rightarrow \text{raise } v$ because $b \Rightarrow \text{raise } v$. By induction hypothesis, $\llbracket b \rrbracket \approx \text{raise } v'$.

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket b \ c \rrbracket &= \text{bind } \llbracket b \rrbracket \ (\lambda v_b. \dots) \\ &\approx \text{bind } (\text{raise } \llbracket v \rrbracket_v) \ (\lambda v_b. \dots) \\ &\approx \text{raise } \llbracket v \rrbracket_v \end{aligned}$$

using the hypothesis

$$8 \ \text{bind } (\text{raise } v) \ (\lambda x. b) \approx \text{raise } v$$

Case $b \Rightarrow \text{raise } v$ because $b \Rightarrow v'$ and $c \Rightarrow \text{raise } v$.

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket b \ c \rrbracket &= \text{bind } \llbracket b \rrbracket \ (\lambda v_b. \text{bind } \llbracket c \rrbracket \ (\lambda v_c. \dots)) \\ &\approx \text{bind } (\text{ret } \llbracket v' \rrbracket_v) \ (\lambda v_b. \text{bind } \llbracket c \rrbracket \ (\lambda v_c. \dots)) \\ &\approx \text{bind } \llbracket c \rrbracket \ (\lambda v_c. \dots) \\ &\approx \text{bind } (\text{raise } \llbracket v \rrbracket_v) \ (\lambda v_c. \dots) \\ &\approx \text{raise } \llbracket v \rrbracket_v \end{aligned}$$

Other exception propagation rules are similar. It is easy to check hypotheses 5–8 by inspection of the definitions of `trywith` and `bind`.

Exercise IV.2

```
module ContAndException = struct
  type answer = int
  type  $\alpha$  m = ( $\alpha$  -> answer) -> (exn -> answer) -> answer
  let return (x:  $\alpha$ ) :  $\alpha$  m = fun k1 k2 -> k1 x
  let bind (x:  $\alpha$  m) (f:  $\alpha$  -> 'b m) : 'b m =
    fun k1 k2 -> x (fun vx -> f vx k1 k2) k2
  let raise exn :  $\alpha$  m =
    fun k1 k2 -> k2 exn
  let trywith (x :  $\alpha$  m) (f: exn ->  $\alpha$  m) :  $\alpha$  m =
    fun k1 k2 -> x k1 (fun e -> f e k1 k2)
  type  $\alpha$  cont =  $\alpha$  -> answer
  let callcc (f:  $\alpha$  cont ->  $\alpha$  m) :  $\alpha$  m =
    fun k1 k2 -> f k1 k1 k2
  let throw (c:  $\alpha$  cont) (x:  $\alpha$ ) : 'b m =
    fun k1 k2 -> c x
  let run (c: answer m) = c (fun x -> x) (fun _ -> failwith "uncaught exn")
end
```

Exercise IV.3 The teacher is still working on this one.