An OCaml definition of OCaml evaluation, or,

Implementing OCaml in OCaml

COS 326
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Implementing an Interpreter

text file containing program

as a sequence of characters let x = 3 inX + Xdata structure representing program **Parsing** Let ("x", Num 3, Binop(Plus, Var "x", Var "x")) the data type data structure representing and evaluator result of evaluation tell us a lot **Evaluation** about program Num 6 semantics text file/stdout Pretty 6

containing formatted output

Printing

```
type variable = string
type op = Plus | Minus | Times | ...
type exp =
  | Int e of int
  | Op e of exp * op * exp
  | Var e of variable
  | Let e of variable * exp * exp
type value = exp
```

```
type variable = string
type op = Plus | Minus | Times | ...
type exp =
  | Int e of int
  | Var e of variable
  | Let e of variable * exp * exp
type value = exp
let e1 = Int e 3
```

```
type variable = string
type op = Plus | Minus | Times | ...
type exp =
  | Int e of int
  | Var e of variable
  | Let e of variable * exp * exp
type value = exp
let e1 = Int e 3
let e2 = Int e 17
```

```
type variable = string
type op = Plus | Minus | Times | ...
type exp =
  | Int e of int
  | Var e of variable
  | Let e of variable * exp * exp
type value = exp
let e1 = Int e 3
let e2 = Int e 17
let e3 = Op e (e1, Plus, e2)
```

We can represent the OCaml program:

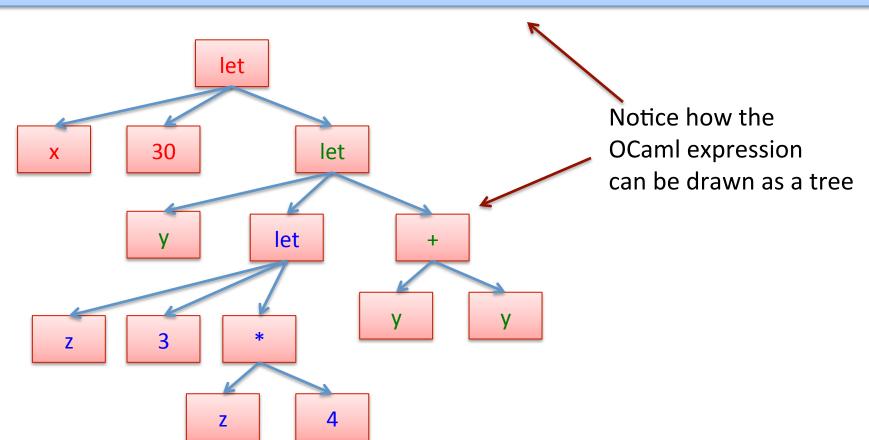
```
let x = 30 in
  let y =
      (let z = 3 in
      z*4)
  in
  y+y
```

This is called concrete syntax (concrete syntax pertains to parsing)

This is called an abstract syntax tree (AST)

as an exp value:

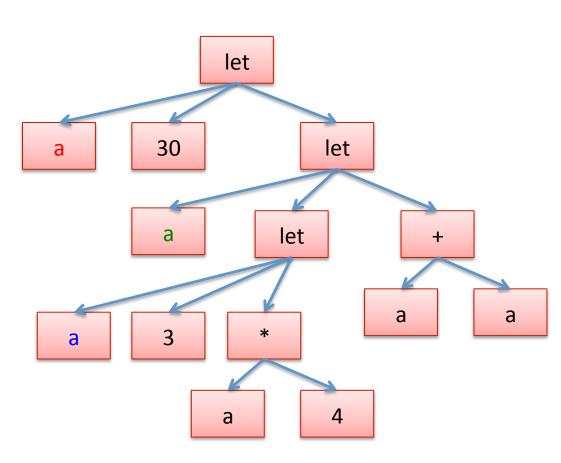
ASTs as ... Trees



Binding Occurrences

An occurrence of a variable where we are defining it via let is said to be a *binding occurrence* of the variable.

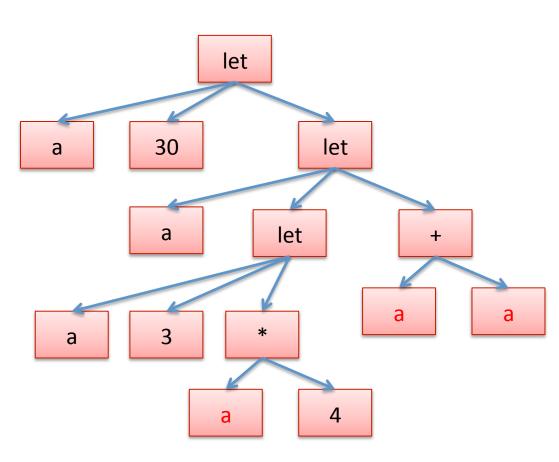
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



Free Occurrences

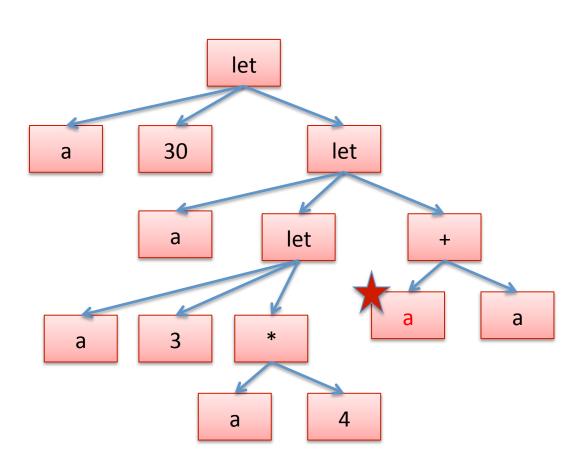
A non-binding occurrence of a variable is a *use* of a variable as opposed to a definition.

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



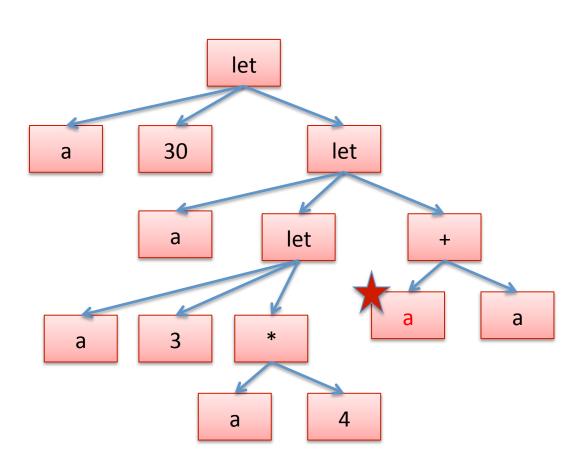
Given a variable occurrence, we can find where it is bound by ...

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



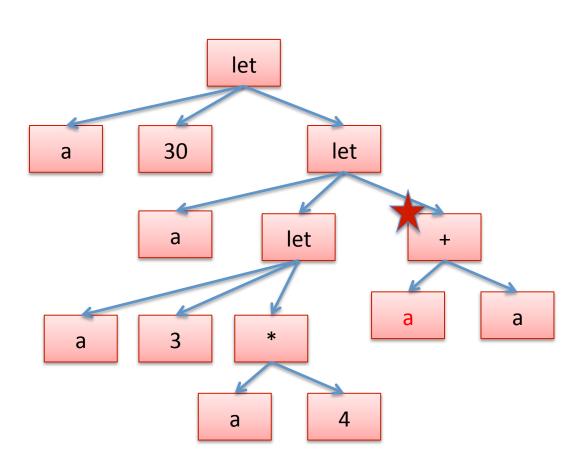
crawling up the tree to the nearest enclosing let...

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



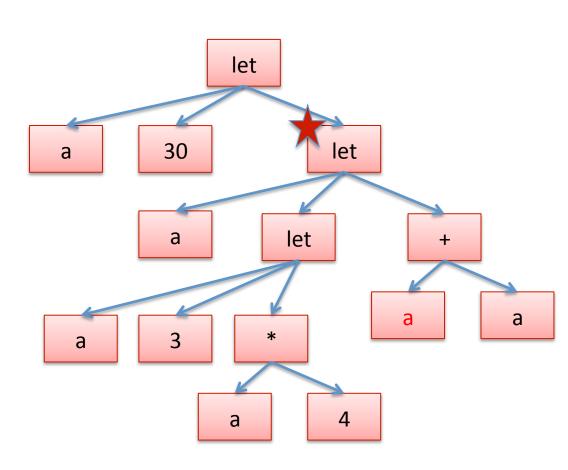
crawling up the tree to the nearest enclosing let...

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



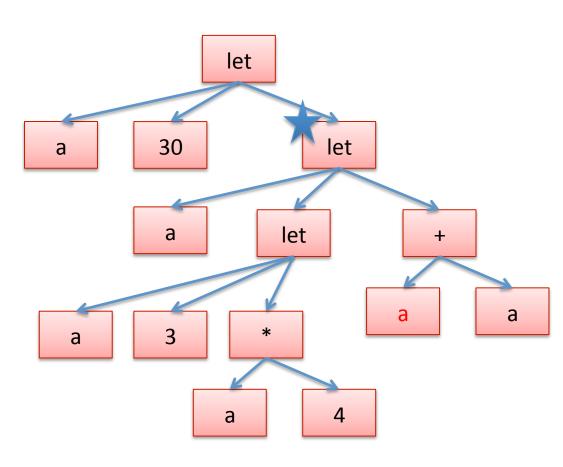
crawling up the tree to the nearest enclosing let...

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



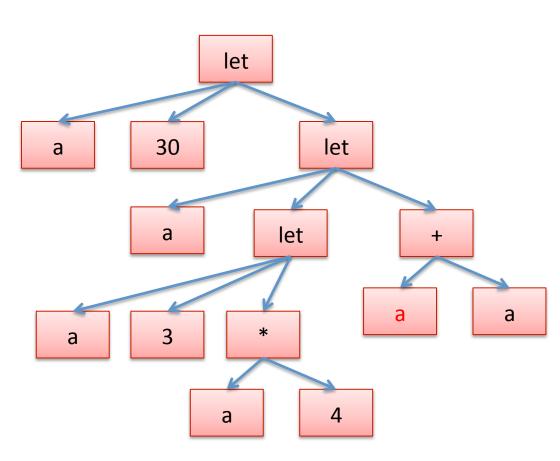
and checking if the "let" binds the variable – if so, we've found the nearest enclosing definition. If not, we keep going up.

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



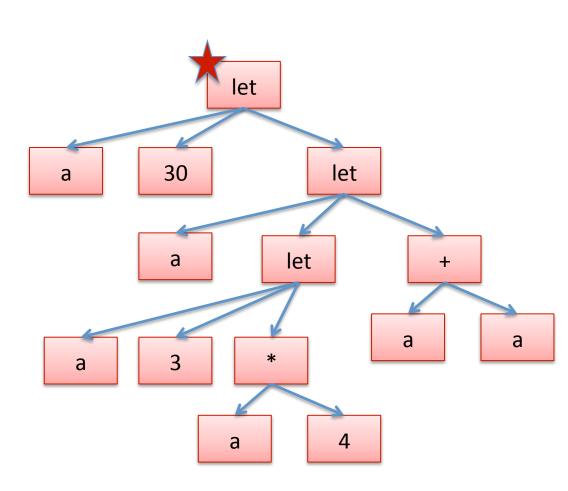
Now we can also systematically rename the variables so that it's not so confusing. Systematic renaming is called *alpha-conversion*

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



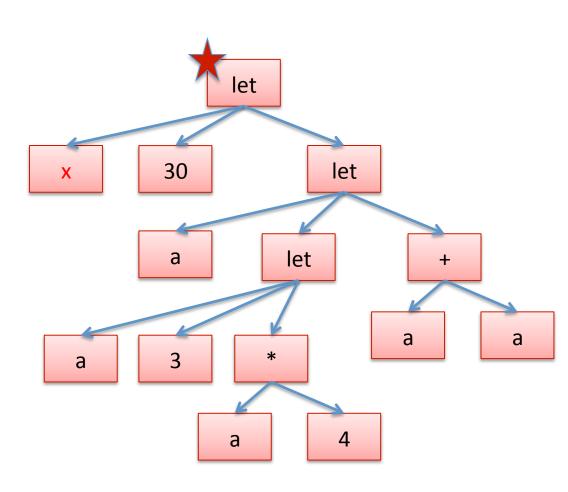
Start with a let, and pick a fresh variable name, say "x"

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



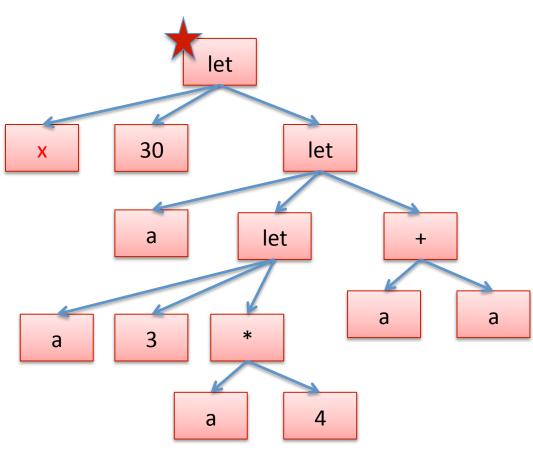
Rename the binding occurrence from "a" to "x".

```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



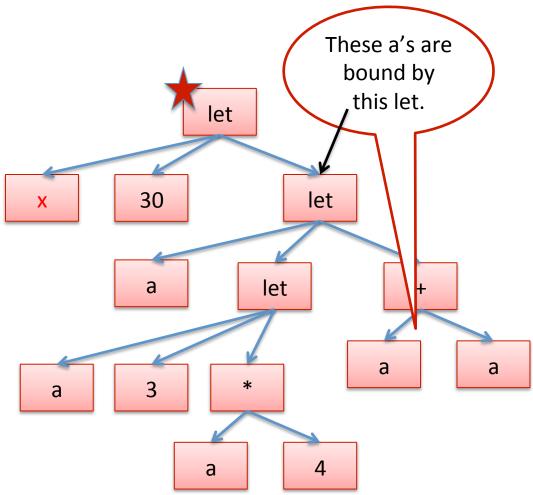
Then rename all of the occurrences of the variables that this let binds.

```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



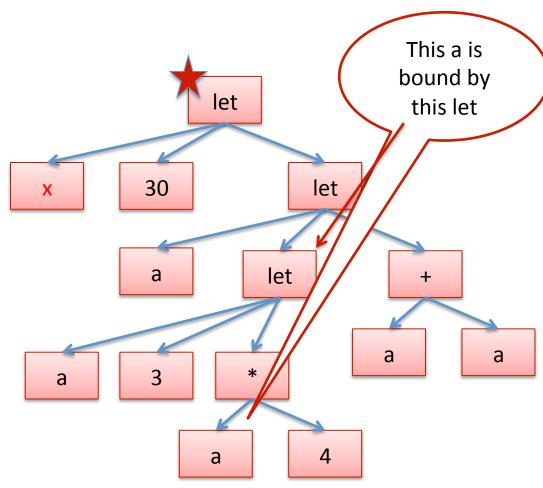
There are none in this case!

```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



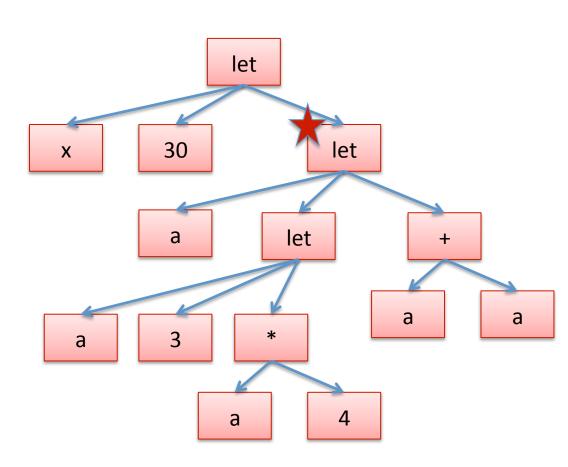
There are none in this case!

```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



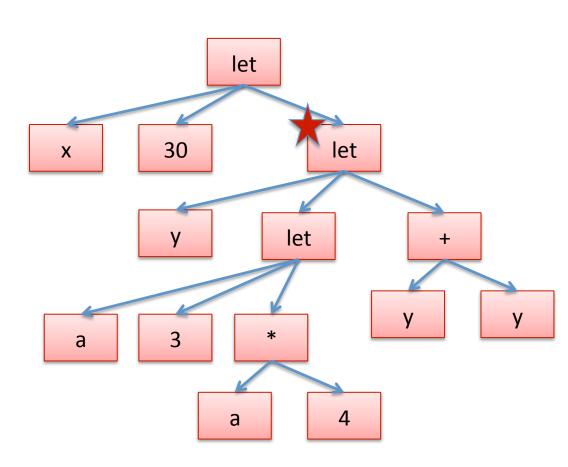
Let's do another let, renaming "a" to "y".

```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a
```



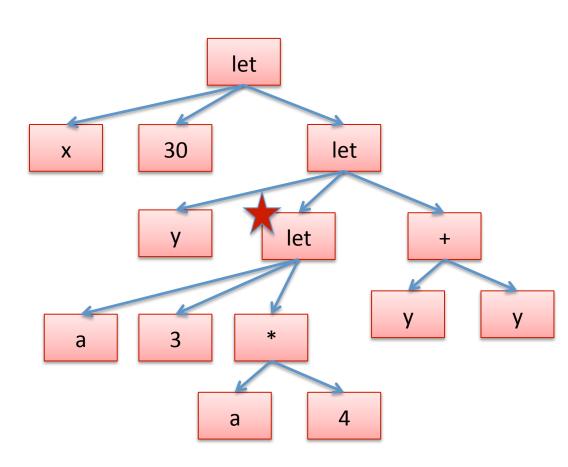
Let's do another let, renaming "a" to "y".

```
let x = 30 in
let y =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
y+y
```



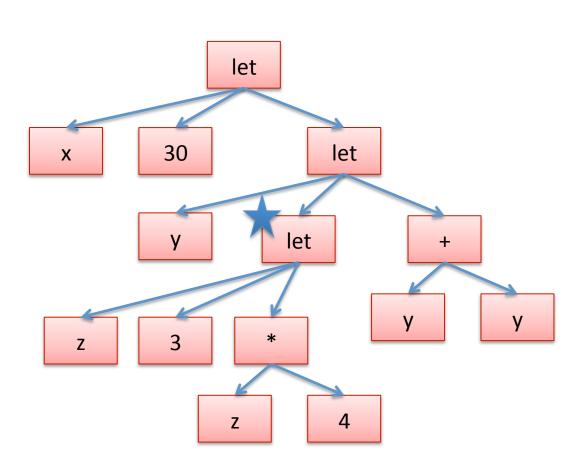
And if we rename the other let to "z":

```
let x = 30 in
let y =
   (let z = 3 in z*4)
in
y+y
```

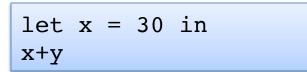


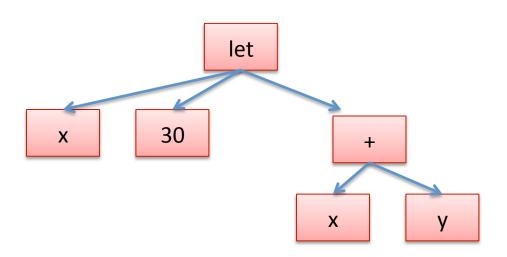
And if we rename the other let to "z":

```
let x = 30 in
let y =
   (let z = 3 in z*4)
in
y+y
```

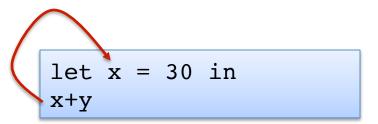


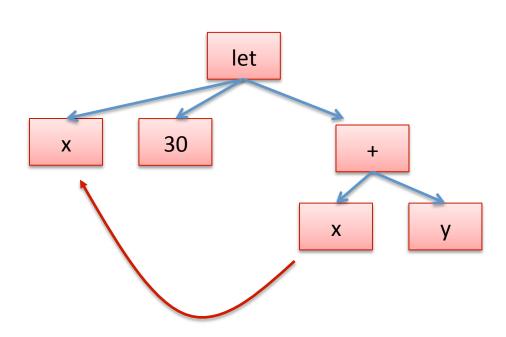
Free vs Bound Variables





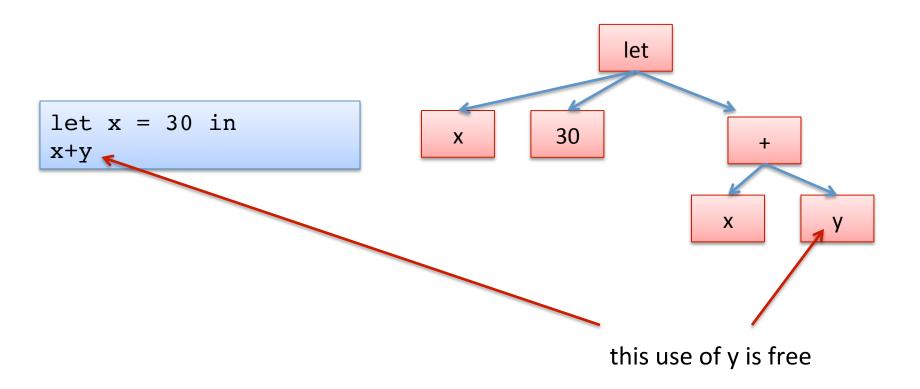
Free vs Bound Variables





this use of x is bound here

Free vs Bound Variables



we say: "y is a free variable in this expression"

Other Examples

z is bound y is a free variable

```
match x with
(y,z) -> y + z + w
```

x, w are free variables y, z are bound

```
let rec f x =
  match x with
  [] -> y
  | hd:tl -> hd::f tl
```

y is a free variable f, x, hd, tl are all bound

recall, we write:

to indicate that e1 evaluates to e2 in a single step

for example:

```
let x = 30 in
let y = 20 + x in
x+y
```

```
let x = 30 in

let y = 20 + x in

x+y

-->

let y = 20 + 30 in

30+y
```

Notice: we do a step of evaluation by *substituting* the value 30 for all the uses of x

$$\frac{1}{30+y} = 20 + 30 \text{ in}$$

In this step, we just evaluated the right-hand side of the let. We now have a *value* (50) on the right-hand side.

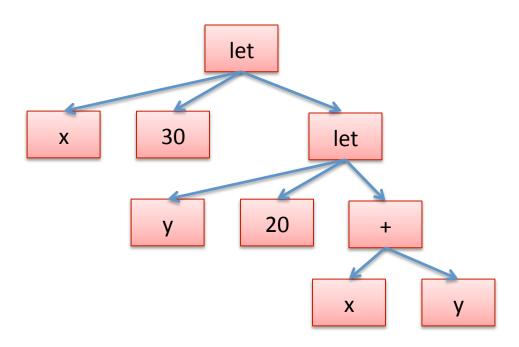
let
$$y = 20 + 30$$
 in $30+y$

substitution again

$$\Rightarrow$$
 let $y = 20 + 30 in $30+y$$

evaluation complete: we have produced a *value*

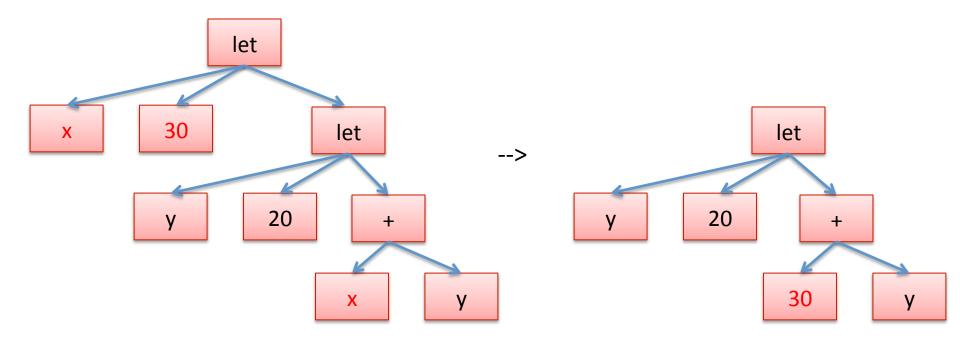
```
let x = 30 in
let y = 20 in
x+y
```



Evaluation via Substitution

```
let x = 30 in
let y = 20 in
x+y
```

let y = 20 in 30+y



Binding occurrences versus applied occurrences

This is a binding occurrence of a variable

A Useful Auxiliary Function

nested "|" pattern (can't use variables)

Recall: A *value* is a successful result of a computation.

Once we have computed a value, there is no more work to be done.

Integers (3), strings ("hi"), functions ("fun $x \rightarrow x + 2$ ") are values.

Operations ("x + 2"), function calls ("f x"), match statements are not value.

Two Other Auxiliary Functions

```
(* eval_op v1 o v2:
    apply o to v1 and v2 *)
eval_op : value -> op -> value -> exp

(* substitute v x e:
    replace free occurrences of x with v in e *)
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
```

```
is value : exp -> bool
eval_op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp = ...
(* Goal: evaluate e; return resulting value *)
```

```
is_value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
    Int e i ->
  Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
```

```
is_value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) ->
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
```

```
is value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow
         let v1 = eval e1 in
         let v2 = eval e2 in
         eval op v1 op v2
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
```

```
is value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow
         let v1 = eval e1 in
         let v2 = eval e2 in
         eval op v1 op v2
   Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
         let v1 = eval e1 in
         let e2' = substitute v1 x e2 in
         eval e2'
```

Shorter but Dangerous

```
is_value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
   Op_e(e1,op,e2) ->
         eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
         eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
```

Simpler but Dangerous

```
is_value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
   Op e(e1,op,e2) ->
         eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow \uparrow
         eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
```

Which gets evaluated first?

Does OCaml use left-to-right eval order or right-to-left?

Always use OCaml let if you want to specify evaluation order.

Simpler but Dangerous

```
is_value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
   Op e(e1,op,e2) ->
         eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let e(x,e1,e2) -> ↑
        eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
```

Since the language we are interpreting is *pure* (no effects), it won't matter which expression gets evaluated first. We'll produce the same answer in either case.

Limitations of metacircular interpreters

```
is value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variab
                                         -> exp
                                         Which gets evaluated first,
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
                                           (eval e1) or (eval e2)?
  match e with
                                           Seems obvious, right?
                                       But that's because we assume
     Int_e i -> Int_e i
                                          OCaml has call-by-value
    Op e(e1,op,e2) ->
                                           evaluation! If it were
           let v1 = eval e1 in
                                          call-by-name, then this
           let v2 = eval e2 in
                                           ordering of lets would
           eval op v1 op v2
                                           not guarantee order
                                              of evaluation.
    Let_e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
           let v1 = eval e1
                                   Moral: using a language to define its
           let e2' = substit
                                   own semantics can have limitations.
           eval e2'
```

Back to the eval function...

(same as the one a couple of slides ago)

Simpler but Dangerous

```
is_value : exp -> bool
eval op : value -> op -> value -> value
substitute : value -> variable -> exp -> exp
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
   Op e(e1,op,e2) ->
         eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
         eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
```

Quick question:

Do you notice anything else suspicious here about this code? Anything OCaml might flag?

Oops! We Missed a Case:

If we start out with an expression with no *free variables*, we will never run into a free variable when we evaluate.

Every variable gets replaced by a value as we compute, via substitution.

Theorem: Well-typed programs have no free variables.

We could leave out the case for variables, but that will create a mess of Ocaml warnings – bad style. (Bad for debugging.)

We Could Use Options:

But this isn't quite right – we need to match on the recursive calls to eval to make sure we get Some value!

Exceptions

Instead, we can throw an exception.

Exceptions

Note that an exception declaration is a lot like a datatype declaration. Really, we are extending one big datatype (exn) with a new constructor (UnboundVariable).

Later on, we'll see how to catch an exception.

Exception or option?

In a previous lecture, I railed against Java for all of the null pointer exceptions it raised. Should we use options or exns?



"Do I contradict myself? Very well then, I contradict myself. I am large; I contain multitudes."
Wate Whitman

There are some rules; there is some taste involved.

- For errors/circumstances that will occur, use options (eg, because the input might be ill formatted).
- For errors that cannot occur (unless the program itself has a bug) and for which there are few "entry points" (few places checks needed) use exceptions
 - Java objects may be null everywhere

AUXILIARY FUNCTIONS

Evaluating the Primitive Operations

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
```

Want to replace x (and only x) with v.

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
 let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
        match e with
        | Int e ->
        Op_e(e1,op,e2) ->
        | Var e y ->
                    ... use x ...
        Let_e (y,e1,e2) -> ... use x ...
 in
 subst e
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
 let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
        match e with
         | Int_e _ -> e
         Op_e(e1,op,e2) ->
         | Var_e y ->
         Let_e (y,e1,e2) ->
 in
 subst e
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
 let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
        match e with
         | Int e -> e
         Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> Op_e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
         | Var e y ->
         Let e (y,e1,e2) ->
 in
 subst e
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
         match e with
         Int e -> e
         Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> Op_e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
         | Var e y \rightarrow if x = y then v else e
         Let e(y,e1,e2) \rightarrow
  in
  subst e
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
         match e with
         | Int e -> e
         Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow Op e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
         Var_e y -> if x = y then v else e
         Let e (y,e1,e2) ->
              Let e (y,
                     subst el,
                     subst e2)
  in
  subst e
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
         match e with
         | Int e -> e
         Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow Op e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
         Var e y -> if x = y then v else e
         Let e (y,e1,e2) ->
              Let e (y,
                     if x = y then el else subst el,
                     if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
  in
  subst e
```

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
         match e with
         | Int e -> e
         Op e(e1,op,e2) -> Op e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
         Var e y -> if x = y then v else e
           Let e(y,e1,e2) \rightarrow
              Let e (y,
                     subst el,
                     if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
  in
  subst e
;;
```

66

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
         match e with
          Inte -> e
          Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow Op e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
          Var e y -> if x = y then v else e
           Let e(y,e1,e2) \rightarrow
               Let e (y,
                       subst el,
                       if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
  in
  subst e
            If x and y are
;;
              the same
           variable, then y
```

shadows x.

SCALING UP THE LANGUAGE

(MORE FEATURES, MORE FUN)

OCaml's
fun x -> e
is represented as
Fun_e(x,e)

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp
    Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp
   Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp
                                      A function call
                                         fact 3
                                     is implemented as
                               FunCall_e (Var_e "fact", Int_e 3)
```

```
type exp = Int e of int | Op e of exp * op * exp
  | Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp
  | Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall e of exp * exp
let is value (e:exp) : bool =
 match e with
                                   Functions are
                                     values!
  | Int e -> true
  | Fun_e (_,_) -> true
  ( Op_e (_,_,_)
     Let_e (_,_,_)
     | Var e
     FunCall_e (_,_) ) -> false
```

Easy exam question:

What value does the OCaml interpreter produce when you enter (fun x -> 3) in to the prompt?

Answer: the value produced is (fun x -> 3)

Scaling up the Language:

```
type exp = Int e of int | Op e of exp * op * exp
  | Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp
  Fun e of variable * exp | FunCall e of exp * exp;;
let is_value (e:exp) : bool =
 match e with
  | Int e -> true
  | Fun_e (_,_) -> true
  ( Op_e (_,_,_)
     | Let e ( , , )
     Var_e _
     | FunCall_e (_,_) ) -> false
```

Function calls are not values.

Scaling up the Language:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1, eval e2 with
       Fun e (x,e), v2 \rightarrow eval (substitute v2 \times e)
       -> raise TypeError)
```

evaluate to

themselves.

Scaling up the Language:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1, eval e2 with
                                         itute v2 x e)
       Fun e (x,e), v2 -> eval (su)
       _ -> raise TypeError)
                                            values (including
                                            functions) always
```

Scaling up the Language:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1, eval e2 with
       Fun e (x,e), v2 \rightarrow e^{x}al (substitute v2 \times e)
       -> raise TypeError)
                                        To evaluate a
```

function call, we first evaluate both e1 and e2 to values.

type error.

Scaling up the Language

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun e (x,e) -> Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1, eval e2 with
       Fun e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
       -> raise TypeError)
                                          e1 had better
                                           evaluate to a
                                          function value,
                                          else we have a
```

Scaling up the Language

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun e (x,e) -> Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1, eval e2 with
       Fun e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
       -> raise TypeError)
```

Then we substitute e2's value (v2) for x in e and evaluate the resulting expression.

Simplifying a little

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1
       Fun e (x,e) -> eval (substitute (eval e2) x e)
       -> raise TypeError)
```

We don't really need to pattern-match on e2.

Just evaluate here

Simplifying a little

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (ef,e1) ->
      (match eval ef with
       Fun_e (x,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
       -> raise TypeError)
```

This looks like the case for let!

Let and Lambda

```
let x = 1 in x+41
-->
1+41
-->
42
```

```
(fun x -> x+41) 1
-->
1+41
-->
42
```

In general:

```
(fun x -> e2) e1 == let x = e1 in e2
```

So we could write:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
  | Int e i -> Int e i
  Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow eval (FunCall (Fun e (x,e2), e1))
  | Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
   Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
   FunCall e (ef,e2) ->
      (match eval ef with
       Fun e (x,e1) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
       -> raise TypeError)
```

In programming-languages speak: "Let is syntactic sugar for a function call"

Syntactic sugar: A new feature defined by a simple, local transformation.

Recursive definitions

```
type exp = Int e of int | Op e of exp * op * exp
   | Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp |
  | Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall e of exp * exp
  Rec e of variable * variable * exp
                                               (rewrite)
let rec f x = f(x+1) in f 3
                                               (alpha-convert)
let f = (rec f x -> f (x+1)) in
f 3
                                               (implement)
let q = (rec f x -> f (x+1)) in
g 3
```

```
Let_e ("g,
    Rec_e ("f", "x",
        FunCall_e (Var_e "f", Op_e (Var_e "x", Plus, Int_e 1))
),
FunCall (Var_e "g", Int_e 3)
)
```

Recursive definitions

Recursive definitions

Fun_e (x, body) == Rec_e("unused", x, body)

A better IR would just delete Fun_e – avoid unnecessary redundancy

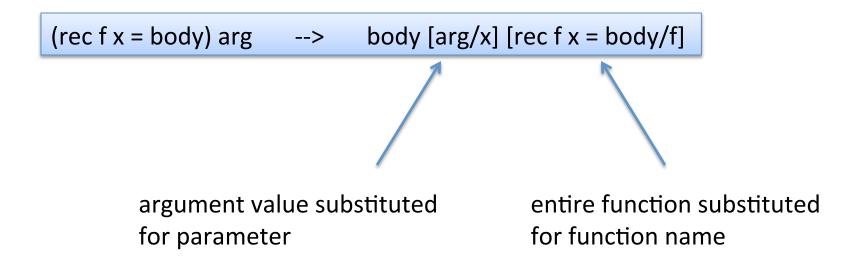
Interlude: Notation for Substitution

"Substitute value v for variable x in expression e:" e[v/x]

examples of substitution:

$$(x + y) [7/y]$$
 is $(x + 7)$
 $(let x = 30 in let y = 40 in x + y) [7/y]$ is $(let x = 30 in let y = 40 in x + y)$
 $(let y = y in let y = y in y + y) [7/y]$ is $(let y = 7 in let y = y in y + y)$

Basic evaluation rule for recursive functions:



Start out with a let bound to a recursive function:

```
let g =
  rec f x ->
  if x <= 0 then x
  else x + f (x-1)
in g 3</pre>
```

The Substitution:

```
g 3 [rec f x ->
    if x <= 0 then x
    else x + f (x-1) / g]</pre>
```

The Result:

```
(rec f x \rightarrow if x \leq 0 then x else x + f (x-1)) 3
```

Recursive Function Call:

```
(rec f x ->
  if x <= 0 then x else x + f (x-1)) 3</pre>
```

The Substitution:

```
(if x <= 0 then x else x + f (x-1))
  [ rec f x ->
        if x <= 0 then x
        else x + f (x-1) / f ]
  [ 3 / x ]</pre>
```

Substitute argument for parameter

Substitute entire function for function name

The Result:

```
(if 3 <= 0 then 3 else 3 +
   (rec f x ->
        if x <= 0 then x
        else x + f (x-1)) (3-1))</pre>
```

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
    Op e(e1,op,e2) \rightarrow eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
   Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
    Fun e (x,e) -> Fun e (x,e)
    FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval el with
                                         pattern as x
       Fun e (x,e) \rightarrow
           let v = eval e2 in
                                         match the pattern
           substitute e x v
                                         and binds x to value
        (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as f val ->
           let v = eval e2 in
           substitute f val f (substitute v x e)
       -> raise TypeError)
```

More Evaluation

```
(rec fact n = if n \le 1 then 1 else n * fact(n-1)) 3
-->
if 3 < 1 then 1 else
  3 * (rec fact n = if ... then ... else ...) (3-1)
-->
3 * (rec fact n = if ...) (3-1)
_->
3 * (rec fact n = if ...) 2
-->
3 * (if 2 \le 1 then 1 else 2 * (rec fact n = ...)(2-1))
-->
3 * (2 * (rec fact n = ...)(2-1))
-->
3 * (2 * (rec fact n = ...)(1))
-->
3 * 2 * (if 1 <= 1 then 1 else 1 * (rec fact ...)(1-1))
-->
3 * 2 * 1
```

A MATHEMATICAL DEFINITION* OF OCAML EVALUATION

From Code to Abstract Specification

OCaml code can give a language semantics

- advantage: it can be executed, so we can try it out
- advantage: it is amazingly concise
 - especially compared to what you would have written in Java
- disadvantage: it is a little ugly to operate over concrete ML datatypes like "Op_e(e1,Plus,e2)" as opposed to "e1 + e2"

From Code to Abstract Specification

PL researchers have developed their own standard notation for writing down how programs execute

- it has a mathematical "feel" that makes PL researchers feel special and gives us goosebumps inside
- it operates over abstract expression syntax like "e1 + e2"
- it is useful to know this notation if you want to read specifications of programming language semantics
 - e.g.: Standard ML (of which OCaml is a descendent) has a formal definition given in this notation (and C, and Java; but not OCaml...)
 - e.g.: most papers in the conference POPL (ACM Principles of Prog. Lang.)

Goal

Our goal is to explain how an expression e evaluates to a value v.

In other words, we want to define a mathematical *relation* between pairs of expressions and values.

Formal Inference Rules

We define the "evaluates to" relation using a set of (inductive) rules that allow us to *prove* that a particular (expression, value) pair is part of the relation.

A rule looks like this:

You read a rule like this:

"if premise 1 can be proven and premise 2 can be proven and ...
 and premise n can be proven then conclusion can be proven"

Some rules have no premises

- this means their conclusions are always true
- we call such rules "axioms" or "base cases"

An example rule

As a rule:

In English:

```
"If e1 evaluates to v1
and e2 evaluates to v2
and eval_op (v1, op, v2) is equal to v'
then
e1 op e2 evaluates to v'
```

An example rule

As a rule:

asserts i is an integer $i \in \mathbb{Z}$

In English:

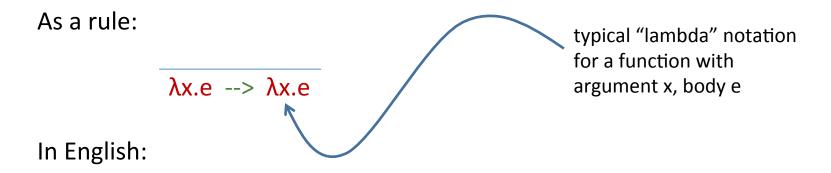
"If the expression is an integer value, it evaluates to itself."

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  ...
```

As a rule:

In English:

"If e1 evaluates to v1 (which is a *value*) and e2 with v1 substituted for x evaluates to v2 then let x=e1 in e2 evaluates to v2."



"A function value evaluates to itself."

As a rule:

$$e1 --> \lambda x.e$$
 $e2 --> v2$ $e[v2/x] --> v$ $e1 e2 --> v$

In English:

```
"if e1 evaluates to a function with argument x and body e
and e2 evaluates to a value v2
and e with v2 substituted for x evaluates to v
then e1 applied to e2 evaluates to v"
```

As a rule:

```
e1--> rec f x = e e2 --> v e[rec f x = e/f][v/x] --> v2
e1 e2 --> v2
```

In English:

"uggh"

Comparison: Code vs. Rules

complete eval code:

complete set of rules:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
                                                                          \frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i > i}
 match e with
   Int e i -> Int e i
   Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
                                                      e1 op e2 --> v
   Let e(x,e1,e2) \rightarrow eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
   Var e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
                                                                  Fun e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
                                                                        let x = e1 in e2 --> v2
   FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
      (match eval e1
                                                                         \lambda x.e \rightarrow \lambda x.e
       Fun_e (x,e) \rightarrow eval (Let_e (x,e2,e))
       _ -> raise TypeError)
   LetRec e (x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
                                                               e1 --> λx.e e2 --> v2 e[v2/x] --> v
    (Rec e (f,x,e)) as f val ->
      let v = eval e2 in
      substitute f val f (substitute v x e)
                                                         e1 e2 --> v3
```

Almost isomorphic:

- one rule per pattern-matching clause
- recursive call to eval whenever there is a --> premise in a rule
- what's the main difference?

Comparison: Code vs. Rules

complete eval code:

complete set of rules:

```
\frac{i \in Z}{i \longrightarrow i}
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
 match e with
    Int e i -> Int e i
                                                          e1 op e2 --> v
    Op e(e1,op,e2) -> eval op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
   Let e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
    Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
    Fun e (x,e) \rightarrow Fun e (x,e)
    FunCall e (e1,e2) ->
                                                                          λx.e --> λx.e
      (match eval e1
       | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (Let_e (x,e2,e))
| _ -> raise TypeError)
                                                               e1 --> \lambda x.e e2 --> v2 e[v2/x] --> v e1 e2 --> v
    LetRec e (x,e1,e2) \rightarrow
     (Rec e (f,x,e)) as f val ->
       let v = eval e2 in
       substitute f val f (substitute v x e)
                                                            e1 e2 --> v3
```

- There's no formal rule for handling free variables
- No rule for evaluating function calls when a non-function in the caller position
- In general, no rule when further evaluation is impossible
 - the rules express the *legal evaluations* and say nothing about what to do in error situations
 - the code handles the error situations by raising exceptions
 - type theorists prove that well-typed programs don't run into undefined cases

Summary

- We can reason about OCaml programs using a substitution model.
 - integers, bools, strings, chars, and functions are values
 - value rule: values evaluate to themselves
 - let rule: "let x = e1 in e2": substitute e1's value for x into e2
 - fun call rule: "(fun x -> e2) e1": substitute e1's value for x into e2
 - rec call rule: "(rec x = e1) e2": like fun call rule, but also substitute recursive function for name of function
 - To unwind: substitute (rec x = e1) for x in e1
- We can make the evaluation model precise by building an interpreter and using that interpreter as a specification of the language semantics.
- We can also specify the evaluation model using a set of inference rules
 - more on this in COS 510

Some Final Words

- The substitution model is only a model.
 - it does not accurately model all of OCaml's features
 - I/O, exceptions, mutation, concurrency, ...
 - we can build models of these things, but they aren't as simple.
 - even substitution is tricky to formalize!
- It's useful for reasoning about higher-order functions, correctness of algorithms, and optimizations.
 - we can use it to formally prove that, for instance:
 - map f (map g xs) == map (comp f g) xs
 - proof: by induction on the length of the list xs, using the definitions of the substitution model.
 - we often model complicated systems (e.g., protocols) using a small functional language and substitution-based evaluation.
- It is not useful for reasoning about execution time or space
 - more complex models needed there

Some Final Words

- The substitution model is only a model.
 - it does not accurately model all of OCaml's features
 - I/O, exceptions, mutation, concurrency, ...
 - we can build models of these things, but they aren't as simple.

del.

- even substitution was tricky to formalize!
- It's useful for reasoning about higher-ord correctness of algorithms, and optimization
 - prove that, for ir we can

You can say that again! I got it wrong the first time I tried, in 1932.

Fixed the bug by 1934, we though.

substitution



more complex models needed there



Alonzo Church, 1903-1995 Princeton Professor, 1929-1967

Church's mistake

substitute:

```
fun xs -> map (+) xs
```

for f in:

```
fun ys ->
let map xs = 0::xs in
f (map ys)
```

and if you don't watch out, you will get:

```
fun ys ->
let map xs = 0::xs in
(fun xs -> map (+) xs) (map ys)
```

Church's mistake

substitute:

```
fun xs -> map (+) xs
```

for f in:

```
fun ys ->
  let map xs = 0::xs in
  f (map ys)
```

the problem was that the value you substituted in had a *free variable* (map) in it that was captured.

and if you don't watch out, you will get:

```
fun ys ->
let map xs = 0::xs in
(fun xs -> map (+) xs) (map ys)
```

Church's mistake

substitute:

```
fun xs -> map (+) xs
```

for f in:

```
fun ys ->
let map xs = 0::xs in
f (map ys)
```

to do it right, you need to rename some variables:

```
fun ys ->
let z xs = 0::xs in
(fun xs -> map (+) xs) (z ys)
```

NOW WE ARE REALLY DONE!