

A Mathematical Model of OCaml

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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(e1,Plus,e2)**” as opposed to “**e1 + e2**”



From Code to Abstract Specification

PL has a notation for these specifications:

- it has a mathematical “feel” that makes PL researchers feel special and gives us *goosebumps* inside
- it operates over abstract expression syntax like “ $e_1 + e_2$ ”
- 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

4

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

I.e., we will define a *relation* between expressions and values.



Formal Inference Rules

We will 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:

$$\frac{\text{premise 1} \quad \text{premise 2} \quad \dots \quad \text{premise 3}}{\text{conclusion}}$$

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:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad \text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2) == v'}{e1 \text{ op } e2 \rightarrow v'}$$

In English:

“If $e1$ evaluates to $v1$
 and $e2$ evaluates to $v2$
 and $\text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2)$ is equal to v'
 then
 $e1 \text{ op } e2$ evaluates to v' ”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Op_e(e1, op, e2) -> let v1 = eval e1 in
                        let v2 = eval e2 in
                        let v' = eval_op v1 op v2 in
                        v'
```



An example rule

7

As a rule:

$$\frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i \dashrightarrow i}$$

asserts i is
an integer

In English:

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

In code:

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



An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 [v1/x] \rightarrow v2}{\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \rightarrow v2}$$

In English:

“If $e1$ evaluates to $v1$ (which is a *value*) and $e2$ with $v1$ substituted for x evaluates to $v2$ then $\text{let } x=e1 \text{ in } e2$ evaluates to $v2$.”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =  
  match e with  
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> let v1 = eval e1 in  
                      eval (substitute v1 x e2)  
  ...
```



An example rule concerning evaluation

9

As a rule:

$$\frac{}{\lambda x.e \dashrightarrow \lambda x.e}$$

typical “lambda” notation
for a function with
argument x, body e

In English:

“A function value evaluates to itself.”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =  
  match e with  
  ...  
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)  
  ...
```



An example rule concerning evaluation

10

As a rule:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \lambda x.e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[v2/x] \rightarrow v}{e1 \ e2 \rightarrow v}$$

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 ”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =  
  match e with  
  ..  
| Call_e (e1,e2) ->  
  (match eval e1 with  
   | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (substitute (eval e2) x e)  
   | ..)  
  ..  
...
```



An example rule concerning evaluation

11

As a rule:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e \quad e2 \rightarrow v \quad e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v/x] \rightarrow v2}{e1 \ e2 \rightarrow v2}$$

In English:

“uggh”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =  
  match e with  
  ...  
  | (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as f_val ->  
    let v = eval e2 in  
    substitute f_val (substitute v x e) g
```



Comparison: Code vs. Rules

12

complete eval code:

```
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
     | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (Let_e (x,e2,e))
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
  | LetRec_e (x,e1,e2) ->
    (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as f_val ->
    let v = eval e2 in
    substitute f_val f (substitute v x e)
```

complete set of rules:

$$\frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i \rightarrow i}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad \text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2) == v}{e1 \text{ op } e2 \rightarrow v}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 [v1/x] \rightarrow v2}{\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \rightarrow v2}$$
$$\frac{}{\lambda x. e \rightarrow \lambda x. e}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \lambda x. e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[v2/x] \rightarrow v}{e1 e2 \rightarrow v}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v2/x] \rightarrow v3}{e1 e2 \rightarrow v3}$$

Almost isomorphic:

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



Comparison: Code vs. Rules

complete eval code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
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  | 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
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     | _ -> raise TypeError)
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complete set of rules:

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$$\frac{}{\lambda x. e \rightarrow \lambda x. e}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \lambda x. e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[v2/x] \rightarrow v}{e1 e2 \rightarrow v}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \text{ x} = e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[\text{rec } f \text{ x} = e/f][v2/x] \rightarrow v3}{e1 e2 \rightarrow v3}$$

- 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



This Lecture's Model of Computation

This lecture's model of computation is often called the *substitution model*

It models pure programming features succinctly, but non-trivial changes are required to model more sophisticated constructs:

- I/O, exceptions, mutation, concurrency, ...
- we can build models of these things, but they aren't as simple.
- ... even modelling substitution was somewhat tricky

It's useful for reasoning about correctness of algorithms and optimizations

- we can use it to formally prove that, for instance:
 - $\text{map } f (\text{map } g \text{ } xs) == \text{map } (\text{comp } f \text{ } g) \text{ } xs$
 - proof: by induction on the length of the list xs , using the definitions of the substitution model

It is *not* useful for reasoning about execution time or space

- more complex models needed there



This Lecture's Model of Computation

This model of computation is often called the *substitution model*

It models pure programming features succinctly, but non-trivial changes are required to model more sophisticated constructs:

- I/O, exceptions, mutation, concurrency, ...
- we can build models of these things, but they aren't as simple as they seem
- ... even modelling substitution was somewhat tricky

It's useful for reasoning about program behavior, but not about execution time or space usage:

- we can use substitution to model program behavior:
 - map f (x) → f(x)
 - proof: by substitution

You can say that again!
I got it wrong the first
time I tried, in 1932.
Fixed the bug by 1934,
though.



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

It is *not* useful for reasoning about execution time or space usage:

- more complex models needed there

Church's mistake

substitute:

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

map is free here –
it refers to a
library function

for fin:

```
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

17

substitute:

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

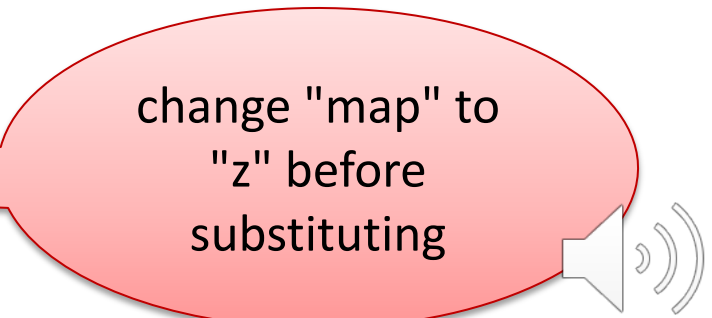
for f in:

```
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)
```

change "map" to
"z" before
substituting



Recap

In this lecture, we explored a mathematical specification of OCaml expressions

- we specified the evaluation model using a set of *inference rules*
- these inference rules defined a relation between expressions and values
- we found that values evaluated to themselves
 - values are the results of evaluation
 - integer constants and functions both count as values in this model of execution
- and we found that *substitution* is used to handle constructs that involve variable binding
 - let expressions: “let $x = e_1$ in e_2 ” -- substitute e_1 's value for x in e_2
 - function application: “(fun $x \rightarrow e_2$) e_1 ” -- substitute e_1 's value for x in e_2
 - recursive function application: “(rec $f\ x = e_1$) e_2 ” -- like non-recursive functions, but also substitute recursive function for name of function
- more on this in COS 510



Exercise

Try extending the language and rules for evaluation with:

- booleans (true, false, and, or, not, if)
- pairs (with pair creation and field extraction operations)

