

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

Xavier Leroy

**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  $\beta_v$  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  $\lambda$ -abstraction, so  $a$  cannot head-reduce by  $\beta_v$ , 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  $\beta_v$ -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  $\lambda$ -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.

## 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** 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  $\underline{m}$ . 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.3** 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  $\text{CONST}$  transition. If  $c$  starts with an  $\text{ADD}$  or  $\text{SUB}$  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  $\text{ADD}$  or  $\text{SUB}$  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.4** 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  $\geq 1 + (n - 1) = n$ .

**Exercise II.5** For question (1), we show that  $\forall a, \mathcal{E}_n(a) \leq \mathcal{E}_{n+1}(a)$  by induction over  $n$ . The base case  $n = 0$  is obvious since  $\mathcal{E}_0(a) = \perp$ . For the inductive case, we assume the result for  $n$  and consider  $\mathcal{E}_{n+2}(a)$  by case over  $a$ . The non-trivial case is  $a = b\ c$ . If  $\mathcal{E}_n(b) = \perp$  or  $\mathcal{E}_n(c) = \perp$ , then  $\mathcal{E}_{n+1}(a) = \perp$  and the result is obvious. Otherwise,  $\mathcal{E}_{n+1}(b) = \mathcal{E}_n(b)$  and  $\mathcal{E}_{n+1}(c) = \mathcal{E}_n(c)$ , from which it follows that either  $\mathcal{E}_{n+2}(a) = \text{err} = \mathcal{E}_{n+1}(a)$ , or  $\mathcal{E}_{n+2}(a) = \mathcal{E}_{n+1}(d[x \leftarrow v'])$  and  $\mathcal{E}_{n+1}(a) = \mathcal{E}_n(d[x \leftarrow v'])$  for the same  $d$  and  $v'$ , and the result follows by induction hypothesis.

We then conclude that  $\mathcal{E}_n(a) \leq \mathcal{E}_m(a)$  if  $n \leq m$  by induction on the difference  $m - n$  and transitivity of  $\leq$ .

Consider now the sequence  $(\mathcal{E}_n(a))_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  for a fixed  $a$ . Either  $\forall n, \mathcal{E}_n(a) = \perp$ , or  $\exists n, \mathcal{E}_n(a) \neq \perp$ . In the first case, the sequence is constant and equal to  $\perp$ , hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{E}_n(a) = \perp$ . In the second case, for all  $m \geq n$ ,  $\mathcal{E}_m(a) \geq \mathcal{E}_n(a) \neq \perp$ , that is,  $\mathcal{E}_m(a) = \mathcal{E}_n(a)$ . The sequence is therefore constant starting from rank  $n$ , hence  $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{E}_m(a)$  is defined and equal to  $\mathcal{E}_n(a)$ .

This limit corresponds to the behavior of the following Caml function applied to  $a$ :

```

let rec eval = function
| Const n -> Const n
| Var x -> raise Error
| Lam(x, a) -> Lam(x, a)
| App(a, b) ->
  let v = eval a in
  let v' = eval b in
  match v with Lam(x, c) -> eval (subst x v' c) | _ -> raise Error

```

That is, if the limit is a value  $v$ , `eval a` terminates and returns  $v$ ; if the limit is `err`, `eval a` terminates on an uncaught exception `Error`; and if the limit is  $\perp$ , `eval a` loops. The difference between this `eval` function and the one given in lecture I is that the former loops on terms such as  $1 \ \omega$  where  $\omega$  diverges, while the latter raises `Error` in this case.

For question (2), we show  $a \Rightarrow v \Rightarrow \exists n, \mathcal{E}_n(a) = v$  by induction on the derivation of  $a \Rightarrow v$ . The cases  $a = N$  and  $a = \lambda x.b$  are trivial: take  $n = 1$ . For the case  $a = b \ c$ , the induction hypothesis gives us integers  $p, q, r$  such that

$$\mathcal{E}_p(b) = \lambda x.d \quad \mathcal{E}_q(c) = v' \quad \mathcal{E}_r(d[x \leftarrow v']) = v$$

Taking  $n = 1 + \max(p, q, r)$  and using the monotonicity of  $\mathcal{E}$ , we have that  $\mathcal{E}_n(b \ c) = v$ .

Conversely, we show that  $\mathcal{E}_n(a) = v \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow v$  by induction over  $n$  and case analysis over  $a$ . Again, the cases  $a = N$  and  $a = \lambda x.b$  are trivial: we must have  $v = a$ . For the case  $a = b \ c$ , the fact that  $\mathcal{E}_{n+1}(a) = v$  (and not `err` nor  $\perp$ ) implies that

$$\mathcal{E}_n(b) = \lambda x.d \quad \mathcal{E}_n(c) = v' \quad \mathcal{E}_n(d[x \leftarrow v']) = v$$

The result follows by induction hypothesis applied to these three computations, and an application of the (app) rule.

For question (3), we show  $\forall a, a \Rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \mathcal{E}_n(a) = \perp$  by induction over  $n$ . The case  $n = 0$  is trivial. Assuming this property for  $n$ , we consider the evaluation rule that concludes  $a \Rightarrow \infty$ . For instance, if  $a = b \ c$  and  $b \Rightarrow \infty$ , by induction hypothesis,  $\mathcal{E}_n(b) = \perp$ , from which it follows that  $\mathcal{E}_{n+1}(a) = \perp$ . The proof is similar for the other two rules.

The converse implication  $(\forall n, \mathcal{E}_n(a) = \perp) \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow \infty$  follows from the coinduction principle applied to the set of terms

$$T = \{a \mid \mathcal{E}_n(a) = \perp \text{ for large enough } n\}$$

Consider  $a$  such that  $\mathcal{E}_n(a) = \perp$  for large enough  $n$ .  $a$  must be an application  $b \ c$ , otherwise we would have  $\mathcal{E}_n(a) \neq \perp$ . There are only three possible cases:

- $\mathcal{E}_n(b) = \perp$  for large enough  $n$ ;
- $\mathcal{E}_n(b) = v$  and  $\mathcal{E}_n c = \perp$  for large enough  $n$ ; all  $n$ ;
- $\mathcal{E}_n(b) = \lambda x.d$  and  $\mathcal{E}_n(c) = v$  and  $\mathcal{E}_n(d[x \leftarrow v]) = \perp$  for large enough  $n$ .

Combined with question (2), this shows that  $T$  satisfies the hypothesis of the coinduction principle.

## Part III: Program transformations

**Exercise III.1** The translation rule for  $\lambda$ -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  $\llbracket a \rrbracket$`  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 Closure {
  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 $\lambda x.a$ (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**

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{N / s \Rightarrow N / s \qquad \lambda x.a / s \Rightarrow \lambda x.a / s}{a / s \Rightarrow \lambda x.c / s_1 \quad b / s_1 \Rightarrow v' / s_2 \quad c[x \leftarrow v'] / s_2 \Rightarrow v / s' \qquad \frac{a / s \Rightarrow v / s'}{\text{ref } a / s \Rightarrow \ell / s' + \ell \mapsto v}}{a \ b / s \Rightarrow v / s'} \\
\frac{a / s \Rightarrow \ell / s'}{!a / s \Rightarrow s'(\ell) / s'} \qquad \frac{a / s \Rightarrow \ell / s_1 \quad b / s_1 \Rightarrow v / s'}{(a := b) / s \Rightarrow () / s' + \ell \mapsto v}
\end{array}$$



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

**Exercise III.6**

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

**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`:

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket \text{raise } a \rrbracket &= \text{raise } a \\ \llbracket \text{try } a \text{ with } x \rightarrow b \rrbracket &= \text{trywith } (\lambda z. a) (\lambda x. b) \end{aligned}$$

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 k2 -> push_handler k2; ...; 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 `trywith` satisfies hypotheses similar to those of `bind`, namely

5 `trywith (ret v) (λx.b) ≈ ret v`

6 `trywith a (λx.b) ≈ trywith a' (λx.b)` if  $a \approx a'$

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

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

with one additional hypothesis:

7 `trywith (raise v) (λx.b) ≈ b[x ← 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 `bind (raise v) (λx.b) ≈ 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 α m = (α -> answer) -> (exn -> answer) -> answer
  let return (x: α) : α m = fun k1 k2 -> k1 x
  let bind (x: α m) (f: α -> β m) : β 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:  $\alpha$ ) :  $\beta$  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.