FUN — Untyped — Environment Trigore Roşu and Traian Florin Şerbănuţă ({grosu,tserban2}@illinois.edu) niversity of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Abstract
This is the K semantic definition of the untyped FUN language. FUN is a pedagogical and research language that captures the essence of the functional programming paradigm, extended with several features often encountered in functional programming languages. Like many functional languages, FUN is an expression language, that is, everything, including the main program, is an expression. Functions can be declared anywhere and are first class values in the language. FUN is call-by-value here, but it has been extended (as student homework assignments) with other parameter-passing styles. To make it more interesting and to highlight some of K's strengths, FUN includes the following features: • The basic builtin data-types of integers, booleans and strings. • Builtin lists, which can hold any elements, including other lists. Lists are enclosed in square brackets and their elements are comma-separated; e.g., [1,2,3]. • User-defined data-types, by means of constructor terms. Constructor names start with a capital letter (while any other
 User-defined data-types, by means of constructor terms. Constructor names start with a capital letter (while any other identifier in the language starts with a lowercase letter), and they can be followed by an arbitrary number of commaseparated arguments enclosed in parentheses; parentheses are not needed when the constructor takes no arguments. For example, Pair(5,7) is a constructor term holding two numbers, Cons(1,Cons(2,Cons(3,Nil))) is a list-like constructor term holding 3 elements, and Tree(Tree(Leaf(1), Leaf(2)), Leaf(3)) is a tree-like constructor term holding 3 elements. In the untyped version of the FUN language, no type checking or inference is performed to ensure that the data constructors are used correctly. The execution will simply get stuck when they are misused. Moreover, since no type checking is performed, the data-types are not even declared in the untyped version of FUN. Functions and let/letrec binders can take multiple space-separated arguments, but these are desugared to ones that only take one argument, by currying. For example, the expressions fun x y -> x y let x y = y in x
are desugared, respectively, into the following expressions: fun x -> fun y -> x y let x = fun y -> y in x • Functions can be defined using pattern matching over the available data-types. For example, the program letrec max = fun [h] -> h
defines a function max that calculates the maximum element of a non-empty list, and the function letrec ack = fun Pair(0,n) -> n + 1
 let f Pair(x,y) = x+y in f Pair(1,2) because it is first reduced to let f = fun Pair(x,y) -> x+y in f Pair(1,2) by uncurrying of the let binder, and pattern matching is allowed in function arguments. We include a callcc construct, for two reasons: first, several functional languages support this construct; second, some semantic frameworks have difficulties defining it. Not K. Finally, we include mutables by means of referencing an expression, getting the reference of a variable, dereferencing and assignment. We include these for the same reasons as above: there are languages which have them, and they are not easy to define in some semantic frameworks.
Like in many other languages, some of FUN's constructs can be desugared into a smaller set of basic constructs. We do that as usual, using macros, and then we only give semantics to the core constructs. Note: We recommend the reader to first consult the dynamic semantics of the LAMBDA++ language in the first part of the K Tutorial. To keep the comments below small and focused, we will not re-explain functional or K features that have already been explained in there.
FUN is an expression language. The constructs below fall into several categories: names, arithmetic constructs, conventional functional constructs, patterns and pattern matching, data constructs, lists, references, and call-with-current-continuation (callcc). The arithmetic constructs are standard; they are present in almost all our K language definitions. The meaning of FUN's constructs are discussed in more depth when we define their semantics in the next module. The Syntactic Constructs
We start with the syntactic definition of FUN names. We have several categories of names: ones to be used for functions and variables, others to be used for data constructors, others for types and others for type variables. We will introduce them as needed, starting with the former category. We prefer the names of variables and functions to start with lower case letters. We take the freedom to tacitly introduce syntactic lists/sequences for each nonterminal for which we need them: $ \text{SYNTAX} \textit{Name} ::= Token\{[a-z][\setminus a-zA-Z0-9]*\} \text{ [notInRules]} $ $ \text{SYNTAX} \textit{Names} ::= List\{\textit{Name}, ","\} $ Expression constructs will be defined throughtout the syntax module. Below are the very basic ones, namely the builtins, the
names, and the parentheses used as brackets for grouping. Lists of expressions are declared strict, so all expressions in the list get evaluated whenever the list is on a position which can be evaluated: SYNTAX
SYNTAX $Exp := if Exp$ then Exp else Exp [strict(1)] FUN's builtin lists are formed by enclosing comma-separated sequences of expressions (i.e., terms of sort $Exps$) in square brackets. The list constructor cons adds a new element to the top of the list, head and tail get the first element and the tail sublist of a list if they exist, respectively, and get stuck otherwise, and null?? tests whether a list is empty or not; syntactically, these are just expression constants. In function patterns, we are also going to allow patterns following the usual head/tail notation; for example, the pattern $[x_1,, x_n t]$ binds $x_1,, x_n$ to the first elements of the matched list, and t to the list formed with the remaining elements. We define list patterns as ordinary expression constructs, although we will make sure that we do not give them semantics if they appear in any other place then in a function case pattern. SYNTAX $Exp ::= [Exps]$ [strict] cons
head tail null? $[Exps \mid Exp]$ Data constructors start with capital letters and they may or may not have arguments. We need to use the attribute "prefer" to make sure that, e.g., Cons(a) parses as constructor Cons with argument a, and not as the expression Cons (because constructor names are also expressions) regarded as a function applied to the expression a. Also, note that the constructor is strict in its second argument, because we want to evaluate its arguments but not the constructor name itsef. SYNTAX $Exp := ConstructorName$
SYNTAX $Exp ::= ConstructorName(Exps)$ [prefer, strict(2)] A function is essentially a " "-separated ordered sequence of cases, each case of the form "pattern -> expression", preceded by the language construct fun. Patterns will be defined shortly, both for the builtin lists and for user-defined constructors. Recall that the syntax we define in \mathbb{K} is not meant to serve as a ultimate parser for the defined language, but rather as a convenient notation for \mathbb{K} abstract syntax trees, which we prefer when we write the semantic rules. It is therefore often the case that we define a more "generous" syntax than we want to allow programs to use. We do it here, too. Specifically, the syntax of $Cases$ below allows any expressions to appear as pattern. This syntactic relaxation permits many wrong programs to be parsed, but that is not a problem because we are not going to give semantics to wrong combinations, so those programs will get stuck; moreover, our type inferencer will reject those programs anyway. Function application is just concatenation of expressions, without worrying about type correctness. Again, the type system will reject type-incorrect programs.
SYNTAX Exp ::= fun Cases Exp Exp [strict] SYNTAX Case ::= Exp -> Exp SYNTAX Cases ::= List{Case, " "} The let and let rec binders have the usual syntax and functional meaning. We allow multiple and-separated bindings. Like for the function cases above, we allow a more generous syntax for the left-hand sides of bindings, noting that the semantics will get stuck on incorrect bindings and that the type system will reject those programs. SYNTAX Exp ::= let Bindings in Exp
let rec <i>Bindings</i> in <i>Exp</i> [prefer] SYNTAX <i>Bindings</i> ::= <i>Exp</i> = <i>Exp</i> SYNTAX <i>Bindings</i> ::= <i>List</i> { <i>Binding</i> , "and"} References are first class values in FUN. The construct ref takes an expression, evaluates it, and then it stores the resulting value at a fresh location in the store and returns that reference. Syntactically, ref is just an expression constant. The construct & takes a name as argument and evaluates to a reference, namely the store reference where the variable passed as argument stores its value; this construct is a bit controversial and is further discussed in the environment-based semantics of the FUN language, where we desugar ref to it. The construct @ takes a reference and evaluates to the value stored there. The construct := takes two expressions, the first expected to evaluate to a reference; the value of its second argument will be stored at the location to which the first points (the old value is thus lost). Finally, since expression evaluation now has side effects, it makes
sense to also add a sequential composition construct, which is sequentially strict. This evaluates to the value of its second argument; the value of the first argument is lost (which has therefore been evaluated only for its side effects. SYNTAX Exp ::= ref & Name @ Exp [strict] Exp := Exp [strict] Exp ; Exp [strict]] Call-with-current-continuation, named callcoin FUN, is a powerful control operator that originated in the Scheme programming language, but it now exists in many other functional languages. It works by evaluating its argument, expected to evaluate
to a function, and by passing the current continuation, or evaluation context (or computation, in \mathbb{K} terminology), as a special value to it. When/If this special value is invoked, the current context is discarded and replaced with the one held by the special value and the computation continues from there. It is like taking a snapshot of the execution context at some moment in time and then, when desired, being able to get back in time to that point. If you like games, it is like saving the game now (so you can work on your homework!) and then continuing the game tomorrow or whenever you wish. To issustrate the strength of callcc, we also allow exceptions in FUN by means of a conventional try-catch construct, which will desugar to callcc. We also need to introduce the special expression contant throw, but we need to use it as a function argument name in the desugaring macro, so we define it as a name instead of as an expression constant: SYNTAX $Exp ::= callcc try Exp catch (Name)Exp$ SYNTAX $Name ::= throw$
Finally, FUN also allows polymorphic datatype declarations. These will be useful when we define the type system later on. SYNTAX $Exp ::= datatype Type = TypeCases Exp$ We next need to define the syntax of types and type cases that appear in datatype declarations. Like in many functional languages, type parameters/variables in user-defined types are quoted identifiers. SYNTAX $TypeVar ::= Token\{[\][a-z][\ a-zA-Z0-9]*\}$ [notInRules] SYNTAX $TypeVars ::= List\{TypeVar, ", "\}$
Types can be basic types, function types, or user-defined parametric types. In the dynamic semantics we are going to simply ignore all the type declations, so here the syntax of types below is only useful for generating the desired parser. To avoid syntactic ambiguities with the arrow construct for function cases, we use the symbol> as a constructor for function types: SYNTAX $TypeName ::= Token\{[a-z][\setminus a-zA-Z0-9]*\}$ [notInRules] SYNTAX $Type ::= int$ bool string $Type -> Type$ $(Type)$ [bracket]
(Type) [bracket] TypeVar TypeName [klabel('TypeName), onlyLabel] Type TypeName [klabel('Type-TypeName), onlyLabel] (Types)TypeName [prefer] SYNTAX Types ::= List{Type, ", "} SYNTAX TypeCase ::= ConstructorName ConstructorName(Types) SYNTAX TypeCases ::= List{TypeCase, " "}
Desugaring macros We desugar the list non-constructor operations to functions matching over list patterns. In order to do that we need some new variables; for those, we follow the same convention like in the k tutorial, where we added them as new identifier constructs starting with the character so we can easily recognize them when we debug or trace the semantics.
starting with the character \$, so we can easily recognize them when we debug or trace the semantics. SYNTAX Name ::= \$h
Multiple-head list patterns desugar into successive one-head patterns:
RULE $\frac{F \ P = E}{F = \text{fun } P \rightarrow E}$ We desugar the try-catch construct into callco: SYNTAX Name ::= \$k
RULE $\frac{'TypeName(Tn:TypeName)}{(\bullet_{TypeVars})Tn}$ RULE $\frac{'Type-TypeName(T:Type,Tn:TypeName)}{(T)Tn}$ The dynamic semantics ignores all the type declarations: RULE $\frac{\text{datatype }T=TCs\ E}{E}$
Semantics The semantics below is environment-based. A substitution-based definition of FUN is also available, but that drops the & construct as explained above.
The k, env, and store cells are standard (see, for example, the definition of LAMBDA++ or IMP++ in the first part of the K tutorial). CONFIGURATION: **Store** **Map** **M
Values and results We only define integers, Booleans and strings as values here, but will add more values later. SYNTAX Val ::= Int
SYNTAX $KResult ::= Val$ Lookup RULE $X:Name$ $X:Name$ $X:Value$
RULE $\underbrace{I1:Int*I2:Int}_{I1*Int}I2$ RULE $\underbrace{I1:Int*I2:Int}_{I1:Int}I2$ requires $I2 \neq_K 0$ RULE $\underbrace{I1:Int}_{I1:Int} \otimes I2:Int}_{I1:Int}$ requires $I2 \neq_K 0$ RULE $\underbrace{I1:Int*S:I2:Int}_{I1:Int}$ requires $I2 \neq_K 0$ RULE $\underbrace{I1:Int*S:I2:Int}_{I1:Int}$ requires $I2 \neq_K 0$
RULE $S1:String \ S2:String$ $S1 + String \ S2$ RULE $I1:Int - I2:Int$ $I1 - Int \ I2$ RULE $I1:Int < I2:Int$ $I1 - Int \ I2$ RULE $I1:Int < I2:Int$ $I1 < Int \ I2$ RULE $I1:Int < I2:Int$
RULE $\frac{I1:Int > I2:Int}{I1 >_{Int} I2}$ RULE $\frac{I1:Int >= I2:Int}{I1 >_{Int} I2}$ RULE $\frac{V1:Val == V2:Val}{V1 =_{K} V2}$ RULE $\frac{V1:Val != V2:Val}{V1 \neq_{K} V2}$
$V1 \neq_{K} V2$ $\text{RULE} \frac{! \; T : Bool}{\neg_{Bool}(T)}$ $\text{RULE} \frac{\text{true && } E}{E}$ $\text{RULE} \frac{\text{false && } -}{\text{false}}$ $\text{RULE} \frac{\text{true } -}{\text{true}}$ $\text{RULE} \text{false } \; E$
Lists We have already declared the syntactic list of expressions strict, so we can assume that all the elements that appear in a FUN list are evaluated. The only thing left to do is to state that a list of values is a value itself, that is, that the list square-bracket construct is indeed a constructor, and to give the semantics of cons. Since cons is a builtin function and is expected to take two arguments, we have to also state that cons itself is a value (specifically, a function/closure value, but we do not need that level of detail here), and also that cons applied to a value is a value (specifically, it would be a function/closure value that expects the second, list argument):
RULE $isVal(\cos V:Val)$ true RULE $cons V:Val \ [Vs:Vals]$ $V = Val \ [Vs:Vals]$ Data Constructors Constructors take values as arguments and produce other values:
SYNTAX Val ::= ConstructorName ConstructorName ConstructorName(Vals) Functions and Closures Like in the environment-based semantics of LAMBDA++ in the first part of the K tutorial, functions evaluate to closures. A closure includes the current environment besides the function contents; the environment will be used at execution time to lookup all the variables that appear free in the function body (we want static scoping in FUN). SYNTAX Val ::= closure (Map, Cases)
Note: The reader may want to get familiar with how the pre-defined pattern matching works before proceeding. The best way to do that is to consult k/include/modules/pattern-matching.k. To set up the pattern matching mechanism we need to specify what K terms act as variables (for pattern matching, substitution, etc.). This is currently done my subsorting those terms to the builtin Variable sort. In our case, we only want to allow the Name identifiers to act as variables for pattern matching; note that the ConstructorName identifiers are <i>not</i> variables (they construct data values):
SYNTAX $Variable ::= Name$ We distinguish two cases when the closure is applied. If the first pattern matches, then we pick the first case: switch to the closed environment, get the matching map and bind all its variables, and finally evaluate the function body of the first case, making sure that the environment is properly recovered afterwards. If the first pattern does not match, then we drop it and thus move on to the next one. RULE Closure $(\rho, P \rightarrow E \mid -)$ $V:Val$ requires isMatching (P, V)
Let and Letrec To highlight the similarities and differences between let and letrec, we prefer to give them direct semantics instead of to desugar them like in LAMBDA. See the formal definitions of bindTo, bind, and assignTo at the end of this module. Informally, bindTo(Xs , Es) first evaluates the expressions $Es \in Exps$ in the current environment (i.e., it is strict in its second argument), then it binds the variables in $Xs \in Names$ to new locations and adds those bindings to the environment, and finally writes the values previously obtained after evaluating the expressions Es to those new locations; bind(Xs) does only the bindings of Xs to new locations and adds those bindings to the environment; and assignTo(Xs , Es) evaluates the expressions Es in the current environment and then it writes the resulting values to the locations to which the variables Xs are already bound to in the environment. Therefore, "let $Xs=Es$ in E " first evaluates Es in the current environment, then adds new bindings for Xs to fresh locations in the environment, then writes the values of Es to those locations, and finally evaluates E in the new environment, making sure that the environment is properly recovered after the evaluation of E . On the other hand, letrec does the same things but in a different order: it first adds new bindings for Xs to fresh locations in the environment, then it writes the resulting values to their corresponding locations, and finally it evaluates Es in the new environment. The crucial difference is that the expressions Es now see the locations of the variables Xs in the environment, so if they are functions, which is typically the case with letrec, their closures will encapsulate in their environments the bindings of all the bound variables, including themselves (thus, we may have a closure value stored at location Es the environment contains a binding of the form Es this way, the closure can invoke itself).
RULE $\frac{\text{let } Bs \text{ in } E}{\text{bindTo (names } (Bs), \text{ exps } (Bs)) \curvearrowright E \curvearrowright \text{ env } (\rho)}$ RULE $\frac{\text{letrec } Bs \text{ in } E}{\text{bind (names } (Bs)) \curvearrowright \text{ assignTo (names } (Bs), \text{ exps } (Bs)) \curvearrowright E \curvearrowright \text{ env } (\rho)}$ Recall that our syntax allows let and letrec to take any expression in place of its binding. This allows us to use the already existing function application construct to bind names to functions, such as, e.g., "let $x \ y = y \ \text{in } \dots$ ". The desugaring macro in the syntax module uncurries such declarations, and then the semantic rules above only work when the remaining
RULE $\frac{\text{ref}}{\text{fun $x \to \& $x}}$ RULE $\frac{\& X}{L}$ RULE $\frac{\& X}{L}$
RULE $\underbrace{L:Int:=V:Val}_{V}$ $\underbrace{L\mapsto -\frac{1}{V}}_{V}$ RULE $\underbrace{V:Val;E}_{E}$ The desugaring rule of ref (first rule above) works because & takes a variable and returns its location (like in C). Note that some "pure" functional programming researchers strongly dislike the & construct, but favor ref. We refrain from having a personal opinion on this issue here, but support & in the environment-based definition of FUN because it is, technically speaking, more powerful than ref. From a language design perspective, it would be equally easy to drop & and instead give
speaking, more powerful than ref. From a language design perspective, it would be equally easy to drop & and instead give a direct semantics to ref. In fact, this is precisely what we do in the substitution-based definition of FUN, because there appears to be no way to give a substitution-based definition to the & construct. Callcc As we know it from the LAMBDA++ tutorial, call-with-current-continuation is quite easy to define in \mathbb{K} . We first need to define a special value wrapping an execution context, that is, an environment saying where the variables should be looked up, and a computation structure saying what is left to execute (in a substitution-based definition, this special value would be even simpler, as it would only need to wrap the computation structure—see, for example, the substitution-based semantics of LAMBDA++ in the the first part of the \mathbb{K} tutorial, or the substitution-based definition of FUN). Then callcc creates such a value containing the current environment and the current remaining computation, and passes it to its argument function.
SYNTAX $K ::= \text{env } (Map)$ RULE $\frac{\text{env } (-)}{\bullet_K} \curvearrowright \text{env } (-)$ RULE $\frac{\text{env } (\rho)}{\bullet_K} \nearrow \frac{\text{env } (\rho)}{\bullet_K}$ bindTo, bind and assignTo. The meaning of these operations has already been explained when we discussed the let
SYNTAX $K := \text{bindTo } (Names, Exps) \text{ [strict(2)]}$ bindTo (Map) bindTo $(Names, Vs: Vals)$ bindTo $(GetMatching)$ bindTo $(GetMatching)$ bindTo $(GetMatching)$ bindTo $(GetMatching)$ bindTo $(GetMatching)$ continued when we discussed the test and lettree language constructs above.
RULE bindTo $(X:Name \mapsto V:Val)$ \bullet_{Map} RULE bind (\bullet_{Names}) \bullet_{K} RULE bind $(X:Name, Xs)$ \bullet_{K} ρ ρ ρ ρ ρ ρ ρ
RULE assignTo $(\bullet_{Names}, \bullet_{Vals})$ \bullet_{K} RULE assignTo $(X:Name, Xs, V:Val, Vs)$ $X \mapsto L$ \bullet_{Map} $L \mapsto V$
Getters. The following auxiliary operations extract the list of identifiers and of expressions in a binding, respectively. SYNTAX Names ::= names (Bindings) [function] RULEnames ($\bullet_{Bindings}$) \bullet_{Names} RULEnames ($X:Name =$ and Bs) $(X, names (Bs))$ SYNTAX $Exps ::= exps (Bindings) [function]$ RULEexps ($\bullet_{Bindings}$)
RULE $\underbrace{\frac{\text{exps}\left(\bullet_{Bindings}\right)}{\bullet_{Exps}}}_{\bullet_{Exps}}$ RULE $\underbrace{\frac{\text{exps}\left(\text{:Name} = E \text{ and } Bs\right)}{E, \text{ exps}\left(Bs\right)}}_{\bullet_{Exps}}$