# High-performance defunctionalization in Futhark

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**Abstract.** General-purpose massively parallel processors, such as GPUs, have become common, but are difficult to program. Pure functional programming can be a solution, as it guarantees referential transparency, and provides useful combinators for expressing data-parallel computations. Unfortunately, one of the main features of functional programming, namely higher-order functions, cannot be efficiently implemented on GPUs by the usual means. In this paper, we present a defunctionalization transformation that relies on type-based restrictions on the use of expressions of functional type, such that we can completely eliminate higher-order functions in all cases, without introducing any branching. We prove the correctness of the transformation and discuss its implementation in Futhark, a data-parallel functional language that generates GPU code. The use of these restricted higher-order functions has no impact on run-time performance, and we argue that we gain many of the benefits of general higher-order functions, without in most practical cases being hindered by the restrictions.

**Keywords:** Defunctionalization  $\cdot$  GPGPU  $\cdot$  Compilers.

# 1 Introduction

Higher-order functional languages enable programmers to write abstract, composable, and modular programs [11]. Functional languages are often considered well-suited for parallel programming, because of the lack of shared state and side effects. The emergence of commodity massively parallel processors, such as GPUs, has exacerbated the need for developing practical techniques for programming parallel hardware.

However, GPU programming is notoriously difficult, since GPUs offer a significantly more restricted programming model than that of CPUs. For example, GPUs do not readily allow for higher-order functions to be implemented, mainly because GPUs have only limited support for function pointers.

If higher-order functions cannot be implemented directly, we may opt to remove them by means of a program transformation that replaces them by a simpler language mechanism. The canonical such transformation is *defunctionalization*, which was first described by Reynolds [14]. Reynolds' defunctionalization abstracts each functional value by a set of records that represent each particular instance of the function, and the functional values in a program are

```
let g' (env:{a:i32}) (y:i32) =
                                 let a = env.a in y+a
                               let f' (env:{g:{a:i32}})
let twice (g:i32->i32) =
  \x -> g (g x)
                                       (x:i32) =
                                  let g = env.g
let main =
                                  in g' g (g' g x)
  let f =
                               let main =
                                 let f = let a = 5
    let a = 5
    in twice (y \rightarrow y+a)
                                           in \{g = \{a = a\}\}\
                                 in f' f 1 + f' f 2
  in f 1 + f 2
       (a) Source program.
                                         (b) Target program.
```

Fig. 1: Example demonstrating the defunctionalization transformation.

abstracted by the disjoint union of these sets. Each application in a program is then replaced by a call to an *apply* function, which performs a case match on each of the functional forms and essentially serves as an interpreter for the functional values in the original program. The most basic form will add a case to the *apply* function for every function abstraction in the source program. This amount of branching is very problematic for GPUs because of the issue of *branch divergence*. Since threads in a GPU execute together in lockstep, in so called *warps* of usually 32 threads, a large amount of branching will cause many threads to be idle in the branches where they are not executing instructions.

By restricting the use of functions in programs, we are able to statically determine the form of the applied function at every application. Specifically, we disallow conditionals and loops from returning functional values, and we disallow arrays from containing functions. These restrictions allow defunctionalization by specializing each application to the particular form of function that may occur at run time. The result is essentially equivalent to inlining completely the *apply* function in a program produced by Reynolds defunctionalization. Notably, the transformation does not introduce any additional branching.

We have used the *Futhark* [9] language to demonstrate this idea. Futhark is a data-parallel, purely functional array language with the main goal of generating high-performance parallel code. Although the language itself is hardware-agnostic, the main focus is on the implementation of an aggressively optimizing compiler that generates efficient GPU code via OpenCL.

To illustrate the basic idea, we show a simple Futhark program in Figure 1a and the resulting program after defunctionalization in Figure 1b (simplified slightly). The result is a first-order program which explicitly pass around the closure environments, in the form of records capturing the free variables, in place of the first-class functions in the source program.

The principal contributions of this paper are:

 A defunctionalization transformation expressed on a simple data-parallel functional array language, with type rules that restrict the use of higherorder functions to allow for the defunctionalization to effectively remove higher-order functions in all cases, without introducing any branching.

- A correctness proof of the transformation: a well-typed program will translate to another well-typed program and the translated program will evaluate to a value, corresponding to the value of the original program, or fail with an error if the original program fails.
- A description and evaluation of the transformation as implemented in the compiler for a real high-performance functional language (Futhark).

In the following, we use the notation  $(\mathcal{Z}_i)^{i\in 1..n}$  to denote a sequence of objects  $\mathcal{Z}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{Z}_n$ , where each  $\mathcal{Z}_i$  may be a syntactic object, a derivation of a judgment, and so on. Further, we sometimes write  $\mathcal{D} :: \mathcal{J}$  to give the name  $\mathcal{D}$  to the derivation of the judgment  $\mathcal{J}$  so that we can refer to it later.

# 2 Language

To be able to formally define and reason about the defunctionalization transformation, to be presented in Section 3, we define a simple functional language on which the transformation will operate. Conceptually, the transformation goes from a source language to a target language, but since the target language will be a sublanguage of the source language, we shall generally treat them as one and the following definitions will apply to both languages, unless stated otherwise.

The language is a  $\lambda$ -calculus extended with various features to resemble the Futhark language, including records, arrays with in-place updates, a parallel map, and a sequential loop construct. In the following, we define its abstract syntax, operational semantics, and type system.

### 2.1 Syntax

The set of types of the source language is given by the following grammar. The metavariable  $\ell \in \mathbf{Lab}$  ranges over record labels.

$$\tau ::= \mathbf{int} \mid \mathbf{bool} \mid \tau_1 \to \tau_2 \mid \{(\ell_i \colon \tau_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \mid []\tau$$

Record types are considered identical up to permutation of fields.

The abstract syntax of expressions of the source language is given by the following grammar. The metavariable  $x \in \mathbf{Var}$  ranges over variables of the source language. We assume an injective function  $Lab : \mathbf{Var} \to \mathbf{Lab}$  that maps variables to labels. Additionally, we let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

$$\begin{array}{l} e ::= x \mid \overline{n} \mid \mathbf{true} \mid \mathbf{false} \mid e_1 + e_2 \mid e_1 \leq e_2 \\ \mid \mathbf{if} \ e_1 \ \mathbf{then} \ e_2 \ \mathbf{else} \ e_3 \\ \mid \lambda x \colon \tau. \ e_0 \mid e_1 \ e_2 \mid \mathbf{let} \ x = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ e_2 \\ \mid \{(\ell_i = e_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \mid e_0.\ell \\ \mid [(e_i)^{i \in 1..n}] \mid e_1[e_2] \mid e_0 \ \mathbf{with} \ [e_1] \leftarrow e_2 \mid \mathbf{length} \ e_0 \\ \mid \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda x. \ e_1) \ e_2 \mid \mathbf{loop} \ x = e_1 \ \mathbf{for} \ y \ \mathbf{in} \ e_2 \ \mathbf{do} \ e_3 \end{array}$$

#### 4 Anders Kiel Hovgaard et al.

Expressions are considered identical up to renaming of bound variables. Array literals are required to be non-empty in order to simplify the rules and relations in the following and in the metatheory. Empty arrays can be supported fairly easily, for example by annotating arrays with the type of their elements.

The syntax of expressions of the target language is identical to that of the source language except that it does not have  $\lambda$ -abstractions and application. Similarly, the types of the target language does not include function types.<sup>1</sup>

We define a judgment,  $\tau$  orderZero, given by the rules in Figure 2, asserting that a type  $\tau$  has order zero, which means that  $\tau$  does not contain any function type as a subterm.

Fig. 2: Judgment asserting that a type has order zero.

# 2.2 Typing rules

The typing rules for the language are mostly standard except for restrictions on the use of functions in certain places. Specifically, a conditional may not return a function, arrays are not allowed to contain functions, and a loop may not produce a function. These restrictions are enforced by the added premise of the judgment  $\tau$  orderZero in the rules for conditionals, array literals, parallel maps, and loops. Aside from these restrictions, the use of higher-order functions and functions as first-class values is not restricted and, in particular, records are allowed to contain functions of arbitrarily high order. It is worth emphasizing that we only restrict the form of the results produced by conditionals and loops, and the results of expressions contained in arrays; the subexpressions themselves may contain definitions and applications of arbitrary functions.

A typing context (or type environment)  $\Gamma$  is a finite sequence of variables associated with their types:

$$\Gamma ::= \cdot \mid \Gamma, x : \tau$$

The empty context is denoted by ·, but is often omitted from the actual judgments. The variables in a typing context are required to be distinct. This requirement can always be satisfied by renaming bound variables as necessary.

The set of variables bound by a typing context is denoted by dom  $\Gamma$  and the type of a variable x bound in  $\Gamma$  is denoted by  $\Gamma(x)$  if it exists. We write

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the actual implementation, the target language does include application of first-order functions, but in our theoretical work we just inline the functions for simplicity.

 $\Gamma, \Gamma'$  to denote the typing context consisting of the mappings in  $\Gamma$  followed by the mappings in  $\Gamma'$ . Note that since the variables in a context are distinct, the ordering is insignificant. Additionally, we write  $\Gamma \subseteq \Gamma'$  if  $\Gamma'(x) = \Gamma(x)$  for all  $x \in \text{dom } \Gamma$ . The typing rules for the language are given in Figure 3.

Fig. 3: Typing rules.

# 2.3 Semantics

The operational semantics of the source (and target) language could be defined in a completely standard way, but for the sake of the metatheory and the connection with the defunctionalization transformation to be presented later, we choose to define an operational semantics with an evaluation environment and function closures rather than using simple  $\beta$ -reduction for evaluation of applications. The semantics is given in a big-step style for the same reasons.

Evaluation environments  $\Sigma$  and values v are defined mutually inductively:

$$\begin{split} & \Sigma ::= \cdot \mid \varSigma, x \mapsto v \\ & v ::= \overline{n} \mid \mathbf{true} \mid \mathbf{false} \mid clos(\lambda x \colon \tau. \; e_0, \varSigma) \mid \{(\ell_i = v_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \mid [(v_i)^{i \in 1..n}] \end{split}$$

Evaluation environments  $\Sigma$  map variables to values and has the same properties and notations as the typing context with regards to extension, variable lookup, and distinctness of variables. A function *closure*, denoted  $clos(\lambda x : \tau. e_0, \Sigma)$ , is a value that captures the environment in which a  $\lambda$ -abstraction was evaluated. The values of the target language are the same, but without function closures.

Because the language involves array indexing and updating, a well-typed program may still not evaluate to one of the above values, in case an attempt is made to access an index outside the bounds of an array. To be able to distinguish between such an out-of-bounds error and a stuck expression that is neither a value nor can evaluate to anything, we introduce the special term  $\operatorname{\mathbf{err}}$  to denote an out-of-bounds error and we define a  $\operatorname{\mathit{result}} r$  to be either a value or  $\operatorname{\mathbf{err}}$ .

The big-step operational semantics for the language is given by the derivation rules in Figure 4. In case any subexpression evaluates to **err**, the entire expression should evaluate to **err**, so it is necessary to give derivation rules for propagating these error results. Unfortunately, this error propagation involves creating many extra derivation rules and duplicating many premises. We show the rules that introduce **err**; however, we choose to omit the ones that propagate errors and instead just note that for each of the non-axiom rules below, there are a number of additional rules for propagating errors. For instance, for the rule E-APP, there are additional rules E-APPERR{1,2,0}, which propagate errors in the applied expression, the argument, and the closure body, respectively.

The rule E-LOOP refers to an auxiliary judgment form, defined in Figure 5, which performs the iterations of the loop, given a starting value and a sequence of values to iterate over. Like the main evaluation judgment, this one also has rules for propagating **err** results, which are again omitted.

## 3 Defunctionalization

We now define the defunctionalization transformation which translates an expression in the source language to an equivalent expression in the target language that does not contain any higher-order subterms or use of first-class functions.

Translation environments (or defunctionalization environments) E and static values sv are defined mutually inductively, as follows:

$$E ::= \cdot \mid E, x \mapsto sv$$

$$sv ::= Dyn \ \tau \mid Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E \mid Rcd \ \{(\ell_i \mapsto sv_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \mid Arr \ sv_0$$

Translation environments map variables to static values. We assume the same properties as we did for typing contexts and evaluation environments, and we use analogous notation.

As the name suggests, a static value is essentially a static approximation of the value that an expression will eventually evaluate to. This resembles the role of types, which also approximate the values of expressions, but static values posses more information than types. As a result of the restrictions on the use of functions in the type system, the static value Lam that approximates functional

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{Var} \colon \overline{\Sigma \vdash x \downarrow v} \quad (\Sigma(x) = v) \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{Num} \colon \overline{\Sigma \vdash \overline{n} \downarrow \overline{n}} \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{True} \colon \overline{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{true} \downarrow \mathrm{true}} \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{PLUS} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \overline{n_1}}{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \overline{n_1}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_2 \downarrow \overline{n_2}} \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{E} - \mathrm{LEQT} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \overline{n_1}}{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \overline{n_1}}} \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{FALSE} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{false} \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{false} \downarrow \overline{n_1}}} \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{LEQT} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \overline{n_1}}{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \leq e_2 \downarrow \mathrm{true}}} \quad (n_1 \leq n_2) \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{LEQF} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \overline{n_1}}{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}} \quad (n_1 > n_2) \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{LEQT} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{true}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \psi \\ \overline{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_2 \downarrow v} \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{IFF} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_3 \downarrow v \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{LAM} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{true}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \psi \\ \overline{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_3 \downarrow v} \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{APP} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_3 \downarrow v \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{APP} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_3 \downarrow v \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{APP} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \psi \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{RCD} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{Imp} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \psi \\ \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{RCD} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{Imp} \colon \overline{\frac{\Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow \mathrm{false}}{\Sigma \vdash \mathrm{if} \ e_1 \ \mathrm{true}}} \quad \mathbb{E} - \mathrm{Imp} \quad \mathbb{E} \cdot \mathbb{E} = \mathbb{E} \cdot \mathbb{E} \cdot \mathbb{E} \cdot \mathbb{E} \quad \mathbb{E} \cdot \mathbb{E} \cdot$$

Fig. 4: Big-step operational semantics.

values, will contain the actual function parameter and body, along with a defunctionalization environment containing static values approximating the values in the closed-over environment.

$$\Sigma; x = v_0; y = (v_i)^{i \in 1...n} \vdash e \downarrow r$$

$$EL-NIL: \overline{\Sigma; x = v_0; y = \cdot \vdash e \downarrow v_0}$$

$$EL-Cons: \overline{\Sigma; x \mapsto v_0, y \mapsto v_1 \vdash e \downarrow v_0'} \quad \Sigma; x = v_0'; y = (v_i)^{i \in 2...n} \vdash e \downarrow v$$

$$\Sigma; x = v_0; y = (v_i)^{i \in 1...n} \vdash e \downarrow v$$

Fig. 5: Auxiliary judgment for the semantics of loops.

The defunctionalization translation takes place in a defunctionalization environment, as defined above, which mirrors the evaluation environment by approximating the values by static values, and it translates a given expression e to a residual expression e' and its corresponding static value sv. The residual expression resembles the original expression, but  $\lambda$ -abstractions are translated into record expressions that capture the values in the environment at the time of evaluation. Applications are translated into let-bindings that bind the record expression, the closed-over variables, and the function parameter.

As with record types, we consider Rcd static values to be identical up to reordering of the label-entries. Additionally, we consider Lam static values to be identical up to renaming of the parameter variable, as for  $\lambda$ -abstractions.

The transformation is defined by the derivation rules in Figure 6 and Figure 7.

In the implementation, the record in the residual expression of rule D-LAM only captures the free variables in the  $\lambda$ -abstraction. Likewise, the defunctionalization environment embedded in the static value is restricted to the free variables. This refinement is not hard to formalize, but it does not add anything interesting to the development, so we have omitted it for simplicity.

Notice how the rules include aspects of both evaluation and type checking, in analogy to how static values are somewhere in-between values and types. For instance, the rules ensure that variables are in scope, and that a conditional has a Dyn boolean condition and the branches have the same static value. Somewhat curiously, this constraint on the static values of branches actually allows for a conditional to return functions in its branches, as long as the functions are  $\alpha$ -equivalent. The same is true for arrays and loops.

This transformation translates any order zero expression into an equivalent expression that does not contain any higher-order functions. Any first-order expression can be translated by converting the types of its parameters (which are necessarily order zero) to static values, by mapping record types to Rcd static values and base types to Dyn static values, and including these as bindings for the parameter variables in an initial translation environment.

By a relatively simple extension to the system, we can support any number of top-level function definitions that take parameters of arbitrary type and can have any return type, as long as the designated *main* function is first-order.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{D-Var: } \overline{E \vdash x \leadsto \langle x, sv \rangle} \quad \text{($E(x) = sv$)} \quad \text{D-Num: } \overline{E \vdash \overline{n} \leadsto \langle \overline{n}, Dyn \text{ int} \rangle} \\ \text{D-True: } \overline{E \vdash \text{true} \leadsto \langle \text{true}, Dyn \text{ bool} \rangle} \quad \text{(equivalent rule D-False)} \\ \text{D-Plus: } \overline{E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e_1', Dyn \text{ int} \rangle} \quad E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e_2', Dyn \text{ int} \rangle \\ \overline{E \vdash e_1 + e_2 \leadsto \langle e_1' + e_2', Dyn \text{ int} \rangle} \quad \text{(rule D-Leq)} \\ \text{D-If: } \overline{E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e_1', Dyn \text{ bool} \rangle} \quad E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e_2', sv \rangle \quad E \vdash e_3 \leadsto \langle e_3', sv \rangle \\ \overline{E \vdash \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3 \leadsto \langle \text{if } e_1' \text{ then } e_2' \text{ else } e_3', sv \rangle}} \\ \text{D-Lam: } \overline{E \vdash \lambda x \colon \tau. e_0 \leadsto \langle \{(Lab(y) = y)^{y \in \text{dom } E}\}, Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E \rangle} \\ \overline{E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e_1', Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E_0 \rangle} \\ \text{D-App: } \overline{E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e_2', sv_2 \rangle} \quad E_0, x \mapsto sv_2 \vdash e_0 \leadsto \langle e_0', sv \rangle} \\ \text{where } e' = \text{let } env = e_1' \text{ in } (\text{let } y = env. Lab(y) \text{ in)}^{y \in \text{dom } E_0}} \\ \text{let } x = e_2' \text{ in } e_0' \\ \hline E \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \leadsto \langle \text{let } x = e_1' \text{ in } e_2', sv \rangle} \\ \hline E \vdash \text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \leadsto \langle \text{let } x = e_1' \text{ in } e_2', sv \rangle} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Fig. 6: Derivation rules for the defunctionalization transformation.

# 4 Metatheory

In this section, we show type soundness and argue for the correctness of the defunctionalization transformation presented in Section 3. We show that the transformation of a well-typed expression always terminates and yields another well-typed expression. Finally, we show that the meaning of a defunctionalized expression is equivalent to the meaning of the original expression.

### 4.1 Type soundness and normalization

We first show type soundness. Since we are using a big-step semantics, the situation is a bit different from the usual approach of showing progress and preservation for a small-step semantics. One of the usual advantages of using a small-step semantics is that it allows distinguishing between diverging and stuck terms, whereas for a big-step semantics, neither a diverging term nor a stuck term is related to any value. As we shall see, however, for the big-step semantics that we have presented, any well-typed expression will evaluate to a result that is either err or a value that is, semantically, of the same type. Thus, we also establish that the language is strongly normalizing, which comes as no surprise given the lack of recursion and bounded number of iterations of loops.

$$\begin{array}{c} E \vdash e \leadsto \langle e', sv \rangle \\ \\ D\text{-RCD:} & \frac{(E \vdash e_i \leadsto \langle e'_i, sv_i \rangle)^{i \in 1...n}}{E \vdash \{(\ell_i = e_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \leadsto \langle \{(\ell_i = e'_i)^{i \in 1..n}\}, Rcd \ \{(\ell_i \mapsto sv_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \rangle} \\ \\ D\text{-PROJ:} & \frac{E \vdash e_0 \leadsto \langle e'_0, Rcd \ \{(\ell_i \mapsto sv_i)^{i \in 1..n}\} \rangle}{E \vdash e_0.\ell_k \leadsto \langle e'_0.\ell_k, sv_k \rangle} \\ \\ D\text{-ARRAY:} & \frac{(E \vdash e_i \leadsto \langle e'_i, sv \rangle)^{i \in 1..n}}{E \vdash [e_1, \dots, e_n] \leadsto} & E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, Arr \ sv \rangle \\ \\ D\text{-INDEX:} & \frac{E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e'_2, Dyn \ \textbf{int} \rangle}{E \vdash e_1 [e_2] \leadsto \langle e'_1 [e'_2], sv \rangle} \\ \\ D\text{-UPDATE:} & \frac{E \vdash e_0 \leadsto \langle e'_0, Arr \ sv \rangle}{E \vdash e_0 \iff \langle e'_0, Arr \ sv \rangle} & E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, Dyn \ \textbf{int} \rangle & E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e'_2, Arr \ sv \rangle \\ \\ D\text{-LENGTH:} & \frac{E \vdash e_0 \leadsto \langle e'_0, Arr \ sv \rangle}{E \vdash \textbf{length} \ e_0 \leadsto \langle \textbf{length} \ e'_0, Dyn \ \textbf{int} \rangle} \\ \\ D\text{-MAP:} & \frac{E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e'_2, Arr \ sv_2 \rangle}{E \vdash \textbf{map} \ (\lambda x. \ e_1) \ e_2 \leadsto \langle \textbf{map} \ (\lambda x. \ e'_1) \ e'_2, Arr \ sv_1 \rangle} \\ \\ D\text{-LOOP:} & \frac{E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, sv \rangle}{E \vdash \textbf{loop} \ x = e_1 \ \textbf{for} \ y \ \textbf{in} \ e'_2 \ \textbf{do} \ e'_3, sv \rangle} \\ \\ \\ \Rightarrow \langle \textbf{loop} \ x = e'_1 \ \textbf{for} \ y \ \textbf{in} \ e'_2 \ \textbf{do} \ e'_3, sv \rangle \\ \\ \end{array}$$

Fig. 7: Derivation rules for the defunctionalization transformation (cont.).

To this end, we first define a relation between values and types, given by derivation rules in Figure 8, and extend it to relate evaluation environments and typing contexts.

Fig. 8: Relation between values and types, and evaluation environments and typing contexts, respectively.

We then state and prove type soundness as follows. We do not go into the details of the proof and how the relation between values and types is used. The cases for T-LAM and T-APP are the most interesting in this regard, but we omit the details in favor of other results which more directly pertain to defunctionalization. A similar relation and its role in the proof of termination and preservation of typing for the defunctionalization transformation is described in more detail in Section 4.2.

**Lemma 1 (Type soundness).** *If*  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  *(by*  $\mathcal{T}$ *) and*  $\vDash \Sigma : \Gamma$ *, for some*  $\Sigma$ *, then*  $\Sigma \vdash e \downarrow r$ *, for some* r*, and either*  $r = \mathbf{err}$  *or* r = v*, for some* v*, and*  $\vDash v : \tau$ *.* 

*Proof.* By induction on the typing derivation  $\mathcal{T}$ . In the case for T-LAM, we prove the implication in the premise of the rule relating closure values and function types. In the case for T-APP, we use this implication to obtain the needed derivations for the body of the closure. In the case for T-LOOP, in the subcase where the first two subexpressions evaluate to values, we proceed by an inner induction on the structure of the corresponding sequence of values for the loop iterations.

#### 4.2 Translation termination and preservation of typing

In this section, we show that the translation of a well-typed expression always terminates and that the translated expression is also well-typed, with a typing context and type that can be obtained from the defunctionalization environment and the static value, respectively.

We first define a mapping from static values to types, which shows how the type of a residual expression can be obtained from its static value:

This is extended to map defunctionalization environments to typing contexts, by mapping each individual static value in an environment.

$$\begin{split} & \llbracket \, \cdot \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} = \cdot \\ & \llbracket \, E, x \mapsto sv \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} = \llbracket \, E \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \, , x : \llbracket \, sv \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \end{split}$$

In order to be able to show termination and preservation of typing for defunctionalization, we first define a relation,  $\vDash sv : \tau$ , between static values and types, similar to the previous relation between values and types, and further extend it to relate defunctionalization environments and typing contexts. This relation is given by the rules in Figure 9.

Fig. 9: Relation between static values and types, and defunctionalization environments and typing contexts, respectively.

By assuming this relation between some defunctionalization environment E and a typing context  $\Gamma$  for a given typing derivation, we can show that a well-typed expression will translate to some expression and additionally produce a static value that is related to the type of the original expression according to the above relation. Additionally, the translated expression is well-typed in the typing context obtained from E with a type determined by the static value. This strengthens the induction hypothesis to allow the case for application to go through, which would otherwise not be possible. This approach is quite similar to the previous proof of type soundness and normalization of evaluation.

We first prove an auxiliary lemma about the above relation between static values and types, which states that for types of order zero, the related static value is uniquely determined. This property is crucial to the ability of defunctionalization to uniquely determine the function at every application site, and it is used in the proof of Theorem 1 in the cases for conditionals, array literals, array updates, and loops.

**Lemma 2.** If 
$$\vDash sv : \tau$$
,  $\vDash sv' : \tau$ , and  $\tau$  orderZero, then  $sv = sv'$ .

*Proof.* By induction on the derivation of 
$$\vDash sv : \tau$$
.

The following lemma states that if a static value is related to a type of order zero, then the static values maps to the same type. This property is used to establish that the types of order zero terms are unchanged by defunctionalization. It is also used in the cases for conditionals, array literals, loops, and maps in the proof of Theorem 1.

**Lemma 3.** For any 
$$sv$$
, if  $\vDash sv : \tau$  and  $\tau$  orderZero, then  $\llbracket sv \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} = \tau$ .

*Proof.* By induction on the structure of 
$$sv$$
.

Finally, we can state and prove termination and preservation of typing for the defunctionalization translation as follows:

**Theorem 1.** If  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  (by  $\mathcal{T}$ ) and  $\models E : \Gamma$ , for some E, then  $E \vdash e \leadsto \langle e', sv \rangle$ ,  $\models sv : \tau$ , and  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{tp} \vdash e' : \llbracket sv \rrbracket_{tp}$ , for some e' and sv.

*Proof.* By induction on the typing derivation  $\mathcal{T}$ . Most cases are straightforward applications of the induction hypothesis to the subderivations, often reasoning by inversion on the obtained relations between static values and types, and extending the assumed relation  $\models E : \Gamma$  to allow for further applications of the induction hypothesis. Then the required derivations are subsequently constructed directly. A few representative cases of the proof are included in the appendix.  $\square$ 

### 4.3 Preservation of meaning

In this section, we show that the defunctionalization transformation preserves the meaning of expressions in the following sense: If an expression e evaluates to a value v in an environment  $\Sigma$ , then the translated expression e' will evaluate to a corresponding value v' in a corresponding environment  $\Sigma'$ , and if e evaluates to **err**, then e' will evaluate to **err** in the context  $\Sigma'$  as well.

The correspondence between values in the source program and target program, and their evaluation environments, will be made precise shortly, but intuitively, we replace each function closure in the source program by a record containing the values in the closure environment.

We first define a simple relation between source language values and static values, given in Figure 10, and extend it to relate evaluation environments and defunctionalization environments in the usual way. Note that this relation actually defines a function from values to static values.

Fig. 10: Relation between values and static values.

Next, we define a mapping from source language values to target language values, which simply converts each function closure to a corresponding record

expression that contains the converted values from the closure environment:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket v \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} &= v \,, \quad \text{for } v \in \{\overline{n}, \mathbf{true}, \mathbf{false} \} \\ \llbracket \operatorname{clos}(\lambda x \colon \tau. \; e_0, \varSigma) \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} &= \{ (\operatorname{Lab}(y) = \llbracket v_y \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}})^{(y \mapsto v_y) \in \varSigma} \} \\ \llbracket \left\{ (\ell_i = v_i)^{i \in 1..n} \right\} \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} &= \{ (\ell_i = \llbracket v_i \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}})^{i \in 1..n} \} \\ \llbracket \left[ (v_i)^{i \in 1..n} \right] \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} &= \left[ (\llbracket v_i \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}})^{i \in 1..n} \right] \end{split}$$

We extend this mapping homomorphically to evaluation environments. The case for arrays is actually moot, since arrays will never contain function closures.

The following lemma states that if a value is related to a type of order zero, according to the previously defined relation between values and types used in the proof of type soundness, then the value maps to itself, that is, values that do not contain function closures are unaffected by defunctionalization:

**Lemma 4.** If 
$$\models v : \tau$$
 and  $\tau$  orderZero, then  $\llbracket v \rrbracket_{\text{val}} = v$ .

*Proof.* By induction on the derivation of  $\vDash v : \tau$ .

We now prove the following theorem, which states that the defunctionalization transformation preserves the meaning of an expression that is known to evaluate to some result, where the value of the defunctionalized expression and the values in the environment are translated according to the translation from source language values to target language values given above.

**Theorem 2 (Semantics preservation).** If  $\Sigma \vdash e \downarrow r$  (by  $\mathcal{E}$ ),  $\vDash \Sigma : E$  (by  $\mathcal{R}$ ), and  $E \vdash e \leadsto \langle e', sv \rangle$  (by  $\mathcal{D}$ ), then if r = err, then also  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}} \vdash e' \downarrow \text{err}$  and if r = v, for some value v, then  $\vDash v : sv$  and  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}} \vdash e' \downarrow \llbracket v \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$ .

*Proof.* By structural induction on the big-step evaluation derivation  $\mathcal{E}$ . A few of the more interesting cases is attached in the appendix.

Note that we did not assume the source expression to be well-typed. As mentioned previously, this is because the translation rules inherently perform some degree of type checking. For example, an expression like **if** b **then** ( $\lambda x$ : **int**. x + a) **else** ( $\lambda x$ : **int**. x + b) is not well-typed since the branches have order 1, but it will not translate to anything either, since the constraint in the rule D-IF, that the static value of each branch must be identical, cannot be satisfied.

# 4.4 Correctness of defunctionalization

To summarize the previous properties and results relating to the correctness of the defunctionalization transformation, we state the following corollary which follows by type soundness (Lemma 1), normalization and preservation of typing for defunctionalization (Theorem 1), and semantics preservation of defunctionalization (Theorem 2), together with Lemma 3 and Lemma 4.

Corollary 1 (Correctness). If  $\vdash e : \tau$  and  $\tau$  orderZero, then  $\vdash e \downarrow r$ , for some  $r, \vdash e \leadsto \langle e', sv \rangle$ , for some e' and sv, and  $\vdash e' : \tau$  and  $\vdash e' \downarrow r$  as well.

# 5 Implementation

The defunctionalization transformation that was presented in Section 3 has been implemented in the Futhark compiler, which is developed in the open on GitHub and publicly available at <a href="https://github.com/diku-dk/futhark">https://github.com/diku-dk/futhark</a>.

In this section, we discuss how our implementation diverges from the theoretical description. As Futhark is a real language with a fairly large number of syntactical constructs, as well as features such as uniqueness types for supporting in-place updates and size-dependent types for reasoning about the sizes of arrays, it would not be feasible to do a formal treatment of the entire language.

Futhark supports a small number of parallel higher-order functions, such as map, reduce, scan, and filter, as compiler intrinsics. These are specially recognized by the compiler, and exploited to perform optimizations and generate parallel code. User-defined parallel higher-order functions are ultimately defined in terms of these. As a result, the program produced by the defunctionalizer is not exclusively first-order, but may contain fully saturated applications of these built-in functions.

#### 5.1 Polymorphism, function types, and monomorphization

Futhark supports parametric polymorphism is the form of let-polymorphism. The defunctionalizer, however, only works on monomorphic programs and therefore, programs are *monomorphized* before being passed to the defunctionalizer. To achieve this, a monomorphization pass has been implemented. This pass simply records all polymorphic functions occurring in a given program and specializes each of them for each distinct set of type instantiations, as determined by the applications occurring in the program.

Since the use of function types should be restricted as described earlier, it is necessary to distinguish between type variables which may be instantiated with any type, and type variables which may only take on types of order zero. Without such distinction, one could write an invalid program that we would not be able to defunctionalize, for example by instantiating the type a with a function type in the following:

```
let ite 'a (b: bool) (x: a) (y: a) : a =
  if b then x else y
```

To prevent this from happening, we have introduced the notion of *lifted type variables*, written 'a, which are unrestricted in the types that they may be instantiated with, while the regular type variables may only take on types of order zero. Consequently, a lifted type variable must be considered to be of order greater than zero and is thus restricted in the same way as function types.

#### 5.2 Array shape parameters

Futhark employs a system of runtime-checked size-dependent types, where the programmer may give shape declarations in function definitions to express shape

invariants about parameter and result arrays. Shape parameters (listed before ordinary parameters and enclosed in brackets) are not explicitly passed on application. Instead, they are implicitly inferred from the arguments of the value parameters. Defunctionalization could potentially destroy the shape invariants. For example, consider partially applying a function such as the following:

```
let f [n] (xs: [n]i32) (ys: [n]i32) = ...
```

In the implementation, we preserve the connection between the shapes of the two array parameters by capturing the shape parameter n along with the array parameter xs in the record for the closure environment. In the case of the function f, the defunctionalized program will look something like the following:

```
let f^{n}: i32, xs: []i32\} (ys: [n]i32) = ...
let f[n](xs: [n]i32) = \{n=n, xs=xs\}
```

The Futhark compiler will then insert a dynamic check to verify that the size of array ys is equal to the value of argument n.

Of course, built-in operations that truly rely on these invariants, such as zip, will perform this shape check regardless, but by maintaining these invariants in general, we prevent code from silently breaching the contract that was specified by the programmer through the shape annotations in the types.

Having extended Futhark with higher-order functions, it might be useful to also be able to specify shape invariants on expressions of function type in general. This can be done by eta-expanding the function expression and inserting type ascriptions with shape annotations on the order-zero parameters and bodies. For instance, the following type ascription,

```
e : ([n]i32 \rightarrow [m]i32) \rightarrow [m]i32
```

would be translated as follows:

```
\x -> (e (\y:[n]i32) -> x y : [m]i32)) : [m]i32
```

This feature has not yet been implemented in Futhark.

### 5.3 Optimizations

When the defunctionalization algorithm processes an application, the D-APP rule will replicate the lambda body  $(e_0)$  at the point of application. This implicit copying is equivalent to fully inlining all functions, which will produce very large programs if the same function is called in many locations. In our implementation, we instead perform lambda lifting [12] to move the definition of the lambda to a top-level function, parameterized by an argument representing its lexical closure, and simply insert a call to that function.

However, this lifting produces the opposite problem: we may now produce a very large number of trivial functions. In particular, when lifting curried functions that accept many parameters, we will create one function for each partial application, corresponding to each parameter. To limit the copying and lifting, our implementation extends the notion of static values with a *dynamic function*,

which is simply a first-order functional analogue to dynamic values. We then add a translation rule similar to D-APP that handles the case where the function is a dynamic function rather than a *Lam*.

Finally, our implementation inlines lambdas with particularly simple bodies; in particular those that contain just a single primitive operation or a record literal. The latter case corresponds to functions produced for partial applications.

# 6 Empirical evaluation

The defunctionalization technique presented in this paper can be empirically evaluated by two metrics. First, is the code produced by defunctionalization efficient? Second, are higher-order functions with our type restrictions useful? The former question is the easier to answer, as we can simply rewrite a set of benchmark programs to make use of higher-order functions, and measure whether the performance of the generated code changes. We have done this by using the existing Futhark benchmark suite, which contains thirty Futhark programs translated from a range of other suites, including Accelerate [3], Rodinia [4], and Parboil [16]. These implementations all make heavy use of operations such as map, reduce, scan, filter, and so forth. These used to be language constructs, but are now higher-order functions that wrap compiler intrinsics. Further, most benchmarks have been re-written to make use of higher-order utility functions (such as flip, curry, uncurry, and function composition and application) where appropriate. As expected, this had no impact on run-time performance, although compilation times did increase by up to a factor of two.

The more interesting question is whether the restrictions we put on higherorder functions are too onerous in practice. While some things are indeed impossible, the below demonstrates that certain popular "functional design patterns" are unaffected by these restrictions.

### 6.1 Functional images

Church Encoding can be used to represent objects such as integers via lambda terms. While modern functional programmers tend to prefer built-in numeric types for efficiency reasons, other representations of data as functions have remained popular. One of these is functional images, as implemented in the Haskell library Pan [6]. Here, an image is represented as a function from a point on the plane to some value. In higher-order Futhark, we can define this as

```
type img 'a = point -> a
type cimage = img color
```

for appropriate definitions of point and color. Transformations on images are then defined simply as function composition.

Interestingly, none of the combinators and transformations defined in Pan require the aggregation of images in lists, or returning them from a branch. Hence, we were able to translate the entirety of the Pan library to Futhark. The reason



Fig. 11: Images rendered by the Futhark implementation of functional images. The annulus defined by the left-most image is used to overlay greyscale and colorized Mandelbrot fractals.

is likely that Pan itself was designed for staged compilation, where Haskell is merely used as a meta-language for generating code for some high-performance object language [7]. This approach requires restrictions on the use of functions that are essentially identical to the ones we introduced for Futhark. In Futhark, we can directly generate high-performance parallel code, and modern GPUs are easily powerful enough to render most functional images (and animations) at a high frame rate. Essentially, once the compiler finishes its optimizations, we are left with a trivial two-dimensional map that computes the color of each pixel completely independently. Example images are shown on Figure 11. The Mandelbrot fractal, the implementation of which is translated from [13], in particular is expensive to compute at high resolutions.

# 7 Allowing conditionals of function type

Given that the main novelty enabling efficient defunctionalization is the restrictions in the type system, it is interesting to consider how these restrictions could be loosened to allow more programs to be typed and transformed, and what consequences this would have for the efficiency of the transformed programs.

In the following, we consider lifting the restriction on the type of conditionals. This change introduces a binary choice for the static value of a conditional and this choice may depend on dynamic information. The produced static value must capture this choice. Thus, we may extend the definition of static values as follows:

$$sv ::= \cdots \mid Or \ sv_1 \ sv_2$$

It is important not to introduce more branching than necessary, so the static values of the branches of a conditional should be appropriately combined to isolate the dynamic choice at much as possible. In particular, if a conditional returns a record, the Or static value should only be introduced for those record fields that produce Lam static values.

The residual expression for a functional value occurring in a branch must be extended to include some kind of token to indicate which branch is taken at run time. Unfortunately, it is fairly complicated to devise a translation that preserves typeability in the current type system. The residual expression of a function occurring in a nested conditional would need to include as many tokens as the maximum depth of nesting in the outermost conditional. Additionally, the record capturing the free variables in a function would need to include the union of all the free variables in each  $\lambda$ -abstraction that can be returned from that conditional. Hence, we would have to include "dummy" record fields for those variables that are not in scope in a given function, and "dummy" tokens for functions that are not deeply nested in branches.

What is needed to remedy this situation, is the addition of (binary) sum types to the language:

$$\tau ::= \cdots \mid \tau_1 + \tau_2$$

If we add binary sums, along with expression forms for injections and case-matching, the transformation would just need to keep track of which branches were taken to reach a particular function-type result and then wrap the usual residual expression in appropriate injections. An application of an expression with an Or static value would then perform pattern matching until it reaches a Lam static value and then insert let-bindings to put the closed-over variables into scope, for that particular function.

# 8 Related work

Support for higher-order functions is not widespread in parallel programming languages. For example, they are not supported in the pioneering work on NESL [1], which was targeted at a vector execution model with limitations similar to modern GPUs. Data Parallel Haskell (DPH) [2] was in many ways an extension of the ideas in NESL and does support higher-order functions, using a technique based on closure conversion. DPH's code generation target is traditional multicore CPUs, where this is a viable technique. The GPU language Harlan [10] is notable for its powerful feature set, and it does support higher-order functions via Reynolds-style defunctionalization. The authors of Harlan note that this could cause performance problems, but that it has not done so yet. This is likely because most of the Harlan benchmark programs do not make much use of closures on the GPU.

A general body of related work includes mechanisms for removing abstractions at compile time including the techniques, used for instance by Accelerate [3] and Obsidian [5], for embedded domain specific languages (EDSLs). These languages use a staged compilation approach where Haskell is used as a metalanguage to generate first-order imperative target programs. While the target programs are themselves first-order, meta-programs may use the full power of Haskell, including higher-order functions. As our approach has limitations, so does the EDSL approach; in particular, care has to be taken that source language functions do not end up in target arrays. Besides from Reynolds' early work on definitional interpreters, Reynolds has also demonstrated the use of functor categories to compile the lambda-calculus part of an Algol-like language

away at compile time, leaving only target code that is purely imperative [15]. Unlike our approach, it is unclear how this approach applies to abstract types and the larger class of (also non-imperative) core language features.

Another body of related work includes the seminal work by [17] and [8] on establishing the basic proof technique on using logical relations for expressing normalization and termination properties for the simply-typed lambda calculus and System F, which has been the inspiring work for establishing the property of termination for our defunctionalization technique.

#### 9 Conclusion and future work

We have shown a useful design for implementing higher-order functions in high-performance functional languages, by using a defunctionalization transformation that exploits type-based restrictions on functions to avoid introducing branches in the resulting first-order program. We have proven this transformation correct. Further, we have discussed the extensions and optimizations we found necessary for applying the transformation in a real compiler, and demonstrated that the type restrictions are not a great hindrance in practice.

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### A Proofs

## A.1 Translation termination and preservation of typing

In order to be able to prove Theorem 1, we state a number of lemmas in the following. We begin with usual weakening lemma for typing derivations.

**Lemma 5** (Weakening). If  $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  and  $\Gamma \subseteq \Gamma'$ , then also  $\Gamma' \vdash e : \tau$ .

*Proof.* By induction on the structure of the expression e.

Using this, we show the following lemma which allows a sequence of assumptions in a typing context to be "folded" into an assumption of a record type variable, containing the same types, where the expression in turn "unfolds" the variables by a sequence of nested **let**-bindings.

**Lemma 6.** If  $\Gamma, \Gamma_0 \vdash e : \tau$ , then

$$\Gamma, env: \{(Lab(x): \tau_x)^{(x:\tau_x)\in\Gamma_0}\} \vdash (\mathbf{let}\ x = env.Lab(x)\ \mathbf{in})^{x\in \mathrm{dom}\,\Gamma_0}\ e: \tau$$

where env is a fresh variable not in dom  $\Gamma$ ,  $\Gamma_0$ .

*Proof.* By Lemma 5 and by induction on the structure of  $\Gamma_0$ .

The following lemma is used in the case for application and is extracted into its own lemma in order to simplify the main proof.

### Lemma 7. If

$$\begin{split} \varGamma \vdash e_1 : \llbracket \ Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E_0 \ \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \,, \\ \varGamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2, \ and \\ \llbracket \ E_0 \ \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \,, x : \tau_2 \vdash e_0 : \tau \end{split}$$

then  $\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{let} \ env = e_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ (\mathbf{let} \ y = env.Lab(y) \ \mathbf{in})^{y \in \text{dom } E_0}$  $\mathbf{let} \ x = e_2 \ \mathbf{in} \ e_0 : \tau \ .$ 

*Proof.* By a direct proof using Lemma 5 (weakening) and Lemma 6.

We now proceed with the main proof:

*Proof (Theorem 1).* By induction on the typing derivation  $\mathcal{T}$ . We show just a few representative cases:

- Case  $\mathcal{T} = \frac{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau}$   $(\Gamma(x) = \tau)$ . Since  $\vDash E : \Gamma$ , by assumption, and  $\Gamma(x) = \tau$ , by the side condition, we must have that E(x) = sv, for some sv, and by definition of the relation,  $\vDash sv : \tau$ . By rule D-VAR, we get  $E \vdash x \leadsto \langle x, sv \rangle$ . By definition,  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}(x) = \llbracket sv \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}$  and then by rule T-VAR, we get the required  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash x : \llbracket sv \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}$ .

$$- \text{ Case } \mathcal{T} = \frac{\mathcal{T}_0}{\Gamma, x : \tau_1 \vdash e_0 : \tau_2}$$
By rule D-LAM,

$$E \vdash \lambda x \colon \tau_1.\ e_0 \leadsto \langle \{(Lab(y) = y)^{y \in \text{dom } E}\}, Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E \rangle,$$

so  $e' = \{(Lab(y) = y)^{y \in \text{dom } E}\}$  and  $sv = Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E$ .

Now, assume  $sv_1$  such that  $\vDash sv_1 : \tau_1$ . Then, by definition, we also have  $\models (E, x \mapsto sv_1) : (\Gamma, x : \tau_1)$  and so by the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_0$ , we get  $E, x \mapsto sv_1 \vdash e_0 \rightsquigarrow \langle e'_0, sv_2 \rangle$  and  $\models sv_2 : \tau_2$ , and a derivation of  $\llbracket E, x \mapsto sv_1 \rrbracket_{\operatorname{tp}} \vdash e'_0 : \llbracket sv_2 \rrbracket_{\operatorname{tp}}, \text{ for some } e'_0 \text{ and } sv_2. \text{ Thus, by definition of }$ the relation,  $\vdash Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E : \tau_1 \to \tau_2$ .

By definition,  $[\![sv]\!]_{\text{tp}} = \{(Lab(y) : [\![sv_y]\!]_{\text{tp}})^{(y \mapsto sv_y) \in E}\}$ . For each mapping  $(y \mapsto sv_y) \in E$ , we have by definition  $[\![E]\!]_{tp}(y) = [\![sv_y]\!]_{tp}$ , and by T-VAR, we have a derivation  $\mathcal{T}_y$  of  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash y : \llbracket sv_y \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}$ . Then by T-RcD on these

$$\mathcal{T}_y$$
 derivations, we get the required  $[\![E]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash e' : [\![sv]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}}$ .

$$- \text{Case } \mathcal{T} = \underbrace{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_2 \to \tau \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}_{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau}.$$

By the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_1$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_1$  of  $E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, sv_1 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_1$ of  $\vDash sv_1 : \tau_2 \to \tau$ , and  $\mathcal{T}'_1$  of  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash e'_1 : \llbracket sv_1 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}$ , for some  $e'_1$  and  $sv_1$ . Similarly, by the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_2$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_2$  of  $E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e'_2, sv_2 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_2$  of  $\vDash sv_2 : \tau_2$ , and  $\mathcal{T}_2'$  of  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\operatorname{tp}} \vdash e_2' : \llbracket sv_2 \rrbracket_{\operatorname{tp}}$ , for some  $e_2'$  and  $sv_2$ . By inversion on  $\mathcal{R}_1$ ,  $sv_1 = Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E_0$ , for some  $x, e_0$ , and  $E_0$ .

Since  $\models Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E_0 : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau \ \text{and} \ \models sv_2 : \tau_2$ , we have by definition of the relation, a derivation  $\mathcal{D}_0$  of  $E_0, x \mapsto sv_2 \vdash e_0 \rightsquigarrow \langle e'_0, sv \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_0$  of  $\vDash sv : \tau$ , as required, and  $\mathcal{T}'_0$  of  $\llbracket E_0, x \mapsto sv_2 \rrbracket_{\operatorname{tp}} \vdash e'_0 : \llbracket sv \rrbracket_{\operatorname{tp}}$ . By definition,

 $\llbracket E_0, x \mapsto sv_2 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} = \llbracket E_0 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}, x : \llbracket sv_2 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}.$ Then, by rule D-APP on  $\mathcal{D}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_2$ , and  $\mathcal{D}_0$ , we get the required:

$$E \vdash e_1 \ e_2 \leadsto \langle \mathbf{let} \ env = e'_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ (\mathbf{let} \ y = env.Lab(y) \ \mathbf{in})^{y \in \mathrm{dom} \ E_0}$$
  
$$\mathbf{let} \ x = e'_2 \ \mathbf{in} \ e'_0, sv \rangle$$

By Lemma 7 on  $\mathcal{T}'_1$ ,  $\mathcal{T}'_2$ , and  $\mathcal{T}'_0$ , we get the required typing derivation.  $\mathcal{T}_3$ 

- Case 
$$\mathcal{T} = \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathbf{bool} \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_3 : \tau \qquad \tau \text{ orderZero}$$

- Case  $\mathcal{T} = \underbrace{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \mathbf{bool}}_{\Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau} \underbrace{\Gamma \vdash e_3 : \tau}_{\Gamma \vdash \mathbf{bool}} \underbrace{\tau \text{ orderZero}}_{\tau \text{ orderZero}}.$ By the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_1$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_1$  of  $E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, sv_1 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_1$ of  $\models sv_1 : \mathbf{bool}$ , and  $\mathcal{T}'_1$  of  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash e'_1 : \llbracket sv_1 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}$ . By inversion on  $\mathcal{R}_1$ ,  $sv_1 = Dyn \text{ bool}$ , so by definition  $\llbracket sv_1 \rrbracket_{tp} = \text{bool}$ .

By the induction hypothesis on  $\bar{\mathcal{T}}_2$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_2$  of  $E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e_2', sv_2 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_2$ of  $\vDash sv_2 : \tau$ , and  $\mathcal{T}_2'$  of  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash e_2' : \llbracket sv_2 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}$ . Similarly, by the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_3$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_3$  of  $E \vdash e_3 \leadsto \langle e_3', sv_3 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_3$  of  $\vDash sv_3 : \tau$ , and  $\mathcal{T}_3'$ of  $[\![E]\!]_{\text{tp}} \vdash e_3' : [\![sv_3]\!]_{\text{tp}}$ .

By Lemma 2 on  $\mathcal{R}_2$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_3$ , and  $\mathcal{Z}$ , we get that  $sv_2 = sv_3$ . Thus, by D-IF on  $\mathcal{D}_1$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_2$ , and  $\mathcal{D}_3$ , we get  $E \vdash \mathbf{if} \ e_1 \ \mathbf{then} \ e_2 \ \mathbf{else} \ e_3 \leadsto \langle \mathbf{if} \ e_1' \ \mathbf{then} \ e_2' \ \mathbf{else} \ e_3', sv_2 \rangle$ and we already know that  $\vDash sv_2 : \tau$ .

By Lemma 3 on  $\mathcal{R}_2$  and  $\mathcal{Z}$ , we have that  $[sv_2]_{tp} = \tau$ . Then, by rule T-IF on  $\mathcal{T}'_1$ ,  $\mathcal{T}'_2$ ,  $\mathcal{T}'_3$ , and  $\mathcal{Z}$ , we get the required typing derivation.

$$- \text{ Case } \mathcal{T} = \underbrace{\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{T}_2 & \mathcal{T}_1 & \mathcal{Z} \\ \Gamma \vdash e_2 : []\tau_2 & \Gamma, x : \tau_2 \vdash e_1 : \tau & \tau \text{ orderZero} \\ \hline \Gamma \vdash \mathbf{map} (\lambda x. e_1) e_2 : []\tau \end{array}}_{}.$$

By the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_2$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_2$  of  $E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e_2', sv_2 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_2$  of  $\models sv_2 : []\tau_2$ , and  $\mathcal{T}_2'$  of  $[\![E]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash e_2' : [\![sv_2]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}}$ . By inversion on  $\mathcal{R}_2$ ,  $sv_2 = Arr \ sv_2'$  with  $\mathcal{R}_2'$  of  $\models sv_2' : \tau_2$ , and by definition,  $[\![sv_2]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}} = []([\![sv_2']\!]_{\mathrm{tp}})$ . Using  $\mathcal{R}_2'$ , we construct  $\models (E, x \mapsto sv_2') : (\Gamma, x : \tau_2)$ . Then by the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{T}_1$ , we get  $\mathcal{D}_1$  of  $E, x \mapsto sv_2' \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e_1', sv_1 \rangle$ ,  $\mathcal{R}_1$  of  $\models sv_1 : \tau$ , and  $\mathcal{T}_1'$  of  $[\![E, x \mapsto sv_2']\!]_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash e_1' : [\![sv_1]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}}$ . By definition,  $[\![E, x \mapsto sv_2']\!]_{\mathrm{tp}} = [\![E]\!]_{\mathrm{tp}}$ ,  $x : [\![sv_2']\!]_{\mathrm{tp}}$ . By rule D-MAP on  $\mathcal{D}_2$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$ , we get the required derivation of

$$E \vdash \mathbf{map} (\lambda x. e_1) e_2 \leadsto \langle \mathbf{map} (\lambda x. e'_1) e'_2, Arr sv_1 \rangle$$

and since  $\vDash sv_1 : \tau$  and  $\tau$  orderZero, by  $\mathcal{Z}$ , we have that  $\vDash Arr \ sv_1 : []\tau$ , as required. By Lemma 3 on  $\mathcal{R}_1$  and  $\mathcal{Z}$ , we have that  $\llbracket \ sv_1 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} = \tau$ . Then by rule T-MAP on  $\mathcal{T}_2'$ ,  $\mathcal{T}_1'$ , and  $\mathcal{Z}$ , we get a derivation of  $\llbracket E \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} \vdash \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda x. \ e_1') \ e_2' : []\tau$  and we already have that  $\llbracket \ Arr \ sv_1 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}} = [](\llbracket \ sv_1 \rrbracket_{\mathrm{tp}}) = []\tau$ .

## A.2 Preservation of meaning

The following auxiliary lemmas are used in the proof of Theorem 2. The first one allows the derivation of an evaluation judgment to be *weakened* by adding unused assumptions, similar to the weakening lemma for typing judgments (Lemma 5).

**Lemma 8.** If 
$$\Sigma \vdash e \downarrow r$$
 and  $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma'$ , then also  $\Sigma' \vdash e \downarrow r$ .

*Proof.* By induction on the structure of the expression e.

Similar to Lemma 6 and Lemma 7, which are used in the proof of Theorem 1, we define analogous lemmas for the evaluation of a translated application.

**Lemma 9.** If  $\Sigma, \Sigma_0 \vdash e \downarrow r$ , then

$$\Sigma, env \mapsto \{(Lab(x) = v_x)^{(x \mapsto v_x) \in \Sigma_0}\} \vdash (\mathbf{let} \ x = env.Lab(x) \ \mathbf{in})^{x \in \mathrm{dom} \ \Sigma_0} \ e \downarrow r.$$

*Proof.* By induction on the shape of  $\Sigma_0$ .

Lemma 10. If

$$\begin{split} \varSigma \vdash e_1' \downarrow \llbracket \operatorname{clos}(\lambda x \colon \tau. \, e_0, \varSigma_0) \rrbracket_{\operatorname{val}}, \\ \varSigma \vdash e_2' \downarrow v_2, \ \operatorname{and} \\ \llbracket \varSigma_0 \rrbracket_{\operatorname{val}}, x \mapsto v_2 \vdash e_0' \downarrow v \end{split}$$

then 
$$\Sigma \vdash \mathbf{let} \ env = e_1' \ \mathbf{in} \ (\mathbf{let} \ y = env.Lab(y) \ \mathbf{in})^{y \in \text{dom } \Sigma_0}$$
  
$$\mathbf{let} \ x = e_2' \ \mathbf{in} \ e_0' \downarrow v \ .$$

*Proof.* By a direct proof using Lemma 8 and Lemma 9.

We now proceed with the main proof of meaning preservation:

*Proof (Theorem 2).* By induction on the big-step derivation  $\mathcal{E}$ . We show a few interesting cases:

- Case 
$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{}{\Sigma \vdash \lambda x \colon \tau. \, e_0 \downarrow clos(\lambda x \colon \tau. \, e_0, \Sigma)}$$
.

 $\mathcal{D}$  must be an instance of rule D-LAM, so  $e' = \{(Lab(y) = y)^{y \in \text{dom } E}\}$  and  $sv = Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E$ . By assumption  $\models \Sigma : E$ , so by definition of the relation, we get  $\vDash clos(\lambda x : \tau. e_0, \Sigma) : Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E$ , as required.

Also by definition,  $\llbracket \operatorname{clos}(\lambda x : \tau. e_0, \Sigma) \rrbracket_{\operatorname{val}} = \{ (\operatorname{Lab}(y) = \llbracket v_y \rrbracket_{\operatorname{val}})^{(y \mapsto v_y) \in \Sigma} \}$ and dom  $E = \text{dom } \Sigma$ .

For each mapping  $y \mapsto v_y$  in  $\Sigma$ , we have by definition  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}}(y) = \llbracket v_y \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$ and by rule E-VAR,  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}} \vdash y \downarrow \llbracket v_y \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$  by some  $\mathcal{E}_y$ . Thus, by rule E-RCD on the  $\mathcal{E}_y$  derivations, we can construct the required derivation of:

$$\llbracket \, \varSigma \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} \vdash \{ (Lab(y) = y)^{y \in \mathrm{dom} \, \varSigma} \} \downarrow \{ (Lab(y) = \llbracket \, v_y \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}})^{(y \mapsto v_y) \in \varSigma} \}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_1 :: \Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow clos(\lambda x : \tau. e_0, \Sigma_0)$$

- Case 
$$\mathcal{E} = \underbrace{\begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{E}_1 & :: \mathcal{L} \vdash e_1 \downarrow etos(\mathcal{A}x \cdot T \cdot e_0, \mathcal{L}_0) \\ \mathcal{E}_2 & :: \mathcal{L} \vdash e_2 \downarrow v_2 & \mathcal{E}_0 & :: \mathcal{L}_0, x \mapsto v_2 \vdash e_0 \downarrow v \end{array}}_{\text{So } e = e_1},$$
 so  $e = e_1 \ e_2$  and  $r = v$ .  $\mathcal{D}$  must have the following shape:

$$\mathcal{D}_1 :: E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E_0 \rangle \\
\underline{\mathcal{D}_2 :: E \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e'_2, sv_2 \rangle \qquad \mathcal{D}_0 :: E_0, x \mapsto sv_2 \vdash e_0 \leadsto \langle e'_0, sv \rangle} \\
\underline{E \vdash e_1 \ e_2 \leadsto \langle e', sv \rangle}$$

where 
$$e' = \mathbf{let} \ env = e'_1 \ \mathbf{in} \ (\mathbf{let} \ y = env.Lab(y) \ \mathbf{in})^{y \in \text{dom} \ E_0}$$

let 
$$x = e_2'$$
 in  $e_0'$ .

 $\mathcal{D}_1$ , we get a derivation  $\mathcal{R}_1$  of  $\vDash clos(\lambda x : \tau. e_0, \Sigma_0) : Lam \ x \ e_0 \ E_0$  and a derivation  $\mathcal{E}'_1$  of  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}} \vdash e'_1 \downarrow \llbracket \operatorname{clos}(\lambda x : \tau. e_0, \Sigma_0) \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$ . By inversion on  $\mathcal{R}_1$ , we get  $\mathcal{R}_0$  of  $\vDash \Sigma_0 : E_0$ . By the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{E}_2$  with  $\mathcal{D}_2$ , we get derivations  $\mathcal{R}_2$  of  $\vDash v_2 : sv_2$  and  $\mathcal{E}'_2$  of  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}} \vdash e'_2 \downarrow \llbracket v_2 \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$ . From  $\mathcal{R}_0$  and  $\mathcal{R}_2$ , we can construct  $\mathcal{R}'_0$  of  $\vDash (\Sigma_0, x \mapsto v_2) : (E_0, x \mapsto sv_2)$ .

Then, by the induction hypothesis on  $\mathcal{E}_0$  with  $\mathcal{D}_0$  and  $\mathcal{R}'_0$ , we get  $\vDash v : sv$ , as required, and a derivation  $\mathcal{E}'_0$  of  $\llbracket \Sigma_0, x \mapsto v_2 \rrbracket_{\text{val}} \vdash e'_0 \downarrow \llbracket v \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$ . Finally, by Lemma 10 on  $\mathcal{E}'_1, \mathcal{E}'_2$ , and  $\mathcal{E}'_0$ , we get the required derivation.  $\mathcal{E}_0 :: \Sigma \vdash e_0 \downarrow v_0$   $\mathcal{E}_1 :: \Sigma \vdash e_1 \downarrow [(v_i)^{i \in 1..n}]$ 

- Case 
$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{EL} :: \Sigma; x = v_0; y = (v_i)^{i \in 1...n} \vdash e_2 \downarrow v$$

 $\Sigma \vdash \mathbf{loop}[x = e_0 \text{ for } y \text{ in } e_1 \text{ do } e_2 \downarrow v$ (We sketch this proof case.)  $\mathcal{D}$  must have the following shape:

$$\mathcal{D}_0 :: E \vdash e_0 \leadsto \langle e'_0, sv \rangle \qquad \mathcal{D}_1 :: E \vdash e_1 \leadsto \langle e'_1, Arr \ sv_1 \rangle$$

$$\mathcal{D}_2 :: E, x \mapsto sv, y \mapsto sv_1 \vdash e_2 \leadsto \langle e'_2, sv \rangle$$

$$E \vdash \mathbf{loop} \ x = e_0 \ \mathbf{for} \ y \ \mathbf{in} \ e_1 \ \mathbf{do} \ e_2$$

$$\leadsto \langle \mathbf{loop} \ x = e'_0 \ \mathbf{for} \ y \ \mathbf{in} \ e'_1 \ \mathbf{do} \ e'_2, sv \rangle$$

By the induction hypothesis, we get the usual evaluation derivations and, in particular, that  $\vDash v_0 : sv$  and  $(\vDash v_i : sv_1)^{i \in 1..n}$ , by inversion.

By an inner induction on the length of a sequence of values  $(v_i')^{i\in 1..n}$ , we show that if  $\Sigma; x = v_0'; y = (v_i')^{i\in 1..n} \vdash e_2 \downarrow v'$ , and  $\models v_0' : sv$  and  $\models v_i' : sv_1$ , for each  $i \in 1..n$ , then  $\llbracket \Sigma \rrbracket_{\text{val}}; x = \llbracket v_0' \rrbracket_{\text{val}}; y = (\llbracket v_i' \rrbracket_{\text{val}})^{i\in 1..n} \vdash e_2' \downarrow \llbracket v' \rrbracket_{\text{val}}$  and  $\models v' : sv$ . Then, by this argument on  $\mathcal{EL}$ , taking each  $v_i'$  to be  $v_i$  and v' to be v, we get the required  $\models v : sv$  and a derivation of:

$$\llbracket \varSigma \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} \, ; x = \llbracket \, v_0 \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}} \, ; y = (\llbracket \, v_i \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}})^{i \in 1..n} \vdash e_2' \downarrow \llbracket \, v \, \rrbracket_{\mathrm{val}}$$

Then by rule E-LOOP on this, together with other evaluation derivations obtained by the induction hypothesis, we get the required derivation.