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Advanced

Programming

Monadic Evaluators. Operational Semantics

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SOFTWARE
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What language is this?

```
print(1/2)
```

This is valid in **Scala** and **Python** (and many others).

What is the outcome?

Scala: 0

Python: 0.5

Same syntax, but **different meaning**

This is why we have to talk about **semantics** of programming languages.

What is a programming language?

- **Syntax:** What may be recognized as a valid program?
- **Semantics:** How is a valid program executed?
- **Implementation:** How is the execution realized on a computer?
(compiler, interpreter)

Operational Semantics with Inference Rules

Semantics rules are often present in form of binary **inference rules**

$$\frac{\textit{Premise}}{\textit{Conclusion}}$$

Premise (an antecedent) is what we assume. If the premise holds, then we can conclude the **conclusion** (a consequent).

If there are several premises, we separate them by spaces, and require that all of them hold (conjunction).

Inference rules in execution: if we can execute a smaller part of the program according to the premise, then we can execute the bigger part of the program according to the conclusion.

Example: Basic evaluator (1/2) [Sect. 2.1 in Wadler]

Abstract Syntax

First: define the **abstract syntax** (syntax after parsing, already represented as trees).
Abstract syntax is often specified using an ambiguous **context-free grammar**.

$$\begin{array}{l} e ::= \text{num}(n) \quad n \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \quad | e \div e \end{array}$$

In Scala this becomes:

```
1 enum NumExpr
2   case Num(n: Int)
3   case Div(left: NumExpr, right: NumExpr)
```

The grammar expressions are often called **terms**. Wadler uses this word.

Example: Basic Evaluator (2/2)

Big-step Operational Semantics

In operational semantics (reduction semantics) we specify premises and conclusions using a reduction relation (judgement) from terms to values (big-step).

$$\frac{}{\text{num}(n) \rightarrow n} \text{ NUM}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow n_1 \quad e' \rightarrow n_2}{e \div e' \rightarrow n_1 / n_2} \text{ DIV}$$

If the premise is **empty**, the conclusion **always holds** (true premise, axiom rule).

In Scala:

```
1 def eval (expr: NumExpr): Int = expr match
2   case Num(n) => n
3   case Div(left, right) => eval(left) / eval(right)
```

This is so called **big-step semantics**.

Each evaluation relation (arrow) performs a **complete reduction from expression to value**.

Evaluation is Derivation

Example

Consider an expression: $(\text{num}(42) \div \text{num}(21)) \div \text{num}(2)$.

In Scala `Div(Div(Num(42),Num(21)), Num(2))`.

NB. **Precedence** and left/right-**binding** (order of evaluation) is decided by the **parser**, before the evaluator starts.

The derivation tree (read from bottom):

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\text{num}(42) \rightarrow 42}{\text{NUM}} \quad \frac{\text{num}(21) \rightarrow 21}{\text{NUM}}}{\text{num}(42) \div \text{num}(21) \rightarrow 2} \text{DIV} \quad \frac{\text{num}(2) \rightarrow 2}{\text{NUM}}}{(\text{num}(42) \div \text{num}(21)) \div \text{num}(2) \rightarrow 1} \text{DIV}$$

Names are written to the right of the rules.

The tree (bottom-up) follows the recursion of our interpreter of the previous slide.

Let's add exceptions

Wadler, Section 2.2

The above semantics is **broken**. We should have really written

$$\frac{e \rightarrow n_1 \quad e' \rightarrow n_2 \quad n_2 \neq 0}{e \div e' \rightarrow n_1/n_2} \text{ DIV-NORM}$$

For $n_2 = 0$ the program **gets stuck**. The further execution is not specified. Such semantics would not give meanings to programs with division by zero.

Alternatively, **add exceptions** to the language. We keep the same abstract syntax

$$\begin{array}{l} e ::= \text{num}(n) \quad n \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \quad | e \div e \end{array}$$

but change the evaluation rule (next slide).

Exceptions: The new evaluation rule

The type: $\text{eval}: e \rightarrow \text{Exception} \oplus \text{Return } \mathbb{Z}$

In Scala:

```
def eval (e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match

1 case Num(n) => Return(n)
2 case Div(left, right) => eval(left) match
3   case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
4   case Return(lv) => eval(right) match
5     case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
6     case Return(rv) =>
7       if rv == 0
8         then Raise("Division by zero")
9       else Return(lv/rv)
where enum M[A]
      case Return (a: A)
      case Raise (msg: String)
```

$$\frac{e \rightarrow \text{Return } n_1 \quad e' \rightarrow \text{Return } n_2 \quad n_2 = 0}{e \div e' \rightarrow \text{Exception "Division by zero"}} \text{DIV-EXC}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow \text{Return } n_1 \quad e' \rightarrow \text{Return } n_2 \quad n_2 \neq 0}{e \div e' \rightarrow \text{Return } (n_1/n_2)} \text{DIV-NORM}$$

$$\frac{}{\text{num}(n) \rightarrow \text{Return}(n)} \text{NUM}$$

$$\frac{e \rightarrow \text{Exception } msg}{e \div e' \rightarrow \text{Exception } msg} \text{EXC-PROP-1}$$

$$\frac{e' \rightarrow \text{Exception } msg}{e \div e' \rightarrow \text{Exception } msg} \text{EXC-PROP-2}$$

- Note the correspondence between operational semantics and the implementation
- Exercise: write the operational rules for other interpreters in Sect. 2.2 (not shown in slides)

The basic evaluator vs the exception evaluator

```
1 def eval (expr: NumExpr): Int = expr match
2   case Num(n) => n
3   case Div(left, right) => eval(left) / eval(right)
```

```
1 def eval (e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
2 case Num(n) => Return(n)
3 case Div(left, right) => eval(left) match
4   case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
5   case Return(lv) => eval(right) match
6     case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
7     case Return(rv) =>
8       if rv == 0
9         then Raise("Division by zero")
10        else Return(lv/rv)
```

- **Problem:** They are widely different!
- In an **imperative language**, only line 3 of the first one would require a modification that looks similar to lines 7–9 of the second one
- We want functional programs to be as **maintainable** as imperative ones

Can we make interpreters modular?

Compare our two evaluators

- Wadler shows several interpreters for the same language
- Each interpreter has a different type
- Each interpreter has a different implementation
- Can we factor out the common parts?

The **common parts** are:

- The abstract syntax
- The structure of the interpreter (the recursion over the syntax tree)

The **different parts** are:

- The return type of the interpreter
- The handling of special cases (exceptions, state, output, etc)

Let's make M a monad

This, as we know requires two functions:

$\text{unit}: a \rightarrow M[a]$ and

$\text{flatMap}: M[a] \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M[b]) \rightarrow M[b]$ (called \star by Wadler)

In Scala these become (for the exception monad):

```
def unit[A](a: A): M[A] = Return(a)
def flatMap[A,B](ma: M[A])(f: A => M[B]): M[B] = ma match
  case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
  case Return(a) => f(a)
```

We also need to ensure that the **monad laws** hold (left identity, right identity, associativity). See exercises.

How did we come up with this? Exception monad is the same thing as Option/Either in the previous lectures.

Implement the interpreter in Monad M

```
1 def eval (e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
2   case Num(n) => Return(n)
3   case Div(left, right) => eval(left) match
4     case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
5     case Return(lv) => eval(right) match
6       case Raise(msg) => Raise(msg)
7       case Return(rv) =>
8         if rv == 0
9           then Raise("Division by zero")
10          else Return(lv/rv)
```

```
1 def eval2(e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
2   case Num(n) => unit(n)
3   case Div(left, right) =>
4     flatMap(eval2(left)) { lv =>
5       flatMap(eval2(right)) { rv =>
6         if rv == 0
7           then Raise("Division by zero")
8         else unit(lv / rv)
9       }
10 }
```

```
def eval3(e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
  case Num(n) => unit(n)
  case Div(left, right) => for
    lv <- eval3(left)
    rv <- eval3(right)
    result <- if rv == 0
      then Raise("Division by zero")
    else unit(lv / rv)
  yield result
```

Note: Pattern matching on results is gone. This is now “done by the monad.”

Identity Monad: Make the basic interpreter monadic

```
1 type M[A] = A
2 def unit[A](a: A): M[A] = a
3 def flatMap[A,B](ma: M[A])(f: A => M[B]): M = f(ma)
4 def eval2(e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
5   case Num(n) => unit(n)
6   case Div(left, right) =>
7     flatMap(eval2(left)) { lv =>
8       flatMap(eval2(right)) { rv =>
9         unit(lv / rv)
10      }
11    }
```

For comparison from the previous slide
(with exception handling):

```
1 def eval3(e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
2   case Num(n) => unit(n)
3   case Div(left, right) => for
4     lv <- eval3(left)
5     rv <- eval3(right)
6     result <- unit(lv / rv)
7   yield result
```

```
def eval3(e: NumExpr): M[Int] = e match
  case Num(n) => unit(n)
  case Div(left, right) => for
    lv <- eval3(left)
    rv <- eval3(right)
    result <- if rv == 0
      then Raise("Division by zero")
      else unit(lv / rv)
  yield result
```

The **change required** to switch between the two interpreters is **minimal**, like in the imperative language: change the return type and the calculation of the special case in the monad.

In the next episode ...

- **Reinforcement learning!** We do ML&AI in style (pure functional style!)
- Write an end-to-end pure functional program
- Reading provided via our github repository
- **Happy reading! and See you next week!**