

Formal Semantics and Types

Adapted from CMSC 330 @UMD

Special Thanks to Mike Hicks

Formal Semantics of a Prog. Lang.

- ▶ Mathematical description of the meaning of programs written in that language
 - What a program computes, and what it does
- ▶ Three main approaches to formal semantics
 - Denotational
 - Operational
 - Axiomatic

Styles of Semantics

- ▶ **Denotational semantics:** translate programs into math!
 - Usually: convert programs into functions mapping inputs to outputs
 - Analogous to **compilation**
- ▶ **Operational semantics:** define how programs execute
 - Often on an **abstract machine** (mathematical model of computer)
 - Analogous to **interpretation**
- ▶ **Axiomatic semantics**
 - Describe programs as **predicate transformers**, i.e. for converting initial assumptions into guaranteed properties after execution
 - Preconditions: assumed properties of initial states
 - Postcondition: guaranteed properties of final states
 - Logical rules describe how to systematically build up these transformers from programs

This Course: Operational Semantics

- ▶ We will show how an operational semantics may be defined for a simple language
- ▶ Approach: use **rules** to define a **judgment**

$$e \Rightarrow v$$

- Says “**e** evaluates to **v**”
- **e**: expression in the language
- **v**: value that results from evaluating **e**

Expression Grammar

$$e ::= x \mid n \mid e + e \mid \text{let } x = e \text{ in } e$$

► e , x , n are *meta-variables* that stand for categories of syntax

- x is any identifier (like z , y , foo)
- n is any numeral (like 1 , 0 , 10 , -25)
- e is any expression (here defined, recursively!)

► *Concrete syntax* of actual expressions in **black**

- Such as `let`, `+`, `z`, `foo`, `in`, ...

• `::=` and `|` are *meta-syntax* used to define the syntax of a language (part of “Backus-Naur form,” or BNF)

Expression Grammar

$$e ::= x \mid n \mid e + e \mid \text{let } x = e \text{ in } e$$

► Examples

- 1 is a numeral n which is an expression e
- $1+z$ is an expression e because
 - 1 is an expression e ,
 - z is an identifier x , which is an expression e , and
 - $e + e$ is an expression e
- $\text{let } z = 1 \text{ in } 1+z$ is an expression e because
 - z is an identifier x ,
 - 1 is an expression e ,
 - $1+z$ is an expression e , and
 - $\text{let } x = e \text{ in } e$ is an expression e

Values

- ▶ An expression's final result is a **value**. What can values be?

$v ::= n$

- ▶ Just numerals for now
 - In terms of an interpreter's representation:
`type value = int`
 - In a full language, values **v** will also include booleans (**`true`**, **`false`**), strings, functions, ...

Defining the Semantics

- ▶ Use **rules** to define judgment $e \Rightarrow v$
- ▶ These rules will allow us to show things like
 - $1+3 \Rightarrow 4$
 - $1+3$ is an expression e , and 4 is a value v
 - This judgment claims that $1+3$ evaluates to 4
 - We use rules to prove it to be true
 - $\text{let } \text{foo}=1+2 \text{ in } \text{foo}+5 \Rightarrow 8$
 - $\text{let } f=1+2 \text{ in let } z=1 \text{ in } f+z \Rightarrow 4$

Rules as English Text

No rule for ***x***

- ▶ Suppose ***e*** is a numeral ***n***
 - Then ***e*** evaluates to itself, i.e., ***n*** \Rightarrow ***n***
- ▶ Suppose ***e*** is an addition expression ***e1*** + ***e2***
 - If ***e1*** evaluates to ***n1***, i.e., ***e1*** \Rightarrow ***n1***
 - If ***e2*** evaluates to ***n2***, i.e., ***e2*** \Rightarrow ***n2***
 - Then ***e*** evaluates to ***n3***, where ***n3*** is the sum of ***n1*** and ***n2***
 - I.e., ***e1*** + ***e2*** \Rightarrow ***n3***
- ▶ Suppose ***e*** is a let expression **let** ***x*** = ***e1*** **in** ***e2***
 - If ***e1*** evaluates to ***v1***, i.e., ***e1*** \Rightarrow ***v1***
 - If ***e2***{***v1***/***x***} evaluates to ***v2***, i.e., ***e2***{***v1***/***x***} \Rightarrow ***v2***
 - Here, ***e2***{***v1***/***x***} means “the expression after substituting occurrences of ***x*** in ***e2*** with ***v1***”
 - Then ***e*** evaluates to ***v2***, i.e., **let** ***x*** = ***e1*** **in** ***e2*** \Rightarrow ***v2***

Rules of Inference

- ▶ We can use a more compact notation for the rules we just presented: **rules of inference**

- Has the following format

$$\frac{H_1 \quad \dots \quad H_n}{C}$$

- Says: if the conditions $H_1 \quad \dots \quad H_n$ (“hypotheses”) are true, then the condition C (“conclusion”) is true
 - If $n=0$ (no hypotheses) then the conclusion automatically holds; this is called an axiom
- ▶ We will use inference rules to speak about evaluation

Rules of Inference: Num and Sum

- ▶ Suppose e is a numeral n

- Then e evaluates to itself, i.e., $n \Rightarrow n$

$$n \Rightarrow n$$

- ▶ Suppose e is an addition expression $e1 + e2$

- If $e1$ evaluates to $n1$, i.e., $e1 \Rightarrow n1$
- If $e2$ evaluates to $n2$, i.e., $e2 \Rightarrow n2$
- Then e evaluates to $n3$, where $n3$ is the sum of $n1$ and $n2$
- I.e., $e1 + e2 \Rightarrow n3$

$$e1 \Rightarrow n1 \quad e2 \Rightarrow n2 \quad n3 \text{ is } n1 + n2$$

$$e1 + e2 \Rightarrow n3$$

Rules of Inference: Let

- ▶ Suppose e is a let expression $\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2$
 - If $e1$ evaluates to v , i.e., $e1 \Rightarrow v1$
 - If $e2\{v1/x\}$ evaluates to $v2$, i.e., $e2\{v1/x\} \Rightarrow v2$
 - Then e evaluates to $v2$, i.e., $\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \Rightarrow v2$

$$e1 \Rightarrow v1 \quad e2\{v1/x\} \Rightarrow v2$$

$$\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \Rightarrow v2$$

Derivations

- ▶ When we apply rules to an expression in succession, we produce a **derivation**
 - It's a kind of **tree**, rooted at the conclusion
- ▶ Produce a derivation by **goal-directed search**
 - Pick a rule that could prove the goal
 - Then repeatedly apply rules on the corresponding hypotheses
 - **Goal: Show that `let x = 4 in x+3` \Rightarrow 7**

Derivations

$$\frac{}{n \Rightarrow n}$$

$$\frac{e1 \Rightarrow n1 \quad e2 \Rightarrow n2 \quad n3 \text{ is } n1+n2}{e1 + e2 \Rightarrow n3}$$

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

$$\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \Rightarrow v2$$

Goal: show that

$$\text{let } x = 4 \text{ in } x+3 \Rightarrow 7$$

$$\frac{4 \Rightarrow 4 \quad 3 \Rightarrow 3 \quad 7 \text{ is } 4+3}{}$$

$$4 \Rightarrow 4$$

$$4+3 \Rightarrow 7$$

$$\frac{4 \Rightarrow 4 \quad 4+3 \Rightarrow 7}{\text{let } x = 4 \text{ in } x+3 \Rightarrow 7}$$

Quiz 1

What is derivation of the following judgment?

$$2 + (3 + 8) \Rightarrow 13$$

(a)

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 3 + 8 \Rightarrow 11 \\ \hline 2 + (3 + 8) \Rightarrow 13 \end{array}$$

(b)

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \Rightarrow 3 \quad 8 \Rightarrow 8 \\ \hline 3 + 8 \Rightarrow 11 \quad 2 \Rightarrow 2 \\ \hline 2 + (3 + 8) \Rightarrow 13 \end{array}$$

(c)

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \Rightarrow 8 \\ 3 \Rightarrow 3 \\ 11 \text{ is } 3+8 \\ \hline 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 3 + 8 \Rightarrow 11 \quad 13 \text{ is } 2+11 \\ \hline 2 + (3 + 8) \Rightarrow 13 \end{array}$$

Quiz 1

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$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \Rightarrow 8 \\ 3 \Rightarrow 3 \\ 11 \text{ is } 3+8 \\ \hline 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 3 + 8 \Rightarrow 11 \quad 13 \text{ is } 2+11 \\ \hline 2 + (3 + 8) \Rightarrow 13 \end{array}$$

Semantics Defines Program Meaning

- ▶ $e \Rightarrow v$ holds if and only if a *proof* can be built
 - Proofs are derivations: axioms at the top, then rules whose hypotheses have been proved to the bottom
 - No proof means $e \not\Rightarrow v$
- ▶ Proofs can be constructed bottom-up
 - In a goal-directed fashion
- ▶ Thus, function $\text{eval } e = \{v \mid e \Rightarrow v\}$
 - Determinism of semantics implies at most one element for any e
- ▶ So: Expression e *means* v

Environment-style Semantics

- ▶ The previous semantics uses substitution to handle variables
 - As we evaluate, we replace all occurrences of a variable **x** with values it is bound to
- ▶ An alternative semantics, closer to a real implementation, is to use an **environment**
 - As we evaluate, we maintain an explicit map from variables to values, and look up variables as we see them

Environments

- ▶ Mathematically, an environment is a partial function from identifiers to values
 - If A is an environment, and x is an identifier, then $A(x)$ can either be ...
 - ... a value (intuition: the variable has been declared)
 - ... or undefined (intuition: variable has not been declared)
- ▶ An environment can also be thought of as a table

- If A is

Id	Val
x	0
y	2

- then $A(x)$ is 0, $A(y)$ is 2, and $A(z)$ is undefined

Notation, Operations on Environments

- ▶ \bullet is the empty environment (undefined for all ids)
- ▶ $x:v$ is the environment that maps x to v and is undefined for all other ids
- ▶ If A and A' are environments then A, A' is the environment defined as follows
$$(A, A')(x) = \begin{cases} A'(x) & \text{if } A'(x) \text{ defined} \\ A(x) & \text{if } A'(x) \text{ undefined but } A(x) \text{ defined} \\ \text{undefined} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
- ▶ So: A' *shadows* definitions in A
- ▶ For brevity, can write \bullet, A as just A

Semantics with Environments

- ▶ The environment semantics changes the judgment

$$e \Rightarrow v$$

to be

$$A; e \Rightarrow v$$

where A is an environment

- Idea: A is used to give values to the identifiers in e
 - A can be thought of as containing declarations made up to e
- ▶ Previous rules can be modified by
 - Inserting A everywhere in the judgments
 - Adding a rule to look up variables x in A
 - Modifying the rule for **let** to add x to A

Quiz 2

What is a derivation of the following judgment?

•; let $x=3$ in $x+2 \Rightarrow 5$

(a)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} x \Rightarrow 3 \quad 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 5 \text{ is } 3+2 \\ \hline 3 \Rightarrow 3 \quad x+2 \Rightarrow 5 \\ \hline \end{array}}{\text{let } x=3 \text{ in } x+2 \Rightarrow 5}$$

(c)

$$\frac{x:2; x \Rightarrow 3 \quad x:2; 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 5 \text{ is } 3+2}{\bullet; \text{let } x=3 \text{ in } x+2 \Rightarrow 5}$$

(b)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} x:3; x \Rightarrow 3 \quad x:3; 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 5 \text{ is } 3+2 \\ \hline \bullet; 3 \Rightarrow 3 \quad x:3; x+2 \Rightarrow 5 \\ \hline \end{array}}{\bullet; \text{let } x=3 \text{ in } x+2 \Rightarrow 5}$$

Quiz 2

What is a derivation of the following judgment?

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(c)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} x:2; x \Rightarrow 3 \quad x:2; 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 5 \text{ is } 3+2 \\ \hline \end{array}}{\bullet; \text{let } x=3 \text{ in } x+2 \Rightarrow 5}$$

(b)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} x:3; x \Rightarrow 3 \quad x:3; 2 \Rightarrow 2 \quad 5 \text{ is } 3+2 \\ \hline \bullet; 3 \Rightarrow 3 \quad x:3; x+2 \Rightarrow 5 \\ \hline \end{array}}{\bullet; \text{let } x=3 \text{ in } x+2 \Rightarrow 5}$$

Adding Conditionals to the Language

$e ::= x \mid v \mid e + e \mid \text{let } x = e \text{ in } e$
 $\mid \text{eq0 } e \mid \text{if } e \text{ then } e \text{ else } e$

$v ::= n \mid \text{true} \mid \text{false}$

Rules for Eq0 and Booleans

$$\frac{}{A; \text{true} \Rightarrow \text{true}}$$
$$\frac{}{A; \text{false} \Rightarrow \text{false}}$$
$$A; e \Rightarrow 0$$
$$\frac{}{A; \text{eq0 } e \Rightarrow \text{true}}$$
$$A; e \Rightarrow v \quad v \neq 0$$
$$\frac{}{A; \text{eq0 } e \Rightarrow \text{false}}$$

- ▶ Booleans evaluate to themselves
 - $A; \text{false} \Rightarrow \text{false}$
- ▶ `eq0` tests for 0
 - $A; \text{eq0 } 0 \Rightarrow \text{true}$
 - $A; \text{eq0 } 3+4 \Rightarrow \text{false}$

Rules for Conditionals

$$A; e1 \Rightarrow \text{true} \quad A; e2 \Rightarrow v$$
$$A; \text{if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3 \Rightarrow v$$
$$A; e1 \Rightarrow \text{false} \quad A; e3 \Rightarrow v$$
$$A; \text{if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3 \Rightarrow v$$

- ▶ Notice that only one branch is evaluated
 - $A; \text{if eq0 } 0 \text{ then } 3 \text{ else } 4 \Rightarrow 3$
 - $A; \text{if eq0 } 1 \text{ then } 3 \text{ else } 4 \Rightarrow 4$

Quiz 3

What is the derivation of the following judgment?

•; if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10 \Rightarrow 10

(a)

```
•; 3  $\Rightarrow$  3    •; 2  $\Rightarrow$  2    3-2 is 1
-----
•; eq0 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  false          •; 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
-----
•; if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
```

(b)

```
3  $\Rightarrow$  3    2  $\Rightarrow$  2
3-2 is 1
-----
eq0 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  false          10  $\Rightarrow$  10
-----
if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
```

(c)

```
•; 3  $\Rightarrow$  3
•; 2  $\Rightarrow$  2
3-2 is 1
-----
•; 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  1    1  $\neq$  0
-----
•; eq0 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  false          •; 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
-----
•; if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
```

Quiz 3

What is the derivation of the following judgment?

•; if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10 \Rightarrow 10

(a)

```
•; 3  $\Rightarrow$  3    •; 2  $\Rightarrow$  2    3-2 is 1
-----
•; eq0 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  false          •; 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
-----
•; if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
```

(b)

```
3  $\Rightarrow$  3    2  $\Rightarrow$  2
3-2 is 1
-----
eq0 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  false          10  $\Rightarrow$  10
-----
if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
```

(c)

```
•; 3  $\Rightarrow$  3
•; 2  $\Rightarrow$  2
3-2 is 1
-----
•; 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  1    1  $\neq$  0
-----
•; eq0 3-2  $\Rightarrow$  false          •; 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
-----
•; if eq0 3-2 then 5 else 10  $\Rightarrow$  10
```

Quick Look: Type Checking

- ▶ Inference rules can also be used to specify a program's **static semantics**
 - I.e., the rules for type checking
- ▶ We won't cover this in depth in this course, but here is a flavor.
- ▶ Types $t ::= \text{bool} \mid \text{int}$
- ▶ Judgment $\vdash e : t$ says e has type t
 - We define inference rules for this judgment, just as with the operational semantics

Some Type Checking Rules

- ▶ Boolean constants have type **bool**

$$\frac{}{\vdash \text{true} : \text{bool}}$$
$$\frac{}{\vdash \text{false} : \text{bool}}$$

- ▶ Equality checking has type **bool** too
 - Assuming its target expression has type **int**

$$\frac{}{\vdash e : \text{int}}$$
$$\vdash \text{eq0 } e : \text{bool}$$

- ▶ Conditionals

$$\vdash e1 : \text{bool} \quad \vdash e2 : t \quad \vdash e3 : t$$
$$\vdash \text{if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3 : t$$

Type Systems

- ▶ A **type system** is a series of **rules** that ascribe types to expressions
 - The rules prove statements $e : t$
- ▶ The process of applying these rules is called **type checking**
 - Or simply, **typing**
 - Type checking *aka* the program's **static semantics**
- ▶ Different languages have different type systems

Type Safety

- ▶ Well-typed
 - A **well-typed** program passes the language's type system
- ▶ Going wrong
 - The language definition deems the program nonsensical
 - “Colorless green ideas sleep furiously”
 - If the program were to be run, anything could happen
 - `char buf[4]; buf[4] = 'x'; // undefined!`
- ▶ **Type safe** = “Well-typed programs never go wrong”
 - Robin Milner, 1978
 - In other words: **Well-typed** \Rightarrow **well-defined**

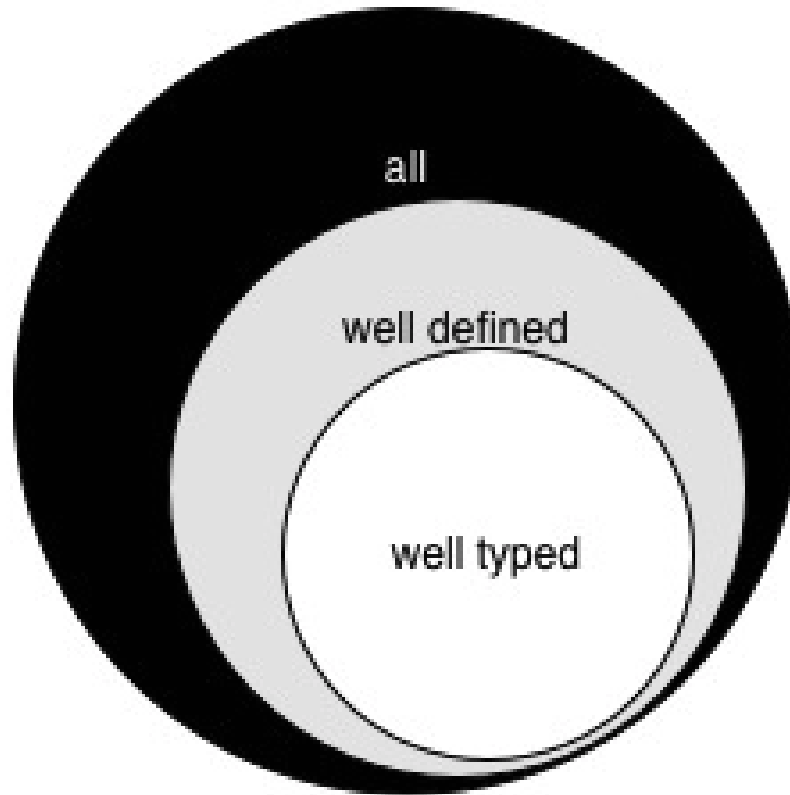
Type Safe?

- ▶ Java, Haskell, OCaml: **Yes** (arguably).
 - The languages' type systems restrict programs to those that are defined
 - Caveats: Foreign function interfaces to type-unsafe C, bugs in the language design, bugs in the implementation, etc.
- ▶ C, C++: **No**.
 - The languages' type systems do not prevent undefined behavior
 - Unsafe casts (int to pointer), out-of-bounds array accesses, dangling pointer dereferences, etc.

What's Bad about Being Undefined?

- ▶ Well, undefined behavior is unconstrained
 - Depends on the compiler/interpreter's treatment
- ▶ Undefined behavior in C/C++ is traditionally a source of severe **security vulnerabilities**
 - These are bugs that have security consequences
- ▶ **Stack smashing** exploits out-of-bounds array accesses to **inject code** into a running program
 - Write outside the bounds of an array (undefined!)
 - thereby corrupting the return address
 - to point to code the attacker provides
 - to gain control of the attacked machine

Type Safety is Often Conservative



I.e., some well-defined programs are *not* well typed

Static vs. Dynamic Type Systems

- ▶ OCaml, Java, Haskell, etc. are **statically typed**
 - Expressions are given one of various different types at compile time, e.g., `int`, `float`, `bool`, etc.
 - Or else they are rejected
- ▶ Ruby, Python, etc. are **dynamically typed**
 - Can view all expressions as having a single type `Dyn`
 - The language is **uni-typed**
 - *All* operations are permitted on values of this type
 - E.g., in Ruby, all objects accept any method call
 - But: Some operations result in a run-time **exception**
 - Nevertheless, such behavior is well defined

Dynamic Type Checking

- ▶ The run-time checks performed by dynamic languages often called **dynamic type checking**
- ▶ The type of an expression checked when needed
 - Values keep **tag**, set when the value is created, indicating its type (e.g., what class it has)
- ▶ Disallowed operations cause run-time exception
 - Type errors may be latent in code for a long time

Quiz 1

- ▶ When is the type of a variable determined in a **dynamically typed** language?
 - A. When the program is compiled
 - B. At run-time, when that variable is first assigned to
 - C. At run-time, when the variable is last assigned to
 - D. At run-time, when the variable is used

Quiz 1

- ▶ When is the type of a variable determined in a **dynamically typed** language?
 - A. When the program is compiled
 - B. At run-time, when that variable is first assigned to
 - C. At run-time, when the variable is last assigned to
 - D. At run-time, when the variable is used

Quiz 2

- ▶ When is the type of a variable determined in a **statically typed** language?
 - A. When the program is compiled
 - B. At run-time, when that variable is first assigned to
 - C. At run-time, when the variable is last assigned to
 - D. At run-time, when the variable is used

Quiz 2

- ▶ When is the type of a variable determined in a **statically typed** language?
 - A. When the program is compiled
 - B. At run-time, when that variable is first assigned to
 - C. At run-time, when the variable is last assigned to
 - D. At run-time, when the variable is used

Devil's Bargain?

- ▶ Dynamic typing is sound and complete
 - That seems good ...
- ▶ But it trades **compile-time errors** for (well-defined) **run-time exceptions**!
- ▶ Can't we build a **better static type system**?
 - I.e., that aims to eliminate all language-level run-time errors and is also complete?
- ▶ Yes, we can build more precise static type systems, but never a perfect one
 - To do so would be undecidable!

Fancy Types

- ▶ Lots of ideas over the last few decades aimed at improving the precision of type systems
 - So they can rule out more run-time errors
- ▶ Generic types (parametric polymorphism)
 - for containers and generic operations on them
- ▶ Subtyping
 - for interchanging objects with related shapes
- ▶ Dependent types can include *data in types*
 - Instead of `int list`, we could have `int n list` for a list of n elements. Hence `hd` has type `int n list` where $n > 0$.

Type Systems with Fancy Types

- ▶ OCaml's type system has types for
 - generics (polymorphism), objects, curried functions, ...
 - all unsupported by C
- ▶ Haskell's type system has types for
 - Type classes (qualified types), effect-isolating monads, higher-rank polymorphism, ...
 - All unsupported by OCaml
- ▶ More precision ensures more run-time errors prevented, with less contorted programs: Good!
 - But now the programmer must understand (and sometimes do) more ..

Perfect Type System? Impossible

- ▶ **No type system** can do all of following
 - (1) always terminate, (2) be sound, (3) be complete
 - While trying to eliminate all run-time exceptions, e.g.,
 - Using an int as a function
 - Accessing an array out of bounds
 - Dividing by zero, ...
- ▶ Doing so would be **undecidable**
 - by reduction to the halting problem
 - Eg., **while** (...) {...} **arr**[-1] = 1;
 - *Error tantamount to proving that the while loop terminates*

Type Checking and Type Inference

- ▶ Type inference is a part of (static) type checking
 - Reduces the programmer's effort
- ▶ Static types are **explicit** (*aka manifest*) or **inferred**
 - Manifest – specified in text (at variable declaration)
 - C, C++, Java, C#
 - Inferred – compiler determines type based on usage
 - OCaml, C# and Go (limited)
- ▶ Fancier type systems may require explicit types
 - Haskell considers adding a type signature your function to be good style, even when not required