“Programming Languages”

What is a programming language? Agreement on a precise definition is elusive, but we can define a programming language as: a well-defined way to instruct computers, using symbols.

If computers compute (do computations), then a programming language is a precise, symbolic description of a set of possible computations.

Caveats:

- “Symbolic”: there have been occasional attempts at visual PLs (Smalltalk-80 and Logo are not really visual, but languages like Prograph, developed in the 1980s and 1990s, were certainly intended to be visual), mirroring occasional attempts at diagrammatic logics.

- “Precise”: the vast majority of programming languages have never been described precisely.

The second caveat is unfortunate:

- Programmers need precision so they know how to reason about their programs.

- Language implementors need precision so they know how to implement (interpret, compile, translate to another language) a language.

- Unfortunately, most PLs are defined using English; a few are defined using math/logic. See “The C language does not exist” (Bessey et al., 2010).

How do we precisely define a programming language?

- **Syntax** describes which sequences of symbols are reasonable.

- **Dynamic semantics** describes how to run programs.

- **Static semantics** describes what programs are.
2 Rule-based semantics

Rules define how to step a program:

\[ e \rightarrow e' \]

expression \( e \) steps to \( e' \)

\[
\frac{n_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \quad n_2 \in \mathbb{Z}}{(+) \land n_1 \land n_2 \rightarrow n} \quad \text{step-add}
\]

\[
\frac{e_1 \rightarrow e'_1}{(+) \land e_1 \land e'_2 \rightarrow (+) \land e'_1 \land e'_2} \quad \text{step-add-left}
\]

\[
\frac{e_2 \rightarrow e'_2}{(+) \land e_1 \land e'_2 \rightarrow (+) \land e_1 \land e'_2} \quad \text{step-add-right}
\]

Here we have two rules. The things above the line are premises, and the things below the line are conclusions. The first rule says that if \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) are integers, and \( n \) is what you get by adding \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \), then the expression \( (+) \land e_1 \land e_2 \) “steps to” \( n \). The step-add-{left,right} rules enable us to do something with compound expressions.

Conclusion of a derivation The bottom part of a rule is its conclusion. The bottom part of a derivation is also called its conclusion, or sometimes its concluding judgment. For example,

\[
\frac{3 = 1 + 2}{(+12) \rightarrow 3} \quad \text{step-add}
\]

\[
\frac{(+ (+12)9) \rightarrow (+39)}{(+ (+12)9) \rightarrow (+39)} \quad \text{step-add-left}
\]

is a derivation that concludes \( (+ (+12)9) \rightarrow (+39) \).

We would also say that the concluding rule of this derivation is step-add-left.

Rule equivalence In the lecture, we wrote a slightly different version of step-add (which I think I called “add-const”):

\[
\frac{n_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \quad n_2 \in \mathbb{Z}}{(+) \land n_1 \land n_2 \rightarrow n_1 + n_2} \quad \text{add-const}
\]

However, both versions of the rule are equivalent, in the sense that exactly the same judgments are derivable. The rule step-add has an extra meta-variable \( n \), but the premise \( n = n_1 + n_2 \) allows only one choice of \( n \).

This is a relatively easy case of equivalence, because add-const has no “real” premises—premises defined by rules. The premises \( n_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \) and \( n_2 \in \mathbb{Z} \) are defined by set theory, not by rules; we assume we know how to tell if \( n_1 \) is an integer, and do not need to apply a rule to create a derivation.

[Do some examples]

This notation for rules and derivations comes from Gentzen (1934). (You may have seen the notation for rules, but not the notation for derivations. I believe our undergrad logic course uses a horizontal line for rules, but doesn’t “stack” rule applications to construct derivations.)
"Theory" is what we defined (using grammars and rules). Metatheory is theory about our theory: if we prove something about our operational semantics (or a denotational semantics, type system, etc.), that’s metatheory. Here is our very first meta-theoretic result:

**Theorem 1.**
For all integers \( n \), it is the case that \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n\).

**Proof.** Assume \( n \) is an integer.
By rule step-add, \((+ n n) \mapsto n + n\).
By a property of arithmetic, \( n + n = 2n \).
By the above equation, \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n \).
I consider the line “Assume \( n \ldots \)” to be redundant: we are using a convention that \( n \) always stands for an integer, and whenever you want to prove a statement “For all \( \cdots \),” you are assuming that the \( \cdots \) are given. Some people (including some of my coauthors) like to write it out anyway.

Since our three step-add, step-add-left, step-add-right define when it is the case that an expression steps to something, the phrase

\[
\text{it is the case that } (+ n n) \mapsto 2n
\]

is interchangeable with all of the following:

- the judgment \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n \) holds
- the judgment \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n \) is derivable
- there exists a derivation of \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n \)
- there exists \( D \) deriving \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n \)
- there exists \( D \) deriving \((+ n n) \mapsto 2n \)

I prefer not to write

\[
\text{For all integers } n, (+ n n) \mapsto 2n.
\]

because it could be hard to tell whether the comma is an ordinary “English” comma, or part of some judgment containing a comma. You haven’t seen such judgments yet, but we will use them soon.

Our above theorem, I think, implicitly assumes that if an expression steps to \( n \), it can only step to \( n \). This assumption is called determinism or determinacy. We can state a slightly different theorem that doesn’t make this assumption:

**Theorem 2.**
For all integers \( n_1 \) and \( n_2 \),
if \( D_1 \) derives \((+ n n) \mapsto n_1 \)
and \( D_2 \) derives \((+ n n) \mapsto n_2 \)
then \( n_1 = n_2 = 2n \).
§3 Metatheory

Proof. The only rule whose conclusion can have the form \((+ n n) \mapsto n_1\) is step-add. Therefore, the concluding rule of \(D_1\) must be step-add.

In the conclusion of step-add, the expression to the right of \(\mapsto\) is \(n + n\). So by inversion, \(n_1 = n + n\).

Similarly, the only rule whose conclusion can have the form \((+ n n) \mapsto n_2\) is step-add. Therefore, the concluding rule of \(D_2\) must be step-add. By similar reasoning to the above, \(n_2 = n + n\).

By a property of arithmetic,
\[ n + n = 2n \]

By the above equations, \(n_1 = n_2 = 2n\). □

Conjecture 1.
For all \(e, e_1, e_2\) such that \(e \mapsto e_1\) and \(e \mapsto e_2\) then \(e_1 = e_2\).

When I say \(e_1 = e_2\), I mean that \(e_1\) and \(e_2\) are exactly the same expression.

Counterexample: Let \(e = (+ (+ 1 2) (+ 4 5))\). Using rule step-add-left, we can derive
\[ e \mapsto \underbrace{(+ 3 ( + 4 5))}_{e_1} \]

Using rule step-add-right, we can derive
\[ e \mapsto \underbrace{(+ ( + 1 2) 9)}_{e_2} \]

This gives us different expressions \(e_1\) and \(e_2\).

Exercise 1. Write the full derivations of the judgments \(e \mapsto e_1\) and \(e \mapsto e_2\).

However, if we keep stepping \(e_1\) and \(e_2\) we will get 12 in each case. That suggests a different conjecture based on stepping \(e\) zero or more times. First, we define “stepping zero or more times” using rules:
\[
\frac{e \mapsto e'}{e \mapsto^* e} \quad \frac{e \mapsto e_1 \quad e_1 \mapsto^* e_2}{e \mapsto^* e_2} \quad \frac{e \mapsto e \quad e \mapsto^* e}{steps-zero \quad steps-multi}
\]

Exercise 2*. Define a judgment \(e \mapsto^+ e'\), read “stepping one or more times”, using rules.

Conjecture 2.
If \(e \mapsto^* e_1\) and \(e \mapsto^* e_2\) then \(e_1 = e_2\).

Unfortunately, this conjecture is also false:
\[
(+ 1 2) \mapsto^* (+ 1 2) \\
(+ 1 2) \mapsto^* 3
\]
§3 Metatheory

We want to talk about the result of stepping “as far as possible”, not what happens when we can step the expression but choose not to.

For this, we need a notion of values—expressions that don’t do anything. For the moment, we have a very small language: every expression is either an integer or an addition. The additions should not be values, because they can keep stepping. The integers are values, because they don’t (and shouldn’t) step.

\[
\text{values } v ::= n
\]

Now we can state a conjecture that should, in fact, be true:

**Conjecture 3.**

If \( e \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} v_1 \) and \( e \stackrel{*}{\rightarrow} v_2 \), then \( v_1 = v_2 \).

(Equivalently, this could be stated “For all expressions \( e \) and all values \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \) such that...”.)

However, we will not prove this conjecture, because I don’t think there’s a short proof. (At least, not a short, easily generalized proof. There will be a process of “updating” proofs as we expand our language, and I’d like that process to go as smoothly as possible.) The problem is that, while I am confident that we will always get the same results \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \), the rules give us the freedom to choose which part of the expression to step first, second, etc. (For the first step alone, I think we have \( O(k) \) choices, where \( k \) is the size of \( e \).)

We now have options:

1. Change our rules so that they are both deterministic “in the end” and deterministic “along the way”.
2. Introduce a different flavour of semantics that will make it easier to prove determinism.

Eventually we’ll pursue option (1), but I want to show you the new flavour now anyway (it gives an easier proof, and it will allow us to explore a connection to natural deduction).

The stepping judgment we have defined is called *small-step*; the new flavour is *big-step*. We only need two rules:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{expression } e \text{ evaluates to value } v \text{ (big-step)} & \\

\frac{}{n \Downarrow n} & \text{ eval-const} \\
\frac{e_1 \Downarrow n_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow n_2}{(\, e_1 \, e_2 \,) \Downarrow n_1 + n_2} & \text{ eval-add}
\end{align*}
\]

Now we can state something that’s easier to prove:

**Conjecture 4.**

For all \( e, v_1, v_2 \) such that \( e \Downarrow v_1 \) and \( e \Downarrow v_2 \), it is the case that \( v_1 = v_2 \).

**Proof.** By structural induction on \( e \).

... wait, what?

What is structural induction?
4 Induction

Proofs in programming languages rely heavily on induction, often structural induction, because the objects being studied are defined inductively (recursively). Our grammar for $e$ can be read as an inductive (recursive) definition:

(a) If $n$ is an integer, then $n$ is an expression.

(b) If $e_1$ and $e_2$ are expressions, then $(+ e_1 e_2)$ is an expression.

That describes how expressions are constructed. If someone else has constructed an expression, then we are not interested in how to construct the expression but how to “destruct” it: if we look inside an expression, we may find smaller expressions (subexpressions).

Likewise, rules constitute an inductive (recursive) definition. Our big-step rules, for example, can be read as the following:

(eval-const) If $n$ is an integer, then
\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{eval-const} \\
\hline
n \Downarrow n
\end{array}
\]

is a derivation.

(eval-add) If $D_1$ is a derivation of $e_1 \Downarrow n_1$ and $D_2$ is a derivation of $e_2 \Downarrow n_2$, then
\[
\begin{array}{c}
D_1 \\
\hline
\Downarrow n_1
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c}
D_2 \\
\hline
\Downarrow n_2
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
(+ e_1 e_2) \Downarrow n_1 + n_2
\end{array}
\]

is a derivation. (New notation! I labelled the derivations of $e_1 \Downarrow n_1$ and $e_2 \Downarrow n_2$ by writing the derivation names above them.)

Remark. The similarity between these “expanded” definitions—of expressions on one hand, and big-step evaluation on the other—suggests that we could define syntax (like expressions) using rules instead of BNF grammars. But I prefer to use grammars for syntax, because then I know that I am only defining syntax—I am not defining addition, functions, or anything else about computation, only the shapes of expressions (or statements, procedures, programs). Grammars are also more compact.

Since every expression is constructed according to the inductive definition of expressions, which has two parts, we can prove something about all expressions by proving it for two cases. Suppose $e$ is an expression.

- First case: The expression $e$ was constructed using part (a).
  In this case, we know that $e$ is an integer $n$: the definition said, “If $n$ is an integer”.

- Second case: The expression $e$ was constructed using part (b).
  In this case, we know that $e$ has the form $(+ e_1 e_2)$ where $e_1$ and $e_2$ are expressions.
The second case is where induction becomes essential. In an inductive proof, we get to assume what we are trying to prove for smaller problems. Proving something for the expression \( n \) seems like a smaller problem than proving it for a large expression.

Suppose we want to prove that, for all expressions \( e \), the number of left parentheses \( LP(e) \) in \( e \) is equal to the number of right parentheses \( RP(e) \):

For all expressions \( e \), we have \( LP(e) = RP(e) \).

The size of the problem must be related to \( e \)—the only thing we have is \( e \). We will say that the problem for an expression \( e_S \) (Small) is smaller than the problem for an expression \( e_B \) (Big) when \( e_S \) is a proper subexpression of \( e_B \). By analogy with proper subsets, \( e_S \) is a proper subexpression of \( e_B \) if \( e_S \) is a subexpression of \( e_B \) and \( e_S \neq e_B \).

We will sometimes write \( e_S \prec e_B \) to mean that \( e_S \) is a proper subexpression of \( e_B \).

The assumption that our result—the conjecture we want to prove—holds for smaller problems is called the inductive assumption, or inductive hypothesis (IH).

To find the inductive hypothesis, we begin with the statement of the conjecture:

For all expressions \( e \), we have \( LP(e) = RP(e) \).

This is not our inductive hypothesis—if it were, we could prove anything! Instead, we must restrict the statement to expressions that are smaller than the given expression \( e \).

This is a two-step process. Step 1 is renaming: to talk about whether something is smaller than \( e \), we can’t call the something \( e \). So we rename \( e \) to \( e_S \).

For all expressions \( e_S \), we have \( LP(e_S) = RP(e_S) \).

However, this is just as excessively strong as before, because it would let us choose \( e \) as our \( e_S \) and prove anything. We need to add a condition restricting \( e_S \):

**Induction hypothesis:** For all expressions \( e_S \) such that \( e_S \prec e \), we have \( LP(e_S) = RP(e_S) \).

**Conjecture 5.** For all expressions \( e \), we have \( LP(e) = RP(e) \).

**Proof.** By structural induction on \( e \). (Equivalently: By induction on the structure of \( e \).)

- First case: The expression \( e \) was constructed using part (a). Therefore, \( e \) is an integer \( n \). Integers do not contain parentheses, so \( LP(n) = RP(n) = 0 \). Since \( n = e \), we have \( LP(e) = RP(e) \).

- Second case: The expression \( e \) was constructed using part (b).

In this case, we know that \( e = (\ast e_1 e_2) \) where \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) are expressions.

The expressions \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) are proper subexpressions of \( e \). Therefore, \( e_1 \) is smaller than \( e \), and \( e_2 \) is smaller than \( e \).

**By induction hypothesis** on \( e_1 \), \( LP(e_1) = RP(e_1) \).

**By induction hypothesis** on \( e_2 \), \( LP(e_2) = RP(e_2) \). That is, with \( e_1 \) as our \( e_S \).

That is, with \( e_2 \) as our \( e_S \).
Since $e = (+ e_1 e_2)$, we have
\[
\begin{align*}
LP(e) &= 1 + LP(e_1) + LP(e_2) \\
RP(e) &= RP(e_1) + RP(e_2) + 1
\end{align*}
\]

We need to show $LP(e) = RP(e)$.
\[
\begin{align*}
LP(e) &= 1 + LP(e_1) + LP(e_2) \\
&= 1 + RP(e_1) + RP(e_2) \quad \text{By above equations} \\
&= RP(e_1) + RP(e_2) + 1 \quad \text{Rearranging terms} \\
&= RP(e) \quad \text{Above equation}
\end{align*}
\]

Unlike some proof techniques (such as case analysis—reasoning by cases), proof by induction demands commitment: you need to say, at the beginning of the proof, that you are doing a proof by induction and what kind of induction you are using. In the above proof, we did structural induction on $e$. In later proofs, we may have two expressions—are we doing induction on the first or the second? (Or both—there are several kinds of induction on multiple things. I will introduce those kinds as needed.) Or we may have derivations, as well as expressions.

Some authors like to present structural induction with a restriction: the induction hypothesis only works for immediate subexpressions. That is, if $k$ “layers” of the inductive definition were needed to create $(+ e_1 e_2)$, then $k - 1$ layers were needed to create $e_1$ and $e_2$. Our proof above would survive that restriction, since we do only use the IH on the immediate subexpressions $e_1$ and $e_2$. In general, however, we sometimes want to use the IH on “sub-sub-expressions”. Every proof that’s valid using restricted structural induction is valid using complete structural induction, so I always use the complete kind.

(This corresponds to the distinction between simple and complete induction on the natural numbers. For a problem on a natural number $k$, in simple induction the IH is the goal for $k - 1$; in complete induction, the IH is the goal for all $k' < k$. Since $k - 1$ is indeed less than $k$, every proof that uses simple induction remains valid using complete induction, but not the other way around.)

**References**