

Lecture 16

CIS 4521/5521: COMPILERS

Announcements

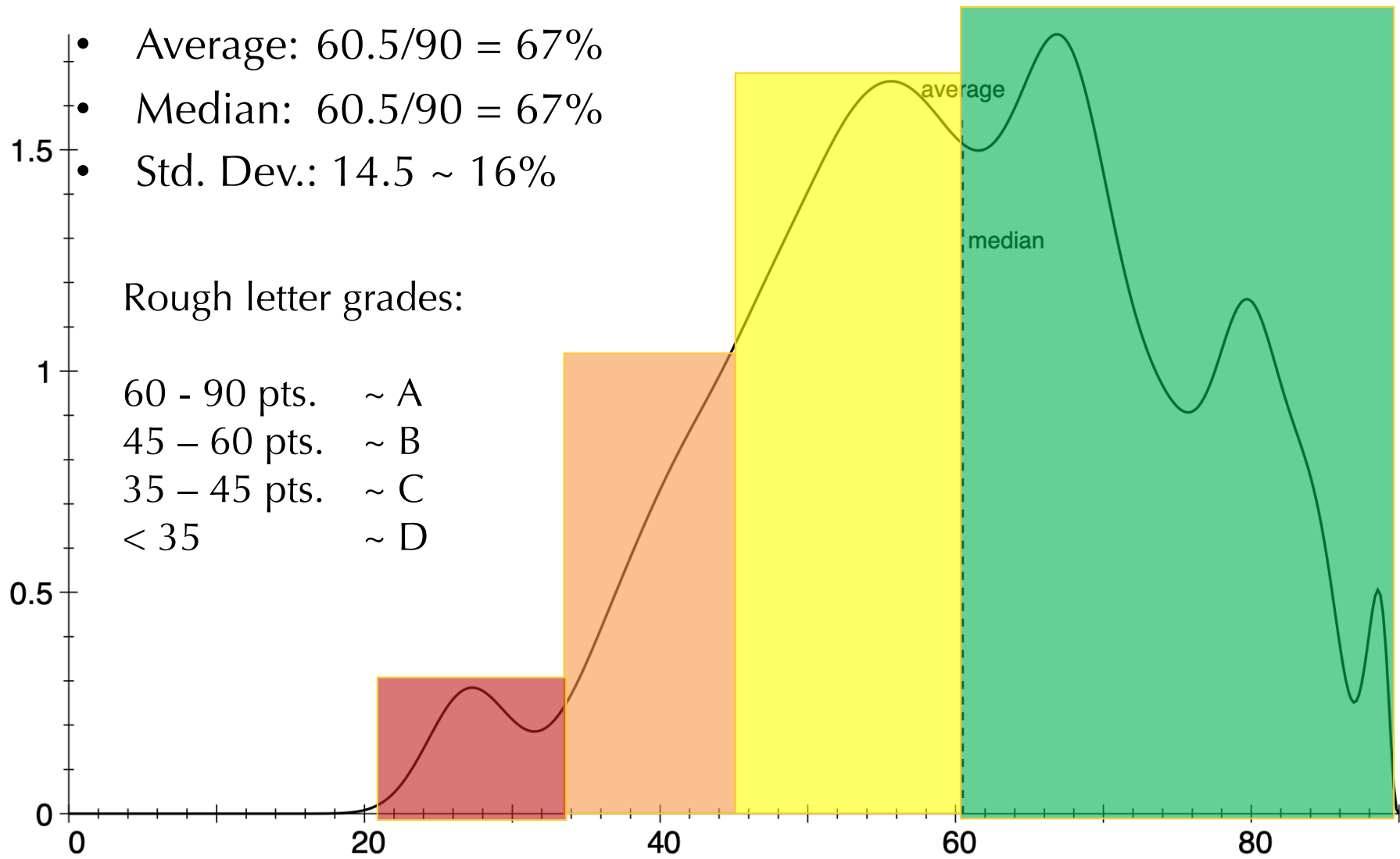
- HW4: OAT v. 1.0
 - Parsing & basic code generation
 - **Due: Wednesday, March 26th**
 - **Test case Due: TUESDAY, March 25th**

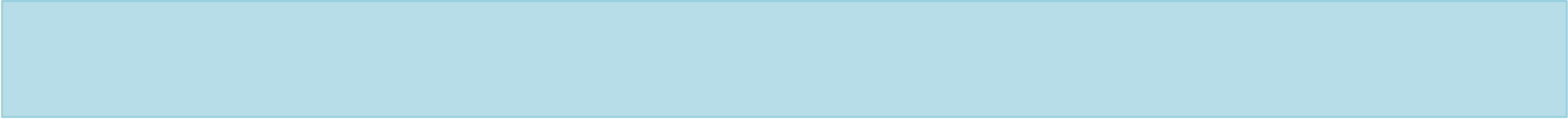
Midterm 2024

- Average: $60.5/90 = 67\%$
- Median: $60.5/90 = 67\%$
- Std. Dev.: $14.5 \sim 16\%$

Rough letter grades:

60 - 90 pts. ~ A
45 - 60 pts. ~ B
35 - 45 pts. ~ C
< 35 ~ D





See fun.ml
Eval2, Eval3

ENVIRONMENT BASED INTERPRETERS

Environment Based Interpreters

- Thread through an *environment*, which maps variables to their values.
 - extend the environment when doing a function call
 - lookup variables in the current environment
- To properly handle first-class functions: use closures
 - a *closure* is a pair of a
 - (1) a datastructure representing the saved environment, and
 - (2) the function body definition



See [cc.ml](#)

CLOSURE CONVERSION

Closure Conversion Summary

- A **closure** is a pair of an environment and a code pointer
 - the environment is a map data structure binding variables to values
 - environment could just be a list of the values (with known indices)
- Building a closure value:
 - code pointer is a function that takes an extra argument for the environment: $A \rightarrow B$ becomes $(\text{Env} * A \rightarrow B)$
 - body of the closure “projects out” then variables from the environment
 - creates the environment map by bundling the free variables
- Applying a closure:
 - project out the environment, invoke the function (pointer) with the environment and its “real” argument
- Hoisting:
 - Once closure converted, all functions can be lifted to the top level



Scope, Types, and Context

STATIC ANALYSIS

Variable Scoping

- Consider the problem of determining whether a programmer-declared variable is in scope.
- Issues:
 - Which variables are available at a given point in the program?
 - Shadowing – is it permissible to re-use the same identifier, or is it an error?
- Example: The following program is syntactically correct but not well-formed. (y and q are used without being defined anywhere)

```
int fact(int x) {  
    var acc = 1;  
    while (x > 0) {  
        acc = acc * y;  
        x = q - 1;  
    }  
    return acc;  
}
```

Q: Can we solve this problem by changing the parser to rule out such programs?

Inference Rules

- We can read a judgment $G \vdash e$ as
“the expression e is well scoped and has free variables in G ”
- For any environment G , expression e , and statements s_1, s_2 .

$$G \vdash \text{if } (e) s_1 \text{ else } s_2$$

holds if $G \vdash e$ and $G \vdash s_1$ and $G \vdash s_2$ all hold.

- More succinctly: we summarize these constraints as an **inference rule**:

Premises	$G \vdash e$	$G \vdash s_1$	$G \vdash s_2$
Conclusion	$G \vdash \text{if } (e) s_1 \text{ else } s_2$		

- Such a rule can be used for *any* substitution of the syntactic metavariables G, e, s_1 and s_2 .

Scope-Checking Lambda Calculus

- Consider how to identify “well-scoped” lambda calculus terms
 - Given: G , a set of variable identifiers, e , a term of the lambda calculus
 - Judgment*: $G \vdash e$ “the free variables of e are included in G ”

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

“the variable x is free, but in scope”

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

“ G contains the free variables of e_1 and e_2 ”

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

“ x is available in the function body e ”

Scope-checking Code

- Compare the OCaml code to the inference rules:
 - structural recursion over syntax
 - the check either “succeeds” or “fails”

```
let rec scope_check (g:VarSet.t) (e:exp) : unit =  
  begin match e with  
  | Var x -> if VarSet.member x g then () else failwith (x ^ "not in scope")  
  | App(e1, e2) -> ignore (scope_check g e1); scope_check g e2  
  | Fun(x, e) -> scope_check (VarSet.union g (VarSet.singleton x)) e  
  end
```

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

VAR

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

APP

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e}$$

FUN

- The inference rules are a *specification* of the intended behavior of this scope checking code.
 - they don't specify the order in which the premises are checked

Judgments

- A *judgment* is a (meta-syntactic) notation that *names* a relation among one or more sets.
 - The sets are usually built from object-language syntax elements and other “math” sets (e.g., integers, natural numbers, etc.)
 - We usually describe them using metavariables that range over the sets.
 - Often use domain-specific notation to ease reading.
 - The meaning of judgments, *i.e.*, which sets they represent, is defined by (collections of) inference rules
- Example: When we say “ $G \vdash e$ is a judgment where G is a context of variables and e is a term, defined by these [...] inference rules” that is shorthand for this “math speak”:
 - Let Var be the set of all (syntactic) variables
 - Let Exp be the set $\{e \mid e \text{ is a term of the untyped lambda calculus}\}$
 - Let $\mathcal{P}(\text{Var})$ be the (finite) powerset of variables (set of all finite sets)
 - Define $\text{well-scoped} \subseteq (\mathcal{P}(\text{Var}), \text{Exp})$ to be a relation satisfying the properties defined by the associated inference rules [...]
 - Then “ $G \vdash e$ ” is notation that means that $(G, e) \in \text{well-scoped}$

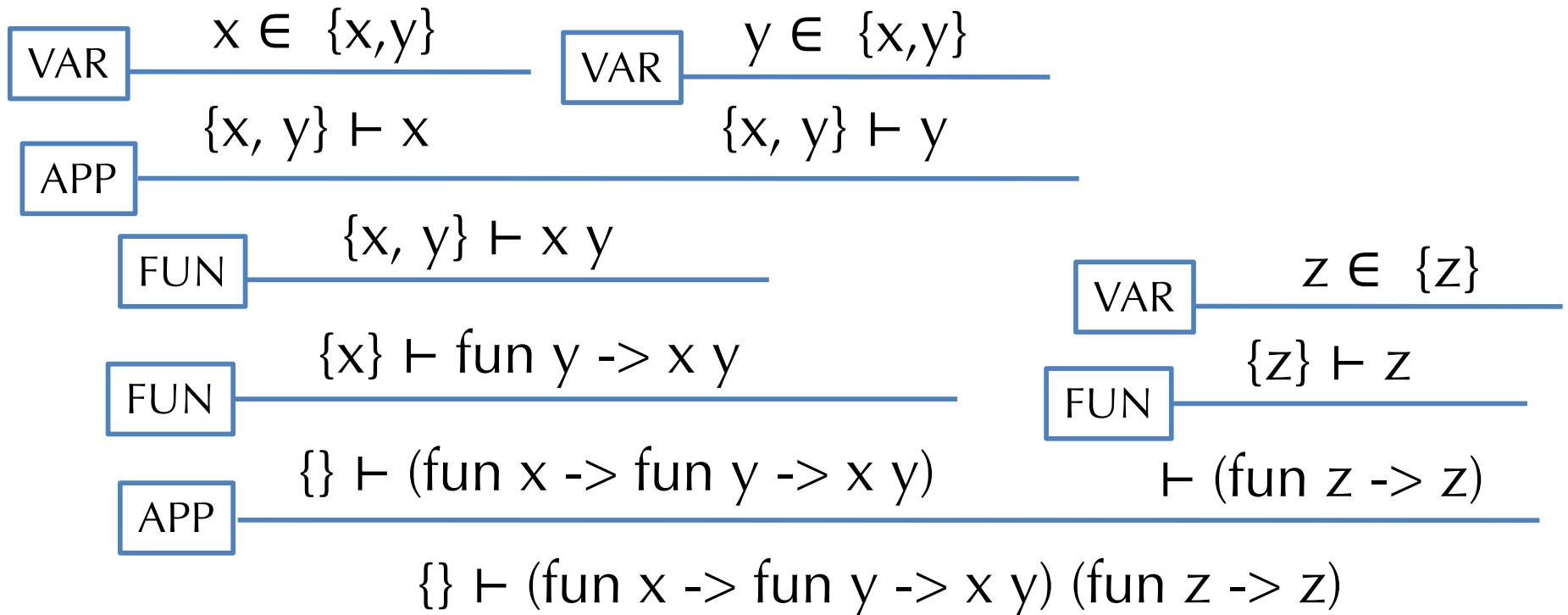
Checking Derivations

- A *derivation* or *proof tree* has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms*
 - *axiom*: rule with no premises that are judgments
 - Example: the VAR rule is an axiom (it doesn't have any \vdash)
- Goal of the static checking algorithm: *verify that such a tree exists*.

Example: we can scope check the following lambda calculus term by finding a derivation tree for it:

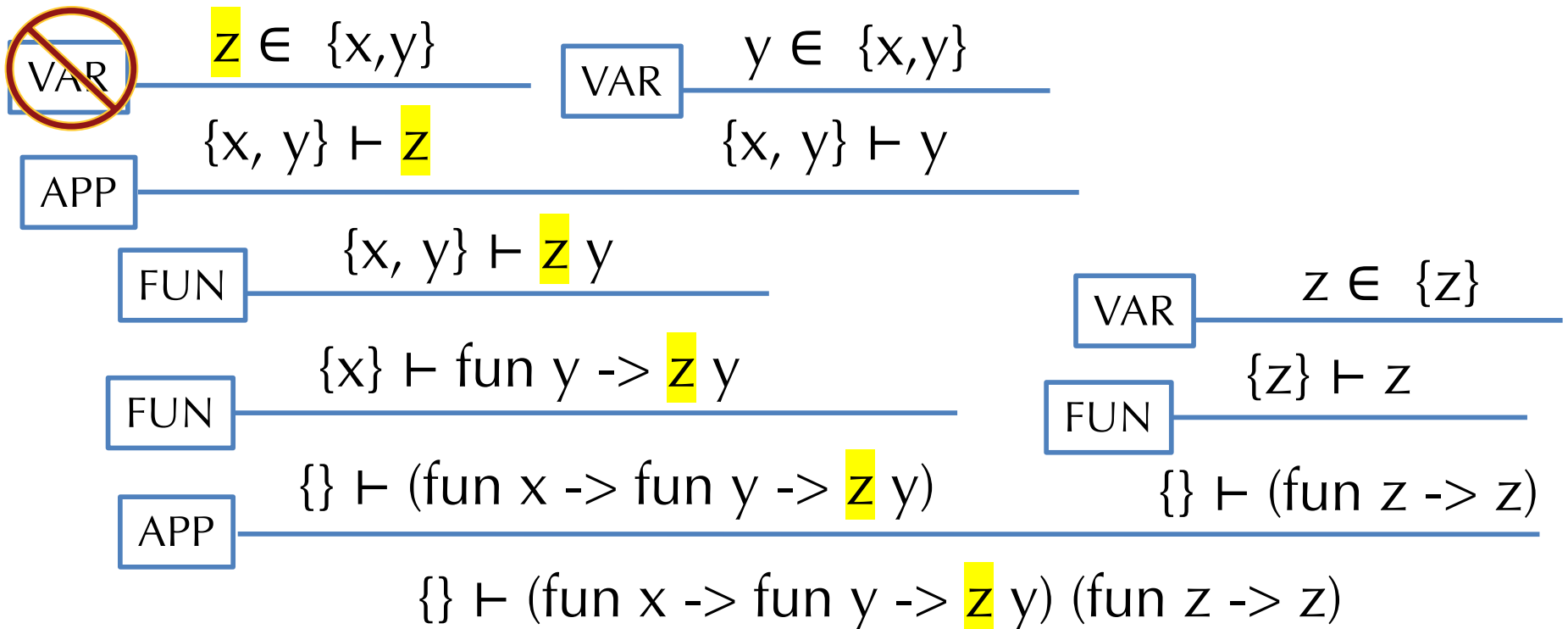
$(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{fun } y \rightarrow x \ y) (\text{fun } z \rightarrow z)$

Example Derivation Tree



- Note: the OCaml function `scope_check` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `scope_check` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x \in E$ is implemented by the function `VarSet.mem`

Example Failed Derivation



- This program is *not* well scoped
 - The variable z is not bound in the body of the left function.
 - The typing derivation fails because the VAR rule cannot succeed
 - (The other parts of the derivation are OK, though!)

Uses of the inference rules

- We can do proofs by induction on the structure of the derivation.
- For example:

Lemma: If $G \vdash e$ then $\text{fv}(e) \subseteq G$.

Proof.

By induction on the derivation that $G \vdash e$.

- case: VAR then we have $e = x$ (for some variable x) and $x \in G$. But $\text{fv}(e) = \text{fv}(x) = \{x\}$, but then $\{x\} \subseteq G$.

$$\frac{x \in G}{G \vdash x}$$

- case: APP then we have $e = e_1 e_2$ (for some $e_1 e_2$) and, by induction, we have $\text{fv}(e_1) \subseteq G$ and $\text{fv}(e_2) \subseteq G$, so $\text{fv}(e_1 e_2) = \text{fv}(e_1) \cup \text{fv}(e_2) \subseteq G$

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 \quad G \vdash e_2}{G \vdash e_1 e_2}$$

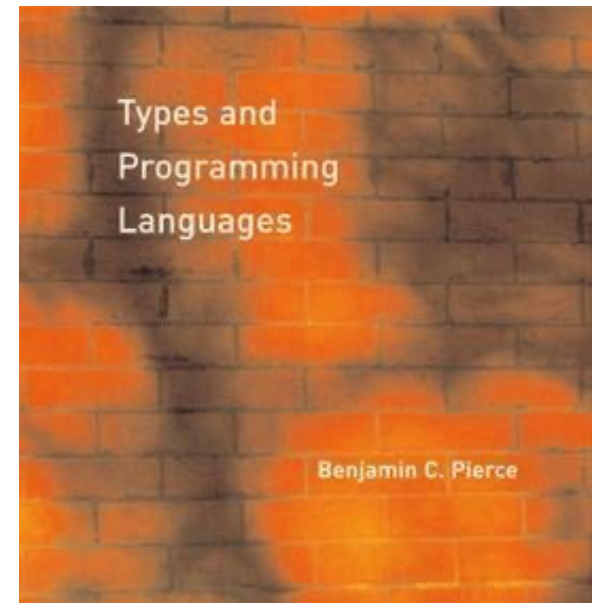
- case: FUN then we have $e = (\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1)$ for some x, e_1 and, by induction, we have $\text{fv}(e_1) \subseteq G \cup \{x\}$, but then we also have $\text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1) = \text{fv}(e_1) \setminus \{x\} \subseteq ((G \cup \{x\}) \setminus \{x\}) \subseteq G$

$$\frac{G \cup \{x\} \vdash e_1}{G \vdash \text{fun } x \rightarrow e_1}$$

$\text{fv}(x)$	$=$	$\{x\}$	
$\text{fv}(\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp})$	$=$	$\text{fv}(\text{exp}) \setminus \{x\}$	<i>('x' is a bound in exp)</i>
$\text{fv}(\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2)$	$=$	$\text{fv}(\text{exp}_1) \cup \text{fv}(\text{exp}_2)$	

Why Inference Rules?

- They are a compact, precise way of specifying language properties.
 - E.g. ~20 pages for full Java vs. 100's of pages of prose Java Language Spec.
- Inference rules correspond closely to the recursive AST traversal that implements them
- Compiling in a context is nothing more an “interpretation” of the inference rules that specify typechecking*: $\llbracket C \vdash e : t \rrbracket$
 - Compilation follows the typechecking judgment
- Strong mathematical foundations
 - The “Curry-Howard correspondence”:
Programming Language ~ Logic,
Program ~ Proof, Type ~ Proposition
 - See CIS 5000 next Fall if you're interested in type systems!
 - ***Types and Programming Languages*** by Pierce



*Here (and later) we'll write context C for $G;L$, the combination of the global and local contexts.

CBV Operational Semantics

- This is *call-by-value* semantics:
function arguments are evaluated before substitution

$$\frac{}{v \Downarrow v}$$

“Values evaluate to themselves”

$$\frac{\text{exp}_1 \Downarrow (\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp}_3) \quad \text{exp}_2 \Downarrow v \quad \text{exp}_3\{v/x\} \Downarrow w}{\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2 \Downarrow w}$$

“To evaluate function application: Evaluate the function to a value, evaluate the argument to a value, and then substitute the argument for the function. ”

CBN Operational Semantics

- This is *call-by-name* semantics:
function arguments are evaluated before substitution

$$\frac{}{v \Downarrow v}$$

“Values evaluate to themselves”

$$\frac{\text{exp}_1 \Downarrow (\text{fun } x \rightarrow \text{exp}_3) \quad \text{exp}_3\{\text{exp}_2/x\} \Downarrow w}{\text{exp}_1 \text{ exp}_2 \Downarrow w}$$

“To evaluate function application: Evaluate the function to a value, substitute the argument into the function body, and then keep evaluating.”

Simply-typed Lambda Calculus

- Consider how to identify “well-scoped” lambda calculus terms
 - Recall the free variable calculation
 - Given: G , a map of variable identifiers to types, e , a term of the lambda calculus
 - Judgment*: $G \vdash e : T$ means “the expression e computes a value of type T , assuming its free variables have the types given in G ”

$$\frac{x:T \in G}{G \vdash x : T} \quad \text{“the variable } x \text{ has type } T \text{ and is in scope”}$$

$$\frac{G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S}$$

“ e_1 is a function from T_2 to T and e_2 is an expression of type T_2 ”

$$\frac{G, x : T \vdash e : S}{G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S} \quad \text{“Given an input of type } T, \text{ this function computes a result of type } S\text{”}$$

Adding Integers

- For the language in “tc.ml” we have five inference rules:

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 10px;">INT</div> $\frac{}{G \vdash i : \text{int}}$	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 10px;">VAR</div> $\frac{x : T \in G}{G \vdash x : T}$	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 10px;">ADD</div> $\frac{G \vdash e_1 : \text{int} \quad G \vdash e_2 : \text{int}}{G \vdash e_1 + e_2 : \text{int}}$
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 10px;">FUN</div> $\frac{G, x : T \vdash e : S}{G \vdash \text{fun } (x:T) \rightarrow e : T \rightarrow S}$	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 10px;">APP</div> $\frac{G \vdash e_1 : T \rightarrow S \quad G \vdash e_2 : T}{G \vdash e_1 e_2 : S}$	

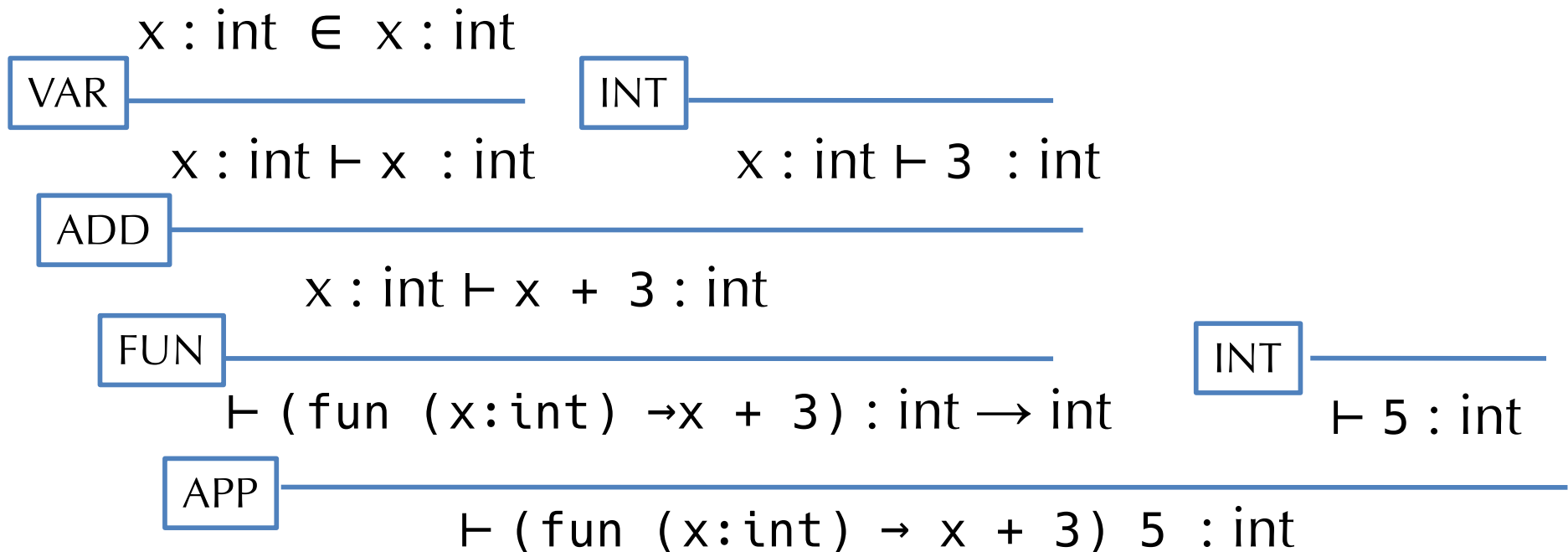
- Note how these rules correspond to the code.
- By convention, if G is empty we leave that spot blank.

Type Checking Derivations

- A *derivation* or *proof tree* has (instances of) judgments as its nodes and edges that connect premises to a conclusion according to an inference rule.
- Leaves of the tree are *axioms* (i.e. rules with no premises)
 - Example: the INT rule is an axiom
- Goal of the typechecker: verify that such a tree exists.
- Example: Find a tree for the following program using the inference rules on the previous slide:

$$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x + 3) \ 5 : \text{int}$$

Example Derivation Tree



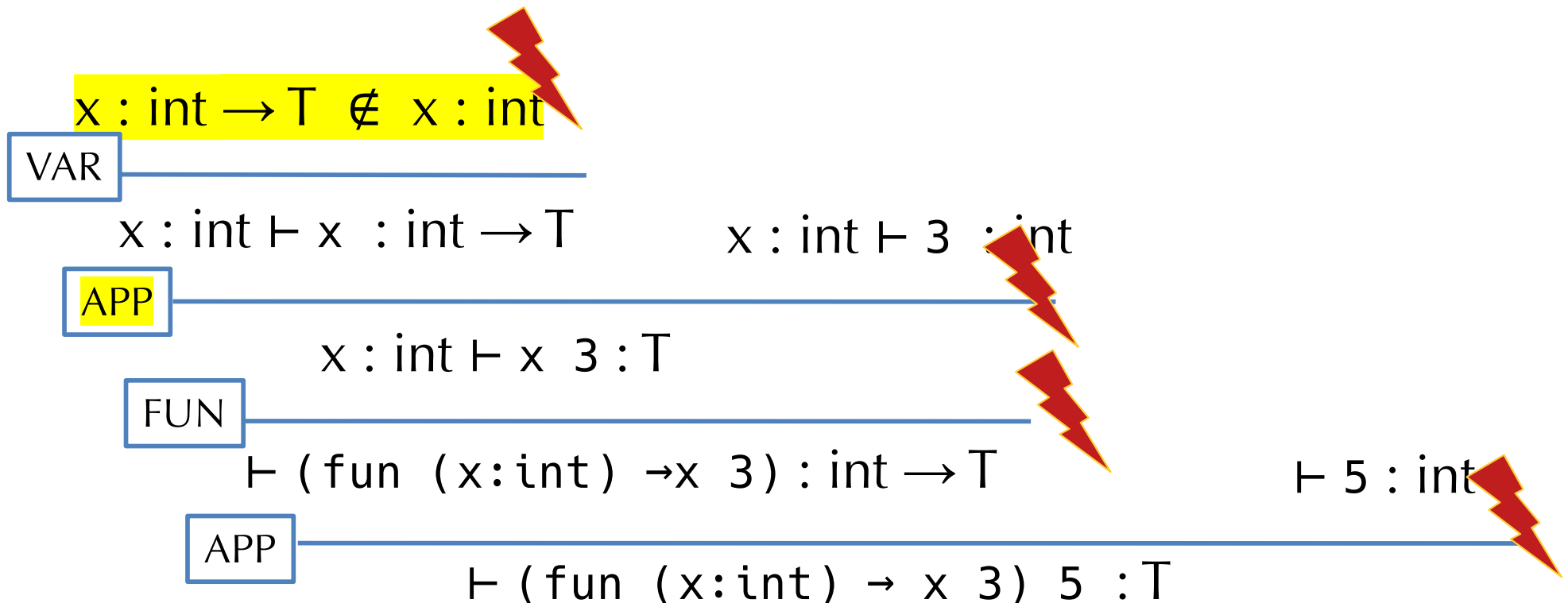
- Note: the OCaml function `typecheck` verifies the existence of this tree. The structure of the recursive calls when running `typecheck` is the same shape as this tree!
- Note that $x : \text{int} \in E$ is implemented by the function `lookup`

Ill-typed Programs

- Programs without derivations are ill-typed

Example: There is no type T such that

$$\vdash (\text{fun } (x:\text{int}) \rightarrow x \ 3) \ 5 : T$$



Type Safety

"Well typed programs do not go wrong."

– Robin Milner, 1978

Theorem: (simply typed lambda calculus with integers)

If $\vdash e : t$ then there exists a value v such that $e \Downarrow v$.

- Note: this is a *very* strong property.
 - Well-typed programs cannot "go wrong" by trying to execute undefined code (such as `3 + (fun x -> 2)`)
 - Simply-typed lambda calculus is guaranteed to terminate! (i.e. it isn't Turing complete)

Notes about this Typechecker

- The interpreter evaluates the body of a function only when it's applied.
- The typechecker always checks the body of the function
 - even if it's never applied
 - We *assume* the input has some type (say t_1) and reflect this in the type of the function ($t_1 \rightarrow t_2$).
- Dually, at a call site ($e_1\ e_2$), we don't know what *closure* we're going to get.
 - But we can calculate e_1 's type, check that e_2 is an argument of the right type, and determine what type e_1 will return.
- Question: Why is this an approximation?
- Question: What if `well_typed` always returns `false`?