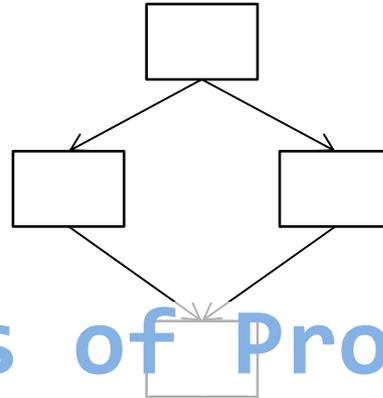


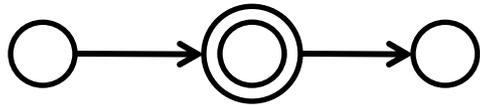
$$\frac{\{A \wedge b\} c \{A\}}{\{A\} \mathbf{while} \ b \ \mathbf{do} \ c \ \{A \wedge !b\}}$$

$$\frac{\langle c_0, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \sigma'' \quad \langle c_1, \sigma'' \rangle \rightarrow \sigma'}{\langle c_0; c_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \sigma'}$$

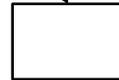


# Foundations of Program Analysis

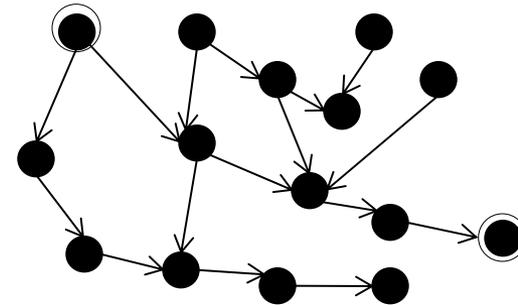
$P(x) \wedge !q(y)$



$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 e_2 : \tau}$$



```
Node find (Node prev, Node cur, int key) {
  while (cur.key < key) {
    prev = cur;
    cur = cur.next;
  }
  return cur;
}
```



6.820

Armando Solar-Lezama

# Course Staff

---

- **Armando Solar-Lezama**
  - **Instructor**



# What this course is about

---

The top N good ideas in programming languages that you might be embarrassed not to know about. ;)

# What this course is about

---

- How we define the meanings of programs and programming languages unambiguously?
- How can we prove theorems about the behavior of individual programs?
- How can we design programming tools to automate that kind of understanding?

## Applications:

-finding bugs

-designing languages to prevent bugs

-synthesizing programs

-manipulating programs automatically (refactoring, optimization)

# Course outline

---

## Functional Programming

- learn about lambda calculus, Haskell, and OCaml
- learn to make formal arguments about program behavior

## Type Theory

- learn how to design and reason about type systems
- use type-based analysis to find synchronization errors, avoid information leaks and manage your memory efficiently

## Axiomatic Semantics/Program Logics

- a different view of program semantics
- learn how to make logical arguments about program correctness

# Course Outline

---

## Abstract Interpretation

- use abstraction to reason about the behavior of the program under all possible inputs

## Model checking

- learn how to reason exhaustively about program states
- learn how abstraction and symbolic reasoning can help you find bugs in device drivers and protocol designs

# Big Ideas (recurring throughout the units)

---

## Operational Semantics

(give programs meanings via stylized *interpreters*)

## Program Proofs as Inductive Invariants

(all induction, all the time!)

## Abstraction

(model programs with *specifications*)

## Modularity

(break programs into *pieces* to analyze separately)

# Skills

---

- Haskell
- Coq
- Ocaml
- Spin

# Grading

---

## 6 homework assignments

- Each is 15-20% of your grade
- start on them early!

# 6 Homework Assignments

---

Pset 1 (out now, due in about 2 weeks!)

- Practice functional programming
- Build some Lambda Calculus interpreters

Pset 2

- Practice more functional programming
- Implement a type inference engine
- Practice writing proofs in Coq

Pset 3

- How to make formal arguments about the properties of a type system
- Coq proof of type safety for a simple language

Pset 4

- Learn about SMT solvers
- Implement your own verifier for simple C-like programs

# Homework Assignments Cont.

---

## Pset 5

- Implement an analysis to check for memory errors in C-like programs

## Pset 6

- Practice LTL and CTL (two specification languages)
- Learn how to use a model checker

# Functional Programming: Functions and Types

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Adapted from Arvind 2010

September 9, 2015

# Function Execution by Substitution

---

`plus x y = x + y`

1. `plus 2 3 → 2 + 3 → 5`

2. `plus (2*3) (plus 4 5)`

`→ plus 6 (4+5)`

`→ plus 6 9`

`→ 6 + 9`

`→ 15`

`→ (2*3) + (plus 4 5)`

`→ 6 + (4+5)`

`→ 6 + 9`

`→ 15`

The final answer did not depend upon the order in which reductions were performed

# Confluence

---

Informally - The order in which reductions are performed in a Functional program does not affect the final outcome

This is true for all functional programs regardless whether they are right or wrong

A formal definition will be given later

# Blocks

---

```
let
    x = a * a
    y = b * b
in
    (x - y) / (x + y)
```

- a variable can have at most one definition in a block
- ordering of bindings does not matter

# Layout Convention in Haskell

---

This convention allows us to omit many delimiters

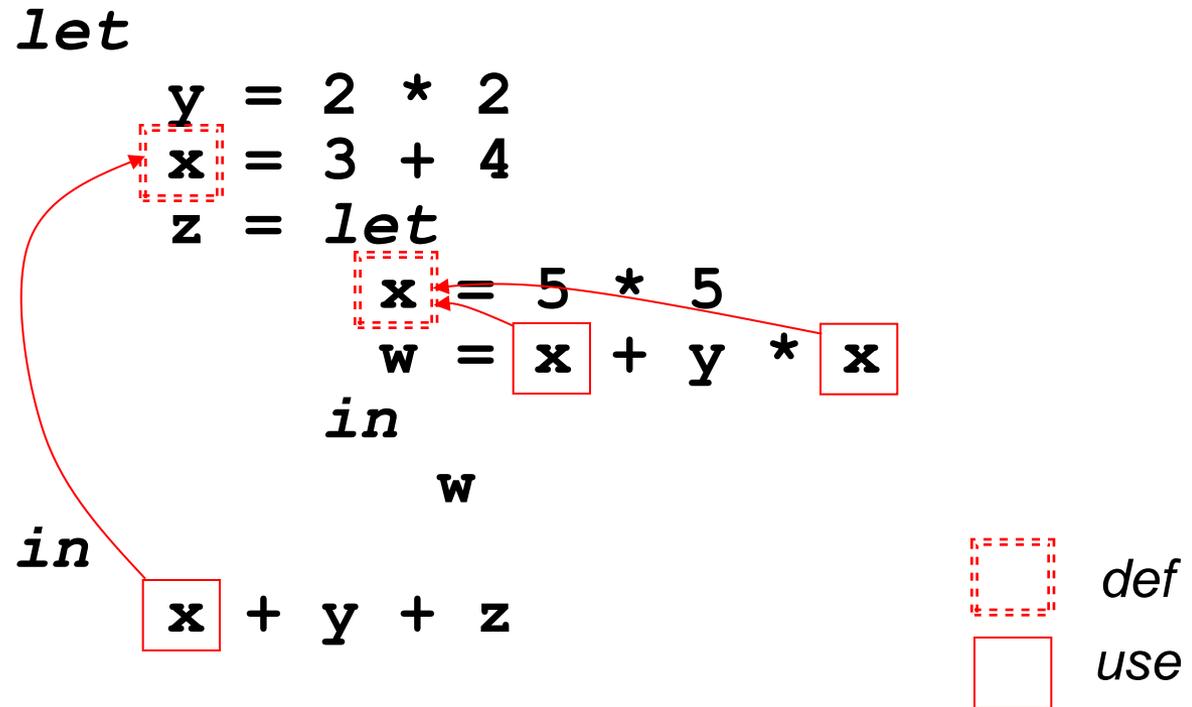
```
let
    x = a * a
    y = b * b
in
    (x - y) / (x + y)
```

is the same as

```
let
    { x = a * a ;
      y = b * b ; }
in
    (x - y) / (x + y)
```

# Lexical Scoping

---



Lexically closest definition of a variable prevails.

# Renaming Bound Identifiers

( $\alpha$ -renaming)

---

```
let
  y = 2 * 2
  x = 3 + 4
  z = let
    x = 5 * 5
    w = x + y * x
  in
    w
in
  x + y + z

≡

let
  y = 2 * 2
  x = 3 + 4
  z = let
    x' = 5 * 5
    w = x' + y * x'
  in
    w
in
  x + y + z
```

# Lexical Scoping and $\alpha$ -renaming

---

`plus` `x y = x + y`

`plus'` `a b = a + b`

`plus` and `plus'` are the same because `plus'` can be obtained by *systematic renaming of bounded identifiers* of `plus`

# Capture of Free Variables

---

```
f x = . . .  
g x = . . .  
foo f x = f (g x)
```

Suppose we rename the bound identifier  $f$  to  $g$  in the definition of `foo`

```
foo' g x = g (g x)
```

`foo`  $\equiv$  `foo'`      ?      No

While renaming, entirely new names should be introduced!

# Curried functions

---

`plus x y = x + y`

`let`

`f = plus 1`

`in`

`f 3`

`→ (plus 1) 3 → 1 + 3 → 4`

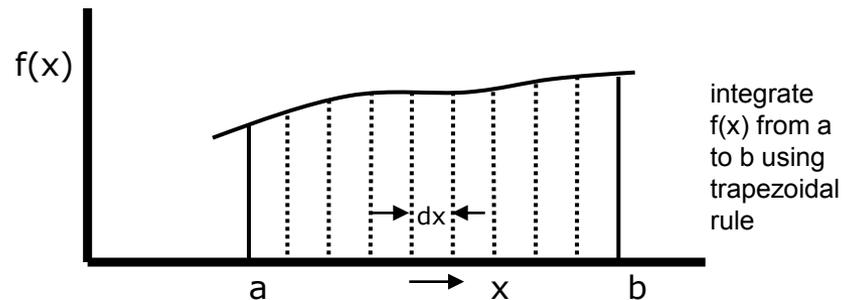
syntactic conventions:

`e1 e2 e3 ≡ ((e1 e2) e3)`

`x + y ≡ (+) x y`

# Local Function Definitions

```
integrate dx a b f =  
  let  
    sum x tot =  
      if x > b then tot  
      else sum (x+dx) (tot+(f x))  
  in  
    (sum (a+dx/2) 0) * dx
```



$$\text{Integral}(a,b) = (f(a + dx/2) + f(a + 3dx/2) + \dots) \square dx$$

# Local Function Definitions

Free  
variables  
of **sum**?

```
integrate dx a b f =  
  let  
    sum x tot =  
      if x > b then tot  
      else sum (x+dx) (tot+(f x))  
  in  
    (sum (a+dx/2) 0) * dx
```



```
integrate dx a b f =  
  (sum dx b f (a+dx/2) 0) * dx  
  
sum dx b f x tot =  
  if x > b then tot  
  else sum dx b f (x+dx) (tot+(f x))
```

Any function definition can be “closed” and “lifted”

# Types

---

*All* expressions in Haskell have a type

`23 :: Int`

"23 belongs to the set of integers"  
"The type of 23 is Int"

`true :: Bool`  
`"hello" :: String`

# Type of an expression

---

```
(sq 529)  :: Int
sq        :: Int -> Int
```

"sq is a function, which when applied to an integer produces an integer"

"Int -> Int is the set of functions, each of which when applied to an integer produces an integer"

"The type of sq is Int -> Int"

# Type of a Curried Function

---

`plus x y = x + y`

`(plus 1) 3 :: Int`

`(plus 1) :: Int -> Int`

`plus :: Int -> (Int -> Int) ?`

# $\lambda$ -Abstraction

---

Lambda notation makes it explicit that a value can be a function. Thus,

`(plus 1)` can be written as `\y -> (1 + y)`

(In Haskell `\x` is a syntactic approximation of  $\lambda x$ )

`plus x y = x + y`

can be written as

`plus = \x -> \y -> (x + y)`

or as

`plus = \x y -> (x + y)`

# Parentheses Convention

---

$$f \ e1 \ e2 \quad \equiv \quad ((f \ e1) \ e2)$$

$$f \ e1 \ e2 \ e3 \equiv \ (((f \ e1) \ e2) \ e3)$$

application is *left associative*

—————

$$Int \ -> \ (Int \ -> \ Int) \ \equiv \ Int \ -> \ Int \ -> \ Int$$

type constructor “->” is *right associative*

# Type of a Block

---

```
(let
  x1 = e1
  .
  .
  .
  xn = en
in
  e )      ::      t
```

provided

```
e      ::      t
```

# Type of a Conditional

---

$(\textit{if } e \textit{ then } e_1 \textit{ else } e_2 ) :: t$

provided

$e :: \textit{Bool}$

$e_1 :: t$

$e_2 :: t$

The type of expressions in both branches of conditional must be the same.

# Polymorphism

---

`twice f x = f (f x)`

1. `twice (plus 3) 4`

→ `(Plus 3) ((plus 3) 4)`

→ `((plus 3) 7)`

→ `10`

`twice :: (Int → Int) → Int → Int` ?

2. `twice (append "Zha") "Gabor"`

→ `"ZhaZhaGabor"`

`twice :: (Str → Str) → Str → Str` ?

# Deducing Types

`twice f x = f (f x)`

What is the most "general type" for twice?

1. Assign types to every subexpression

`x :: t0`                      `f :: t1`

`f x :: t2`                    `f (f x) :: t3`

$\Rightarrow$  `twice :: t1 -> t0 -> t3`                      ?

2. Set up the constraints

`t1 = t0 -> t2`                      because of `(f x)`

`t1 = t2 -> t3`                      because of `f (f x)`

3. Resolve the constraints

`t0 -> t2 = t2 -> t3`

$\Rightarrow$  `t0 = t2` and `t2 = t3`  $\Rightarrow$  `t0 = t2 = t3`

$\Rightarrow$  `twice :: (t0 -> t0) -> t0 -> t0`

# Another Example: *Compose*

---

`compose f g x = f (g x)`  
What is the type of `compose` ?

1. Assign types to every subexpression

`x :: t0`      `f :: t1`      `g :: t2`

`g x :: t3`      `f (g x) :: t4`

$\Rightarrow$  `compose :: t1 -> t2 -> t0 -> t4`

2. Set up the constraints

`t1 = t3 -> t4`

because of `f (g x)`

`t2 = t0 -> t3`

because of `(g x)`

3. Resolve the constraints

$\Rightarrow$  `compose ::`

`(t3 -> t4) -> (t0 -> t3) -> t0 -> t4`

# Now for some fun

---

```
twice f x = f (f x)
a = twice1 (twice2 succ) 4
b = twice3 twice4 succ 4
```

1. Is  $a=b$  ?

**yes** succ (succ (succ (succ 4)))

2. Are the types of all the **twice** instances the same?

**no**

```
twice1 :: (I -> I) -> I -> I
```

```
twice2 :: (I -> I) -> I -> I
```

```
twice3 :: ((I -> I) -> I -> I) ->
           (I -> I) -> I -> I
```

```
twice4 :: (I -> I) -> I -> I
```

*The first person  
with the right  
types gets a prize!*

# Hindley-Milner Type System

---

Haskell and most modern functional languages follow the Hindley-Milner type system.

The main source of polymorphism in this system is the *Let block*.

The type of a variable can be instantiated differently within its lexical scope.

*much more on this later ...*

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Fall 2015

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