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Introduction to Programming Language Semantics

Lecture 3: Denotational Semantics

Roadmap

- ▶ Lecture 1: Structural operational semantics
IMP language, small-step rules, big-step rules, evaluation contexts, big-step rules as binary relations, algebraic properties
- ▶ Lecture 2: The λ -calculus
 λ -terms, safe substitution, binding and scope, α - and β -reduction, Church-Rosser theorem, data encodings, recursion, simple types, progress and preservation
- ▶ Lecture 3: Denotational semantics
CPOs, least fixpoints, Knaster-Tarski theorem, domain equations
- ▶ Lecture 4: Axiomatic semantics, probabilistic semantics
Weakest preconditions, semantics of Hoare logic, Dynamic logic, probabilistic semantics

Origin

Denotational Semantics

- ▶ Invented by Dana Scott and Christopher Strachey in the 1960s
- ▶ Idea: Programs should denote **mathematical objects**, not simply be described operationally
- ▶ We saw a primitive version of this in Lecture 1, where we described IMP programs e as binary relations $\llbracket e \rrbracket : \text{Env} \times \text{Env}$



Dana Scott (1932–)

Inductive definitions and least fixpoints

The set of elements $A \subseteq S$ defined by an inductive definition $R : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$ should satisfy

1. A is **R -closed**: $R(A) \subseteq A$
every element that the rules say should be in A should actually be in A
2. A is **R -consistent**: $A \subseteq R(A)$
an element should be included in A **only** if a rules of R says so

Taken together, these say that $A = R(A)$, i.e. A is a **fixpoint** of R

But 2 is not strong enough, as R could have many fixpoints

3. A is a **least fixpoint**: A is **minimal** with respect to $\subseteq$

Monotone set operators

A set operator $R : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$ is **monotone** if for every $B, C \subseteq S$,

$$B \subseteq C \Rightarrow R(B) \subseteq R(C)$$

Theorem

Every monotone $R : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$ has a unique least fixpoint.

Proof. Let

$$\text{cl } R = \{B \subseteq S \mid R(B) \subseteq B\} \qquad A^* = \bigcap \text{cl } R$$

Claim: A^* is the least fixpoint of R .

For all $B \in \text{cl } R$, $A^* \subseteq B$. Then $R(A^*) \subseteq R(B) \subseteq B$.

Since $B \in \text{cl } R$ was arbitrary, $R(A^*) \subseteq \bigcap \text{cl } R = A^*$.

Then $A^* \in \text{cl } R$. Also $R(A^*) \in \text{cl } R$, so $A^* \subseteq R(A^*)$. Then $A^* = R(A^*)$, and it is the least since all fixpoints are in $\text{cl } R$. □

Monotone set operators

The least fixpoint of R can also be defined “from below” as well as “from above”

A **chain** of subsets of S is a set $\mathcal{C} \subseteq 2^S$ linearly ordered by $\subseteq$; that is, for all $B, C \in \mathcal{C}$, either $B \subseteq C$ or $C \subseteq B$.

We define a chain of sets by iteratively applying R starting from $\emptyset$:

$$\emptyset \subseteq R(\emptyset) \subseteq R(R(\emptyset)) \subseteq R(R(R(\emptyset))) \subseteq \dots$$

and take A_* to be the union of this chain. The **Knaster-Tarski theorem** says that A_* is the least fixpoint of R and $A_* = A^*$.

The Knaster-Tarski theorem

Caveat: For general monotone operators R this construction may require iterating through transfinite ordinals!

However, most set operators R arising in PL semantics satisfy an extra property: they are **chain-continuous** (definition later).

Chain-continuity is stronger than monotonicity

- ▶ guarantees that the construction converges to a fixpoint after at most ω steps, where ω is the first transfinite ordinal

Transfinite ordinals

$0, 1, 2, \dots, \omega, \omega + 1, \dots, \omega + \omega = \omega \cdot 2, \omega \cdot 2 + 1, \dots$
 $\dots, \omega \cdot \omega = \omega^2, \omega^2 + 1, \dots, \omega^\omega, \dots, \omega_1, \dots$

There are only a few thing you need to know about them:

1. There are two kinds, **successors** and **limits**
(**successors are $\alpha + 1$ for some α , limits not**)
2. They are well-ordered
(**linearly ordered by $\leq$, every set has a smallest element**)
3. There are a lot of them
(**more than the cardinality of any set**)
4. We can do induction on them
(**$\leq$ on ordinals is well-founded relation**)

The Knaster-Tarski theorem

Let $R : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$ be monotone. Define

$$A_0 = \emptyset$$

$$A_{\alpha+1} = R(A_\alpha)$$

$$A_\beta = \bigcup_{\alpha < \beta} A_\alpha, \text{ } \beta \text{ a limit ordinal}$$

Lemma

The A_α form a chain, and the map $\lambda \alpha . A_\alpha$ is monotone with respect to $\leq$ on ordinals and $\subseteq$ on 2^S ; that is, $\alpha \leq \beta \Rightarrow A_\alpha \subseteq A_\beta$

Theorem (Knaster-Tarski)

There is a smallest ordinal κ such that $A_{\kappa+1} = A_\kappa$, and A_κ is the least fixpoint of R .

Continuous and finitary operators

A set operator $R : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$ is said to be

- ▶ **monotone** if $B \subseteq C \Rightarrow R(B) \subseteq R(C)$
- ▶ **(chain-)continuous** if for any nonempty chain $\mathcal{C}$

$$R(\bigcup \mathcal{C}) = \bigcup \{R(B) \mid B \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

- ▶ **finitary** if for any set C

$$R(C) = \bigcup \{R(B) \mid B \subseteq C, B \text{ finite}\}$$

Lemma

- (i) Every chain-continuous operator is monotone
- (ii) An operator is chain-continuous iff it is finitary

Knaster-Tarski for continuous operators

Every chain-continuous operator is monotone:

$$\begin{aligned} A \subseteq B &\Rightarrow A \cup B = B \\ &\Rightarrow R(A) \cup R(B) = R(A \cup B) = R(B) \\ &\Rightarrow R(A) \subseteq R(B) \end{aligned}$$

If R is chain-continuous, the least fixpoint is attained after at most ω steps:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{\omega+1} &= R(A_\omega) && \text{by definition of } A_{\omega+1} \\ &= R(\bigcup_{n < \omega} A_n) && \text{by definition of } A_\omega \\ &= \bigcup_{n < \omega} R(A_n) && \text{since } R \text{ is continuous} \\ &= \bigcup_{n < \omega} A_{n+1} && \text{by definition of } A_{n+1} \\ &= A_\omega \end{aligned}$$

Denotational Semantics of IMP

Recall from Lecture 1 the syntax of IMP:

$$\text{AExp } a ::= n \mid x \mid a_0 + a_1 \mid \dots$$
$$\text{BExp } b ::= \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid \neg b \mid b_0 \wedge b_1 \mid a_0 = a_1 \mid \dots$$
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Com } c ::= & \text{skip} \mid x := a \mid c_0; c_1 \mid \text{if } b \text{ then } c_1 \text{ else } c_2 \\ & \mid \text{while } b \text{ do } c \end{aligned}$$

Environments (aka **states** or **valuations**) are functions $s : \text{Var} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

The set of environments is denoted Env

Denotational Semantics of IMP

We will interpret expressions as **total** functions

$$\mathcal{A}[[a]] : \text{Env} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$\mathcal{B}[[b]] : \text{Env} \rightarrow \mathbb{2} \qquad \mathbb{2} = \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$$

$$\mathcal{C}[[c]] : \text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_{\perp} \qquad \text{Env}_{\perp} = \text{Env} \cup \{\perp\}$$

Here $\perp$ (pronounced “bottom”) is a special symbol meaning “undefined”

Ordinarily $\mathcal{C}[[c]]$ would denote a **partial** function

$\mathcal{C}[[c]] : \text{Env} \rightharpoonup \text{Env}$ due to possible nontermination, but in that case instead of saying $\mathcal{C}[[c]]s$ is undefined, we will define $\mathcal{C}[[c]]s = \perp$

Denotational Semantics of IMP

The meaning of expressions is defined by structural induction

Arithmetic expressions:

$$\mathcal{A}[[n]]s = n \quad \mathcal{A}[[x]]s = s(x) \quad \mathcal{A}[[a_1 + a_2]]s = \mathcal{A}[[a_1]]s + \mathcal{A}[[a_2]]s$$

Boolean expressions:

$$\mathcal{B}[[\text{true}]]s = \text{true} \quad \mathcal{B}[[\text{false}]]s = \text{false} \quad \mathcal{B}[[\neg b]]s = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s = \text{false} \\ \text{false} & \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s = \text{true} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{B}[[b_1 \wedge b_2]]s = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b_1]]s = \mathcal{B}[[b_2]]s = \text{true} \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{B}[[a_1 \leq a_2]]s = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } \mathcal{A}[[a_1]]s \leq \mathcal{A}[[a_2]]s \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Denotational Semantics of IMP

Commands:

$$\mathcal{C}[\text{skip}]s = s$$

$$\mathcal{C}[x := a]s = s[\mathcal{A}[a]s/x]$$

$$\mathcal{C}[\text{if } b \text{ then } c_1 \text{ else } c_2]s = \begin{cases} \mathcal{C}[c_1]s & \text{if } \mathcal{B}[b]s = \text{true} \\ \mathcal{C}[c_2]s & \text{if } \mathcal{B}[b]s = \text{false} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{C}[c_1; c_2]s = \begin{cases} \mathcal{C}[c_2](\mathcal{C}[c_1]s) & \text{if } \mathcal{C}[c_1]s \neq \perp \\ \perp & \text{if } \mathcal{C}[c_1]s = \perp \end{cases}$$

Denotational Semantics of IMP

For the last case

$$\mathcal{C}[[c_1; c_2]]s = \begin{cases} \mathcal{C}[[c_2]](\mathcal{C}[[c_1]]s) & \text{if } \mathcal{C}[[c_1]]s \neq \perp \\ \perp & \text{if } \mathcal{C}[[c_1]]s = \perp, \end{cases}$$

another way of achieving this effect is by defining a **lifting** operator $(-)^{\dagger} : (D \rightarrow E_{\perp}) \rightarrow (D_{\perp} \rightarrow E_{\perp})$:

$$f^{\dagger} = \lambda x. \text{if } x = \perp \text{ then } \perp \text{ else } f(x)$$

This is called **Kleisli lifting**. With this notation,

$$\mathcal{C}[[c_1; c_2]]s = \mathcal{C}[[c_2]]^{\dagger}(\mathcal{C}[[c_1]]s)$$

or more succinctly

$$\mathcal{C}[[c_1; c_2]] = \mathcal{C}[[c_2]]^{\dagger} \circ \mathcal{C}[[c_1]]$$

Denotational Semantics of IMP

For the **while loop**, we would like to have an equivalence between

while b **do** c **if** b **then** $(c; \text{while } b \text{ do } c)$ **else skip**

so we would like $\mathcal{C}[\![\text{while } b \text{ do } c]\!]$ to be a solution of

$$W_s = \text{if } \mathcal{B}[\![b]\!]s \text{ then } W^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[\![c]\!]s) \text{ else } s$$

or equivalently

$$W = \lambda s : \text{Env}. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[\![b]\!]s \text{ then } W^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[\![c]\!]s) \text{ else } s$$

Thus we are looking for a fixpoint of $\mathcal{F}$, where

$$\mathcal{F} = \lambda w : \text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp. \lambda s : \text{Env}. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[\![b]\!]s \text{ then } w^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[\![c]\!]s) \text{ else } s$$

Denotational Semantics of IMP

The function

$$\mathcal{F} = \lambda w : \text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp . \lambda s : \text{Env} . \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } w^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s$$

has type

$$\mathcal{F} : (\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp) \rightarrow (\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp)$$

and we would like a least fixpoint $W = \mathcal{F} W$

But how do this in the space $\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp$? We only proved the Knaster-Tarski theorem for set operators, and this is not a set...

Denotational Semantics of IMP

Intuitively: Take the limit of a chain of approximations obtained by unwinding the loop more and more times

$$W_0 = \lambda s : \text{Env}. \perp$$

$$W_1 = \mathcal{F} W_0$$

$$= \lambda s : \text{Env}. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } W_0^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s$$

$$= \lambda s : \text{Env}. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } \perp \text{ else } s$$

$$W_2 = \mathcal{F} W_1$$

$$= \lambda s : \text{Env}. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } W_1^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s$$

...

$$W_{n+1} = \mathcal{F} W_n$$

Does this form a chain in any reasonable order? Does it give a least fixpoint of $\mathcal{F}$ as with Knaster-Tarski?

Partially ordered sets (posets)

A binary relation $\sqsubseteq$ on a set S is called a **partial order** if it is

- ▶ **reflexive**: for all $x \in S$, $x \sqsubseteq x$
- ▶ **transitive**: for all $x, y, z \in S$, if $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $y \sqsubseteq z$, then $x \sqsubseteq z$
- ▶ **antisymmetric**: for all $x, y \in S$, if $x \sqsubseteq y$ and $y \sqsubseteq x$, then $x = y$

A pair of elements $x, y \in S$ are called **comparable** if either $x \sqsubseteq y$ or $y \sqsubseteq x$, **incomparable** otherwise

A partial order $\sqsubseteq$ is a **total order** if all pairs are comparable

A set with a distinguished partial order $(S, \sqsubseteq)$ is called a **partially ordered set** or **poset**

Chain-complete partial orders (CPOs)

If $(S, \sqsubseteq)$ is a poset and $A \subseteq S$, an element $b \in S$ is an **upper bound** of A if $a \sqsubseteq b$ for all $a \in A$

An element b is a **least upper bound** or **supremum** of A if it is an upper bound and $b \sqsubseteq c$ for every other upper bound c of A . If A has a supremum, then it is unique.

A **chain** in a poset $(S, \sqsubseteq)$ is a subset of S in which all elements are comparable

A poset $(S, \sqsubseteq)$ is **chain-complete** if all chains have suprema. A chain-complete poset is called a **CPO**. The supremum of a chain C is denoted $\bigsqcup C$

Example: $(2^S, \subseteq)$

Chain-complete partial orders (CPOs)

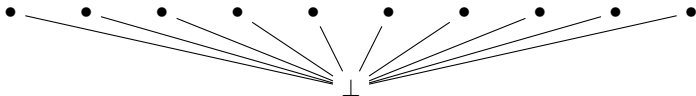
Let $(X, \sqsubseteq)$ and $(Y, \sqsubseteq)$ be CPOs

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **monotone** if $x \sqsubseteq y \Rightarrow f(x) \sqsubseteq f(y)$ for all $x, y \in X$

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **chain-continuous** if for all nonempty chains $C \subseteq X$, $f(\bigsqcup C) = \bigsqcup \{f(a) \mid a \in C\}$

Every CPO has a smallest element $\perp$, namely $\bigsqcup \emptyset$

One can make a CPO out of any set by adding $\perp$ and making it smaller than everything else — this is called a **flat domain**



Knaster-Tarski for CPOs

Theorem

Let $(X, \sqsubseteq)$ be a CPO. Every monotone map $f : X \rightarrow X$ has a least fixpoint. If f is chain-continuous, then the least fixpoint is $\bigsqcup_n f^n(\perp)$.

The proof is essentially the same as for sets. Define

$$\begin{aligned}c_0 &= \perp \\c_{\alpha+1} &= f(c_\alpha), \quad \alpha + 1 \text{ a successor ordinal} \\c_\beta &= \bigsqcup_{\alpha < \beta} c_\alpha, \quad \beta \text{ a limit ordinal}\end{aligned}$$

The c_α form a transfinite chain $\perp \sqsubseteq f(\perp) \sqsubseteq f(f(\perp)) \sqsubseteq \dots$

There must be an ordinal κ such that $c_{\kappa+1} = c_\kappa$, and c_κ is the least fixpoint of f .

Knaster-Tarski for CPOs

For CPOs C and D , let $[C \rightarrow D]$ be the space of continuous functions $C \rightarrow D$

Theorem

If C and D are CPOs, then $[C \rightarrow D]$ is a CPO under the pointwise ordering

$$f \sqsubseteq g \Leftrightarrow \forall x \in C \ f(x) \sqsubseteq g(x)$$

with bottom element $\perp = \lambda x : C . \perp$.

This fact allows us to lift the theory to higher-order functions

Semantics of the while loop

Recall we wanted a fixpoint of

$$\mathcal{F} : (\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp) \rightarrow (\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp)$$

$$\mathcal{F} = \lambda w : \text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp. \lambda s : \text{Env}. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[\![b]\!]s \text{ then } w^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[\![c]\!]s) \text{ else } s$$

By the previous theorem, $[\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp]$ is a CPO. To obtain a least fixpoint by Knaster-Tarski, we need to know that $\mathcal{F}$ is continuous

Every monotone $\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp$ is continuous, since chains in Env contain at most one element, thus $\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp = [\text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp]$

Moreover, the lift $w^\dagger : \text{Env}_\perp \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp$ of any function $w : \text{Env} \rightarrow \text{Env}_\perp$ is continuous

Semantics of the while loop

To show that $\mathcal{F}$ is monotone, suppose $d_1 \sqsubseteq d_2$. Then for all s ,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}(d_1)(s) &= \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } d_1^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s \\ &\sqsubseteq \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } d_2^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s = \mathcal{F}(d_2)(s)\end{aligned}$$

To show that $\mathcal{F}$ is continuous, let C be a chain. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}(\bigsqcup C) &= \lambda s. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } (\bigsqcup C)^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s \\ &= \lambda s. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } \bigsqcup_{d \in C} d^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s \\ &= \bigsqcup_{d \in C} \lambda s. \text{if } \mathcal{B}[[b]]s \text{ then } d^\dagger(\mathcal{C}[[c]]s) \text{ else } s = \bigsqcup_{d \in C} \mathcal{F}(d)\end{aligned}$$

Domain constructions

Domain theory refers to the theory of CPOs and continuous maps. This is a very rich theory with many consequences for PL semantics

For CPOs D and E ,

- ▶ the product $D \times E$ consisting of all ordered pairs (d, e) with $d \in D$ and $e \in E$, ordered componentwise, is a CPO — the projections are continuous
- ▶ the coproduct $D + E$ consisting of the disjoint union of D and E with the $\perp$ elements identified, is a CPO — the coprojections $D \rightarrow D + E$ and $E \rightarrow D + E$ are continuous
- ▶ the space of continuous functions $[D \rightarrow E]$ with pointwise ordering is a CPO

Domain constructions

The following functions are continuous:

- ▶ $\text{apply} : [D \rightarrow E] \times D \rightarrow E$ that applies a given function to a given argument
- ▶ $\text{compose} : [E \rightarrow F] \times [D \rightarrow E] \rightarrow [D \rightarrow F]$
- ▶ $\text{curry} : [D \times E \rightarrow F] \rightarrow [D \rightarrow [E \rightarrow F]]$
- ▶ $\text{uncurry} : [D \rightarrow [E \rightarrow F]] \rightarrow [D \times E \rightarrow F]$
- ▶ $\text{fix} : [D \rightarrow D] \rightarrow D$ that takes a function and returns its least fixpoint

Epilog

Some good things to know about in case you are interested in working in this area:

- ▶ The notion of continuity has a topological characterization: the **Scott topology**
 - ▶ A subset A of a CPO is **Scott-open** if $a \sqsubseteq b$ and $a \in A$ implies $b \in A$, and if A contains the supremum of a chain, then it contains an element of the chain
 - ▶ A function between CPOs is chain-continuous iff it is continuous in the Scott topology
- ▶ A **directed set** in a poset is a set A such that any two elements in A have an upper bound in A . A poset is **directed complete** (DCPO) if every directed set has a supremum
 - ▶ **Markowsky's theorem**: A poset is chain-complete iff it is directed complete

Next time — Probabilistic semantics!

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