3.1 IMP: A Simple Imperative Language

To illustrate the various semantic styles discussed in this chapter, we have chosen a small imperative language, called IMP, whose syntax is inspired from C and Java. In fact, if we wrap an IMP program in a main() { ... } function the we get a valid C program. IMP has arithmetic expressions which include the domain of arbitrarily large integer numbers, Boolean expressions, assignment statements, conditional statements, while loop statements, and sequential composition of statements. Statements can be grouped in blocks surrounded with curly brackets, and the branches of the conditional and the loop body are required to be blocks. All variables used in an IMP program need to be declared at the beginning of the program, can only hold integer values (for simplicity, IMP has no Boolean variables), and are initialized with default value 0.

3.1.1 IMP Syntax

We here define the syntax of IMP, first using the Backus-Naur form (BNF) notation for context-free grammars and then using the alternative and completely equivalent mixfix algebraic notation (see Section 2.1.3). The latter is in general more appropriate for semantic developments of a language.

IMP Syntax as a Context-Free Grammar

Figure 3.1 shows the syntax of IMP using the algebraic BNF notation. In this book we implicitly assume parentheses as part of any syntax, without defining them explicitly. Parentheses can be freely used for grouping, to increase clarity and/or to avoid ambiguity in parsing. For example, with the syntax in Figure 3.1, (x + 3) / y is a well-formed IMP arithmetic expression.
The only algebraic feature in the IMP syntax in Figure 3.1 is the use of $\text{List}\{\text{Id}\}$ for variable declarations (last production), which in this case is clear: one can declare a comma-separated list of variables. To stay more conventional in notation, we refrained from replacing the productions $\text{Stmt} ::= \{\} | \text{Stmt} \text{Stmt}$ with the algebraic production $\text{Stmt} ::= \text{List}\{\text{Stmt}\}$ which captures the idea of statement sequentialization more naturally. Moreover, our syntax for statement sequential composition allows ambiguous parsing. Indeed, if $s_1, s_2, s_3 \in \text{Stmt}$ then $s_1 \ s_2 \ s_3$ can be parsed either as $(s_1 \ s_2) \ s_3$ or as $s_1 \ (s_2 \ s_3)$. However, the semantics of statement sequential composition is such that the parsing ambiguity is irrelevant (but that may not always be the case). It may be worthwhile pointing out that one should not get tricked by thinking that different parsings mean different evaluation orders. In our case here, both $(s_1 \ s_2) \ s_3$ and $s_1 \ (s_2 \ s_3)$ will proceed by evaluating the three statements in order. The difference between the two is that the former will first evaluate $s_1 \ s_2$ and then $s_3$, while the latter will first evaluate $s_1$ and then $s_2 \ s_3$; in either case, $s_1, s_2$ and $s_3$ will end up being evaluated in the same order: first $s_1$, then $s_2$, and then $s_3$.

The IMP language constructs have their usual imperative meaning. For diversity and demonstration purposes, when giving the various semantics of IMP we will assume that $+$ is non-deterministic (it evaluates the two subexpressions in any order, possibly interleaving their corresponding evaluation steps), $/$ is non-deterministic and partial (it will stuck the program when a division by zero takes place), $\texttt{<}=$ is left-right sequential (it first evaluates the left subexpression and then the right subexpression), and that $\texttt{&&}$ is left-right sequential and short-circuited (it first evaluates the left subexpression and then it conditionally evaluates the right only if the left evaluated to true).

One of the main reasons for which arithmetic language constructs like $+$ above are allowed to be non-deterministic in language semantic definitions is because one wants to allow flexibility in how the language is implemented, and not because these operations are indeed intended to have fully non-deterministic, or random, behaviors in all implementations. In other words, their non-determinism is to a large extent an artifact of their intended underspecification. Some language manuals actually state explicitly that one should not rely on the order in which the arguments of language constructs are evaluated. In practice, it is considered to be programmers’ responsibility to write their programs in such a way that one does not get different behaviors when the arguments are evaluated in different orders.

To better understand the existing semantic approaches and to expose some of their limitations, Section 3.5 discusses extensions of IMP with expression side effects (a variable increment operation), with abrupt termination (a halt statement), with dynamic threads and join synchronization, with local variable declarations, as well as with all of these together; the resulting language is called IMP++. The extension with side effects, in particular, makes the evaluation strategies of $+,$ $\texttt{<}=$ and $\texttt{&&}$ semantically relevant.

Each semantical approach relies on some basic mathematical infrastructure, such as integers, Booleans, etc., because each semantic definition reduces the semantics of the language constructs to those domains. We will assume available any needed mathematical domains, as well as basic operations on them which are clearly tagged (e.g., $+_\text{int}$ for the addition of integer numbers, etc.) to distinguish them from homonymous operations which are language constructs. Unless otherwise stated, we assume no implementation-specific restrictions in our mathematical domains; for example, we assume integer numbers to be arbitrarily large rather than representable on 32 bits, etc. We can think of the underlying domains used in language semantics as parameters of the semantics; indeed, changing the meaning of these domains changes the meaning of all language semantics using them. We also assume that each mathematical domain is endowed with a special element, written $\bot$ for all domains to avoid notational clutter, corresponding to undefined values of that domain. Some of these mathematical domains are defined in Chapter 2; appropriate references will be given when such domains are used.
We take the freedom to tacitly use the following naming conventions for meta or mathematical variables\(^1\) ranging over IMP-specific terms throughout the remainder of this chapter: \(x, X \in Id; a, A \in AExp; b, B \in BExp; s, S \in Stmt; i, I \in Int; t, T \in Bool; p, P \in Pgm\). Any of these can be primed or indexed.

### IMP Syntax as an Algebraic Signature

Following the relationship between the CFG and the mixfix algebraic notations explained in Section 2.1.3, the BNF syntax in Figure 3.1 can be associated the entirely equivalent algebraic signature in Figure 3.2 with one (mixfix) operation per production: the terminals mixed with underscores form the name of the operation and the non-terminals give its arity. This signature is easy to define in any rewrite engine or theorem prover; moreover, it can also be defined as a data-type or corresponding structure in any programming language. We next show how it can be defined in Maude.

#### Definition of IMP Syntax in Maude

Using the Maude notation for algebraic signatures, the algebraic signature in Figure 3.2 can yield the Maude syntax module in Figure 3.3. We have additionally picked some appropriate precedences and formatting attributes for the various language syntactic constructs (see Section 2.5.6 for more details on Maude and the meaning of these attributes).

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\(^1\)Recall that we use an *italic* font for such variables, in contrast to the *typewriter* font that we use for code (including program variable identifiers, integers, operation symbols, etc.). For example, if we write \(x, x \in Id\) then we mean an arbitrary identifier that \(x\) refers to, and *the concrete* identifier \(x\). The latter can appear in programs, while the former cannot. The former is mainly used to define semantics or state properties of the language.
mod IMP-SYNTAX is including PL-INT + PL-BOOL + PL-ID .
--- AExp
  sort AExp . subsorts Int Id < AExp .
  op _+_ : AExp AExp -> AExp [prec 33 gather (E e) format (d b o d)] .
  op _/_ : AExp AExp -> AExp [prec 31 gather (E e) format (d b o d)] .
--- BExp
  sort BExp . subsort Bool < BExp .
  op _<=_ : AExp AExp -> BExp [prec 37 format (d b o d)] .
  op !_ : BExp -> BExp [prec 53 format (b o d)] .
  op _&&_ : BExp BExp -> BExp [prec 55 gather (E e) format (d b o d)] .
--- Block and Stmt
  sorts Block Stmt . subsort Block < Stmt .
  op {} : -> Block [format (b b o)] .
  op {_} : Stmt -> Block [format (d n++i n--i d)] .
  op _=_; : Id AExp -> Stmt [prec 40 format (d b o b o)] .
  op __ : Stmt Stmt -> Stmt [prec 60 gather (e E) format (d ni d)] .
  op if(_)_else_ : BExp Block Block -> Stmt [prec 59 format (b so d d s nib o d)] .
  op while(_)_ : BExp Block -> Stmt [prec 59 format (b so d d s d)] .
--- Pgm
  sort Pgm .
  op int_;_ : List{Id} Stmt -> Pgm [prec 70 format (nb o d ni d)] .
endm
c@Fa

Figure 3.3: IMP syntax as an algebraic signature in Maude. This definition assumes appropriate modules
PL-INT, PL-BOOL and PL-ID defining corresponding sorts Int, Bool, and Id, respectively.

The module IMP-SYNTAX in Figure 3.3 imports three builtin modules, namely: PL-INT, which we
assume it provides a sort Int; PL-BOOL, which we assume provides a sort Bool; and PL-ID which we
assume provides a sort Id. We do not give the precise definitions of these modules here, particularly because
one may have many different ways to define them. In our examples from here on in the rest of this chapter
we assume that PL-INT contains all the integer numbers as constants of sort Int, that PL-BOOL contains
the constants true and false of sort Bool, and that PL-ID contains all the letters in the alphabet as constants
of sort Id. Also, we assume that the module PL-INT comes equipped with as many builtin operations on
integers as needed. To avoid operator name conflicts caused by Maude’s operator overloading capabilities,
we urge the reader to not use the Maude builtin INT and BOOL modules, but instead to overwrite them.
Appendix A.1 shows one possible way to do this: we define new modules PL-INT and PL-BOOL “hooked”
to the builtin integer and Boolean values but defining only a subset of operations on them and with clearly
tagged names to avoid name overloading, e.g., _+Int_, _/Int_, etc.

Recall from Sections 2.4.6 and 2.5.6 that lists, sets, bags, and maps are trivial algebraic structures which
can be easily defined in Maude; consequently, we take the freedom to use them without definition whenever
needed, as we did with using the sort List{Id} in Figure 3.3.

To test the syntax, one can now parse various IMP programs, such as:

Maude> parse
  int n, s ;
  n = 100 ;
  while (!(n <= 0)) {
    s = s + n ;
    n = n + -1 ;
  }
Now it is a good time to define a module, say IMP-PROGRAMS, containing as many IMP programs as one bears to write. Figure 3.4 shows such a module containing several IMP programs. Note that we took advantage of Maude’s rewriting capabilities to save space and reuse some of the defined fragments of programs as “macros”. The program sumPgm calculates the sum of numbers from 1 to 100; since we do not have subtraction in IMP, we decremented the value of n by adding −1.

The program collatzPgm in Figure 3.4 tests Collatz’ conjecture for all numbers from 1 to 10, counting the total number of steps in s. The Collatz conjecture, still unsolved, is named after Lothar Collatz (but also known as the 3n + 1 conjecture), who first proposed it in 1937. Take any natural number n. If n is even, divide it by 2 to get n/2, if n is odd multiply it by 3 and add 1 to obtain 3n + 1. Repeat the process indefinitely. The conjecture claims that no matter what number you start with, you will always eventually reach 1. Paul Erdős said about the Collatz conjecture: “Mathematics is not yet ready for such problems.” While we do not attempt to solve it, we can test it even in a simple language like IMP. It is a good example program to test IMP semantics because it makes use of almost all IMP’s language constructs and also has nested loops. The macro collatzStmt detaches the check of a single n from the top-level loop iterating n through all 2 < n ≤ m. Note that, since we do not have multiplication and test for even numbers in IMP, we mimic them using the existing IMP constructors.

Finally, the program countPrimesPgm counts all the prime numbers up to m. It uses primalityStmt, which checks whether n is prime or not (writing t to 1 or to 0, respectively), and primalityStmt makes use of multiplicationStmt, which implements a fast base 2 multiplication algorithm. Defining such a module with programs helps us to test the desired language syntax (Maude will report errors if the programs that appear in the right-hand-sides of the equations are not parsable), and will also help us later on to test the various semantics that we will define.

3.1.2 IMP State

Any operational semantics of IMP needs some appropriate notion of state, which is expected to map program variables to integer values. Moreover, since IMP disallows uses of undeclared variables, it suffices for the state of a given program to only map the declared variables to integer values and stay undefined in the variables which were not declared.

Fortunately, all these desired IMP state operations correspond to conventional mathematical operations on partial finite-domain functions from variables to integers in \([Id → Int]^{finite}\) (see Section 2.1.2) or, equivalently, to structures of sort Map[Id → Int] defined using equations (see Section 2.4.6 for details on the notation and the equivalence); we let State be an alias for the map sort above. From a semantic point of view, the equations defining such map structures are computationally invisible: semantic transitions that are part of various IMP semantics will be performed modulo these equations. In other words, state lookup and update operations will not count as computational steps, so they will not interfere with or undesirably modify the intended computational granularity of the defined language.

We let \(\sigma, \sigma', \sigma_1, \text{ etc.} \), range over states. By defining IMP states as partial finite-domain functions \(\sigma : Id → Int\), we have a very natural notion of undefinedness for a variable that has not been declared and thus has not been initialized in a state: variable \(x\) is considered undefined in a state \(\sigma\) if and only if \(x \notin \text{Dom}(\sigma)\). We may use the terminology state lookup for the operation \(\langle \_ \rangle : \text{State} \times Id → Int\), the terminology state update for the operation \(\langle \_ \rangle' : \text{State} \times Int \times Id → \text{State}\), and the terminology state initialization for the operation \(\_ \rightarrow \_ : \text{List}[Id] \times Int → \text{State}\).

Recall from Section 2.1.2 that the lookup operation is itself a partial function, because the state to lookup may be undefined in the variable of interest; as usual, we let \(⊥\) denote the undefined state and we write as
mod IMP-PROGRAMS is including IMP-SYNTAX.
ops sumPgm collatzPgm countPrimesPgm : -> Pgm.
ops collatzStmt multiplicationStmt primalityStmt : -> Stmt.
eq sumPgm = (int n, s;
n = 100;
while (!!(n <= 0)) {
s = s + n;
n = n + -1;
}
).
eq collatzStmt = (while (!!(n <= 1)) {
s = s + 1;
q = n / 2;
r = q + q + 1;
if (r <= n) { n = n + n + n + 1; } else { n = q; }
}
).
eq collatzPgm = (int m, n, q, r, s;
m = 10;
while (!!(m <= 2)) {
n = m;
m = m + -1;
collatzStmt
}
).
eq multiplicationStmt = (--- fast multiplication (base 2) algorithm
z = 0;
while (!!(x <= 0)) {
q = x / 2;
r = q + q + 1;
if (r <= x) { z = z + y; } else {}
x = q;
y = y + y;
}
).
eq primalityStmt = (
i = 2; q = n / i; t = 1;
while (i <= q && 1 <= t) {
x = i;
y = q;
multiplicationStmt
if (n <= z) { t = 0; } else { i = i + 1; q = n / i; }
}
).
eq countPrimesPgm = (int i, m, n, q, r, s, t, x, y, z;
m = 10; n = 2;
while (n <= m) {
primalityStmt
if (1 <= t) { s = s + 1; } else {}
n = n + 1;
}
endm
c@Fa

Figure 3.4: IMP programs defined in a Maude module IMP-PROGRAMS.
mod STATE is including PL-INT + PL-ID .

sort State .

op _|->_ : List{Id} Int -> State [prec 0] .
op .State : -> State .
op _&_: State State -> State [assoc comm id: .State format(d s s d)] .

op _(_: State Id -> Int [prec 0] . --- lookup
op _[_/_] : State Int Id -> State [prec 0] . --- update

var Sigma : State . var I I' : Int . var X X' : Id . var XL : List{Id} .
eq X |-> undefined = .State . --- "undefine" a variable in a state

eq (Sigma & X |-> I)(X) = I .
eq Sigma(X) = undefined [owise] .
eq (Sigma & X |-> I)[I' / X ] = (Sigma & X |-> I') .
eq Sigma[I / X] = (Sigma & X |-> I) [owise] .
eq (X,X',XL) |-> I = X |-> I & X' |-> I & XL |-> I .
eq .List{Id} |-> I = .State .
endm

c@Fa

Figure 3.5: The IMP state defined in Maude.

expected σ(x) = ⊥ and σ(x) ≠ ⊥ when the state σ is undefined and, respectively, defined in variable x. Recall also from Section 2.1.2 that the update operation can be used not only to update maps but also to “undefine” particular elements in their domain: σ[⊥/x] is the same as σ in all elements different from x and is undefined in x. Finally, recall also from Section 2.1.2 that the initialization operation yields a partial function mapping each element in the first list argument to the element given as second argument. These can be easily defined equationally, following the equational approach to partial finite-domain functions in Section 2.4.6.

★ Definition of IMP State in Maude

Figure 3.5 adapts the generic Maude definition of partial finite-domain functions in Section 2.5.6 for our purpose here: the generic sorts Source and Target are replaced by Id and Int, respectively. Recall from Section 2.5.6 that the constant undefined has sort Undefined, which is a subsort of all sorts corresponding to mathematical domains (e.g., Int, Bool, etc.). This way, identifiers can be made “undefined” in a state by simply updating them with undefined (see the equation dissolving undefined bindings in Figure 3.5).

To avoid overloading the comma “,” construct for too many purposes (which particularly may confuse Maude’s parser), we took the freedom to rename the associative and commutative construct for states to &. The only reason for which we bother to give this obvious module here is because we want the various subsequent semantics of the IMP language, all of them including the module STATE in Figure 3.5, to be self-contained and executable in Maude by simply executing all the Maude code in the figures in this chapter.
3.1.3 Notes

The style that we follow in this chapter, namely to pick a simple language and then demonstrate the various language definitional approaches by means of that simple language, is quite common. In fact, we named our language IMP after a similar language introduced by Winskel in his book [87], also called IMP, which is essentially identical to ours except that it uses a slightly different syntax and does not have variable declarations. For example, Winskel’s IMP uses “:=” for assignment and “;” as statement separator instead of statement terminator, while our IMP’s syntax resembles that of common languages like C and Java. Also, since most imperative languages do have variable declarations, we feel it is instructive to include them in our simple language. Winskell gives his IMP a big-step SOS, a small-step SOS, a denotational semantics, and an axiomatic semantics. Later, Nipkow [55] formalized all these semantics of IMP in the Isabelle/HOL proof assistant [56], and used it to formally relate the various semantics, effectively mechanizing most of Winskel’s paper proofs; in doing so, Nipkow [55] found several minor errors in Winskel’s proofs, thus showing the benefits of mechanization.

Vardejo and Mart-Oliet [83, 84] show how to use Maude to implement executable semantics for several languages following both big-step and small-step SOS approaches. Like us, they also demonstrate how to define different semantics for the same simple language using different styles; they do so both for an imperative language (very similar to our IMP) and for a functional language. Serbanuta et al. [74] use a similar simple imperative language to also demonstrate how to use rewrite logic to define executable semantics. In fact, this chapter is an extension of [74], both in breadth and in depth. For example, we state and prove general faithful rewrite logic representation results for each of the semantic approaches, while [74] did the same only for the particular simple imperative language considered there. Also, we cover new approaches here, such as denotational semantics, which were not covered in [83, 84, 74].
3.2 Big-Step Structural Operational Semantics (Big-Step SOS)

Known also under the names natural semantics, relational semantics, and evaluation semantics, big-step structural operational semantics, or big-step SOS for short, is the most “denotational” of the operational semantics: one can view big-step definitions as definitions of functions, or more generally of relations, interpreting each language construct in an appropriate domain. Big-step semantics is so easy and natural to use, that one is strongly encouraged to use it whenever possible. Unfortunately, as discussed in Section 3.10, big-step semantics has a series of limitations making it inconvenient or impossible to use in many situations, such as when defining control-intensive language features, or non-deterministic ones, or concurrency.

A big-step SOS of a programming language or calculus is given as a formal proof system (see Section 2.1.5). The big-step SOS sequents are relations over configurations, typically written \( C \Rightarrow R \) or \( C \Downarrow R \), with the meaning that \( R \) is the configuration obtained after the (complete) evaluation of \( C \). In this book we prefer the notation \( C \Downarrow R \). A big-step SOS rule therefore has the form

\[
\frac{C_1 \Downarrow R_1 \quad C_2 \Downarrow R_2 \quad \ldots \quad C_n \Downarrow R_n}{C_0 \Downarrow R_0} \quad \text{[if condition]}
\]

where \( C_0, C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n \) are configurations holding fragments of program together with all the needed semantic components, where \( R_0, R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n \) are result configurations, or irreducible configurations, i.e., configurations which cannot be reduced anymore, and where condition is an optional side condition; as discussed in Section 2.1.5, the role of side conditions is to filter out undesirable instances of the rule.

A big-step semantics compositionally describes how final evaluation results of language constructs can be obtained by combining the evaluation results of their syntactic counterparts (subexpressions, etc.). For example, the big-step semantics of IMP’s addition is

\[
\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 \rangle \quad \langle a_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_2 \rangle \\
\langle a_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 +_{\text{Int}} i_2 \rangle
\]

Here, the meaning of a relation \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle \) is that arithmetic expression \( a \) is evaluated in state \( \sigma \) to integer \( i \). If expression evaluation has side-effects, then one has to also include a state in the right configurations, so they become of the form \( \langle i, \sigma \rangle \) instead of \( \langle i \rangle \), as discussed in Section 3.10.

It is common in big-step semantics to not wrap single values in configurations, that is, to write \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow i \) instead of \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle \) and similarly for all the other sequents. Also, while the angle-bracket-and-comma notation \( \langle \text{code, state, . . .} \rangle \) is common for configurations, it is not enforced; some prefer to use a square or curly bracket notation of the form \( [\text{code, state, . . .}] \) or \( \{\text{code, state, . . .}\} \), or the simple tuple notation \( \text{code, state, . . .} \), or even to use a different (from comma) symbol to separate the various configuration ingredients, e.g., \( \langle \text{code} \mid \text{state} \mid . . . \rangle \), etc. Moreover, we may even encounter in the literature sequent notations of the form \( \sigma + a \Rightarrow i \) instead of \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle \), as well as variants of sequent notations that prefer to move various semantic components from the configurations into special, sometimes rather informal, decorations of the symbols \( \Downarrow, \Rightarrow \) and/or \( \Rightarrow \).

For the sake of a uniform notation, in particular when transitioning from languages whose expressions have no side effects to languages whose expressions do have side effects (as we do in Section 3.10), we prefer to always write big-step sequents as \( C \Downarrow R \), and always use the angle brackets to surround both configurations involved. This solution is the most general; for example, any additional semantic data or labels that one may need in a big-step definition can be uniformly included as additional components in the configurations (the left ones, or the right ones, or both).
sorts:
  Configuration
operations:
  ⟨, ⟩ : AExp × State → Configuration
  ⟨ ⟩ : Int → Configuration
  ⟨, ⟩ : BExp × State → Configuration
  ⟨ ⟩ : Bool → Configuration
  ⟨, ⟩ : Stmt × State → Configuration
  ⟨ ⟩ : State → Configuration
  ⟨ ⟩ : Pgm → Configuration

Figure 3.6: IMP big-step configurations as an algebraic signature.

3.2.1 IMP Configurations for Big-Step SOS

For the big-step semantics of the simple language IMP, we only need very simple configurations. We follow the comma-and-angle-bracket notational convention, that is, we separate the configuration components by commas and then enclose the entire list with angle brackets. For example, ⟨a, σ⟩ is a configuration containing an arithmetic expression a and a state σ, and ⟨b, σ⟩ is a configuration containing a Boolean expression b and a state σ. Some configurations may not need a state while others may not need the code. For example, ⟨i⟩ is a configuration holding only the integer number i that can be obtained as a result of evaluating an arithmetic expression, while ⟨σ⟩ is a configuration holding only one state σ that can be obtained after evaluating a statement. Configurations can therefore be of different types and need not necessarily have the same number of components. Here are all the configuration types needed for the big-step semantics of IMP:

- ⟨a, σ⟩ grouping arithmetic expressions a and states σ;
- ⟨i⟩ holding integers i;
- ⟨b, σ⟩ grouping Boolean expressions b and states σ;
- ⟨t⟩ holding truth values t ∈ {true, false};
- ⟨s, σ⟩ grouping statements s and states σ;
- ⟨σ⟩ holding states σ;
- ⟨p⟩ holding programs p.

IMP Big-Step SOS Configurations as an Algebraic Signature

The configurations above were defined rather informally as tuples of syntax and/or states. There are many ways to rigorously formalize them, all building upon some formal definition of state (besides IMP syntax). Since we have already defined states as partial finite-domain functions (Section 3.1.2) and have already shown how partial finite-domain functions can be formalized as algebraic specifications (Section 2.4.6), we also formalize configurations algebraically.

Figure 3.6 shows an algebraic signature defining the IMP configurations needed for the subsequent big-step operational semantics. For simplicity, we preferred to explicitly define each type of needed configuration.
Consequently, our configurations definition in Figure 3.6 may be more verbose than an alternative polymorphic definition, but we believe that it is clearer for this simple language. We assumed that the sorts AExp, BExp, Stmt, Pgm and State come from algebraic definitions of the IMP syntax and state, like those in Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2; recall that the latter adapted the algebraic definition of partial functions in Section 2.4.6 (see Figure 2.7) as explained in Section 3.1.2.

### 3.2.2 The Big-Step SOS Rules of IMP

Figure 3.7 shows all the rules in our IMP big-step operational semantics proof system. Recall that the role of a proof system is to derive sequents, or facts. The facts that our proof system will derive have the forms ⟨a, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨i⟩, ⟨b, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨t⟩, ⟨s, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨σ′⟩, and ⟨p⟩ ⊨ ⟨σ⟩ where a ranges over AExp, b over BExp, s over Stmt, p over Pgm, i over Int, t over Bool, and σ and σ′ over State.

Informally\(^2\), the meaning of derived triples of the form ⟨a, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨i⟩ is that the arithmetic expression a evaluates/executes/transitions to the integer i in state σ; the meaning of ⟨b, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨t⟩ is similar but with Boolean values instead of integers. The reason for which it suffices to derive such simple facts is because the evaluation of expressions in our simple IMP language is side-effect-free. When we add the increment operation \(++\) in Section 3.10, we will have to change the big-step semantics to work with 4-tuples of the form ⟨a, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨i, σ′⟩ and ⟨b, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨t, σ′⟩ instead. The meaning of ⟨s, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨σ′⟩ is that the statement s takes state σ to state σ′. Finally, the meaning of pairs ⟨p⟩ ⊨ ⟨σ⟩ is that the program p yields state σ when executed in the initial state.

In the case of our simple IMP language, the transition relation is going to be deterministic, in the sense that \(i_1 = i_2\) whenever ⟨a, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨i₁⟩ and ⟨a, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨i₂⟩ can be deduced (and similarly for Boolean expressions, statements, and programs). However, in the context of non-deterministic languages, triples ⟨a, σ⟩ ⊨ ⟨i⟩ state that a may evaluate to i in state σ, but it may also evaluate to other integers (and similarly for Boolean expressions, statements, and programs).

The proof system in Figure 3.7 contains one or two rules for each language construct, capturing its intended evaluation relation. Recall from Section 2.1.5 that proof rules are in fact rule schemas, that is, they correspond to (recursively enumerable) sets of rule instances, one for each concrete instance of the rule parameters (i.e., a, b, σ, etc.). We next discuss each of the rules in Figure 3.7.

The rules (BigStep-Int) and (BigStep-Lookup) define the obvious semantics of integers and of variable lookup; these rules have no premises because integers and variables are atomic expressions, so one does not need to evaluate any other subexpression in order to evaluate them. The rule (BigStep-Add) has already been discussed at the beginning of Section 3.2, and (BigStep-Div) is similar. Note that the rules (BigStep-Lookup) and (BigStep-Div) have side conditions. We chose not to short-circuit the division operation when \(a_1\) evaluates to 0. Consequently, no matter whether \(a_1\) evaluates to 0 or not, \(a_2\) is still expected to produce a correct value in order for the rule (BigStep-Div) to be applicable (e.g., \(a_2\) cannot perform a division by 0).

Before we continue with the remaining rules, let us clarify, using concrete examples, what it means for rule schemas to admit multiple instances and how these can be used to derive proofs. For example, a possible instance of rule (BigStep-Div) can be the following (assume that x, y ∈ Id):

\[
\langle x, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \mid (8) \quad \langle 2, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \mid (2) \\
\langle x / 2, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \mid (4)
\]

\(^2\)Formal definitions of these concepts can only be given after one has a formal language definition. We formally define the notions of evaluation and termination in the context of the IMP language in Definition 20.
\[
\langle i, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Int)}
\]
\[
\langle x, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma(x) \rangle \quad \text{if } \sigma(x) \neq \bot \quad \text{(BigStep-Lookup)}
\]
\[
\frac{\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 \rangle}{\langle a_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 +_{\text{int}} i_2 \rangle} \quad \text{(BigStep-Add)}
\]
\[
\frac{\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 \rangle \quad \langle a_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_2 \rangle}{\langle a_1 / a_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 /_{\text{int}} i_2 \rangle} \quad \text{if } i_2 \neq 0 \quad \text{(BigStep-Div)}
\]
\[
\langle t, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle t \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Const)}
\]
\[
\frac{\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 \rangle}{\langle a_1 \leq a_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i_1 \leq_{\text{int}} i_2 \rangle} \quad \text{(BigStep-Leq)}
\]
\[
\langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{true} \rangle \quad \langle \bot, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{false} \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Not-True)}
\]
\[
\langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{false} \rangle \quad \langle \bot, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{true} \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Not-False)}
\]
\[
\langle b_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{false} \rangle \quad \langle b_1 \&\& b_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{false} \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-And-False)}
\]
\[
\langle b_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{true} \rangle \quad \langle b_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle t \rangle \quad \langle b_1 \&\& b_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle t \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-And-True)}
\]
\[
\langle [], \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Empty-Block)}
\]
\[
\langle \{ s \}, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma' \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Block)}
\]
\[
\langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle \quad \text{if } \sigma(x) \neq \bot \quad \text{(BigStep-Asgn)}
\]
\[
\frac{\langle s_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_1 \rangle \quad \langle s_2, \sigma_1 \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_2 \rangle}{\langle s_1 \cdot s_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_2 \rangle} \quad \text{(BigStep-Seq)}
\]
\[
\langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{true} \rangle \quad \langle s_1, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_1 \rangle \quad \text{(if } b \text{) } \langle s_1 \cdot s_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_1 \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-If-True)}
\]
\[
\langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{false} \rangle \quad \langle s_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_2 \rangle \quad \text{(if } b \text{) } \langle s_1 \cdot s_2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma_2 \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-If-False)}
\]
\[
\langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{false} \rangle \quad \langle \text{while } (b) s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-While-False)}
\]
\[
\langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{true} \rangle \quad \langle s \text{ while } (b) s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma' \rangle \quad \langle \text{while } (b) s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma' \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-While-True)}
\]
\[
\langle s, x l \rightarrow 0 \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle \quad \langle \text{int } x l; s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle \quad \text{(BigStep-Pgm)}
\]

Figure 3.7: BigStep\text{IMP} — Big-step SOS of IMP (\langle i, i_1, i_2 \rangle \in \text{Int}; x \in \text{Id}; x l \in \text{List}\{\text{Id}\}; a, a_1, a_2 \in AExp; t \in \text{Bool}; b, b_1, b_2 \in BExp; s, s_1, s_2 \in \text{Stmt}; \sigma, \sigma', \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \text{State}).
Another instance of rule (BigStep-Div) is the following, which, of course, seems problematic:

\[
\frac{\langle x, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle 8 \rangle \quad \langle 2, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle 4 \rangle}{\langle x / 2, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle 2 \rangle}
\]

The rule above is indeed a correct instance of (BigStep-Div), but, however, one will never be able to infer \(\langle 2, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle 4 \rangle\), so this rule can never be applied in a correct inference.

Note, however, that the following is not an instance of (BigStep-Div), no matter what \(?\) is chosen to be (\(\bot\), or \(8/20\), etc.):

\[
\frac{\langle x, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle 8 \rangle \quad \langle y, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle 0 \rangle}{\langle x / y, (x \mapsto 8, y \mapsto 0) \rangle \Downarrow \langle ? \rangle}
\]

Indeed, the above does not satisfy the side condition of (BigStep-Div).

The following is a valid proof derivation, where \(x, y \in Id\) and \(\sigma \in State\) with \(\sigma(x) = 8\) and \(\sigma(y) = 0\):

\[
\frac{\cdot}{\langle y, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 0 \rangle} \quad \frac{\cdot}{\langle x, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 8 \rangle} \quad \frac{\cdot}{\langle 2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 2 \rangle}
\]

\[
\frac{\langle x, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 8 \rangle \quad \langle y / x, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 0 \rangle \quad \langle y / x + 2, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 2 \rangle}{\langle x / (y / x + 2), \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle 4 \rangle}
\]

The proof above can be regarded as a tree, with dots as leaves and instances of rule schemas as nodes. We call such complete (in the sense that their leaves are all dots and their nodes are correct rule instances) trees proof trees. This way, we have a way to mathematically derive facts, or sequents, about programs directly within their semantics. We may call the root of a proof tree the fact (or sequent) that was proved or derived, and the tree its proof or derivation.

Recall that our original intention was, for demonstration purposes, to attach various evaluation strategies to the arithmetic operations. We wanted + and / to be non-deterministic and <= to be left-right sequential; a non-deterministic evaluation strategy means that the subexpressions are evaluated in any order, possibly interleaving their evaluation steps, which is different from non-deterministically picking an order and then evaluating the subexpressions sequentially in that order. As an analogy, the former corresponds to evaluating the subexpressions concurrently on a multi-threaded machine, while the latter to non-deterministically queuing the subexpressions and then evaluating them one by one on a sequential machine. The former has obviously potentially many more possible behaviors than the latter. Note that many programming languages opt for non-deterministic evaluation strategies for their expression constructs precisely to allow compilers to evaluate them in any order or even concurrently; some language manuals explicitly warn the reader not to rely on any evaluation strategy of arithmetic constructs when writing programs.

Unfortunately, big-step semantics is not appropriate for defining non-deterministic evaluation strategies, because such strategies are, by their nature, small-step. One way to attempt to do it is to work with sets of result configurations instead of just with result configurations and thus associate to each fragment of program in a state the set of all the results that it can non-deterministically yield. However, such an approach would significantly complicate the big-step definition, so we prefer to not do it. Moreover, since IMP has no side effects yet (we will add it side effects in Section 3.5), the non-deterministic evaluation strategies would not lead to non-deterministic results anyway.

We next discuss the big-step rules for Boolean expressions. The rule (BigStep-Bool) is similar to rule (BigStep-Int), but it has only two instances, one for \(t = \text{true}\) and one for \(t = \text{false}\). The rule (BigStep-Leq) allows to derive Boolean sequents from arithmetic ones; although we want <= to evaluate
its arguments from left to right, there is no need to do anything more at this stage, because expressions
have no side effects in IMP; in Section 3.5 we will see how to achieve the desired evaluation strategy in the
presence of side effects in expressions. The rules (BigStep-Not-True) and (BigStep-Not-False) are clear; they
could have been combined into only one rule if we had assumed our builtin Bool equipped with a negation
operation. Unlike the division, the conjunction has a short-circuited semantics: if the first conjunct evaluates
to false then the entire conjunction evaluates to false (rule (BigStep-And-False)), and if the first conjunct
evaluates to true then the conjunction evaluates to whatever truth value the second conjunct evaluates (rule
(BigStep-And-True)).

The role of statements in a language is to change the program state. Consequently, the rules for statements
derive triples of the form \(⟨s, σ⟩ \downarrow ⟨σ'⟩\) with the meaning that if statement \(s\) is executed in state \(σ\) and
terminates, then the resulting state is \(σ'\). We will shortly discuss the aspect of termination in more detail.
Rule (BigStep-Empty-Block) states that \(\{\}\) does nothing with the state. (BigStep-Block) states that the block
has the same semantics as the enclosed statement, which is correct at this stage because IMP has no local
variable declarations; this will change in Section 3.5. (BigStep-Asgn) shows how the state \(σ\) gets updated by
an assignment statement “\(x = a;\)” after \(a\) is evaluated in state \(σ\) using the rules for arithmetic expressions
discussed above. (BigStep-Seq) shows how the state updates are propagated by the sequential composition of
statements, and rules (BigStep-If-True) and (BigStep-If-False) show how the conditional first evaluates its
condition and then, depending upon the truth value of that, it either evaluates its then-branch or its else-branch,
but never both. The rules giving the big-step semantics of the while loop say that if the condition evaluates
to false then the while loop dissolves and the state stays unchanged, and if the condition evaluates to true
then the body followed by the very same while loop is evaluated (rule (BigStep-While-True)). Finally,
(BigStep-Pgm) gives the semantics of programs as the semantics of their statement in a state instantiating all
the declared variables to 0.

On Proof Derivations, Evaluation, and Termination

So far we have used the words “evaluation” and “termination” informally. In fact, without a formal definition
of a programming language, there is no other way, but informal, to define these notions. Once one has a
formal definition of a language, one can not only formally define important concepts like evaluation and
termination, but can also rigorously reason about programs.

**Definition 20.** Given appropriate IMP configurations \(C\) and \(R\), the IMP big-step sequent \(C \downarrow R\) is derivable,
written \(\text{BigStep} (\text{IMP}) \vdash C \downarrow R\)، if there is some proof tree rooted in \(C \downarrow R\) which is derivable using
the proof system BigStep(IMP) in Figure 3.7. Arithmetic (resp. Boolean) expression \(a \in AExp\) (resp.
\(b \in BExp\)) evaluates to integer \(i \in \text{Int}\) (resp. to truth value \(t \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}\)) in state \(σ \in \text{State}\) iff
\(\text{BigStep} (\text{IMP}) \vdash ⟨a, σ⟩ \downarrow ⟨i⟩\) (resp. \(\text{BigStep} (\text{IMP}) \vdash ⟨b, σ⟩ \downarrow ⟨t⟩\)). Statement \(s\) terminates in state \(σ\) iff
\(\text{BigStep} (\text{IMP}) \vdash ⟨s, σ⟩ \downarrow ⟨σ'⟩\) for some \(σ' \in \text{State}\); if that is the case, then we say that \(s\) evaluates in state \(σ\)
to state \(σ'\), or that it takes state \(σ\) to state \(σ'\). Finally, program \(p\) terminates iff \(\text{BigStep} (\text{IMP}) \vdash ⟨p⟩ \downarrow ⟨σ⟩\)
for some \(σ \in \text{State}\).

There are two reasons for which an IMP statement \(s\) may not terminate in a state \(σ\): because it may contain
a loop that does not terminate, or because it performs a division by zero and thus the rule (BigStep-Div)
cannot apply. In the former case, the process of proof search does not terminate, while in the second case
the process of proof search terminates in principle, but with a failure to find a proof. Unfortunately, big-step
semantics cannot make any distinction between the two reasons for which a proof derivation cannot be
found. Hence, the termination notion in Definition 20 rather means termination with no error. To catch
division-by-zero within the semantics, we need to add a special error value that a division by zero would evaluate to, and then to propagate it through all the language constructs (see Exercise 56).

A formal definition of a language allows to also formally define what it means for the language to be deterministic and to also prove it. For example, we can prove that if an IMP program $p$ terminates then there is a unique state $\sigma$ such that $\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle p \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle$ (see Exercise 57).

Since each rule schema comprises a recursively enumerable collection of concrete instances and since we have a finite set of rule schemata, we can enumerate all the instances of all these rules. Furthermore, since proof trees built with nodes in a recursively enumerable set are themselves recursively enumerable, it follows that the set of proof trees derivable with the proof system in Figure 3.7 is recursively enumerable. In other words, we can find an algorithm that enumerates all the proof trees, in particular one that enumerates all the derivable sequents $C \Downarrow R$. By enumerating all proof trees, given a terminating IMP program $p$, one can eventually find the unique state $\sigma$ such that $\langle p \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle$ is derivable. This simple-minded algorithm may take a very long time and a huge amount of resources, but it is insightful to understand that it can be done.

It can be shown that there is no algorithm, based on proof derivation like above or on anything else, which takes as input an IMP program and says whether it terminates or not (see Exercise 58). This follows from the fact that our simple language, due to its while loops and arbitrarily large integers, is Turing-complete. Thus, if one were able to decide termination of programs in our language then one would also be able to decide termination of Turing machines, contradicting one of the basic undecidable problems, the halting problem (see Section 2.2.1 for more on Turing machines).

An interesting observation here is that non-termination of a program corresponds to lack of proof, and that the latter is not decidable in many interesting logics. Indeed, in complete logics, that is, logics that admit a complete proof system, one can enumerate all the truths. However, in general there is not much one can do about non-truths, because the enumeration algorithm will loop forever when run on a non-truth. In decidable logics one can enumerate both truths and non-truths; clearly, decidable logics are not powerful enough for our task of defining programming languages, precisely because of the halting problem argument above.

### 3.2.3 Big-Step SOS in Rewrite Logic

Due to its straightforward recursive nature, big-step semantics is typically easy to represent in other formalisms and also easy to translate into interpreters for the defined languages in any programming language. (The difficulty with big-step semantics is to actually give big-step semantics to complex constructs, as illustrated and discussed in Section 3.5.) It should therefore come at no surprise to the reader that one can associate a conditional rewrite rule to each big-step rule and hereby obtain a rewrite logic theory that faithfully captures the big-step definition.

In this section we first show that any big-step operational semantics $\text{BigStep}$ can be mechanically translated into a rewrite logic theory $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ in such a way that the corresponding derivation relations are step-for-step equivalent, that is, $\text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R$ if and only if $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash R_{C \Downarrow R}$, where $R_{C \Downarrow R}$ is the corresponding syntactic translation of the big-step sequent $C \Downarrow R$ into a (one-step) rewrite rule. Second, we apply our generic translation technique on the big-step operational semantics $\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP})$ and obtain a rewrite logic semantics of IMP that is step-for-step equivalent to the original big-step semantics of IMP. Finally, we show how $R_{\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP})}$ can be seamlessly defined in Maude, thus yielding an interpreter for IMP essentially for free.
Faithful Embedding of Big-Step SOS into Rewrite Logic

To define our translation generically, we need to make some assumptions about the existence of an algebraic axiomatization of configurations. More precisely, as also explained in Section 2.1.3, we assume that for any parametric term \( t \) (which can be a configuration, a condition, etc.), the term \( \bar{t} \) is an equivalent algebraic variant of \( t \) of appropriate sort. For example, a parametric configuration \( C \) is a configuration that may possibly make use of parameters, such as \( a \in AExp, \sigma \in State, \) etc.; by equivalent algebraic variant we mean a term \( \bar{C} \) of sort Configuration over an appropriate signature of configurations like the one that we defined for IMP in Section 3.2.1 (see Figure 3.6); moreover, each parameter in \( C \) gets replaced by a variable of corresponding sort in \( \bar{C} \). Similarly, the algebraic variant of a rule side condition is an appropriate term of sort \( Bool \).

To have a formal mechanism for performing reasoning within the employed mathematical domains, which is tacitly assumed in the big-step semantics (e.g., \( 3 +_0 5 = 8 \), etc.), in particular for formally evaluating side conditions, we assume that the algebraic signature associated to the various syntactic and semantic categories is extended into a background algebraic specification capable of proving precisely all the equalities over ground terms (i.e., terms containing no variables). As discussed in Section 2.4, this assumption is quite reasonable, because any computational domain is isomorphic to an initial algebra over a finite algebraic specification, and that the latter can prove precisely all the ground equational properties of the domain/initial algebra. Consider, for example, the side condition \( \sigma(x) \neq \bot \) of the rules (BigStep-Lookup) and (BigStep-Assign) in Figure 3.7. Its algebraic variant is the term \( \sigma(X) \neq \bot \) of \( Bool \) sort, where \( \sigma \) and \( X \) are variables of sorts State and Id, respectively. We therefore assume that any ground instance of this \( Bool \) term (obtained for a ground/concrete instance of the variables \( \sigma \) and \( X \)) can be proved using the background algebraic theory equal to either \( \text{true} \) (which means that the map is defined in the given variable) or \( \text{false} \).

Consider now a general-purpose big-step rule of the form

\[
\frac{C_1 \Downarrow R_1 \quad C_2 \Downarrow R_2 \quad \ldots \quad C_n \Downarrow R_n}{C_0 \Downarrow R_0} \quad [\text{if condition}]
\]

where \( C_0, C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n \) are configurations holding fragments of program together with all the needed semantic components, \( R_0, R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n \) are result configurations, and condition is some optional side condition. As one may expect, we translate it into the rewrite logic rule

\[
(\forall X) \ C_0 \rightarrow R_0 \quad \text{if} \quad \bar{C}_1 \rightarrow \bar{R}_1 \land \bar{C}_2 \rightarrow \bar{R}_2 \land \ldots \land \bar{C}_n \rightarrow \bar{R}_n \ [\land \text{condition}].
\]

where \( X \) is the set of parameters, or meta-variables, that occur in the big-step proof rule (schema), now regarded as variables. Therefore, the big-step SOS rule premises and side conditions are both turned into conditions of the corresponding rewrite rule. The sequent premises become rewrites in the condition, while the side conditions become simple Boolean checks.

We make two reasonable assumptions about big-step semantics: (1) configurations cannot be nested; and (2) result configurations are irreducible.

**Theorem 13.** (Faithful embedding of big-step SOS into rewrite logic) For any big-step operational semantics definition BigStep, and any BigStep appropriate configuration \( C \) and result configuration \( R \), the following equivalence holds

\[
\text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \iff \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{C} \rightarrow^1 \bar{R},
\]

where \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \) is the rewrite logic semantic definition obtained from BigStep by translating each rule in BigStep as above. (Recall from Section 2.5 that \( \rightarrow^1 \) is the one-step rewriting relation obtained by dropping the reflexivity and transitivity rules of rewrite logic. Also, since \( C \) and \( R \) are parameter-free—parameters only appear in rules—, \( \bar{C} \) and \( \bar{R} \) are ground terms.)
Proof. Before we proceed with the proof, let us understand how the assumptions about BigStep and the use of \( \rightarrow^1 \) affect the rewrite logic proof derivations that can be performed with \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \). First, note that the Reflexivity and Transitivity proof rules of rewrite logic (see Section 2.5) will never apply. Second, since the rules in \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \) correspond to rules in BigStep between configurations and there are no other rules in \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \), and since configurations cannot be nested, we conclude that the Congruence rule of rewrite logic will never apply either. Third, since the rules of BigStep add no equations to \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \), the equations of \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \) correspond all to the background algebraic theory used for domain reasoning; thus, the Equality rule of rewrite logic can only instantiate rules in \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \) by substituting their variables with terms (which can be ground or not), but it can perform no “inner” concurrent rewrites. Therefore, the capabilities of rewrite logic are significantly crippled by \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \), as the only deductions that \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \) can perform are domain (equational) reasoning and rule instantiation.

Let \( \Sigma \) be the signature of the assumed background algebraic formalization of configurations.

Let us first assume that \( \text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \) and let us prove that \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C \rightarrow^1 R \). We do this proof by structural induction on the BigStep proof/derivation tree of \( C \Downarrow R \). The last proof step in the tree deriving \( C \Downarrow R \) must correspond to some instance of a rule (schema) of the form

\[
\begin{array}{c}
C_1 \Downarrow R_1 \quad \ldots \quad C_m \Downarrow R_m \\
\hline
C_0 \Downarrow R_0
\end{array}
\]

if condition

where \( m \geq 0 \) and where the condition may be missing, in which case we just assume it to be true. If \( \mathcal{X} \) is the set of parameters, or meta-variables, that occur in this proof rule, then the last proof step in the derivation of \( C \Downarrow R \) consists of an instance of the parameters in \( \mathcal{X} \) that yields corresponding instances \((C, R, C'_1, R'_1, \ldots, C'_m, R'_m, \text{true})\) of, respectively, \((C_0, R_0, C_1, R_1, \ldots, C_m, R_m, \text{condition})\), such that \( \text{BigStep} \vdash C_i \Downarrow R'_i \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq m \); moreover, domain reasoning is allowed at any moment, in particular to evaluate the instance of condition to true. By the (structural) induction hypothesis we have that \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C'_i \rightarrow^1 R'_i \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq m \).

More algebraically, the above say that there is a map \( \theta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow T_\Sigma \) such that:

- (domain reasoning) \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C = \theta(C_0) \) and \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash R = \theta(R_0) \);
- (domain reasoning) \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C'_i = \theta(C_i) \) and \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash R'_i = \theta(R_i) \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq m \);
- (domain reasoning) \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \theta(\text{condition}) = \text{true} \);
- (induction hypothesis) \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C'_i \rightarrow^1 R'_i \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq m \).

Since \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \) contains the rule

\[
(\forall \mathcal{X}) \quad C_0 \rightarrow R_0 \quad \text{if} \quad C_1 \rightarrow R_1 \land C_2 \rightarrow R_2 \land \ldots \land C_m \rightarrow R_m \land \text{condition},
\]

the Replacement and Equality rules of rewrite logic then give us \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C \rightarrow^1 R \).

Let us now assume that \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C \rightarrow^1 R \) and prove that \( \text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \). Since \( C \) and \( R \) are ground configurations and since all the rewrite rules derived in any given rewrite logic proof contain the same set of variables, it follows that all the rewrite rules derived as part of the proof of \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C \rightarrow^1 R \) are also ground. We show by structural induction on the rewrite logic derivation tree that any derivable sequent \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash u \rightarrow^1 v \) with \( u \) and \( v \) ground is of the form \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C_u \rightarrow^1 R_v \), where \( C_u \) is a configuration and \( R_v \) a result configuration in BigStep such that \( \text{BigStep} \vdash C_u \Downarrow R_v \). There are two cases to analyze:
The last step used the Equality proof rule of rewrite logic, that is, $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash u = u'$, $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash u' \rightarrow^1 v'$, and $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash v' = v$. Then by the induction hypothesis there is a configuration $C_{u'}$ and a result configuration $R_{\theta}$ such that $u' = \overline{C_{u'}}$, $v' = \overline{R_{\theta}}$ and $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C_{u'} \downarrow R_{\theta}$. Since $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash u = u'$ and $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash v' = v$, and since equational deduction preserves the sorts of the terms proved equal, it follows that $u$ and $v$ are also of configuration sort. Then let $C_u$ and $R_v$ be the configurations corresponding to $u$ and $v$, respectively, that is, $u = \overline{C_u}$ and $v = \overline{R_v}$. Since domain properties can be tacitly used in big-step derivations, we conclude that $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C_u \downarrow R_v$, and $R_v$ is a result configuration.

The last step is an instance of the Replacement rule of rewrite logic, with the rewrite rule

$$(\forall \lambda) \overline{C_0} \rightarrow \overline{R_0} \text{ if } \overline{C_1} \rightarrow \overline{R_1} \land \overline{C_2} \rightarrow \overline{R_2} \land \ldots \land \overline{C_m} \rightarrow \overline{R_m} \land \text{condition}$$

Then there is some ground substitution $\theta : \lambda \rightarrow T_\Sigma$ and ground terms $u_1, v_1, \ldots, u_m, v_m$ such that $u = \theta(\overline{C_0})$ and $v = \theta(\overline{R_0})$, $\theta(\text{condition}) = \text{true}$, and $u_i = \theta(\overline{C_i})$ and $v_i = \theta(\overline{R_i})$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. By the induction hypothesis, there are configurations $C_{u_1}, \ldots, C_{u_m}$ and result configurations $R_{v_1}, \ldots, R_{v_m}$ such that $u_i = \overline{C_{u_i}}$, $v_i = \overline{R_{v_i}}$, and $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C_{u_i} \downarrow R_{v_i}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. Let $C_u$ and $R_v$ be the configurations corresponding to $u$ and $v$, respectively, that is, $u = \overline{C_u}$ and $v = \overline{R_v}$. We have thus found instances $(C_u, R_v, C_{u_1}, R_{v_1}, \ldots, C_{u_m}, R_{v_m}, \text{true})$ of $(C_0, R_0, C_1, R_1, \ldots, C_m, R_m, \text{condition})$, such that $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C_{u_i} \downarrow R_{v_i}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. In other words, we constructed an instance of the BigStep rule

$$\frac{C_0 \downarrow R_0 \quad \ldots \quad C_m \downarrow R_m}{C_1 \downarrow R_1} \text{ if } \text{condition}$$

with derivations for all its premises. Hence, $R_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash C \downarrow R$.

The non-nestedness assumption on configurations in $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ guarantees that the resulting rewrite rules in $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ only apply at the top of the term they rewrite. The irreducibility of the result configurations guarantees that $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ does not do more rewrite steps than intended, because rewriting is an inherently transitivity closed relation, while the big-step relation $\downarrow$ is not.

Since one typically perceives parameters as variables anyway, the only apparent difference between $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ and $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ is the different notational conventions they use ($\rightarrow$ instead of $\downarrow$ and conditional rules instead of conditional deduction rules). As Theorem 13 shows, there is a one-to-one correspondence also between their corresponding “computations” (or executions, or derivations). Therefore, $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ is the big-step operational semantics $R_{\text{BigStep}}$, and not an encoding of it.

At our knowledge, there is no rewrite engine\footnote{Maude’s rewrite\cite{maude} command does not inhibit the transitive closure of the rewrite relation, it only stops the rewrite engine on a given term after one application of a rule on that term; however, many (transitive) applications of rules are allowed when solving the condition of that rule.} that supports the one-step rewrite relation $\rightarrow^1$ (that appears in Theorem 13). Indeed, rewrite engines aim at high-performance implementations of the general rewrite relation $\rightarrow$, which may even involve parallel rewriting (see Section 2.5 for the precise definitions of $\rightarrow^1$ and $\rightarrow$); $\rightarrow^1$ is meaningful only from a theoretical perspective and there is little to no practical motivation for an efficient implementation of it. Therefore, in order to execute the rewrite theory $R_{\text{BigStep}}$ resulting from the mechanical translation of big-step semantics $R_{\text{BigStep}}$, one needs to take some precautions to ensure that $\rightarrow^1$ is actually identical to $\rightarrow$.

Given any rewrite theory $R$, a sufficient condition for $\rightarrow^1$ to be the same as $\rightarrow$ in $R$ is for the right-hand-sides of the rules in $R$ to generate terms which make any context that contains them unmatchable by any rule.
in $\mathcal{R}$. Fortunately, the two assumptions we made about our original BigStep semantics guarantee this property. First, the non-nestedness assumption guarantees that configurations can only appear at the top of a term, so the only contexts that contain configurations are the configurations themselves. Second, the irreducibility of result configurations assumption ensures that the rules in $\mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}}$ will never match any result configurations. Therefore, we can conclude the following important

**Corollary 3.** Under the same hypotheses and assumptions as in Theorem 13,

$$\text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \iff \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{C} \rightarrow \bar{R} \iff \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{C} \rightarrow \bar{R}.$$ 

Our current BigStep($\text{IMP}$) semantics verifies our second assumption, since the configurations to the left of $\Downarrow$ and the result configurations to the right of $\Downarrow$ are always distinct. Unfortunately, in general that may not always be the case. For example, when we extend IMP with side effects in Section 3.10, the state also needs to be part of result configurations, so the semantics of integers is going to be given by an unconditional rule of the form $\langle \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle$, which after translation becomes the rewrite rule $\langle \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \sigma \rangle$. This rule will make the rewrite relation $\rightarrow$ not terminate anymore (although the relation $\rightarrow^1$ will still terminate). There are at least two simple ways to ensure the irreducibility of result configurations, and thus make Corollary 3 still hold:

1. It is highly expected that the only big-step rules in BigStep having a result configuration to the left of $\Downarrow$ are unconditional rules of the form $R \Downarrow R$; such rules typically say that a value is already evaluated. If that is the case, then one can simply drop all the corresponding rules $\bar{R} \rightarrow \bar{R}$ from $\mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}}$ and the resulting rewrite theory, say $\mathcal{R}'_{\text{BigStep}}$ still has the property $\text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \iff \mathcal{R}'_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{C} \rightarrow \bar{R}$, which is desirable in order to execute the big-step definition on rewrite engines, although the property $\text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \iff \mathcal{R}'_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{C} \rightarrow \bar{R}$ will not hold anymore, because, e.g., even though $R \Downarrow R$ is a rule in BigStep, it is not the case that $\mathcal{R}'_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{R} \rightarrow \bar{R}$.

2. If BigStep contains pairs $R' \Downarrow R$ where $R'$ and $R$ are possibly different result configurations, then one can apply the following general procedure. Change or augment the syntax of the configurations to the left or to the right of $\Downarrow$, so that those changed or augmented configurations will always be different from the other ones. This is the technique employed in our representation of small-step operational semantics in rewriting logic in Section 3.3. More precisely, we prepend all the configurations to the left of the rewrite relation in $\mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}}$ with a circle $\circ$, e.g., $\circ C \rightarrow R$, with the intuition that the circled configurations are *active*, while the other ones are *inactive*.

Regardless of how the desired property $\text{BigStep} \vdash C \Downarrow R \iff \mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}} \vdash \bar{C} \rightarrow \bar{R}$ is ensured, note that, unfortunately, $\mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}}$ lacks the main strengths of rewrite logic that make it a good formalism for concurrency: in rewrite logic, rewrite rules can apply under any context and in parallel. Indeed, the rules of $\mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}}$ can only apply at the top, sequentially.

**Big-Step SOS of IMP in Rewrite Logic**

Figure 3.8 shows the rewrite logic theory $\mathcal{R}_{\text{BigStep}}($IMP$)$ that is obtained by applying the procedure above to the big-step semantics of IMP, BigStep($\text{IMP}$), in Figure 3.7. We have used the rewrite logic convention that variables start with upper-case letters. For the state variable, we used $\sigma$, that is, a larger $\sigma$ symbol.

Note how the three side conditions that appear in the proof system in Figure 3.7 turned into normal conditions of rewrite rules. In particular, the two side conditions saying that $\sigma(x)$ is defined became the algebraic term $\sigma(X) \neq \bot$ of Boolean sort.

The following corollary of Theorem 13 and Corollary 3 establishes the faithfulness of the representation of the big-step operational semantics of IMP in rewrite logic:
\[ \langle I, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle I \rangle \]
\[ \langle X, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \sigma(X) \rangle \text{ if } \sigma(X) \neq \bot \]
\[ \langle A_1 + A_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle I_1 + \text{Int} I_2 \rangle \text{ if } \langle A_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle I_1 \rangle \land \langle A_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle I_2 \rangle \]
\[ \langle A_1 / A_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle I_1 \cdots \text{Maude needs only one rewrite logic step to rewrite any configuration; in particular,} \]
\[ \text{rewrite } [1] < \text{sumPgm} > . \]

The obtained \text{IMP} interpreter actually has acceptable performance; for example, all the programs in Figure 3.4 together take a fraction of a second to execute on conventional PCs or laptops.

In fact, Maude needs only one rewrite logic step to rewrite any configuration; in particular,
\[ \text{rewrite } [1] < \text{sumPgm} > . \]
mod IMP-CONFIGURATIONS-BIGSTEP is including IMP-SYNTAX + STATE.
sort Configuration.
  op <_,_> : AExp State -> Configuration.
  op <_> : Int -> Configuration.
  op <_,_> : BExp State -> Configuration.
  op <_> : Bool -> Configuration.
  op <_,_> : Stmt State -> Configuration.
  op <_> : State -> Configuration.
  op <_> : Pgm -> Configuration.
endm

mod IMP-SEMANTICS-BIGSTEP is including IMP-CONFIGURATIONS-BIGSTEP.
  var X : Id . var Xl : List{Id} . var Sigma Sigma' Sigma1 Sigma2 : State.
  var I I1 I2 : Int . var T : Bool.
  var A A1 A2 : AExp . var B B1 B2 : BExp . var S S1 S2 : Stmt.

  rl < I,Sigma > => < I > .
  crl < X,Sigma > => < Sigma(X) >
  if Sigma(X) =/= Bool undefined .
  crl < A1 + A2,Sigma > => < I1 +Int I2 >
  if < A1,Sigma > => < I1 > /
  A2,Sigma > => < I2 > .
  crl < A1 / A2,Sigma > => < I1 /Int I2 >
  if < A1,Sigma > => < I1 > /
  A2,Sigma > => < I2 > /
  I2 =/= Bool 0 .

  rl < T,Sigma > => < T > .
  crl < A1 <= A2,Sigma > => < I1 <=Int I2 >
  if < A1,Sigma > => < I1 > /
  A2,Sigma > => < I2 > .
  crl < ! B,Sigma > => < false >
  if < B,Sigma > => < true > .
  crl < B1 && B2,Sigma > => < false >
  if < B1,Sigma > => < false > .
  crl < B1 && B2,Sigma > => < T >
  if < B1,Sigma > => < true > /
  B2,Sigma > => < T > .

  rl < {},Sigma > => < Sigma > .
  crl < {S},Sigma > => < Sigma' >
  if < S,Sigma > => < Sigma' > .
  crl < X = A ;,Sigma > => < Sigma[I / X] >
  if < A,Sigma > => < I > /
  Sigma(X) =/= Bool undefined .
  crl < S1 S2,Sigma > => < Sigma2 >
  if < S1,Sigma > => < Sigma1 > /
  S2,Sigma > => < Sigma2 > .
  crl < if (B) S1 else S2,Sigma > => < Sigma1 >
  if < B,Sigma > => < true > /
  S1,Sigma > => < Sigma1 > .
  crl < if (B) S1 else S2,Sigma > => < Sigma2 >
  if < B,Sigma > => < false > /
  S2,Sigma > => < Sigma2 > .
  crl < while (B) S,Sigma > => < Sigma >
  if < B,Sigma > => < true > .
  crl < while (B) S,Sigma > => < Sigma' >
  if < B,Sigma > => < true > /
  S while (B) S,Sigma > => < Sigma' > .
endm

c@Fa

Figure 3.9: The big-step SOS of IMP in Maude, including the definition of configurations.
will give the same output as above. Recall from Section 2.5.6 that Maude performs a potentially exhaustive search to satisfy the rewrites in rule conditions. Thus, a large number of rule instances can be attempted in order to apply one conditional rule, so a `rewrite [1]` command can take a long time; it may not even terminate. Nevertheless, thanks to Theorem 13, Maude’s implicit search mechanism in conditions effectively achieves a proof searcher for big-step SOS derivations.

Once one has a rewrite logic definition in Maude, one can use any of the general-purpose tools provided by Maude on that definition; the rewrite engine is only one of them. For example, one can exhaustively search for all possible behaviors of a program using the `search` command:

```
search < sumPgm > =>! Cfg:Configuration .
```

Since our IMP language so far is deterministic, the `search` command will not discover any new behaviors. In fact, the search command will only discover two configurations in total, the original configuration `< sumPgm >` and the result configuration `< n |= 0 & s |= 5050 >`. However, as shown in Section 3.5 where we extend IMP with various language features, the `search` command can indeed show all the behaviors of a non-deterministic program (restricted only by the limitations of the particular semantic style employed).

### 3.2.4 Defining a Type System for IMP Using Big-Step SOS

Big-step SOS is routinely used to define type systems for programming languages, even though in most cases this connection is not made explicit. In this section we demonstrate the use of big-step SOS for defining a type system for IMP, following the same steps as above but more succinctly. Type systems is a broad subject, with many variations and important applications to programming languages. Our intention in this section is twofold: on the one hand we show that big-step SOS is not limited to only defining language semantics, and, on the other hand, we introduce the reader to type systems by means of a very simple example.

The idea underlying big-step SOS definitions of type systems is that a given program or fragment of program in a given type environment reduces, in one big step, to its type. Like states, type environments are also partial mappings, but from variable names into types instead of values. A common notation for a type judgment is $\Gamma \vdash c : \tau$, where $\Gamma$ is a type environment, $c$ is a program or fragment, and $\tau$ is a type. This type judgment reads “in type environment $\Gamma$, program or fragment $c$ has type $\tau$”. One can find countless variations of the notation for type judgments in the literature, usually adding more items (pieces of information) to the left of $\vdash$, to its right, or as subscripts or superscripts of it. There is, unfortunately, no well-established notation for all type judgments. Nevertheless, type judgments are special big-step sequents relating two special configurations, one including the givens and the other the results. For example, a simple type judgment $\Gamma \vdash c : \tau$ like above can be regarded as a big-step sequent $\langle c, \Gamma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \tau \rangle$. However, this notation is not preferred.

Figure 3.10 depicts our type system for IMP, which is a nothing but a big-step SOS proof system. We, however, follow the more conventional notation for type judgments discussed above, with one slight change: since in IMP variables are intended to hold only integer values, there is no need for type environments; instead, we replace them by lists of variables, each meant to have the type `int`. Therefore, $x:l \vdash c : \tau$ with $c$ and $\tau$ as above but with $x:l$ a list of variables reads as follows: “when the variables in $x:l$ are defined, $c$ has the type $\tau$”. We drop the list of variables from the typing judgments of programs, because that would be empty anyway. The big-step SOS rules in Figure 3.10 define the typing policy of each language construct of IMP, guaranteeing all together that a program $p$ types, that is, that $\vdash p : \text{pgm}$ is derivable if and only if each construct is used according to its intended typing policy and, moreover, that $p$ declares each variable that it uses. For our simple IMP language, a CFG parser using the syntax defined in Figure 3.1 would already guarantee that each construct is used as intended. Note, however, that the second desired property of our type system (each used variable is declared) is context dependent.
Figure 3.10: BigStepTypeSystem(IMP) — Type system of IMP using big-step SOS ($\text{xl} \in \text{List}\{\text{Id}\}; x \in \text{Int}; a, a_1, a_2 \in \text{AExp}; b, b_1, b_2 \in \text{BExp}; s, s_1, s_2 \in \text{Stmt}$).
Let us next use the type system in Figure 3.10 to type the program \texttt{sumPgm} in Figure 3.4. We split
the proof tree in proof subtrees. Note first that using the rules (\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-INT}) (first level),
(\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-ASGN}) (second level) and (\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-SEQ}) (third level), we can derive
the following proof tree, say \texttt{tree}_1:

\[
\texttt{tree}_1 = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\text{n,s} \vdash 100 : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash 0 : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{n = 100;}) : \text{stmt} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{s = 0;}) : \text{stmt} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{n = 100; s = 0;}) : \text{stmt}
\end{array} \right.
\]

Similarly, using rules (\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-LOOKUP}) and (\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-INT}) (first level),
(\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-LEQ}) (second level), and (\texttt{BigStepTypeSystem-NOT}) (third level), we can derive
the following proof tree, say \texttt{tree}_2:

\[
\texttt{tree}_2 = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\text{n,s} \vdash \text{n} : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash \text{0} : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{n <= 0;}) : \text{bool} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (! (\text{n <= 0;}) : \text{bool})
\end{array} \right.
\]

Similarly, we can derive the following proof tree, say \texttt{tree}_3:

\[
\texttt{tree}_3 = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\text{n,s} \vdash \text{s} : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash \text{s} : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash \text{n} : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash \text{n} : \text{int} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{s = s + n;}) : \text{stmt} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{n = n + -1;}) : \text{stmt} \\
\text{n,s} \vdash (\text{s = s + n; n = n + -1;}) : \text{stmt}
\end{array} \right.
\]

Finally, we can now derive the tree that proves that \texttt{sumPgm} is well-typed:

\[
\texttt{tree}_1 \quad \texttt{tree}_2 \quad \texttt{tree}_3
\]

\[
\vdash (\text{int n, s; n = 100; s = 0; while (! (\text{n <= 0;}) \{ s = s + n; n = n + -1; \}) : \text{stmt})}
\]

A major role of a type system is to filter out a set of programs which are obviously wrong. Unfortunately,
it is impossible to filter out precisely those programs which would execute erroneously. For example, note
that a division is considered type safe whenever its two arguments type to integers, but no check is being
made on whether the denominator is 0 or not. Indeed, statically checking whether an expression has a certain
value at a certain point in a program is an undecidable problem. Also, no check is being made on whether a
detected type error is reachable or not (if unreachable, the detected type error will never show up at runtime).
Statically checking whether a certain point in a program is reachable is also an undecidable problem. One
should therefore be aware of the fact that in general a type system may allow programs which run into errors
when executed and, moreover, that it may reject programs which would execute correctly.
\langle I, Xl \rangle \to \langle \text{int} \rangle
\langle X, (Xl, X, Xl') \rangle \to \langle \text{int} \rangle
\langle A_1 + A_2, Xl \rangle \to \langle \text{int} \rangle \text{ if } \langle A_1, Xl \rangle \to \langle \text{int} \rangle \land \langle A_2, Xl \rangle \to \langle \text{int} \rangle
\langle \div\text{IMPA} 1A_2, Xl \rangle \to \langle \text{int} \rangle \text{ if } \ldots \vdash p : \text{pgm} \text{ is derivable with the proof system in Figure 3.10, if and only if } R_{\text{BigStepTypeSystem}}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle p \rangle \to \langle \text{pgm} \rangle.

Figure 3.11: $R_{\text{BigStepTypeSystem}}(\text{IMP})$: type system of IMP using big-step SOS in rewrite logic. Assume a sort Type with constants int, bool, and pgm, and a subsort of it StmtType with constants block and stmt. The sorts of the involved variables is understood (from Figure 3.10), except for $T$ which has the sort Bool and for ST, ST1 and ST2 which have the sort StmtType.

Figure 3.11 shows a translation of the big-step SOS in Figure 3.10 into a rewrite logic theory, following the general technique described in Section 3.2.3 but with two simple optimizations explained shortly. This translation is based on the reinterpretation of type judgments as big-step SOS sequents mentioned above. The following configurations are used in the rewrite theory in Figure 3.11:

- $\langle A, Xl \rangle$ grouping arithmetic expressions $A$ and variable lists $Xl$;
- $\langle B, Xl \rangle$ grouping Boolean expressions $B$ and variable lists $Xl$;
- $\langle S, Xl \rangle$ grouping statements $S$ and variable lists $Xl$;
- $\langle P \rangle$ holding programs $P$;
- $\langle \tau \rangle$ holding types $\tau$, which can be int, bool, block, stmt, or pgm.

The two optimizations refer to how to test the various memberships that occur in some of the rules’ side conditions. One optimization is to use associative matching to check membership to a list; this applies to the rules (BigStepTypeSystem-Lookup) and (BigStepTypeSystem-Assign). Another optimization is to use a (sub)sort as an umbrella for a set of terms of interest (constants in our case); for example, we let $T$ be a variable of sort Bool (i.e., $T$ can match both true and false) when defining the rewrite rule corresponding to (BigStepTypeSystem-Bool), and we let ST, ST1, and ST2 be variables ranging over a new subsort StmtType of Type when defining the rewrite rules corresponding to (BigStepTypeSystem-Block), (BigStepTypeSystem-Seq) and (BigStepTypeSystem-Pgm).

By Corollary 3 we have that a program $p$ is well-typed, that is, $\vdash p : \text{pgm}$ is derivable with the proof system in Figure 3.10, if and only if $R_{\text{BigStepTypeSystem}}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle p \rangle \to \langle \text{pgm} \rangle$. 

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mod IMP-TYPES is
    sorts StmtType Type . subsort StmtType < Type .
    ops block stmt : -> StmtType .
    ops int bool pgm : -> Type .
endm

mod IMP-TYPE-SYSTEM-CONFIGURATIONS-BIGSTEP is including IMP-SYNTAX + IMP-TYPES .
    sort Configuration .
    op <_,_> : AExp List{Id} -> Configuration .
    op <_,_> : BExp List{Id} -> Configuration .
    op <_,_> : Stmt List{Id} -> Configuration .
    op <_> : Pgm -> Configuration .
    op <_> : Type -> Configuration .
endm

mod IMP-TYPE-SYSTEM-BIGSTEP is including IMP-TYPE-SYSTEM-CONFIGURATIONS-BIGSTEP .
    var X : Id . var Xl Xl' : List{Id} . var I : Int . var T : Bool .
    var A A1 A2 : AExp . var B B1 B2 : BExp . var S S1 S2 : Stmt .
    var ST ST1 ST2 : StmtType .
    rl < I,Xl > => < int > .
    rl < X,(Xl,X,Xl') > => < int > .
    crl < A1 + A2,Xl > => < int >
        if < A1,Xl > => < int > /
          < A2,Xl > => < int > .
    crl < A1 / A2,Xl > => < int >
        if < A1,Xl > => < int > /
          < A2,Xl > => < int > .
    rl < T,Xl > => < bool > .
    crl < A1 <= A2,Xl > => < bool >
        if < A1,Xl > => < int > /
          < A2,Xl > => < int > .
    crl < ! B,Xl > => < bool >
        if < B,Xl > => < bool > .
    crl < B1 && B2,Xl > => < bool >
        if < B1,Xl > => < bool > /
          < B2,Xl > => < bool > .
    rl < {},Xl > => < block > .
    crl < {S},Xl > => < block >
        if < S,Xl > => < ST > .
    crl < X = A ;,(Xl,X,Xl') > => < stmt >
        if < A , (Xl,X,Xl') > => < int > .
    crl < S1 S2,Xl > => < stmt >
        if < S1,Xl > => < ST1 > /
          < S2,Xl > => < ST2 > .
    crl < if (B) S1 else S2,Xl > => < stmt >
        if < B,Xl > => < bool > /
          < S1,Xl > => < block > /
          < S2,Xl > => < block > .
    crl < while (B) S,Xl > => < stmt >
        if < B,Xl > => < bool > /
          < S,Xl > => < block > .
    crl < int Xl ; S > => < pgm >
        if < S,Xl > => < ST > .
endm

Figure 3.12: The type-system of IMP using big-step SOS in Maude, including the definition of types and configurations.
Maude Definition of a Type System for IMP using Big-Step SOS

Figure 3.12 shows the Maude representation of the rewrite theory $R_{\text{BigStepTypeSystem}(\text{IMP})}$ in Figure 3.11, including a representation of the algebraic signature for the needed configurations. The Maude module IMP-TYPE-SYSTEM-BIGSTEP in Figure 3.12 is executable, so Maude, through its rewriting capabilities, yields a type checker for IMP; for example, the command

```
rewrite < sumPgm > .
```

where `sumPgm` is the first program defined in the module IMP-PROGRAMS in Figure 3.4, produces a result of the form (the exact statistics are irrelevant here, so they were replaced by “…”):

```
rewrites: 20 in ... cpu (... real) (... rewrites/second)
result Configuration: < pgm >
```

A type system is generally expected to be deterministic. Nevertheless, implementations of it (particularly rewrite-based ones) may mistakenly be non-deterministic (non-confluent; see Section 2.1.4). To gain confidence in the determinism of the Maude definition in Figure 3.12, one may exhaustively search for all possible behaviors yielded by the type checker:

```
search < sumPgm > =>! Cfg:Configuration .
```

As expected, this finds only one solution. This Maude definition of IMP’s type checker is very simple and one can easily see that it is confluent (it is orthogonal—see Section 2.1.4), so the search is redundant. However, the search command may be useful for testing more complex type systems.

3.2.5 Notes

Big-step structural operational semantics (big-step SOS) was introduced under the name natural semantics by Kahn [34] in 1987. Even though he introduced it in the limited context of defining Mini-ML, a simple pure (no side effects) version of the ML language, Kahn’s aim was to propose natural semantics as a “unified manner to present different aspects of the semantics of programming languages, such as dynamic semantics, static semantics and translation” (Section 1.1 in [34]). Kahn’s original notation for big-step sequents was $\sigma \vdash a \Rightarrow i$, with the meaning that $a$ evaluates to $i$ in state (or environment) $\sigma$. Kahn, like many others after him (including ourselves; e.g., Section 3.2.4), took the freedom to using a different notation for type judgments, namely $\Gamma \vdash c : \tau$, where $\Gamma$ is a type environment, $c$ is a program or fragment of program, and $\tau$ is a type. This colon notation for type judgments was already established in 1987; however, Kahn noticed that the way type systems were defined was a special instance of a more general schema, which he called natural semantics (and which is called big-step SOS here and in many other places). Big-step SOS is very natural when defining pure, deterministic and structured languages, so it quickly became very popular. However, Kahn’s terminology for “natural” semantics was inspired from its reminiscence to “natural deduction” in mathematical logic, not necessarily from the fact that it is natural to use. He demonstrated how one can use big-step SOS to define all these in his seminal paper [34], using the Mini-ML language.

As Kahn himself acknowledged, the idea of using proof systems to capture the operational semantics of programming languages goes back to Plotkin [60, 61] in 1981. Plotkin was the first to coin the terminology structural operational semantics (SOS), but what he meant by that was mostly what we call today small-step structural operational semantics (small-step SOS). Note, however, that Plotkin in fact used a combination of small-step and big-step SOS, without calling them as such, using the $\rightarrow$ arrow for small-steps and its transitive closure $\rightarrow^*$ for big-steps. We will discuss small-step SOS in depth in Section 3.3. Kahn and others found big-step SOS more natural and convenient than Plotkin’s SOS, essentially because it is more abstract.

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and denotational in nature (which may help in formal reasoning), and one needs fewer rules to define a
language semantics.

One of the most notable uses of natural semantics is the formal semantics of Standard ML by Milner et
al. [49]. Several types of big-step sequents were used in [49], such as \( \rho \vdash p \Rightarrow v/f \) for “in
environment \( \rho \), sentence \( p \) either evaluates to value \( v \) or otherwise an error or failure \( f \) takes
place”, and \( \sigma, \rho \vdash p \Rightarrow v, \sigma' \) for “in state \( \sigma \) and environment \( \rho \), sentence \( p \) evaluates
to \( v \) and the resulting state is \( \sigma' \)”, and \( \rho, v \vdash m \Rightarrow v'/f \) for “in environment \( \rho \), a
match \( m \) either evaluates to \( v' \) or otherwise failure \( f' \)”, among many others. After more than
twenty years of natural semantics, it is now common wisdom that big-step semantics is inappropriate
as a rigorous formalism for defining languages with complex features such as exceptions or concurrency.
To give a reasonably compact and readable definition of Standard ML in [49], Milner et al. had to make
several informal notational conventions, such as a “state convention” to avoid having to mention the state
in every rule, and an “exception convention” to avoid having to more than double the number of rules for
the sole purpose of supporting exceptions. As rightfully noticed by Mosses [53], such conventions are not
only ad hoc and language specific, but may also lead to erroneous definitions. Section 3.5 illustrates in
detail the limitations of big-step operational semantics, both with respect to its incapacity of defining certain
rather simple language features and with respect to inconvenience in using it (for example, due to its lack
of modularity). One of the common uses of natural semantics these days is to define static semantics of
programming languages and calculi, such as type systems (see Section 3.2.4).

Hennessy [32] (1990) and Winskel [87] (1993) are perhaps the first textbooks proposing big-step SOS in
teaching programming language semantics. They define big-step SOS for several simple languages, including
ones similar to the IMP language presented in this chapter. Hennessy [32] defines languages incrementally,
starting with a small core and then adding new features one by one, highlighting a major problem with
big-step SOS: its lack of modularity. Indeed, the big-step SOS of a language is entirely redefined several
times in [32] as new features are added to the language, because adding new features requires changes in the
structure of judgments. For example, some big-step SOS judgments in [32] evolve from \( a \Rightarrow i \), to \( \sigma \vdash a \Rightarrow i \),
to \( D, \sigma \vdash i \) during the language design experiment, where \( a \) is an expression, \( i \) an integer, \( \sigma \) a state (or
environment), and \( D \) a set of function definitions.

While the notations of Hennessy [32] and of Milner et al. [49] are somehow reminiscent of original
Kahn’s notation, Winskel [87] uses a completely different notation. Specifically, he prefers to use big-step
sequents of the form \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow i \) instead of \( \sigma \vdash a \Rightarrow i \). There seems to be, unfortunately, no uniform and/or
broadly accepted notation for SOS sequents in the literature, be they big-step or small-step. As already
explained earlier in this section, for the sake of uniformity at least throughout this book, we will make an effort
to consider sequents of the form \( C \downarrow R \) in our big-step SOS definitions, where \( C \) and \( R \) are configurations.
Similarly, we will make an effort to use the notation \( C \Rightarrow C' \) for small-step sequents (see Section 3.3). We
will make it explicit when we deviate from our uniform notation, explaining how the temporary notation
relates to the uniform one, as we did in Section 3.2.4.

Big-step SOS is the semantic approach which is probably the easiest to implement in any language or to
represent in any computational logic. There are countless approaches to implementing or encoding big-step
SOS in various languages or logics, which we cannot enumerate here. We only mention rewriting-based
ones which are directly related to the approach followed in this book. Vardejo and Martí-Oliet [84] proposed
big-step SOS implementations in Maude for several languages, including Hennessy’s languages [32] and
Kahn’s Mini-ML [34]. Vardejo and Martí-Oliet were mainly interested in demonstrating the strengths of
Maude 2 to give executable semantics to concrete languages, rather than in proposing general representations
of big-step SOS into rewrite logic that work for any language. Besides Vardejo and Martí-Oliet, several other
authors used rewrite logic and Maude to define and implement language semantics for languages or calculi
following a small-step approach. These are discussed in Section 3.3.4; we here only emphasize that most of those can likely be adapted into big-step SOS definitional or implementation styles, because big-step SOS can be regarded as a special case of small-step SOS, one in which the small step is “big”.

There is a common misconception that big-step SOS is “efficient” when executed. This misconception is fueled by case studies where efficient interpreters for various (deterministic or deterministic fragments of) languages, were more or less mechanically derived from the big-step SOS of those languages. Recall that a big-step SOS is a formal proof system, and that proof systems are typically meant to tell what is possible in the defined language, calculus or system, and not how to implement it. A big-step SOS can indeed be used as a basis to develop efficient interpreters, but one should be aware of the fact that when that happens it happens either because the big-step SOS has a particularly convenient form, where at most one proof rule can apply at any given moment\(^4\), or because one cuts corners in the implementation by deliberately\(^5\) ignoring the proof search process needed to detect which proof rule applies, and instead arbitrarily picking one matching rule and stopping the execution if its premises cannot be proved. Section 3.5 illustrates a big-step SOS whose rules are not syntax-driven (e.g., expressions have side effects and arithmetic operators are non-deterministic); as discussed there, its faithful Maude implementation is indeed very slow, requiring exponential complexity in some cases to derive the rule premises.

### 3.2.6 Exercises

Prove the following exercises, all referring to the IMP big-step SOS in Figure 3.7.

**Exercise 54.** Change the rule \(\text{BigStep-Div}\) so that division short-circuits when \(a_1\) evaluates to 0. (\textbf{Hint:} may need to replace it with two rules, like for the semantics of conjunction).

**Exercise 55.** Change the big-step semantics of the IMP conjunction so that it is not short-circuited.

**Exercise 56.** Add an “error” state and modify the big-step semantics in Figure 3.7 to allow derivations of sequents of the form \(\langle s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{error} \rangle\) or \(\langle p \rangle \Downarrow \langle \text{error} \rangle\) when \(s\) evaluated in state \(\sigma\) or when \(p\) evaluated in the initial state performs a division by zero.

**Exercise 57.** Prove that the transition relation defined by the \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP})\) proof system in Figure 3.7 is deterministic, that is:

- If \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle\) and \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i' \rangle\) then \(i = i'\).
- If \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle t \rangle\) and \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle t' \rangle\) then \(t = t'\).
- If \(s\) terminates in \(\sigma\) then there is a unique \(\sigma'\) such that \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma' \rangle\).
- If \(p\) terminates then there is a unique \(\sigma\) such that \(\text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle p \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle\).

Prove the same results above for the proof system detecting division-by-zero as in Exercise 56.

**Exercise 58.** Show that there is no algorithm, based on the big-step proof system in Figure 3.7 or on anything else, which takes as input an IMP program and says whether it terminates or not.

\(^4\)We call such big-step SOS definitions syntax-driven.

\(^5\)Either because one proved that this is sound, or because one’s intention is to trade soundness for performance.
3.3 Small-Step Structural Operational Semantics (Small-Step SOS)

Known also under the names transition semantics, reduction semantics, one-step operational semantics, and computational semantics, small-step structural operational semantics, or small-step SOS for short, formally captures the intuitive notion of one atomic computational step. Unlike in big-step SOS where one defines all computation steps in one transition, in a small-step SOS a transition encodes only one computation step. To distinguish small-step from big-step transitions, we use a plain arrow $\rightarrow$ instead of $\parallel$. To execute a small-step SOS, or to relate it to a big-step SOS, we need to transitively close the small-step transition relation. Indeed, the conceptual relationship between big-step SOS and small-step SOS is that for any configuration $C$ and any result configuration $R$, $C \parallel R$ if and only if $C \rightarrow^* R$. Small-step SOS is typically preferred over big-step SOS when defining languages with a high-degree of non-determinism, such as, for example, concurrent languages, because in a small-step semantics one has direct control over what can execute and when.

Like big-step SOS, a small-step SOS of a programming language or calculus is also given as a formal proof system (see Section 2.1.5). The small-step SOS sequents are also binary relations over configurations like in big-step SOS, but in small-step SOS they are written $C \rightarrow C'$ and have the meaning that $C'$ is a configuration obtained from $C$ after one step of computation. A small-step SOS rule therefore has the form

$$
\frac{C_1 \rightarrow C_1' \quad C_2 \rightarrow C_2' \quad \ldots \quad C_n \rightarrow C_n'}{C_0 \rightarrow C_0'} \quad \text{[if condition]}
$$

where $C_0, C_0', C_1, C_1', C_2, C_2', \ldots, C_n, C_n'$ are configurations holding fragments of program together with all the needed semantic components, like in big-step SOS, and condition is an optional side condition. Unlike in big-step SOS, the result configurations do not need to be explicitly defined. In small-step SOS they are implicit: they are precisely those configurations which cannot be reduced anymore using the one-step relation.

Given a configuration holding a fragment of program, a small-step of computation typically takes place in some subpart of the fragment. However, when each of the subparts is already reduced, then the small-step can apply on the part itself. A small-step SOS is therefore finer-grain than big-step SOS, and thus more verbose, because one has to cover all the cases where a computation step can take place. For example, the small-step SOS of addition in IMP is

$$
\frac{\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a'_1, \sigma \rangle}{\langle a_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a'_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle}
$$

$$
\frac{\langle a_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a'_2, \sigma \rangle}{\langle a_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a'_1 + a'_2, \sigma \rangle}
$$

$$
\frac{\langle i_1 + i_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle i_1 + \text{int } i_2, \sigma \rangle}{\langle i_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle i_1 + i_2, \sigma \rangle}
$$

Here, the meaning of a relation $\langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a', \sigma \rangle$ is that arithmetic expression $a$ in state $\sigma$ is reduced, in one small-step, to arithmetic expression $a'$ and the state stays unchanged. Like for big-step SOS, one can encounter various other notations for small-step SOS configurations in the literature, e.g., $[a, \sigma]$, or $(a, \sigma)$, or $[a, \sigma]$, or $(a | \sigma)$, etc. Like for big-step SOS, we prefer to uniformly use the angle-bracket-and-comma notation $\langle a, \sigma \rangle$. Also, like for big-step SOS, one can encounter various decorations on the transition arrow $\rightarrow$, a notable situation being when the transition is labeled. Again like for big-step SOS, we assume that such transition decorations are incorporated in the (source and/or target) configurations. How this can be effectively achieved is discussed in detail in Section 3.6 in the context of modular SOS (which allows rather complex transition labels).

The rules above rely on the fact that expression evaluation in IMP has no side effects. If there were side effects, like in the IMP extension in Section 3.5, then the $\sigma$’s in the right-hand-side configurations above
would need to change to a different symbol, say $\sigma'$, to account for the possibility that the small-step in the condition of the rules, and implicitly in their conclusion, may change the state as well. While in big-step SOS it is more common to derive sequents of the form $\langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i, \sigma \rangle$, in small-step SOS the opposite tends to be norm, that is, it is more common to derive sequents of the form $\langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a', \sigma \rangle$ than of the form $\langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a', \sigma \rangle$. Nevertheless, the latter sequent type also works when defining languages like IMP whose expressions are side-effect-free (see Exercise 68). Some language designers may prefer this latter style, to keep sequents minimal. However, even if one prefers these simpler sequents, we still keep the angle brackets in the right-hand-sides of the transition relations (for the same reason like in big-step SOS—to maintain a uniform notation); in other words, we write $\langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a' \rangle$ and not $\langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow a'$.

In addition to rules, a small-step SOS may also include structural identities. For example, we can state that sequential composition is associative using the following structural identity:

$$(s_1 s_2) s_3 \equiv s_1 (s_2 s_3)$$

The small-step SOS rules apply *modulo* structural identities. In other words, the structural identities can be used anywhere in any configuration and at any moment during the derivation process, without counting as computational steps. In practice, they are typically used to rearrange the syntactic term so that some small-step SOS rule can apply. In particular, the structural rule above allows the designer of the small-step SOS to rely on the fact that the first statement in a sequential composition is *not* a sequential composition, which may simplify the actual SOS rules; this is indeed the case in Section 3.5.4, where we extend IMP with dynamic threads (we do not need structural identities in the small-step SOS definition of the simple IMP language in this section). Structural identities are not easy to execute and/or implement in their full generality, because they can quickly yield an exponential explosion in the number of terms that need to be matched by rules. Their role in SOS is the same as the role of equations in rewriting logic definitions; in fact, we effectively turn them into equations when we embed small-step SOS into rewrite logic (see Section 3.3.3).

### 3.3.1 IMP Configurations for Small-Step SOS

The configurations needed for the small-step SOS of IMP are a subset of those needed for its big-step SOS in Section 3.2.1. Indeed, we still need all the two-component configurations containing a fragment of program and a state, but, for the particular small-step SOS style that we follow in this section, we do not need those result configurations of big-step SOS containing only a value or only a state. If one prefers to instead follow the minimalist style as in Exercise 68, then one would also need the other configuration types. Here are all the configuration types needed for the small-step SOS of IMP given in the remainder of this section:

- $\langle a, \sigma \rangle$ grouping arithmetic expressions $a$ and states $\sigma$;
- $\langle b, \sigma \rangle$ grouping Boolean expressions $b$ and states $\sigma$;
- $\langle s, \sigma \rangle$ grouping statements $s$ and states $\sigma$;
- $\langle p \rangle$ holding programs $p$.

We still need the one-component configuration holding only a program, because we still want to reduce a program in the default initial state (empty) without having to mention the empty state.
sorts:
Configuration

operations:
⟨ , ⟩ : AExp × State → Configuration
⟨ , ⟩ : BExp × State → Configuration
⟨ , ⟩ : Stmt × State → Configuration
 ⟨⟩ : Pgm → Configuration

Figure 3.13: IMP small-step SOS configurations as an algebraic signature.

IMP Small-Step SOS Configurations as an Algebraic Signature

Figure 3.13 shows an algebraic signature defining the IMP configurations above, which is needed for the subsequent small-step operational semantics. We defined this algebraic signature in the same style and following the same assumptions as those for big-step SOS in Section 3.2.1.

3.3.2 The Small-Step SOS Rules of IMP

Figures 3.14 and 3.15 show all the rules in our IMP small-step SOS proof system, the former showing the rules corresponding to expressions, both arithmetic and Boolean, and the latter showing those rules corresponding to statements. The sequents that this proof system derives have the forms ⟨a, σ⟩ → ⟨a′, σ⟩, ⟨b, σ⟩ → ⟨b′, σ⟩, ⟨s, σ⟩ → ⟨s′, σ′⟩, and ⟨p⟩ → ⟨s, σ⟩, where a ranges over AExp, b over BExp, s over Stmt, p over Pgm, and σ and σ′ over State.

The meaning of ⟨a, σ⟩ → ⟨a′, σ⟩ is that given state σ, the arithmetic expression a reduces in one (small) step to the arithmetic expression a′ and the state σ stays unchanged. The meaning of ⟨b, σ⟩ → ⟨b′, σ⟩ is similar but with Boolean expressions instead of arithmetic expressions. The meaning of ⟨s, σ⟩ → ⟨s′, σ′⟩ is that statement s in state σ reduces in one step to statement s′ in a potentially modified state σ′. The meaning of ⟨p⟩ → ⟨s, σ⟩ is that program p reduces in one step to statement s in state σ (as expected, whenever such sequents can be derived, the statement s is the body of p and the state σ initializes to 0 the variables declared by p). The reason for which the state stays unchanged in the sequents corresponding to arithmetic and Boolean expressions is because, as discussed, IMP’s expressions currently have no side effects; we will have to change these rules later on in Section 3.5 when we add a variable increment arithmetic expression construct to IMP. A small-step reduction of a statement may or may not change the state, so we use a different symbol in the right-hand-side of statement transitions, σ′, to cover both cases.

We next discuss each of the small-step SOS rules of IMP in Figures 3.14 and 3.15. Before we start, note that we have no rules for reducing constant (integer or Boolean) expressions to their corresponding values as we had in big-step SOS (i.e., no rules corresponding to (BigStep-Int) and (BigStep-Bool) in Figure 3.7). Indeed, we do not want to have small-step rules of the form ⟨v, σ⟩ → ⟨v, σ⟩ because no one-step reductions are further desired on values v: adding such rules would lead to undesired divergent SOS reductions later on when we consider the transitive closure of the one-step relation →. Recall that the big-step SOS relation ⊩ captured all the reduction steps at once, including zero steps, and thus it did not need to be transitively closed like the small-step relation →, so evaluating values to themselves was not problematic in big-step SOS.

The rule (SmallStep-Lookup) happens to be almost the same as in big-step SOS; that’s because variable lookup is an atomic-step operation both in big-step and in small-step SOS. The rules (SmallStep-Add-Arg1), (SmallStep-Add-Arg2), and (SmallStep-Add) give the small-step semantics of addition, and (SmallStep-Div-Arg1), (SmallStep-Div-Arg2), and (SmallStep-Div) that of division, each covering all the three cases where
\[ \langle x, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \sigma(x), \sigma \rangle \text{ if } \sigma(x) \neq \perp \]  

(SMALLSTEP-LOOKUP)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_1, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle a_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-ADD-ARG1)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_2, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle a_1 + a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a_1 + a'_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-ADD-ARG2)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle i_1 + i_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle i_1 +_{\text{int}} i_2, \sigma \rangle.
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-ADD)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_1, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle a_1 / a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_1 / a_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-DIV-ARG1)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_2, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle a_1 / a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a_1 / a'_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-DIV-ARG2)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle i_1 / i_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle i_1 /_{\text{int}} i_2, \sigma \rangle \text{ if } i_2 \neq 0.
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-DIV)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle a_1, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_1, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle a_1 \leq a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_1 \leq a_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-LEQ-ARG1)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle a'_2, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle i_1 \leq a_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle i_1 \leq a'_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-LEQ-ARG2)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle i_1 \leq i_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle i_1 \leq_{\text{int}} i_2, \sigma \rangle.
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-LEQ)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle b, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle b', \sigma \rangle \\
\langle 1 b, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle 1 b', \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-NOT-ARG)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle \text{false}, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle \text{false}, \sigma \rangle.
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-NOT-TRUE)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle \text{false}, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle \text{true}, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-NOT-FALSE)

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle b_1, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle b'_1, \sigma \rangle \\
\langle b_1 \&\& b_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle b'_1 \&\& b_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}
\]  

(SMALLSTEP-AND-ARG1)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle \text{false} \&\& b_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle \text{false}, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-AND-FALSE)

\[\begin{align*}
\langle \text{true} \&\& b_2, \sigma \rangle &\rightarrow \langle b_2, \sigma \rangle
\end{align*}\]  

(SMALLSTEP-AND-TRUE)

Figure 3.14: SMALLSTEP(IMP)—Small-step SOS of IMP expressions (\(i_1, i_2 \in \text{Int}; x \in \text{Id}; a_1, a'_1, a_2, a'_2 \in \text{AExp}; b, b', b_1, b'_1, b_2 \in \text{BExp}; \sigma \in \text{State})

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a small-step reduction can take place. The first two cases in each group may apply non-deterministically. Recall from Section 3.2 that big-step SOS was inappropriate for defining the desired non-deterministic evaluation strategies for + and / . Fortunately, that was not a big problem for IMP, because its intended non-deterministic constructs are side-effect free. Therefore, the intended non-deterministic evaluation strategies of these particular language constructs did not affect the overall determinism of the IMP language, thus making its deterministic (see Exercise 57) big-step SOS definition in Section 3.2 acceptable. As expected, the non-deterministic evaluation strategies of + and / , which this time can be appropriately captured within the small-step SOS, will not affect the overall determinism of the IMP language (that is, the reflexive/transitive closure \( \rightarrow^* \) of \( \rightarrow \); see Theorem 14). These will start making a difference when we add side effects to expressions in Section 3.5.

The rules (SmallStep-Leq-Arg1), (SmallStep-Leq-Arg2), and (SmallStep-Leq) give the deterministic, sequential small-step SOS of \( \leq \). The first rule applies whenever \( a_1 \) is not an integer, then the second rule applies when \( a_1 \) is an integer but \( a_2 \) is not an integer, and finally, when both \( a_1 \) and \( a_2 \) are integers, the third rule applies. The rules (SmallStep-Not-Arg), (SmallStep-Not-True), and (SmallStep-Not-False) are self-explanatory, while the rules (SmallStep-And-Arg1), (SmallStep-And-False) and (SmallStep-And-True) give the short-circuited semantics of and: indeed, \( b_2 \) will not be reduced unless \( b_1 \) is first reduced to \( \text{true} \).

Before we continue with the remaining small-step SOS rules for statements, let us see an example of a small-step SOS reduction using the rules discussed so far; as in the case of the big-step SOS rules in Section 3.2, recall that the small-step SOS rules are also rule schemas, that is, they are parametric in the (meta-)variables \( a, a_1, b, s, \sigma \), etc. The following is a correct derivation, where \( x \) and \( y \) are program variables and \( \sigma \) is any state with \( \sigma(x) = 1 \):

\[
\frac{\langle x, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle 1, \sigma \rangle}{\langle y / x, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle y / 1, \sigma \rangle}
\]
\[
\frac{\langle x + (y / x), \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle x + (y / 1), \sigma \rangle}{\langle (x + (y / x)) \leq x, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle (x + (y / 1)) \leq x, \sigma \rangle}
\]

The above can be regarded as a proof of the fact that replacing the second occurrence of \( x \) by 1 is a correct one-step computation of IMP, as defined using the small-step SOS rules discussed so far.

Let us now discuss the small-step SOS rules of statements in Figure 3.15. Unlike the reduction of expressions, a reduction step of a statement may also change the state. Note that the empty block, \( \{} \), acts as a value that statements evaluate to. Like for other values (integers and Booleans), there is no rule for the empty block, because such a rule would lead to non-termination. Rule (SmallStep-Block) simply dissolves the block construct and keeps the inner statement. We can afford to do this in IMP only because its blocks currently have no local variable declarations (this will change in IMP++ in Section 3.5). An alternative could be to keep the block and instead advance the inner statement (see Exercise 61). Rule (SmallStep-Asgn-Arg2) reduces the second argument—which is an arithmetic expression—of an assignment statement whenever possible, regardless of whether the assigned variable was declared or not. Exercise 62 proposes an alternative semantics where the arithmetic expression is only reduced when the assigned variable has been declared. When the second argument is already fully reduced (i.e., it is an integer value), the rule (SmallStep-Asgn) reduces the assignment statement to \( \{} \), at the same time updating the state accordingly. Therefore, two steps are needed in order to assign an already evaluated expression to a variable: one step to write the variable in the state and modify the assignment to \( \{} \), and another step to dissolve the resulting \( \{} \). Exercise 63 proposes an alternative semantics where these operations can be done in one step.

The rules (SmallStep-Seq-Arg1) and (SmallStep-Seq-Empty-Block) give the small-step SOS of sequential composition: if the first statement is reducible then reduce it, otherwise, if it is \( \{} \), move on in a
\[\langle s, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s, \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Block})

\[\langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a', \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Asgn-Arg2})

\[\langle a; \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a'; \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Assign})

\[\langle x = i; \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle [], \sigma[i/x] \rangle \text{ if } \sigma(x) \neq \bot\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Asgn-Arg2})

\[\langle s_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s'_1, \sigma' \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Seq-Arg1})

\[\langle s_1, s_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s'_1, s_2, \sigma' \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Seq-Empty-Block})

\[\langle b, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle b', \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-If-Arg1})

\[\langle \text{if (true)} s_1 \text{ else } s_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s_1, \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-If-True})

\[\langle \text{if (false)} s_1 \text{ else } s_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s_2, \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-If-False})

\[\langle \text{while } (b) s, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{if (b)} \{ s \text{ while } (b) s \} \text{ else } [], \sigma \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-While})

\[\langle \text{int } xl; s \rangle \rightarrow \langle s, xl \mapsto 0 \rangle\] 
\hspace{1cm} (\text{SmallStep-Pgm})

Figure 3.15: SmallStep(IMP)— Small-step SOS of IMP statements \((i \in \text{Int}; x \in \text{Id}; xl \in \text{List}\{\text{Id}\}; a, a' \in \text{AExp}; b, b' \in \text{BExp}; s, s_1, s'_1, s_2 \in \text{Stmt}; \sigma, \sigma' \in \text{State})\).
\[ C \rightarrow^* C \quad \text{(SmallStep-Closure-Stop)} \]

\[ C \rightarrow C'', \ C'' \rightarrow^* C' \quad \text{(SmallStep-Closure-More)} \]

Figure 3.16: SmallStep(IMP)—Reflexive/transitive closure of the small-step SOS relation, which is the same for any small-step SOS of any language or calculus \((C, C', C'' \in \text{Configuration})\).

small-step to the second statement. Another possibility (different from that in Exercise 63) to avoid wasting the computational step generated by reductions to \(\{}\) like in the paragraph above, is to eliminate the rule (SmallStep-Seq-Empty-Block) and instead to add a rule that allows the reduction of the second statement provided that the first one is terminated. This approach is proposed by Hennessy [32], where he introduces a new sequent for terminated configurations, say \(C^\\langle\rangle\), and then includes a rule like the following (and no rule like (SmallStep-Seq-Empty-Block)):

\[
\langle s_1, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s_2, \sigma' \rangle \rightarrow \langle s'_2, \sigma'' \rangle
\]

The three rules for the conditional, namely (SmallStep-If-Arg1), (SmallStep-If-True), and (SmallStep-If-False), are straightforward; note that the two branches are never reduced when the condition can still be reduced. Exercise 65 proposes an alternative semantics for the conditional which wastes no computational step on switching to one of the two branches once the condition is evaluated.

The (SmallStep-While) rule unrolls the loop once; this unrolling semantics seems as natural as it can be, but one should notice that it actually also generates an artificial computational step. Exercise 66 proposes an alternative loop semantics which wastes no computational step.

Finally, (SmallStep-Pgm) gives the semantics of programs by reducing them to their body statement in the expected state formed by initializing all the declared variables to 0. Note, however, that this rule also wastes a computational step; indeed, one may not want the initialization of the state with default values for variables to count as a step. Exercise 67 addresses this problem.

It is worthwhile noting that one has some flexibility in how to give a small-step SOS semantics to a language. The same holds true for almost any language definitional style, not only for SOS.

**On Proof Derivations, Evaluation, and Termination**

To formally capture the notion of “sequence of transitions”, in Figure 3.16 we define the relation of reflexive/transitive closure of the small-step SOS transition.

**Definition 21.** Given appropriate IMP small-step SOS configurations \(C\) and \(C'\), the IMP small-step SOS sequent \(C \rightarrow C'\) is **derivable**, written \(\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow C'\), iff there is some proof tree rooted in \(C \rightarrow C'\) which is derivable using the proof system \(\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP})\) in Figures 3.14 and 3.15. In this case, we also say that \(C\) **reduces in one step** to \(C'\). Similarly, the many-step sequent \(C \rightarrow^* C'\) is **derivable**, written \(\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^* C'\), iff there is some proof tree rooted in \(C \rightarrow^* C'\) which is derivable using the proof system in Figures 3.14, 3.15, and 3.16. In this case, we also say that \(C\) **reduces** (in zero, one, or more steps) to \(C'\). Configuration \(R\) is **irreducible** iff there is no configuration \(C\) such that \(\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash R \rightarrow C\), and is a **result** iff it has one of the forms \(\langle i, \sigma \rangle\), \(\langle t, \sigma \rangle\), or \(\langle \{} \rangle, \sigma\rangle\), where \(i \in \text{Int}\), \(t \in \text{Bool}\), and \(\sigma \in \text{State}\). Finally, configuration \(C\) **terminates** under \(\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP})\) iff there is no infinite sequence of configurations \(C_0, C_1, \ldots\) such that \(C_0 = C\) and \(C_i\) reduces in one step to \(C_{i+1}\) for any natural number \(i\).
Result configurations are irreducible, but there are irreducible configurations which are not necessarily result configurations. For example, the configuration \( \langle i / o, \sigma \rangle \) is irreducible but it is not a result. Like for big-step SOS, to catch division-by-zero within the semantics we need to add special error values/states and propagate them through all the language constructs (see Exercise 70).

The syntax of IMP (Section 3.1.1, Figure 3.1) was deliberately ambiguous with regards to sequential composition, and that was motivated by the fact that the semantics of the language will be given in such a way that the syntactic ambiguity will become irrelevant. We can now rigorously prove that is indeed the case, that is, we can prove properties of the like \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle s_1 s_2 s_3, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s'_1 s_2 s_3, \sigma' \rangle \) if and only if \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle s_1 s_2 s_3, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle s'_1 s_2 s_3, \sigma' \rangle \), etc. Exercise 71 discusses several such properties which, together with the fact that the semantics of no language construct is structurally defined in terms of sequential composition, also says that adding the associativity of sequential composition as a structural identity to the small-step SOS of IMP does not change the set of global behaviors of any IMP program (although we have not added it). However, that will not be the case anymore when we extend IMP with dynamic threads in Section 3.5.4, because the semantics of thread spawning will be given making use of the different evaluation meaning as the \( \Downarrow \) relation in big-step SOS (Section 3.2). Since for demonstrations reasons we deliberately worked with different result configurations in big-step and in small-step SOS, our theorem below looks slightly involved; if we had the same configurations in both semantics, then the theorem below would simply state “for any configuration \( C \) and any result configuration \( R \), \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^* R \) if and only if \( \text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \Downarrow R \)”.

**Theorem 14.** The following equivalences hold for any \( a \in \text{AExp}, i \in \text{Int}, b \in \text{BExp}, t \in \text{Bool}, s \in \text{Stmt}, p \in \text{Pgm}, \) and \( \sigma, \sigma' \in \text{State}:

- \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle i, \sigma' \rangle \) for a state \( \sigma' \) iff \( \text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle a, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle i \rangle \);
- \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle b, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle t, \sigma' \rangle \) for a state \( \sigma' \) iff \( \text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle b, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle t \rangle \);
- \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle s, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle [], \sigma' \rangle \) for a state \( \sigma' \) iff \( \text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle s, \sigma \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma' \rangle \);
- \( \text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle p \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle [], \sigma \rangle \) for a state \( \sigma \) iff \( \text{BigStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash \langle p \rangle \Downarrow \langle \sigma \rangle \).

Note that the small-step SOS relation for IMP is a recursive, or decidable problem: indeed, given configurations \( C \) and \( C' \), one can use the small-step proof system in Figures 3.14 and 3.15 to exhaustively
check whether indeed $C \rightarrow C'$ is derivable or not. Moreover, since the rules for the reflexive/transitive closure relation $\rightarrow^*$ in Figure 3.16 can be used to systematically generate any sequence of reductions, we conclude that the relation $\rightarrow^*$ is recursively enumerable. Theorem 14 together with the discussion at the end of Section 3.2.2 and Exercise 58, tell us that $\rightarrow^*$ is properly recursively enumerable, that is, it cannot be recursive. This tells us, in particular, that non-termination of a program $p$ is equivalent to saying that, no matter what the state $\sigma$ is, \textsc{SmallStep}(IMP) $\vdash \langle p \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle \|, \sigma \rangle$ cannot be derived. However, unlike for big-step SOS where nothing else can be said about non-terminating programs, in the case of small-step SOS definitions one can use the small-step relation, $\rightarrow$, to observe program executions for any number of steps.

### 3.3.3 Small-Step SOS in Rewrite Logic

Like for big-step SOS, we can also associate a conditional rewrite rule to each small-step SOS rule and hereby obtain a rewrite logic theory that faithfully (i.e., step-for-step) captures the small-step SOS definition. Additionally, we can associate a rewrite logic equation to each SOS structural identity, because in both cases rules are applied modulo structural identities or equations. An important technical aspect needs to be resolved, though. The rewriting relation of rewrite logic is by its own nature reflexively and transitively closed. On the other hand, the small-step SOS relation is not reflexively and transitively closed by default (its reflexive/transitive closure is typically defined a posteriori, as we did in Figure 3.16). Therefore, we need to devise mechanisms to inhibit rewrite logic’s reflexive, transitive and uncontrolled application of rules.

We first show that any small-step SOS, say \textsc{SmallStep}, can be mechanically translated into a rewrite logic theory, say $R_{\textsc{SmallStep}}$, in such a way that the corresponding derivation relations are step-for-step equivalent, that is, \textsc{SmallStep} $\vdash C \rightarrow C'$ if and only if $R_{\textsc{SmallStep}} \vdash C \rightarrow C'$, where $R_{C \rightarrow C'}$ is the corresponding syntactic translation of the small-step SOS sequent $C \rightarrow C'$ into a rewrite logic sequent. Second, we apply our generic translation technique on the small-step SOS formal system \textsc{SmallStep}(IMP) defined in Section 3.3.2 and obtain a rewrite logic semantics of IMP that is step-for-step equivalent to the original small-step SOS of IMP. Finally, we show how $R_{\textsc{SmallStep}(IMP)}$ can be seamlessly defined in Maude, thus yielding another interpreter for IMP (in addition to the one similarly obtained from the big-step SOS of IMP in Section 3.2.3).

**Faithful Embedding of Small-Step SOS into Rewrite Logic**

Like for big-step SOS (Section 3.2.3), to define our translation from small-step SOS to rewrite logic generically, we assume that each parametric configuration $C$ admits an equivalent algebraic variant $\overline{C}$ as a term of sort $\text{Configuration}$ over an appropriate signature of configurations like the one that we defined for IMP in Section 3.2.1 (see Figure 3.6); moreover, each parameter in $C$ (e.g., arithmetic expression $a \in AExp$) gets replaced by a variable of corresponding sort in $\overline{C}$ (e.g., variable $A$ of sort $AExp$). Consider now a general-purpose small-step SOS rule of the form

$$
\frac{C_1 \rightarrow C_1' \quad C_2 \rightarrow C_2' \quad \ldots \quad C_n \rightarrow C_n'}{C_0 \rightarrow C_0'} \quad [\text{if condition}]
$$

where $C_0, C_0', C_1, C_1', C_2, C_2', \ldots, C_n, C_n'$ are configurations holding fragments of program together with all the needed semantic components, and condition is an optional side condition. Before we introduce our transformation, let us first discuss why the same straightforward transformation that we used in the case of big-step SOS,

$$
(\forall X) \overline{C_0} \rightarrow \overline{C_0'} \quad \text{if} \quad \overline{C_1} \rightarrow \overline{C_1'} \land \overline{C_2} \rightarrow \overline{C_2'} \land \ldots \land \overline{C_n} \rightarrow \overline{C_n'} \quad [\land \text{condition}],
$$

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where $\mathcal{X}$ is the set of parameters, or meta-variables, that occur in the small-step SOS rule, does not work in the case of small-step SOS. For example, with that transformation, the rewrite rules corresponding to the small-step SOS rules of IMP for assignment (SmallStep-Asgn-Arg2) and (SmallStep-Asgn) in Figure 3.15 would be
\[
\langle X = A; \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle X = A'; \sigma \rangle \quad \text{if} \quad \langle A, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle A', \sigma \rangle
\]
\[
\langle X = I; \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \{\}, \sigma[I/X] \rangle \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma(X) \neq \bot
\]
The problem with these rules is that the rewrite of a configuration of the form $\langle x = i; \sigma \rangle$ for some $x \in Id$, $i \in Int$ and $\sigma \in State$ may not terminate, applying forever the first rule: in rewrite logic, $\langle i, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow (i, \sigma)$ because $\rightarrow$ is closed under reflexivity. Even if we may somehow solve this reflexivity aspect by defining and then including an additional condition $A \neq A'$, such rules still fail to capture the intended small-step transition, because $\rightarrow$ is also closed transitively in rewrite logic, so there could be many small-steps taking place in the condition of the first rule before the rule is applied.

To capture exactly one step of reduction, thus avoiding the inherent automatic reflexive and transitive closure of the rewrite relation which is desirable in rewrite logic but not in reduction semantics, we can mark the left-hand-side (or, alternatively, the right-hand-side) configuration in each rewrite sequent to always be distinct from the other one; then each rewrite sequent comprises precisely one step, from a marked to an unmarked configuration (or vice versa). For example, let us place a $\circ$ in front of all the left-hand-side configurations and keep the right-hand-side configurations unchanged. Then the generic small-step SOS rule above translates into the rewrite logic rule
\[
(\forall \mathcal{X}) \circ \overline{C}_0 \rightarrow \overline{C}_0 \quad \text{if} \quad \circ \overline{C}_1 \rightarrow \overline{C}_1 \land \circ \overline{C}_2 \rightarrow \overline{C}_2 \land \ldots \land \circ \overline{C}_n \rightarrow \overline{C}_n [\land \ \text{condition}],
\]
where $\mathcal{X}$ is the same as above. One can metaphorically think of a marked configuration $\circ \overline{C}$ as a “hot” configuration that needs to be “cooled down” in one step, while of an unmarked configuration $\overline{C}$ as a cool one. Theorem 15 below states as expected that a small-step SOS sequent $C \rightarrow C'$ is derivable if and only if the term $\circ \overline{C}$ rewrites in the corresponding rewrite theory to $\overline{C'}$ (which is a normal form). Thus, to enable the resulting rewrite system on a given configuration, one needs to first mark the configuration to be reduced (by placing a $\circ$ in front of it) and then to let it rewrite to its normal form. Since the one-step reduction always terminates, the corresponding rewrite task also terminates.

If the original small-step SOS had structural identities, then we translate them into equations in a straightforward manner: each identity $\overline{t} \equiv \overline{t'}$ is translated into an equation $(\forall \mathcal{X}) \overline{t} = \overline{t'}$, where $\mathcal{X}$ is the set of meta-variables appearing in the structural identity. The only difference between the original structural identity and the resulting equation is that the meta-variables of the former become variables in the latter. The role of the two is the same in their corresponding frameworks and whatever we can do with one in one framework we can equivalently do with the other in the other framework; consequently, to simplify the notation and the presentation, we will make abstraction of structural identities and equations in our theoretical developments in the remainder of this chapter.

To obtain the reflexive and transitive many-step closure of the small-step SOS relation in the resulting rewrite setting and thus to be able to obtain an interpreter for the defined language when executing the rewrite system, we need to devise some mechanism to iteratively apply the one-step reduction step captured by rewriting as explained above. There could be many ways to do that, but one simple and uniform way is to add a new configuration marker, say $\circ \overline{C}$, with the meaning that $\overline{C}$ must be iteratively reduced, small-step after small-step, either forever or until an irreducible configuration is reached. Figure 3.17 shows how one can define both configuration markers algebraically (assuming some existing Configuration sort, e.g., the one in Figure 3.13). To distinguish the marked configurations from the usual configurations and to also possibly allow several one-step markers at the same time, e.g., $\circ \circ \circ \overline{C}$, which could be useful for debugging/tracing.
reasons, we preferred to define the sort of marked configurations as a supersort of Configuration. Note that the rule in Figure 3.17 indeed gives $\star$ its desired reflexive and transitive closure property (the reflexivity follows from the fact that the rewrite relation in rewrite logic is reflexive, so $\star C \rightarrow \star C$ for any configuration term $C$).

**Theorem 15. (Faithful embedding of small-step SOS into rewrite logic)** For any small-step SOS $\text{SmallStep}$, and any $\text{SmallStep}$ appropriate configurations $C$ and $C'$, the following equivalences hold:

$$\text{SmallStep} \vdash C \rightarrow C' \iff R_{\text{SmallStep}} \vdash \circ C \rightarrow^1 C' \iff R_{\text{SmallStep}} \vdash \circ C \rightarrow C'$$

$$\text{SmallStep} \vdash C \rightarrow^* C' \iff R_{\text{SmallStep}} \vdash \star C \rightarrow \star C'$$

where $R_{\text{SmallStep}}$ is the rewrite logic semantic definition obtained from $\text{SmallStep}$ by translating each rule in $\text{SmallStep}$ as above. (Recall from Section 2.5 that $\rightarrow^1$ is the one-step rewriting relation obtained by dropping the reflexivity and transitivity rules of rewrite logic. Also, as $C$ and $C'$ are parameter-free—parameters only appear in rules—, $C$ and $C'$ are ground terms.)

Except for transforming parameters into variables, the only apparent difference between $\text{SmallStep}$ and $R_{\text{SmallStep}}$ is that the latter marks (using $\circ$) all the left-hand-side configurations and, naturally, uses conditional rewrite rules instead of conditional deduction rules. As Theorem 15 shows, there is a step-for-step correspondence between their corresponding computations (or executions, or derivations). Therefore, similarly to the big-step SOS representation in rewrite logic, the rewrite theory $R_{\text{SmallStep}}$ is the small-step SOS $\text{SmallStep}$, and not an encoding of it.

Recall from Section 3.2.3 that in the case of big-step SOS there were some subtle differences between the one-step $\rightarrow^1$ (obtained by dropping the reflexivity and transitivity rules of rewrite logic) and the usual $\rightarrow$ relations in the rewrite theory corresponding to the big-step SOS. The approach followed in this section based on marking configurations, thus keeping the left-hand and the right-hand-sides always distinct, eliminates all the differences between the two rewrite relations in the case of the one-step reduction (the two relations are identical on the terms of interest). The second equivalence in Theorem 15 tells us that we can turn the rewrite logic representation of the small-step SOS language definition into an interpreter by simply marking the configuration to be completely reduced with a $\star$ and then letting the rewrite engine do its job.

It is worthwhile noting that like in the case of the big-step SOS representation in rewrite logic, unfortunately, $R_{\text{SmallStep}}$ lacks the main strengths of rewrite logic: in rewrite logic, rewrite rules can apply under any context and in parallel. Indeed, the rules of $R_{\text{SmallStep}}$ can only apply at the top, sequentially. This should not surprise because, as stated, $R_{\text{SmallStep}}$ is $\text{SmallStep}$, with all its strengths and limitations. By all means,
both the $R_{\text{SmallSTEP}}$ above and the $R_{\text{BigSTEP}}$ in Section 3.2.3 are rather poor-style rewrite logic specifications. However, that is normal, because neither big-step SOS nor small-step SOS were meant to have the capabilities of rewrite logic w.r.t. context-insensitivity and parallelism; since their representations in rewrite logic are faithful, one should not expect that they inherit the additional capabilities of rewriting logic (if they did, then the representations would not be step-for-step faithful, so something would be wrong).

### Small-Step SOS of IMP in Rewrite Logic

Figure 3.18 gives the rewrite logic theory $R_{\text{SmallSTEP}(\text{IMP})}$ that is obtained by applying the procedure above to the small-step SOS of IMP, namely the formal system SMALLStep(IMP) presented in Figures 3.14 and 3.15. As usual, we used the rewrite logic convention that variables start with upper-case letters, and like in the rewrite theory corresponding to the big-step SOS of IMP in Figure 3.8, we used $\sigma$ (a larger $\sigma$ symbol) for variables of sort $\text{State}$. Besides the parameter vs. variable subtle (but not unexpected) aspect, the only perceivable difference between SMALLStep(IMP) and $R_{\text{SmallSTEP}(\text{IMP})}$ is the different notational conventions they use. The following corollary of Theorem 15 establishes the faithfulness of the representation of the small-step SOS of IMP in rewriting logic:

**Corollary 5.** $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow C' \iff R_{\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP})} \vdash \sigma C \rightarrow \sigma C'$.

Therefore, there is no perceivable computational difference between the IMP-specific proof system SMALLStep(IMP) and generic rewrite logic deduction using the IMP-specific rewrite rules in $R_{\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP})}$; the two are faithfully equivalent.

### ★ Maude Definition of IMP Small-Step SOS

Figure 3.19 shows a straightforward Maude representation of the rewrite theory $R_{\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP})}$ in Figure 3.18, including representations of the algebraic signatures of small-step SOS configurations in Figure 3.13 and of their extensions in Figure 3.17, which are needed to capture small-step SOS in rewrite logic. The Maude module IMP-SEMANTICS-SMALLSTEP in Figure 3.19 is executable, so Maude, through its rewriting capabilities, yields a small-step SOS interpreter for IMP the same way it yielded a big-step SOS interpreter in Section 3.2.3; for example, the command

```
rewrite * < sumPgm > .
```

where sumPgm is the first program defined in the module IMP-PROGRAMS in Figure 3.4, produces a result of the form (the exact statistics are also irrelevant, so they were replaced by “…”):

```
rewrites: 7632 in ... cpu (... real) (... rewrites/second)
result ExtendedConfiguration: * < {},n |-> 0 & s |-> 5050 >
```

Like for the big-step SOS definition in Maude, one can also use any of the general-purpose tools provided by Maude on the small-step SOS definition above. For example, one can exhaustively search for all possible behaviors of a program using the search command:

```
search * < sumPgm > =>! Cfg:ExtendedConfiguration .
```

As expected, only one behavior will be discovered because our IMP language so far is deterministic. However, a relatively large number of states will be explored, 1709, due to the non-deterministic evaluation strategy of the various language constructs:

```
Solution 1 (state 1708)
states: 1709  rewrites: 9232 in ... cpu (... real) (... rewrites/second)
Cfg:ExtendedConfiguration --> * < {},n |-> 0 & s |-> 5050 >
```

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\( o(X, \sigma) \rightarrow (\sigma(X), \sigma) \) if \( \sigma(X) \neq \bot \)

\( o(A_1 + A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_1 + A_2, \sigma') \) if \( o(A_1, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_1, \sigma) \)
\( o(A_1 + A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A_1 + A'_2, \sigma) \) if \( o(A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_2, \sigma) \)
\( o(I_1 + I_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (I_1 +_{\text{se}} I_2, \sigma') \)

\( o(A_1 / A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_1 / A_2, \sigma') \) if \( o(A_1, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_1, \sigma) \)
\( o(A_1 / A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A_1 / A'_2, \sigma') \) if \( o(A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_2, \sigma) \)
\( o(I_1 / I_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (I_1 /_{\text{se}} I_2, \sigma') \) if \( I_2 \neq 0 \)

\( o(A_1 \leq A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_1 \leq A_2, \sigma') \) if \( o(A_1, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_1, \sigma) \)
\( o(I_1 \leq A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (I_1 \leq A'_2, \sigma') \) if \( o(A_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (A'_2, \sigma) \)
\( o(I_1 \leq I_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (I_1 \leq_{\text{se}} I_2, \sigma') \)

\( o(\langle ! B, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle ! B', \sigma' \rangle) \) if \( o(B, \sigma) \rightarrow (B', \sigma) \)
\( o(\langle \text{true}, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{false}, \sigma' \rangle) \)
\( o(\langle \text{false}, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{true}, \sigma' \rangle) \)

\( o(B_1 \& \& B_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (B'_1 \& \& B_2, \sigma) \) if \( o(B_1, \sigma) \rightarrow (B'_1, \sigma) \)
\( o(\text{false} \& \& B_2, \sigma) \rightarrow \langle \text{false}, \sigma' \rangle \)
\( o(\langle \text{true} \& \& B_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle B_2, \sigma' \rangle) \)

\( o(\langle S \rangle, \sigma) \rightarrow (S, \sigma) \)

\( o(X = A; \sigma) \rightarrow (X = A'; \sigma) \) if \( o(A, \sigma) \rightarrow (A', \sigma) \)
\( o(X = I; \sigma) \rightarrow (\langle \rangle, \sigma[I/X]) \) if \( \sigma(X) \neq \bot \)

\( o(S_1 S_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (S'_1 S_2, \sigma') \) if \( o(S_1, \sigma) \rightarrow (S'_1, \sigma') \)
\( o(\langle \rangle S_2, \sigma) \rightarrow (S_2, \sigma) \)

\( o(\langle \text{if} (B) S_1 \text{else} S_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow (\langle \text{if} (B') S_1 \text{else} S_2, \sigma' \rangle) \) if \( o(B, \sigma) \rightarrow (B', \sigma) \)
\( o(\langle \text{if} (\text{true}) S_1 \text{else} S_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow (S_1, \sigma) \)
\( o(\langle \text{if} (\text{false}) S_1 \text{else} S_2, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow (S_2, \sigma) \)

\( o(\langle \text{while} (B) S, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow (\langle \text{if} (B) \{ S \text{ while} (B) S \} \text{else} \langle \rangle, \sigma' \rangle) \)
\( o(\langle \text{int} Xl; S \rangle \rightarrow (S, (Xl \mapsto 0)) \)

Figure 3.18: \( R_{\text{SMALLSTEP}(\text{IMP})} \): the small-step SOS of IMP in rewrite logic.
mod IMP-CONFIGURATIONS-SMALLSTEP is including IMP-SYNTAX + STATE .
sorts Configuration ExtendedConfiguration .
subsort Configuration < ExtendedConfiguration .
op <_,_> : AExp State -> Configuration .
op <_,_> : BExp State -> Configuration .
op <_,_> : Stmt State -> Configuration .
op <_> : Pgm -> Configuration .
op o_ : Configuration -> ExtendedConfiguration [prec 80] . --- one step
op *_ : Configuration -> ExtendedConfiguration [prec 80] . --- all steps
var Cfg Cfg' : Configuration .
crl * Cfg => * Cfg' if o Cfg => Cfg' .
endm

mod IMP-SEMANTICS-SMALLSTEP is including IMP-CONFIGURATIONS-SMALLSTEP .
var X : Id . var Sigma Sigma' : State . var I I1 I2 : Int . var Xl : List{Id} .
var A A' A1 A2 A2' : AExp . var B B' B1 B1' B2 : BExp . var S S' S1 S1' S2 : Stmt .
crl o < X,Sigma > => < Sigma(X),Sigma > if Sigma(X) =/=Bool undefined .
crl o < A1 + A2,Sigma > => < A1' + A2,Sigma > if o < A1,Sigma > => < A1',Sigma > .
crl o < A1 + A2,Sigma > => < A1 + A2',Sigma > if o < A2,Sigma > => < A2',Sigma > .
rl o < I1 + I2,Sigma > => < I1 +Int I2,Sigma > .
crl o < A1 / A2,Sigma > => < A1' / A2,Sigma > if o < A1,Sigma > => < A1',Sigma > .
crl o < A1 / A2,Sigma > => < A1 / A2',Sigma > if o < A2,Sigma > => < A2',Sigma > .
rl o < I1 / I2,Sigma > => < I1 /Int I2,Sigma > if I2 =/=Bool 0 .
crl o < I1 <= I2,Sigma > => < I1 <=Int I2,Sigma > if I2 =/=Bool 0 .
crl o < ! B,Sigma > => < ! B',Sigma > if o < B,Sigma > => < B',Sigma > .
rl o < ! true,Sigma > => < false,Sigma > .
rl o < ! false,Sigma > => < true,Sigma > .
crl o < B1 && B2,Sigma > => < B1' && B2,Sigma > if o < B1,Sigma > => < B1',Sigma > .
rl o < false && B2,Sigma > => < false,Sigma > .
rl o < true && B2,Sigma > => < B2,Sigma > .
rl o < {S},Sigma > => < S,Sigma > .
crl o < X = A ;,Sigma > => < X = A',Sigma > if o < A,Sigma > => < A',Sigma > .
crl o < X = I ;,Sigma > => < {},Sigma[I / X] > if Sigma(X) =/=Bool undefined .
crl o < S1 S2,Sigma > => < S1' S2,Sigma' > if o < S1,Sigma > => < S1',Sigma' > .
rl o < {} S2,Sigma > => < S2,Sigma > .
crl o < if (B) S1 else S2,Sigma > => < if (B') S1 else S2,Sigma > if o < B,Sigma > => < B',Sigma > .
rl o < if (true) S1 else S2,Sigma > => < S1,Sigma > .
rl o < if (false) S1 else S2,Sigma > => < S2,Sigma > .
rl o < while (B) S,Sigma > => < if (B) {S while (B) S} else {},Sigma > .
endm
c@Fa

Figure 3.19: The small-step SOS of IMP in Maude, including the definition of configurations.
3.3.4 Notes

Small-step structural operational semantics was introduced as just structural operational semantics (SOS; no “small-step” qualifier at that time) by Plotkin in a 1981 technical report (University of Aarhus Technical Report DAIMI FN-19, 1981) that included his lecture notes of a programming language course [60]. For more than 20 years this technical report was cited as the main SOS reference by hundreds of scientists who were looking for mathematical rigor in their programming language research. It was only in 2004 that Plotkin’s SOS was finally published in a journal [61].

Small-step SOS is pedagogically discussed in several textbooks, two early notable ones being Hennessy [32] (1990) and Winskel [87] (1993). Hennessy [32] uses the same notation as Plotkin, but Winskel [87] prefers a different one to make it clear that it is a one step semantics: \( \langle s, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow_1 \langle s', \sigma' \rangle \). Like for big-step SOS, there is no well-established notation for small-step SOS sequents. There is a plethora of research projects and papers that explicitly or implicitly take SOS as the formal language semantics framework. Also, SOS served as a source of inspiration, or of problems to be fixed, to other semantic framework designers, including the author. There is simply too much work on SOS, using it, or modifying it, to attempt to cover it here. We limit ourselves to directly related research focused on capturing SOS as a methodological fragment of rewrite logic.

The marked configuration style that we adopted in this section to faithfully represent small-step SOS in rewrite logic was borrowed from Šerbǎnutǎ et al. [74]; there, the configuration marker “\( \circ \)” was called a “configuration modifier”. An alternative way to keep the left-hand and the right-hand-side configurations distinct was proposed by Meseguer and Braga in [44, 14] in the context of representing MSOS into rewrite logic (see Section 3.6); the idea there was to use two different types of configuration wrappers, one for the left-hand-side of the transitions and one for the right-hand-side, yielding rewrite logic rules of the form:

\[
(\forall X) \ [C_0] \rightarrow [C_1] \text{ if } [C_1] \land [C_2] \rightarrow [C_2] \land \cdots \land [C_n] \rightarrow [C_n] [\land \text{ condition}].
\]

The solution proposed by Meseguer and Braga in [44, 14] builds upon experience with a previous representation of MSOS in rewrite logic in [15] as well as with an implementation of it in Maude [13, 16], where the necessity of being able to inhibit the default reflexivity and transitivity of the rewrite relation took shape. We preferred to follow the configuration modifier approach proposed by Šerbǎnutǎ et al. [74] because it appears to be slightly less intrusive (we only tag the already existing left-hand terms of rules) and more general (the left-hands of rules can have any structure, not only configurations, including no structure at all, as it happens in most of the rules of reduction semantics with evaluation contexts—see Section 3.7, e.g., Figure 3.40).

Vardejo and Martí-Oliet [84] give a Maude implementation of a small-step SOS definition for a simple imperative language similar to our IMP (Hennessy’s WhileL language [32]), in which they do not attempt to prevent the inherent transitivity of rewriting. While they indeed obtain an executable semantics that is reminiscent of the original small-step SOS of the language, they actually define directly the transitive closure of the small-step SOS relation; they explicitly disable the reflexive closure by checking \( C \neq C' \) next to rewrites \( C \rightarrow C' \) in rule conditions. A small-step SOS of a simple functional language (Hennessy’s Fpl language [32]) is also given in [84], following a slightly different style, which avoids the problem above. They successfully inhibit rewriting’s inherent transitivity in their definition by using a rather creative rewriting representation style for sequents. More precisely, they work with sequents which appear to the user as having the form \( \sigma + a \rightarrow a' \), where \( \sigma \) is a state and \( a, a' \) are arithmetic expressions, etc., but they actually are rewrite relations between terms \( \sigma + a \) and \( a' \) (an appropriate signature to allow that to parse is defined). Indeed, there is no problem with the automatic reflexive/transitive closure of rewriting here because the LHS and the RHS of each rewrite rule have different structures. The simple functional language in [84] was pure (no side effects), so there was no need to include a resulting state in the RHS of their rules; if the language had...
side effects, then this Vardejo and Martí-Oliet’s representation of small-step SOS sequents in [84] would effectively be the same as the one by Meseguer and Braga in [44, 14] (but using a different notation).

### 3.3.5 Exercises

Prove the following exercises, all referring to the IMP small-step SOS in Figures 3.14 and 3.15.

**Exercise 59.** Change the small-step rules for / so that it short-circuits when \( a_1 \) evaluates to 0.

**Exercise 60.** Change the small-step SOS of the IMP conjunction so that it is not short-circuited.

**Exercise 61.** Change the small-step SOS of blocks so that the block is kept but its inner statement is advanced one step.

**Exercise 62.** One can rightfully argue that the arithmetic expression in an assignment should not be reduced any step when the assigned variable is not declared. Change the small-step SOS of IMP to only reduce the arithmetic expression when the assigned variable is declared.

**Exercise 63.** A sophisticated language designer could argue that the reduction of the assignment statement to emptyBlockIMP is an artifact of using small-step SOS, therefore an artificial and undesired step which affects the intended computational granularity of the language. Change the small-step SOS of IMP to eliminate this additional small-step. 

*Hint:* Follow the style in Exercise 68; note, however, that that style will require more rules and more types of configurations, so from that point of view is more complex.

**Exercise 64.** Give a proof system for deriving “terminated configuration” sequents \( C \sqrt{\cdot} \).

**Exercise 65.** One could argue that our small-step SOS rules for the conditional waste a computational step when switching to one of the two branches once the condition is evaluated.

1. Give an alternative small-step SOS for the conditional which does not require a computational step to switch to one of the two branches.

2. Can one do better than that? That is, can one save an additional step by reducing the corresponding branch one step at the same time with reducing the condition to true or false in one step? *Hint:* one may need terminated configurations, like in Exercise 64.

**Exercise 66.** Give an alternative small-step SOS definition of while loops which wastes no computational step. *Hint:* do a case analysis on \( b \), like in the rules for the conditional.

**Exercise 67.** Give an alternative small-step SOS definition of variable declarations which wastes no computational steps. *Hint:* one may need terminated configurations, like in Exercise 64.

**Exercise 68.** Modify the small-step SOS definition of IMP such that the configurations in the right-hand-sides of the transition sequents are minimal (they should contain both a fragment of program and a state only when absolutely needed). What are the drawbacks of this minimalistic approach, compared to the small-step SOS semantics that we chose to follow?

**Exercise 69.** Show that the small-step SOS resulting from Exercise 68 is equivalent to the one in Figure 3.14 on arithmetic and Boolean expressions, that is, \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a', \sigma \rangle \) is derivable with the proof system in Figure 3.14 if and only if \( \langle a, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle a' \rangle \) is derivable with the proof system in Exercise 68, and similarly for Boolean expressions. However, show that the equivalence does not hold true for statements.
Exercise 70. To handle division-by-zero, add “error” values and statements, and modify the small-step SOS in Figures 3.14 and 3.15 to allow derivations of sequents whose right-hand-side configurations contain “error” as their syntactic component. See also Exercise 56 (same problem but for big-step SOS).

Exercise 71. For any IMP statements $s_1, s'_1, s_2, s_3$ and any states $\sigma, \sigma'$, the following hold:

1. $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash (\{\} s_2) s_3 \rightarrow (s_2 s_3, \sigma)$ and $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash (\{\} s_2 s_3) \rightarrow (s_2 s_3, \sigma)$; and
2. $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash (s_1 (s_2 s_3), \sigma) \rightarrow (s'_1 (s_2 s_3), \sigma')$.

Consequently, the following also hold (prove them by structural induction on $s_1$):

$\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash (s_1 s_2) s_3 \rightarrow^{*} (s_2 s_3, \sigma)$ if and only if $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash (s_1 (s_2 s_3), \sigma) \rightarrow^{*} (s'_1 (s_2 s_3), \sigma')$.

Exercise 72. With the $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP})$ proof system in Figures 3.14, 3.15, and 3.16, configuration $C$ terminates if $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^{*} R$ for some irreducible configuration $R$.

Exercise 73. The small-step SOS of IMP is globally deterministic: if $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^{*} R$ and $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^{*} R'$ for irreducible configurations $R$ and $R'$, then $R = R'$. Show the same result for the proof system detecting division-by-zero as in Exercise 70.

Exercise 74. Show that if $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^{*} (i, \sigma)$ for some configuration $C$, integer $i$, and state $\sigma$, then $C$ must be of the form $(a, \sigma)$ for some arithmetic expression $a$. Show a similar result for Boolean expressions. For statements, show that if $\text{SmallStep}(\text{IMP}) \vdash C \rightarrow^{*} (\{\}, \sigma)$ then $C$ must be either of the form $(s, \sigma')$ for some statement $s$ and some state $\sigma'$, or of the form $(p)$ for some program $p$.

Exercise 75. Prove Theorem 14.

Exercise 76. State and show a result similar to Theorem 14 but for the small-step and big-step SOS proof systems in Exercises 70 and 56, respectively.
Bibliography


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