

THE CONCURRENCY COLUMN

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This installment of the concurrency column is devoted to a piece by Dale Miller on the connections between three logic formalisms and three approaches to specifying operational semantics. In the paper, Dale offers also a thoughtful discussion of the advantages that the establishment of these links has for operational semantics. Even though several of the examples presented in the article deal with concurrency, I trust that this column will be of interest also to readers of others columns in the Bulletin, such as the “logic in computer science” and the “programming languages” ones.

The article is partly based upon the content of an invited lecture that Dale Miller delivered at SOS 2008, one of the events that were affiliated with ICALP 2008.

A report on ICALP 2008 is available in this issue of the Bulletin. On behalf of my fellow organizers, Magnús M. Halldórsson and Anna Ingólfssdóttir, I thank all the members of the TCS community that made the trip to Reykjavík for the conference. Seeing so many people enjoy the conference was the best possible recognition for the effort we put into organizing the event.

FORMALIZING OPERATIONAL SEMANTIC SPECIFICATIONS IN LOGIC

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Abstract

We review links between three logic formalisms and three approaches to specifying operational semantics. In particular, we show that specifications written with (small-step and big-step) SOS, abstract machines, and multiset rewriting, are closely related to Horn clauses, binary clauses, and (a subset of) linear logic, respectively. We shall illustrate how binary clauses form a bridge between the other two logical formalisms. For example, using a continuation-passing style transformation, Horn clauses can be transformed into binary clauses. Furthermore, binary clauses can be seen as a degenerative form of multiset rewriting: placing binary clauses within linear logic allows for rich forms of multiset rewriting which, in turn, provides a modular, big-step SOS specifications of imperative and concurrency primitives. Establishing these links between logic and operational semantics has many advantages for operational semantics: tools from automated deduction can be used to animate semantic specifications; solutions to the treatment of binding structures in logic can be used to provide solutions to binding in the syntax of programs; and the declarative nature of logical specifications provides broad avenues for reasoning about semantic specifications.

1 Introduction

There are a number of formalisms that have been used to specify what and how programming languages compute. If one wishes to build on top of such formalisms such things as *concepts* (e.g., observational equivalence and static analysis) and *tools* (e.g., interpreters, model checkers, and theorem provers), then the quality of such encodings is particularly important. In this paper, we shall use

logic formulas to directly encode operational semantics instead of other formal devices such as domains, algebras, games, and Petri nets. We use proof theory to provide logical specifications with a dynamics that is able to capture a range of operational specifications and we argue that the resulting logic theories should provide practitioners with specifications that can support the development of a range of concepts and tools. We will focus on three logical formalisms that have been used to describe operational semantics and illustrate their use via examples.

1.1 Various roles for logic in computation

Logic is, of course, used in multiple, rich, and deep ways to specify and to reason about computation. In order to clarify our focus in this paper, we provide a brief overview of the various roles logic has in computation.

One approach to the specification of computations is to encode them using mathematical structures, such as nodes, transitions, and vectors of state values. Logic can then be used to make statements *about* those structures and their dynamics: that is, computations are used as models for logical expressions. Computation can simply be seen as transformations on vectors of state values [17] or as “abstract state machines” [11]. Intensional operators, such as the modals of temporal and dynamic logics or the triples of Hoare logic, are often employed to express propositions about the change in state. This use of logic to represent and reason about computation, sometimes called the *computation-as-model* approach, is probably the oldest and most broadly successful use of logic in computer science.

Another approach to specification uses pieces of the syntax of logic—formulas, terms, types, and proofs—directly as elements of computation. In this more rarefied setting of *computation-as-deduction*, there are two rather different approaches to modeling computation. In the *proof normalization* approach to *functional programming*, a proof term encodes the state of a computation and computation is the process of normalization (known variously as λ -reduction or cut-elimination). The so-called Curry-Howard correspondence provides the basis for justifying this correspondence between operations on proofs and computations in programs.

In this paper, we focus on another approach to *computation-as-deduction*, namely the *proof search* approach to *logic programming*. In this approach to specification, relations (in contrast to functions) are specified and the language of sequent calculus is used to describe the dynamics of computation: the state of a computation corresponds to a sequent (a collection of relations, such as “reference r has value v ” and “ E evaluates to U ”) and computation is the process of searching for a cut-free proof of that sequent. In the process of attempting to build such a proof, sequents change and such change encodes the dynamics of computation.

In this paper, when we say “logic specification” we could also have said “logic program” or “theory”. Also, when we speak of “programming languages” we shall also allow include specification languages such as the λ -calculus and the π -calculus.

1.2 Denotational semantics vs Operational semantics

It is conceptually useful to view the difference between functional programming and logic programming as the difference between proof-normalization and proof-search. This same difference can also be applied to semantic specifications. In particular, denotational semantic specifications strongly resembles (pure) functional programs: the modern reader of, say, the early texts by Stoy [34] and Gordon [9] on denotational semantic will get a strong sense that the more involved denotational semantic specifications can be seen as Haskell or Scheme programs. We hope to convince the reader by the end of this article that many operational semantic specifications can be seen as logic programs and, furthermore, that there are significant advantages in viewing them that way.

A reason for the early successes of the denotational semantic approach to specification was its use of well developed mathematical theories as a formal framework [10]. As we shall illustrate below, proof theory has developed significantly to provide a similarly mature and flexible framework for operational semantics [20].

1.3 Different operational semantics and associated logics

In this paper we shall illustrate how three kinds of semantic specifications can be encoded into three different but closely related logical formalisms. The connection between these operational semantic specifications and logic is not new: most of these observations were made during the decade 1985–1995. These three kinds of semantic specifications are briefly described below.

Structural operational semantics was first used by Milner [26] to describe CCS and by Plotkin [31, 32] to describe a wide range of programming language features. This style of specification, now commonly referred to as *small-step SOS*, allows for a natural treatment of concurrency via interleaving. *Big-step SOS*, introduced by Kahn [14], is convenient for specifying, say, functional programming but more awkward for specifying concurrency. Both of these forms of operational semantics define relations using inductive systems described by inference rules: Horn clauses provide a declarative setting for encoding such rules.

Abstract machines and other forms of term rewriting can be encoded naturally as *binary clauses*, which are the universal closure of formulas of the form “atom

implies atom.” These degenerate Horn clauses are tail recursive and naturally specify iterative algorithms and abstract machines, such as the SECD machine (see Figure 5) [16]. Arbitrary Horn clause programs can also be transformed into binary clauses using a continuation-passing style transformation. As such, binary clauses can be seen as capturing a thread of computation that contains a sequence of “instructions.” While binary clauses represent a retreat from logic in the sense that they employ fewer logical constants (such as conjunction) than general Horn clauses, they do provide two things in exchange: (1) a way to explicitly order much of proof search (i.e., computation) and (2) a basis for an extension to linear logic in which concurrency and imperative features can be naturally captured in a big-step-style semantic specification.

Multiset rewriting is a well known way to specify concurrency-related features of a programming language. Multisets and their rewriting are closely related to Petri nets [15] and have been used by a number of researcher to directly specify computation: see, for example, the Gamma programming language [3], the chemical abstract machine [4], and MSR [5]. Sequents in linear logic contain multisets and it is easy for proof search to encode multiset rewriting. We will illustrate how generalizing binary clauses to include linear logic connectives allows for the natural specification of a number of concurrent and imperative programming language features.

2 Specifications as terms and formulas in a logic

In this section, we describe a general approach to encoding an operational semantic specification into logic: in subsequent sections, we focus on three specific logics separately.

2.1 Abstract syntax as terms

In order to encode a programming language, we first map syntactic expressions used in the specification of programming languages into logic-level terms. Since almost all interesting programming languages contain binding constructions, we choose a logic whose terms also contain bindings. Because we are only attempting to capture the syntax of the objects used to describe computation, we shall assume that the logic has sufficient typing to directly encode *syntactic types*. We shall use the following two natural principles to guide such an encoding.

Constructors of the language are mapped to term constructors and the latter are typed by the syntactic categories of the objects that are used in the construction. As is common, the term constructor is modeled as an *application* of the constructor to arguments. Similarly, binders in the programming language domain are

mapped to *abstractions* of variables over the encoding of their scope. That is, just as the usual notions of abstract syntax involve the application of constructions in a term, we shall also use abstractions to encode binding. Church [7] used similar techniques when he encoded various mathematical concepts into his Simple Theory of Types. This use of applications and abstractions in syntactic encodings is the starting point for the *λ -tree syntax* approach to abstract syntax [23]. We illustrate more aspects of this style of encoding with two examples that we shall return to again later.

2.2 Encoding the untyped lambda-calculus

The untyped λ -calculus has one syntactic type, say tm , and two constructors for application and abstraction. If we use the constructor app for building applications then its typing is given as $app : tm \rightarrow tm \rightarrow tm$: that is, app takes two untyped λ -terms and returns their applications (all this uses two instances of the logic-level application). If we use abs as the constructor for building an untyped λ -abstraction, then its type is $abs : (tm \rightarrow tm) \rightarrow tm$. Notice that abs is applied to a logic-level abstraction: the argument type $tm \rightarrow tm$ acts as the syntactic type of term abstractions over terms. With this style encoding, the familiar S and K combinators are encoded as the terms $(abs \lambda x abs \lambda y abs \lambda z (app (app x z) (app y z)))$ and $(abs \lambda x abs \lambda y x)$, respectively.

2.3 Encoding the pi-calculus

Processes in the finite π -calculus are describe by the grammar

$$P ::= 0 \mid \bar{x}y.P \mid x(y).P \mid \tau.P \mid (x)P \mid [x = y]P \mid P|P \mid P + P.$$

Treating replications or recursion is straightforward here as well: we choose to leave them out to make this example more compact. We use the symbols P and Q to denote processes and lower case letters, *e.g.*, x, y, z to denote names. The occurrence of y in the process $x(y).P$ and $(y)P$ is a binding occurrence, with P as its scope. The notion of free and bound variables is the usual one and we consider processes to be syntactically equal if they are equal up to α -conversion.

Three primitive syntactic categories are used to encode the π -calculus into λ -tree syntax: n for names, p for processes, and a for actions.

There are three constructors for actions: $\tau : a$ (for the silent action) and the two constants \downarrow and \uparrow , both of type $n \rightarrow n \rightarrow a$ (for building input and output actions, respectively). The free output action $\bar{x}y$, is encoded as $\uparrow xy$ while the bound output action $\bar{x}(y)$ is encoded as $\lambda y (\uparrow xy)$ (or the η -equivalent term $\uparrow x$). The free input action xy , is encoded as $\downarrow xy$ while the bound input action $x(y)$ is

encoded as $\lambda y (\downarrow xy)$ (or simply $\downarrow x$). Notice that bound input and bound output actions have type $n \rightarrow a$ instead of a .

The following are process constructors, where $+$ and $|$ are written as infix:

$$\begin{array}{l} 0 : p \quad \tau : p \rightarrow p \quad out : n \rightarrow n \rightarrow p \rightarrow p \quad in : n \rightarrow (n \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p \\ + : p \rightarrow p \rightarrow p \quad | : p \rightarrow p \rightarrow p \quad match : n \rightarrow n \rightarrow p \rightarrow p \quad \nu : (n \rightarrow p) \rightarrow p \end{array}$$

Notice that τ is overloaded by being used as a constructor of actions and of processes. The precise translation of π -calculus syntax into simply typed λ -terms is given using the following function $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ that translates process expressions to $\beta\eta$ -long normal terms of type p .

$$\begin{array}{llll} \llbracket 0 \rrbracket = 0 & \llbracket P + Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket + \llbracket Q \rrbracket & \llbracket P|Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket | \llbracket Q \rrbracket & \llbracket \tau.P \rrbracket = \tau \llbracket P \rrbracket \\ \llbracket [x = y].P \rrbracket = [x = y]\llbracket P \rrbracket & & \llbracket [\bar{x}y].P \rrbracket = out\ x\ y\ \llbracket P \rrbracket & \\ \llbracket [x(y).P] \rrbracket = in\ x\ \lambda y.\llbracket P \rrbracket & & \llbracket [(x)P] \rrbracket = \nu\lambda x.\llbracket P \rrbracket & \end{array}$$

The expression $\nu\lambda x.P$ is abbreviated as $\nu x.P$.

2.4 Inference rules versus formula encodings

Structural operational semantics are relational specifications and relations correspond naturally to predicates in logic. For example, the judgment “ M has value V ” can be encoded as the atomic formula $M \Downarrow V$ using the binary relation \Downarrow . Finally, the familiar SOS inference rule

$$\frac{A_1 \quad \dots \quad A_n}{A_0} \quad (n \geq 0)$$

can be translated to the Horn clause

$$\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_m [A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n \supset A_0].$$

(If $n = 0$ then the empty conjunction above can be written as the true logical connective.) Of course, we assume that x_1, \dots, x_m are the schema variables in the inference rule. The formulas A_0, \dots, A_n are universally quantified atomic formulas (usually, the list of such universal quantifiers is empty). A Horn clause is *binary* if its body contains exactly one atom: that is, in the displayed formula above, $n = 1$.

The correctness of this encoding is easy to establish. Let A be an atomic formula, \mathcal{I} a set of inference rules, and \mathcal{H} the set of Horn clauses that encodes the rules in \mathcal{I} . Then A is a consequence of \mathcal{I} if and only if $\mathcal{H} \vdash A$ (where \vdash denotes provability in either classical or intuitionistic logic). More precisely, the trees that witness the inductive inference of A from \mathcal{I} are in one-to-one correspondence with *uniform proofs* [24] of the sequent $\mathcal{H} \longrightarrow A$.

There are two general things to state about this connection between SOS as inference rules and as a Horn clause theory. First, there are various “non-standard” ways to interpret inference rules: consider, for example, the description of evaluation in that part of Standard ML [29] that involves side-conditions and exceptions. One would not expect that our simple translation of inference rules into logic could directly support the order of evaluation via the left-to-right ordering of premises: in particular, conjunction is used to accumulate premises and conjunction is commutative. Second, logic is a richly developed topic and many other aspects of computational systems, such as type checking and source-to-source transformations can be written in a similar logic programming style but in possibly richer logics. Using logic to encode operational semantics as well as other aspects of computing should make it natural to connect these different fields via theorems such as type-preservation and the correctness of compilation.

2.5 Schema and bound variables

Another advantage with using logic directly to encode operational semantics is that logic provides rather sophisticated treatments of the notions of schema variables, quantified variables, term-level bound variables, and substitution for variables. By making direct use of logic, one can adopt directly those solutions found within logic. As we shall see when we present the operational semantics for the π -calculus, a simple use of λ -bindings linked with occurrences of universal quantifiers in premises allows us to provide a specification of one-step label transitions for the π -calculus that contains no side-conditions. All the subtleties concerned with avoiding name conflicts, *etc.*, are already treated by logic.

3 Horn clauses

We illustrate the use of Horn clauses in the specification of operational semantics by presenting examples using the λ -calculus and the π -calculus.

3.1 Call-by-value evaluation

Figure 1 contains a big-step semantic specification of call-by-value evaluation for the λ -calculus. Figure 2 contains the corresponding Horn clause encoding of the inference rules in Figure 1. The (infix) predicate symbol \Downarrow is a type $tm \rightarrow tm \rightarrow o$ and the variable R is of higher-order syntactic type $tm \rightarrow tm$. The encoding of the atomic evaluation judgment $R[U/x] \Downarrow V$ in Figure 1 is simply $(R U) \Downarrow V$ in Figure 2: that is, the logic expression simply forms the expression $(R U)$ and once

$$\frac{}{\lambda x.R \Downarrow \lambda x.R} \quad \frac{M \Downarrow (\lambda x.R) \quad N \Downarrow U \quad R[U/x] \Downarrow V}{(M N) \Downarrow V}$$

Figure 1: Big-step specification of the call-by-value evaluation of the untyped λ -calculus.

$$\forall R [(abs R) \Downarrow (abs R)] \\ \forall M, N, U, V, R [M \Downarrow (abs R) \wedge N \Downarrow U \wedge (R U) \Downarrow V \supset (app M N) \Downarrow V]$$

Figure 2: Horn clause encoding of call-by-value evaluation. Here, all quantified variables are at syntactic type tm except for R , which is at syntactic type $tm \rightarrow tm$.

R is instantiated with a λ -abstraction, the logic's built-in treatment of β -reduction performs the necessary substitution.

3.2 Specifying the pi-calculus

The relation of one-step (late) transition [28] for the π -calculus is denoted by $P \xrightarrow{\alpha} Q$, where P and Q are processes and α is an action. The kinds of actions are the *silent action* τ , the *free input action* xy , the *free output action* $\bar{x}y$, the *bound input action* $x(y)$, and the *bound output action* $\bar{x}(y)$. The name y in $x(y)$ and $\bar{x}(y)$ is a binding occurrence. An action without binding occurrences of names is a *free action*; otherwise it is a *bound action*. Notice also that we have allowed universal quantifiers to appear in the body of the Horn clauses: these quantifiers are natural complements of allowing λ -binders within terms.

The one-step transition relation is represented using two predicates: $\cdot \xrightarrow{\cdot} \cdot$ is of type $p \rightarrow a \rightarrow p \rightarrow o$ and encodes transitions involving the silent and free actions and $\cdot \xrightarrow{\cdot} \cdot$ is of type $p \rightarrow (n \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (n \rightarrow p) \rightarrow o$ and encodes transitions involving bound values. One-step transition judgments are translated to atomic formulas as follows (we overload the symbol $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ from Section 2.3).

$$\begin{array}{ll} \llbracket P \xrightarrow{xy} Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\downarrow xy} \llbracket Q \rrbracket & \llbracket P \xrightarrow{x(y)} Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\downarrow x} \lambda y. \llbracket Q \rrbracket \\ \llbracket P \xrightarrow{\bar{x}y} Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\uparrow xy} \llbracket Q \rrbracket & \llbracket P \xrightarrow{\bar{x}(y)} Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\uparrow x} \lambda y. \llbracket Q \rrbracket \\ \llbracket P \xrightarrow{\tau} Q \rrbracket = \llbracket P \rrbracket \xrightarrow{\tau} \llbracket Q \rrbracket & \end{array}$$

Figure 3 contains a set of Horn clauses, called \mathbf{D}_π , that encodes the operational semantics of the late transition system for the finite π -calculus. In this specification, free variables are schema variables that are assumed to be universally quantified over the Horn clause in which they appear. These schema variables have

TAU:	\top	\supset	$\tau P \xrightarrow{\tau} P$
IN:	\top	\supset	$in X M \xrightarrow{\downarrow X} M$
OUT:	\top	\supset	$out x y P \xrightarrow{\uparrow xy} P$
MATCH:	$P \xrightarrow{A} Q$	\supset	$[x = x]P \xrightarrow{A} Q$
	$P \xrightarrow{A} Q$	\supset	$[x = x]P \xrightarrow{A} Q$
SUM:	$P \xrightarrow{A} R \vee Q \xrightarrow{A} R$	\supset	$P + Q \xrightarrow{A} R$
	$P \xrightarrow{A} R \vee Q \xrightarrow{A} R$	\supset	$P + Q \xrightarrow{A} R$
PAR:	$P \xrightarrow{A} P'$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{A} P' Q$
	$Q \xrightarrow{A} Q'$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{A} P Q'$
	$P \xrightarrow{A} M$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{A} \lambda n(M n Q)$
	$Q \xrightarrow{A} N.$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{A} \lambda n(P N n)$
RES:	$\forall n(P n \xrightarrow{A} Q n)$	\supset	$vn.P n \xrightarrow{A} vn.Q n$
	$\forall n(P n \xrightarrow{A} P' n)$	\supset	$vn.P n \xrightarrow{A} \lambda m vn.P' n m$
OPEN:	$\forall y(M y \xrightarrow{\uparrow xy} M' y)$	\supset	$\nu y.M y \xrightarrow{\uparrow X} M'$
CLOSE:	$P \xrightarrow{\downarrow X} M \wedge Q \xrightarrow{\uparrow X} N$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{\tau} \nu y.(M y N y)$
	$P \xrightarrow{\uparrow X} M \wedge Q \xrightarrow{\downarrow X} N$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{\tau} \nu y.(M y N y)$
COM:	$P \xrightarrow{\downarrow X} M \wedge Q \xrightarrow{\uparrow XY} Q'$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{\tau} M Y Q'$
	$P \xrightarrow{\uparrow XY} P' \wedge Q \xrightarrow{\downarrow X} N$	\supset	$P Q \xrightarrow{\tau} P' N Y$

Figure 3: The late transition system of the π -calculus as Horn clauses.

primitive types such as a , n , and p as well as functional types such as $n \rightarrow a$ and $n \rightarrow p$.

Notice that, as a consequence of using λ -tree syntax for this specification, the usual side conditions in the original specifications of the π -calculus [28] are no longer present. For example, the side condition that $X \neq y$ in the open rule is implicit, since X is outside the scope of y and therefore cannot be instantiated with y (substitutions into logical expressions cannot capture bound variable names). The adequacy of our encoding is stated in the following proposition (the proof of this proposition can be found in [36]).

Proposition. Let P and Q be processes and α an action. Let \bar{n} be a list of free names containing the free names in P , Q , and α . The transition $P \xrightarrow{\alpha} Q$ is derivable in the π -calculus if and only if $\forall \bar{n}. [P \xrightarrow{\alpha} Q]$ is provable from the logical theory \mathbf{D}_π .

The clauses in Figure 3 come from [25] except that the ∇ -quantifier used in that other paper is replaced here by the \forall -quantifier: as is argued in [25], as long as “positive” properties (such as reachability) are computed, the ∇ -quantifier can be confused with the \forall quantifier in the body of Horn clauses.

4 Binary clauses

The reduced class of Horn clause, called binary clauses, can play an important role in modeling computation. As we argue below, they can be used to explicitly order computations whose order is left unspecified in Horn clauses: such an explicit ordering is important if one wishes to use the framework of big-step semantics to capture side-effects and concurrency. They can also be used to capture the notion of abstract machines, a common device for specifying operational semantics.

4.1 Continuation passing in logic programming

Continuation-passing style specifications are possible in logic programming using quantification over the type of formulas [35]. In fact, it is possible to “cps transform” arbitrary Horn clauses into binary clauses as follow. First, for every predicate p of type $\tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow o$ ($n \geq 0$), we provide a second predicate \hat{p} of type $\tau_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \tau_n \rightarrow o \rightarrow o$: that is, an additional argument of type o (the type of formulas) is added to predicate p . Thus, the atomic formula A of the form $(p \ t_1 \ \dots \ t_n)$ is similarly transformed to the formula $\hat{A} = (\hat{p} \ t_1 \ \dots \ t_n)$ of type $o \rightarrow o$. Using these conventions, the cps transformation of the formula

$$\forall z_1 \dots \forall z_m [(A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n) \supset A_0] \quad (m \geq 0, n > 0)$$

is the binary clause

$$\forall z_1 \dots \forall z_m \forall k [(\hat{A}_1 (\hat{A}_2 (\dots (\hat{A}_n k) \dots))) \supset (\hat{A}_0 k)].$$

Similarly, the cps transformation of the formula

$$\forall z_1 \dots \forall z_m [A_0] \quad \text{is} \quad \forall z_1 \dots \forall z_m \forall k [k \supset (\hat{A}_0 k)].$$

If \mathcal{P} is a finite set of Horn clauses and $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$ is the result of applying this cps transformation to all clauses in \mathcal{P} , then $\mathcal{P} \vdash A$ if and only if $\hat{\mathcal{P}} \vdash (\hat{A} \top)$.

Consider again the presentation of call-by-value evaluation given by the Figure 2. In order to add side-effecting features, this specification must be made more explicit: in particular, the exact order in which M , N , and $(R \ U)$ are evaluated must be specified. The cps transformation of that specification is given in Figure 4:

$$\begin{aligned} ((M \Downarrow (\text{abs } R)) ; (N \Downarrow U) ; ((R U) \Downarrow V) ; K) \supset ((\text{app } M N) \Downarrow V) ; K \\ (((\text{abs } R) \Downarrow (\text{abs } R)) ; K) \supset K. \end{aligned}$$

Figure 4: Binary version of call-by-value evaluation.

there, evaluation is denoted by a ternary predicate of type $tm \rightarrow tm \rightarrow o \rightarrow o$ which is written using both the \Downarrow arrow and a semicolon: *e.g.*, the relation “ M evaluates to V with the continuation K ” is denoted by $(M \Downarrow V) ; K$.

In this specification, goals are now sequenced in the sense that bottom-up proof search is forced to construct a proof of one evaluation pair before others such pairs. Of course, in this setting, any ordering works, so it is possible to prove the following: the goal $((M \Downarrow V) ; \top)$ is provable if and only if V is the call-by-value result of M . The order in which evaluation is executed is now forced not by the use of logical connectives but by the use of the non-logical constant $(\cdot \Downarrow \cdot) ; \cdot$.

4.2 Abstract Machines

Abstract machines, which are often used to specify operational semantics, can be encoded naturally using binary clauses. To see this, consider the following definition of *Abstract Evaluation System* (AES) which generalizes the notion of abstract machines [12].

Recall that a term rewriting system is a pair (Σ, R) such that Σ is a signature and R is a set of directed equations $\{l_i \Rightarrow r_i\}_{i \in I}$ with $l_i, r_i \in T_\Sigma(X)$ and $\mathcal{V}(r_i) \subseteq \mathcal{V}(l_i)$. Here, $T_\Sigma(X)$ denotes the set of first-order terms with constants from the signature Σ and free variables from X , and $\mathcal{V}(t)$ denotes the set of free variables occurring in t . An *abstract evaluation system* is a quadruple (Σ, R, ρ, S) such that the pair $(\Sigma, R \cup \{\rho\})$ is a term rewriting system, ρ is not a member of R , and $S \subseteq R$.

Evaluation in an AES is a sequence of rewriting steps with the following restricted structure. The first rewrite rule must be an instance of the ρ rule. This rule can be understood as “loading” the machine to an initial state given an input expression. The last rewrite step must be an instance of a rule in S : these rules denote the successful termination of the machine and can be understood as “unloading” the machine and producing the answer or final value. All other rewrite rules are from R . We also make the following significant restriction to the general notion of term rewriting: all rewriting rules must be applied to a term at its root. This restriction significantly simplifies the computational complexity of applying rewrite rules during evaluation in an AES. A term $t \in T_\Sigma(\emptyset)$ *evaluates* to the term s (with respect to the AES (Σ, R, ρ, S)) if there is a series of rewriting rules satisfying the restrictions above that rewrites t into s .

The SECD machine [16] and Krivine machine [8] are both AESs and vari-

M	\Rightarrow	$\langle \text{nil}, M, \text{nil} \rangle$
$\langle E, \lambda M, X :: S \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle X :: E, M, S \rangle$
$\langle E, M \hat{N}, S \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle E, M, \{E, N\} :: S \rangle$
$\langle \{E', M\} :: E, 0, S \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle E', M, S \rangle$
$\langle X :: E, n + 1, S \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle E, n, S \rangle$
$\langle E, \lambda M, \text{nil} \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\{E, \lambda M\}$
M	\Rightarrow	$\langle \text{nil}, \text{nil}, M :: \text{nil}, \text{nil} \rangle$
$\langle S, E, \lambda M :: C, D \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle \{E, \lambda M\} :: S, E, C, D \rangle$
$\langle S, E, (M \hat{N}) :: C, D \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle S, E, M :: N :: \text{ap} :: C, D \rangle$
$\langle S, E, n :: C, D \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle \text{nth}(n, E) :: S, E, C, D \rangle$
$\langle X :: \{E', \lambda M\} :: S, E, \text{ap} :: C, D \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle \text{nil}, X :: E', M :: \text{nil}, (S, E, C) :: D \rangle$
$\langle X :: S, E, \text{nil}, (S', E', C') :: D \rangle$	\Rightarrow	$\langle X :: S', E', C', D \rangle$
$\langle X :: S, E, \text{nil}, \text{nil} \rangle$	\Rightarrow	X

Figure 5: The Krivine machine (top) and SECD machine (bottom).

ants of these are given in Figure 5. There, the syntax for λ -terms uses de Bruijn notation with $\hat{\ } (infix) and λ as the constructors for application and abstraction, respectively, and $\{E, M\}$ denotes the closure of term M with environment E . The first rule given for each machine is the “load” rule or ρ of their AES description. The last rule given for each is the “unload” rule. (In each of these cases, the set S is a singleton.) The remaining rules are state transformation rules, each one moving the machine through a computation step.$

A state in the Krivine machine is a triple $\langle E, M, S \rangle$ in which E is an environment, M is a single term to be evaluated and S is a stack of arguments. A state in the SECD machine is a quadruple $\langle S, E, C, D \rangle$ in which S is a stack of computed values, E is an environment (here just a list of terms), C is a list of commands (terms to be evaluated) and D is a dump or saved state. The expression $\text{nth}(n, E)$, used to access variables in an environment, is treated as a function that returns the $n + 1^{\text{st}}$ element of the list E . Although Landin’s original description of the SECD machine used variables names, our use of de Bruijn numerals does not change the

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\text{unload } t \vdash \text{unload } t}{\text{unload } t \vdash \text{rewrite } s_n} \\
\vdots \\
\frac{\text{unload } t \vdash \text{rewrite } s_i}{\text{unload } t \vdash \text{rewrite } s_1} \\
\vdots \\
\frac{\text{unload } t \vdash \text{rewrite } s_1}{\text{unload } t \vdash \text{load } s}
\end{array}$$

Figure 6: A proof related to the execution of an abstract machine.

essential mechanism of that machine.

There is a natural and immediate way to see a given AES as a set of binary clauses. Let *load*, *unload*, and *rewrite* be three predicates of one argument each. Given the AES (Σ, R, ρ, S) let \mathcal{B} be the set of binary clauses composed of the following three kinds of formulas: $\forall \hat{x} [\text{rewrite } r \supset \text{load } l]$ where ρ is the rewrite rule $l \Rightarrow r$, one clause of the form $\forall \hat{x} [\text{rewrite } r \supset \text{rewrite } l]$ for every rewrite rule $l \Rightarrow r$ in R , and one clause of the form $\forall \hat{x} [\text{unload } r \supset \text{rewrite } l]$ for every rewrite rule $l \Rightarrow r$ in S . It is then easy to show that if we start with term t and evaluate to s (this can be a non-deterministic relationship) then from the set of clauses \mathcal{B} we can prove $\text{unload } t \supset \text{load } s$. In particular, if this implication is provable from \mathcal{B} then it has a proof of the form displayed in Figure 6. The transitions of the abstract machine can be read directly from this proof: given the term s , the machine's state is initialized to be s_1 , which is then repeatedly rewritten yielding the sequence of terms s_2, \dots, s_n , at which point the machine is unloaded to get the value t . For more about translating SOS specifications directly into abstract machines, see [12].

In order to motivate our next operational semantic framework, consider the problem of specifying side-effects, exceptions, and concurrent (multi-threaded) computation with binary clauses. Since all the dynamics of computation is represented via term structures (say, within s, s_1, \dots, s_n, t) all the information about these threads, reference cells, exceptions, *etc.*, must be maintained as, say, lists within these other terms. Such an approach to specifying these features of a programming language lacks modularity and makes little use of logic. We now consider extending binary clauses so that these additional features have a much more natural and modular specification.

5 Linear logic

We now illustrate how linear logic can be used to capture multiset rewriting. Given that many aspects of computation can be captured using multiset rewriting, it is possible to describe a subset of linear logic that includes binary clauses but provides a natural means to capture side effects and concurrency. The examples in this section are adapted from [22].

5.1 Capturing multiset rewriting

The right-hand-side of a sequent in linear logic is a multiset of formula. At the formula level, the \wp connective of linear logic (the multiplicative disjunction and the de Morgan dual of \otimes) can be used to build multisets. For example, the propositional formula $a \wp b \wp b \wp a \wp c$ can be seen as an encoding of the multiset that contains two occurrences of a , two occurrences of b , one occurrence of c , and no occurrences of any other formulas. The unit for \wp , written as \perp , encodes the empty multiset. A suitable generalization of backchaining in linear logic can be used to formulate rewriting of that multiset. To illustrate this connection between rewriting and backchaining, assume that Δ is a set of linear logic formulas that contains the formula

$$c \wp d \wp e \multimap a \wp b.$$

(The \wp symbol binds tighter than \multimap .) Consider also the sequent $! \Delta \longrightarrow a, b, \Gamma$. A proof for this sequent that backchains on the clause above looks like the following.

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{! \Delta \longrightarrow c, d, e, \Gamma}{! \Delta \longrightarrow c, d \wp e, \Gamma} \wp R}{! \Delta \longrightarrow c \wp d \wp e, \Gamma} \wp R \quad \frac{\frac{a \longrightarrow a \quad b \longrightarrow b}{a \wp b \longrightarrow a, b} \wp L}{! \Delta, c \wp d \wp e \multimap a \wp b \longrightarrow a, b, \Gamma} \multimap L}{! \Delta \longrightarrow a, b, \Gamma} ! D$$

When we read this proof fragment bottom-up, we can see that the action of selecting the displayed formula above and doing a focused set of introductions (a.k.a. backchaining) on it causes the multiset on the right-hand side to be rewritten from a, b, Γ to c, d, e, Γ .

5.2 Adding a counter to evaluation

Consider again the binary clause example given in Figure 4. First, it is easy to show that in Horn clauses in general, the top-level intuitionistic implication \supset can be rewritten as the linear implication \multimap without changing the operational reading of proof search [13]. With this change, the binary clauses in that figure are also

an example of multiset rewriting: in this occasion, one atom is repeatedly replaced by another atom (until the atom is replaced by a final continuation). In this way, binary clauses can be seen as modeling single-threaded computation. Now that we have embedded binary clauses within the richer setting of linear logic, it is easy to see how “multi-threaded” computations might be organized. We present a couple of examples here.

Consider adding to the untyped λ -calculus a single global counter that can be read and incremented. In particular, we shall place all integers into type tm and add two additional constructors of tm , namely get and inc . The intended operational semantics of these two constants is that evaluating the first returns the current value of the counter and evaluating the second increments the counter’s value and returns the counter’s old value. We also assume that integers are values: that is, for every integer i the clause $\forall k(k \multimap (i \Downarrow i) ; k)$ is part of the evaluator’s specification. The multiset rewriting specification of these two additional constructors can be given as the two formulas

$$\forall K \forall V (r V \wp K \multimap ((get \Downarrow V) ; K) \wp r V) \text{ and} \\ \forall K \forall V (r (V + 1) \wp K \multimap ((inc \Downarrow V) ; K) \wp r V).$$

Here, the atom of the form $(r x)$ denotes the “ r -register” with value x . Let \mathcal{D} contain the two formulas in Figure 4, the two formulas displayed above, and the formulas mentioned above describing the evaluation of integers. Then \mathcal{D} is a specification of the call-by-value evaluator with one global counter in the sense that the logical judgment

$$! \mathcal{D} \vdash ((M \Downarrow V) ; \top) \wp r 0$$

holds exactly when we expect the program M to evaluation to V in the setting when the register r is initialized to 0.

Of course, the name of the register should not be a part of the specification of a counter. Fortunately, logic comes equipped with abstraction mechanisms that allow hiding the name of this register. In Figure 7 there are three specifications, E_1 , E_2 , and E_3 , of a counter: all three specifications store the counter’s value in an atomic formula as the argument of the predicate r . In these three specifications, the predicate r is existentially quantified over the specification in which it is used so that the atomic formula that stores the counter’s value is itself local to the counter’s specification (such existential quantification of predicates is a familiar technique for implementing abstract data types in logic programming [19]). The first two specifications store the counter’s value on the right of the sequent arrow, and reading and incrementing the counter occurs via a synchronization between an \Downarrow -atom and an r -atom. In the third specification, the counter is stored as a linear assumption on the left of the sequent arrow, and synchronization is not

$$\begin{aligned}
E_1 &= \exists r[(r\ 0)^\perp \otimes \\
&\quad !\forall K\forall V (r\ V \wp K \multimap ((\text{get} \Downarrow V) ; K) \wp r\ V) \otimes \\
&\quad !\forall K\forall V (r\ (V + 1) \wp K \multimap ((\text{inc} \Downarrow V) ; K) \wp r\ V)] \\
E_2 &= \exists r[(r\ 0)^\perp \otimes \\
&\quad !\forall K\forall V (r\ V \wp K \multimap ((\text{get} \Downarrow (-V)) ; K) \wp r\ V) \otimes \\
&\quad !\forall K\forall V (r\ (V - 1) \wp K \multimap ((\text{inc} \Downarrow (-V)) ; K) \wp r\ V)] \\
E_3 &= \exists r[(r\ 0) \otimes \\
&\quad !\forall K\forall V (r\ V \otimes (r\ V \multimap K) \multimap ((\text{get} \Downarrow V) ; K)) \otimes \\
&\quad !\forall K\forall V (r\ V \otimes (r\ (V + 1) \multimap K) \multimap ((\text{inc} \Downarrow V) ; K))]
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 7: Three specifications of a global counter.

used: instead, the linear assumption is “destructively” read and then rewritten in order to specify the *get* and *inc* functions (counters such as these are described in [13]). Finally, in the first and third specifications, evaluating the *inc* symbol causes 1 to be added to the counter’s value. In the second specification, evaluating the *inc* symbol causes 1 to be subtracted from the counter’s value: to compensate for this unusual implementation of *inc*, reading a counter in the second specification returns the negative of the counter’s value.

Although these three specifications of a global counter are different, they should be equivalent in the sense that evaluation cannot tell them apart. Although there are several ways that the equivalence of such counters can be proved, the specifications of these counters are, in fact, *logically* equivalent.

Proposition. The three entailments $E_1 \vdash E_2$, $E_2 \vdash E_3$, and $E_3 \vdash E_1$ are provable in linear logic.

The proof of each of these entailments proceeds (in a bottom-up fashion) by choosing an eigen-variable to instantiate the existential quantifier on the left-hand side and then instantiating the right-hand existential quantifier with some term involving that eigen-variable. Assume that in all three cases, the eigen-variable selected is the predicate symbol s . Then the first entailment is proved by instantiating the right-hand existential with $\lambda x.s\ (-x)$; the second entailment is proved using the substitution $\lambda x.(s\ (-x))^\perp$; and the third entailment is proved using the substitution $\lambda x.(s\ x)^\perp$. The proof of the first two entailments must also use the identities $-0 = 0$, $-(x + 1) = -x - 1$, and $-(x - 1) = -x + 1$. The proof of the third entailment requires no such identities.

Clearly, logical equivalence is a strong equivalence: it immediately implies that evaluation cannot tell the difference between any of these different specifications of a counter. For example, assume $E_1 \vdash (M \Downarrow V) ; \top$. Then by the cut inference rule (modus ponens) and the above proposition, we have $E_2 \vdash (M \Downarrow V) ; \top$.

$$\begin{aligned}
& K \multimap (\text{none} \Downarrow \text{none}) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow V) ; K \multimap ((\text{guard } E) \Downarrow (\text{guard } V)) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow V) ; K \multimap ((\text{poll } E) \Downarrow (\text{poll } V)) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow V) ; K \multimap ((\text{receive } E) \Downarrow (\text{receive } V)) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow V) ; K \multimap ((\text{some } E) \Downarrow (\text{some } V)) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow U) ; ((F \Downarrow V) ; K) \multimap ((\text{choose } E F) \Downarrow (\text{choose } U V)) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow U) ; ((F \Downarrow V) ; K) \multimap ((\text{transmit } E F) \Downarrow (\text{transmit } U V)) ; K. \\
& (E \Downarrow U) ; ((F \Downarrow V) ; K) \multimap ((\text{wrap } E F) \Downarrow (\text{wrap } U V)) ; K.
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 8: These CML-like constructors evaluate to themselves.

It is possible to generalize a bit the previous example involving a single global counter to languages that have the ability to generate references dynamically, much as one finds in, say, Algol or Standard ML [6, 22].

5.3 Specification of Concurrency primitives

Following [22], we show how concurrency primitives inspired by those found in Concurrent ML (CML) [33] can be specified in linear logic: we assume that the reader has some familiarity with this extension to ML.

Consider extending the untyped λ -calculus with the following constructors.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{none} : \text{tm}. \\
& \text{guard}, \text{poll}, \text{receive}, \text{some}, \text{sync} : \text{tm} \rightarrow \text{tm}. \\
& \text{choose}, \text{transmit}, \text{wrap} : \text{tm} \rightarrow \text{tm} \rightarrow \text{tm}. \\
& \text{spawn}, \text{newchan} : (\text{tm} \rightarrow \text{tm}) \rightarrow \text{tm}.
\end{aligned}$$

The meaning of these constructors is then given using the linear logic formulas in Figures 8 and 9. The clauses in Figures 8 specify the straightforward evaluation rules for the eight data constructors. In Figure 9, the predicate *event* is of type $\text{tm} \rightarrow \text{tm} \rightarrow o \rightarrow o$ and is used to store in the multiset “events”, a technical aspect of this semantic specification. The first three clauses of that figure defined the meaning of the three special forms *sync*, *spawn*, and *newchan*. The remaining clauses specify the *event* predicate.

The formulas in Figure 9 allow for multiple threads of evaluation. Evaluation of the *spawn* function initiates a new evaluation thread. The *newchan* function causes a new eigenvariable to be picked (via the $\forall c$ quantification) and then to assume that that eigen-variable is a value (via the assumption $\forall I(I \multimap (c \Downarrow c) ; I)$): such a new value can be used to designate new channels for use in synchronization (the clause for *newchan* is not strictly speaking a Horn clause). The *sync* primitive allows for synchronization between threads: its use causes an “evaluation thread”

$$\begin{aligned}
& eval\ E\ U\ (event\ U\ V\ K) \multimap ((sync\ E) \Downarrow V) ; K. \\
& (((R\ unit) \Downarrow unit) ; \perp) \wp K \multimap ((spawn\ R) \Downarrow unit) ; K. \\
& \forall c(\forall I(I \multimap (c \Downarrow c) ; I) \supset ((R\ c) \Downarrow V) ; K) \multimap ((newchan\ R) \Downarrow V) ; K. \\
& K \wp L \multimap event\ (receive\ C)\ V\ K \wp event\ (transmit\ C\ V)\ unit\ L \\
& event\ E\ V\ K \multimap event\ (choose\ E\ F)\ V\ K. \\
& event\ F\ V\ K \multimap event\ (choose\ E\ F)\ V\ K. \\
& event\ E\ U\ (((app\ F\ U) \Downarrow V) ; K) \multimap event\ (wrap\ E\ F)\ V\ K. \\
& ((app\ F\ unit) \Downarrow U) ; (event\ U\ V\ K) \multimap event\ (guard\ F)\ V\ K. \\
& (event\ E\ U\ \top) \& K \multimap event\ (poll\ E)\ (some\ E)\ K. \\
& K \multimap event\ (poll\ E)\ none\ K.
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 9: Specifications of some primitives similar to those in Concurrent ML.

to become an “event thread.” The behaviors of event threads are described by the remaining clauses in Figure 9. The primitive events are *transmit* and *receive* and they represent two halves of a synchronization between two event threads. Notice that the clause describing their meaning is the only clause in Figure 9 that has a head with more than one atom. The non-primitive events *choose*, *wrap*, *guard*, and *poll* are reduced to other calls to *event* and \Downarrow . The *choice* event is implemented as a local, non-deterministic choice. (Specifying global choice, as in CCS [27], would be much more involved.) The *wrap* and *guard* events chain together evaluation and synchronization but in direct orders.

The only use of *additive* linear logic connectives, in particular $\&$ and \top , in any of our semantic specifications is in the specification of polling: in an attempt to synchronize with (*poll E*) (with the continuation *K*) the goal (*event E U* \top) $\&$ *K* is attempted (for some unimportant term *U*). Thus, a copy of the current evaluation threads is made and (*event E U* \top) is attempted in one of these copies. This atom is provable if and only if there is a complementary event for *E* in the current environment, in which case, the continuation \top brings us to a quick completion and the continuation *K* is attempted in the original and unspoiled context of threads. If such a complementary event is not present, then the other clause for computing a polling event can be used, in which case, the result of the poll is *none*, which signals such a failure. The semantics of polling, unfortunately, is not exactly as intended in CML since it is possible to have a polling event return *none* even if the event being tested could be synchronized. This analysis of polling is similar to the analysis of testing in process calculus as described in [21].

The PhD thesis of Chirimar [6] presents a linear logic specification of a programming language motivated by Standard ML [29]. In particular, a specification for the call-by-value λ -calculus is provided, and then modularly extended with the

specifications of references, exceptions, and continuations: each of these features is specified without complicating the specifications of other the features.

6 Conclusion

There is a lot of interest in being able to reason about operational semantic descriptions of programming languages: see, for example, the POPLmark challenge [1], and the long-standing research efforts using dependently typed λ -calculus [30] and certain higher-order logics [2, 18, 25]. In this paper, we have tried to describe one approach to formally specifying operational semantics so that such verification efforts have a solid foundation. We have done this by encoding three different formalisms—SOS, abstract machines, and multiset rewriting—into collections of logic formulas. The theory of proofs can then be used to provide completely formal meaning to such specifications.

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