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Reduction strategies

# **MPRI 2.4**

## Operational semantics and reduction strategies

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### The $\lambda$ -calculus

The formal model that underlies all functional programming languages. Abstract syntax:

 $t, u ::= x \mid \lambda x.t \mid t t$  (terms)

Reduction:

$$(\lambda x.t) \ u \longrightarrow t[u/x] \qquad (\beta)$$

Mnemonic: read t[u/x] as "t, where u is substituted for x".

Landin, Correspondence betw. ALGOL 60 and Church's  $\lambda$ -notation, 1965.

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From the  $\lambda$ -calculus to a functional programming language

Start from the  $\lambda$ -calculus, and follow several steps:

- Fix a reduction strategy (today).
- Develop efficient execution mechanisms (next week).
- Enrich the language with primitive data types and operations, recursion, algebraic data structures, and so on (next week).
- Define a static type system (Rémy's lectures).

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## **Operational semantics**

Plotkin: — It is only through having an operational semantics that the  $[\lambda$ -calculus can] be viewed as a programming language.

Scott: - Why call it operational semantics? What is operational about it?

An operational semantics describes the actions of a machine, in the simplest possible manner / at the most abstract level.

Plotkin, A Structural Approach to Operational Semantics, 1981, (2004). Plotkin, The Origins of Structural Operational Semantics, 2004.

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### The call-by-value strategy

Values form a subset of terms:

t,u	::=	x   \lambda x.t   t t	(terms)
V	::=	$x \mid \lambda x.t$	(values)

A value represents the result of a computation.

The call-by-value reduction relation  $t \rightarrow_{cbv} t'$  is inductively defined:

$$\frac{\beta_{\mathbf{v}}}{(\lambda x.t) \mathbf{v} \longrightarrow_{cbv} t[\mathbf{v}/x]} \qquad \frac{APPL}{t \longrightarrow_{cbv} t'} \qquad \frac{APPVR}{u \longrightarrow_{cbv} t' u} \qquad \frac{u \longrightarrow_{cbv} u'}{\mathbf{v} u \longrightarrow_{cbv} \mathbf{v} u'}$$

This is known as a small-step operational semantics.

### Example

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This is a proof (a.k.a. derivation) that one reduction step is permitted:

$$\frac{x[1/x] = 1}{(\lambda x.x) \ 1 \longrightarrow_{cbv} 1} \beta_{v}}{(\lambda x.\lambda y.y \ x) \ ((\lambda x.x) \ 1) \longrightarrow_{cbv} (\lambda x.\lambda y.y \ x) \ 1} APPR}{(\lambda x.\lambda y.y \ x) \ ((\lambda x.x) \ 1) \ (\lambda x.x) \longrightarrow_{cbv} (\lambda x.\lambda y.y \ x) \ 1 \ (\lambda x.x)} APPL$$

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# Features of call-by-value reduction

• Weak reduction. One cannot reduce under a  $\lambda$ -abstraction.



Thus, values do not reduce.

Also, we are interested in reducing closed terms only.

• Call-by-value. An actual argument is reduced to a value before it is passed to a function.

$$(\lambda x.t) \lor \longrightarrow_{cbv} t[\lor/x]$$



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## Features of call-by-value reduction

• Left-to-right. In an application *t u*, the term *t* must be reduced to a value before *u* can be reduced at all.

$$\frac{u \longrightarrow_{cbv} u'}{v \ u \longrightarrow_{cbv} v \ u'}$$

• Determinism. For every term *t*, there is at most one term *t'* such that  $t \rightarrow_{cbv} t'$  holds.

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### **Reduction sequences**

Sequences of reduction steps describe the behavior of a term.

The three following situations are mutually exclusive:

- Termination:  $t \rightarrow_{cbv} t_1 \rightarrow_{cbv} t_2 \rightarrow_{cbv} \dots \rightarrow_{cbv} v$ The value v is the result of evaluating t. The term t converges to v.
- Divergence:  $t \longrightarrow_{cbv} t_1 \longrightarrow_{cbv} t_2 \longrightarrow_{cbv} \dots \longrightarrow_{cbv} t_n \longrightarrow_{cbv} \dots$ The sequence of reductions is infinite. The term *t* diverges.
- Error:  $t \rightarrow_{cbv} t_1 \rightarrow_{cbv} t_2 \rightarrow_{cbv} \dots \rightarrow_{cbv} t_n \rightarrow_{cbv} \dots$ where  $t_n$  is not a value, yet does not reduce:  $t_n$  is stuck. The term t goes wrong. This is a runtime error.

Type systems rule out errors (Milner, 1978) or both errors and divergence.

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### Examples of reduction sequences

#### Termination:

$$(\lambda x.\lambda y.y x) ((\lambda x.x) 1) (\lambda x.x) \longrightarrow_{cbv} (\lambda x.\lambda y.y x) 1 (\lambda x.x) \longrightarrow_{cbv} (\lambda y.y 1) (\lambda x.x) \longrightarrow_{cbv} (\lambda x.x) 1 \longrightarrow_{cbv} 1$$

Divergence:

$$(\lambda x.x x) (\lambda x.x x) \longrightarrow_{cbv} (\lambda x.x x) (\lambda x.x x) \longrightarrow_{cbv} \dots$$

Error:

$$(\lambda x.x x) 2 \longrightarrow_{cbv} 2 2 \xrightarrow{}_{cbv} \cdot$$

The active redex is highlighted in red.

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### An alternative style: evaluation contexts

First, define head reduction:

$$\frac{\beta_{v}}{(\lambda x.t) \ v \longrightarrow_{cbv}^{head} t[v/x]}$$

Then, define reduction as head reduction under an evaluation context:



where evaluation contexts E are defined by E ::= [] | E u | v E.

Wright and Felleisen, A syntactic approach to type soundness, 1992.

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# Unique decomposition

In this alternative style, the determinism of the reduction relation follows from a unique decomposition lemma:

Lemma (Unique Decomposition)

For every term t, there exists at most one pair (E, u) such that t = E[u]and  $u \longrightarrow_{cbv}^{head}$ .

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### The call-by-name strategy

The call-by-name reduction relation  $t \rightarrow_{cbn} t'$  is defined as follows:

$$\frac{\beta}{(\lambda x.t) \ u \longrightarrow_{cbn} t[u/x]} \qquad \qquad \frac{APPL}{t \longrightarrow_{cbn} t'}$$

The unevaluated actual argument is passed to the function.

It is later reduced if / when / every time the function demands its value.

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## An example reduction sequence

$$(\lambda x.\lambda y.y x) ((\lambda x.x) 1) (\lambda x.x) \longrightarrow_{cbn} (\lambda y.y ((\lambda x.x) 1)) (\lambda x.x) \longrightarrow_{cbn} (\lambda x.x) ((\lambda x.x) 1) \longrightarrow_{cbn} (\lambda x.x) 1 \longrightarrow_{cbn} 1$$

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# Call-by-value versus call-by-name

If t terminates under CBV, then it also terminates under CBN (\*). The converse is false:

$$(\lambda x.1) \omega \longrightarrow_{cbn} 1$$
  
 $(\lambda x.1) \omega \longrightarrow_{cbv}^{\infty}$ 

where  $\omega = (\lambda x.x x) (\lambda x.x x)$  diverges under both strategies.

Call-by-value can perform fewer reduction steps: ( $\lambda x. x + x$ ) *t* evaluates *t* once under CBV, twice under CBN.

Call-by-name can perform fewer reduction steps: ( $\lambda x$ . 1) *t* evaluates *t* once under CBV, not at all under CBN.

> (\*) In fact, the standardization theorem implies that if t can be reduced to a value via any strategy, then it can be reduced to a value via CBN. See Takahashi (1995).

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# Encoding call-by-name in a CBV language

Use thunks: functions  $\lambda_{-}u$  whose purpose is to delay the evaluation of u.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix} = x () \\ \begin{bmatrix} \lambda x.t \end{bmatrix} = \lambda x. \begin{bmatrix} t \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} t u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \end{bmatrix} (\lambda_{-}. \begin{bmatrix} u \end{bmatrix})$$

Exercise: Can you state that this encoding is correct? Can you prove it? In a simply-typed setting, this transformation is type-preserving: that is,  $\Gamma \vdash t : T$  implies  $[\![\Gamma]\!] \vdash [\![t]\!]$ :  $[\![T]\!]$ , where

$$\llbracket T_1 \to T_2 \rrbracket = (\mathsf{unit} \to \llbracket T_1 \rrbracket) \to \llbracket T_2 \rrbracket$$

and where  $\llbracket x_1 : T_1; \ldots; x_n : T_n \rrbracket$  is  $x_1 : \text{unit} \rightarrow \llbracket T_1 \rrbracket; \ldots; x_n : \text{unit} \rightarrow \llbracket T_n \rrbracket$ .

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### Encoding call-by-value in a CBN language

This is somewhat more involved.

The call-by-value continuation-passing style (CPS) transformation, studied later on in this course, achieves this.

### Call-by-need

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Call-by-need, also known as lazy evaluation, eliminates the main inefficiency of call-by-name (namely, possibly repeated computation) by introducing memoization.

It, too, can be defined via an operational semantics (Ariola and Felleisen, 1997; Maraist, Odersky, Wadler, 1998).

It is used in Haskell, where it encourages a modular style of programming.

Hughes, Why functional programming matters, 1990.

Also see Harper's and Augustsson's blog posts on laziness.

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# Newton-Raphson iteration (after Hughes)

This is pseudo-Haskell code. The colon : is "cons".

An approximation of a square root can be computed as follows:

```
next n x = (x + n / x) / 2
repeat f a = a : (repeat f (f a))
within eps (a : b : rest) =
    if abs (a - b) <= eps then b
    else within eps (b : rest)
sqrt a0 eps n =
    within eps (repeat (next n) a0)</pre>
```

repeat (next n) a0 is a producer of an infinite stream of numbers. Its type is just "list of numbers" – look Ma, no iterators! The consumer within eps decides how many elements to demand. The two are programmed independently.



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# Encoding call-by-need in a CBV language

Call-by-need can be encoded into CBV by using memoizing thunks:

 $\begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix} = \text{force } x \\ \begin{bmatrix} \lambda x.t \end{bmatrix} = \lambda x. \begin{bmatrix} t \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} t & u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \end{bmatrix} \text{(suspend } (\lambda_{-}. \llbracket u \rrbracket))$ 

"suspend  $(\lambda_u)$ " is written lazy u in OCaml.

"force x" is written Lazy.force x.

Such a thunk evalutes *u* when first forced, then memoizes the result, so no computation is required if the thunk is forced again.

Exercise: port Newton-Raphson iteration to OCaml. Make sure that each element is computed at most once and no more elements than necessary are computed. Write tests to verify these properties.