Computing Science (CMPUT) 325 Nonprocedural Programming

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Normal Form

- A lambda expression that cannot be reduced further (by beta-reduction) is called a normal form
- If a lambda expression E can be reduced to a normal form, we then say that E has a normal form
- In general, a lambda expression may not have a normal form
- See counterexample next slide

A Lambda Expression without a Normal Form

- Example:
- ((lambda (x) (x x)) (lambda (z) (z z)))
- Body (x x)
- Given argument (lambda (z) (z z))
- β -reduction: Substitute given arg. for x in body:
- ((lambda (z) (z z)) (lambda (z) (z z))))
- α-reduction: rename first z to x
- ((lambda (x) (x x)) (lambda (z) (z z)))
- Same...

Lambda Expression without a Normal Form continued

- One step of reduction (plus renaming) has led to an identical lambda expression
- We can reduce this again and again, infinitly often
- We never reach a normal form that can no longer be reduced
- This proves that not all lambda expressions have a normal form
- There are other examples, where the expression just grows and grows with each "reduction"

Lambda Expression without a Normal Form continued

- Similar, "almost self-replicating" lambda expressions are useful (actually indespensable) for encoding recursive functions
- We will see this later
- Note: no functional language is sufficiently powerful, if it cannot express recursive functions

Order of Reduction

- If we have nested function applications, in which order should we reduce them?
- This is a general question for function evaluation
- Any programming language has to deal with this issue
- Usually we evaluate all the arguments first, then call the function on the evaluated arguments
- We have already seen one exception:
 the if statement does not evaluate all arguments,
 and delays the evaluation of the then, else parts

Two Important Orders of Reduction

- Normal Order Reduction (NOR): evaluate leftmost outermost application
- Applicative Order Reduction (AOR): evaluate leftmost innermost application
- Examples and discussion on next slides

Example for Normal Order Reduction (NOR)

- Example in Fun:
- Function application f (g(2))
- With f(x) = x + x
- Normal Order Reduction (NOR): outermost first
- $f(g(2)) \longrightarrow g(2) + g(2) \longrightarrow 3 + g(2) \longrightarrow 3 + 3$ $\longrightarrow 6$
- Note: actually, the outermost function is the +. But if the built-in + requires evaluated arguments, then we need to evaluate them first

Example for Applicative Order Reduction (AOR)

- Function application f (g(2))
- With f(x) = x + x
- q(x) = x + 1
- Applicative Order Reduction (AOR): innermost first
- $f(g(2)) \longrightarrow f(3) \longrightarrow 3 + 3 \longrightarrow 6$

Tie-breaking Rules

- What if there is more than one outermost or innermost function that is applicable?
- Standard tie-breaking rule: choose the leftmost one
- Example: f(g(2)) + f(g(4))
- Applicative Order: There are two innermost applications, g(2) and g(4).
 So we choose g(2) as leftmost innermost.
- Normal Order: The outermost application is the +.
 If we cannot evaluate + until its arguments are reduced, then f(g(2)) and f(g(4)) are outermost,
 we start with the leftmost outermost f, in f(g(2))

Efficiency

- Normal Order Reduction: $f(g(2)) \longrightarrow g(2) + g(2) \dots$
- Applicative Order Reduction: f(g(2)) → f(3) ...
- In NOR, g(2) is evaluated twice
- In AOR, only once
- AOR is generally more efficient
- However, NOR terminates more often...

An Example where NOR Terminates and AOR Does Not

- g(x) = cons(x, g(x+1))
 infinite nested call, trouble...
- f(x) = 5 a constant function
- Reduce f (g(0))
- NOR: $f(g(0)) \longrightarrow 5$
- AOR: $f(g(0)) \longrightarrow f(cons(0, g(1))) \longrightarrow f(cons(0, cons(1, g(2)))) \longrightarrow ...$

Example of NOR in Lambda Calculus

```
• ((lambda (x) (+ 1 x))
((lambda (z) (+ 1 z)) 3))
```

Normal order reduction:

Same Example with AOR

```
• ((lambda (x) (+ 1 x))
((lambda (z) (+ 1 z)) 3))
```

Applicative order reduction:

```
 \longrightarrow ((lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) (+ 1 3)) 
 \longrightarrow ((lambda (x) (+ 1 x)) 4) 
 \longrightarrow (+ 1 4)
```

Second Example of NOR

```
• ((lambda (x) (+ x x))
((lambda (z) (+ 3 z)) 2))
```

Normal order reduction:

```
\longrightarrow (+ ((lambda (z) (+ 3 z)) 2) ((lambda (z) (+ 3 z)) 2)) \longrightarrow (+ (+ 3 2) ((lambda (z) (+ 3 z)) 2)) \longrightarrow (+ 5 ((lambda (z) (+ 3 z)) 2)) \longrightarrow (+ 5 (+ 3 2)) \longrightarrow (+ 5 5) \longrightarrow 10
```

Same Example with AOR

```
• ((lambda (x) (+ x x))
((lambda (z) (+ 3 z)) 2))
```

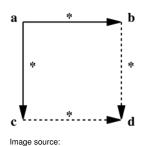
Applicative order reduction:

```
\longrightarrow ((lambda (x) (+ x x)) (+ 3 2)) \longrightarrow ((lambda (x) (+ x x)) 5) \longrightarrow (+ 5 5) \longrightarrow 10
```

Church Rosser Theorem

- Church and Rosser proved two important properties of reductions and normal forms
- In this theorem, → means a sequence of zero or more reduction steps.
- Two parts:
- If A → B and A → C then there exists an expression D such that B → D and C → D
- ② If A has a normal form E, then there is a normal order reduction A → E.

Church Rosser Theorem Part 1 Comments



en.wikipedia.org/wiki/

Church-Rosser_theorem

- If A → B and A → C then there exists an expression D such that B → D and C → D
- No matter what reduction strategies are used initially to get to B and C...
- ...there is always a way to converge from both B and C back to the same expression D
- Note: this is true even if there is no normal form for A
- (Easy) exercise: prove that there is at most one normal form.

Church Rosser Theorem Part 2 Comments

- If A has a normal form E, then there is a normal order reduction $A \longrightarrow E$.
- Normal order reduction guarantees termination if the given expression has a normal form
- Note: NOR can be a very inefficient and slow process in some cases. But it always works if there is a normal form.
- Note: the Theorem does not tell us whether there is a normal form, or how many reduction steps we would need to reach it.
- Compare with the halting problem does a Turing machine halt on a given input? Undecidable in general.

Summary and Outlook

- Studied abstract model of computation of lambda calculus
- Clarifies foundations of functional programming
- A model that is equivalent to Turing machines (both express the same computations)
- Next steps: interpreter and "compiler" for functional programming language
- Based on reductions in lambda calculus
- Assume we have some useful built-ins
- We will explain a bit how primitive functions work, if we have time in last class before reading week
- If not, I will just post them as optional notes.