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CS40032: Principles of Programming Languages Module 03: λ -Calculus: Semantics

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Jan 22, 27: 2020



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Semantics

Substitution

Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction

δ-Reduction Order of Evaluation

Semantics of λ -Expressions

Source:

 $\lambda \text{- Calculus Overview}$ Operational Semantics of Pure Functional Languages



Free and Bound Variable

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Semantics
Free and Bound Variables
Substitution
Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction δ -Reduction

- An occurrence of a variable x is said to be *bound* when it occurs in the body M of an abstraction $\lambda x.M$
- We say that λx is a binder whose scope is M
- An occurrence of x is free if it appears in a position where it is not bound by an enclosing abstraction on x
- For example,
 - Occurrences of x in xy and $\lambda y.xy$ are free
 - Occurrences of x in $\lambda x.x$ and $\lambda z.\lambda x.\lambda y.x(yz)$ are bound
 - In $(\lambda x.x)x$ the first occurrence of x is bound and the second is free
- In a loose parallel to C functions, consider the bound variables as local (including parameters) and free variables as global or non-local



Free and Bound Variable

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Semantics
Free and Bound
Variables
Substitution
Reduction
α-Reduction
β-Reduction
δ-Reduction
δ-Reduction
Order of Evaluat
Normal and

- In an abstraction, the variable named is referred to as the **bound** variable and the associated λ -expression is the **body** of the abstraction
- In an expression of the form:

$$\lambda v. e$$

occurrences of variable v in expression e are **bound**

- All occurrences of other variables are free
- Example:

$$((\lambda x. \lambda y. (xy))(yw))$$

- x, and y are **bound** in first part
- y, and w are **free** in second part



Free and Bound Variable: Other Contexts

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Substitution

Reduction

B-Reductio

 η -Reduction

 δ -Reduction

Normal and Applicative Orde

•
$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx$$
; $\int_0^1 A * x^2 dx$

- $\sum_{x=1}^{10} \frac{1}{x}$; $\sum_{x=1}^{10} K * \frac{1}{x}$
- $\lim_{x\to\infty} e^{-x}$; $\lim_{x\to\infty} (M+e^{-x})$
- int succ(int x) { return x + 1; }
- $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x > 1 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x} < 1$



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Substitution

O-Reduct

β-Reduction

η-Reductio

 δ -Reduction

Order of Evaluatio

• Definition: An occurrence of a variable v in a λ -expression is called **bound** if it is within the scope of a λv ; otherwise it is called **free**

• A variable may occur both bound and free in the same λ -expression – for example, in λx . $y \lambda y$. y x the first occurrence of y is free and the other two are bound

6



Set of Free Variables

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Substitution Reduction α -Reductio

 α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluati

• Definition: The set of free variables in an expression E, denoted by FV(E), is defined as follows:

- $FV(c) = \Phi$ for any constant c
- $FV(E1 E2) = FV(E1) \cup FV(E2)$
- **1** $FV(\lambda x. E) = FV(E) \{x\}$
- A λ -expression E with no free variables $(FV(E) = \Phi)$ is called **closed**



Substitution

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Free and Bou Variables

Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation

- The notation $E[v \to E1]$ refers to the λ -expression obtained by replacing each free occurrence of the variable v in E by the λ -expression E1
- Naive Rules of Substitution:
- Does it work?

$$(\lambda y.x)[x \rightarrow (\lambda z.zw)] = \lambda y.\lambda z.zw$$

YES!



Unsafe Substitution: Example

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Consider:

$$(\lambda x. x)[x \to y] = \lambda x. (x[x \to y]) = \lambda x. y$$

conflicts with a basic understanding that the names of bound variables (that is, parameters) do not matter.

- The identity function is the same whether we write it as $\lambda x.x$ or $\lambda z.z$ or $\lambda fred.fred$.
- If these do not behave the same way under substitution they would not behave the same way under evaluation and that seems wrong
- The mistake is that the substitution should only apply to free variables and not bound ones
- Here x is bound in the term so we should not substitute it
- That seems to give us what we want:

$$(\lambda x.x)[x \to y] = \lambda x.x$$
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Unsafe Substitution: Example

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Again, the naive substitution

$$(\lambda x. (mul \ y \ x))[y \to x] \Rightarrow (\lambda x. (mul \ x \ x))$$

is unsafe since the result represents a squaring operation whereas the original lambda expression does not

- A substitution is **valid** or **safe** if no free variable in E1 becomes bound as a result of the substitution $E[v \rightarrow E1]$
- An invalid substitution involves a variable capture or name clash
- Correct way would be:

$$(\lambda x. (mul\ y\ x))[y \to x] \Rightarrow (\lambda z. (mul\ y\ z))[y \to x]$$

 $(\lambda z. (mul\ y\ z))[y \to x] \Rightarrow (\lambda z. (mul\ x\ z))$

• Unsafe substitutions change in semantics!



Substitution

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Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction

 η -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation Normal and Applicative Order

• Definition: The **substitution** of an expression for a (free) variable in a λ -expression is denoted by $E[v \rightarrow E_1]$ and is defined as follows:

- $(E_{rator} \ E_{rand})[v \rightarrow E_1] = ((E_{rator}[v \rightarrow E_1])(E_{rand}[v \rightarrow E_1]))$
- (\(\lambda v. E\)[v \rightarrow E_1] = (\(\lambda v. E\) // v is not free in E
- () $(\lambda x. E)[v \to E_1] = \lambda x. (E[v \to E_1])$ when $x \neq v$ and $x \notin FV(E_1)$
- ($\lambda x.\ E)[v \to E_1] = \lambda z.\ (E[x \to z][v \to E_1]) \text{ when } x \neq v \text{ and } x \in FV(E_1), \text{ where } z \neq v \text{ and } z \notin FV(E_1)$
- In part (g), the first substitution E[x → z] replaces the bound variable x that will capture the free x's in E₁ by an entirely new bound variable z. Then the intended substitution can be performed safely.



Substitution Example

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Semantics
Free and Bou

Variables Substitution

Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction

 η -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation Normal and

```
(\lambda y. (\lambda f. f x) y) [x \rightarrow f y]
                                                                       \Rightarrow_{\alpha}
\lambda z. ((\lambda f. f x) z) [x \rightarrow f y]
                                                                                  by g) since y \in FV(f \ y)
                                                                      \Rightarrow
\lambda z. ((\lambda f. f x) [x \rightarrow f y] z[x \rightarrow f y])
                                                                                  by d)
                                                                       \Rightarrow
\lambda z. ((\lambda f. f x) [x \rightarrow f v] z)
                                                                       \Rightarrow
                                                                                  by b)
\lambda z. (\lambda g. (g x) [x \rightarrow f y]) z
                                                                                  by g) since f \in FV(f \ v)
                                                                       \Rightarrow
\lambda z. (\lambda g. g (f v)) z
                                                                                  by d), b), and a)
                                                                       \Rightarrow
```

Rules

- $c[v \rightarrow E_1] = c$ for any constant c
- $(E_{rator} E_{rand})[v \rightarrow E_1] = ((E_{rator}[v \rightarrow E_1])(E_{rand}[v \rightarrow E_1]))$
- $(\lambda v. E)[v \rightarrow E_1] = (\lambda v. E)$
- (1) $(\lambda x. E)[v \to E_1] = \lambda x. (E[v \to E_1])$ when $x \neq v$ and $x \notin FV(E_1)$
- (λx . E)[$v \to E_1$] = λz . ($E[x \to z][v \to E_1]$) when $x \neq v$ and $x \in FV(E_1)$, where $z \neq v$ and $z \notin FV(E_1)$



Reduction

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Free and Boun Variables Substitution Reduction α-Reduction β-Reduction

 α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation Normal and Applicative Order

- A λ -expression has as its meaning the λ -expression that results after all its function applications (combinations) are carried out
- ullet Evaluating a λ -expression is called **reduction**
- Four rules of reduction
 - ullet α -Reduction: Renaming rule
 - β-Reduction: Substitution rule
 - η -Reduction: Function Equality rule
 - δ -Reduction: Pre-defined Constants' rule



α -Reduction

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• Definition: If v and w are variables and E is a λ -expression,

$$\lambda v. E \Rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda w. E[v \rightarrow w]$$

provided that w does not occur at all in E, which makes the substitution $E[v \rightarrow w]$ safe

- The equivalence of expressions under α -reduction is what makes part g) of the definition of substitution correct
- The α -reduction rule simply allows the changing of bound variables as long as there is no capture of a free variable occurrence
- The two sides of the rule can be thought of as variants of each other, both members of an equivalence class of congruent λ -expressions



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• The last example contains two α -reductions:

$$\lambda y. (\lambda f. f x) y \Rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda y. ((\lambda f. f x) y)[y \to z] \Rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda z. (\lambda f. f x) z$$

 $\lambda z. (\lambda f. f x) z \Rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda z. ((\lambda f. f x) z)[f \to g] \Rightarrow_{\alpha} \lambda z. (\lambda g. g x) z$

 Now that we have a justification of the substitution mechanism, the main simplification rule can be formally defined



β -Reduction

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Free and Bound Variables
Substitution
Reduction
α:-Reduction
β-Reduction
σ-Reduction
δ-Reduction
δ-Reduction
Order of Evaluation

• Definition: If v is a variable and E and E_1 are λ -expressions,

$$(\lambda v. E) E_1 \Rightarrow_{\beta} E[v \rightarrow E_1]$$

provided that the substitution $E[v \rightarrow E_1]$ is carried out according to the rules for a safe substitution

• This β -reduction rule describes the function application rule in which the actual parameter or argument E_1 is passed to the function $(\lambda v. E)$ by substituting the argument for the formal parameter v in the function



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Free and Bound Variables Substitution Reduction σ -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation Normal and Application Order

• Definition: If v is a variable and E and E_1 are λ -expressions,

$$(\lambda v. E) E_1 \Rightarrow_{\beta} E[v \rightarrow E_1]$$

provided that the substitution $E[v \to E_1]$ is carried out according to the rules for a safe substitution

- The left side $(\lambda v. E)$ E_1 of a β -reduction is called a β -redex derived from reduction expression and meaning an expression that can be β -reduced
- ullet eta-reduction is the main rule of evaluation in the λ -calculus
- ullet α -reduction makes the substitutions for variables valid



β -Reduction

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Semantics

Free and Bound Variables

Substitution

Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction δ -Reduction

Order of Evaluati

Normal and

Applicative Order of Evaluati

- The evaluation of a λ -expression consists of a series of β -reductions, possibly interspersed with α -reductions to change bound variables to avoid confusion
- Take $E \Rightarrow F$ to mean $E \Rightarrow_{\beta} F$ or $E \Rightarrow_{\alpha} F$ and let \Rightarrow^* be the reflexive and transitive closure of \Rightarrow
- Hence:
 - For any expression E, $E \Rightarrow^* E$ and
 - For any three expressions, $(E_1 \Rightarrow^* E_2 \text{ and } E_2 \Rightarrow^* E_3)$ implies $E_1 \Rightarrow^* E_3$
- The goal of evaluation in the λ -calculus is to reduce a λ -expression via \Rightarrow until it contains no more β -redexes
- To define an *equality* relation on λ -expressions, we also allow a β -reduction rule to work backward



β -Abstraction

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• *Definition*: Reversing β -reduction produces the β -abstraction rule,

$$E[v \rightarrow E_1] \Rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda v. E) E_1$$

and the two rules taken together give β -conversion, denoted by \Leftrightarrow_{β}

- Therefore $E \Leftrightarrow_{\beta} F$ if $E \Rightarrow_{\beta} F$ or $F \Rightarrow_{\beta} E$
- Take $E \Leftrightarrow F$ to mean $E \Leftrightarrow_{\beta} F$, $E \Rightarrow_{\alpha} F$ or $F \Rightarrow_{\alpha} E$ and let \Leftrightarrow^* be the reflexive and transitive closure of \Leftrightarrow
- Two λ-expressions E and F are equivalent or equal if E ⇔* F



β -Abstraction

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Free and Bou Variables

Reduction

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 β -Reduction

n-Reducti

 δ -Reduction

Order of Evaluation
Normal and

• Reductions (both α and β) are allowed to sub-expressions in a λ -expression by three rules:



η -Reduction

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Substitution
Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction

• Definition: If v is a variable and E is a λ -expression (denoting a function), and v has no free occurrence in E,

$$\lambda v. (E \ v) \Rightarrow_{\eta} E$$

Example:

$$\lambda x. (sqr \ x) \Rightarrow_{\eta} sqr$$

 $\lambda x. (add 5 \ x) \Rightarrow_{\eta} (add 5)$

Note: $(add \ 5 \ x)$ abbreviates $(add \ 5)$

• Take $E \Leftrightarrow_{\eta} F$ to mean $E \Rightarrow_{\eta} F$ or $F \Rightarrow_{\eta} E$



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 The requirement that x should have no free occurrences in E is necessary to avoid an invalid reduction such as

$$\lambda x. (add x x) \Rightarrow (add x)$$

- This rule fails when E represents some constants; for example, if 5 is a predefined constant numeral, λx . (5 x) and 5 are not equivalent or even related
- η -reduction, justifies an extensional view of functions; that is, two functions are equal if they produce the same values when given the same arguments

$$\forall x, f(x) = g(x) \Rightarrow f = g$$



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Semantics

Free and Bound
Variables

Substitution

Reduction

α-Reduction

β-Reduction

δ-Reduction

Order of Evaluation

Normal and

Applicative Order

• Extensionality Theorem: If $F_1 \times \Rightarrow^* E$ and $F_2 \times \Rightarrow^* E$ where $x \notin FV(F_1 F_2)$, then $F_1 \Leftrightarrow^* F_2$ where \Leftrightarrow^* includes η -reductions.

$$F_1 \Leftrightarrow_{\eta} \lambda x. (F_1 x) \Leftrightarrow_{\eta} \lambda x. E \Leftrightarrow_{\eta} \lambda x. (F_2 x) \Leftrightarrow_{\eta} F_2$$

ullet The rule is not strictly necessary for reducing λ -expressions and may cause problems in the presence of constants, but included for completeness

23



δ -Reduction

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• Definition: If the λ -calculus has predefined constants (that is, if it is not pure), rules associated with those predefined values and functions are called *delta* rules:

• Example:

$$(add \ 3 \ 5) \Rightarrow_{\delta} 8$$

and

(not true)
$$\Rightarrow_{\delta}$$
 false

• Example:

```
twice = \lambda f. \lambda x. f (f x)

twice (\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1)) 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta}

(\lambda f. \ \lambda x. (f\ (f\ x)))(\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1)) 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta}

(\lambda x. ((\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1))((\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1))\ x))) 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta}

(\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1)) ((\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1)) 5) \Rightarrow_{\beta}

(add ((\lambda n. (add \ n\ 1))\ 5)\ 1) \Rightarrow_{\beta}

(add (add\ 5\ 1)\ 1) \Rightarrow_{\delta} 7
```



Evaluation Strategies

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Semantics
Free and Bound Variables
Substitution
Reduction
α:Reduction
β-Reduction
η-Reduction
Order of Evaluation
Normal and
Applicative Order

Call-by-Value (CBV)

- C / C++: the argument expression is evaluated, and the resulting value is bound to the corresponding variable in the function (frequently by copying the value into a new memory region)
- Call-by-Reference (CBR)
 - C++: a function receives an implicit reference to a variable used as argument, rather than a copy of its value
 - CBR may be simulated in languages that use CBV by making use of references, such as pointers (Call-by-Address or CBA)
- Call-by-Copy-Restore (CBCR) / Value-Result
 - Fortran (old): a special case of call by reference where the provided reference is unique to the caller (Copy-in-Copy-out)
- Call-by-Name (CBN)
 - C / C++ Macro: the arguments to a function are not evaluated before the function is called – rather, they are substituted directly into the function body
 - Lazy Evaluation
 - Call-by-Need: a memorized variant of CBN where, if the function argument is evaluated, that value is stored for subsequent uses

25



Evaluation Strategies

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Free and Boun Variables Substitution Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction

Order of Evaluatio

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
void f(int a, int b) { a++; b--; return; }
                                                        // CBV
void g(int& a, int& b) { a++; b--; return; }
                                                        // CBR
void h(int* pa, int* pb) { (*pa)++; (*pb)--; return; } // CBA
#define m_f(a, b) ( a * b )
                                                        // CBN
int main() {
    int x = 3, y = 4, z = 5;
   f(x, y);
    cout << x << " " << y << endl;
                                          // CBV = 3.4
   g(x, y);
    cout << x << " " << y << endl;
                                          // CBR = 4.3
   h(&x, &y);
    cout << x << " " << y << endl;
                                          // CBA = 5.2
   g(z, z);
    cout << z << endl;
                                          // CBR = 5, CBCR = 6 or 4
    cout << m_f(x + 1, y + 1) << endl; // CBN = x + y + 1 = 8
   return 0:
}
```



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Semantics
Free and Boun
Variables
Substitution
Reduction

 β -Reductio η -Reductio

 δ -Reduction

Normal and

Definition: A λ -expression is in **normal form** if it contains no β -redexes (and no δ -rules in an applied λ calculus), so that it cannot be further reduced using the β -rule or the δ -rule.

An expression in normal form has no more function applications to evaluate.



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Questions:

- **①** Can every λ -expression be reduced to a normal form?
- 2 Is there more than one way to reduce a particular λ -expression?
- If there is more than one reduction strategy, does each one lead to the same normal form expression?
- Is there a reduction strategy that will guarantee that a normal form expression will be produced?



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Semantic

Free and Bou Variables

Reduction

α-Reducti

 η -Reductio

Order of Evaluation

Normal and

1. Can every λ -expression be reduced to a normal form?

No. Consider:

$$(\lambda x. \ x \ x)(\lambda x. \ x \ x) \Rightarrow$$

$$(\lambda x. \ x \ x)(\lambda x. \ x \ x) \Rightarrow (\lambda x. \ x \ x)(\lambda x. \ x \ x) \Rightarrow$$

$$(\lambda x. \ x \ x)(\lambda x. \ x \ x) \Rightarrow$$

...



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2. Is there more than one way to reduce a particular λ -expression?

Yes. Consider:

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. (add y ((\lambda z. (mul \times z)) 3))) 7 5$$

Path 1: OUTERMOST

```
\begin{array}{l} (\lambda x. \ \lambda y. \ (\text{add} \ y \ ((\lambda z. \ (\text{mul} \ x \ z)) \ 3))) \ 7 \ 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta} \\ (\lambda y. \ (\text{add} \ y \ ((\lambda z. \ (\text{mul} \ 7 \ z)) \ 3))) \ 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta} \\ (\text{add} \ 5 \ ((\lambda z. \ (\text{mul} \ 7 \ z)) \ 3)) \Rightarrow_{\beta} \ (\text{add} \ 5 \ (\text{mul} \ 7 \ 3)) \Rightarrow_{\delta} \ (\text{add} \ 5 \ 21) \Rightarrow_{\delta} \ 26 \end{array}
```

Path 2: INNERMOST

```
(\lambda x. \ \lambda y. \ (add \ y((\lambda z. \ (mul \ x \ z)) \ 3))) \ 7 \ 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. \ \lambda y. \ (add \ y \ (mul \ x \ 3))) \ 7 \ 5 \Rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. \ (add \ 5 \ (mul \ x \ 3))) \ 7 \Rightarrow_{\beta} (add \ 5 \ (mul \ 7 \ 3)) \Rightarrow_{\delta} (add \ 5 \ 21) \Rightarrow_{\delta} 26
```

Path 3: MIXED

$$\begin{array}{l} (\lambda x.\ \lambda y.\ (add\ y((\lambda z.\ (mul\ x\ z))\ 3)))\ 7\ 5\Rightarrow_{\beta}\\ (\lambda x.\ \lambda y.\ (add\ y\ (mul\ x\ 3)))\ 7\ 5\Rightarrow_{\beta}(\lambda y.\ (add\ y\ (mul\ 7\ 3)))\ 5\Rightarrow_{\delta}\\ (\lambda y.\ (add\ y\ 21))\ 5\Rightarrow_{\beta}(add\ 5\ 21)\Rightarrow_{\delta}\ 26 \end{array}$$



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eta-Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction

Order of Evaluation

3. If there is more than one reduction strategy, does each one lead to the same normal form expression?

No. Consider:

$$(\lambda y. 5)((\lambda x. \times x)(\lambda x. \times x))$$

Path 1:

$$(\lambda y. 5)((\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x)) \Rightarrow 5$$

Path 2:

$$(\lambda y. 5)((\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x)) \Rightarrow (\lambda y. 5)((\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x)) \Rightarrow$$

$$(\lambda y. 5)((\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x)) \Rightarrow$$

...



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Substitution
Reduction

α-Reduction
β-Reduction
δ-Reduction
δ-Reduction
Normal and
Applicative Order

4. Is there a reduction strategy that will guarantee that a normal form expression will be produced?

Mathematician Curry proved that if an expression has a normal form, then it can be found by leftmost reduction.

A normal order reduction can have either of the following outcomes:

- It reaches a unique (up to α -conversion) normal form λ -expression
- 2 It never terminates

Unfortunately, there is no algorithmic way to determine for an arbitrary λ -expression which of these two outcomes will occur



Reduction Strategies: Normal and Applicative Order

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Semantics
Free and Bound Variables
Substitution
Reduction

-Reduction

β-Reduction

η-Reduction

Order of Evaluation

Normal and

Applicative Order

Two important orders of rewriting:

- **Normal Order** rewrite the outermost (leftmost) occurrence of a function application.
 - This is equivalent to call by name.
- **Applicative Order** rewrite the innermost (leftmost) occurrence of a function application first.
 - This is equivalent to call by value.

Normal order evaluation always gives the same results as lazy evaluation, but may end up evaluating an expression more times.



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Free and Bound Variables Substitution Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction

eta-Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction

Order of Evaluation

Normal and

Applicative Order

• Example:

double
$$x = x + x$$

average $x y = (x + y)/2$

Using prefix notation:

$$double x = plus x x$$

 $average x y = divide (plus x y) 2$

Evaluate:



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Free and Bound
Variables
Substitution
Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction β -Reduction δ -Reduction
Order of Evaluation
Normal and
Applicative Order

Evaluate:

- Using normal order of evaluation: double (average 2 4) \Rightarrow plus (average 2 4) (average 2 4) \Rightarrow plus (divide (plus 2 4) 2) (average 2 4) \Rightarrow plus (divide 6 2) (average 2 4) \Rightarrow plus 3 (divide 6 2) (average 2 4) \Rightarrow plus 3 (divide (plus 2 4) 2) \Rightarrow plus 3 (divide 6 2) \Rightarrow plus 3 3 \Rightarrow 6
 - Notice that (average 2 4) was evaluated twice ... lazy evaluation would cache the results of the first evaluation
- Using applicative order of evaluation:
 double (average 2 4) ⇒ double (divide (plus 2 4) 2) ⇒
 double (divide 6 2) ⇒ double 3 ⇒ plus 3 3 ⇒ 6



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Consider:

$$my_{if}$$
 True $x y = x$
 my_{if} False $x y = y$

Evaluate:

```
my_if (less 3 4) (plus 5 5) (divide 1 0)
```

- Using normal order of evaluation: my_if (less 3 4) (plus 5 5) (divide 1 0) \Rightarrow my_if True (plus 5 5) (divide 1 0) \Rightarrow (plus 5 5) \Rightarrow 10
- Using applicative order of evaluation:
 my_if (less 3 4) (plus 5 5) (divide 1 0) ⇒
 my_if True (plus 5 5) (divide 1 0) ⇒
 my_if True 10 (divide 1 0) ⇒
 DIVIDE BY ZERO ERROR



Properties of Order of Evaluation: Strictness

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Semantics
Free and Bound
Variables
Substitution
Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction
Order of Evaluation
Applicative Order

Two important properties of evaluation order:

- If there is any evaluation order that will terminate and that will not generate an error, normal order evaluation will terminate and will not generate an error.
- ANY evaluation order that terminates without error will give the same result as any other evaluation order that terminates without error.

Definition: A function f is *strict* in an argument if that argument is always evaluated whenever an application of f is evaluated.

If a function is strict in an argument, we can safely evaluate the argument first if we need the value of applying the function.

37



Lazy Evaluation and Strictness Analysis

PoPL

Partha Pratii Das

Free and Bound Variables Substitution Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation Normal and Applicative Order

We can use lazy evaluation on an ad-hoc basis (e.g. for *if*), for all arguments.

For all arguments, for some implementations of functional languages we can improve efficiency using strictness analysis.

plus a b is strict in both arguments if x y z is strict in x, but not in y and z

We can do some analysis and sometimes decide if a user-defined function is strict in some of its arguments:



Lazy Evaluation and Strictness Analysis

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Free and Bound Variables Substitution Reduction α -Reduction β -Reduction γ -Reduction δ -Reduction Order of Evaluation Normal and Applicative Order

Examples:

- double x is strict in x
- squid $n \times = if \ n = 0 \ then \ x + 1 \ else \ x n$ is strict in n and x
- $crab \ n \ x = if \ n = 0 \ then \ x + 1 \ else \ n$ is strict in n but not x

If a function is strict in an argument x, it is correct to pass x by value, even with normal order evaluation semantics.

It is not always decidable whether a function is strict in an argument – if we do not know, pass using lazy evaluation.



Reduction Strategies: Normal and Applicative Order

PoPL

Partha Prati Das

Semantics
Free and Bound
Variables
Substitution
Reduction

α-Reduction
β-Reduction
η-Reduction
δ-Reduction
Normal and
Applicative Order

Definition:

A **normal order reduction** always reduces the *leftmost* outermost β -redex (or δ -redex) first.

An **applicative order reduction** always reduces the *leftmost innermost* β -redex (or δ -redex) first.

Definition:

For any λ -expression of the form $E = ((\lambda x. B) A)$, we say that β -redex E is outside any β -redex that occurs in B or A and that these are inside E.

A β -redex in a λ -expression is outermost if there is no β -redex outside of it, and it is innermost if there is no β -redex inside of it.

Use AST for detection



AST of λ -expression

PoPL

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Semantic

E... D.

Substitutio

Reduction

O'-Redu

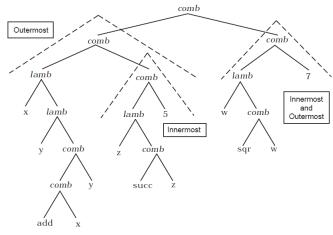
 β -Reduct

 η -Reduct

 δ -Reduction

Order of Evaluation

Normal and
Applicative Order



β-redexes in (((λx. λy. (add x y)) ((λz. (succ z)) 5)) ((λw. (sqr w)) 7))



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Semantics
Free and Bound
Variables
Substitution
Reduction α -Reduction η -Reduction δ -Reduction
Order of Evaluation
Normal and
Applicative Order

- Applicative Order (leftmost innermost) $((\lambda n. (add 5 n)) 8) \Rightarrow ((\lambda n. (add5 n)) 8) \Rightarrow -add5 : N \rightarrow N \text{ is curried } (add5 8) \Rightarrow 13$
 - Eager Evaluation
 - Call-by-Value (CBV)
 - Curried functions $(f \times y \times z)$ use eager reduction
- Normal Order (leftmost outermost) $((\lambda n. (add 5 n)) 8) \Rightarrow (add 5 8) \Rightarrow 13$
 - Lazy Evaluation
 - Call-by-Name (CBN)
 - Function f(x, y, z) use lazy reduction



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Applicative Order

```
((lambda (x) (+ x x)) (* 2 3))
       lazy/
                    \eager
(+ (* 2 3) (* 2 3)) ((lambda (x) (+ x x)) 6)
            (+66)
```