

# A Functional Evaluation Model

COS 326

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# A Functional Evaluation Model

In order to be able to write a program, you have to have a solid grasp of how a programming language works.

We often call the definition of “how a programming language works” its *semantics*.

There are many kinds of programming language semantics.

In this class, we will look at O’Caml’s *call-by-value* evaluation:

- First, informally, giving *program rewrite rules by example*
- Second, using code, by specifying an *OCaml interpreter* in OCaml
- Third, more formally, using logical *inference rules*

In each case, we are specifying what is known as OCaml's *operational semantics*

# O'CAML BASICS: CORE EXPRESSION EVALUATION

# Evaluation

- Execution of an OCaml expression
  - produces a value
  - and may have some effect (eg: it may raise an exception, print a string, read a file, or store a value in an array)
- A lot of OCaml expressions have no effect
  - they are pure
  - they produce a value and do nothing more
  - the pure expressions are the easiest kinds of expressions to reason about
- We will focus on evaluation of pure expressions

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Given an expression  $e$ , we write:

$e \rightarrow v$

to state that expression  $e$  evaluates to value  $v$

- Note that " $e \rightarrow v$ " is not itself a program -- it is some notation that we use talk about how programs work

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

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- Some examples:

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

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- Some examples:

$1 + 2$

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$$1 + 2 \rightarrow 3$$

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

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2

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Given an expression  $e$ , we write:

$e \rightarrow v$

to state that expression  $e$  evaluates to value  $v$

- Some examples:

$1 + 2 \rightarrow 3$

$2 \rightarrow 2$

values step to values

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Given an expression  $e$ , we write:

$e \rightarrow v$

to state that expression  $e$  evaluates to value  $v$

- Some examples:

$1 + 2 \rightarrow 3$

$2 \rightarrow 2$

`int_to_string 5 → "5"`

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

More generally, we say expression  $e$  (partly) evaluates to expression  $e'$ :

$$e \rightarrow e'$$

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

More generally, we say expression e (partly) evaluates to expression e':

$$e \rightarrow e'$$

Evaluation is *complete* when e' is a value

- In general, I'll use the letter "v" to represent an arbitrary value
- The letter "e" represents an arbitrary expression
- Concrete numbers, strings, characters, etc. are all values, as are:
  - tuples, where the fields are values
  - records, where the fields are values
  - datatype constructors applied to a value
  - *functions*

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Some expressions (all the interesting ones!) take many steps to evaluate them:

$$(2 * 3) + (7 * 5)$$

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Some expressions (all the interesting ones!) take many steps to evaluate them:

```
(2 * 3) + (7 * 5)  
--> 6 + (7 * 5)
```

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Some expressions (all the interesting ones!) take many steps to evaluate them:

```
(2 * 3) + (7 * 5)  
--> 6 + (7 * 5)  
--> 6 + 35
```

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Some expressions (all the interesting ones!) take many steps to evaluate them:

```
(2 * 3) + (7 * 5)
--> 6 + (7 * 5)
--> 6 + 35
--> 41
```

# Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Some expressions do not compute a value and it is not obvious how to proceed:

```
"hello" + 1 --> ????
```

- A *strongly typed language rules out a lot of nonsensical expressions that compute no value*, like the one above
- Other expressions compute no value but raise an exception:

```
7 / 0 --> raise Divide_by_zero
```

- Still others simply fail to terminate ...

# Let Expressions: Evaluate using Substitution

```
let x = 30 in  
let y = 12 in  
x+y
```

-->

```
let y = 12 in  
30 + y
```

-->

```
30 + 12
```

-->

```
42
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

To evaluate a function call “**f a**”

- first evaluate **f** until we get a function value (**fun x -> e**)
- then evaluate **a** until we get an argument value **v**
- then substitute **v** for **x** in **e**, the function body
- then evaluate the resulting expression.

this is why we say  
O'Caml is “call by value”

```
(let f = (fun x -> x + 1) in f) (30+11) -->
```

```
(fun x -> x + 1) (30 + 11) -->
```

```
(fun x -> x + 1) 41 -->
```

41 + 1

-->

42

# Informal Evaluation Model

Another example:

```
let add x y = x+y in  
let inc = add 1 in  
let dec = add (-1) in  
dec(inc 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

Recall the syntactic sugar:

```
let add = fun x -> (fun y -> x+y) in  
let inc = add 1 in  
let dec = add (-1) in  
dec(inc 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

Then we use the let rule – we substitute the *value* for add:

```
let add = fun x -> (fun y -> x+y) in  
let inc = add 1 in  
let dec = add (-1) in  
dec(inc 42)
```

functions are values

-->

```
let inc = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) 1 in  
let dec = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) -1 in  
dec(inc 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

```
let inc = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) 1 in  
let dec = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) (-1) in  
dec(inc 42)
```

-->

not a value; must reduce  
before substituting for inc

```
let inc = fun y -> 1+y in  
let dec = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) (-1) in  
dec(inc 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

```
let inc = fun y -> 1+y in  
let dec = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) (-1) in  
dec(inc 42)
```

now a value

-->

```
let dec = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) (-1) in  
dec((fun y -> 1+y) 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

Next: simplify dec's definition using the function-call rule.

```
let dec = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y)) (-1) in  
dec((fun y -> 1+y) 42)
```

-->

now a value

```
let dec = fun y -> -1+y in  
dec((fun y -> 1+y) 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

And we can use the let-rule now to substitute dec:

```
let dec = fun y -> -1+y in  
dec((fun y -> 1+y) 42)           -->  
  
(fun y -> -1+y) ((fun y -> 1+y) 42)
```

# Informal Evaluation Model

Now we can't yet apply the first function because the argument is not yet a value – it's a function call. So we need to use the function-call rule to simplify it to a value:

(**fun** y  $\rightarrow$   $-1+y$ ) ((**fun** y  $\rightarrow$   $1+y$ ) 42)  $\dashrightarrow$

(**fun** y  $\rightarrow$   $-1+y$ ) (1+42)  $\dashrightarrow$

(**fun** y  $\rightarrow$   $-1+y$ ) 43  $\dashrightarrow$

$-1+43$   $\dashrightarrow$

42

# Variable Renaming

Consider the following OCaml code:

```
let x = 30 in  
let y = 12 in  
x+y;;
```

Does this evaluate any differently than the following?

```
let a = 30 in  
let b = 12 in  
a+b;;
```

# Renaming

A basic principle of programs is that systematically changing the names of variables shouldn't cause the program to behave any differently – it should evaluate to the same thing.

```
let x = 30 in  
let y = 12 in  
x+y;;
```

But we do have to be careful about *systematic* change.

```
let a = 30 in  
let a = 12 in  
a+a;;
```

Systematic change of variable names is called *alpha-conversion*.

# Substitution

Wait a minute, how do we evaluate this using the let-rule? If we substitute 30 for “a” naively, then we get:

```
let a = 30 in  
let a = 12 in  
a+a
```

--->

```
let 30 = 12 in  
30+30
```

Which makes no sense at all!

Besides, Ocaml returns 24 not 60.

What went wrong with our informal model?

# Scope and Modularity

- Lexically scoped (a.k.a. statically scoped) variables have a simple rule: the nearest enclosing “let” in the code defines the variable.
- So when we write:

```
let a = 30 in  
let a = 12 in  
a+a;;
```

- we know that the “a+a” corresponds to “12+12” as opposed to “30+30” or even weirder “30+12”.

# A Revised Let-Rule:

- To evaluate “**let**  $x = e_1$  **in**  $e_2$ ”:
  - First, evaluate  $e_1$  to a value  $v$ .
  - Then substitute  $v$  for the *corresponding uses* of  $x$  in  $e_2$ .
  - Then evaluate the resulting expression.

```
let a = 30 in  
let a = 12 in  
a+a
```

This “a” doesn’t correspond to the uses of “a” below.

-->

```
let a = 12 in  
a+a
```

So when we substitute 30 for it, it doesn’t change anything.

-->

```
12+12
```

-->

```
24
```

# Scope and Modularity

- But what does “corresponding uses” mean?
- Consider:

```
let a = 30 in  
let a = (let a = 3 in a*4) in  
a+a;;
```

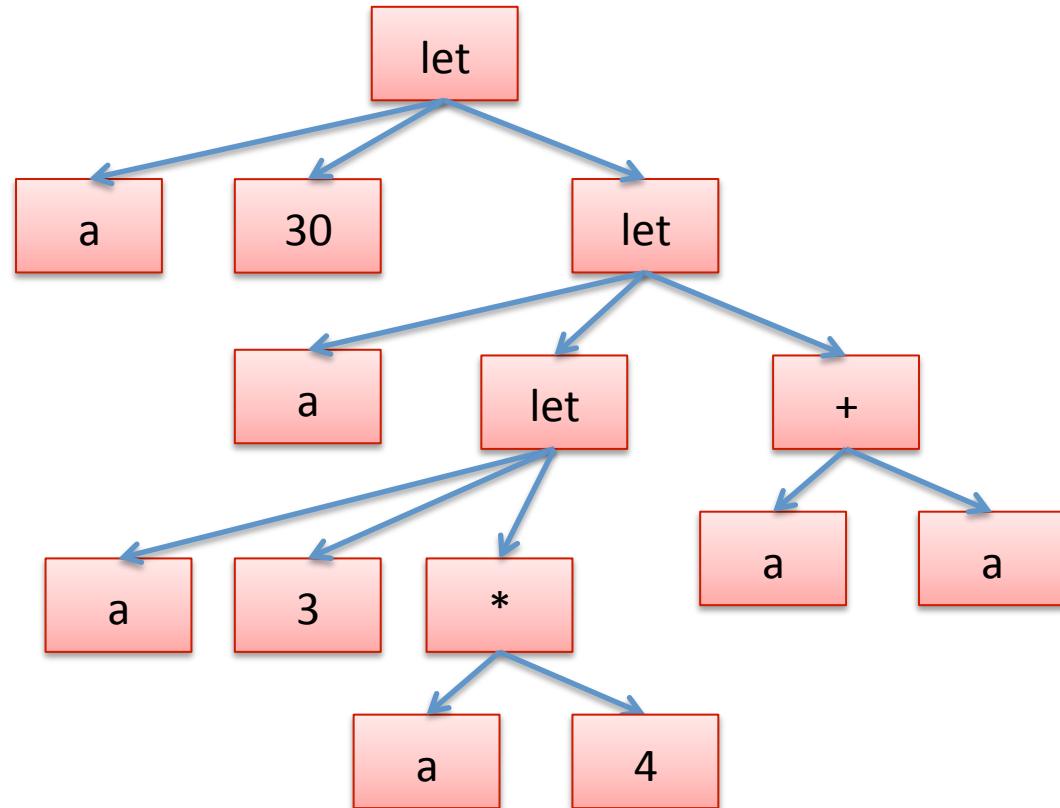
# Abstract Syntax Trees

- We can view a program as a tree – the parentheses and precedence rules of the language help determine the structure of the tree.

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```

==

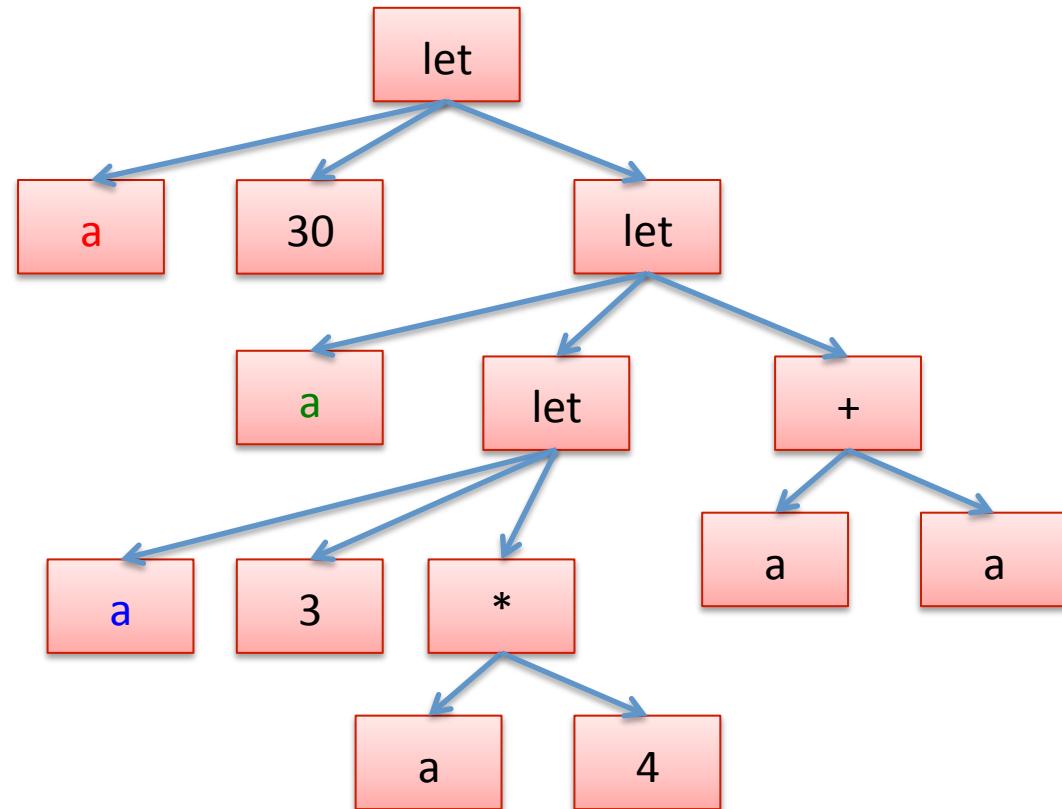
```
(let a = (30) in
  (let a =
    (let a = (3) in (a*a)))
  in
  (a+a)))
```



# Binding Occurrences

An occurrence of a variable where we are defining it via let is said to be a *binding occurrence* of the variable.

```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```

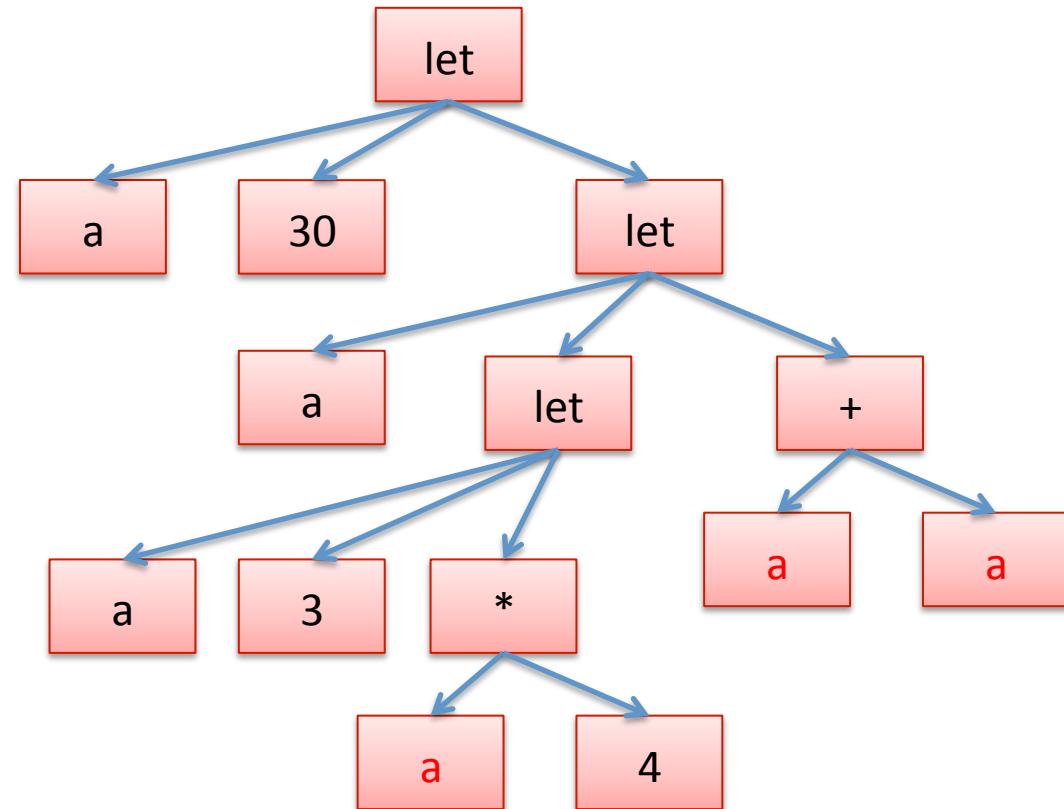


# Free Occurrences

A non-binding occurrence of a variable is said to be a *free variable*.

That is a *use* of a variable as opposed to a definition.

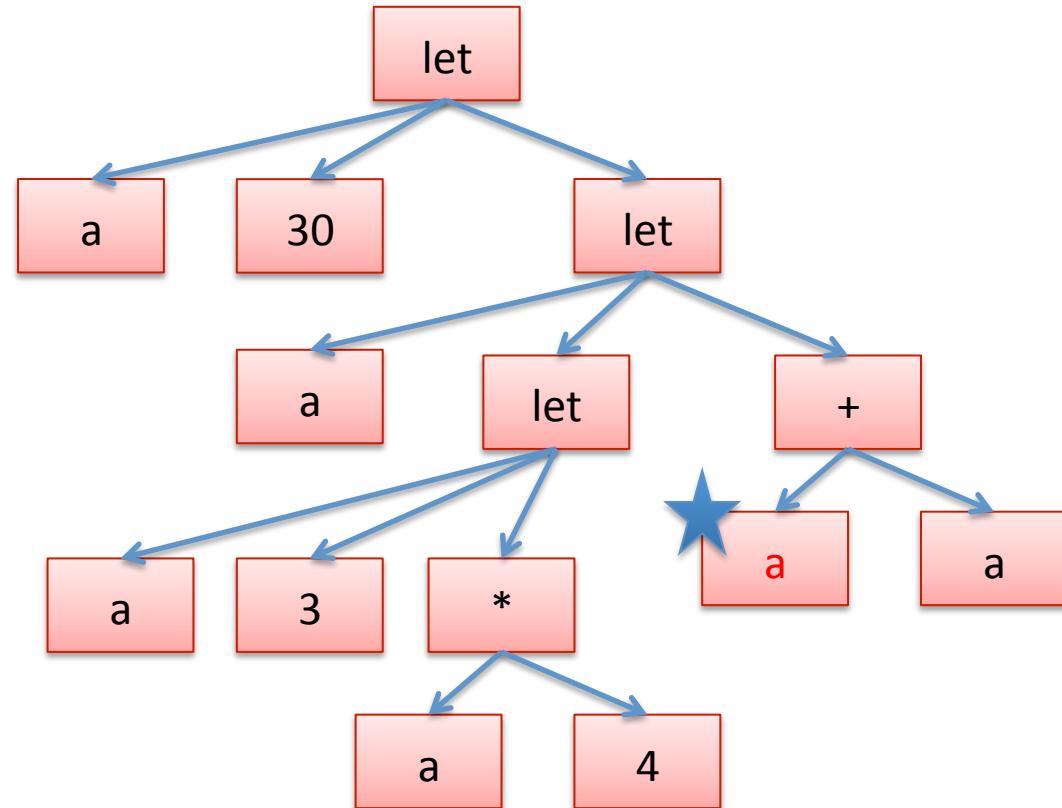
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Given a free variable occurrence, we can find where it is bound by ...

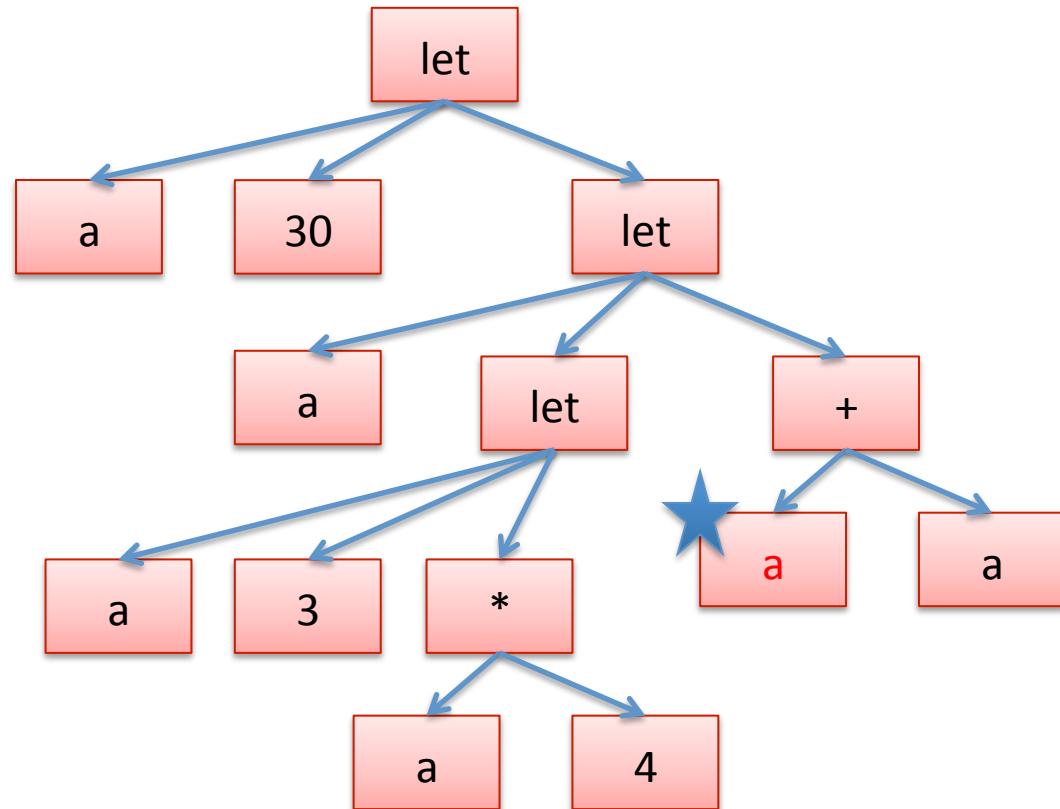
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- crawling up the tree to the nearest enclosing let...

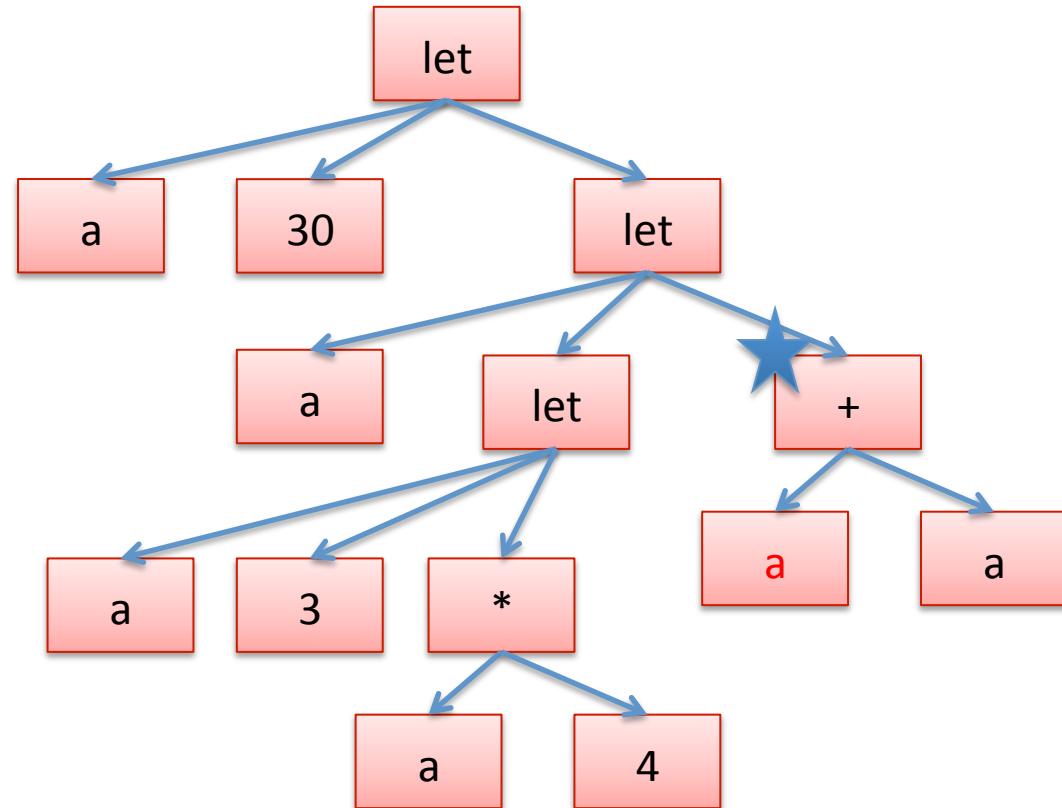
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- crawling up the tree to the nearest enclosing let...

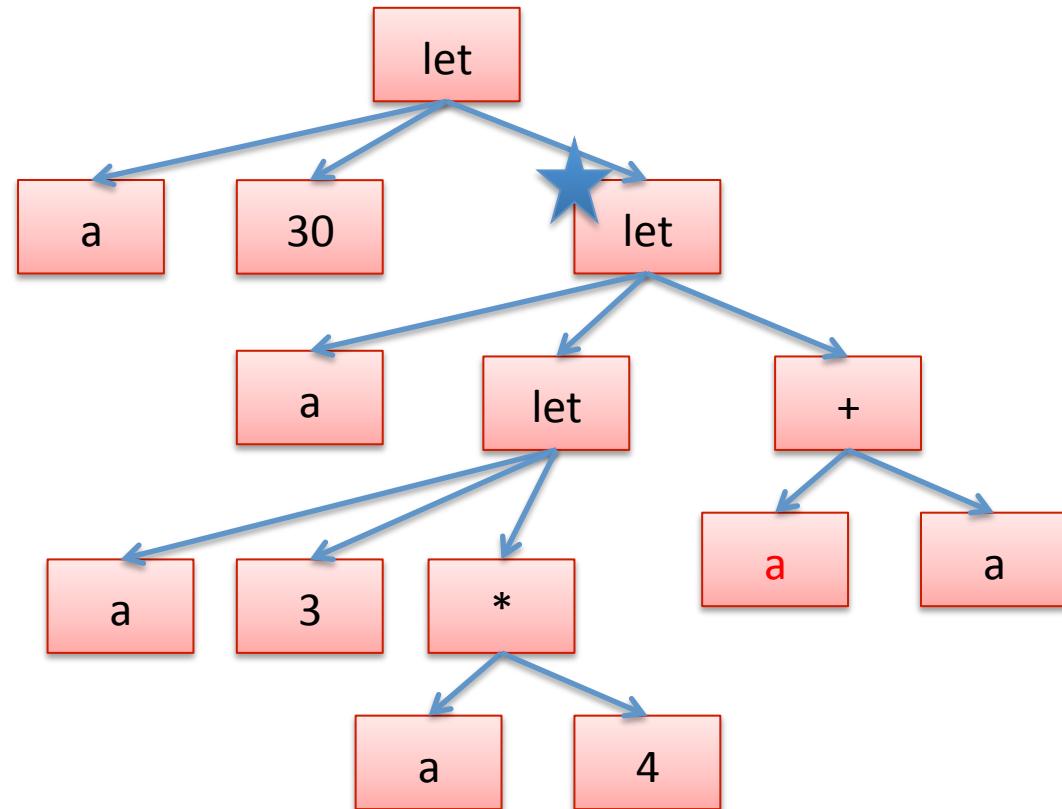
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- crawling up the tree to the nearest enclosing let...

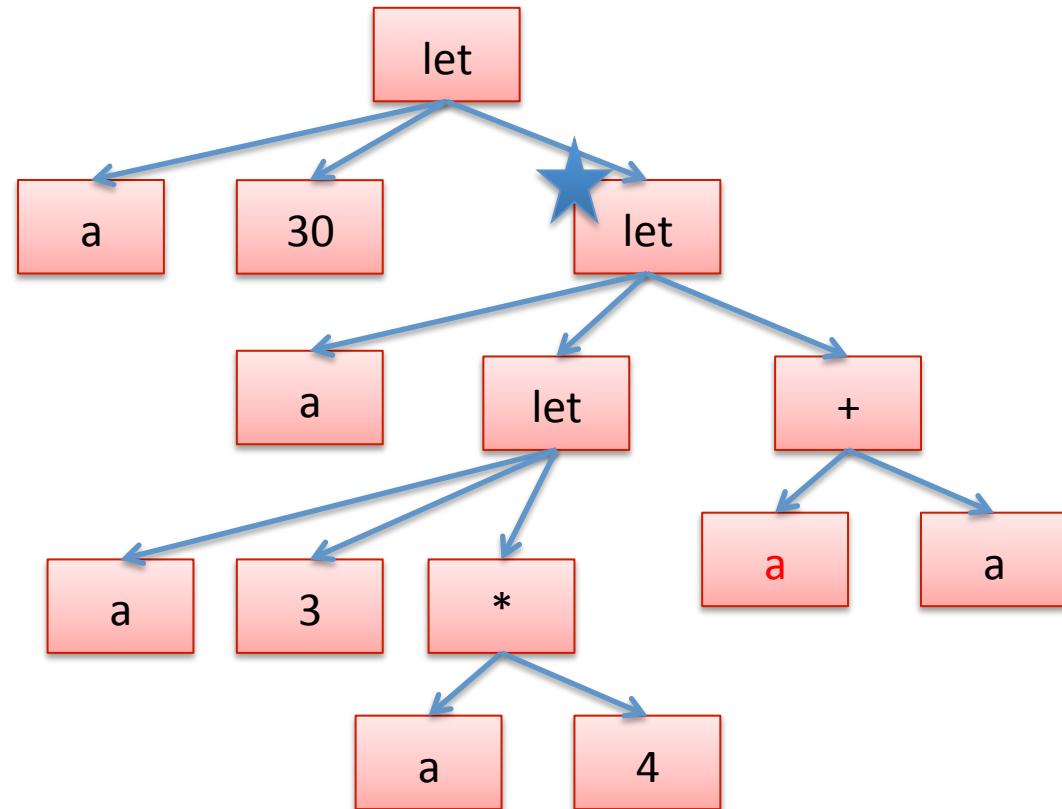
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- and see if the “let” binds the variable – if so, we’ve found the nearest enclosing definition. If not, we keep going up.

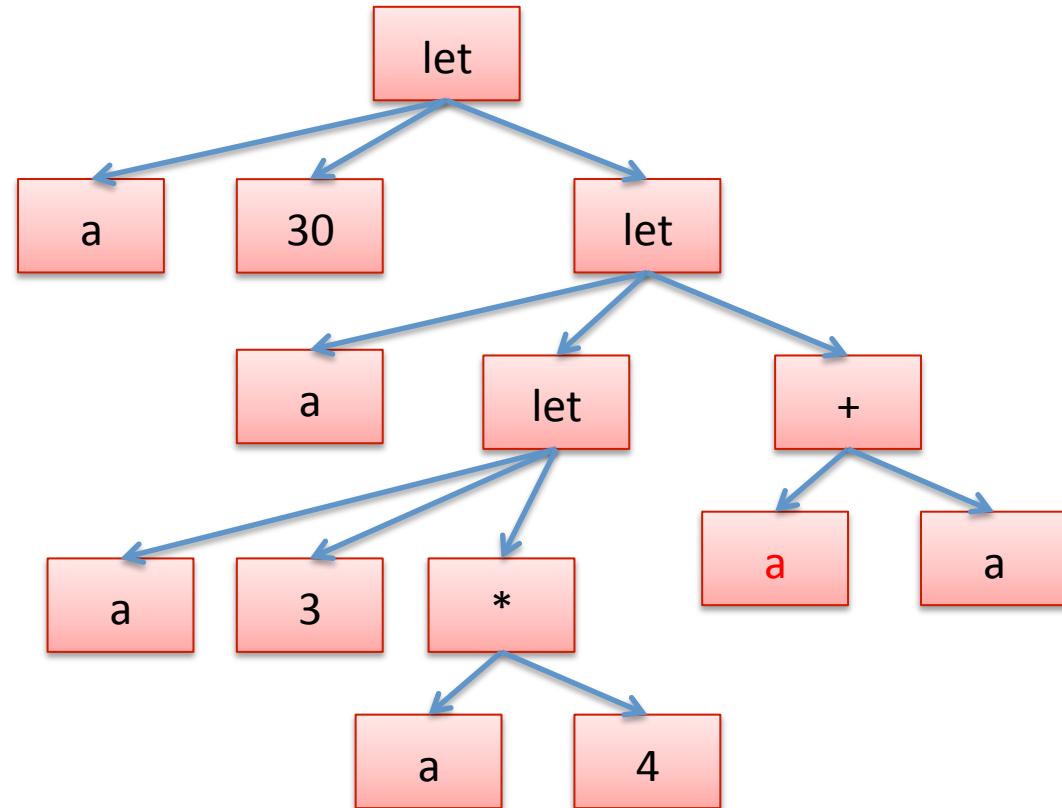
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Now we can also systematically rename the variables so that it's not so confusing. Systematic renaming is called *alpha-conversion*

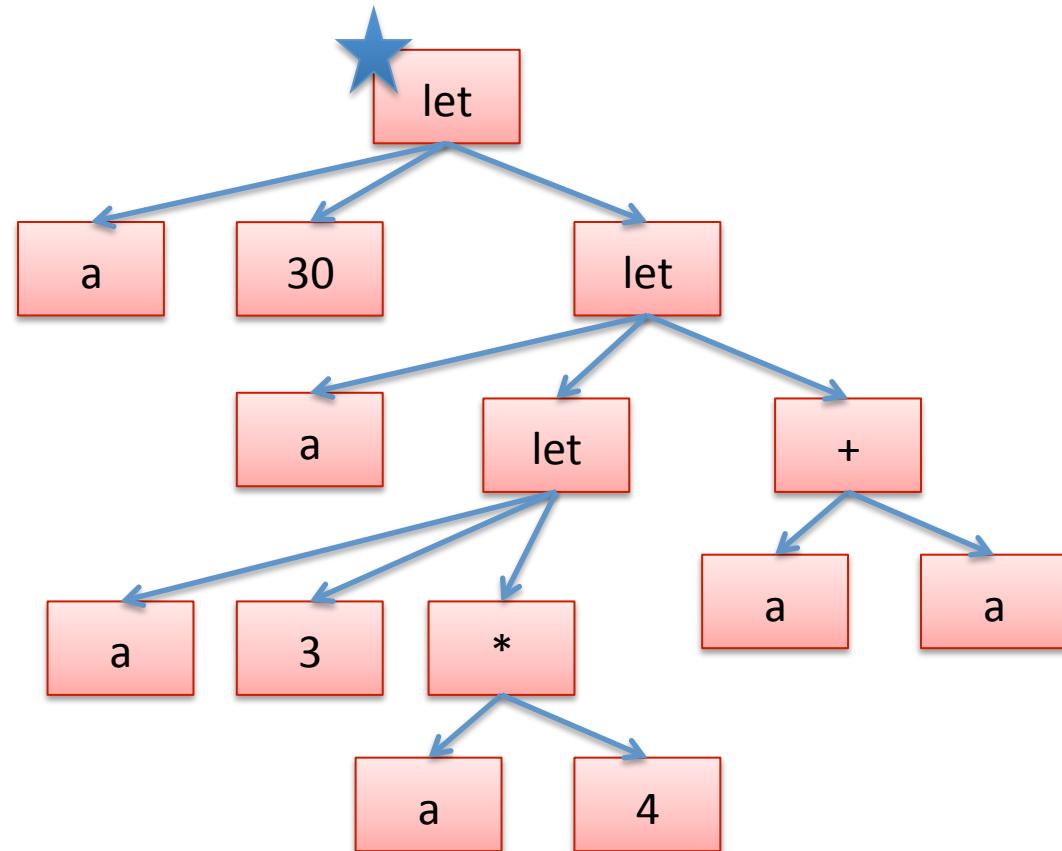
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Start with a let, and pick a fresh variable name, say “x”

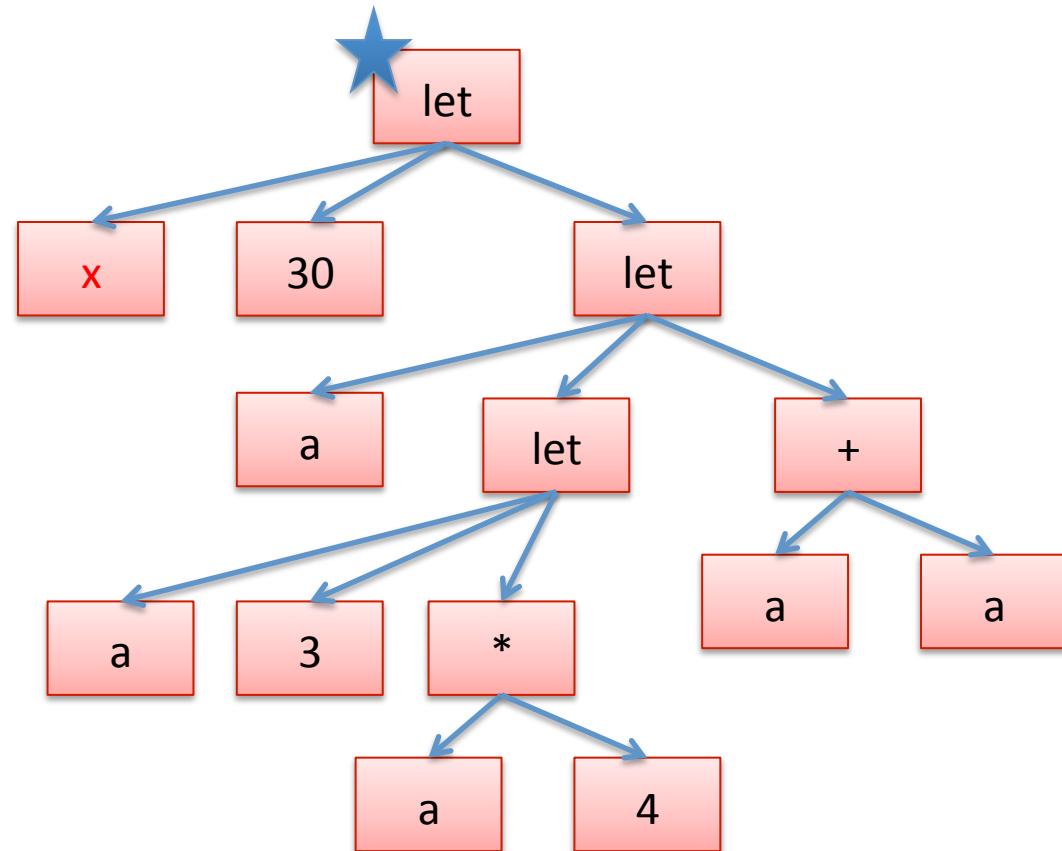
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Rename the binding occurrence from “a” to “x”.

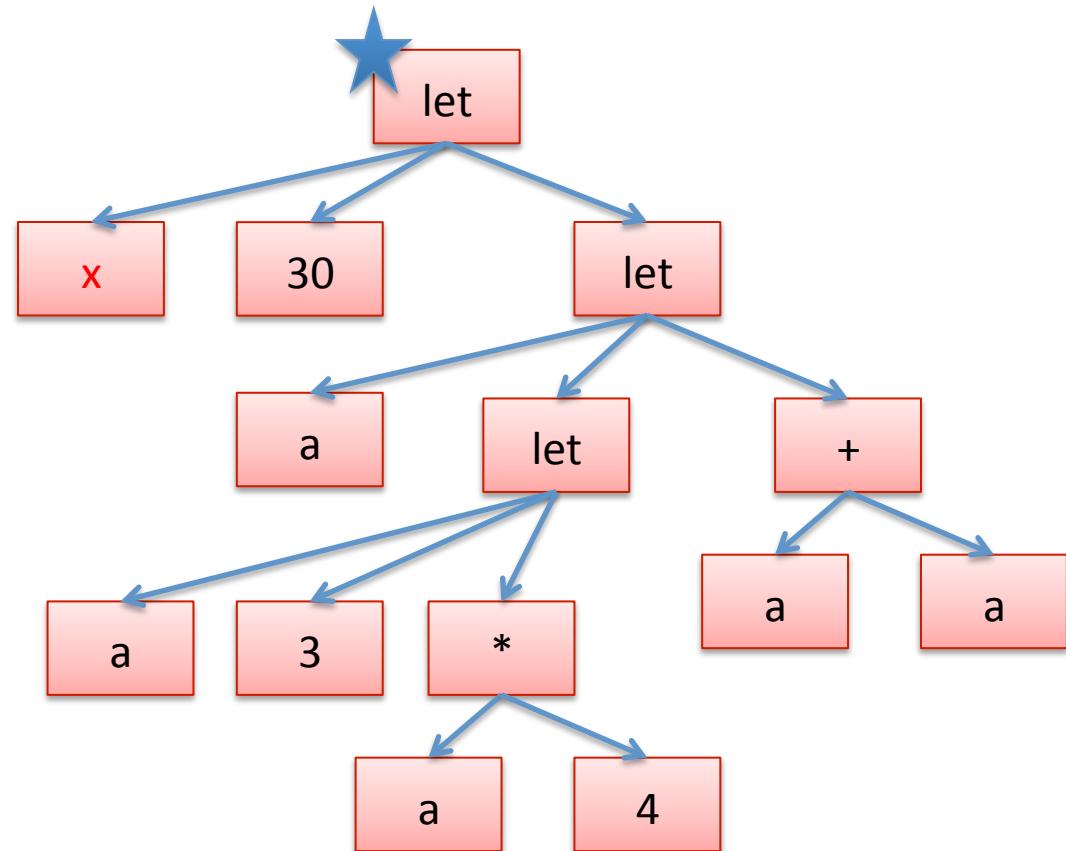
```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Then rename all of the free occurrences of the variables that this let binds.

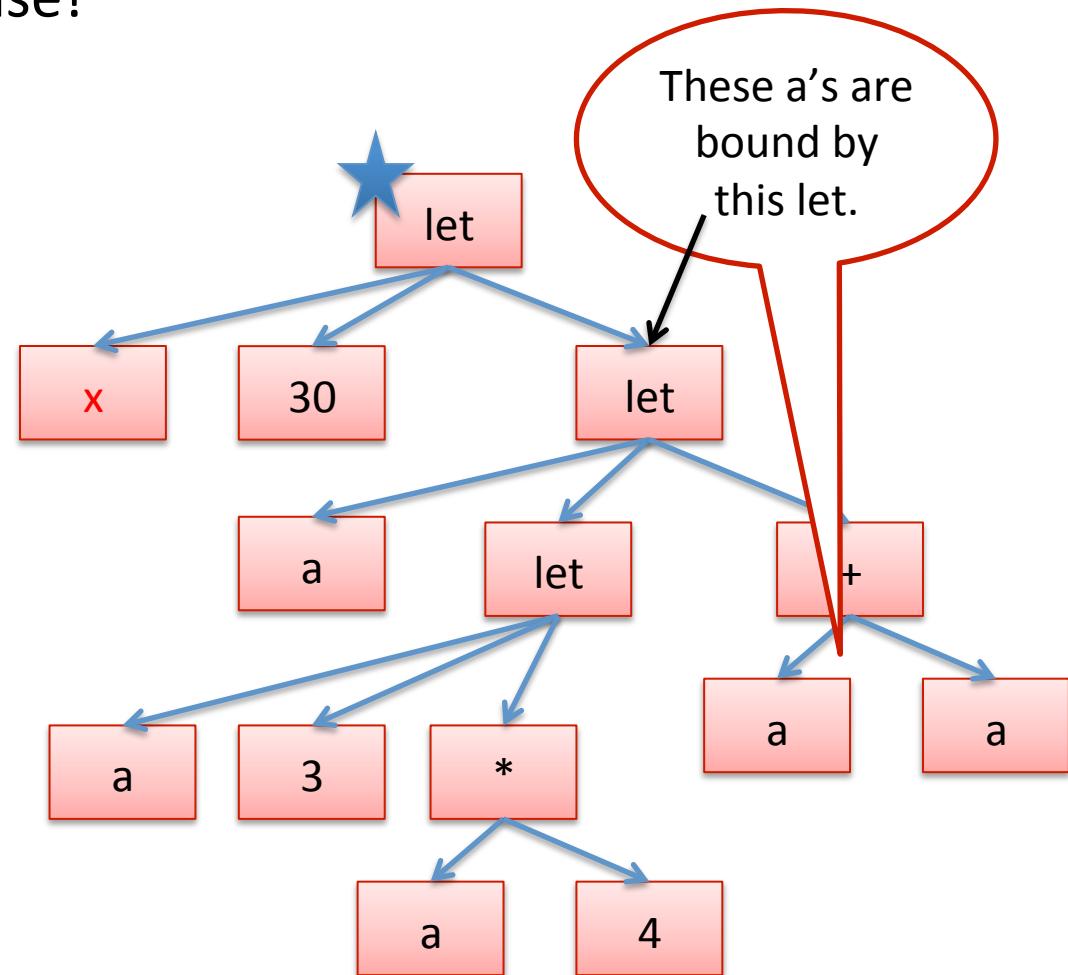
```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- There are none in this case!

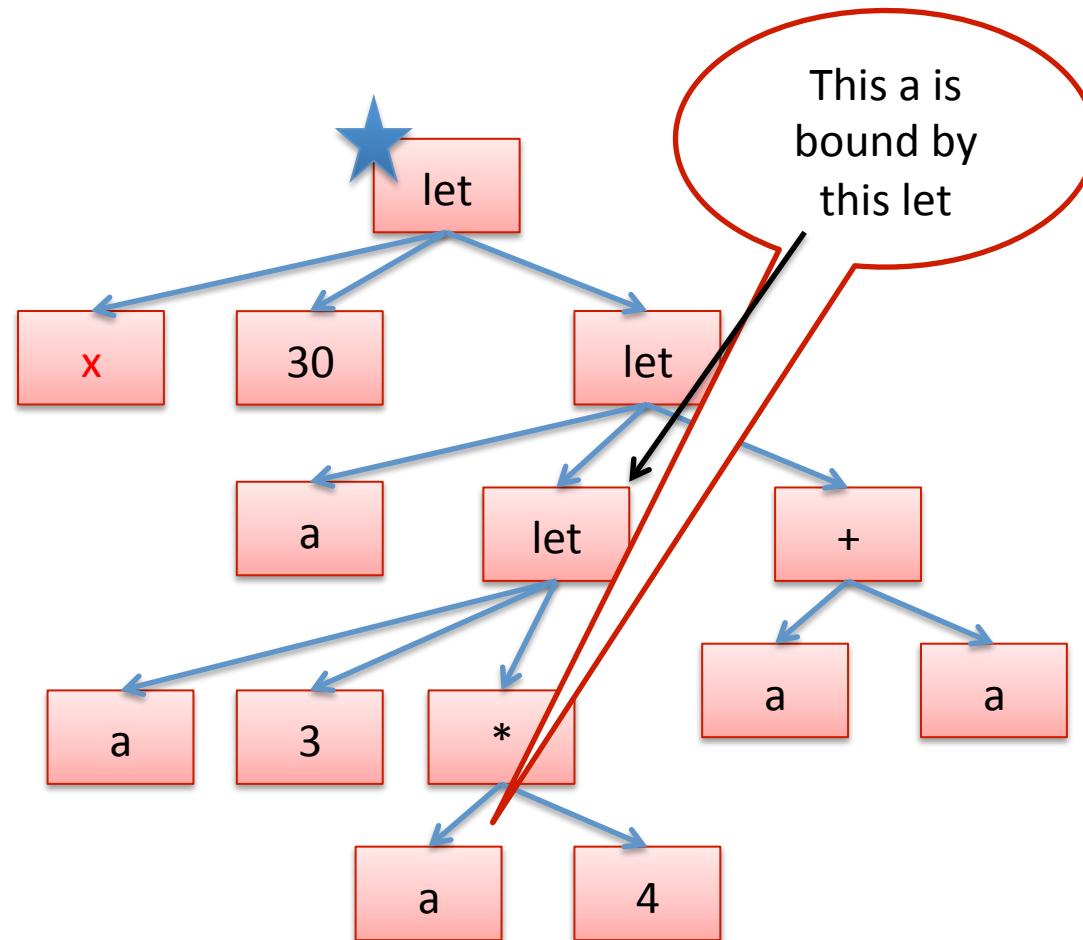
```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- There are none in this case!

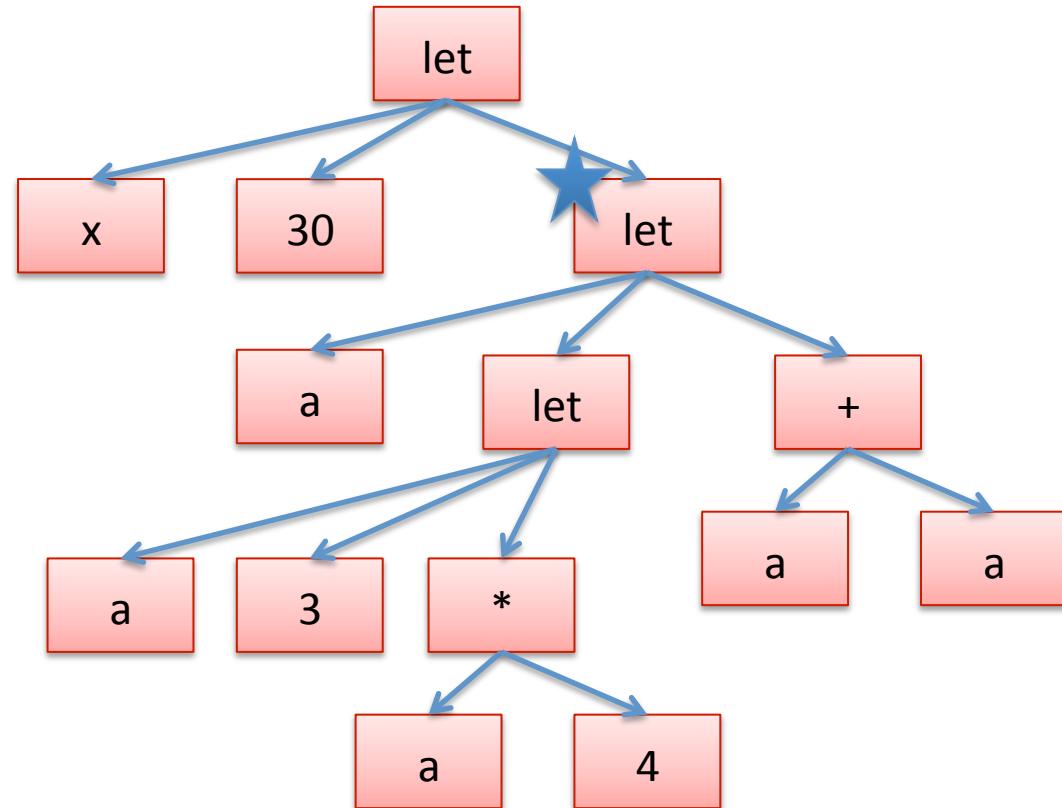
```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Let's do another let, renaming "a" to "y".

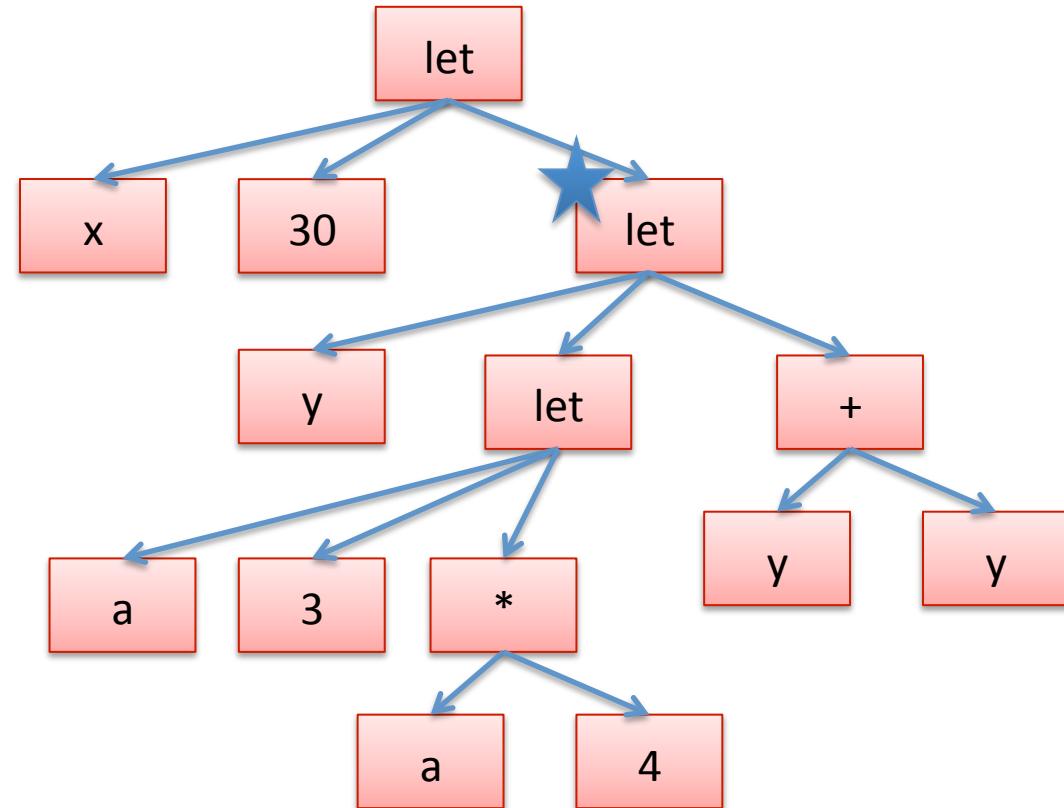
```
let x = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- Let's do another let, renaming "a" to "y".

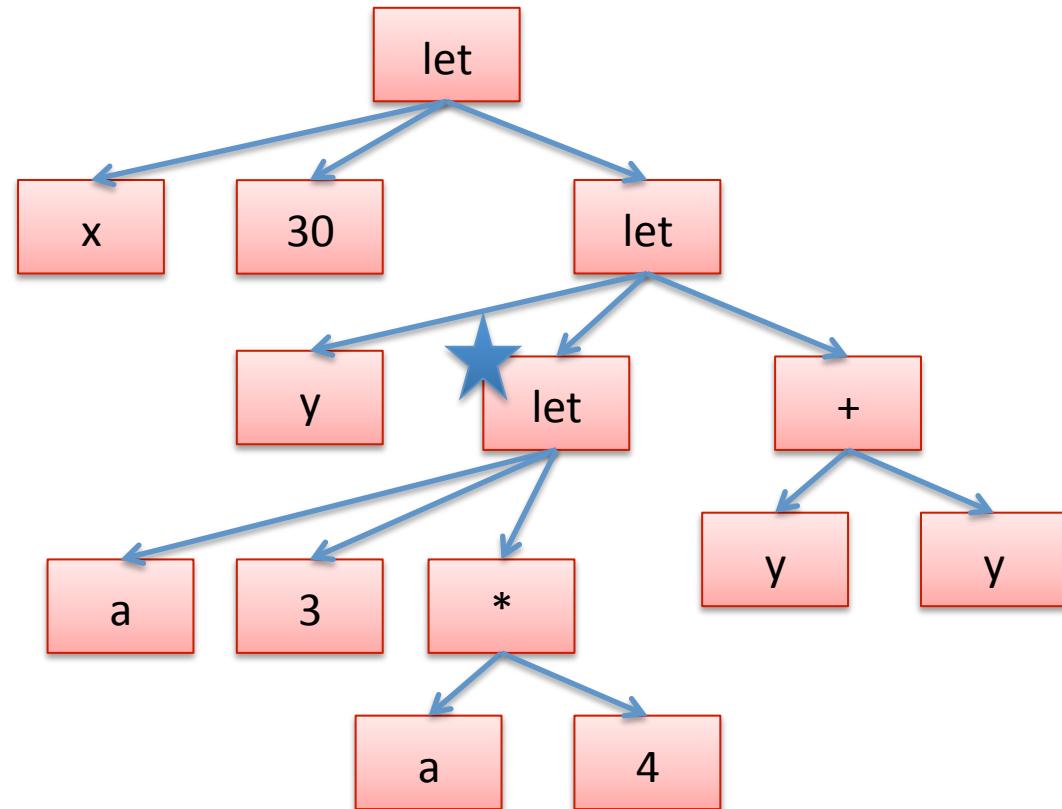
```
let x = 30 in
let y =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
y+y;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- And if we rename the other let to “z”:

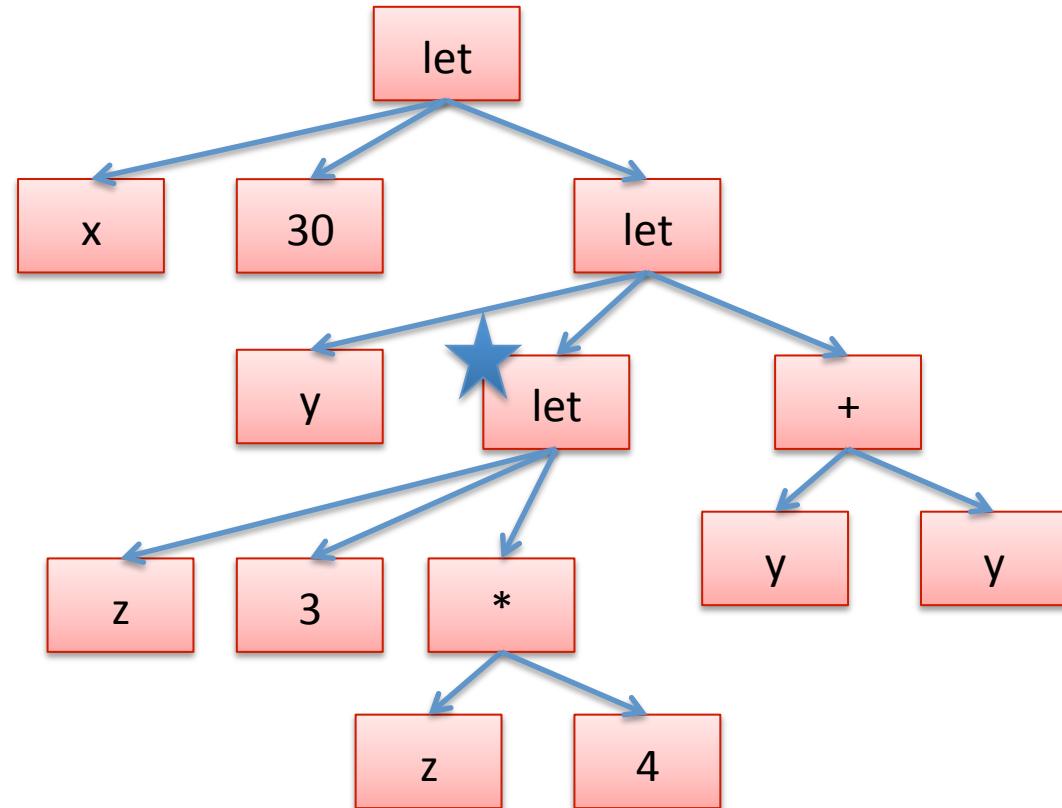
```
let x = 30 in
let y =
  (let z = 3 in z*4)
in
y+y;;
```



# Abstract Syntax Trees

- And if we rename the other let to “z”:

```
let x = 30 in
let y =
  (let z = 3 in z*4)
in
y+y;;
```



# **AN O'CAML DEFINITION OF O'CAML EVALUATION**

# Implementing an Interpreter

text file containing program  
as a sequence of characters

```
let x = 3 in  
x + x
```

Parsing

data structure representing program

```
Let ("x",  
Num 3,  
Binop(Plus, Var "x", Var "x"))
```

data structure representing  
result of evaluation

```
Num 6
```

Evaluation

the **data type**  
and **evaluator**  
tell us a lot  
about **program  
semantics**

Pretty  
Printing

```
6
```

text file/stdout  
containing with formatted output

# Making These Ideas Precise

We can define a datatype for simple OCaml expressions:

```
type variable = string ;;
type op = Plus | Minus | Times | ... ;;
type exp =
| Int_e of int
| Op_e of exp * op * exp
| Var_e of variable
| Let_e of variable * exp * exp ;;
```

# Making These Ideas Precise

We can define a datatype for simple OCaml expressions:

```
type variable = string ;;
type op = Plus | Minus | Times | ... ;;
type exp =
  | Int_e of int
  | Op_e of exp * op * exp
  | Var_e of variable
  | Let_e of variable * exp * exp ;;

let three = Int_e 3 ;;
let three_plus_one =
  Op_e (Int_e 1, Plus, Int_e 3) ;;
```

# Making These Ideas Precise

We can represent the OCaml program:

```
let x = 30 in
let y =
  (let z = 3 in
    z * 4)
in
y + y;;
```

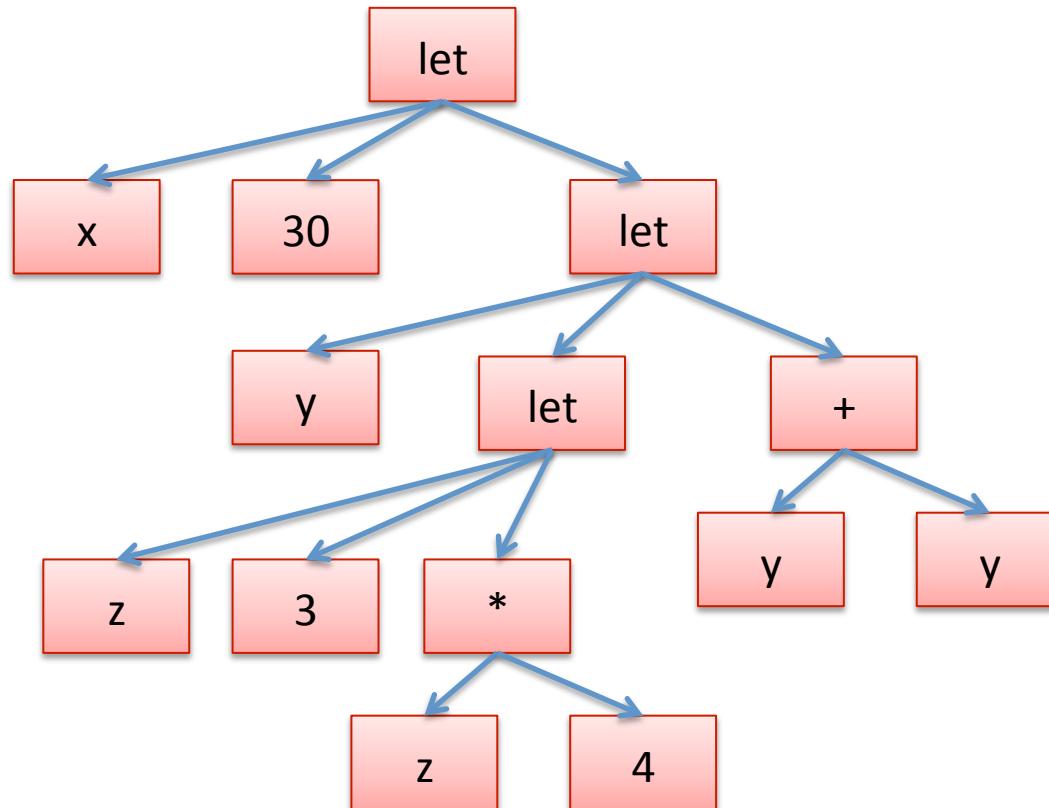
as an exp value:

```
Let_e("x", Int_e 30,
      Let_e("y",
            Let_e("z", Int_e 3,
                  Op_e(Var_e "z", Times, Int_e 4))),  
Op_e(Var_e "y", Plus, Var_e "y"))
```

# Making These Ideas Precise

Notice how this reflects the “tree”:

```
Let_e("x", Int_e 30,  
      Let_e("y", Let_e("z", Int_e 3,  
                           Op_e(Var_e "z", Times, Int_e 4)),  
                           Op_e(Var_e "y", Plus, Var_e "y"))
```



# Free versus Bound Variables

```
type exp =  
| Int_e of int  
| Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable  
| Let_e of variable * exp * exp
```

This is a **free** occurrence of a variable

# Free versus Bound Variables

```
type exp =  
| Int_e of int  
| Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable  
| Let_e of variable * exp * exp
```

This is a **free** occurrence of a variable

This is a **binding** occurrence of a variable

# Implementing a Simple Evaluator

# A Simple Evaluator

```
let is_value (e:exp) : bool =
  match e with
  | Int_e _ -> true
  | (Op_e (_,_,_) | Let_e(_,_,_) | Var_e _) -> false

let eval_op v1 op v2 = ...
let substitute v x e = ...

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) ->
      let v1 = eval e1 in
      let v2 = eval e2 in
      eval_op v1 op v2
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) ->
      let v1 = eval e1 in
      let e = substitute v1 x e2 in
      eval e
```

# Even Simpler

```
let eval_op v1 op v2 = ...
let substitute v x e = ...

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
```

# Oops! We Missed a Case:

```
let eval_op v1 op v2 = ...
let substitute v x e = ...

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> ???
```

We should never encounter a variable – they should have been substituted with a value! (This is a type-error.)

# We Could Use Options:

```
let eval_op v1 op v2 = ...
let substitute v x e = ...

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp option =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Some(Int_e i)
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> None
```

But this isn't quite right – we need to match on the recursive calls to eval to make sure we get Some value!

# Exceptions

```
exception UnboundVariable of variable ;;

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
```

Instead, we can throw an exception.

# Exceptions

```
exception UnboundVariable of variable ;;

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
```

Note that an exception declaration is a lot like a datatype declaration. Really, we are extending one big datatype (exn) with a new constructor (UnboundVariable).

# Exceptions

```
exception UnboundVariable of variable ;;

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
```

Later on, we'll see how to catch an exception.

# Back to our Evaluator

```
let eval_op v1 op v2 = ...
let substitute v x e = ...

let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x) ;;
```

# Evaluating the Primitive Operations

```
let eval_op (v1:exp) (op:operand) (v2:exp) : exp =
  match v1, op, v2 with
  | Int_e i, Plus, Int_e j -> Int_e (i+j)
  | Int_e i, Minus, Int_e j -> Int_e (i-j)
  | Int_e i, Times, Int_e j -> Int_e (i*j)
  ...;;

```

```
let substitute v x e = ...
```

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x) ;;
```

# Substitution

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
    match e with
    | Int_e _ -> e
    | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> Op_e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
    | Var_e y -> if x = y then v else e
    | Let_e (y,e1,e2) ->
        Let_e (y,
                subst e1,
                if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
in
subst e
;;
```

# Substitution

We want to replace x (and only x) with v.

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
    match e with
    | Int_e _ -> e
    | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> Op_e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
    | Var_e y -> if x = y then v else e
    | Let_e (y,e1,e2) ->
        Let_e (y,
                subst e1,
                if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
  in
  subst e
;;
```

# Substitution

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
    match e with
    | Int_e _ -> e
    | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> Op_e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
    | Var_e y -> if x = y then v else e
    | Let_e (y,e1,e2) ->
        Let_e (y,
                subst e1,
                if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
  in
  subst e
;;
```

# Substitution

```
let substitute (v:exp) (x:variable) (e:exp) : exp =
  let rec subst (e:exp) : exp =
    match e with
    | Int_e _ -> e
    | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> Op_e(subst e1,op,subst e2)
    | Var_e y -> if x = y then v else e
    | Let_e (y,e1,e2) ->
        Let_e (y,
                subst e1,
                if x = y then e2 else subst e2)
  in
  subst e
;;
```



If  $x$  and  $y$  are  
the same  
variable, then  $y$   
*shadows*  $x$ .

# Let us Scale up the Language

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp ;;
```

# Let us Scale up the Language

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp ;;
```

( $\lambda x. e$ ) is  
represented as  
 $\text{Fun}_e(x, e)$

# Let us Scale up the Language

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp ;;
```

A function call

fact 3 ==>  
FunCall\_e (Var\_e "fact", Int\_e 3)

# Let us Scale up the Language:

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp;;
```

```
let is_value (e:exp) : bool =  
  match e with  
  | Int_e _ -> true  
  | Fun_e (_,_) -> true  
  | ( Op_e (_,_,_)  
    | Let_e (_,_,_)  
    | Var_e _  
    | FunCall_e (_,_) ) -> false ;;
```



Functions are  
values!

# Let us Scale up the Language:

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp;;  
  
let is_value (e:exp) : bool =  
  match e with  
  | Int_e _ -> true  
  | Fun_e (_,_) -> true  
  | ( Op_e (_,_,_) )  
  | Let_e (_,_,_)  
  | Var_e _  
  | FunCall_e (_,_) ) -> false ;;
```

Function calls are  
not values.

# Let us Scale up the Language:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1, eval e2 with
     | Fun_e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

# Let us Scale up the Language:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1, eval e2 with
     | Fun_e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

values (including functions) always evaluate to themselves.

# Let us Scale up the Language:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1, eval e2 with
     | Fun_e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

To evaluate a function call, we first evaluate both e1 and e2 to values.

# Let us Scale up the Language

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1, eval e2 with
     | Fun_e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

e1 had better evaluate to a function value, else we have a type error.

# Let us Scale up the Language

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1, eval e2 with
     | Fun_e (x,e), v2 -> eval (substitute v2 x e)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

Then we substitute e2's value (v2) for x in e and evaluate the resulting expression.

# Simplifying a little

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1
     | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (substitute (eval e2) x e)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

We don't really need  
to pattern-match on e2.  
Just evaluate here

# Simplifying a little

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (ef,e1) ->
    (match eval ef with
     | Fun_e (x,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

This looks like  
the case for let!

# Let and Lambda

```
let x = 1 in x+41
```

-->

1+41

-->

42

```
(fun x -> x+41) 1
```

-->

1+41

-->

42

# So we could write:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (FunCall (Fun_e (x,e2), e1))
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (ef,e2) ->
    (match eval ef with
     | Fun_e (x,e1) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

In programming-languages speak: “Let is *syntactic sugar* for a function call”

Syntactic sugar: A new feature defined by a simple, local transformation.

# Recursive definitions

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp |  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp  
| Rec_e of variable * variable * exp ;;
```

```
let rec f x = f (x+1) in f 3
```

(rewrite)

```
let f = rec f x -> f (x+1)) in  
f 3
```

(alpha-convert)

```
let g = rec f x -> f (x+1)) in  
g 3
```

(implement)

```
Let_e ("g,  
      Rec_e ("f", "x",  
              FunCall_e (Var_e "f", Op_e (Var_e "x", Plus, Int_e 1))  
            ),  
      FunCall (Var_e "g", Int_e 3)  
    )
```

# Recursive definitions

```
type exp = Int_e of int | Op_e of exp * op * exp  
| Var_e of variable | Let_e of variable * exp * exp |  
| Fun_e of variable * exp | FunCall_e of exp * exp  
| Rec_e of variable * variable * exp ;;
```

```
let is_value (e:exp) : bool =  
  match e with  
  | Int_e _ -> true  
  | Fun_e (_,_) -> true  
  | Rec_e of (_,_,_) -> true  
  | (Op_e (_,_,_) | Let_e (_,_,_) |  
    Var_e _ | FunCall_e (_,_) ) -> false ;;
```

# Before Evaluation: Notation for Substitution

“Substitute value  $v$  for variable  $x$  in expression  $e$ :”       $e [ v / x ]$

examples of substitution:

$$(x + y) [7/y] \quad \text{is} \quad (x + 7)$$

$$(\text{let } x = 30 \text{ in let } y = 40 \text{ in } x + y) [7/y] \quad \text{is} \quad (\text{let } x = 30 \text{ in let } y = 40 \text{ in } x + y)$$

$$(\text{let } y = y \text{ in let } y = y \text{ in } y + y) [7/y] \quad \text{is} \quad (\text{let } y = 7 \text{ in let } y = y \text{ in } y + y)$$

# Evaluating Recursive Functions

Basic evaluation rule for recursive functions:

$$(\text{rec } f \ x = \text{body}) \ \text{arg} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{body} \ [\text{arg}/x] \ [\text{rec } f \ x = \text{body}/f]$$



argument substituted  
for parameter

entire function substituted  
for function name

# Evaluating Recursive Functions

Start out with  
a let bound to  
a recursive function:

```
let g =
  rec f x ->
    if x <= 0 then x
    else x + f (x-1)
in g 3
```

The Substitution:

```
g 3 [rec f x ->
      if x <= 0 then x
      else x + f (x-1) / g]
```

The Result:

```
(rec f x ->
  if x <= 0 then x else x + f (x-1)) 3
```

# Evaluating Recursive Functions

Recursive  
Function Call:

```
(rec f x ->
    if x <= 0 then x else x + f (x-1)) 3
```

The Substitution:

```
(if x <= 0 then x else x + f (x-1))
[ rec f x ->
    if x <= 0 then x
    else x + f (x-1) / f ]
[ 3 / x ]
```



Substitute argument  
for parameter



Substitute entire function  
for function name

The Result:

```
(if 3 <= 0 then 3 else 3 +
(rec f x ->
    if x <= 0 then x
    else x + f (x-1)) (3-1))
```

# Evaluating Recursive Functions

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1 with
     | Fun_e (x,e) ->
        let v = eval e2 in
        substitute e x v
     | (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as g ->
        let v = eval e2 in
        substitute (substitute e x v) f g
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
```

# More Evaluation

```
(rec fact n = if n <= 1 then 1 else n * fact(n-1)) 3
-->
if 3 < 1 then 1 else
  3 * (rec fact n = if ... then ... else ...) (3-1)
-->
3 * (rec fact n = if ... ) (3-1)
-->
3 * (rec fact n = if ... ) 2
-->
3 * (if 2 <= 1 then 1 else 2 * (rec fact n = ...)(2-1))
-->
3 * (2 * (rec fact n = ...)(2-1))
-->
3 * (2 * (rec fact n = ...)(1))
-->
3 * 2 * if 1 <= 1 then 1 else 1 * (rec fact ...)(1-1)
-->
3 * 2 * 1
```

# A MATHEMATICAL DEFINITION\* OF O'CAML EVALUATION

\* it's a partial definition and this is a big topic; for more, see COS 441

# From Code to Abstract Specification

- OCaml code can give a language semantics
  - **advantage**: it can be executed, so we can try it out
  - **advantage**: it is amazingly concise
    - especially compared to what you would have written in Java
  - **disadvantage**: it is a little ugly to operate over concrete ML datatypes like “`Op_e(e1,Plus,e2)`” as opposed to “`e1 + e2`”
- PL researchers have developed their own, relatively standard notation for writing down how programs execute
  - it has a mathematical “feel” that makes PL researchers feel special and gives us goosebumps inside
  - it operates over abstract expression syntax like “`e1 + e2`”
  - it is useful to know this notation if you want to read specifications of programming language semantics
    - eg: Standard ML (of which OCaml is a descendent) has a formal definition given in this notation

# Rules

- Our goal is to explain how an expression **e** evaluates to a value **v**.
- We are going to do so using a set of (inductive) rules
- A rule looks like this:

premise 1	premise 2	...	premise 3
conclusion			

- You read a rule like this:
  - “if **premise 1** can be proven and **premise 2** can be proven and ... and **premise n** can be proven then **conclusion** can be proven”
- Some rules have no premises -- this means their conclusions are always true
  - we call such rules “axioms” or “base cases”

# An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \rightarrow v_2 \quad \text{eval\_op}(v_1, \text{op}, v_2) == v'}{e_1 \text{ op } e_2 \rightarrow v'}$$

In English:

“If  $e_1$  evaluates to  $v_1$   
and  $e_2$  evaluates to  $v_2$   
and  $\text{eval\_op}(v_1, \text{op}, v_2)$  is equal to  $v'$   
then  
 $e_1 \text{ op } e_2$  evaluates to  $v'$

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  ...
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
```

# An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:

$$\frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i \rightarrow i}$$

← asserts  $i$  is  
an integer

In English:

“If the expression is an integer, **it** evaluates to **itself**.”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  ...
```

# An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow v_1 \quad e_2[v_1/x] \rightarrow v_2}{\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \rightarrow v_2}$$

In English:

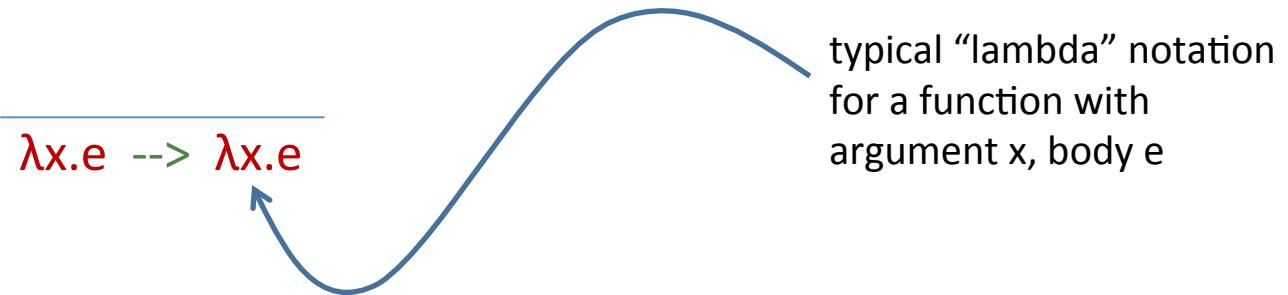
“If  $e_1$  evaluates to  $v_1$   
and  $e_2$  with  $v_1$  substituted for  $x$  evaluates to  $v_2$   
then  $\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$  evaluates to  $v_2$ .”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  ...
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  ...
```

# An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:



In English:

“A function evaluates to itself.”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  ...
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  ...
```

# An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow \lambda x. e \quad e_2 \rightarrow v_2 \quad e[v_2/x] \rightarrow v}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v}$$

In English:

“if  $e_1$  evaluates to a function with argument  $x$  and body  $e$   
and  $e_2$  evaluates to a value  $v_2$   
and  $e$  with  $v_2$  substituted for  $x$  evaluates to  $v$   
then  $e_1$  applied to  $e_2$  evaluates to  $v$ ”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  ...
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1 with
     | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (substitute e x (eval e2)))
     | ... )
  ...
  ...
```

# An example rule concerning evaluation

As a rule:

$$\frac{e_1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e \quad e_2 \rightarrow v \quad e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v/x] \rightarrow v_2}{e_1 \ e_2 \rightarrow v_2}$$

In English:

“uggh”

In code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
    ...
  | (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as g ->
      let v = eval e2 in
        substitute (substitute e x v) f g
```

# Comparison: Code vs. Rules

complete eval code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1
     | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (Let_e (x,e2,e))
     | _ -> raise TypeError)
  | LetRec_e (x,e1,e2) ->
    (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as g ->
    let v = eval e2 in
    substitute (substitute e x v) f g
```

complete set of rules:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{i \in Z}{i \rightarrow i} \\
 \\ 
 \frac{\textcolor{red}{e_1 \rightarrow v_1} \quad \textcolor{red}{e_2 \rightarrow v_2} \quad \textcolor{red}{\text{eval\_op}(v_1, op, v_2) == v}}{e_1 \text{ op } e_2 \rightarrow v} \\
 \\ 
 \frac{\textcolor{red}{e_1 \rightarrow v_1} \quad \textcolor{red}{e_2[v_1/x] \rightarrow v_2}}{\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2 \rightarrow v_2} \\
 \\ 
 \frac{}{\lambda x.e \rightarrow \lambda x.e} \\
 \\ 
 \frac{\textcolor{red}{e_1 \rightarrow \lambda x.e} \quad \textcolor{red}{e_2 \rightarrow v_2} \quad \textcolor{red}{e[v_2/x] \rightarrow v}}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v} \\
 \\ 
 \frac{\textcolor{red}{e_1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e} \quad \textcolor{red}{e_2 \rightarrow v_2} \quad \textcolor{red}{e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v_2/x] \rightarrow v_3}}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v_3}
 \end{array}$$

*Almost* isomorphic:

- one rule per pattern-matching clause
- recursive call to eval whenever there is a  $\rightarrow$  premise in a rule
- what's the main difference?

# Comparison: Code vs. Rules

complete eval code:

```
let rec eval (e:exp) : exp =
  match e with
  | Int_e i -> Int_e i
  | Op_e(e1,op,e2) -> eval_op (eval e1) op (eval e2)
  | Let_e(x,e1,e2) -> eval (substitute (eval e1) x e2)
  | Var_e x -> raise (UnboundVariable x)
  | Fun_e (x,e) -> Fun_e (x,e)
  | FunCall_e (e1,e2) ->
    (match eval e1
     | Fun_e (x,e) -> eval (Let_e (x,e2,e)))
    | _ -> raise TypeError)
  | LetRec_e (x,e1,e2) ->
    (Rec_e (f,x,e)) as g ->
    let v = eval e2 in
    substitute (substitute e x v) f g
```

complete set of rules:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{i \in Z}{i \rightarrow i} \\
 \frac{\begin{array}{c} e_1 \rightarrow v_1 & e_2 \rightarrow v_2 & eval\_op(v_1, op, v_2) == v \\ \hline e_1 op e_2 \rightarrow v \end{array}}{e_1 op e_2 \rightarrow v} \\
 \frac{\begin{array}{c} e_1 \rightarrow v_1 & e_2[v_1/x] \rightarrow v_2 \\ \hline let\ x = e_1\ in\ e_2 \rightarrow v_2 \end{array}}{let\ x = e_1\ in\ e_2 \rightarrow v_2} \\
 \frac{}{\lambda x.e \rightarrow \lambda x.e} \\
 \frac{\begin{array}{c} e_1 \rightarrow \lambda x.e & e_2 \rightarrow v_2 & e[v_2/x] \rightarrow v \\ \hline e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v \end{array}}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v} \\
 \frac{\begin{array}{c} e_1 \rightarrow rec\ f\ x = e & e_2 \rightarrow v_2 & e[rec\ f\ x = e/f][v_2/x] \rightarrow v_3 \\ \hline e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v_3 \end{array}}{e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v_3}
 \end{array}$$

- There's no formal rule for handling free variables
- No rule for evaluating function calls when a non-function in the caller position
- In general, *no rule when further evaluation is impossible*
  - the rules express the legal evaluations and say nothing about what to do in error situations
  - the code handles the error situations by raising exceptions

# Summary

- We can reason about OCaml programs using a *substitution model*.
  - integers, bools, strings, chars, and *functions* are values
  - value rule: values evaluate to themselves
  - let rule: “let  $x = e_1$  in  $e_2$ ” : substitute  $e_1$ ’s value for  $x$  into  $e_2$
  - fun call rule: “(fun  $x \rightarrow e_2$ )  $e_1$ ”: substitute  $e_1$ ’s value for  $x$  into  $e_2$
  - rec call rule: “(rec  $x = e_1$ )  $e_2$ ” : like fun call rule, but also substitute recursive function for name of function
    - To unwind: substitute (rec  $x = e_1$ ) for  $x$  in  $e_1$
- We can make the evaluation model precise by building an interpreter and using that interpreter as a specification of the language semantics.
- We can also specify the evaluation model using a set of *inference rules*
  - more on this in COS 441

# Some Final Words

- The substitution model is only a model.
  - it does not accurately model all of OCaml's features
    - I/O, exceptions, mutation, concurrency, ...
    - we can build models of these things, but they aren't as simple.
    - even substitution was tricky to formalize!
- It's useful for reasoning about higher-order functions, correctness of algorithms, and optimizations.
  - we can use it to formally prove that, for instance:
    - $\text{map } f (\text{map } g \text{ xs}) == \text{map } (\text{comp } f g) \text{ xs}$
    - proof: by induction on the length of the list xs, using the definitions of the substitution model.
  - we often model complicated systems (e.g., protocols) using a small functional language and substitution-based evaluation.
- It is *not* useful for reasoning about execution time or space

# Some Exercises

Complete the following expressions so they evaluate to 42 or explain why this is impossible, appealing to the substitution model.

```
let x = ??? in  
let x = 43 in  
x ;;
```

```
let x = fun x -> x*x in  
let x = ??? 21 in  
x ;;
```

```
let x = ??? in  
let y = (let x = 21 in x+x) in  
x ;;
```

```
let x = ??? in  
let y = [42] in  
x y ;;
```

**END**