

# INFO0054-1 Programmation Fonctionnelle

Chapter 05: Evaluation strategies

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### References

- Chapter 5: Strictness and laziness.
   Paul Chiusano and Runar Bjarnason. Functional Programming in Scala, Manning Publications, 2015.
- Recommended to consult:
  - <u>Evaluation strategies in Scala</u> by Tudor Zgureanu. PDF also available on eCampus.

Le prof conseille de lire cet article

### Overview

- Evaluation orders and strategies
- Strict evaluation: call by value, call by reference
- Non-strict evaluation: call by name, call by need
- Non-strict evaluation in Scala
- Non-strict functions in FP
- Examples: lazy lists, and infinite streams

### Part 1

# Part 1:

Non-strict evaluation & Non-strict evaluation in Scala

### Evaluation orders and strategies I

- There are many <u>evaluation strategies</u> (see Wikipedia for an overview).
- In short, there are two evaluation orders:
  - Strict evaluation, also known as applicative order, means that arguments are evaluated before the function is applied. F(1+2) par exemple, on évalue d'abord 1+2=3, et on utilise 3 dans l'appel
  - In non-strict evaluation, also known as normal order, the evaluation of the arguments of a function call are delayed until they are needed.

F(println(1):1+2), on l'évaluera uniquement si on en a besoin.

- Some languages only (\*) use strict evaluation (e.g., Java).
  - (\*) In Java, one cannot define the evaluation strategy of functions. But like most programming languages, some of the operators are evaluated in a lazy manner. Examples are the Boolean operators && and |
    - && will not evaluate its right operand if the left operand is false
    - | will not evaluate its right operand if the left operand is true
- Some languages only use non-strict evaluation (e.g., Haskell).
- We have seen in the previous chapter that <u>Scala supports both</u>.

### Evaluation orders and strategies II

- Each evaluation order may be supported by multiple evaluation strategies:
  - Strict evaluation:
    - Call by value
       Sujet de ce chapitre
    - Call by reference val x = f(..., phi(x), ....) IMPOSSIBLE car x n'est pas encore défini
    - ...
  - Non-strict evaluation:
    - Call by name

      val y = g(...., eps(y), ....) possible car on ne l'évalue pas tout de suite

      On va l'utiliser pour les lazy list
    - Call by need
    - ...
- You have seen some of these strategies in previous classes, especially call by value and call by reference. In this lesson, you will learn about call by name and call by need.
- We will exemplify these notions not only with some simple examples, but also by developing lazy lists and infinite streams.

### Strict evaluation in Scala

- Scala supports call by value, which is also the default strategy.
- In call by value, the expressions that are passed as arguments are evaluated and their results are copied into the formal parameters of the function.
- The value that is copied is either a primitive (e.g., Int) or a pointer to an object (e.g., Employee).

#### By the way:

- Like Scala, Java only supports call by value.
- Java allows you to overwrite the value of a parameter (and only the copy is overwritten).
- In Scala, however, parameters are val and cannot be changed.
- Overwriting the value of parameters in a call by value setting is considered a bad practice and Scala has decided to prohibit it by design. ;-)

# Call by value in Scala

```
def test(x: Int): Int =
    println("One")
    val y = x + x
    println("Two")
    У
scala> test({ println("Test") ; 1 })
Test
One
Two
val res0: Int = 2
```

- We will use println in order to demonstrate the differences between evaluation strategies. Because of this, the code in these examples are not (that) pure and certainly not exemplary!
- { println("Test") ; 1} is an expression (a block) containing two statements. When evaluating that block, it will first print a statement to the terminal before returning 1.
  - Remember that statements are separated by newlines or semicolons.
- As expected, Scala evaluates the argument before passing the result to the function.

### Non-strict evaluation in Scala

- Scala supports call by name and call by need.
- Using a special prefix =>, we can state that an argument is called by name. This means we can substitute each occurrence of that variable with the expression that is passed.
  - We have seen examples of this special prefix in the previous class.
- Using the special keyword lazy before a val declaration, we can declare that the expression on the right-hand side will only be evaluated when used. I.e., call by need. The results are furthermore cached, a technique called memoization.

### Call by name in Scala

```
def test(x: => Int): Int =
    println("One")
    val y = x + x
    println("Two")
    У
scala> test({ println("Test") ; 1 })
One
Test
Test
Two
val res1: Int = 2
```

- The arguments that we want to pass unevaluated have an => before their type.
- => "indicates that the corresponding argument is not evaluated at the point of function application, but instead is evaluated <u>at each use</u> within the function." (<u>src</u>)
  - In other words, you can replace all occurrences of x with the expression that is passed.

```
val y = x + x becomes
val y = { println("Test") ; 1} + { println("Test") ; 1}
```

## Call by need in Scala I

```
def test(x: Int): Int =
    println("One")
    lazy val y = { println("Foo"); x + x }
    println("Two")
    У
scala> test({ println("Test") ; 1 })
Test
One
Two
Foo
val res2: Int = 2
```

- Lazy values are declared by placing the lazy keyword in front of a val declaration.
- The expression on the RHS of a val declaration will only be evaluated when the variable is used (i.e., needed).

### Call by need in Scala II

```
def test(x: Int): Int =
    println("One")
    lazy val y = { println("Foo"); x + x }
    println("Two")
    val a = y + 1
    val b = y + 1
    a + b
scala> test({ println("Test") ; 1 })
Test
One
Two
Foo
           Foo ne réapparait pas car y a déjà été évalué et le résultat stocké en mémoire
val res3: Int = 6
```

 Next to the lazy evaluation,
 Scala caches the results so that subsequent references do not lead to repeated evaluations.

### Call by need in Scala III

```
def test(x: => Int): Int =
    println("One")
    lazy val y = x + x
    println("Two")
    У
scala> test({ println("Test") ; 1 })
One
Two
Test
Test
val res4: Int = 2
```

# By the way: call by need

Call by need is not only used with call by name arguments. E.g.,

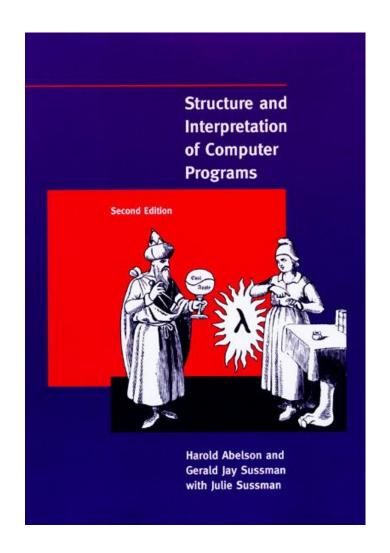
• We know that sentinel values are to be avoided! This example serves to illustrate how we can delay the evaluation of an expression. This may come in handy for storing intermediate results in variables but may impede the readability of your code!

# By the way: a bit of terminology

Are non-strict evaluation and call by need the same? No. But, in practice you will find that:

"The difference between the "lazy" terminology and the "normal-order" terminology is somewhat fuzzy. Generally, "lazy" refers to the mechanisms of particular evaluators, while "normal-order" refers to the semantics of languages, independent of any particular evaluation strategy. But this is not a hard-and-fast distinction, and the two terminologies are often used interchangeably."

From: Abelson, Harold, and Gerald Jay Sussman. Structure and interpretation of computer programs. The MIT Press, 1996. <a href="https://web.mit.edu/6.001/6.037/sicp.pdf">https://web.mit.edu/6.001/6.037/sicp.pdf</a>



### Non-strict evaluation and FP

- Languages that support non-strict evaluation are <u>usually functional</u> <u>programming</u> languages. Some languages are non-strict by default (e.g., Haskell), other allows you to choose. Some other languages only allow it for certain data structures.
- The combination of non-strict evaluation with side effects (e.g., procedural coding and OOP) is difficult! Programmers should be very careful when combining the two. This is one of the reasons why non-strict evaluation is not that prevalent in imperative languages.
- When referring to call by name, we mentioned "replacing variables by their expressions." Indeed, non-strict evaluation is only correct and performant if referential transparency is respected.

### Part 2

# Part 2:

Non-strict evaluation in FP, A motivating example

#### Non-strict functions in FP

Functions are either strict or non-strict. In other words, strictness and non-strictness are properties of functions. In the next few slides, we will see non-strict functions can drastically improve the performance of functional program.

Non-strictness is a fundamental technique for improving the efficiency and modularity of functional programs as it allows us to separate description of an expression from the evaluation of an expression.

A motivating example, chaining operations on lists:

```
scala> List(1, 2, 3, 4).map(math.pow(_,2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).map(math.sqrt)
val res22: List[Double] = List(2.0, 4.0)
```

Each operation produces intermediate results which are used by a subsequent operation:

```
List(1, 2, 3, 4).map(math.pow(_,2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).map(math.sqrt)
List(1.0, 4.0, 9.0, 16.0).filter(_ % 2 == 0).map(math.sqrt)
List(4.0, 16.0).map(math.sqrt)
List(2.0, 4.0)
```

On traverse plusieurs les liste, on veut le rendre plus efficace

Is there a way to "fuse" these operations so that only one pass is needed without rewriting the code? It turns out that non-strict evaluation allows us to do this.

### Lazy lists

Lazy lists, also known as streams, are a data structure allowing us to fuse chains of operations into a single pass. In a stream, elements are evaluated only when they are needed.

Scala's standard library has support for <u>streams</u>, but we will implement our own stream as to gain a better understanding of non-strict evaluation. We will call our lazy list a Flux (the French term for stream in computing).

Pour la suite, lazy list = flux

#### Flux I

- One can omit curly braces if they are carful with the code indentation.
- Notice the import statement.
   This allows us to use fields declared in our companion object without qualifying those field with Flux. I.e., rather than writing Flux.empty, we can write empty.
- We have created a variadic function with apply to create a constructor.

```
import Flux.*
enum Flux[+A]:
  case Empty
  case Cons(h: () \Rightarrow A, t: () \Rightarrow Flux[A])
                                                  Constructeur
  def headOption: Option[A] = this match
    case Empty => None
    case Cons(h, t) => Some(h())
  def toList: List[A] = this match
    case Cons(h,t) \Rightarrow h() :: t().toList
    case Empty => Nil
  def take(n: Int): Flux[A] = this match
    case Cons(h, t) if n > 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), t().take(n - 1))
    case Cons(h, _) if n == 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), empty)
    case => empty
Compagnon objet
object Flux:
  def cons[A](hd: => A, tl: => Flux[A]): Flux[A] =
    lazy val head = hd
    lazy val tail = tl
     Cons(() => head, () => tail)
  def empty[A]: Flux[A] = Empty
  def apply[A](as: A*): Flux[A] =
    if (as.isEmpty) empty
    else cons(as.head, apply(as.tail*))
```

#### Flux II

Scala prohibits the use of call by name for the constructor of data type constructors.

The reasons for those are quite technical, but long story short:

- Scala does not guarantee immutability. The same expression may evaluate to different results.
- 2. If an expression is reused in several places, it may provide different results for each evaluation.
- This is incompatible with data type constructors, which are meant for immutable data.

```
import Flux.*
enum Flux[+A]:
  case Empty
  case Cons(h: () => A, t: () => Flux[A])
  def headOption: Option[A] = this match
    case Empty => None
    case Cons(h, t) => Some(h())
  def toList: List[A] = this match
    case Cons(h,t) \Rightarrow h() :: t().toList
    case Empty => Nil
  def take(n: Int): Flux[A] = this match
    case Cons(h, t) if n > 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), t().take(n - 1))
    case Cons(h, ) if n == 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), empty)
    case => empty
object Flux:
  def cons[A](hd: => A, tl: => Flux[A]): Flux[A] =
    lazy val head = hd
    lazy val tail = tl
     Cons(() => head, () => tail)
  def empty[A]: Flux[A] = Empty
  def apply[A](as: A*): Flux[A] =
    if (as.isEmpty) empty
    else cons(as.head, apply(as.tail*))
```

Explication simpliste, mais raisons techniques trop complexes pour ce cours

#### Flux III

- We have two specializations of our Flux: Empty and Cons.
   But why do we need different "constructors" that are declared in the companion object?
- Scala does not allow call by name for case class constructors. This means with must use thunks. The disadvantage is that we may evaluate an expression multiple times
- The use of call by need in our smart constructors fixes that problem.

smart constructor commence par minuscule

```
import Flux.*
                                                    forms of an expression
                                                    that we use for delaying
enum Flux[+A]:
                                                    an evaluation.
  case Empty
  case Cons(h: () \Rightarrow A, t: () \Rightarrow Flux[A])
                                                     On ne peut pas utiliser
                                                     l'évaluation non-stricte pour
                                                     les constructeur de l'ADT.
  def headOption: Option[A] = this match
    case Empty => None
    case Cons(h, t) => Some(h())
  def toList: List[A] = this match
    case Cons(h,t) \Rightarrow h() :: t().toList
    case Empty => Nil
  def take(n: Int): Flux[A] = this match
    case Cons(h, t) if n > 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), t().take(n - 1))
    case Cons(h, ) if n == 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), empty)
    case => empty
object Flux:
  def cons[A](hd: => A, tl: => Flux[A]):\ Flux[A] =
    lazy val head = hd
    lazy val tail = tl
     Cons(() => head, () => tail)
                                                  head and tail are
                                                  evaluated when they are
  def empty[A]: Flux[A] = Empty
                                                  requested. E.g., when we
                                                  ask for a Cons's head.
  def apply[A](as: A*): Flux[A] =
    if (as.isEmpty) empty
    else cons(as.head, apply(as.tail*))
```

Thunks are unevaluated

### Flux IV

```
scala> val x: Flux[Int] = Cons(() => { println("foo") ; 1 }, () => x)
val x: Flux[Int] = Cons(*<<OMITTED FOR BREVITY>>>)

scala> x.headOption
foo
val res0: Option[Int] = Some(1)

scala> x.headOption
foo
val res1: Option[Int] = Some(1)
```

Notice how the use of Cons, which returns us Cons objects, leads us to multiple evaluations of the same expression. When we use our smart constructors, however, the evaluation of these expressions are not only delayed, but also cached once the have been used.

```
scala> val y: Flux[Int] = cons({ println("foo") ; 1 }, y)
val y: Flux[Int] = Cons(
<<<OMITTED FOR BREVITY>>>)

scala> y.headOption
foo
val res3: Option[Int] = Some(1)

scala> y.headOption
val res4: Option[Int] = Some(1)
```

#### Flux V

- Smart constructors thus allows us to avoid problem such as repeated evaluations.
- By convention, smart constructors have the same name as their data types but start with a lower case.
  - cons instead of Cons
  - empty instead of Empty
  - ..

```
import Flux.*
enum Flux[+A]:
  case Empty
  case Cons(h: () \Rightarrow A, t: () \Rightarrow Flux[A])
  def headOption: Option[A] = this match
    case Empty => None
    case Cons(h, t) => Some(h())
  def toList: List[A] = this match
    case Cons(h,t) \Rightarrow h() :: t().toList
    case Empty => Nil
  def take(n: Int): Flux[A] = this match
    case Cons(h, t) if n > 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), t().take(n - 1))
    case Cons(h, ) if n == 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), empty)
    case => empty
object Flux:
  def cons[A](hd: => A, tl: => Flux[A]): Flux[A] =
    lazy val head = hd
    lazy val tail = tl
     Cons(() \Rightarrow head, () \Rightarrow tail)
  def empty[A]: Flux[A] = Empty
  def apply[A](as: A*): Flux[A] =
    if (as.isEmpty) empty
    else cons(as.head, apply(as.tail*))
```

#### Flux VI

The function toList uses Scala's List data structure. :: is the cons operator and Nil stands for the empty list.

Now let us implement some functions such as map and filter.

You will reimplement these functions as well as implement others in the exercise sessions.

```
import Flux.*
enum Flux[+A]:
  case Empty
  case Cons(h: () \Rightarrow A, t: () \Rightarrow Flux[A])
  def headOption: Option[A] = this match
    case Empty => None
    case Cons(h, t) => Some(h())
  def toList: List[A] = this match
    case Cons(h,t) \Rightarrow h() :: t().toList
    case Empty => Nil
  def take(n: Int): Flux[A] = this match
    case Cons(h, t) if n > 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), t().take(n - 1))
    case Cons(h, ) if n == 1 \Rightarrow cons(h(), empty)
    case => empty
object Flux:
  def cons[A](hd: => A, tl: => Flux[A]): Flux[A] =
    lazy val head = hd
    lazy val tail = tl
     Cons(() \Rightarrow head, () \Rightarrow tail)
  def empty[A]: Flux[A] = Empty
  def apply[A](as: A*): Flux[A] =
    if (as.isEmpty) empty
    else cons(as.head, apply(as.tail*))
```

### Flux: filter and map

```
def filter(f: A => Boolean): Flux[A] = this match
         case Cons(h, t) if f(h()) \Rightarrow cons(h(), t().filter(f))
         case Cons( , t) => t().filter(f)
         case => empty
    def map[B](f: A => B): Flux[B] = this match
        case Cons(h, t) \Rightarrow cons(f(h()), t().map(f))
        case => empty
scala > Flux(1, 2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
val res0: List[Int] = List(4, 6)
```

### Flux: tracing filter and map I

```
scala > Flux(1, 2, 3, 4).map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
val res0: List[Int] = List(4, 6)
Flux(1, 2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
                                                       // start
cons(3, Flux(2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList // map on 1st element
Flux(2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
                                                        // filter on 1st element
cons(4, Flux(3, 4).map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList // map on the 2nd element
cons(4, Flux(3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0)).toList
                                                         // filter on the 2nd element
4 :: Flux(3, 4).map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
                                                           // toList on the 2nd element
4 :: cons(5, Flux(4).map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
                                                           // map on the 3rd element
4 :: Flux(4).map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
                                                           // filter on the 3rd element
4 :: cons(6, Flux().map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
                                                           // map on the 4th element
4 :: cons(6, Flux().map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0)).toList
                                                           // filter on the 4th element
4 :: 6 :: Flux().map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
                                                           // toList on the 4th element
4 :: 6 :: empty.filter( % 2 == 0).toList
                                                           // map on empty stream
4 :: 6 :: empty.toList
                                                           // filter on empty stream
                                                           // toList on empty stream
4 :: 6 :: Nil
```

### Flux: tracing filter and map II

```
scala> Flux(1, 2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList The filter and map
val res0: List[Int] = List(4, 6)
Flux(1, 2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
cons(3, Flux(2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
Flux(2, 3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
cons(4, Flux(3, 4).map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
cons(4, Flux(3, 4).map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0)).toList
4 :: Flux(3, 4).map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
4 :: cons(5, Flux(4).map(_ + 2)).filter(_ % 2 == 0).toList
4 :: Flux(4).map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
4 :: cons(6, Flux().map( + 2)).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
4 :: cons(6, Flux().map(_ + 2).filter(_ % 2 == 0)).toList
4 :: 6 :: Flux().map( + 2).filter( % 2 == 0).toList
4 :: 6 :: empty.filter( % 2 == 0).toList
4 :: 6 :: empty.toList
4 :: 6 :: Nil
```

transformations are interleaved just like we would have if we would have implemented the transformations using a while loop.

We do not instantiate the intermediate streams. This allows us to reuse functions without having to worry about unnecessary computations.

We reduce memory usage as we only need the memory to work with the current element. E.g., with "regular" lists, we must keep 5 and 6 in memory before filter is applied.

### Infinite streams

- Thanks to the use of call by need, we can create infinite streams. Infinite streams are stream in which in element refers to a prior element, creating a loop.
- Let's put the following in the companion object

```
val ones: Flux[Int] = cons(1, ones)

Possible car évaluation non stricte

val one234 : Flux[Int] = cons(1, cons(2, cons(3, cons(4, one234))))
```

- Some examples
  - scala> ones.take(5).toList
  - val res0: List[Int] = List(1, 1, 1, 1, 1)
  - scala> one234.filter(\_ % 2 == 1).map(math.pow(\_,2)).take(10)
  - val res1: Flux[Double] = Cons(<<<<br/>OMITTED FOR BREVITY>>>)
  - scala> one234.filter(\_ % 2 == 1).map(math.pow(\_,2)).take(5).toList
  - val res2: List[Double] = List(1.0, 9.0, 1.0, 9.0, 1.0)

### Lexicon

- Cache mémoire cache
- Call by name appel par nom
- Call by reference appel par référence
- Call by need appel par nécessité
- Call by value appel par valeur
- Evaluation order ordre d'évaluation
- Evaluation strategy stratégie d'évaluation
- Lazy evaluation évaluation paresseuse
- Memoization mémoïsation
- Stream flux

Ici s'arrête la matière pour le projet de PF