

# Lecture 25 — Lazy evaluation

- A small change in the evaluation rules of OCaml makes for a language that is in some ways more powerful. The change makes evaluation “lazy;” lazy, or “delayed,” evaluation is the basis of the popular functional language Haskell. It also bring the language closer to the grand-daddy of functional languages, the  $\lambda$ -calculus, known for its extreme simplicity.
- We will discuss
  - Lazy evaluation
  - How to remove features without losing power

# MiniOCaml with lazy evaluation

- In this lecture, we explore the impact of making one small change in the rules for evaluation via substitution:

(Const)  $\text{Const } x \Downarrow_{\ell} \text{Const } x$

(Fun)  $\text{Fun}(a, e) \Downarrow_{\ell} \text{Fun}(a, e)$

(Rec)  $\text{Rec}(f, \text{Fun}(a, e)) \Downarrow_{\ell} \text{Fun}(a, e[\text{Rec}(f, \text{Fun}(a, e))/f])$

( $\delta$ )  $e \text{ op } e' \Downarrow_{\ell} v \text{ OP } v'$

$e \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

$e' \Downarrow_{\ell} v'$

<p>(App) <math>e \ e' \Downarrow_{\ell} v</math> <math>e \Downarrow_{\ell} \text{Fun}(a, e'')</math> <math>e''[e'/a] \Downarrow_{\ell} v</math></p>
---

(If)  $\text{If}(e_1, e_2, e_3) \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

$e_1 \Downarrow_{\ell} \text{True}$

$e_2 \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

(If)  $\text{If}(e_1, e_2, e_3) \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

$e_1 \Downarrow_{\ell} \text{False}$

$e_3 \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

(Let)  $\text{Let}(a, e_1, e_2) \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

$e_2[e_1/a] \Downarrow_{\ell} v$

(Note the  $\ell$  subscript.)

# Lazy evaluation

- $\Downarrow_l$  is called *lazy evaluation* because the evaluation of arguments to functions is delayed until the last moment:

```
(fun x -> x+1) (3+4)  $\Downarrow$  8
  fun x -> x+1  $\Downarrow$  fun x -> x+1
    3+4  $\Downarrow$  7
      3  $\Downarrow$  3
      4  $\Downarrow$  4
    7+1  $\Downarrow$  8
      7  $\Downarrow$  7
      1  $\Downarrow$  1
```

```
(fun x -> x+1) (3+4)  $\Downarrow_l$  8
  fun x -> x+1  $\Downarrow_l$  fun x -> x+1
    (3+4)+1  $\Downarrow_l$  8
      3+4  $\Downarrow_l$  7
        3  $\Downarrow_l$  3
        4  $\Downarrow_l$  4
      1  $\Downarrow_l$  1
```

# Lazy evaluation (cont.)

- Since closed expressions have the same value regardless of *when* they are evaluated,  $\Downarrow$  and  $\Downarrow_e$  almost always produce the same result. But there are exceptions:

`(fun x -> 3) (4/0)  $\Downarrow$`

`(fun x -> 3) (4/0)  $\Downarrow_e$`

# Lazy evaluation (cont.)

- **Another exception:** `let rec f x = f x in (fun x -> 3)(f 0)`.
- **To save writing, let  $\phi = \text{Rec}(f, \text{fun } x \rightarrow f \ x)$ :**  
`let f =  $\phi$  in (fun x->3)(f 0)  $\Downarrow$`

# Lazy evaluation (cont.)

```
let f =  $\phi$  in (fun x->3)(f 0)  $\Downarrow_e$ 
```

# Removing features

- To show the power of abstractions and applications alone, especially with lazy evaluation, we will begin to remove all features that are just “syntactic sugar.”
- This language — abstraction and application and nothing else, with lazy evaluation — is the language called  $\lambda$ -calculus.
- We will eliminate features in this order:
  - Lists
  - If and boolean values
  - Integers
  - Recursion (which is the most surprising one of all)

# Removing features: lists

- **Need to define a representation (type `list = something`) and operations:**

- `nil : list = ...`
- `cons (h:value) (t:list) : list = ...`
- `isempty (l:list) : bool = ...`
- `hd (l:list) : value = ...`
- `tl (l:list) : list = ...`

**These must behave like lists, e.g. `hd (cons 3 ..) = 3`.**

- **Here is a representation using only functions (where `value` can be any value, including `bool` — we're assuming dynamic type-checking):**

- `type list = (value -> list -> value -> value) -> value`
- `nil : list = fun f -> f 0 0 true`
- `cons (h:value) (t:list) : list = fun f -> f h t false`
- `isempty (l:list) : bool = l (fun h t n -> n)`
- `hd (l:list) : value = l (fun h t n -> h)`
- `tl (l:list) : list = l (fun h t n -> t)`



# Removing features: lists (cont.)

```
hd (cons 3 nil) ↓ 3
```

# Lazy lists

- If we are using lazy evaluation, the previous definitions of list operations aren't quite the same as our previous definitions. They correspond to “lazy lists.” If we were to make lazy lists a built-in type, we would change the SOS rules like this:

- Expressions of the form  $e :: e'$  and  $[]$  are values. ( $[e_1; e_2; \dots; e_n]$  is just syntactic sugar for  $e_1 :: e_2 :: \dots :: e_n :: []$ .)

- Rules for list operations:

(Cons)  $e :: e' \Downarrow_\ell e :: e'$

(Nil)  $[] \Downarrow_\ell []$

(Head)  $\text{hd } e \Downarrow_\ell v$   
 $e \Downarrow_\ell e' :: e''$   
 $e' \Downarrow_\ell v$

(Tail)  $\text{tl } e \Downarrow_\ell v$   
 $e \Downarrow_\ell e' :: e''$   
 $e'' \Downarrow_\ell v$

- (Note: the same definitions would give the ordinary, “strict” list operations if the underlying language were not lazy.)

# Lazy lists (cont.)

- **Lazy lists are really useful. For example, they allow us to build infinite lists:**

```
let rec ints = fun i -> i :: ints (i+1) in hd (tl (tl (ints 0)))
```

- **Infinite lists are not just a curiosity. They allow some computations to be written in a more modular way.**

# Lazy lists (cont.)

- E.g Newton's method:

To find  $\text{sqrt}(x)$ , generate sequence:  $\langle a_i \rangle$ , where  $a_0$  is arbitrary, and  $a_{i+1} = \frac{a_i + x/a_i}{2}$ . Then choose first  $a_i$  s.t.  $|a_i - a_{i-1}| < \epsilon$ .

- This can be programmed elegantly by creating the *infinite* list  $\langle a_i \rangle$ , and then iterating over it:

```
let next x a = (a+x/a)/2
let rec repeat f a = a :: repeat f (f a)
let candidates x = repeat (next x) (x/2);; (* list of candidates *)
let find test (a1::a2::as) = if test a1 a2 then a2
                           else find test (a2::as)
let withineps eps = fun a b -> (abs (a-b)) < eps
let sqrt x eps = find (withineps eps) candidates
```

# Removing features: if, and boolean values

- With lazy evaluation, can define if. This is impossible in an eager evaluation language like OCaml because all functions defined using fun are strict.

```
let true = fun x y -> x
let false = fun x y -> y
let if a b c = a b c
let lessthan i j = if i<j then true else false
let and b b' = if b then b' else true      (or just, b b' true)
```

```
if (lessthan 3 2) 5 10  $\Downarrow_e$  10
```

# Where we are...

- We have shown that `lists`, and `if`, as well as boolean values, are syntactic sugar.
  - This eliminates the need for boolean constants and lists, and the  $\delta$  rules for them.
  - `Character` can be regarded as integers, and `Strings` as lists of characters, so we will eliminate both as syntactic sugar.
- We already know that `let` is syntactic sugar.
- We are left with integers and integer operations, and recursion.

# Removing features: integers

- Alonzo Church invented  $\lambda$ -calculus. On the way to proving that it is Turing-complete, he produced a representation of integers in terms of functions, which has been given the name “Church numerals.”
- As usual, we need a *representation* of integers (type `intgr = something`), and then definitions of constants and functions:
  - `let zero : intgr = ...`
  - `let one : intgr = ...`
  - `let plus (i1:intgr) (i2:intgr) : intgr = ...`
  - `let lessthan (i1:intgr) (i2:intgr) : bool = ...`
  - ... and so on

# Church numerals

- These have to act in “integer-like” ways, e.g. less than  $i$  (plus  $i$  one) must be true, equals (mult three four) (mult two six) must be true, etc.
- Church numerals represent numbers by lambda terms:

```
type intgr = ('a -> 'a) -> ('a -> 'a)
zero  = fun f -> fun x -> x
one   = fun f -> fun x -> f x
two   = fun f -> fun x -> f (f x)
three = fun f -> fun x -> f (f (f x))
```



# Church numerals (cont.)

- **Plus and times are easy to define:**

```
let plus m n = fun f -> fun x -> (m f (n f x))
let mult m n = fun f -> fun x -> (m (n f)) x
```

# Removing features: `let rec`

- Implementing recursion without `let rec` is the trickiest part. It uses the so-called “paradoxical combinator,” a.k.a. the “Y combinator”:

```
let W = fun F -> fun f -> F (f f)
let Y = fun F -> (W F)(W F)
```

- For recursive function `let rec f = fun x -> ...`, instead write `let f = Y (fun f -> fun x -> ...)`.

```
let fac = Y (fun fac -> fun x -> if x=0 then 1 else x * fac (x-1))
```

- We leave it as an exercise to show that, e.g., `fac 3` evaluates to 6. Note that there is no explicit recursion used here: each name defined (`W`, `Y`, and `fac`) refers only to names defined previously, never to themselves.

# $\lambda$ -calculus

- The  $\lambda$ -calculus is a language with only three types of expressions:

$$\text{expr} = \text{variable} \mid \text{expr expr} \mid \text{fun variable} \rightarrow \text{expr}$$

and two evaluation rules:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(Fun)} \text{ fun } a \rightarrow e \Downarrow_e \text{ fun } a \rightarrow e & \text{(App)} \begin{array}{l} e \Downarrow_e v \\ e \Downarrow_e \text{ fun } a \rightarrow e'' \\ e''[e'/a] \Downarrow_e v \end{array} \end{array}$$

- Lacking only features that are syntactic sugar, and the ability to display values in a “natural” form,  $\lambda$ -calculus is as powerful as (dynamically-typed, lazy) OCaml.

# Aside: $\beta$ -reduction

- Here is an even simpler semantics for  $\lambda$ -calculus:
  - Given an expression, apply the following transformation wherever it occurs:  
( $\beta$ -reduction)  $(\text{fun } x \rightarrow e) e' \rightarrow_{\beta} e[e'/x]$
  - Applying  $\beta$  may produce new places where  $\beta$  can be applied. If *it is possible* to reduce the term to a value by applying  $\beta$ -reduction repeatedly, then that is the value of the term.
- There may be many ways to apply  $\beta$ , which could result in different values; some might never terminate. The computation rule says if *any* sequence of  $\beta$ 's results in a value, that is the value of the term. Furthermore, a famous theorem (Church-Rosser) says that all values of a term obtained this way are in a certain sense equivalent.

# Haskell

- OCaml uses non-lazy, or “eager,” evaluation ( $\Downarrow$ )
- Haskell is a popular functional language that uses lazy evaluation ( $\Downarrow_l$ ).
- Haskell is statically-typed and has a syntax somewhat like OCaml, including pattern-matching.
- As an example, this remarkable definition of the list of Fibonacci numbers works if you just follow our rules for lazy lists, where `map` and `zip` have exactly the same definitions as in OCaml:

```
fib = 1 : 2 : map (+) (zip fib (tail fib))
```

# Implementation of lazy languages

- Using the substitution model, you need to change just the rules shown (App and Let).
- Real implementations are based on the environment model. SOS rules for lazy evaluation in the environment model are a little tricky, for this reason: If we want to evaluate arguments *later*, then we need to remember the environment in which they were *supposed* to be evaluated.
- Solution: Arguments are stored in the environment as closure-like things called *thunks* — pairs containing the expression and the environment.
- Evaluating a variable  $x$ :  $x$  is bound to a thunk  $\langle e, \rho \rangle$ ; evaluate  $e$  in  $\rho$ , and replace the binding of  $x$  by this value.

# Wrap-up

- Today we discussed lazy evaluation, and showed how higher-order functions with lazy evaluation provides tremendous power. The  $\lambda$ -calculus, a functional language simplified to the bare bones, is as powerful, ignoring syntactic sugar, as OCaml. Haskell is a popular statically-typed functional language that uses lazy evaluation.
- We discussed this both to introduce you to Haskell, and to demonstrate the real power of higher-order functions.
- What to do now:
  - Um, nothing much. (If you're ambitious, make the small change in your MP9 solution and try these examples!)