

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 OCaml’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 to talk about how programs work

Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Given an expression e , we write:

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to state that expression e evaluates to value v

- Some examples:

Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Given an expression e , we write:

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to state that expression e evaluates to value v

- Some examples:

$$1 + 2$$

Evaluation of Pure Expressions

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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:

$$e \dashrightarrow v$$

to state that expression e evaluates to value v

- Some examples:

$$1 + 2 \dashrightarrow 3$$

$$2 \dashrightarrow 2$$

values step to values



Evaluation of Pure Expressions

- Given an expression e , we write:

$$e \text{ --> } v$$

to state that expression e evaluates to value v

- Some examples:

$$1 + 2 \text{ --> } 3$$

$$2 \text{ --> } 2$$

$$\text{int_to_string } 5 \text{ --> "5"}$$

Evaluation of Pure Expressions

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

$$e \dashrightarrow e'$$

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:

$$(2 * 3) + (7 * 5)$$
$$\rightarrow 6 + (7 * 5)$$

Evaluation of Pure Expressions

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

$$\begin{aligned} &(2 * 3) + (7 * 5) \\ \rightarrow &6 + (7 * 5) \\ \rightarrow &6 + 35 \end{aligned}$$

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

now a value

```
let inc = fun y -> 1+y in
```

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

```
dec (inc 42)
```

-->

```
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 -> -1+y) ((fun y -> 1+y) 42) -->
```

```
(fun y -> -1+y) (1+42) -->
```

```
(fun y -> -1+y) 43 -->
```

```
-1+43 -->
```

```
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;;
```

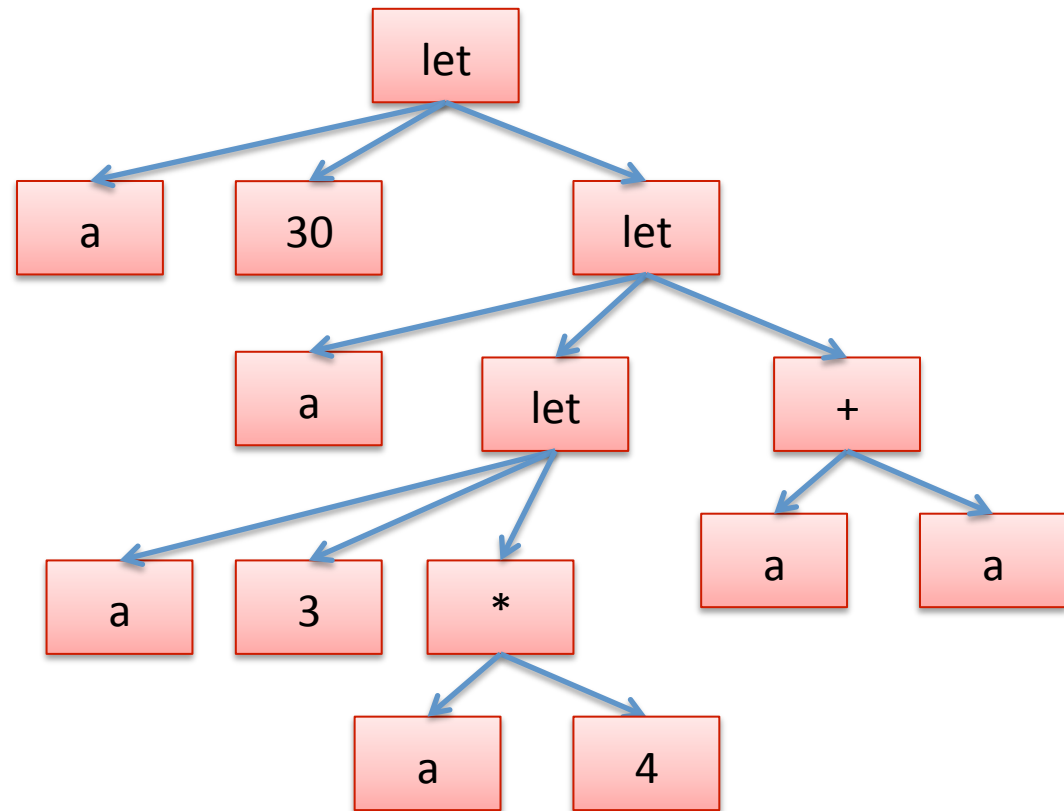
Abstract Syntax Trees

- 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;;
```

==

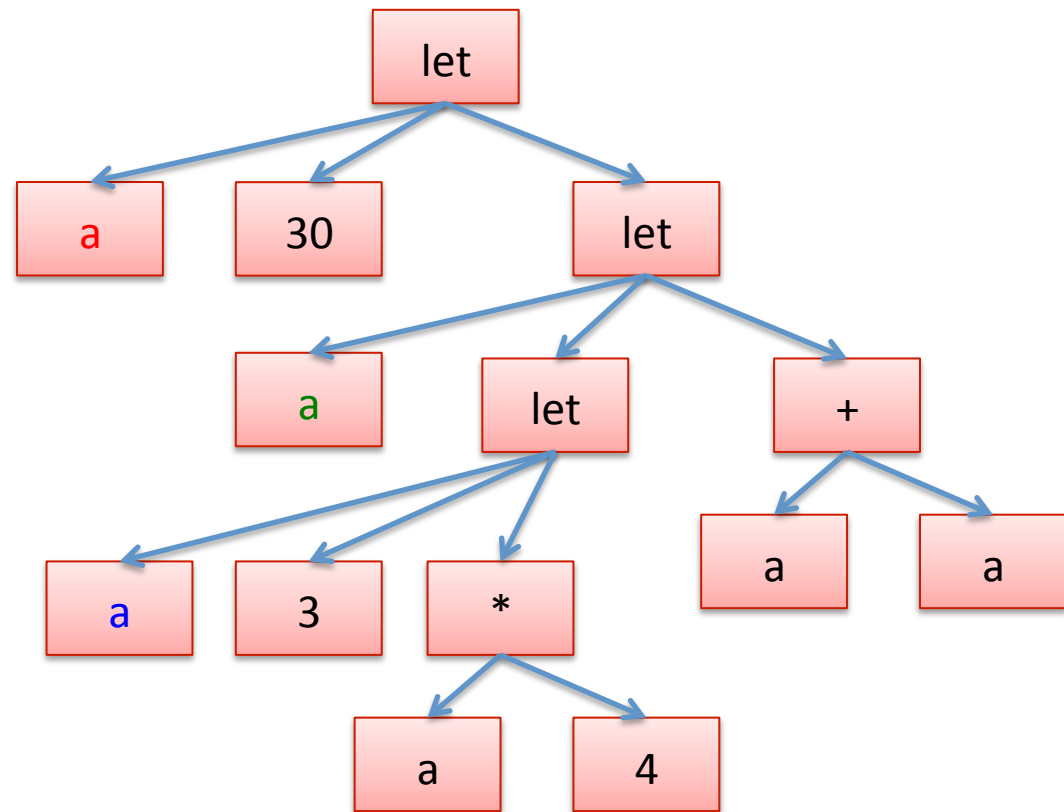
```
(let a = (30) in
 (let a =
  (let a = (3) in (a*4))
 in
 (a+a)))
```



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;;
```

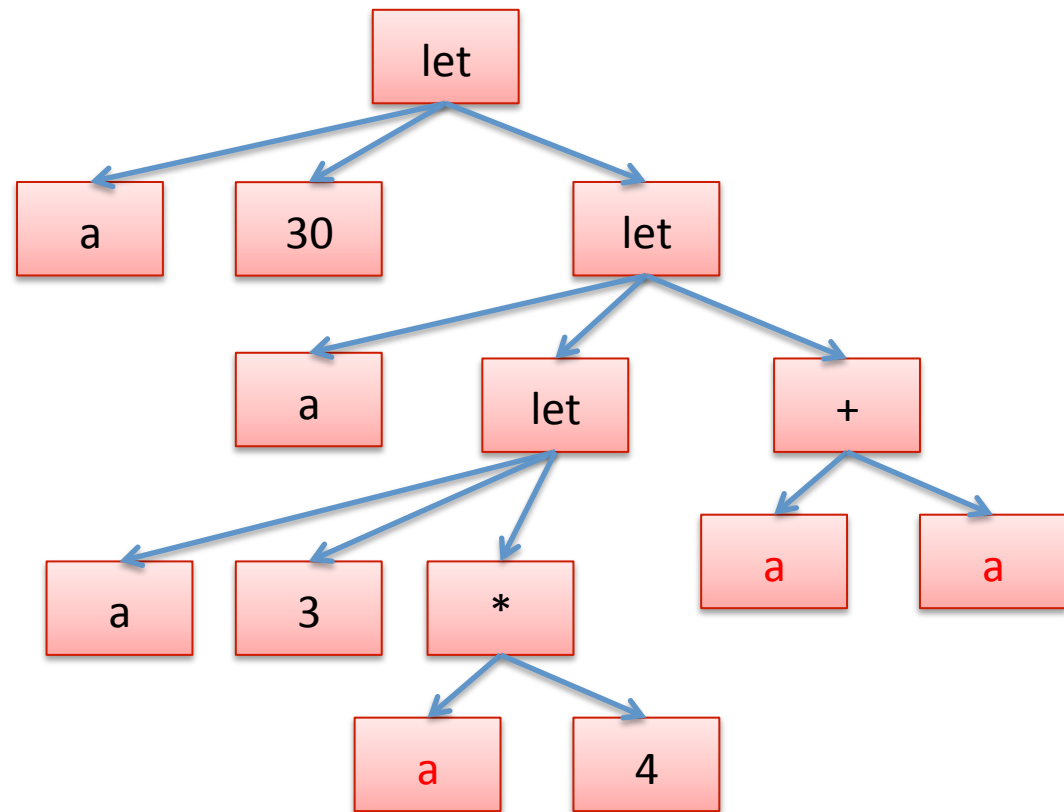


Free Occurrences

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.

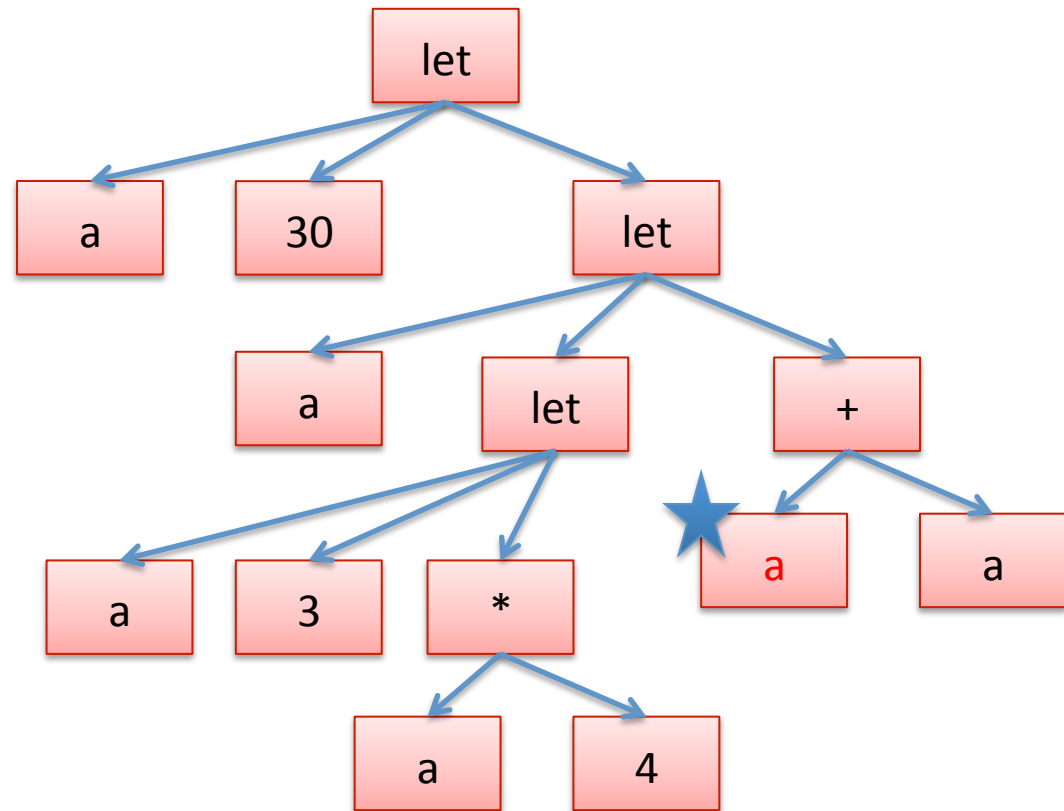
```
let a = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

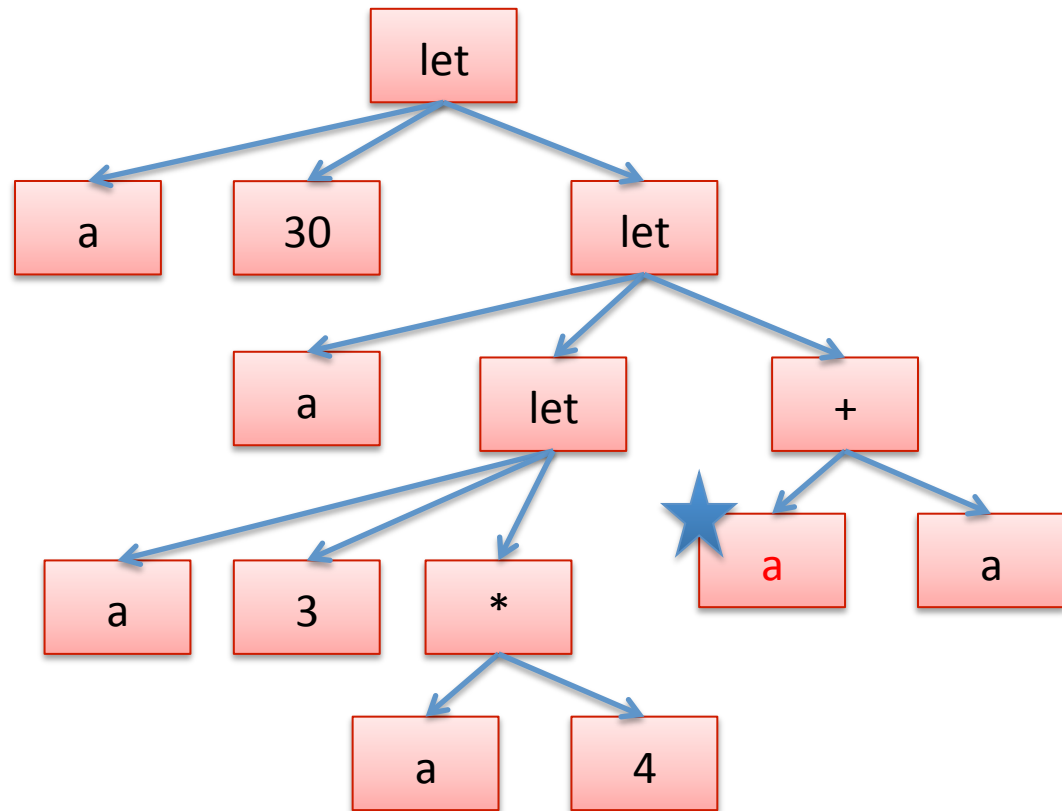
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

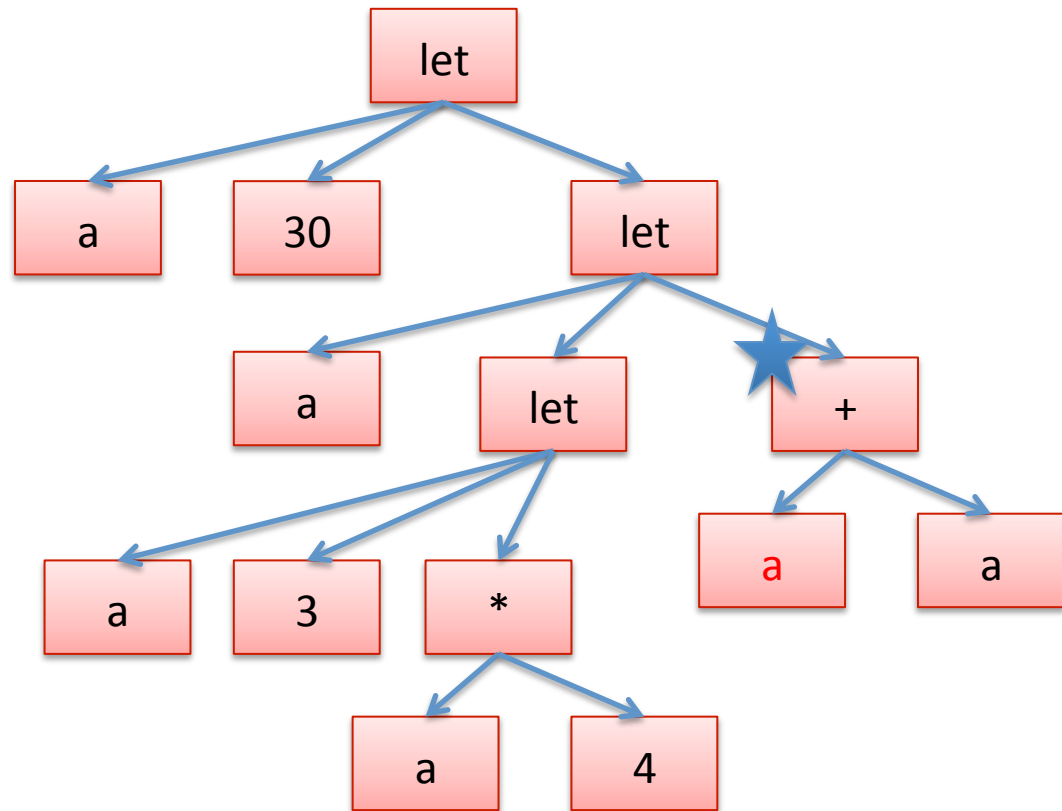
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

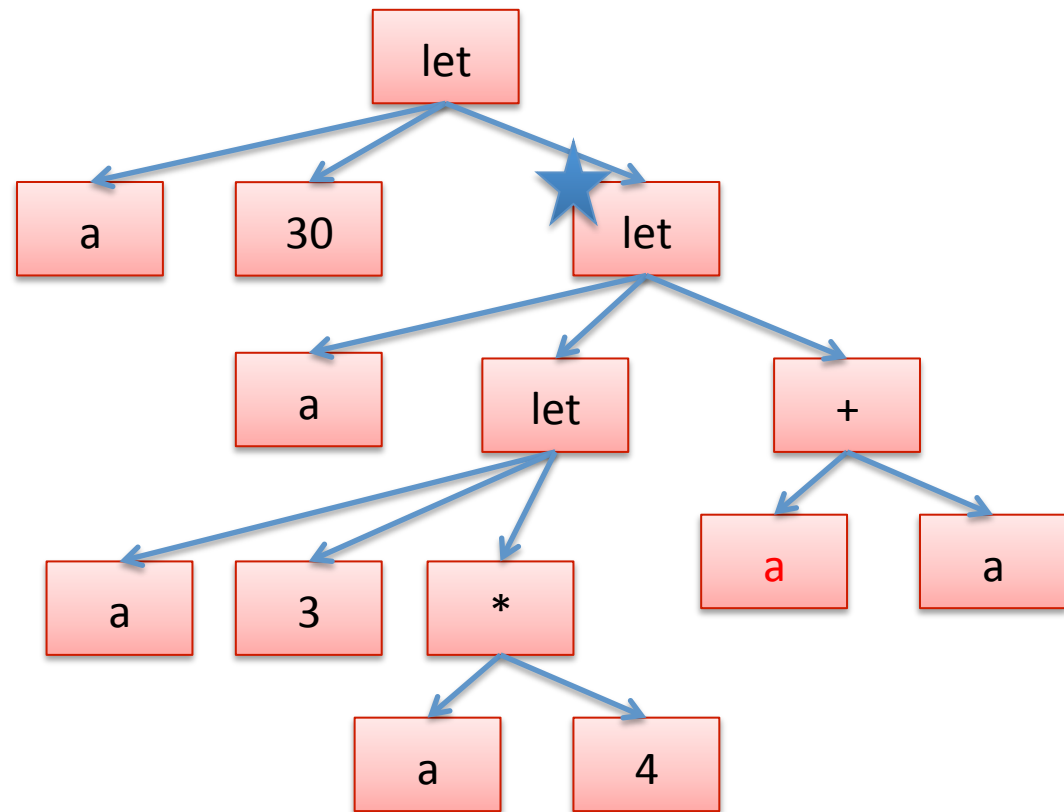
```
let a = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

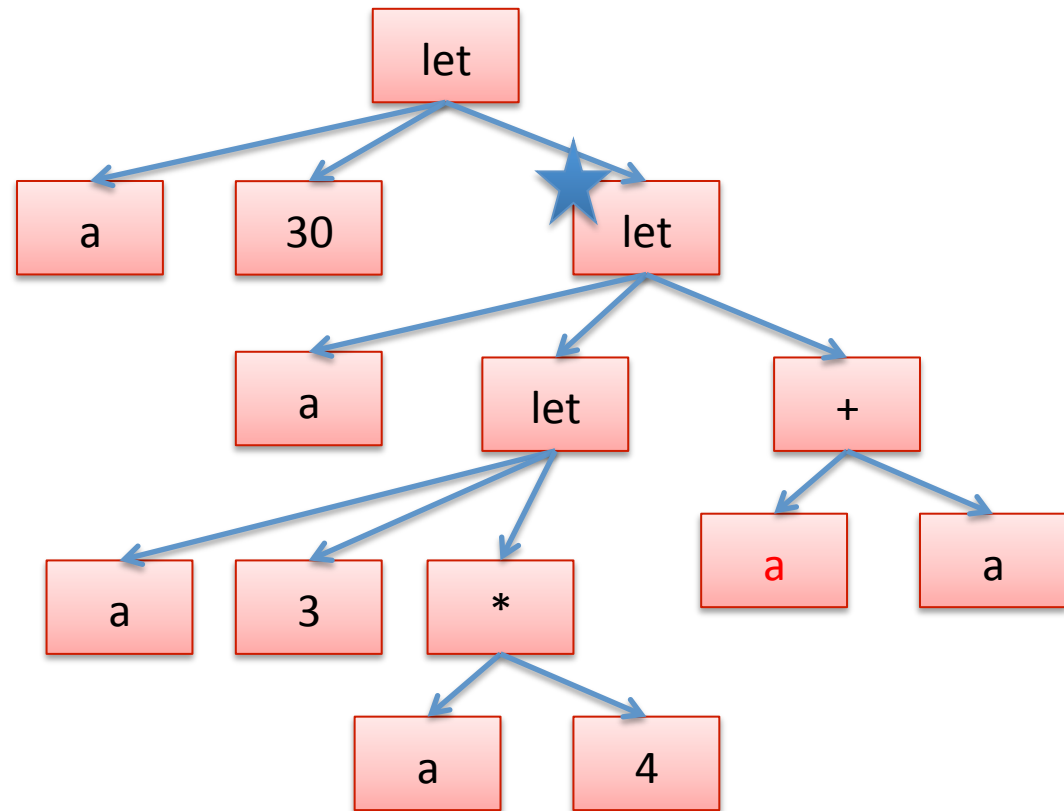
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



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.

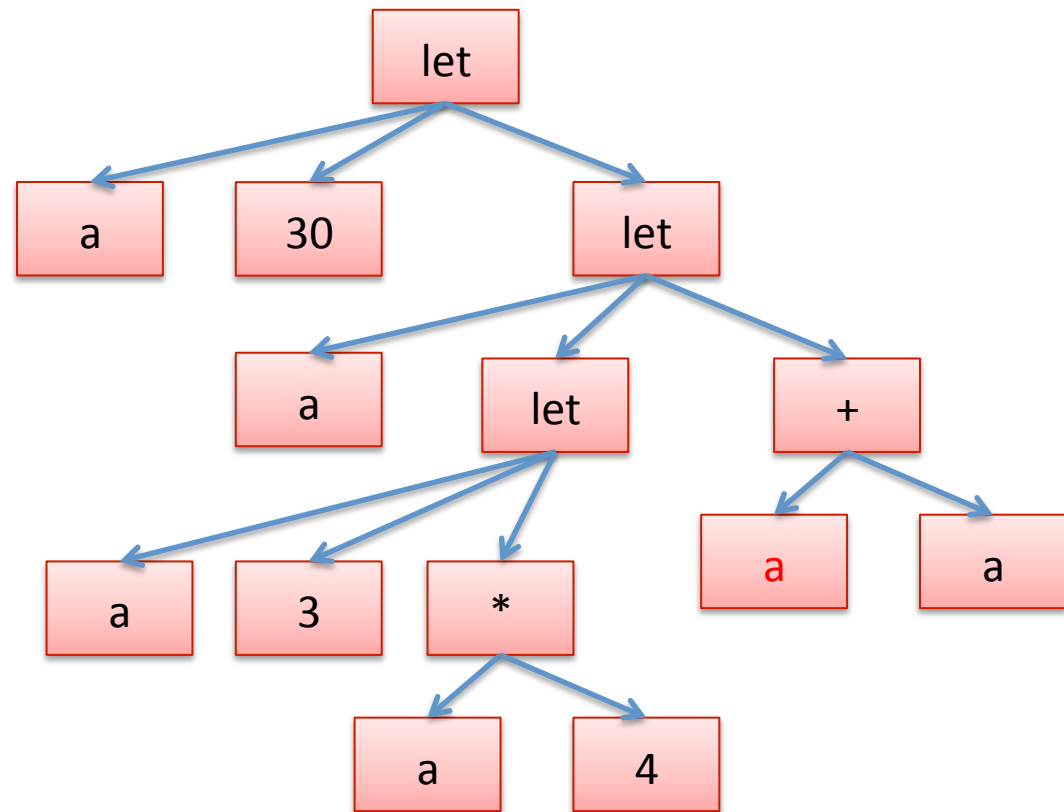
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

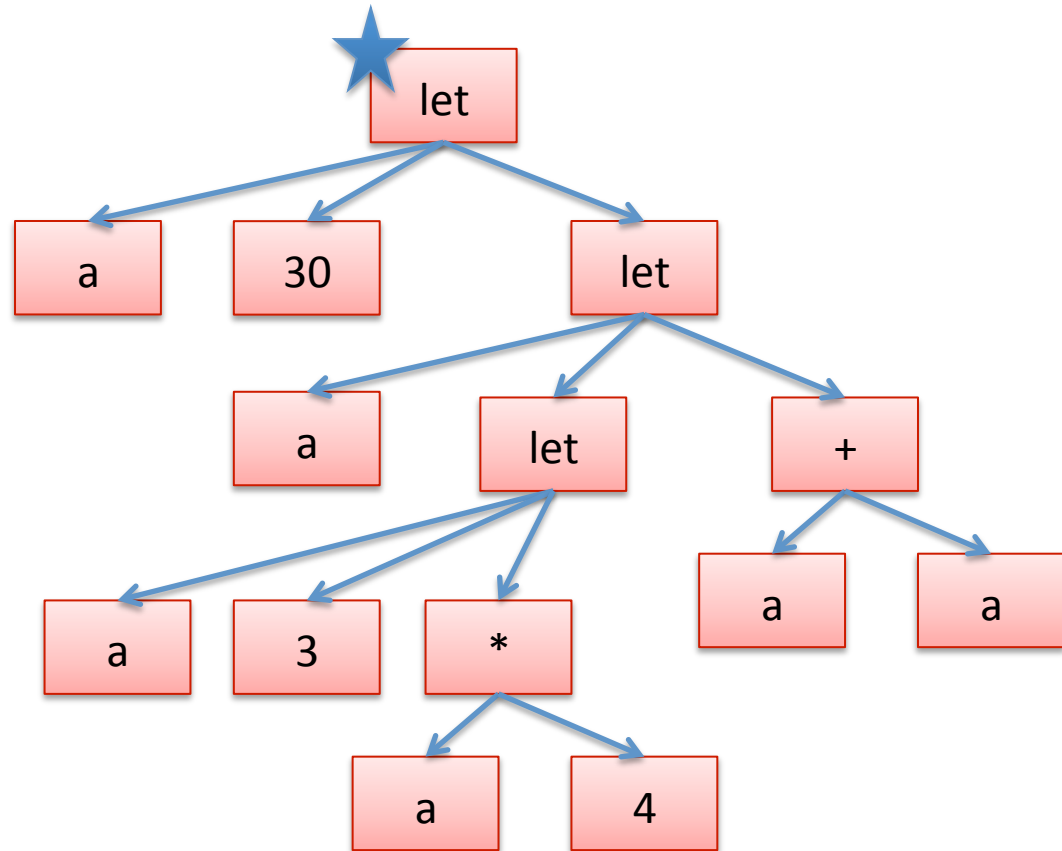
```
let a = 30 in
let a =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

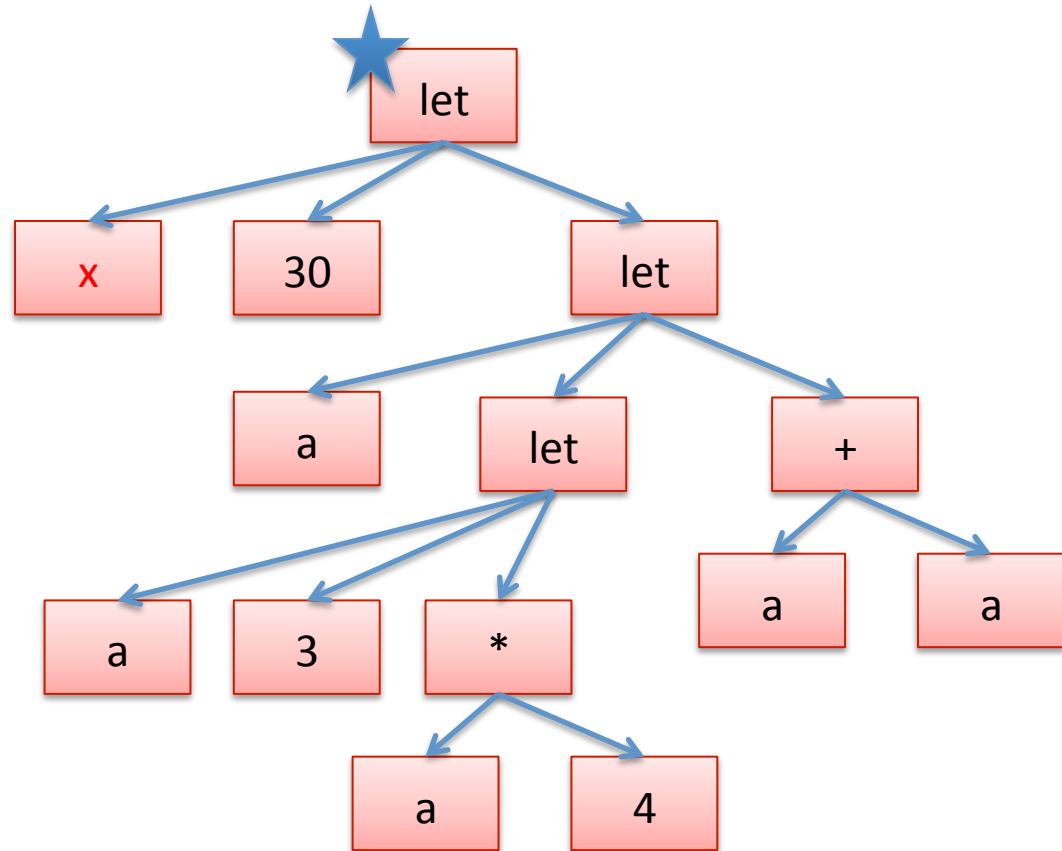
```
let a = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

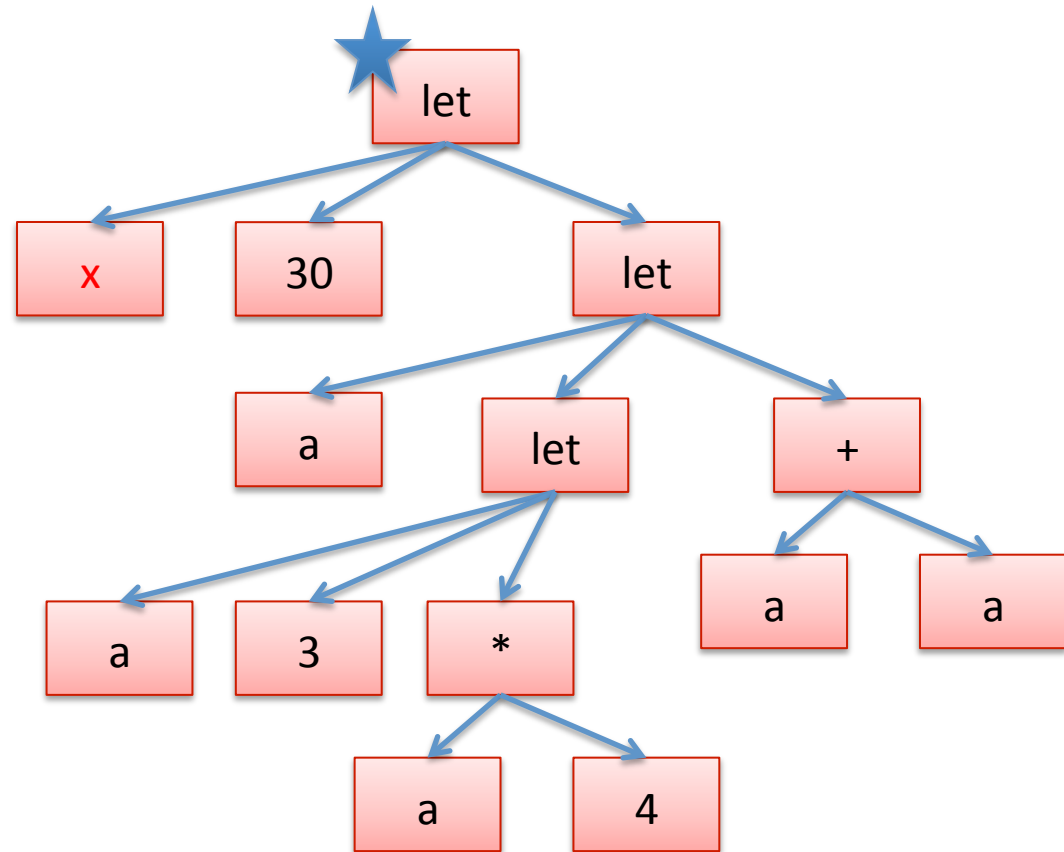
```
let x = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

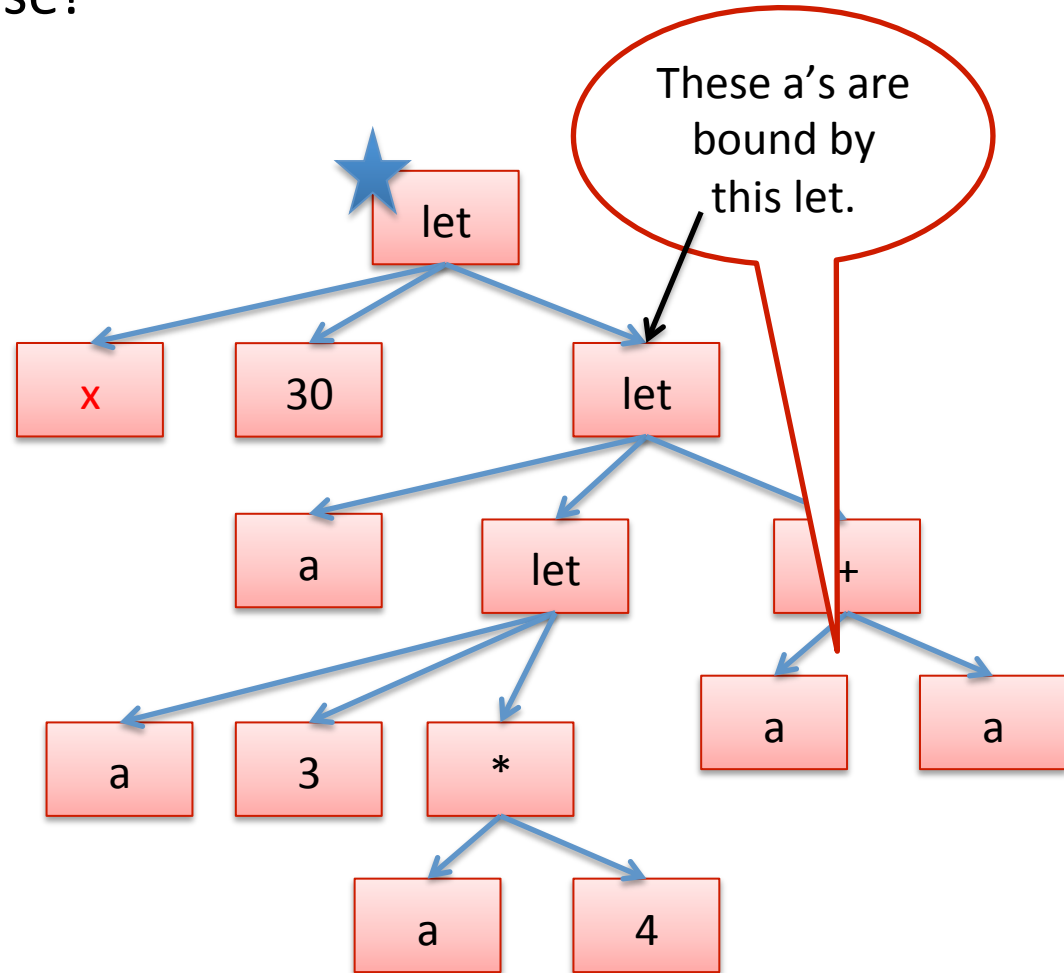
```
let x = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

- There are none in this case!

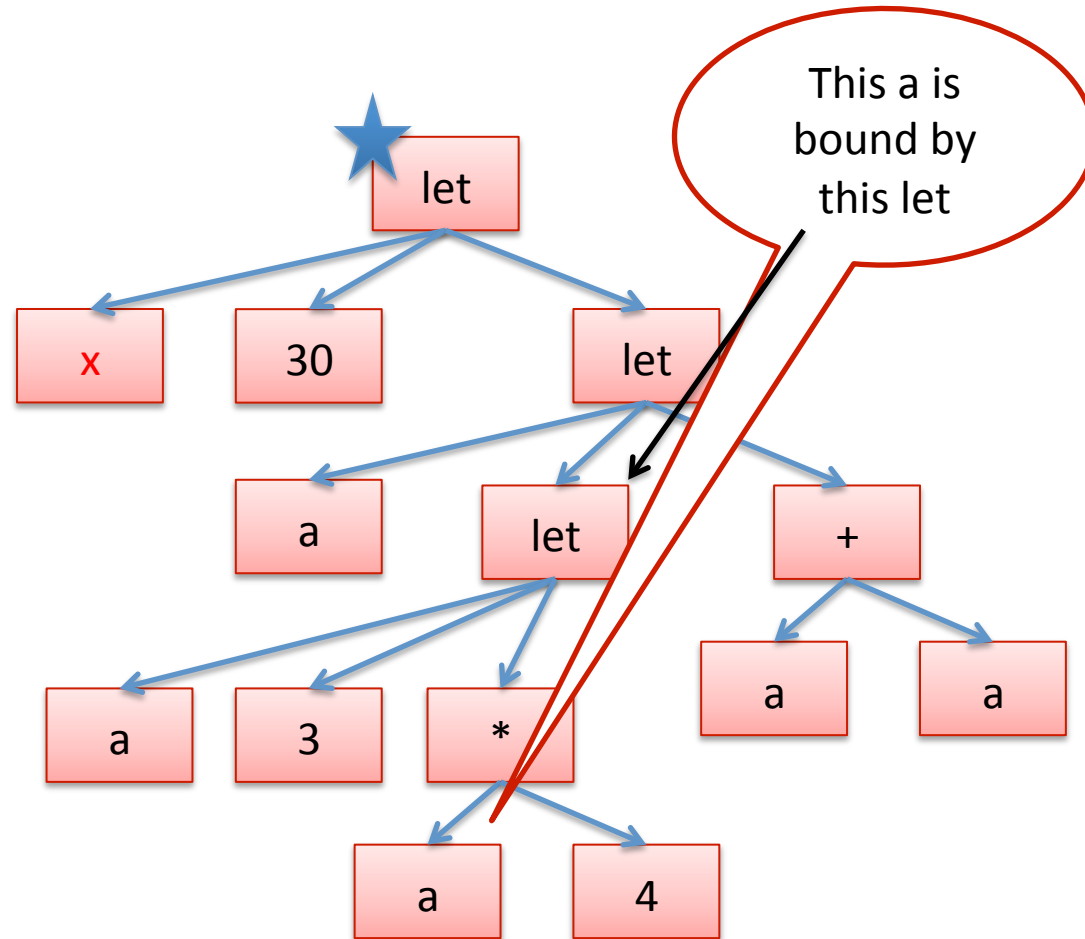
```
let x = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

- There are none in this case!

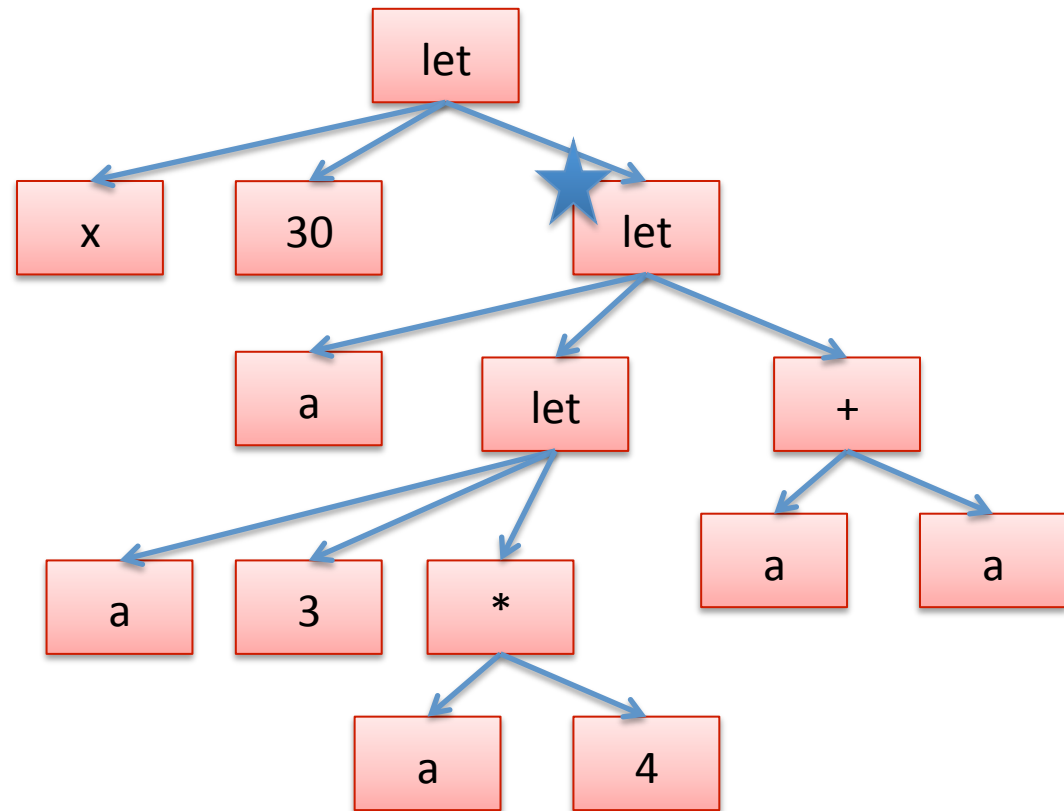
```
let x = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

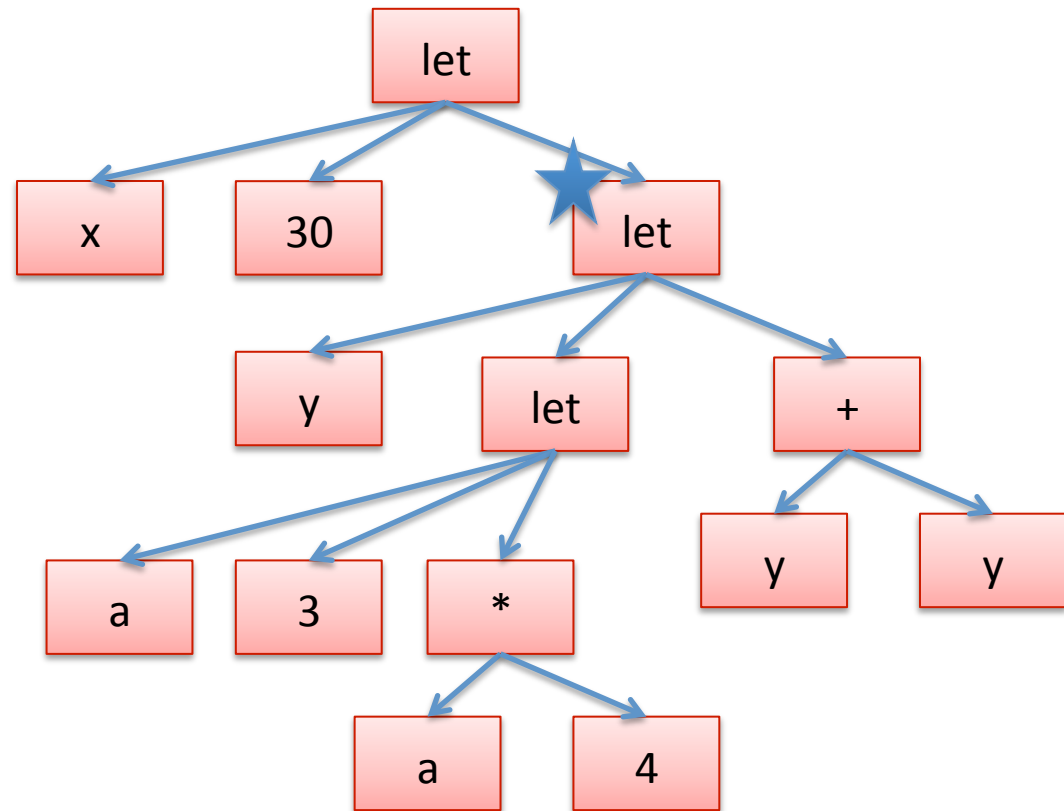
```
let x = 30 in  
let a =  
  (let a = 3 in a*4)  
in  
a+a;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

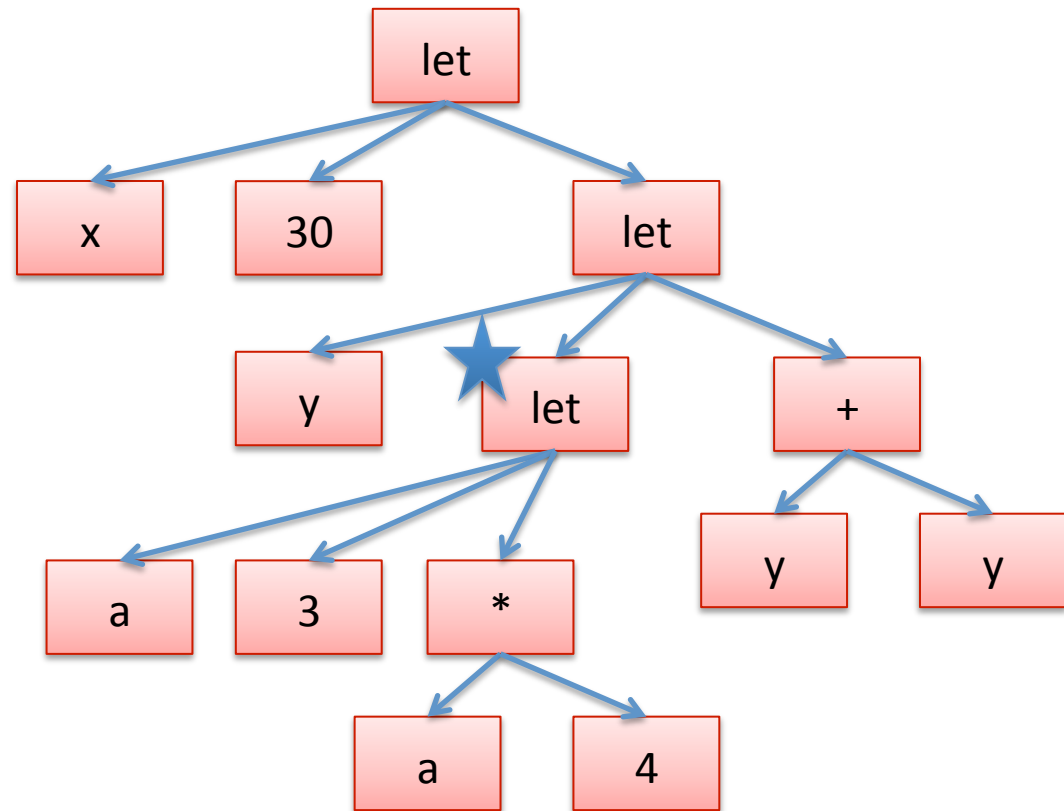
```
let x = 30 in
let y =
  (let a = 3 in a*4)
in
y+y;;
```



Abstract Syntax Trees

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

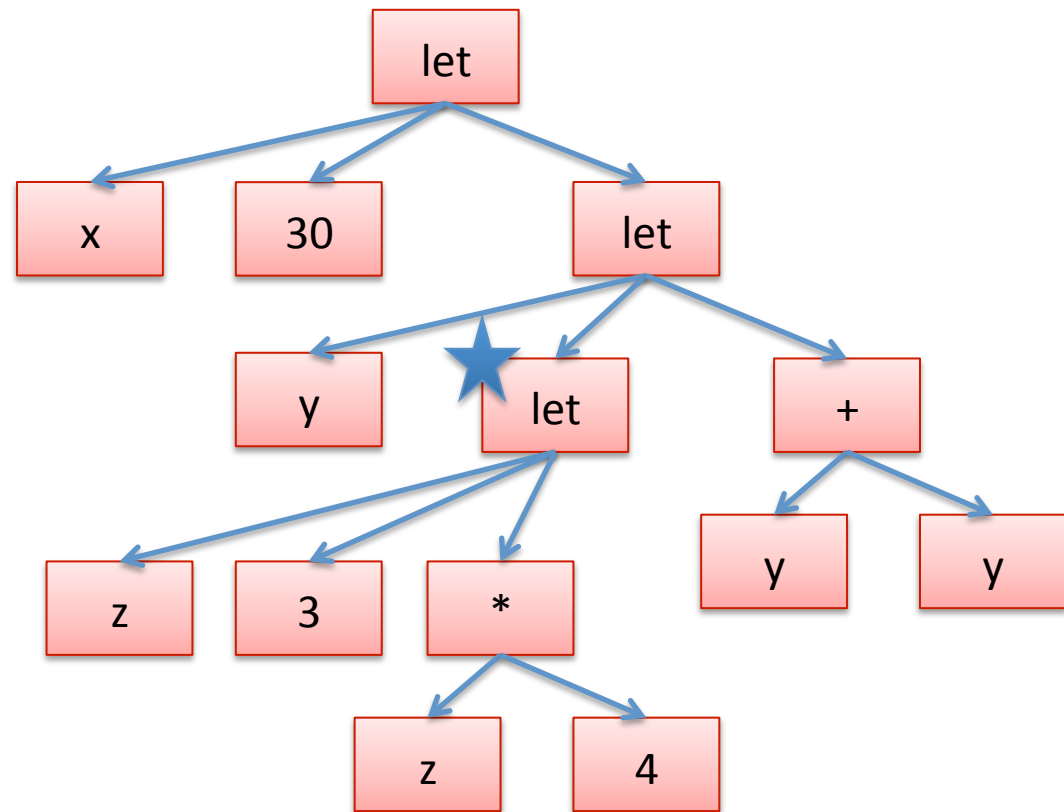
```
let x = 30 in  
let y =  
  (let z = 3 in z*4)  
in  
y+y;;
```



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

Pretty
Printing

```
6
```

text file/stdout
containing with formatted output

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

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;;
```

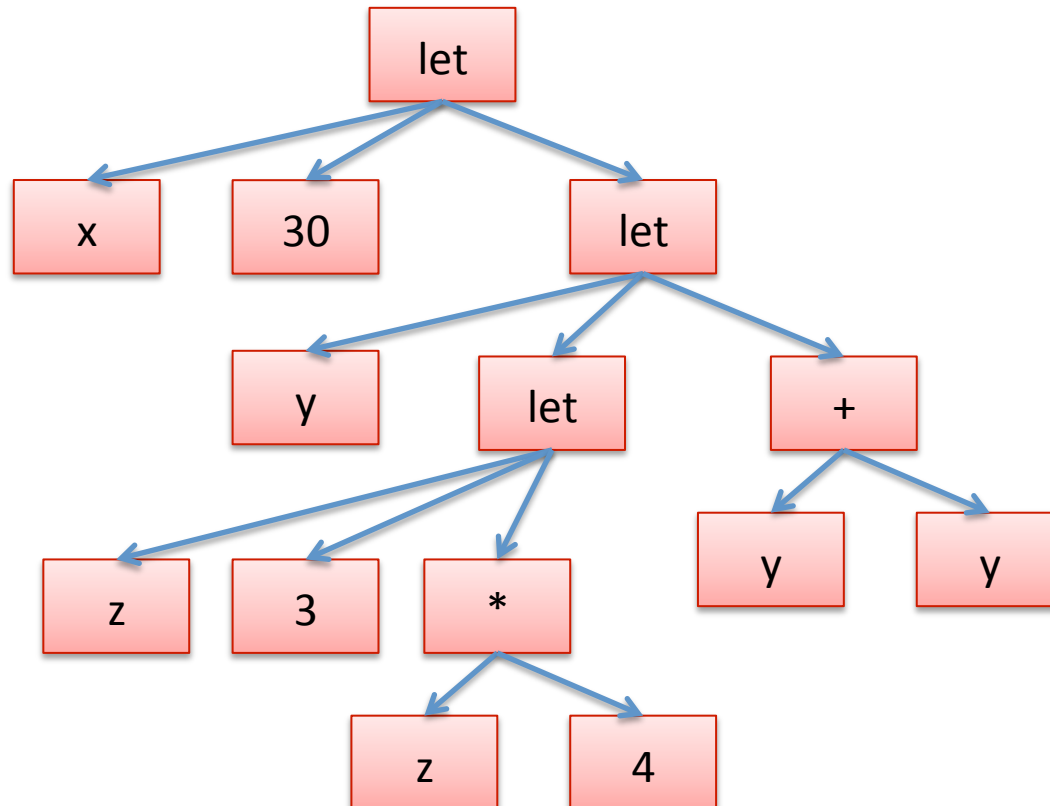
as an exp value:

```
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 ;;
```

(fun x -> e) is
represented as
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 ;;
```

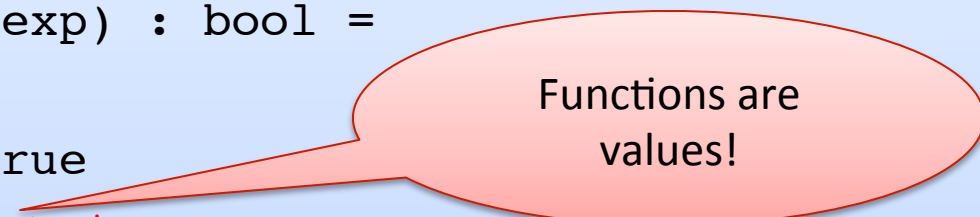
A function call

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:

$(x + y) [7/y]$ is $(x + 7)$

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

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

Evaluating Recursive Functions

Basic evaluation rule for recursive functions:

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

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
```

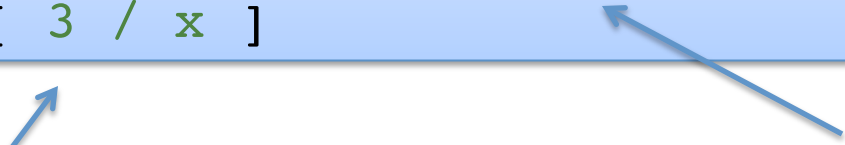
Evaluating Recursive Functions

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:

$$\frac{\text{premise 1} \quad \text{premise 2} \quad \dots \quad \text{premise 3}}{\text{conclusion}}$$

- 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:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad \text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2) == v'}{e1 \text{ op } e2 \rightarrow v'}$$

In English:

“If $e1$ evaluates to $v1$
and $e2$ evaluates to $v2$
and $\text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2)$ is equal to v'
then
 $e1 \text{ op } e2$ 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:

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

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:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 [v1/x] \rightarrow v2}{\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \rightarrow v2}$$

In English:

“If $e1$ evaluates to $v1$
and $e2$ with $v1$ substituted for x evaluates to $v2$
then $\text{let } x=e1 \text{ in } e2$ evaluates to $v2$.”

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:

$$\frac{}{\lambda x.e \twoheadrightarrow \lambda x.e}$$

typical “lambda” notation
for a function with
argument x, body e

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:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \lambda x.e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[v2/x] \rightarrow v}{e1 \ e2 \rightarrow v}$$

In English:

“if $e1$ evaluates to a function with argument x and body e
and $e2$ evaluates to a value $v2$
and e with $v2$ substituted for x evaluates to v
then $e1$ applied to $e2$ 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:

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e \quad e2 \rightarrow v \quad e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v/x] \rightarrow v2}{e1 \ e2 \rightarrow v2}$$

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:

$$\frac{i \in \mathbb{Z}}{i \rightarrow i}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad \text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2) == v}{e1 \text{ op } e2 \rightarrow v}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 [v1/x] \rightarrow v2}{\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \rightarrow v2}$$
$$\frac{}{\lambda x. e \rightarrow \lambda x. e}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \lambda x. e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[v2/x] \rightarrow v}{e1 \ e2 \rightarrow v}$$
$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v2/x] \rightarrow v3}{e1 \ e2 \rightarrow v3}$$

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:

complete set of rules:

```

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
  
```

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

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad \text{eval_op}(v1, \text{op}, v2) == v}{e1 \text{ op } e2 \rightarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow v1 \quad e2 [v1/x] \rightarrow v2}{\text{let } x = e1 \text{ in } e2 \rightarrow v2}$$

$$\frac{}{\lambda x. e \rightarrow \lambda x. e}$$

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \lambda x. e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[v2/x] \rightarrow v}{e1 e2 \rightarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e1 \rightarrow \text{rec } f \ x = e \quad e2 \rightarrow v2 \quad e[\text{rec } f \ x = e/f][v2/x] \rightarrow v3}{e1 e2 \rightarrow v3}$$

- 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, booleans, strings, chars, and *functions* are values
 - value rule: values evaluate to themselves
 - let rule: “let x = e1 in e2” : substitute e1’s value for x into e2
 - fun call rule: “(fun x -> e2) e1” : substitute e1’s value for x into e2
 - rec call rule: “(rec x = e1) e2” : like fun call rule, but also substitute recursive function for name of function
 - To unwind: substitute (rec x = e1) for x in e1
- 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:
 - $\text{map } f (\text{map } g \text{ } xs) == \text{map } (\text{comp } f \text{ } g) \text{ } xs$
 - 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*2 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