G54FOP: Lecture 11

Untyped \(\lambda\)-calculus: Operational Semantics and Reduction Orders

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means "substitute t for free occurrences of x in F.

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"Substitution" almost always means capture-avoiding substitution.

Capture-Avoiding Substitution (1)

$$[x \mapsto s]y = \begin{cases} s, & \text{if } x \equiv y \\ y, & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \end{cases}$$

$$[x \mapsto s](t_1 \ t_2) = ([x \mapsto s]t_1) \ ([x \mapsto s]t_2)$$

$$[x \mapsto s](\lambda y.t) = \begin{cases} \lambda y.t, & \text{if } x \equiv y \\ \lambda y.[x \mapsto s]t, & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \land y \notin \text{FV}(s) \\ \lambda z.[x \mapsto s]([y \mapsto z]t), & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \land y \in \text{FV}(s), \end{cases}$$

$$\text{where } z \text{ is fresh}$$

where s, t and indexed variants denote lambda-terms; x, y, and z denote variables; FV(t) denotes the free variables of term t; and \equiv denotes syntactic equality.

Capture-Avoiding Substitution (2)

The condition "z is fresh" can be relaxed:

$$z \not\equiv x \land z \not\in FV(s) \land z \not\in FV(t)$$

is enough.

Capture-Avoiding Substitution (3)

A slight variation:

$$[x \mapsto s]y = \begin{cases} s, & \text{if } x \equiv y \\ y, & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \end{cases}$$

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$$[x \mapsto s](\lambda y.t, & \text{if } x \equiv y \\ \lambda y.[x \mapsto s]t, & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \land y \not\in \text{FV}(s)$$

$$[x \mapsto s](\lambda z.[y \mapsto z]t), & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \land y \in \text{FV}(s), \\ \text{where } z \not\in \text{FV}(s)$$

$$\land z \not\in \text{FV}(t)$$

Homework: Why isn't $z \not\equiv x$ needed in this case?

α - and η -conversion

• Renaming bound variables is known as α -conversion. E.g.

$$(\lambda x.x) \underset{\alpha}{\longleftrightarrow} (\lambda y.y)$$

Note that $(\lambda x.F\ x)\ G \xrightarrow{\beta} F\ G$ if x not free in F.

This justifies η -conversion:

$$\lambda x.F \ x \underset{\eta}{\longleftrightarrow} F \quad \text{if } x \notin \text{FV}(F)$$

Capture-Avoiding Substitution (4)

If we adopt the convention that terms that differ only in the names of bound variables are interchangeable in all contexts, then the following *partial* definition can be used as long as it is understood that an α -conversion has to be carried out if no case applies:

$$[x \mapsto s]y = \begin{cases} s, & \text{if } x \equiv y \\ y, & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \end{cases}$$
$$[x \mapsto s](t_1 \ t_2) = ([x \mapsto s]t_1) ([x \mapsto s]t_1)$$
$$[x \mapsto s](\lambda y.t) = \lambda y.[x \mapsto s]t, & \text{if } x \not\equiv y \land y \not\in FV(s)$$

Abstract syntax:

$$t o x$$
 terms: x variable $\lambda x.t$ abstraction $t t$ application

Values:

v o values: $\lambda x.t$ abstraction value

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'}{t_1 \ t_2 \longrightarrow t_1' \ t_2} \tag{E-APP1}$$

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$$\frac{t_2 \longrightarrow t_2'}{v_1 \ t_2 \longrightarrow v_1 \ t_2'}$$
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$$(\lambda x.t) \ v \longrightarrow [x \mapsto v]t$$
 (E-APPABS)

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$$(\lambda x.t_1) \ t_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto t_2]t_1$$
 (E-APPABS)

Op. Semantics: Normal-Order

Normal-order operational semantics is somewhat awkward to specify. Like full β -reduction, except left-most, outermost redex first.

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$$(\lambda x.t_1) \ t_2 \longrightarrow [x \mapsto t_2]t_1$$
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Note: Argument not evaluated "prior to call"!

Call-By-Value vs. Call-By-Name (1)

Exercises:

1. Evaluate the following term both by call-by-name and call-by-value:

$$(\lambda x.\lambda y.y) ((\lambda z.z z) (\lambda z.z z))$$

2. For some term t and some value v, suppose $t \xrightarrow{*}_{\beta} v$ in, say 100 steps. Consider $(\lambda x.x \ x) \ t$ under both call-by-value and call-by-name. How many steps of evaluation in the two cases? (Roughly)

Call-By-Value vs. Call-By-Name (2)

Questions:

- Do we get the same result (modulo termination issues) regardless of evaluation order?
- Which order is "better"?

The Church-Rosser Theorems (1)

Church-Rosser Theorem I:

For all λ -calculus terms t, t_1 , and t_2 such that $t \stackrel{*}{\underset{\beta}{\longrightarrow}} t_1$ and $t \stackrel{*}{\underset{\beta}{\longrightarrow}} t_2$, there exists a term

 t_3 such that $t_1 \stackrel{*}{\underset{\beta}{\longrightarrow}} t_3$ and $t_2 \stackrel{*}{\underset{\beta}{\longrightarrow}} t_3$.

That is, β -reduction is *confluent*.

This is also known as the "diamond property".

The Church-Rosser Theorems (2)

Church-Rosser Theorem II:

If $t_1 \stackrel{*}{\underset{\beta}{\longrightarrow}} t_2$ and t_2 is a normal form (no

redexes), then t_1 will reduce to t_2 under normal-order reduction.

Which Reduction Order? (1)

So, which reduction order is "best"?

- Depends on the application. Sometimes reduction under λ needed, sometimes not.
- Normal-order reduction has the best possible termination properties: if a term has a normal form, normal-order reduction will find it.

Which Reduction Order? (2)

- In terms of reduction steps (fewer is more efficient), none is strictly better than the other. E.g.:
 - Call-by-value may run forever on a term where normal-order would terminate.
 - Normal-order often duplicates redexes (by substitution of reducible expressions for variables), thereby possibly duplicating work, something that call-by-value avoids.

Lazy Evaluation (1)

Lazy evaluation is an implementation technique that seeks to combine the advantages of the various orders by:

- evaluate on demand only, but
- evaluate any one redex at most once (avoiding duplication of work)

Idea: Graph Reduction to avoid duplication by explicit sharing of redexes.

Lazy Evaluation (2)

Result: normal-order/call-by-need semantics, but efficiency closer to call-by-value (when call-by-value doesn't do unnecessary work). However, there are inherent implementation overheads of lazy evaluation.

Lazy evaluation is used in languages like Haskell.