

Operational semantics

- Reduction semantics
- Abstract machine semantics.

Reduction semantics

For functional programs,
with no computational effects,
program execution can be
modelled by just evaluation.

β -reduction (function expansion)

$$(\lambda x. M) N \rightarrow M[N/x].$$

δ -reductions (primitive functions)

$$\text{if true } M N \rightarrow M$$

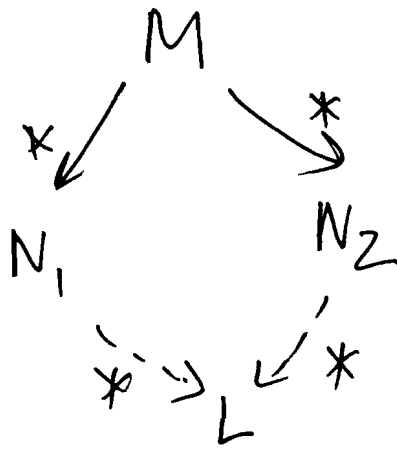
$$\text{if false } M N \rightarrow N$$

$$\text{car (cons } M N) \rightarrow M$$

⋮

Church-Rosser property

A reduction semantics is Church-Rosser or confluent if



If M can ~~not~~ reduce to distinct N_1, N_2 then N_1 and N_2 reduce to a common term.

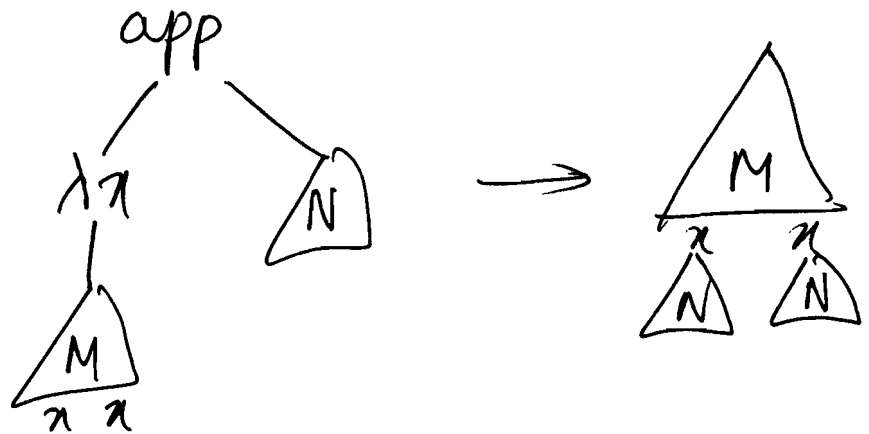
consequence:

The results are independent of the reduction strategy.

(The choice of subterms reduced)

However, the reduction strategy makes a difference for termination.

Outermost reduction



The arguments are not evaluated before calling the functions.

Pro - If the argument value is not needed, we save computation.

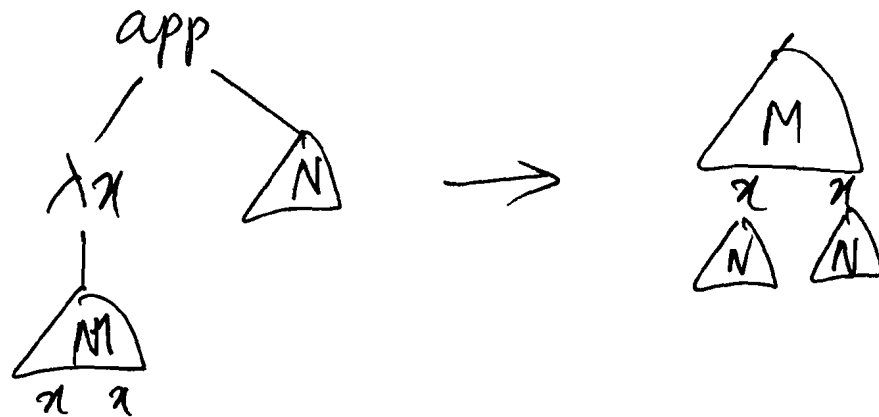
con - If the argument ~~is~~ is used in multiple places, we may duplicate computation.

Call-by-name programming languages use outermost reduction.

They allow the use of infinite data structures.

Innermost reduction

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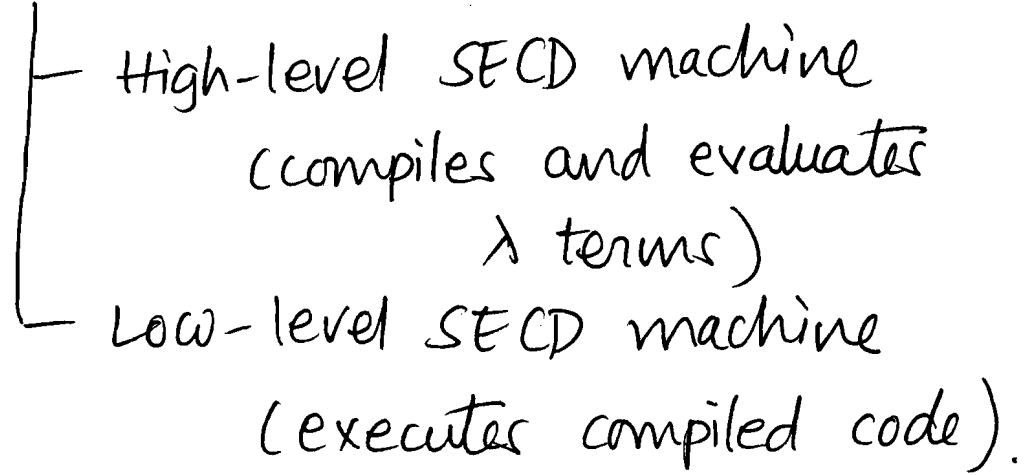
Both M and N should be in ~~normal~~ normal form.

This is the mechanism used in call-by-value programming languages.

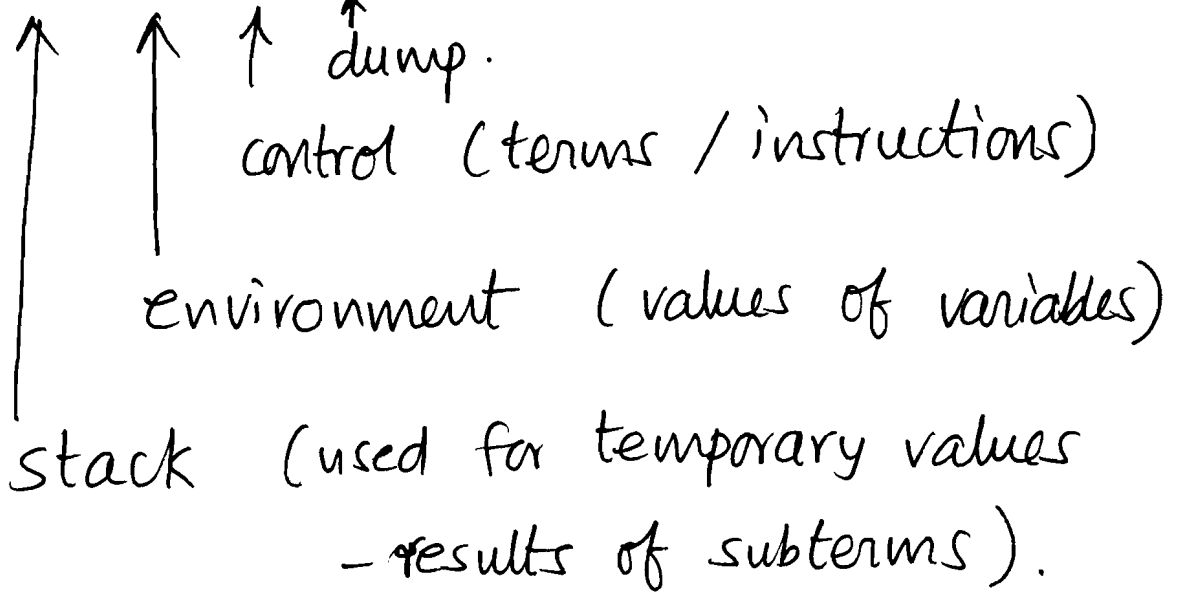
Infinite data structures are not available in call-by-value languages.

Abstract Machine Semantics

SECD machine



$$(S, E, C, D) \rightarrow (S', E', C', D')$$



initial configuration :

$$([], [], [M], [])$$

↑
term to be evaluated.

Example rules:

$(S, E, [c | C], D)$

constant

$\rightarrow ([S | c], E, C, D)$

$(S, E, [x | C], D)$

variable

$\rightarrow ([S | \text{lookup}(E, x)], E, C, D)$

$(S, E, [(MN) | C], D)$

$\rightarrow (S, E, [M, N, \text{app} | C], D)$

translates MN to a sequence of instructions.

Low-level SECD machine

Does not do any translation.

A compiler is used to translate terms to instructions ahead of time.

Closures

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The SECD machine does not do variable substitution.

(unlike β -reduction).

The values of variables are stored in the environment, and looked up when needed.

$(S, E, [\lambda x. M \mid C], D)$
abstraction term

- The values of the free variables of M are currently in E .
- when the function is called, we need to use this environment for the values of free variables.

$([S \mid \underbrace{d(\lambda x. M, E)}], E, C, D)$

↑
closure that packages a function term and environment

Using the closure:

$([\underbrace{\text{cl}(\lambda x, M, E_0)}_{\text{function closure}}, \underbrace{N | S}_{\text{argument}}, E, [\text{app} | C], D)$

↑
function closure argument.

- We should "call" the function, but change the environment to E_0 ,
- The current environment is saved on the dump.

→ $(S, \underbrace{\text{upd}(E_0, x, N)}_{\text{new environment for the function call}}, [M, \text{ret} | C], [D | E])$
 ↑
 saved environment.

The return instruction restores the old environment.

Compilation issues

(Hand out 7, Abelson & Sussman).

The environment is structured as a sequence of frames,

where each frame contains the variable bindings from a single call.

$$E = F_0 \leftarrow F_1 \leftarrow F_2 \leftarrow \dots \leftarrow F_n.$$

↑
the "global"
frame

~~~~~  
each frame comes  
from a function call.

Example :

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let  $d = \lambda(n, k). = (\text{mod}(n, k), 0)$

in let  $e = \lambda(k). d(k, 2)$

in  $e(3)$

$$F_0 = \{ \}$$

~~$$F_1 = \{ d \mapsto \lambda(n, k). \dots, F \}$$~~

$$F_1 = \{ d \mapsto d(\lambda(n, k), \dots, F_0) \}$$

- from calling the let.

$$F_2 = \{ e \mapsto d(\lambda(k). d(k, 2), F_0 \leftarrow F_1) \}$$

- from calling the let.

$$F_3 = \{ k \mapsto 3 \} \quad \del{F_0 \leftarrow F_1 \leftarrow F_2}$$

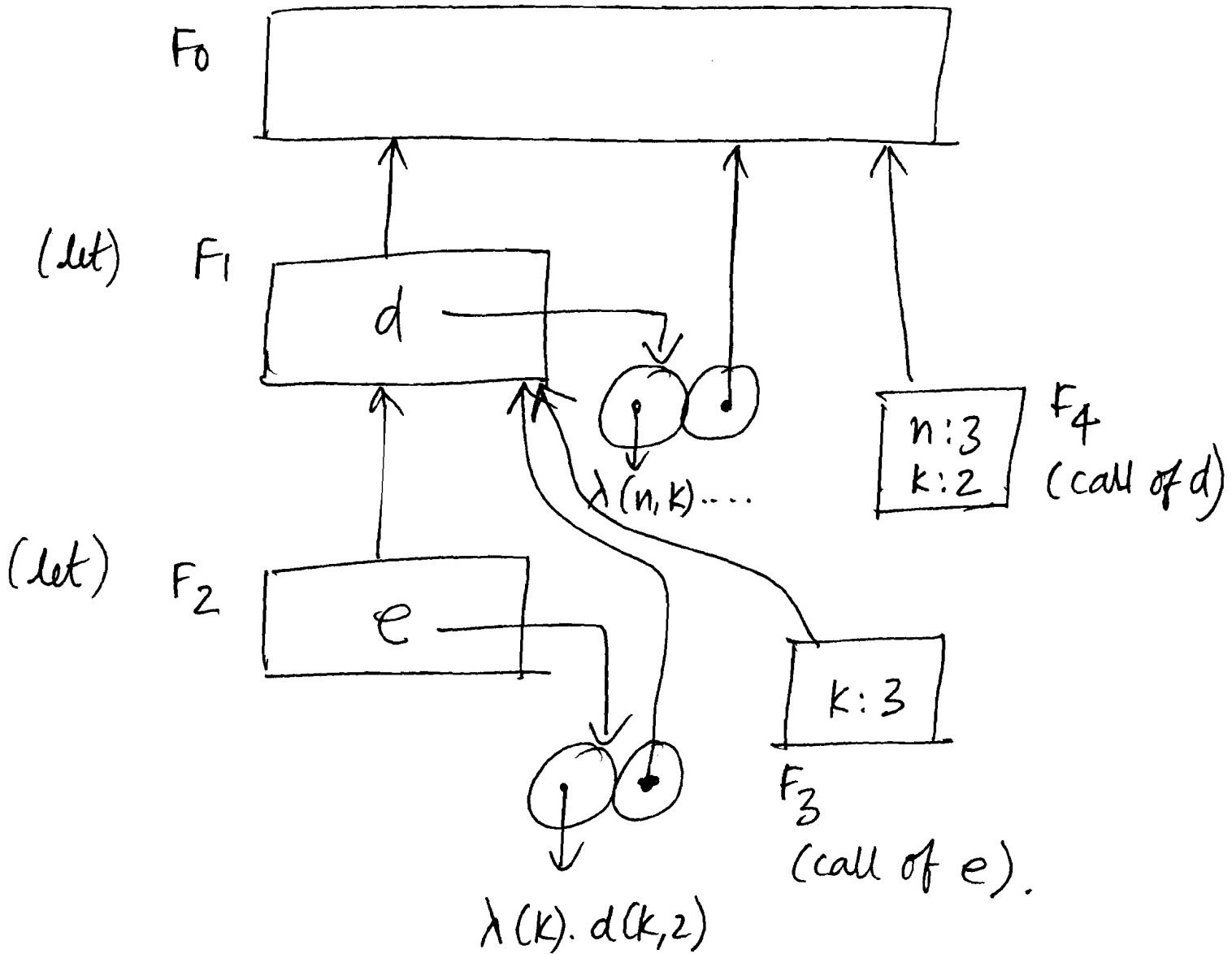
- from calling  $e$ .

$$F_4 = \{ n \mapsto 3, k \mapsto 2 \}$$

- from calling  $d$ .

# Diagrammatic form for environments

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# Assignments & Commands

A call-by-value  $\lambda$  calculus can be extended with "computational effects"

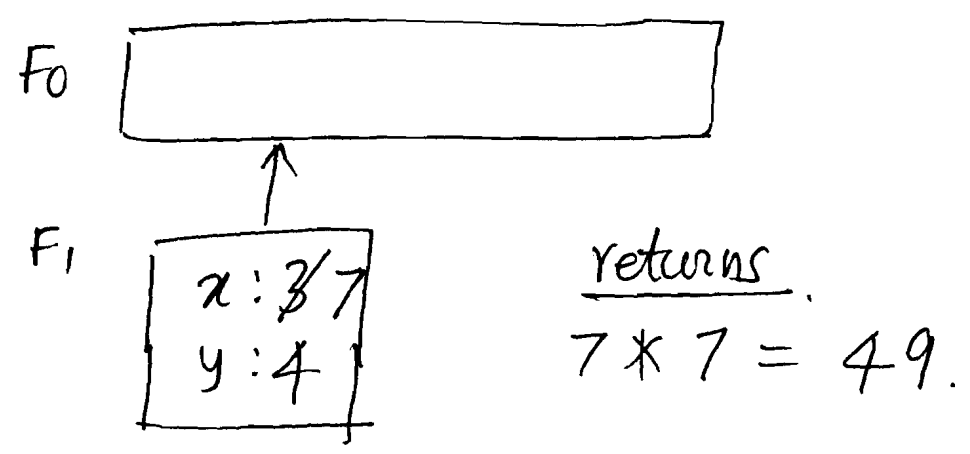
## Scheme-style assignments

$$M ::= c \mid x \mid \lambda x. M' \mid M_1, M_2 \mid$$

$$\underbrace{x := M'}_{\text{assignment}} \mid \underbrace{M_1; M_2}_{\text{sequencing}}$$

### Example

let  $P = \lambda(x, y). x := x + y; x * x$   
in  $P(3, 4)$

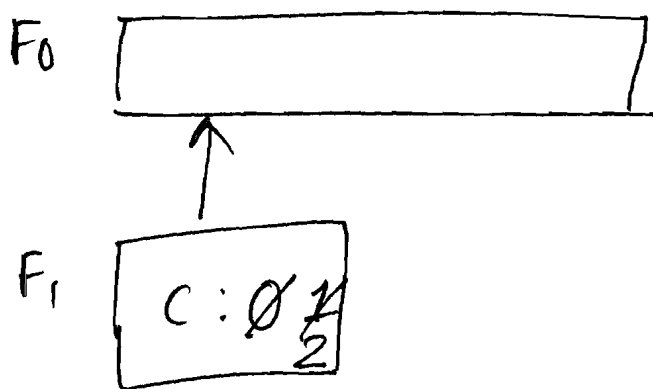


# Objects

Function closures that refer to state variables.

## Example

counter  $\equiv$  let  $c = 0$   
in  $\lambda(). (c := c + 1; c)$ .



counter()  $\rightsquigarrow$  1  
but also changes  $c$  to 1.

counter()  $\rightsquigarrow$  2  
and changes  $c$  to 2.

Records

(also called "structs")

— struct  $\{ x_1 = M_1; \dots; x_n = M_n \}$ .

builds a record with fields  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

—  $M.x$

selects the field  $x$  of  $M$ .

We can use records to build objects with multiple methods.

Example

newaccount =

$\lambda$  (initial).

let balance = initial

in struct  $\{$

deposit =  $\lambda$  (amount).

balance := balance + amount;

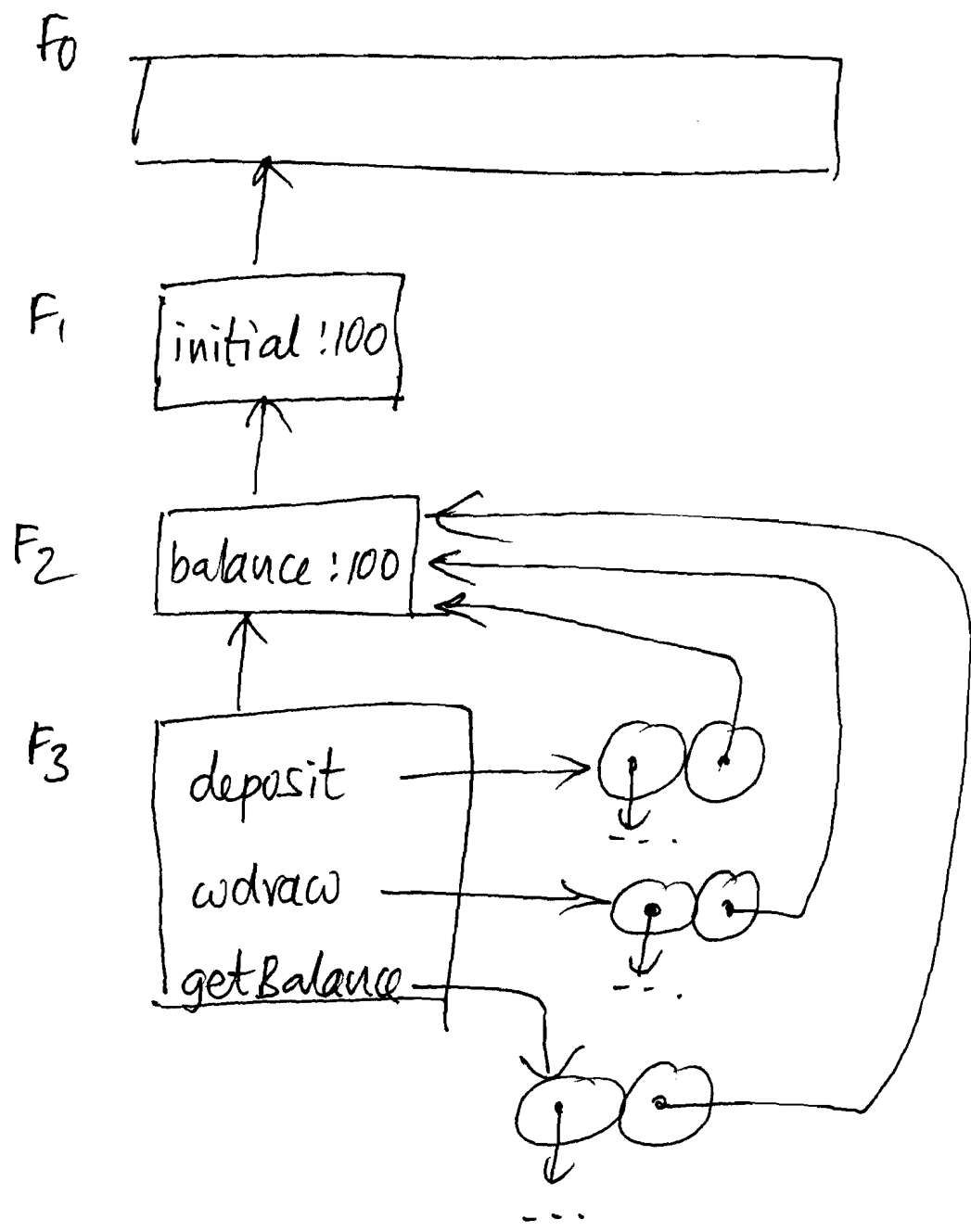
withdraw =  $\lambda$  (amount).

..... ;

getBalance =  $\lambda$  (). balance

$\}$ .

# Environment structure



Every call to newaccount produces a new instance of three frames ( $F_1, F_2, F_3$ ) so that each bank account has its own local variable for balance.

Java classes

A Java class is like a record, ~~whose fields~~  
whose fields include

- all the static methods, and
- the new method.

Inner classes give rise to cascaded environment frames.

Example:

```
static void start (int interval, boolean beep) {
```

```
    ActionListener ticker =
```

```
        new ActionListener() {
```

```
            public void actionPerformed (
                ActionEvent e) {
```

```
                ...
```

```
            }
```

```
        }
```

```
    Timer t = new Timer (interval, ticker);
```

```
    t.start();
```

```
}
```

