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Textual Reduction

CIS352 — Fall 2022

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How does the computer evaluate this expression?

```
( * ( + 2 ( * 4 6 ) )  
      ( + 3 5 7 ) )
```

A C-like language would **compile** the expression

```
int x =  
    (2 + 4*6)  
    * (3 + 5 + 7);
```

x86-64 clang 13.0.0

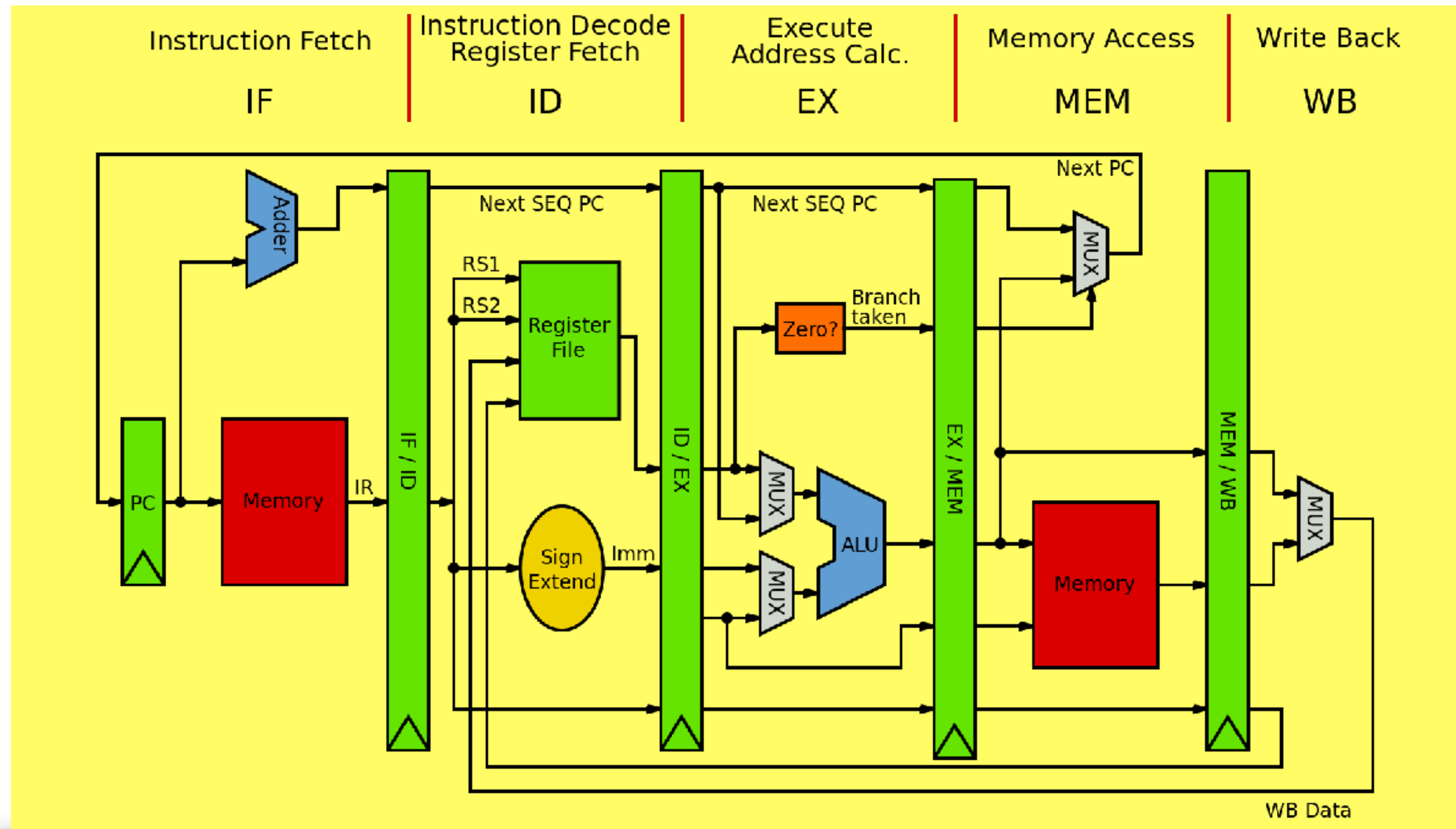


Compiler options...

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```
1  main:                                     # @main
2      push    rbp
3      mov     rbp, rsp
4      mov     dword ptr [rbp - 4], 0
5      mov     dword ptr [rbp - 8], 2
6      mov     dword ptr [rbp - 12], 4
7      mov     dword ptr [rbp - 16], 6
8      mov     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 12]
9      imul   eax, dword ptr [rbp - 16]
10     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 20], eax
11     mov     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 8]
12     add     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 20]
13     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 24], eax
14     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 28], 3
15     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 32], 5
16     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 36], 7
17     mov     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 28]
18     add     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 32]
19     add     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 36]
20     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 40], eax
21     mov     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 20]
22     imul   eax, dword ptr [rbp - 40]
23     mov     dword ptr [rbp - 44], eax
24     mov     eax, dword ptr [rbp - 44]
25     nop     rbp
```

Computer executes **instructions** on a **clock**



High-level observation:

every computation, in *any* language (running on your processor) is broken down—somehow—into sequences of atomic steps reified as instructions by your processor

A key idea in the course is that evaluation of programs is often broken down into a sequence of small atomic *steps*

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Assembly languages (from your systems course) are a *special case* where the processor's execution makes each *instruction* atomic

Modern microprocessors involve lots of places where atomicity breaks down (cache coherence, etc..) but this is a key abstraction layer in computing

In **high-level languages**, computations/expressions do **not** have one-to-one correspondence with the processor's execution.

In fact, it is **impossible** (in *general*) to look at an expression and say how many steps the processor will take to execute an expression

```
;; Some number of steps
(* (+ 2 (* 4 6))
   (+ 3 5 7))
```

Textual reduction is a way of defining the semantics (i.e., meaning) of a program as a series of **progressing steps**, where each step consists of a program (represented **textually**), and a program to which it is “rewritten” (*textually reduced*)

Textual reduction semantics may be defined formally, but in this lecture we will be illustrating them informally

This subexpression is reduced to...

(+ (* 3 2) 1)

-> (+ 5 1)

This expression, which is a *value*

Values

We often refer to the **values** of a programming language. Intuitively, a value is something that *does not require any additional computation to manifest*

`(+ 3 (* (foo 5) 6))` ;; **not** a value

`'hello` ;; value

`15.0` ;; value

In terms of the computation, values are *places where computation stops*

```
( * 3 ( + 4 5 ) )
```

In terms of our intuitive semantics: a builtin function may be applied when each of its arguments is a value

As an aside...

Later, we will see that this construction is inefficient: it means we are doing **at least** $O(n)$ work to (a) identify the redex and (b) then perform a transformation to obtain our result.

Later in the course we will see several improvements to this strategy, e.g., context-and-redex semantics or continuations

At each point in time, we follow a two-step process: identify what can be reduced, and then perform the appropriate reduction

Example reduction sequence

```
(* (* 3 1) (+ 4 5))  
-> (* 3 (+ 4 5))  
-> (* 3 9)  
-> 27 ;; Resulting value
```

Question: in the last slide, why not do **this**?

```
(* (* 3 1) (+ 4 5))  
-> (* (* 3 1) 9)  
-> (* 3 9)  
-> 27 ;; Resulting value
```

Answer: we **could have**! But typically we additionally *constrain* the reductions so that they occur in some predictable order

In most PLs, we process **arguments left-to-right**, then apply builtins when their arguments are values

So far, we have described three rules for reducing arithmetic expressions in a sequence of steps:

- Any number requires no additional work and is a value
- A builtin may be applied when its arguments have been reduced to values
- When we reach a builtin application, we should reduce its arguments from left-to-right

A sequence of reductions (i.e., *steps*) that follow these rules is called a **reduction sequence**

Exercise



Write a reduction sequence for...

$(+ (* 3 1) (/ 2 2))$

Exercise



Write a reduction sequence for...

```
(+ (* 3 1) (/ 2 2))
```

```
    (+ (* 3 1) (/ 2 2))  
-> (+ 3 (/ 2 2))  
-> (+ 3 1)  
-> 4 ;; this is a value, computation stops.
```

So far, we have only handled arithmetic. Let's also add **if** and **booleans** to our language. It may also be useful to add builtin comparison operators

IfArith, is a language consisting of numbers, booleans, and arithmetic expressions (plus equality testing), along with if

```
Number ::= 0 | 1 | ...
Bool    ::= #t | #f
Value   ::= Number | Bool
Expr    ::= Value
          | (+ expr expr)
          | (* expr expr)
          | (/ expr expr)
          | (= expr expr)
          | (if expr expr expr)
```

We have already covered the highlighted subset

This grammar is in **EBNF (Extended Backus-Naur form)**

```
Number ::= 0 | 1 | ...
Bool    ::= #t | #f
Value   ::= Number | Bool
Expr    ::= Value
         | (+ expr expr)
         | (* expr expr)
         | (/ expr expr)
         | (= expr expr)
         | (if expr expr expr)
```

Textual reduction for = happens similarly to + and etc...,
except it produces a boolean rather than a number


```
(= 1 (+ 2 3))  
-> (= 1 5)  
-> #f
```

```
(if (= (* 1 (+ 2 3)) 5) 0 1)  
-> (if (= (* 1 5) 5) 0 1)  
-> (if (= 5 5) 0 1)  
-> (if #f 0 1) ;; what next?
```

Q: What happens when you mess up the types?

A: This is one way in which this lecture is inspecific—we have several choices.

For now, we will say that terms that are “ill typed” get ***stuck***, i.e., have no successor states. Later on, we will build type theory to show that well-typed terms *do not get stuck*

```
(+ (* 1 2) (= 3 4))  
-> (+ 2 (= 3 4))  
-> (+ 2 #f) <- ; can't make any progress
```


Last, to evaluate an if: first evaluate its guard, then evaluate either the true or false branch based on the guard's value

```
(if (= 1 (+ 0 1)) (* 2 3) (* 3 1))  
-> (if (= 1 1) (* 2 3) (* 3 1))  
-> (if #t (* 2 3) (* 3 1))  
-> (* 2 3) ;; replace with true branch  
-> 6
```

```
(if (= 1 (+ 1 1)) (* 2 3) (* 3 1))  
-> (if (= 1 2) (* 2 3) (* 3 1))  
-> (if #f (* 2 3) (* 3 1))  
-> (* 3 1) ;; false  
-> 6
```

(Informal) Textual Reduction for **IfArith**:

- Any number/bool requires no additional work and is a value
- A builtin (including =) may be applied when its arguments have been reduced to values and are of the right type
- When we reach a builtin application, we should reduce its arguments from left-to-right
- To reduce if, first reduce the guard, then reduce the appropriate branch

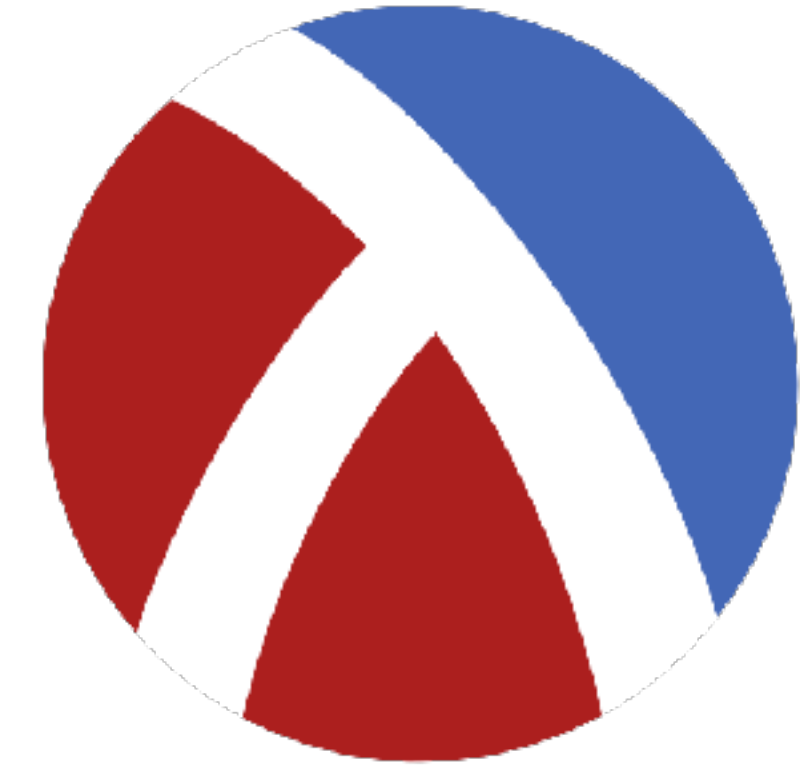
A note on state...

In the textual reduction style, we transform a **whole program** to another **whole program**. Thus, the state of the computation is kept in the *current string representing the program*

Looking Forward...

This lecture was an introduction to term-rewriting-style formalisms we will learn later on. **IfArith** is a tiny sub-Turing-complete language we will see again. With the addition of just a single construct, *lambdas* (i.e., functions), we will achieve a Turing-complete language!

The textual reduction style can capture arbitrarily-expressive language features! *But* it is **way** too slow for a real implementation, so we use it as ground truth that is simple to understand. Then we refine to make it fast!



Case Splitting and Lists Intro

CIS352 — Spring 2021

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Cond

- Cond allows multiple guards to be checked
- `(cond [guard0 body0]
 [guard1 body1]
 ...
 [else bodyelse]) ;; optional`
- Checks each guard sequentially, evaluates first body

```
(define (foo x)
  (cond [(= x 42) 1]
        [(> x 0) 2]
        [else 3]))
```


Exercise



The absolute value of a number x is:

- x if x is greater than 0
- 0 if $x = 0$
- $-x$ if x is less than 0

Translate this definition into a function using `cond`

Exercise



The absolute value of a number x is:

- x if x is greater than 0
- 0 if $x = 0$
- $-x$ if x is less than 0

Translate this definition into a function using `cond`

```
(define (abs x)
  (cond [(> x 0) x]
        [(= x 0) 0]
        [< x 0) (- x)]))
```

Exercise



Say we have the following:

```
(cond [g0 b0]  
      [g1 b1]  
      ...  
      [else belse])
```

How can we rewrite the above to use only if?

Exercise



Say we have the following:

```
(cond [g0 b0]  
      [g1 b1]  
      ...  
      [else belse])
```

How can we rewrite the above to use only if?

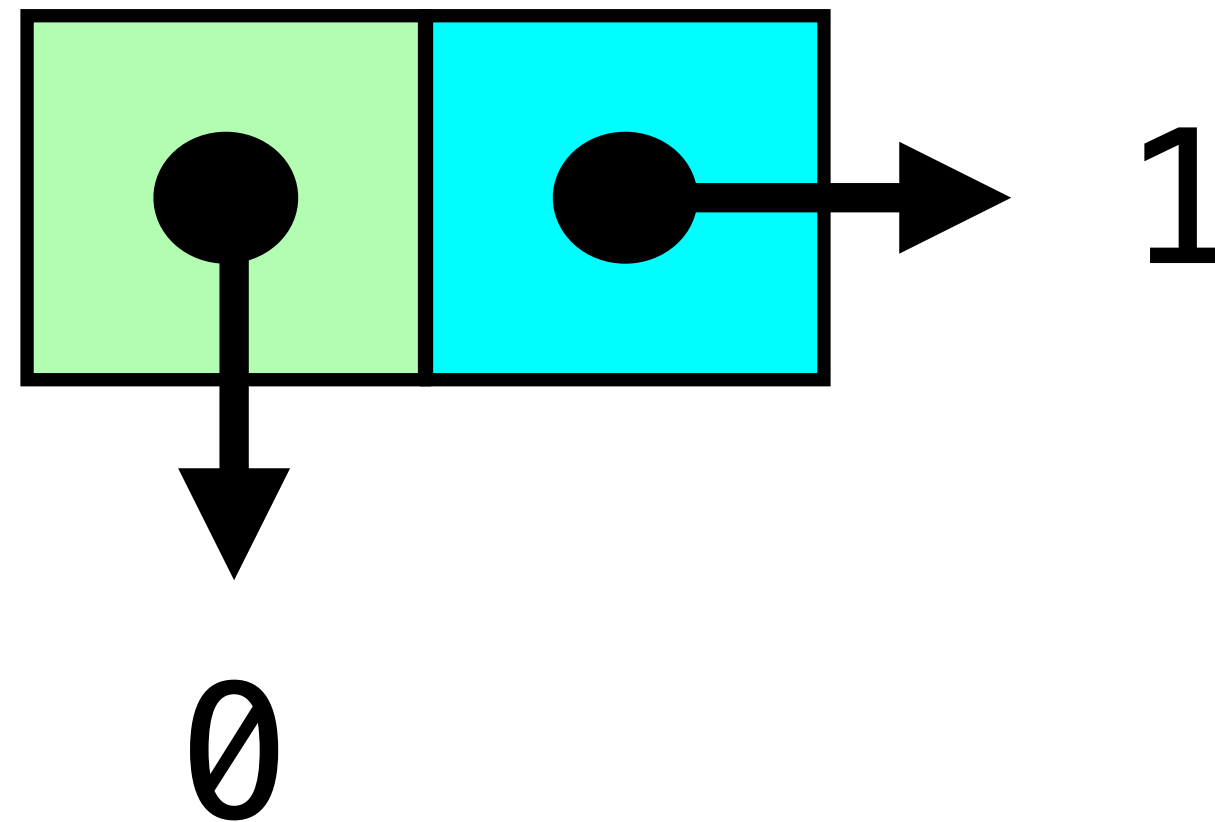
```
(if g0 b0  
    (if g1 b1  
        ...  
        (if gn-1 bn-1 belse) ...))
```

Example

$((\lambda(x) (x x))$
 $(\lambda(x) (x x)))$

The function **cons** builds a cons cell / pair

(cons 0 1)

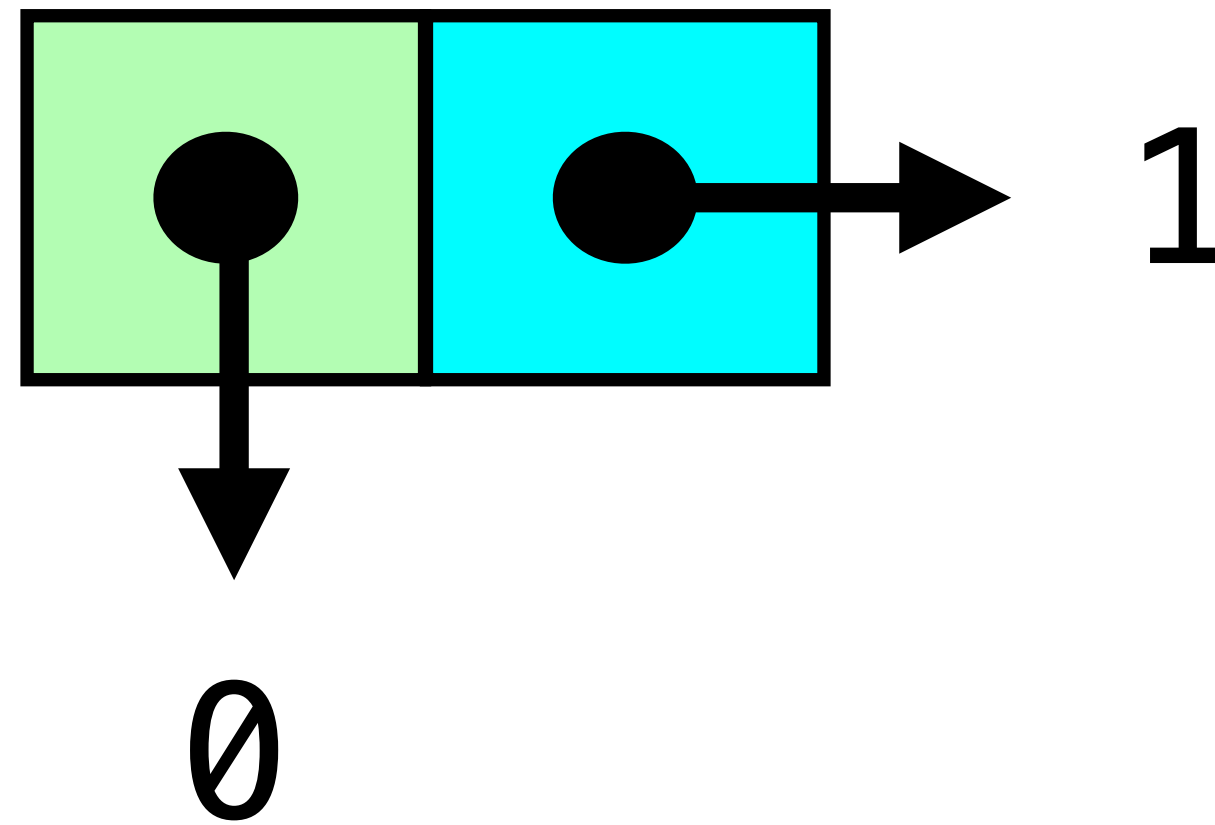


Example

$((\lambda(x) (x x))$
 $(\lambda(x) (x x)))$

The function **car** gets the left element

(car (cons 0 1)) is 0

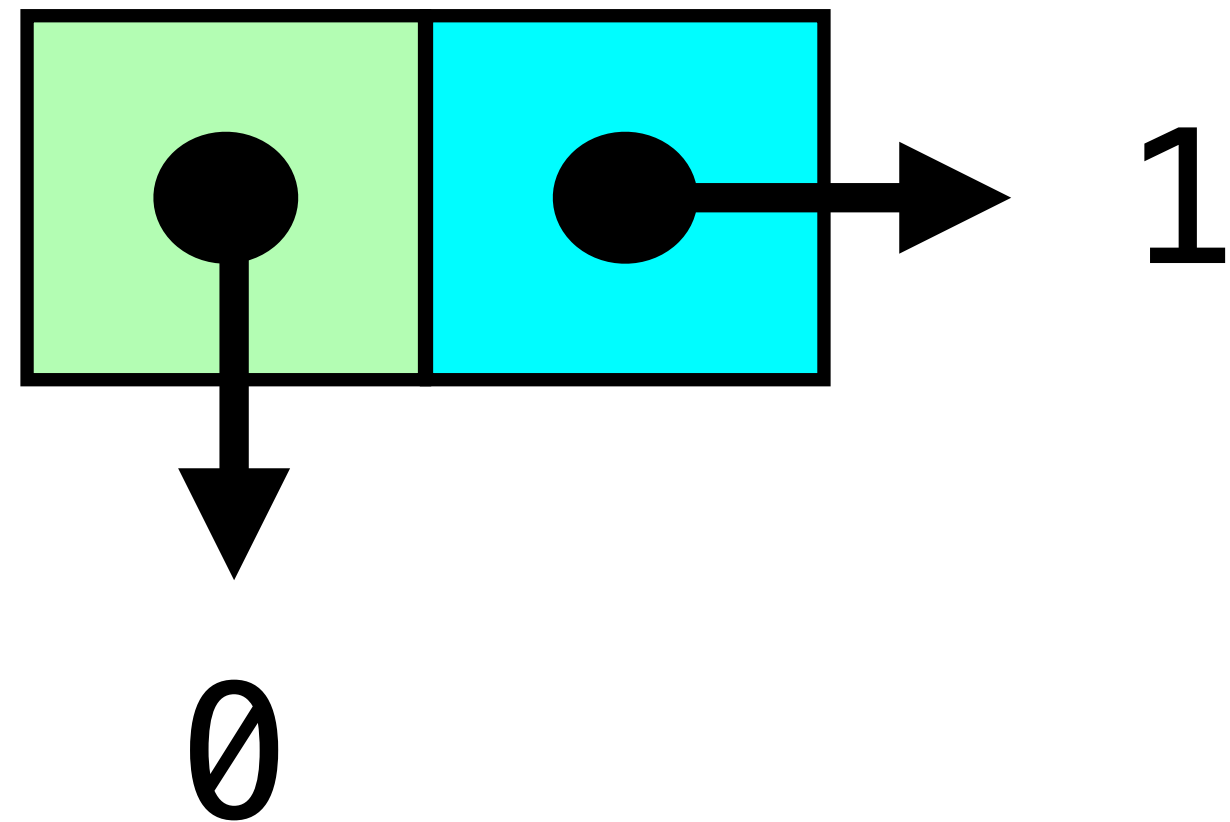


Example

$((\lambda(x) (x x))$
 $(\lambda(x) (x x)))$

The function **cdr** gets the right element

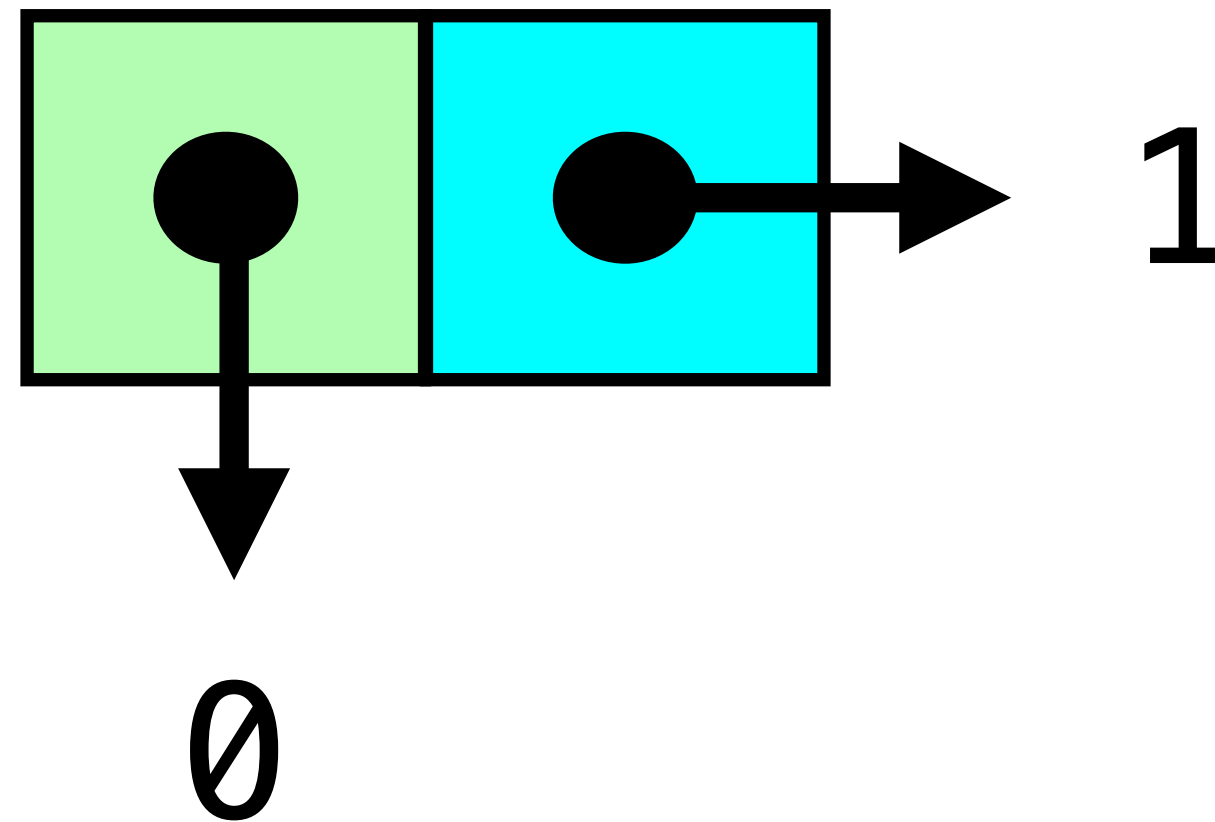
$(\text{cdr} (\text{cons } 0 \ 1))$ is 1



Example

$((\lambda(x) (x x))$
 $(\lambda(x) (x x)))$

`(cdr (cons 0 1))` is 1



The names **car** and **cdr** come from the original implementation of LISP on the IBM 704

Lists

- Racket has **lists**—sequences of cons cells ending w/ ' ()
- The **empty list** (or "null") is special, ' ()
- Many ways to build them
 - `(list 1 2 3)` ;; Variadic function
 - `'(1 2 3)` ;; Datum representation
- There are **three** operations on lists
 - `empty? / null?`
 - `first / car`
 - `rest / cdr`

Lists continued...

- Using `empty?`, `car`, and `cdr`, we can write many utilities
 - All definable ourselves, also in Racket by default
 - `(length l)` — Length of `l`
 - `(list-ref l i)` — Get `i`th element of list (0-indexed)
 - `(append l0 l1)` — Append `l1` to the end of `l0`
 - `(reverse l)` — Reverse the list
 - `(member l x)` — Check if `x` is in `l`

Exercise



Using `cond`, write a function that takes a list `l` and an index `x` and returns...

- The first element if $x = 0$
- The second element if $x = 1$
- The third element if $x = 2$
- Otherwise return 'unknown'



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