# Compiling Untyped Lambda Calculus to Lower-Level Code by Game Semantics and Partial Evaluation (Invited Paper)

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# Abstract

Any expression M in ULC (the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus) can be compiled into a rather low-level language we call LLL, whose programs contain *none of the traditional implementation devices for functional languages:* environments, thunks, closures, etc. A compiled program is first-order functional and has a fixed set of working variables, whose number is independent of M. The generated LLL code in effect *traverses* the subexpressions of M.

We apply the techniques of *game semantics* to the untyped  $\lambda$ -calculus, but take a more operational viewpoint that uses less mathematical machinery than traditional presentations of game semantics. Further, the untyped lambda calculus ULC is compiled into LLL by *partially evaluating* a traversal algorithm for ULC.

*Categories and Subject Descriptors* F.4.1 [*Mathematical Logic and Formal Languages*]: Mathematical Logic

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# 1. Context and Contribution

Plotkin posed the problem of existence of a fully abstract semantics of PCF [1]. Game semantics provided the first solution [2–5]. Subsequent papers devise fully abstract game semantics for a wide and interesting spectrum of programming languages, and further develop the field in several directions.

A surprising consequence: it is possible to build a lambda calculus interpreter with **none** of the traditional implementation machinery:  $\beta$ -reduction; environments binding variables to values; and "closures" or "thunks" for function calls and parameters. It looks promising to apply this new game semantics viewpoint to see its operational consequences. Further, it may give a new angle of attack on an old topic: *semantics-directed compiler generation* [6, 7].

**Basis:**  $\lambda$ -expression syntax is  $e ::= x | e_1 @ e_2 | \lambda x.e.$  Free and bound variables are defined as usual. ULC and STLC, respectively, denote the untyped and the simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus.

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*PEPM'17*, January 16–17, 2017, Paris, France ACM. 978-1-4503-4721-1/17/01...\$15.00 http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/3018882.3020004 Paper [8] uses the game semantics framework to develop an STLC normalisation procedure, using the traversal concept from [9, 10]. We call this procedure STNP for short.

The STNP algorithm in [8] is deterministic, defined by syntaxdirected inference rules. The algorithm is type-oriented. Even though the rules do not mention types, it requires as first step the conversion from STLC to  $\eta$ -long form. Further, the statement of correctness involves types in "term-in-context" judgements  $\kappa \vdash M : A$  where A is a type and  $\kappa$  is a type environment.

Paper [8] contains a complete correctness proof. The proof involves types quite significantly, to construct program-dependent arenas and, as well, a category whose objects are arenas and whose morphisms are innocent strategies over arenas.

STNP can be seen as an *interpreter*; it evaluates a given  $\lambda$ -expression M by managing a list of subexpressions of M, some with a single back pointer. These notes extend the normalisationby-traversals approach to the *untyped*  $\lambda$ -calculus, giving a new algorithm called UNP, for Untyped Normalisation Procedure. UNP correctly evaluates any STLC expression sans types, so it properly extends STNP since ULC is Turing-complete while STLC is not.

**Plan:** We develop a traversal-based algorithm for ULC in a systematic, semantics-directed way. Our approach differs from and is simpler than [11]. We explain briefly how partial evaluation can be used to implement ULC, compiling it to a low-level language.

# 2. Normalisation by Traversal

Perhaps surprisingly, the normal form of an STLC  $\lambda$ -expression M may be found by simply taking a walk over the subexpressions of M. As seen in [8–10] there is no need for  $\beta$ -reduction, nor for traditional implementation techniques such as environments, thunks, closures, etc. The "walk" is a *traversal*: a sequential visit to subexpressions of M. (Some maybe visited more than once, some not at all.)

### 2.1 An Example: Multiplication of Church Numerals

The Church-Turing thesis: a function  $f : \mathbb{N}^n \to \mathbb{N}$  is partial recursive (computable) iff there is a  $\lambda$ -expression M with free variables S, Z such that for any  $x_1, \ldots, x_n, x \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = x \Leftrightarrow M(S^{x_1}Z) \ldots (S^{x_n}Z)$$
 reduces to  $S^xZ$ .

Multiplication is an example:

 $\mathtt{mul} = \lambda m.\lambda n.m(nS)Z$ 

An instance: application mul  $\underline{2} \underline{2}$  reduces to  $S^4 Z$ .

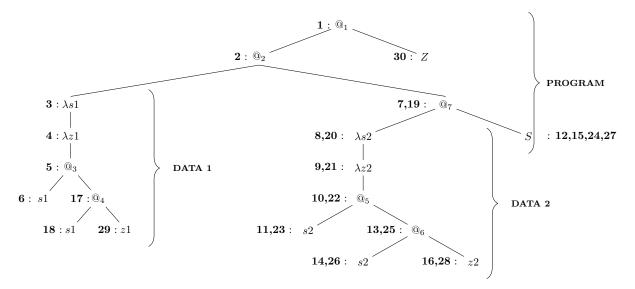


Figure 1: Traversal of 2(2S)Z.

The unique traversal of  $\underline{2}(\underline{2}S)Z$  visits each subexpression of Church numeral<sup>1</sup>  $\underline{2}$  once. However it visits the subexpressions of  $\underline{2}$  twice, since in general x \* y is computed by adding y together x times. The normal form of  $\underline{2}(\underline{2}S)Z$  is  $S^4Z$ : the core of Church numeral  $\underline{4}$ .

Figure 1 shows traversal of expression 2(2S)Z in tree form<sup>2</sup>. The labels 1:, 2: etc. indicate the order in which subexpressions are traversed.

### 2.2 Computation by Traversal Can Be Seen as a Game

The traversal in **Figure 1** can be seen as a play between program  $\lambda m \lambda n. (m@~(n@S))@Z$  and the two data values <u>2</u> and <u>2</u>).

Informally: two program nodes are visited in steps 1, 2; then data 1's leftmost branch is traversed from node  $\lambda s1$  until variable s1 is encountered at step 6. Steps 7-12: data 2's leftmost branch is traversed from node  $\lambda s2$  down to variable s2, after which the program node S is visited (intuitively, the first output is produced). Steps 13-15: the data 2 nodes @<sub>6</sub> and s2 are visited, and the program: it produces the second output S. Steps 16, 17: z2 is visited, control is finished (for now) in data 2, and control resumes in data 1.

Moving faster now:  $@_4$  and the second s1 are visited; data 2 is scanned for a second time; and the next two output S's are produced. Control finally returns to z1. After this, in step 30 the program produces the final output Z.

Which traversal? As yet this is only an "argument by example"; we have not yet explained *how to choose* among all possible walks through the nodes of 2(2S)Z to find the correct normal form.

# 3. Evaluation by Traversal

We now develop a type-free normalisation procedure UNP for ULC. In brief: UNP is to ULC as STNP is to STLC.

Differences between UNP and STNP as in [8]. 1: the simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus is strongly normalising. However an untyped  $\lambda$ -expression may not have a normal form, in which case UNP evaluation does not terminate. 2: the STNP algorithm begins by converting its input  $\lambda$ -expression to  $\eta$ -long form. This is not relevant to UNP since its input is untyped. 3: STNP chooses the right traversal by using at most one *back pointer* for each traversed program node. The extra power of UNP (Turing completeness) comes with a price: *two kinds of back pointer* are used, one to manage control, and one to manage name binding.

For clarity we develop UNP by a series of evaluators. Each realises a semantics for the  $\lambda$ -calculus. The series starts with a traditional rewriting semantics, and ends with a traversal semantics generating the sequence seen in **Figure 1**. All are supported by Haskell programs (very similar to the evaluators here, and available online).

### 3.1 A Canonical Traversal Order

How did **Figure 1** select the right sequence of node visits to evaluate  $\underline{2}(\underline{2}S)Z$ ? There are a great many possible traversals, mostly *not* corresponding to evaluation of M.

Danos and Regnier s *head linear reduction* yields normal forms when they exist [12], so we choose this as the *canonical traversal* order on input  $\lambda$ -expression M. For brevity we henceforth call a subexpression of M a token.

The canonical traversal order visit tokens in the order in which they are seen in complete linear head  $\beta$ -reduction. The example in **Figure 1** has canonical traversal order:

$$@_1, @_2, \lambda s1, \lambda z1, @_3, s1, @_7, \lambda s2, \dots, S, z2, z1, Z$$

### 3.2 A Series of Evaluators

We develop several evaluation semantics that all follow the canonical traversal order. Semantics 1 is classical  $\beta$ -reduction (a deterministic version). This is progressively transformed into more operationally interesting versions, ending in Semantics 5.

Semantics 5 is analogous to [8] for STLC, but now for all of ULC. It has surprisingly little algorithmic machinery, consisting of two kinds of back pointers, a "cons" operation, and a finite set of tokens. Only the token set is dependent on input  $\lambda$ -expression M.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The Church numeral of natural number x is  $\underline{x} = \lambda s.\lambda z.s^{x}z$ . Here  $s^{x} = s(s(\ldots s(z) \ldots))$  with x occurrences of s, where s represents "successor" and z represents "zero".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Application operators  $@_i$  have been made explicit, and indexed for ease of reference. The two <u>2</u> and <u>2</u> subtrees are the "data"; their bound variables have been named apart to avoid confusion. The figure's "program" is the top part \_( $_S$ ) Z.

Semantics 5 is the essence of an implementation of a prototypical functional programming language, and in it one can discern counterparts of some usual implementation machinery, in particular static links and dynamic links, and the control stack. Evaluation by Semantics 5 does not use environments, thunks, or closures.

### 3.2.1 Semantics-Based Stepping Stones

The first evaluator does (a slightly optimised version of) the usual leftmost outermost  $\beta$ -reduction. The second is an environmentbased semi-compositional version of the same; and the third, the result of converting this to continuation-passing style and defunctionalising. The result is tail-recursive. These transformations are standard.

The next step is to enrich the tail-recursive evaluator by adding a "history" argument to the evaluation function. This records the "traversal until now", and allows removal of the records added by defunctionalising; each is replaced by a control pointer. The final step obtains Semantics 5 by removing the recursively-defined environments; each is replaced by a binder pointer. The resulting evaluator generates traversals as in **Figure 1** with surprisingly little computational machinery.

### 3.3 Substitution-Based Semantics

By definition e is in normal form iff it contains no redexes: subexpressions of form  $e_1@e_2$  with  $e_1 = \lambda x.e.$  A well-known fact : the normal form (if it exists) can be obtained by leftmost-outermost reductions [13]. One way to normalise an application  $e_1@e_2$ : First evaluate  $e_1$  using a *weak reduction* that doesn't reduce terms under abstraction; this yields a *weak normal form*  $\lambda x.e$  for  $e_1$ 'a value. Then apply  $\beta$ , substituting  $e_2$  for x in e. See more details in [13, 14].

The semantics of weak reduction is as follows<sup>3</sup> [14]:

$$\frac{x \stackrel{wnf}{\Downarrow} x}{e_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\Downarrow} \lambda x.e} \frac{x \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} x}{e_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} 2x.e} \frac{x \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} x}{e_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} e'} \frac{e_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} e' \neq \lambda x.e}{e_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} e' \stackrel{wnf}{\downarrow} e'_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\textcircled{}} e_1 \stackrel{wnf}{\textcircled{}} e'_2}$$

Using this basis, strong reduction to normal form can be done by the following semantic rules [14]:

$$\frac{1}{x \underset{e}{\overset{snf}{\Downarrow} x} \underset{e}{\overset{snf}{\Downarrow} x}} \frac{e_{1} \underset{e}{\overset{wnf}{\Downarrow} \lambda x.e} e_{1} e_{2} \underset{e}{\overset{snf}{\Downarrow} e'}}{e_{1} \underset{e}{\overset{e}{\textcircled{} e'} } e_{1} \underset{e}{\overset{snf}{\textcircled{} e'} e'}} \frac{e_{1} \underset{e}{\overset{wnf}{\Downarrow} e'} \frac{e_{1} \underset{e}{\overset{wnf}{\Downarrow} e'} e_{2} \underset{e}{\overset{snf}{\Downarrow} e'}}{e_{1} \underset{e}{\overset{wnf}{\textcircled{} e'} e'} e_{2} \underset{e}{\overset{snf}{\Downarrow} e''}}$$

A procedure to implement the rules above follows, using wnf, snf:  $Exp \rightarrow Exp$  strongly:

$$wnf(x) = x, \qquad wnf(\lambda x.e) = \lambda x.e, wnf(e_1@e_2) = wnf(e[e_2/x]) \text{ if } wnf(e_1) = \lambda x.e wnf(e_1@e_2) = wnf(e_1) @ e_2 \text{ otherwise}$$

$$\begin{aligned} snf(x) &= x, \qquad snf(\lambda x.e) = \lambda x.snf(e), \\ snf(e_1@e_2) &= snf(e[e_2/x]) \text{ if } wnf(e_1) = \lambda x.e \\ snf(e_1@e_2) &= snf(e_1') @ snf(e_2) \text{ otherwise} \\ &\qquad \text{where } wnf(e_1) = e_1' \end{aligned}$$

This normalisation procedure snf is an effective reduction strategy (as that term is used in [13]). It is not tail recursive; and evaluation involves using variable names at run-time. Neither property is good for compilation.

### 3.4 Evaluation with Environments

This evaluator resembles that of **Section 3.3**, but uses an environment  $\rho$  to maintain a record of substitutions. This and remaining steps use the style of denotational semantics:

Syntactic arguments of the semantic equations are enclosed in semantic brackets [[-]], and  $\rho$  is an environment. We write  $A \rightarrow B$  for the domain of *partial* functions from A to B. Usage:  $\mathcal{R}[\![e]\!] = \bot$  if program e does not terminate.

**Domains** : (and initial environment)

## ${\bf Semantic \ functions}:$

### Semantic equations:

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathcal{R}\llbracket e \rrbracket &= \llbracket e \rrbracket F \rho_0 \\ & \llbracket x \rrbracket \alpha \rho &= \operatorname{case} \rho x \operatorname{of} (e', \rho') \Rightarrow \llbracket e' \rrbracket \alpha \rho \\ & Free \Rightarrow (x, \rho_0) \\ & \llbracket \lambda x.e \rrbracket T \rho &= (\lambda x.e, \rho) \\ & \llbracket \lambda x.e \rrbracket F \rho &= \llbracket e \rrbracket F \rho [x \mapsto Free] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_1 @ e_2 \end{bmatrix} \alpha \rho = \quad \mathbf{let} \ (e_1', \rho') = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \end{bmatrix} T \rho \mathbf{in} \\ \mathbf{case} \ e_1' \mathbf{of} \\ \lambda x. e_0 \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} e_0 \end{bmatrix} \alpha \rho' [x \mapsto (e_2, \rho)] \\ v \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} e_2 \end{bmatrix} F \rho$$

The argument  $\alpha$  (application context) is a flag, set to T for weak evaluation, F for strong evaluation.

This semantics is not compositional<sup>4</sup> for application (a) and for bound variables: in both cases an argument of [[]] is not a syntactic substructure of the semantic equation's left side.

On the other hand, this semantics has a *semi-compositional* property that is essential for compiling efficient target code. (Terminology from [15]: function [[]] is only applied to arguments that are syntactic substructures of *the*  $\lambda$ -*expression currently being evaluated*. A consequence: semantic variable *e* is of "bounded static variation".)

Constructing an output  $\lambda$ -expression: Semantics 2 yields as output a pair  $(e', \rho) = \mathcal{R}[\![e]\!]$ . For conciseness no output  $\lambda$ -expression syntax is constructed, i.e., the purpose of Semantics 2 is only to see whether a normal form exists.

It is not difficult to extend Semantics 2 to actually compute the normal form, and we have implemented it in Haskell. The result, however, is more complex, as a result  $(e', \rho)$  has to be converted into output into a  $\lambda$ -expression by unfolding environments, and renaming variables where necessary.

### 3.5 Tail-Recursive Evaluation

The next step is to remove the nested function calls in the above semantics, yielding a *tail recursive* version that is closer to low-level code. To do this: first, add continuation functions in place of the nested calls. Second, replace the continuation functions by data structures, using the well-known Reynolds' *defunctionalisation* transformation [16].

Following is the result of defunctionalising a continuation semantics.  $k \in K$  is a defunctionalised continuation (a data values).

 $<sup>{}^{3}</sup>e[e'/x]$  is the result of replacing all free occurrences of x in e by e', renaming as needed to avoid name capture.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Compositionality (as used in denotational semantics): the denotation of every syntactic construction is a combination of the denotations of its syntactic substructures.

Function apk applies k to an expression value. The output (if any) is **Succeed**: the input has been successfully traversed. (Again, the normal form is not constructed.)

### Domains :

 $e \in Exp$ =  $\lambda - Expression$ EE $Exp \times Env$ =  $\rho \in Env$  $Variable \rightarrow EE \cup \{Free\}$ =  $= \lambda x.Free$  $\rho_0$  $\alpha \in Flaq$ =  $\{T,F\}$ (application context)  $k \in K$  $\{\langle Kend \rangle\}$ (continuations) =  $\{\langle Kapp \ e \ \alpha \ \rho \ k \rangle \mid e \in Exp, \rho \in Env, k \in K\}$ U

### **Semantic functions** :

# Semantic equations:

 $\mathcal{R}\llbracket e \rrbracket = \llbracket e \rrbracket F \rho_0 \langle Kend \rangle$  $\llbracket x \rrbracket \alpha \rho k = \operatorname{case} \rho x \text{ of } Free \Rightarrow apk x k \rho_0$  $(e', \rho') \Rightarrow \llbracket e' \rrbracket \alpha \rho' k$ 

- $\llbracket e_1 @ e_2 \rrbracket \alpha \ \rho \ k \ = \ \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \ T \ \rho \ \langle Kapp \ e_2 \ \alpha \ \rho \ k \rangle$
- $\begin{array}{ll} \llbracket \lambda x.e \rrbracket \ F \ \rho \ k & = \ \llbracket e \rrbracket \ F \ \rho [x \mapsto Free] \ k \\ \llbracket \lambda x.e \rrbracket \ T \ \rho \ \langle Kapp \ e' \ \alpha \ \rho' \ k \rangle & = \ \llbracket e \rrbracket \ \alpha \ \rho [x \mapsto (e', \rho')] \ k \\ \llbracket \lambda x.e \rrbracket \ T \ \rho \ \langle Kend \rangle & = \ \mathbf{Succeed} \end{array}$

**Comment:** The rule from Section 3.4 for  $[[e_1@e_2]]$  has been split into two: one part calls  $[[e_1]]$ ; and the other part appears in the definition of apk. Note that these may have quite different times of execution. This property is quite visible using continuations, but is not obvious in Section 3.4.

A consequence of tail recursion and semi-compositionality: Given an input  $\lambda$ -expression M, the rules above will perform a sequence of calls

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \alpha_1 \rho_1 k_1 \to \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \alpha_2 \rho_2 k_2 \to \ldots \to \llbracket e_i \rrbracket \alpha_i \rho_i k_i \to \ldots$$

where  $e_1 = M$ , each  $e_i$  is a subexpression of M. Further,  $e_1, e_2, \ldots$  is the canonical traversal order for M. The next evaluators further develop a linear evaluation style, so it more closely resembles target program execution.

### 3.6 Traversal with History and Environment

The next-last step: replace the continuation values k by backpointers to a *history* h. Corresponding to a Semantics 3 computation, Semantics 4 performs calls

$$\llbracket e_1 \rrbracket h_1 \to \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket h_2 \to \ldots \to \llbracket e_i \rrbracket h_i \to \ldots$$

A history *h* is an accumulative trace that remembers *which functions* of Semantics 3 were called with *which arguments*.

$$h \in H = (Exp \times Flag \times Env \times H)^*$$

Each history  $h_i$  is a list:<sup>5</sup> a record of *all calls* made to  $[\![e_j]\!]$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, i$ . For i > 0 history item  $h_i$  has the form  $h_i = \langle e_i \alpha_i \rho_i ch_i \rangle : h_{i-1}$ , where  $ch_i$  represents continuation  $k_i$ .<sup>6</sup>

The idea is to replace a Semantics 3 continuation data structure such as  $\langle (Kapp e_2) \alpha \rho k \rangle$  by the *the time*  $t_i$  *at which the continuation was created.* Operationally, time  $t_i$  is the back pointer component  $ch_i$  of the top item in history  $h_i$ .

Changes from Semantics 3: first, the history is an *accumulative* record. Second, each K value  $k_i$  has been replaced by a **control history**  $ch_i$ . This is a prefix of the current history, i.e., a back pointer to an earlier position in the history. Third, Semantics 4 need not allocate any continuation records at all, since the information in them is contained in the history items  $\langle e \alpha \rho ch \rangle$ .

# Domains :

$e \in Exp$	=	$\lambda - Expression$	
EE	=	$Exp \times Env$	
$\rho \in Env$	=	$Variable \rightarrow EE \cup \{Free$	ee
$ ho_0$	=	$\lambda x$ . Free	
$\alpha \in Flag$	=	$\{T, F\}$	
$h, \in H, ch \in CH$	=	[Item]	(History)
$it \in Item$	=	$\langle Exp \ Flag \ Env \ CH \rangle$	

### ${\bf Semantic \ functions}:$

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{R} &: Exp \rightharpoonup H \\ eval &: H \rightharpoonup H \\ apk &: Exp \rightarrow Env \rightarrow CH \rightarrow H \rightharpoonup H \end{split}$$

### Semantic equations:

 $\mathcal{R}\llbracket e \rrbracket = eval \left[ \left\langle e F \rho_0 \left[ \right] \right\rangle \right]$ 

$$\begin{array}{l} eval \ h = \textbf{let} \ it: \_ = h \ \textbf{in case} \ it \ \textbf{of} \\ \left\langle \begin{array}{c} x & \alpha \ \rho \ ch \right\rangle \Rightarrow apk \ x \ \rho_0 \ ch \ h & \textbf{if} \ \rho \ x = Free \\ \left\langle \begin{array}{c} x & \alpha \ \rho \ ch \right\rangle \Rightarrow eval \ \langle e' \ \alpha \ \rho' \ ch \rangle : h \ \textbf{if} \ \rho \ x = (e', \rho') \\ \left\langle \ \lambda x.e \ T \ \rho \ ch \right\rangle \Rightarrow apk \ \lambda x.e \ \rho \ ch \ h \\ \left\langle \ \lambda x.e \ F \ \rho \ ch \right\rangle \Rightarrow eval \ \langle e \ F \ \rho [x \mapsto Free] \ ch \rangle : h \\ \left\langle e_1 @e_2 \ \alpha \ \rho \ ch \right\rangle \Rightarrow eval \ \langle e_1 \ T \ \rho \ h \rangle : h \end{array}$$

$$apk \ e \ \rho \ ch \ h = \mathbf{case} \ ch \ \mathbf{of}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \Rightarrow h \\ (\langle e_1 @ e_2 \ \alpha \ \rho_0 \ ch' \rangle : \_) & \Rightarrow \ eval \ (f \ e) : h \\ \mathbf{where}$$

$$f \ (\lambda x. e_0) = \langle e_0 \ \alpha \ \rho[x \mapsto (e_2, \rho)] \ ch' \rangle$$

$$f \ e = \langle e_2 \ F \ \rho_0 \ ch' \rangle$$

### 3.7 UNP: Traversal with Only a History

In this step each environment is replaced by a **binder history**. This is a prefix of the current history, and is named *bh*. A new function called *lookup* realises the effect of an environment  $\rho$  by tracing links through *bh* to find the value of an argument x.<sup>7</sup>

In addition, in the subsection we assume that the input lambda expressions contain *deBruijn indexes*. Usually deBruijn indexes are used instead of variable names. In our case, we use both deBruijn indexes and variable names for the sake of readability: the residual traversal is much easier to be understand if variable names are used. Thus, we use deBruijn indexes to define semantics and variable names to appear in the residual traversal.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> We use a Haskell functional programming notation for sequences, e.g.  $[v_1, \ldots, v_n]$ , and v : vs for "cons".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Note that the expression  $e_i$  in a history item may come either from the program or from its data. Examples: nodes @1, @2 and  $\lambda s1$ ,  $\lambda s2$  in **Figure 1**.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> An analogy: the links for the binder history *bh* resemble the *static links* used in compiler implementations of block-structured or functional programs. The control back pointer *ch* corresponds to the *dynamic link*, similar to the *return address*. More on this in **Section 6**.

Below,  $BV \ x \ i$  denotes bound variable x with deBruijn index i; and FV x denotes free variable x.

### **Domains:**

 $e \in Exp$  $= \lambda - Expression$  $= \{T, F\}$  $\alpha \in Flag$  $h \in H, ch \in CH, bh \in BH = [Item]$ (History)  $it \in Item$  $= \langle Exp \ Flag \ BH \ CH \rangle$ 

### Semantic functions:

 $\begin{array}{ll} : & Exp \rightharpoonup H \\ : & H \rightharpoonup H \end{array}$  $\mathcal{R}$ evalevoperand :  $Item \rightarrow H \rightharpoonup H$  $:\quad Exp \to CH \to H \rightharpoonup H$ apk $Int \rightarrow Flag \rightarrow BH \rightarrow CH \rightarrow H \rightarrow H$ lookup

### Semantic equations:

 $\mathcal{R}[\![e]\!] = eval[\langle e F[]] \rangle]$ 

 $eval \ h = let \ it : \_ = h$  in case  $it \ of$  $(FV x) \alpha bh ch \rangle \Rightarrow apk (FV x) ch h$  $(BV \ x \ i) \alpha \ bh \ ch \rangle \Rightarrow lookup \ i \alpha \ bh \ ch h$  $\begin{array}{l} \lambda x.e \quad T \ bh \ ch \ \rangle \Rightarrow apk \ \lambda x.e \ ch \ h \\ \lambda x.e \quad F \ bh \ ch \ \rangle \Rightarrow eval \ \langle e \ F \ bh \ ch \ \rangle : h \end{array}$  $\langle e_1 @e_2 \ \alpha \ bh \ ch \rangle \Rightarrow eval \langle e_1 \ T \ bh \ h \rangle : h$ 

$$\begin{array}{l} lookup \ 0 \ \alpha(\langle -T \ -ch' \rangle : \ -) \ ch \ h = \mathbf{case} \ ch' \ \mathbf{of} \\ \langle e \ -bh \ -\rangle : \ - \Rightarrow \ evoperand \ \langle e \ \alpha \ bh \ ch \rangle \ h \\ - \Rightarrow \mathbf{case} \ ch \ \mathbf{of} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \Rightarrow h \\ \hline \end{array}$$

 $\langle ap \, \_ \, bh'' \, ch'' \rangle : \_ \Rightarrow \ evoperand \, \langle ap \ F \ bh'' \, ch'' \rangle \, h$  $lookup \ 0 \ (\langle F \ ch' \rangle : h') \ ch \ h = apk \ (BV \ 0) \ ch \ h$  $lookup \ i \ \alpha \ (\langle \_ bh' \_ \rangle : \_) \ ch \ h = lookup \ (i - 1) \ \alpha \ bh' \ ch \ h$ 

. / .

 $apk \_ [] h = h$  $apk \lambda x.e(\langle -\alpha \_ ch \rangle : \_) h = eval \langle e \alpha h ch \rangle : h$  $apk = (\langle e \alpha bh ch \rangle : \_) h = evoperand \langle e F bh ch \rangle h$ 

evoperand  $\langle e_1 @ e_2 \ \alpha \ bh \ ch \rangle h = eval \langle e_2 \ \alpha \ bh \ ch \rangle : h$ 

# 4. UNP: An Example

We now revisit the multiplication example  $mul \ 2 \ 2$  from Section 2. We will construct the output traversal as a justified sequence  $h = h_1 h_2 \dots h_{30}$ . Each history node is equipped with two back pointers: ch for control; and bh for binding. In the following diagrams bh is the green lower back pointer and ch is the red upper back pointer. A token is underlined just in case its flag  $\alpha$  has value T. The initial configuration is a root of the input term with empty back pointers, i.e. in our example initial  $h = @_1$ . We apply function eval to this argument.

The first two steps are similar: the application-case of function eval is applied, each time we chose the leftmost branch, bh is the same as in the previous step (i.e. empty), and ch points to the current history.



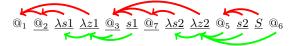
The next two steps are also similar: two lambda nodes are bound to the corresponding application nodes, i.e., continuation application function apk is called for both. Function apk adds the body of the lambda node to the current sequence and equips it with a binder pointer to the most recently bound lambda node. One element is "popped" from bh, and the eval function is called with unchanged flag  $\alpha$ .

$$@_1 \ \underline{@_2} \ \underline{\lambda s1} \ \underline{\lambda z1} \ \underline{@_3}$$

The next steps are similar to the first two; the one after that is more interesting. In this step a variable is seen (for the first time). This variable s1 is bound, and one can reach its binder via a sequence of two bh pointers (this is exactly what function lookup does). When the binder  $\lambda s1$  is found, the *lookup* function returns a right child @7 of the element binder pointed via the red pointer (ch), together with corresponding environment (i.e., the green bh pointer (empty in this case). Then eval is called again, on  $Q_7$ .

$$@_1 \ \underline{@_2} \ \underline{\lambda s1} \ \underline{\lambda z1} \ \underline{@_3} \ \underline{s1} \ \underline{@_7}$$

The next interesting case is step number 12, when eval function calls lookup  $h_{1.,12}$  S. Here S is free, so apk (apply continuation) is called. Since ch is not empty it calls eval on the right child of the last application whose right child has not yet been traversed, and which is not bound by some lambda node. This child is  $@_6$ .



Finally, the traversal will end at step 30. The whole traversal is presented in Figure 2.

# 5. Syntax of the Low-Level Residual Language LLL

A consequence of semi-compositionality: it is possible to compile any  $\lambda$ -expression M into a tiny first-order functional language that we call LLL. LLL is essentially a machine language with a heap and recursion, equivalent in power and expressiveness to the language F in book [17]. Section 6.4 shows how to compile M into LLL using partial evaluation.

For now, we briefly describe the target language LLL. The following is a tree grammar that generates a subset of LLL, one large enough to contain the target programs that are the compilations of lambda expressions. Nonterminal h denotes a history: and item denotes a history item. A program is a set of first-order function declarations.

A program variable has a simple type (not in any way depending on M). One type is the finite set of *tokens*, one for each subexpression of M. The Booleans are another finite type. There are two infinite types: lists (e.g., histories); and items (e.g., elements of histories).

Constructors [] (0-ary), : (binary) and < . . . > (4-ary) may form dynamically constructed values. Deconstruction is done by case. LLL also supports pattern matching of function arguments. The formal definition of LLL syntax can be found on Figure 3.

#### Interpreters, Compilers, Compiler Generation 6.

Partial evaluation can be used to specialise a normalisation algorithm to the expression being normalised (see [18]). Applied to UNP, partial evaluation compiles an ULC expression M into a low-level equivalent that contains no  $\lambda$ -syntax: The target program  $UNP_M$  for a source  $\lambda$ -expression will be a first-order recursive functional program.

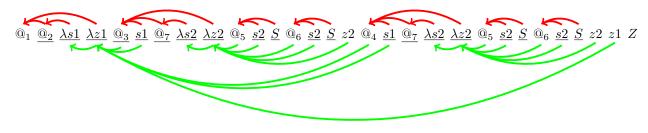


Figure 2: Traversal for  $\underline{2}(\underline{2}S)Z$ .

program ::= def1 ... defn

function

# $f : \text{ULC} \to \text{LLL} \text{ (or } f : \text{STLC} \to \text{LLL} \text{)}$

def ::= f param1 ... paramn = e
param ::= x | token | b | [] | < tx bx x y > : z

tx ::=  $x \mid$  token bx ::=  $x \mid$  b

e ::= x | item | h | call | b | token | e : e | item constructors | case e of param->e1...param->en destructors call ::= f e1 ... en item ::= < token b h h >

token ::= an atomic symbol (from a fixed alphabet)

Figure 3: Syntax of LLL language

### 6.1 Partial Evaluation (Program Specialisation)

**Partial Evaluation, Briefly** A partial evaluator is a *program specialiser*, called *spec*. Its defining property:

 $\forall p \in Programs . \forall s, d \in Data . [[[spec]](p, s)]](d) \doteq [[p]](s, d)$ 

Net effect: a *staging transformation*. The run  $\llbracket p \rrbracket(s, d)$  is a 1-stage computation; but  $\llbracket \llbracket spec \rrbracket(p, s) \rrbracket(d)$  describe two runs, i.e., a 2-stage computation.

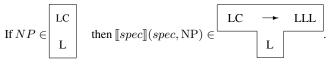
**Precomputation** gives program speedup:  $p_s \stackrel{def}{=} [spec](p,s)$  is the *residual program* output produced by *spec*, when given a program p and its known "static" input data s. When run on any remaining "dynamic" data d, residual program  $p_s$  computes what p would have computed, if given both data inputs s and d.

The concept is historically well-known as the S-1-1 theorem in recursive function theory (though that theory did not study program speedup). In recent years partial evaluation has emerged as the practice of engineering the S-1-1 theorem on real programs [18]. One application area is compiling by specialising an interpreter. The idea is to regard its input program as static, and the input program's data as dynamic.

Further, by the *Futamura projections*, self-application of *spec* can achieve compiler generation (from an interpreter), and even compiler generator generation (details in [18]).

### 6.2 Transforming a Normaliser into a Compiler

Partial evaluation can transform the ULC (or STLC) normalisation algorithm NP into a program to compute a semantics-preserving This follows from the second Futamura projection. In the diagram notation of [18]:



Here LC is ULC or STLC; L is the language in which the partial evaluator and normaliser are written; and LLL (e.g., as in **Section 5**) is a sublanguage of L that is large enough to contain all the dynamic operations done by NP.

Extending this line of thought, one can anticipate its use for a *semantics-directed compiler generator*, an aim expressed in [6]. The idea would be to use LLL as a general-purpose intermediate language to express semantics.

### 6.3 About the Result of Specialising UNP to M

A partial evaluator will, while specialising UNP to M, perform of the UNP operations that depend only on M. As a consequence, UNP<sub>M</sub> will have *no operations at all* to decompose or build lambda expressions while it runs on data d. The residual program UNP<sub>M</sub> will contain only operations to extend the current traversal, and operations to test token values and to follow the back pointers.

Subexpressions of M may appear in the low-level code, but are only used as indivisible tokens. They are only used for equality comparisons with other tokens, and so could be replaced by numeric codes – tags to be set and tested.

### 6.4 How to Specialise UNP with Respect to M?

The first step is *binding time analysis*: to annotate all parts of (the program for) UNP in Section 3.7 as either static or dynamic. (This is done independently of M.) Computations in UNP are marked to be either *unfolded* (i.e., done at partial evaluation time) or *residualised*: runtime code is generated to do computation in the output program UNP<sub>M</sub> (this is the  $p_s$  seen in the definition of a specialiser).

**Static:** some UNP variables of *bounded static variation* (a term from [18]) will be annotated as "static". The main example is e, ranging over subexpressions of M. This takes on only finitely many vales for any fixed input M, so it is safe to classify it as static. Boolean flags are also static.<sup>8</sup>

**Dynamic:** Back pointers are not statically computable; so the traversal (i.e., history) being built is annotated as dynamic. Values

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> In some cases even more can be made static: we will see "The Trick" used to make static copies of dynamic values of bounded static variation, see discussion in [18].

obtained from histories are also annotated as dynamic: their sizes can be unbounded (for a given M).

For specialisation we annotate all recursive function calls within the traversal algorithm that do not progress from one M subexpression to a proper subexpression as "dynamic". The aim is both termination and efficiency: no dynamic recursive calls in the traversalbuilder will be unfolded while specialising; *all other calls* will be unfolded.

# 7. Binding-Time Annotated UNP

We now show the result of a *binding-time annotation* of UNP. Assumption: we wish to specialise UNP to a static (fixed, known) lambda expression M. The following is the result of classifying every expression in UNP as static or dynamic. A static value is constant or computable by the specialiser from (the syntax of) M. A dynamic value must be computed at run time, so residual code will be generated.

Further, each function call in M will be classified as either to be *unfolded*, i.e., performed at specialisation time; or *residual*. If residual, a specialised version of this call will appear in the output program resulting from specialisation. If a UNP subexpression is to be residualised, then an underline is added (see below for an example).

We use a box notation to enclose static information. Examples:

- |Exp| is a static type.
- For a bound variable,  $\underline{lookup \ i \ \alpha}$  denotes a residual call. It could be specialised to static values i = 2 and  $\alpha = T$ , to yield a residual function  $lookup_{2,T} bh ch h$ .
- The call in the function lookup, [i-1] is a static expression; and recursive call  $lookup i \alpha$  inside lookup is a function call with two static arguments. (Static, and to be unfolded at specialisation time.)

### 7.1 Notations Used for Binding-Time Annotation

Annotation of function definitions and calls: a function type  $f : V_1 \to \ldots \to V_i \to \ldots \to V_n$ , where the first *i* arguments are static, will be annotated as

$$f: V_1 \to \ldots V_i \to V_{i+1} \to \ldots \to V_r$$

(In Semantics 5 static values occur only as prefixes of argument lists.)

On the right side of a function definition  $f v_1 \dots v_n = e$ , the name and the static arguments of a call  $g e_1 \dots e_m$  will be enclosed in a box, i.e.,  $g e_1 \dots e_m$ . If this part is to be a residual call, then an underline is added:  $g e_1 \dots e_i$ . If the call in this box is *not underlined*, then the call will be unfolded, that is, performed by the partial evaluator at specialisation time.

In terms of *computational content*, the following is nearly identical to UNP (Semantics 5). There is one change, however, better to separate the binding times: Semantics 5 used function  $eval : H \rightarrow H$  where H = [Item].

We now retype  $eval : H \rightarrow H$  by unrolling the H type, and separating the components of the beginning *Item*. Steps:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{From} & eval: H \rightharpoonup H \\ \mbox{To} & eval: (Item: H) \rightharpoonup H & \mbox{Isomorphic to:} \\ eval: Item \rightarrow H \rightharpoonup H & \mbox{which is unrolled to} \\ eval: Exp \rightarrow Flag \rightarrow BH \rightarrow CH \rightarrow H \rightharpoonup H \end{array}$ 

The pragmatic reason for unrolling is to make the first two parts  $e, \alpha$ , of the beginning of the history visible, so they can be used for specialisation.<sup>9</sup>

### 7.2 Semantics 6

### Domains:

### Semantic functions:

**Semantic equations** :(*M* is the input  $\lambda$ -expression)

$$traversal = \boxed{eval M F}[][][\langle M F [][] \rangle]$$

$$\boxed{eval (FV x)}_{-} - ch h = \boxed{apk (FV x)}_{-} ch h$$

$$\boxed{eval (BV x i) \alpha}_{-} bh ch h = \boxed{lookup i \alpha}_{-} bh ch h$$

$$\boxed{eval \lambda x.e}_{-} T bh ch h = \boxed{apk \lambda x.e}_{-} ch h$$

$$\boxed{eval \lambda x.e}_{-} T bh ch h = \boxed{eval e F}_{-} bh ch \langle e F bh ch \rangle : h$$

$$\boxed{eval (e_1@e_2) \alpha}_{-} bh ch h = \boxed{eval e_1 T}_{-} bh ch \langle e_1 T bh ch \rangle : h$$

$$\boxed{apk }_{-} [] h = h$$

$$\boxed{apk \lambda x.e}_{-} (\langle e \alpha bh ch' \rangle : ...) h = \boxed{eval e}_{-} h ch' \langle e \alpha h ch' \rangle : h$$

$$\boxed{apk }_{-} (\langle e \alpha bh ch' \rangle : ...) h = \boxed{evoperand}_{-} e F bh ch' h$$

$$\boxed{lookup 0 \alpha}_{-} (\langle -T - ch' \rangle : ...) ch h = case ch' of$$

$$\boxed{[] \Rightarrow h}_{\langle ap - bh'' ch'' \rangle : ... \Rightarrow \boxed{evoperand}_{-} ap F bh'' ch'' \rangle h$$

$$\boxed{lookup 0 \ldots}_{-} (\langle -F - ch' \rangle : h') ch h = \boxed{apk (BV - 0)}_{-} ch h$$

$$\boxed{lookup i \alpha}_{-} (\langle -bh' - \rangle : ...) ch h = \boxed{lookup (i - 1) \alpha}_{-} bh' ch h$$

### 7.3 Need for and Use of The Trick

The equations above lack one for *evoperand*. This presents a problem for specialisation: the item argument of *evoperand* comes from a history, and histories are dynamic. Fortunately, however, the expression argument e in an item is BSV: of bounded static

 $<sup>^{9}</sup>$  Remark: the eval argument is always a nonempty list, so case  $H = [\ ]$  need not be dealt with.

variation. In particular, it must be a subexpression of the original  $\lambda$ -expression M.

Let the applications present in M be  $e_1^1 @ e_2^1, \ldots, e_1^m @ e_2^m$ . The following code does the trick. It is a sequence of tests on token values and branches.

$$\label{eq:evoperand} \begin{array}{c} evoperand \\ e_1^m @e_2^m \; \alpha \; bh \; ch \; h = \\ \hline \hline eval \; e_2^m \; \alpha \\ \hline bh \; ch \; (\langle e_2^m \; \alpha \; bh \; ch \rangle : h) \\ \end{array}$$

The residual program will contain one evoperand definition for each application  $e_1@e_2$  that is a subexpression of M. This code can be generated by the following annotated normaliser:

$$evoperand e \alpha bh ch h = \int M e \text{ where}$$

$$f(e':es) e = \text{case } e' \text{ of}$$

$$e_1@e_2 \Rightarrow \text{ if } e = e' \text{ then } eval e_2 \alpha bh ch h$$

$$else \quad fes e$$

$$- \Rightarrow fes e$$

### 7.4 About the Size of the Compiled $\lambda$ -Expression

A well-known fact: the traversal of M may be much larger than M. By Statman's results [19] it may be larger by a "non-elementary" amount(!)

Nonetheless, by using partial evaluation, the  $\lambda$ -free residual program  $UNP_M$  will have size  $|UNP_M| = O(|M|)$ . In words: M's LLL equivalent has size that is only linearly larger than M itself.

More generally: The size of specialised  $p_s$  will be linear in |p|if for any p function  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ 

- f has at most one static argument whose size depends on static input s; and
- each static argument is either completely bounded, or it is of BSV (bounded static variation).

This follows for UNP as a result of the binding time analysis described above.

#### 8. **Extension to a PCF-Like Language**

Lambda-calculus is an elegant and simple Turing-complete language, but it is not really well-suited to program even simple functions. It turns out not to be hard to extend UNP to implement all the PCF operators. We give a glimpse here of how we extended traversal-based normalisation to handle lambda-calculi plus the control-flow operator *if-then-else*, the Y-combinator, numeric constants, and binary operations.

For the sake of brevity, we will only sketch a few parts of semantic equations that are related to new language primitives. Function *apk* is given additional arguments.

A quick overview, starting with the simplest case, a constant: call a continuation function.

Next consider the Y-combinator. When evaluated, it continues with evaluation of its body with an updated environment (binder pointer bh) without changing the current continuation ch. The lookup function has to be extended: for function names it has to return the Y-combinator itself with an initial environment. These

changes correspond strongly to the usual Y-combinator semantics  $[\![YM]\!] = [\![M(YM)]\!].$ 

Control-flow operators also fit into the traversal concept: evaluate the condition to be tested to some constant; and then decide, in the "apply continuation" function, which branch has to be chosen.

Finally, the case of operations on base values: For sake of simplicity, we only consider addition; other operations can be added in a similar way. There are different ways one can add addition to extend UNP. One way, is a syntactic extention. That is, addition can be seen as an alias for  $\lambda$ -term  $\lambda m.\lambda n.\lambda x.(m@f)@((n@f)@x)$ . This case nicely fits into the traversal concept since it is usual  $\lambda$ term which can be evaluated by a complete head linear reduction.

On the other hand, this means that the results of computations will not be saved and every time the result needs to be used it will be recomputed. This is not usual for call-by-value arithmetic expression semantics which avoids multiple evaluation of the same arithmetic expression. Thus, the result of evaluation has to be stored somewhere. In order to be able to store an intermediate result some more machinery is needed: a token may be dynamic, i.e., a token may not be a subexpression of the input expression. Moreover, we allow a continuation function to dynamically change an argument of a binary operator. This makes it possible to store an intermediate results inside the traversal. Note that in this case the result is always a numerical constant.

$$eval h = let \langle e bh \alpha ch \rangle : \_ = h in case e of$$

. . .

Const n  $\Rightarrow apk ch e h \alpha$  $\Rightarrow eval \langle e_1 h \alpha ch \rangle$ :h Y f e<sub>1</sub> If  $b e_1 e_2 \Rightarrow eval \langle b bh \alpha ch \rangle$ :h Add  $e_1 e_2 \Rightarrow eval \langle e_1 bh T h \rangle$ :h

apk ch e h  $\alpha$  = case ch of

$$\langle (If _{-} e_{1} e_{2}) bh' \alpha ch' \rangle : . \Rightarrow$$
  
if  $e == 0$   
then  $eval \langle e_{2} bh' \alpha ch' \rangle : h$   
else  $eval \langle e_{1} bh' \alpha ch' \rangle :$   
 $\langle (Add e_{1} e_{2}) bh' \alpha ch' \rangle : ch'' \Rightarrow$   
let Const  $n = e$  in if  $\alpha$   
then  $eval \langle e_{2} bh' F \langle (Add e e_{2}) bh' \alpha ch') : ch'' \rangle \rangle : h$   
else let Const  $n_{1} = e_{1}$   
in  $eval \langle (Const (n_{1} + n)) bh' \alpha ch' \rangle : h$ 

The result of traversing our code for function  $sum(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{x} i_i$ , i.e., when applied to constant 1

$$Y sum (\lambda x. if x \underline{then} x + sum(x-1) \underline{else} 0)$$

is shown in **Figure 4**<sup>10</sup>.

#### 9. Conclusion

# 9.1 Time Line of This Research

### 9.1.1 Start: Work on the Simply-Typed $\lambda$ -Calculus

We implemented one version of STNP in HASKELL and another in SCHEME. Experiments used the UNMIX partial evaluator (Romanenko [20]) to do automatic partial evaluation and compiler generation. A more complete HASKELL version included: typing; conversion to eta-long form; the traversal algorithm itself; and construction of the normalised term.

We also wrote STNP-gen (i.e., [spec](spec, UNP)) by hand in SCHEME. This generating extension of STNP follows the lines

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>$  Note that  $Y\ sum$  is **one** token which denotes a call of recursive function sum.



Figure 4: Traversal for sum 1.

of [21]; the same approach was used in Section 7. Effect: up  $NP_M = [[STNP-gen]](M)$ . Program STNP-gen is essentially the compiler generated from STNP as in Section 6.2. STNP-gen yields output  $NP_M$  as a scheme program. This program has only surface differences from LLL as in Section 5.

### 9.1.2 Work on the Untyped $\lambda$ -Calculus

An effective normaliser UNP was developed for ULC [22]. A traversal item has two back pointers (by comparison, STNP uses one). UNP was written in HASKELL and works on a variety of examples. A formal correctness proof of UNP is nearing completion, using the theorem prover COQ [22].

By specialising UNP, an arbitrary untyped  $\lambda$ -expression can be translated to LLL as in **Section 5**. A HASKELL generating extension has been written by hand.No SCHEME version or generating extension have yet been done, though this may be worthwhile for experiments using UNMIX.

### 9.2 Next Steps

- More needs to be done to separate programs from data in ULC. (Appendix Section A.2 is just a sketch.) A current line is to express such program-data games in a *communicating* version of LLL. Traditional methods for compiling remote function calls are likely relevant.
- It seems worthwhile to do *data-flow analysis* of output programs, e.g., for time and space optimisation of output programs.
- Using separated program and data naturally suggests that one investigate *computational complexity* phenomena (e.g., computational complexity of the λ-calculus).
- Yet another promising possibility is that LLL could serve as an intermediate language for a *semantics-directed compiler generator* [6].

# 10. Related Works on the Lambda Calculus

There are many works about  $\lambda$ -calculus evaluators that emphasise efficiency. Following is a brief overview of some of the most relevant approaches:

Many implementations of functional languages use lazy evaluation to ensure efficiency. Nevertheless, Wadsworth's original form of lazy evaluation [23] can fail to remove duplicate computations since it captures only values, but leaves functional terms intact. This is sometimes not considered a problem, because compilers [24] employ a fully lazy  $\lambda$ -lifting instead of Wadsworth's original transformation.

Sinot [25] extended Launchbury's [26] semantics for lazy evaluation. Sinot increased laziness by also sharing function bodies, using metavariables to represent open terms. It was also shown that complete lazy reduction can give exponential speedup in comparison with usual lazy evaluation [25]. Lévy [27] introduced the concept of *optimal reduction*. The main goal in an optimal reduction is to avoid redex duplications by adding some mechanisms to obtain redex sharing and *parallel reduction*. Moreover, Lévy showed that not only subexpressions, but closures as well, have to be shared to obtain optimality; and that among complete reductions, only lazy evaluation (call-by-need reductions) can optimallly reach the normal form.

In [28] Lamping presents a graph-based reducer that avoids duplication of work when possible. He represents a lambda term as a graph with special fan-in and fan-out nodes to model sharing; and defines a set of local graph rewriting rules. This scheme is shown to be Lévy-optimal by relating each beta reduction step to a Lévy parallel reduction step.

A similar approach by Shivers and Wand [29] represents  $\lambda$ terms as directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) to allow sharing by means of back pointers and links. The back pointers are used to efficiently search parents while links are used for efficient construction. The sharing that arises from  $\beta$ -reduction is efficiently managed by the DAG representation.

In [30] interaction nets are used as an intermediate representation for reduction. The name-free deBruijn  $\lambda$ -calculus [31] transforms  $\lambda$ -expressions into interaction nets [32] on which reduction together with so-called x-rules (rules that simplify interaction nets) are defined. Finally, a residual term is reconstructed from the resulting interaction net. The presented calculi are optimal in the sense of Lévy.

Lawall and Mairson [33] showed that the sharing graphs of Lamping and successors require exponentially many bookkeeping steps. One conclusion is a problem with the Lévy optimality criterion: achieving it (bookkeeping and all) would imply the collapse of some well-known complexity class containments.

# **A.** Should *M* Have Separate Input Data?

### A.1 Motivations for Giving *M* Separate Input Data

In the current  $\lambda$ -calculus tradition M is self-contained; there is no dynamic data. The definition of a specialiser on a normaliser program UNP:

 $\forall M \in \Lambda . \llbracket [spec]](UNP, M) \rrbracket () = \llbracket UNP \rrbracket (M)$ 

While this looks almost trivial, it is not. The left side describes a two-step process: first, M is translated into LLL (size linear in |M|). Then that program is run: without input, but perhaps giving a perhaps very long traversal.

An extension: allow M to have separate input data, e.g., the input value  $\underline{2}$  as in the example of **Section 2**. Assume that UNP is extended to allow run-time input data.<sup>11</sup> The specialisation definition becomes:

 $\forall M \in \Lambda, d \in Data \ . \ \llbracket \ \llbracket spec \rrbracket (\mathsf{UNP}, M) \rrbracket (d) = \llbracket \mathsf{UNP} \rrbracket (M, d)$ 

 $<sup>^{11}</sup>$  Semantics: simply apply M to Church numeral d before normalisation begins.

Is adding separate input data a good idea? Let the specialiser output be  $\text{UNP}_M = [spec]](\text{UNP}, M)$ .

- 1. One motivation is that  $UNP_M$  can be in a much simpler language than the  $\lambda$ -calculus. Our candidate: the "low-level language" LLL of Section 5.
- 2. A next step: it becomes natural to consider the *computational* complexity of normalising M, if it is applied to an external input d. For example the Church numeral multiplication algorithm runs in time of the order of the product of the sizes of its two inputs.
- Further, two stages are natural for semantics-directed compiler generation.

### A.2 Loops from out of Nowhere

Consider again the Church numeral multiplication (as in **Figure 1**), but with a difference: suppose the data input values for m, n are given separately, at the time when program UNP<sub>mul</sub> is run. Expectations:

- Neither mul nor the data contain any loops or recursion. However mul will be compiled into an *LLL -program* UNP<sub>mul</sub> with two nested loops.
- Applied to two Church numerals m, n, UNP mul computes their product by doing one pass over the Church numeral for m, interleaved with m passes over the Church numeral for n. (One might expect this intuitively, and the pattern can be seen in Figure 1.)
- These appear as an artifact of the specialisation process. The reason the loops appear: While constructing UNP<sub>mul</sub> (i.e., during specialisation of UNP to its static input mul), the specialiser will encounter the same static values (subexpressions of *M*) more than once.

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