

Implementation of Functional Languages

Implementation techniques for functional languages:

- Landin's SECD machine (1963) & successors
- Combinators (1979)
- Spineless Tagless G-machines (1991ish)
- Other developments: lambda lifting, supercombinators, special-purpose hardware for parallel graph reduction, etc.

The SECD Machine - a stack based machine

Consists of:

- S = stack
- E = environment: the current binding environment.
- C = code vector: the code to be evaluated.
- D = dump: other older contexts (which are restored after we're done evaluating a function).

The SECD machine uses applicative order evaluation.

To get normal order evaluation, pass an anonymous function (a thunk) rather than a value as an argument. Evaluate the function whenever the parameter value is needed.

This is the same as call-by-name in Algol-60. Improve efficiency by replacing the anonymous function call by its value after it is invoked -- this gives lazy evaluation.

Combinators

Turner 1979: An alternative implementation strategy, using combinator graphs.

A combinator is basically a function with no free variables or constants (See for example Hindly and Seldin, "Introduction to Combinators and Lambda-Calculus" for a formal treatment.)

Schonfinkel (1924) first described combinators. They provide a way of avoiding variables altogether in lambda calculus. (Variables cause a lot of complications in describing the rewrite rules, principally because of the need to avoid accidental collisions of variable names.)

Basic Idea

- Abstract away all variables, leaving code that can be executed on a simple machine. Use combinators to perform the abstraction.
- Result will be a graph.
- Execute using an abstract machine that does graph reduction.

Abstracting Variables Out

If we have a function definition:

```
def f x = ...
```

We first replace all functions in the definition of f with their curried versions:

```
def f x = E
```

Now we can abstract out the references to x :

```
def f = [x]E
```

Where the abstraction operation has the property:

$$([x]E)x = E \text{ (extensibility condition)}$$

Notice that $[x]E$ is similar to $(\lambda x) E$, but $[x] E$ is a textual, compile time operation.

Definition of Combinators

Turner now defines a basic set of combinators: S, K, and I
(see Turner, pg. 34)

$$\begin{aligned}S f g x &= f x (g x) \\K x y &= x \\I x &= x\end{aligned}$$

(In fact we only need S and K, since $SKK=I$)

Rules for abstracting x

$$\begin{aligned}[x] (E1 E2) &= S ([x] E1) ([x] E2) \\[x] x &= I \\[x] y &= K y, \text{ where } y \text{ is a constant or variable} \\ &\text{and } x \text{ not equal to } y\end{aligned}$$

Proofs of Correctness

Take LHS of first rule, and apply it to x:

$$[x] (E1 E2) x = E1 E2 \text{ (by extensionality)}$$

RHS of first rule:

$$\begin{aligned}S ([x] E1) ([x] E2) x \\ &= (([x] E1) x) (([x] E2) x) \\ &= E1 E2 \text{ (extensionality, twice)}\end{aligned}$$

LHS of second rule, applied to x:

$$([x] x) x = x \text{ (extensionality)}$$

RHS of second rule

$$I x = x \text{ (definition of I)}$$

LHS of third rule:

$$([x] y) x = y \text{ (extensionality)}$$

RHS of third rule

$$K y x = y \text{ (definition of K)}$$

Example: successor function

$$\text{succ } x = \text{plus } 1 x$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{succ} &= [x] (\text{plus } 1 x) \\ &\Rightarrow S ([x] (\text{plus } 1)) ([x] x) \\ &\Rightarrow S (S (K \text{ plus}) (K 1)) I\end{aligned}$$

This is correct but long-winded. We add additional combinators B and C to get more compact graphs:

$$\begin{aligned}B f g x &= f (g x) \\ C f g x &= f x g\end{aligned}$$

with these additions the successor function compiles to

$$\text{succ} = \text{plus } 1$$

Example: average function

$$\text{avg } x y = (x+y)/2$$

replace + and / by curried versions:

$$\text{avg } x y = \text{divide } (\text{plus } x y) 2$$

abstract y (treating x as a constant)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{avg } x &= [y] (\text{divide } (\text{plus } x y) 2) \\ &= S ([y] (\text{divide } (\text{plus } x y))) ([y] 2) \\ &= S (S ([y] \text{divide}) ([y] (\text{plus } x y))) ([y] 2) \\ &= S (S ([y] \text{divide}) ([y] (\text{plus } x y))) (K 2) \\ &= C (S ([y] \text{divide}) ([y] (\text{plus } x y))) 2 \\ &= C (S (K \text{ divide}) ([y] (\text{plus } x y))) 2 \\ &= C (S (K \text{ divide}) (S ([y] (\text{plus } x)) ([y] y))) 2 \\ &= C (B \text{ divide } (S ([y] (\text{plus } x)) ([y] y))) 2 \\ &= C (B \text{ divide } (S (S ([y] \text{plus}) ([y] x)) ([y] y))) 2 \\ &= C (B \text{ divide } (S (S (K \text{ plus}) (K x)) I)) 2 \\ &= C (B \text{ divide } (S (K (\text{plus } x)) I)) 2 \\ &= C (B \text{ divide } (\text{plus } x)) 2\end{aligned}$$

```

avg = [x] (C (B divide (plus x)) 2)
avg = [x] (C (B divide (plus x)) 2)
  = S ([x] (C (B divide (plus x)))) ([x] 2)
  = S ([x] (C (B divide (plus x)))) (K 2)
  = C ([x] (C (B divide (plus x)))) 2
  = C (S ([x] C) ([x] (B divide (plus x)))) 2
  = C (S (K C) ([x] (B divide (plus x)))) 2
  = C (B C ([x] (B divide (plus x)))) 2
  = C (B C (S ([x] B divide) ([x] (plus x)))) 2
  = C (B C (S (S ([x] B) ([x] divide)) ([x] (plus x)))) 2
  = C (B C (S (S (K B) (K divide)) ([x] (plus x)))) 2
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  = C (B C (S (K B divide) ([x] (plus x)))) 2
  = C (B C (B (B divide) ([x] (plus x)))) 2
  = C (B C (B (B divide) (S ([x] plus) ([x] x)))) 2
  = C (B C (B (B divide) (S (K plus) I))) 2
  = C (B C (B (B divide) plus)) 2

```

ugh!

Turner also introduces combinators for pattern matching

Y combinator -- finds fixedpoints

$Y f = f (Y f)$

used in local recursions

E where $x = \dots x \dots$

example:

```

ham = 1: my_merge ham2 (my_merge ham3 ham5)
  where
    ham2 = map (*2) ham
    ham3 = map (*3) ham
    ham5 = map (*5) ham

```

S-K reduction machine

graph rewriting machine to interpret combinator code

Miranda uses normal order evaluation -- go down left branch of the tree

until a combinator is found. Apply it to the args, and replace that node with the result.

S-K Reduction Example:

`suc 2` where `suc x = 1+x`

(from Turner paper)

The compiler transforms this to:

```
([suc] (suc 2)) ([x] (plus 1 x))
```

We then convert to combinator form:

```
S ([suc] suc) ([suc] 2) ([x] (plus 1 x))
```

```
S I (K 2) ([x] (plus 1 x))
```

```
C I 2 ([x] (plus 1 x))
```

```
C I 2 (S ([x] (plus 1)) ([x] x))
```

```
C I 2 (S (S ([x] plus) ([x] 1)) ([x] x))
```

```
C I 2 (S (S (K plus) (K 1)) ([x] x))
```

```
C I 2 (S (K (plus 1)) ([x] x))
```

```
C I 2 (S (K (plus 1)) I)
```

```
C I 2 (plus 1)
```

We can now evaluate this using a series of graph transformations:

Remember rule for C:

```
C f g x = f x g
```

Initially:

```
C I 2 (plus 1)
```

Using the rule for C

```
I (plus 1) 2
```

Using the rule for I

```
plus 1 2
```

Using the rule for plus:

```
3
```

Self-Optimizing Code

Simple example:

code is a built-in function that maps characters to numbers (ascii codes)

e.g. code '0' = 48

```
makedigit n = code n - code '0'
```

After the first evaluation the expression (code '0') will be **replaced** by 48

another example:

```
foldr op r = f
  where
    f [] = r
    f (a:x) = op a(f x)
```

```
sum = foldr (+) 0
```

after the first evaluation of sum, it will be rewritten to the equivalent of

```
sum [] = 0
sum (a:x) = a+sum x
```

Later Developments

lambda lifting

supercombinators (combinators are abstracted from user's program)

G machine

strictness analysis

compilation to conventional single-processor architectures

compilation for conventional parallel hardware

special-purpose hardware for parallel graph reduction

lambda lifting:

if we have a local function definition with free variables, we can move

it to the top level by adding additional arguments that are then applied to the free variables

example:

```
f x = e where e contains a free variable y
```

define a new function

```
f' y x = e
```

at the top level

Replace calls to f by

```
f' y
```

supercombinators: combinators are abstracted from user's program

Johnnson et al, Chalmers University

this technique is used in e.g. one of the Haskell implementation