The Substitution Model

In CS111 and CS230, we used the JAVA Execution Model to explain the execution of JAVA programs. In order to understand OCAML features like function values, recursion, pattern-matching, and let-binding, it is helpful to have a model to explain how OCAML expressions are evaluated. We will use a **substitution model** to understand OCAML evaluation. We shall see that on OCAML substitution model is *much* simpler than the JAVA Execution Model, in large part because it is similar to performing algebraic simplification of mathematical expressions.

Unlike the JAVA Execution Model, substitution models are common in the programming languages community as a way to explain the semantics (meaning) of a programming language.

1 Values

The goal of the substitution model, or any semantic model, is to find the *value* denoted by an expression. Intuitively, a value is an expression that is so simple that it cannot be simplified any further — it stands for itself. Here are some examples of OCAML values:

- the unit value: ();
- boolean values: true, false;
- integers: e.g., 17, 0, -23;
- floating point numbers: e.g., 3.14159, 5.0, -1.23;
- characters: e.g., 'a', 'B', '3', '\n';
- strings: e.g., "Hi!", "foo bar baz", "";
- functions: e.g., fun x -> x + 1, (+) (Note: The fact that functions are values in OCAML is an extremely important feature one we shall explore in more detail soon.)
- tuples of values: e.g., (true, 17), (3.14159, 'a', ("Hi!", fun x -> x + 1));
- lists of values: e.g., [], [3;1;2], [[""]; ["a";"b"]; ["aa";"ab";"ba";"bb"]], [('a', true); ('b', false)], [fun x -> x + 1; fun y -> y * 2; fun z -> z * z].

2 Simple Operations

OCAML comes equipped with many built-in operations on values that we shall treat as **primitive** black-box functions in the substitution model. We use the notation $E_1 \Rightarrow E_2$ to indicate that the expression E_1 can be simplified to E_2 in the substitution model. For example:

- 1 + 2 \Rightarrow 3;
- 1 < 2 \Rightarrow true;
- 2.718 +. $3.141 \Rightarrow 5.859$
- max $2.718 \ 3.141 \Rightarrow 3.141$
- true && false ⇒ false;
- String.get "abc" 1 ⇒ 'b';
- fst $(4, 'a') \Rightarrow 4$;
- snd $(4, 'a') \Rightarrow 'a';$
- List.hd $[4;1;2] \Rightarrow 4;$
- List.tl $[4;1;2] \Rightarrow [1;2]$
- List.length $[4;1;2] \Rightarrow 3$
- [4;1;2] @ $[3;5] \Rightarrow [4;1;2;3;5]$

An expression with subexpressions can be evaluated in several steps. For example:

$$(1+4) - (2*3) \Rightarrow 5 - (2*3) \Rightarrow 5 - 6 \Rightarrow -1$$

As in algebraic simplification, the order in which OCAML subexpressions are evaluated does not matter. So we could evaluate the (2*3) before the (1+4)

$$(1+4)$$
 - $(2*3)$ \Rightarrow $(1+4)$ - 6 \Rightarrow 5 - 6 \Rightarrow -1

or we could evaluate the two subexpressions in parallel:

(1+4) - (2*3)
$$\Rightarrow$$
 5 - 6 \Rightarrow -1

We will only consider the evaluation of well-typed Ocaml expressions, so we never have to worry about evaluating nonsensical expressions like:

- 1 + true
- fst [3;1;2]

• List.hd (1, true)

However, even with well-typed expressions, it is possible to encounter expressions that cannot be evaluated because they contain an error. In the substitution model, we will say that such expressions are **stuck** and use the notation $E \not\Rightarrow$ to indicate that the expression E is stuck. For example:

```
5/0 ≠
List.hd [] ≠
String.get "abc" 3 ≠
1 + (5/0) ≠
```

The last example indicates that an expression containing a stuck subexpression can also be stuck. A real OCAML interpreter will raise an exception in situations like the above.

```
# 5/0;;
Exception: Division_by_zero.
# List.hd [];;
Exception: Failure "hd".
# String.get "abc" 3;;
Exception: Invalid_argument "String.get".
# 1 + (5/0);;
Exception: Division_by_zero.
```

So our substitution model will handle stuck expressions differently than the OCAML interpreter.

3 Conditionals

A conditional expression if E_{test} then E_{then} else E_{else} is evaluated by first evaluating E_{test} to a boolean value, and then using this to determine the branch taken by the following rules:

```
1. if true then E_{then} else E_{else} \Rightarrow E_{then}
```

```
2. if false then E_{then} else E_{else} \Rightarrow E_{else}
```

For example:

```
if (1<2) && (3>4) then 5+6 else 7*8 \Rightarrow if true && false then 5+6 else 7*8 \Rightarrow if false then 5+6 else 7*8 \Rightarrow 7*8 \Rightarrow 56
```

Note that the then or else branch of a conditional is not evaluated until the test expression is fully evaluated. This means that it is possible for the branch not taken to contain a stuck expression that does *not* cause the whole conditional to be stuck. For example:

```
if true then 5+6 else 7/0 \Rightarrow 5+6 \Rightarrow 11
```

4 Pattern Matching

A pattern matching construct match E_{disc} with clauses is evaluated by (1) evaluating the discriminant expression E_{disc} to a value V_{disc} ; (2) using this value to choose the matching clause $P_{pat} \rightarrow E_{body}$ in clauses; and (3) evaluating E_{body} after substituting the values in V_{disc} for the corresponding names in the pattern P_{pat} . For example:

```
match (1,2) with (a,b) → a+b
⇒ 1+2
⇒ 3
match ((1,2),(3,4)) with ((a,b),(c,d)) → (a+c,b+d)
⇒ (1+3,2+4)
⇒ (4,6)
match [] with [] → [17] | [x] → [x*2] | (x::xs) → (x+1)::xs'
⇒ [17]
match [3] with [] → [17] | [x] → [x*2] | (x::xs) → (x+1)::xs'
⇒ [3*2]
⇒ [6]
match [3;1;2] with [] → [17] | [x] → [x*2] | (x::xs) → (x+1)::xs'
⇒ (3+1)::[1;2]
⇒ [4;1;2]
```

If there is no clause that matches V_{disc} , the match expression is stuck. For example:

```
match [] with (x:xs) \rightarrow x \not\Rightarrow
```

A let expression desugars into a match expression:

```
let (a,b) = (1,2) in a+b

\Rightarrow match (1,2) with (a,b) \rightarrow a+b

\Rightarrow 1+2

\Rightarrow 3

let (a,b) = (1,2)
and (c,d) = (3,4)
in (a+c,b+d)

\Rightarrow match ((1,2),(3,4)) with ((a,b),(c,d)) \rightarrow (a+c,b+d)

\Rightarrow (1+3,2+4)

\Rightarrow (4,6)
```

However, we will often evaluate a let expression directly, without the desugaring step:

```
let (a,b) = (1,2) in a+b

\Rightarrow 1+2

\Rightarrow 3

let (a,b) = (1,2)

and (c,d) = (3,4)

in (a+c,b+d)

\Rightarrow (1+3,2+4)

\Rightarrow (4,6)
```

In cases where the same name appears multiple times, we will often add subscripts to the names to distinguish them. This models the fact that the same name may refer to different logical variables in different parts of the expression. For example:

```
let a = 2+3 in (let a = a*a in 2*a) + a

\Rightarrow let a_1 = 2+3 in (let a_2 = a_1*a_1 in 2*a<sub>2</sub>) + a_1

\Rightarrow let a_1 = 5 in (let a_2 = a_1*a_1 in 2*a<sub>2</sub>) + a_1

\Rightarrow (let a_2 = 5*5 in 2*a<sub>2</sub>) + 5

\Rightarrow (let a_2 = 25 in 2*a<sub>2</sub>) + 5

\Rightarrow (2*25) + 5

\Rightarrow 50 + 5

\Rightarrow 55
```

5 Function Application

A fun expression is the OCAML notation for a function value. For example,

```
fun x \rightarrow x*x
```

can be read "a function that takes an integer x and muliplies it by itself." A fun expression can be used in the operator position of a function call. In the substitution model, an invocation of a function to an argument value rewrites to a copy of the body of the function in which each occurrence of the formal parameter has been replaced by the argument value. For example:

```
(fun x -> x*x) (2+3)

\Rightarrow (fun x -> x*x) 5

\Rightarrow 5*5

\Rightarrow 25
```

OCAML is a **call-by-value** language, which means that all function arguments must be fully evaluated to values before the function is invoked. For example, the following expression is stuck because the function argument is stuck, even though the function does not use the argument:

```
(fun y \rightarrow 3) (5/0) \Rightarrow
```

Some other languages use alternative evaluation strategies (known as call-by-name and call-by-need) in which the above function application would evaluate to 3 rather than being stuck. We will study these other strategies later in this semester.

Functions with patterns in the formal parameter position desugar to bodies involving match:

```
(fun (a,b) -> (a+b)/2) (3,7)

\Rightarrow (fun p -> match p with (a,b) -> (a+b)/2) (3,7)

\Rightarrow match (3,7) with (a,b) -> (a+b)/2

\Rightarrow (3+7)/2

\Rightarrow 10/2

\Rightarrow 5
```

In practice, we will often do the pattern-matching on formal parameter patterns directly:

```
(fun (a,b) -> (a+b)/2) (3,7)

\Rightarrow (3+7)/2

\Rightarrow 10/2

\Rightarrow 5
```

Functions that take multiple parameters desugar into nested functions of single parameters:

```
(fun x y -> (x+y)/(x-y)) 6 4

\Rightarrow (fun x -> (fun y -> (x+y)/(x-y))) 6 4

\Rightarrow (fun y -> (6+y)/(6-y)) 4 (* first substitute 6 for x *)

\Rightarrow (6+4)/(6-4) (* then substitute 4 for y *)

\Rightarrow 10/2

\Rightarrow 5
```

In practice, we will often substitute all available argument values simultaneously:

```
(fun x y → (x+y)/(x-y)) 6 4

⇒ (6+4)/(6-4)

⇒ 10/2

⇒ 5
```

6 Global Names

Global names can be handled in the substitution model by replacing any globally defined name by its associated value. It may be necessary to rename variables (e.g., by subscripting) to make all global names distinct. For example:

```
let a_1 = 2+3
\Rightarrow let a_1 = 5
let add_a x = x+a_1
let a_2 = a_1*a_1
\Rightarrow let a_2 = 5*5
\Rightarrow let a_2 = 25
let mul_a y = y * a_2
let dec a_3 = a_3-1
dec (mul_a (add_a a2))
\Rightarrow dec (mul_a (add_a 25))
\Rightarrow dec (mul_a ((fun x -> x+a<sub>1</sub>) 25))
\Rightarrow dec (mul_a (25+5))
\Rightarrow dec (mul_a 30)
\Rightarrow dec (mul_a 30)
\Rightarrow dec ((fun y -> y*a<sub>2</sub>) 30)
\Rightarrow dec (30*25)
\Rightarrow dec 750
\Rightarrow (fun a_3 \rightarrow a_3-1) 750
⇒ 750-1
\Rightarrow 749
```

7 Recursion

The meaning of recursion on globally defined functions is explained by the substitution model without any new rules. For example:

```
let rec fact n = if n = 0 then 1 else n*(fact(n-1))
fact 5
\Rightarrow if 5 = 0 then 1 else 5*(fact(5-1))
\Rightarrow if false then 1 else 5*(fact(5-1))
\Rightarrow 5*(fact(5-1))
\Rightarrow 5*(fact(4))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*fact(3)) (* skip the evaluation of if and decrement *)
\Rightarrow 5*(4*(3*(fact(2))))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*(3*(2*(fact(1)))))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*(3*(2*(1*(fact(0))))))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*(3*(2*(1*1))))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*(3*(2*1)))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*(3*2))
\Rightarrow 5*(4*6)
⇒ 5*24
\Rightarrow 120
```

Note how pending multiplications in the factorial example are represented in the substitution model.

Tail recursion is also explained by the substitution model. For example:

```
let rec factTail (num,ans) = if num=0 then ans else factTail(num-1,num*ans);;
let factIter n = factTail(n,1);;
factIter 5
\Rightarrow factTail(5,1)
\Rightarrow if 5=0 then ans else factTail(5-1,5*1)
\Rightarrow if false then ans else factTail(5-1,5*1)
\Rightarrow factTail(5-1,5*1)
\Rightarrow factTail(4,5)
\Rightarrow factTail(4-1,4*5) (* skip evaluation of if *)
\Rightarrow factTail(3,20)
\Rightarrow factTail(3-1,3*20)
\Rightarrow factTail(2,60)
\Rightarrow factTail(2-1,2*60)
\Rightarrow factTail(1,120)
\Rightarrow factTail(1-1,1*120)
\Rightarrow factTail(0,120)
\Rightarrow 120
```