

# FUNCTIONAL PEARLS

## *Normalization by evaluation with typed abstract syntax*

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### 1 A write-only typed abstract syntax

In higher-order abstract syntax, the variables and bindings of an object language are represented by variables and bindings of a meta-language. Let us consider the simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus as object language and Haskell as meta-language. For concreteness, we also throw in integers and addition, but only in this section.

```
data Term = INT Int | ADD Term Term
          | APP Term Term | LAM (Term → Term)
```

The constructors are typed as follows.

```
INT :: Int → Term
ADD :: Term → Term → Term
APP :: Term → (Term → Term)
LAM :: (Term → Term) → Term
```

They do not prevent us from forming ill-typed terms. For example, in the scope of these constructors, evaluating `LAM( $\lambda x \rightarrow \text{APP } x \ x$ )` yields a value of type `Term`.

We can, however, provide a typed interface to these constructors preventing us from forming ill-typed terms.

```
newtype Exp t = EXP Term

int :: Int → Exp Int
int i = EXP (INT i)
```

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```

add :: Exp Int → Exp Int → Exp Int
add (EXP e1) (EXP e2) = EXP (ADD e1 e2)

app :: Exp (a → b) → (Exp a → Exp b)
app (EXP e1) (EXP e2) = EXP (APP e1 e2)

lam :: (Exp a → Exp b) → Exp (a → b)
lam f = EXP (LAM (λx → let EXP b = f (EXP x) in b))

```

The type `Exp` is parameterized over a type `t` but does not use it: `t` is a *phantom type*.

These typeful constructors prevent us from forming ill-typed terms. For example, in the scope of these constructors, evaluating `lam(λx→app x x)` yields a type error. Conversely, if a term has the simple type `t` then its typed abstract-syntax representation has type `Exp t`, which can be illustrated as follows:

```

λx → x + 5           :: Int → Int
lam (λx → add x (int 5)) :: Exp (Int → Int)

```

We intend to use this typed abstract syntax to show that normalization by evaluation preserves types (Section 2) and yields normal forms (Section 3) for the pure and simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus. Therefore, we are only interested in constructing abstract syntax. (To convert a constructed term into first-order abstract syntax where variables are represented as strings, one needs to add another constructor to `Term` for free variables.) Furthermore, such a write-only typed abstract syntax does not solve the basic problem of programming higher-order abstract syntax in Haskell, which is that the function space in the `LAM` summand is ‘too big’, in the sense that it allows both non-strict and non-total functions. But again, this representation is sufficient for our purpose here. In the remainder of this pearl, `Term` and `Exp` are restricted to the pure  $\lambda$ -calculus.

## 2 Normalization by evaluation preserves types

Normalization by evaluation is an extensional, reduction-free technique for strongly normalizing closed  $\lambda$ -terms. Source terms are represented as meta-language values and a *normalization function* maps these values into a syntactic representation of their normal form.

The technique is extensional instead of intensional because the source terms are (higher-order) values, not (first-order) symbolic representations. It is reduction-free because all the  $\beta$ -reductions needed to yield a normal form are carried out implicitly by the underlying implementation of the meta-language. For this reason, it runs at native speed, and thus is more efficient than traditional, symbolic normalization.

Normalization by evaluation uses two type-indexed and mutually recursive functions. One, *reify*, traditionally noted  $\downarrow$ , maps a value into its representation and the other, *reflect*, traditionally noted  $\uparrow$ , maps a representation into a value. These two functions are canonically defined as follows, for the simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus.

$$\begin{aligned}
 t & ::= \alpha \mid t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \\
 \downarrow^\alpha & = \overline{\lambda}v.v \\
 \downarrow^{t_1 \rightarrow t_2} & = \overline{\lambda}v.\overline{\lambda}x.\downarrow^{t_2} \overline{\text{@}} (v \overline{\text{@}} (\uparrow_{t_1} \overline{\text{@}} x)) \\
 \uparrow^\alpha & = \overline{\lambda}e.e \\
 \uparrow_{t_1 \rightarrow t_2} & = \overline{\lambda}e.\overline{\lambda}x.\uparrow_{t_2} \overline{\text{@}} (e \overline{\text{@}} (\downarrow^{t_1} \overline{\text{@}} x))
 \end{aligned}$$

where overlined  $\lambda$  and  $\text{@}$  denote meta-level abstractions and applications, respectively, and underlined  $\lambda$  and  $\text{@}$  denote object-level abstractions and applications.

A simply typed term is normalized by reifying its value. For example, let us consider Church numbers.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{zero} & = \overline{\lambda}s.\overline{\lambda}z.z \\
 \text{succ} & = \overline{\lambda}n.\overline{\lambda}s.\overline{\lambda}z.s \overline{\text{@}} (n \overline{\text{@}} s \overline{\text{@}} z) \\
 \text{three} & = \text{succ} \overline{\text{@}} (\text{succ} \overline{\text{@}} (\text{succ} \overline{\text{@}} \text{zero})) \\
 \text{add} & = \overline{\lambda}m.\overline{\lambda}n.\overline{\lambda}s.\overline{\lambda}z.m \overline{\text{@}} s \overline{\text{@}} (n \overline{\text{@}} s \overline{\text{@}} z)
 \end{aligned}$$

Reifying *three* yields  $\overline{\lambda}s.\overline{\lambda}z.s \overline{\text{@}} (s \overline{\text{@}} (s \overline{\text{@}} z))$ , i.e., the representation in normal form of 3. Similarly, reifying *add @ zero* yields  $\overline{\lambda}n.\overline{\lambda}s.\overline{\lambda}z.n \overline{\text{@}} (\overline{\lambda}n'.s \overline{\text{@}} n') \overline{\text{@}} z$ , i.e., the representation in long  $\beta\eta$ -normal form of the identity function over Church numbers, reflecting that zero is neutral for addition. And finally, reifying *add @ three* yields the representation in normal form of a function iterating the successor function three times, i.e.,  $\overline{\lambda}n.\overline{\lambda}s.\overline{\lambda}z.s \overline{\text{@}} (s \overline{\text{@}} (s \overline{\text{@}} (n \overline{\text{@}} (\overline{\lambda}n'.s \overline{\text{@}} n') \overline{\text{@}} z)))$ . The source terms are values (i.e., with overlined  $\lambda$  and  $\text{@}$ ) and, using  $\downarrow$ , we have reified them into a syntactic representation of their normal form (i.e., with underlined  $\lambda$  and  $\text{@}$ ).

The type of a Church number is  $(a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$ . The type of its normal form is Term, or, perhaps more vividly,  $\text{Exp } ((a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow a)$ .

Normalization by evaluation is defined by induction on the structure of types, which makes it a natural candidate to be expressed with type classes. We thus define a type class Nbe hosting two type-indexed functions, *reify* and *reflect*. Representing object terms with the type Term of Section 1 would give us the usual uninformative type  $t \rightarrow \text{Term}$  for *reify* and  $\text{Term} \rightarrow t$  for *reflect*. Instead, let us use the parameterized type Exp of Section 1:

```

class Nbe a
  where reify :: a -> Exp a
        reflect :: Exp a -> a
    
```

The challenge now is to populate this type class with values of function type and of base type implementing normalization by evaluation. If we can do that, the type inferencer of Haskell will act as a theorem prover and will demonstrate that this implementation of normalization by evaluation preserves types.

The canonical definition above dictates how to instantiate Nbe at function type.

```

instance (Nbe a, Nbe b) => Nbe (a -> b)
  where reify v = lam (\x -> reify (v (reflect x)))
        reflect e = \x -> reflect (app e (reify x))
    
```

For base types, `reify` and `reflect` are two identity functions. To be type correct, however, `reify` must produce a term and `reflect` must consume a term. We can ensure that `reify` produces a term when its argument is a term. Similarly, we can ensure that `reflect` consumes a term when its result is a term. Taking advantage of the fact that the type parameter of `Exp` is a phantom type, we thus introduce the following two ‘phantom’ identity functions for the base case:

```

coerce :: Exp (Exp a) → Exp a
coerce (EXP v) = EXP v

uncoerce :: Exp a → Exp (Exp a)
uncoerce (EXP e) = EXP e

instance Nbe (Exp a)
  where reify = uncoerce
        reflect = coerce

```

A value  $v$  is normalized by applying `reify` to it. In usual implementations of normalization by evaluation, (a representation of) the type of  $v$  must be supplied on par with  $v$ , as an input data. Here, because we use type classes, this type is supplied as a cast, to resolve overloading. It is obtained by instantiating type variables  $a$  with `Exp a`, in the original type. So for example, `id . id` has the type  $a \rightarrow a$ . Reifying it at type `Exp a → Exp a` yields  $\lambda x \rightarrow x$ , and reifying it at type `(Exp a → Exp a) → (Exp a → Exp a)` yields  $\lambda x \rightarrow \lambda x' \rightarrow x \ x'$ .

### 3 Normalization by evaluation yields normal forms

In the simply typed  $\lambda$ -calculus, long  $\beta\eta$ -normal forms are closed terms without  $\beta$ -redexes that are fully  $\eta$ -expanded with respect to their type. A closed term  $e$  of type  $t$  and in normal form satisfies  $\vdash_{\text{nf}} e :: t$ , where terms in normal form (and atomic form) are defined by the following rules:

$$\begin{array}{c}
\frac{\Delta, x :: t_1 \vdash_{\text{nf}} e :: t_2}{\Delta \vdash_{\text{nf}} (\lambda x :: t_1. e) :: t_1 \rightarrow t_2} \text{(Lam)} \qquad \frac{\Delta \vdash_{\text{at}} e :: \alpha}{\Delta \vdash_{\text{nf}} e :: \alpha} \text{(Coerce)} \\
\frac{\Delta \vdash_{\text{at}} e_0 :: t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \quad \Delta \vdash_{\text{nf}} e_1 :: t_1}{\Delta \vdash_{\text{at}} e_0 e_1 :: t_2} \text{(App)} \qquad \frac{\Delta(x) = t}{\Delta \vdash_{\text{at}} x :: t} \text{(Var)}
\end{array}$$

No term containing  $\beta$ -redexes can be derived by these rules, and restricting the `Coerce` rule to base types ensures that the derived terms are fully  $\eta$ -expanded.

As in Section 1, we provide a typed interface to the constructors of terms in normal form, preventing us from forming ill-typed terms.

```

data NfTerm = COERCE AtTerm | LAM (AtTerm → NfTerm)
data AtTerm = APP AtTerm NfTerm

newtype NfExp a = NF NfTerm
newtype AtExp a = AT AtTerm

```

```

app' :: AtExp (a → b) → (NfExp a → AtExp b)
app' (AT e1) (NF e2) = AT (APP e1 e2)

lam' :: (AtExp a → NfExp b) → NfExp (a → b)
lam' f = NF (LAM (λx → let NF t = f (AT x) in t))

coerce' :: AtExp (NfExp a) → NfExp a
coerce' (AT v) = NF (COERCE v)

uncoerce' :: NfExp a → NfExp (NfExp a)
uncoerce' (NF e) = NF e

```

These declarations specialize the representation from Section 2 to reflect that the represented terms are in normal form. As in Section 2, we provide two phantom identity functions, `coerce'` and `uncoerce'`, where `coerce'` constructs terms that arise from using the above `Coerce` rule.

Thus equipped, we can re-express normalization by evaluation in an implementation that yields a representation of  $\lambda$ -terms in normal form.

```

class Nbe' a
  where reify :: a → NfExp a
        reflect :: AtExp a → a

```

Again, the challenge is to populate this type class with values of function type and of base type implementing normalization by evaluation. If we can do that, the type inferencer of Haskell will act as a theorem prover and will demonstrate that this implementation of normalization by evaluation preserves types and yields normal forms.

The instances use the constructors for terms in normal forms but are otherwise defined as in Section 2.

```

instance (Nbe' a, Nbe' b) => Nbe' (a → b)
  where reify v = lam' (λx → reify (v (reflect x)))
        reflect e = λx → reflect (app' e (reify x))

instance Nbe' (NfExp a)
  where reify = uncoerce'
        reflect = coerce'

```

As in Section 2, reifying `id . id` at type `NfExp a → NfExp a` yields  $\lambda x \rightarrow x$ , and reifying it at type `(NfExp a → NfExp a) → (NfExp a → NfExp a)` yields  $\lambda x \rightarrow \lambda x' \rightarrow x x'$ .

For a last example, here are the Haskell definitions of Church numbers mentioned in Section 2.

```

type Number a = (a → a) → a → a
zero = λs z → z
succ = λn s z → s (n s z)
three = succ (succ (succ zero))
add = λm n s z → m s (n s z)

```

Reifying `three`, `add zero`, and `add three` gives the text of their normal form at type `Number (Exp a) → Number (Exp a)`.

#### 4 Conclusions and issues

We have presented a simple encoding of typed abstract syntax in Haskell, and we have used this typed abstract syntax to demonstrate that normalization by evaluation preserves simple types and yields residual programs in  $\beta\eta$ -normal form. The encoding is write-only because it does not lend itself to programs taking typed abstract syntax as input, such as a typed transformation into continuation-passing style. Nevertheless, it is sufficient to establish two key properties of normalization by evaluation automatically, using the Haskell type inferencer as a theorem prover.

These two properties could be illustrated more directly in a language with dependent types such as Martin-Löf's type theory. In such a language, one can directly embed simply typed  $\lambda$ -terms (in normal form or not), express normalization by evaluation, and prove that it preserves types and yields normal forms.

*Related work* Normalization by evaluation takes its roots in type theory (Coquand & Dybjer, 1997; Martin-Löf, 1975), proof theory (Berger, 1993; Berger *et al.*, 1998; Berger & Schwichtenberg, 1991), logic (Altenkirch *et al.*, 1996), category theory (Altenkirch *et al.*, 1995; Čubrić *et al.*, 1998; Reynolds, 1998), and partial evaluation (Danvy, 1998; Filinski, 1999; Rhiger, 1999; Rose, 1998). Long  $\beta\eta$ -normal forms were specified, for example, in Huet's thesis (Huet, 1976). The particular characterization we use originates in Pfenning's work on Logical Frameworks, and so does higher-order abstract syntax (Pfenning & Elliott, 1988). We use it further to pair normalization by evaluation and run-time code generation (Balat & Danvy, 1998; Rhiger, 2001). Our typed abstract syntax is akin to Leijen and Meijer's embedding of SQL into Haskell, which introduced phantom types (Leijen & Meijer, 1999). Phantom types provide a typing discipline for otherwise untyped values such as pointers in a foreign language interface (Finne *et al.*, 1999).

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