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Evaluation order (more in Chapters 6 and 9)

Applicative order

- what you're used to in imperative languages
- evaluate all arguments before passing to function
- usually faster

Normal order

- don't evaluate arg until you need it
- sometimes faster -- more overhead to remember **how** to compute things, but avoid computing if you never need them
- terminates if anything will (Church-Rosser theorem)
- in naive form, can require re-evaluating something multiple times

Lazy evaluation gives the best of both worlds, so long as you stay purely functional: it evaluates only when it has to, but remembers the value so it doesn't compute it more than once. The implementation is said to use **memoization** (as in, it creates a memo) Can give unexpected answers in the presence of side effects.

A **strict** language requires all arguments to be well-defined, so applicative order can be used.

A **non-strict** language does not require all arguments to be well-defined; it requires normal-order or lazy evaluation.

Lisp and ML are strict by default. Haskell is non-strict by default (you can ask for eager evaluation when you want it).

So in OCaml the following will result in a `Division_by_zero` exception:

```
let choose c t e =
  if c then t else e in
  choose (3 < 4) 5 (6 / 0);;
```

But in Haskell the following evaluates just fine:

```
choose c t e =
  if c then t else e      -- declaration of choose
choose (3 < 4) 5 (6 / 0)  => 5
```

Note that in both languages `if (3 < 4) then 5 else (6 / 0)` evaluates to 5. That's because `if..then..else` is a **special form**, built into the language, whose arguments are lazily evaluated.

In a similar vein, the following evaluate without error in both OCaml and Haskell—neither throws an exception in either language:

```
(3 < 4) or ((6 / 0) > 5)      => true
(3 > 4) and ((6 / 0) > 5)    => false
```

We talk more about lazy evaluation in Chapter 6.

In a language like OCaml you can build lazy evaluation for contexts in which it isn't otherwise provided using higher-order functions—in this case, functions embedded in data structures:

```
type 'a stream =
  Cons of 'a * (unit -> 'a stream);;
let hd : 'a stream -> 'a = function Cons(h, _) -> h;;
let tl : 'a stream -> 'a stream =
  function Cons(_, t) -> t ();;
```

We can use this machinery to create an "infinite list" of, say, the squares of the natural numbers:

```
let squares =
  let rec next n = Cons (n*n, fun () -> next (n+1)) in
  next 1;;

let rec nth n s =
  if n = 1 then hd s
  else nth (n-1) (tl s);;

let rec take n s =
  if n = 0 then []
  else (hd s) :: take (n-1) (tl s);;

hd squares;;           => 1
hd (tl squares);;      => 4
hd (tl (tl squares));; => 9
nth 5 squares;;        => 25
take 5 squares;;       => [1; 4; 9; 16; 25]
```

Unfortunately, if we evaluate `"nth 123 squares"` multiple times, we'll compute the whole list multiple times. Wouldn't it be nice to **remember** the computed part of the list, and keep it around? There's a standard library called `Lazy` that does this for you.

```
let a = lazy (expensive_function x);;
let b = if unlikely_condition then Lazy.force a else 0;;
or
let b = match unlikely_condition, a with
| true, lazy v -> v
| _ -> 0;;
```

The second version incorporates a **lazy pattern match**. It will happen only if `unlikely_condition` evaluates to true.

Lazy works by creating functions that compute the values you want, but only when called. The `'lazy'` keyword creates the function; `'force'` calls it (and remembers the result for future reference).

Here's a re-write of the stream type:

```
type 'a stream =
  Cons of 'a * 'a stream Lazy.t;;
let hd : 'a stream -> 'a = function Cons(h, _) -> h;;
let tl : 'a stream -> 'a stream =
  function Cons(_, t) -> Lazy.force t;;

let squares =
  let rec next n =
    Cons (n*n, lazy (next (n+1))) in next 1;;

(* nth and take as before *)
```

Because of memoization, the list will actually be fleshed out in memory, and kept, as needed. If computing the next value was much more expensive than adding 1 each time, we'd only compute each explored value once.