

# Lecture 21 — More higher-order functions

- In preparation for MP 11, we will look at more uses of higher-order functions, especially for “combinator-style programming.”
- Today we will:
  - Finish discussion of compilation of functional languages
  - Discuss using higher-order functions to write parsers
  - Discuss MP 11

# Environment model evaluation rules

(Const) Const  $c$ ,  $\rho \Downarrow$  Const  $c$

(Var)  $a$ ,  $\rho \Downarrow \rho(a)$

(Fun) Fun( $a, e$ ),  $\rho \Downarrow \langle \text{Fun}(a, e), \rho \rangle$

(Rec) Rec( $f, e$ ),  $\rho \Downarrow \langle \text{Rec}(f, e), \rho \rangle$

( $\delta$ )  $e \text{ op } e'$ ,  $\rho \Downarrow v \text{ OP } v'$

$e, \rho \Downarrow v$

$e', \rho \Downarrow v'$

( $\delta$ )  $\text{op } e$ ,  $\rho \Downarrow \text{OP } v$

$e, \rho \Downarrow v$

(If) If( $e_1, e_2, e_3$ ),  $\rho \Downarrow v$

$e_1, \rho \Downarrow \text{True}$

$e_2, \rho \Downarrow v$

(If) If( $e_1, e_2, e_3$ ),  $\rho \Downarrow v$

$e_1, \rho \Downarrow \text{False}$

$e_3, \rho \Downarrow v$

(List) [ $e_1, \dots, e_n$ ],  $\rho \Downarrow [v_1, \dots, v_n]$

$e_1, \rho \Downarrow v_1$

$\vdots$

$e_n, \rho \Downarrow v_n$

(Let) Let( $a, e, e'$ ),  $\rho \Downarrow v'$

$e, \rho \Downarrow v$

$e', \rho[a \mapsto v] \Downarrow v'$

(App)  $e \ e'$ ,  $\rho \Downarrow v$

$e, \rho \Downarrow \langle \text{Fun}(a, e''), \rho' \rangle$

$e', \rho \Downarrow v'$

$e'', \rho'[a \mapsto v'] \Downarrow v$

(App)  $e \ e'$ ,  $\rho \Downarrow v''$

$e, \rho \Downarrow v$ ,

where  $v = \langle \text{Rec}(f, \text{Fun}(a, e'')), \rho' \rangle$

$e', \rho \Downarrow v'$

$e'', \rho'[a \mapsto v', f \mapsto v] \Downarrow v''$

# Compilation of MiniOCaml

- **Compilation of functional languages starts from environment model.**
- **Need to discuss:**
  - **Representation of environments and closures, and variable look-up**
  - **Run-time structures (stack and heap)**
  - **Compilation rules, esp. for application and abstraction**

# Representation of environments

- Suppose we represent environments by `(string * value) list`. App rule becomes:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{(App)} \quad e \ e', \rho \Downarrow v \\ \quad \quad \quad e, \rho \Downarrow \langle \text{Fun}(a, e''), \rho' \rangle \\ \quad \quad \quad e', \rho \Downarrow v' \\ \quad \quad \quad e'', (a, v') :: \rho' \Downarrow v \end{array}$$

and the variable rule does a recursive list look-up.

- Crucial question: Given a variable reference, can we determine *at compile time* where in the list it will occur?

# Representation of environments (cont.)

- For any variable reference, crucial number is *the number of declarations (let or fun) intervening between the reference and the variable's declaration.*
- We will assume that the type-checking phase of the compiler has marked every variable reference with this number. E.g.

```
fun x -> let f = fun y -> x + (let y = y+1 in x+y))  
  
in f x
```

# Representation of environments (cont.)

- Represent environment by linked list of values — names are not needed.
- An expression is executed in a “current” environment. Suppose register `%env` points to the head of the current environment. Rule for variable reference:

(Var)  $a_k \rightsquigarrow$  [MOV `%tmp,%env`; LOADIND `%tmp,4(%tmp)`;...(*k times*)...]

- Now, we just have to make sure current environment is correctly formed; happens in abstraction and application rules (and `let` and `letrec`).

# Runtime state

- For concreteness, assume this state layout (all subject to change for real implementation, of course):
  - Stack consists of frames having exactly two addresses:
    - Return address — pointer into code of calling function
    - Calling function's environment
  - Register `%env` points to head of current environment. Register `%ret` used for return values
  - Environments are linked lists of primitive values and pointers to “heap values” — lists, tuples, closures
  - Closures are heap-allocated pairs, containing pointer to code and pointer to environment

# Compilation

- Will give compilation rules only informally.
- Compilation rules correspond closely to rules of environment model.
- Compilation rules for abstraction and application are same for static and dynamic typing. (Only rules for primitive operations change.)
- Compilation rules for other stuff — built-in operations, if — are normal, e.g.

**(Var)**  $e_1 + e_2, \text{loc} \rightsquigarrow \text{il1} @ \text{il2} @ [\text{ADD } \text{loc}, \text{loc1}, \text{loc2}]$   
 $e_1, \text{loc1} \rightsquigarrow \text{il1}$   
 $e_2, \text{loc2} \rightsquigarrow \text{il2}$



# Compiling abstractions

- An abstraction does not involve any real computation — just creates a closure. However, the *body* of the abstraction must be compiled a little differently from an ordinary expression; it has to include code for function return at the end.
- In  $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e$ ,  $e$  should be compiled like this, somewhere in memory:

(Function body)  $e$  as function body  $\rightsquigarrow$  il @ [move loc into %ret,  
then return from function (restore env. pointer and get return address  
from stack frame; pop stack; jump to return address)]  
 $e, \text{loc} \rightsquigarrow \text{il}$

- Suppose this code is at location  $m_f$ . The abstraction itself is compiled like this:

(Fun)  $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e, \text{loc} \rightsquigarrow$  [loc = allocate closure in heap; move  $m_f, \%env$  into closure]

# Compiling applications

- Argument must evaluate to a (pointer to a) closure; application is where environments are built.

(App)  $e1\ e2, loc \rightsquigarrow il1\ @\ il2\ @\ [function\ pointer\ m_f = loc1[0],\ environment\ pointer\ ep = loc1[1];\ create\ new\ environment\ ep'\ by\ cons'ing\ loc2\ to\ ep;\ push\ new\ stack\ frame,\ storing\ m_{ret}\ and\ \%env;\ \%env = ep';\ JUMP\ m_f]$   
 $e1, loc1 \rightsquigarrow il1$   
 $e2, loc2 \rightsquigarrow il2$

where  $m_{ret}$  is address of the next instruction after this code.

# Combinator-style programming

- Can write complex programs by defining a library of higher-order functions and applying them to one another (and to built-in functions). These functions are called *combinators* (technically just a term for a closed expression).
- Makes it easy to create functions within the domain for which the combinators is designed.
- Is associated with notion of “domain-specific languages,” especially when the functions are defines as infix operators; result “looks like” a language for the specific domain.

# Parser combinators

- A *parser* is a function of type `token list → (token list) option`. (Recall type  $\alpha$  option = `Some  $\alpha$  | None`.)
- Idea is to define functions that build parsers, rather than building parsers “by hand.”
- E.g. Parser to recognize a single token:

```
let token s = fun cl -> if cl=[] then None
                        else if s=hd cl then Some (tl cl)
                        else None;;
```

```
let parsex = token x;;
parsex [x];;
parsex [a];;
```

# Parser combinators (cont.)

- **Parser combinators combine parsers to make more complicated parsers:**

```
let (++) p q = fun cl -> match p cl with None -> None
                                     | Some cl' -> q cl';;
```

```
let parsexy = token x ++ token y
parsexy [x, y]
parsexy [x, z]
```

- **(Note use of infix operator.)**

# Parser combinators (cont.)

```
let (||) p q = fun cl -> match p cl with None -> q cl
                               | Some cl' -> Some cl';;

let parsexyorz = parsexy || token z
parsexyorz[x, y]
parsexyorz [z]
```

# Parser combinators (cont.)

- Put this together to define parser for grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow aB \mid b \\ B &\rightarrow cB \mid A \end{aligned}$$

```
let rec parseA cl = ((token 'a' ++ parseB) || token 'b') cl
    and parseB cl = ((token 'c' ++ parseB) || parseA) cl;;
```

```
parseA ['a'; 'c'; 'c'; 'a'; 'b']
```

# Why parser combinators?

- Advantages of this approach:

- Convenience:

```
let epsilon : parser = fun toklis -> toklis
let rec kstar (p:parser) : parser
    = fun toklis -> (p ++ (kstar p)) toklis || epsilon
alist = kstar (token 'a')
```

- Can write entirely different parsers:

```
let handle_includes (p:parser) : parser
    = fun toklis ->
        if hd toklis = "#include"
        then let new_toks
            = lex (readfile (hd (tl toklis)))
        in p (new_toks @ tl (tl toklis))
        else p toklis
```



# MP 11

- You will get practice with higher-order functions by filling in code in a combinator-based picture-drawing system.
- In this combinator library, the following definitions are key:

```
type point = float * float
```

```
type transformation = point -> point
```

```
type draw_cmd = Pixel of point  
              | Line of point * point  
              | Oval of point * point * point
```

```
type picture = transformation -> draw_cmd list
```

# Wrap-up

- Today we discussed a specific example of the use of higher-order functions, a “combinator library” for parsing.
- We did this for more practice with higher-order functions.
- What to do now:
  - MP11