

CS 421 Lecture 17: More Functional Programming

- Announcements
- Lecture outline
 - Using `fold_right` and `fold_left`
 - Expression evaluation
 - Substitution model
 - Scope of definitions
 - “Simple” examples
 - Combinator programming

Announcements

- 4-unit grad students:
 - Project proposal due today

Review: fold_right

```
fold_right f [x1;x2;...xn] z
  = f x1 (f x2 (...(f xn z)...))
fold_right : (α→β→β)→(α list)→β→β
```

- Use fold_right to remove all negative elements from a list:

```
fold_right _____ lis _____
```

Review: fold_left

```
fold_left f z [x1;x2;...xn]  
  = f(... (f (f z x1) x2)...) xn  
fold_left : (α→β→α)→α→(β list)→ α
```

- Use fold_left to compute the length of lis

```
fold_left _____ lis
```

- Use fold_left to compute map f lis

```
fold_left _____ lis
```

Review: defining higher-order functions

```
let rec fold_right f lis z =  
  if lis = [] then z  
  else f (hd lis)  
        (fold_right f (tl lis) z)
```

- **Define fold_left:**

```
let rec fold_left f z lis =
```

Evaluation of expressions

- Problem: “free” variables in function definitions
- Two models: substitution and environment/closure
- Substitution:
 - Replace free variable with its value
- Closure:
 - Put free variables in an “environment” data structure
 - $(\text{expr}, \text{env}) = \text{closure}$

Evaluation of expressions

- Using substitution model – in function calls, substitute actual parameter for formal parameter in body of function.
 - No expressions with free variables evaluated
 - Expressions: constants, function definitions (fun x -> e), application of built-in functions, if, application of user-defined functions
 - let expressions syntactic sugar for function application; top-level definitions implicitly in let
 - Tomorrow: handling recursive functions

Evaluation of expressions

- Evaluate expression without free variables:
 - Constant n (int, bool, string, list, ..) $\Rightarrow n$
 - Abstraction $\text{fun } x \rightarrow e \Rightarrow$
 - Application of built-in operator: $e1 + e2 \Rightarrow$
 - $\text{if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3 \Rightarrow$

Example of evaluation

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x+y) 1 2
```

Example of evaluation

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x y) (fun y -> y 4) (fun z -> z+1)
```

Free variables

- In rule for applications, substitute v for *free occurrences* of x in e' . Need to define “free occurrence.”
- Def. Free occurrences of x in e are those marked with an overbar after applying `free` to x and e :

```
free x e = match e with
  n ->
| x ->
| y ->
| e1+e2 ->
| (fun x -> e') ->

| (fun y -> e') ->
```

Example of free occurrences

```
(fun x -> fun y -> x y) (fun y -> y 4) (fun z -> z+1)
```

Scope rules

- Programs introduce names via “declarations”, then refer to those names in “uses.” A given name can be introduced in more than one declaration, but every use corresponds to a particular declaration. The question is: which one?
- The *scope* of a declaration of a name x is the parts of the program in which a use of x refers to this declaration
- A use of a name is *in the scope of a declaration* if that use is in the scope of that declaration
- N.B. the scope of a declaration can have holes, where the declaration is covered up by another declaration of the same name.

Example: Scope rules in Java

```
class C {  
    int y  
    void f (x) { ... x ... f ... y ... g ... }  
    void g () { ... }  
}
```

```
class D extends C {  
    int z  
    void f (x) { ... x ... f ... y ... g ... }  
}
```

- Static vs. dynamic scope

Example: Scope rules in OCaml

- ```
let x = 2
in let f = fun x -> x+x
 in f x
```
- ```
let x = 2
in let y = x
    in let f z = let x=3 in y+z
        in f x
```
- ```
let x = 2
in let add = fun x -> fun y -> x+y
 in let addx = add x
 in let x = 3 in addx 1
```
- **Only static scope**



# Scope rules in OCaml

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- Scope rules are implied by expression evaluation rules.
- Declarations are just function definitions `fun x -> e`
- Scope of this declaration of `x` is exactly the free occurrences of `x` in `e`.
  - (Put differently, a use of a variable `x` is in the scope of the closest enclosing function definition for which `x` is the formal parameter.)
- **This is called *static scope*, or *lexical scope*, because the declaration corresponding to any use is known statically (before run time).**

# The scope rule of LISP

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- In Lisp, the declaration associated with a use of a variable  $x$  is determined as follows: at run-time, the most recent function application that has  $x$  as formal parameter (and which is still on the stack) gives the declaration of  $x$ .
- LISP vs. OCaml:

```
let h f = let x = 3 in f x
let f x = let g y = x + y in h g
f 5 => ?
```

# “Simple” examples – currying

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- Can define a two-argument function in two ways:

- Uncurried:

```
let f x y = ... x ... y ...
```

```
let f = fun x y -> ... x ... y ...
```

```
let f = fun x -> fun y -> ... x ... y ...
```

- Curried:

```
let f (x,y) = ... x ... y ...
```

```
let f = fun (x,y) -> ... x ... y ...
```

```
let f = fun p -> ... (fst p) ... (snd p)
```

- Sometimes want to use the “same” function both ways.

# “Simple” examples – currying

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- Can use higher-order function to turn curried function to uncurried form, and vice versa:

```
let curry f = fun x -> fun y -> f(x,y)
curry : ($\alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma$) -> ($\alpha * \beta \rightarrow \gamma$)
```

```
let uncurry g = fun (x,y) -> g x y
uncurry : ($\alpha * \beta \rightarrow \gamma$) -> ($\alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma$)
```

```
f \equiv uncurry (curry f)
```

# “Simple” examples – reversing arguments

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- Given  $f: \alpha \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow \gamma$ , produce  $f_R: \beta \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ , s.t.:

$$f_R \ x \ y = f \ y \ x$$

let reverse f =

reverse (-) 3 4 = ?

# “Simple” examples – applying function twice

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- **Given**  $f: \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ , **produce**  $ff: \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha$ , **s.t.:**

`ff x = f (f x)`

`let double f =`

`(double incr) 5 = ?`

# Combinator-style programming

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- Can write complex programs by defining a library of higher-order functions and applying them to one another (and to first-order or built-in functions).
- Advantage: ease of creating programs – programs are just expressions
- Example: build a parser by writing “parser combinators.”

# Parser combinators

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- Define a parser to be a function from token list -> (token list) option.
- 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

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- “Combinators” to combine parsers into larger 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']
```

```
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

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- Put this together to define parser for grammar:
  - $A \rightarrow aB \mid b$
  - $B \rightarrow cB \mid A$

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

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