CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Closures (Implementing Higher Order Functions)

Returning Functions as Results

- In OCaml you can pass functions as arguments
 - to map, fold, etc.
- and you can return functions as results

let pick_fn n =
 let plus_three x = x + 3 in
 let plus_four x = x + 4 in
 if n > 0 then plus_three else plus_four
val pick_fn : int -> (int->int) = <fun>

Here, pick_fn takes an int argument, and
 returns a function
 # let g = pick_fn 2;;
 val g : int -> int = <fun>
 # g 4;; (* evaluates to 7 *)

Multi-argument Functions

Consider a rewriting of the prior code (above)

```
let pick_fn n =
   if n > 0 then (fun x \rightarrow x+3) else (fun x \rightarrow x+4)
```

Here's another version

```
let pick_fn n =
  (fun x -> if n > 0 then x+3 else x+4)
```

... the shorthand for which is just

```
let pick_fn n x =
   if n > 0 then x+3 else x+4
```

I.e., a multi-argument function!

Currying

- We just saw a way for a function to take multiple arguments!
 - I.e., no separate concept of multi-argument functions can encode one as a function that takes a single argument and returns a function that takes the rest
- This encoding is called currying the function
 - Named after the logician Haskell B. Curry
 - But Schönfinkel and Frege discovered it
 - > So maybe it should be called Schönfinkelizing or Fregging

Curried Functions In OCaml

OCaml syntax defaults to currying. E.g.,

let add x y = x + y

• is identical to all of the following:

let add = (fun x -> (fun y -> x + y))
let add = (fun x y -> x + y)
let add x = (fun y -> x+y)

Thus:

- add has type int -> (int -> int)
- add 3 has type int -> int

> add 3 is a function that adds 3 to its argument

- (add 3) 4 = 7
- This works for any number of arguments

Syntax Conventions for Currying

- Because currying is so common, OCaml uses the following conventions:
 - -> associates from the right
 - > Thus int -> int -> int is the same as
 - > int -> (int -> int)
 - function application associates from the left
 - > Thus add 3 4 is the same as
 - > (add 3) 4

Quiz 1: Which f definition is equivalent?

let f a b = a
$$/$$
 b;;

Quiz 1: Which f definition is equivalent?

let f a b = a
$$/$$
 b;;

A. let f b = fun a -> a / b;; B. let f = fun a | b -> a / b;; C. let f (a, b) = a / b;; D. let f = fun a -> (fun b -> a / b);;

Quiz 2: What is enabled by currying?

- A. Passing functions as arguments
- B. Passing only a portion of the expected arguments
- C. Naming arguments
- D. Recursive functions

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Multiple Arguments, Partial Application

- Another way you could encode support for multiple arguments is using tuples
 - let f (a,b) = a / b (* int*int -> int *)
 - let f a b = a / b (* int-> int-> int *)
- Is there a benefit to using currying instead?
 - Supports partial application useful when you want to provide some arguments now, the rest later
 - let add a b = a + b;;
 - let addthree = add 3;;
 - addthree 4;; (* evaluates to 7 *)

Currying is Standard In OCaml

- Pretty much all functions are curried
 - Like the standard library map, fold, etc.
 - See /usr/local/ocaml/lib/ocaml on Grace
 - > In particular, look at the file list.ml for standard list functions
 - > Access these functions using List.<fn name>
 - > E.g., List.hd, List.length, List.map
- OCaml works hard to make currying efficient
 - Because otherwise it would do a lot of useless allocation and destruction of closures
 - What are those, you ask? Let's see ...

Closure

Java Example

```
public class Test{
         public void doSomething(){
                  int a = 10; //must be final
                  Runnable runnable = new Runnable(){ _____ Needed later,
                      public void run(){
                                                                 makes copy of a
                                 int b = a^{-} + 1;
                                 System.out.println(b);
                       }
                  };
                  (new Thread(runnable)).start(); //runs later
                  //a = 100; //not allowed
         }
         public static void main(String[] args){
                  Test t = new Test();
                  t.doSomething();
}// a=10 is removed from the stack here
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```

OCaml Example

```
let foo x =
   let bar y = x + y in
bar
;;
```

Another Example

```
let x = 1 in
let f = fun y \rightarrow x in
let x = 2 in
f 0
```

What does this expression should evaluate to?

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let x = 1 in
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What does this expression should evaluate to?

Scope

Dynamic scope

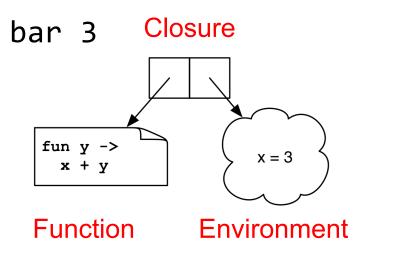
• The body of a function is evaluated in the current dynamic environment at the time the function is **called**, not the old dynamic environment that existed at the time the function was defined.

Lexical scope

• The body of a function is evaluated in the old dynamic environment that existed at the time the function was **defined**, not the current environment when the function is called.

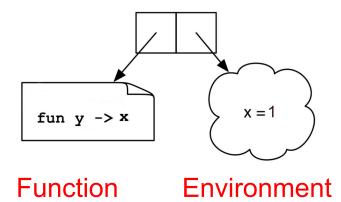
Closure

let foo x =
 let bar y = x + y in
bar ;;



```
let x = 1 in
let f = fun y -> x in
let x = 2 in
f 0
```



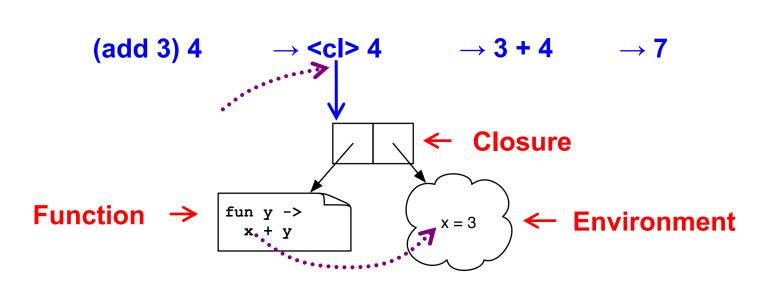


Closures Implement Static Scoping

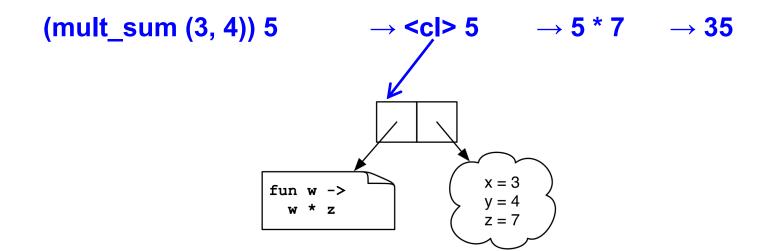
- An environment is a mapping from variable names to values
 - Just like a stack frame
- A closure is a pair (f, e) consisting of function code f and an environment e
- When you invoke a closure, f is evaluated using e to look up variable bindings

Example – Closure 1

let add $x = (fun y \rightarrow x + y)$



Example – Closure 2



Quiz 3: What is x?

.

A. 10

- B.1
- C.15

D. Error - variable name conflicts

Quiz 3: What is x?

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A. 10

- B.1
- C.15

D. Error - variable name conflicts

Quiz 4: What is z?

A. 7

- B. -2
- C. -1

D. Type Error – insufficient arguments

Quiz 4: What is z?

- **A**. 7
- B. -2
- C. -1

D. Type Error – insufficient arguments

Quiz 5: What does this evaluate to?

let f x = x+1 in
let g = f in
g (fun i
$$\rightarrow$$
 i+1) 1

- A. Type Error
- B.1
- C.2
- D. 3

Quiz 5: What does this evaluate to?

- **A. Type Error** Too many arguments passed to g (application is *left associative*)
- B. 1
- C.2

D. 3

Higher-Order Functions in C

C supports function pointers

```
typedef int (*int func)(int);
void app(int func f, int *a, int n) {
  for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
    a[i] = f(a[i]);
int add one(int x) { return x + 1; }
int main() {
  int a[] = \{5, 6, 7\};
  app(add one, a, 3);
```

Higher-Order Functions in C (cont.)

- C does not support closures
 - Since no nested functions allowed
 - Unbound symbols always in global scope

```
int y = 1;
void app(int(*f)(int), n) {
  return f(n);
}
int add_y(int x) {
  return x + y;
}
int main() {
  app(add_y, 2);
}
```

Higher-Order Functions in C (cont.)

- Cannot access non-local variables in C
- OCaml code

let add x y = x + y

Equivalent code in C is illegal

```
int (* add(int x))(int) {
   return add_y;
}
int add_y(int y) {
   return x + y; /* error: x undefined */
}
```

Higher-Order Functions in C (cont.)

OCaml code

let add x y = x + y

- Works if C supports nested functions
 - Not in ISO C, but in gcc; but not allowed to return them

```
int (* add(int x))(int) {
    int add_y(int y) {
        return x + y;
    }
    return add_y; }
```

 Does not allocate closure, so x popped from stack and add_y will get garbage (potentially) when called

Java 8 Supports Lambda Expressions

Ocaml's

```
fun (a, b) \rightarrow a + b
```

Is like the following in Java 8

(a, b) -> a + b

Java 8 supports closures, and variations on this syntax

Java 8 Example

```
public class Calculator {
  interface IntegerMath { int operation(int a, int b); }
  public int operateBinary(int a, int b, IntegerMath op) {
     return op.operation(a, b);
  public static void main(String... args) {
     Calculator myApp = new Calculator();
     IntegerMath addition = (a, b) \rightarrow a + b;
     IntegerMath subtraction = (a, b) \rightarrow a - b;
     System.out.println("40 + 2 = " + 
       myApp.operateBinary(40, 2, addition));
     System.out.println("20 - 10 = " + 
       myApp.operateBinary(20, 10, subtraction));
```

