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 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
pick_fn : int -> (int->int)
```

Here, pick_fn takes an int argument, and returns a function

Multi-argument Functions

Consider a rewriting of the previous code

```
let pick_fn n =

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

Here's another version

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

which is just shorthand for

Currying

- We just saw a way for a function to take multiple arguments!
 - The function consumes one argument and returns a function that takes the rest
- This is called currying the function
 - Named after the logician Haskell B. Curry
 - But Schönfinkel and Frege discovered it
 - > So it should probably 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 to the right

```
> Thus int -> int -> int is the same as
```

```
> int -> (int -> int)
```

- function application associates to the left
 - > Thus add 3 4 is the same as
 - > (add 3) 4

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 ...

Quiz 1: What is enabled by currying?

- A. Passing functions as arguments
- B. Passing only a portion of the expected arguments
- C. Naming arguments
- D. Converting easily between tuples and multiple arguments

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Quiz 2: 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: 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));;
```

How Do We Implement Currying?

Implementing currying is tricky. Consider:

```
let addN n l =
  let add x = n + x in
  map add 1
```

• (Equivalent to...)

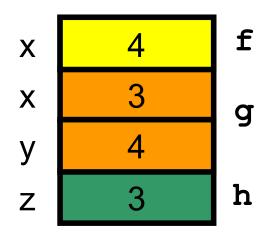
Accessing variable from outer scope

```
let addN n =
(fun 1 -> map (fun x -> n + x) 1)
```

- When the anonymous function is called by map, n may not be on the stack any more!
 - > We need some way to keep n around after addN returns

The Call Stack in C/Java/etc.

```
void f(void) {
 int x;
  x = g(3);
int g(int x) {
  int y;
  y = h(x);
  return y;
int h (int z) {
  return z + 1;
int main(){
  f();
  return 0;
```

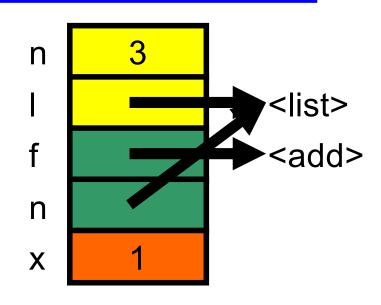


Now Consider Returning Functions

```
let map f n = match n with
  [] -> []
| (h::t) -> (f h)::(map f t)

let addN n l =
  let add x = n + x in
  map add l
```

addN 3 [1; 2; 3]



- Uh oh...how does add know the value of n?
 - OCaml does not read it off the stack
 - > The language could do this, but can be confusing (see above)
 - OCaml uses static scoping like C, C++, Java, and Ruby

Static Scoping (aka Lexical Scoping)

- In static or lexical scoping, (nonlocal) names refer to their nearest binding in the program text
 - Going from inner to outer scope
 - In our example, add refers to addN's n
 - C example:

Refers to the **x** at file scope – that's the nearest **x** going from inner scope to outer scope in the source code

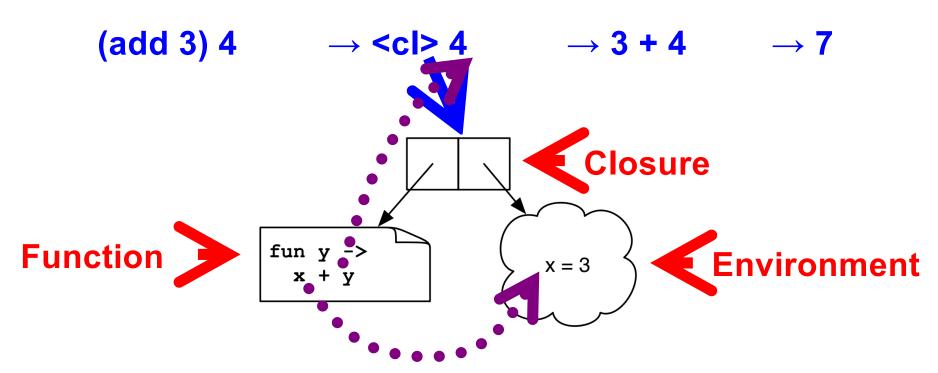
```
int x;
void f() { x = 3; }
void g() { char *x = "hello"; f(); }
```

Closures Implement Static Scoping

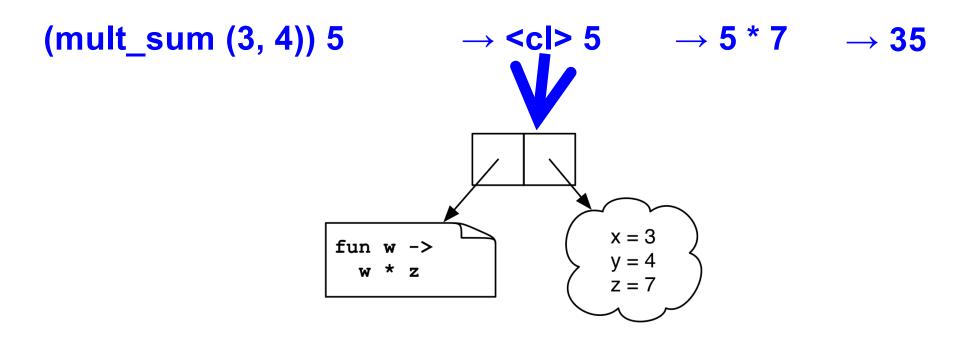
- An environment is a mapping from variable names to values
 - Just like a stack frame
- A closure is a pair (f, e) consisting of function code f and an environment e

When you invoke a closure, f is evaluated using
 e to look up variable bindings

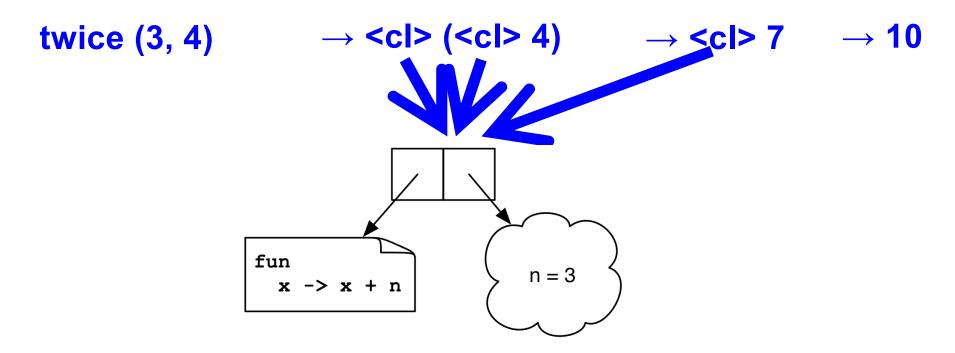
let add
$$x = (fun y \rightarrow x + y)$$



```
let mult_sum (x, y) =
  let z = x + y in
  fun w -> w * z
```



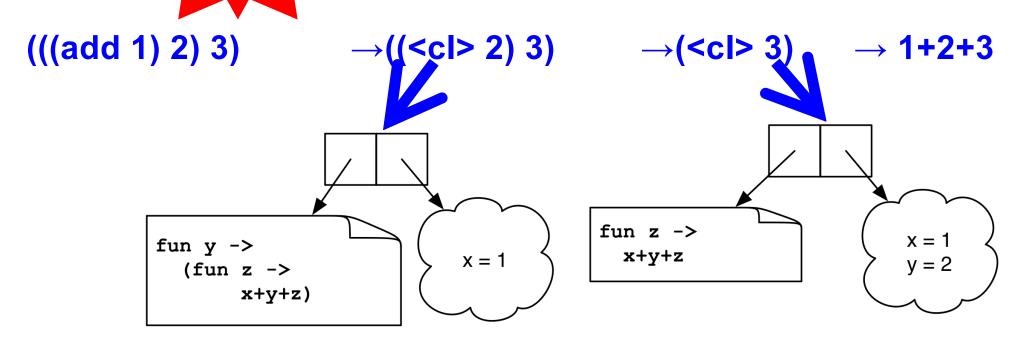
```
let twice (n, y) =
  let f x = x + n in
  f (f y)
```



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

add() took 3 arguments? The compiler

figures this out and avoids making closures



Quiz 3: What is x?

```
let a = 1;;
let a = 0;;
let b = 10;;
let f () = a + b;;
let b = 5;;
let x = f ();;
```

- A. 10
- B. 1
- C. 15
- D. Error variable name conflicts

Quiz 3: What is x?

```
let a = 1;;
let a = 0;;
let b = 10;;
let f () = a + b;;
let b = 5;;
let x = f ();;
```

- A. 10
- B. 1
- C. 15
- D. Error variable name conflicts

Quiz 4: What is z?

```
let f x = fun y -> x - y in
let g = f 2 in
let x = 3 in
let z = g 4 in
z;;
```

- A. 7
- B. -2
- C.-1
- D. Type Error insufficient arguments

Quiz 4: What is z?

```
let f x = fun y -> x - y in
let g = f 2 in
let x = 3 in
let z = g 4 in
z;;
```

- A. 7
- B. -2
- C.-1
- D. Type Error insufficient arguments

Quiz 5: What is z?

```
let f x =
  let rec g y =
    if y = 0 then x
    else g (y-1) in
  (fun z -> g z) in
let z = f 2 0 in
z;;
```

```
A. Type Error
```

B. 0

C. Infinite loop

D. 2

Quiz 5: What is z?

```
let f x =
  let rec g y =
    if y = 0 then x
    else g (y-1) in
  (fun z -> g z) in
let z = f 2 0 in
z;;
```

```
A. Type Error
```

B. 0

C. Infinite loop

D. 2

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;
                                                         Lambda
     IntegerMath subtraction = (a, b) -> a - b;
                                                         expressions
     System.out.println("40 + 2 = " +
       myApp.operateBinary(40, 2, addition));
     System.out.println("20 - 10 = " +
       myApp.operateBinary(20, 10, subtraction));
```