Divergence Improved

Spencer Tipping

August 31, 2010

Contents

I	Usi	ing Divergence	2
1	Introduction		
2	Building Functions		
	2.1	Numbers	4
		2.1.1 Large positive integers	4
		2.1.2 Positive floating-point numbers	6
		2.1.3 Negative integers	6
		2.1.4 Negative floating-point numbers	6
	2.2		6
		2.2.1 Dereferencing	7
		2.2.2 String replacement	7
		2.2.3 Named-argument expressions	7
		2.2.4 Destructuring binds	8
	2.3	Regular Expressions	8
	2.4	Booleans	9
	2.5	Arrays	9
	2.6	Objects	9
3	Tran	nsforming Functions	10
4	Inst	ances	12
	4.1	Return value of new	12
	4.2	Roles	13
II	Ex	ctending Divergence	15

Part I Using Divergence

Introduction

The original Divergence¹ has some shortcomings. For one thing, it puts a bunch of methods into the global prototype namespace (probably its biggest problem). This used to break jQuery, and now breaks jQuery UI's tab and accordion components.² Another problem is that macro definitions are permanent, unstructured, and collision-prone.

This rewrite of Divergence solves both problems. The only object placed into the global namespace is called divergence, and all customization is done to it or a copy of it. Macro definitions are scoped to a particular instance of Divergence; they are not global by default.

¹http://github.com/spencertipping/divergence

²Not that is has to in theory; someone made the assumption that all array methods would be dontEnum, which isn't the case if you add stuff. The workaround is to use hasOwnProperty, or more importantly, not to use for..in on arrays.

Building Functions

Just like the original Divergence, this version is all about building functions. Also just like the old version, it specifies conversions to promote any built-in data type into a function, and lets you use your own data types if they provide . fn() methods.

2.1 Numbers

Numbers are now much more expressive. Just like before, 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 map to the first five positional parameters. However, there are some new cases:

2.1.1 Large positive integers

Integers larger than 4 are converted into hexadecimal and interpreted, where each digit is a command in a stack-based language. The stack's initial contents are the positional parameters, where arguments[0] is at the top and arguments[arguments.length - 1] is at the bottom. Digits are interpreted from left-to-right; so, for example, the number 0xab is interpreted as the command a followed by the command b. The following commands are understood (along with mnemonics in the footnotes):

- 5 Swap the top two stack entries.¹
- 6 Drop the top stack entry.²
- 7 If the next digit is a 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4, then push that digit as a number onto the stack. Otherwise, push the stack depth onto the stack and process the next digit normally.³

^{1&}quot;5" looks kind of like "S", which stands for Swap.

²"6" is a backwards "d", which stands for Drop.

^{3&}quot;7", when rotated 180°, looks like the letter "L", which stands for Literal or Length.

- 8 Duplicate the top stack entry.⁴
- 9 Drop the second entry.⁵
- a Add the two arguments on the top of the stack, and push the result. This also works on strings. If the top of the stack is an array, then push a new array consisting of the stack top concatenated with the second stack element; that is, stack[0].concat([stack[1]]).
- b Subtract stack[1] from stack[0], pop both, and push the result. If either argument is non-numeric, then this operator applies || to the top two stack entries instead; that is, stack[0] || stack[1].
- c Pop twice, multiply, and push. If either argument is non-numeric, then this operator applies && to the top two stack entries instead; that is, stack[0] && stack[1].8
- d Pop twice, divide, and push. Operands are ordered the same way as they are for subtraction. If either argument is non-numeric, then this operator dereferences the stack top by the stack second instead of performing division; that is, stack[0][stack[1]]. If the stack top is undefined or null, then the second argument is dropped silently instead of being used for dereferencing.
- e Negate the top stack entry if it's a number. If it's not a number, then apply logical negation.¹⁰
- f Invoke the top stack entry on the next one, and return the result. If the top of the stack isn't a function, then the current d() (that is, the one being used to convert this number to a function in the first place) is used to convert the stack top to a function first.¹¹

The digits 0-4 push those positional parameters onto the top of the stack. For example, 0 pushes arguments[0], 1 pushes arguments[1], etc. Here are some examples:

```
Listing 2.1 examples/large-integer-functions.js
```

```
1 d(0xa) // => function (x, y) {return x + y} (if numeric)

2 d(0xa) // => function (x, y) {return x.concat([y])} (if x is an array)

3 d(0xb) // => function (x, y) {return x - y} (if numeric)
```

 $^{^{4}}$ "8" looks like two "0"s.

⁵"9" is "6" upside-down, and 6 drops the top entry.

^{6&}quot;a" stands for Add or Append.

 $^{^7}$ "b" stands for suBtract.

^{8&}quot;c" stands for Combine, which in regular algebra is generally multiply, and multiplication translates to and in Boolean algebra.

⁹"d" stands for Divide or Dereference.

¹⁰"e" stands for nEgate.

¹¹"f" stands for Function, obviously.

```
// \Rightarrow function (x, y) {return x || y}
   d(0xb)
                                                                          (if non-numeric)
   d(0xc)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y) {return x * y}
                                                                          (if numeric)
   d(0xc)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y) {return x && y}
                                                                          (if non-numeric)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y) {return x / y}
   d(0xd)
                                                                          (if numeric)
   d(0xd)
                     // => function (x, y) {return x[y]}
                                                                          (if x is non-numeric)
   d(0x8a)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x)
                                                                          (if numeric)
                                              \{\text{return } x + x\}
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y) {return x + x + y}
                                                                          (if numeric)
   d(0x8aa)
  d(0x65b)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y, z) {return z - y}
                                                                          (if numeric)
13
  d(0x95b)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y, z) {return z - x}
                                                                          (if numeric)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y, z) {return x[y][z]}
   d(0xdd)
                                                                          (if non-numeric)
   d(0xdd)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x, y, z) {return (x / y) / z} (if numeric)
   d(0x88cc)
                     // => function (x) {return x * x * x}
                                                                          (if numeric)
                     // => function (x) {return !!x}
   d(0xee)
                                                                          (if non-numeric)
20 d(0x7a)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x) {return x + 1}
                                                                          (if numeric)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x) {return x + 4}
  d(0x74a)
                                                                          (if numeric)
  d(0x748cc)
                     // \Rightarrow function (x) {return x * 16}
                                                                          (if numeric)
                     // \Rightarrow function (f, x, y) {return f(y)(x)}
   d(0x25f15f)
   d(0x7)
                     // => function () {return arguments.length}
```

To be portable, you should use at most seven hex digits. Some browsers have integer math that can change the sign if the 32-bit is set.

2.1.2 Positive floating-point numbers

TBD

2.1.3 Negative integers

TBD

2.1.4 Negative floating-point numbers

TBD

2.2 Strings

Strings delegate to domain-specific language parsers, and this delegation is managed entirely by the first character of the string. Divergence includes a few such languages built-in, and others can be defined later on. Here are the ones Divergence comes with:

2.2.1 Dereferencing

If a string begins with a dot, then it is treated as a monadic dereferencer. It will not fail if it hits a null reference; it simply stops dereferencing at that point. So, for example:

```
Listing 2.2 examples/dereferencing-functions.js

1 d('.foo.bar')({foo: {bar: 5}}) // => 5

2 d('.foo.bar')({foo: {bif: 5}}) // => undefined

3 d('.foo.bar')({bif: {baz: 5}}) // => undefined
```

2.2.2 String replacement

If a string begins with /, it is treated as a replacement command. All regexps are considered to have the modifier g implicitly; this can be changed by anchoring the regexp to the beginning or end of the string.

```
Listing 2.3 examples/string-replacement-functions.js

d('/foo/bar')('foobar') // => 'barbar'

d('/f(o)o/b$1r')('foobar') // => 'borbar'

// Multiple replacements are also possible:

d('/foo/bar; /bif/baz')('foobif') // => 'barbaz'

// And conditionals:

d('/foo/bar && /bif/baz')('foobif') // => 'barbaz'

d('/foo/bar && /bif/baz')('foobif') // => 'forbif'

d('/foo/bar || /bif/baz')('foobif') // => 'barbif'
```

2.2.3 Named-argument expressions

If a string begins with |, then it is parsed as a named-argument function. For example:

A couple of macros are available for brevity. One expands expressions of the form @foo, where foo is some identifier, into this.foo. (Using @ without a following identifier expands into this.) The other provides shortcuts for call and apply: the operator #c expands to .call, and the operator #a expands to .apply. For example:

```
Listing 2.5 examples/named-argument-expression-macros.js

d('|foo| foo#c(@, @x)') // => function (foo) {return foo.call(this, this.x)}

d('|x, y| @x = x, @y = y') // => function (x, y) {return this.x = x, this.y = y}

d('|f, xs| f#a(f, xs)') // => function (f, xs) {return f.apply (f, xs)}
```

2.2.4 Destructuring binds

Strings beginning with [or { are interpreted as pattern matches with bind variables. For example:

```
Listing 2.6 examples/destructuring-binds.js

1 d('[#x, #y, #z]')([1, 2, 3])
2 // => {x: 1, y: 2, z: 3}

4 d('{x: {y: {foo: #x}}}')({x: {y: {foo: 'bar'}}})
5 // => {x: 'bar'}

6
7 d('[1, 2, {bif: #x}, @#xs]')([1, 2, {bif: 3}, 4, 5])
8 // => {x: 3, xs: [4, 5]}
```

Basically, arrays and objects are both allowed as containers, and # is used to mark a variable. The prefix @# is used to mark a splice variable, which can occur either in array or object context; this picks up the remaining (unmatched) entries. The results are returned in a flat hash mapping variable names to matched values. Any variable called _ will match anything and be ignored; you can use it multiple times, in single or splice context. It's useful for things like indicating that an array has a bunch of useless stuff on the end.

You can also put guards onto destructuring binds. For example:

```
Listing 2.7 examples/destructuring-bind-guards.js

1 d('[#x, #y] | x < y')([1, 2]) // => {x: 1, y: 2}

2 d('[#x, #y] | x < y')([2, 1]) // => false
```

If the match fails either due to structural or constraint problems, false is returned. This has some convenient and inconvenient properties. The nice thing is that you won't get any errors if you ask for bound variables; they'll all just be undefined.¹² However, false will still fail any boolean condition, so you can fall out gracefully. The only bad part is that you can't use the === undefined or === null check.

2.3 Regular Expressions

These are really simple; they just attempt to match against the input and return an array of matches if successful, null otherwise. (This is identical to

 $^{^{12} \}mbox{Unless}$ you've named one of them constructor or something, but don't do that.

the behavior of exec().) There is a twist, though. The returned function is automatically homomorphic across arrays and object values, and if invoked on multiple arguments it concatenates their results. For example:

2.4 Booleans

These are also very simple. true and false become functional decisionals. The exception is when one or more arguments are unspecified. In this case, they default to true and undefined respectively:

2.5 Arrays

Arrays, just like in the original Divergence library, are homomorphic across d. For example:

```
Listing 2.10 examples/arrays.js

d([0x71, '.foo'])({foo: 'bar'}) // => [1, 'bar']

d([0xa, 0xb, 0xc])(2, 3) // => [5, -1, 6]

d([])(1, 2, 3) // => []
```

2.6 Objects

Same thing here. These are homomorphic across d for values, so:

```
Listing 2.11 examples/objects.js

d({foo: 0x71a})(5)  // => {foo: 6}

d({two: 0x8ab, four: 0x74cb})(6, 7) // => {two: 5, four: 17}
```

Transforming Functions

As explained in chapter 2, you can use Divergence to build functions from values. However, that occupies only one parameter; d can accept more. Parameters after the first are used to modify the function being generated. So, for example, consider the following invocation:

The anatomy of this call is that 0x748cc is the initial function (which multiplies its first argument by 16; see section 2.1.1 for details), 'alift' is a nullary transformation that lifts the function to distribute componentwise across arrays, and the following object contains a list of transforms to be applied in arbitrary order. In this case, suchThat is an in-place unit test, ensure is a postcondition, and require is a precondition. The resulting function would look something like this:

```
function (xs) {
  if (! (xs.constructor === Array)) throw new Error (...);
  var result = [];
  for (var i = 0, l = xs.length; i < l; ++i)
    result.push (16 * xs[i]);
  if (! (result.constructor === Array)) throw new Error (...);
  return result;
}

In addition, this code would be run at function-definition time:
// Here, f is the above function</pre>
```

if (! (f([1])[0] === 16)) throw new Error (...);

Obviously a lot has happened to the original function and the intermediate structures. Divergence keeps functions in intermediate format until all of the

 $transformations\ have\ been\ run,\ and\ compiles\ the\ function\ into\ native\ JavaScript\ just\ before\ returning\ it.$

Instances

Unlike before, Divergence isn't just one function. You can create a new instance of Divergence with its own configuration, which can be useful for isolated regions of code that require a particularly common pattern, unit tests, etc. The most common way to do this is to use new:

```
Listing 4.1 examples/instance-new.js
          new divergence (function (d) {
            // Code in here can access d, which is a copy of the global divergence.
             // To create a copy of d:
             new d (function (new_d) {
               // new_d is a copy of d, and will inherit any d-specific customizations
               // specified earlier.
             });
             // Another way to do it:
        10
             d.clone (function (new_d) {
               // This is exactly the same as above, except that its return value is
        11
               // intact.
        13
             });
        14
             // To grab the copy for later:
        15
             var new_d = d.clone();
        17 });
```

4.1 Return value of new

Because new always returns a hash, not a function, using the new divergence(f) constructor won't return either f's return value, nor will it return the new Divergence. Instead, it returns an object containing both. So, for example:

```
Listing 4.2 examples/instance-new-return.js

1 var result = new divergence (function (d) {
2 d.foo = 'bar';
3 return 5;
4 });
5 result.result // => 5
6 result.divergence.foo // => 'bar'
```

If you care about the return value of your function, it's probably easier to use divergence.clone:

```
Listing 4.3 examples/instance-clone-return.js

1 var result = divergence.clone (function (d) {
2 d.foo = 'bar';
3 return 5;
4 });
5 result // => 5
```

In this case there is no way to access the scoped d, though you can return it explicitly if you want to hang on to it.

4.2 Roles

Sometimes you want to keep a set of customizations around for reuse. You can do this by creating a *role*, which is simply a function that modifies a Divergence instance. For example, this role adds an assert method to d:

```
Listing 4.4 examples/instance-role-assert.js

divergence.role.create ('assert', function (d) {
    d.assert = function (what, message) {
    if (! what) throw new Error ('Assertion failed: ' + message);
    return what;
    };
};
d.assert // => undefined
```

Roles are attached to whichever Divergence instance they were created on. You can now use that role:

```
new divergence.using ('assert', function (d) {
    // d is a clone of divergence, but also with 'assert'
    d.assert (true, 'should pass');  // => true
});

divergence.role.use ('assert');  // Not a great idea; see next paragraph divergence.assert (1, 'truthy 1');  // => 1
```

Roles can't be "un-used", so generally the best approach is to add a role to a copy of your divergence function.

Part II Extending Divergence