# 1 Language Primer

## citations for this history are fragmented across the internet

Factor is a rather young language created by Slava Pestov in September of 2003. Its first incarnation targeted the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) as an embedded scripting language for a game. As such, its feature set was minimal. Factor has since evolved into a general-purpose programming language, gaining new features and redesigning old ones as necessary for larger programs. Today's implementation sports an extensive standard library and has moved away from the JVM in favor of native code generation. In this section, we cover the basic syntax and semantics of Factor for those unfamiliar with the language. This should be just enough to understand the later material in this thesis. More thorough documentation can be found via Factor's website, http://factorcode.org.

#### 1.1 Combinators

Quotations, introduced in ??, form the basis of both control flow and data flow in Factor. Not only are they the equivalent of anonymous functions, but the stack model also makes them syntactically lightweight enough to serve as blocks akin to the code between curly braces in C or Java. Higher-order words that make use of quotations on the stack are called *combinators*. It's simple to express familiar conditional logic and loops using combinators, as we'll show in Section 1.1.1. In the presence of explicit data flow via stack operations, even more patterns arise that can be abstracted away. Section 1.1.2 explores how we can use combinators to express otherwise convoluted stack-shuffling logic more succinctly.

## 1.1.1 Control Flow

```
5 even? [ "even" print ] [ "odd" print ] if
{ } empty? [ "empty" print ] [ "full" print ] if

100 [ "isn't f" print ] [ "is f" print ] if
```

Listing 1: Conditional evaluation in Factor

The most primitive form of control flow in typical programming languages is, of course, the if statement, and the same holds true for Factor. The only difference is that Factor's if isn't syntactically significant—it's just another word, albeit implemented as a primitive. For the moment, it will do to think of if as having the stack effect (? true false -- ). The third element from the top of the stack is a condition, and it's followed by two quotations. The first quotation (second element from the top of the stack) is called if the condition is true, and the second quotation (the top of the stack) is called if the condition is false. Specifically, f is a special object in Factor for falsity. It is a singleton object—the sole instance of the f class—and is the only false value in the entire language. Any other object is necessarily boolean true. For a canonical boolean, there is the t object, but its truth value exists only because it is not f. Basic if use is shown in Listing 1.

vref

The first example will print "odd", the second "empty", and the third "isn't f". All of them leave nothing on the stack.

```
: example1 ( x -- 0/x-1 )
  dup even? [ drop 0 ] [ 1 - ] if ;

: example2 ( x y -- x+y/x-y )
  2dup mod 0 = [ + ] [ - ] if ;

: example3 ( x y -- x+y/x )
  dup odd? [ + ] [ drop ] if ;
```

Listing 2: if's stack effect varies

extra
space after? with
minted

However, the simplified stack effect for if is quite restrictive. (? true false -- ) intuitively means that both the true and false quotations can't take any inputs or produce any outputs—that their effects are ( -- ). We'd like to loosen this restriction, but per ??, Factor must know the stack height after the if call. We could give if the effect ( x ? true false -- y ), so that the two quotations could each have the stack effect ( x -- y ). This would work for the example1 word in Listing 2, yet it's just as restrictive. For instance, the example2 word would need if to have the effect ( x y ? true false -- z ), since each branch has the effect ( x y -- z ). Furthermore, the quotations might even have different effects, but still leave the overall stack height balanced. Only one item is left on the stack after a call to example3 regardless, even though the two quotations have different stack effects: + has the effect ( x y -- z ), while drop has the effect ( x -- ).

In reality, there are infinitely many correct stack effects for **if**. Factor has a special notation for such *row-polymorphic* stack effects. If a token in a stack effect begins with two dots, like ..a or ..b, it is a *row variable*. If either side of a stack effect begins with a row variable, it represents any number inputs/outputs. Thus, we could give **if** the stack effect

```
( ..a ? true false -- ..b )
```

to indicate that there may be any number of inputs below the condition on the stack, and any number of outputs will be present after the call to if. Note that these numbers aren't necessarily equal, which is why we use distinct row variables in this case. However, this still isn't quite enough to capture the stack height requirements. It doesn't communicate that true and false must affect the stack in the same ways. For this, we can use the notation quot: (stack -- effect), giving quotations a nested stack effect. Using the same names for row variables in both the "inner" and "outer" stack effects will refer to the same number of inputs or outputs. Thus, our final (correct) stack effect for if is

```
( ..a ? true: ( ..a -- ..b ) false: ( ..a -- ..b ) -- ..b )
```

This tells us that the true quotation and the false quotation will each create the same relative change in stack height as if does overall.

```
{ "Lorem" "ipsum" "dolor" } [ print ] each
0 { 1 2 3 } [ + ] each
10 iota [ number>string print ] each
3 [ "Ho!" print ] times
[ t ] [ "Infinite loop!" print ] while
[ f ] [ "Executed once!" print ] do while
```

Listing 3: Loops in Factor

Though **if** is necessarily a language primitive, other control flow constructs are defined in Factor itself. It's simple to write combinators for iteration and looping as tail-recursive words that invoke quotations. Listing 3 showcases some common looping patterns. The most basic yet versatile word is **each**. Its stack effect is

```
( ... seq quot: ( ... x \rightarrow ... ) \rightarrow ... )
```

Each element x of the sequence seq will be passed to quot, which may use any of the underlying stack elements. Here, unlike if, we enforce that the input stack height is exactly the same as the output (since we use the same row variable). Otherwise, depending on the number of elements in seq, we might dig arbitrarily deep into the stack or flood it with a varying number of values. The first use of each in Listing 3 is balanced, as the quotation has the effect (str --) and no additional items were on the stack to begin with. Essentially, it's equivalent to "Lorem" print "ipsum" print "dolor" print. On the other hand, the quotation in the second example has the stack effect (total n -- total+n). This is still balanced, since there is one additional item below the sequence on the stack (namely 0), and one element is left by the end (the sum of the sequence elements). So, this example is the same as 0 1 + 2 + 3 +.

Any instance of the extensive **sequence** mixin will work with **each**, making it very flexible. The third example in Listing 3 shows **iota**, which is used here to create a *virtual* sequence of integers from 0 to 9 (inclusive). No actual sequence is allocated, merely an object that behaves like a sequence. In Factor, it's common practice to use **iota** and **each** in favor of repetitive C-like **for** loops.

Of course, we sometimes don't need the induction variable in loops. That is, we just want to execute a body of code a certain number of times. For these cases, there's the **times** combinator, with the stack effect

```
( ... n quot: ( ... -- ... ) -- ... )
```

This is similar to **each**, except that **n** is a number (so we needn't use **iota**) and the quotation doesn't expect an extra argument (i.e., a sequence element). Therefore, the example in Listing 3 is equivalent to "Ho!" **print** "Ho!" **print** "Ho!" **print**.

Naturally, Factor also has the while combinator, whose stack effect is

```
( ..a pred: ( ..a -- ..b ? ) body: ( ..b -- ..a ) -- ..b )
```

The row variables are a bit messy, but it works as you'd expected: the pred quotation is invoked on each iteration to determine whether body should be called. The do word is a handy modifier for while that simply executes the body of the loop once before leaving while to test the precondition as per usual. Thus, the last example in Listing 3 on the previous page executes the body once, despite the condition being immediately false.

```
{ 1 2 3 } [ 1 + ] map
{ 1 2 3 4 5 } [ even? ] filter
{ 1 2 3 } 0 [ + ] reduce
```

Listing 4: Higher-order functions in Factor

In the preceding combinators, quotations were used like blocks of code. But really, they're the same as anonymous functions from other languages. As such, Factor borrows classic tools from functional languages, like map and filter, as shown in Listing 4. map is like each, except that the quotation should produce a single output. Each such output is collected up into a new sequence of the same class as the input sequence. Here, the example produces { 2 3 4 }. filter selects only those elements from the sequence for which the quotation returns a true value. Thus, the filter in Listing 4 outputs { 2 4 }. Even reduce is in Factor, also known as a left fold. An initial element is iteratively updated by pushing a value from the sequence and invoking the quotation. In fact, reduce is defined as swapd each, where swapd is a shuffler word with the stack effect ( x y z --y x z ). Thus, the example in Listing 4 is the same as 0 { 1 2 3 } [ + ] each, as in Listing 3 on the previous page.

These are just some of the control flow combinators defined in Factor. Several variants exist that meld stack shuffling with control flow, or can be used to shorten common patterns like empty false branches. An entire list is beyond the scope of our discussion, but the ones we've studied should give a solid view of what standard conditional execution, iteration, and looping looks like in a stack-based language.

### 1.1.2 Data Flow

While avoiding variables and additional syntax makes it easier to refactor code, keeping mental track of the stack can be taxing. If we need to manipulate more than the top few elements of the stack, code gets harder to read and write. Since the flow of data is made explicit via stack shufflers, we actually wind up with redundant patterns of data flow that we otherwise couldn't identify. In Factor, there are several combinators that clean up common stack-shuffling logic, making code easier to understand.

The first combinators we'll look at are **dip** and **keep**. These are used to preserve elements of the stack. When working with several values, sometimes we don't want to use all of them at quite

```
: without-dip1 ( x y -- x+1 y )
 swap 1 + swap ;
: with-dip1 ( x y -- x+1 y )
  [1+]dip;
: without-dip2 ( x y z -- x-y z )
 2over - swapd nip swapd nip swap;
: with-dip2 ( x y z -- x-y z )
  [ - ] dip;
: without-keep1 ( x -- x+1 x )
 dup 1 + swap ;
: with-keep1 ( x -- x+1 x )
  [1 + ] keep;
: without-keep2 ( x y -- x-y y )
 swap over - swap ;
: with-keep2 ( x y -- x-y y )
  [ - ] keep ;
```

Listing 5: Preserving combinators

the same time. Using **drop** and the like wouldn't help, as we'd lose the data altogether. Rather, we want to retain certain stack elements, do a computation, then restore them. For an uncompelling but illustrative example, suppose we have two values on the stack, but we want to increment the second element from the top. without-dip1 in Listing 5 on the preceding page shows one strategy, where we shuffle the top element away with swap, perform the computation, then swap the top back to its original place. A cleaner way is to call **dip** on a quotation, which will execute that quotation just under the top of the stack, as in with-dip1. While the stack shuffling in without-dip1 isn't terribly complicated, it doesn't convey our meaning very well. Shuffling the top element out of the way becomes increasingly difficult with more complex computations. In without-dip2, we want to call - on the two elements below the top. For lack of a more robust stack shuffler, we use **20ver** to isolate the two values so we can call -. The rest of the word consists of shuffling to get rid of excess values on the stack. It's also worth noting that swapd is a deprecated word in Factor, since its use starts making code harder to reason about. Alternatively, we could dream up a more complex stack shuffler with exactly the stack effect we wanted in this situation. But this solution doesn't scale: what if we had to calculate something that required more inputs or produced more outputs? Clearly, **dip** provides a cleaner alternative in with-dip2.

keep provides a way to hold onto the top element of the stack, but still use it to perform a computation. In general, [ . . . ] keep is equivalent to dup [ . . . ] dip. Thus, the current top of the stack remains on top after the use of keep, but the quotation is still invoked with that value. In with-keep1 in Listing 5 on the previous page, we want to increment the top, but stash the result below. Again, this logic isn't terribly complicated, though with-keep1 does away with the shuffling. without-keep2 shows a messier example where a simple dup will not save us, as we're using more than just the top element in the call to -. Rather, three of the four words in the definition are dedicated to rearranging the stack in just the right way, obscuring the call to - that we really want to focus on. On the other hand, with-keep2 places the subtraction word front-and-center in its own quotation, while keep does the work of retaining the top of the stack.

```
TUPLE: coord x y ;

: without-bi ( coord -- norm )
  [ x>> sq ] keep y>> sq + sqrt ;

: with-bi ( coord -- norm )
  [ x>> sq ] [ y>> sq ] bi + sqrt ;

: without-tri ( x -- x+1 x+2 x+3 )
  [ 1 + ] keep [ 2 + ] keep 3 + ;

: with-tri ( x -- x+1 x+2 x+3 )
  [ 1 + ] [ 2 + ] [ 3 + ] tri ;
```

Listing 6: Cleave combinators

The next set of combinators apply multiple quotations to a single value. The most general form of these so-called *cleave* combinators is the word **cleave**, which takes an array of quotations as input, and calls each one in turn on the top element of the stack. Of course, for only a couple of

quotations, wrapping them in an array literal becomes cumbersome. The word bi exists for the two-quotation case, and tri for the three quotations. Cleave combinators are often used to extract multiple slots from a tuple. Listing 6 on the preceding page shows such a case in the with-bi word, which improves upon using just keep in the without-bi word. In general, a series of keeps like [ a ] keep [ b ] keep c is the same as { [ a ] [ b ] [ c ] } cleave, which is more readable. We can see this in action in the difference between without-tri and with-tri in Listing 6 on the previous page. In cases where we need to apply multiple quotations to a set of values instead of just a single one, there are also the variants 2cleave and 3cleave (and the corresponding 2bi, 2tri, 3bi, and 3tri), which apply the quotations to the top two and three elements of the stack, respectively.