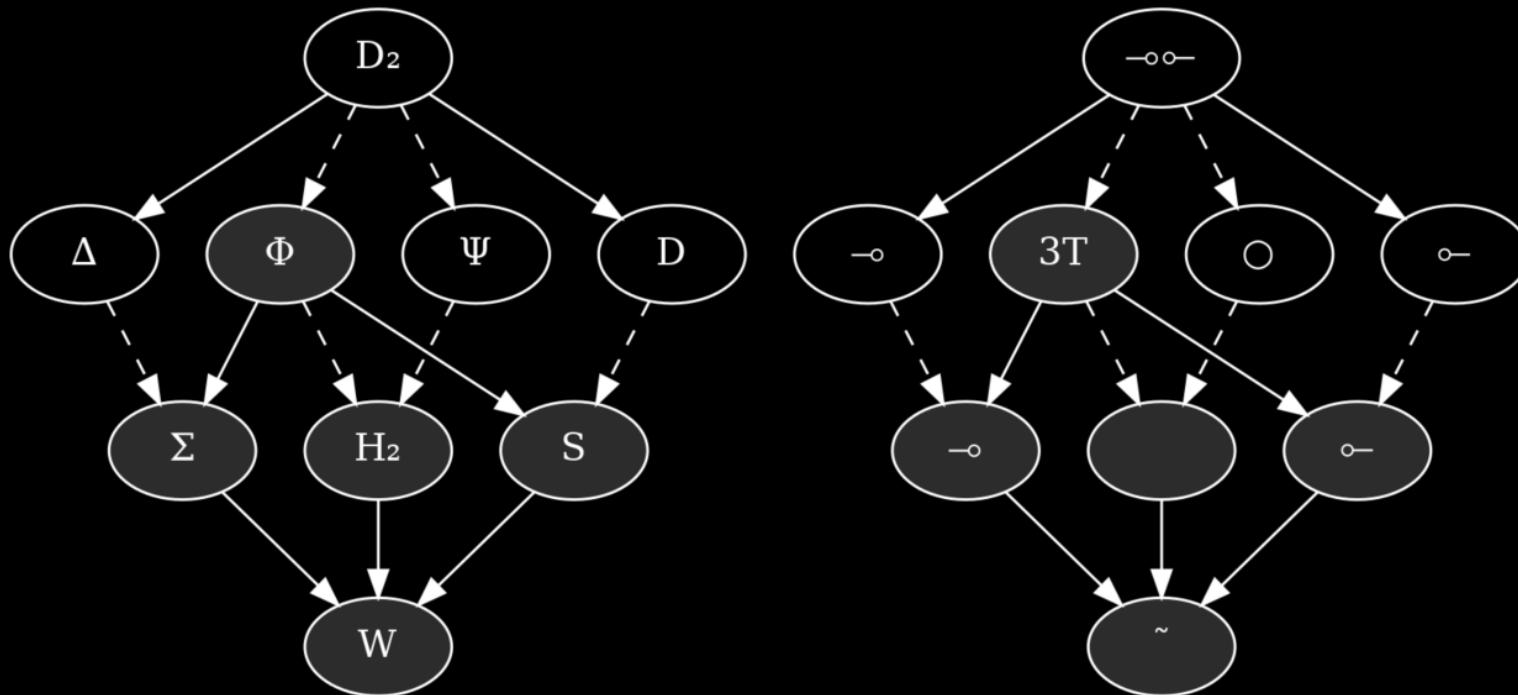


Why Combinators?



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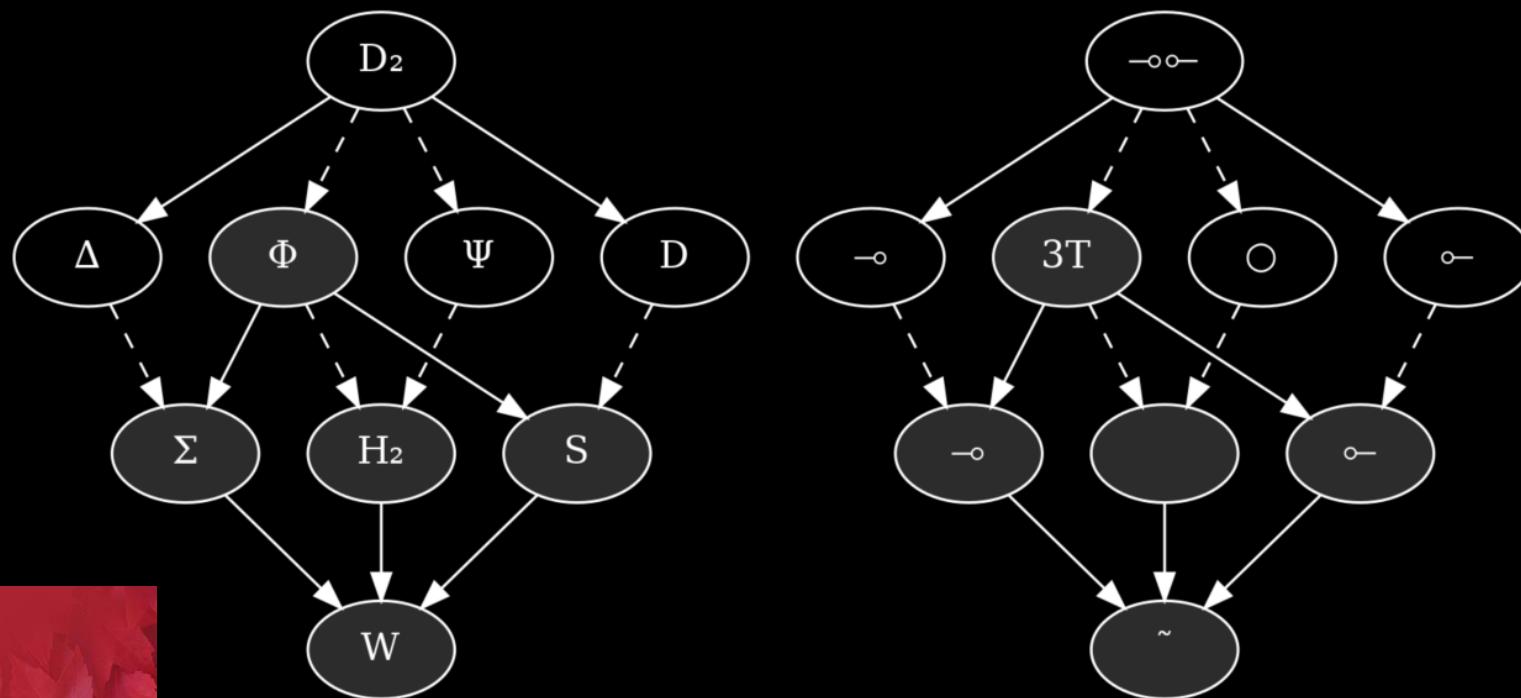
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Composition Intuition

Combinators & Tacit Programming



Conor Hoekstra

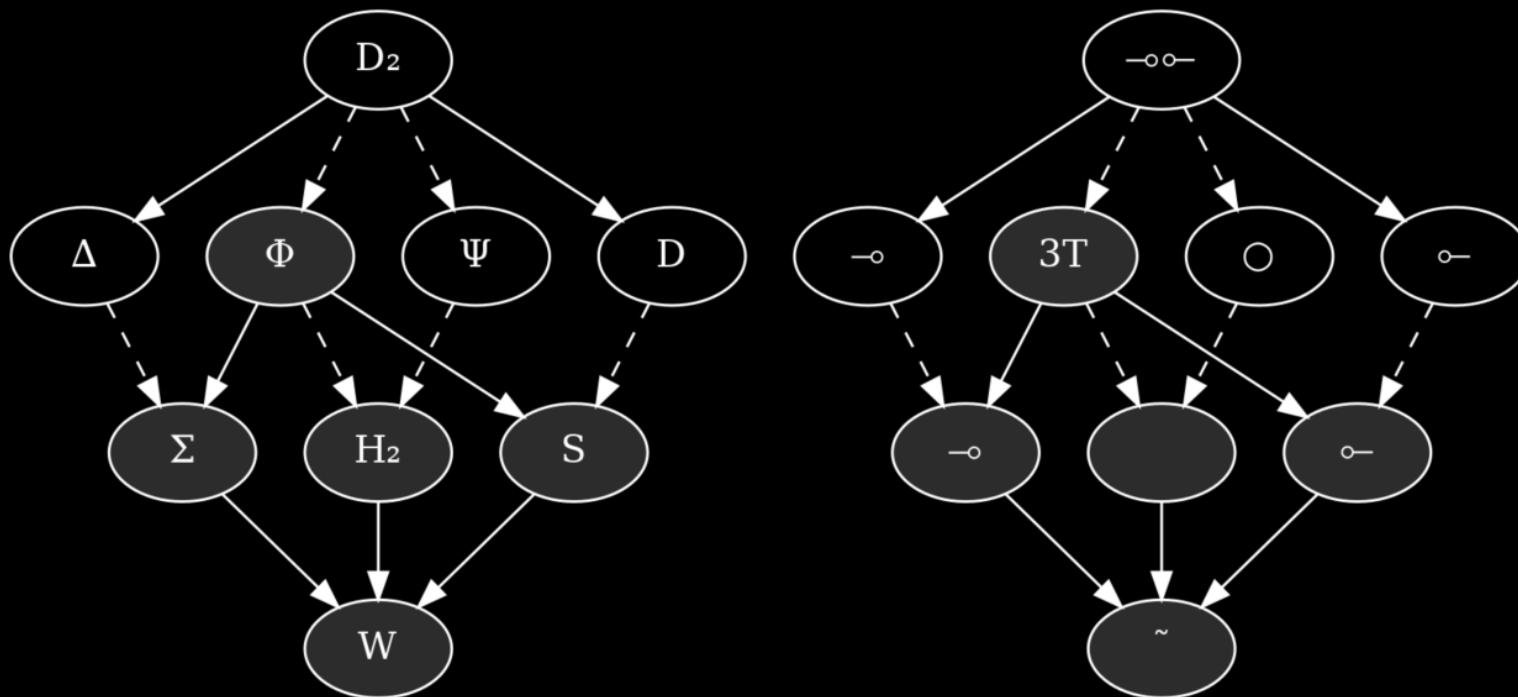


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Why Combinators?



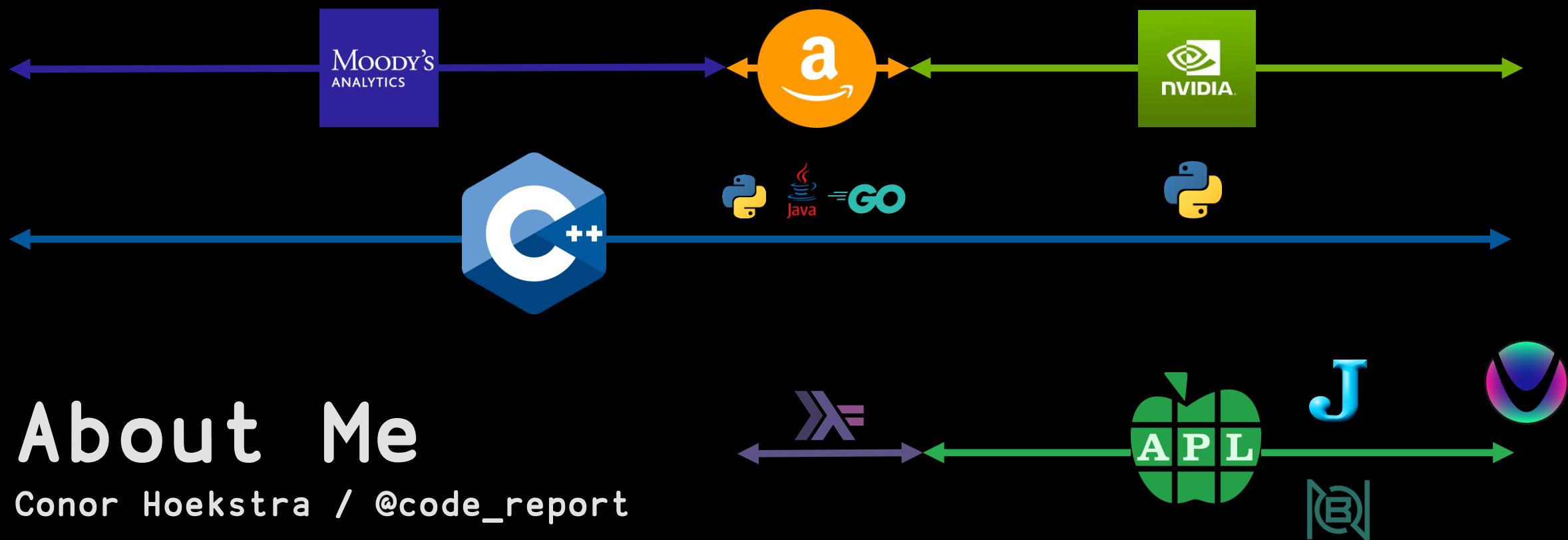
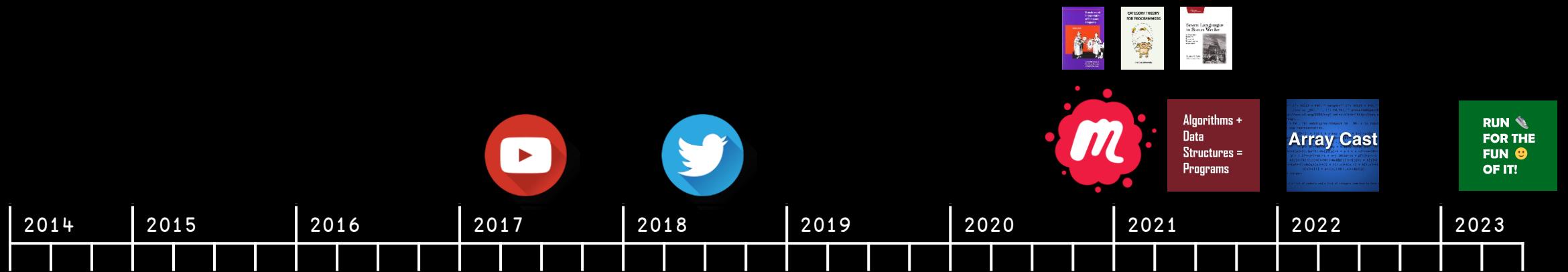
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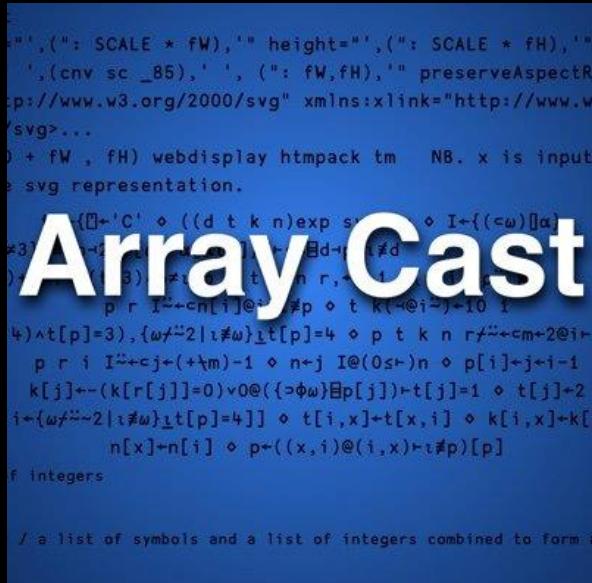


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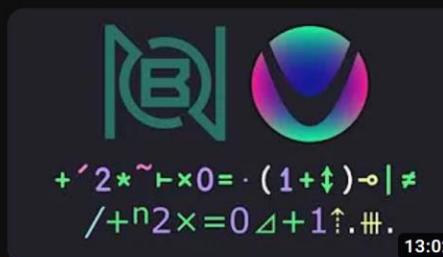


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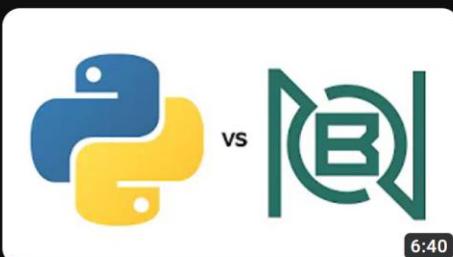
BQN vs Uiua

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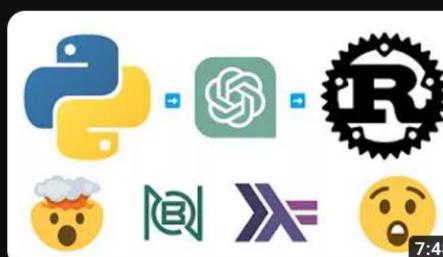
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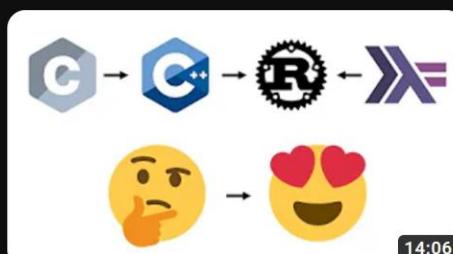
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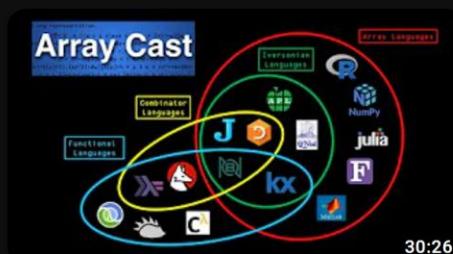
I ❤️ APL & BQN

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Programming Language Rankings (2023 Oct)

by code_report



StackOverflow Octoverse RedMonk Languish PYPL IEEE Spectrum TIOBE [\(rankings overview\)](#)

Exclude "Edge Languages" | Number of Languages: 20 [\(20\)](#)
Months for Delta (Δ): 3 [\(All\)](#) Languages

	Language	Avg	StDev	n ¹	3mΔ		Language	Avg	StDev	n ¹	3mΔ
1	JavaScript	1.25	0.5	4	-		11 Rust	13.66	2.51	3	-
2	Python	2	0.81	4	-		12 Ruby	14.25	6.75	4	-
3	Java	4.25	1.89	4	-		13 Kotlin	15	1	3	-
4	TypeScript	4.75	1.7	4	-		14 Swift	16	5.29	3	(1)
5	C#	5.75	1.5	4	-		15 R	16.33	5.03	3	(1)
6	C++	7	1.41	4	-		16 PowerShell	17.33	6.8	3	(1)
7	PHP	8.5	3.69	4	-		17 Dart	17.66	1.52	3	(1)
8	C	9.5	0.57	4	-		18 Lua	22.5	7.77	2	(2)
9	Shell	10	3.91	4	-		19 Scala	23	9.64	3	(1)
10	Go	11	2.64	3	-		20 Objective-C	25.66	11.15	3	(1)

1 - The number of (selected) ranking websites this language shows up in.

If you have suggestions or find a bug, you can open an [issue](#) here.

Array Programming Language Rankings (2023 Oct)

by code_report



StackOverflow Octoverse RedMonk Languish
 PYPL IEEE Spectrum TIOBE [\(rankings overview\)](#)

Exclude "Edge Languages" | Number of Languages: 20
Months for Delta (Δ): 3 | Languages

	Language	Avg	StDev	n ¹	3mΔ
1	 R	16.33	5.03	3	-
2	 MATLAB	34.5	16.26	2	-
3	 Julia	40	5.65	2	-
4	 Fortran	54	21.21	2	-
5	 APL	126.5	109.6	2	-
6	 Mathematica	132	0	1	-
7	 q	152	0	1	-
8	 Chapel	239	0	1	-
9	 J	330	0	1	-
10	 Futhark	356	0	1	-

¹ - The number of (selected) ranking websites this language shows up in.

If you have suggestions or find a bug, you can open an [issue](#) here.

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<https://github.com/codereport/Content>

<https://github.com/codereport/Content>

<https://www.arraycast.com/>

<https://www.youtube.com/c/codereport>

[[⚡ talks]]

Thank you! Minnowbrook is awesome!



Conor Hoekstra (he/him)

Today at 7:32 AM · Town of Indian Lake, New York



Easy Days Easy (Middle of Nowhere Edition us)

5 streets completed.

Distance

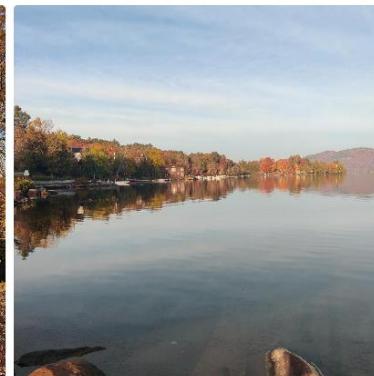
14.19 km

Pace

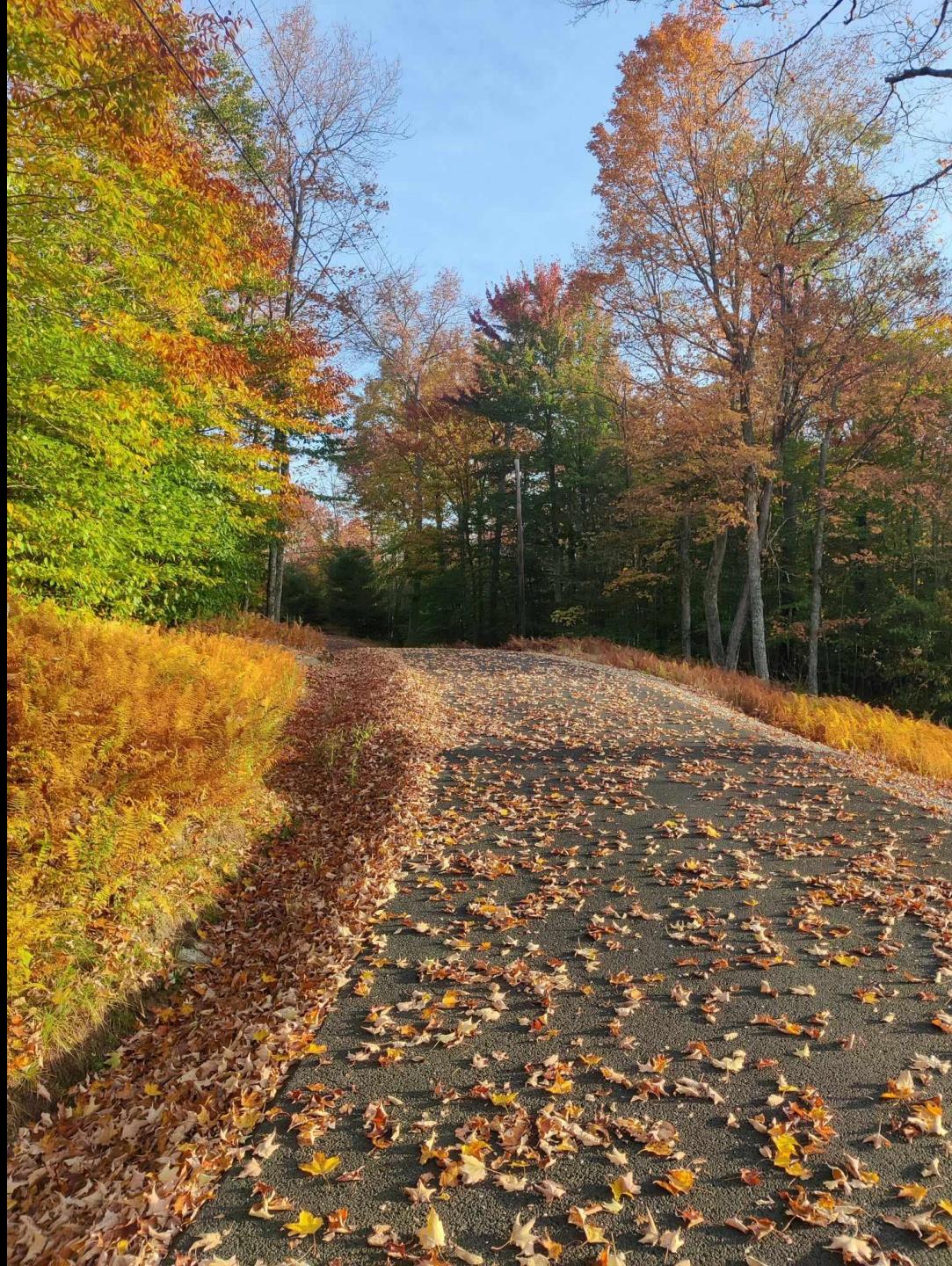
4:47 /km

Time

1h 7m











Why I ❤️ APL

(and other array languages)



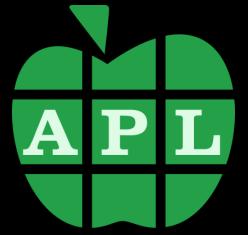
```
#include <iostream>
#include <numeric>
#include <ranges>

auto main() -> int {

    auto nums = std::views::iota(1, 11)
        | std::views::transform([](auto i) { return 1 + 2 * i; });
    auto sum = std::accumulate(nums.begin(), nums.end(), 0);

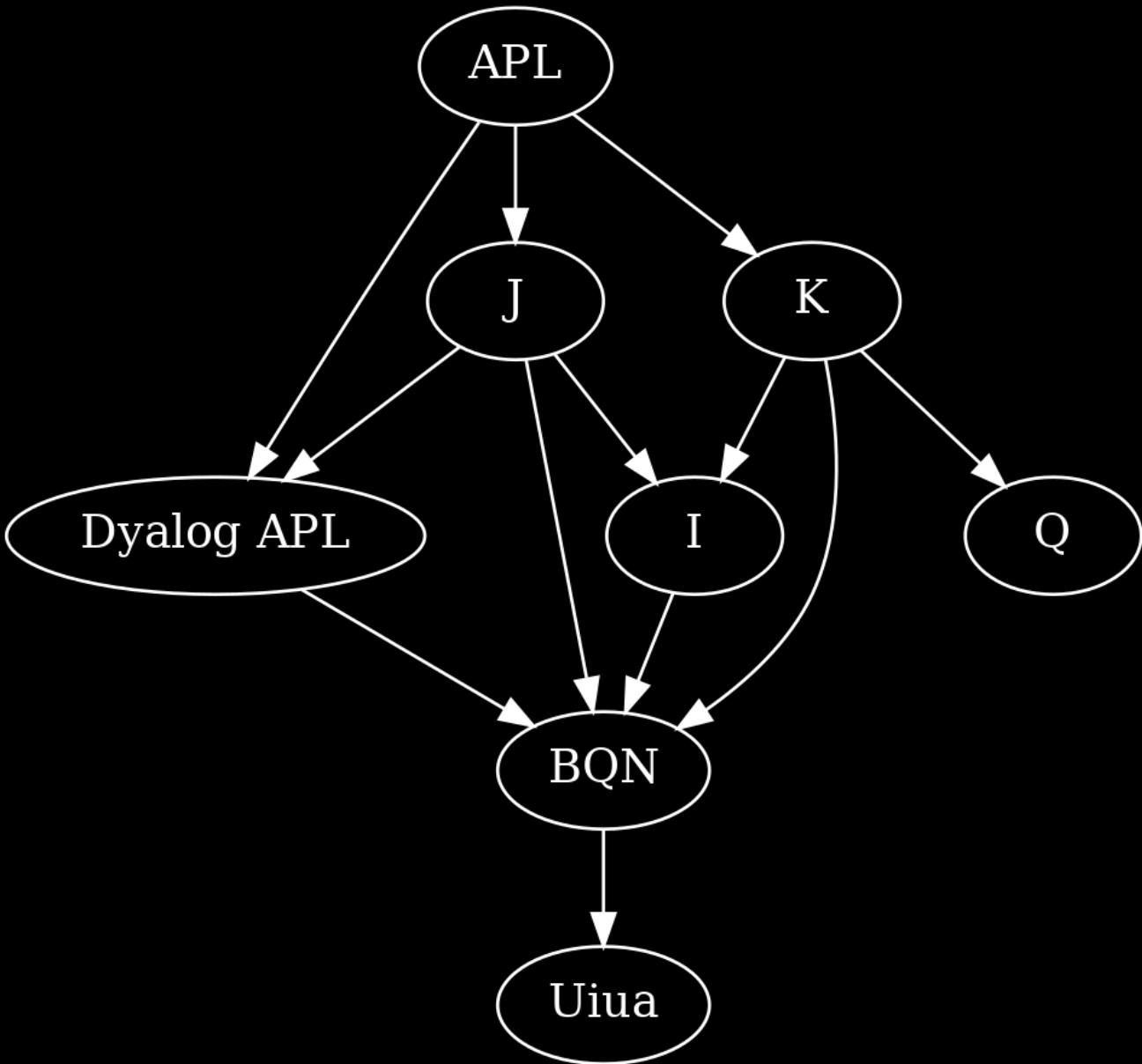
    std::cout << sum << '\n';

    return 0;
}
```



+ / 1 + 2 × ↵ 10

State of Modern Iversonian Array Languages





J

Dyalog APL



K

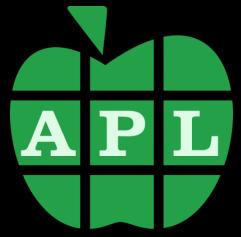
I

Q

BQN

Uiua

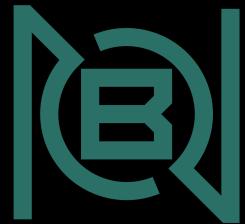




○ . = ∼ l 5

J

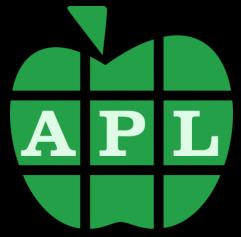
= / ~ i . 5



= ⌈ ~ ⇕ 5



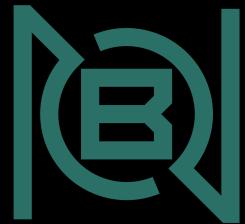
田 = . ↑ 5



○ . = ∼ l 5

J

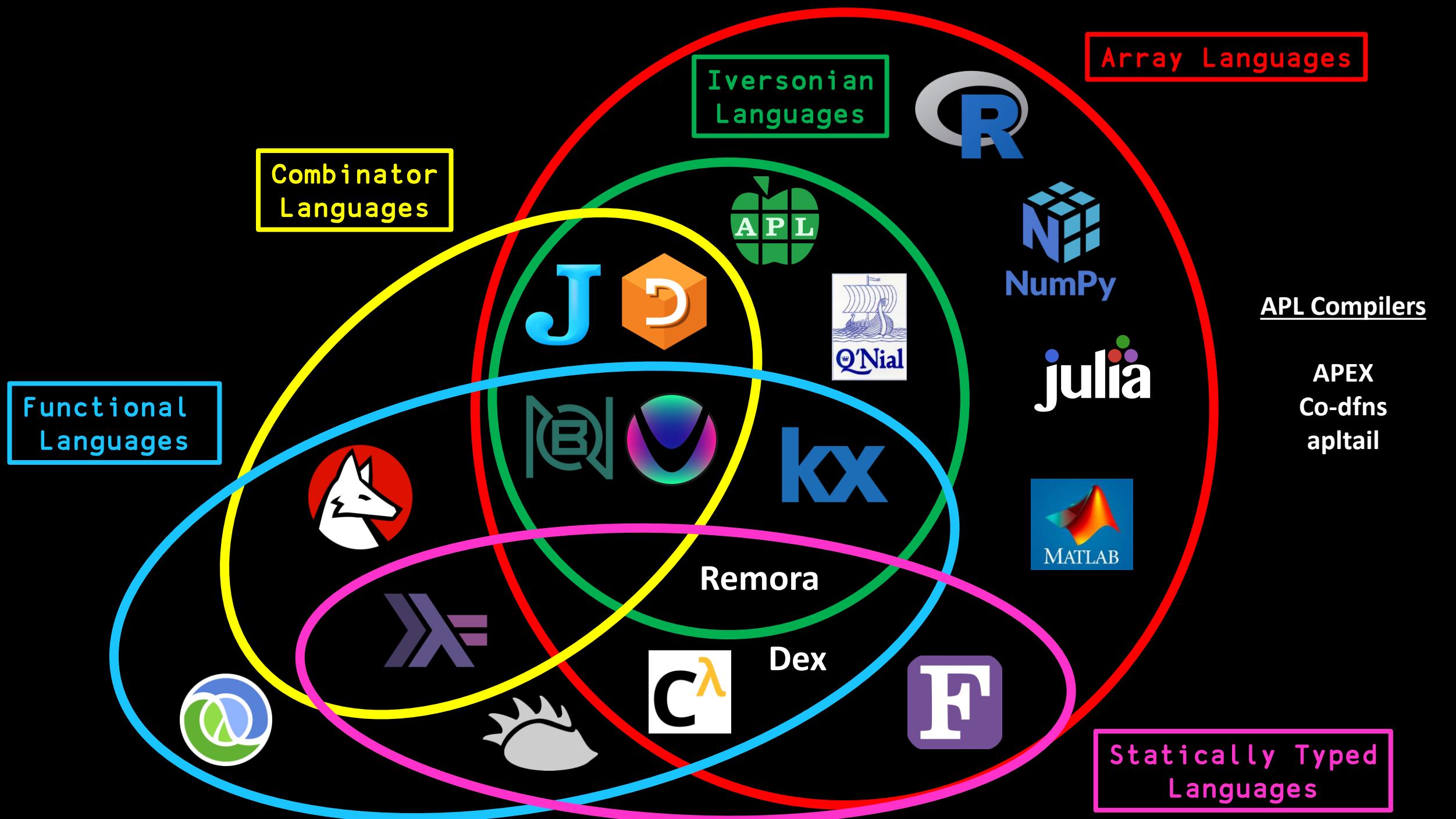
= / ∼ i . 5



= ⌈ ∼ ⇕ 5



田 = . ↑ 5



<https://github.com/codereport/array-language-comparisons>

Language / Library Websites

	Language	\$	Main Website	Help / Docs	Online REPL
❤️	Dyalog APL		dyalog.com	Dyalog Help	TryAPL
❤️	J		jsoftware.com	J NuVoc	J Playground
❤️	BQN		mlochbaum.github.io/BQN	BQN Docs	BQNPAD
❤️	Uiua		uiua.org	Uiua Docs	UiuaPAD
❤️	Q	\$	code.kx.com/q	Q Ref	
❤️	Julia		julialang.org	Julia Docs	Replit
❤️	MATLAB	\$	mathworks.com/products/matlab.html	MATLAB Help	
❤️	NumPy*		numpy.org	NumPy Docs	Replit
❤️	R		r-project.org	R Docs	JDoodle
❤️	Nial		nial-array-language.org	Nial Dictionary	TIO
❤️	Futhark		futhark-lang.org	Futhark Docs	
❤️	Dex		github.com/google-research/dex-lang	InDex	
❤️	Ivy		pkg.go.dev/robpike.io/ivy	Ivy Docs	
❤️ ❤️	SaC		sac-home.org	SaC Docs	
❤️	ArrayFire*		arrayfire.com	ArrayFire Docs	
❤️	MatX*		nvidia.github.io/MatX	MatX API Ref	
❤️	ATen*		-	ATen Docs	
❤️	Eigen*		eigen.tuxfamily.org	Eigen Dox	Godbolt

* Library, not an actual language

What is a combinator?

A function that deals only in functions

What are the combinators in APL?

Table 5. History of combinators in Dyalog APL.

Year	Version	Combinator	Spelling
1983	1.0	B, D, C	$\circ\tilde{\circ}$
2003	10.0	W	$\tilde{\circ}$
2013	13.0	K	\vdash
2014	14.0	B, B_1 , Φ , Φ_1	trains
2020	18.0	B, B_1 , Ψ , K	$\circ\ddot{\circ}\tilde{\circ}$

What is tacit (point free) programming?

Argument Free Code

Plus $\leftarrow \{\alpha + \omega\}$

Plus → +

Some Examples

Combinatory Logic and Combinators in Array Languages

Conor Hoekstra

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Toronto Metropolitan University

Toronto, ON, Canada

Abstract

The array language paradigm began in the 1960s when Ken Iverson created APL. After spending over 30 years working on APL, he moved on to his second array language J, a successor to APL which embeds a significant subset of combinatory logic in it. This paper will look at the existence of combinators in the modern array languages Dyalog APL, J and BQN and how the support for them differs between these languages. The paper will also discuss how combinators can be a powerful language feature as they exist in modern array languages.

CCS Concepts: • Software and its engineering → Functional languages.

Keywords: combinatory logic, combinators, array languages, apl, j, bqn

ACM Reference Format:

Conor Hoekstra. 2022. Combinatory Logic and Combinators in Array Languages. In *Proceedings of the 8th ACM SIGPLAN International Workshop on Libraries, Languages and Compilers for Array Programming (ARRAY '22), June 13, 2022, San Diego, CA, USA*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 12 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3520306.3534504>

1 Introduction

The goal of this paper is to provide a brief history of both array languages and combinatory logic and then to more importantly show how a significant subset of combinatory logic exists in modern array languages in the form of combinators and why this is an extremely useful language feature.

Section 2 will briefly introduce array languages and how they differ from other programming languages. Section 3 will cover a brief history of array languages. Section 4 will

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ARRAY '22, June 13, 2022, San Diego, CA, USA

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cover a brief history of combinatory logic focusing on the papers and literature that first introduced individual combinators. Section 5 will enumerate the hierarchy of combinators and how certain combinators are specializations of other combinators. Section 6 will discuss the evolution of combinators in array languages and specifically how “trains” differ in modern array languages. Section 7 will enumerate each of the combinators from combinatory logic as they exist in each of Dyalog APL, J and BQN. Section 8 will discuss what makes combinators in modern array languages so powerful and expressive. Section 9 will list several additional examples. Finally, in Section 10 a summary of what has been discussed and shown in this paper will be provided.

2 A Brief Introduction to Array Languages

The three main array languages that will be discussed in this paper are: Dyalog APL (1983), J (1990) and BQN (2020). These languages are notably different from other programming languages because APL and BQN use Unicode symbols for primitives and J uses ASCII symbols, digraphs, and trigraphs. Many have asserted that this makes the languages unreadable but that is the equivalent of saying Chinese is unreadable just because it doesn't use the Latin alphabet. As long as you have the requisite knowledge to read the symbols, not only is it extremely readable but it can also be extremely expressive and powerful. For example, the following snippet of APL code can be used to generate the first 10 odd numbers:

```
A numbers from 1 to 10
10
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
A multiply by 2
2×10
2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
A add negative 1
-1+2×10
1 3 5 7 9 11 13 15 17 19
```

Other examples that demonstrate the expressivity and power of APL are examples using outer product. The following snippet of APL code can be used to create a multiplication table:

```

9 3 11 0 14
5 11 3 14 0
      ]
# Dreshape
(⊣∘|∘-⌿~) vec
⟨ 0 6 2 9 5 6 0 8 3 11 ...

# Deduplicate with B
(⊸⊣∘|∘-⌿~) vec
⟨ 0 6 2 9 5 8 3 11 14 )

AllDiffs ← ⊸⊣∘|∘-⌿~

```

In the BQN code, no parentheses are required. The `~` and `◦` have higher precedence than function application and no libraries are required.

9 Examples

Each of the examples are run with one or two test cases in only APL, but the output is the same for all of the APL, BQN and J functions.

9.1 average

```

// Translation (Tacit)
avg = phi(sum, divide, length)
// Translation (Explicit)
avg(x) = divide(sum(x), length(x))

A APL
avg ← +/÷≠ ⍟ φ
# BQN
Avg ← +'÷≠ # φ
NB. J
avg =. +/%# NB. φ
A Test
    avg 1 2 3 4
2.5

```

9.2 plusOrMinus

```

// Translation (Tacit)
plusOrMinus = phi1(plus, concat, minus)
// Translation (Explicit)
plusOrMinus(x, y) =
    concat(plus(x,y), minus(x,y))

A APL
plusOrMinus ← +,- ⍟ φ1
# BQN
PlusOrMinus ← +◧- # φ1
NB. J
plusOrMinus =. +,- NB. φ1
A Test
    10 plusOrMinus 5
15 5

```

9.3 absoluteDifference

```

// Translation (Tacit)
absDiff = b1(abs, minus)
// Translation (Explicit)
absDiff(x, y) = abs(minus(x,y))

```

A APL

```

absDiff ← |- ⍟ B1
absDiff ← |δ- ⍟ B1

```

BQN

```

AbsDiff ← |- # B1
AbsDiff ← |◦- # B1

```

NB. J

```

absDiff =. |@:- NB. B1

```

A Tests

```

    10 absDiff 7
3

```

```

    7 absDiff 10
3

```

9.4 isPalindrome

```

// Translation (Tacit)
isPalindrome = phi(reverse, equals, i)
isPalindrome = s(equals, reverse)
// Translation (Explicit)
isPalindrome(x) = equals(reverse(x), i(x))
isPalindrome(x) = equals(x, reverse(x))

```

A APL

```

isPalindrome ← φ≡⌿ ⍟ φ I
isPalindrome ← ≡◦φ~ ⍟ D W

```

BQN

```

IsPalindrome ← φ≡⌿ # φ I
IsPalindrome ← ≡◦φ # S
IsPalindrome ← ≡=φ~ # D W

```

NB. J

```

isPalindrome =. |.-:] NB. φ I
isPalindrome =. -:|. NB. S
isPalindrome =. (-:|.)~ NB. D W

```

A Tests

```

    isPalindrome 'tacocat'
1

```

```

    isPalindrome 'tacodog'
0

```

9.5 isAnagram

```

// Translation (Tacit)
isAnagram = psi>equals, sort)
// Translation (Explicit)
isAnagram(x, y) = equals(sort(x), sort(y))

```

A APL

```

sort ← cōA⌿ ⍟ B1 φ I
isAnagram ← ≡◦sort ⍟ Ψ

```

3

9.4 isPalindrome

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isPalindrome = φ
isPalindrome = s(e)
// Translation (Explicit)
isPalindrome(x) = φ
isPalindrome(x) = s(e)

A APL
isPalindrome ← φ
isPalindrome ← φ

# BQN
isPalindrome ← φ
isPalindrome ← φ

# J
IsPalindrome ← φ
IsPalindrome ← φ
IsPalindrome ← φ

NB. J
isPalindrome = φ
isPalindrome = φ
isPalindrome = φ
```

Each of the examples are run with one or two test cases in only APL, but the output is the same for all of the APL, BQN and J functions.

9.1 average

```
// Translation (Tacit)
avg = phi(sum, divide, length)
// Translation (Explicit)
avg(x) = divide(sum(x), length(x))
```

A APL

```
avg ← +/÷≠ A φ
```

BQN

```
Avg ← +'÷≠ # φ
```

NB. J

```
avg =. +/%# NB. φ
```

A Test

```
avg 1 2 3 4
```

2.5

9.2 plusOrMinus

```
// Translation (Tacit)
```

```
avg 1 2 3 4
```

```
2.5
```

9.2 plusOrMinus

```
// Translation (Tacit)
plusOrMinus = phi1(plus, concat, minus)
// Translation (Explicit)
plusOrMinus(x, y) =
    concat(plus(x,y), minus(x,y))
```

A APL

```
plusOrMinus ← +,- ⌾ ⍳1
```

BQN

```
PlusOrMinus ← +⊸- # ⍳1
```

NB. J

```
plusOrMinus =. +,- NB. ⍳1
```

A Test

```
10 plusOrMinus 5
15 5
```

NB. J

```
isPalindrome =.
isPalindrome =.
isPalindrome =.
```

A Tests

```
isPalindrome 1
1
isPalindrome 0
0
```

9.5 isAnagram

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isAnagram = psi(equals)
// Translation (Explicit)
isAnagram(x, y) =
```

A APL

```
sort ← cō⍋⍋
isAnagram ← ≡○⍋⍋
```

```
B 11 ...
with B
14 >
| o-^~
```

parentheses are required. The \sim and $\circ-$ than function application and no

run with one or two test cases in
the same for all of the APL, BQN

9.3 absoluteDifference

```
// Translation (Tacit)
absDiff = b1(abs, minus)
// Translation (Explicit)
absDiff(x, y) = abs(minus(x,y))
```

A APL

```
absDiff ← |-      A B1
absDiff ← |ö-     A B1
```

BQN

```
AbsDiff ← |-      # B1
AbsDiff ← |o-      # B1
```

NB. J

```
absDiff =. |@:- NB. B1
```

A Tests

```
10 absDiff 7
```

```
3
```

```
7 absDiff 10
```

```
3
```

9.4 isPalindrome

for all of the APL, BQN

9.4 isPalindrome

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isPalindrome = phi(reverse, equals, i)
isPalindrome = s(equals, reverse)

// Translation (Explicit)
isPalindrome(x) = equals(reverse(x), i(x))
isPalindrome(x) = equals(x, reverse(x))
```

A APL

```
isPalindrome ← φ≡⊣          A φ I
isPalindrome ← ≡∘φ⍨          A D W
```

BQN

```
IsPalindrome ← φ≡⊣          # φ I
IsPalindrome ← ≡∘φ          # S
IsPalindrome ← ≡∘φ~         # D W
```

NB. J

```
isPalindrome =. |.-:]      NB. φ I
isPalindrome =. -:|.        NB. S
isPalindrome =. (-:|.)~    NB. D W
```

A Tests

```
isPalindrome 'tacocat'
```

NB. J

```
isPalindrome =. |.-:]      NB. Ⓛ I
isPalindrome =. -:|_.       NB. S
isPalindrome =. (-:|.)~ NB. D W
```

A Tests

```
isPalindrome 'tacocat'
1
isPalindrome 'tacodog'
0
```

9.5 isAnagram

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isAnagram = psi>equals, sort)
// Translation (Explicit)
isAnagram(x, y) = equals(sort(x), sort(y))
```

A APL

```
sort      ← ⋏⍋⍎      A B1 Ⓛ I
isAnagram ← ≡⍎sort     A Ψ
```

```

# BQN
IsAnagram ← ≡○^          # ψ
# J
sort      =. /:~           NB. W
isAnagram =. -:&:sort NB. ψ
A Tests
    'owls' isAnagram 'slow'
1
    'cats' isAnagram 'dogs'
0

9.6 isDisjoint
// Translation (Tacit)
isDisjoint = e(nil, equals, intersect)
// Translation (Explicit)
isDisjoint(x, y) = equals(nil, intersect(x, y))
A APL
isDisjoint ← θ≡n      A E
# BQN
IsDisjoint ← <>≡ε/- # E φ1
IsDisjoint ← ~·v'ε   # B B1
NB. J
isDisjoint =. (i.0)-:e.#[ NB. E φ1
A Tests
    1 2 isDisjoint 3 4 5
1
    2 3 isDisjoint 3 4 5
0

9.7 isPrefixOf
// Translation (Tacit)
isPrefixOf = b1(first, find)
// Translation (Explicit)
isPrefixOf(x, y) = first(find(x, y))
A APL
isPrefixOf ← ⍋ε_ A B1
isPrefixOf ← ⍋∘ε_ A B1
# BQN
IsPrefixOf ← εε_ # B1
IsPrefixOf ← ε∘ε_ # B1
NB. J
isPrefixOf =. {.:@:E. NB. B1
A Tests
    'cat' isPrefixOf 'catch'
1
    'dog' isPrefixOf 'catch'
0

```

10 Summary

In this paper, a brief history of both array languages and combinatory logic was provided. The relationships between

combinators were examined and captured visually by the combinator hierarchy in Figure 2. Combinators as they exist in the modern array languages Dyalog APL, J and BQN were enumerated and explained and differences were highlighted where they existed. Finally, the power and expressivity of combinators in modern array languages was examined.

Acknowledgments

Thank you to the following individuals who have provided reviews and meaningful feedback: Ádám Brudzewsky, Computer Programmer at Dyalog Limited and creator of Extended Dyalog APL[10] and APLCart[11]; Marshall Lochbaum, creator of the I[23] and BQN[24] programming languages; Dr. Troels Henriksen, assistant professor at DIKU and creator of the Futhark[1] programming language; and Dr. David Mason, Chair of Computer Science at Toronto Metropolitan University.

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```
# BQN
IsAnagram ← ≡○^          # ψ
# J
sort      =. /:~           NB. W
isAnagram =. -:&:sort NB. ψ
A Tests
    'owls' isAnagram 'slow'
1
    'cats' isAnagram 'dogs'
0

9.6 isDisjoint
// Translation (Tacit)
isDisjoint = e(nil, equals, intersect)
// Translation (Explicit)
isDisjoint(x, y) = equals(nil, intersect(x, y))
A APL
isDisjoint ← θ≡θ      ⋄ F
```

combinators were examined and the combinator hierarchy in Figure 2 was shown. The combinators in the modern array languages Dyalog APL and J were enumerated and explained and demonstrated where they existed. Finally, the combinators in modern array languages were summarized.

Acknowledgments

Thank you to the following individuals who provided reviews and meaningful feedback. Dr. Michael C. Doherty, Computer Programmer at Dynetics International, creator of the Dyalog APL[10] and Dyalog J[11]; Dr. David H. Lochbaum, creator of the I[23] and J[24] array programming languages; Dr. Troels Henriksen, Researcher at DIKU and creator of the Futhark[25] compiler; and Dr. David Mason, Chair of Computer Science at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte and Metropolitan University.

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of Extended Dyalog AP
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ming languages; Dr. Troe
DIKU and creator of the I
and Dr. David Mason, Ch
Metropolitan University.

9.6 isDisjoint

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isDisjoint = e(nil, equals, intersect)
// Translation (Explicit)
isDisjoint(x, y) = equals(nil, intersect(x, y))
```

A APL

```
isDisjoint ← θ≡n      A E
```

BQN

```
IsDisjoint ← <⟩≡ε/¬ # E φ1
IsDisjoint ← ¬·v'ε # B B1
```

NB. J

```
isDisjoint =. (i.0)-:e.#[ NB. E φ1
```

A Tests

```
1 2 isDisjoint 3 4 5
1
2 3 isDisjoint 3 4 5
0
```

9.7 isPrefixOf

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isPrefixOf = b1(first, find)
// Translation (Explicit)
```

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- [9] John Backus. 1985. From mathematics to computer science: formation and optimization of programs. In *Functional Programming Languages: Theory and Practice*, Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, 1–20.

0

9.7 isPrefixOf

```
// Translation (Tacit)
isPrefixOf = b1(first, find)
// Translation (Explicit)
isPrefixOf(x, y) = first(find(x, y))
```

A APL

```
isPrefixOf ← ⌈≡ A B1
isPrefixOf ← ⌈≡≡ A B1
```

BQN

```
IsPrefixOf ← ≡≡ # B1
IsPrefixOf ← ≡≡≡ # B1
```

NB. J

```
isPrefixOf =. {.@:E. NB. B1
```

A Tests

```
'cat' isPrefixOf 'catch'
1
'dog' isPrefixOf 'catch'
0
```

10 Summary

In this paper, a brief history of both array languages and

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[[end of ⚡ talks]]

What is the best
combinator programming language?



How did I discover array languages
(and fall in love with them)?

the

Twin Algorithms

Conor Hoekstra

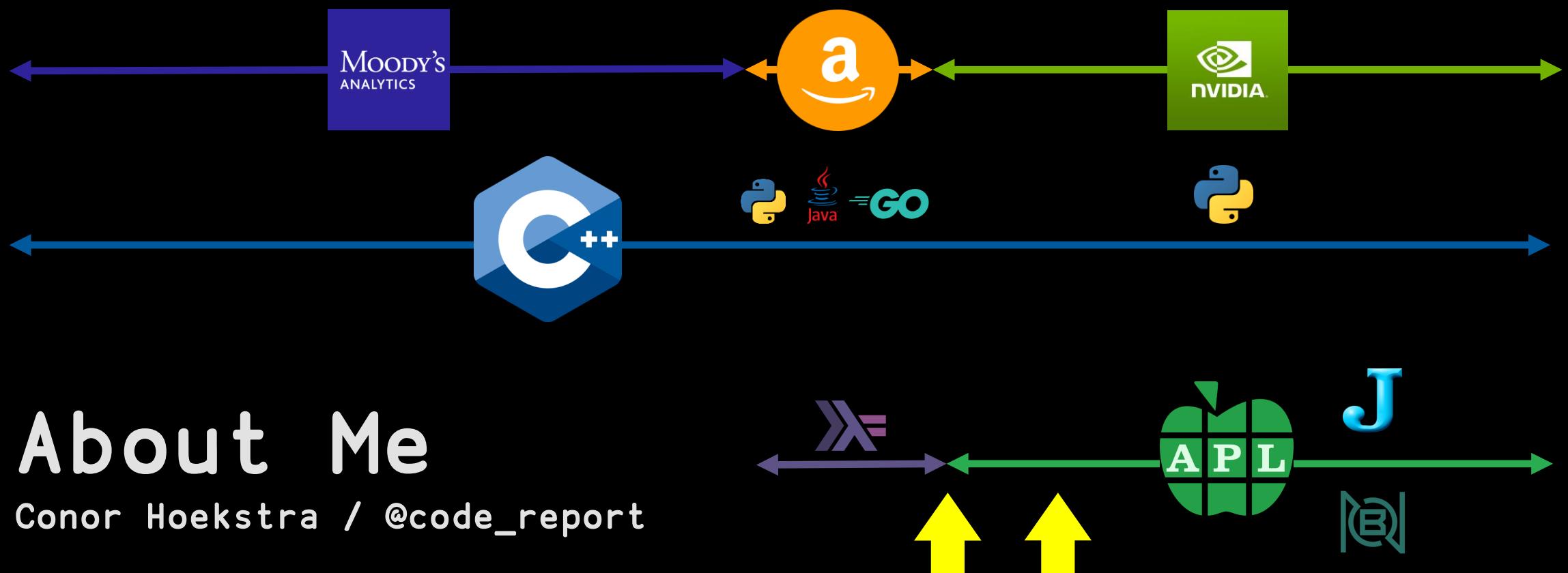
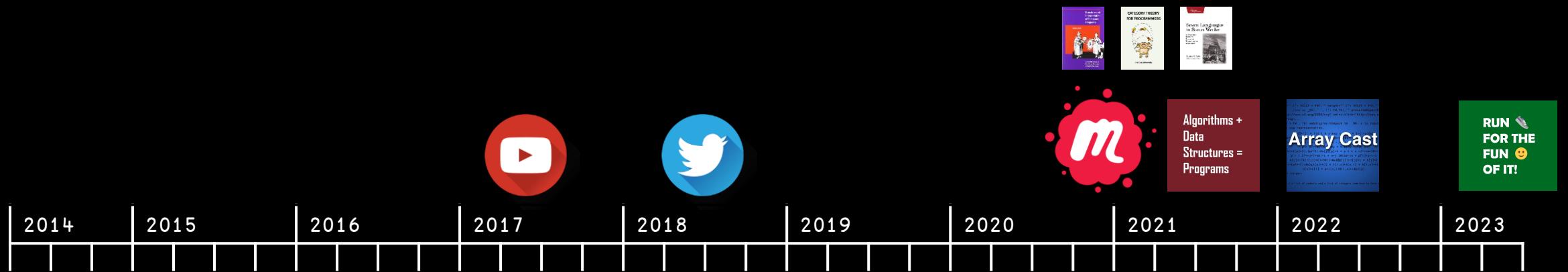


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How did I discover combinatorics?





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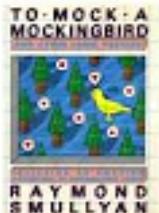
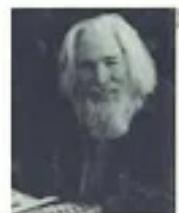
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'R

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'N

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Combinatory logic

文 A 19 languages ▾

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Conversion of a lambda term to an equivalent combinatorial term

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Simplifications of the transformation

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Undecidability of combinatorial calculus

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Compilation of functional languages

Logic

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From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Not to be confused with [combinational logic](#), a topic in digital electronics.

Combinatory logic is a notation to eliminate the need for [quantified variables](#) in [mathematical logic](#). It was introduced by [Moses Schönfinkel](#)^[1] and [Haskell Curry](#),^[2] and has more recently been used in [computer science](#) as a theoretical [model of computation](#) and also as a basis for the design of [functional programming languages](#). It is based on [combinators](#), which were introduced by [Schönfinkel](#) in 1920 with the idea of providing an analogous way to build up functions—and to remove any mention of variables—particularly in [predicate logic](#). A combinator is a [higher-order function](#) that uses only [function application](#) and earlier defined combinators to define a result from its arguments.

In mathematics [edit]

Combinatory logic was originally intended as a 'pre-logic' that would clarify the role of [quantified variables](#) in logic, essentially by eliminating them. Another way of eliminating quantified variables is [Quine's predicate functor logic](#). While the [expressive power](#) of combinatory logic typically exceeds that of [first-order logic](#), the expressive power of [predicate functor logic](#) is identical to that of first order logic ([Quine 1960, 1966, 1976](#)).

The original inventor of combinatory logic, [Moses Schönfinkel](#), published nothing on combinatory logic after his original 1924 paper. [Haskell Curry](#) rediscovered the combinators while working as an instructor at [Princeton University](#) in late 1927.^[3] In the late 1930s, [Alonzo Church](#) and his students at Princeton invented a rival formalism for functional abstraction, the [lambda calculus](#), which proved more popular than combinatory logic. The upshot of these historical contingencies was that until theoretical computer science began taking an interest in combinatory logic in the 1960s and 1970s, nearly all work on the subject was by [Haskell Curry](#) and his students, or by [Robert Feys](#) in [Belgium](#). [Curry and Feys \(1958\)](#), and [Curry et al. \(1972\)](#) survey the early history of combinatory logic. For a more modern treatment of combinatory logic and the lambda calculus together, see the book by [Barendregt](#),^[4] which reviews the models [Dana Scott](#) devised for combinatory logic in the 1960s and 1970s.

In computing [edit]

In [computer science](#), combinatory logic is used as a simplified model of [computation](#), used in [computability theory](#) and [proof theory](#). Despite its simplicity, combinatory logic captures many essential features of computation.

Combinatory logic can be viewed as a variant of the [lambda calculus](#), in which lambda expressions (representing functional abstraction) are replaced by a limited set of [combinators](#), primitive functions without [free variables](#). It is easy to transform lambda expressions into combinator expressions, and combinator reduction is much simpler than lambda reduction. Hence combinatory logic has been used to model some [non-strict functional programming](#) languages and [hardware](#). The purest form of this view is the programming language [Unlambda](#), whose sole primitives are the S and K combinators augmented with character input/output. Although not a practical programming language, Unlambda is of some theoretical interest.



Combinatory calculi

Applications

Applications [edit]

Compilation of functional languages [edit]

David Turner used his combinators to implement the [SASL programming language](#).

[Kenneth E. Iverson](#) used primitives based on Curry's combinators in his [J programming language](#), a successor to [APL](#). This enabled what Iverson called [tacit programming](#), that is, programming in functional expressions containing no variables, along with powerful tools for working with such programs. It turns out that tacit programming is possible in any APL-like language with user-defined operators.^[9]

Logic [edit]

The [Curry–Howard isomorphism](#) implies a connection between logic and programming: every proof of a theorem of [intuitionistic logic](#) corresponds to a reduction of a typed lambda term, and conversely. Moreover, theorems can be identified with function type signatures. Specifically, a typed combinatory logic corresponds to a [Hilbert system](#) in [proof theory](#).

The **K** and **S** combinators correspond to the axioms

$$\mathbf{AK}: A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A),$$

$$\mathbf{AS}: (A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)),$$

and function application corresponds to the detachment (modus ponens) rule

$$\mathbf{MP}: \text{from } A \text{ and } A \rightarrow B \text{ infer } B.$$

The calculus consisting of **AK**, **AS**, and **MP** is complete for the implicative fragment of the intuitionistic logic, which can be seen as follows. Consider the set W of all deductively closed sets of formulas, ordered by [inclusion](#). Then $\langle W, \subseteq \rangle$ is an intuitionistic [Kripke frame](#), and we define a model \Vdash in this frame by

$$X \Vdash A \iff A \in X.$$

This definition obeys the conditions on satisfaction of \rightarrow : on one hand, if $X \Vdash A \rightarrow B$, and $Y \in W$ is such that $Y \supseteq X$ and $Y \Vdash A$, then $Y \Vdash B$ by modus ponens. On the other hand, if $X \nvDash A \rightarrow B$, then $X, A \nvDash B$ by the [deduction theorem](#), thus the deductive closure of $X \cup \{A\}$ is an element $Y \in W$ such that $Y \supseteq X$, $Y \Vdash A$, and $Y \nvDash B$.

Let A be any formula which is not provable in the calculus. Then A does not belong to the deductive closure X of the empty set, thus $X \nvDash A$, and A is not intuitionistically valid.

See also [edit]

- [Applicative computing systems](#)
- [B, C, K, W system](#)
- [Categorical abstract machine](#)
- [Combinatory categorial grammar](#)
- [Explicit substitution](#)



Applications [edit]

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$$X \Vdash A \iff A \in X.$$



curry combinators and the "j programming language"



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University in late ... Kenneth E. Iverson used primitives based on **Curry's combinators** in his **J**
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if 0 {As KBK pointed out in the [Tcl](#) chatroom, the "hook" pattern corresponds to Schönfinkel/Curry's S combinator (see [Hot Curry](#) and [Combinator Engine](#)), while "fork" is called S' there.



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EE McDonnell, KE Iverson - Conference proceedings on APL as a tool of ..., 1989 - dl.acm.org

... In **combinatory logic** one of the most useful primitive combinators is designated by S [Sch24] ... (The constancy **combinator** K is defined in infur notation so that cKz has the value c for all x .) Users of **APL** will appreciate the hook for the same reasons ...

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Phrasal Forms

K. E. Iverson
Toronto

E. E. McDonnell
I. P. Sharp Associates
Palo Alto

NOTE: In this paper we use the linguistic terms *verb* and *pronoun* interchangeably with the mathematical terms *function* and *variable*.

INTRODUCTION

In standard APL [ISO88] certain forms are ungrammatical, and new definitions could be adopted for them without conflict. Such definitions we shall call *phrasal forms* [AHD76]. For example, if b and c are pronouns, the phrase $b\ c$ is meaningless, and in APL2 [IBM85] the definition $(\subset b), (\subset c)$, where \subset is the APL2 *enclose* function, is adopted for it.

VERB RANK

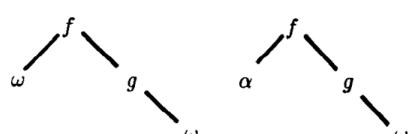
The notion of *verb rank*, first introduced by Iverson [Iv78], later elaborated by Keenan [Ke79], and further evolved by Whitney [Wh84], has been adopted by Iverson in his Dictionary [Iv87]. It refers to the rank of the subarrays of an argument which are the cells to which the verb applies. For example, the cells that negate applies to are items, and items are rank zero objects, and thus we say the rank of negate is zero. Similarly, the cells to which reverse applies are lists, or rank one objects, and thus we say the rank of reverse is one. Not only primitive verbs, but also derived and defined verbs have rank. The idea is a powerful one, producing great simplifications, and so we define the ranks of the new constructions we describe herein.

DEFINITIONS

In the following definitions, f , g , and h denote verbs and α and ω denote pronouns.

HOOK. A *hook* is denoted by fg and is defined formally by identities and informally by hook-shaped diagrams as follows:

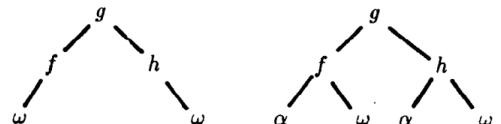
$$(fg)\omega \leftrightarrow \omega fg\omega; \quad \alpha(fg)\omega \leftrightarrow \alpha fg\omega$$



The rank of the hook fg is the maximum of the ranks of f and g . Note that the verb is used monadically.

FORK. A *fork* is denoted by fgh and is defined formally by identities and informally by forking diagrams as follows:

$$(fgh)\omega \leftrightarrow (f\omega)g(h\omega); \quad \alpha(fgh)\omega \leftrightarrow (\alpha f\omega)g(\alpha h\omega)$$



The rank of the fork fgh is the maximum of the ranks of f and g . Note that the central verb is used dyadically or monadically according to whether the fork is applied to two arguments or one. Parenthesis are required around hook and fork forms only to avoid ambiguity.

DISCUSSION OF HOOK AND FORK

HOOK. In combinatory logic one of the most useful primitive combinators is designated by **S** [Sch24]. Curry defines **S/gx** in prefix notation to be $fx(gx)$ [CuFeCr74]. In common mathematical infix notation this would be given by $(x)f(g(x))$, which one can write in APL as $xfgx$, and this is the hook form $(fg)x$. The combinatory logician appreciates this form because of its great expressiveness: it can be shown that **S**, along with **K**, the *constancy* combinator, suffice to define all other combinators of interest [Ro50]. (The constancy combinator **K** is defined in infix notation so that cKx has the value c for all x .) Users of APL will appreciate the hook for the same reasons.

For example, $+/\div$ adds the reciprocal of the right argument to the left argument, a form used in describing continued fractions. Thus $(+/\div)\backslash 3\ 7\ 16\ \overline{294}$ gives the first four convergents to pi, which, to nine decimals, are 3, 3.1412857143, 3.14159292, and 3.141592654. Further, $=\lfloor$ is a proposition that tests whether its argument is an integer, the number of primes less than positive integer ω is approximately $(+\otimes)\omega$; and to decompose a number ω into numerator and denominator, one can write $(+v/\omega), 1$ (where v is the *greatest common divisor*).

FORK. The forks $f + h$ and $f \times h$ and $f \div h$ provide formal treatment of the identical but informal phrases used in mathematics [e.g. Ef89] for the sum and product and quotient,

and g . Note that the central verb is used dyadically or monadically according to whether the fork is applied to two arguments or one. Parenthesis are required around hook and fork forms only to avoid ambiguity.

DISCUSSION OF HOOK AND FORK

HOOK. In combinatory logic one of the most useful primitive combinators is designated by **S** [Sch24]. Curry defines $Sfgx$ in prefix notation to be $fx(gx)$ [CuFeCr74]. In common mathematical infix notation this would be given by $(x)f(g(x))$, which one can write in APL as $xfgx$, and this is the hook form $(fg)x$. The combinatory logician appreciates this form because of its great expressiveness: it can be shown that **S**, along with **K**, the *constancy* combinator, suffice to define all other combinators of interest [Ro50]. (The constancy combinator **K** is defined in infix notation so that cKx has the value c for all x .) Users of APL will appreciate the hook for the same reasons.

For example, $+÷$ adds the reciprocal of the right argument to the left argument, a form used in describing continued fractions. Thus $(+÷)\backslash 3\ 7\ 16\ -294$ gives the first four con-

Curry [Cu31] defines a *formalizing combinator*, Φ , in prefix notation, such that $\Phi fghx$ means $f(gx)(hx)$. In common mathematical infix notation this would be designated by $(g(x))f(h(x))$. An example of this form is $\Phi + \sin^2 \cos^2 \theta$, meaning $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta$. The fork $(f\ g\ h)\omega$ has the same meaning, namely $(f\omega)g(h\omega)$. Curry named this the *formalizing combinator* because of its role in defining formal implication in terms of ordinary implication.

TJ

 Conor Hoekstra
@code_report

For a second, I thought @simonpj0 had already implemented CEAf (Combinator-Enabled Algorithm Fusion) but alas the graph reduction he refers to is not that (it is reducing a program down to the S, K & I #combinators)

 Conor Hoekstra
@code_report

I am not sure
Combinatory
C, E, È, K an
Logic so muc

Sixteen

SK COMBINATORS

In this chapter we will learn about combinators. A combinator is a fixed set of functions that can be composed together to form more complex functions. In fact, combinators are the supercombinators of the lambda calculus. They are called combinators because they do not have free variables.

The metaprogramming reduction rule for combinators needs no terms to be implemented. This makes combinators easy to implement. We shall see how combinators can be used to implement the supercombinators.

(Note: in this chapter, we use expressions in upper case.)

1 2 3

9:45 PM · Sep 16

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1 2 3 | 6 7 8

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6 Likes

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1 o = ö ~

/ (- [+)

1

9:06 PM · Oct 21, 2020 · Twitter Web App

12:38 AM · Sep 24, 2021 · Twitter Web App

 Conor Hoekstra
@code_report

And for maybe my most amazing combinator discovery to date, std::inner_product is the Blackbird 🐦 (which is what I was looking for when I stumbled across the Phoenix) #combinators #cpp #algorithms



TIL that another name for the S-combinator' aka the Starling' is the Phoenix 🐦 #combinators



8:55 PM · Sep 10, 2020 · Twitter Web App

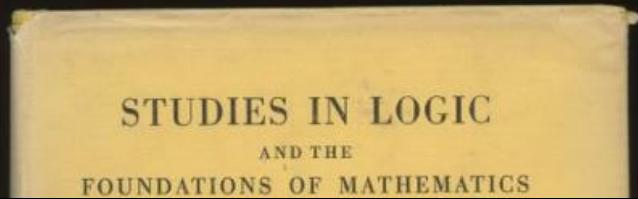
2:56 AM · Sep 21, 2021 · Twitter Web App

 Conor Hoekstra
@code_report

In #APL, trains are ALL of the following:

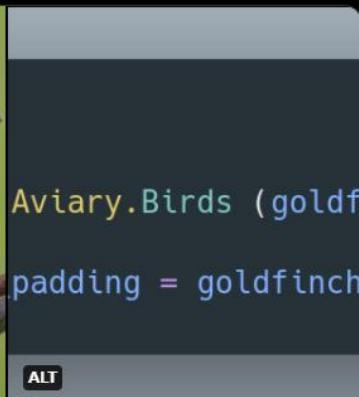
- Bluebird (B combinator)
- Dove (D combinator)
- Phoenix (S' combinator)
- Blackbird (B1 combinator)
- Eagle (E combinator)
- Golden Eagle (E^ combinator specialization)

APL is a Combinatory Logic programming language.



Conor Hoekstra @code_report · Sep 12

The Combinator Quest continues and I managed to use a new combinator today, the G-combinator, aka the Goldfinch 😊



2:56 AM · Sep 21, 2021 · Twitter Web App

A Brief History of Combinatory Logic (CL)

A Brief History of CL in Array Languages

A Brief History of Combinatory Logic



Moses Schönfinkel
1888 - 1942

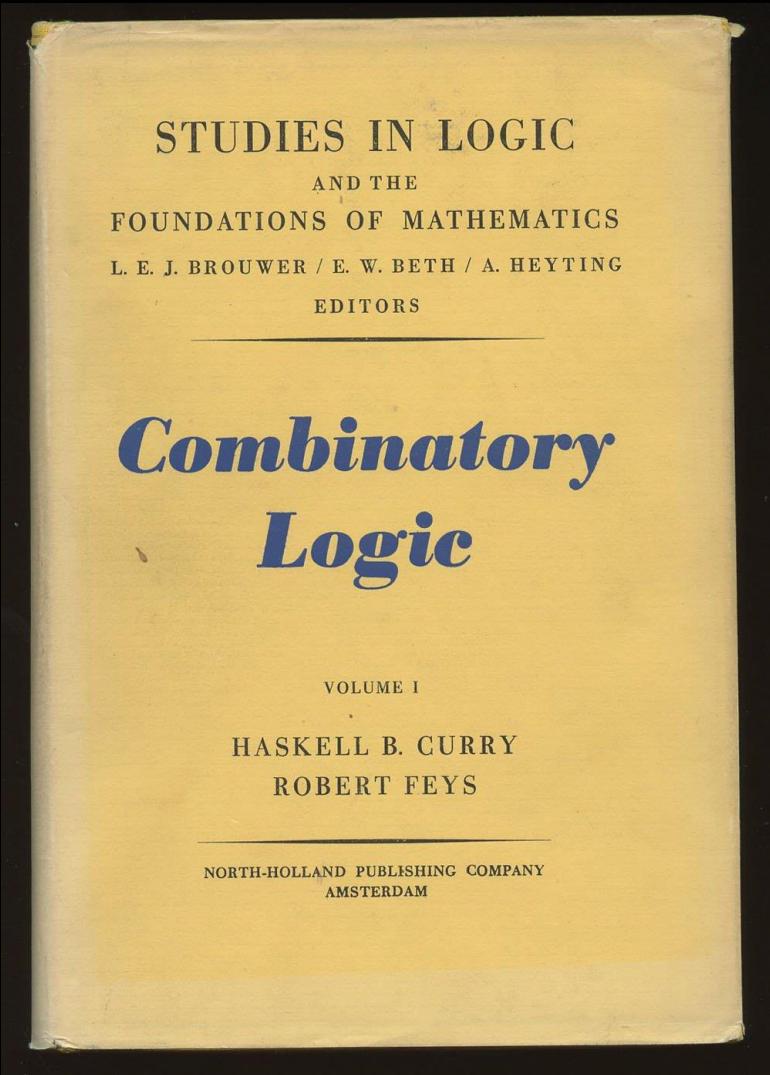


Moses Schönfinkel
1888 - 1942

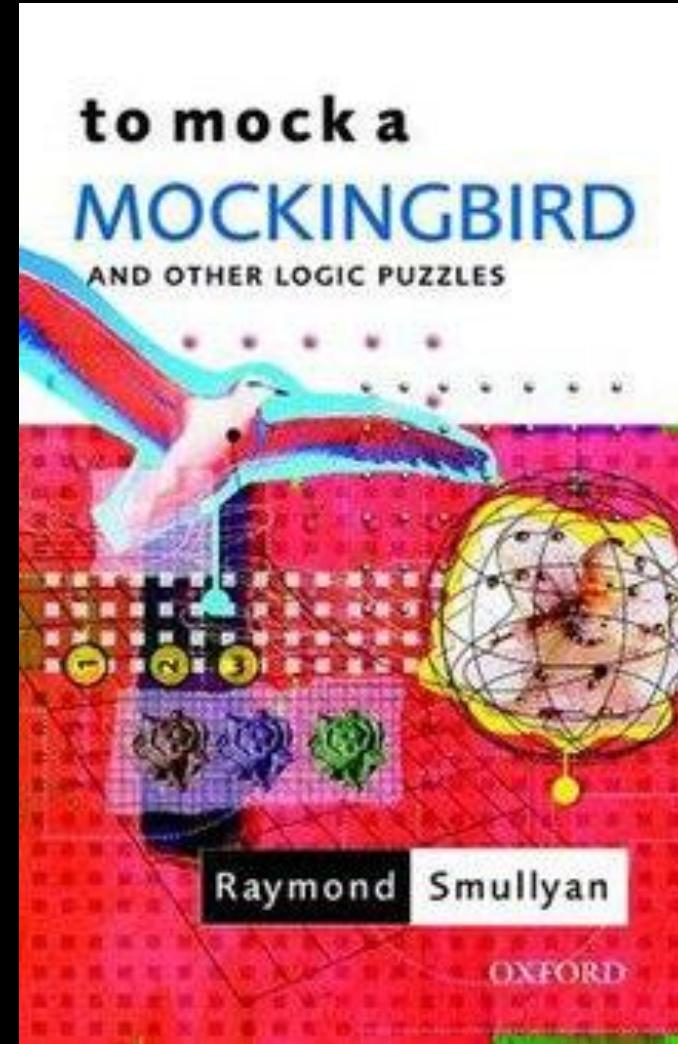


Haskell Curry
1900-1982

Year	Author(s)	Title	Introduced
1924	Schönfinkel	On the building blocks of mathematical logic	S K I B C
1929	Curry	An Analysis of Logical Substitution	W
1930	Curry	The Foundations of Combinatory Logic	B_n (B_1, B_2, \dots)
1931	Curry	The Universal Quantifier in Combinatory Logic	Ψ, Φ_n (Φ, Φ_1, \dots)
1958	Curry and Feys	Combinatory Logic: Volume I	



1958



1985

www.combinatorylogic.com/table.html

	Author	Year	Paper
Sch24	Moses Schönfinkel	1924	On the building blocks of mathematical logic
Cur29	Haskell Curry	1929	An Analysis of Logical Substitution
Cur30	Haskell Curry	1931	Grundlagen der Kombinatorischen Logik (The Foundations of Combinatory Logic)
Cur31	Haskell Curry	1931	The universal quantifier in combinatory logic
Cur48	Haskell Curry	1948	A Simplification of the Theory of Combinators
Cur58	H. Curry & R. Feys	1958	Combinatory Logic: Volume I
Tur78	David Turner	1979	Another algorithm for bracket abstraction
Smu85	Raymond Smullyan	1985	To Mock a Mockingbird
Iv89	K. Iverson & E. McDonnell	1989	Phrasal Forms
Loc12	Marshall Lochbaum	2012	Added hook, backhook

A Brief History of CL in Array Languages

Table 4. 2 and 3-trains in APL, BQN and J.

Year	Language	2-Train	3-Train
1990	J	S and D	Φ and Φ_1
2014	Dyalog APL	B and B_1	Φ and Φ_1
2020	BQN	B and B_1	Φ and Φ_1

Table 5. History of combinators in Dyalog APL.

Year	Version	Combinator	Spelling
1983	1.0	B, D, C	$\circ\tilde{\circ}$
2003	10.0	W	$\tilde{\circ}$
2013	13.0	K	\vdash
2014	14.0	B, B_1 , Φ , Φ_1	trains
2020	18.0	B, B_1 , Ψ , K	$\circ\ddot{\circ}\tilde{\circ}$

Combinator Table: Combinators, Birds, Spellings & More

Function Abstraction	Symbol	Bird	CR ¹	CH ²	Elem ³	Haskell	APL	BQN	Intro
$\lambda abc.ac(bc)$	S	Starling	S	S		<*> / ap		○-	Sch24
$\lambda ab.a$	K	Kestrel	K	K	✓	const	⊤	⊤	Sch24
$\lambda a.a$	I	Identity	SKK	SKK	✓	id	-⊤-	-⊤-	Sch24
$\lambda ab.b$	K	Kite	KI	KI			⊤	⊤	
$\lambda ab.abb$	W	Warbler	C(BMR)	CSK	✓	join	~	~	Cur29
$\lambda abc.acb$	C	Cardinal	S(BBS)(KK)	B(ΦBS)KK	✓	flip	~	~	Sch24
$\lambda abc.a(bc)$	B	Bluebird	S(KS)K	S(KS)K	✓	.	○○ Ö 2T	○○ 2T	Sch24
$\lambda abcd.a(bcd)$	B ₁	Blackbird	BBB	DB		..	ö 2T	◦ 2T	Cur30
$\lambda abcde.a(bcde)$	B ₂	Bunting	B(BBB)B	DB ₁					Cur30
$\lambda abcd.a(b(cd))$	B ₃	Becard	B(BB)B	BDB					Cur30
$\lambda abcd.ab(cd)$	D	Dove	BB	BB			◦	○-	Smu85
$\lambda abcd.a(bd)(cd)$	Φ	Phoenix	-	B ₁ SB		liftA2	3T	3T	Cur31
$\lambda abcd.a(bc)(bd)$	Ψ	Psi	-	B(SΦCB)B		on	Ö	◦	Cur31
$\lambda abcde.abc(de)$	D ₁	Dickcissel	B(BB)	BD					
$\lambda abcde.a(bc)(de)$	D ₂	Dovekies	BB(BB)	DD					Smu85
$\lambda abcde.ab(cde)$	E	Eagle	B(BBB)	BB ₁					Smu85
$\lambda abcde.a(bde)(cde)$	Φ ₁	Pheasant	-	BΦΦ			3T	3T	Cur31
$\lambda abcdefg.a(bcd)(efg)$	Ê	Bald Eagle	B(BBB)(B(BBB))	D ₂ D ₂ D					Smu85

		⌚	J
I	⊣⊣	⊣⊣] [
K	⊣	⊣]
KI	⊣	⊣	[
S		-	2 Train
B	◦ ö ö 2T	◦ O 2T	@: &:
C	≈	~	~
W	≈	~	~
B ₁	ö 2T	◦ 2T	@:
D	◦	-	2 Train
Ψ	ö	O	&:
Φ	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
Φ ₁	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
D ₂		-oo-	

	 APL	⌚	J
I	⊣⊣	⊣⊣] [
K	⊣	⊣]
KI	⊣	⊣	[
S		-	2 Train
B	◦ ö ö 2T	◦ O 2T	@: &:
C	~	~	~
W	~	~	~
B ₁	ö 2T	◦ 2T	@:
D	◦	-	2 Train
Ψ	ö	O	&:
Φ	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
Φ ₁	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
D ₂		-oo-	

		⌚	J
I	⊣↑	⊣↑] [
K	↑	↑]
KI	↑	↑	[
S		-	2 Train
B	◦ ö ö 2T	◦ O 2T	@: &:
C	~	~	~
W	~	~	~
B ₁	ö 2T	◦ 2T	@:
D	◦	-	2 Train
Ψ	ö	O	&:
Φ	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
Φ ₁	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
D ₂		-oo-	

		⌚	J
I	⊣⊣	⊣⊣] [
K	⊣	⊣]
KI	⊣	⊣	[
S		⊖	2 Train
B	◦ ◦ ö 2T	◦ O 2T	@: &:
C	≈	~	~
W	≈	~	~
B ₁	ö 2T	◦ 2T	@:
D	◦	⊖	2 Train
Ψ	ö	O	&:
Φ	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
Φ ₁	3 Train	3 Train	3 Train
D ₂		-oo-	
Σ		-o	
Δ		-o	

What is a combinator?

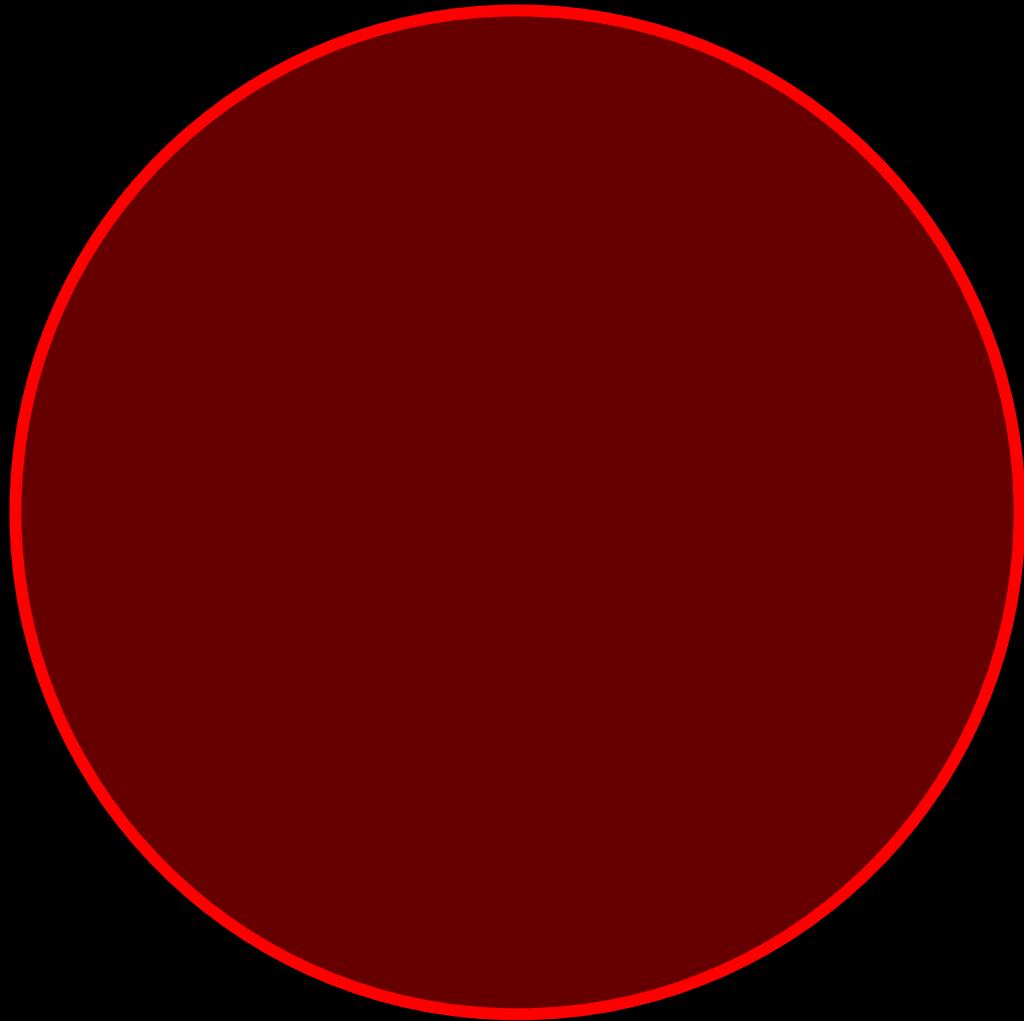
**combinator: a lambda expression
containing no free variables**

combinator: a function that deals
only in its arguments

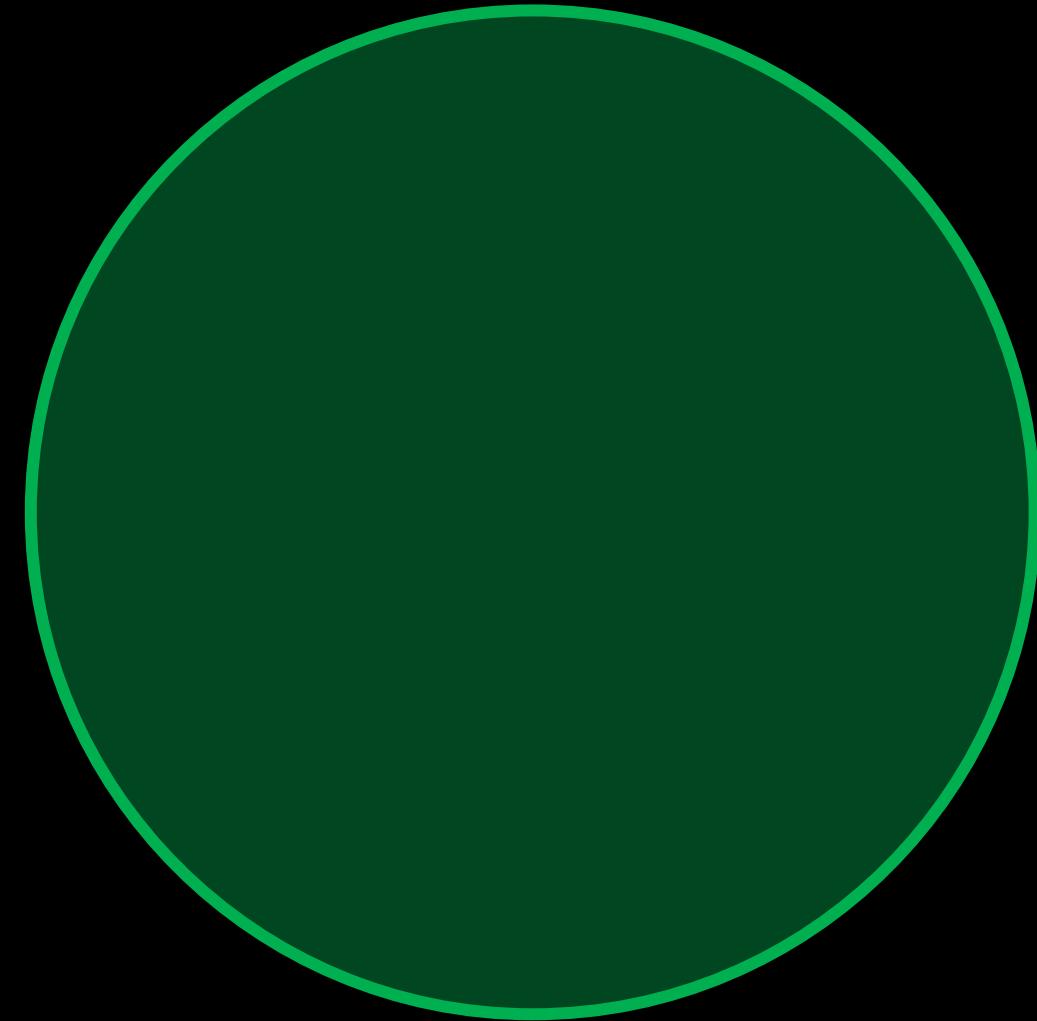
combinator = pure function?

pure function: same input = same output / no side effects

pure function

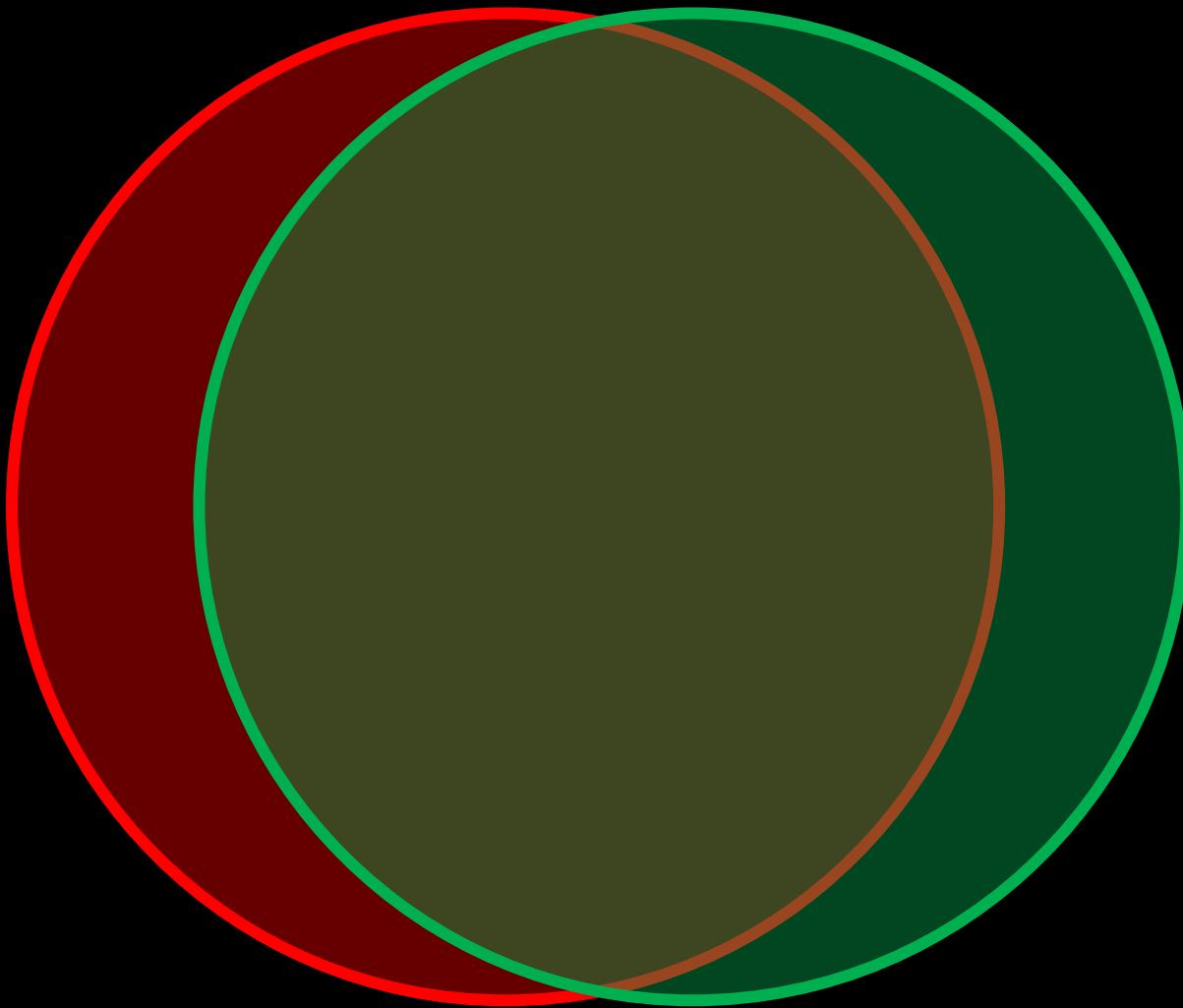


combinator



pure function

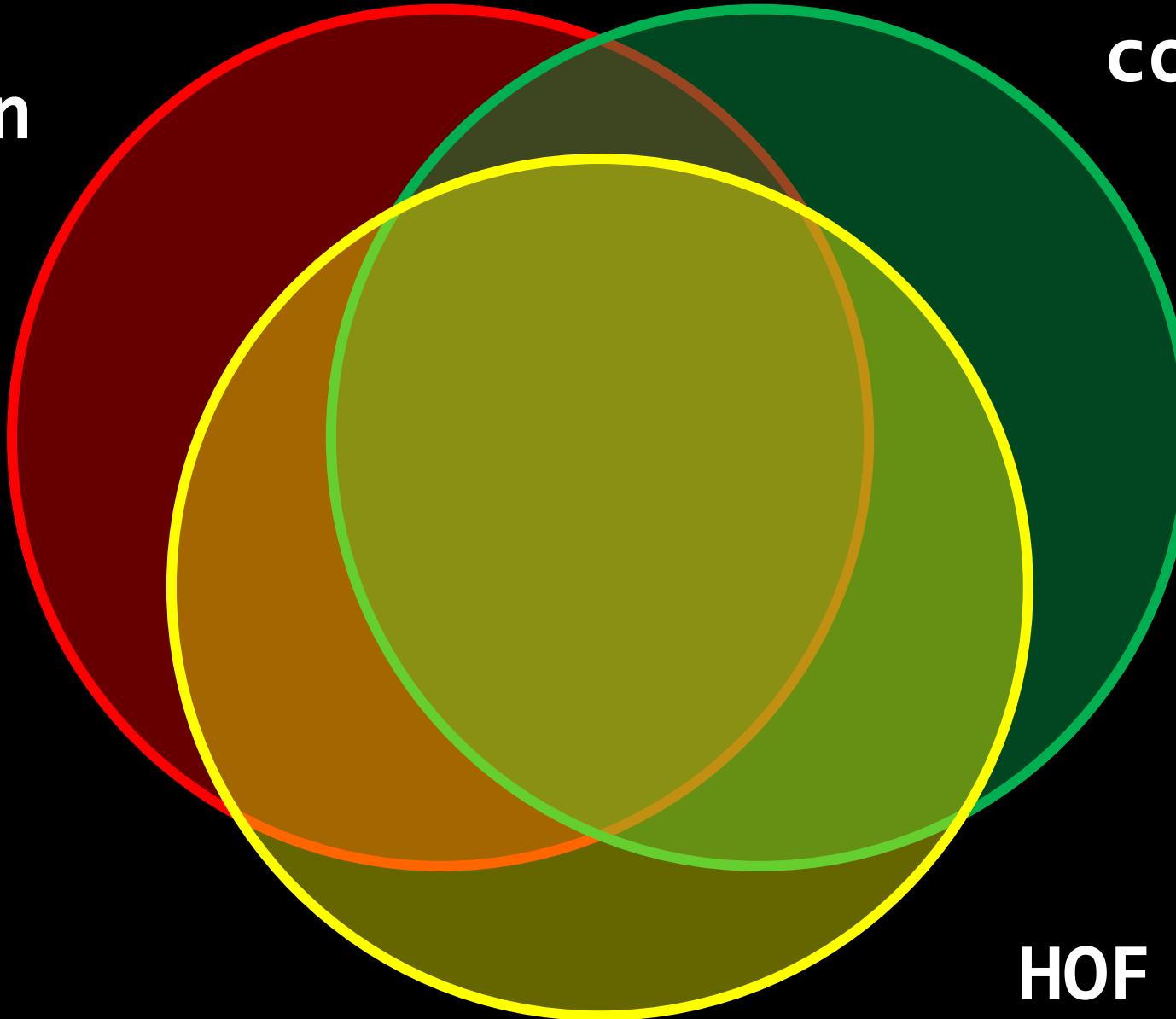
combinator



pure
function

combinator

HOF

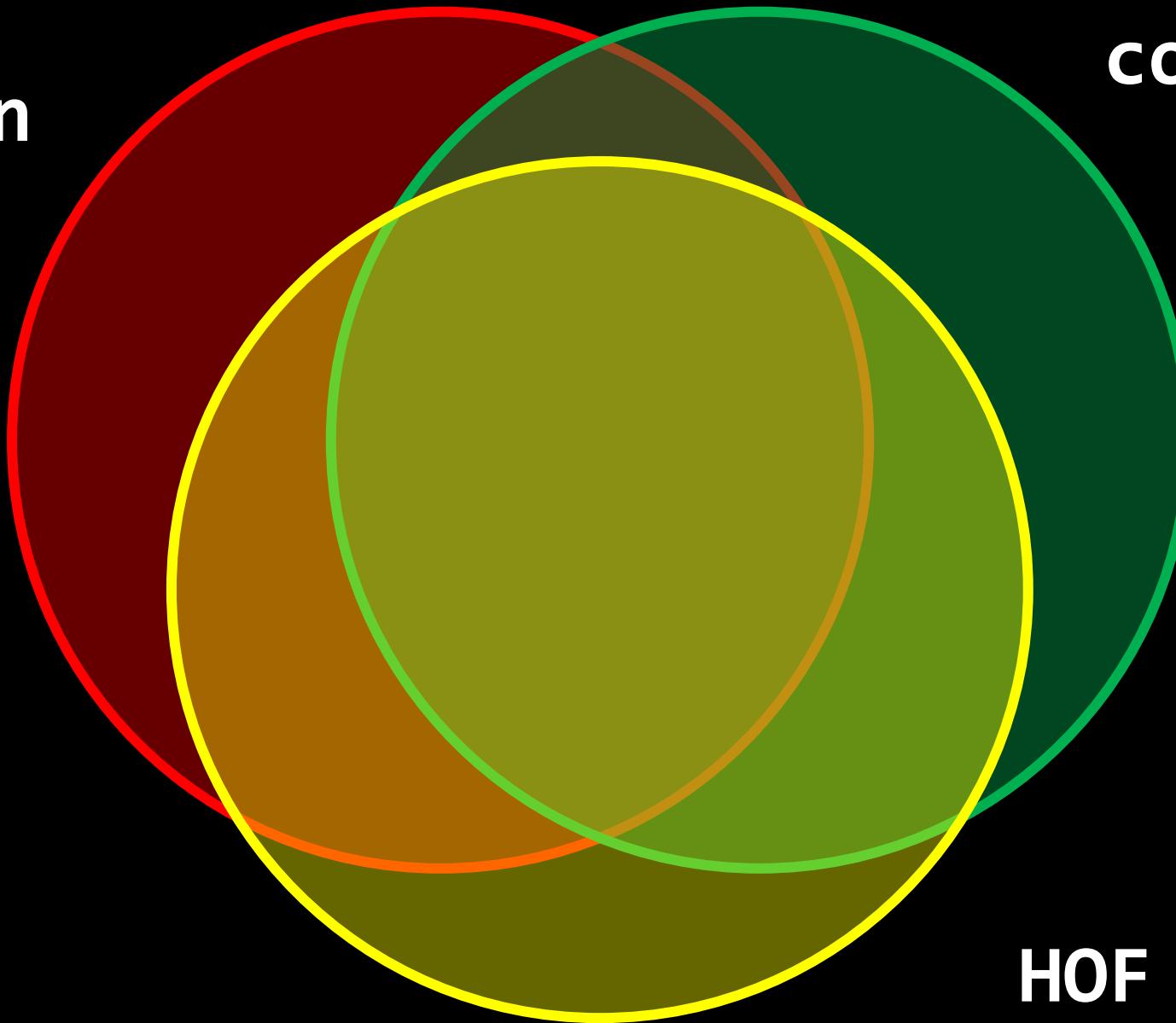


pure
function



combinator

HOF



pure function

HOF

combinator



pure function

HOF

combinator

CL (SKI)
combinator



pure function

HOF

combinator

CL combinator

SBCWΦΨ

KI



combinator: a function that deals only in its arguments

CL combinator: a combinator that only consumes AND produces functions*

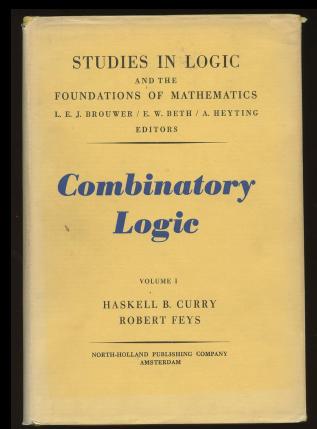
pure function: same input = same output / no side effects

HOF: consumes OR produces a function

THE ELEMENTARY COMBINATORS

Table 2. The elementary combinators.

Combinator	Elementary Name
I	Elementary Identifier
C	Elementary Permutator
W	Elementary Duplicator
B	Elementary Compositor
K	Elementary Cancellator



```
def i(x):  
    return x
```

```
def k(x, y):  
    return x
```

```
def w(f):  
    return lambda x: f(x, x)
```

[[digression]]



Conor Hoekstra @code_report · Jan 8, 2022

...

Also, I apologize for my above average number of tweets 🐦 today, but this table of Greek/Latin words for describing function **arity** will be necessary for a future talk.

The \hat{E} combinator is "tetradic"

Unary/Monadic

Binary/Dyadic

Ternary/Triadic

Quaternary/Tetradic

Terminology [\[edit \]](#)

Latinate names are commonly used for specific arities, primarily based on [cardinal numbers](#) or [ordinal numbers](#). For example, 1-ary is based on

x-ary	Arity (Latin based)	Adicity (Greek based)
0-ary	<i>Nullary</i> (from <i>nūllus</i>)	<i>Niladic</i>
1-ary	<i>Unary</i>	<i>Monadic</i>
2-ary	<i>Binary</i>	<i>Dyadic</i>
3-ary	<i>Ternary</i>	<i>Triadic</i>
4-ary	<i>Quaternary</i>	<i>Tetradic</i>



6



2



46



[[end of digression]]

```
def w(f):  
    return lambda x: f(x, x)
```

```
def b(f, g):  
    return lambda x: f(g(x))
```

```
def c(f):  
    return lambda x, y: f(y, x)
```

```
def s(f, g):  
    return lambda x: f(x, g(x))
```

```
def i (x):           return x
def k (x, y):        return x
def ki (x, y):       return y
def s (f, g):        return lambda x:      f(x, g(x))
def b (f, g):        return lambda x:      f(g(x))
def c (f):           return lambda x, y:   f(y, x)
def w (f):           return lambda x:      f(x, x)
def d (f, g):        return lambda x, y:   f(x, g(y))
def b1 (f, g):       return lambda x, y:   f(g(x, y))
def psi(f, g):       return lambda x, y:   f(g(x), g(y))
def phi(f, g, h):    return lambda x:      g(f(x), h(x))
```

```
def b (f, g):    return lambda x:    f(g(x))
```

```
def b1 (f, g):   return lambda x, y: f(g(x, y))
```

```
def b (f, g):    return lambda x:      f(g(x))
def b1 (f, g):   return lambda x, y: f(g(x, y))
```



2.00

```
exactMatches = length . filter id ... zipWith (==)
```



Sept 15-17, 2016
thestrangeloop.com

"Point-Free or Die: Tacit Programming"

2.00

exactMatches =



Oct 15-17, 2016
onestrangeloop.com



▶ ▶ 🔍 23:08 / 36:12





2.00

```
exactMatches = length . filter id ... zipWith (==)
```



Sept 15-17, 2016
thestrangeloop.com



```
exactMatches = length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
```



```
exactMatches      = length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
exactMatches c g = length (filter id (zipWith (==) c g))
```



```
exactMatches      = length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
exactMatches c g = length (filter id (zipWith (==) c g))

= exactMatches "RRGG" "RYGB"
= length (filter id (zipWith (==) "RRGG" "RYGB"))
= length (filter id [True, False, True, False])
= length [True, True]
= 2
```



length . filter id .: zipWith (==)



sum .: zipWith (==)



```
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
```



```
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
```



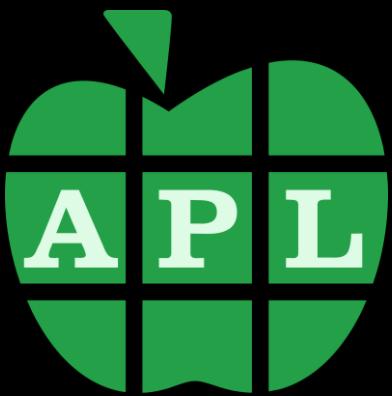
```
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```

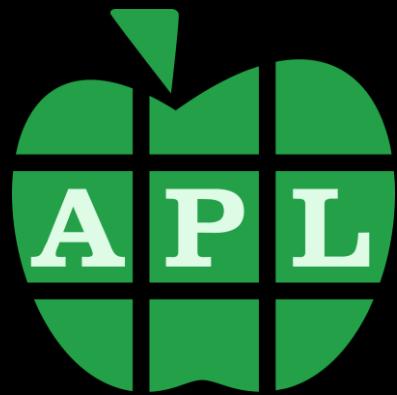


```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```



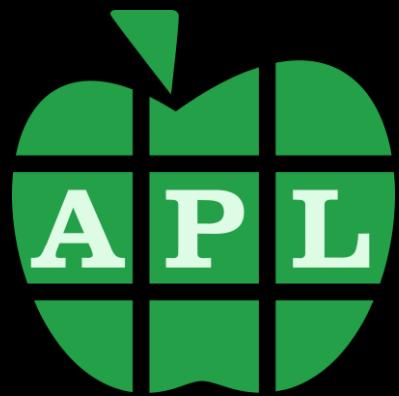
```
length . filter id .: zipWith (=)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (=)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (=))
countElem True .: zipWith (=)
```





```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```



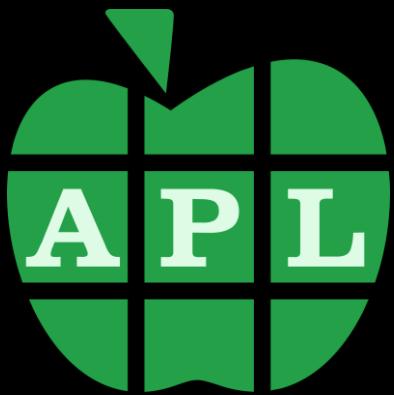


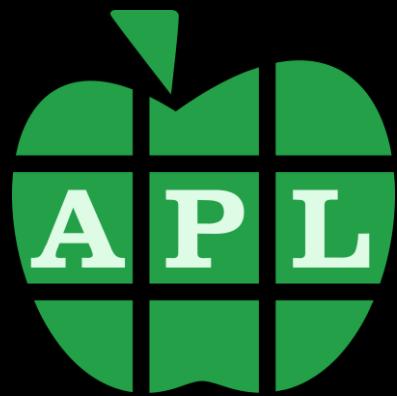
```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```

+ / =



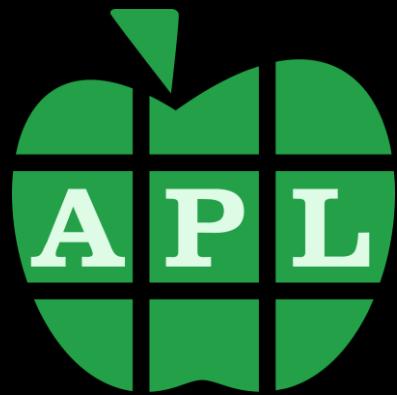
```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```


$$\{ + / \alpha = \omega \}$$



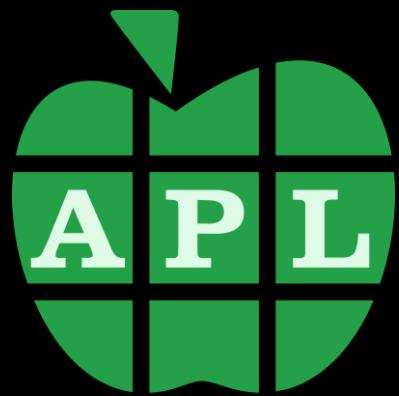
```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```

+ / =



```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```

+ . =



```
length . filter id .: zipWith (==)
sum . map fromEnum .: zipWith (==)
sum .: zipWith (fromEnum .: (==))
countElem True .: zipWith (==)
```

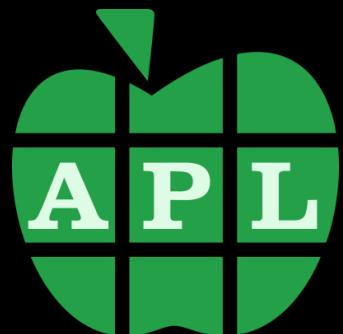
+ / =



```
auto exact_matches(std::string_view code,  
                   std::string_view guess) -> int {  
    return std::transform_reduce(  
        code.begin(), code.end(), guess.begin(), 0,  
        std::plus{},  
        std::equal_to{});  
}
```



```
exactMatches = length  
  . filter id  
  .: zipWith (==)
```



ExactMatches $\leftarrow +/=_$



Conor Hoekstra @code_report · Oct 21, 2020

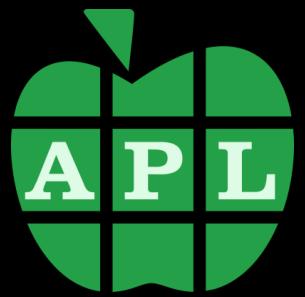
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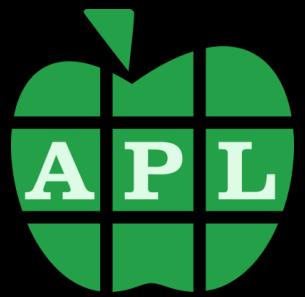
And for maybe my most amazing combinator discovery to date,
std::inner_product is the **Blackbird** 🐦 (which is what I was looking for
when I stumbled across the Phoenix) #combinators #cpp #algorithms



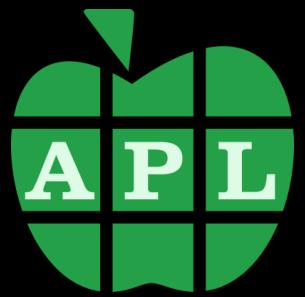


<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U6I-Kwj-AvY>

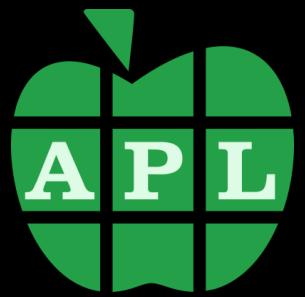

$$\{ (+/0>\omega), (+/0<\omega) \}$$



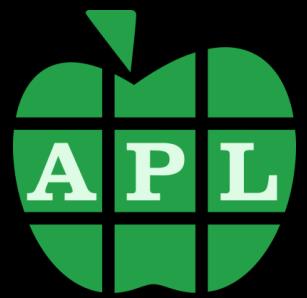
(+ / 0 > ⊢) , (+ / 0 < ⊢)



($0 > \vdash$) , ($0 < \vdash$)
+ /



(0 > ⊢) , ö (+ /) (0 < ⊢)

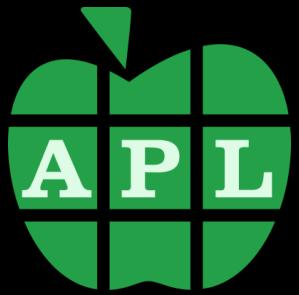


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 |_____|
 ψ

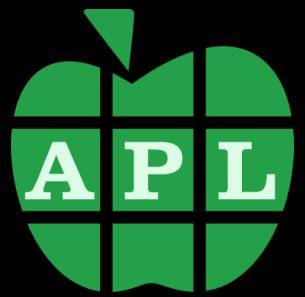

$$\Phi_1$$
$$0 \circ (>, \ddot{o} (+ /) <)$$
$$\Psi$$

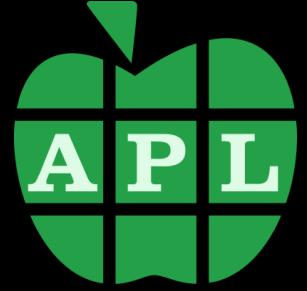


```
def psi (f, g):    return lambda x, y: f(g(x), g(y))  
def phi1(f, g, h): return lambda x, y: g(f(x, y), h(x, y))
```

$$\Phi_1$$
$$0 \circ (>, \ddot{o} (+ /) <)$$
$$\Psi$$

The diagram illustrates the derivation of the APL function Ψ from Φ_1 . A curved brace originates from the symbol Φ_1 at the top and points down to the expression $(+ /)$ within the function definition. Another curved brace originates from the symbol Ψ at the bottom and points up to the symbol $>$ within the same expression. This visualizes how the components of the derived function Ψ are assembled from the components of Φ_1 .


$$\{ (+/0>\omega) \lceil (+/0<\omega) \}$$
$$0 \circ (> \lceil ö (+/) <)$$

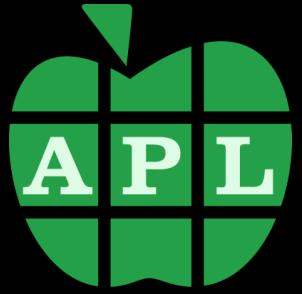


{ (+ / 0 > ω) ⌈ (+ / 0 < ω) }

0 ° (> ⌈ ö (+ /) <)



/ ↑ ≡ ≡ . √ ±



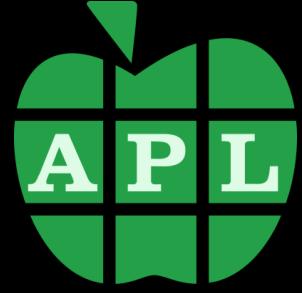
{ (+ / 0 > ω) ⌈ (+ / 0 < ω) }

0 ° (> ⌈ ö (+ /) <)

⌈ / (≢ .. (≤ ∼ | o ×))



/↑≡𠁧.√±



{ (+ / 0 > ω) ⌊ (+ / 0 < ω) }

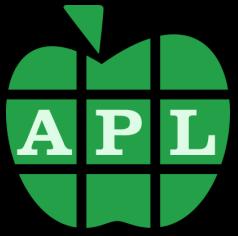
0 ◦ (> ⌈ ö (+ /) <)

⌈ / (≢ .. (⊆ ≈ | o ×))

⌈ / • ≢ .. • ⊆ ≈ | o ×



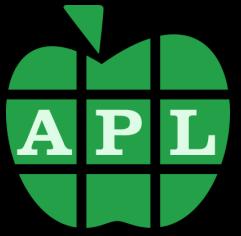
/ ↑ ⊕ ≡ . √ ±


$$\{\lceil / \not\equiv^{\cdots} \sqsubseteq \approx | \times \omega\}$$
$$\lceil / (\not\equiv^{\cdots} (\sqsubseteq \approx | \circ \times))$$

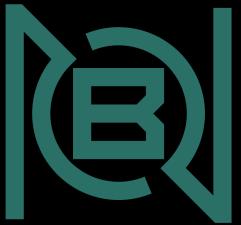
$$\{\{>./(\#; ._{_1})\theta, | *y\}\}$$
$$([:>./\&(\#; ._{_1})\theta, | \&*)$$

$$\{\lceil ' + '^{\cdots} | \neg \circ \cup \times \mathbb{X}\}$$
$$\lceil ' \cdot + '^{\cdots} \cdot | \cdot \neg \circ \cup \times$$

$$/\uparrow \ominus \pm . \vee \pm$$


$$\{ (+/0>\omega) \lceil (+/0<\omega) \}$$
$$0 \circ (> \lceil \circ (+/) <)$$

J

$$\{ \{ (+/0>y) > . (+/0<y) \} \}$$
$$0 \& (>> . \& : (+/) <)$$

$$\{ (+'0>\mathbb{X}) \lceil (+'0<\mathbb{X}) \}$$
$$0 \circ (> \lceil \circ (+') <)$$

$$\uparrow :: / + \supset > < 0$$

Why Combinators?

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Programming with combinators can lead
to extremely elegant code

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Programming with combinators can lead to extremely elegant code if you have the right set with the right primitives.

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Programming with combinators can lead to extremely elegant code if you have the right set with the right primitives. And it sees like there is a **threshold**.

				
2-Train is B/B_1	✓	✗	✓	B/B_1 for free
Cap / Nothing	⌚	✓	✓	No need
Full set (S , Σ , etc)	⌚	⌚	✓	No need?
Elegant Repeated B^* *Tacit	✗	✗	✗	✓
Split Primitive	\sqsubseteq Partition	$; \cdot _ X$ Cut	\sqcup Group	\equiv Partition



A PROGRAMMING TECHNIQUE FOR NON-RECTANGULAR DATA

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Abstract

A programming technique is developed to deal with certain common operations on non-rectangular (ragged) data. A representation of such data in current *APL* is defined; a notation for applying primitive functions to this data is developed; and user-defined functions that simulate these operations for certain primitive monadic functions are illustrated.

Motivation

The coordinates of matrices and higher-dimensional arrays serve to delimit the values of the rectangular data into distinct "lines" (e.g., the rows of a matrix). Primitive functions (e.g., reduction and scan) then may be applied independently to each distinct line to produce various results.

Occasionally, however, it becomes necessary to apply a primitive function independently to successive parts of a vector (called the *argument vector*). These parts are analogous to the lines of a higher-dimensional array. For example, the problem may be to plus-reduce certain parts of a numeric vector. If the argument vector were `:10` and if it were broken into several parts as follows:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

then the desired result would be 6 4 26 19.

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In this case, the non-rectangular data is represented as an argument vector along with a vector of the lengths which partition the argument vector (here, the implicit lengths are 3 1 4 2). One might think of the argument vector as a *vector of vectors*.

Previously, this kind of problem has been solved by first expanding and reshaping the argument vector into a matrix. This transformation allows the programmer to take advantage of the delimiting property of the coordinates of the matrix and apply the primitive function to the entire matrix to obtain the result. If the argument vector were stored in *B* and the lengths of the successive parts stored in *A*, a solution is

`+/(pA),[1A)p(,A.≥1[1A)\B .`

As a general method, the argument vector-to-matrix approach has several drawbacks.

First, the expansion result may not fit in the workspace. Because the length of the expansion result is the number of parts times the length of the longest part, it only takes one long part and many small parts to create a nuisance. *WS FULL* is most programmers' least favorite error message.

Second, the expansion process may pad each part (on the way to creating a row of the matrix) with an inappropriate value. The 0's that expansion uses as fillers for numeric structures won't bother `+/`, but `*/` and `^/` won't like them. This problem can be circumvented; however, it's one more thing with which the programmer must be bothered.

Third, this approach can be expensive because of all the extra work involved in inserting fill elements via expansion.

The following sections discuss an alternate approach to solving this class of problems. Essentially, these problems involve representing non-rectangular data as a vector of vectors along with a partition, and applying a primitive function to each independent part. First, we must characterize the concept of "parts", and then combine that with the primitive function and the argument vector to produce the result.

Partition Vectors

A simple and unique characterization of any partitioning of an argument vector is as a Boolean vector of the same length (called a **partition vector**). Each 1 in the partition vector corresponds to the beginning of a part and the following 0's correspond to the remaining elements in that part.

The partition of $\text{i}10$ used above would be characterized as

1 2 3	4	5 6 7 8	9 10
1 0 0	1	1 0 0 0	1 0

It is easy to see that this characterization is unique and that every Boolean vector of the same length as the argument vector and whose first element is 1 represents a partition of the argument vector. There are 2^{N-1} such partitions of length N . Note that the number of parts represented by the partition vector P is $+P$.

The characterization as a Boolean vector is chosen over that of a vector of successive lengths of the parts for several reasons. The Boolean vector often is easily computed from and stored with the argument vector (as in blanks in a character vector); has a simpler conformability test ($P[1] \wedge P = pB$ vs. $((+/P) \wedge P) \wedge P \geq 0$); often uses less storage than an integer vector; and combines more naturally with the user-defined functions illustrated later.

Although a representation as a vector of lengths would allow zero lengths, there is no real added capability. The zero lengths have no effect in conjunction with shape-preserving functions like scan and grade. For reduction, presumably one fills in the result with the appropriate identity element. I prefer to leave that job to the expansion function.

The Partition Operator

We now need to combine the partition vector, the primitive function, and the argument vector. One method of doing this is to combine the partition vector and the primitive function into a derived function via an operator. This operator (called the **partition operator**) is then dyadic, with a partition vector on the left and a primitive function on the right. The result is a derived function (a **partition function**) which has the same valence as the original primitive function. That is, the resulting function is dyadic if the original primitive function is dyadic; monadic otherwise.

For simplicity, a new symbol is used for this operator. It is not the goal of this paper to suggest that this operator or symbol be implemented; it is introduced only as notation to simplify the presentation.

Definition: partition operator \dagger

(which Jim Ryan calls the "dagger" symbol)

Let a be any primitive monadic function, and P and B any vectors of equal length where P is a Boolean vector whose first element is 1.

$R \dagger P \dagger a B$

is the result of applying a to each part of B , where P defines the partition. Specifically,

```

R\dagger 0
I\dagger 0
L1:=((+/P)\dagger I\dagger I+1)/0
R\dagger R, a (I=\dagger\backslash P)/B
\dagger L1

```

The shape of R depends upon a . If a is a reduction function, the shape is $+P$ (one value per part since reduction reduces vectors to scalars); if a is a shape-preserving function, the shape is pP (e.g., scan preserves shape). If a is defined for higher-dimensional arrays, then so is $P \dagger a$, and in the same way. Notationally, this would be written as $P \dagger (a[K]) B$. For example, $P \dagger (+\backslash [2]) B$.

If a is a dyadic function, the syntax of the partition operator is

$R \dagger A (P \dagger a) B$

and the result is calculated as

```

R\dagger 0
I\dagger 0
L1:=((+/P)\dagger I\dagger I+1)/0
R\dagger R,((I=\dagger\backslash P)/A) a (I=\dagger\backslash P)/B
\dagger L1

```

See Iverson [1] for a discussion of operators which take data as arguments.

The above example of a partitioned plus reduction of $\text{i}10$ would be written as

```

1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 \dagger(+/) \text{i}10
6 4 26 19

```

or as a function of A and B with $B \dagger \text{i}10$ and $A \dagger 3 1 4 2$ (the partition lengths) as

```

((\dagger\backslash A)\dagger 1\dagger\backslash\text{i}10,A)\dagger(+/) B
6 4 26 19

```

Applications

I. In accounting applications, one encounters the problem of accumulating amounts of money into bins. For example, *AMT* might be a vector of amounts, and *ACCT* might be a vector of corresponding account codes. Potentially, there are amounts in

expansion function.

The Partition Operator

We now need to combine the partition vector, the primitive function, and the argument vector. One method of doing this is to combine the partition vector and the primitive function into a derived function via an operator. This operator (called the partition operator) is then dyadic, with a partition vector on the left and a primitive function on the right. The result is a derived function (a partition function) which has the same valence as the original primitive function. That is, the resulting function is dyadic if the original primitive function is dyadic; monadic otherwise.

For simplicity, a new symbol is used for this operator. It is not the goal of this paper to suggest that this operator or symbol be implemented; it is introduced only as notation to simplify the presentation.

See Iverson [1] for a discussion of operators which take dyadic functions as arguments.

The above example of reduction of $\text{t} \text{ i} \text{ l} \text{o}$ would be

1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0
6 4 26 19

or as a function of A
 $A \leftarrow 3 1 4 2$ (the partition function)

$((\text{t}+/A) \epsilon 1++) \backslash^{-1+0}$
6 4 26 19

Applications

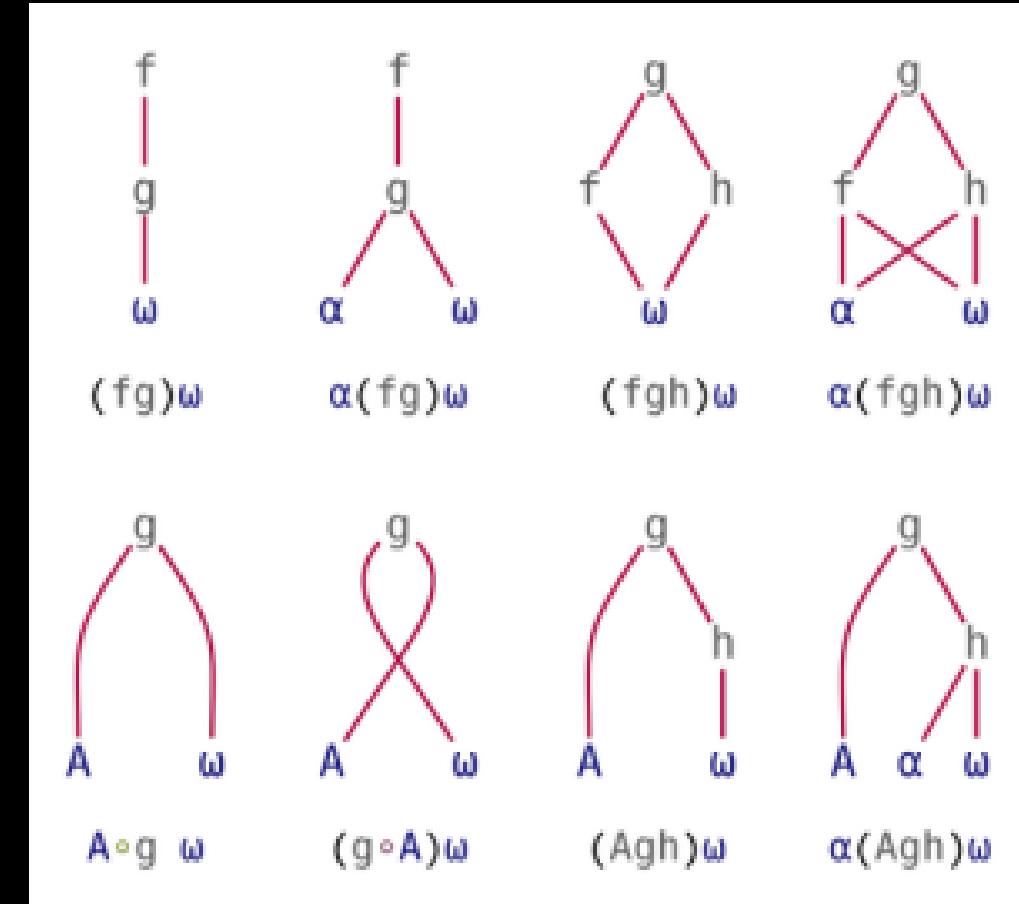
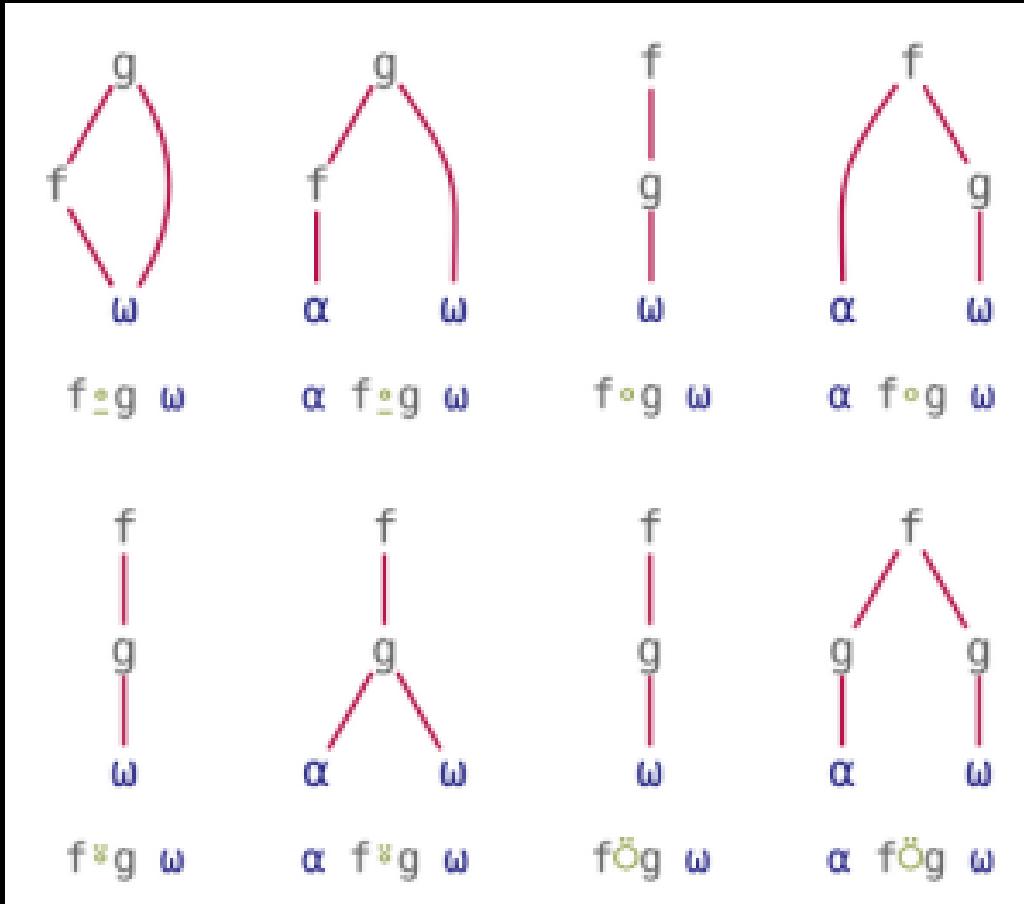
I. In accounting applications one often encounters the problem of dividing amounts of money into categories. AMT might be a vector of amounts, CAT might be a vector of category codes, and VAL might be a vector of values. Potentially, there are many ways of doing this.

				
2-Train is B/B_1	✓	✗	✓	B/B_1 for free
Cap / Nothing	⌚	✓	✓	No need
Full set (S , Σ , etc)	⌚	⌚	✓	No need?
Elegant Repeated B^* *Tacit	✗	✗	✗	✓
Split Primitive	\sqsubseteq Partition	$; . _\times$ Cut	\sqcup Group	\equiv Partition

				
2-Train is B/B_1	✓	✗	✓	B/B_1 for free
Cap / Nothing	⌚	✓	✓	No need
Full set (S, Σ , etc)	⌚	⌚	✓	No need?
Elegant Repeated B^* *Tacit	✗	✗	✗	✓
Ambivalence	✓	✓	✓	✗
Split Primitive	\subseteq Partition	; <u> </u> _X Cut	\sqcup Group	\equiv Partition

Visualizing Combinators

https://aplwiki.com/wiki/Tacit_programming



Tacit Techniques in Dyalog 18.0

Composition operators

Beside

f
|
g
|
ω

$f \circ g \ \omega$

$(f \ g) \omega$

Compose

f
|
g
|
ω

$\alpha \ f \circ g \ \omega$

$\alpha(f \ g) \omega$

Bind

A
|
f
|
ω

$A \circ f \ \omega$

$f \circ A \ \omega$

Commute

f
|
ω

$f \tilde{\circ} \ \omega$

$\alpha \ f \tilde{\circ} \ \omega$

Atop

f
|
g
|
ω

$f \ddot{\circ} g \ \omega$

$(f \ g) \omega$

f
|
g
|
ω

$\alpha \ f \ddot{\circ} g \ \omega$

$\alpha(f \ g) \omega$

Over

f
|
g
|
ω

$f \ddot{\circ} g \ \omega$

$\alpha \ f \ddot{\circ} g \ \omega$

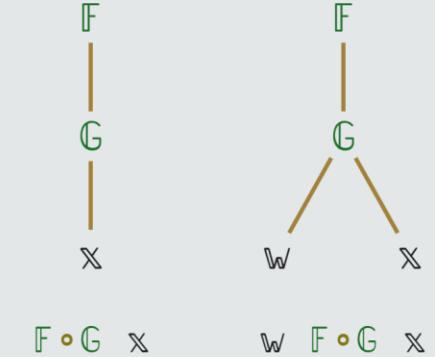
Constant

|
A
|
ω

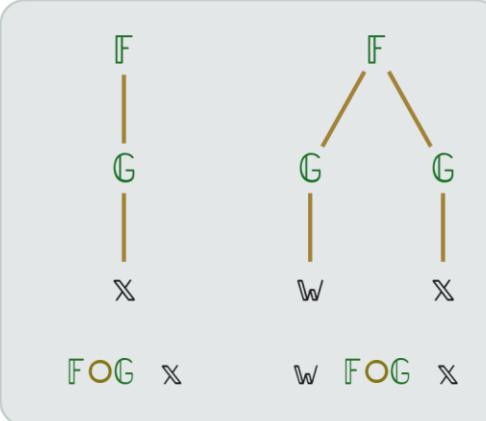
$(A \tilde{\circ}) \ \omega$

$\alpha \ (A \tilde{\circ}) \ \omega$

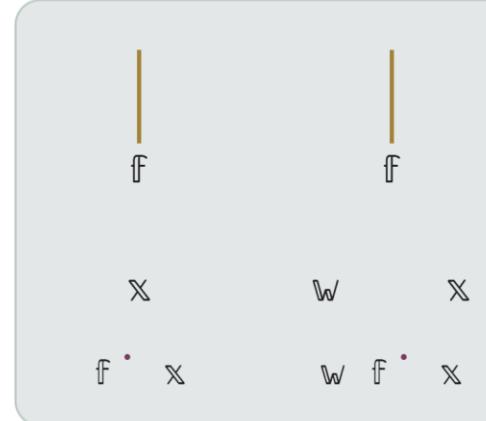
<https://mlochbaum.github.io/BQN/doc/tacit.html#combinators>



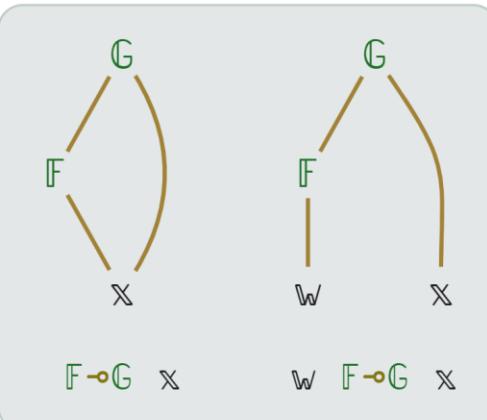
Atop



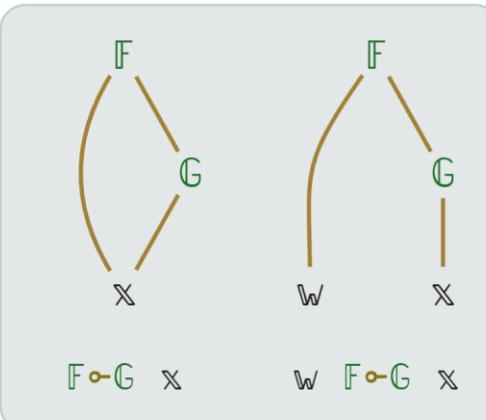
Over



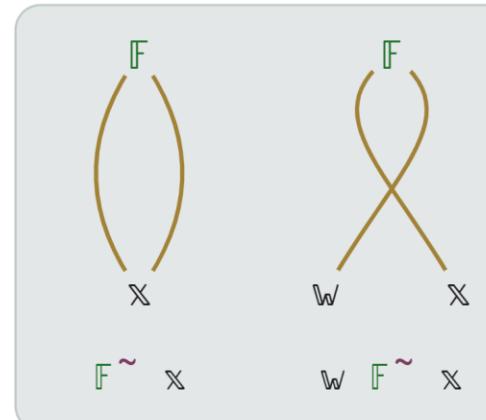
Constant



Before

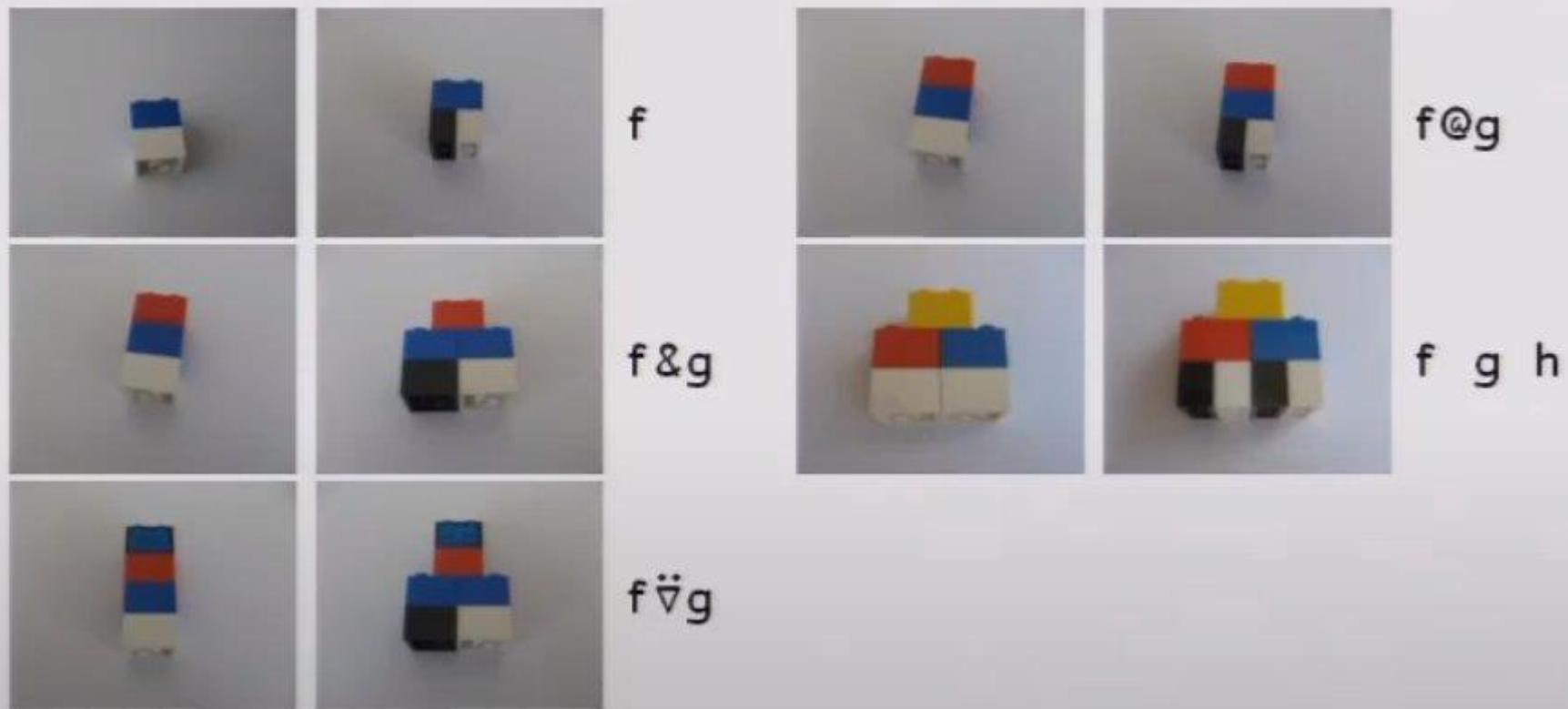


After



Self/Swap

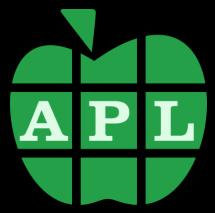
Combinators: System Summary



What was the goal of this talk?

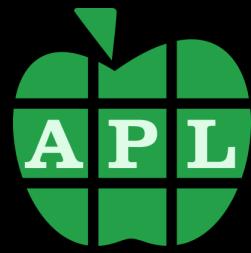
What was the goal of this talk?

APL (and friends) have combinators
What is missing?



o ö ö ~

+ - × ÷



↑↑ o ö ö ~



↑↑ o ○○~



Thank You

<https://github.com/codereport/Content/Talks>

Conor Hoekstra

 code_report

 codereport



Questions?

<https://github.com/codereport/Content/Talks>

Conor Hoekstra

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