

Adding Plural Arguments to Curry Programs

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submitted 1 January 2003; revised 1 January 2003; accepted 1 January 2003

Abstract

Functional logic languages combine lazy (demand-driven) evaluation strategies from functional programming with non-deterministic computations from logic programming. To provide a strategy-independent semantics, most languages are based on the call-time choice semantics where parameters are passed as values. From an implementation point of view, the call-time choice semantics fits well with sharing performed by lazy languages. On the other hand, there are also situations where it is intended to pass non-deterministic arguments as sets of values in order to exploit the power of non-deterministic programming. This alternative parameter passing model is known under the name “plural” arguments. In this paper, we show how both mechanisms can be integrated in a single language. In particular, we present a novel technique to implement plural arguments in a call-time choice language so that existing implementations of contemporary functional logic languages can be easily re-used to implement plural parameter passing.

KEYWORDS: functional logic programming, semantics, program transformation, implementation

1 Motivation

Functional logic languages support the most important features of functional and logic programming in a single language (see (Antoy and Hanus 2010; Hanus 2013b) for recent surveys). They provide higher-order functions and demand-driven evaluation from functional programming as well as logic programming features like non-deterministic search and computing with partial information (logic variables). This combination led to new design patterns (Antoy and Hanus 2002; Antoy and Hanus 2011), better abstractions for application programming (e.g., programming with databases (Braßel et al. 2008; Fischer 2005), GUI programming (Hanus 2000), web programming (Hanus 2001; Hanus 2006; Hanus and Koschnicke 2010), string parsing (Caballero and López-Fraguas 1999)), and new techniques to implement programming tools, like partial evaluators (Alpuente et al. 1998) or test case generators (Fischer and Kuchen 2007; Runciman et al. 2008).

The execution model of contemporary functional logic languages, like Curry (Hanus (ed.) 2012) or TOY (López-Fraguas and Sánchez-Hernández 1999), is based on (some variant of) needed narrowing (Antoy et al. 2000) which subsumes demand-driven term rewriting, used to evaluate functional programs, and unification and resolution applied in logic programming. Needed narrowing is an optimal evaluation strategy for large classes of programs. Moreover, operations in functional logic programs can be also

non-deterministic, i.e., deliver more than one result on a given (ground) input, like the predefined *choice* operation, denoted by the infix operator “?”:

$$\begin{aligned} x \text{ ? } _ &= x \\ _ \text{ ? } y &= y \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the expression “0 ? 1” has two values: 0 and 1. If non-deterministic operations are used as arguments in other operations, a semantical ambiguity might occur. Consider the Curry program¹

$$f \ (C \ x) = (x, x) \tag{1}$$

Here, C is a data constructor so that the expression “ $f \ (C \ 0)$ ” evaluates to the pair $(0, 0)$. However, the intended semantics becomes less clear when non-deterministic operations occur as arguments. For instance, what should be the intended results of “ $f \ (C \ (0?1))$ ”? Hussmann (Hussmann 1992) proposed two options:

Call-time choice semantics: The value of each argument is fixed before parameter passing. In our case, the parameter $(C \ (0?1))$ has the two values $(C \ 0)$ and $(C \ 1)$ so that the call to f has also two results: $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$.

Run-time choice semantics: Values are computed when they are needed. Hence, the parameter $(C \ (0?1))$ is not evaluated before parameter passing but copied into the right-hand side so that the call to f reduces to the expression $(0?1, 0?1)$ which subsequently evaluates to four results: $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, $(0, 1)$, and $(1, 1)$.

Since the computed results of a run-time choice semantics might depend on the evaluation strategy (e.g., the previous example call would not produce the result $(1, 0)$ if it is evaluated with an innermost reduction strategy), contemporary functional logic languages, like Curry or TOY, are based on the call-time choice semantics. Note that this semantics does not exclude the demand-driven evaluation of arguments. Actually, it fits well with a lazy evaluation strategy where actual arguments are shared instead of duplicated. A logical (execution- and strategy-independent) foundation for the call-time choice semantics where programs contain non-strict and non-deterministic operations is defined in (González-Moreno et al. 1999) by the rewriting logic CRWL.

Beyond this operational view of parameter passing, there is also denotational view of parameters (Rodríguez-Hortalá 2008):

Singular semantics: Parameter variables denote single values. This is equivalent to call-time choice.

Plural semantics: A parameter variable denotes a set of values, i.e., the set of all results when the parameter is evaluated. Although one might have the impression that this corresponds to run-time choice, Rodríguez-Hortalá (2008) showed that this is not the case when pattern matching is taken into account. For instance, consider the expression “ $f \ (C \ 0 \text{ ? } C \ 1)$ ”. Since an application of the defining rule for f demands for the constructor C , the argument $(C \ 0 \text{ ? } C \ 1)$ must always be evaluated before applying the f -rule. Hence, run-time choice cannot yield the result “ $(0, 1)$ ” for this expression. However, a plural semantics specifies that the value of the argument is

¹ The syntax of Curry is close to Haskell (Peyton Jones 2003), i.e., variables and function names usually start with lowercase letters and the names of type and data constructors start with an uppercase letter. The application of f to e is denoted by juxtaposition (“ $f \ e$ ”).

the set $\{\mathbb{C} 0, \mathbb{C} 1\}$ so that the parameter variable x denotes the set $\{0,1\}$. As a consequence, “(0,1)” is a possible value of the initial expression.

Rodríguez-Hortalá (2008) proposed a strategy-independent definition of the plural semantics for non-strict and non-deterministic operations in the form of a “plural rewriting logic” π CRWL. He also showed that there is actually a semantical hierarchy w.r.t. the sets of computed results: all results of a call-time choice semantics are contained in the results of a term-rewriting semantics (which corresponds to run-time choice) which are again contained in the results of a plural semantics. Due to its strategy-independent definition, the plural semantics is an interesting model for programming, in particular, if singular and plural functions or arguments are combined (Riesco and Rodríguez-Hortalá 2010b). Such a combination is interesting since it has already been argued in (López-Fraguas et al. 2009) that there are situations in practice where there is no clear preference to either of these options for treating non-determinism.

Since implementations of functional logic languages are based on lazy evaluation and sharing, which fits well with the call-time choice semantics, the implementation of plural arguments or their combination with singular arguments is less clear. Riesco and Rodríguez-Hortalá (2010a) developed an implementation of plural arguments by transforming functional logic programs into rewrite rules implementing π CRWL with the Maude system (Clavel et al. 2007).

In this paper, we present a novel implementation technique for plural arguments by transforming them in such a way that their execution with call-time choice produces the intended results. Thus, we can re-use existing implementations of functional logic languages. This does not only ease the implementation efforts but also leads to much more efficient and comprehensive implementations.

In the next section, we sketch the relevant foundations of functional logic programming and Curry. Section 3 reviews the plural semantics and shows some programming examples. Section 4 presents our transformation to implement plural functions with a call-time choice semantics and discusses its correctness. We sketch an implementation and show its superiority by some benchmarks in Section 5 before we conclude in Section 6.

2 Functional Logic Programming and Curry

The declarative multi-paradigm language Curry (Hanus (ed.) 2012) combines features from functional programming (demand-driven evaluation, parametric polymorphism, higher-order functions) and logic programming (computing with partial information, unification, constraints). A Curry program consists of definitions of data types enumerating their *constructors* and of *operations* or *defined functions* on these types. A functional logic computation reduces an expression to some value, if possible, where a *value* is an expression without defined operations. For instance, 0 and 1 are the values obtained by evaluating the expression (0?1).

The concrete syntax of Curry is close to Haskell but, in addition, allows non-deterministic operations (like “?”) and free (logic) variables in conditions and right-hand sides of defining rules. Actually, non-deterministic operations and logic variables have the same expressive power (Antoy and Hanus 2006; de Dios Castro and López-Fraguas 2007). For instance, a Boolean logic variable can be replaced by the non-deterministic *generator* operation for Booleans defined by

aBool = True ? False

Exploiting this equivalence, one can implement Curry by translation into Haskell augmented with a mechanism to handle non-deterministic computations, as shown recently with the KiCS2 system (Braßel et al. 2011). Note that call-time choice and sharing is important for this equivalence since different occurrences of the same logic variable should denote the same value. Although the source language Curry allows the explicit introduction (by “where x, y free”) and use of logic variables, we assume in the theoretical part of this paper that they are replaced by generator operations.

A precise definition of call-time choice is proposed in (González-Moreno et al. 1999) by the rewriting logic CRWL. In order to present this logic, we briefly recall some notions and notations of term rewriting (Baader and Nipkow 1998; Dershowitz and Jouannaud 1990).² All symbols used in a program must be either *variables* from a set \mathcal{V} or symbols from a *signature* Σ partitioned into a set \mathcal{C} of *constructors* and a set \mathcal{F} of (defined) *functions* or *operations*. The set *Exp* of *expressions* consists of variables or signature symbols applied to a list of expressions (also called *application*). $\text{Var}(e)$ denotes the set of variables in an expression e . An expression e is called *ground* if $\text{Var}(e) = \emptyset$. A *value* belongs to the set *CTerm* of *constructor terms*, i.e., expressions without defined function symbols. A *program* \mathcal{P} is a set of *rules* of the form $f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \rightarrow e$ where $f \in \mathcal{F}$, $t_1, \dots, t_n \in \text{CTerm}$, $e \in \text{Exp}$, and the patterns t_1, \dots, t_n must not contain multiple occurrences of a same variable. We ignore conditions in the rules since a conditional rule $l \mid c = r$ can be translated into the unconditional rule $l = \text{cond } c \ r$ where the predefined operation `cond` reduces to its second argument if the first one is true (Antoy 2001), e.g., `cond True x = x`. Moreover, we omit other constructs of source programs, like extra variables or let expressions, and assume that they are eliminated by some program transformation (although we use them in concrete example programs).

A *substitution* $\sigma \in \text{Sub}$ is a finite mapping $\sigma : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \text{Exp}$ which is homomorphically extended to a mapping $\sigma : \text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{Exp}$. The *domain* of a substitution σ is defined by $\text{Dom}(\sigma) = \{x \in \mathcal{V} \mid \sigma(x) \neq x\}$. If $\text{Dom}(\sigma_1) \cap \text{Dom}(\sigma_2) = \emptyset$, then their *disjoint union* $\sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2$ is defined by $(\sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2)(x) = \sigma_i(x)$, if $x \in \text{Dom}(\sigma_i)$ for some $i \in \{1, 2\}$, and $(\sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2)(x) = x$, otherwise. A *C-substitution* $\sigma \in \text{CSub}$ satisfies $\sigma(x) \in \text{CTerm}$ for all $x \in \text{Dom}(\sigma)$.

A *position* p in an expression e could be represented by a sequence of natural numbers. Positions are used to identify specific subterms. Thus, $e|_p$ denotes the *subterm* of e at position p , and $e[s]_p$ denotes the result of *replacing the subterm* $e|_p$ with the expression s (see (Dershowitz and Jouannaud 1990) for details). The set of all positions of an expression e is denoted by $\text{Pos}(e)$.

If \mathcal{P} is a program, then a *rewrite step* $e \rightarrow_{\mathcal{P}} e'$ is defined if there are a position p in e , a rule $l \rightarrow r \in \mathcal{P}$, and a substitution σ with $e|_p = \sigma(l)$ such that $e' = e[\sigma(r)]_p$. We denote by $\xrightarrow{*}_{\mathcal{P}}$ the reflexive and transitive closure of $\rightarrow_{\mathcal{P}}$, and we write $\mathcal{P} \vdash e \xrightarrow{*}_{\mathcal{P}} t$ if $e \xrightarrow{*}_{\mathcal{P}} t$.

In order to define the meaning of call-time choice by the rewriting logic CRWL, we extend the standard signature with the new constructor symbol \perp to represent *undefined*

² Although the theoretical part uses notations from term rewriting, its mapping into the concrete syntax of Curry should be obvious.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{RR} \frac{}{x \rightarrow x} \quad x \in \mathcal{V} \quad \text{DC} \frac{e_1 \rightarrow t_1 \cdots e_n \rightarrow t_n}{c(e_1, \dots, e_n) \rightarrow c(t_1, \dots, t_n)} \quad c \in \mathcal{C} \\
 \\
 \text{B} \frac{}{e \rightarrow \perp} \quad \text{OR} \frac{e_1 \rightarrow \sigma(t_1) \cdots e_n \rightarrow \sigma(t_n) \quad \sigma(r) \rightarrow t \quad f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \rightarrow r \in \mathcal{P}}{f(e_1, \dots, e_n) \rightarrow t} \quad \sigma \in \mathcal{CSub}_{\perp}
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 1. The call-time choice semantics CRWL

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{RR} \frac{}{x \rightarrow x} \quad x \in \mathcal{V} \quad \text{DC} \frac{e_1 \rightarrow t_1 \cdots e_n \rightarrow t_n}{c(e_1, \dots, e_n) \rightarrow c(t_1, \dots, t_n)} \quad c \in \mathcal{C} \\
 \\
 \text{B} \frac{}{e \rightarrow \perp} \quad \text{POR} \frac{\begin{array}{c} e_1 \rightarrow \sigma_{11}(t_1) \quad e_n \rightarrow \sigma_{n1}(t_n) \\ \vdots \quad \cdots \quad \vdots \\ e_1 \rightarrow \sigma_{1m_1}(t_1) \quad e_n \rightarrow \sigma_{nm_n}(t_n) \end{array} \quad \sigma(r) \rightarrow t}{f(e_1, \dots, e_n) \rightarrow t} \\
 \\
 f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \rightarrow r \in \mathcal{P}, \sigma_{ij} \in \mathcal{CSub}_{\perp}, \text{dom}(\sigma_{ij}) = \text{Var}(t_i) \\
 \sigma = ?\{\sigma_{11}, \dots, \sigma_{1m_1}\} \uplus \dots \uplus ?\{\sigma_{n1}, \dots, \sigma_{nm_n}\}, m_i > 0
 \end{array}$$

 Fig. 2. The plural semantics π CRWL

or unevaluated values. The set Exp_{\perp} of partial expressions consists of all expressions that might contain occurrences of \perp . The sets CTerm_{\perp} and CSub_{\perp} are similarly defined. CRWL defines the deduction of approximation statements $e \rightarrow t$ with the intended meaning “the partial constructor term t approximates the value of e .” The inference rules defining such statements are summarized in Fig. 1. Rule B specifies that \perp approximates any expression to get a non-strict semantics. Rule DC decomposes constructor-rooted expressions in order to process their argument expressions. Rule OR expresses call-time choice by passing only partial constructor terms as parameters (by the substitution σ). We write $\mathcal{P} \vdash_{\text{CRWL}} e \rightarrow t$ if $e \rightarrow t$ is derivable with the CRWL inference rules.

3 Plural Semantics and Plural Arguments

In this section we review the plural semantics and discuss our proposed extension to support plural arguments in Curry. The formal definition of the approximation relation of the plural semantics π CRWL (Rodríguez-Hortalá 2008) is shown in Fig. 2. The only difference to the calculus CRWL is the replacement of rule OR by POR (Plural Outer Reduction). In contrast to rule OR used to specify call-time choice, rule POR passes all non-deterministic values of an argument e_i into the right-hand side r via the substitution σ . In order to avoid the explicit introduction of sets of values, the π CRWL calculus allows that variables are mapped into disjunctive values and $?\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n\}$ denotes the substitution which combines the different substitutions $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n$ for the same variable into one substitution with disjunctive values (see (Rodríguez-Hortalá 2008) for detailed definitions). For instance, if $\theta_1(x) = 1$ and $\theta_2(x) = 2$, then $(?\{\theta_1, \theta_2\})(x) = 1?2$. By this mechanism, all non-deterministic values of a parameter variable are available in each occurrence of this variable in the right-hand side. We write $\mathcal{P} \vdash_{\pi\text{CRWL}} e \rightarrow t$ if $e \rightarrow t$ is derivable with the π CRWL inference rules.

For instance, consider again program rule (1) of Section 1. Then rule POR states that $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{C} \ (0?1)) \rightarrow t$ holds if $(0?1, 0?1) \rightarrow t$ holds (with $\sigma(x) = 0?1$). Using the rules for

“?”, we can further deduce that the latter approximation statement holds for the values $t \in \{(0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (1,1)\}$.

In the following we will discuss how we support plural arguments in a Curry program. It has been argued in (Riesco and Rodríguez-Hortalá 2010b) that there should not be a choice between a plural or singular *program* but it is more adequate to support a choice for individual *arguments* of operations (since plurality causes an increase of the search space which is intended only in specific situations). Conceptually, the semantics of individual plural arguments can be specified by a combined OR/POR rule where disjunctive values are only passed for the plural arguments. We follow this reasonable design decision and *explicitly mark plural arguments*, i.e., as the default all arguments are singular. For instance, consider the example of Section 1 but now extended with its type definition:

```
data C = C Int
f :: C → (Int,Int)
f (C x) = (x,x)
```

This is a valid Curry program. Since the call-time choice semantics is the default, the expression “f (C (0?1))” evaluates only to the two values (0,0) and (1,1). If the programmer wants to change this intended semantics and use plural parameter passing for the argument of `f`, the argument has to be marked as plural. In order to avoid the introduction of specific syntactic constructs for this case (as done in (Riesco and Rodríguez-Hortalá 2010b)) and to make our implementation available for standard Curry implementations, we mark a plural argument by simply wrapping its type with the type constructor `Plural`:

```
f :: Plural C → (Int,Int)
f (C x) = (x,x)
```

No other change is necessary and this is again a valid Curry program (after importing the library `Plural` which contains the definition of the new type constructor). As we will discuss in Section 4, the plural semantics can be implemented by a transformation of the source program (which could be attached as a preprocessor to the compiler). Hence, if we transform and compile the latter program and evaluate the expression “f (C (0?1))”, we obtain the results (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), and (1,1).

To see another example, consider the parsing of strings, a classical example for both functional and logic languages. Caballero and López-Fraguas (1999) showed that functional logic programming provides new opportunities to construct parsers in a natural way. Functional programming is useful to define a parser as a function that consumes some tokens from the list of input tokens and returns the list of remaining tokens:

```
type Parser token = [token] → [token]
```

Hence, the `empty` parser does not consume a token and the `terminal` parser consumes only a token when it is identical to the token given as an argument:³

```
empty :: Parser t
empty xs = xs
```

³ “`=:=`” denotes an *equational constraint* which is satisfied if its arguments are reducible to unifiable values.

```
terminal :: t → Parser t
terminal sym (token:tokens) | sym:=token = tokens
```

Furthermore, we need operations to combine two parsers as alternatives (“<|>”) or sequentially (“<*>”). The alternative combinator can be easily defined using non-determinism:

```
(<|>) :: Parser t → Parser t → Parser t
p <|> q = \xs → p xs ? q xs
```

For the sequence combinator, we have to ensure that the second parser is applied to the evaluated output of the first parser. This can be obtained by a condition with an equational constraint:⁴

```
(<*>) :: Parser t → Parser t → Parser t
p1 <*> p2 = \xs → cond (p1 xs := ys) (p2 ys) where ys free
```

Using such combinators, it is easy to define the parsing of palindromes. Since the notion of a palindrome is independent of the underlying sets of tokens, we parameterize the palindrome parser by this set so that it could have the type

```
pali :: a → Parser a
```

The type variable *a* should denote a *set* of tokens, e.g., specified by a non-deterministic operation. In order to ensure that each element of this set can be used inside the parser, this argument must be a plural one. Thus, we define our parser as follows:

```
pali :: Plural a → Parser a
pali t = empty
      <|> terminal t
      <|> let someT = terminal t
          in someT <*> pali t <*> someT
```

Thus, a palindrome is either empty or a single token, or an inner palindrome enclosed with identical tokens. For instance,

```
pali ('a' ? 'b')
```

recognizes palindromes over the letters *a* and *b*, and

```
pali (0 ? 1 ? 2 ? 3 ? 4 ? 5 ? 6 ? 7 ? 8 ? 9)
```

recognizes palindromes over digits. Note that the plural argument is required here. Otherwise, the parameter variable *t* would always denote the same token in the entire palindrome.

We have not discussed the `let` construct of Curry, since it is the same as in functional languages, i.e., `let x=e in e'` is the same as the application $(\lambda x \rightarrow e') e$. Since the standard parameter passing is singular, the two occurrences of `someT` denote the same value, as intended for a palindrome. Thus, the combination of singular and plural arguments supports this generic and concise definition.

Our final example is also related to parsing. In this case, we want to provide a generic definition of numbers w.r.t. different digit domains, e.g., octal, decimal, or hexadecimal numbers. Since the syntax of a number should be defined as a non-empty sequence of digits without leading zeros, the following parser combinator for sequences is useful:

⁴ As usual, the lambda abstraction $\lambda x \rightarrow e$ denotes an anonymous function which maps *x* into *e*.

```

star :: Plural (Parser t) → Parser t
star p = empty <|> (p <*> star p)

```

This combinator constructs from a given parser `p` a new parser that accepts (possibly empty) sequences of items accepted by `p`. Note that the argument of `star` is marked as plural since the different occurrences of `p` in the right-hand side could non-deterministically accept different items, as already noted in (López-Fraguas et al. 2009). Similarly to our previous palindrome parser, a parser for numbers is parameterized over the possible leading digits so that we obtain the following definition:

```

number :: Plural Char → Parser Char
number d = terminal d <*> star (terminal (d ? '0'))

```

Note that the digit `'0'` is added as a further choice for the non-leading digits. To use this number parser, we define the choices of non-zero digits for various numeral systems:

```

octDigit = '1' ? '2' ? '3' ? '4' ? '5' ? '6' ? '7'
decDigit = octDigit ? '8' ? '9'
hexDigit = decDigit ? 'A' ? 'B' ? 'C' ? 'D' ? 'E' ? 'F'

```

Then “`number octDigit`”, “`number decDigit`”, and “`number hexDigit`” are parsers for octal, decimal, and hexadecimal numbers, respectively. Further examples for programming with plural arguments can be found in (Riesco and Rodríguez-Hortalá 2010b).

4 Transforming Plural Arguments

In this section we present a source-to-source transformation for plural arguments so that the transformed program can be executed under a call-time choice semantics but produces the results intended by the plural semantics.

As already discussed above, a difference between the plural semantics and runtime choice, i.e., term rewriting, occurs when pattern matching is involved. Therefore, Rodríguez-Hortalá (2008) already proposed a program transformation to eliminate this difference in order to use term rewriting to implement plural functions. Since pattern matching usually enforces evaluation before function application, which is not appropriate for plural arguments (compare Section 1), the idea of this transformation is to replace pattern matching by explicit match operations and access occurrences of parameters in the right-hand side by projection functions. Consider again our example rule

```
f (C x) = (x, x)
```

This rule is transformed into the definition

```

f y | match y = (project y, project y)
match (C x) = True
project (C x) = x

```

Thus, non-variable patterns in left-hand sides are replaced by fresh variables and a “`match`” condition corresponding to this pattern, and, for each variable occurring in such a pattern, a new “`project`” operation is introduced so that each variable occurrence in the right-hand side of the original rule is replaced by a call to this “`project`” operation. Now it is easy to see that the example expression “`f (C 0 ? C 1)`” of Section 1 can be reduced to $(0, 1)$ by rewriting with the transformed program.

This transformation is denoted by *pST*. Its subsequent definition is adapted from

(Rodríguez-Hortalá 2008). Let $f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \rightarrow r$ be a program rule with $f \notin \{?, \text{cond}\}$. This rule is transformed by

$$pST(f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \rightarrow r) = f(y_1, \dots, y_n) \rightarrow \text{cond}(\text{match}(y_1, \dots, y_n), \theta(r))$$

where y_1, \dots, y_n are fresh variables, $\{x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik_i}\} = \mathcal{V}ar(t_i) \cap \mathcal{V}ar(r)$ for each $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, and match and project_{ij} are fresh function names where the rules

$$\begin{aligned} \text{match}(t_1, \dots, t_n) &\rightarrow \text{True} \\ \text{project}_{ij}(t_i) &\rightarrow x_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

are added to the transformed program. Furthermore, the substitution θ used in the transformation pST is defined by

$$\theta = \{x_{ij} \mapsto \text{project}_{ij}(y_i) \mid i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, j \in \{1, \dots, k_i\}\}$$

This transformation can be improved by transforming only non-variable non-ground pattern arguments. Further details about this optimization can be found in (Rodríguez-Hortalá 2008).

The following theorem states the equivalence of the plural semantics and term rewriting on the transformed programs:

Theorem 1 (Rodríguez-Hortalá 2008)

Let \mathcal{P} be a program, $e \in \text{Exp}$, and $t \in \text{CTerm}$. Then $\mathcal{P} \vdash_{\pi\text{CRWL}} e \rightarrow t$ holds if and only if $pST(\mathcal{P}) \vdash e \xrightarrow{*} t$ holds.

This equivalence is exploited in (Riesco and Rodríguez-Hortalá 2010a) where an implementation of the plural semantics via term rewriting is developed with the Maude system. In the following, we present an alternative implementation that can be used in existing functional logic language implementations based on call-time choice. This implementation is based on the idea to pass plural arguments unevaluated into the right-hand side of a rule and evaluate them (possibly multiple times) when their values are actually required. The evaluation of an expression can be delayed by moving the expression into the body of a new operation and applying the operation when its value is actually needed (since, even in a call-by-value language, the body of an operation is not evaluated when this operation is passed around as an argument). In functional programming, this technique is known as “thunkification” and used for a different purpose, namely to implement a call-by-name semantics in a call-by-value language, e.g., (Amtoft 1993).

In a higher-order language, like Curry, this idea can be easily implemented via lambda abstractions. For instance, consider the rules

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dup } x &= (x, x) \\ \text{main} &= \text{dup } (0?1) \end{aligned}$$

In order to pass the argument $(0?1)$ unevaluated into the right-hand side of the dup rule, we wrap the argument into a lambda abstraction and unwrap it in the right-hand side by applying this lambda abstraction to some value (the unit value $()$ chosen here could be replaced by any other constant):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dup } x &= (x \ (), \ x \ ()) \\ \text{main} &= \text{dup } (\lambda_ \rightarrow (0?1)) \end{aligned}$$

Since partial applications like lambda abstractions are values in a higher-order language,

they are not further evaluated w.r.t. a call-time choice semantics (González-Moreno et al. 1997). Hence, there exists the following call-time choice derivation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{main} &\rightarrow \text{dup } (\lambda_ \rightarrow (0?1)) \rightarrow ((\lambda_ \rightarrow (0?1)) \ ()), (\lambda_ \rightarrow (0?1)) \ () \\ &\xrightarrow{*} ((0?1), (0?1)) \xrightarrow{*} (0,1) \end{aligned}$$

Note that the result $(0,1)$ is intended w.r.t. the plural semantics but could not be computed w.r.t. the call-time choice semantics for the original program.

In order to provide a precise definition of this transformation, we define a mapping pp on expressions, rules, and programs. In the following, we denote by \mathcal{F} the set of user-defined functions (i.e., without the `match/project` operations introduced by pST and the predefined operations “?” and `cond`). Any expression is transformed by pp as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} pp(x) &= x \ () && \text{if } x \in \mathcal{V} \\ pp(f(e_1, \dots, e_n)) &= f(\lambda_ \rightarrow pp(e_1), \dots, \lambda_ \rightarrow pp(e_n)) && \text{if } f \in \mathcal{F} \\ pp(g(e_1, \dots, e_n)) &= g(pp(e_1), \dots, pp(e_n)) && \text{if } g \notin \mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{V} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, parameter variables are replaced by applications (to the “void” value $()$) and parameters in applications of defined functions are replaced by lambda abstractions. All other applications (e.g., constructors and auxiliary operations) are not modified.

A program rule is transformed by pp as follows:

$$pp(l \rightarrow r) = l \rightarrow pp(r)$$

Finally, pp transforms a program by applying pp to each rule defining some function belonging to \mathcal{F} , i.e., the auxiliary `match/project` operations introduced by pST are not modified by pp .

The complete transformation of a source program with plural semantics into a target program executable with call-time choice consists of applying first the transformation pST followed by the transformation pp . For instance, the example program

```
f (C x) = (x, x)
main = f (C (0?1))
```

is transformed by pST/pp into the final program

```
f y | match (y ()) = (project (y ()), project (y ()))
match (C x) = True
project (C x) = x
main = f (\_ \rightarrow (C (0?1)))
```

The careful reader might have noticed that pp -transformed programs are not programs as defined above since they contain higher-order constructs like lambda abstractions and higher-order applications. This is only a syntactic problem since these higher-order constructs can be eliminated by “defunctionalization” (Reynolds 1972), i.e., mapping higher-order features into first-order definitions (Warren 1982). For instance, the transformed higher-order program

```
dup x = (x (), x ())
main = dup (\_ \rightarrow (0?1))
```

can be considered as syntactic sugar or further transformed into a first-order program by naming all anonymous operations and introducing an explicit `apply` operation:

```
dup x = (apply x (), apply x ())      coinFunc _ = (0?1)
```

```
main = dup CoinFunc                                apply CoinFunc x = coinFunc x
```

Note that a new constructor (`CoinFunc`) is introduced to represent the lambda abstraction passed as an argument. Thus, substitutions that map variables to lambda abstractions are actually constructor substitutions. This property is important to support the passing of lambda abstractions as parameters with the call-time choice semantics. Thus, we assume that this higher-order elimination is implicitly applied to the transformed programs.

The correctness of our transformation is stated by the following soundness and completeness result which expresses that the original and the transformed programs compute the same results.

Theorem 2 (Correctness of pST/pp)

Let \mathcal{P} be a program, $e \in Exp$, and $t \in CTerm$.

Soundness: If $pp(pST(\mathcal{P})) \vdash_{CRWL} pp(e) \twoheadrightarrow t$, then $\mathcal{P} \vdash_{\pi CRWL} e \twoheadrightarrow t$.

Completeness: If $\mathcal{P} \vdash_{\pi CRWL} e \twoheadrightarrow t$, then $pp(pST(\mathcal{P})) \vdash_{CRWL} pp(e) \twoheadrightarrow t$.

We omit the proof of this main result (which can be found in (Hanus 2013a)) but provide some ideas about its structure. Since $\pi CRWL$ -derivations of the original program and $CRWL$ -derivations of the transformed program have quite different shapes (due to the points where arguments are evaluated), it is unclear how to construct a direct mapping between these kinds of derivations. Therefore, the proof exploits let-rewriting (López-Fraguas et al. 2007) to link the different derivations. Let-rewriting is similar to ordinary rewriting but uses let-expressions to express sharing which is necessary for call-time choice. Thus, soundness is proved by exploiting the completeness of let-rewriting w.r.t. $CRWL$ to construct a let-rewrite derivation from $pp(e)$ to t . This implies the existence of an ordinary rewrite derivation which can be mapped (by induction on the derivation steps) into a rewrite derivation on pST -transformed programs. Then the soundness of pST w.r.t. term rewriting (Theorem 1) ensures the existence of a $\pi CRWL$ -derivation from e to t . Similarly, the completeness of our transformation can be proved by completeness of pST w.r.t. term rewriting, mapping term rewriting into let-rewriting, and applying a soundness result for let rewriting.

5 Implementation and Benchmarks

The actual implementation of plural arguments in Curry consists of a library `Plural` containing a few definitions to mark plural arguments and support the transformation and the implementation of the transformations pST/pp on Curry programs. To mark plural arguments, the library `Plural` contains the following “identity” type definition:

```
type Plural a = a
```

Hence, marking a plural argument in a type definition of an operation does not change its actual type so that the “marked” Curry program is still valid and can be processed by the front end of each Curry system. The program transformation tool looks for occurrences of the `Plural` constructor and replaces the corresponding arguments according to the transformations pST/pp as described above.

In order to evaluate our transformational approach, we have performed a few benchmarks comparing our implementation with the Maude implementation of (Riesco and

Rodríguez-Hortalá 2010a). The transformed programs have been executed by PAKCS (Hanus et al. 2013), an implementation of Curry that compiles into Prolog (executed by SICStus-Prolog). Due to the fact that the Maude implementation is a prototype and does not contain features that are important for application programming (e.g., predefined data types like numbers, characters, or strings, arithmetic operations, data structures, input/output operations, etc), we could only compare quite small programs. The following table contains the result of the naive reverse operation (where plural arguments are not present), the palindrome and decimal number parsers (see Section 3), and an expression parser where the digits and operations occurring in an expression are passed as plural arguments. All operations are applied to lists of different lengths (as specified in the table). The programs have been executed on a PC running Ubuntu 12.04 with an Intel Core i5 (2.53GHz) and 4GB of main memory. The run times are in milliseconds (or “–” if the execution delivers no result, e.g., runs out of memory), where 0 denotes a run-time of less than ten milliseconds:

	nrev				pali				number			expr			
Length:	8	16	32	256	6	18	34	514	20	80	320	9	21	93	1533
Maude:	120	1180	–	–	36	260	–	–	210	1410	–	90	280	–	–
PAKCS:	0	0	0	30	0	0	0	100	0	0	50	0	0	0	30

Although these benchmarks are small, they clearly show the superiority of our transformational approach over a new implementation of the plural semantics. Furthermore, our approach has the advantage that all advanced language features required for application programming (predefined operations, application libraries) are immediately available from the host language.

6 Conclusions

In this paper we have shown how plural arguments can be added to existing functional logic languages based on the call-time choice semantics. In practice, plural arguments could be a useful feature. However, executing complete programs with a plural semantics increases the search space considerably and might produce unintended results. Thus, in larger programs only a few arguments should be passed with the plural semantics. We support this idea by a program transformation that changes only the handling of plural arguments so that the entire program can be executed with a call-time choice semantics. This has the advantage that existing implementations can be re-used and all language features, execution strategies, libraries, or programming environments, are immediately available also for this extended language. Beyond its correctness, we have also shown for a widely used implementation of Curry that this approach is much more efficient than a dedicated implementation of the plural semantics.

For future work, it is interesting to explore the use of plural arguments in larger applications since this is now possible with our transformational approach. Furthermore, it could be useful to analyze plural arguments in order to deduce for which occurrences of plural arguments our transformation could be omitted in order to improve the efficiency of the overall implementation.

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