Tacit J and K

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Definitions and Notation

Tacit programming is programming without mentioning function arguments explicitly. Complex functions are constructed from simpler ones through the application of higher-order functions called *combinators*.

Noun-verb syntax is the basic value-level (as opposed to function-level) syntax used in APL, J, and K. A verb is applied to the whole expression on its right and, if possible, also to a single noun on its left. Thus, verbs are prefix monadic $\mathbf{f}x$ or infix dyadic $x\mathbf{f}y$ (by convention we use x, y, z for nouns and $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h} \dots$ for verbs even though in K an identifier is always a noun). Noun-verb syntax can be extended with *adverbs* which are postfix and have higher precedence than verb applications, and *conjunctions*—infix and with the same precedence as adverbs. The application of an adverb or conjunction forms a derived verb. In APL adverbs and conjunctions are usually called *operators*.

A *train*, in the context of noun-verb syntax, is a sequence of nouns or verbs (its *carriages*) ending with a verb. Normally, such a sequence is meaningless, as the last verb has nothing on its right to play the role of right argument, but if given the semantics of a combinator, it can serve as a convenient mechanism for tacit programming. All three major array languages implement this idea, but in different ways.

Tacit J

J's and APL's adverbs and conjunctions are a limited form of higher-order functions and can be used as combinators for tacit programming.

Additionally, J treats 2- and 3-trains as the *hook* and *fork* combinators, namely:

$(\mathbf{fg})y \Leftrightarrow y\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g}y)$	$(\mathbf{fgh})y \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{f}y)\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{h}y)$	$(z\mathbf{g}\mathbf{h})y \Leftrightarrow z\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{h}y)$
$x(\mathbf{fg})y \Leftrightarrow x\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g}y)$	$x(\mathbf{fgh})y \Leftrightarrow (x\mathbf{f}y)\mathbf{g}(x\mathbf{h}y)$	$x(z\mathbf{gh})y \Leftrightarrow z\mathbf{g}(x\mathbf{h}y)$

Longer trains are reduced, starting from the right, to nested forks, possibly ending with a hook, for example:

$\mathbf{fghijklm} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{gh}(\mathbf{ij}(\mathbf{klm})))$

We refer to this interpretation of trains as *J-style*, or *zebra* trains, or *odd-even* trains.

Inserting a monadic verb in a J train is inconvenient, so the language supports a special verb-like token—"[:", called *cap*, to suppress the left argument of a fork's middle verb:

$$([:gh)y \Leftrightarrow g(hy) \\ x([:gh)y \Leftrightarrow g(xhy)$$

In the early 2010s Dyalog APL adopted J-style trains, replacing hooks with *atops* and eliminating cap:

$$(\mathbf{fg})y \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g}y) x(\mathbf{fg})y \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{f}(x\mathbf{g}y)$$

Neither APL nor J assign meaning to trains that have a noun at an odd 0-indexed position starting from the right. For instance, 1+ and *2- give syntax errors.

J-style trains have the following drawbacks:

- The fork combinator is given the most minimal syntax possible—the 3-train, even though it's not that fundamental or commonly needed.
- Verbs at odd vs even positions are applied differently—to the argument(s) vs to the results from neighbouring verbs:

It's hard to keep track of that in a longer train, as the factors affecting it lack locality—in order to determine how a carriage is applied, the reader must understand and count all carriages to its right.

• Fork-hook syntax feels like a sublanguage that doesn't fit in. Grouping carriages in threes is substantially different from ordinary noun-verb syntax and its mirror image—adverb-conjunction syntax.

noun-verb grammar	e:N Ve NVe
adverb-conjunction grammar	e:V eA eCV
fork-hook grammar	e:Vf f f:V VVf

Tacit K

K has multiple incompatible versions. For simplicity we limit the examples in this section to K6 as implemented in ngn/k.

K functions are first-class values and support up to 8 arguments through M-expression syntax (f[x;y;...]). The simplest way to program tacitly is to implement combinators as ordinary functions. For instance, fork could be

{[f;g;h;x] g[f x;h x]}
{[f;g;h;x;y] g[f[x;y];h[x;y]]}

partially applied to f, g, and h. The monadic and dyadic versions must be separate because K functions have fixed *valence* (number of arguments).

K has trains too, but in contrast with J's, they don't form forks. A noun-verb combo creates a partial application called *projection*:

$$(x\mathbf{f})y \Leftrightarrow x\mathbf{f}y$$

A pair of verbs (including the noun-verb projections above) forms a *compo*sition in which the left verb is applied to the result from the right verb. The composition's valence is the valence of the right verb:

$$(\mathbf{fg})x \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g}x) (\mathbf{fg})[x;y] \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{f}(x\mathbf{g}y)$$

Note that **f** and **g** here are meant as verbs, not identifiers **f** and **g**. K's grammar treats all identifiers, parenthesized expressions, and lambdas as nouns. They cannot be applied infix, but dyadic application is possible through an M-expression like $(\mathbf{fg})[x; y]$.

Longer trains follow the same rules right-to-left, so all carriages except the last are interpreted as monadic. The last carriage determines the valence of the entire train. Some examples of K trains are:

$$(1+)x \Leftrightarrow 1+x$$
$$(-*)x \Leftrightarrow -*x$$
$$(\%*)[x;y] \Leftrightarrow \%x*y$$
$$(1-\%*)[x;y] \Leftrightarrow 1-\%*[x;y] \Leftrightarrow 1-\%x*y$$

The syntax of a K train matches the syntax of ordinary K expressions, so its application boils down to removing the parentheses around the train.

K can express a fork through the train

g/(f;h)@:

where (f;h) is a list of the functions f and h, @ is the "apply" verb, \: is the "each left" adverb, and g/ is "fold"—g applied over the pair of results from f and h. Hook is

where 1 g is one iteration of g over the argument, i.e. the pair (x; g x), and f/ applies f between x and g x