Programming Paradigms

Lecture 5

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Higher-Order Programming

Reminder of last lecture

- Kernel language
  - linguistic abstraction
  - data types
  - variables and partial values
  - statements and expressions
- Kernel language semantics
  - Use operational semantics
    - Aid programmer in reasoning and understanding
  - Abstract machine model without details about registers and explicit memory address
    - Aid implementer to do an efficient execution on a real machine

Overview

- Computing with procedures
  - lexical scoping
  - closures
  - procedures as values
  - procedure call
- Higher-Order Programming
  - proc. abstraction
  - lazy arguments
  - genericity
  - loop abstraction
  - folding

Procedures

- Defining procedures
  - how to handle external references?
  - which variables matter?
- Calling procedures
  - what do the variables refer to?
  - how to pass parameters?
  - how about external references?
  - where to continue execution?

Identifiers in Procedures

```
P = proc {$ X Y}
       if X>Y then Z=1 else Z=0 end
    end
```

- `P` captures the declared procedure
- `X` and `Y` are called *(formal) parameters*
- `Z` is called an *external reference*

Free and Bound Identifiers

```
local Z in
   if X>Y then Z=1 else Z=0 end
end
```

- `X` and `Y` are *free (variable) identifiers* in this statement
- `Z` is a *bound (variable) identifier* in this statement

Free and Bound Identifiers

```
local Z in
   if X>Y then Z=1 else Z=0 end
end
```

Declaration Occurrence

- `X` and `Y` are *free variable identifiers* in this statement (declared outside)
- `Z` is a *bound variable identifier* in this statement (declared inside)

Free and Bound Occurrences

- An occurrence of x is *bound*, if it is inside the body of either local, proc or case.

```
local X in …X… end
proc {$ …X…} in …X… end
case Y of f(X) then …X… end
```

- An occurrence of x is *free* in a statement, if it is not a bound occurrence.

Free Identifiers and Free Occurrences

- *Free occurrences* can only exist in incomplete program fragments, i.e., statements that cannot run.

- In a running program, it is always true that every *identifier occurrence* is *bound*. That is it is in *closed-form*.

Free Identifiers and Free Occurrences

```
A1=15
A2=22
B=A1+A2
```

- The identifiers occurrences `A1`, `A2`, and `B`, are free.
- This statement cannot be run.

Free Identifiers and Free Occurrences

```
local A1 A2 in
   A1=15
   A2=22
   B=A1+A2
end
```

- The identifier occurrences `A1` and `A2` are bound and the occurrence `B` is free.
- This statement still cannot be run.

Free Identifiers and Free Occurrences

```
local B in
   local A1 A2 in
      A1=15
      A2=22
      B=A1+A2
   end
   {Browse B}
end
```

- This is in closed-form since it has no free identifier occurrences.
- It can be executed!

Procedures

```
proc {Max X Y ?Z}    % "?" is just a comment
  if X>=Y then Z=X else Z=Y end
end
{Max 15 22 C}
```

- When `Max` is called, the identifiers `X`, `Y`, and `Z` are bound to `15`, `22`, and the unbound variable referenced by `C`.

- Can this code be executed?

Procedures.

- No, because `Max` and `C` are free identifiers!

```
local Max C in
   proc {Max X Y ?Z}
      if X>=Y then Z=X else Z=Y end
   end
   {Max 15 22 C}
   {Browse C}
end
```

Procedures with external references

```
proc {LB X ?Z}
   if X>=Y then Z=X else Z=Y end
end
```

- The identifier `Y` is not one of the procedure arguments.
- Where does `Y` come from? The value of `Y` *when the procedure is defined*.
- This is a consequence of static scoping.

Procedures with external references

```
local Y  LB in
  Y=10
  proc {LB X ?Z}
    if X>=Y then Z=X else Z=Y end
  end
  local Y=3  Z1 in
    {LB 5 Z1}
  end
end
```

- Call `{LB 5 Z}` bind `Z` to `10`.
- Binding of `Y=3` when `LB` is called is ignored.
- Binding of `Y=10` when the procedure is defined is important.

Lexical Scoping or Static Scoping

- The meaning of an identifier like x is determined by the innermost **local** statement that declares x.
- The area of the program where x keeps this meaning is called the **scope** of x.
- We can find out the scope of an identifier by inspecting the text of the program.
- This scoping rule is called **lexical scoping** or **static scoping**.

Lexical Scoping or Static Scoping

```
local X in
   X=15
   local X in
      X=20
      {Browse X}
   end
   {Browse X}
end
```

$E_2=\{X \rightarrow x_2\}$

$E_1 =\{X \rightarrow x_1\}$

- There is just one identifier, X, but at different points during the execution, it refers to different variables (x_1 and x_2).

Lexical Scoping

```
local Z in
   Z=1
   proc {P X Y} Y=X+Z end
end
```

- A *procedure value* is often called a *closure* because it contains an *environment* as well as a *procedure definition*.

Dynamic versus Static Scoping

- *Static scope*.
  - The variable corresponding to an identifier occurrence is the one defined in the *textually innermost declaration* surrounding the occurrence in the source program.
- *Dynamic scope*.
  - The variable corresponding to an identifier occurrence is the one in the *most-recent declaration seen* during the execution leading up to the current statement.

Dynamic scoping versus static scoping

```
local P Q in
   proc {Q X} {Browse stat(X)} end
   proc {P X} {Q X} end
   local Q in
      proc {Q X} {Browse dyn(X)} end
      {P hello}
   end
end
```

- What should this display, `stat(hello)` or `dyn(hello)`?
- Static scoping says that it will display `stat(hello)`, because `P` uses the version of `Q` that exists at `P`'s definition.

Contextual Environment

- When defining procedure, construct
  contextual environment
  - maps all external references…
  - …to values at the time of definition
- Procedure definition creates a closure
  - pair of procedure and contextual environment
  - this closure is written to store

Example of Contextual Environment

```
local Inc in
   local Z = 1 in
      proc {Inc X Y} Y = X + Z end
      local Y in
         {Inc 2 Y}
         {Browse Y}
      end
   end
   local Z = 2 in
      local Y in
         {Inc 2 Y}
         {Browse Y}
      end
   end
end
```

Closure for

`{Inc X Y}`

has the mapping

{Z → 1}

based on where it was defined.

Procedure Declaration

- Semantic statement is

  $(\texttt{\textbf{proc}}\ \{\langle x\rangle\ \langle y\rangle_1 \ldots \langle y\rangle_n\}\ \langle s\rangle\ \texttt{\textbf{end}},\ E)$

- Formal parameters $\langle y\rangle_1, \ldots, \langle y\rangle_n$
- External references $\langle z\rangle_1, \ldots, \langle z\rangle_m$
- Contextual environment

  $CE = E \mid \{\langle z\rangle_1, \ldots, \langle z\rangle_m\}$

Procedure Declaration

- Semantic statement is

$$(\texttt{proc}\ \{\langle x\rangle\ \langle y\rangle_1 \ldots \langle y\rangle_n\}\ \langle s\rangle\ \texttt{end},\ E)$$

  with $E(\langle x\rangle) = x$
- Create procedure value in the store and bind it to x

$$(\texttt{proc}\ \{\$\ \langle y\rangle_1 \ldots \langle y\rangle_n\}\ \langle s\rangle\ \texttt{end},$$
$$E \mid \{\langle z\rangle_1, \ldots, \langle z\rangle_m\})$$

Execution of Procedure Call

- Semantic statement is

  $(\{\langle x\rangle\ \langle y\rangle_1\ \ldots\ \langle y\rangle_n\},\ E)$

- If $\langle x\rangle$ is not bound, then
  - suspend the execution
- If $E(\langle x\rangle)$ is not a procedure value, then
  - raise an error
- If $E(\langle x\rangle)$ is a procedure value, but with different number of arguments ($\neq n$), then
  - raise an error

Procedure Call

- If semantic statement is

  $(\{\langle x\rangle\ \langle y\rangle_1\ \ldots\ \langle y\rangle_n\},\ E)$

  with

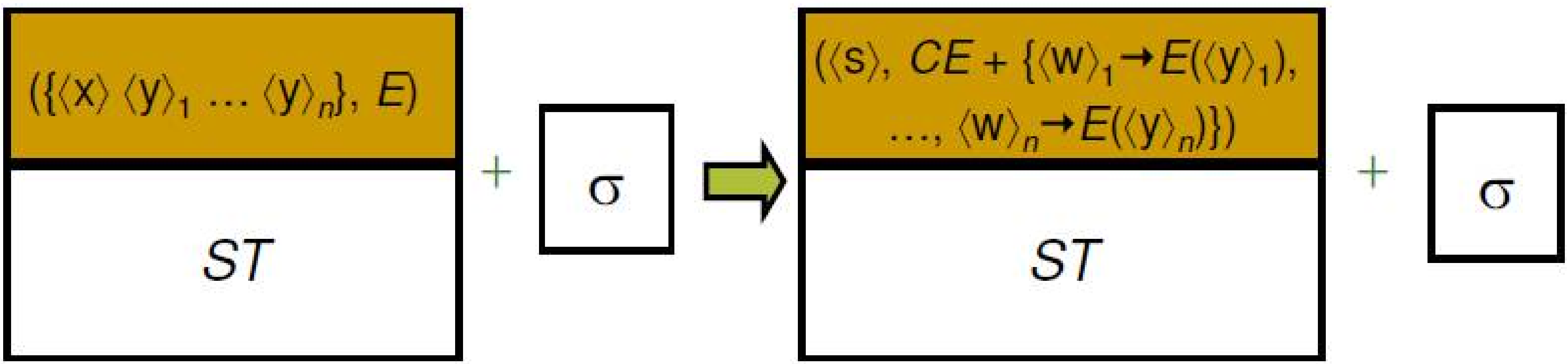
  $E(\langle x\rangle) = (\texttt{proc}\ \ \{\$\ \langle w\rangle_1\ldots\langle w\rangle_n\}\ \langle s\rangle\ \texttt{end},\ CE)$

- then push

  $(\langle s\rangle,\ CE + \{\langle w\rangle_1 \rightarrow E(\langle y\rangle_1),\ \ldots,\ \langle w\rangle_n \rightarrow E(\langle y\rangle_n)\})$

Executing a Procedure Call

- If the activation condition "$E(\langle x \rangle)$ is determined" is `true`
  - if $E(\langle x \rangle)$ equals to (proc {\$ $\langle w \rangle_1 \ldots \langle w \rangle_n$} $\langle s \rangle$ end, CE)



Summary so far

- Procedure values
  - go to store
  - combine procedure body and contextual environment
  - contextual environment defines external references
  - contextual environment is defined by lexical scoping
- Procedure call
  - checks for the right type
  - passes arguments by environments
  - contextual environment for external references

Discussion

- Procedures take the values upon definition.
- Application invokes these values.
- Not possible in Java, C, C^{++}
  - procedure/function/method just code
  - environment is lacking
  - Java needs an object to do this
  - one of the most powerful concepts in computer science
  - pioneered in Lisp/Algol 68

Summary so far

- Procedures are values as anything else!
- Allow breathtaking programming techniques
- With environments, it is easy to understand what is the value for each identifier

Higher-Order Programming

Higher-Order Programming

- Higher-order programming = the set of programming techniques that are possible with procedure values (lexically-scoped closures)
- higher-order programming is the foundation of secure data abstraction component-based programming and object-oriented programming

Higher-order Programming

- Use of procedures as *first-class* values
  - can be passed as arguments
  - can be constructed at runtime
  - can be stored in data structures
- procedures are simply values!
- Will present a number of programming techniques using this idea

Remember (I)

- Functions are procedures
  - Special syntax, nested syntax, expression syntax
  - They have one argument to capture its result.
- Example:

```
fun {F X}
  fun {$ Y} X+Y end
end
```

  - A function that returns a function that is specialized on `X`
  - Add result parameters to both `{F X}` and `{$ Y}` to convert to procedures.

Remember (II)

```
declare
fun {F X}
   fun {$ Y} X+Y end
end
{Browse F}
G={F 1}
{Browse G}

{Browse {G 2}}
```

- F is a function of one argument, which corresponds to a procedure having two arguments

→ <P/2 F>

- G is an unnamed function

→ <P/2>

- {G Y} returns 1+Y

→ 3

Remember (III)

- ```
  fun {F X}
      fun {$ Y} X+Y end
  end
  ```

  Type : `<Num> -> (<Num> -> <Num>)`

- ```
  fun {F X Y}
       X+Y
  end
  ```

  Type : `(<Num>, <Num>) -> <Num>`

Higher-Order Programming

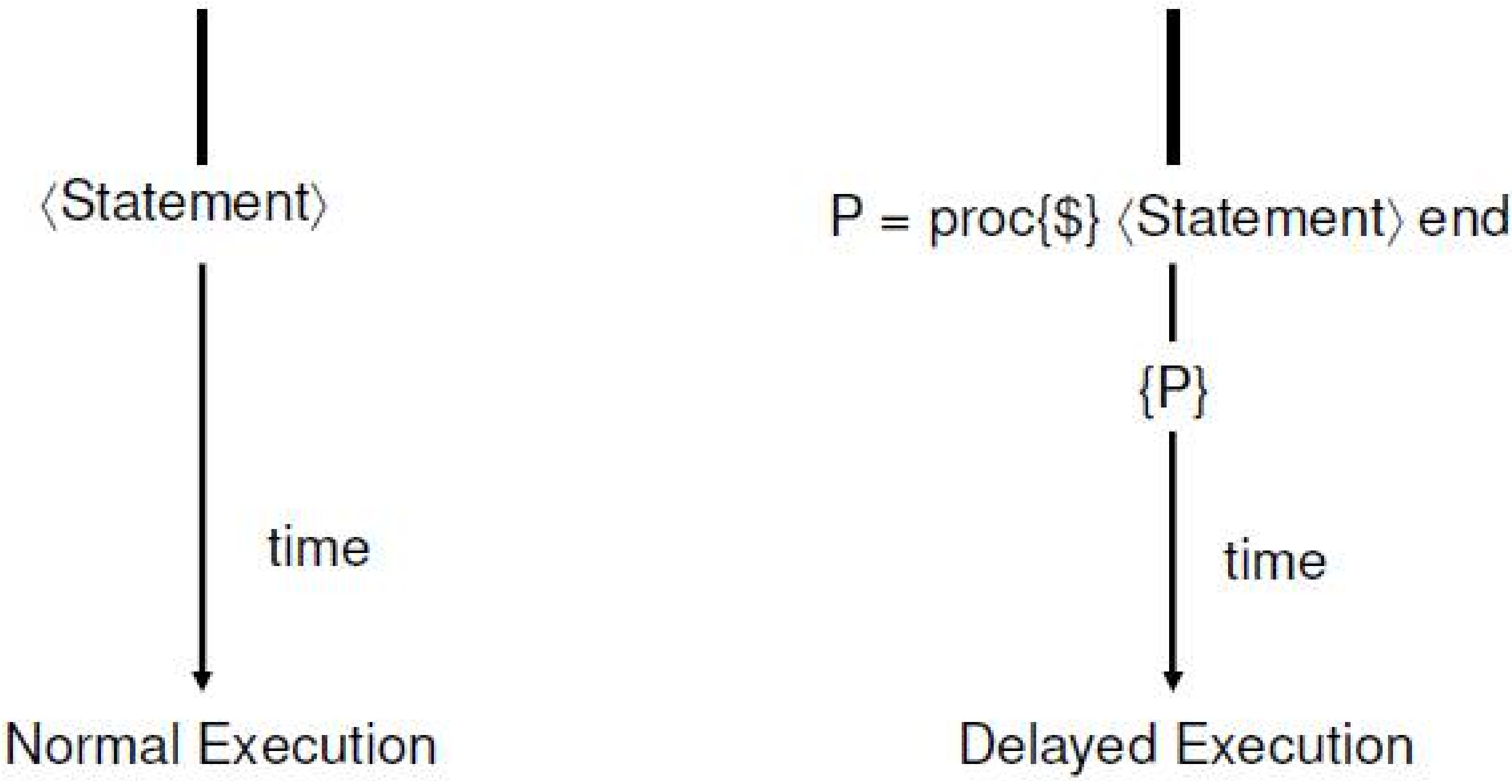
- Basic operations:
  - Procedural abstraction: the ability to convert any statement into a procedure value
  - Genericity: the ability to pass procedure values as arguments to a procedure call
  - Instantiation: the ability to return procedure values as results from a procedure call
  - Embedding: the ability to put procedure values in data structures

Higher-Order Programming

- Control abstractions
  - The ability to define control constructs
  - Integer and list loops, accumulator loops, folding a list (left and right)

Procedural Abstraction

- Procedural abstraction is the ability to convert any statement into a procedure value



Procedural Abstraction

- A procedure value is usually called a closure, or more precisely, a lexically-scoped closure
  - A procedure value is a pair: it combines the procedure code with the contextual environment
- Basic scheme:
  - Consider any statement `<s>`
  - Convert it into a procedure value:
    `P = proc {$} <s> end`
  - Executing `{P}` has exactly the same effect as executing `<s>`

Same Holds for Expressions

- Basic scheme:
  - Consider any expression `<E>`
  - Convert it into a function value:
    `F = fun {$} <E> end`
  - Executing `X={F}` has exactly the same effect as executing `X=E`

The Arguments are Evaluated

```
declare Z=3
fun {F X}
   {Browse X} 2
end
Y={F Z+1}
{Browse Y}
```

- X is evaluated as 3+1

→ 4

→ 2

```
declare Z=3
fun {F X}
   {Browse X}
   {Browse {X}} 2
end
Y={F fun {$} Z+1 end}
{Browse Y}
```

- X is evaluated as function value fun {$} Z+1 end

→ <P/1>

→ 4 (3+1 is evaluated)

→ 2

Example

- Suppose we want to define the operator `andthen` (`&&` in Java) as a function, namely <expr1> `andthen` <expr2> is `false` if <expr1> is `false`, avoiding the evaluation of <expr2>

  (Exercise 2.8.6, page 109)
- Attempt:

```
fun {AndThen B1 B2}
   if B1 then B2 else false end
end

if {AndThen X>0 Y>0} then … else …
```

Example

```
if {AndThen X>0 Y>0} then … else …
```

- Does not work because both `X>0` and `Y>0` are evaluated
- So, even if `X>0` is false, `Y` should be bound in order to evaluate the expression `Y>0`!

Example

```
declare
fun {AndThen B1 B2}
   if B1 then B2 else false end
end
X=~3
Y
if {AndThen X>0 Y>0} then
   {Browse 1}
else
   {Browse 2}
end
```

- Display nothing since `Y` is unbound!
- When called, all function's arguments are evaluated, *unless* it is procedure value.

Solution: Use Procedural Abstractions

```
fun {AndThen B1 B2}
   if {B1} then {B2} else false end
end

if {AndThen
      (fun{$} X>0 end)
      (fun{$} Y>0 end) }
then … else … end
```

Example. Solution

```
declare
fun {AndThen BP1 BP2}
   if {BP1} then {BP2} else false end
end
X=~3
Y
if {AndThen
      fun{$} X>0 end
      fun{$} Y>0 end }
then {Browse 1} else {Browse 2} end
```

- Display `2` (even if `Y` is unbound)

Genericity/ Parameterization

- To make a function generic is to let any specific entity (i.e. operation or value) in the function body become an argument.
- The entity is abstracted out of the function body.

Genericity

- Replace specific entities (zero `0` and addition `+`) by function arguments

```
fun {SumList Ls}
   case Ls
   of nil then 0
   [] X|Lr then X+{SumList Lr}
   end
end
```

Genericity

```
fun {SumList L}
   case L of
      nil then 0
   [] X|L2 then X+{SumList L2}
   end
end
```

⇩

```
fun {FoldR L F U}
   case L of
      nil then U
   [] X|L2 then {F X  {FoldR L2 F U}}
   end
end
```

Types of Functions

```
fun {SumList L}
   ...

SumList :: (List Int) -> Int
```

```
fun {FoldR L F U}
    ...

FoldR :: {(List A) ({A B}->B) B} -> B
```

Genericity `SumList`

```
fun {SumList Ls}
      {FoldR Ls (fun {$ X Y} X+Y end) 0}
end

{Browse {SumList [1 2 3 4]}}
```

Genericity `ProductList`

```
fun {ProductList Ls}
      {FoldR Ls (fun {$ X Y} X*Y end) 1 }
end

{Browse {ProductList [1 2 3 4]}}
```

Genericity `Some`

```
fun {Some Ls}
    {FoldR Ls
        (fun {$ X Y} X orelse Y end) false }
end

{Browse {Some [false true false]}}

Some :: (List Bool) -> Bool
```

List Mapping

- Mapping
  - each element recursively
  - *calling function for each element*
  - Construct a new list from the input list
- Separate function calling by passing function as argument

Other Generic Functions: Map

```
fun {Map Xs F}
   case Xs of
      nil then nil
   [] X|Xr then {F X}|{Map Xr F}
   end
end

{Browse {Map [1 2 3]
             fun {$ X} X*X end} }  %[1 4 9]
```

Other Generic Functions: `Filter`

```
fun {Filter Xs P}
   case Xs of
      nil then nil
   [] X|Xr then
       if {P X} then X|{Filter Xr P}
       else {Filter Xr P} end
   end
End

{Browse {Filter [1 2 3] IsOdd}} %[1 3]
```

Types of Functions

```
fun {Map Xs F}
   …

Map :: {(List A) (A->B)} -> List B
```

```
fun {Filter Xs P}
   …

Filter :: {(List A) (A->Bool)} -> List A
```

Instantiation

- Instantiation: ability to return procedure values as results from a procedure call
- A factory of specialized functions

```
declare
fun {Add X}
   fun {$ Y} X+Y end
end


Inc = {Add 1}
{Browse {Inc 5}} % shows 6
```

Embedding

- Embedding is when procedure values are put in data structures
- Embedding has many uses:
  - Modules: that groups together a set of related operations (procedures)
  - Software components : takes a set of modules as its arguments and returns a new module. Can be viewed as specifying a new module in terms of the modules it needs.

Embedding. Example

```
declare Algebra
local
   proc {Add X Y ?Z} Z=X+Y end
   proc {Mul X Y ?Z} Z=X*Y end
in
   Algebra=op(add:Add mul:Mul)
end
A=2
B=3
{Browse {Algebra.add A B}}
{Browse {Algebra.mul A B}}
```

- `Add` and `Mul` are procedures embedded in a data structure

Control Construct - For Loop

- Integer loop: repeats an operation with a sequence of integers

```
proc {For I J P}
   if I > J then skip
   else {P I} {For I+1 J P} end
end
{For 1 10 Browse}
```

```
For :: {Int Int (Int->())} -> ()
```

- Linguistic abstraction for integer loops

```
for I in 1..10 do {Browse I} end
```

Control Construct – ForAll Loop

- List loop: repeats an operation for all elements of a list

```
proc {ForAll Xs P}
   case Xs of
      nil then skip
   [] X|Xr then {P X} {ForAll Xr P}
   end
end
```

```
ForAll :: {(List A)  A->()} -> ()
```

```
{ForAll [a b c d] proc{$ I} {Browse I} end}
```

- Linguistic abstraction for list loops

```
for I in [a b c d] do
   {Browse I}
end
```

Control Construct – Pipe/ Compose

- Can compose two functions together

```
fun {Compose P1 P2}
  fun {$ X} {P1 {P2 X}} end
end
```

```
Compose :: {(B->C) (A->B)} -> (A->C)
```

- Similar to pipe command used in Unix

```
P2 | P1
```

Folding Lists

- Consider computing the sum of list elements
  - …or the product
  - …or all elements appended to a list
  - …or the maximum
  - …or number of elements, etc
- What do they have in common?
- Example: `SumList`

SumList/Length

```
fun {SumList Xs}
   case Xs of
      nil  then 0
   [] X|Xr then X + {SumList Xr} end
end

fun {Length Xs}
   case Xs of
      nil  then 0
   [] X|Xr then 1 + {Length Xr} end
end
```

Right-Folding

- Right-folding $\{\texttt{FoldR}\ [x_1 \ldots x_n]\ \texttt{F}\ \texttt{S}\}$

  $$\{\texttt{F}\ x_1\ \{\texttt{F}\ x_2\ \ldots\ \{\texttt{F}\ x_n\ \texttt{S}\}\ \ldots\}\}$$

  or

  $$x_1 \otimes_{\texttt{F}} (x_2 \otimes_{\texttt{F}} (\ \ldots\ (x_n\ \otimes_{\texttt{F}}\ \texttt{S})\ \ldots\ ))$$

right is here!

FoldR

```
fun {FoldR Xs F S}
    case Xs
    of nil  then S
    [] X|Xr then {F X {FoldR Xr F S}} end
end
```

- Not tail-recursive
- Elements folded in order

Instances of FoldR

```
fun {SumList Xs}
    {FoldR Xs (fun {$ X R} X+R end) 0}
  end

fun {Length Xs}
    {FoldR Xs (fun {$ X R} 1+R end) 0}
end
```

SumListT: Tail-Recursive

```
fun {SumListT Xs N}
    case Xs of
        nil  then N
    [] X|Xr then {SumListT Xr N+X}
    end
end
{SumListT Xs 0}
```

- Question:
  - **How is this computation different from SumList?**

Computation of Original `SumList`

```
{SumList [2 5 7]}          =
2+{SumList [5 7]}          =
2+(5+{SumList [7]})        =
2+(5+(7+{SumList nil}))    =
2+(5+(7+0))                =
2+(5+7)                    =
2+12                       =
14
```

How Tail-Recursive `SumListT` Compute?

```
{SumListT [2 5 7] 0}              =
{SumListT [5 7] 0+2}              =
{SumListT [5 7] 2}                =
{SumListT [7] 2+5}                =
{SumListT [7] 7}                  =
{SumListT [] 7+7}                 =
{SumListT [] 14}                  =
14
```

`SumListT` Slightly Rewritten…

```
{SumListT [2 5 7] 0}                   =
{SumListT [5 7]    {F 0 2}}            =
{SumListT [7]     {F {F 0 2} 5}}       =
{SumListT nil    {F {F {F 0 2} 5} 7}=
```

…

where `F` is

```
  fun {F X Y} X+Y end
```

Left-Folding

Left-folding `{FoldL [`$x_1 \ldots x_n$`] F S}`

$$\{\mathtt{F}\ \ldots\ \{\mathtt{F}\ \{\mathtt{F}\ \mathtt{S}\ x_1\}\ x_2\}\ \ldots\ x_n\}$$

or

$$(\ldots((\mathtt{S}\ \otimes_{\mathtt{F}}\ x_1)\ \otimes_{\mathtt{F}}\ x_2)\ \ldots\ \otimes_{\mathtt{F}}\ x_n)$$

left is here!

FoldL and SumListT

```
fun {FoldL Xs F S}
    case Xs
    of nil  then S
    [] X|Xr then {FoldL Xr F {F S X}}
    end
end
```

FoldL :: {(List A) ({B A}->B) B} -> B

```
fun {SumListT Xs}
      {FoldL Xs (fun {Plus X Y} X+Y end) 0}
end
```

Properties of `FoldL`

- Tail recursive
- First element of list folded first…
  - that is evaluated first.

`FoldL` or `FoldR`?

- `FoldL` and `FoldR` can be transformed to each other, if function `F` is associative:

  ```
  {F X {F Y Z}}== {F {F X Y} Z}
  ```

  Other conditions possible.

- Otherwise: choose `FoldL` or `FoldR`
  - depending on required order of result

Example: Appending Lists

- Given: list of lists

  `[[a b] [1 2] [e] [g]] => [a b 1 2 e g]`
- Task: compute all elements in one list in order

- Solution:

```
fun {AppAll Xs}
   {FoldR Xs Append nil}
end
```

- Question: What would happen with `FoldL`?

What would happen with `FoldL`?

```
fun {AppAllLeft Xs}
    {FoldL Xs Append nil}
end
```

```
{AppAllLeft [[a b] [1 2] [e] [g]]}                        =

{FoldL [[a b] [1 2] [e] [g]] Append nil}                  =

{FoldL [[1 2] [e] [g]] Append {Append nil [a b]}}=
  ...
```

How Does `AppAllLeft` Compute?

```
{FoldL [[1 2] [e] [g]] Append [a b]}                    =
{FoldL [[e] [g]] Append {Append [a b] [1 2]}}           =
{FoldL [[e] [g]] Append [a b 1 2]}                      =
{FoldL [[g]] Append {Append [a b 1 2] [e]}}             =
{FoldL [[g]] Append [a b 1 2 e]}                        =
{FoldL nil Append {Append [a b 1 2 e] [g]}}             =
{FoldL nil Append [a b 1 2 e g]}                        =
= [a b 1 2 e g]
```

Summary so far

- Many operations can be partitioned into
  - pattern implementing
    - recursion
    - application of operations
  - operations to be applied

- Typical patterns

`Map`	mapping elements
`FoldL/FoldR`	folding elements
`Filter`	filtering elements
`Sort`	sorting elements
…	

Goal

- Programming as an engineering/scientific discipline
- An engineer can
  - understand abstract machine/properties
  - apply programming techniques
  - develop programs with suitable techniques

Summary

- Computing with procedures
  - lexical scoping
  - closures
  - procedures as values
  - procedure call
- Higher-Order Programming
  - proc. abstraction
  - lazy arguments
  - genericity
  - loop abstraction
  - folding