Overview

Programming Paradigms II

Overview

- Higher-order functions
 - What are they? Why they are useful?
 - Observations: Functions are data and can be treated like data.
 - Examples: Many of them are programming patterns.
- Some basic access-control concepts are also included

Introduction

A function is called **higher-order** if it takes a function as an argument or returns a function as a result.

twice :: $(a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$ twice f x = f (f x) twia f

Also a

twice is higher-order because it takes a function as its first argument.

Why Are They Useful?

- Common programming idioms can be encoded as functions within the language itself.
- **Domain-specific languages** can be defined as collections of higher-order functions.
- Algebraic properties of higher-order functions can be used to reason about programs.

Overview

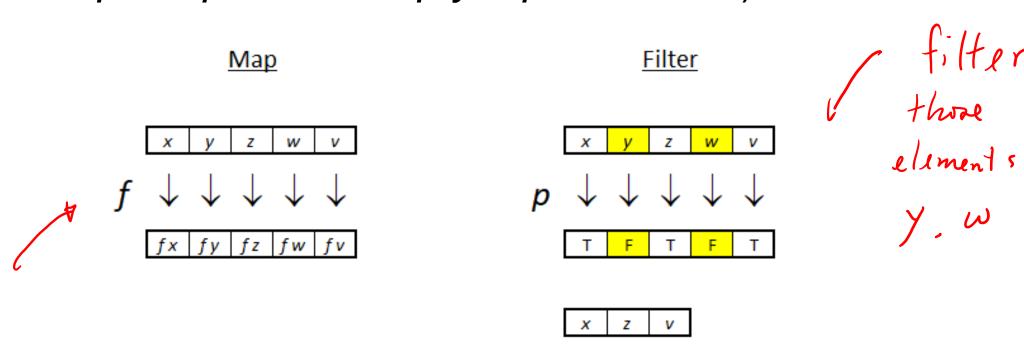
The End

List Processing I

Maps and Filters

Maps and Filters

- map f[x,y,z,w,v] = [fx, fy, fz, fw, fv]
- filter p[x,y,z,w,v] = [x + y, z, w + v](p x = p z = p v = True; p y = p w = False)



The Map Function

 The higher-order library function called map applies a function to every element of a list

map ::
$$(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]$$

 The map function can be defined in a particularly simple manner by using a list comprehension:

map f xs = [f x | x
$$\leftarrow$$
 xs]

 Alternatively, for the purposes of proofs, the map function can also be defined by using recursion:

```
map f [] = []

map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

The Filter Function

 The higher-order library function filter selects every element from a list that satisfies a predicate

Filter can be defined using a list comprehension:

filter p xs =
$$[x \mid x \leftarrow xs, p x]$$

Alternatively, it can be defined using recursion:

List Processing I

The End

List Processing II

Using Lambda Functions

Lambda Functions

Example: lambda (λ) expressions (Hutton, Section 4.5)

- $\lambda \times y \rightarrow x + y$
- $\lambda f X \rightarrow f X$
- $\lambda fg \rightarrow (\lambda x \rightarrow f(gx))$

Why Are Lambdas Useful?

- Lambda expressions can be used to give a formal meaning to functions defined using currying
- For example:

$$add x y = x + y$$

means

$$add = \lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda y \rightarrow x + y)$$

- Lambda expressions are also useful when defining functions that return functions as results
- For example:

const ::
$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a$$

const x _ = x

is more naturally defined by

const ::
$$a \rightarrow (b \rightarrow a)$$

const $x = \lambda_{-} \rightarrow x$

- Lambda expressions can be used to avoid naming functions that are only referenced once
- For example:

odds n = map f [0..n-1]
where
$$f x = x^2 + 1$$

can be simplified to

odds n = map (
$$\lambda x \to x^*2 + 1$$
) [0..n-1]

Using Lambda Functions

- Using lambda functions with higher-order functions
- Example: flip takes a function f as input (e.g., $f \times y = x y$), returns a function flip f such that (flip f) $\times y = f y x$
- As a lambda function: $flip f = (\lambda x y \rightarrow f y x)$

List Processing II

The End

Programming Patterns I

The Composition Operator

The Composition Operator

 The library function (.) returns the composition of two functions as a single function

(.) ::
$$(b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow c)$$

f. $g = \lambda x \rightarrow f(g x)$

```
odd :: Int \rightarrow Bool odd = not . even
```

Examples

- *twice f* = *f* . *f*
- sumsqreven = sum . map (^2) . filter even

Programming Patterns I: The Composition Operator

The End

Programming Patterns I

Other Common Patterns

 The library function all decides if every element of a list satisfies a given predicate

all ::
$$(a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$$

all p xs = and [p x | x \leftarrow xs]

For example:

> all even [2,4,6,8,10]
True

 Dually, the library function any decides if at least one element of a list satisfies a predicate

any ::
$$(a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$$

any p xs = or [p x | x \leftarrow xs]

 The library function takeWhile selects elements from a list while a predicate holds of all the elements

```
takeWhile :: (a \rightarrow Bool) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
takeWhile p [] = []
takeWhile p (x:xs)
| p x = x : takeWhile p xs
| otherwise = []
```

```
> takeWhile (/= ' ') "abc def"

"abc"
```

 Dually, the function dropWhile removes elements while a predicate holds all the elements

```
dropWhile :: (a → Bool) → [a] → [a]
dropWhile p [] = []
dropWhile p (x:xs)
\mid p x = dropWhile p xs
\mid otherwise = x:xs
```

```
> dropWhile (== ' ') " abc"

"abc"
```

Programming Patterns I: Other Common Patterns

The End

Programming Patterns II

Recursion Operators

The Foldr Function

A number of functions on lists can be defined using the following simple pattern of recursion:

```
f[] = v

f(x:xs) = x \oplus fxs
```

f maps the empty list to some value v, and any nonempty list to some function ⊕ applied to its head and f of its tail.

sum
$$[]$$
 = 0
sum $(x:xs) = x + sum xs$

$$\bigvee V = 0$$

$$\bigoplus = +$$

The higher-order library function foldr (fold right)
 encapsulates this simple pattern of recursion, with the
 function ⊕ and the value v as arguments

```
Sum function"
sum = foldr(+) 0
                        SUM [1,2,3]=
                               1+2+3 = 6
product = foldr (*) 1
or = foldr (||) False
and = foldr (&&) True
```

Foldr itself can be defined using recursion:

```
foldr :: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow b

foldr f v [] = v

foldr f v (x:xs) = f x (foldr f v xs)
```

 However, it is best to think of foldr nonrecursively, as simultaneously replacing each (:) in a list by a given function and [] by a given value

```
sum [1,2,3]
  foldr (+) 0 [1,2,3]
   foldr (+) 0 (1:(2:(3:[])))
1+(2+(3+0))
   6
                            Replace each (:)
                            by (+) and [] by 0.
```

```
product [1,2,3]
  foldr (*) 1 [1,2,3]
foldr (*) 1 (1:(2:(3:[])))
1*(2*(3*1))
                        Replace each (:)
                        by (*) and [] by 1.
```

Other foldr Examples

- Even though foldr encapsulates a simple pattern of recursion, it can be used to define many more functions than might first be expected
- Recall the length function:

```
length :: [a] \rightarrow Int
length [] = 0
length (_:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

For example:

Hence, we have:

length = foldr
$$(\lambda_n \rightarrow 1+n)$$
 0

Length = foldr $(\lambda_n \rightarrow 1+n)$ 0

Length = initial (starting value)

Now recall the reverse function:

```
reverse [] = []
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]
```

For example:

Hence, we have:

reverse = foldr (
$$\lambda x xs \rightarrow xs ++ [x]$$
) []

 Finally, we note that the append function (++) has a particularly compact definition using foldr:

Practice

Redefine map f and filter p using foldr

A Variant of Foldr: Foldl

• The function fold! ("fold from the left")

```
foldl :: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow [b] \rightarrow a
foldl f v [] = v
foldl f v (x:xs) = foldl f (f v x) xs
```

How fold works (algebraically)

```
fold (#) v [x_0, x_1, ..., x_n] = (... ((v # x_0) # x_1) ...) # x_n
fold L (#) <math>v [X_0, X_1, X_2] = ((v # X_0) # X_1) # X_2
fold Y (#) v X [X_0, X_1, X_2] = ((v # X_0) # X_1) # X_2
fold Y (#) v X [X_0, X_1, X_2] = ((v # X_0) # X_1) (X_2 # v))
```

Foldl: "Fold from the Left"

```
    length :: [a] → Int

length :: foldl (
fold ( \ n _ -> n+1 ) (0)
          Le operator
Value
    length II, 27 9 see if you agree.
```

Practice: Define Reverse

```
reverse :: [a] -> [a]
reverse = foldl (\xs x -> x:xs) []

Try reverse I1,27 following definition above,
```

Programming Patterns II: Recursion Operators

The End

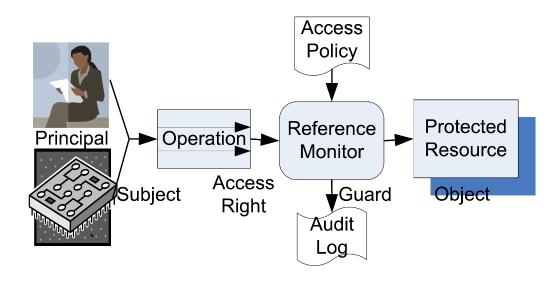
Basic Access-Control Concepts

Reference Monitors, Tickets

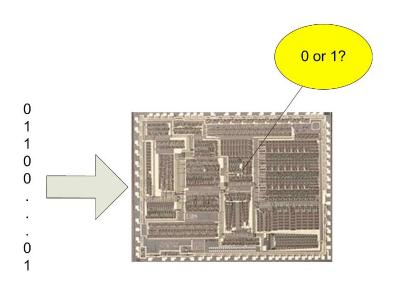
Access Control

Access control is central to security:

Who should be granted what access to which objects under what circumstances?

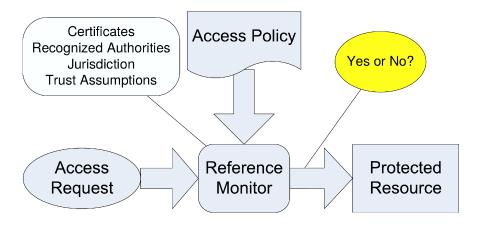


Expectations of Hardware Engineers



- Mathematical derivation of behavior
- Inability to do so is interpreted as **incompetence**

Our Position on Security and Trust



- Mathematical derivation of behavior given
 - Requests, policies, certifications, jurisdiction of authorities, and trust assumptions
- Inability to do so is interpreted as **incompetence**

Rigorous policy-based design and verification

Should I say "yes"? It depends on:

The access request: What is requested and by whom?

Commander says (launch, missile)

The access policy: Who is authorized?

(Commander & Sub-commander) controls $\langle launch, missile \rangle$

Trust assumptions: Who is trusted or what is taken for granted? What are symbols or tokens of authority? Jurisdiction?

National Command Authority controls

((Commander & Sub-commander) controls (launch, missile))

 $Key_{NCA} \Rightarrow National Command Authority$

Central Concepts

We focus on four central concepts:

- 1. **Reference monitors:** the guards protecting objects
- 2. **Tickets:** an unforgeable indicator of a principal's *capability* or right to access an object
- 3. Access control lists: a list of principals (with their rights) to access an object
- 4. **Authentication:** the process of identifying a principal (i.e., the source of a request)

Reference monitors enforce access control policies using concepts of tickets, access-control lists, or some combination of both.

Tickets: Unforgeable access tokens

• Simple ticket:

Ticket says (Subject controls (Access Right, Object))

• Simple access-control policy (jurisdiction & policy statement):

Authority controls (Subject controls (AccessRight, Object))
Authority says (Subject controls (AccessRight, Object))

• Trust assumption:

Ticket \Rightarrow Authority

• General form of a subject making a request using a ticket:

Subject says (AccessRight, Object)

Derived Inference Rule

We can capture ticket use as a derived rule:

- Advantages
 - Simplifies and reduces size of proofs
 - Soundness
 - Specifies what specific reference monitor needs to do (i.e., a checklist)

Exercise: Derive the Ticket Rule

Your proof should begin with:

- 1. subject says φ
- 2. authority controls (subject controls φ)
- 3. $ticket \Rightarrow authority$
- 4. ticket says (subject controls φ)

Access request

Access policy

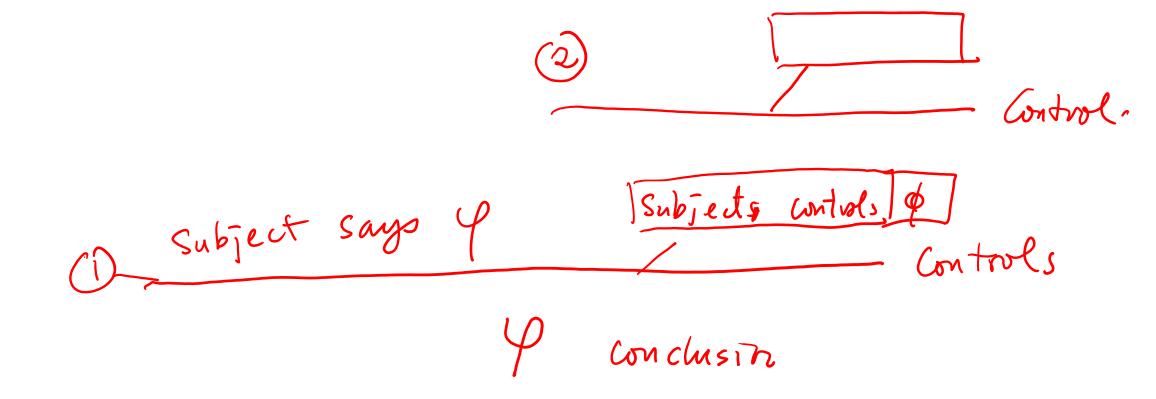
Trust assumption

Ticket

Goal: derive φ

Ticket Rule

Proof tree construction



A Derivation

1. subject says φ Access request 2. authority controls (subject controls φ) Access policy 3. $ticket \Rightarrow authority$ Trust assumption 4. *ticket* says (*subject* controls φ) Ticket 5. authority says (subject controls φ) 3, 4 speaks for 6. *subject* controls φ 2, 5 controls 7. φ 6, 1 controls 12/21 Basic Access-Control Concepts: Reference Monitors, Tickets

The End

Basic Access-Control Concepts

Access-Control Mechanisms: Tickets

A Derivation

- 1. subject says φ
- 2. authority controls (subject controls φ)
- 3. $ticket \Rightarrow authority$
- 4. ticket says (subject controls φ)
- 5. authority says (subject controls φ)
- 6. *subject* controls φ
- 7. φ

Access request

Access policy

Trust assumption

Ticket

- 3, 4 speaks for
- 2, 5 controls
- 6, 1 controls

Ticket Rule

The inference rule

Hypotheses used are:

```
subject says \varphiAccess requestauthority controls (subject controls \varphi)Access policyticket \Rightarrow authorityTrust assumptionticket says (subject controls \varphi)Ticket
```

Example Using Tickets

Tina has an airplane ticket that assigns her to seat 25D on SmoothAir Flight #1.

When Tina's row is called, she presents her ticket to the gate agent for flight #1. What is the justification for granting her access to board?

- 1. Tina says $\langle \text{seat 25D}, \text{ flight } \#1 \rangle$
- 2. SmoothAir controls (Tina controls $\langle \text{seat 25D}, \text{ flight } \#1 \rangle$)
- 3. ticket \Rightarrow SmoothAir
- 4. ticket says (Tina controls $\langle \text{seat 25D}, \text{ flight } \#1 \rangle$)
- 5. \langle seat 25D, flight $\#1\rangle$

Tina's request

Access policy

Trust assumption

Tina's ticket

1, 2, 3, 4 ticket rule

Exercise

Exercise 4.2.1 Suppose a theater ticket is sold by the box office to a patron to see Gone with the Wind in Theater 5 at 7:30 p.m. Using the access-control logic, describe the patron's request, the access-control policy of the theater, the trust assumptions, and movie ticket. Based on your descriptions, formally justify admitting the patron to see the movie.

Exercise 4.2.1

Discussions

```
Trust Assumptim:
       ticket => Box Africe
            1
Speaks for
Patron Request;
       Patron says (View. GrwTW in The 5
                        at 7:30 pm)
```

Exercise 4.2.1 (cont.)

Discussions (cont.)

```
The policy:
 Box Office Controls
    ( Patron controls ( view GWTH in The 5
                         at 7:30 pm)
Ticket: -
   ticket Suys [ Patron controls
```

Basic Access-Control Concepts: Access-Control Mechanisms: Tickets

The End

Weekly Summary

Programming Paradigms II

Overview

- Higher-order functions
 - What are they? Why they are useful?
 - Observations: Functions are data and can be treated like data.
 - Examples: Many of them are programming patterns.
- Some basic access-control concepts are also included

Higher-Order Functions

- Functions that take other function(s) as input
- Utilize lambda expressions to represent input functions
- Capture many programming patterns, including basic list processing, function composition, iteration, and recursion
- Interesting properties (e.g., algebraic properties of foldr) can be used to reason about programs

Basic Access-Control Concepts

- Introduce and discuss reference monitors, the guards for computer and information systems.
- Reference monitors provide the context for our studies in security mechanism. The fundamental concepts behind can be expressed in access-control logic. Derived inference rules can be obtained, and it allows proper reasoning about the systems.

Weekly Summary

The End