Higher-Order Programming:

Closures, procedural abstraction, genericity, instantiation, embedding. Control abstractions: iterate, map, reduce, fold, filter (CTM Sections 1.9, 3.6, 4.7)

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# Higher-order programming

- Assume we want to write another Pascal function which instead of adding numbers, performs exclusive-or on them
- It calculates for each number whether it is odd or even (parity)
- Either write a new function each time we need a new operation, or write one generic function that takes an operation (another function) as argument
- The ability to pass functions as arguments, or return a function as a result is called *higher-order programming*
- Higher-order programming is an aid to build generic abstractions

#### Variations of Pascal

• Compute the parity Pascal triangle

fun {Xor X Y} if X==Y then 0 else 1 end end



# Higher-order programming

```
fun {GenericPascal Op N}
 if N==1 then [1]
 else L in L = {GenericPascal Op N-1}
   {OpList Op {ShiftLeft L} {ShiftRight L}}
 end
end
fun {OpList Op L1 L2}
    case L1 of H1|T1 then
          case L2 of H2|T2 then
              {Op H1 H2}|{OpList Op T1 T2}
          end
    end
    else nil end
end
```

```
fun {Add N1 N2} N1+N2 end
fun {Xor N1 N2}
if N1==N2 then 0 else 1 end
end
```

fun {Pascal N} {GenericPascal Add N} end
fun {ParityPascal N}
 {GenericPascal Xor N}
end

Add and Xor functions are passed as arguments.

#### The Iterate control abstraction

```
fun {Iterate S IsDone Transform}
    if {IsDone S} then S
    else S1 in
        S1 = {Transform S}
        {Iterate S1 IsDone Transform}
    end
end
```

```
fun {Iterate S_i}

if {IsDone S_i} then S_i

else S_{i+1} in

S_{i+1} = \{Transform S_i\}

{Iterate S_{i+1}}

end

end
```

# Sqrt using the control abstraction

```
fun {Sqrt X}
    {Iterate
        1.0
        fun {$ G} {Abs X - G*G}/X < 0.000001 end
        fun {$ G} (G + X/G)/2.0 end
    }
end</pre>
```

IsDone and Transform anonymous functions are passed as arguments.

# Sqrt using Iterate in Haskell

iterate' s isDone transform =
 if isDone s then s
 else let s1 = transform s in
 iterate' s1 isDone transform

```
sqrt' x = iterate' 1.0 goodEnough improve
where goodEnough = g \rightarrow (abs (x - g^*g))/x < 0.00001
improve = g \rightarrow (g + x/g)/2.0
```

# Sqrt in Haskell

#### sqrt x = head (dropWhile (not . goodEnough) sqrtGuesses)

#### where

goodEnough guess = (abs (x – guess\*guess))/x < 0.00001

improve guess = (guess + x/guess)/2.0

sqrtGuesses = 1:(map improve sqrtGuesses)

This sqrt example uses infinite lists enabled by lazy evaluation, and the map control abstraction.

#### Functions are procedures in Oz

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

end

```
proc {Map Xs F Ys}
   case Xs
   of nil then Ys = nil
   [] X|Xr then Y Yr in
        Ys = Y|Yr
        {F X Y}
        {Map Xr F Yr}
   end
end
```

## Map in Haskell

map' :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map' \_ [] = []
map' f (h:t) = f h:map' f t

\_ means that the argument is not used (read "don't care"). map' is to distinguish it from the Prelude's map function.

# Higher-order programming

- Higher-order programming = the set of programming techniques that are possible with procedure values (lexically-scoped closures)
- Basic operations
  - Procedural abstraction: creating procedure values with lexical scoping
  - Genericity: procedure values as arguments
  - Instantiation: procedure values as return values
  - Embedding: procedure values in data structures
- Higher-order programming is the foundation of component-based programming and object-oriented programming

#### Procedural abstraction

- Procedural abstraction is the ability to convert any statement into a procedure value
  - 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 environment where the procedure was created (the contextual environment)
- Basic scheme:
  - Consider any statement <s>
  - Convert it into a procedure value:  $P = proc \{\} \le end$
  - Executing  $\{P\}$  has exactly the same effect as executing  $\langle s \rangle$

#### Procedural abstraction

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

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

#### Procedure abstraction

- Any statement can be abstracted to a procedure by selecting a number of the 'free' variable identifiers and enclosing the statement into a procedure with the identifiers as parameters
- if X >= Y then Z = X else Z = Y end
- Abstracting over all variables proc {Max X Y Z} if X >= Y then Z = X else Z = Y end end
- Abstracting over X and Z proc {LowerBound X Z} if X >= Y then Z = X else Z = Y end end

## Lexical scope

```
local P Q in

proc \{P \dots\} \{Q \dots\} end

proc \{Q \dots\} {Browse hello} end

local Q in

proc \{Q \dots\} {Browse hi} end

\{P \dots\}

end

end
```

#### Procedure values

• Constructing a procedure value in the store is not simple because a procedure may have external references

```
local P Q in

P = proc {$ ...} {Q ...} end

Q = proc {$ ...} {Browse hello} end

local Q in

Q = proc {$ ...} {Browse hi} end

{P ...}

end

end
```



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# Procedure values (3)

- The semantic statement is  $(\operatorname{proc} \{\langle x \rangle \langle y_1 \rangle \dots \langle y_n \rangle\}$  $\langle s \rangle$  end, E)
- $\langle y_1 \rangle \dots \langle y_n \rangle$  are the <u>(formal) parameters</u> of the procedure
- Other free identifiers of  $\langle s \rangle$  are called <u>external</u> references  $\langle z_1 \rangle \dots \langle z_k \rangle$
- These are defined by the environment *E* where the procedure is declared (lexical scoping)
- The contextual environment of the procedure CE is  $E \mid_{\{\langle z1 \rangle \dots \langle zk \rangle\}}$
- When the procedure is called *CE* is used to construct the environment of  $\langle s \rangle$

(proc {\$ $\langle y_1 \rangle \dots \langle y_n \rangle$ }
$\langle s \rangle$
end,
CE)

# Procedure values (4)

- Procedure values are pairs: (proc {\$  $\langle y_1 \rangle \dots \langle y_n \rangle \langle s \rangle$  end , *CE*)
- They are stored in the store just as any other value

(proc {\$ 
$$\langle y_1 \rangle \dots \langle y_n \rangle$$
}  
 $\langle s \rangle$   
end,  
*CE*)

# Procedure application

• The semantic statement is

 $(\{\langle x \rangle \langle y_1 \rangle \dots \langle y_n \rangle\}, E)$ 

- The activation condition  $E(\langle x \rangle)$  is true:
  - If  $E(\langle x \rangle)$  is not procedure value, or a procedure with arity that is not equal *n*, raise an error
  - $E(\langle x \rangle)$  is (proc {\$  $\langle z_1 \rangle \dots \langle z_n \rangle$ }  $\langle s \rangle$  end, *CE*), push

 $(\langle s \rangle, CE + \{\langle z_1 \rangle \rightarrow E(\langle y_1 \rangle) \dots \langle z_n \rangle \rightarrow E(\langle y_n \rangle)\})$ on the stack

• The activation condition  $E(\langle x \rangle)$  is false: suspend

## A common limitation

- Most popular imperative languages (C, Pascal) do not have procedure values
- They have only half of the pair: variables can reference procedure code, but there is no contextual environment
- This means that control abstractions cannot be programmed in these languages
  - They provide a predefined set of control abstractions (for, while loops, if statement)
- Generic operations are still possible
  - They can often get by with just the procedure code. The contextual environment is often empty.
- The limitation is due to the way memory is managed in these languages
  - Part of the store is put on the stack and deallocated when the stack is deallocated
  - This is supposed to make memory management simpler for the programmer on systems that have no garbage collection
  - It means that contextual environments cannot be created, since they would be full of dangling pointers
- Object-oriented programming languages can use objects to encode procedure values by making external references (contextual environment) instance variables.

# Genericity

- Replace specific entities (zero 0 and addition +) by function arguments
- The same routine can do the sum, the product, the logical or, etc.



# Genericity in Haskell

- Replace specific entities (zero 0 and addition +) by function arguments
- The same routine can do the sum, the product, the logical or, etc.

sumlist :: (Num a) => [a] -> a
sumlist [] = 0
sumlist (h:t) = h+sumlist t



foldr' :: (a->b->b) -> b -> [a] -> b foldr' \_ u [] = u foldr' f u (h:t) = f h (foldr' f u t)

#### Instantiation

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

- Instantiation is when a procedure returns a procedure value as its result
- Calling {FoldFactory fun {\$ A B} A+B end 0} returns a function that behaves identically to SumList, which is an « instance » of a folding function

# Currying

- Currying is a technique that can simplify programs that heavily use higher-order programming.
- The idea:function of n arguments ⇒ n nested functions of one argument.
- Advantage: The intermediate functions can be useful in themselves.



# Embedding

- Embedding is when procedure values are put in data structures
- Embedding has many uses:
  - Modules: a module is a record that groups together a set of related operations
  - Software components: a software component is a generic function that takes a set of modules as its arguments and returns a new module. It can be seen as specifying a module in terms of the modules it needs.
  - Delayed evaluation (also called explicit lazy evaluation): build just a small part of a data structure, with functions at the extremities that can be called to build more. The consumer can control explicitly how much of the data structure is built.

declare

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

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

```
{ForAll [a b c d]
proc{$ I} {System.showInfo "the item is: " # I} end}
```

```
for I in [a b c d] do
  {System.showInfo "the item is: " # I}
end
```

#### fun {FoldL Xs F U}

case Xs

of nil then U

```
[] X|Xr then {FoldL Xr F {F X U}}
```

end

#### end

Assume a list  $[x1 \ x2 \ x3 \ ...]$   $S0 \rightarrow S1 \rightarrow S2$  $U \rightarrow \{F \ x1 \ U\} \rightarrow \{F \ x2 \ \{F \ x1 \ U\}\} \rightarrow ... \rightarrow$ 

#### fun {FoldL Xs F U}

case Xs
of nil then U
[] X|Xr then {FoldL Xr F {F X U}}
end
end

What does this program do ? {Browse {FoldL [1 2 3] fun {\$ X Y} X|Y end nil}}

#### FoldL in Haskell

```
foldl' :: (a->b->b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldl' _ u [] = u
foldl' f u (h:t) = foldl' f (f h u) t
```

Notice the unit u is of type b, list elements are of type a, and the function f is of type a->b->b.

## Two more folding functions

Given a list  $[e_1 e_2 ... e_n]$  and a binary function  $\Theta$ , with unit U, the previous folding functions do the following:

$e_1 \odot \dots (e_{n-1} \odot (e_n \odot U)) \dots)$	fold right
$e_n \odot (e_2 \odot (e_1 \odot U)))$	fold left

But there are two other possibilities:

$$(\dots((U \odot e_n) \odot e_{n-1}) \dots \odot e_1)$$
$$(\dots((U \odot e_1) \odot e_2) \dots \odot e_n)$$

fold right unit left fold left unit left

## FoldL unit left in Haskell

```
foldlul :: (b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow b
foldlul _ u [] = u
foldlul f u (h:t) = foldlul f (f u h) t
```

Notice the unit u is of type b, list elements are of type a, and the function f is of type b->a->b.

### List-based techniques

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

fun {Filter Xs P} case Xs of nil then nil XXr and then {P X} then X|{Filter Xr P} X|Xr then {Filter Xr P} end end

#### Filter in Haskell

filter' :: (a-> Bool) -> [a] -> [a] filter' \_ [] = [] filter' p (h:t) = if p h then h:filter' p t else filter' p t

# Filter as FoldR application



filter" :: (a-> Bool) -> [a] -> [a] filter" p I = foldr (\h t -> if p h then h:t else t) [] I

## Tree-based techniques



```
proc {VisitNodes Tree P}
case Tree of tree(node:N sons:Sons ...) then
    {P N}
    for T in Sons do {VisitNodes T P} end
    end
end
```

# Explicit lazy evaluation

- Supply-driven evaluation. (e.g. The list is completely calculated independent of whether the elements are needed or not. )
- Demand-driven execution.(e.g. The consumer of the list structure asks for new list elements when they are needed.)
- Technique: a programmed trigger.
- How to do it with higher-order programming? The consumer has a function that it calls when it needs a new list element. The function call returns a pair: the list element and a new function. The new function is the new trigger: calling it returns the next data item and another new function. And so forth.

## Explicit lazy functions

```
fun lazy {From N}
N | {From N+1}
end
```

```
fun {From N}
fun {$ N | {From N+1} end
end
```

#### Exercises

23. Define an IncList function to take a list of numbers and increment all its values, using the Map control abstraction. For example:

{IncList [3 1 7]} => [4 2 8]

- 24. Create a higher-order MapReduce function that takes as input two functions corresponding to Map and Reduce respectively, and returns a function to perform the composition. Illustrate your MapReduce function with an example.
- 25. Write solutions for exercises 23 and 24 in both Oz and Haskell. Compare your solutions.