Programming Language Concepts, CS2104 Lecture 4

Higher-Order Programming

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Overview

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

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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

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?

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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

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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)

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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 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.

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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.

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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.

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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 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!

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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?

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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.

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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

```
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.

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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

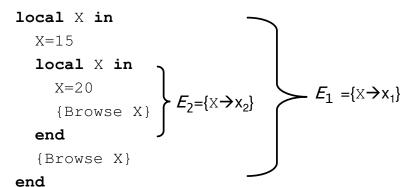
```
local Z in
Z=1
proc {P X Y} Y=X+Z end
```

end

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

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Lexical Scoping or Static Scoping



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

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.

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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.

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Example of Contextual Environment

```
local Inc in
   local 7 = 1 in
      proc \{Inc X Y\} Y = X + Z end
      local Y in
          {Inc 2 Y}
          {Browse Y}
                                Closure for
      end
                                  {Inc X Y}
   end
   local Z = 2 in
                                has the mapping
      local Y in
                                  \{Z \rightarrow 1\}
          {Inc 2 Y}
                                based on where it was
          {Browse Y}
                                defined
      end
   end
end
```

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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

Procedure Declaration

Semantic statement is

(proc
$$\{\langle X \rangle \langle y \rangle_1 \dots \langle y \rangle_n\} \langle S \rangle$$
 end, E)

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

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

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Procedure Declaration

Semantic statement is

(proc
$$\{\langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle_1 \dots \langle y \rangle_n \} \langle s \rangle$$
 end, E)
with $E(\langle x \rangle) = x$

 Create procedure value in the store and bind it to x

(proc
$$\{ \$ \langle y \rangle_1 ... \langle y \rangle_n \} \langle \$ \rangle$$
 end,
 $E | \{ \langle z \rangle_1, ..., \langle z \rangle_m \} \}$

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Procedure Call

If semantic statement is

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

with

$$E(\langle \mathbf{x} \rangle) = (\text{proc } \{\$ \langle \mathbf{w} \rangle_1 ... \langle \mathbf{w} \rangle_n\} \langle \mathbf{s} \rangle \text{ end, } CE)$$

then push

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

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Execution of Procedure Call

Semantic statement is

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

- If \(\delta \rangle \) 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

Executing a Procedure Call

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

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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

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

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2.1

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

Higher-Order Programming

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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

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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
- $\hfill \Box$ Add result parameters to both $\{{\tt F}\ x\}$ and $\{{\tt \$}\ {\tt Y}\}$ to convert to procedures.

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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 (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

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- \rightarrow <P/2 F>
- G is an unnamed function
- \rightarrow <P/2>
- {G Y} returns 1+Y

 \rightarrow 3

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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

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

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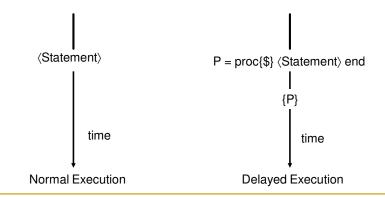
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Higher-Order Programming

- 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

Procedural Abstraction

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



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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>

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The Arguments are Evaluated

```
x is evaluated as 3+1
declare Z=3
fun {F X}
   {Browse X} 2
                                    \rightarrow 4
end
Y = \{F \mid Z+1\}
                                    \rightarrow 2
{Browse Y}
                                    x is evaluated as function
declare Z=3
                                       value fun {$} Z+1 end
fun {F X}
                                    \rightarrow <P/1>
   {Browse X}
   {Browse {X}} 2
                                    \rightarrow 4 (3+1 is evaluated)
end
Y = \{F \text{ fun } \{\$\} Z + 1 \text{ end}\}
{Browse Y}
                                    \rightarrow 2
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```

Same Holds for Expressions

- Basic scheme:
 - □ Consider any expression <E>
 - □ Convert it into a function value:

```
F = \text{fun } \{\$\} < E > \text{end}
```

□ Executing X={F} has exactly the same effect as executing X=E

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 ...
```

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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!

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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
```

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Example

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```
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.

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)

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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.

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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
```

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Genericity

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 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
```

Types of Functions

```
fun {SumList L}
...
SumList :: (List Int) -> Int
```

```
fun {FoldR L F U}
...
FoldR :: {(List A) ({A B}->B) B} -> B
```

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Genericity SumList

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
```

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Genericity ProductList

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

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

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

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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]
```

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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
```

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Other Generic Functions: Filter

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```
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]
```

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
```

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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.

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Control Construct - For Loop

Integer loop: repeats an operation with a sequence of integers

Linguistic abstraction for integer loops

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

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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 – 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
```

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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
```

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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
```

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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

Right-Folding

■ Right-folding {FoldR $[x_1 ... x_n]$ F S} {F x_1 {F x_2 ... {F x_n S} ...}}

or

 $X_1 \otimes_{\mathbb{F}} (X_2 \otimes_{\mathbb{F}} (\dots (X_n \otimes_{\mathbb{F}} \mathbb{S}) \dots))$



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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

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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?

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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
```

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
```

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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
```

Left-Folding

Left-folding {FoldL
$$[X_1...X_n]$$
 F S} {F ... {F {F S X_1 } X_2 } ... X_n } or
$$(... ((S \otimes_{\mathbb{F}} X_1) \otimes_{\mathbb{F}} X_2) ... \otimes_{\mathbb{F}} X_n)$$
 left is here!

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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

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}
```

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end

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Properties of FoldL

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

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Example: Appending Lists

Given: list of lists

```
[[a b] [1 2] [e] [g]] \Rightarrow [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?

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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

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]}} = ...
```

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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]}} =

= [a b 1 2 e g]
```

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Goal

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

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Summary so far

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- 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

Summary

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

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Reading suggestions

- Chapter 1 and 3, Sections 1.9, 3.6 from [van Roy, Haridi; 2004]
- Exercises 2.9.1, 2.9.2, 1.18.6 from [van Roy,Haridi; 2004]

Simple Example

We shall reason that x, y and z will be bound to 1

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Thank you for your attention!

Simple Example

Initial execution state

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Statement

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Simple Example

Semantic statement

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Simple Example

Empty environment

Simple Example

■ Semantic stack

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Empty store

Simple Example

```
([(Z=1

proc {P X} Y=X end

{P Z},  {P \rightarrow p, Y \rightarrow y, Z \rightarrow Z})],

{p, y, Z})
```

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Simple Example: local

- Create new store variables
- Extend the environment

Simple Example

```
([(z=1
proc {P X} Y=X end
{P Z}, {P \rightarrow p, y \rightarrow y, z \rightarrow z})],
{p, y, z})
```

Split sequential composition

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([(
$$z=1$$
, { $P \rightarrow p$, $Y \rightarrow y$, $z \rightarrow z$ }),
(proc { $P X$ } Y=X end
{ $P Z$ }, { $P \rightarrow p$, $Y \rightarrow y$, $z \rightarrow z$ })],
{ p, y, z })

Split sequential composition

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Simple Example

([(proc {P X} Y=X end, {P
$$\rightarrow p$$
, Y $\rightarrow y$, Z $\rightarrow z$ }),
({P Z}, {P $\rightarrow p$, Y $\rightarrow y$, Z $\rightarrow z$ })],
{ $p, y, z=1$ })

Split sequential composition

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Simple Example

([(proc {P X} Y=X end {P Z}, {P
$$\rightarrow p$$
, $Y \rightarrow y$, $Z \rightarrow Z$ })], { $p, y, z=1$ })

Variable-value assignment

Simple Example

([(proc {P X} Y=X end, {P
$$\rightarrow p$$
, Y $\rightarrow y$, Z $\rightarrow z$ }),
({P Z}, {P $\rightarrow p$, Y $\rightarrow y$, Z $\rightarrow z$ })],
{ $p, y, z=1$ })

- Procedure definition
 - external reference
 - □ formal argument x
- Contextual environment {y→y}
- Write procedure value to store

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- Procedure call: use p
- Note: p is a value like any other variable. It is the semantic statement (proc $\{\$ X\} Y=X \text{ end}, \{Y \rightarrow y\}$)
- Environment
 - start from $\{Y \rightarrow y\}$
 - adjoin $\{X \rightarrow Z\}$

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Simple Example

- Voila!
- The semantic stack is in the run-time state terminated, since the stack is empty

Simple Example

- Variable-variable assignment
 - □ Variable for Y is
 - Variable for x is Z

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