Chapter 3: Programming with Combinators

Learning targets of this chapter:

- 1. Thinking in functional components, avoid thinking in
 - control flow (recursion)
 - details of the data structure (pattern matching in inductive definitions)
- 2. Natural use of arrows in type signatures
- 3. Knowledge of the central combinators
 - graphical notion of their structure
 - application of combinators
- 4. Trees: traversal and search
- 5. Functor as type class for abstraction of data structures
- 6. Skeletons, example: divide and conquer

(SS 2023)

Programming with Combinators

- Combinator: function without free variables
- Context-free semantics
- Clear functionality
- High reusability
- Suitable for special, efficient implementation
- Skeleton: combinator with substantial functionality

Combinators in Place of Explicit Recursion

Example problem: revert a list

• Bad solution: explicit recursion

Combinators in Place of Explicit Recursion

Example problem: revert a list

• Same bad, explicitly recursive solution, but at least better readable due to constructor style with pattern matching

• Also explicitly recursive (and also with square execution time)

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

• Good solution: combinators

```
revert = foldl (flip (:)) []
```

Issue of Programming Style

Some useful properties ...

- 1. avoidance of implicit definitions (recursion)
- 2. avoidance of case analyses (if-then-else)
- 3. minimal reference to data structures
- 4. if data structures, then pattern matching rather than selectors ("constructor style")
- 5. equations between functions, without reference to arguments ("point-free style")
- ... and why they are desirable:
 - (1),(2),(4),(5): simplification of proofs and program transformations
 - (1),(2),(3),(4): concise source code \Rightarrow improved readability
 - (3): exchangeability of parts of the implementation

The Benefit of Combinators

- Provision of frequently arising program schemata (map, fold1, ...)
- Encapsulation of recursion and case analyses
- Adaptation of representations (flip, concat, ...)
- Skeletons: factorisation of problem solutions into
 - algorithmic part (depth-first search, divide and conquer, ...)
 - application-specific operations
- Simple rules for program transformation,

```
e.g., map g . map f = map (g . f)
```

Efficient Implementation of Combinators

The compiler can leverage knowledge about the combinator.

Ex.: map $f[x_0, ..., x_n] \leadsto [y_0, ..., y_n]$:

Thinking in functional blocks, not in recursion

$$x_{0} \rightarrow f \rightarrow y_{0}$$

$$x_{1} \rightarrow f \rightarrow y_{1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vdots$$

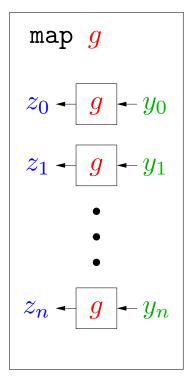
$$x_{n} \rightarrow f \rightarrow y_{n}$$

Result: all applications of f are independent and could, e.g., be executed simultaneously by a parallel computer.

Program Transformations

Ex.: $\max g \cdot \min f == \min (g \cdot f)$

- In sequence: avoidance of iterations and temporary data structures (y)
- In parallel: avoidance of synchronization and communication



$$y_0 \leftarrow f \leftarrow x_0$$

$$y_1 \leftarrow f \leftarrow x_1$$

$$\vdots$$

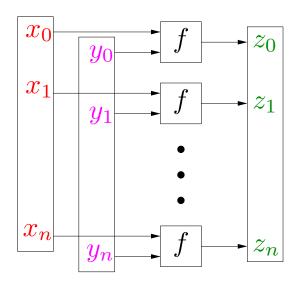
$$\vdots$$

$$y_n \leftarrow f \leftarrow x_n$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{map} & (g \circ f) \\ \hline z_0 - g \circ f - x_0 \\ \hline z_1 - g \circ f - x_1 \\ \hline & \cdot \\ & \cdot \\ \hline & \cdot \\ \hline & z_n - g \circ f - x_n \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Vector Operations: zipWith

```
zipWith :: (a->b->c) -> [a] -> [b] -> [c]
zipWith f (x:xs) (y:ys) = f x y : zipWith f xs ys
zipWith _ _ _ = []
```



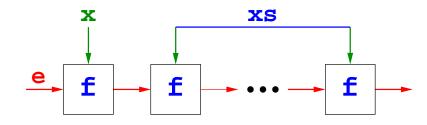
```
innerProd :: Num a => [a] -> [a] -> a
innerProd xs ys = sum (zipWith (*) xs ys)
```

The Combinator fold1

```
foldl :: (a->b->a) -> a -> [b] -> a

foldl f e [] = e

foldl f e (x:xs) = foldl f (f e x) xs
```



Examples:

```
sum [1,2,3,4] = foldl (+) 0 [1,2,3,4] = (((0+1)+2)+3)+4
product [1,2,3,4] = foldl (*) 1 [1,2,3,4] = (((1*1)*2)*3)*4
```

Reuseability of Combinators

Naive Definition

sum [] = 0 sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs product [] = 1 product (x:xs) = x * product xs reverse xs = rev xs [] where rev [] acc = acc

rev (x:xs) acc = rev xs (x:acc)

Elegant Definition

```
sum = foldl (+) 0

product = foldl (*) 1

reverse
  = foldl (flip (:)) []
```

List Reversal with fold1

```
reverse = foldl (flip (:)) []
```

```
reverse [1,2,3,4] = foldl (flip (:)) [] [1,2,3,4]

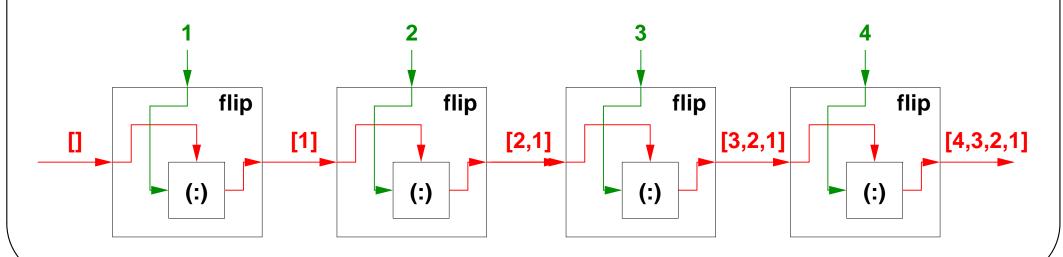
= foldl (flip (:)) [1] [2,3,4]

= foldl (flip (:)) [2,1] [3,4]

= foldl (flip (:)) [3,2,1] [4]

= foldl (flip (:)) [4,3,2,1] []

= [4,3,2,1]
```



Variants of Combinator fold

```
foldl :: (a->b->a)->a->[b]->a

foldl f e [] = e

foldl f e (x:xs) = foldl f (f e x) xs

x_0 x_1 x_n
```

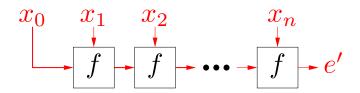
```
foldr :: (a->b->b)->b->[a]->b

foldr f e [] = e

foldr f e (x:xs) = f x (foldr f e xs)

x_0 \quad x_1 \quad x_n
e'-f-f-o-o-f-e
```

foldl1 f (x:xs) = foldl f x xs



foldr1 f [x] = x

foldr1 f (x:xs) = f x (foldr1 f xs) $x_0 \quad x_1 \quad x_{n-1} \quad x_n$ $e' \quad f \quad f \quad f \quad f$

Use of foldl, Ex.: sum

```
e \rightarrow f \rightarrow f \rightarrow e'
foldl :: (a->b->a) -> a -> [b] -> a
foldl f e [] = e
foldl f e (x:xs) = foldl f (f e x) xs
```

```
sum = foldl (+) 0

sum [a,b,c,d,e] \rightsquigarrow ((((0+a)+b)+c)+d)+e
```

- Since + is associative, foldr applies as well.
- For strict operators, like +, the preferable choice is fold1, since
 - 1. there is no need to store the numbers of the list and
 - 2. the entire list must be traversed anyway.

Use of foldr, Ex.: and

```
e' - f - f - o - o - f - e
foldr :: (a->b->b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldr f e [] = []
foldr f e (x:xs) = f x (foldr f e xs)
```

```
and = foldr (&&) True
and [a,b,c] \rightsquigarrow a \&\& (b \&\& (c \&\& True))
```

- Since && is associative, fold1 applies as well.
- For operators that are non-strict in the second argument, like &&, the preferable choice is foldr, since
 - 1. foldl would traverse the entire list, but
 - 2. the result may be reached earlier on.

Use of foldl1, Ex.: maximum

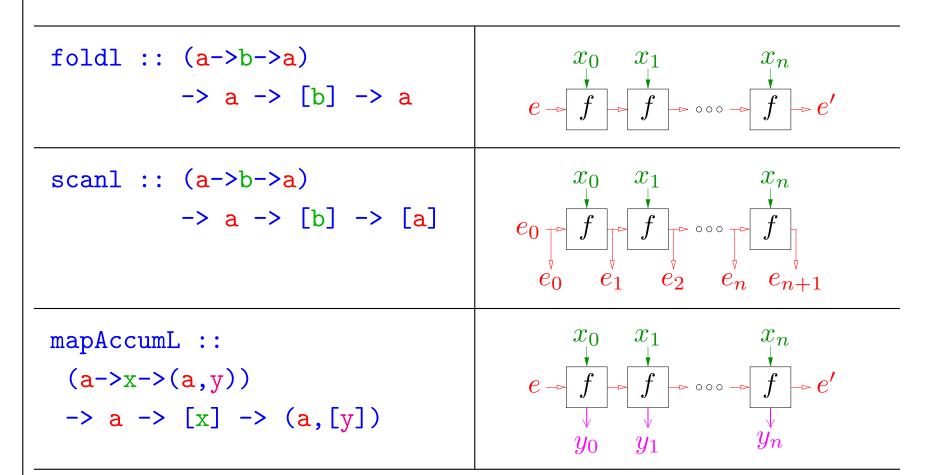
```
x_0 \quad x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_n
f \quad f \quad f \quad f \quad e'
foldl1 :: (a->a->a) -> [a] -> a
foldl1 f (x:xs) = foldl f x xs
```

```
maximum = foldl1 max

maximum [3,5,7,4] \rightsquigarrow \max (\max 3 5) 7) 4
```

- foldl1, since there is no neutral element.
- Only one variable in the signature.
- Since 'max' is associative, foldr1 applies as well.
- Analogously to sum: foldl1, since max is strict.

With Intermediate Results: scanl and mapAccumL



analogously: scanr, scanl1, scanr1 und mapAccumR

Computation of Target Positions for a Subsequence

Use: parallel partitioning (in parallel Quicksort)

- Given: condition (>4) and list [2,7,6,4,8,2]
- Goal: positions in the subsequence of numbers that satisfy the condition

```
input: [2,7,6,4,8,2]
mask: [0,1,1,0,1,0] 1 <=> condition satisfied
offsets: [0,0,1,2,2,3,3] prefix sum of mask (scanl (+) 0)
result: [0,0,1,2,2,3]
```

- Result: elementwise composition (zipWith) of mask (color) and offsets (value), shorter list determines length
- Nothing and Just in place of the colors:
 [Nothing, Just 0, Just 1, Nothing, Just 2, Nothing]

Use of scanl, Ex.: positions

```
e_0 \xrightarrow{f} \xrightarrow{f} \cdots \xrightarrow{f}
e_0 \xrightarrow{e_1} e_2 \xrightarrow{e_n} e_{n+1}
\operatorname{scanl} :: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow [b] \rightarrow [a]
```

Use of mapAccumL, Ex.: positions

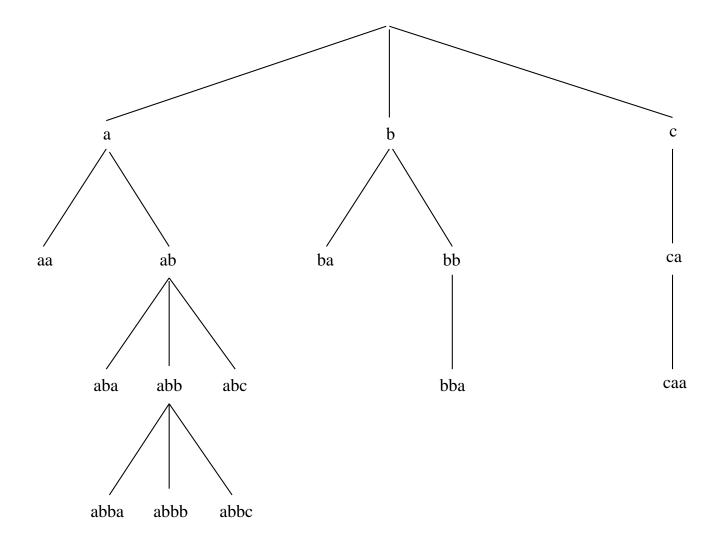
Benefit: a single list traversal, no intermediate data structures

Combinators for Trees

- Tree type: data Tree element = Node element [Tree element]
- Example

```
tree1 :: Tree String
tree1
  = Node "" [Node "a" [Node "aa" [],
                       Node "ab" [Node "aba" [].
                                   Node "abb" [Node "abba" [],
                                               Node "abbb" [].
                                               Node "abbc" []],
                                   Node "abc" []]
                      ],
             Node "b" [Node "ba" [],
                       Node "bb" [Node "bba" []]],
             Node "c" [Node "ca" [Node "caa" []]]]
```





Function map for Type Tree

• Definition

```
mapTree :: (a->b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
 mapTree f (Node x subtrees) = Node (f x) (map (mapTree f) subtrees)
• Example
 *Tree> mapTree length tree1
 Node 0 [Node 1 [Node 2 [],
                  Node 2 [Node 3 [],
                          Node 3 [Node 4 [],
                                  Node 4 [].
                                  Node 4 []],
                          Node 3 []],
          Node 1 [Node 2 [],
                  Node 2 [Node 3 []]],
          Node 1 [Node 2 [Node 3 []]]]
```

Reduction (fold) on Trees

• Definition

```
foldTree :: (a->[b]->b) -> Tree a -> b
foldTree f (Node x subtrees) = f x (map (foldTree f) subtrees)
```

• Ex.: sum of all numbers in a tree

Depth-First Traversal of Trees

```
preOrder, inOrder, postOrder :: Tree a -> [a]
preOrder = let pre x xss = x : concat xss
           in foldTree pre
postOrder = let post x xss = concat xss ++ [x]
            in foldTree post
inOrder = let second x [] = [x]
              second x (xs:xss) = xs ++ (x : concat xss)
          in foldTree second
```

Breadth-First Traversal of Trees

Utility: algorithmic skeleton workQueue

```
workQueue :: (a -> ([a],[b])) -> [a] -> [b]
workQueue f xs = wQ xs [] where
    wQ []    acc = acc
    wQ (x:xs') acc = let (app,out) = f x
        in wQ (xs'++app) (acc++out)
```

Implementation of the breadth-first traversal breadthOrder:

- append node value at hand to result list acc
- append subtree to queue xs

```
breadthOrder :: Tree a -> [a]
breadthOrder t = workQueue f [t]
  where f (Node x subtrees) = (subtrees,[x])
```

Search in Trees

- 1. Generate a list with the elements in the desired order.
- 2. Look for the first element in the list that satisfies predicate pred.

```
depthFirstSearch, breadthFirstSearch :: (a->Bool) -> Tree a -> Maybe a
depthFirstSearch pred = maybeHead . filter pred . preOrder
breadthFirstSearch pred = maybeHead . filter pred . breadthOrder
```

Due to the laziness of Haskell, the data structure will only be traversed to the point at which the desired element is found.

```
maybeHead :: [a] -> Maybe a
maybeHead [] = Nothing
maybeHead (x:_) = Just x
```

```
*Tree> preOrder tree1
["", "a", "aa", "ab", "aba", "abb", "abba", "abbb", "abbc", "abc",
 "b", "ba", "bb", "bba", "c", "ca", "caa"]
*Tree> postOrder tree1
["aa","aba","abba","abbb","abbc","abb","abc","ab","a","ba",
"bba","bb","b","caa","ca","c",""]
*Tree> inOrder tree1
["aa", "a", "aba", "abb", "abbb", "abbb", "abbc", "abc", "",
"ba", "b", "bba", "bb", "caa", "ca", "c"]
*Tree> breadthOrder tree1
["", "a", "b", "c", "aa", "ab", "ba", "bb", "ca", "aba", "abb", "abc",
"bba","caa","abba","abbb","abbc"]
*Tree> let pred x = length x > 0 && last x == 'b'
*Tree> depthFirstSearch pred tree1
Just "ab"
*Tree> breadthFirstSearch pred tree1
Just "b"
```

Generalization of map: fmap

- map and mapTree only differ in the data structure (list/tree).
- Type constructors for lists ([]), trees ([]) and other data structures are called functors (\rightarrow category theory).
- Haskell provides a type class for functors:

```
class Functor f where
  fmap :: (a -> b) -> (f a -> f b)
```

- Instances of Functor should satisfy the following conditions:
 - (1) fmap id = id
 - (2) fmap (f . g) = fmap f . fmap g

Instances of Functor

• Lists

```
instance Functor [] where
  fmap = map
Prelude> fmap (^2) [2,3,4]
[4,9,16]
```

• Trees

```
instance Functor Tree where
   fmap = mapTree
*Tree> fmap (^2) (Node 3 [Node 4 [], Node 5 []])
Node 9 [Node 16 [],Node 25 []]
```

• Maybe

```
instance Functor Maybe where
   fmap f Nothing = Nothing
   fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
Prelude> fmap (^2) (Just 3)
Just 9
```

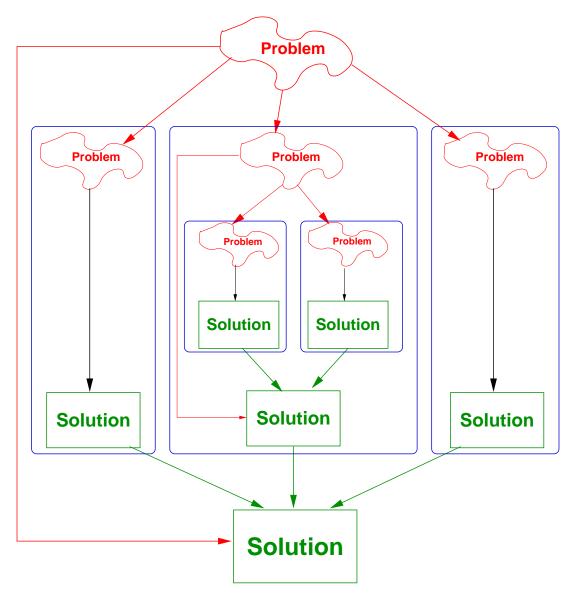
• Arrays

A Skeleton for Divide and Conquer (1)

Divide-and-Conquer paradigm:

- If a problem can be solved directly, do it.
- Otherwise
 - 1. Divide the problem into independent parts of the same type.
 - 2. Apply the procedure recursively to each subproblem.
 - 3. Combine the solutions of the subproblems to an encompassing solution.

A Skeleton for Divide and Conquer (2)



A Skeleton for Divide and Conquer (3)

Instantiation with problem-specific functions:

- 1. p::(a->Bool) answers whether the problem can be solved directly.
- 2. b::(a->b) solves the problem directly.
- 3. d::(a->[a]) divides the problem into a list of subproblems.
- 4. c::(a->[b]->b) combines the solutions of the subproblems.

dcprg::(a->b) is the resulting program.

Use of dc (1): functional "quicksort"

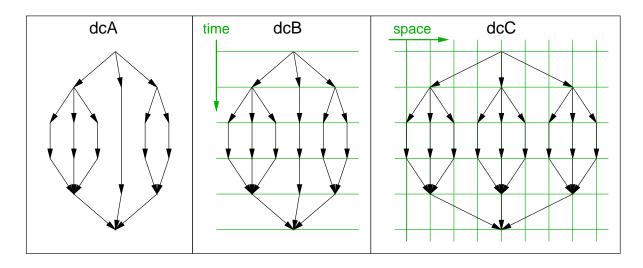
```
quicksort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
quicksort = dc p b d c
where p xs = length xs < 2
    b xs = xs
    d (x:xs) = let (a,b) = partition (<x) xs
        in [a,b]
    c (x:_) [a,b] = a ++ (x : b)</pre>
```

Use of dc (2): Queens Problem

- Input: number of rows/columns of the "chess" board
- Output: list of all solutions; for every solution, list element i is the column position of the queen in row i

```
queens :: Int -> [[Int]]
queens n = dc p b d c ([],[0..n-1]) where
   p (_,remain) = null remain //remain = column positions still free
   b (placed,_) = [placed] //placed = rows with queens placed so far
   d (placed, remain)
     = [ (placed++[i],filter (/=i) remain) //no column conflict
       | i <- remain, not (diagonal_attack i) ] //no diagonal conflict
      where diagonal_attack i
              = or [ length placed - j == abs (i - placed!!j)
                    | j < [0..length placed -1] |
   c = concat
```

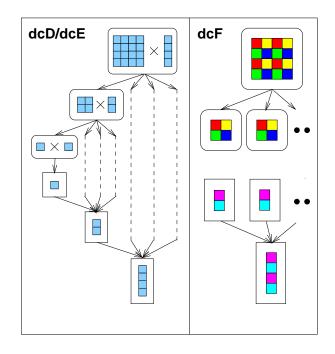
Divide-and-Conquer Skeletons: Task Division



skeleton	restriction	instances
dcA	independent subproblems	Quicksort, Maximum Independent Set
dcB	fixed recursion depth	n Queens
dcC	fixed division degree k	Karatsuba Integer Product $(k=3)$

The Skeleton-Based Parallelization of Divide-and-Conquer Recursions (Dissertation of Christoph Herrmann, Universität Passau, June 2000)

Divide-and-Conquer Skeletons: Data Division



dcD	block recursion	Triangular Matrix Inversion $(k=2)$, Batcher Sort $(k=2)$
dcE	elementwise operations	Matrix-Vector Product $(k=4)$
dcF	communication between corresponding elements	Karatsuba's Polynomial Product $(k=3)$, Bitonic Merge $(k=2)$, FFT $(k=2)$, Strassen's Matrix Product $(k=7)$