

Session 8: Lazy evaluation and folds

COMP2221: Functional programming

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Recap

- Introduced higher order functions, saw examples map, filter, ...
- Functor as a type class for mappable containers
- Functor laws
 - fmap id == id
 - fmap (f . g) == fmap f . fmap g
- Discussed purpose of type class instances for custom data types

Generic code

```
list = Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 4 Nil))
btree = Node 1 (Leaf 2) (Leaf 4)

-- Generic add1
add1 :: (Functor c, Num a) => c a -> c a
add1 = fmap (+1)

Prelude> add1 list
Cons 2 (Cons 3 (Cons 5 Nil))
Prelude> add1 btree
Node 2 (Leaf 3) (Leaf 5)
```

Correctness of listMap

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a) deriving (Eq, Show)
  instance Functor List where
    fmap _ Nil = Nil
    fmap f (Cons x xs) = Cons (f x) (fmap f xs)
To show fmap id == id, need to show fmap id (Cons x xs) == Cons x xs for
any x, xs.
  -- Induction hypothesis
  fmap id xs = xs
  -- Base case
  -- apply definition
  fmap id Nil = Nil
  -- Inductive case
```

Exercise: check whether the second law holds

fmap id (Cons x xs) = Cons (id x) (fmap id xs)

== Cons x (fmap id xs)
== Cons x xs -- Done!

Lazy evaluation

How does this work?

Fibonacci sequence

```
F_0 = 0 fibs = 0 : 1 : zipWith (+) fibs (tail fibs) 
Prelude> take 10 fibs [0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34] 
F_1 = 1 F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}
```

How long?

```
def slow function(a):
                                             slow_function :: Int -> Int
   ... # 5 minute computation
                                             -- 5 minute computation
                                             slow function a = ...
def compute(a, b):
   if a == 0:
                                             compute :: Int -> Int -> Int
                                             compute a b | a == 0 = 1
      return 1
                                                         | otherwise = b
   else:
     return b
                                             compute 0 (slow_function 0)
                                             compute 1 (slow_function 1)
compute(0, slow_function(0))
compute(1, slow_function(1))
```

Lazy evaluation AKA I'll get it when you need it

- Not only is Haskell a pure functional language
- It is also evaluated *lazily*
- Hence, we can work with infinite data structures
- ...and defer computation until such time as it's strictly necessary

Definition (Lazy evaluation)

Expressions are not evaluated when they are bound to variables. Instead, their evaluation is *deferred* until their result is needed by other computations.

Evaluation strategies

- Haskell's basic method of computation is application of functions to arguments
- Even here, though we already have some freedom

Example

```
inc :: Int -> Int
inc n = n + 1
inc (2*3)
```

Two options for the evaluation order

```
inc (2*3)
= inc 6 -- applying *
= 6 + 1 -- applying inc
= 7 -- applying +
= 7 -- applying +
= 7 -- applying +
inc (2*3)
= (2*3) + 1 -- applying inc
= 6 + 1 -- applying *
= 7 -- applying +
```

 As long as all the expression evaluations terminate, the order we choose to do things doesn't matter.

Evaluation strategies II

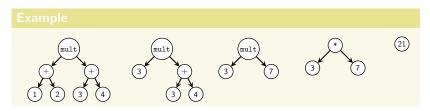
- We can represent a function call and its arguments in Haskell as a graph
- Nodes in the graph are either *terminal* or *compound*. The latter are called *reducible expressions* or *redexes*.

mult :: (Int, Int) -> Int mult (x, y) = x*y mult (1+2, 3+4)

- 1, 2, 3, and 4 are terminal (not reducible) expressions
- (+) and mult are reducible expressions.

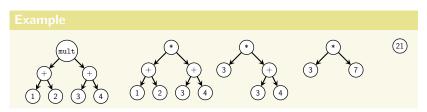
Innermost evaluation

- Evaluate "bottom up"
- First evaluate redexes that only contain terminal or *irreducible* expressions, then repeat
- Need to specify evaluation order at leaves. Typically: "left to right"



Outermost evaluation

- Evaluate "top down"
- First evaluate redexes that are outermost, then repeat
- Again, need an evaluation order for children, typically choose "left to right".



Termination

- For finite expressions, both innermost and outermost evaluation terminate.
- Not so for infinite expressions

Example

```
inf :: Integer
inf = 1 + inf
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
Prelude> fst (0, inf)
```

• Innermost evaluation will fail to terminate here, whereas outermost evaluation produces a result.

Termination II

Innermost evaluation: never terminates

```
inf :: Integer
inf = 1 + inf
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
Prelude> fst (0, inf)
Prelude> fst (0, 1 + inf) -- applying inf
Prelude> fst (0, 1 + 1 + inf) -- applying inf
...
```

Outermost evaluation: terminates in one step

```
inf :: Integer
inf = 1 + inf
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
Prelude> fst (0, inf)
0 -- applying fst
```

Call by name or value?

Call by value

- Also called eager evaluation
- Innermost evaluation
- Arguments to functions are always fully evaluated before the function is applied
- Each argument is evaluated exactly once
- Evaluation strategy for most imperative languages

Call by name

- Also called lazy evaluation
- Outermost evaluation
- Functions are applied before their arguments are evaluated
- Each argument may be evaluated more than once
- Evaluation strategy in Haskell (and others)

Avoiding inefficiences: sharing

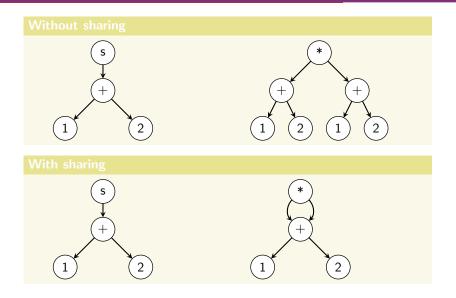
• Straightforward implementation of call-by-name can lead to inefficiency in the number of times an argument is evaluated

Example

```
square :: Int -> Int
square n = n * n
Prelude> square (1+2)
== (1 + 2) * (1 + 2) -- applying square
== 3 * (1 + 2) -- applying +
== 3 * 3 -- applying +
== 9
```

- To avoid this, Haskell implements sharing of arguments.
- We can think of this as rewriting the evaluation tree into a graph.

Avoiding inefficiences: sharing



higher order functions

Folds: (yet another) family of

Folds

- folds process a data structure in some order and build a return value
- Haskell provides a number of these in the standard prelude, with more available in the Data.List module

```
foldr: right associative fold

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

foldr f z [] = z

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

Folds

- folds process a data structure in some order and build a return value
- Haskell provides a number of these in the standard prelude, with more available in the Data.List module

```
foldl: left associative fold

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

foldl f z [] = z

foldl f z (x:xs) = foldl f (z `f` x) xs -- tail recursive!
```

How to think about this

- foldr and foldl are recursive
- However, often easier to think of them non-recursively

foldr

Replace (:) by the given function, and [] by given value.

```
sum [1, 2, 3]
= foldr (+) 0 [1, 2, 3]
= foldr (+) 0 (1:(2:(3:[])))
= 1 + (2 + (3 + 0))
= 6
```

foldl

Same idea, but associating to the left

```
sum [1, 2, 3]
= foldl (+) 0 [1, 2, 3]
= foldl (+) 0 (1:(2:(3:[])))
= (((0 + 1) + 2) + 3)
= 6
```

Purpose of folds

- Capture many linear recursive patterns in a clean way
- Can have efficient library implementation ⇒ can apply program optimisations
- Actually apply to all Foldable types, not just lists
- e.g. foldr's type is actually
 foldr :: Foldable t => (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
- So we can write code for lists and (say) trees identically

Folds are general

• Many library functions on lists are written using folds

```
product = foldr (*) 1
sum = foldr (+) 0
maximum = foldr1 max
```

Practicals ask you to define some others

Which to choose?

foldr

- Generally foldr is the right choice
- Works even for infinite lists
- Note foldr (:) [] == id
- Can terminate early

foldl

- Can't terminate early
- · Doesn't work on infinite lists
- Usually best to use strict version:

```
import Data.List
foldl' -- note trailing '
```

- Aside: it is probably a historical accident that foldl is not strict (see http://www.well-typed.com/blog/90/)
- \Rightarrow CAUTION: foldr and foldl lead to different result if operator f not

Foldable data structures

Foldable type class: if we can combine an a and a b to produce a
new b, then, given a start value and a container of as we can reduce
it to a b

Summary

- Introduced the concept of lazy evaluation
- Saw implementation of foldr and foldl
- Introduced and used type class *Foldable* to capture computational pattern *reduction*