

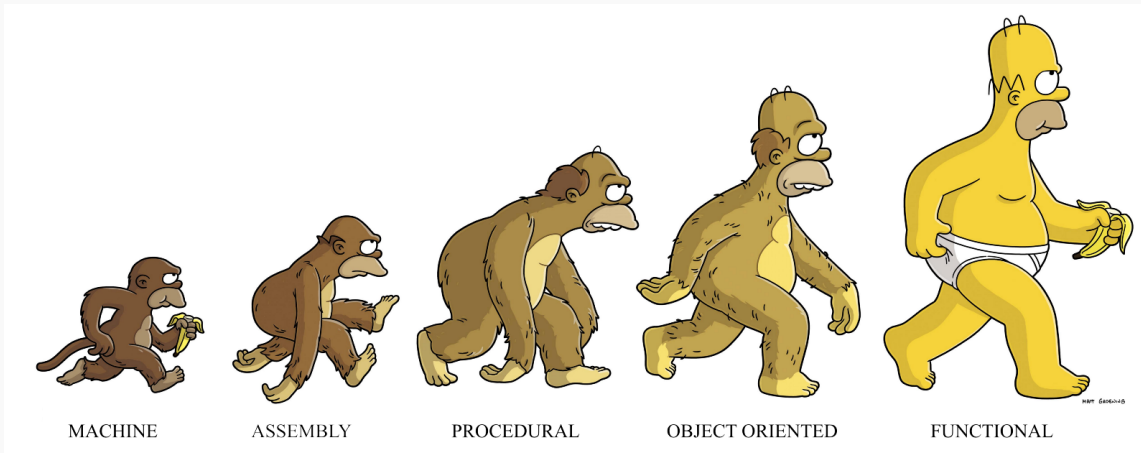
# COMP302: Programming Languages and Paradigms

## Week 4: Higher-Order Functions – Part 1

---

Prof. Brigitte Pientka <bpientka@cs.mcgill.ca>

School of Computer Science, McGill University



# What is a higher-order function?

A **higher-order function** is a function that takes

- as **input a function**
- produces as an **output a function**

For example,  $\overset{\text{input 1}}{('a \rightarrow 'b)} \rightarrow \overset{\text{input 2}}{'a \text{ list}} \rightarrow \overset{\text{output}}{'b \text{ list}}$  is the type of a higher-order function for operating on lists.

  
MAP

It takes **two arguments**.

a function `'a -> 'b`

an input list of type `'a list`

# Why are higher-order functions cool?

Whereas ordinary functions let us abstract over *data*, higher-order functions let us abstract over *functionality*.

- Programs can be very short and compact
- Programs are reusable, well-structured, modular!
- Each significant piece of functionality is implemented in one place.

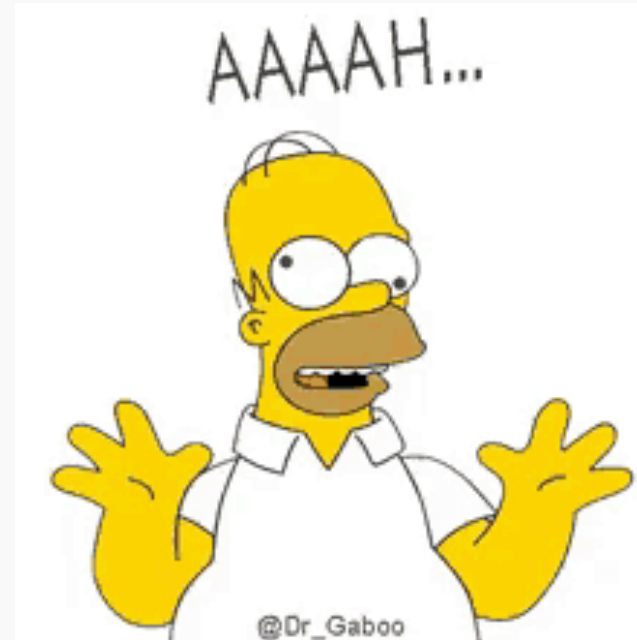
## Functions are first-class values!

- Pass functions as arguments (Today)
- Return them as results (Next time)



## Functions are first-class values!

- Pass functions as arguments (Today)
- Return them as results (Next time)



# Abstracting over common functionality

$$\sum_{k=a}^{k=b} k$$

```
(* sum: int * int -> int *)  
let rec sum (a,b) =  
  if a > b then 0 else a + sum(a+1,b)
```

$$\sum_{k=a}^{k=b} k^2$$

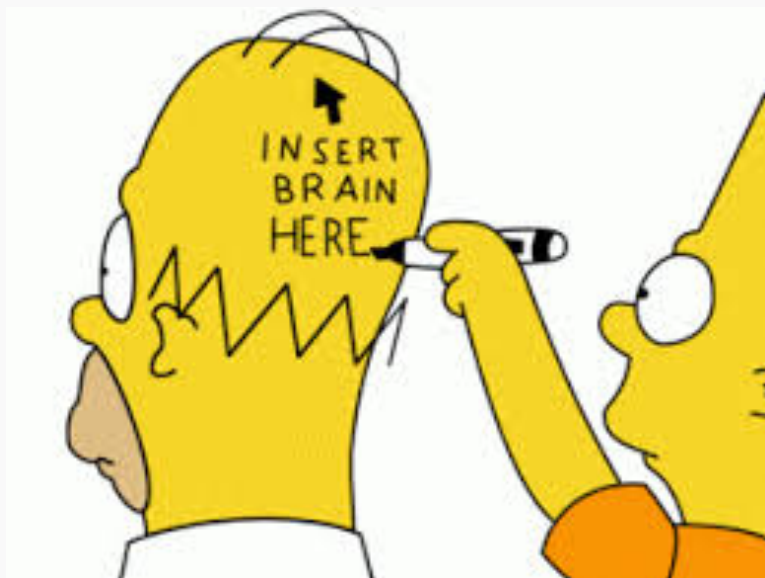
```
let rec sum (a,b) =  
  if a > b then 0 else square(a) + sum(a+1,b)
```

$$\sum_{k=a}^{k=b} 2^k$$

```
let rec sum (a,b) =  
  if a > b then 0 else exp(2,a) + sum(a+1,b)
```

Can we write a **generic** sum function?

Non-Generic sum (old)	Generic sum (new) with a function as an argument	
sum: int * int -> int	sum: (int -> int) -> int * int -> int	6



# Abstracting over common functionality

*lim → mid → lim \* mid → ml*

```
let rec sum f (a, b) =  
  if (a > b) then 0 else (f a) + sum f (a+1, b)
```

How about only summing up odd numbers between a and b?



# Abstracting over common functionality

```
let rec sum f (a, b) =  
  if (a > b) then 0 else (f a) + sum f (a+2, b)  
                                     odd
```

How about only summing up **odd** numbers between a and b?

```
let rec sumOdd (a, b) =  
  if (a mod 2) = 1 then  
    sum (fun x -> x) (a, b)      (* a was odd *)  
  else  
    sum (fun x -> x) (a+1, b)    (* a was even *)
```

*let id = fun x -> x  
equivalent to  
let id x = x*

*anonymous function*

# Abstracting over common functionality (increment)

```
let rec sum f (a, b) inc =  
    if (a > b) then 0 else (f a) + sum f (inc(a), b) inc
```

*$m \rightarrow m'$*


How about only summing up odd numbers between a and b?

```
let rec sumOdd (a, b) =  
    if (a mod 2) = 1 then  
        sum (fun x -> x) (a, b) (fun x -> x + 2)      (* a was odd *)  
    else  
        sum (fun x -> x) (a+1, b) (fun x -> x + 2)    (* a was even *)
```

# Abstracting over common functionality (tail-recursively)


## how we combine numbers in each step

```
let rec sum f (a, b) inc acc =  
  if (a > b) then acc else sum f (inc(a), b) inc (f a + acc)
```



How about only multiplying numbers between a and b?

```
let rec product f (a, b) inc acc =  
  if (a > b) then acc else product f (inc(a), b) inc (f a * acc)
```



# Take away

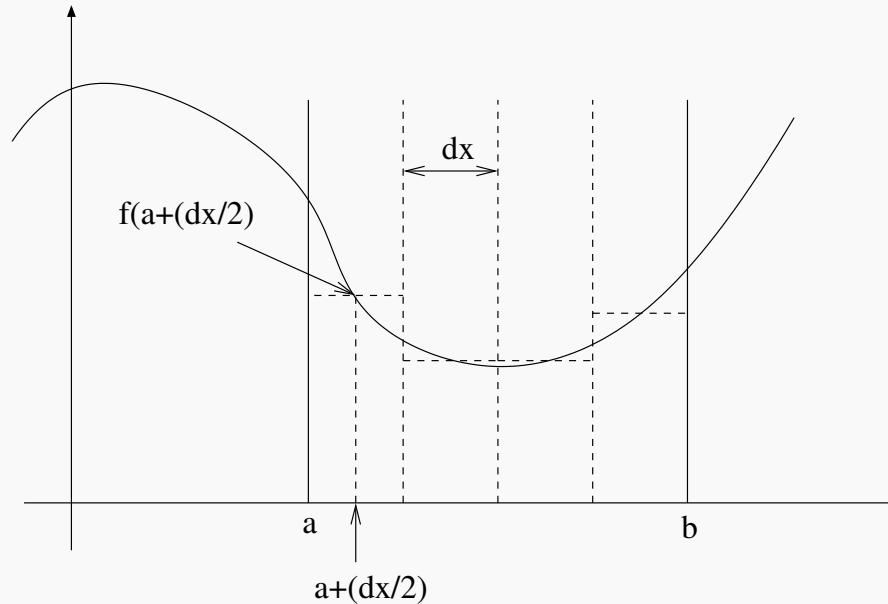
Abstraction and higher-order functions are very powerful mechanisms for writing reusable programs.

## Computing a series

series:	(int -> int -> int)	(* comb *)	} <i>input</i>
->	(int -> int)	(* f *)	
->	(int * int)	(* (a,b) *)	
->	(int -> int)	(* inc *)	
->	int	(* acc *)	
->	int	(* result *)	<i>output</i>

```
1 let sum f (a,b) inc = series (fun x y -> x + y) f (a,b) inc 0
2 let prod f (a,b) inc = series (fun x y -> x * y) f (a,b) inc 1
```

# Beauty of Higher-Order Functions



Let  $l = a + dx/2$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx f(l) * dx + f(l + dx) * dx + f(l + dx + dx) * dx + \dots \\ &= dx * (f(l) + f(l + dx) + f(l + 2 * dx) + f(l + 3 * dx) \dots)\end{aligned}$$

# Beauty of Higher-Order Functions

Let  $l = a + dx/2$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &\approx f(l) * dx + f(l + dx) * dx + f(l + dx + dx) * dx + \dots \\ &= dx * (f(l) + f(l + dx) + f(l + 2 * dx) + f(l + 3 * dx) \dots)\end{aligned}$$

```
1 let integral f (lo,hi) dx =  
2   dx *. iter_sum f  
3       (lo +. (dx /. 2.0) , hi)  
4       (fun x -> x +. dx)
```

where

```
iter_sum: (float -> float) (* f *)  
         -> (int * int)    (* (a,b) *)  
         -> (int -> int)   (* inc *)
```

# Common Higher-Order Functions (Built-In)

- `List.map: ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list`
- `List.filter: ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list`
- `List.fold_right: ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b -> 'b`
- `List.fold_left: ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a`
- `List.for_all: ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool`
- `List.exists : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool`

Check the OCaml `List` library for more built-in higher-order functions! They make great practice questions! And we'll discuss how to implement them during class!

# Take-Away

## Passing functions as arguments

- allows us abstract over common functionality.
- enables code reuse
- means functionality is implemented in one place



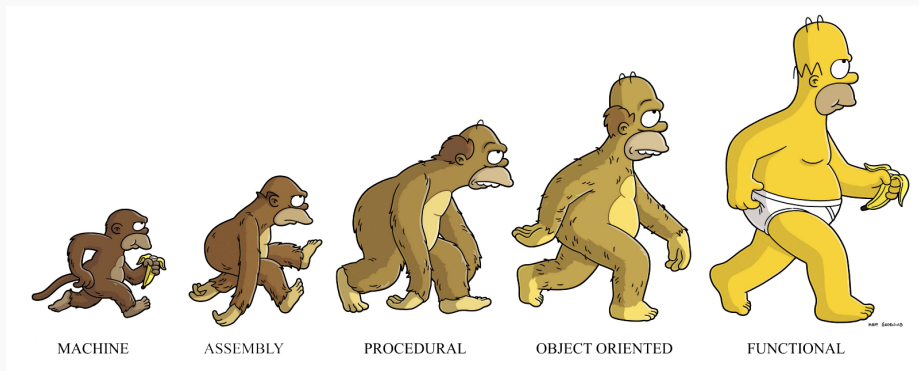
# COMP302: Programming Languages and Paradigms

## Week 4: Higher-Order Functions – Part 2

---

Prof. Brigitte Pientka <bpientka@cs.mcgill.ca>

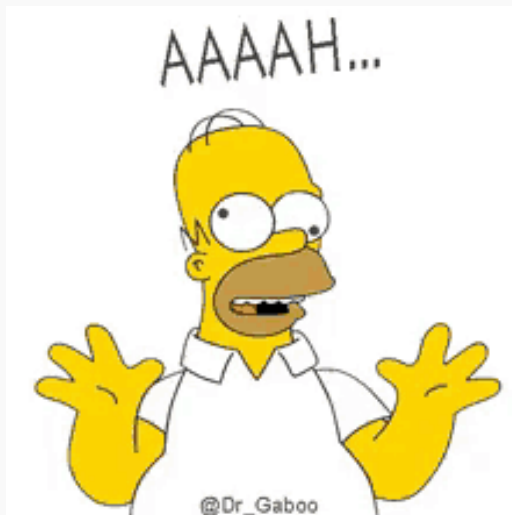
School of Computer Science, McGill University



Functions are first-class values!

## Functions are first-class values!

- Pass functions as arguments (Last Time and Today)
- Return them as results (Today)



# What does it mean to return a function?

Let's go back to the beginning ... from the 1. week

```
1  (* We can also bind variable to functions. *)
2  let area : float -> float = function r -> pi *. r *. r
3                                     fun r -> pi *. r *. r
4  (* or more conveniently, we write usually *)
5  let area (r:float) = pi *. r *. r
6
```

- The variable name `area` is bound to the value `function r -> pi *. r *. r` which OCaml prints simply as `<fun>`.
- The type of the variable `area` is `float -> float`.

# Switching your viewpoint



Haskell B. Curry

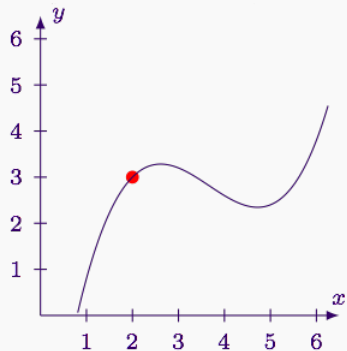
Write a function `curry` that

- takes as input a function  $f : ('a * 'b) \rightarrow 'c$
- returns as a result a function  $'a \rightarrow 'b \rightarrow 'c$ .

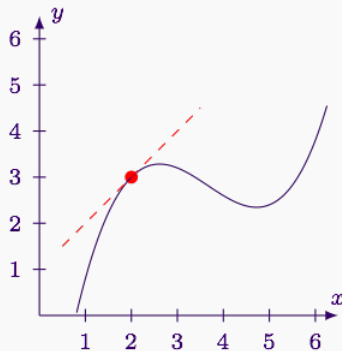
*NOT necessary*

```
1 (* curry : (('a * 'b) -> 'c) -> ('a -> 'b -> 'c) *)
2 (* Note : Arrows are right-associative. *)
3 let curry f = (fun x y -> f (x,y))
4
5 let curry_version2 f x y = f (x,y)
6
7 let curry_version3 = fun f -> fun x -> fun y -> f (x,y)
```

## Example 1: Approximating the Derivative



$f(2) = 3$  gives us a point on the graph.



$f'(2) = 1$  is the slope of the tangent line.

www.mathwarehouse.com

$$f'(x) = \frac{df}{dx} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \epsilon) - f(x)}{\epsilon}$$

Implement a function `deriv : (float -> float) * float -> (float -> float)` which

- given a function `f:float -> float` and an epsilon `dx:float`
- returns a function `float -> float` describing the derivative of `f`.

## Example 1: Approximating the Derivative

$$f'(x) = \frac{df}{dx} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \epsilon) - f(x)}{\epsilon}$$

Implement a function `deriv : (float -> float) * float -> (float -> float)` which

- given a function `f : float -> float` and an epsilon `dx : float`
- returns a function `float -> float` that computes the derivative of `f` at a given point.

```
1 let deriv (f, dx) = fun x -> (f (x +. dx) -. f x) /. dx
```

```
1 let deriv (f, dx) x = (f (x +. dx) -. f x) /. dx
```

## Returning functions: code generation

We can use higher-order functions to perform [partial evaluation](#) or [code generation](#).



# Using Partial Evaluation Effectively

*Partial evaluation* evaluates a function by only passing some of its inputs.

```
1 # let plusSq = fun x -> fun y -> x * x + y * y;;  
2 val plusSq : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
3 plusSq 3;;  
4 - : int -> int = <fun>
```

What does <fun> stand for? How does it look like?

Morally it looks like: fun y -> 3 \* 3 + y\*y

- Never evaluates inside the function body
- Stop evaluation as soon as a value is reached
- Remember: Functions are values!

## Using Partial Evaluation Effectively

*Partial evaluation* evaluates a function by only passing some of its inputs.

```
1 # let plusSq = fun x -> fun y -> x * x + y * y;;  
2 val plusSq : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
3 plusSq 3;;  
4 - : int -> int = <fun>
```

What does `<fun>` stand for? How does it look like?

Morally it looks like: `fun y -> 3 * 3 + y*y`

How do we generate a function that does compute `3 * 3`?

Postpone creating the function `fun y -> ....`

# Using Partial Evaluation Effectively

Rewrite

```
1 # let plusSq = fun x -> fun y -> x * x + y * y;;  
2 val plusSq : int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

to

```
let plusSq = fun x -> let r = x * x in fun y -> r + y * y;;
```

When we evaluate

```
plusSq 3  ⇒  let r = 3 * 3 in fun y -> r + y * y  NOT yet a value.  
          ⇒  let r = 9 in fun y -> r + y * y  
          ⇒  fun y -> 9 + y * y
```

Programmers control at what point a function is created and returned.

## Returning functions: code generation

Consider the function `pow : int -> int -> int` that computes  $n^k$ .

```
1 let rec pow k n =  
2   if k = 0 then 1  
3   else n * pow (k-1) n  
4
```

The expression `pow 2` does not evaluate further; functions wait until all their arguments are given before reducing.

By cleverly refactoring, we can get this to compute even given only one argument!

```
1 (* pow : int -> int -> int *)  
2 let rec pow k =  
3   if k = 0 then (fun n -> 1)  
4   else let r = pow (k-1) in fun n -> n * r n
```

*delay the creation  
of the function waiting for n.*

# Code Generation in Action

```
1 (* pow : int -> int -> int *)
2 let rec pow k =
3   if k = 0 then (fun n -> 1)
4   else let r = pow (k-1) in fun n -> n * r n
```

pow 1  $\implies$  if 1 = 0 then (fun n -> 1) else let r = pow (1-1) in fun n -> n \* r n  
 $\implies$  let r = pow (1-1) in fun n -> n \* r n  
 $\implies$  let r = pow (0) in fun n -> n \* r n  
 $\implies$  let r = fun n -> 1 in fun n -> n \* r n  
 $\implies$  fun n -> n \* (fun n -> 1) n

- We have generated code that is independent of pow.
- The code computes essentially fun n -> n \* 1

# Higher-order functions are super cool!

$T = \text{func } x \rightarrow \text{func } y$   
 $\rightarrow x$



$F = \text{func } x \rightarrow \text{func } y$   
 $\rightarrow y$

what the functions in the picture mean?

# Functional Tidbit: Church and the Lambda-Calculus



- Logician and Mathematician
- June 14, 1903 – August 11, 1995
- Most known for the **Lambda-Calculus**:
  - a simple language consisting of variables, functions (written as  $\lambda x.t$ ) and function application
  - we can define all computable functions in the Lambda-Calculus!

Church Encoding of Booleans:

$$\mathbf{T} = \lambda x. \lambda y. x$$

$$\mathbf{F} = \lambda x. \lambda y. y$$

## Functions are first-class values

- We do not evaluate inside functions.
- Stop evaluation as soon as a value is reached
- We control when and where functions are created.
- Returning functions allows us partial evaluation which can lead to substantial performance gains