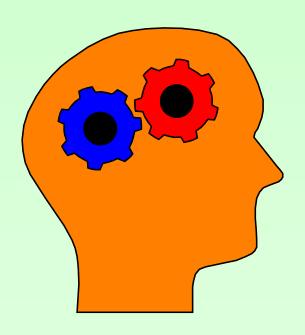


CS2104: Programming Language Concepts

Lecture 4 : Higher-Order Functions



"Programming with First-Class Functions"

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Topics

- First-Class Functions
- Higher-Order Functions
 - Genericity/Parameterization
 - Fold (left and right) & Foldable
 - Map & Functor/Applicative
 - Composition
 - Pipeline
 - Application

Essence of FP

What is a Functional Language

Higher-Order Functions

- Like data structures, functions should be first-class:
 - It has a value and type
 - It can be passed as arguments
 - It can be returned as function result.
 - It can be constructed at run-time
 - It can be stored inside data structures
- Why are higher-order functions useful?
 - Can support code-reuse
 - Can support laziness
 - Can support data abstraction (see OO later)
 - Can support design patterns

Functions that Returns Functions

• Function results:

```
let add x = \ y \rightarrow x+y
```

• Equivalent to curried function:

```
let add x y = x+y
```

• Can also return different functions:

```
let add_mag x =
    if x>=0 then \ y -> x + y
    else \ y -> -x + y
```

Curried vs Uncurried Functions

• Type of Curried Function:

```
a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c
```

• Type of Uncurried (or Tupled) Function:

```
(a,b) -> c
```

• These two functions are isomorphic and are interconvertible using:

```
curry :: ((a,b)->c) -> (a -> b -> c)

uncurry :: (a -> b -> c) -> ((a,b)->c)
```

• Exercise : How would you implement above?

Functions that Returns Functions

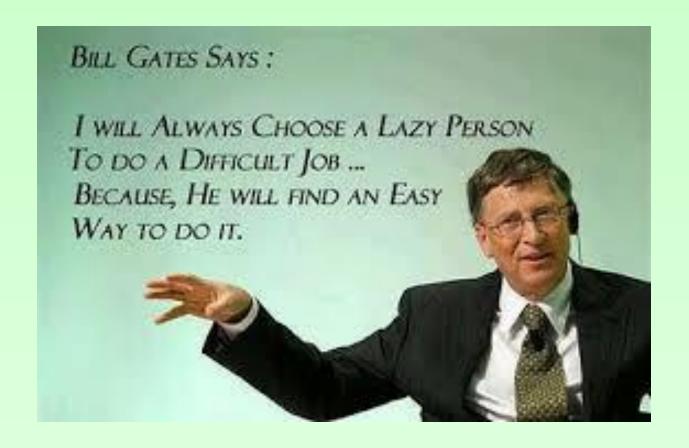
• Examples of Usages:

```
let add x = \ y -> x+y
let inc = add 1
let inc10 = add 10
let dec = add (-1)
let two = inc (1::Int)
```

• An Evaluation:

```
two
    → inc 1
    → (add 1) 1
    → (\ y -> 1+y ) 1
    → 1+1
    → 2
```

Is Laziness Good?



Lazy Evaluation via Functions

- Any given expression e can be abstracted into a function (\ () -> e).
- This is called a *closure* which provides a way to define an expression without evaluating it.
- To evaluate the expression, we simply apply it to (), as follows:

$$(\ (\)\ ->\ e)\ () ==>\ e$$

Evaluation of expression is delayed to application.

Update of *closure* is supported to reuse result of evaluation.

If function is not applied, the expression is not evaluated.

Lazy Evaluation

- This is the default evaluation for Haskell.
- It applies to both function calls and also let construct.
- Lazy evaluation allows us to handle non-terminating code, such as bot below, as long as its computation is not evaluated (or required) by its context

```
let bot = bot in ....
f(...,bot,...)
```

Infinite Data Structures

• Circular structures are more space efficient :

```
ones = 1 : ones

list
comprehension

• Another example of circularity is.

fib = 1 : 1 : [a+b | (a,b) <- zip fib (tail fib)]

zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : (zip xs ys)

zip xs ys = []
```

- This circular fibonacci function can be computed very efficiently.
- Question : Is it space efficient?

Strict Data Constructors

- Strict evaluation is the converse of lazy evaluation.
- In Haskell, if strict evaluation is needed, we can mark it with !. This can save on memory for building closures and thus minimise memory leaks.
- An example:

```
data RealFloat a => Complex a = !a :+ !a
```

• With this, 1 :+ bot is then equivalent to just bot

Strict Evaluation

• To evaluate e1 strictly, Haskell allows:

```
• e1 'seq' e2
```

- case e1 of ...
- GHC extension also allows:

```
f $! e
```

where e is strictly evaluated

let
$$f x ! y ! z = ...$$

where y, z are strictly evaluated

• Can you correctly implement (\$!)?

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
- This parameter abstraction can help us obtain more generic program code.

Two Similar Examples

• Function to sum a list of numbers.

```
let sum xs =
     case xs of
     [] -> 0
     y:ys -> y+(sum ys)
```

• Function to multiply a list of numbers.

```
let prod xs =
    case xs of
    [] -> 1
    y:ys -> y*(prod ys)
```

• Examples :

```
sum [1,2,3,4] \rightarrow 1+2+3+4+0
prod [1,2,3,4] \rightarrow 1*2*3*4*1
```

Genericity

- Replace each constant (that differs) by a parameter.
- Replace each function (that differs) by a parameter.

```
let sum xs =
     case xs of
     [] -> 0
     y:ys -> y+(sum ys)
```

• Generalize to:

```
let foldr xs =
    case xs of
    [] -> z
    y:ys -> f y (foldr ys)
```

Generic Fold Method

• Generalization of sum and prod gives fold.

```
let foldr f z xs =
    let aux xs =
        case xs of
        [] -> z
        y:ys -> f y (aux ys)
    in aux xs
```

• Usages:

```
let sum xs = foldr (+) 0 xs
let prod xs = foldr (*) 1 xs
```

Higher-Order Types

• Type of sum/prod.

```
let sum xs = ...
        Type of sum :: Nat a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow a
     let rec prod xs = ...
        Type of prod :: Nat a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow a
Type of fold:
     let foldr f z xs = ...
     Type of foldr ::
        (a -> z -> z) -> z -> [a] -> z
```

Example Execution

• Example of sum:

• Example of prod:

foldr f z xs =

in aux xs

let aux xs =

case xs of

| [] -> Z

| y:ys -> f y (aux ys)

Right Fold Method

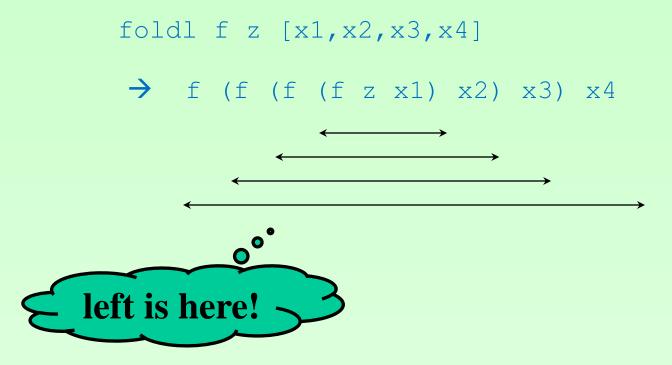
```
foldr f z xs =
  let aux xs =
    case xs of
    [] -> z
    y:ys -> f y (aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

Actually foldr denotes fold_right:

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Left Fold Method

• An example of foldl method which folds leftwards:



Fold Left Method

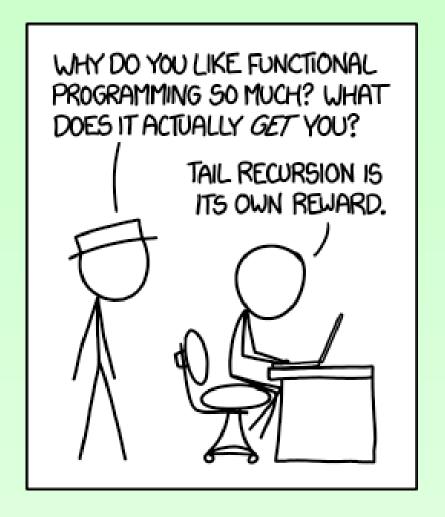
• Implementation of fold1 method:

```
let foldl f z xs =
  let aux acc xs =
    case xs with
    | [] -> acc
    | y:ys -> aux (f acc y) ys
  in aux z xs
```

Key property: tail-recursive!

```
Type of foldl :: (z \rightarrow a \rightarrow z) \rightarrow z \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow z
```

Fold Left is Tail-Recursive



Example Execution

• Using *right fold*:

```
let foldr f z xs =
  let rec aux xs =
    match xs with
    | [] -> z
    | y::ys -> f y (aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

• Using *left fold*:

```
let foldl f z xs =
  let rec aux acc xs =
   match xs with
   | [] -> acc
   | y::ys -> aux (f y acc) ys
  in aux z xs
```

```
sum [1,2,3]

→ foldl (+) 0 [1,2,3]

→ aux 0 [1,2,3]

→ aux (0+1) [2,3]

→ aux 1 [2,3]

→ aux 3 [3]

→ aux 6 []

→ 6
```

Fold Left or Fold Right?

• Can be transformed to each other when the reduction f operator is *associative*:

```
f a (f b c) = f (f a b) c
```

• Typically, z is the unit of f:

```
f x z = f z x= x
```

• In terms of performance, foldl is typically more efficient due to constant stack space. But not always!

Flattening a List of Lists

• An example:

```
concat [[1,2],[],[3]] \rightarrow [1,2,3]
```

• Implement in terms of foldr.

```
concat xss
= foldr (++) [] xss
```

let foldr f z xs =
 let aux xs =
 case xs of
 [] -> z
 y:ys -> f y (aux ys)
 in aux xs

• Example execution:

```
concat [[1,2],[],[3]]
  → foldr (++) [] [[1,2],[],[3]]
  → aux [[1,2],[],[3]]
  → [1,2] ++ (aux [[],[3]])
  → [1,2] ++ ([] ++ (aux [[3]]))
  → [1,2] ++ ([] ++ ([3] ++ (aux [])))
  → [1,2] ++ ([] ++ ([3] ++ []))
  → [1,2] ++ ([] ++ ([3] ++ []))
```

Flattening a List of Lists

• Implement in terms of fold_left.

```
concat xss
= foldl (++) [] xss
```

```
let foldl f z xs =
  let aux acc xs =
   match xs with
   [] -> acc
   y:ys -> aux (f y acc) ys
  in aux z xs
```

Example execution:

```
concat [[1,2],[],[3]]
  → foldl (++) [] [[1,2],[],[3]]
  → aux [] [[1,2],[],[3]]
  → aux ([] ++ [1,2]) [[],[3]]
  → aux (([] ++ [1,2]) ++ []) [[3]]
  → aux ((([] ++ [1,2]) ++ []) ++ [3]) []
  → ((([] ++ [1,2]) ++ []) ++ [3])
```

Fold Left versus Fold Right?

• Essential difference:

```
x1 ++ (x2 ++ (x3 ++ (x4 ++ [])))
versus
((([] ++ x1) ++ x2) ++ x3) ++ x4
```

• Which is better? Assume each of x1..x4 is 10 elements

```
x1 ++ (x2 ++ (x3 ++ (x4 ++ [])))

takes 10+10+10+10 steps

([] ++ x1) ++ x2) ++ x3) ++ x4

takes 0+10+20+30 steps
```

Foldable in Haskell

• Folding over List:

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

• Folding over Tree:

```
foldr :: (a->b->b) -> b > Tree a -> b
```

• Generic Folding:

```
foldr :: Foldable t => (a->b->b) -> b > t a -> b

class Foldable (t :: * -> *) where

    foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
    ...
```

Foldable Type Class

```
class Foldable (t :: * -> *) where
  foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
  foldl :: (b -> a -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
  foldr1 :: (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a
  foldl1 :: (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a
  null :: t a -> Bool
  length :: t a -> Int
  elem :: Eq a => a -> t a -> Bool
  maximum :: Ord a => t a -> a
  minimum :: Ord a \Rightarrow t a \rightarrow a
  sum :: Num a => t a -> a
  product :: Num a => t a -> a
```

Examples of Foldable

```
instance Foldable [] -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
instance Foldable Maybe -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
instance Foldable (Either a) -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
instance Foldable ((,) a) -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
```

• Guess of output of these executions:

```
let foo = foldr (\x y -> x+y) 0
foo [1..4]
foo (Just 10)
foo Nothing
```

List Mapping

• Transform one list into another:

```
map f xs =
  let aux xs =
    case xs of
    [] -> []
    y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

• Usages:

```
let double xs = map (fun x \rightarrow 2*x) xs
let is_pos xs = map (fun x \rightarrow x>0) xs
```

Type of Map

• Map function:

```
map f xs =
  let aux xs =
    case xs of
    [] -> []
    y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

• Type of map:

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

Note that result type of list is changed by function parameter of type (a -> b).

Example Execution

```
map f xs =
  let aux xs =
        case xs of
      [] -> []
        y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

Example:

```
double [1,2]
\rightarrow map (\text{fun } x \rightarrow 2*x) [1,2]
\rightarrow aux [1,2]
\rightarrow ((\text{fun } x \rightarrow 2*x) 1) : aux <math>[2]
\rightarrow ((\text{fun } x \rightarrow 2*x) 1) : (\text{fun } x \rightarrow 2*x) 2) : aux <math>[]
\rightarrow [2,4]
```

Example Execution

```
map f xs =
  let aux xs =
      case xs of
      [] -> []
      y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

Example:

Functor in Haskell

• Mapping over List:

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

• Mapping over Tree:

```
map :: (a->b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
```

• Generic Mapping:

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

• Can you implement (<\$) in terms of fmap:

Examples of Functors

```
instance Functor (Either a) -- Defined in 'Data.Either'
instance Functor [] -- Defined in 'GHC.Base'
instance Functor Maybe -- Defined in 'GHC.Base'
instance Functor IO -- Defined in 'GHC.Base'
instance Functor ((->) r) -- Defined in 'GHC.Base'
instance Functor ((,) a) -- Defined in 'GHC.Base'
```

• Guess of output of these executions:

```
let foo = fmap (\x -> x+1)
foo [1..10]
foo (Just 10)
foo Nothing
foo (\x -> x*2) 3
```

Composition

• We can write a general compose operator:

```
let compose g f x = g (f x)
```

• Type of compose :

```
compose :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
```

• Similar to Unix pipe:

```
cat x | f | g
```

Except Unix pipe was for a text file, and presented in infix notation.

Infix Version of Composition

• In Haskell, we use an infix version of compose

```
let (.) g f x = g (f x)
```

• Type of compose :

```
(.) :: (b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c
```

• How is compose related to fmap?

```
fmap :: Functor f => (a -> b) -> f a -> f b

(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> (a -> c)
```

Unix Pipe in Haskell



• Declare an infix pipe operator:

• Example of use:

Equivalent to:

$$(x | > f) | > g = g (f x)$$

An Example of Pipe

• Let us first declare:

```
let double xs = map (fun x \rightarrow 2*x) xs
let sum xs = foldl (+) 0 xs
```

• Example of use:

```
[1,2,3]
|> double
|> double
|> sum
```

Weak Precedence Apply Operator

• Another infix apply operator:

```
($) :: (a->b) -> a -> b
f $ x = f x
```

- \$ is essentially function apply but with very weak precedence:
- Example of use:

```
inc $ x*2 = inc (x*2)
```

• Without \$, the default application gives:

```
inc x*2 = (inc x)*2
```