1 Higher-Order Functions

1.1 Tail-Recursive Versions

Let's write a tail-recursive version of `sum`. In particular,

```
sumTR :: [Int] -> Int
sumTR xs = helper 0 xs
    where
        helper :: Int -> [Int] -> Int
        helper acc []       = acc
        helper acc (x:xs)   = helper (acc + x) xs
```

Let us now write a tail-recursive `cat` function. Note that this is very similar to what we have above. Its implementation is

```
catTR :: [String] -> String
catTR xs = helper "" xs
    where
        helper :: String -> [String] -> String
        helper acc []       = acc
        helper acc (x:xs)   = helper (acc ++ x) xs
```

Note that there is an apparent pattern here, which can be extracted to the *fold-left* pattern:

```
foldl :: (b -> a -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldl f b xs = helper b xs
    where
        helper acc []       = acc
        helper acc (x:xs)   = helper (f acc x) xs
```

In general, the pattern is:

- Use a helper function with an extra accumulator argument.
- To compute the new accumulator, combine the current accumulator with the head using some binary operation.

(Quiz.) What does this evaluate to?

```
foldl f b []     = b
foldl f b (x:xs) = foldl f (f b x) xs

quiz = foldl (:) [] [1,2,3]
```

(a) Type error.

(b) `[1, 2, 3]`

(c) `[3, 2, 1]`

(d) `[[3], [2], [1]]`

(e) `[[1], [2], [3]]`

The answer is **A**. Note that `a` is an `Int` and `b` is an `[Int]`. So, our accumulator function is of type `[Int] -> Int -> [Int]`. But, keep in mind that `(:)` (the cons operator) takes an `Int` followed by a `[Int]`. This is a type error since the accumulator function types disagree.

What does this evaluate to?

```
foldl f b []     = b
foldl f b (x:xs) = foldl f (f b x) xs

quiz = foldl (\xs x -> x : xs) [] [1,2,3]
```

(a) Type error.

(b) `[1,2,3]`

(c) `[3,2,1]`

(d) `[[3], [2], [1]]`

(e) `[[1],[2],[3]]`

The answer is **C**. To see why this is the case, consider the following work:

```
foldl f []                          [1,2,3]
    ==> foldl f (1 : [])              [2,3]
    ==> foldl f (2 : (1 : []))          [3]
    ==> foldl f (3 : (2 : (1 : [])))     []
    ==> 3 : (2 : (1 : []))
    = [3,2,1]
```

1.1.1 Fold Left vs. Right

Too see the difference between the two fold functions, consider the following:

```
foldl f b [x1, x2, x3]  ==> f (f (f b x1) x2) x3  -- Left
foldr f b [x1, x2, x3]  ==> f x1 (f x2 (f x3 b))  -- Right
```

As an example, we have:

```
foldl (+) 0 [1, 2, 3]  ==> ((0 + 1) + 2) + 3  -- Left
foldr (+) 0 [1, 2, 3]  ==> 1 + (2 + (3 + 0))  -- Right
```

As for their types:

```
foldl :: (b -> a -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b  -- Left
foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b  -- Right
```

1.2 Useful Higher-Order Functions

Consider the function:

```
foldl (\xs x -> x : xs) [] [1,2,3]
```

This is the same thing as:

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

Its type signature is given by:

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

There is also the *compose* function. So, instead of writing

```
map (\x -> f (g x)) ys
```

we can write

```
map (f . g) ys
```

Its type signature is given by:

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

2 Environments and Closures

We will now begin the process of *implementing* a functional language. In this section, we will discuss how to evaluate a program given its abstract syntax tree (AST), and also prove properties about our interpreter.

We will implement the Nano programming language. Its features include

1. Arithmetic
2. Variables
3. Let-bindings
4. functions
5. Recursion

Generally, the idea is, given a string containing the program, it will be converted to its AST (abstract syntax tree) form[1]. From there, it can be evaluated to the desired result.

2.1 Nano: Arithmetic

A grammar of arithmetic expressions can be represented like so:

```
e :: n
    | e1 + e2
    | e1 - e2
    | e1 * e2
```

We can represent this by the following datatype:

```
data Expr = Num Int
        | Add Expr Expr
        | Sub Expr Expr
        | Mul Expr Expr
```

We can represent arithmetic values as a type:

```
type Value = Int
```

2.1.1 Evaluating Arithmetic Expressions

We can now write a Haskell function to evaluate an expression.

```
eval :: Expr -> Value
eval (Num n)     = n
eval (Add e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2
eval (Sub e1 e2) = eval e1 - eval e2
eval (Mul e1 e2) = eval e1 * eval e2
```

However, we can refactor this.

[1]This process is known as parsing.

2.1.2 Alternative Representation

Rather than writing out each operation (e.g. `Add`, `Sub`, and so on), thus repeating ourselves, we can extract that into a datatype itself.

```
data Binop = Add | Sub | Mul
data Expr = Num Int
        | Bin Binop Expr Expr
```

Hence, we can structure the `eval` code like so:

```
eval :: Expr -> Value
eval (Num n)            = n
eval (Bin op e1 e2)     = evalOp op (eval e1) (eval e2)
```

Here, we made use of an `evalOp` helper function.

(Quiz.) Consider the evaluator for the alternative representation.

```
eval :: Expr -> Value
eval (Num n)        = n
eval (Bin op e1 e2) = evalOp op (eval e1) (eval e2)
```

What is a suitable type for `evalOp`?

(a) `Binop -> Value`

(b) `Binop -> Value -> Value -> Value`

(c) `Binop -> Expr -> Expr -> Value`

(d) `BInop -> Expr -> Expr -> Expr`

(e) `Binop -> Expr -> Value`

The answer is **B**. Note that `eval` returns a `Value`, so it follows that `(eval e1)` and `(eval e2)` both returns `Value`. Finally, the helper function itself is supposed to return a `Helper` since we're using the helper function to evaluate `eval`, and `eval` again returns `Value`.

Now that we know the type of `evalOp`, we can declare it.

```
evalOp :: Binop -> Value -> Value -> Value
evalOp Add v1 v2    = v1 + v2
evalOp Sub v1 v2    = v1 - v2
evalOp Mult v1 v2   = v1 * v2
```

Note that a shorter way to do this is:

```
evalOp Add  = (+)
evalOp Sub  = (-)
evalOp Mult = (*)
```