# Notes on Functional Programming

# Foundations of Computer Science

February 11, 2016

# Mapping

 $Code\ the\ following\ functions\ using\ explicit\ recursion:$ 

• A function squares that squares every element of a list:

```
squares : int list -> int list
Example: squares [1;2;3] should return [1; 4; 9]
```

• A function diags that creates a pair of two same values out of every element of a list:

```
diags : 'a list -> ('a * 'a) list

Example: diags [1;2;3] should return [(1,1); (2,2); (3,3)]
```

Here is one way to write those functions:

```
let rec squares xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (x*x)::squares xs'

let rec diags xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (x,x)::diags xs'
```

Rewrite the previous functions using an explicit call to a helper function that does the "work" for every element of the list.

For example, for squares:

```
let square x = x * x

let rec squares xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
  | x :: xs' -> (square x)::squares xs'
```

Pretty straightforward:

```
let diag x = (x,x)

let rec diags xs =
  match xs with
  [] -> []
  | x :: xs' -> (diag x)::diags xs'
```

If you study your rewritten functions, you notice that they all have the same structure. In fact, if we replace the recursive function name by YYY and the helper function name by ZZZ, they all have the structure:

```
let rec YYY xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (ZZZ x) :: YYY xs'
```

A good programming language should give you the ability to abstract away from a set of examples, exposing an underlying commonality, and giving you a way to express that commonality using an abstraction that lets you recover the original examples by instantiating that abstraction.

We can write a function that captures the above structure, and obtain the original functions as special cases of that  $\ddot{u}ber$  function.

The function is called map, and it takes as extra argument the function to be applied to every element of the list.

```
let rec map (f,xs) =
  match xs with
  [] -> []
  | x :: xs' -> (f x)::(map (f,xs'))
```

To use map, you need to pass it a function as a first argument. Thankfully, we have plenty of functions around, and we can recover our original functions:

```
let squares xs = map (square,xs)
let diags xs = map (diag,xs)
```

Passing functions around like that is made possible by the fact that functions in OCaml (and in many other languages) are just like any other value: they can be passed around to other functions, they can be returned from functions, they can be operated on.

We have been using functions by giving them names, and passing those names around. This is fine, but imagine what it would be like if every time you wanted to use, say, an integer, you had to name it. That is, if instead of writing 1+2, you had to write

```
let one = 1 in
let two = 2 in
  one + two
```

That'd get old fast. You can use integers without naming them. It is also possible to use functions without naming then. These are called *anonymous functions*, and they are created in OCaml with the syntax:

```
fun x \rightarrow \langle expr \rangle
```

where <expr> is an expression representing the body of the function. Thus, for example, we can rewrite our functions using map and anonymous functions as follows:

```
let squares xs = map ((fun x \rightarrow x * x), xs)
let diags xs = map ((fun x \rightarrow (x,x)), xs)
```

It tends to make OCaml happier when you wrap anonymous functions in parentheses, like (fun  $x \rightarrow x * x$ ), because it sometimes gets confused trying to figure out where the function body ends.

In fact, the function definition notation we have been using, such as:

```
let square x = x * x
```

is just a convenient abbreviation for:

```
let square = (fun x \rightarrow x * x)
```

which illustrates that  $fun \times -> \times *$  is a value like any other, to which we happen to give name square. Understanding this, that functions are just values that can be given a name if we want to, is key to understanding all that follows.

Code the following functions using map:

• A function triples that creates a triple (i, i+1, i+2) for every element i in a list:

```
triples : int list -> (int * int * int) list
```

Example: triples [0; 10; 20] should return [(0,1,2); (10,11,12); (20,21,22)]

• A function thirds that extracts the third component of every triple in a list:

```
thirds : ('a * 'b * 'c) list -> 'c list
```

Example: thirds [(1,2,3); (4,5,6); (7,8,9)] should return [3; 6; 9]

Here's the simplest way using anonymous functions:

```
let triples xs = map ((fun x -> (x,x+1,x+2)), xs)

let thirds xs = map ((fun (a,b,c) -> c), xs)
```

Let's pump up the difficulty a notch.

Code the following function using map:

• A function distribute creating tuples with the same given element as first component from items in a list:

```
distribute : 'a * 'b list -> ('a * 'b) list

Example: distribute (1, ["a"; "b"; "c"]) should return [(1,"a");
(1,"b"); (1,"c")]
```

The easiest way is to use an anonymous function:

```
let distribute (a,xs) = map ((fun x -> (a,x)), xs)
```

But what if we wanted to give the anonymous function a name, and define it before using it in map? That's the tricky bit. If we define it locally inside distribute, it's still easy:

```
let distribute (a,xs) =
  let mkPair x = (a,x) in
  map (mkPair,xs)
```

But what if, mischievously, we wanted to define the helper function mkPair outside of distribute? Can we do it? Try, go ahead.

When you try to write and use such a mkPair, you see that it gets called by map with an element of the list. There is no way to tell map to pass a as well, unless we change the definition of map, somehow.

But we can pull a trick, by remembering that *functions are values* and therefore can be returned from other functions. We use a function createMkPair that takes the a and creates the appropriate mkPair function *that works with that* a and that can be passed into map:

```
let createMkPair a =
  fun x -> (a,x)
let distribute (a,xs) = map (createMkPair a, xs)
```

Function createMkPair returns a new function, and it is *that* new function that we give as an argument to map (via the call createMkPair a).<sup>1</sup>

Note the type of createMkPair: it has type 'a -> 'b -> 'a \* 'b. To understand this type, you have to know that -> associates to the right. So 'a -> 'b -> 'a \* 'b is to be understood as 'a -> ('b -> 'a \* 'b), and this tells you the whole story: it is a function that expects a value of type 'a and returns a function of type 'b -> 'a \* 'b, that is, a function that expects a value of type 'b and returns a tuple of type 'a \* 'b.

Functions returning a new function are rather common, and OCaml has some nice notation for them that lets us "fake" having multiple argument functions. (We used tuples earlier to fake multiple argument functions—this provides an alternative.)

The function definition

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

is just an abbreviation for

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

To call such a function, remember that it is a function that expects one argument and returns a function that itself returns one argument, and thus we need to write something like:

```
(add 1) 2
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Nomenclature trivia. The function returned from createMkPair refers to the a that is passed as an argument to createMkPair. In order for this to make sense, the system has to remember the value for the a that was passed in when it returns the function. Internally, the system does this by associating an environment with the returned function containing the values for the free variables in the function. A function and its associated environment is usually called a *closure*.

(which evaluates to 3, of course). Because application associates to the left, we can in fact simply write

#### add 1 2

which pleasantly reflects the shape of the function definition, let add x y = x + y.

Again: add looks like it's a two argument function, but really, it's a function returning a function. Its type makes that clear: it is int -> int.<sup>2</sup>

Thus, in our distribute example, we can define

```
let createMkPair a x = (a,x)
let distribute (a,xs) = map (createMkPair a, xs)
```

The curried notation extends. For instance,

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

is an abbreviation for

```
let add x = fun y \rightarrow (fun z \rightarrow x+y+z)
```

and of course, it is also equivalent to

let add x y = fun z 
$$\rightarrow$$
 x+y+z

and in fact if we remember that defining functions in the first place is an abbreviation, the three definitions above are also equivalent to:

```
let add = fun x -> (fun y -> (fun z -> x+y+z))
```

The curried notation also extends to anonymous functions, so that fun  $x y \rightarrow \langle expr \rangle$  is really an abbreviation for fun  $x \rightarrow \langle fun y \rightarrow \langle expr \rangle$ , and thus the above definitions for add are also equivalent to:

let add = fun x y z 
$$\rightarrow$$
 x+y+z

You get the gist.

So what's the difference between writing add as a curried function versus having it take a tuple as an argument? Compare:

let add 
$$(x,y,z) = x+y+z$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>More nomenclature trivia. A function such as add, written in such a way that it looks like a multi-argument function but really takes them one after the other in a cascade of functions, is called a *curried* function—named after the logician Haskell Curry.

If you try to call add (1,2), you will get a type error:

whereas if you define

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

and you pass only two arguments to add:

```
# add 1 2;;
- : int -> int = <fun>
```

No error at all. You get a function back. Which makes perfect sense. (What does the function you get back do, though?) Of course, if you then try to use the result as an integer, such as trying to evaluate 10+(add 1 2), then OCaml will complain with an error message that you're trying to add an integer to a function.

Most functions in OCaml tend to be written in curried form. From now, I shall do so as well.

Note that the curried version of map is available int he OCaml library as List.map.

Let's finish with an example showing both functions passed as arguments and returned as results.

First, define the following curried functions:

```
let add n m = n + m
let mult n m = n * m
```

Easy enough. Partial application, that is, giving less than the full number of arguments to a curried function, leads to some interesting behavior. For instance, add 5 gives you back a function that always adds 5 to its input; mult 6 gives you back a function that always multiplies its input by 6:

```
# let f = add 5;;
val f : int -> int = <fun>
# f 10;;
- : int = 15
# let g = mult 6;;
val g : int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# g 10;;
- : int = 60
```

We can write a functional *composition* operator that takes two functions f and g and composes them together into a single function, corresponding to the mathematical operation  $g \circ f$ .

```
let compose g f = fun x -> g (f x)
```

```
Function compose has type ('b -> 'c) -> ('a -> 'b) -> ('a -> 'c)
```

Thus, for example, compose (add 5) (mult 6) gives you back a function (what does it do?) and when you apply that function to 3, you get back 23:

```
# let w = compose (add 5) (mult 6);;
val w : int -> int = <fun>
# w 3;;
- : int = 23
# w 10;;
- : int = 65
```

Of course, the definition of compose above is equivalent to:

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

### **Filtering**

Code the following functions:

• A function filter that takes a predicate and a list and returns the list of elements that satisfy the predicate:

```
filter : ('a \rightarrow bool) \rightarrow 'a list \rightarrow 'a list 
 E.g., filter (fun x \rightarrow x>0) [0;1;-2;3;-4;5] should return [1;3;5]
```

• A function removeEmpty that takes a list of sublists and returns the list of all non-empty sublists:

```
removeEmpty : 'a list list \rightarrow 'a list list 
 E.g., removeEmpty [[1;2]; []; [3]; \rightarrow should return [[1;2];[3]]
```

Function filter is a straightforward recursive function over lists:

Function removeEmpty can be defined directly as an explicitly recursive function, but it can also be defined in terms of filter:

```
let removeEmpty xss =
  filter (fun xs -> match xs with [] -> false | _ -> true) xss
```

Note that filter is available from the OCaml library as List.filter.

Can you implement filter directly using map?

In other words, can you define

```
let filter p xs = map ...
```

If so, do it. If not, why not?

There is no way for map by itself to be able to express filter, because map has the property that the list it returns has always the same size as the list it is passed as argument. Function filter, on the other hand, can potentially shrink the size of the list.

Now, map by itself cannot implement filter, but a slight variant of map can:

```
let rec map_append f xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (f x) @ (map_append f xs')
```

Intuitively, while map f [x;y;z] returns the list [f x; f y; f z], the call map\_append g [x;y;z] returns the list [x1; x2; ...; xm; y1; y2; ...; yn; z1; z2; ... zp], where g x = [x1; x2; ...; xm], g y = [y1; y2; ...; yn], and g z = [z1; z2; ...; zp].

Code the following functions using map\_append:

• A function flatten that takes a list of sublists and returns a new list with all the sublists' elements in it, in order:

```
flatten: 'a list list -> 'a list

E.g., flatten [[1; 2]; [3; 4]; [5]; []; [6; 7]] should return [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7].
```

• The function filter above.

These functions are directly implemented using map\_append:

```
let flatten xs = map_append (fun x -> x) xs
let rec filter p xs =
  map_append (fun x -> if (p x) then [x] else []) xs
```

Note that flatten uses the identity function fun x -> x as the transformation.  $^3$ 

Functions map and map\_append have a lot in common. Can we make precise what they have in common and write a single function that can do whatever map and map\_append can do?

Here is the code for map and map\_append, next to each other:

```
let rec map f xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (f x) :: (map f xs')

let rec map_append f xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (f x) @ (map_append f xs')
```

We see they both have the structure:

```
let rec MMM f xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> []
    | x :: xs' -> (f x) XXX (MMM f xs')
```

where XXX is the combination function, :: for map, and @ for map\_append. We can replace that XXX by a function that is passed as an argument, and we obtain map\_general\_1:

```
let rec map_general_1 comb f xs =
  match xs with
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>That flatten is map\_append with an identity function as transformation suggests that there is a special relationship between map\_append and flatten. Indeed, if instead of defining map\_append, we had defined flatten directly, we could derive map\_append as follows:

let map\_append f xs = flatten (map f xs)

```
[] -> []
| x :: xs' -> comb (f x) (map_general_1 comb f xs')
```

and we can now write, as desired:

```
let map f xs = map_general_1 (fun x ys -> x :: ys) f xs
let map_append f xs = map_general_1 (fun x ys -> x @ ys) f xs
```

In fact, passing in both comb and f as arguments to map\_general\_1 is unnecessary: a suitable combination function can play the role of both comb and f:

```
let rec map_general comb xs =
  match xs with
  [] -> []
  | x :: xs' -> comb x (map_general comb xs')
```

and to see that we have not lost any generality, we can implement the original map\_general\_1 using map\_general:

```
let map_general_1 comb f xs =
  map_general (fun x ys -> comb (f x) ys) xs
```

## **Folding**

Can we go even more general? If you look carefully at map\_general, or feed it to OCaml, you see it has type

```
('a -> 'b list -> 'b list) -> 'a list -> 'b list
```

In particular, the result of calling map\_general is always a list.

Now, there are functions on lists that do not return lists, but still have a lot in common with map\_general. For instance, sum, with its obvious recursive definition:

```
let add m n = m + n

let rec sum xs =
  match xs with
  [] -> 0
  | x :: xs' -> add x (sum xs')
```

where I use add in sum to emphasize the commonality with map\_general.

Look at the code for map\_general and sum next to each other. One difference is that sum embeds its combination function add directly in the code, which is fine. We can imagine pulling it out as an argument:

```
let rec sum_general comb xs =
  match xs with
    [] -> 0
  | x :: xs' -> comb x (sum_general comb xs')
```

Now, the code for map\_general and sum\_general are very similar, and share the following structure:

```
let rec FFF comb xs =
  match xs with
  [] -> YYY
  | x :: xs' -> comb x (FFF comb xs')
```

where YYY is the difference between the functions, namely the value returned by the function on an empty list. So we can do as we did for map\_general, and simply make that difference a parameter to the function. We get the following function, with one of its common names:

```
let rec fold_right comb xs base =
  match xs with
    [] -> base
  | x :: xs' -> comb x (fold_right comb xs' base)
```

(That function is also sometimes called reduce.) After a moment's thought, we see that:

```
let map_general comb xs = fold_right comb xs []
let sum xs = fold_right add xs 0
```

Function fold\_right is very interesting. It really does nothing except recurse. Everything else is delegated to the functions given as arguments. It is the *essence* of structural recursion on lists. Most recursive functions on lists, as long as they recurse on the tail of the list, can be implemented in term of fold\_right for the appropriate combination function and base value.

Code the following functions using fold\_right:

• The function removeEmpty we saw earlier:

```
removeEmpty : 'a list list -> 'a list list
```

• A function heads that takes a list of sublists and return the first element of each sublist, skipping over empty lists:

```
heads: 'a list list \rightarrow 'a list E.g., heads [[1;2];[];[3]] should return [1;3].
```

• A function concat that takes a list of strings and returns the result of concatenating all the strings together in the order in which they appear in the list.

```
concat : string list -> string
```

 $E.g., \, {\tt concat} \, \, ["{\tt goodbye} \, ","{\tt cruel} \, ";"{\tt world}"] \, \, should \, return \, "{\tt goodbye} \, {\tt cruel} \, \, {\tt world}".$ 

At first, the trick is to first write down the function using explicit recursion, and then read off the appropriate combination function and base value. With practice, you can then come up with them directly: