Higher-Order Functions 03

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Collatz Sequence

- The Collatz Sequence (Chain or 3x + 1) of a natural number n is defined as follows:
 - The first number is n
 - If the number is 1, stop
 - If the number is even, divide it by 2
 - If the number is odd, multiply by 3 and add 1
 - Repeat with the resulting number
- Example: Suppose the first number is 5, the sequence is

```
5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1
```

• Example: Suppose the first number is 11, the sequence is

```
11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1
```

Collatz Sequence

• Define the function collatzSeq:

Some tests:

```
ghci> collatzSeq 5
[5,16,8,4,2,1]
ghci> collatzSeq 11
[11,34,17,52,26,13,40,20,10,5,16,8,4,2,1]
ghci> collatzSeq 27
[27,82,41,124,62,31,94,47,142,71,214,107,322,161,484,242,121,364,182,91,274,137,412,206,103,310,155,466,233,700,350,175,526,263,790,395,1186,593,1780,890,445,1336,668,334,167,502,251,754,377,1132,566,283,850,425,1276,638,319,958,479,1438,719,2158,1079,3238,1619,4858,2429,7288,3644,1822,911,2734,1367,4102,2051,6154,3077,9232,4616,2308,1154,577,1732,866,433,1300,650,325,976,488,244,122,61,184,92,46,23,70,35,106,53,160,80,40,20,10,5,16,8,4,2,1]
```

Collatz Sequence

- ullet Given a number n and an upperbound b, give a list all starting numbers between 1 and b of the Collatz sequences that has length greater than or equal to n
- All starting numbers between 1 and b:

```
[1..b]
```

• Create the list of all Collatz sequences (from 1 to b):

```
map collatzSeq [1..b]
```

• Filter just those that has length greater than or equal to n:

```
filter longerThan (map collatzSeq [1..b])
where longerThan xs = length xs >= n
```

• Get the heads of all filtered sequences:

List of Functions using map

- Recall that if we partially apply a function, we get another function in return
 - max is a function
 - max 5 is another function
- What is this expression?

```
map max [3,5,1,2,4]
```

• It is a list of functions

```
[max 3, max 5, max 1, max 2, max 4]
```

- Note that we cannot see the result on the screen since functions are not instances of the Show type class
- However, the following is fine:

```
ghic> ((map max [3,5,1,2,4]) !! 1) 3
5
ghci> ((map max [3,5,1,2,4]) !! 1) 7
7
```

- Lambdas are anonymous functions (functions without names)
- We generally use a lambda when we need the function only once
- Mathematical Syntax: $\lambda x. f(x)$
- Examples:
 - $\lambda x. x + 1$ where $(\lambda x. x + 1)$ 5 is 6
 - $\lambda x y. x \times y$ where $(\lambda x y. x \times y)$ 5 12 is 60
- ullet In Haskell, we use \setminus to represent lambda and -> instead of .
- Above examples in Haskell

```
ghci> (\x -> x + 1) 5
6
ghci> (\x y -> x * y) 5 12
60
```

• Recall the function startNumber defined earlier:

```
startNumbers n b = map head (filter longerThan (map collatzSeq [1..b]))
where longerThan xs = length xs >= n
```

- The function longerThan is used only once and only available inside the function definition
- We can use the following instead:

- Lambdas are expressions:
- A lambda has a type

```
ghci> :t (\x y -> x + y)
  (\x y -> x + y) :: Num a => a -> a -> a
```

• Partially apply is allowed

```
ghci> :t (\x y -> x + y) 5
(\x y -> x + y) 5 :: Num a => a -> a
```

• It can be passed as an argument

```
ghci> map (\x -> x + 1) [3,5,1,2,4]
[4,6,2,3,5]
```

• A Lambda can take multiple arguments

```
ghci> zipWith (\x y -> x * y) [1,2,3,4] [3,7,1,2]
[3,14,3,8]
```

• A Lambda can take a pair as an argument

```
ghci> map (\(x,y) -> x * y) [(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (7,8)] [2,12,30,56]
```

• These three functions are equivalent:

```
ghci> addTwo x y = x + y
ghci> :t addTwo
addTwo :: Num a => a -> a -> a

ghci> addTwo' = \x y -> x + y
ghci> :t addTwo'
addTwo' :: Num a => a -> a -> a

ghci> addTwo'' = \x -> \y -> x + y
ghci> :t addTwo''
addTwo'' :: Num a => a -> a -> a
```

but the first one is easier to read

• Do not need to try to use lambdas

Folds

- Recall when we try to do something on a list
 - We need to decide what to do with the empty list
 - Then handle non-empty list like x:xs
- We do this with almost every function on lists
- Haskell provides fold functions to handle these common pattern
- Folds allow you to reduce a list into a single value
- Folds are suitable for operations that require to travel a list once, element-by-element
- A fold takes the following arguments:
 - A binary function (a function that takes two arguments)
 - A starting value
 - A list

Left Fold

 To easily understand the left fold, let's look at the definition of the foldl function:

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

- Sometime we call z as an accumulator
- Let's trace what is going on with foldl (+) 0 [1,2,3]

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

= foldl (+) (0 + 1) [2,3]

= foldl (+) (0 + 1) 2:[3]

= foldl (+) ((0 + 1) + 2) [3]

= foldl (+) ((0 + 1) + 2) 3:[]

= foldl (+) ((0 + 1) + 2) + 3) []

= (((0 + 1) + 2) + 3)

= ((1 + 2) + 3)

= 6
```

- The list is folded from the left side
- The binary function is applied between the starting accumulator and the head of the list
- The result becomes the new starting value of the rest of the list

Right Fold

 To easily understand the right fold, let's look at the definition of the foldr function:

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

• Let's trace what is going on with fold1 (+) 0 [1,2,3]

- The list is folded from the right side
- The binary function is applied between the head of the list and the result of the rest of the fold

Let's Double Check

- Let's try to define our own map function called myMapr using foldr
- Since the result of a map is a list, the accumulator should be the empty list

```
myMapr f xs = foldr g [] xs
where g y ys = f y : ys
```

 Let's try to define our own map function called myMapl using foldl

```
myMapl f xs = foldl g [] xs
where g ys y = ys ++ [f y]
```

• Note that: will be a lot faster than ++

```
1:[2,3] = [1,2,3]

[1,2] ++ [3] = 1:([2] ++ [3])

= 1:(2:[] ++ [3])

= 1:(2:[3])

= [1,2,3]
```

foldr vs foldl

• What is foldr (:) [] [1..] evaluated to?

```
ghci> foldr (:) [] [1..]
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9...Interrupted.
```

• Let's trace take 3 (foldr (:) [] [1..])

• We only need the first three element.

Right Fold vs Left Fold

• Let's trace the foldr again with a binary function f

• Let's trace the foldl again with a binary function f

- In foldr, f 1 ... may already produce a partial result
- Right folds works on infinite lists but left folds do not

foldl1 and foldr1

• Let's check their types:

```
ghci> :t foldl
foldl :: Foldable t => (b -> a -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
ghci> :t foldl1
foldl1 :: Foldable t => (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a

ghci> :t foldr
foldr :: Foldable t => (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
ghci> :t foldr
foldr :: Foldable t => (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
ghci> :t foldr1
foldr1 :: Foldable t => (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a
```

- foldl1 and foldr1 do not need a starting value
- They use the first element (fold11) and the last element (foldr1) as their starting values
- For foldl and foldr, their starting values do not have to have the same type as elements in a given list

- Let's try to define the reverse function using foldl
- Initial value should be the empty list and we will slowly accumulate it
- So, it should be

```
foldl f [] [1,2,3]
```

for a function f

• The above expression is evaluated to

```
foldl f (f [] 1) [2,3]
```

and eventually to

```
f (f (f [] 1) 2) 3
```

• What should f be?

- Obviously, f [] 1 should be [1]
 - 1: [] = [1] or
 - [] ++ [1] = [1]?
- To decide which one is correct, we need to consider the next application as well
- Consider f (f [] 1) 2
 - If f [] 1 = 1:[]

```
f (f [] 1) 2 = f (1:[]) 2
= f [1] 2
= 2:[1]
= [2,1]
```

- Obviously, f xs x should be x : xs
- In other words, f should have type $[a] \rightarrow a \rightarrow [a]$
- Recall that : has type $a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$
 - The first argument an element and
 - The second argument is a list
- Thus, we cannot use the: function directly
- We need to flip the arguments

• Solution 1: Use a local binding

```
reverse_11 lst = fold1 f [] lst
where f xs x = x : xs
```

• Solution 2: Use a Lambda:

```
reverse_12 lst = foldl (\xs x -> x : xs) [] lst
```

• Solution 3: Use the flip function:

```
reverse_13 lst = foldl (flip (:)) [] lst
```

- How about foldr?
- At least it should be

```
foldr f [] [1,2,3]
```

for a function f

• The above expression is evaluated to

```
f 1 (foldr [] [2,3])
```

and eventually to

- What should f be?
- In this case, f 3 [] should be [] ++ [3] = [3]
- Then f 2 [3] will be [3] ++ [2] = [3, 2]

Solution 1: Use a local binding

```
reverse_rl lst = foldr f [] lst
where f x xs = xs ++ [x]
```

• Solution 2: Use a Lambda:

```
reverse_12 lst = foldr (\x xs -> xs ++ [x]) [] lst
```

 Flip cannot be used since arguments have type a and [a] but ++ has type [a] -> [a] -> [a]

Scans

- scanl and scanr functions are the same as foldl and foldr
- Instead of showing the final value, scans show immediate accumulators as a list

```
ghci> scanl (+) 0 [1,2,3]
[0,1,3,6]
ghci> scanr (+) 0 [1,2,3]
[6,5,3,0]
```

- scanl1 and scanr1 are also available
- They are good tools for debugging functions that utilize folds

Exercise

- How many elements does it take for the sum of the square roots of all natural numbers to exceed 1000?
- First, the list of square roots of all natural numbers:

```
map sqrt [1..]
```

• Now, turn it into the list of immediate accumulators

```
scanl1 (+) (map sqrt [1..])
```

• We will take all elements that are less than 1000

```
takeWhile (<1000) (scanl1 (+) (map sqrt [1..]))
```

• Now, the answer is the length of the above list

```
length (takeWhile (<1000) (scanl1 (+) (map sqrt [1..])))</pre>
```

• To go over 1000, you need to add one more square root:

```
length (takeWhile (<1000) (scanl1 (+) (map sqrt [1..]))) + 1
```

Function Application using \$

- Consider the expression f a b c d
- The expression fabcdis (((fa)b)c)d
 - f a results in a new function
 - (f a) b results in a new function
- In other words, function application is left associative
- The following expression

```
sum filter even [1..20]
```

will cause an errorbecause it tries to perform

```
((sum filter) even) [1..20]
```

• We need parentheses:

```
sum (filter even [1..20])
```

Function Application using \$

• \$ is an infix function:

```
ghci> :t ($)
($) :: (a -> b) -> a -> b
```

- It takes a function of type a -> b, a value of type a, and returns a value of type b
- Consider the type of the function head

```
ghci> :t head
head :: [a] -> a
```

• Now, what about (\$) head?

```
ghci> :t ($) head
($) head :: [b] -> b
```

- They have the same type
- What is the purpose of the (\$) function then?

Function Application using \$

- Function application with \$ is **right-associative**
- In other words, f \$ a b c d is f (a (b (c d)))
- Note that (a (b (c d))) becomes one expression as the argument to the function f
- For simplicity you can think of f \$ exp1 exp2 ... expn as f (exp1 exp2 ... expn)
- Use \$ will result in less number of parentheses
- For example, instead of

```
sum (filter even [1..20])
```

simply use

```
sum $ filter even [1..20]
```

Another example, instead of

```
sum (filter even (map (+3) [1..20]))
```

simply use

```
sum $ filter even $ map (+3) [1..20]
```

 In mathematics, suppose f and g are functions, a function composition is defined as

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$$

To perform function composition in Haskell, we use the function

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

• The definition of the . function is defined as

```
f \cdot g = \langle x \rangle f (g x)
```

• Note that the type of the argument of the f function must be the same as the type of the value that returned by the g function

- We generally use function composition to make functions on the fly to pass to other functions
- This is the same as one of the purpose of using lambda
- Function composition is generally clearer and more concise
- Example: Suppose we want to turn very number on a list to negative number
 - Use lambda:

```
map (\x -> negate (abs x)) [3,-5,1,2,-4]
```

• Use function composition

```
map (negate . abs) [3,-5,1,2,-4]
```

- Function composition is right-associative
- f(g(hx)) is simply (f.g.h) x
- Example:

```
ghci> map (negate . sum . tail) [[1,2,3],[4,1,5,6],[1,1,2,5]]
[-5,-12,-8]
```

- For every function in composition, it cannot take multiple argument
- To use a function that takes more than one arguments in a composition, we need to partially apply it

```
ghci> :t sum
sum :: (Foldable t, Num a) => t a -> a
ghci> :t replicate
replicate :: Int -> a -> [a]
ghci> :t max
max :: Ord a => a -> a -> a
```

Instead of

```
ghci> sum (replicate 5 (max 5 12))
60
```

we can use

```
ghci> (sum . replicate 5 . max 5) 12
60
```

- replicate 5 only takes one argument
- max 5 only takes one argument

Point-Free Style

• Consider the following function mySum

```
mySum xs = foldl (+) 0 xs
```

• Because of **currying**, we can omit xs on both side

```
mySum = foldl (+) 0
```

- fold1 (+) 0 is a function that take a list as the argument
- Point-free style does not include information regarding its argument
 - Instead of f(x) = g(x), we can simply say f = g
 - Instead of f(g(x)) = h(x), we can simply say $f \circ g = h$
- \bullet Note that $f\circ g$ in mathematics is the same as ${\tt f}$. ${\tt g}$ in Haskell
- Point-free style does not mean no point (.) in an expression
- Haskell use point (.) to represent \circ in function composition

Point-Free Style

• Let's consider another example:

```
fn x = ceiling (negate (tan (cos (max 50 x))))
```

- We cannot simply remove x on both sides of the above expression
- cos (max 50) is an invalid expression
 - cos is a function that takes a number as an argument
 - max 50 is a function
 - cos (max 50) 20 is also invalid
- However, we can use function composition:

```
fn = ceiling . negate . tan . cos . max 50
```

- Often time, a point-free style is more readable and concise
 - Readers simply focus on just functions
- It may not suitable for complex functions