

Programmazione Avanzata per il Calcolo  
Scientifico  
Advanced Programming for Scientific Computing  
Lecture title: Functors and lambdas

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# Functors (function object)

A functor is a class which overloads the **call operator** (`operator()`). An object of this type is called **function object** since it may be used with a semantic very similar to that of a function.

```
struct Cube{  
    double operator()(double const & x){return x*x*x;}  
};  
...  
Cube cube; // a function object  
auto y= cube(3.4)// calls operator()  
auto z= Cube()(8.0)// Cube() is the default constr,
```

If the call operator returns a `bool` the function object is also called a **predicate**. A functor is **stateless** if a call to the call operator does not change the state of the object. **Functors used in the standard algorithms should be stateless.**

## Which are the advantages?

The advantage of a functor is that it has a state, so it can store additional information to be used to calculate the result

```
class StiffMatrix{  
public:  
    foo(Mesh const & m, double const & vis=1.0):  
        _mesh(m), _visc(vis){}  
    Matrix operator()();  
private:  
    Mesh const & _mesh;  
    double _visc;  
};  
...  
StiffMatrix K(myMesh,4.0); //function object  
...  
Matrix A=K(); // compute
```

## Another advantage: efficiency (using templates)

```
struct Cube{  
    double operator()(double const & x) const  
        {return x*x*x;}  
};  
inline double fcube(double const & x){return x*x*x;}  
// a template function  
template<class T>  
double dosomething(T const & f){... y=f(5.0);...}
```

Now I can do

```
double z=dosomething(fcube);
```

or

```
double z=dosomething(Cube());
```

obtaining the same result. In the first call T is resolved as a pointer to function, in the second the type Cube.



## Inline does not work with pointers to functions

The difference is that in the first case since `fcube()` is passed by a pointer its **inlining is suppressed** in `dosomething()`.

While `Cube()` creates an object, not a pointer, and the call to `f.operator()(5.0)` **will be inlined**, producing a more efficient code if the call is made often in the program.

That's why functors are the preferred way to pass policies to the algorithms of the standard library.

## std predefined function objects

Indeed the Standard Library provides under the header `<functional>` a large number of predefined functors that can be used, alone or combined with [binders](#), in standard library algorithms:

```
vector<int> i={1,2,3,4,5};  
vector<int> j;  
transform (i.cbegin(), i.cend(), // source  
           back_inserter(j),    // destination  
           negate<int>());
```

Now  $j=\{-1,-2,-3,-4,-5\}$ . Here, `negate<T>` is a *unary functor* provided by the standard library.

**Note:** I need a `back_inserter` as I am inserting the transformed elements at the end (back) of vector `j`. The methods `cbegin()` and `cend()`, introduced in C++11, return [constant iterators](#). Here `begin()` and `end()` would have worked the same, but since `i` is not changed constant iterators are better.

## Some predefined functors

<code>plus&lt;T&gt;</code>	Addition (Binary)
<code>minus&lt;T&gt;</code>	Subtraction (Binary)
<code>multiplies&lt;T&gt;</code>	Multiplication (Binary)
<code>divides&lt;T&gt;</code>	Division (Binary)
<code>modulus&lt;T&gt;</code>	Modulus (Unary)
<code>negate&lt;T&gt;</code>	Negative (Unary)
<code>equal_to&lt;T&gt;</code>	equality comparison (Binary)
<code>not_equal_to&lt;T&gt;</code>	non-equality comparison (Binary)
<code>greater</code> , <code>less</code> , <code>greater_equal</code> , <code>less_equal</code>	
<code>logical_and&lt;T&gt;</code>	Logical AND (Binary)
<code>logical_or&lt;T&gt;</code>	Logical OR (Binary)
<code>logical_not&lt;T&gt;</code>	Logical NOT (Binary)

For a full list have a look at [this web page](#).

## Lambda calculus (C++11 only)

The new standard has introduced a very powerful syntax to create short (and inlined) function quickly: the lambda calculus. With lambda function it is normally indicated an unnamed function. C++ lambda do indeed create expressions that may be passed as arguments to other functions, like pointers of function objects. But first look at a simple usage

```
auto f= [](double x){return 3*x;}; // f is a lambda function  
...  
auto y=f(9.0); // y is equal to 27.0
```

Note that I did not need to specify the return type in this case, the compiler deduces it as `decltype(3*x)`, which returns a **double**.

# Lambda syntax

The definition of a lambda function is introduced by the `[]`, also called **capture specification**, the reason will be clear in a moment. We have two possible syntax

```
[ capture spec]( arguments){ code; return something}
```

or

```
[ capture spec]( arguments)-> returntype  
{ code
```

The second syntax is compulsory when the return type cannot be deduced automatically.

The capture specification allows you to use **variables in the enclosing scope** inside the lambda, either by value (a local copy is made) or by reference.

<code>[]</code>	Captures nothing
<code>[&amp;]</code>	Captures all variables by reference
<code>[=]</code>	Captures all variables by making a copy
<code>[=, &amp;foo]</code>	Captures any referenced variable by making a copy, but capture variable <code>foo</code> by reference
<code>[bar]</code>	Captures only <code>bar</code> by making a copy
<code>[this]</code>	Captures the <code>this</code> pointer of the enclosing class

The capture specification gives a great flexibility to the lambdas  
We make some examples: return the first element  $i$  such that  $i > x$   
and  $i < y$

```
#include<algorithm>
int f(vector<int> const &v, int x, int y){
    auto pos = find_if (coll.cbegin(), coll.cend(), // range
        [=](int i) {return i > x && i < y;}); // criterion
    return *pos;
}
```

I have used the `find_if` algorithm which takes as third argument a predicate and returns the first element that satisfies it. Note the use of `cbegin` and `cend` (in fact not strictly necessary).

## Another example

```
std::vector<double>a={3.4,5.6,6.7};
std::vector<double>b;
auto f=[&b](double c){b.emplace_back(c/2.0);};
auto d=[](double c){std::cout<<c<<"␣";};
for (auto i: a)f(i); // fills b
for (auto i: b)d(i); //prints b
// b contains a/2.
```



**A little note:** avoid capturing all variables. It is better to specify the one you need.

## Generic Lambdas (C++14)

The newest standard has increased the flexibility of the lambdas. Now you can allow lambda functions to derive the parameter type from the type of the arguments!

```
auto add=[](auto x, auto y){return x + y;};  
double a(5), b(6);  
string s1("Hello_");  
string s2("World");  
auto c=add(a,b); //c is a double equal to 11  
auto s3=add(s1,s2); // s is "Hello World"
```

## An example of use of [this]

```
class foo{
public:
    void prova();
private:
    double _x;
    vector<double> _v};
... // definition
void foo::prova(){
    auto prod=[this](double a){_x*=a;};
    std::for_each(_v.begin(),_v.end(),prod);
}
```

Now the method `prova()` compute a cumulative product of the contents of `v` and stores it in the **member variable** `_x`.

# Function adapters and binders

A **function adapter** is a special function object that enables the composition of function objects with each other, with certain value, or with special functions. Here are the new adapters provided by C++11 (the old C++98 adapters are now **deprecated**).

<code>bind(op,args)</code>	Binds args to op
<code>mem_fn(op)</code>	Calls op() as member function for an object or pointer to object
<code>not1(op)</code>	Unary negation: <code>!op(param)</code>
<code>not2(op)</code>	Binary negation: <code>!op(param1,param2)</code>

We will describe here only the most powerful of them: `bind`. You find the description of the others in any good book (like the new edition of the Lippman).

`bind()` binds parameter for a callable object: if a function, member function, function object, lambda require some parameters you can bind them so specific or passed arguments. For passed arguments you can use predefined [placeholders](#) `_1`, `_2`,... defined in the namespace `std::placeholders`. You need to include `<functional>`

## A simple (useless) example

```
#include<iostream>
#include<functional>
double fun(double a, double b){return a*b;}

int main(){
    using namespace std;
    using namespace std::placeholders;
    auto f=bind(fun,3.0,_1);
    cout<<f(4);// calls fun(3,4)
}
```

The placeholder `_1` indicates the first (and only) passed argument to the bound function `f`. So `f(a)` is equivalent to `fun(3.0,a)`. Note the use of `using`, otherwise we should have written `std::placeholders::_1`.

## bind() versus lambda

Everything that can be done by using `bind()` can be done with lambda functions.

**Personally I find lambdas great!** Actually there is little reason to use `bind` now that we have lambdas!

# Function type wrappers

An now the catch all function wrapper. The class `std::function<>` declared in `<functional>` provides polymorphic wrappers that generalize the notion of function pointer. It allows you to use **callable objects** (functions, member functions, function objects and lambdas) as **first class objects**.

```
int func(int , int);  
...  
// a vector of functions  
vector<function<int(int,int)>> tasks;  
tasks.push_back(fun);  
tasks.push_back([](int x,int y){return x*y;});  
for (auto i : tasks) cout<<i(3,4)<<endl;
```

It prints the result of `func(3,4)` and 12.



Function wrappers are very useful when you want to have a common interface to callable objects.

See the examples in [RK45](#) and [NonLinSys](#). The first implements a RK45 adaptive algorithm for integration of a scalar ODE and the other two algorithms for the solution of non-linear systems.

# Function Expression Parsers

Functions in C++ must be defined at compile time. Sometimes however can be useful to be able to specify simple functions run-time, maybe reading them from a file.

To that purpose you can use a parser. A nice parser is **muParser**. A copy of muParser is available in the directory Extra. To compile and install it (under the Examples/lib and Examples/include directories) just launch the script `install.sh` that you find in the muParser directory. Or follow the instruction you find on the web site.

# A simple example of the use of muparser

You find a simple example on the use of muParser in [test\\_Muparser.cpp](#) and the other files in that directory.