10 Left and right folds

The fold on lists, an instance of foldr, is

```
> fold :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
> fold cons nil [] = nil
> fold cons nil (x:xs) = cons x (fold cons nil xs)
```

and fold (:) [] = id. It captures a possible pattern of computation for many functions on lists

```
egin{array}{lcl} sum &=& fold \ (+) \ 0 \ product &=& fold \ (	imes) \ 1 \ concat &=& fold \ (++) \ [\ ] \ map \ f &=& fold \ ((:) \cdot f) \ [\ ] \end{array}
```

notice that none of these equations is recursive: only equations defining fold are recursive. We might hope to be able to prove things about the others, such as

```
sum (xs + ys) = sum xs + sum ys
product (xs + ys) = product xs \times product ys
concat (xs + ys) = concat xs + concat ys
map f (xs + ys) = map f xs + map f ys
```

without resorting to induction for every one of them.

What is needed is a proof that

```
fold\ c\ n\ (xs\ ++\ ys)\ =\ fold\ c\ n\ xs\oplus fold\ c\ n\ ys
```

Setting out to prove this, just once, will reveal what relationship has to exist between c, n and (\oplus) .

so these will be equal if $x = n \oplus x$ for all x.

```
 fold c n ((x:xs) + ys)  fold c n (x:xs) \oplus fold c n ys   = \{ definition of (+) \}  = \{ definition of fold \}   c x (fold c n (x:(xs + ys))   c x (fold c n xs) \oplus fold c n ys   = \{ definition of fold \}   c x (fold c n (xs + ys))   = \{ inductive hypothesis \}   c x (fold c n xs \oplus fold c n ys)
```

and these will be equal if $x c'(y \oplus z) = (x c'y) \oplus z$. Furthermore,

and these will be equal if (\oplus) is strict, that is if the operator is strict in its left argument.

None of these three properties involves any recursion so they can be checked by induction-free proofs.

10.1 Fusion

The most generally useful property of folds is that, given the right properties of f, g, h, a, and b,

```
f \cdot fold \ g \ a = fold \ h \ b
```

These are functions of a list so the proof of equality is by induction on an argument list

```
\begin{array}{ll} (f \cdot fold \ g \ a) \perp & fold \ h \ b \perp \\ \\ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{definition of } (\cdot) \right\} & = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} fold \ is \ \text{strict in the list} \right\} \\ \\ f \ (fold \ g \ a \perp) & \perp \end{array} \\ \\ = \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} fold \ \text{is strict in the list} \right\} \\ \\ f \ \perp \end{array} \end{array}
```

so f must be strict.

so b = f a.

$$(f \cdot fold \ g \ a) \ (x : xs)$$
 $fold \ h \ b \ (x : xs)$
$$= \{ \text{definition of } (\cdot) \}$$

$$= \{ \text{definition of } fold \}$$

$$h \ x \ (fold \ h \ b \ xs)$$

$$= \{ \text{definition of } fold \}$$

$$f \ (g \ x \ (fold \ g \ a \ xs))$$

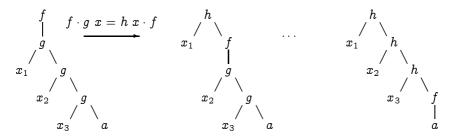
$$= \{ \text{definition of } (\cdot) \}$$

$$(f \cdot g \ x) (fold \ g \ a \ xs)$$

$$= \{ \text{definition of } (\cdot), \text{ twice} \}$$

$$(h \ x \cdot f) \ (fold \ g \ a \ xs)$$

and these will be equal at least if $h x \cdot f = f \cdot g x$ or equivalently if h x (f y) = f (g x y).



Most of the laws that we have used that are about functions that are folds have been instances of fusion. We have also been relying on a special case of fusion to show that some function f on lists is a fold, because

$$f$$

$$= \{ \text{unit of composition} \}$$

$$f \cdot id$$

$$= \{ \text{fold of constructors} \}$$

$$f \cdot fold \text{ (:) []}$$

$$= \{ \text{fusion} \}$$

$$fold \text{ } h \text{ (f [])}$$

provided f is strict, and f(x:xs) = h x (f xs).

10.2 Left and right folds

One intuition about *fold* is that it produces a right-heavy expression where the arguments replace the constructors of a list:

$$fold \ (\oplus) \ e \ [x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots x_n] = (x_0 \oplus (x_1 \oplus (x_2 \oplus \dots (x_n \oplus e) \dots)))$$

There is a predefined function foldr which when restricted to lists agrees with fold. We might compute a similar left-heavy expression

$$loop(\oplus) e[x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots x_n] = (\cdots(((e \oplus x_0) \oplus x_1) \oplus x_2) \oplus \cdots x_n)$$

```
and might specify this by
```

```
loop \ s \ n = fold \ (flip \ s) \ n \cdot reverse
```

and calculate from this that it is strict; that

```
loop s n []
= { specification }
    (fold (flip s) n · reverse) []
= { composition }
    fold (flip s) n (reverse [])
= { definition of reverse }
    fold (flip s) n []
= { definition of fold }
    n
```

and that

```
loop \ s \ n \ (x:xs)
= { specification }
    (fold (flip s) n \cdot reverse) (x : xs)
= { composition }
    fold (flip s) n (reverse (x:xs))
= { definition of reverse }
    fold (flip s) n (reverse xs + [x])
= { lemma (exercise 10.1 or 10.2) }
    fold (flip s) (fold (flip s) n [x]) (reverse xs)
= { definition of fold, twice }
    fold (flip s) (flip s x n) (reverse xs)
= \{ definition of flip \}
    fold (flip s) (s n x) (reverse xs)
= {composition}
    (fold (flip s) (s n x) \cdot reverse) xs
= { specification }
    loop s (s n x) xs
```

This justifies defining

```
> loop s n [] = n
> loop s n (x:xs) = loop s (s n x) xs
```

and this is essentially the same as the predefined foldl (restricted to lists).

10.3 Scans 73

10.3 Scans

One commonly needs to think about 'partial sums'. The natual thing to think of first for lists is

```
scan c n = map (fold c n) \cdot tails
```

where the tails of a list are all the suffix segments, in decreasing order of length.

```
> tails :: [a] -> [[a]]
> tails [] = [[]]
> tails (x:xs) = (x:xs): tails xs
```

There is a very similar standard function tails in Data.List.

In the way you probably expect, tails can be cast as a fold because

```
tails (x:xs)
= \{ definition of tails \} 
(x:xs): tails xs
= \{ head (tails xs) = xs \} 
(x:head ys): ys where ys = tails xs
```

so $tails = fold \ g$ [[]] where $g \ x \ ys = (x : head \ ys) : ys$. This means that if the conditions of fusion are satisfied, scan can be expressed as a fold.

Firstly, map (fold c n) is strict; then

```
map (fold \ c \ n) \ [[]]
= \{ definition of \ map \} 
[fold \ c \ n \ []]
= \{ definition of \ fold \} 
[n]
```

and then

```
map (fold c n) (g x ys)
= \{definition of g\}
map (fold c n) ((x:head ys):ys)
= \{definition of map\}
(fold c n (x:head ys):map (fold c n) ys
= \{definition of fold\}
c x (fold c n (head ys)):map (fold c n) ys
= \{f \cdot head = head \cdot map f\}
c x (head zs):zs \text{ where } zs = map (fold c n) ys
```

from which conclude that

```
scan c n
= { specification }
  map (fold c n) · tails
= { fusion }
  fold h [n] where h x zs = c x (head zs) : zs
```

Notice that executing the specification directly gives a quadratic algorithm: for a list xs of length n there are about $\frac{1}{2}n^2$ applications of c. However there are only n applications of h, each of which calls c exactly once (and does a constant amount of consing and unconsing). The result is a linear algorithm for

```
> scan c n = fold h [n] where h x zs = c x (head zs):zs
```

The predefined function scanr is equal to scan, and even has the same strictness

10.4 Aside: the names of fold and loop

In text books you will find fold being called foldr. It would have been natural for the arguments to be in the same order as the constructors appear in the type of lists, but the name and the argument order of foldr have been the same at least since David Turner's SASL in the mid 1970s. The first argument has also been called f and the second either r or e, and you will find foldr f e in textboooks. My use of c and n is for menmonic reasons.

Similarly, my loop s n appears as fold l f e in texts. I used to call it tailfold because it is a tail call, but justifying calling it a fold is initially harder. It is (exercise 10.4) the fold on lists built with snoc constructors that add a last element to a list, hence my use of s for its argument.

10.5 Aside: strictness

The function tails defined above is strict, but Data.List.tails is not. However the implementation of scan as a fold is strict (as is the predefined scanr which is equal to scan), because folds are strict.

Had we defined tails to be non-strict,

```
> tails xs = xs : if null xs then [] else tails (tail xs)
```

it would not have been possible to implement it by a fold. The rest of the derivation of the implementation of scan as a fold is sound.

You might argue that the efficient implementation of scan is not a faithful implementation of $map \ (fold \ c \ n) \cdot tails$ if tails is not strict.

10.6 Aside: fusion and computability

The statement of the fold fusion law $f \cdot fold \ g \ a = fold \ h \ b$ was proved by showing that $f \ (fold \ g \ a \ xs) = fold \ h \ b \ xs$ by induction on xs, but no mention was made in section 10.1 of chain completeness. In fact the three conditions for fold fusion are only enough to prove this equality for finite or partial xs.

To complete the proof by induction for infinite xs it is necessary to show that the proposition $f(fold\ g\ a\ xs) = fold\ h\ b\ xs$ is chain complete with respect to xs.

Fortunately if both sides are computable functions of xs, as they would be if they were Haskell-definable functions, an equation is chain complete.

However an equation proved to be true on all partial lists does not necessarily hold at infinite lists if the two sides are non-computable functions of the list, and fold fusion cannot necessarily be applied to such functions. (See exercise 10.6.)

Exercises

10.1 Prove directly by induction that

$$fold \ c \ n \ (xs + ys) = fold \ c \ (fold \ c \ n \ ys) \ xs$$

for all lists xs and ys (whether partial, finite or infinite).

10.2 Use fold fusion to show that the section (++bs) is a fold.

Deduce without resort to induction that

$$fold \ c \ n \ (xs + ys) = fold \ c \ (fold \ c \ n \ ys) \ xs$$

10.3 Use fold fusion to show that filter p is a fold.

Deduce that

$$filter \ p \ (xs + ys) = filter \ p \ xs + filter \ p \ ys$$

10.4 A data type very like that of lists might be defined by

```
> data Liste a = Snoc (Liste a) a | Lin
```

There will be elements of Liste α and of $[\alpha]$ corresponding to finite lists, for example Snoc (Snoc (Snoc Lin 1) 2) 3 corresponds to 1: (2: (3: [])), that is [1, 2, 3].

Write a recursive definition of a function cat:: Liste $\alpha \to Liste \ \alpha \to Liste \ \alpha$ which concatenates two elements of Liste.

Define a function folde which is the natural fold for Liste α .

Express cat in terms of folde.

Define (as folds) functions $list::Liste \ \alpha \to [\alpha]$ and $liste::[\alpha] \to Liste \ \alpha$ which express the identification of finite lists represented as elements of $Liste \ \alpha$ and of $[\alpha]$. (That is, they should be mutually inverse on finite lists.)

What does liste return when applied to an infinite list? What are the infinite objects of type Liste α ?

Find equivalent definitions of *list* and *liste* as instances of *loop* and the corresponding function for $Liste \ \alpha$.

10.5 Recall that the unfold function for $[\alpha]$

yields the identity function unfold null head tail when applied to the deconstructors for $[\alpha]$.

Using the same property for the identity of Liste α define the unfold function unfolde for Liste α .

Write list and liste as the appropriate unfolds.

You may want to know that there are predefined functions $init :: [\alpha] \to [\alpha]$ and $last :: [\alpha] \to \alpha$ for which $xs = init \ xs + [last \ xs]$ for all non-null xs. It might help to work out first how these might be defined by recursion.

10.6 A function $f:[a] \to [a]$ satisfies f xs = xs for all infinite lists xs, and $f xs = \bot$ otherwise. Show that f is not computable.

The function (!:), read as tail-strict cons, is defined so that x !: $\bot = \bot$, and x !: xs = x : xs otherwise.

Show that whilst f satisfies the three conditions for the corresponding fold fusion,

$$f \cdot fold$$
 (:) [] \neq $fold$ (!:) \perp