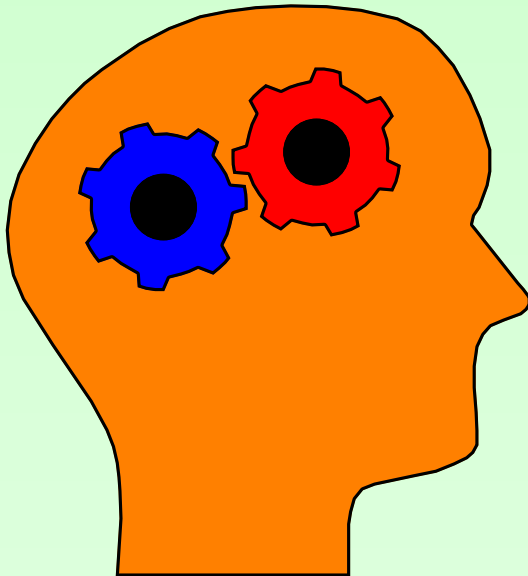




CS2104: Programming Languages Concepts

Lecture 4 : **Higher-Order Functions**



*“Programming with
First-Class Functions”*

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Topics

- First-Class Functions
- Higher-Order Functions
 - Genericity/Parameterization
 - Fold (left and right) & Foldable
 - Map & Functor/Applicative
 - Composition
 - Pipeline
 - Application

Essence of FP

What is a Functional Language

A language
where *functions*
are first-class
citizens



Higher-Order Functions

- Like data structures, functions should be first-class:
 - It has a value and type
 - It can be passed as arguments
 - It can be returned as function result.
 - It can be constructed at run-time
 - It can be stored inside data structures
- Why are higher-order functions useful?
 - Can support code-reuse
 - Can support laziness
 - Can support data abstraction (see OO later)
 - Can support design patterns

Functions that Returns Functions

- Function results:

```
let add x = \ y -> x+y
```

- Equivalent to curried function:

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

- Can also return different functions :

```
let add_mag x =  
  if x>=0 then \ y -> x + y  
  else \ y -> -x + y
```

Curried vs Uncurried Functions

- Type of Curried Function:

$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$

- Type of Uncurried (or Tupled) Function:

$(a, b) \rightarrow c$

- These two functions are isomorphic and are interconvertible using:

curry :: $((a, b) \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c)$
uncurry :: $(a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow ((a, b) \rightarrow c)$

Functions that Returns Functions

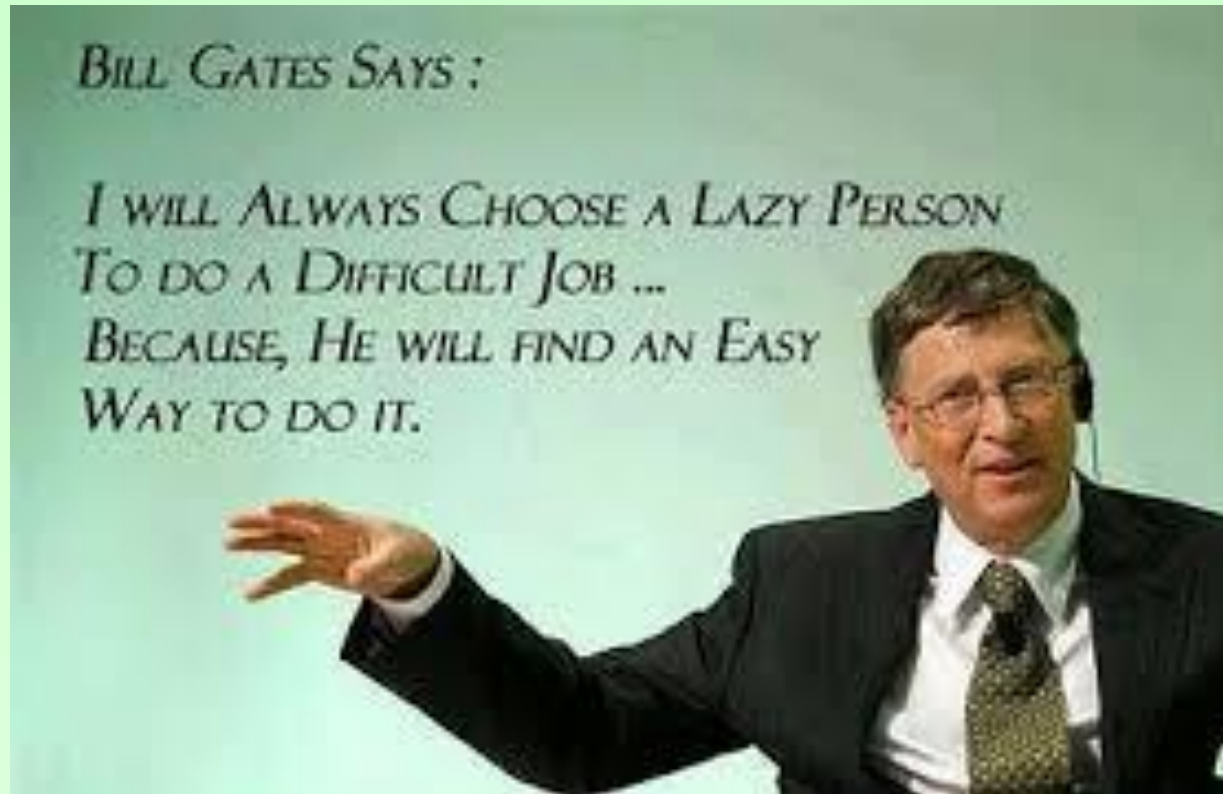
- Examples of Usages:

```
let add x = \ y -> x+y
let inc = add 1
let inc10 = add 10
let dec = add (-1)
let two = inc (1::Int)
```

- An Evaluation:

```
two
  → inc 1
  → (add 1) 1
  → (\ y -> 1+y ) 1
  → 1+1
  → 2
```

Is Laziness Good?



Lazy Evaluation via Functions

- Any given expression e can be abstracted into a function $(\lambda () \rightarrow e)$.
- This is called a *closure* which provides a way to define an expression without evaluating it.
- To evaluate the expression, we simply apply it to $()$, as follows:

$$(\lambda () \rightarrow e) () \implies e$$

Evaluation of expression is delayed to application.
Update of *closure* is supported to reuse result of evaluation.
If function is not applied, the expression is not evaluated.

Lazy Evaluation

- This is the default evaluation for Haskell.
- It applies to both function calls and also let construct.
- Lazy evaluation allows us to handle, as long as non-terminating `bot` computation is not evaluated (or required) by its function

`let bot = bot in`

`f(...,bot,...)`

Infinite Data Structures

- Circular structures are more space efficient :

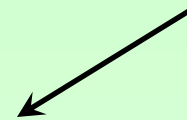
`ones = 1 : ones`

- Another example of circularity is.

`fib = 1 : 1 : [a+b | (a,b) <- zip fib (tail fib)]`

`zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : (zip xs ys)`
`zip xs ys = []`

list
comprehension



- This circular fibonacci function can be computed very efficiently.

Strict Data Constructors

- Strict evaluation is the converse of lazy evaluation.
- In Haskell, if strict evaluation is needed, we can mark it with `!`. This can save on memory for building closures and thus minimise memory leaks.
- An example:

```
data RealFloat a => Complex a = !a :+ !a
```

- With this, `1 :+ bot` is then equivalent to just `bot`

Strict Evaluation

- To evaluate `e1` strictly, Haskell allows:

- `e1 'seq' e2`
- `case e1 of ...`

- GHC extension also allows :

`f $! e`

where `e` is strictly evaluated

`let f x !y !z = ...`

where `y`, `z` are strictly evaluated

Genericity/Parameterization

- To make a function generic is to let any specific entity (i.e. operation or value) in the function body become an argument
- This parameter abstraction can help us obtain more generic program code.

Two Similar Examples

- Function to sum a list of numbers.

```
let sum xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] -> 0  
    y:ys -> y+(sum ys)
```

- Function to multiply a list of numbers.

```
let prod xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] -> 1  
    y:ys -> y*(prod ys)
```

- Examples :

`sum [1,2,3,4]` \rightarrow `1+2+3+4+0`

`prod [1,2,3,4]` \rightarrow `1*2*3*4*1`

Genericity

- Replace each constant (that differs) by a parameter.
- Replace each function (that differs) by a parameter.

```
let sum xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] -> 0  
    y:ys -> y+(sum ys)
```

- Generalize to :

```
let foldr xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] -> z  
    y:ys -> f y (foldr ys)
```


Generic Fold Method

- Generalization of sum and prod gives fold.

```
let foldr f z xs =  
    let aux xs =  
        case xs of  
            [] -> z  
            y:ys -> f y (aux ys)  
    in aux xs
```

- Usages :

```
let sum xs = foldr (+) 0 xs
```

```
let prod xs = foldr (*) 1 xs
```

Higher-Order Types

- Type of sum/prod.

```
let sum xs = ...
```

```
Type of sum :: Nat a => [a] -> a
```

```
let rec prod xs = ...
```

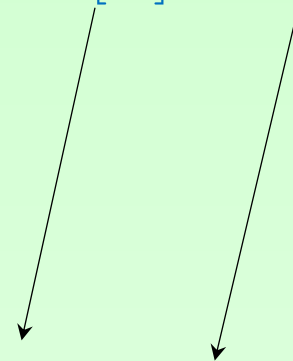
```
Type of prod :: Nat a => [a] -> a
```

- Type of fold :

```
let foldr f z xs = ...
```

```
Type of foldr ::
```

```
(a -> z -> z) -> z -> [a] -> z
```



Example Execution

- Example of sum:

```
sum [1,2,3]
→ foldr (+) 0 [1,2,3]
→ aux [1,2,3]
→ + 1 (aux [2,3])
→ + 1 (+ 2 (aux [3]))
→ + 1 (+ 2 (+ 3 aux []))
→ + 1 (+ 2 (+ 3 0))
```

```
foldr f z xs =
  let aux xs =
    case xs of
    | [] -> z
    | y:ys -> f y (aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

- Example of prod:

```
prod [1,2,3]
→ foldr (*) 1 [1,2,3]
→ aux [1,2,3]
→ * 1 (aux [2,3])
→ * 1 (* 2 (aux [3]))
→ * 1 (* 2 (* 3 aux []))
→ * 1 (* 2 (* 3 1))
```

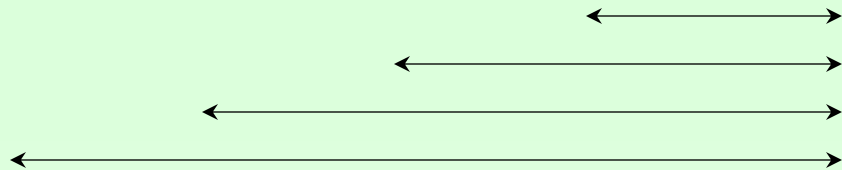
Right Fold Method

```
foldr f z xs =  
  let aux xs =  
    case xs of  
      [] -> z  
      y:ys -> f y (aux ys)  
  in aux xs
```

- Actually foldr denotes fold_right:

```
foldr f z [x1,x2,x3,x4]
```

```
→ f x1 (f x2 (f x3 (f x4 z)))
```



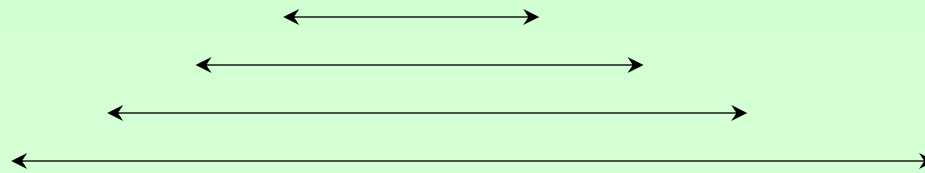
right is here!

Left Fold Method

- An example of foldl method which folds leftwards:

```
foldl f z [x1,x2,x3,x4]
```

```
→ f (f (f (f z x1) x2) x3) x4
```



Fold Left Method

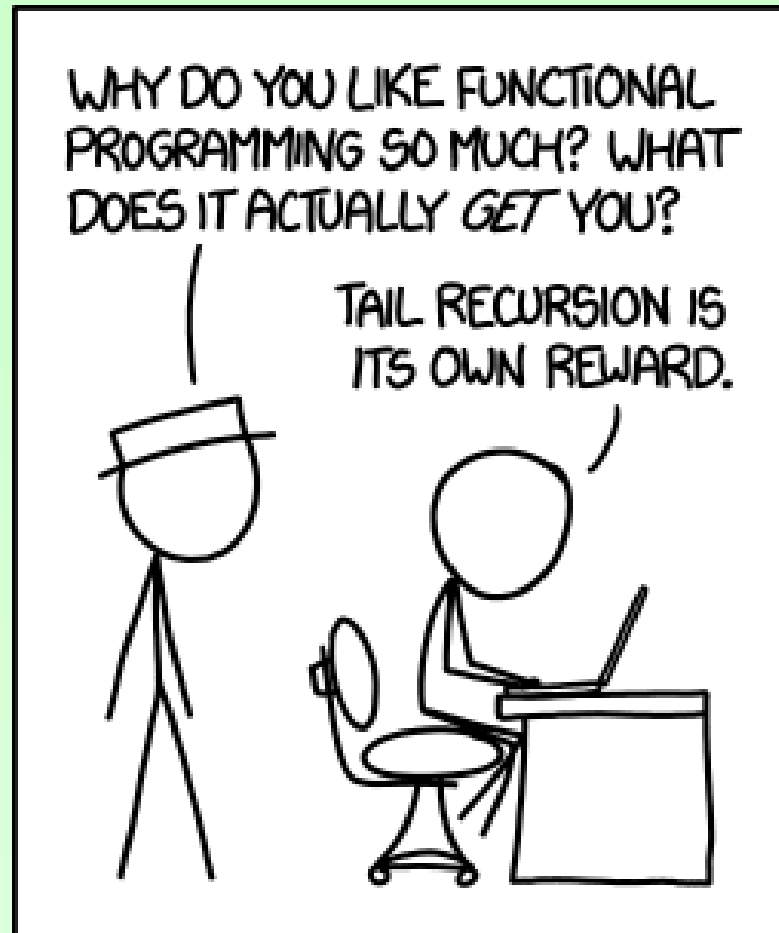
- Implementation of `foldl` method:

```
let foldl f z xs =  
  let aux acc xs =  
    case xs with  
    | [] -> acc  
    | y:ys -> aux (f acc y) ys  
  in aux z xs
```

Key property : *tail-recursive*!

```
Type of foldl ::  
  (z -> a -> z) -> z -> [a] -> z
```

Fold Left is Tail-Recursive



Example Execution

- Using *right fold*:

```
let foldr f z xs =  
  let rec aux xs =  
    match xs with  
    | [] -> z  
    | y::ys -> f y (aux ys)  
  in aux xs
```

```
sum [1,2,3]  
→ foldr (+) 0 [1,2,3]  
→ aux [1,2,3]  
→ + 1 (aux [2,3])  
→ + 1 (+ 2 (aux [3]))  
→ + 1 (+ 2 (+ 3 aux []))  
→ + 1 (+ 2 (+ 3 0))  
→ 6
```

- Using *left fold*:

```
let foldl f z xs =  
  let rec aux acc xs =  
    match xs with  
    | [] -> acc  
    | y::ys -> aux (f y acc) ys  
  in aux z xs
```

```
sum [1,2,3]  
→ foldl (+) 0 [1,2,3]  
→ aux 0 [1,2,3]  
→ aux (0+1) [2,3]  
→ aux 1 [2,3]  
→ aux 3 [3]  
→ aux 6 []  
→ 6
```


Fold Left or Fold Right?

- Can be transformed to each other when the reduction f operator is *associative* :

$$f\ a\ (f\ b\ c) = f\ (f\ a\ b)\ c$$

- Typically, z is the unit of f :

$$\begin{aligned} f\ x\ z &= f\ z\ x \\ &= x \end{aligned}$$

- In terms of performance, `foldl` is typically more efficient due to constant stack space. But not always!

Flattening a List of Lists

- An example: `concat [[1,2],[],[3]] → [1,2,3]`

- Implement in terms of foldr.

```
concat xss
= foldr (++) [] xss
```

```
let foldr f z xs =
  let aux xs =
    case xs of
      [] -> z
      y:ys -> f y (aux ys)
  in aux xs
```

- Example execution:

```
concat [[1,2],[],[3]]
→ foldr (++) [] [[1,2],[],[3]]
→ aux [[1,2],[],[3]]
→ [1,2] ++ (aux [[],[3]])
→ [1,2] ++ ([] ++ (aux [[3]]))
→ [1,2] ++ ([] ++ ([3] ++ (aux [])))
→ [1,2] ++ ([] ++ ([3] ++ []))
→ [1,2,3]
```

Flattening a List of Lists

- Implement in terms of fold_left.

```
concat xss
= foldl (++) [] xss
```

```
let foldl f z xs =
  let aux acc xs =
    match xs with
    [] -> acc
    y:ys -> aux (f y acc) ys
  in aux z xs
```

- Example execution:

```
concat [[1,2], [], [3]]
→ foldl (++) [] [[1,2], [], [3]]
→ aux [] [[1,2], [], [3]]
→ aux ([] ++ [1,2]) [[], [3]]
→ aux (([] ++ [1,2]) ++ []) [[3]]
→ aux ((([] ++ [1,2]) ++ []) ++ [3]) []
→ ((([] ++ [1,2]) ++ []) ++ [3])
```

Fold Left versus Fold Right?

- Essential difference:

`x1 ++ (x2 ++ (x3 ++ (x4 ++ [])))`

versus

`((([] ++ x1) ++ x2) ++ x3) ++ x4`

- Which is better? Assume each of x1..x4 is 10 elements

`x1 ++ (x2 ++ (x3 ++ (x4 ++ [])))`

takes 10+10+10+10 steps

`([] ++ x1) ++ x2) ++ x3) ++ x4`

takes 0+10+20+30 steps

Foldable in Haskell

- Folding over List :

```
foldr :: (a->b->b) -> b -> [a] -> b
```

- Folding over Tree :

```
foldr :: (a->b->b) -> b -> Tree a -> b
```

- Generic Folding :

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

```
class Foldable (t :: * -> *) where
```

```
...
```

```
foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
```

```
...
```

Foldable Type Class

```
class Foldable (t :: * -> *) where
    :
    foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
    foldl :: (b -> a -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
    foldr1 :: (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a
    foldl1 :: (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a
    null :: t a -> Bool
    length :: t a -> Int
    elem :: Eq a => a -> t a -> Bool
    maximum :: Ord a => t a -> a
    minimum :: Ord a => t a -> a
    sum :: Num a => t a -> a
    product :: Num a => t a -> a
```

Examples of Foldable

```
instance Foldable [] -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
instance Foldable Maybe -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
instance Foldable (Either a) -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
instance Foldable ((,) a) -- Defined in 'Data.Foldable'
```

- Guess of output of these executions:

```
let foo = foldr (\x y -> x+y) 0
foo [1..4]
foo (Just 10)
foo Nothing
```

List Mapping

- Transform one list into another :

```
map f xs =  
  let aux xs =  
    case xs of  
      [] -> []  
      y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)  
  in aux xs
```

- Usages :

```
let double xs = map (fun x -> 2*x) xs  
  
let is_pos xs = map (fun x -> x>0) xs
```


Type of Map

- Map function :

```
map f xs =  
  let aux xs =  
    case xs of  
      [] -> []  
      y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)  
  in aux xs
```

- Type of map :

```
map : (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

- Note that result type of list is changed by function parameter of type `(a -> b)`.

Example Execution

```
map f xs =  
  let aux xs =  
    case xs of  
      [] -> []  
      y:ys -> (f y):(aux ys)  
  in aux xs
```

Example :

```
double [1,2]  
→ map (fun x -> 2*x) [1,2]  
→ aux [1,2]  
→ ((fun x -> 2*x) 1) : aux [2]  
→ ((fun x -> 2*x) 1) : (fun x -> 2*x) 2 : aux []  
→ 2 : 4 : []  
→ [2,4]
```

Example Execution

```
map f xs =  
  let aux xs =  
    case xs of  
      [] -> []  
      y:ys -> (f y) : (aux ys)  
  in aux xs
```

Example :

```
is_pos [1,-2]  
→ map (fun x -> x>0) [1,-2]  
→ aux [1,-2]  
→ ((fun x -> x>0) 1) : aux [-2]  
→ ((fun x -> x>0) 1) : (fun x -> x>0) -2 : aux []  
→ True : False : []  
→ [True,False]
```

Functor in Haskell

- Mapping over List :

```
map :: (a->b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

- Mapping over Tree :

```
map :: (a->b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
```

- Generic Mapping :

```
class Functor (f :: * -> *) where  
  fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b  
  (<$) :: a -> f b -> f a
```

- Can you implement (<\$) in terms of fmap :

Examples of Functors

```
instance Functor (Either a) -- Defined in `Data.Either`
instance Functor [] -- Defined in `GHC.Base`
instance Functor Maybe -- Defined in `GHC.Base`
instance Functor IO -- Defined in `GHC.Base`
instance Functor ((->) r) -- Defined in `GHC.Base`
instance Functor ((,) a) -- Defined in `GHC.Base`
```

- Guess of output of these executions:

```
let foo = fmap (\x -> x+1)
foo [1..10]
foo (Just 10)
foo Nothing
foo (\x -> x*2) 3
```

Composition

- We can write a general compose operator:

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

- Type of compose :

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

- Similar to Unix pipe :

```
cat x | f | g
```

Except Unix pipe was for a text file, and presented in infix notation.

Infix Version of Composition

- In Haskell, we use an infix version of `compose`

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

- Type of `compose` :

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

- How is `compose` related to `fmap` ?

```
fmap :: Functor f => (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

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

Unix Pipe in Haskell



- Declare an infix pipe operator:

```
let (|>) :: a -> (a->b) -> b
    a |> f = f x
```

- Example of use:

```
x
|> f
|> g
```

Equivalent to:

```
(x |> f) |> g = g (f x)
```


An Example of Pipe

- Let us first declare:

```
let double xs = map (fun x -> 2*x) xs
```

```
let sum xs = foldl (+) 0 xs
```

- Example of use:

```
[1,2,3]  
|> double  
|> double  
|> sum
```

Weak Precedence Apply Operator

- Another infix apply operator:

$$(\$) :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow b$$
$$f \$ x = f x$$

- $\$$ is essentially function apply but with very weak precedence:

- Example of use:

$$\text{inc } \$ x * 2$$
$$= \text{inc } (x * 2)$$

- Without $\$$, the default application gives:

$$\text{inc } x * 2$$
$$= (\text{inc } x) * 2$$