

## Higher-Order Functions

CSc 372

### Comparative Programming Languages

#### 11 : Haskell — Higher-Order Functions

Department of Computer Science  
University of Arizona

collberg@gmail.com

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Christian Collberg

- A function is **Higher-Order** if it takes a function as an argument or returns one as its result.
- Higher-order function aren't weird; the differentiation operation from high-school calculus is higher-order:

```
deriv :: (Float->Float)->Float->Float
deriv f x = (f(x+dx) - f x)/0.0001
```

- Many recursive functions share a similar structure. We can capture such “recursive patterns” in a higher-order function.
- We can often avoid the use of explicit recursion by using higher-order functions. This leads to functions that are shorter, and easier to read and maintain.

## Currying Revisited

- We have already seen a number of higher-order functions. In fact, any curried function is higher-order. Why? Well, when a curried function is applied to one of its arguments it returns a new function as the result.

\_\_\_\_\_ Uh, what was this currying thing? \_\_\_\_\_

- A curried function does not have to be applied to all its arguments at once. We can supply some of the arguments, thereby creating a new specialized function. This function can, for example, be passed as argument to a higher-order function.

## Currying Revisited...

\_\_\_\_\_ How is a curried function defined? \_\_\_\_\_

- A curried function of  $n$  arguments (of types  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n$ ) that returns a value of type  $t$  is defined like this:

```
fun :: t1 -> t2 -> ... -> tn -> t
```

- This is sort of like defining  $n$  different functions (one for each  $->$ ). In fact, we could define these functions explicitly, but that would be tedious:

```
fun1 :: t2 -> ... -> tn -> t
fun1 a2 ... an = ...
```

```
fun2 :: t3 -> ... -> tn -> t
fun2 a3 ... an = ...
```

## Currying Revisited...

### Duh, how about an example?

- Certainly. Lets define a recursive function `get_nth n xs` which returns the `n`:th element from the list `xs`:

```
get_nth 1 (x:_) = x
get_nth n (_:xs) = get_nth (n-1) xs
```

```
get_nth 10 "Bartholomew" => 'e'
```

- Now, let's use `get_nth` to define functions `get_second`, `get_third`, `get_fourth`, and `get_fifth`, without using explicit recursion:

```
get_second = get_nth 2 | get_fourth = get_nth 4
get_third  = get_nth 3 | get_fifth  = get_nth 5
```

## Currying Revisited...

```
get_fifth "Bartholomew" => 'h'
```

```
map (get_nth 3)
  ["mob","sea","tar","bat"] =>
  "bart"
```

### So, what's the type of `get_second`?

- Remember the **Rule of Cancellation**?
- The type of `get_nth` is `Int -> [a] -> a`.
- `get_second` applies `get_nth` to one argument. So, to get the type of `get_second` we need to cancel `get_nth`'s first type:  
~~`Int -> [a] -> a`~~  $\equiv$  `[a] -> a`.

## Patterns of Computation

### Mappings

- Apply a function `f` to the elements of a list `L` to make a new list `L'`. **Example:** Double the elements of an integer list.

### Selections

- Extract those elements from a list `L` that satisfy a predicate `p` into a new list `L'`. **Example:** Extract the even elements from an integer list.

### Folds

- Combine the elements of a list `L` into a single element using a binary function `f`. **Example:** Sum up the elements in an integer list.

## The map Function

- `map` takes two arguments, a function and a list. `map` creates a new list by applying the function to each element of the input list.
- `map`'s first argument is a function of type `a -> b`. The second argument is a list of type `[a]`. The result is a list of type `[b]`.

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f [ ]           = [ ]
map f (x:xs)       = f x : map f xs
```

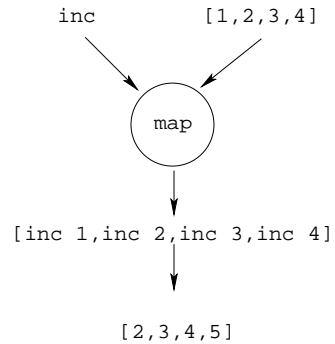
- We can check the type of an object using the `:type` command. Example: `:type map`.

## The map Function...

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f [ ] = [ ]
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

```
inc x = x + 1
```

```
map inc [1,2,3,4] ⇒ [2,3,4,5]
```



## The map Function...

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f [ ] = [ ]
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

**map f [ ] = [ ]** means: "The result of applying the function *f* to the elements of an empty list is the empty list."

**map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs** means: "applying *f* to the list (x:xs) is the same as applying *f* to *x* (the first element of the list), then applying *f* to the list *xs*, and then combining the results."

## The map Function...

### Simulation:

```
map square [5,6] ⇒
square 5 : map square [6] ⇒
25 : map square [6] ⇒
    25 : (square 6 : map square [ ]) ⇒
    25 : (36 : map square [ ]) ⇒
        25 : (36 : [ ]) ⇒
            25 : [36] ⇒
                [25,36]
```

## The filter Function

- Filter takes a predicate *p* and a list *L* as arguments. It returns a list *L'* consisting of those elements from *L* that satisfy *p*.
- The predicate *p* should have the type **a -> Bool**, where *a* is the type of the list elements.

### Examples:

```
filter even [1..10] ⇒ [2,4,6,8,10]
filter even (map square [2..5]) ⇒
    filter even [4,9,16,25] ⇒ [4,16]
filter gt10 [2,5,9,11,23,114]
    where gt10 x = x > 10 ⇒ [11,23,114]
```

## The filter Function...

- We can define filter using either recursion or list comprehension.

Using recursion:

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
filter _ [] = []
filter p (x:xs)
  | p x      = x : filter p xs
  | otherwise = filter p xs
```

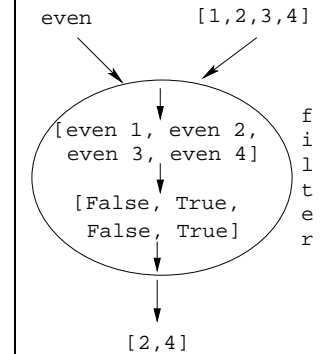
Using list comprehension:

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
filter p xs = [x | x <- xs, p x]
```

## The filter Function...

```
filter :: (a->Bool)->[a]->[a]
filter _ [] = []
filter p (x:xs)
  | p x = x : filter p xs
  | otherwise = filter p xs
```

`filter even [1,2,3,4] ⇒ [2,4]`



## The filter Function...

- doublePos doubles the positive integers in a list.

```
getEven :: [Int] -> [Int]
getEven xs = filter even xs
```

```
doublePos :: [Int] -> [Int]
doublePos xs = map dbl (filter pos xs)
  where dbl x = 2 * x
        pos x = x > 0
```

Simulations:

`getEven [1,2,3] ⇒ [2]`

`doublePos [1,2,3,4] ⇒`  
`map dbl (filter pos [1,2,3,4]) ⇒`  
`map dbl [2,4] ⇒ [4,8]`

## fold Functions

- A common operation is to combine the elements of a list into one element. Such operations are called **reductions** or **accumulations**.

Examples:

```
sum [1,2,3,4,5] ≡
  (1 + (2 + (3 + (4 + (5 + 0)))))) ⇒ 15
concat ["H","i","!"] ≡
  ("H" ++ ("i" ++ ("!" ++ ""))) ⇒ "Hi!"
```

- Notice how similar these operations are. They both combine the elements in a list using some binary operator (+, ++), starting out with a “seed” value (0, "").

## fold Functions...

- Haskell provides a function `foldr` (“fold right”) which captures this pattern of computation.
- `foldr` takes three arguments: a function, a seed value, and a list.

Examples:

```
foldr (+) 0 [1,2,3,4,5] ⇒ 15
foldr (++) "" ["H","i","!"] ⇒ "Hi!"
```

foldr:

```
foldr :: (a->b->b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldr f z [ ]      = z
foldr f z (x:xs)  = f x (foldr f z xs)
```

## fold Functions...

- Note how the fold process is started by combining the last element  $x_n$  with  $z$ . Hence the name **seed**.

$$\text{foldr}(\oplus)z[x_1 \cdots x_n] = (x_1 \oplus (x_2 \oplus (\cdots (x_n \oplus z))))$$

- Several functions in the standard prelude are defined using `foldr`:

```
and,or :: [Bool] -> Bool
and xs = foldr (&&) True xs
or xs = foldr (||) False xs
```

```
? or [True,False,False] ⇒
foldr (||) False [True,False,False] ⇒
True || (False || (False || False)) ⇒ True
```

## fold Functions...

- Remember that `foldr` binds from the right:

```
foldr (+) 0 [1,2,3] ⇒ (1+(2+(3+0)))
```

- There is another function `foldl` that binds from the left:

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

- In general:

$$\text{foldl}(\oplus)z[x_1 \cdots x_n] = (((z \oplus x_1) \oplus x_2) \oplus \cdots \oplus x_n)$$

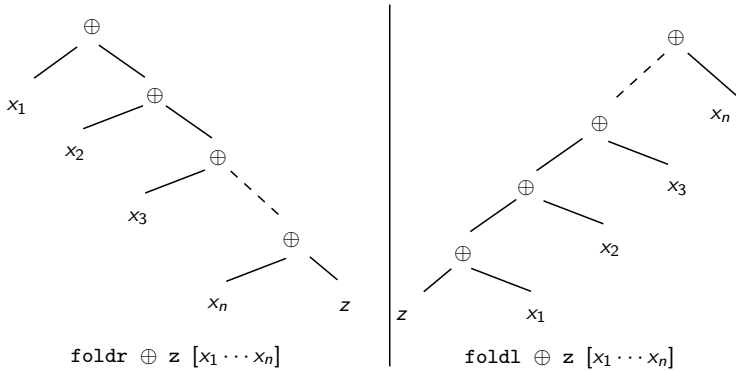
## fold Functions...

- In the case of `(+)` and many other functions

$$\text{foldl}(\oplus)z[x_1 \cdots x_n] = \text{foldr}(\oplus)z[x_1 \cdots x_n]$$

- However, one version may be more efficient than the other.

## fold Functions...



## Operator Sections

- We've already seen that it is possible to use operators to construct new functions:

$(*2)$  – function that doubles its argument

$(>2)$  – function that returns True for numbers  $> 2$ .

- Such **partially applied operators** are known as **operator sections**. There are two kinds:

\_\_\_\_\_  $(op\ a)\ b = b\ op\ a$  \_\_\_\_\_

$(*2)\ 4 = 4 * 2 = 8$

$(>2)\ 4 = 4 > 2 = \text{True}$

$(++\ "\n")\ \text{"Bart"} = \text{"Bart"} ++ "\n"$

## Operator Sections...

\_\_\_\_\_  $(a\ op)\ b = a\ op\ b$  \_\_\_\_\_

$(3:)\ [1,2] = 3 : [1,2] = [3,1,2]$

$(0<)\ 5 = 0 < 5 = \text{True}$

$(1/)\ 5 = 1/5$

### Examples:

$(+1)$  – The successor function.

$(/2)$  – The halving function.

$(: [])$  – The function that turns an element into a singleton list.

### More Examples:

?  $\text{filter } (0<) (\text{map } (+1) [-2,-1,0,1])$   
[1,2]

## takeWhile & dropWhile

- We've looked at the **list-breaking** functions drop & take:

$\text{take } 2\ ['a', 'b', 'c'] \Rightarrow ['a', 'b']$

$\text{drop } 2\ ['a', 'b', 'c'] \Rightarrow ['c']$

- $\text{takeWhile}$  and  $\text{dropWhile}$  are higher-order list-breaking functions. They take/drop elements from a list while a predicate is true.

$\text{takeWhile even } [2,4,6,5,7,4,1] \Rightarrow$   
[2,4,6]

$\text{dropWhile even } [2,4,6,5,7,4,1] \Rightarrow$   
[5,7,4,1]

## takeWhile & dropWhile...

```
takeWhile :: (a->Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
takeWhile p [] = []
takeWhile p (x:xs)
  | p x      = x : takeWhile p xs
  | otherwise = []
```

```
dropWhile :: (a->Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
dropWhile p [] = []
dropWhile p (x:xs)
  | p x      = dropWhile p xs
  | otherwise = x:xs
```

## Summary

- Higher-order functions take functions as arguments, or return a function as the result.
- We can form a new function by applying a curried function to some (but not all) of its arguments. This is called **partial application**.
- **Operator sections** are partially applied infix operators.

## takeWhile & dropWhile...

- Remove initial/final blanks from a string:

```
dropWhile ((==) ' ') "   Hi!" =>
  "Hi!"
```

```
takeWhile ((/=) ' ') "Hi!   " =>
  "Hi!"
```

## Summary...

- The standard prelude contains many useful higher-order functions:
  - **map f xs** creates a new list by applying the function **f** to every element of a list **xs**.
  - **filter p xs** creates a new list by selecting only those elements from **xs** that satisfy the predicate **p** (i.e. **(p x)** should return **True**).
  - **foldr f z xs** reduces a list **xs** down to one element, by applying the binary function **f** to successive elements, starting from the right.
  - **scanl/scanr f z xs** perform the same functions as **foldr/foldl**, but instead of returning only the ultimate value they return a list of all intermediate results.

## Homework

\_\_\_\_\_ Homework (a): \_\_\_\_\_

- Define the map function using a list comprehension.

\_\_\_\_\_ Template: \_\_\_\_\_

```
map f x = [ ... | ... ]
```

\_\_\_\_\_ Homework (b): \_\_\_\_\_

- Use map to define a function lengthall xss which takes a list of strings xss as argument and returns a list of their lengths as result.

\_\_\_\_\_ Examples: \_\_\_\_\_

```
? lengthall ["Ay", "Caramba!"]  
[2,8]
```

## Homework

- 1 Give a accumulative recursive definition of foldl.
- 2 Define the minimum xs function using foldr.
- 3 Define a function sumsq n that returns the sum of the squares of the numbers  $[1 \dots n]$ . Use map and foldr.
- 4 What does the function mystery below do?

```
mystery xs =  
  foldr (++) [] (map sing xs)  
sing x = [x]
```

\_\_\_\_\_ Examples: \_\_\_\_\_

```
minimum [3,4,1,5,6,3] ⇒ 1
```

## Homework...

- Define a function zipp f xs ys that takes a function f and two lists  $xs=[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  and  $ys=[y_1, \dots, y_n]$  as argument, and returns the list  $[f\ x_1\ y_1, \dots, f\ x_n\ y_n]$  as result.
- If the lists are of unequal length, an error should be returned.

\_\_\_\_\_ Examples: \_\_\_\_\_

```
zipp (+) [1,2,3] [4,5,6] ⇒ [5,7,9]
```

```
zipp (==) [1,2,3] [4,2,2] ⇒ [False,True,True]
```

```
zipp (==) [1,2,3] [4,2] ⇒ ERROR
```

## Homework

- Define a function filterFirst p xs that removes the first element of xs that does not have the property p.

\_\_\_\_\_ Example: \_\_\_\_\_

```
filterFirst even [2,4,6,5,6,8,7] ⇒  
[2,4,6,6,8,7]
```

- Use filterFirst to define a function filterLast p xs that removes the last occurrence of an element of xs without the property p.

\_\_\_\_\_ Example: \_\_\_\_\_

```
filterLast even [2,4,6,5,6,8,7] ⇒  
[2,4,6,5,6,8]
```