CSE399: Advanced Programming

Handout 2

Higher-Order Programming

Functions as Data

In Haskell (and other functional languages), functions can be treated as “ordinary data”—they can be passed as arguments to other functions, returned as results, stored in lists, etc., etc.

Taking a function as an argument:

```
thrice        :: (Int->Int) -> Int -> Int
thrice f x    = f (f (f x))

plus2   :: Int -> Int
plus2 x = x+2

foo :: Int
foo = thrice plus2 10        -- foo = 16
```

Functions as Data

Returning a function as a result:

```
plusn :: Int -> (Int->Int)
plusn n = f
          where  f x = n + x

plus5 :: Int -> Int
plus5 = plusn 5

bar1 = plus5 10           -- bar1 = 15

-- Or just...
bar2 = (plusn 5) 10       -- bar2 = 15
```

Functions as Data

The type constructor `->` is right-associative — i.e.,

```
Int -> Int -> Int
```

means the same as

```
Int -> (Int->Int)
```

That is, a function of type `Int -> Int -> Int` can be thought of as a function that takes an integer and returns a function from integers to integers!

So we can write `plusn` in a simpler way:

```
plusn' :: Int -> (Int->Int)    -- i.e., Int->Int->Int
plusn' n x = n + x             -- i.e., plusn' = (+)
```

Each time we use `plusn`, we can choose whether to apply it to two integers to get an integer or to “partially apply” it to just one integer, yielding a function.

Functions as Data

Putting these together...

```
thriceplus2 :: Int->Int
thriceplus2 = thrice plus2   -- partial application!

baz :: Int -> Int
baz = thrice thriceplus2     -- again!!

-- Check: What is (baz 0)??
```

Polymorphism

The Length Function is Polymorphic

```
length        :: [a] -> Int
length []      = 0
length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

The “a” in the type of `length` is a placeholder that can be replaced with any type when `length` is applied.

```
length [1,2,3]          ⇒  3
length ["a","b","c"]    ⇒  3
length [[1],[],[2,3]]   ⇒  3
```

Polymorphism

Many of Haskell’s predefined functions are polymorphic

```
(++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]
id   :: a -> a
head :: [a] -> a
tail :: [a] -> [a]
[]   :: [a]             -- interesting!
```

Quick check: what is the type of `tag1`?

```
tag1 x = (1,x)
```

Polymorphic Data Structures

Polymorphic functions — functions that can operate on any type of data — are often associated with polymorphic data structures — structures that can contain any type of data.

The previous examples involved lists and tuples. In particular, here are the types of the list and tuple constructors:

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

We can also define new polymorphic data structures...

A User-Defined Polymorphic Data Structure

The type variable `a` on the left-hand-side of the `=` tells Haskell that `Maybe` is a polymorphic data type:

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
```

Note the types of the constructors:

```
Nothing :: Maybe a
Just :: a -> Maybe a
```

Thus:

```
Just 3        :: Maybe Int
Just "x"      :: Maybe String
Just (3,True) :: Maybe (Int,Bool)
Just (Just 1) :: Maybe (Maybe Int)
```

`Maybe` May Be Useful

The most common use of Maybe is with a function that “may” return a useful value, but may also fail.

For example, the division operator `div` in Haskell will cause a run-time error if its second argument is zero. Thus we may wish to define a safe division function, as follows:

```
safeDivide :: Int -> Int -> Maybe Int
safeDivide x 0 = Nothing
safeDivide x y = Just (x `div` y)
```

Polymorphic Higher-Order Functions

Abstraction Over Recursive Definitions

Recall from Section 4.1:

```
transList          :: [Vertex] -> [Point]
transList []        = []
transList (p:ps)    = trans p : transList ps
```

(where `trans` converts ordinary cartesian coordinates into screen coordinates).

Also, from Chapter 3:

```
putCharList        :: [Char] -> [IO ()]
putCharList []      = []
putCharList (c:cs) = putChar c : putCharList cs
```

These definitions are very similar. Indeed, the only thing different about them (besides the variable names) is the function `trans` vs. the function `putChar`.

Abstraction Yields `map`

Since `trans` and `putChar` are the differing elements, they should be arguments to the abstraction. In other words, we would like to define a function — let's call it `map` — such that `map trans` behaves like `transList` and `map putChar` behaves like `putCharList`.

No problem:

```
map f []      = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

Now it is easy to redefine `transList` and `putCharList` in terms of `map`:

```
transList   xs = map trans   xs
putCharList cs = map putChar cs
```

`map` is Polymorphic

The great thing about `map` is that it is polymorphic. Its most general (or principal) type is:

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

Whatever type is instantiated for the type variable `a` must be the same at both instances of `a`, and similarly for `b`.

For example, since `trans :: Vertex -> Point`, we have

```
map trans :: [Vertex] -> [Point]
```

and since `putChar :: Char -> IO ()`,

```
map putChar :: [Char] -> [IO ()]
```

Digression: Arithmetic Sequences

Haskell provides a convenient special syntax for lists of numbers obeying simple rules:

`[1 .. 6]`	⇒	`[1,2,3,4,5,6]`
`[1,3 .. 9]`	⇒	`[1,3,5,7,9]`
`[5,4 .. 1]`	⇒	`[5,4,3,2,1]`
`[2.4, 2.1 .. 0.3]`	⇒	`[2.4, 2.1, 1.8, 1.5,` etc.]

Another Example of Map

```
circles :: [Shape]
circles = map circle [2.4, 2.1 .. 0.3]
```

Now let's draw them...

Digression: zipping

Another useful higher-order function:

```
zip :: [a] -> [b] -> [(a,b)]

zip (a:as) (b:bs) = (a,b) : zip as bs
zip _ _           = []
```

For example:

```
  zip [1,2,3] [True,False,False]
⇒ [(1,True), (2,False), (3,False)]
```

Quick check: What does `zip [1..3] [1..5]` yield?

Coloring Our Circles

```
colCircles :: [(Color,Shape)]
colCircles = zip [Red,Blue,Green,
                  Cyan,Red,Magenta,
                  Yellow,White]
                 circles
```

Drawing Colored Shapes

```
drawShapes :: Window -> [(Color,Shape)] -> IO ()

drawShapes w css =
  sequence_ (map aux css)
  where aux (c,s) =
          drawInWindow w
            (withColor c
               (shapeToGraphic s))
```

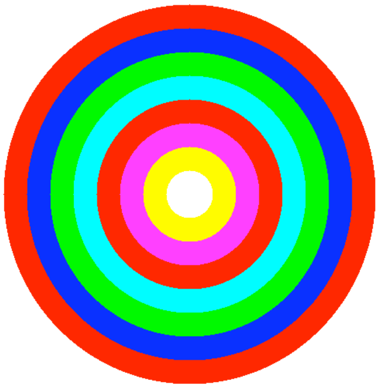
Recall from Chapter 3 that `sequence_` takes a list of `IO()` actions and returns an `IO()` action that performs all the actions in the list in sequence.

The Main Action

```
g = do w <- openWindow "Bulls eye" (600,600)
       drawShapes w colCircles
       k <- getKey w
       closeWindow w

main = runGraphics g
```

The Result



When to Define Higher-Order Functions

Recognizing repeating patterns is the key, as we did for map. As another example, consider:

```
listSum []       = 0
listSum (x:xs)   = x + listSum  xs

listProd []      = 1
listProd (x:xs)  = x * listProd xs
```

Note the similarities. Also note the differences (`0` vs. `1` and `+` vs. `*`): it is these that will become parameters to the abstracted function.

Fold

Abstracting out the differences (`op` and `init`) leaves this common part:

```
fold op init []     = init
fold op init (x:xs) = x `op` fold op init xs
```

We recover `listSum` and `listProd` by instantiating `fold` with the appropriate parameters:

```
listSum  xs = fold (+) 0 xs
listProd xs = fold (*) 1 xs
```

Note that fold is polymorphic:

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

Two Folds Are Better Than One

The `fold` function is predefined in Haskell, but it is actually called `foldr`, because it "folds from the right." That is:

```
  foldr op init (x1 : x2 : ... : xn : [])
⇒ x1 `op` (x2 `op` (...(xn `op` init)...))
```

There is another predefined function `foldl` that "folds from the left":

```
  foldl op init (x1 : x2 : ... : xn : [])
⇒ (...((init `op` x1) `op` x2)...) `op` xn
```

Two Folds Are Better Than One

Why two folds? Because sometimes using one can be more efficient than the other. For example:

```
foldr (++) [] [x,y,z]   ⇒   x ++ (y ++ z)
foldl (++) [] [x,y,z]   ⇒   (x ++ y) ++ z
```

The former is considerably more efficient than the latter (as discussed in the book); but this is not always the case — sometimes `foldl` is more efficient than `foldr`. Choose wisely!

Another Application of Fold

We have seen the function `sequence_`, which takes a list of actions of type `IO()` and produces a single action of type `IO()`.

We can define `sequence_` in terms of `>>` and `foldl` as follows:

```
sequence_ :: [IO ()] -> IO ()
sequence_ acts = foldl (>>) (return ()) acts
```

Reversing a List

Obvious but inefficient (why?):

```
reverse []      = []
reverse (x::xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]
```

Much better (why?):

```
reverse xs = rev [] xs
  where rev acc  []     = acc
        rev acc (x:xs) = rev (x:acc) xs
```

This looks a lot like `foldl`. Indeed, we can redefine `reverse` as:

```
reverse xs = foldl revOp [] xs
             where revOp a b = b : a
```