Higher-order functions

Informatics 1 – Functional Programming: Tutorial 5

Heijltjes, Wadler

Due: The tutorial of week 7 (6/7 Nov.)

Please attempt the entire worksheet in advance of the tutorial, and bring with you all work, including (if a computer is involved) printouts of code and test results. Tutorials cannot function properly unless you do the work in advance.

You may work with others, but you must understand the work; you can't phone a friend during the exam.

Assessment is formative, meaning that marks from coursework do not contribute to the final mark. But coursework is not optional. If you do not do the coursework you are unlikely to pass the exams.

Attendance at tutorials is obligatory; please let your tutor know if you cannot attend.

Higher-order functions

Haskell functions are *values*, which may be processed in the same way as other data such as numbers, tuples or lists. In this tutorial we'll use a number of *higher-order functions*, which take other functions as arguments, to write succinct definitions for the sort of list-processing tasks that you've previously coded explicitly using recursion or comprehensions.

The first part of the tutorial deals with three higher-order functions, `map`, `filter`, and `fold`. For each of these you will be asked to write three functions. The second part deals with `fold` in some more detail, and will ask you to write functions using both `map` and `filter` at the same time.

Map

Transforming every list element by a particular function is a common need when processing lists—for example, we may want to

- add one to each element of a list of numbers,
- extract the first element of every pair in a list,
- convert every character in a string to uppercase, or
- add a grey background to every picture in a list of pictures.

The `map` function captures this pattern, allowing us to avoid the repetitious code that results from writing a recursive function for each case.

Consider a function `g` defined in terms of an imaginary function `f` as follows:

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

The function `g` can be written with recursion (as above), or with a comprehension, or with `map`: all three definitions are equivalent.

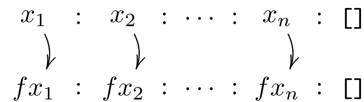

Figure 1: The `map` function

```
g xs  =  [ f x | x <- xs ]
g xs  =  map f xs
```

Below right is the definition of `map`. Note the similarity to the recursive definition of `g` (below left). As compared with `g`, `map` takes one additional argument: the function `f` that we want to apply to each element.

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

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

Given `map` and a function that operates on a single element, we can easily write a function that operates on a list. For instance, the function that extracts the first element of every pair can be defined as follows (using `fst :: (a,b) -> a`):

```
fsts :: [(a,b)] -> [a]
fsts pairs = map fst pairs
```

Exercises

1. Using `map` and other suitable library functions, write definitions for the following:
   (a) A function `uppers :: String -> String` that converts a string to uppercase.
   (b) A function `doubles :: [Int] -> [Int]` that doubles every item in a list.
   (c) A function `penceToPounds :: [Int] -> [Float]` that turns prices given in pence into the same price in pounds.
   Note: you can't turn an `Int` into a `Float` directly, but you have to use `Integer` as an intermediate type.
   (d) Write a list-comprehension version of `uppers` and use it to check your answer to (a).

Filter

Removing elements from a list is another common need. For example, we might want to remove non-alphabetic characters from a string, or negative integers from a list. This pattern is captured by the `filter` function.

Consider a function `g` defined in terms of an imaginary predicate `p` as follows (a predicate is just a function into a `Bool` value):

```
g []     = []
g (x:xs) | p x       = x : g xs
         | otherwise = g xs
```

The function `g` can be written with recursion (as above), or with a comprehension, or with `filter`: all three definitions are equivalent.

```
g xs  =  [ x | x <- xs, p x ]
g xs  =  filter p xs
```

For instance, we can write a function `evens :: [Int] -> [Int]`, which removes all odd numbers from a list using `filter` and the standard function `even :: Int -> Int`:

```
evens list = filter even list
```

This is equivalent to:

```
evens list = [x | x <- list, even x]
```

Below right is the definition of `filter`. Note the similarity to the way `g` is defined (below left). As compared with `g`, `filter` takes one additional argument: the predicate that we use to test each element.

```
g []     = []
g (x:xs) | p x       = x : g xs
         | otherwise = g xs
```

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

Exercises

2. Using `filter` and other standard library functions, write definitions for the following:

   (a) A function `alphas :: String -> String` that removes all non-alphabetic characters from a string.

   (b) Define a function `rmChar :: Char -> String -> String` that removes all occurrences of a character from a string.

   (c) A function `above :: Int -> [Int] -> [Int]` that removes all numbers less than or equal to a given number.

   (d) A function `unequals :: [(Int,Int)] -> [(Int,Int)]` that removes all pairs `(x,y)` where `x == y`.

   (e) Write a list-comprehension version of `rmChar` and use QuickCheck to test it against the version using filter.

Comprehensions, map and filter

As we have seen, list comprehensions process a list using transformations similar to `map` and `filter`. In general, `[f x | x <- xs, p x]` is equivalent to `map f (filter p xs)`.

Exercises

3. Write expressions equivalent to the following using `map` and `filter`. Use QuickCheck to verify your answers.

   (a) `[toUpper c | c <- s, isAlpha c]`

   (b) `[2 * x | x <- xs, x > 3]`

   (c) `[reverse s | s <- strs, even (length s)]`

Fold

The `map` and `filter` functions act on elements individually; they never combine one element with another.

Sometimes we want to combine elements using some operation. For example, the `sum` function can be written like this:

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

Here we're essentially just combining the elements of the list using the `+` operation. Another example is `reverse`, which reverses a list:

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

This function is just combining the elements of the list, one by one, by appending them onto the end of the reversed list. This time the "combining" function is a little harder to see. It might be easier if we wrote it this way:

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

snoc x xs = xs ++ [x]
```

Now you can see that `` `snoc` `` plays the same role as `+` played in the example of `sum`.

These examples (and many more) follow a pattern: we break down a list into its head (`x`) and tail (`xs`), recurse on `xs`, and then apply some function to `x` and the modified `xs`. The only things we need to specify are the function (such as `(+)` or `snoc`) and the *initial value* (such as `0` in the case of `sum` and `[]` in the case of `reverse`.

This pattern is called "a fold" and is implemented in Haskell via the function `foldr`.

```
g []     = u
g (x:xs) = x `f` g xs
```

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

The function `g` can be written with recursion (as above) or by using a fold: both definitions are equivalent.

```
g xs  =  foldr f u xs
```

One way to visualize the action of `foldr` is shown in Figure 2. Given a function `f :: a -> b -> b`, an initial value `u :: b` (sometimes called the "unit"), and a list `list :: [a]`, the `foldr` function returns the value that results from replacing every `:` (cons) in `list` with `f` and replacing the terminating `[]` (nil) with `u`.

$$x_1 \;:\; (x_2 \;:\; \cdots \;:\; (x_n \;:\; \texttt{[]} \;)\cdots)$$

$$x_1 \;\text{op}\; (x_2 \;\text{op}\; \cdots \;\text{op}\; (x_n \;\text{op}\; \textit{init} \;)\cdots)$$

Figure 2: The `foldr` function

For example, we can define `sum :: [Int] -> Int` as follows, using `(+)` as the function and `0` as the initial value (unit):

```
sum :: [Int] -> Int
sum ns = foldr (+) 0 ns
```

(**Note:** to treat an infix operator like `+` as a function name, we need to wrap it in parentheses.)

```
10  :  20  :  30  :  []
   ↓      ↓      ↓    ↓
10  +  20  +  30  +  0
```

Figure 3: Illustration of `foldr (+) 0 [10,20,30]`

Exercises

4. We will practice the use of `foldr` by writing several functions first with recursion, and then using `foldr`. You can use other standard library functions as well.

   (a) Look at the recursive function `productRec :: [Int] -> Int` that computes the product of the numbers in a list, and write an equivalent function `productFold` using `foldr`.

   (b) Write a recursive function `andRec :: [Bool] -> Bool` that checks whether every item in a list is `True`. Then, write the same function using `foldr`, this time called `andFold`.

   (c) Write a recursive function `concatRec :: [String] -> String` that puts a list of strings together to form a single string. Then, write a similar function `concatFold` using `foldr`.

   Note: these functions are similar to the library functions `product`, `and` and `concat`, although the prelude `concat` has the more general type `[[a]] -> [a]`.

   (d) (Optional) Write a recursive function `rmCharsRec :: String -> String -> String` that removes all characters in the first string from the second string, using your function `rmChar` from exercise (2b).

   ```
   *Main> rmCharsRec ['a'..'l'] "football"
   "oot"
   ```

   Then, write a second version `rmCharsFold` using `rmChar` and `foldr`.

   Note: this last exercise is quite difficult and should be treated as a 'bonus' question.