#### CS 457/557 Functional Programming

Lecture 5
Polymorphism; Higher-order functions

## Polymorphic Length

"a" is a type variable. It is lowercase to distinguish it from types, which are uppercase.

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

- Polymorphic functions don't "look at" their polymorphic arguments.
- They use the same code now matter what the type of their polymorphic arguments.

#### Polymorphism

```
Consider: tag1 x = (1,x)
> :type tag1
tag1 :: a -> (Int,a)
Other functions have types like this; consider (++)
? :type (++)
(++) :: [a] -> [a]
```

 What are some other polymorphic functions and their types?

```
- id ::
- reverse ::
- head ::
- tail ::
- (:) ::
```

#### Polymorphic data structures

• Polymorphism originates from data structures that don't care what kind of data they store.

```
id :: a -> a
                 -- The ultimate
                 -- polymorphic function
reverse :: [a] -> [a]
                             -- lists
tail :: [a] -> [a]
head :: [a] -> a
(:) :: a -> [a] -> [a]
fst :: (a,b) -> a
                              -- tuples
swap :: (a,b) -> (b,a)
```

 How do we define new data structures with "holes" that can be polymorphic?

#### Maybe is polymorphic

```
data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing
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)
Example of its use:
lookup :: a -> [(a,b)] -> Maybe b
lookup k []
                                    = Nothing
lookup k((k',v):rest) \mid k == k' = Just v
                         otherwise = lookup k rest
```

#### Polymorphism from functions as arguments

• Another source of polymorphism comes from functions which take functions as arguments.

```
applyTwice f x = f(f x)

Main> :t applyTwice
applyTwice :: (a -> a) -> a -> a
```

What's the type of the following useful function?

```
flip f x y = f y x
```

#### Polymorphism: Functions returned as values

• Consider:

```
const x = f
   where f y = x
Main> (const 3) 5
3
  - What's the type of const?
```

• Another Example:

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

- What's the type of compose ?
- Note: Prelude defines compose as an infix operator(f . g) x = f (g x)

# Abstraction Over Recursive Definitions

- Recall some definitions from previous chapters.
- Section 4.1:

```
translist [] = []
transList (p:ps) = trans p : translist ps

• Section 3.1:

putCharList [] = []
putCharList (c:cs) = putChar c : putCharList cs
```

- There is something strongly similar about these definitions. Indeed, the only thing different about them (besides the variable names) is the function **trans** vs. the function **putChar**.
- We can use the abstraction principle to take advantage of this.

#### Abstraction Yields map

- **trans** and **putChar** are what's different; so they should be arguments to the abstracted function.
- In other words, we would like to define a function called map (say) 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
```

• Given this, it is not hard to see that we can redefine transList and putCharList as:

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

#### map is Polymorphic

• The key thing about map is that it is *polymorphic*. Its most general ("principal") type is:

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

- Every use of map has a type that is an *instance* of the principal type (obtained by substituting for a and b).
- For example, since trans :: Vertex -> Point, then map trans :: [Vertex] -> [Point]

```
and this use of map has type
```

```
map :: (Vertex -> Point) -> [Vertex] -> [Point]
```

## Another Pattern: Filtering

• Consider extracting the even numbers from a list:

• Or removing the whitespace from a string:

#### Abstracting to filter

Can define a common function

Now can rewrite

```
evens xs = filter even xs
- or just:
evens = filter even
```

And

```
nowhite = filter (not . whitesp)
```

Recall that (.) represents function composition.

## List comprehensions revisited

Recall some uses of the list comprehension notation

```
putCharList cs = [putChar c | c <- cs]
evens xs = [y | y <- xs, even y]</pre>
```

• Observe that this notation incorporates both map and filter, e.g.

```
putNonWhiteChars cs =
    [putChar c | c <- cs, not (whitesp c)]</pre>
```

- Can easily define map and filter in terms of list comprehenion (try it!)
- Actually, list comprension is defined in terms of map and filter (and a few other things...)

# When to Define Higher-Order Functions

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

```
sum :: [Int] -> Int
sum [] = 0
sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs
and :: [Bool] -> Bool
and [] = True
and (x:xs) = x & and xs
myminimum :: [Int] -> Int
myminimum [] = maxBound
myminimum (x:xs) = x (min) myminimum xs
```

• Note the similarities. Also note the differences (circled), which need to become parameters to the abstracted function.

# When to Define Higher-Order Functions

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

```
sum :: [Int] -> Int
                              Initial
sum []
                              values
sum (x:xs) = x + sum
                      XS
                                Combining ops
and :: [Bool] -> Bool
and []
      = True
and (x:xs) = x & and xs
myminimum :: [Int] → Int 🖟
myminimum []
           = maxBound
myminimum (x:xs) = x (min) myminimum xs
```

• Note the similarities. Also note the differences (circled), which need to become parameters to the abstracted function.

#### Abstracting to foldr

• This leads to:

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

• Note that **foldr** is also *polymorphic*:

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

- We'll see the full power of this polymorphism shortly.
- Previous functions can now be redefined:

```
sum xs = foldr (+) 0 xs
and xs = foldr (&&) True xs
myminimum xs = foldr min maxBound xs
```

#### Visualizing the effect of foldr

• One useful way to think about what **foldr** does is to observe what it does on an arbitrary list written using explicit constructors:

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

• So we can think of **foldr** as taking a list and replacing each (:) by **op** and the final [] by **init**.

```
foldr (+) 0 (1: (2: (3:[]))))
= 1 + (2 + (3 + 0))
```

• The r in foldr is because it "folds from the right".

## Mystery folds

Consider these functions:

```
mystery1 xs = foldr (*) 1 xs

mystery2 xs = foldr k 0 xs
   where k a b = b + 1

mystery3 q xs = foldr k False xs
   where k x b = q x || b

mystery4 = foldr (:) []
```

- What are their types?
- What do they do?

#### Two Folds are Better than One

• In addition to **foldr**, the Haskell Prelude defines another function **foldl** which "folds from the left":

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

- Exercise: define **foldl** using recursion.
- Why two folds? Often they are equivalent, but 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 more efficient than the latter (see textbook).

- In general, one or the other of **foldl** and **foldr** may be more efficient and/or lazier in any given circumstance.
- Choosing between them is non-trivial!

#### 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**; we can redefine **reverse** as:

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

Or just as

```
reverse = foldl (flip (:)) []
```