In praise of Higher Order Functions and of some friends and heroes

Mary Sheeran, Chalmers

Higher order functions aren't just a part of the Haskell experience, they pretty much are the Haskell experience.

http://learnyouahaskell.com/higher-order-functions

1/1 MAPLIST (L,f)

<u>maplist (L,f) constructs a list in free storage whose</u> elements are in 1-1 correspondence with the elements of the list L. The address portion of the element of the new list at J, corresponding to the element at L contains f(car(L)). The value of maplist is the address of the new list.

```
a) "fast" maplist
maplist(L,f)=/L=0→return(0)
```

```
maplist = cons(f(L),0)
```

```
M = maplist
```

```
al L = cdr (L)

cdr(M) = cons(f(L),0)

cdr(L) = 0 \rightarrow return(maplist)

M = cdr(M)
```

```
\go(al)
```

```
b) "slow" maplist
```

 $maplist(L,f) = (L=0 \rightarrow 0, l \rightarrow cons(f(L), maplist(cdr(L), f)))$

Status: Both maplists have been checked out. In compiling, the fast maplist is used, as it saves about 1.3 milliseconds per list element of L. (75 % saving)

March 3, 1959 Author: J. McCarthy

. .

Modification number 7 Makes obsolete: maplist (L,f) constructs a list in free storage whose elements are in 1-1 correspondence with the elements of the list L. The address portion of the element of the new list at J, corresponding to the element at L contains f (car (L)).

> cdr(M) = cons(f(L),0) cdr(L) = 0→return(maplist) M = cdr(M) \go(al) b) "slow" maplist

"slow" maplist maplist (L,f) = (L=0->0,1->cons(f(L),maplist (cdr(L),f)))

> March 3, 1959 Author: J. McCarthy

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> March 3, 1959 Author: J. McCarthy

Modification number 7 Makes obsolete:

```
MAPLIST (L,f)
```

<u>maplist (L,f)</u> constructs a list in free storage whose elements are in 1-1 correspondence with the elements of the list L. The address portion of the element of the new list at J, corresponding to the element at L contains f(L). The value of maplist is the address of the new list.

```
"fast" maplist
     a)
     maplist(L,f)=/L=0->return(0)
                    maplist=cons(f(L),0)
                    M=maplist
                al L=cdr(L)
                    cdr(M)=cons(f(L).0)
                    cdr(L)=0-->return(maplist)
                   M=odr(M)
                  \go(a1)
         "slow maplist"
     b)
     maplist(L,f)=(L=0\rightarrow 0, l\rightarrow cons(f(L), maplist(cdr(L), f)))
                Both maplists have been checked out. In
     Status:
compiling, the fast maplist is used, as it saves about 1.3
milliseconds per list element of L. (75% saving)
```

```
March 20, 1959 Modification number 12
Author: J. McCarthy Makes obsolete: Mod. no. 7
```

5

maplist (L,f) constructs a list in free storage whose elements are in 1-1 correspondence with the elements of the list L. The address portion of the element of the new to corresponding to the element at L contains f (L).

> al L=cdr(L) cdr(M)=cons(f(L),0) cdr(L)=0->return(maplist) M=cdr(M)

"slow" maplist maplist (L,f) = (L=0->0,1 cons(f(L) haplist (cdr(L),f)))

> March 20, 1959 Author: J. McCarthy

Modification number 12 Makes obsolete: Mod. no. 7



though maplist can be used to define map (called mapcar in LISP)

John McCarthy

Turing Award 1971







Ferranti Pegasus 1959 Science Museum London



Christopher Strachey



Renaissance Man



David W. Barron and Christopher Strachey.

Programming.

In Leslie Fox, editor, Advances in Programming and NonNumerical Computation, pages 49–82. Pergammon Press, 1966.



Danvy & Spivey, ICFP 2007

Map

map

*Main> map (*2) [1..8] [2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16]





List iteration (fold)

List iteration (fold)

foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldr f z [] = z
foldr f z (a:as) = f a (foldr f z as)





Main> foldr () 1 [1..8] 40320

Main> foldr () 1 [1..8] 40320

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 : [] 1 * 2 * 3 * 4 * 5 * 6 * 7 * 8 * 1

ap x ls = foldr (:) [x] ls





foldr ap [] ls



ap x l = foldr (:) [x] l
rev l = foldr ap [] l

*Main> rev [1..8] [8,7,6,5,4,3,2,1]

map :: (t -> a) -> [t] -> [a] map g l = foldr f [] l where

$$f x y = g x : y$$



mapa :: (t->a) -> [a] -> [t] -> [a]
mapa g z l = foldr f z l
where

f x y = g x : y

map g l ++ z

Cartesian product

Product [[a, b], [p, q, r], [x, y]]

[[a, p, x], [a, p, y], [a, q, x], [a, q, y], [a, r, x], [a, r, y],
[b, p, x], [b, p, y], [b, q, x], [b, q, y], [b, r, x], [b, r, y]]

Barron and Strachey. 1966. Programming.

introduce h xs xss = product (xs : xss) **p1** product [] = [[]] product (xs : xss) = h xs xss where h [] xss = [] h (x : xs) xss = map (x:) (product xss) ++ h xs xss

introduce h xs xss = product (xs : xss) **p1** product [] = [[]] product (xs : xss) = h xs xss where h [] xss = [] h (x : xs) xss = map (x:) (product xss) ++ h xs xss

f xs (product xss) = h xs xss

p2

```
replace h by f
```

```
product [ ] = [[ ]]
product (xs : xss)
  = f xs (product xss)
  where
    f [ ] yss = [ ]
    f (x : xs) yss
        = map (x:) yss ++ f xs yss
```

f xs (product xss) = h xs xss

p2

```
replace h by f
```

```
product [] = [[]]
product (xs : xss)
  = f xs (product xss)
  where
    f [] yss = []
    f (x : xs) yss
        = map (x:) yss ++ f xs yss
```
f xs (product xss) = h xs xss

pЗ

```
replace h by f
```

```
product [] = [[]]
product (xs : xss)
  = f xs (product xss)
  where
    f [] yss = []
    f (x : xs) yss
        = mapa (x:) (f xs yss) yss
```

р3

product [] = [[]]
product (xs : xss)
= f xs (product xss)
where
f [] yss = []
f (x : xs) yss
= mapa (x:) (f xs yss) yss

product xss = foldr f [[]] xss
where f xs yss = foldr g [] xs
where g x zss = foldr h zss yss
where h ys qss = (x : ys) : qss



APL

An operation (such as summation) which is applied to all components of a vector to produce a result of a simpler structure is called a reduction. The \bigcirc -reduction of a vector x is denoted by /x and defined as $z \leftarrow /x \leftrightarrow z = (... ((x_1 \odot x_2) \odot x_3) \odot ...) \odot x_v),$

where is any binary operator with a suitable domain.



Notation as a Tool of Thought

Kenneth E. Iverson IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center

Turing Award 1979





Can Programming Be Liberated from the von Neumann Style? A Functional Style and Its Algebra of Programs

John Backus IBM Research Laboratory, San Jose



Turing award 1977 Paper 1978 Conventional programming languages are growing ever more enormous, but not stronger. Inherent defects at the most basic level cause them to be both **fat** and weak: their inability to effectively use powerful combining forms for building new programs from existing ones











map (f . g)

foldr f v (map g xs) foldr (f.g) v xs









Example law: "retiming"

























Bird Meertens formalism

Squiggol



J. Functional Programming 9 (4): 355–372, July 1999. Printed in the United Kingdom © 1999 Cambridge University Press

A tutorial on the universality and expressiveness of fold

GRAHAM HUTTON

University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK http://www.cs.nott.ac.uk/-gmh





Universal property of fold

- g [] = v g (x : xs) = f x (g xs)
- g = fold f v

fusion property of fold






h. foldr g w = foldr f v

QuickSpec! Max Algehed Room 3 15.55 today!

QuickSpec! Max Algehed Room 3 15.55 today!

== Laws ==

4. $(f \cdot g) \cdot h = f \cdot (g \cdot h)$

5. map $(f \cdot g) xs = map f (map g xs)$

• • •

9. fold (f . g) x xs = fold f x (map g xs)

Combining forms

capture patterns

support "whole value" programming

enable reasoning by the programmer

Combining forms

capture patterns

support "whole value" programming

enable reasoning by the programmer

and by the Compiler!

DEFORESTATION: TRANSFORMING PROGRAMS TO ELIMINATE TREES *

Philip WADLER

Department of Computer Science, University of Glasgow, Glasgow G12 8QQ, UK

Abstract. An algorithm that transforms programs to eliminate intermediate trees is presented. The algorithm applies to any term containing only functions with definitions in a given syntactic form, and is suitable for incorporation in an optimizing compiler.



Theoretical Computer Science 73 (1990)

```
build :: (forall b. (a->b->b) -> b -> b) -> [a]
build g = g (:) []
{-# RULES
"foldr/build"
   forall k z (g::forall bb. (a->b->b)->b->b) .
   foldr k z (build g) = g k z
#-}
```

Playing by the Rules: Rewriting as a practical optimisation technique in GHC. Peyton Jones, Tolmach, Hoare. Haskell Workshop 2001

foldl



foldl to scanl



*Main> scanl (+) 0 [2,4,6,8,10,12] [0,2,6,12,20,30,42]



Algebraic Identities for Program Calculation

R. S. BIRD

Programming Research Group, University of Oxford, 11 Keble Road, Oxford OX1 3QD



The Computer Journal 32(2) 1989

fold scan fusion

foldl f a . scanl h b

fst . foldl g (f a b, b)

g (u,v) x = (f u w, w)where w = h v x



foldl f a . scanl h b



g(u,v) x = (f u w, w) where w = h v x

mss = definition

max · map sum · segs

- = definition of segs
 - max · map sum · concat · map tails · inits
- = map promotion (7)
 - max · concat · map(map sum) · map tails · inits
- = definition of max and fold promotion (8) max · map max · map (map sum) · map tails · inits
- = map distributivity (3) max · map (max · map sum · tails) · inits
- = Horner's rule, with $x \otimes y = (x+y)\uparrow 0$ max · map (fold (\otimes) 0) · inits
- = scan lemma (12)
 - $\max \cdot scanl(\otimes) 0$
- = fold-scan fusion (13)
 - fst · foldl (⊙) (0, 0)
- where ⊙ is defined by

$$(u, v) \odot x = (u \uparrow w, w)$$
 where $w = (v + x) \uparrow 0$

The Computer Journal 32(2) 1989

mss = definition

max · map sum · segs

- = definition of segs
 - max · map sum · concat · map tails · inits
- = map promotion (7)

max · concat · map(map sum) · map tails · inits

maximum segment sum

the fibonacci of program calculation

scan fusion (13) fst \cdot foldl (\odot) (0, 0) where \odot is defined by (u, v) \odot x = (u \uparrow w, w) where w = (v+x) \uparrow 0

The Computer Journal 32(2) 1989

Maximum segment sum



Maximum segment sum



scan diagram





Kogge & Stone IEEE Transactions on Computers, 1973, C-22

Bitwise Operations

C. STRACHEY, London, England

Recent contributions on the subject of counting the ones or reversing the digits of a binary word have prompted some rather more general observations on bitwise operations which treat each binary digit in a computer word as a separate entity.

If speed is the main consideration and space is no object, it seems clear that the best way of performing these operations is by some form of table look-up. The word is usually divided into sections of a convenient size—e.g., six bits and the operation is then reduced effectively to a simple form of digit by a digit process working in the scale of 64. This effective though rather uninteresting process is equally applicable to any bitwise operation.

Programmers who are used to working with machines with a very small store, however, are reluctant to use a method which seems so crude and which involves using so large a table. It seems therefore of some interest to consider whether it is possible to devise an "efficient" process for bitwise operations. In this context "efficient" is taken to mean a process in which both the space occupied and the time taken are functions which increase only approximately logarithmically with the number of bits in the word. One such process, for counting ones, has been known to exist for some time and is published in the second edition of Wilkes, Wheeler and Gill. The purpose of this note is to indicate how similarly "efficient" processes may be designed for other bitwise operations. As an example let us consider the problem of reversing the bits in a word. The requirement of efficiency means that if we double

the word length we are only allowed one more stage of the operation. As this single stage of operation has to double the amount of information in the answer, it clearly cannot invoke any form of table look-up or simple transformation of the bits of the word. It follows therefore that the final answer must be formed from the bits of the original word by means of some form of shunting or shuffling. Figure 1 shows how this can be done using an 11-bit word.

The word to be shifted (a, b, c, \dots, k) is written in the least significant half of a double length register, and the reversed word which it is desired to obtain $(k'j'i' \cdots a')$ is then derived in the most significant half of the same register. Underneath each digit of the original word is written the number of left shifts which this digit requires to reach its final position. The rows below the shift numbers represent the binary decomposition of these numbers; the reversal can then be carried out by successive shifts of the numbers indicated by the 16, 8, 4, 2 and 1 places. The remaining lines show the various steps of the process.

This operation requires the digits of a double length register to be extracted and shifted. The same effect can be obtained easily in machines with only a single length accumulator by treating separately the two halves of the word to be reversed. Not all rearrangements of the digits of a word are possible by this means because of the possibility of overlapping at some of the intermediate stages. Reversal, however, presents no difficulties. The actual details of the program for any particular computer depend critically on the exact form of the logical operations available. As most computers are designed to perform arithmetic an *not* bitwise operations, these instructions are frequently few and inconvenient with the result that the "efficient" method sometimes turns out to be both more cumbersome and slower than cruder methods.

	•			-																		
											1	3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21	Shift Numb ers
											0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	Shift 16
											0	0	0	0	1	۱	1	1	0	0	0	Shift 8
											0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	Shift 4
											0	1	0	1	0	۱	0	1	0	1	0	Shift 2
											1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	Shift 1
								•	۰		a	Ь	c	d	e	f	g	h	<u>i</u>	i	k	Initial Position
•	•	•	i	i	k		•		•	•	a	Ь	с	d	<u>e</u>	f	<u>9</u>	<u>h</u>	•	•	•	(Shift 16)
•	•	•	i	i	k		e	f	g	ħ	a	b	<u>c</u>	d				•	•	•		(Shift 8)
•	k		i	Ĺ	9	<u>h</u>	e	f	с	<u>d</u>	a	b		•		•	•				•	(Shift 4)
•	k	i	i	h	g	f	e	<u>d</u>	<u>c</u>	b	<u>a</u>	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	(Shift 2)
k	i	i	h	g	f	e	d	c	b	a		•	•	•		•	•	٠	•	•	•	Final Position
												FIG	3. 1									

k'i'i'h'a'f'e'd'c'b'a'a b c d e f a h i i k Initial Position

146 Communications of the ACM

CACM 4(3) March 1961

a b c d e f g h i j k

k j l h g f e d c b a a b c d e f g h i j k

kjlhgfedcbaabcdefghijk



the power of scan

Blelloch

With scan you can do nearly anything!

radix sort, evaluate polynomials, solve recurrences, dynamically allocate processors...

Prefix sums and their applications. CMU-CS-90-190 tech report

GPU



Parallel scan for stream architectures. Merrill & Grimshaw. U. of Virginia 2009

skeletons Murray Cole

capture generic patterns of parallelism



Algorithmic Skeletons: Structured Management of Parallel Computation Murray I. Cole MIT Press 1989 (based on PhD thesis)

skeletons

capture generic patterns of parallelism



González-Vélez and Leyton, A survey of algorithmic skeleton frameworks: high-level structured parallel programming enablers, Software: Practice and Experience 40(12) 2010.

skeletons

closely related to higher order functions





Backus

the question of it still seems that programming is a pretty low-level enterprise, and that somebody ought to be thinking about how to make it higher; really higher level than it is

Help!

Expressing and controlling locality of data

Ensuring security

Ensuring correctness

Controlling power consumption
Help!

Expressing and controlling locality of data

Ensuring securit

Octopi Sale progra Chalmers Information Security (Functional Programmi

31 MSEK (SSF) hiring doctoral students!

Strachey:

It has long been my personal view that the separation of practical and theoretical work is artificial and injurious. Much of the practical work done in computing, both in software and in hardware design, is unsound and clumsy because the people who do it have not any clear understanding of the fundamental design principles of their work. Most of the abstract mathematical and theoretical work is sterile because it has no point of contact with real computing