



## CSE 3302 Programming Languages

### Functional Programming Language: Haskell (cont'd)


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## List Comprehensions

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## List Comprehension

- For list with elements of type in the Enum class (Int, Char, ...)

```
> [1..10]
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

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## Lists Comprehensions


List comprehension can be used to construct new lists from old lists.

In mathematical form  $\{f(x) \mid x \in s \wedge p(x)\}$

```
[x^2 | x <- [1..5]]      i.e., { x^2 | x ∈ [1..10]}
```

The list [1,4,9,16,25] of all numbers  $x^2$  such that  $x$  is an element of the list [1..5].

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## Generators

- The expression  $x \leftarrow [1..5]$  is called a generator, as it states how to generate values for  $x$ .
- Comprehensions can have multiple generators, separated by commas. For example:

```
> [(x,y) | x <- [1..3], y <- [1..2]]
[(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,1), (3,2)]
```

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## Order Matters

- Changing the order of the generators changes the order of the elements in the final list:

```
> [(x,y) | y <- [1..2], x <- [1..3]]
[(1,1), (2,1), (3,1), (1,2), (2,2), (3,2)]
```

- Multiple generators are like nested loops, with later generators as more deeply nested loops whose variables change value more frequently.

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## Dependant Generators



Later generators can depend on the variables that are introduced by earlier generators.

```
[(x,y) | x <- [1..3], y <- [x..3]]
```

The list [(1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(2,2),(2,3),(3,3)]  
of all pairs of numbers (x,y) such that x,y are elements of the list [1..3]  
and  $x \leq y$ .

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Using a dependant generator we can define the library function that concatenates a list of lists:



```
concat  :: [[a]] -> [a]
concat xss = [x | xs <- xss, x <- xs]
```

For example:

```
> concat [[1,2,3],[4,5],[6]]
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

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## Guards



List comprehensions can use guards to restrict the values produced by earlier generators.

```
[x | x <- [1..10], even x]
```

The list [2,4,6,8,10] of all numbers x such that x is an  
element of the list [1..10] and x is even.

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Using a guard we can define a function that maps a positive integer to its list of factors:



```
factors :: Int -> [Int]
factors n = [x | x <- [1..n]
              , n `mod` x == 0]
```

For example:

```
> factors 15
[1,3,5,15]
```

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```
prime :: Int -> Bool
prime n = factors n == [1,n]
```

For example:

```
> prime 15
False
> prime 7
True
```

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```
primes :: Int -> [Int]
primes n = [x | x <- [1..n], prime x]
```


For example:

```
> primes 40
[2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23,29,31,37]
```

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# Recursive Functions

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```
factorial 0 = 1
factorial n = n * factorial (n-1)
```

factorial maps 0 to 1, and any other integer to the product of itself with the factorial of its predecessor.

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For example:



```
factorial 3
= 3 * factorial 2
= 3 * (2 * factorial 1)
= 3 * (2 * (1 * factorial 0))
= 3 * (2 * (1 * 1))
= 3 * (2 * 1)
= 3 * 2
= 6
```

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## Recursion on Lists




Recursion is not restricted to numbers, but can also be used to define functions on lists.

```
product    :: [Int] -> Int
product [] = 1
product (x:xs) = x * product xs
```

product maps the empty list to 1, and any non-empty list to its head multiplied by the product of its tail.

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For example:



```
product [1,2,3]
= product (1:(2:(3:[])))
= 1 * product (2:(3:[]))
= 1 * (2 * product (3:[]))
= 1 * (2 * (3 * product []))
= 1 * (2 * (3 * 1))
= 6
```

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## Quicksort



The quicksort algorithm for sorting a list of integers can be specified by the following two rules:

- ⌘ The empty list is already sorted;
- ⌘ Non-empty lists can be sorted by sorting the tail values  $\leq$  the head, sorting the tail values  $>$  the head, and then appending the resulting lists on either side of the head value.

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**++ is list concatenation**

```

qsort    :: [Int] -> [Int]
qsort [] = []
qsort (x:xs) = qsort [a | a <- xs, a <= x]
             ++
             [x]
             ++
             qsort [b | b <- xs, b > x]

```

☞ This is probably the simplest implementation of quicksort in any programming language!

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## Higher-Order Functions

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## Introduction

A function is called higher-order if it takes a function as an argument or returns a function as a result.

```

twice    :: (a -> a) -> a -> a
twice f x = f (f x)

```

twice is higher-order because it takes a function as its first argument.

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## The Map Function

The higher-order library function called map applies a function to every element of a list.

```

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

```

For example:

```

> map factorial [1,3,5]
[1,6,120]

```

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The map function can be defined in a particularly simple manner using a list comprehension:

```

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

```

Alternatively, for the purposes of proofs, the map function can also be defined using recursion:

```

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

```

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## The Filter Function

The higher-order library function filter selects every element from a list that satisfies a predicate.

```

filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]

```

For example:

```

> filter even [1..10]
[2,4,6,8,10]

```


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Filter can be defined using a list comprehension:

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


Alternatively, it can be defined using recursion:

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



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## The Foldr Function



A number of functions on lists can be defined using the following simple pattern of recursion:

```
f [] = v
f (x:xs) = x ⊕ f xs
```

f maps the empty list to a value v, and any non-empty list to a function ⊕ applied to its head and f of its tail.

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For example:

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


V = 0  
⊕ = +

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

V = 1  
⊕ = \*

```
and [] = True
and (x:xs) = x && and xs
```

V = True  
⊕ = &&




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The higher-order library function `foldr` ("fold right") encapsulates this simple pattern of recursion, with the function ⊕ and the value v as arguments.

For example:

```
sum = foldr (+) 0
product = foldr (*) 1
and = foldr (&&) True
```




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foldr makes ⊕ right-associative  
foldl makes ⊕ left-associative

```
foldr (-) 1 [2,3,4]
foldl (-) 1 [2,3,4]
```

(section 3.3.2 in the tutorial)



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