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Session 8: Lazy evaluation and folds

COMP2221: Functional programming

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- Introduced higher order functions, saw examples map, filter, any, ...
- Functor as a type class for mappable containers
- Functor laws
 - fmap id == id
 - fmap (f . g) == fmap f . fmap g
- Discussed purpose of type class instances for custom data types

data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a) deriving (Eq, Show)

```
instance Functor List where
fmap _ Nil = Nil
fmap f (Cons x xs) = Cons (f x) (fmap f xs)
```

To show fmap id == id, need to show fmap id (Cons x xs) == Cons x xs for any x, xs.

```
-- Induction hypothesis
fmap id xs = xs
-- Base case
-- apply definition
fmap id Nil = Nil
-- Inductive case
fmap id (Cons x xs) = Cons (id x) (fmap id xs)
== Cons x (fmap id xs)
== Cons x xs -- Done!
```

Exercise: check whether the second law holds

Lazy evaluation

How does this work?

Fibonacci sequence

 $F_0 = 0$ $F_1 = 1$ $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

How long?

```
def slow_function(a):
    ... # 5 minute computation
def compute(a, b):
    if a == 0:
       return 1
    else:
       return b
compute(0, slow_function(0))
compute(1, slow_function(1))
```

```
slow function :: Int -> Int
```

fibs = 0 : 1 : zipWith (+) fibs (tail fibs)

Prelude> take 10 fibs
[0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34]

```
-- 5 minute computation

slow_function a = ...

compute :: Int -> Int -> Int

compute a b | a == 0 = 1

| otherwise = b

compute 0 (slow_function 0)
```

compute 1 (slow_function 1)

- Not only is Haskell a pure functional language
- It is also evaluated *lazily*
- Hence, we can work with infinite data structures
- ... and defer computation until such time as it's strictly necessary

Definition (Lazy evaluation)

Expressions are not evaluated when they are bound to variables. Instead, their evaluation is *deferred* until their result is needed by other computations.

Evaluation strategies

- Haskell's basic method of computation is *application* of functions to arguments
- Even here, though we already have some freedom

```
Example

inc :: Int -> Int

inc n = n + 1

inc (2*3)

Two options for the evaluation order

inc (2*3)

= inc 6 -- applying * = (2*3) + 1 -- applying inc

= 6 + 1 -- applying inc = 6 + 1 -- applying *

= 7 -- applying + = 7 -- applying +
```

• As long as all the expression evaluations *terminate*, the order we choose to do things doesn't matter.

Evaluation strategies II

- We can represent a function call and its arguments in Haskell as a graph
- Nodes in the graph are either *terminal* or *compound*. The latter are called *reducible expressions* or *redexes*.



- 1, 2, 3, and 4 are terminal (not reducible) expressions
- (+) and mult are reducible expressions.

- Evaluate "bottom up"
- First evaluate redexes that only contain terminal or *irreducible* expressions, then repeat
- Need to specify evaluation order at leaves. Typically: "left to right"



- Evaluate "top down"
- First evaluate redexes that are outermost, then repeat
- Again, need an evaluation order for children, typically choose "left to right".



- For *finite* expressions, both innermost and outermost evaluation terminate.
- Not so for infinite expressions

Example

```
inf :: Integer
inf = 1 + inf
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
Prelude> fst (0, inf)
```

• Innermost evaluation will fail to terminate here, whereas outermost evaluation produces a result.

Innermost evaluation: never terminates

```
inf :: Integer
inf = 1 + inf
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
Prelude> fst (0, inf)
Prelude> fst (0, 1 + inf) -- applying inf
Prelude> fst (0, 1 + 1 + inf) -- applying inf
...
```

Outermost evaluation: terminates in one step

```
inf :: Integer
inf = 1 + inf
fst :: (a, b) -> a
fst (x, _) = x
Prelude> fst (0, inf)
0 -- applying fst
```

Call by value

- Also called *eager evaluation*
- Innermost evaluation
- Arguments to functions are always fully evaluated before the function is applied
- Each argument is evaluated exactly once
- Evaluation strategy for most imperative languages

Call by name

- Also called lazy evaluation
- Outermost evaluation
- Functions are applied *before* their arguments are evaluated
- Each argument may be evaluated more than once
- Evaluation strategy in Haskell (and others)

• Straightforward implementation of call-by-name can lead to inefficiency in the number of times an argument is evaluated

Example

```
square :: Int -> Int
square n = n * n
Prelude> square (1+2)
== (1 + 2) * (1 + 2) -- applying square
== 3 * (1 + 2) -- applying +
== 3 * 3 -- applying +
== 9
```

- To avoid this, Haskell implements *sharing* of arguments.
- We can think of this as rewriting the evaluation tree into a graph.

Avoiding inefficiences: sharing



Folds: (yet another) family of higher order functions

Folds

- folds process a data structure in some order and build a return value
- Haskell provides a number of these in the standard prelude, with more available in the Data.List module



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fold1: left associative fold



How to think about this

- foldr and foldl are recursive
- However, often easier to think of them non-recursively

foldr

Replace (:) by the given function, and [] by given value.

```
sum [1, 2, 3]
= foldr (+) 0 [1, 2, 3]
= foldr (+) 0 (1:(2:(3:[])))
= 1 + (2 + (3 + 0))
= 6
```

foldl

Same idea, but associating to the left

```
sum [1, 2, 3]
= foldl (+) 0 [1, 2, 3]
= foldl (+) 0 (1:(2:(3:[)))
= (((1 + 2) + 3) + 0)
= 6
```

Purpose of folds

- Capture many linear recursive patterns in a clean way
- $\bullet\,$ Can have efficient library implementation \Rightarrow can apply program optimisations
- Actually apply to all Foldable types, not just lists
- e.g. foldr's type is actually foldr :: Foldable t => (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
- So we can write code for lists and (say) trees identically

Folds are general

- Many library functions on lists are written using folds product = foldr (*) 1 sum = foldr (+) 0 maximum = foldr1 max
- Practical sheet 4 asks you to define some others

Which to choose?

foldr

- Generally foldr is the right choice
- Works even for infinite lists
- Note foldr (:) [] == id
- Can terminate early

foldl

- Can't terminate early
- Doesn't work on infinite lists
- Usually best to use strict version:

```
import Data.List
foldl' -- note trailing '
```

Aside: it is probably a historical accident that foldl is not strict (see http://www.well-typed.com/blog/90/)

$\Rightarrow {\sf CAUTION: foldr and foldl lead to different result if operator f not} \\ {\sf COMP} \\ {\tt COMP} \\ {\tt Supple} \\ {\tt Lazy evaluation and folds} \\ \\ {\sf Comp} \\ {\tt Supple} \\ {\tt Lazy evaluation and folds} \\ \\ {\sf Comp} \\ {\tt Supple} \\ {\tt Supple}$

• Foldable type class: if we can *combine* an a and a b to produce a new b, then, given a start value and a container of as we can reduce it to a b

```
class Foldable f where
  -- minimal definition requires this
  foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> f a -> b
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
  deriving (Eq, Show)
instance Foldable List where
  foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> List a -> b
  foldr _ z Nil = z
  foldr binop z (Cons a tail) = a `binop` (foldList binop z tail)
```

- Introduced the concept of lazy evaluation
- Saw implementation of foldr and foldl
- Introduced and used type class *Foldable* to capture computational pattern *reduction*