

G52CMP: Lecture 2

Review of Haskell: A lightning tour in 50 minutes

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Example (1)

Summing the integers from 1 to 10 in Java:

```
total = 0;
for (i = 1; i <= 10; ++i)
    total = total + 1;
```

The method of computation is to **execute operations in sequence**, in particular **variable assignment**.

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What is a Functional Language

Hard to give a precise definition, but generally speaking:

- Functional programming is a **style** of programming in which the basic method of computation is functions application.
- A functional language is one that **supports** and **encourages** the functional style.

However, higher-order functions and the possibility to treat functions as data are commonly accepted criteria.

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Example (2)

Summing the integers from 1 to 10 in Haskell:

```
sum [1..10]
```

The method of computation is **function application**.

Of course, essentially the same program could be written in Java, but:

- it would be far more verbose
- for most purposes, it wouldn't be a "good" Java program: this is simply not how one programs in Java.

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Function Application (1)

In mathematics, function application is denoted using parentheses, and multiplication is often denoted using juxtaposition or space.

$$f(a,b) + c d$$

“Apply the function f to a and b , and add the result to the product of c and d .”

Function Application (3)

Moreover, function application is assumed to have **higher priority** than all other operators. For example:

$$f a + b$$

means

$$(f a) + b$$

not

$$f (a + b)$$

Function Application (2)

In Haskell, **function application** is denoted using **space**, and multiplication is denoted using *****.

$$f a b + c*d$$

Meaning as before, but Haskell syntax.

What is a Type?

A **type** is a name for a collection of related values. For example, in Haskell the basic type

`Bool`

contains the two logical values

`False`

`True`

Types in Haskell

- If evaluating an expression e would produce a value of type t , then e has type t , written
$$e :: t$$
- Every well-formed expression has a type, which can be automatically calculated at compile time using a process called **type inference** or **type reconstruction**.
- However, giving manifest type declarations for at least top-level definitions is good practice.

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List Types

A **list** is sequence of values of the **same** type:

```
[False, True, False] :: [Bool]
```

```
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd'] :: [Char]
```

In general:

$[t]$ is the type of lists with elements of type t .

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Basic Types

Haskell has a number of **basic types**, including:

Bool	Logical values
Char	Single characters
String	Strings of characters
Int	Fixed-precision integers

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Tuple Types

A tuple is a sequence of values of **different** types:

```
(False, True) :: (Bool, Bool)
```

```
(False, 'a', True) :: (Bool, Char, Bool)
```

In general:

(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) is the type of n -tuples whose i^{th} component has type t_i for $i \in [1 \dots n]$.

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Function Types (1)

A **function** is a mapping from values of one type to values of another type:

```
not :: Bool -> Bool
```

In general:

$t_1 \rightarrow t_2$ is the type of functions that map values of type t_1 to values to type t_2 .

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Polymorphic Functions (1)

A function is called **polymorphic** (“of many forms”) if its type contains one or more type variables.

```
length :: [a] -> Int
```

“For any type a , `length` takes a list of values of type a and returns an integer.”

This is called **Parametric Polymorphism**.

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Function Types (2)

If a function needs more than one argument, pass a tuple, or use **currying**:

```
(&&) :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
```

This really means:

```
(&&) :: Bool -> (Bool -> Bool)
```

Idea: arguments are applied one by one. This allows **partial application**.

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Polymorphic Functions (2)

The type signature of `length` is really:

```
length :: forall a . [a] -> Int
```

- It is understood that a is a type variable, and thus it ranges over all possible types.
- Haskell 98 does not allow explicit `forall`s: all type variables are implicitly qualified at the outermost level.
- Haskell extensions allow explicit `forall`s.

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Types are Central in Haskell

Types in Haskell play a much more central role than in many other languages. Two reasons:

- Haskell's type system is very expressive thanks to Parametric Polymorphism:
`(++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]`
- The types say a *lot* about what functions do because Haskell is a pure language: no side effects (Referential Transparency)

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Pattern Matching (1)

Many functions have a particularly clear definition using *pattern matching* on their arguments:

```
not :: Bool -> Bool
not False = True
not True  = False
```

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Conditional Expressions

As in most programming languages, functions can be defined using *conditional expressions*:

```
abs :: Int -> Int
abs n = if n >= 0 then n else -n
```

Alternatively, such a function can be defined using *guards*:

```
abs :: Int -> Int
abs n | n >= 0      = n
      | otherwise  = -n
```

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Pattern Matching (2)

Case expressions allow pattern matching to be performed wherever an expression is allowed, not just at the top-level of a function definition:

```
not :: Bool -> Bool
not b = case b of
          False -> True
          True  -> False
```

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List Patterns (1)

Internally, every non-empty list is constructed by repeated use of an operator (`:`) called “**cons**” that adds an element to the start of a list, starting from `[]`, the **empty list**.

Thus:

```
[1,2,3,4]
```

means

```
1:(2:(3:(4:[])))
```

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Lambda Expressions

A function can be constructed without giving it a name by using a **lambda expression**:

```
\x -> x + 1
```

“The nameless function that takes a number `x` and returns the result `x + 1`”

Note that the ASCII character `\` stands for `λ` (lambda).

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List patterns (2)

Functions on lists can be defined using `x:xs` patterns:

```
head :: [a] -> a
head (x:_) = x
```

```
tail :: [a] -> [a]
tail (_:xs) = xs
```

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Why Are Lambda's Useful?

Lambda expressions can be used to give a formal meaning to functions defined using **currying**.

For example:

```
add x y = x+y
```

means

```
add = \x -> (\y -> x+y)
```

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Recursive Functions (1)

In Haskell, functions can also be defined in terms of themselves. Such functions are called *recursive*. For example:

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

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Why Is Recursion Useful?

- Some functions, such as factorial, are *simpler* to define in terms of other functions.
- As we shall see, however, many functions can *naturally* be defined in terms of themselves.
- Properties of functions defined using recursion can be proved using the simple but powerful mathematical technique of *induction*.

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Recursive Functions (2)

Why does this work? Well, consider:

```
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 (1)

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

```
product :: [Int] -> Int
product []       = 1
product (n:ns) = n * product ns
```

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Recursion on Lists (2)

```
product [2,3,4]
= 2 * product [3,4]
= 2 * (3 * product [4])
= 2 * (3 * (4 * product []))
= 2 * (3 * (4 * 1))
= 24
```

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Data Declarations (2)

What happens is:

- A new type `Bool` is introduced
- **Constructors** (functions to build values of the type) are introduced:

```
False :: Bool
True  :: Bool
```

(In this case, just constants.)

- Since constructor functions are bijective, and thus in particular injective, pattern matching can be used to take apart values of defined types.

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Data Declarations (1)

A new type can be declared by specifying its set of values using a **data declaration**. For example, `Bool` is in principle defined as:

```
data Bool = False | True
```

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Data Declarations (3)

Values of new types can be used in the same ways as those of built in types. E.g., given:

```
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
```

we can define:

```
answers :: [Answer]
answers = [Yes, No, Unknown]
```

```
flip :: Answer -> Answer
flip Yes      = No
flip No       = Yes
flip Unknown  = Unknown
```

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Recursive Types (1)

In Haskell, new types can be declared in terms of themselves. That is, types can be *recursive*:

```
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
```

Nat is a new type with constructors

-
- Zero :: Nat
- Succ :: Nat -> Nat

Effectively, we get both a new way form terms and typing rules for these new terms.

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Recursion and Recursive Types

Using recursion, it is easy to define functions that convert between values of type Nat and Int:

```
nat2int :: Nat -> Int
nat2int Zero      = 0
nat2int (Succ n) = 1 + nat2int n
```

```
int2nat :: Int -> Nat
int2nat 0      = Zero
int2nat n | n >= 1 = Succ (int2nat (n - 1))
```

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Recursive Types (2)

A value of type Nat is either Zero, or of the form Succ n where n :: Nat. That is, Nat contains the following infinite sequence of values:

Zero

Succ Zero

Succ (Succ Zero)

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Parameterized Types

Types can also be parameterized on other types:

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

```
data Tree a = Leaf a
             | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)
```

Resulting constructors:

Nil :: List a

Cons :: a -> List a -> List a

Leaf :: a -> Tree a

Node :: Tree a -> Tree a -> Tree a

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