MGS 2005 Functional Reactive Programming

Lecture 2: Yampa Basics

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Recap: The arrow framework (1)

The following two Haskell type classes capture the notion of an arrow and of an arrow supporting feedback:

class Arrow a where

arr :: (b -> c) -> a b c (>>>) :: a b c -> a c d -> a b d first :: a b c -> a (b,d) (c,d)

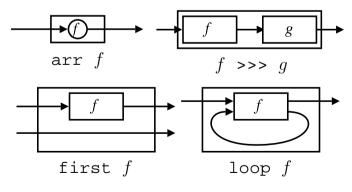
class Arrow a => ArrowLoop a where
 loop :: a (b, d) (c, d) -> a b c

Outline

- Recap
- Notes on yesterday's exerceises
- Point-free vs. pointed programming: the arrow do-notation
- Basic Yampa programming

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Recap: The arrow framework (2)



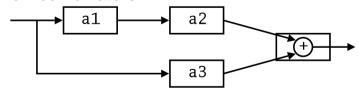
arr, >>>, first, and loop are sufficient to express any conceivable "wiring"!

Recap: Further arrow combinators (1)

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Exercise 3: One solution

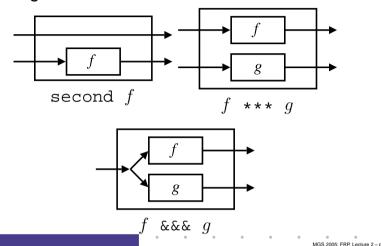
Exercise 3: Describe the following circuit using arrow combinators:



a1, a2, a3 :: A Double Double

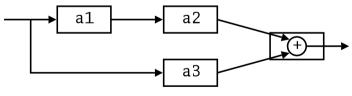
Recap: Further arrow combinators (2)

As diagrams:



Exercise 3: Another solution

Exercise 3: Describe the following circuit:



a1, a2, a3 :: A Double Double

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Exercise 4: Solution

Exercise 4: Suggest definitions of second, (***), and (&&&).

```
second :: Arrow a => a b c -> a (d,b) (d,c)
second f = arr swap >>> first f >>> arr swap
swap (x,y) = (y,x)

(***) :: Arrow a =>
    a b c -> a d e -> a (b,d) (c,e)
f *** g = first f >>> second g

(&&&) :: Arrow a => a b c -> a b d -> a b (c,d)
f &&& g = arr (\x->(x,x)) >>> (f *** g)
```

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Note on the definition of (***) (2)

Similarly

$$(f * * * g) >>> (h * * k) \neq (f >>> h) * * (g >>> g)$$

since the order of f and g differs.

However, the following *is* true (an additional arrow law):

first f >>> second (arr g)= second (arr g) >>> first f

Note on the definition of (***) (1)

Are the following two definitions of (***) equivalent?

- f *** g = first f >>> second g
- f *** g = second g >>> first f

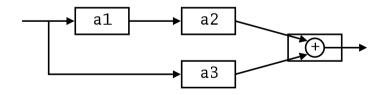
No, in general

first f >>> second $g \neq$ second g >>> first f

since the *order* of the two possibly effectful computations f and g are different.

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Yet an attempt at exercise 3



Are circuit_v1, circuit_v2, and circuit_v3 all equivalent?

Point-free vs. pointed programming

What we have seen thus far is an example of **point-free** programming: the values being manipulated are not given any names.

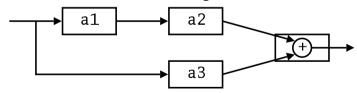
This is often appropriate, especially for small definitions, and it facilitates equational reasoning as shown by Bird & Meertens (Bird 1990).

However, large programs are much better expressed in a *pointed* style, where names can be given to values being manipulated.

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The arrow do notation (2)

Let us redo exercise 3 using this notation:



The arrow do notation (1)

Ross Paterson's do-notation for arrows supports **pointed** arrow programming. Only **syntactic sugar**.

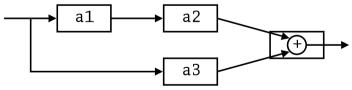
$$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{proc}\; pat \; -> \; \operatorname{do}\left[\;\operatorname{rec}\;\right] \\ pat_1 <- \; sfexp_1 \; -< \; exp_1 \\ pat_2 <- \; sfexp_2 \; -< \; exp_2 \\ \dots \\ pat_n <- \; sfexp_n \; -< \; exp_n \\ \operatorname{returnA} \; -< \; exp \end{array}$$

Also: let pat = exp $\equiv pat <- arr id -< exp$

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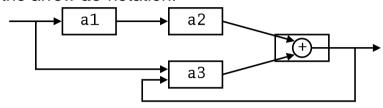
The arrow do notation (3)

We can also mix and match:



The arrow do notation (4)

Exercise 5: Describe the following circuit using the arrow do-notation:



a1, a2 :: A Double Double
a3 :: A (Double, Double) Double

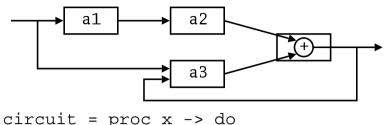
Exercise 6: As 5, but directly using only the arrow combinators.

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Some More Reading

- Richard S. Bird. A calculus of functions for program derivation. In Research Topics in Functional Programming, Addison-Wesley, 1990.
- Ross Paterson. A New Notation for Arrows. In Proceedings of the 2001 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Functional Programming, pp. 229–240, Firenze, Italy, 2001.

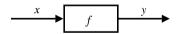
Solution exercise 5



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Recap: Signal functions (1)

Key concept: functions on signals.



Intuition:

 $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Signal} \ \alpha \ \approx \ \operatorname{Time} \rightarrow \alpha \\ \operatorname{SF} \ \alpha \ \beta \ \approx \ \operatorname{Signal} \ \alpha \ \rightarrow \ \operatorname{Signal} \ \beta \\ x \ \colon \colon \operatorname{Signal} \ \operatorname{T1} \\ y \ \colon \colon \operatorname{Signal} \ \operatorname{T2} \\ f \ \colon \colon \operatorname{SF} \ \operatorname{T1} \ \operatorname{T2} \end{array}$

SF is an instance of Arrow and ArrowLoop.

Recap: Signal functions (2)

Additionally, *causality* required: output at time t must be determined by input on interval [0, t].

Signal functions are said to be

- pure or stateless if output at time t only depends on input at time t
- *impure* or *stateful* if output at time t depends on input over the interval [0, t].

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Some basic signal functions (2)

- iPre :: a -> SF a a
- (^<<) :: (b->c) -> SF a b -> SF a c f (^<<) sf = sf >>> arr f
- time :: SF a Time

Quick Exercise: Define time!

time = constant 1.0 >>> integral

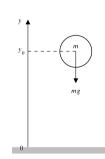
Some basic signal functions (1)

- identity :: SF a a identity = arr id
- constant :: b -> SF a b
 constant b = arr (const b)
- integral :: VectorSpace a s=>SF a a It is defined through:

$$y(t) = \int_{0}^{t} x(\tau) \, \mathrm{d}\tau$$

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A bouncing ball



$$y = y_0 + \int v \, \mathrm{d}t$$
$$v = v_0 + \int -9.81$$

On impact:

$$v = -v(t-)$$

(fully elastic collision)

Modelling the bouncing ball: part 1

Free-falling ball:

```
type Pos = Double

type Vel = Double

fallingBall ::
    Pos -> Vel -> SF () (Pos, Vel)

fallingBall y0 v0 = proc () -> do
    v <- (v0 +) ^<< integral -< -9.81
    y <- (y0 +) ^<< integral -< v
    returnA -< (y, v)</pre>
```

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Some basic event sources

```
never :: SF a (Event b)
now :: b -> SF a (Event b)
after :: Time -> b -> SF a (Event b)
repeatedly ::
        Time -> b -> SF a (Event b)
edge :: SF Bool (Event ())
```

Events

Conceptually, *discrete-time* signals are only defined at discrete points in time, often associated with the occurrence of some *event*.

Yampa models discrete-time signals by lifting the *range* of continuous-time signals:

```
data Event a = NoEvent | Event a Discrete-time\ signal = Signal\ (Event\ \alpha).
```

Associating information with an event occurrence:

```
tag:: Event a -> b -> Event b
```

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Stateful event suppression

```
• notYet :: SF (Event a) (Event a)
```

• once :: SF (Event a) (Event a)

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Modelling the bouncing ball: part 2

Detecting when the ball goes through the floor:

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The basic switch (1)

Idea:

- Allows one signal function to be replaced by another.
- Switching takes place on the first occurrence of the switching event source.

```
switch ::
    SF a (b, Event c)
    -> (c -> SF a b)
    -> SF a b
```

Switching

Q: How and when do signal functions "start"?

- A: **Switchers** "apply" a signal functions to its input signal at some point in time.
 - This creates a "running" signal function instance.
 - The new signal function instance often replaces the previously running instance.

Switchers thus allow systems with *varying structure* to be described.

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The basic switch (2)

Exercise 7: Define an event counter countFrom

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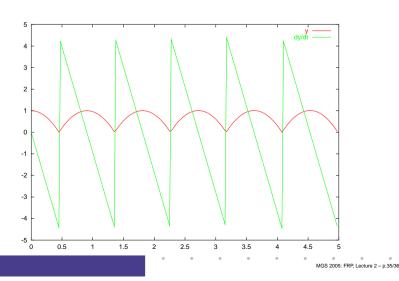
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Solution exercise 7

```
countFrom :: Int -> SF (Event a) Int
countFrom n =
    switch
        (constant n
        &&& arr (\e -> e 'tag' (n+1)))
        countFrom
```

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Simulation of bouncing ball



Modelling the bouncing ball: part 3

Making the ball bounce:

```
bouncingBall :: Pos -> SF () (Pos, Vel)
bouncingBall y0 = bbAux y0 0.0
  where
    bbAux y0 v0 =
       switch (fallingBall' y0 v0) $ \((y,v) -> bbAux y (-v))
```

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Modelling using impulses

From a modelling perspective, using a device like switch to model the interaction between the ball and the floor may seem rather unnatural.

A more appropriate account of what is going on is that an *impulsive* force is acting on the ball for a short time.

This can be abstracted into *Dirac Impulses*: impulses that act instantaneously. See

Henrik Nilsson. Functional Automatic Differentiation with Dirac Impulses. In *Proceedings of ICFP 2003*.

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