

G52CMP: Lecture 2

Review of Haskell: A lightening tour in 50 minutes

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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.

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**.

Example (2)

Summing the integers from 1 to 10 in Haskell:

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

The method of computation is *function application*.

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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.

This Lecture

- First steps
- Types in Haskell
- Defining functions
- Recursive functions
- Declaring types

The GHC System (1)

- GHC supports Haskell 98 and many extensions
- GHC is currently the most advanced Haskell system available
- GHC is a compiler, but can also be used interactively: ideal for serious development as well as teaching and prototyping purposes

The GHC System (2)

On a Unix system, GHCi can be started from the ghci:

```
isis-1% ghci
```

```
  _      _      _
 / _ \  / \    / \  _(_)
 / /_\\ / _/  / /  | |
 / /_\\ \__ / /__| |
 \___/\ \ / _/\___/|_|
```

```
GHC Interactive, version 6.3, for Haskell 98.
http://www.haskell.org/ghc/
Type :? for help.
```

```
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Prelude>
```

The GHC System (3)

The GHCi > prompt means that the GHCi system is ready to evaluate an expression.

For example:

```
> 2+3*4  
14
```

```
> reverse [1,2,3]  
[3,2,1]
```

```
> take 3 [1,2,3,4,5]  
[1,2,3]
```

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 (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.

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

$$f \ (a \ + \ b)$$

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.

Basic Types

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

<code>Bool</code>	Logical values
<code>Char</code>	Single characters
<code>String</code>	Strings of characters
<code>Int</code>	Fixed-precision integers

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 .

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 $i \in [1 \dots n]$.

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 .

Function Types (2)

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

$$(\&\&) :: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$$

This really means:

$$(\&\&) :: \text{Bool} \rightarrow (\text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool})$$

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

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**.

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.

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:

$$(++) :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

- The types say a *lot* about what functions do because Haskell is a pure language: no side effects (Referential Transparency)

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
```

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
```

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
```

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 : [])))

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
```

Lambda Expressions

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

$$\backslash x \rightarrow x + 1$$

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

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

Why Are Lambda's Useful?

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

For example:

$$\text{add } x \ y = x+y$$

means

$$\text{add} = \lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda y \rightarrow x+y)$$

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)
```


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
```

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**.

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
```

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
```

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
```

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.

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
```

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.

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)`

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))
```

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
```