

# Functional programming, Seminar No. 4

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# Intro

On the previous seminar, we

- introduced parametric polymorphism
- discussed type classes and their examples (Show, Eq, Ord, etc)

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- introduced parametric polymorphism
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Today, we

- study pattern matching and such type constructions as algebraic data types, new types, type synonyms, and records
- learn folds
- talk about lazy evaluation enforcing more systematically

# Pattern matching

Let us take a look at the following functions:

```
1  swap :: (a, b) -> (b, a)
2  swap (a, b) = (b, a)
3
4  length :: [a] -> Int
5  length [] = 0
6  length (x : xs) = 1 + length xs
```

# Pattern matching

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- In such calls as `swap (45, True)` or `length [1,2,3]`, we deal with *pattern matching*

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- Expressions like  $(a, b)$ ,  $[]$ , and  $(x : xs)$  are often called patterns
- In such calls as `swap (45, True)` or `length [1,2,3]`, we deal with *pattern matching*
- One needs to check that constructors  $(,)$  and  $( : )$  are relevant.
- In the call `swap (45, True)`, variables  $a$  and  $b$  are bound with the values 45 and True.
- In the call `length [1,2,3]`, variables  $x$  and  $xs$  are bound with the values 1 and  $[2,3]$

## Algebraic data types. Enumerations

- The simplest example of an algebraic data type is a data type defined with an enumeration of constructors that stores no values.

```
1 data Colour = Red | Blue | Green | Purple | Yellow
2   deriving (Show, Eq)
```

- The example of pattern matching for this data type

```
1 isRGB :: Colour -> Bool
2 isRGB Red = True
3 isRGB Blue = True
4 isRGB Green = True
5 isRGB _ = False      -- Wild-card
```

## Algebraic data types. Products

- The example of a product data type:

```
1 data Point = Point Double Double
2   deriving Show
```

```
1 > :type Point
2 Point :: Double -> Double -> Point
```

- The example of a function

```
1 taxCab :: Point -> Point -> Double
2 taxCab (Point x1 y1) (Point x2 y2) =
3   abs (x1 - x2) + abs (y1 - y2)
```

- The example in a GHCi session

```
1 > taxCab (Point 3.0 5.0) (Point 7.0 9.0)
2 8.0
```



# Polymorphic data types

- The point data type might be parametrised with a polymorphic type:

```
1  data Point a = Point a a
2  deriving Show
```

```
1  data Point a = Pt a a
2  deriving Show
```

- The type of the Point constructor

```
1  > :type Point
2  Point :: a -> a -> Point a
```

- Point is a type operator. One also has a type (kind) system for type operators:

```
1  > :k Point
2  Point :: * -> *
```

## Polymorphic data types and type classes

- Suppose we have a function:

```
1  midPoint :: Fractional a => Point a -> Point a -> Point a
2  midPoint (Pt x1 y1) (Pt x2 y2) = Pt ((x1 + x2) / 2) ((y1 + y2) / 2)
```

- Playing with GHCi:

```
1  > :t midPoint (Pt 3 5) (Pt 6 4)
2  midPoint (Pt 3 5) (Pt 6 4) :: Fractional a => Point a
3  > midPoint (Pt 3 5) (Pt 6 4)
4  Pt 4.5 4.5
5  > :t it
6  it :: Fractional a => Point a
```

## Polymorphic data types and type classes

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- Playing with GHCi:

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1 > :t midPoint (Pt 3 5) (Pt 6 4)
2 midPoint (Pt 3 5) (Pt 6 4) :: Fractional a => Point a
3 > midPoint (Pt 3 5) (Pt 6 4)
4 Pt 4.5 4.5
5 > :t it
6 it :: Fractional a => Point a
```

- The type of point is a polymorphic itself. But one needs to use ad hoc polymorphism (the `Fractional` context) to apply division.
- On the other hand, polymorphism here is ambiguous. The fractional type is `Double` by default. Haskell has a defaulting mechanism for numerical data types

## Inductive data types

- The list is the first example of an inductive data type

```
1  data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
2      deriving Show
```

- Data constructors are `Nil :: List a` and `Cons :: a -> List a -> List a`
- The processing of such data types: pattern matching and recursion

```
1  concat :: List a -> List a -> List a
2  concat Nil ys = ys
3  concat (Cons x xs) ys = Cons x (xs 'concat' ys)
```

- The GHCi session:

```
1  > x = Cons 'a' (Cons 'b' Nil)
2  > y = Cons 'c' (Cons 'd' Nil)
3  > concat x y
4  Cons 'a' (Cons 'b' (Cons 'c' (Cons 'd' Nil)))
```

## Standard lists

- The list data type is a default one, but its approximate definition is the following one:

```
1  infixr 5 :  
2  data [] a = [] | a : ([] a)  
3      deriving Show
```

- Some syntax sugar

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

- The example of a definition with built-in lists:

```
1  infixr 5 ++  
2  (++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]  
3  (++) []      ys = ys  
4  (++) (x:xs) ys = x : xs ++ ys
```

## case ... of ... expressions

- case ... of ... expressions allows one to perform pattern matching everywhere

```
1  filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
2  filter p [] = []
3  filter p (x : xs) =
4      case p x of
5          True -> x : filter p xs
6          False -> filter p xs
```

- The pattern matching from the previous slide is a syntax sugar for the corresponding case ... of ... expression

## Semantical aspects of pattern matching

- Pattern matching is performed from up to down and from left to right after that.
- Pattern matching is either
  - succeed
  - or failed
  - or diverged

- Here is an example:

```
1    foo (1,4) = 7
2    foo (0,_) = 8
```

- $(0, \text{undefined})$  fails in the first case and it's succeed in the second one
- $(\text{undefined}, 0)$  is diverged automatically
- $(2,1)$  is a diverged pattern
- What about  $(1,7-3)$ ?

## As-patterns

- Suppose we have the following function

```
1  dupHead :: [a] -> [a]
2  dupHead (x : xs) = x : x : xs
```

- One may rewrite this function as follows:

```
1  dupHead :: [a] -> [a]
2  dupHead s@(x : xs) = x : s
```

- Here, the name  $s$  is assigned to the whole pattern  $x : xs$
- In fact, such a construction is a syntax sugar for the following one. It is not so hard to ensure that both functions have the same behaviour

```
1  dupHead :: [a] -> [a]
2  dupHead (x : xs) =
3    let s = (x : xs) in x : s
```



# Irrefutable patterns

- Irrefutable patterns are wild-cards, variables, and lazy patterns
- The example of a lazy pattern:

```
1 > (***) f g (a,b) = (f a, g b)
2 > (const 2 *** const 1) undefined
3 *** Exception: Prelude.undefined
4 > (***) f g ~(a,b) = (f a, g b)
5 > const 2 *** const 1 $ undefined
6 (2,1)
```

## The newtype and type declarations

- The keyword `type` allows one to introduce type synonyms. The example given

```
1  type String = [Char]
```

- In Haskell, the string data type `type` is merely a type synonym for the list of characters
- The keyword `newtype` defined a new type with the single constructor that packs an existing types

```
1  newtype Age = Age Int
```

- The same type `Age` defined with the equipped function `runAge`

```
1  newtype Age = Age { runAge :: Int }
```

- The type of `runAge`

```
1  > :t runAge
2  runAge :: Age -> Int
```

## Field labels

- Sometimes product data types are too cumbersome:

```
1    data Person = Person String String Int Float String
```

- As an alternative, one may define a data type with field labels

```
1    data Person =  
2      Person { firstName :: String  
3              , lastName  :: String  
4              , age       :: Int  
5              , height   :: Float  
6              , phoneNumber :: String  
7              }
```

- Such a data type is a record with accessors, e.g. `firstName :: Person -> String`
- In fact, this data type is a product with accessor function

## Field labels and type classes

- Let us recall the Eq type class once more

```
1  class Eq a where
2      (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
3      (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
4
5  instance Eq Int where
6      x == y = x `eqInt` y
7
8  isZero :: Int -> Bool
9  isZero x = if x == 0 then True else False
```

- In fact, type classes are syntax sugar for records defined with field labels
- The constraint Eq a is an additional argument

## Field labels and type classes

- The previous listing has the following meaning (very roughly):

```
1  data Eq a =  
2      Eq { eq :: a -> a -> Bool  
3          , neq :: a -> a -> Bool  
4          }  
5  
6  intInstance :: Eq Int  
7  intInstance = Eq eqInt (\x y -> not $ x 'eqInt' y)  
8  
9  isZero :: Int -> Bool  
10 isZero x = if (eq eqInstance) x 0 then True else False
```

## Some of standard algebraic data types

- The `Maybe` a data type allows one to define an optional value:

```
1  data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
2
3  maybe :: b -> (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> b
4  maybe b _ Nothing = b
5  maybe b f (Just x) = f x
```

- The simple example given

```
1  safeHead :: [a] -> Maybe a
2  safeHead [] = Nothing
3  safeHead (x : _) = Just x
```

```
1  \item The GHCi session:
2  > maybe (maxBound :: Int) (+ 176) (safeHead [])
3  9223372036854775807
4  > maybe (maxBound :: Int) (+ 176) (safeHead [1..1500])
5  177
```

## Some of standard algebraic data types

- The `Either` data type describes one or the other value

```
1  data Either e a = Left e | Right a
2
3  either :: (a -> c) -> (b -> c) -> Either a b -> c
4  either f _ (Left x) = f x
5  either _ g (Right x) = g x
```

- The example given:

```
1  safeTail :: [a] -> Either String [a]
2  safeTail [] = Left "I have no tail, mate"
3  safeTail (_ : xs) = Right xs
```

- The GHCi example

```
1  > either id (map succ) (safeTail [])
2  "I have no tail, mate"
3  > either id (map succ) (safeTail "\USdmbqxos\USld+\USokd'rd")
4  "encrypt me, please"
```





# Strictness in Haskell. The seq function

# Strictness in Haskell. The strict application

# Strictness in Haskell. Bang patterns