# Functional programming, Seminar No. 3

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#### Intro

#### On the previous seminar, we

- studied the basic Haskell syntax
- introduced the notion of a weak head normal form to describe the operatonal semantics of Haskell
- analysed the regrettable cicrumstances according to which Haskell doesn't have the Church-Rosser property as a system of typed lambda calculus

#### Intro

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- studied the basic Haskell syntax
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- analysed the regrettable cicrumstances according to which Haskell doesn't have the Church-Rosser property as a system of typed lambda calculus

#### Today we

- investigate the Haskell type system more deeply and overview the advantages of parametric polymorphism
- take a look at bounded polymorphism and discuss type classes

#### Motivation

Let us recall the example of a higher order function from the previous seminar:

- $_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$  changeTwiceBy ::  $(\mathbf{Int} -> \mathbf{Int}) -> \mathbf{Int} -> \mathbf{Int}$
- changeTwiceBy operation value = operation (operation value)

It is clear that one may implement the function for Boolean values and strings that have the same behaviour as the function above:

- $_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$  changeTwiceByBool :: (Bool -> Bool) -> Bool -> Bool
- changeTwiceByBool operation value = operation (operation value)
- changeTwiceByString :: (String -> String) -> String -> String
  - changeTwiceByString operation value = operation (operation value)

#### Motivation

Let us recall the example of a higher order function from the previous seminar:

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It is clear that one may implement the function for Boolean values and strings that have the same behaviour as the function above:

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- changeTwiceByBool operation value = operation (operation value)
- changeTwiceByString :: (String -> String) -> String -> String
- ${}_{\scriptscriptstyle{5}}\quad \text{changeTwiceByString operation value} = \text{operation (operation value)}$

One needs to have a way to avoid such a boilerplate.

#### Parametric polymorphism

The key idea of parametric polymorphism that the same function might be called on distinct data types. Here are the first polymorphic examples:

```
id :: a -> a
    id \times = \times
     const :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a
     const a b = a
     fst :: (a, b) \rightarrow a
    fst (a, b) = a
     snd :: (a. b) \rightarrow b
     \mathbf{snd} = "guess what"
11
12
     swap :: (a, b) -> (b, a)
     swap (a, b) = (b, a)
```

#### The meme time



#### The functions above in the GHCi session

```
Prelude> id 7
Prelude> id "strina"
"string"
Prelude> const 7 "string"
Prelude> const "string" 7
"string"
Prelude> fst (7, 'k')
Prelude> snd (7, 'k')
'k'
Prelude> fst (swap (7, 'k'))
'k'
```

#### A brief clarification

- In such signatures as  $a \to b \to a$ , a, b are type variables that range over arbitrary data types. In fact, a, b are bounded by universal quantifier that hidden under the carpet.
- In a matter of fact, the functions from the previous slide have the following signatures:

```
id :: forall a. a -> a
id x = x

const :: forall a b. a -> b -> a
const a b = a

fst :: forall a b. (a, b) -> a
fst (a, b) = a

swap :: forall a b. (a, b) -> (b, a)
swap (a, b) = (b, a)
```

## Higher order functions and parametric polymorpism

```
infixr 9.
(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
g = x - f(g x)
    flip :: (a -> b -> c) -> b -> a -> c
   flip f b a = f a b
   fix :: (a -> a) -> a
    fix = error "this is your homework"
10
    curry :: ((a, b) -> c) -> a -> b -> c
    \operatorname{\mathbf{currv}} f \times v = f(x, v)
13
    uncurry :: (a -> b -> c) -> ((a, b) -> c)
    uncurry f p = f (fst p) (snd p)
```

### The functions above in the GHCi session. The composition examples

```
incNegate :: Int -> Int
incNegate x = negate (x + 1)

incNegate x = negate $ x + 1

incNegate x = (negate . (+1)) x

incNegate x = negate . (+1) $ x

incNegate x = negate . (+1)
```

## The functions above in the GHCi session. curry and uncurry

```
Prelude> uncurry (+) (3,4)
Prelude> curry fst 3 4
Prelude> curry snd 3 4
Prelude> curry id 3 4
(3,4)
Prelude> uncurry const (3,4)
Prelude> uncurry (flip const) (3,4)
```

## The functions above in the GHCi session. The flip example

```
show2 :: Int -> Int -> String
show2 x y = show x ++ " and " ++ show y

showSnd, showFst, showFst' :: Int -> String
showSnd = show2 1
showFst = flip show2 2
showFst' = ('show2' 2)
```

## The functions above in the GHCi session. The flip example

```
show2 :: Int -> Int -> String
show2 x y = show x ++ " and " ++ show y

showSnd, showFst, showFst' :: Int -> String
showSnd = show2 1
showFst = flip show2 2
showFst' = ('show2' 2)
```

Prelude> showSnd 10
"1 and 10"
Prelude> showFst 10
"10 and 2"
Prelude> showFst' 42
"42 and 2"

### Bye-bye boilerplate!

#### All these functions

```
changeTwiceBy :: (Int -> Int) -> Int -> Int
  changeTwiceBy operation value = operation (operation value)
  changeTwiceByBool :: (Bool -> Bool) -> Bool -> Bool
  changeTwiceByBool operation value = operation (operation value)
  changeTwiceByString :: (String -> String) -> String -> String
  changeTwiceByString operation value = operation (operation value)
might be replaced to the following ones:
  applyTwice :: (a -> a) -> a -> a
  applyTwice f a = f (f a)
  applyTwice' :: (a -> a) -> a -> a
  applyTwice' f a = f \cdot f  a
  applyTwice'' :: (a -> a) -> a -> a
  applyTwice" f = f \cdot f
```

## HOF, polymorpism, and lists

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```
1 map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
3 filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
4 zipWith :: (a -> b -> c) -> [a] -> [b] -> [c]
6 length :: [a] -> Int
```

We discuss their implementations closely on the next seminar. Here we just take a look at their behaviour.

## The composition examples + list functions

```
foo, bar :: [Int] -> Int
foo patak =
length $ filter odd $
map (div 2) $ filter even $ map (div 7) patak

bar =
length . filter odd .
map (div 2) . filter even . map (div 7)
```

### The composition examples + list functions

```
stringsTransform :: [String] -> [String]
stringsTransform | = map (\s -> map toUpper s) (filter (\s -> length s == 5) |)

stringsTransform | = map (\s -> map toUpper s) $ filter (\s -> length s == 5) |

stringsTransform | = map (map toUpper) $ filter ((== 5) . length) |

stringsTransform = map (map toUpper) . filter ((== 5) . length)
```

## Bounded polymorphism and type classes

The idea of bounded (ad hoc) polymorphism is that one has a general interface with instances for each concrete data type.

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```
Prelude> 9
Prelude> 9 :: Int
Prelude> 9 :: Integer
Prelude> 9 :: Float
9.0
Preludes 9 :: Double
9.0
Prelude> 9 :: Rational
9 % 1
Preludes 9 :: Char
<interactive>:7:1: error:
   • No instance for (Num Char) arising from the literal '9'
   • In the expression: 9 :: Char
     In an equation for 'it': it = 9:: Char
```

• Let us take a look a the following function

```
elem :: a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool
```

$$elem [] = False$$

elem 
$$\times$$
 (y:ys) = x == y || elem x ys

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- Is a type a arbitrary?

• Let us take a look a the following function

```
elem :: a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool
```

- $elem _[] = False$
- elem  $\times$  (y:ys) =  $\times$  == y || elem  $\times$  ys
- Is a type a arbitrary? Yes and no. a is an arbitrary type for which equality is defined.

As we observed, type variables in polymorphic function are bounded via universal quantifier. In ad hoc polymorphism, type variables are also bounded via  $\forall$  but with the additional condition. Such a quantification is called bounded.

- elem :: forall a. Eq a => a -> [a] -> Bool
- elem [] = False
- elem x (y:ys) = x == y || elem x ys

## The notion of a type class

 A type class is a collection of functions with type signatures with a common type parameter. The example given:

```
class Eq a where
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool
(/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

A type class name introduce a constraint called context:

```
elem :: Eq a => a -> [a] -> Bool
elem _ [] = False
elem x (y:ys) = x == y || elem x ys
```

• The definition above without a context yields a type error:

```
<interactive>:6:20: error:
    No instance for (Eq a) arising from a use of '=='
    Possible fix:
    add (Eq a) to the context of
        the type signature for:
        elem' :: forall a. a -> [a] -> Bool
    In the first argument of '(|||)', namely 'x == y'
    In the expression: x == y || elem x ys
    In an equation for 'elem'': elem' x (y : ys) = x == y || elem x ys
```

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#### Instance declarations

A given data type a has the *instance* of a type class if every function of that class is implemented for a. The example:

```
instance Eq Bool where
True == True = True
False == False = True
== = False

x /= y = neg (x == y)
```

## Polymorphism + instance declarations

A type parameter in an instance declaration might be polymorphic itself:

• Without the context Eq a =>, this definition yields type error since we don't know how to perform equality comparison of element from a

## Some the Eq instances

- The Eq type class has the following instances (some of them)
  - instance Eq a => Eq [a]
- instance Eq Word
- 3 instance Eq Ordering
- 4 instance Eq Int
- 5 instance Eq Float
- 6 instance Eq Double
- instance Eq Char
- $_{8}$  instance Eq Bool
- See the standard library source code to take a look at the instances implementation.

### The Show type class

The Show type class allows one to represent a value as a string:

```
class Show a where
showsPrec :: Int -> a -> ShowS
show :: a -> String
showList :: [a] -> ShowS
{-# MINIMAL showsPrec | show #-}
```

• One needs to have a Show instance to display a value of a given type on a console.

#### Some of the Show instances

#### Here are some of the Show instances:

- instance Show Integer
- instance Show Int
- 3 instance Show Char
- 4 instance Show Bool
- instance (Show a, Show b) => Show (a, b)

### Ordering. Motivation

• Let us take a look at the following quicksort function:

```
quicksort :: [a] \rightarrow [a]
quicksort [] = []
quicksort (x:xs) = quicksort small ++ (x : quicksort large)
where
small = [y | y \leftarrow xs, xs, y \leftarrow xs, xs, y \leftarrow xs, xs, x \leftarrow xs, xs, x \leftarrow xs, xs, x \leftarrow xs, xs, x \leftarrow xs,
```

 Here we have the same story as in the case of equality. A type a is an arbitrary type for which comparison is defined. The definition of quicksort as above is wrong. There exists a type element of which are incomparable, complex numbers, e.g.

#### The Ord type class

The full definition of Ord is the following one:

```
class Eq a = > Ord a where
       compare :: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow Ordering
       (<), (<=), (>), (>=) :: a -> a -> Bool
       \max, \min :: a -> a -> a
       compare x y = if x == y then EQ
                 else if \times \le y then LT
                 else GT
       x \le y = \text{case compare } x y \text{ of } \{ GT -> \text{False}; -> \text{True } \}
10
11
       \max x y = if x \le y then y else x
12
13
       {-# MINIMAL compare | (<=) #-}
14
```

#### Some of the Ord instances

- instance Ord Word
- instance Ord Int
- 3 instance Ord Float
- 4 instance Ord Double
- 5 instance Ord Char
- 6 instance Ord Bool

### The Num type class

Num is a type class with the general interface of usual arithmetical operations.

```
class Num a where
(+), (-), (*) :: a -> a -> a
negate, abs, signum :: a -> a
fromInteger :: Integer -> a
{-# MINIMAL (+), (*), abs, signum, fromInteger, (negate | (-)) #-}
```

- The instances of Num form a collection of numerical data types in Haskell
- Note that we don't require the context Ord a since the set complex numbers is an
  instance of Num, but we don't have the instance Ord Complex, as you know.

#### Some of the Num instances

#### The examples of Num instances are:

- instance Num Word
- instance Num Integer
- instance Num Int
- 4 instance Num Float
- instance Num Double

#### The Enum and Bounded type classes

• The Enum is type class for type for which one may define an explicit enumeration.

```
class Enum a where
succ, pred :: a -> a
toEnum :: Int -> a
fromEnum :: a -> Int

enumFrom :: a -> [a] -- [n...]
enumFromThen :: a -> a -> [a] -- [n.m..]
enumFromTo :: a -> a -> [a] -- [n.m]
enumFromThenTo :: a -> a -> [a] -- [n,m..p]

-# MINIMAL toEnum, fromEnum #-}
```

 The Bounded type class is a type class for bounded types, i.e., types with minimal and maximal bounds

#### Some of the Enum instances

- The instances are the following ones:
  - instance Enum Word
  - <sup>2</sup> instance Enum Integer
  - 3 instance Enum Int
  - 4 instance Enum Char
  - 5 instance Enum Bool
  - 6 instance Enum Float
  - 7 instance Enum Double

#### Some of the Bounded instances

- The examples of bounded data types
  - instance Bounded Word
  - instance Bounded Int
  - 3 instance Bounded Char
  - 4 instance Bounded Bool

### The Fractional type class

- The Fractional type class is a general interface for numerical division
  - class Num a => Fractional a where
  - 2 (/) :: a -> a -> a
  - recip :: a -> a
  - fromRational :: Rational -> a
  - $\{-\#$  MINIMAL fromRational, (recip  $\mid$  (/))  $\#-\}$
- It is clear that such a type should be a numerical one. Thus, we require the Num a
  restriction.

# Summary