

Funktionale Programmierung Mitschrieb

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„Avoid success at all cost “

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Vorlesung 1

```
-- Hello World Haskell
main :: IO ()
main = putStrLn "Chewie, we're home"
```

Code example 1: Hello World

Functional Programming (FP)

A programming language is a medium for expressive ideas (not to get a computer to perform operations). Thus programs must be written for people to read, and only incidentally for machines.

Computational Model in FP : *Reduction*

Replace expressions by their value.

IN FP, expressions are formed by applying functions to values.

1. Function as in maths: $x = y \rightarrow f(x) = f(y)$
2. Functions are values like numbers or text

	FP	Imperative
construction	function application and composition	statement sequencing
execution	reduction (expression evaluation)	state changes
semantics	λ -calculus	denotational

$n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2$ is a prime number \Leftrightarrow the set of non-trivial factors of n is empty.
 n is prime $\Leftrightarrow \{m \mid m \in m \in \{2, \dots, n-1\}, n \bmod m = 0\} = \{\}$

```
int IsPrime(int n)
{
    int m;
    int found_factor;
    found_factor
    for (m = 2; m <= n - 1; m++)
    {
        if (n % m == 0)
        {
            found_factor = 1 ;
            break;
        }
    }
    return !found_factor;
}
```

Code example 2: isPrime in C

```
isPrime :: Integer -> Bool
isPrime n = factors n == []
  where
    factors :: Integer -> [Integer]
    factors n = [ m | m <- [2..n-1], mod n m == 0]

main :: IO ()
main = do
  let n = 42
  print (isPrime n)
```

Code example 3: isPrime in Haskell

```
let xs = [ x+1 | x <- [0..9] ]
:sprint xs = _
length xs
:sprint xs = [_,_,_,_,_,_,_,_,_]
```

Code example 4: Lazy Evaluation in der ghci REPL

Haskell Ramp Up

Read \equiv as "denotes the same value as"

Apply f to value e: $f \sqcup e$

(juxtaposition, "apply", binary operator \sqcup , Haskell speak: infixL 10 \sqcup) = \sqcup has

max precedence (10): $f \ e_1 + e_2 \equiv (f \ e_1) + e_2$ \sqcup associates to the left $g \sqcup f \sqcup e \equiv (g \sqcup f) \sqcup e$

f) e Function composition:

- $g (f\ e)$
- Operator `."` ("after") : $(g.f)\ e\ (. = \circ) = g(f\ (e))$
- Alternative "apply" operator `$` (lowest precedence, associates to the right),
infix 0\$): $f\$e_1 + e_2 = f\ (e_1 + e_2)$

Vorlesung 2

```
cos 2 * pi
cos (2 * pi)
cos $ 2 * pi
isLetter (head (reverse ("It's a " ++ "Trap")))
(isLetter . head . reverse ) ("It's a" ++ "Trap")
isLetter $ head $ reverse $ "It's a" ++ "Trap"
```

Code example 5: Verschiedene Schreibweise einer Applikation

Prefix application of binary infix operator \oplus

$(\oplus)e_1e_2 \equiv e_1 \oplus e_2$
`(&&) True False \equiv False`

Infix application of binary function f :

$e_1\ `f`\ e_2 \equiv f\ e_1e_2$
`x `elem` xs \equiv $x \in xs$`

User defined operators with characters : `!#%&*+ / <=> ? @ \ ^ |`

```
epsilon :: Double
epsilon = 0.00001
(~==) :: Double -> Double -> Bool
x ~== y = abs (x - y) < epsilon
infix 4 ~==
```

Code example 6: Eigener \approx Operator

Values and Types

Read `::` as "has type"

Any Haskell value e has a type t (`e :: t`) that is determined at compile time.

The `::` type assignment is either given explicitly or inferred by the computer

Types

Type	Description	Value
Int	fixed precision integers ($-2^{63} \dots 2^{63} - 1$)	0,1,42
Integer	arbitrary Precision integers	0,10 ¹⁰⁰
Float,Double	Single/Double precision floating points	0.1,1e03
Char	Unicode Character	'x','\t',' ', '\8710'
Bool	Booleans	True, False
()	Unit (single-value type)	()

```
2
it :: Integer
42 :: Int
it :: Int
'a'
it :: Char
True
it :: Bool
10^100
it :: Integer
10^100 :: Double
it :: Double
```

Type Constructors

- Build new types from existing Types
- Let a,b denote arbitrary Types (type variables)

Type Constructor	Description	Values
(a,b)	pairs of values of types a and b	(1,True) :: (Int, Bool)
(a ₁ , a ₂ , ..., a _n)	n-Types	2,False :: (Int, Bool)
[a]	list of values of type a	[] :: [a]
Maybe a	optional value of type a	Just 42 Maybe Integer Nothing :: Maybe a
Either a b	Choice between values of Type a and b	Left 'x' :: Either Char b Right pi :: Either a Double
IO a	I/O action that returns a value of type a (can have side effects)	print 42 :: IO ()
a -> b	function from type a to b	getChar :: IO Char isLetter :: Char -> Bool

```

(1, '1', 1.0)
it :: (Integer, Char, Double)
[1, '1', 1.0]
it :: Fehler
[0.1, 1.0, 0.01]
it :: [Double]
[]
it :: [t]
"Yoda"
it :: [Char]
['Y', 'o', 'd', 'a']
"Yoda"
[Just 0, Nothing, Just 2]
it :: [Maybe Integer]
[Left True, Right 'a']
it :: [Either Bool Char]
print 'x'
it :: ()
getChar
*
it :: Char
:t getChar
getChar :: IO Char
:t fst
fst :: (a,b) -> a
:t snd
snd :: (a,b) -> b
:t head
head :: [a] -> a
:t (++)
(++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]

```

Currying

- Recall:
 - $e_1 ++ e_2 \equiv (++) e_1 e_2$
 - $++ e_1 e_2 \equiv ((++) e_1) e_2$
- Function application happens one argument at a time (currying, Haskell B. Curry)
- Type of n-ary function: $: a_1 -> a_2 \dots -> a_n -> b$
- Type constructor $->$ associates to the right thus read the type as:
 $a_1 -> (a_2 -> a_3 (\dots -> (a_n -> b) \dots))$

- Enables partial application: "Give me a value of type a_1 , I'll give you a (n-1)-ary function of type $a_2 \rightarrow a_3 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow a_n \rightarrow b$ "

```
"Chew" ++ "bacca"
"Chewbacca"
(++) "Chew" "bacca"
"Chewbacca"
((++) "Chew") "bacca"
"Chewbacca"
:t (++) "Chew"
"Chew" :: [Char] -> [Char]
let chew = (++) "Chew"
chew "bacca"
"Chewbacca"
let double (*) 2
double 21
42
```

Vorlesung 3

Defining Values (and thus: Functions)

- `=` binds names to values, names must not start with A-Z (Haskell style: camelCase)
- Define constant (0-ary) `c`, value of `c` is that of expression:
`c = e`
- Define n-ary function, arguments x_i and `f` may occur in `e` (no "letrec" needed)
`f x1 x2 ... xn = e`
- Hskell programm = set of top-level bindings (order immaterial, no rebinding)
- Good style: give type assignment for top-level bindings:
`f :: a1 -> a2 -> b`
`f x1 x2 = e`
- Guards (introduced by `|`).

```
f x1 x2 ... xn
  | q1 = e1
  | q2 = en
```

- q_i (expressions of type `Bool`) evaluated top to bottom, first `True` guards "wins"
- $$\text{fac } n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \geq 1 \\ n \cdot \text{fac}(n-1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

```
fac :: Integer -> Integer
fac n = if n <= 1 then 1 else n * fac (n - 1)

fac2 n | n <= 1    = 1
       | otherwise = n * fac2 (n - 1)

main :: IO ()
main = print $ fac 10
```

Code example 7: fac in Haskell

```
power :: Double -> Integer -> Double
power x k | k == 1 = x
          | even k = power (x * x) (halve k)
          | otherwise = x * power (x * x) (halve k)

where
  even :: Integer -> Bool -- Nicht typisch
  even n = n `mod` 2 == 0
  halve n = n `div` 2

main :: IO ()
main = print $ power 2 16
```

Code example 8: Power in Haskell

Lokale Definitionen

1. **where** - binding : Local definitions visible in the entire right-hand-side (rhs) of a definition

```
f x1 x2 ... xn
  | q1 = e1
  | q2 = en
  where
    g1 ... = b1
    gi ... = bi
```

2. **let** - expression Local definitions visible inside an expression:

```
let g1 ... = b1
    g2 ... = b1
in e
```

Hallo zusammen,
in der dritten Vorlesung hatte ich erwähnt, dass Haskell's Syntax darauf verzichtet, Blöcke (von Definitionen) mittels Sonderzeichen abzugrenzen und zu strukturieren. Andere Programmiersprachen bedienen sich

Haskell baut hingegen auf das sog. Layout, eine Art 2-dimensionaler Syntax. Die Regelungen zu Layout lauten wie folgt und werden vom Haskell-Compiler wä The first token after a where/let and the first token of a top-level definit The first token left of the box closes the box (offside rule).

Insert a { before the box.

Insert a } after the box.

Insert a ; before each line that starts at left box border.

Die Anwendung dieser Regeln auf dieses Beispielprogramm:

```
let y  = a * b
    f x = (x + y) / y
in f c + f d
```

führt zur Identifikation der folgenden Box:

```
let { y  = a * b
     f x = (x + y) / y
```

```
in f c + f d
```

Das Token in in der letzten Zeile steht links von der Boxgrenze im Abseits (

Die explizite Form des obigen Programmes lautet (nach den drei letzten Regel

```
let { y  = a * b
     ; f x = (x + y) / y }
```

```
in f c + f d
```

Damit ist die Bedeutung des Programmes eindeutig und es ist klar, dass bspw.

```
let y = a * b f
    x = (x + y) / y
in f c + f d
```

Aus diesen Layout-Regeln ergeben sich recht einfache Richtlinien für das Ein

Die Zeilen einer Definition auf dem Top-Level beginnen jeweils ganz links (S

Lokale where / let-Definitionen werden um mindestens ein Whitespace (typisch

Es gibt in Haskell ein weiteres Keyword (do, wird später thematisiert), das

Lists([a])

- Recursive definition:

1. `[]` ist a list (nil), type `[] :: [a]`

2. `x : xs` (head, tail) is a list, if `x :: a`, and `xs :: [a]`.

`cons: (:) :: a -> [a] -> [a]` with `infixr : 5`

- Notation: `3:(2:1:[])` \equiv `3:2:1:[]` \equiv `[3,2,1]`

```

[]
it :: [t]
[1]
it :: [Integer]
[1,2,3]
it :: [Integer]
['z']
"z"
it :: [Char]
['z','x']
"zx"
it :: [Char]
[] == ""
True
it :: Bool
[[1],[2,3]]
it :: [[Integer]]
[[1],[2,3],[]]
[[1],[2,3]]
it :: [[Integer]]
False:[]
[False]
it :: [Bool]
(False:[]):[]
it :: [[Bool]]
:t [(<),(==),(>)]
[(<),(==),(>)] :: Ord a => [a -> Bool]
[(1,"one"),(2,"two"),(3,"three")]
it :: [(Integer,[Char])]
:t head
head :: [a] -> a
:t tail :: [a] -> [a]
head "It's a trap"
'I'
it :: Char
tail "It's a trap"
"t's a trap"
it :: [Char]
reverse "Never odd or even"
"neve ro ddo reveN"
it :: [Char]

```

- Law $\forall xs \neq []: \text{head } xs : \text{tail } xs$

```

:i String
type String = [Char]

```

Type Synonyms

- Introduce your own type synonyms. (type names : *Uppercase*) `type t1 = t2`

```
type Bits = [Integer]
```

```
type Predicate a = a -> Bool
```

```
bits :: Integer -> Bits
```

```
bits n | n == 0      = [0]
       | otherwise = (n `mod` 2) : bits (n `div` 2)
```

```
isEven :: Predicate Integer
```

```
isEven n = head (bits n) == 0
```

```
main :: IO ()
```

```
main = print $ isEven 35
```

Sequence (lists of enumerable elements)

- $[x..y] \equiv [x, x+1, x+2, \dots, y]$

```
['a'..'z']
"abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"
```

- $x, s..y \equiv [x, x+i, x+(2*i), \dots, y]$ where $i = x-s$

```
[1,3..20]
[1,3,5,7,9,11,13,15,17,19]
[2,4..20]
[2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20]
```

- Infinite List `[1..]`

Vorlesung 4

Pattern Matching

The idiomatic way to define functions by cases: `f :: a1 -> ... -> ak -> b`

```
f p11 ... p1k = e1
```

```
⋮ ⋮ ⋮ ⋮
```

```
f pm1 ... pnk = en
```

For all $e_i :: b$ on a_i call `f x1x2...xk` each x_i is matched against patterns $p_{i1} \dots p_{in}$ in order. Result is e_r if the r th branch is the first in which all patterns match.

Pattern	Matches if...	Bindings in e_r
constant c	$x_1 == c$	
variable v	always	$v = x_i$
wildcard $_$	always	
tuple (p_1, \dots, p_n)	components of x_i match type component patterns	Those bound by the com- ponent patterns
$[]$	$x_i == []$	
$p_1 : p_2$	head x_1 matches p_1 , tail x_i matches p_2	
$v@p$	p matches	those bound by p and $v = x_i$

Note: In a pattern, a variable may only occur once (linear patterns only)

```
--(1) if then else
sum' :: [Integer] -> Integer
sum' xs =
    if xs == [] then 0 else head xs + sum' (tail xs)
--(2) guards
sum'' :: [Integer] -> Integer
sum'' xs | xs == [] = 0
        | otherwise = head xs + sum'' (tail xs)
--(3) pattern matching
sum''' :: [Integer] -> Integer
sum''' [] = 0
sum''' (x:xs) = x + sum''' xs

main :: IO ()
main = do
    print $ sum' [1,2,3]
    print $ sum'' [1,2,3]
    print $ sum''' [1,2,3]
```

Code example 9: sum in Haskell

Pattern matching in expressions (case)

```
case e of p1 | q11 -> e11
        ⋮
        pn | qn1 -> en1
```

```
type Dictionary a b = [(a,b)]
type Person = String
type Age = Integer

people :: Dictionary Person Age
people = [("Darth", 46), ("Chewie",200), ("Yoda", 902)]

ageOf :: Dictionary Person Age -> Person -> Maybe Age
-- The old way
--ageOf pas p | fst (head pas) == p = snd (head pas)
--              | otherwise          = ageOf (tail pas) p
ageOf [] p' = Nothing
ageOf ((p,a):pas) p' | p == p' = Just a
                    | otherwise = ageOf pas p'

main :: IO ()
main = do
    print $ ageOf people "Luke"
```

Code example 10: ageOf in Haskell

```
take' :: Integer -> [a] -> [a]
take' 0 _ = []
take' _ [] = []
take' n (x:xs) = x:take' (n-1) xs

main :: IO ()
main = print $ take' 20 [1,3..]
```

Code example 11: take in Haskell

```
-- Merge two sorted lists respecting their orderings
--
-- merge (<) [0,3,5] [1,2,4] = [0,1,2,3,4,5]

merge :: (a -> a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a] -> [a]
merge _ [] ys = ys
merge _ xs [] = xs
merge (<<<) l1@(x: xs) l2@(y:ys) | x <<< y = x:merge (<<<) xs l2
                                | otherwise = y:merge (<<<) l1 ys

main :: IO ()
main = print $ merge (<) [1,3..19] [2,4..20]
```

Code example 12: merge in Haskell

```
--Sortes a list

mergeSort :: (a -> a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
mergeSort _ [] = []
mergeSort _ [x] = [x]
mergeSort (<<<) xs = merge (<<<) (mergeSort (<<<) ls)
                              (mergeSort (<<<) rs)
  where
    (ls,rs) = splitAt (length xs `div` 2) xs
    merge :: (a -> a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a] -> [a]
    merge _ [] ys = ys
    merge _ xs [] = xs
    merge (<<<) l1@(x: xs) l2@(y:ys)
      | x <<< y = x:merge (<<<) xs l2
      | otherwise = y:merge (<<<) l1 ys

main :: IO ()
main = print $ mergeSort (<) [1..100]
```

Code example 13: mergeSort in Haskell