

# **CS331**

## **Haskell Tutorial 02**

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# Outline

- Isomorphic
- Currying, Composition
- Lazy Evaluation

# Example of Functions

- Double a given input.

```
square :: Int -> Int
Prelude> square x = x*x
Prelude> square 5
```

- Conversion from fahrenheit to celcius

```
fahr_to_celcius :: Float -> Float
Prelude> fahr_to_celcius temp = (temp - 32)/1.8
Prelude> :t fahr_to_celcius
```

- A function with multiple results - quotient & remainder

```
divide :: Int -> Int -> (Int, Int)
```

```
divide x y = (div x y, mod x y)
```

## Expression – Oriented

- Instead of imperative commands/statements, the focus is on expression.
- Instead of *command/statement* :  
`if e1 then stmt1 else stmt2`
- We use conditional *expressions* :  
`if e1 then e2 else e3`

# Expression-Oriented

- An example function:

```
fact    :: Integer -> Integer
fact n  = if n=0 then 1
          else n * fact (n-1)
```

- Can use pattern-matching instead of conditional

```
fact 0      = 1
fact n      = n * fact (n-1)
```

- Alternatively:

```
fact n      = case n of
  0 -> 1
  a -> a * fact (a-1)
```

## Conditional → Case Construct

- Conditional;

```
if e1 then e2 else e3
```

- Can be translated to

```
case e1 of  
  True -> e2  
  False -> e3
```

- Case also works over data structures  
(without any extra primitives)

```
length xs = case xs of  
  [] -> 0;  
  y:ys -> 1+(length ys)
```

↖ Locally bound variables

## Lexical Scoping

- Local variables can be created by **let** construct to give nested scope for the name space.

Example:

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

- For scope bindings over guarded expressions, we require a **where** construct instead:

```
f x y      | x>z= ...
           | y==z    = ...
           | y<z= ...
where z=x*x
```

# Layout Rule

- Haskell uses two dimensional syntax that relies on declarations being “lined-up columnwise”

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

is being parsed as:

```
let  { y      = a+b  
      ; f x    = (x+y)/y }  
in f c + f d
```

- Rule : Next character after keywords **where/let/of/do** determines the starting columns for declarations. Starting *after* this point continues a declaration, while starting *before* this point terminates a declaration.



# Expression Evaluation

- Expression can be computed (or evaluated) so that it is reduced to a value. This can be represented as:

$$e \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v$$

- We can abbreviate above as:

$$e \rightarrow^* v$$

- A concrete example of this is:

$$\text{inc (inc 3)} \rightarrow \text{inc (4)} \rightarrow 5$$

- Type preservation theorem says that:

if  $e :: t \ \AE \ e \rightarrow v$ , it follows that  $v :: t$

$\AE$  : Almost everywhere

# Values and Types

- As a purely functional language, all computations are done via evaluating *expressions* (**syntactic sugar**) to yield *values* (normal forms as answers).
- Each expression has a *type* which denotes the set of possible outcomes.
- $v :: t$  can be read as value  $v$  has type  $t$ .
- Examples of *typings*, associating a value with its corresponding type are:

```
5           :: Integer
'a'         :: Char
[1,2,3]     :: [Integer]
('b', 4)    :: (Char, Integer)
"cs5"       :: String (same as [Char])
```

# Syntactic sugar

- Syntactic sugar is usually a shorthand for a common operation that could also be expressed in an alternate, more verbose, form
- Example: List Comprehension in python, Operator overloading, unary operator (++ , += in C++)
- Benefit
  - Conciseness: make code more concise
  - Fewer error
  - Readability: Easier to read
  - Maintainability
  - Abstraction: Complex operation to simple syntax

# Built-In Types

- They are not special:

```
data Char      = 'a' | 'b' | ...
data Int       = -65532 | ... | -1 | 0 | 1 | ... | 65532
data Integer   = ... | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | ...
```

- Tuples are also built-in.

```
data (a,b)      = M2 (a,b)
data (a,b,c)    = M3 (a,b,c)
data (a,b,c,d)  = M4 (a,b,c,d)
```

- List type uses an infix operator:

```
data [a]         = [] | a : [a]
```

`[1,2,3]` is short hand for `1 : (2 : (3 : []))`


# User-Defined Algebraic Types

- Can describe enumerations:

```
data Bool    = False | True
data Color   = Red   | Green | Blue | Violet
```

- Can also describe a tuple

```
data Pair     = P2 Integer Integer
data Point a  = Pt a a
```

 *type variable*

- **Pt** is a data constructor with type `a -> a -> Point a`

```
Pt 2.0 3.1  :: Point Float
Pt 'a' 'b'   :: Point Char
Pt True False :: Point Bool
```

# Recursive Types

- Some types may be recursive:

```
data Tree a = Leaf a | Branch (Tree a) (Tree a)
```

- Two data constructors:

```
Leaf    :: a -> Tree a  
Branch  :: Tree a -> Tree a -> Tree a
```

- An example function over recursive types:

```
fringe :: Tree a -> [a]
```

```
fringe (Leaf x)          = [x]  
fringe (Branch left right) = (fringe left) ++  
                             (fringe right)
```

**++ is concatenation of two lists**

# Polymorphic Types

- Support types that are universally quantified in some way over all types.
- **$\lambda$  c. [c] denotes a family of types, for every type c, the type of lists of c.**
- Covers **[Integer], [Char], [Integer->Integer]**, etc.
- Polymorphism help support *reusable* code, e.g

```
length      ::  $\lambda$  a. [a] -> Integer
length []   = 0
length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

```
Prelude> :t length
```

# Polymorphic Types

- This polymorphic function can be used on list of any type..

```
length [1,2,3]           )      3
length ['a', 'b', 'c']   )      3
length [[1],[],[3]]      )      3
```

- More examples :

```
head      :: [a] -> a
head (x:xs) = x
```

```
tail      :: [a] -> [a]
tail (x:xs) = xs
```

- Note that head/tail are partial functions, while length is a total function?



# Polymorphic Types

- Example

```
ghci>:{  
ghci| length []          = 0  
ghci| length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs  
ghci| :}  
ghci> :t length  
ghci> length [1,2,3]  
3
```

# Polymorphic Types

- This polymorphic function can be used on list of any type..

```
length [1,2,3]           )      3
length ['a', 'b', 'c']   )      3
length [[1],[],[3]]      )      3
```

- More examples :

```
head      :: [a] -> a
head (x:xs) = x
```

```
tail      :: [a] -> [a]
tail (x:xs) = xs
```

- Note that head/tail are partial functions, while length is a total function?

# Principal Types

- Some types are more general than others:

$[Char] \leq a. [a] \leq a$

- An expression's *principal type* is the *least general type* that contains all instances of the expression.
- For example, the *principal type* of `head` function is  $[a] \rightarrow a$ , while  $[b] \rightarrow a$ ,  $b \rightarrow a$ ,  $a$  are correct but too general but  $[Integer] \rightarrow Integer$  is too specific.
- Principal type can help supports software reusability with accurate type information.

# Functions and its Type

- Method to increment its input

```
inc x = x+1
```

- Or through lambda expression (anonymous functions)

```
(\ x -> x+1)
```

- They can also be given suitable function typing:

```
inc :: Num a => a -> a
```

```
(\x -> x+1) :: Num a => a -> a
```

- Types can be *user-supplied* or *inferred*.

# Anonymous Functions

- Anonymous functions are used often in Haskell, usually enclosed in parentheses
- $\backslash x\ y \rightarrow (x + y) / 2$ 
  - the  $\backslash$  is pronounced “lambda”
    - It’s just a convenient way to type  $\lambda$
  - the  $x$  and  $y$  are the formal parameters
- Functions are first-class objects and can be assigned
  - $\text{avg} = \backslash x\ y \rightarrow (x + y) / 2$

# Functions and its Type

- Some examples

```
(\x -> x+1) 3.2  →
```

```
(\x -> x+1) 3  →
```

```
Prelude> (\x -> x+1) 3
```

- User can restrict the type, e.g.

```
inc    :: Int -> Int
```

- In that case, some examples may be wrongly typed.

```
inc 3.2  →
```

```
inc 3  →
```

# Functions

- Functions can be written in two main ways:

```
add          :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
add x y      = x+y
```

```
add2         :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
add2 (x,y)   = x+y
```

- The first version allows a function to be returned as result after applying a single argument.

```
inc          :: Integer -> Integer
inc          = add 1
```

- The second version needs all arguments. Same effect requires a lambda abstraction:

```
inc          = \ x -> add2 (x, 1)
```

# Functions

- Functions can also be passed as parameters. Example:

```
map          :: (a->b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f []     = []
map f (x:xs) = (f x) : (map f xs)
```

- Such higher-order function aids code reuse.

```
map (add 1) [1, 2, 3]    ) [2, 3, 4]
map add [1, 2, 3]        ) [add 1, add 2, add 3]
```

- Alternative ways of defining functions:

```
add          = \ x -> \ y -> x+y
add          = \ x y -> x+y
```



## Expression-Oriented

- An example function:

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fact    :: Integer -> Integer
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- Can use pattern-matching instead of conditional

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- Alternatively:

```
fact n      = case n of
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```

↖ Locally bound variables

# Lexical Scoping

- Local variables can be created by `let` construct to give nested scope for the name space.

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

```
Prelude> :{
Prelude> | myf c d =
Prelude> |           let y = 7+3
Prelude> |           f x = (x+y)/2
Prelude> |           in f c + f d
Prelude> | :}
Prelude> myf 20 30
Prelude> 35.0
```

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# Lexical Scoping

- For scope bindings over guarded expressions, we require a *where* construct instead:

```
f x y | x>z      = ...  
      | y==z     = ...  
      | y<z      = ...  
where z=x*x
```

# Writing multiline function

- Space and indentation is important in writing code
- Use space instead of Tab
- Writing multiline function; Start with `{` and end with `}`, spacing and newline is must

```
Prelude> {  
Prelude|  fact n = if n==0 then 1  
Prelude|                else n * fact (n-1)  
Prelude|  :}
```

# Notation

- We can abbreviate repeated left hand sides

absolute x | x >= 0 = x  
absolute x | x < 0 = -x

absolute x | x >= 0 = x  
| x < 0 = -x

- Haskell also has **if then else**

absolute x = **if** x >= 0 **then** x **else** -x

```
Prelude> :{  
Prelude| absolute x | x>=0 = x  
Prelude|           | x<0  = -x  
Prelude| :}  
Prelude> absolute (-24)  
24
```

# Loading from HS file

- Loading Haskell script (source code) from file
- Suppose fact.hs contents this : **Haskell Script**

```
fact n = if n==0 then 1
        else n * fact (n-1)
```

- Any module it say as Main : from file

```
Prelude> :load fact.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main          ( fact.hs, interpreted )
Ok, one module loaded.
*Main> fact 4
24
*Main> :m - Main
Prelude>
```



## Functions and its Type

- Method to increment its input

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```

- Or through lambda expression (anonymous functions)

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- They can also be given suitable function typing:

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# Functions and its Type

- Some examples

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```

```
Prelude> (\x -> x+1) 3
```

- User can restrict the type, e.g.

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inc      :: Int -> Int
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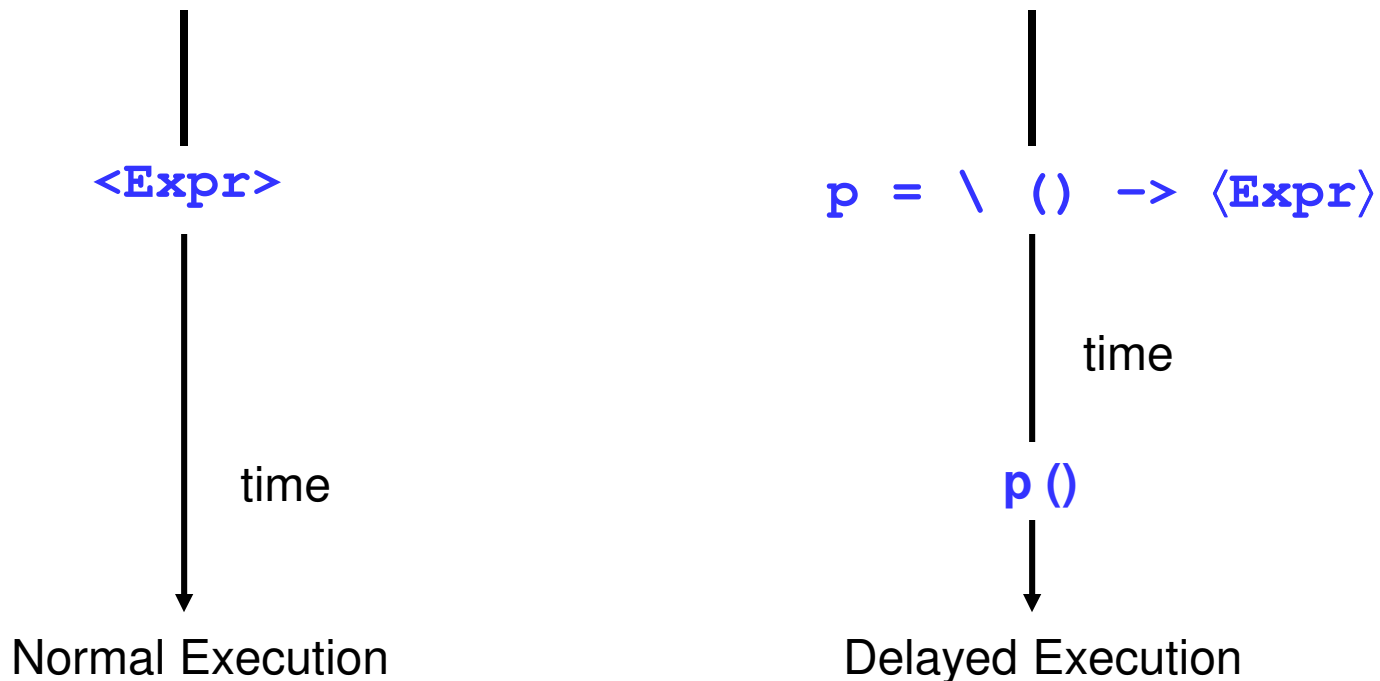
- In that case, some examples may be wrongly typed.

```
inc 3.2  →
```

```
inc 3  →
```

## Function Abstraction

- Function abstraction is the ability to convert any expression into a function that is evaluated at a later time.



# Higher-Order Functions

- **Higher-order programming** treats functions as first-class,
  - Allowing them to be passed as parameters, returned as results or stored into data structures.
- This concept supports generic coding,
  - and allows programming to be carried out at a more abstract level.
- Genericity can be applied to a function
  - by letting specific operation/value in the function body to become parameters.

## Higher order Functions

- Functions can be written in two main ways:

`add x y`                    `= x+y`

`add2 (x, y)`                `= x+y`

- The first version allows a function to be returned as result after applying a single argument.

`inc`            `= add 1`

```
Prelude> add x y = x+y
```

```
Prelude> inc = add 1
```

```
Prelude > inc 5
```

```
6
```

```
Prelude>
```

# Higher order Functions

- The second version needs all arguments. Same effect requires a lambda abstraction:

`add2 (x, y) = x+y`

`inc = \x -> add2 (x, 1)`

```
Prelude> add2 (x+y) = x+y
```

```
Prelude> inc = \x -> add2(x, 1)
```

```
Prelude > inc 5
```

```
6
```

```
Prelude>
```

# Functions

- Functions can also be passed as parameters. Example:

```
map          :: (a->b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f []     = []
map f (x:xs) = (f x) : (map f xs)
```

- Such higher-order function aids code reuse.

```
map (add 1) [1, 2, 3]    ) [2, 3, 4]
map add [1, 2, 3]        ) [add 1, add 2, add 3]
```

- Alternative ways of defining functions:

```
add          = \ x -> \ y -> x+y
add          = \ x y -> x+y
```



**Where example : write like math Statement**

```
roots (a,b,c) = (x1, x2) where
  x1 = e + sqrt d / (2 * a)
  x2 = e - sqrt d / (2 * a)
  d = b * b - 4 * a * c
  e = - b / (2 * a)
main = do
  putStrLn "The roots of our Polynomial equation are:"
  print (roots(1,-8,6))
```

```
Prelude> :load WhereExample.hs
*Main> main
The roots of our Polynomial equation are:
(7.1622777,0.8377223)
```

**Thanks**