

Week 5

Ch 7: Making Our Own Types and Type Classes
Ch 8: Input and Output

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COMP 481: Functional and Logic Programming

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Overview

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Creating a Data Type

Defining our own type follows the syntax for what could be the `Bool` type:

```
data Bool = False | True
```

- `data` keyword, followed by the capitalized name of the type
- equal sign
- capitalized value constructors separated by "or" Sheffer stroke `|`

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Multiple Values

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Constructor Pattern Matching

A function that takes a `Shape` and calculates its area:

```
area :: Shape -> Float
area (Circle _ _ r) = pi * r ^ 2
area (Rectangle x1 y1 x2 y2) = (abs $ x2 - x1) * (abs $ y2 - y1)
```

- we cannot write the function as `Circle -> Float`
 - incorrect as `True -> Int`
- `Circle` is defined as a **value** and `Shape` is its type
 - `Circle` constructor function has the same name
- we can pattern match with a constructor and its parameters
- circle needs no position to calculate its area, so `_` is used

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Deriving Type Class Show

deriving (Show)

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— Nested Types —

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Creating
Nested
Types

```
Point Point
      Point
      Point Point
Point
      Point
```

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Using Nested Constructors

```
area (Circle (Point 0 0) 24)
```

```
area . Rectangle (Point 0 0) $ Point 100 100
```

- a few reminders:
 - dot product composes functions (that take one parameter each)
 - ``\$` applies the function immediately after it (avoid writing parentheses)

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Export from Modules

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Private Code

Without ``(..)``:

- a user could not create new shapes except with functions ``baseCircle`` and ``baseRect``
- hiding constructors makes the ``Shape`` type more abstract
- might be good if we want to stop users from pattern matching with value constructors
- edits to the value constructors would not cascade (like we saw earlier with `Shape` and `Point`)
- we get back to this discussion later with ``Data.Map``

Previously, we defined functions with the notation ``->`` between input parameters, but not so for constructors.

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Use Function Constructors

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— Record Syntax —

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Record
Syntax

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Parameter Order

Choose to use record syntax when the order of the fields do not immediately make sense.

- a 3D vector would be obvious
 - the fields specify the coordinates `x` `y` `z` values
- but, for `Car` parameter order is arbitrary

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— Type Parameters —

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Type Parameters

Similar to functions taking parameters, we can generate new types by passing types as parameters.

Consider Maybe as a **type constructor**:

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
```

Pass in a type for the parameter `a`, we generate a new type, such as:

- `Maybe Int`, `Maybe Car`, `Maybe String`, etc.
- `Maybe` is a type constructor, not to be used to create values
- a type constructor must have *all* parameters passed in

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Concrete Types

```
Just 'a'
```

```
Maybe Char
```

- Just 3

```
Num a => Maybe a
```

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Polymorphic Types

A more generic type such as `Maybe a` is **polymorphic**:

- `Maybe a` can manage different kinds of subtypes with type parameters `a`

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Practice
with
Maybe

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Practice Defining Concrete Types

Examples of defining concrete types similar to `Maybe a` where `a` is replaced by concrete type might be:

```
data IntMaybe = INothing | IJust Int
```

```
data StringMaybe = SNothing | SJust String
```

```
data ShapeMaybe = ShNothing | ShJust Shape
```

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Working with Polymorphic Types

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Generalizing Types

The `year` field of the `Car` type can be parameterized:

```
data Car a = Car {
  company :: String,
  model  :: String,
  year   :: a
} deriving (Show)
```

- have the above either in a script without `let`
- or in ghci give the definition **all on one line without `let`**
- or use multiline `{ : }` and do not use `let`

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Creating Functions that use Generic Types

```
tellCar :: (Show a) => Car a -> String
```

```
tellCar :: Car -> String
```

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Polymorphism

This second version of `tellCar` allows us to work with various instance types of `Show`:

```
tellCar (Car "Ford" "Mustang" 1967)
tellCar (Car "Ford" "Mustang" "nineteen sixty seven")
:t Car "Ford" "Mustang" 1967
:t Car "Ford" "Mustang" "nineteen sixty seven"
```

- we would likely only ever use the version of `tellCar` that has a year with `Int` type
- so, parameterizing is not worth the trouble in this case

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Book Pattern Matching (Simranjit Singh)

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Conventions of Type Parameters

Notice the generic types that use type parameters:

- have little need in their implementation for anything with respect to the type parameters
- e.g.: we would only do things with a list itself that has nothing to do directly with the type of its elements
- anything we would do with elements, such as a `sum`, we can specify its implementation when we specify the concrete type
- the same goes for the `Maybe`
 - it allows us to specify an implementation when we need to deal with potentially not having a value of a concrete type we want
 - (`Nothing`)
 - or having it (`Just x`)

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Class Constraints on Data Declarations

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— Example 3D Vector —

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3D Vector

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Matching Type Parameters

We restrict the vector functions for the parameter to be of type class ``Num``, since we could not expect calculations where components are of type ``Bool`` nor ``Char``.

- also notice that the definitions restrict only vectors of the same element concrete types to calculate together
 - cannot add vectors with one of type ``Int`` and the other ``Double``
- notice no ``Num`` restriction in the type declaration of ``Vector``
 - still need the same restrictions of type class in the functions anyway

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Type vs Value Constructors

type constructors
value constructors

Vector a

Vector a a a

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Vector Functions

Give some vector functions a try:

```
Vector 3 5 8 `vplus` Vector 9 2 8
Vector 3 5 8 `vplus` Vector 9 2 8 `vplus` Vector 0 2 3
Vector 3 9 7 `vmult` 10
Vector 4 9 5 `dotProd` Vector 9.0 2.0 4.0
Vector 2 9 3 `vmult` (Vector 4 9 5 `dotProd` Vector 9 2 4)
```

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— Derived Instances —

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Derived Instances

Type classes are like interfaces in Java:

- any type within the type class is considered an **instance** of it
- the type class specifies what kind of behaviour must be implemented in any type belonging to it
 - the type class has no implementation itself

We can take advantage of the type classes that already exist in Haskell:

* ``Eq``, ``Ord``, ``Enum``, ``Bounded``, ``Show``, and ``Read``

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Deriving Keyword

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Using `==` on Eq Instances

We can test using `==` on values of our `Person` type:

```
mikeD = Person {firstName = "Michael", lastName = "Diamond", age = 43}
adRock = Person {firstName = "Adam", lastName = "Horovitz", age = 41}
mca = Person {firstName = "Adam", lastName = "Yauch", age = 44}
```

Give equality tests a try:

```
mca == adRock
mikeD == adRock
mikeD == mikeD
mikeD == Person {firstName = "Michael", lastName = "Diamond", age = 43}
```

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Using Behaviour of Class Type Instances

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— `Show` and `Read` —

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`Show` and `Read`
Derived Instances

Show Read
Show Read
Show Read

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Convert Between String and Back

If we tried to print without the `Show` derivation, then Haskell would give us an error message.

We can convert back the other direction and get a `Person` value from a `String`.

- put the following in a script, then load in ghci:

```
mysteryDude =
  "Person { firstName = \"Michael\" ++
    ", lastName = \"Diamond\" ++
    ", age = 43}"
```

Give a type annotation to tell Haskell what concrete type it should evaluate:

```
read mysteryDude :: Person
```

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Type Annotations with Concrete Types

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— Ordering —

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Deriving
Instances
of `Ord`

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Comparing `Maybe` Values

Two values created with the same constructor are equal, unless there are fields that must also be compared.

- the fields must also have type an instance of the `Ord` type class
- e.g.: the `Nothing` value is smaller than any other `Maybe` value
 - any `Just` values will have their nested elements compared

Nested functions cannot be compared, so keep in mind this is only for elements that are also `Ord`.

```
Nothing < Just 100
Nothing > Just (-49999)
Just 3 `compare` Just 2
Just 100 > Just 50
```

We cannot do `Just (*2) < Just (*3)` because the nested elements are functions.

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— Enums, etc. —

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Deriving `Enum` Instances

```
data Day = Monday | Tuesday | Wednesday | Thursday | Friday |
Saturday | Sunday
    deriving (Eq, Ord, Show, Read, Bounded, Enum)
```

Some reminders:

- `Enum` places values in a sequential order, with each value having a predecessor and a successor
- `Bounded` expects a type to have a lowest value and a largest value

With the above, try out a few simple statements:

```
Wednesday
show Wednesday
read "Wednesday" :: Day
```

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Instance Behaviour

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— Type Synonyms —

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Type
Synonyms
with
type

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Using Type Synonyms

We first declared a `phoneBook` variable with type `[(String,String)]`.

Use type synonym to make things a bit more readable:

```
type PhoneNumber = String
type Name = String
type PhoneBook = [(Name, PhoneNumber)]
```

See how much easier to read functions:

```
inPhoneBook :: Name -> PhoneNumber -> PhoneBook -> Bool
inPhoneBook name pnum pbook = (name, pnum) `elem` pbook
```

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Use of type

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Reducing Type Constructors

Remember, a type constructor takes type parameters and returns a concrete type, for example ``AssocList Int String``.

Perhaps a partially applied type constructor, for example:

```
type IntMap v = Map Int v
```

...can be expressed more simply:

```
type IntMap = Map Int
```

To implement the above, you will likely need to do a qualified import and precede the ``Map`` with module name:

```
type IntMap = Map.Map Int
```

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Synonyms with Type Annotations

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— Two Kinds of Values —

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Either
Type

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More Reasoning for Errors

The `Either` type has similar result as for `Nothing` as `Maybe a` where one of the parameters is polymorphic.

- `Maybe` type helped deal with computations that could have an error
 - the error is for exactly one reason
 - e.g.: `find` did not get a match for it to return

With an `Either` type description, we have flexibility to pass forward more reasoning for an error.

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LockerMap
Type

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Setup for Locker Lookup

Next, we will write a function that searches for the code in a locker map.

The return value of type ``Either`` helps deal with two ways the function could fail:

- the locker could be taken already, so no code should be given back
- the locker number might not exist

In both cases we use a different string to describe the error.

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Lookup Function

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Test Lookups

Add the lookup function to script file, then try some lookups:

```
lockerLookup 101 lockers  
lockerLookup 100 lockers  
lockerLookup 102 lockers  
lockerLookup 110 lockers  
lockerLookup 105 lockers
```

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— Recursive Data Structures —

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Creating with Recursion

The data definition that Haskell provides allows us to make a reference to itself.

- there is also another name for the ``:`` operator called “Cons” (short for constructor)
- recall we have used ``:`` with lists in a way that is recursive-like ``3:4:5:6:[]`` equal to ``[3,4,5,6]``

We will design our own ``List`` type:

```
data List a = Empty | Cons a (List a)
    deriving (Show, Read, Eq, Ord)
```

The purpose is to see how to extend to other data types.

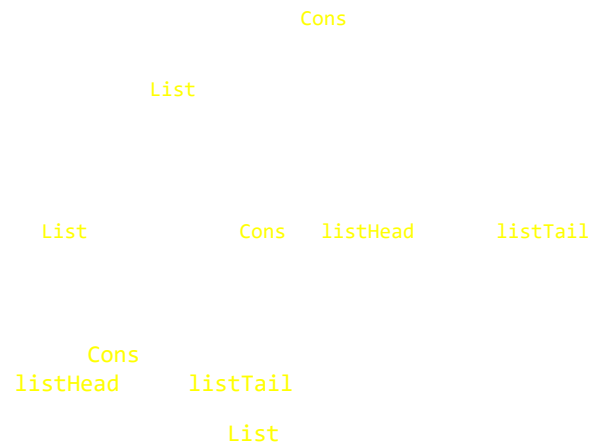
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List
Constructor
with Record



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Using List Constructor

Observe creating List values, and its use of recursion:

```
5 `Cons` Empty
4 `Cons` (5 `Cons` Empty)
3 `Cons` (4 `Cons` (5 `Cons` Empty))
```

The above would be equivalent to:

```
5:[]
4:5:[]
3:4:5:[]
```

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Infix Declarations

data types

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Constructors and Pattern Matching

Then give it a try:

```
let a = 3 :-: 4 :-: 5 :-: Empty
let b = 6 :-: 7 :-: Empty
a ^++ b
```

Notice how we pattern matched in the definition of `^++` with `x :-: xs` which is a constructor.

- pattern matching (only) works on constructors
- this follows our previous use of pattern matching ``:`` and ``[]`` and constant values like `8` and `'a'`
 - which are actually constructors for the numeric and character types, respectively

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— Tree Type —

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Defining Trees

We now have enough to start implementing binary search trees. Recall...

- a tree node stores a value, and references to
 - a left subtree
 - a right subtree
- all values in left subtree are smaller than the current node
- all values in the right subtree are larger than the current node

We will not worry about keeping our trees balanced in this implementation.

```
data Tree a = EmptyTree | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)
  deriving (Show)
```

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Node Values

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Insert with Trees (1)

We will start by making a function to create a one-node root-level tree:

```
singleton :: a -> Tree a
singleton x = Node x EmptyTree EmptyTree
```

Then we can use it to help us write an insertion function:

```
treeInsert :: (Ord a) => a -> Tree a -> Tree a
treeInsert x EmptyTree = singleton x
treeInsert x (Node y left right)
  | x == y = Node x left right
  | x < y  = Node y (treeInsert x left) right
  | x > y  = Node y left (treeInsert x right)
```

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Insertion with Trees (2)

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Creating Trees Concisely

Now we can write code to create a tree very quickly:

```
let nums = [8,6,4,1,7,3,5]
let numsTree = foldr treeInsert EmptyTree nums
```

We insert numbers from a list into our tree

- one element at a time (from the right of the list)

The `numsTree` value is awkward to read all on one line.

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Check for Elements in a Tree

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— Inside the `Eq` Type Class —

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Declaring
Type
Classes

type class

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Eq Type Class Behaviour

- keyword `class` (not `type class`!)
- the `a` only need be lowercase, and represents whatever the type is that will become part of the `Eq a` type class
- then the type descriptions for the functions `(==)` and `(/=)`
- these function type descriptions would elsewhere be observed to have restrictions of `(Eq a)`
- lastly, the two definitions of the functions `(==)` and `(/=)` are only implemented here involving the types
 - they are called **mutually recursive** (they depend on each other)

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— Traffic-Light Data Type —

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Creating Instances of Type Classes

We can also create our own instances of type classes.

But first, we will create a new type:

```
data TrafficLight = Red | Yellow | Green
```

Above lists the possible states of a `TrafficLight`.

Now let us make it an instance of `Eq`:

```
instance Eq TrafficLight where
  Red == Red      = True
  Green == Green  = True
  Yellow == Yellow = True
  _ == _         = False
```

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Implementing Mutually Recursive Functions

minimal complete definition

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Further Instanting with Show

Now we also make `TrafficLight` an instance of the `Show` type class:

```
instance Show TrafficLight where
  show Red = "Red Light"
  show Green = "Green Light"
  show Yellow = "Yellow Light"
```

Then make sure to not gloss over the following interactive testing:

```
Red == Red
Red == Yellow
Red `elem` [Red, Yellow, Green]
[Red, Yellow, Green]
```

- `Eq` could have just been derived, but not `show` as you observe the last expression printed

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Date
Instance
of Show
(David Semke)

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Date
instance
of Show

```
instance Show Date where
  show (Date y m d) =
    if (y > 1999 && y < 2023
        && m > 0 && m < 13
        && d > 0 && d < 32)
    then (
      let year = show y
          day = show d
          month
            ...
      in month ++ " " ++ day ++ ", " ++ year
    )
    else "Invalid Date!"
```

| m == 1 = "Jan"
 | m == 2 = "Feb"
 | m == 3 = "Mar"
 | m == 4 = "Apr"
 | m == 5 = "May"
 | m == 6 = "June"
 | m == 7 = "Jul"
 | m == 8 = "Aug"
 | m == 9 = "Sep"
 | m == 10 = "Oct"
 | m == 11 = "Nov"
 | m == 12 = "Dec"

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Subclasses

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— Parameterized Types as Instances of Type Classes —

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Toward
Parameterization

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Parameterization

Remember, you must have a concrete type for all parameters listed for describing a function:

- e.g.: you cannot have a function of type `a -> Maybe`
- e.g.: you **can** have a function of type `a -> Maybe a`

This is also why we **cannot** have the following:

```
instance Eq Maybe where
```

- similar to why `Maybe` is not a concrete type
- we want to avoid repeating implementation for all the different concrete types
 - **not:** `instance Eq (Maybe Int)`, `instance Eq (Maybe Char)`, etc
 - so, use a type variable, i.e.:

```
instance Eq (Maybe m) where
  Just x == Just y    = x == y
  Nothing == Nothing  = True
  _ == _              = False
```

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Constraints
on
Parameters

Maybe a

a

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Class Constraints in Instance Declarations

So the class constraint makes sure that any `m` we pass in is of type `Eq`.

Note the two uses of class constraints:

- in class declarations, to make one type class a subclass of another
- in instance declarations, to require some possibly nested contents to be of some type
 - e.g.: we required contents of `Maybe` to be instance of type class `Eq`

We use similar syntax for describing functions,

e.g.: `(==) :: (Eq m) => Maybe m -> Maybe m -> Bool`:

- mentally replacing `a` type variable with your concrete types is what you need to do in your own implementations, since `==` has type `(==) :: (Eq a) => a -> a -> Bool`

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:info

:info

:info Maybe

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— `YesNo` Type Class —

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Boolean-like
Type Class

```
if (0) alert("YEAH!") else alert("NO!")  
if ("" ) alert("YEAH!") else alert("NO!")  
if (false) alert("YEAH!") else alert("NO!")  
  
if ("WHAT") alert("YEAH!") else alert("NO!")
```

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YesNo Type Class (1)

We implement this for practice, and we typically would be better to rely on the default `Bool` type for test conditions.

```
class YesNo a where
  yesno :: a -> Bool
```

The above class type will mean any instance types will need to implement the `yesno` function.

- the intention of the `yesno` function:
 - should check value of type `a`
 - return some Boolean-like value of `True` or `False` of our custom design

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YesNo Type Class (2)

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YesNo Instance for Lists

Similarly, we can instance YesNo for lists:

```
instance YesNo [a] where
  yesno [] = False
  yesno _ = True
```

- we put a type variable `a` inside the list square brackets to
 - make the type concrete
 - without making any assumptions about the concrete type passed in

An interesting concise way to implement the `Bool` type:

```
instance YesNo Bool where
  yesno = id
```

The `id` (short for "identity") is a function from the standard library that just returns the parameter passed in.

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Many Instances of YesNo

Maybe a

Tree a

TrafficLight

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YesNo Testing

Test out the behaviour of `YesNo` instances:

```
yesno $ length []  
yesno "haha"  
yesno $ Just 0  
yesno True  
yesno EmptyTree  
yesno []  
yesno [0,0,0]  
:t yesno
```

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JavaScript-like
Behaviour

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— The Functor Type Class —

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Functors

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Functor Behaviour

This may look strange at first, but it will remind you of how we worked with the `map` function before on lists.

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

The `Functor` type class is quite a bit different from the previous ones we have seen so far.

- note that `f` is the major difference, being a parameterized type
 - so `f` is not a concrete type
 - `f` can be thought of as a context we want containing nested elements
- this allows us to program code to avoid having many nested calls
 - e.g.: `map` applies some function to elements of a list

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Implementation
of fmap

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Empty Lists

Note that `fmap``:

- of an empty list of concrete type `[a]`
 - just results in an empty list of concrete type `[b]`
- (whatever `a`` and `b`` happen to be implemented as)

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— Maybe as a Functor —

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Maybe as a Functor

Then any parameterized type is ripe for implementation with `Functor`, such as `Maybe`:

```
instance Functor Maybe where
  fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
  fmap f Nothing = Nothing
```

Again, notice we are filling in a type constructor `Maybe` and not a concrete type `(Maybe a)`.

- for `fmap` we have a description `(a -> b) -> Maybe a -> Maybe b`
- nested value of `Just` has the `a -> b` function applied to it
 - then we do not have to explicitly write that nesting ourselves later

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Check with
Signatures

m a

m b

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fmap Practice

Some expressions to try:

```
fmap (++ " BECOMES PART OF THE NESTED MAYBE VALUE!")
      (Just "Something serious.")
fmap (++ " BECOMES PART OF THE NESTED MAYBE VALUE!") (Nothing)
fmap (*2) (Just 200)
fmap (*2) Nothing
```

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— Trees as Functors —

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Tree Instance of Functor

Anything we make an instance of `Functor` type class is some kind of container, such as `Tree` we implemented:

- the `Tree` type constructor takes only one parameter
- to implement `fmap` it looks like `(a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b`

This time, we will have to implement things recursively:

- the base case of an empty tree is another empty tree
- anything else has the function applied to the root node, and `fmap` applied to left and right subtrees separately

```
instance Functor Tree where
  fmap f EmptyTree = EmptyTree
  fmap f (Node x left right) =
    (Node f x) (fmap f left) (fmap f right)
```

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Testing Tree Functor Behaviour

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— **Either** as a Functor —

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Two Type
Parameters

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Map Instance of Functor

Similar types that have multiple type parameters can be made instance of Functor, say `Data.Map` with its type description `Map k v`.

- then `fmap` would take
 - first parameter some function `v -> w`
 - second parameter a map of type `Map k v`
- `fmap` should then return a map of type `Map k w`
- see if you can implement how to make `Map k` an instance of `Functor`

Important: a Functor instance is the “context”, e.g.: `Map`, and not the same thing as the function passed in to `fmap`.

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— Kinds —

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The `kind` Command

Every value in Haskell has a concrete type, but even each type has a type—known as a **kind**.

To check the kind of a type, use `:k`` command:

```
:k Int
```

The result gives `Int :: *` where the `*` just means `Int`` is a concrete type.

- read out loud as "star" or "type"

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One Type Parameter for Functors

Then let us take a look at the kind of `Either`:

```
:k Either
:k Either String
```

- the result for `:k Either` is ` $* \rightarrow * \rightarrow *$ `
- the next result is ` $* \rightarrow *$
- the `Functor` type class expects a type constructor of kind ` $* \rightarrow *$
- a `Functor` instance must be a type constructor function that takes one type parameter and returns a concrete type

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— Chapter 8: Input and Output —

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— Separating Pure from Impure —

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I/O has
Side
Effects

side effects

side effects

pure

impure

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Scripts

We will move on to writing scripts that perform more than simply defining functions (and then testing them in ghci).

Let us start with the familiar "Hello, World!" program:

```
main = putStrLn "Hello, World!"
```

Save the above in a file called `hello.hs`.

- there could be different commands for compiling depending on your development environment

For Windows and the Haskell stack command line:

```
stack ghc hello
```

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Compile and Run

```
ghc --make hello
```

```
hello.exe
```

```
./hello
```

```
main
```

```
main
```

```
:script hello.hs
```

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I/O Actions

Let us take a look at the type of the function `putStrLn`:

```
:t putStrLn
:t putStrLn "Hello, World!"
```

- First result: `putStrLn :: String -> IO ()`
- Second result: `putStrLn "Hello, World!" :: IO ()`

The first result has `putStrLn` function that takes a string and returns an **I/O action** that **yields** an empty tuple.

- printing to the terminal does not have any meaningful side effect, so the empty tuple represents a dummy value `()` is also the description of its type

An **I/O action** will be executed when we execute `main`.

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— Gluing I/O Actions Together —

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Context of `do` Block

A program involves **gluing together** multiple I/O actions:

```
main = do
  putStrLn "Hello, what is your name?"
  name <- getLine
  putStrLn ("Hey, " ++ name ++ ", you rock!")
```

Save the program as `ask.hs`, compile, and run.

- the above I/O actions were glued together into one I/O action with the use of `do` keyword
- `main` always has a type of `IO something`
- the program `main` above has type `IO ()`
- it is not typical to give type declaration for `main`

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getLine Function

getLine

IO

String

name

String

<-

impure

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Impure Data and Environments

note: `tellfortune`
function is not
implemented in textbook

Consider the following program:

```
main = do
  putStrLn "Hello, what's your name?"
  name <- getLine
  putStrLn $ "This is your future: " ++ tellFortune name
```

the `tellFortune` function does not need to know anything about `IO String` because `name` is just type `String`

- to emphasize this, we cannot do the following
`nameTag = "Hello, my name is " ++ getLine`
 - we cannot concatenate a `String` and an I/O action
 - we first need the string yielded from the I/O action
- we can only get yielded data,
or **impure data** from within an **impure environment**

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Variable Binding

```
foo <-
name <-
```

return value

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When I/O Actions Happen

The following is possible:

```
myLine = putStrLn
```

but it just gives another name to the `putStrLn` I/O action, so there is not much need.

I/O actions will be performed:

- when `main` is executed
- a `do` block is executed in main with an I/O action nested inside
 - `do` blocks glue together I/O actions
 - these blocks can be nested inside another `do` block
 - all will be performed if within any level nested inside `main`
- when we type an I/O action statement in ghci and press `ENTER`

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Example for
Combining
I/O Actions
(Hunter Klassen)

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GHCI and I/O Actions

Ghci session performs I/O action when we simply type a value; ``show`` converts the value to a string and then uses ``putStrLn``.

We can also use ``let`` expressions within a ``do`` block:

```
main = do
  putStrLn "What's your first name?"
  firstName <- getLine
  putStrLn "What's your last name?"
  lastName <- getLine
  let
    bigFirstName = map toUpper firstName
    bigLastName = map toUpper lastName
  putStrLn $
    "hey "
    ++ bigFirstName
    ++ " "
    ++ bigLastName
    ++ ", how are you?"
```

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Layout Syntax

```
layout

<-          result

let                                pure

let firstName = getLine
```

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— Reverse Strings in I/O —

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Recursive
IO Actions

```

main
    reverseWords
    main
    putStrLn $ "exiting main"
reverseWords
reverseWords

```

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Working with I/O Actions

- ``putStrLn`` statement when ``main`` exits helps you see recursion
- the recursive call to ``main`` is itself an **I/O action**
 - a nested ``do`` block glues ``putStrLn`` and ``main`` calls into **one I/O action** expected by ``else``
- the ``unwords`` function concatenates all the words together from its input list
- the ``return`` statement is special when used inside an I/O action because it **wraps** a pure value into the type ``IO a``
 - similarly, ``return "ha"`` will wrap a yield into the type ``IO String``
- condition ``if null line`` at some point expects an empty string returned into it yielded from ``getLine``

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return in Haskell

```

return
return
return
return

```

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I/O Action Wrapping and Unwrapping

Realize that ``return`` is the inverse of ``<-``, wrapping and unwrapping, respectively, I/O action yield values.

- keep in mind the examples are just demonstration—use ``let`` to simply assign variables
- ``return`` is used to wrap as the result given back at the end of a ``do`` block when an expression itself is not an I/O action

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— Demonstrations of Some I/O Action Functions —

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End of
Line

The following demonstrates the difference between
``putStrLn`` and ``putStr``:

```
main = do
  putStr "Hey, "
  putStr "I'm "
  putStrLn "Andy!"
```

- observe that ``putStr`` does not move output to the next line

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One
Output
Character

```
putChar
```

```
putChar
putChar
putChar
```

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Implementation
of `putStr`

We can recursively implement our own version of `putStr` using `putChar`:

```
putStr' :: String -> IO ()
putStr' [] =
    return ()
putStr' (x:xs) = do
    putChar x
    putStr' xs
```

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End-of-Line

```
putStrLn'
putStrLn'

putStrLn'

putStrLn'
```

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print

The function `print` is basically `putStrLn . show`, as demonstrated:

```
main = do
  print True
  print 2
  print "haha"
  print 3.2
  print [3,2,1]
```

- ghci actually just uses `print` to automatically display anything we evaluate that is a type instance of `Show`
- notice that `print` places double-quotes around strings, whereas `putStr` and `putStrLn` do not

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when Construct

```
True           do           return
False          return ()
```

```
when           do
```

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return ()

Without the ``when`` function, then we are forced to write the ``else`` statement corresponding to ``if``:

```
main = do
  input <- getLine
  if (input == "SWORDFISH")
    then putStrLn input
    else return ()
```

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sequence

sequence

getLine

sequence

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Lists of I/O Actions

``map print [1,2,3,4]`` results in a **list** of I/O actions,

- but not itself an I/O action!
- therefore, it will not be executed when we press ``ENTER`` or run it in a program

This is the next use of ``sequence``,
to execute such a list:

```
sequence $ map print [1,2,3,4]
```

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Ignoring Output

```
sequence
```

```
_ <-
```

```
_ = 3
```

```
_ <-
```

```
_ =
```

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mapM and mapM_

The uses of `sequence` together with `map` for I/O actions was so common that a combined function is provided now:

```
mapM print [1,2,3]
```

And if you do not want the evaluated list of empty actions, there is also the `mapM_` version:

```
mapM_ print [1,2,3]
```

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forever

forever

<https://www.haskellforall.com/2012/07/breaking-from-loop.html>

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forM

With the function `forM`, we finally get at code that looks something like other programming languages:

```
import Control.Monad

main = do
  colours <- forM [1,2,3,4] (\a -> do
    putStrLn $
      "Which colour do you associate with the number "
      ++ show a ++ "?"
    colour <- getLine
    return colour)
  putStrLn "The colours you associated with 1, 2, 3, and 4 are: "
  mapM_ putStrLn colours
```

- `forM` function evaluates to an I/O action

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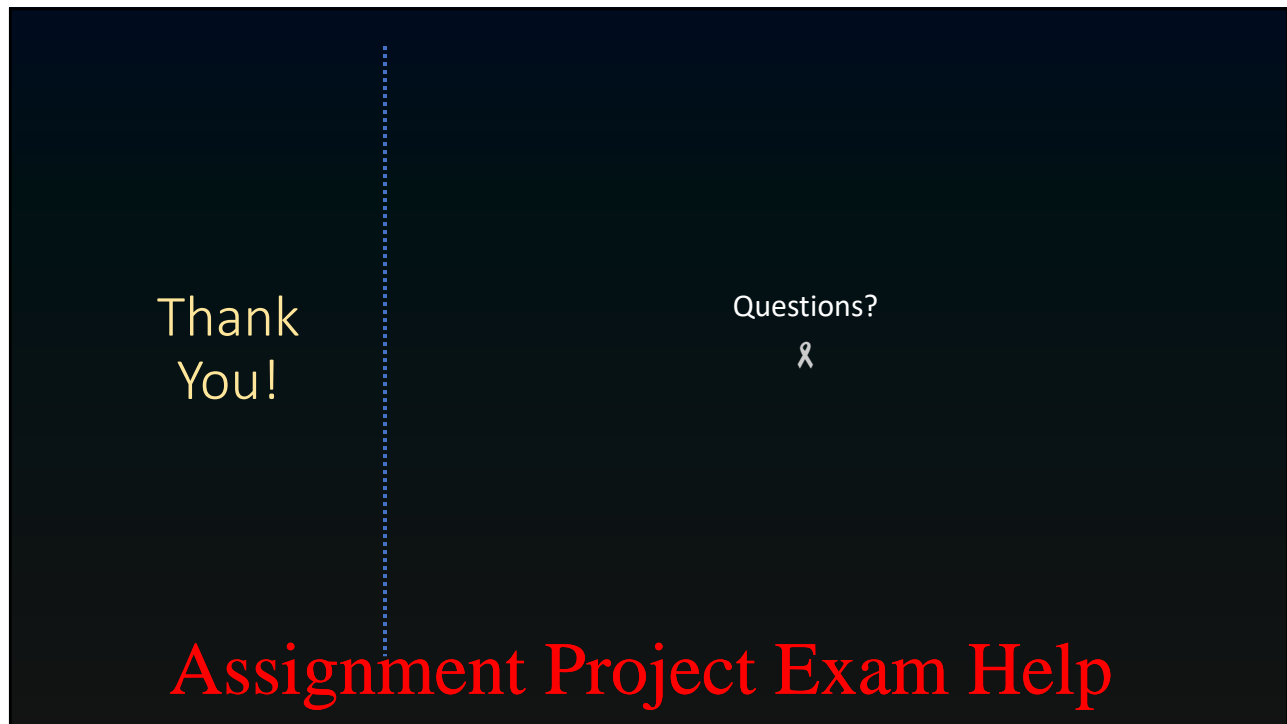
Simplifying
do Blocks

forM

mapM

getLine

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