

# PROGRAMMING IN HASKELL

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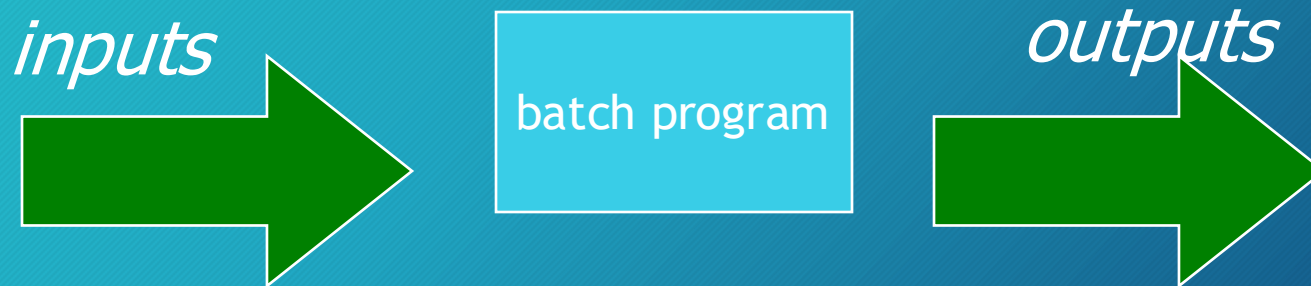


## Chapter 9- Interactive Programming

# Introduction

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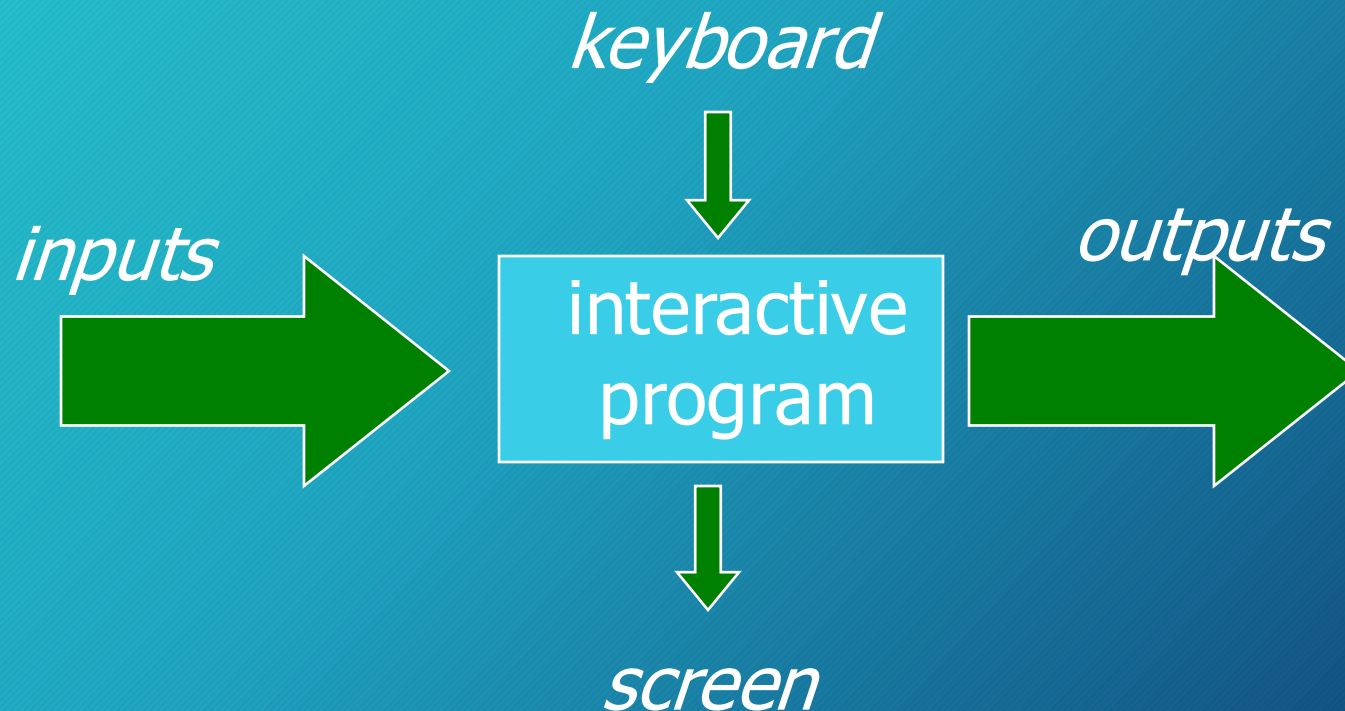
To date, we have seen how Haskell can be used to write batch programs that take all their inputs at the start and give all their outputs at the end.



# Introduction

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However, we would also like to use Haskell to write interactive programs that read from the keyboard and write to the screen, as they are running.





# mystery's in Java ..

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```
public static int mystery1(int val1, int val2) {  
    int val3 = 3;  
    return (val1+val2+val3)^2;  
}
```

Both have the  
same signature



```
public static int mystery2(int val1, int val2) {  
    int val3 = 3;  
    Scanner in = new Scanner(System.in);  
    System.out.println("Enter a number: ");  
    try {  
        val3 = in.nextInt();  
    } catch (Exception e) {  
        e.printStackTrace();  
    }  
    return (val1+val2+val3)^2;  
}
```

mystery2 depends on the  
outside world.

Specifically, if I call  
mystery2(4,5) today and  
tomorrow, I may get  
different results.

# The Problem

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Haskell programs are pure mathematical functions:

- Haskell programs have no side effects.

However, reading from the keyboard and writing to the screen are side effects:

- Interactive programs have side effects.

## The Solution

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Interactive programs can be written in Haskell by using types to distinguish pure expressions from impure actions that may involve side effects.

`IO a`

The type of actions that return a value of type `a`.

# IO Types

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For example:

`IO Char`

The type of actions that return a character.

`IO ()`

The type of purely side effecting actions that return no result value.

Note:

`()` is the type of tuples with no components.



# What is an Action?

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Actions:

- Have the type **IO t**
- Are first-class values in Haskell - fit in seamlessly
- Produce an effect when they are performed, but not when evaluated.  
i.e. they produce an effect only when called by something else in an I/O context.



# What is an Action?

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## Actions:

- Any expression may produce an action as its value, but the action will not perform I/O until it is executed inside another I/O action (or it is main)
- Performing (executing) an action of type
  - IO tmay perform I/O and will ultimately deliver a result of type t.

# The IO Type

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Actions:

- Values of type

IO a

are

- *descriptions of* effectful computations,
- which, if executed would (possibly) perform some effectful I/O operations and (eventually) produce a value of type a.

# The IO Type

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`c :: Cake`





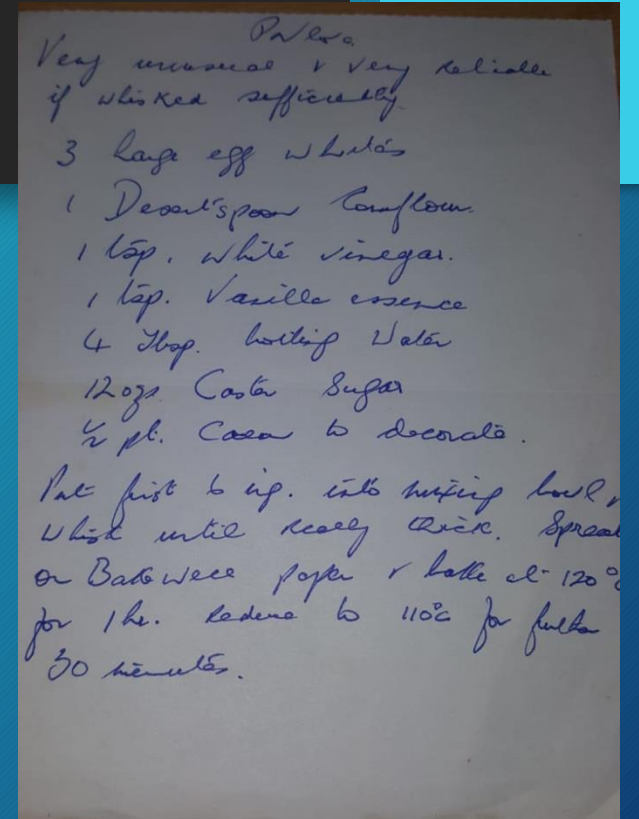
# The IO Type

Alternatively we can have

c :: Recipe Cake

What do you have? A cake?

No, you have some *instructions* for how to make a cake, just a sheet of paper with some writing on it.



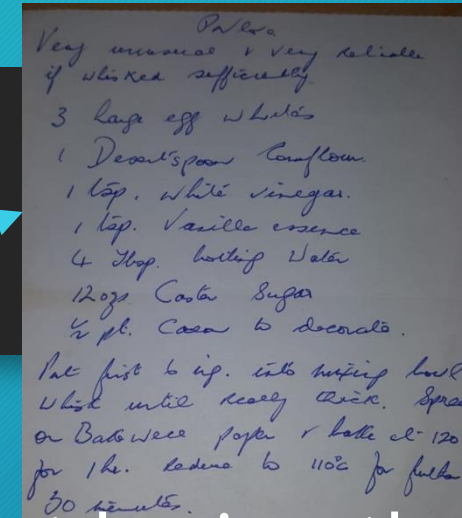
# The IO Type

c :: Recipe Cake

Not only do you not actually have a cake, just having the recipe has no effect on anything else whatsoever. Simply holding the recipe in your hand does not, for instance:

- Cause your oven to get hot or
- Put all ingredients in the bowl or
- Mix the ingredients

To actually produce a cake, the recipe must be followed (ingredients bought, causing flour to be spilled, ingredients mixed, the oven to get hot, *etc.*).



*Palo*  
Very unusual & very reliable  
if whisked sufficiently.  
3 large egg whites  
1 Dessertspoon Cornflour  
1 tsp. white vinegar.  
1 tsp. Vanilla essence  
4 Tbsp. boiling Water  
12ozs Castor Sugar  
½ pt. Cream to decorate.  
Put first 6 ing. into mixing bowl &  
Whisk until nearly thick. Spread  
on Baking paper & bake at 120°  
for 1 hr. reduce to 110° for further  
30 minutes.

# The IO Type

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In the same way, a value of type `IO a` is just a “recipe” for producing a value of type `a` (and possibly having some effects along the way). Like any other value, it can be passed as an argument, returned as the output of a function, stored in a data structure, or (as we will see shortly) combined with other `IO` values into more complex recipes.



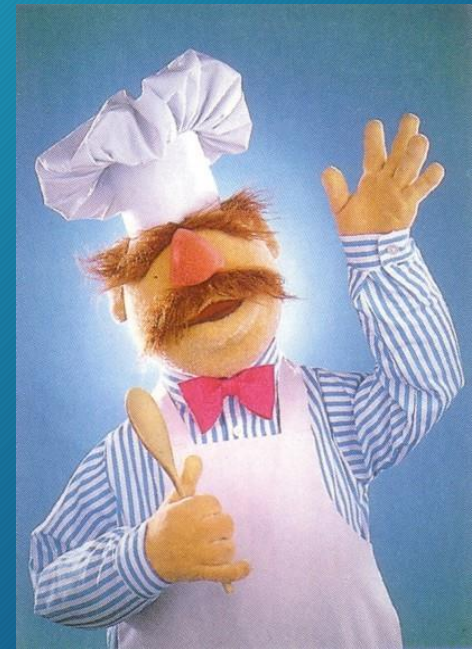
Click to see  
video



- So, how do values of type IO actually ever get executed? (Apart from when we use the interactive GHCi)
- There is only one way: the Haskell compiler looks for a special value
- which will actually get handed to the runtime system and executed. That's it!

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

Think of the Haskell runtime system as a master chef who is the only one allowed to do any cooking.



## Basic Actions

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The standard library provides a number of actions, including the following three primitives:

The action *getChar* reads a character from the keyboard, echoes it to the screen, and returns the character as its result value:

```
getChar :: IO Char
```



## Basic Actions

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```
getChar :: IO Char
```

- Look at its type - it looks like a value rather than a function - actually, `getChar` stores an I/O action. When it's performed you get a `Char`.
- The `<-` operator is used to “pull out” the result from performing the I/O action and store it in the variable.

## Basic Actions

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- The action *putChar* *c* writes the character *c* to the screen, and returns no result value:

```
putChar :: Char → IO ()
```

- The action *return* *v* simply returns the value *v*, without performing any interaction:

```
return :: a → IO a
```

## Sequencing

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A sequence of actions can be combined as a single composite action using the keyword do.

For example:

```
act :: IO (Char,Char)
act = do x ← getChar
        getChar
        y ← getChar
        return (x,y)
```



The do notation give us a way of building IO programs from the components that we have seen. It does two things :

- It is used to sequence I/O programs
- It is used to name the values returned by the IO actions - this means that the later actions can depend on values captured earlier in the program

## Derived Primitives

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- Reading a string from the keyboard:

```
getLine :: IO String
getLine = do x ← getChar
            if x == '\n' then
                return []
            else
                do xs ← getLine
                   return (x:xs)
```

if .. then .. else

## Writing a string to the screen:

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```
putStr :: String → IO ()  
putStr []      = return ()  
putStr (x:xs) = do putChar x  
                  putStr xs
```

Writing a string and moving to a new line:

```
putStrLn :: String → IO ()  
putStrLn xs = do putStr xs  
                putChar '\n'
```



# Other examples

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- Writing a string four times:

```
put4times :: String → IO ()  
put4times str  
    = do putStr str  
        putStr str  
        putStr str
```

Spaces not  
tabs!



# Other examples

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## Reading input

```
read2lines :: IO ()  
read2lines  
  = do getLine  
       getLine  
       putStrLn "two lines read"
```

`read2lines` is applied to 2 arguments (the two lines that are typed in)

# Other examples

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- Using the input

```
getNput :: IO ()  
getNput = do line <- getLine  
           putStrLn line
```

- Note that in Haskell, each

**var <-**

creates a new variable - so, this 'single assignment' is allowed (rather than 'updatable assignment')

- line <- getLine** acts as a local definition



# Other examples

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We can't change line but we can use it differently:

```
reverse2lines :: IO ()  
reverse2lines =  
    do line1 <- getLine  
       line2 <- getLine  
       putStrLn(reverse line1)  
       putStrLn(reverse line2)
```

# Other examples

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- We can also use local definitions:

Only used to name IO actions

```
reverse2lines2 :: IO ()
reverse2lines2 =
    do line1 <- getLine
       line2 <- getLine
       let rev1 = reverse line1
       let rev2 = reverse line2
       putStrLn(rev1)
       putStrLn(rev2)
```

Local definitions

# Pure Versus I/O

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Pure code ensures that Haskell functions return the same result when given the same input and have no side effects. We use the execution of I/O actions to avoid these rules

Pure	Impure
Always produces the same result when given the same parameters	May produce different results for the same parameters
Never has side effects	May have side effects
Never alters state	May alter the global state of the program , system or world



- In other languages (e.g. C, Java) cannot be sure of no side effects (need to read documentation, hope it's accurate).
- Many bugs are caused by unanticipated side effects.
- This can cause cascading effects when using multi-threading, other forms of parallelisms.
- In Haskell, isolating side effects into I/O actions provides a clear boundary between no side effects and potential side effects.

# Back to mystery's in Java .. recap

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```
public static int mystery1(int val1, int val2) {  
    int val3 = 3;  
    return (val1+val2+val3)^2;  
}
```

```
public static int mystery2(int val1, int val2) {  
    int val3 = 3;  
    Scanner in = new Scanner(System.in);  
    System.out.println("Enter a number: ");  
    try {  
        val3 = in.nextInt();  
    } catch (Exception e) {  
        e.printStackTrace();  
    }  
    return (val1+val2+val3)^2;  
}
```

## mystery's in Haskell ..

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```
mystery1 :: Int -> Int -> Int
mystery1 val1 val2 = (val1 + val2 + val3)^2
  where val3 = 3
```

It is clear where IO  
is involved

No IO  
involved  
here

```
mystery2 :: Int -> Int -> IO Int
mystery2 val1 val2 = do
  putStrLn "Enter a number"
  val3Input <- getLine
  let val3 = read val3Input :: Int
  return ((val1 + val2 + val3)^2)
```

IO involved  
here



## More Examples

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We can now define an action that prompts for a string to be entered and displays its length:

```
strlen :: IO ()  
strlen = do putStr "Enter a string: "  
           xs ← getLine  
           putStr "The string has "  
           putStr (show (length xs))  
           putStrLn " characters"
```

## More Examples

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```
> strlen
```

```
Enter a string: Haskell
```

```
The string has 7 characters
```

Note:

Evaluating an action executes its side effects, with the final result value being discarded.

# Hangman

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Consider the following version of hangman:

- One player secretly types in a word.
- The other player tries to deduce the word, by entering a sequence of guesses.
- For each guess, the computer indicates which letters in the secret word occur in the guess.



# Hangman

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- The game ends when the guess is correct.

We adopt a top down approach to implementing hangman in Haskell, starting as follows:

```
hangman :: IO ()
hangman = do putStrLn "Think of a word: "
             word ← sgetLine
             putStrLn "Try to guess it:"
             play word
```

# Hangman

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The action sgetline reads a line of text from the keyboard, echoing each character as a dash:

```
sgetline :: IO String
sgeline = do x ← getCh
           if x == '\n' then
             do putChar x
              return []
           else
             do putChar '-'
              xs ← sgetline
              return (x:xs)
```

# Hangman

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The action **getCh** reads a single character from the keyboard, without echoing it to the screen:

```
import System.IO

getCh :: IO Char
getCh = do hSetEcho stdin False
           x ← getChar
           hSetEcho stdin True
           return x
```



# Hangman

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The function `play` is the main loop, which requests and processes guesses until the game ends.

```
play :: String → IO ()
play word =
    do putStr "? "
       guess ← getLine
       if guess == word then
           putStrLn "You got it!"
       else
           do putStrLn (match word guess)
              play word
```

# Hangman

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The function match indicates which characters in one string occur in a second string:

```
match :: String → String → String
match xs ys =
    [if elem x ys then x else '-' | x ← xs]
```

For example:

```
> match "haske11" "pasca1"
"-as--11"
```

## Reading values in general

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Haskell contains the class `Read` with the function

```
read :: Read a => String -> a
```

This can be used to parse a string representing a value of a particular type into that value



## Example using read

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- Suppose that we want to read an I/O program to read in an integer value.
- To read an integer from a line of input, we start by  
`do line <- getLine`
- Then we need to sequence this with an I/O action to return the *line* interpreted as an *Integer*.
- We can convert the *line* to an integer by the expression  
`read line`

## Example using read

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- What we need is the IO Integer action which returns this value - this is the purpose of return.
- Our program to read an integer is

```
getInt :: IO Integer
getInt =
    do line <- getLine
       return (read line)
```

The compiler can figure out it's an Integer from this

Compiler is expecting an Integer to be returned so needs return

## Being more specific

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More generally, remember that

```
Read a => String -> a
```

So we can specify directly into which type we wish to cast:

```
read "1" :: Int
```

```
Or.. E.g. Inside a do block ..  
..  
st1 <- getLine  
let int1 = read st1 :: Int  
..
```



## Add two numbers using show

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- Recall that to use a non-string type as a string, we use `show`
- Add two numbers and print result

```
add :: IO ()
add = do  putStrLn "Enter two numbers"
         numstr1 <- getLine
         numstr2 <- getLine
         let num1 = read numstr1 :: Int
         let num2 = read numstr2 :: Int
         putStrLn ("Sum is "++ show (num1 + num2))
```

## Alternative using getInt

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Using getInt (which already uses read to make into Integer)

```
add :: IO ()  
add = do  putStrLn "Enter two numbers"  
         num1 <- getInt  
         num2 <- getInt  
         putStrLn ("Sum is "++show (num1+num2))
```

- Programming in Haskell, Graham Hutton
- <https://www.seas.upenn.edu/~cis194/fall16/index.html>
- Get Programming with Haskell, Will Kurt, Manning, ISBN 9781617293764.



