

# PROGRAMMING IN HASKELL

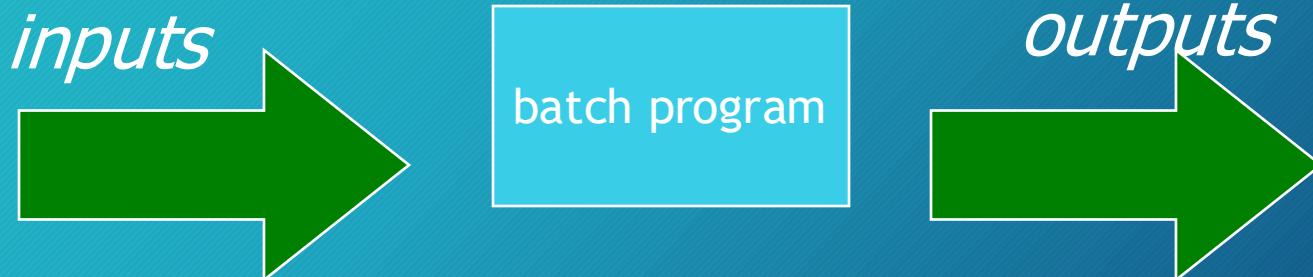


Chapter 9- Interactive Programming

# Introduction

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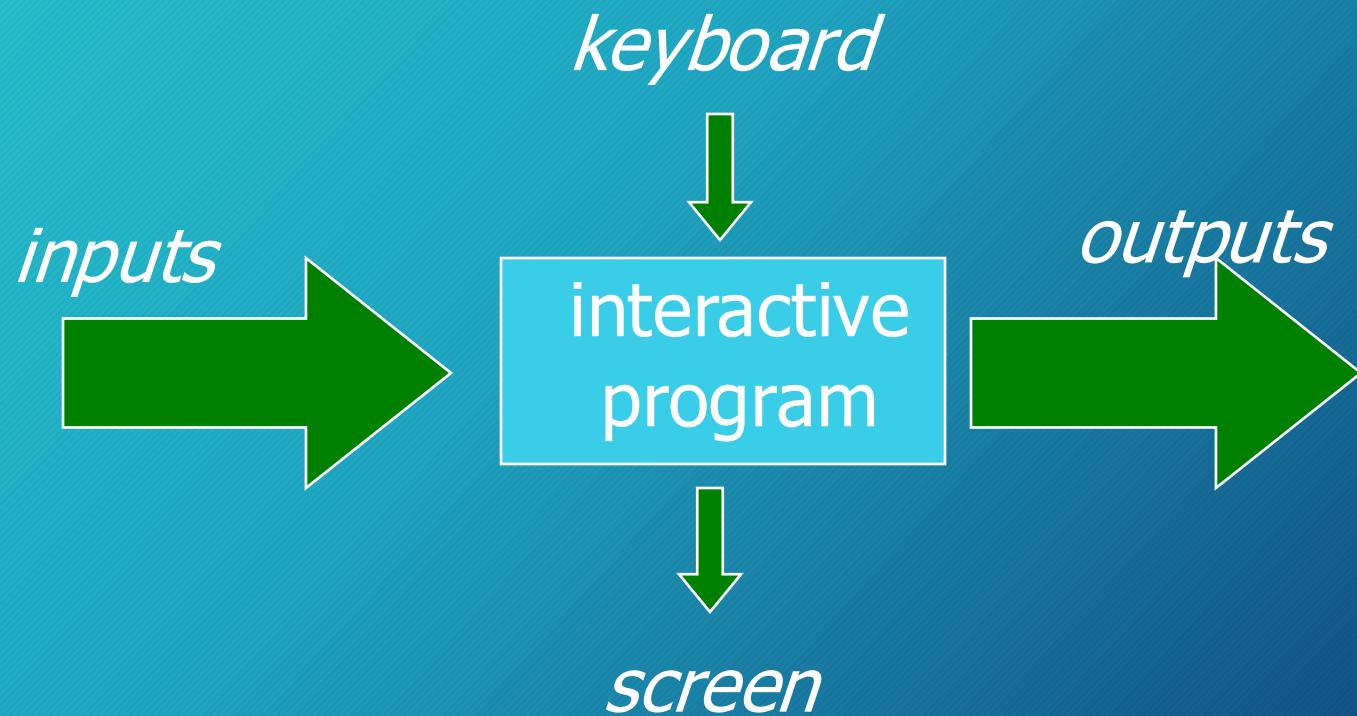
To date, we have seen how Haskell can be used to write batch programs that take all their inputs at the start and give all their outputs at the end.



# 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 ..

```
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

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
  - $\text{IO } t$   
may 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



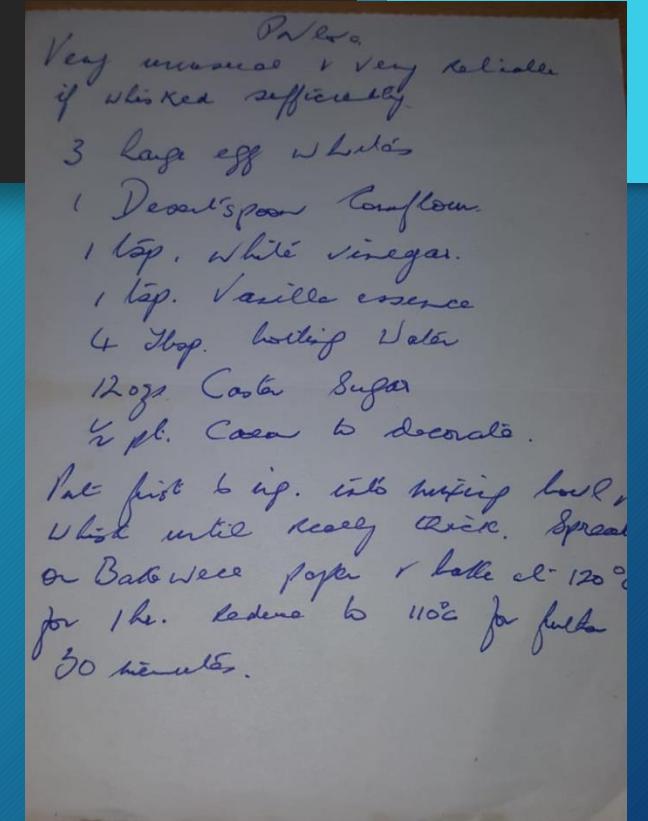
# The IO Type

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.



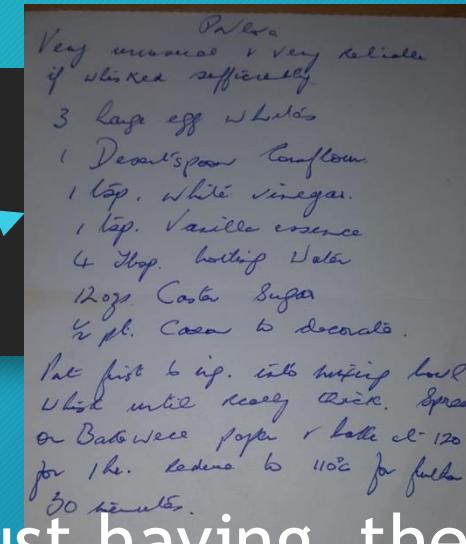
# The IO Type

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.).



# The IO Type

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.

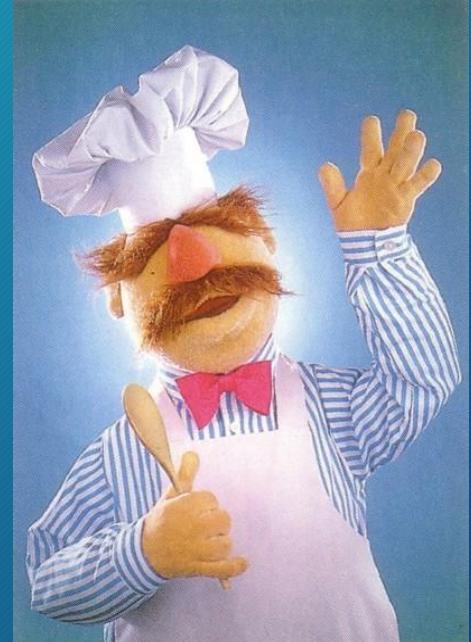


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video

- So, how do values of type `IO a` 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.



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
```

```
getChar :: IO Char
```

- Look at it's 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.

- 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
```

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

- 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 putStrLn str  
        putStrLn str  
        putStrLn str  
        putStrLn str
```

Spaces not  
tabs!

# Other examples

## 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

- 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:

```
reverse2Lines2 :: IO ()  
reverse2Lines2 =  
    do line1 <- getLine  
        line2 <- getLine  
        let rev1 = reverse line1  
        let rev2 = reverse line2  
        putStrLn(rev1)  
        putStrLn(rev2)
```

Local definitions

Only used to name IO actions

# 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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```
mystry1 :: Int -> Int -> Int  
mystry1 val1 val2 = (val1 + val2 + val3)^2  
where val3 = 3
```

It is clear where IO  
is involved

No IO  
involved  
here

```
mystry2 :: Int -> Int-> IO Int  
mystry2 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.

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.

- 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
sgetLine = 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 putStrLn "? "  
    guess ← getLine  
    if guess == word then  
        putStrLn "You got it!"  
    else  
        do putStrLn (match word guess)  
        play word
```

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 "haskell" "pascal"
"-as--ll"
```

## 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`

- 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

- 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

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.

