

Haskell Cheatsheet & Study Guide (Chapters 1-3)

This document is a comprehensive study guide for chapters 1-3. It starts with a quick-reference cheatsheet and is followed by a detailed, commented study guide that merges official course concepts with your personal notes and Rust comparisons.

Part 1: Cheatsheet

Chapter 1: Basics, Functions, and Types

Syntax / Concept	Definition	Example
let...in...	Defines local variables for an expression. The entire let block is an expression.	<code>let x = 5 in x * 2</code> <code>→ 10</code>
where	Defines local variables for a function, scoped across all guards.	<code>area r = pi * r^2</code> <code>where pi = 3.14</code>
Guards (!)	A series of conditional expressions, often cleaner than nested if/then/else .	<code>sign x \ x > 0 = 1</code> <code>\ otherwise = 0</code>
Currying	Functions take one argument and return new functions until all arguments are supplied.	<code>let add5 = (+) 5</code>
(.) Composition	<code>(g . f) x</code> is <code>g(f(x))</code> . Chains functions right-to-left.	<code>let odd = not . even</code>
(\$) Application	Low-precedence function application to avoid parentheses.	<code>sum \$ map (*2)</code> <code>[1..10]</code>

Chapter 2: Lists

List Construction & Basic Properties

Function	Type	Definition	Example
: (Cons)	<code>a -> [a] -> [a]</code>	Prepends an element. $O(1)$.	<code>1 : [2,3] → [1,2,3]</code>

Function	Type	Definition	Example
(++) (Append)	<code>[a] -> [a] -> [a]</code>	Concatenates two lists. $O(n)$.	<code>[1,2] ++ [3,4] → [1,2,3,4]</code>
head	<code>[a] -> a</code>	Returns the first element. Error on [] .	<code>head [1,2] → 1</code>
tail	<code>[a] -> [a]</code>	Returns all but the first element. Error on [] .	<code>tail [1,2] → [2]</code>
last	<code>[a] -> a</code>	Returns the last element. Error on [] .	<code>last [1,2] → 2</code>
init	<code>[a] -> [a]</code>	Returns all but the last element. Error on [] .	<code>init [1,2] → [1]</code>
(!!)	<code>[a] -> Int -> a</code>	Returns element at index. Error on invalid index.	<code>[1,2,3] !! 1 → 2</code>
length	<code>[a] -> Int</code>	Returns the number of elements.	<code>length [1,2] → 2</code>
null	<code>[a] -> Bool</code>	Checks if a list is empty.	<code>null [] → True</code>

Higher-Order Functions

Function	Type	Definition	Example
map	<code>(a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]</code>	Applies a function to every element.	<code>map (*2) [1,2] → [2,4]</code>
filter	<code>(a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]</code>	Keeps elements that satisfy a predicate.	<code>filter even [1,2] → [2]</code>
zip	<code>[a] -> [b] -> [(a,b)]</code>	Pairs elements from two lists.	<code>zip [1,2] "ab" → [(1,'a'),(2,'b')]</code>
concat	<code>[[a]] -> [a]</code>	Flattens a list of lists.	<code>concat [[1],[2]] → [1,2]</code>
takeWhile	<code>(a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]</code>	Takes elements while a predicate is true.	<code>takeWhile (<3) [1,2,3,1] → [1,2]</code>

Function	Type	Definition	Example
dropWhile	$(a \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$	Drops elements while a predicate is true.	dropWhile (<3) [1,2,3,1] \rightarrow [3,1]

List Comprehensions

Syntax	Definition	Example
[out v <- list, guard]	A descriptive way to create lists.	[x*x \ x <- [1..5], odd x] \rightarrow [1,9,25]

Chapter 3: Induction & Theory

Concept	Definition
Structural Induction on Lists	Prove for [] (Base Case), then prove for (x:xs) assuming it holds for xs (Inductive Step).
Structural Induction on Trees	Prove for Null (Base Case), then prove for (Node x l r) assuming it holds for l and r (Inductive Step).
T (Bottom)	Represents a non-terminating computation or an error (undefined).
Strict Function	A function f where f T = T. It cannot recover from a broken input.
Non-Strict Function	A function f where f T can produce a value (e.g., const 1 T \rightarrow 1).

Part 2: Detailed Study Guide

Chapter 1: Foundations of Haskell

1. Basic Function Definition

In Haskell, a function definition typically consists of a type signature (optional but highly recommended) and an implementation.

- **Type Signature:** `functionName :: ArgumentType -> ReturnType`.
The `::` is read as “has type of”.

- **Implementation:** `functionName argument = expression.`

```
-- | `myeven` is a function that takes an Int and returns a Bool.
-- | This is conceptually similar to Rust's `fn my_even(n: i32) -> bool`.
myeven :: Int -> Bool

-- | The function body is an expression. Haskell automatically returns the result of the expression.
-- | This is similar to the final expression in a Rust block that doesn't end with a semicolon.
myeven n = mod n 2 == 0
```

2. Local Definitions: `where` vs. `let`

Both are used to define local variables, but have different scopes and syntax.

- **where:** Scoped over the entire function definition, including all guards. It's written at the end, which can improve readability by keeping helper details out of the main logic.

```
-- | Using `where` to define helper variables.
-- | There is no direct equivalent in Rust, but it can be thought of as helper variables
-- | defined at the end of a function for clarity.
paymentWithWhere :: Int -> Int
paymentWithWhere weeks = salary
  where
    days = weeks * 5
    hours = days * 8
    salary = hours * 130
```

- **let...in...:** Is itself an expression. The variables are only in scope between the `let` and the `in`. This allows for more localized definitions.

```
-- | `let...in...` is an expression, similar to Rust's block expressions:
-- | `let result = { let x = 5; x + 1 };`
paymentWithLet :: Int -> Int
paymentWithLet weeks =
  let
    days = weeks * 5
    hours = days * 8
    salary = hours * 130
  in
    salary
```

3. Guards

Guards provide an elegant way to perform multi-branch conditional logic, often preferred over `if-then-else`.

```
-- | The `|` is very similar to a guard `if` in a Rust `match` arm.
-- | `match weeks { w if w > 19 => ..., _ => ... }`
```

```

-- | `otherwise` is a catch-all, equivalent to Rust's `_`.
paymentWithGuards :: Int -> Int
paymentWithGuards weeks
  | weeks > 19 = round (fromIntegral baseSalary * 1.06)
  | otherwise = baseSalary
where
  baseSalary = weeks * 5 * 8 * 130
  -- `fromIntegral` is for numeric type conversion, like Rust's `as` keyword.

```

4. Currying and Partial Application

This is a core difference from Rust. All Haskell functions are curried, meaning they can be partially applied.

```

-- | The type `Int -> Int -> Int` is read as `Int -> (Int -> Int)`.
-- | It's a function that takes an Int and returns a NEW function of type `Int -> Int`.
smaller :: Int -> Int -> Int
smaller x y = if x <= y then x else y

-- | We can partially apply `smaller` by giving it only one argument.
-- | `st3` is now a new function that finds the smaller of a number and 3.
st3 :: Int -> Int
st3 = smaller 3

```

5. Higher-Order Functions & Composition

Functions that take other functions as arguments or return them.

- **Function Composition** (`.`): `(g . f) x` is `g(f(x))`. It chains functions together, executing from right to left. Rust does not have a built-in operator for this.

```

square :: Int -> Int
square x = x * x

```

```

-- `twice_composed` takes a function `f` and returns a new function `f . f`.
twice_composed :: (a -> a) -> (a -> a)
twice_composed f = f . f

```

```

-- This point-free style is very common in Haskell.
quad_v2 :: Int -> Int
quad_v2 = twice_composed square

```

- **lift2 Example:** A more general higher-order function.

```

-- | `lift2` "lifts" a binary function `h` to operate on the results of two unary functions.
lift2 :: (b -> c -> d) -> (a -> b) -> (a -> c) -> a -> d
lift2 h f g x = h (f x) (g x)

```

```

-- | To compute `(x+1) * (x+2)`
polyCompute :: Int -> Int
polyCompute = lift2 (*) (+1) (+2)

```

Chapter 2: Mastering the List

1. The Nature of Lists

A list is a recursive data structure.

- **Definition:** data `[a] = [] | a : [a]`. A list is either empty (`[]`) or an element `a` prepended (`:`) to another list.
- **Rust Comparison:** This is very similar to a manually implemented `enum List<T> { Nil, Cons(T, Box<List<T>>) }`.
- **Syntax Sugar:** `[1, 2, 3]` is just a cleaner way to write `1 : (2 : (3 : []))`.

2. List Generation

- **Ranges:** `[1..10]`, `[2, 4 .. 10]`, `['a'..'f']`
- **List Comprehensions:** A descriptive syntax for creating lists, combining `map` and `filter` concepts.

```

-- | Find the squares of all odd numbers from 1 to 10.
-- | `x <- [1..10]` is the generator.
-- | `odd x` is the guard (filter).
-- | `x*x` is the output expression (map).
comprehensionExample :: [Int]
comprehensionExample = [x*x | x <- [1..10], odd x]

```

3. Core List Operations

This section covers the most important list functions, many of which have direct parallels to Rust's `Iterator` methods.

- **Basic Operations:** `head`, `tail`, `last`, `init`, `length`, `null`, `(!!)`.
- **Higher-Order Functions:** `map`, `filter`, `zip`, `concat`, `takeWhile`, `dropWhile`.

4. Lazy Evaluation and Infinite Lists

- **Lazy Evaluation:** Expressions are not evaluated until their results are needed.
- **Infinite Lists:** This makes infinite lists a practical tool in Haskell.

```

-- | The infinite list of natural numbers.
naturals :: [Int]

```

```

naturals = [1..]

-- / Because of laziness, this computation is fine. `take` only requests 5 elements,
-- / so only the first 5 elements of `naturals` are ever generated.
fiveNaturals :: [Int]
fiveNaturals = take 5 naturals -- -> [1,2,3,4,5]

```

5. Application: Caesar Cipher (Algorithm)

The logic to crack the cipher without a key is a great example of combining these tools.

Goal: Find the key k that makes the decoded text look most like English.

Algorithm:

```

function crack(ciphertext):
  // 1. Generate all 26 possible decoded texts
  possible_texts = []
  for k from 0 to 25:
    decoded = encode(-k, ciphertext)
    add decoded to possible_texts

  // 2. Score each possible text
  scores = []
  for each text in possible_texts:
    // The score measures how close the letter frequency is to standard English.
    // Lower score is better.
    s = calculate_chisqr_score(text)
    add s to scores

  // 3. Find the best score and its corresponding key
  best_score = minimum value in scores
  best_key = index of best_score in scores

  return best_key

```

This algorithm is implemented in Haskell by mapping over a list of keys $[0..25]$ instead of using loops.

Chapter 3: Definition and Proof by Induction

1. The Core Idea: Proving is Programming

The structure of a recursive function on a data type mirrors the structure of an inductive proof on that same data type.

2. Structural Induction on Lists

To prove a property P for all lists xs , you must prove: 1. **Base Case**: $P []$ holds. 2. **Inductive Step**: Assuming $P\ xs$ holds (the **Inductive Hypothesis**), prove that $P\ (x:xs)$ also holds.

This exactly matches the pattern of a recursive list function:

```
f [] = ...           -- Base Case
f (x:xs) = ... -- Inductive Step, often with a recursive call on `xs`
```

3. Example Proof on Lists: $\text{length}\ (xs ++ ys) = \text{length}\ xs + \text{length}\ ys$

- **Base Case** ($xs := []$): $\text{length}\ ([] ++ ys) = \text{length}\ ys$ (by def of $++$)
The right side is $\text{length}\ [] + \text{length}\ ys = 0 + \text{length}\ ys = \text{length}\ ys$. They match.
- **Inductive Step** ($xs := x:xs'$):
 - **IH**: $\text{length}\ (xs' ++ ys) = \text{length}\ xs' + \text{length}\ ys$
 - **Goal**: $\text{length}\ ((x:xs') ++ ys) = \text{length}\ (x:xs') + \text{length}\ ys$
 - **Proof (LHS)**: $\text{length}\ ((x:xs') ++ ys) = \text{length}\ (x : (xs' ++ ys))$ (by def of $++$) $= 1 + \text{length}\ (xs' ++ ys)$ (by def of length) $= 1 + (\text{length}\ xs' + \text{length}\ ys)$ (by **IH**) This matches the RHS, since $\text{length}\ (x:xs')$ is $1 + \text{length}\ xs'$.

4. Example Proof on Trees: $\text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ t) = n + \text{minT}\ t$

This proof demonstrates induction on a custom `Tree` data type.

- **Data Types**: `haskell data Tree a = Null | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)`
`mapT f (Node x l r) = Node (f x) (mapT f l) (mapT f r)`
`minT (Node x l r) = x `min` (minT l) `min` (minT r)`
- **Base Case** ($t := \text{Null}$):
 - LHS: $\text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{Null}) \rightarrow \text{minT}\ \text{Null} \rightarrow \text{maxBound}$
 - RHS: $n + \text{minT}\ \text{Null} \rightarrow n + \text{maxBound}$
 - maxBound is equivalent to $n + \text{maxBound}$ (as infinity). The base case holds.
- **Inductive Step** ($t := \text{Node}\ x\ \text{left}\ \text{right}$):
 - **IH**: Assume it holds for `left` and `right`.
 - * $\text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{left}) = n + \text{minT}\ \text{left}$
 - * $\text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{right}) = n + \text{minT}\ \text{right}$
 - **Proof (LHS)**: $\text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ (\text{Node}\ x\ \text{left}\ \text{right})) =$
 $\{\text{def of mapT}\} \quad \text{minT}\ (\text{Node}\ (n+x) \ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{left}) \ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{right})) = \{\text{def of minT}\} \quad (n+x) \text{min} (\text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{left}) \ \text{minT}\ (\text{mapT}\ (n+) \ \text{right})) = \{\text{apply IH to left and right}\}$


```

right subtrees}      (n+x)min(n + minT left)min(n + minT
right)    = {property: (n+a)min(n+b) = n + (aminb)}    n +
(xminminT leftminminT right)    = {def of minT}    n + minT
(Node x left right)

```

- The result matches the RHS. The proof is complete.