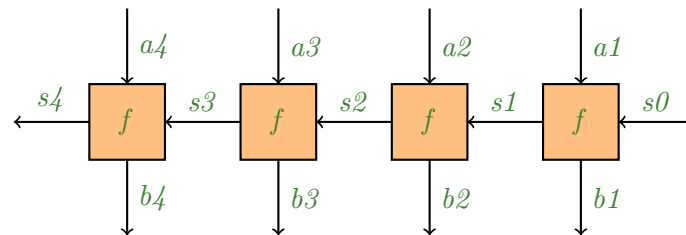


Functional Programming: Exercise 5

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Exercise 5.1 (Skeleton: `Hardware.hs`). Complex circuits are often assembled from simpler components using some regular “wiring pattern”. A simple example is afforded by the ripple carry adder¹, which implements the school algorithm for addition in hardware. It consists of a series of full adders:



Assume we want to add two four bit numbers x and y . For each bit, a full adder (f) is required. It takes two summand bits (top input, i.e. each ai is a pair where one bit stems from x and the other from y) and a carry (right input). It produces a sum bit (bottom output) and a carry (left output).

a) Capture the wiring scheme as a higher-order function:

$$mapr :: ((a, state) \rightarrow (b, state)) \rightarrow ([a], state) \rightarrow ([b], state)$$

The second component of each pair can be seen as a state. In a sense, $mapr$ is a stateful version of map . Contrary to imperative programming, the state is explicit, not implicit. The diagram above shows that the state is threaded through the gates from right to left (hence the r in $mapr$).

b) We now consider some basic electronics. To represent a single bit in Haskell, we use the type `data Bit = O | I`. In our local electronics store, we found AND, OR, and XOR gates, they are represented in Haskell as follows:

```
and, or, xor :: Bit -> Bit -> Bit
and O _ = O
and I b = b
or O b = b
or I _ = I
xor O O = O
xor O I = I
xor I O = I
xor I I = O
```

¹[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adder_\(electronics\)#Ripple-carry_adder](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adder_(electronics)#Ripple-carry_adder)

Using only these gates, build a half adder. It takes two bits as input and calculates the sum and a carry:

```
type Carry = Bit
halfAdder :: (Bit, Bit) → (Bit, Carry)
```

Using only the gates and half adders, build a full adder.

```
fullAdder :: ((Bit, Bit), Carry) → (Bit, Carry)
```

- c) Implement a ripple carry adder using *mapr* with *fullAdder* (and any other Haskell function you need to use to prepare the inputs).

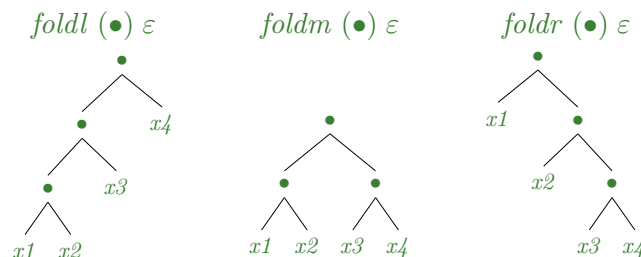
```
rippleAdder :: ([Bit], [Bit], Carry) → ([Bit], Carry)
```

You can assume that both input lists have the same length.

Exercise 5.2 (Skeleton: `BoolMonoids.hs`).

- How many ways are there to turn the type *Bool* into a monoid? (There are sixteen *candidates* as there are sixteen functions of type $Bool \rightarrow Bool \rightarrow Bool$.) Define all of them using **newtype** definitions.
- For each of the Boolean monoids, what is the meaning of *reduce*? Are any of these functions predefined (under a different name)?

Exercise 5.3 (Skeleton: `MapReduce.hs`). In the lectures we have implemented *reduce* in terms of a higher-order function: $reduce = foldr (\bullet) \varepsilon$. Of course, this is a rather arbitrary choice: $reduce = foldl (\bullet) \varepsilon$ works equally well. Since the operation is associative, it does not matter how nested applications of ‘ \bullet ’ are parenthesized. The overall result is bound to be the same. However, there is possibly a big difference in running time. For many applications, a balanced “expression tree” is actually preferable, for example in the mergesort algorithm. In particular, a balanced tree can in principle be evaluated in parallel!



The goal is to define a function

```
foldm :: (a → a → a) → a → [a] → a
```

that constructs and evaluates a balanced expression tree.

- The types of *foldl*, *foldm*, and *foldr* are quite different. Why?
- Implement *foldm* using a *top-down* approach: Split the input list into two halves, evaluate each half separately, and finally combine the results using the monoid operation (*divide and conquer*).
- Implement *foldm* using a *bottom-up* approach: Traverse the input list combining two adjacent elements e.g. $[x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4]$ becomes $[x_1 \bullet x_2, x_3 \bullet x_4]$. Repeat the transformation until the list is a singleton list.