Functional Programming

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Algebraic datatypes and type classes

Lecture 4

Outline

- New datatypes
- Product and sum datatypes
- Parametric datatypes
- Recursive datatypes
- Type classes
- Summary

New datatypes

- we've seen **type** synonyms for existing types
- we've also seen enumerations as new **data** types
- data is much more general than this
 - product and sum datatypes
 - parametric datatypes
 - recursive datatypes

Product datatypes

- constructors of enumerated types are constants (Mon); constructors may be functions too
- e.g. people with names and ages

```
type Name = String
type Age = Int
data Person = P Name Age
• then P :: Name → Age → Person
```

 such constructor functions do not simplify, they are in (head) normal form; moreover, they can be used in pattern-matching

```
showPerson :: Person → String
showPerson (P n a) = "Name: " ++ n ++ ", Age: " ++ show a
```

Sum datatypes

• datatypes can have *multiple variants*

```
data Suit = Spades | Hearts | Diamonds | Clubs
data Rank = Faceless Integer | Jack | Queen | King
data Card = Card Rank Suit | Joker
```

- so a Rank is either of the form Faceless n for some n, or a constant Jack, Queen, or King
- The name Card is used both for a type and for a constructor

Parametric datatypes

- datatypes may be *parametric*
- then constructors are *polymorphic functions*

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

- •e.g. Just 13 :: Maybe Int
- •so Nothing :: Maybe a, Just :: a \rightarrow Maybe a
- useful for modelling exceptions

```
head' :: [a] → Maybe a
head' [] = Nothing
head' (x:_) = Just x
```

Recursive datatypes

- datatypes may be recursive too
- e.g. arithmetic expressions
- e.g. lists
- e.g. binary trees
- e.g. general trees

Example 1: natural numbers

```
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
```

• A value of type Nat is either Zero, or of the form Succ n where n :: Nat. That is, Nat contains the following infinite sequence of values:

```
Zero
Succ Zero
Succ (Succ Zero)
```

- We can think of values of type Nat as natural numbers, where Zero represents 0, and Succ represents the successor function (+1)
- For example, the value Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))
- represents (+1) ((+1) ((+1) 0)) = 3

Conversions between Nat and Int

 Using recursion, it is easy to define functions that convert between values of type Nat and Int

```
nat2int :: Nat → Int
nat2int Zero = 0
nat2int (Succ n) = 1 + nat2int n

int2nat :: Int → Nat
int2nat 0 = Zero
int2nat n = Succ (int2nat (n-1))
```

Nat design pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a pattern of definition
- task: define a function $f :: Nat \rightarrow S$
- step 1: solve the problem for **Zero**f Zero = ...
- step 2: assume that you already have the solution for n at hand, extend the intermediate solution to a solution for Succ n

```
f Zero = ...
f (Succ n) = ... n ... f n ...
you have to program only a step
```

Addition

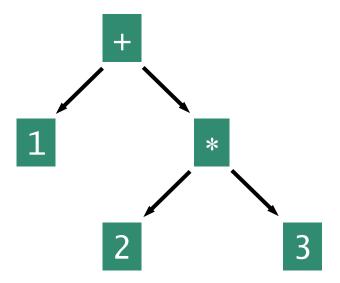
• Two naturals can be added by converting them to integers, adding, and then converting back:

```
add :: Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat add m n = int2nat (nat2int m + nat2int n)
```

 However, using recursion the function add can be defined without the need for conversions:

Example 2: Arithmetic expressions

• Consider a simple form of expressions built up from integers using addition and multiplication.



Representation

• using recursion, a suitable new type to represent such expressions can be declared by:

```
data Expr = Lit Integer | Add Expr Expr | Mul Expr Expr
```

- an arithmetic expressions is either a literal, or two expressions added together, or two multiplied
- e.g. the expression on the previous slide would be represented as follows: Add (Lit 1) (Mul (Lit 2) (Lit 3))
- constructor names may be operators (starting with ':')

Constructing expressions

constructing expressions

```
expr1, expr2 :: Expr
expr1 = (Lit 4 :*: Lit 7) :+: (Lit 11)
expr2 = (Lit 4 :+: Lit 7) :*: (Lit 11)
```

note the difference between syntax

```
>>> Lit 4 :+: Lit 7 :*: Lit 11 Lit 4 :+: Lit 7 :*: Lit 11
```

• and *semantics*

Expr design pattern

recursive definitions by pattern-matching

```
evaluate :: Expr → Integer
evaluate (Lit i) = i
evaluate (e1 :+: e2) = evaluate e1 + evaluate e2
evaluate (e1 :*: e2) = evaluate e1 * evaluate e2
```

the evaluator essentially replaces syntax (:+: and :*:) by semantics (+ and *)

Expr design pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a pattern of definition
- task: define a function $f :: Expr \rightarrow S$
- step 1: solve the problem for literalsf (Lit n) = ... n ...
- step 2: solve the problem for addition, assume that you already have the solution for x and y at hand, extend the intermediate solutions to a solution for x :+: y

```
f (Lit n) = ... n ...
f (x :+: y) = ... x ... y ... f x ... f y ...
```

step 3: do the same for x :*: y

```
f (Lit n) = ... n ...
f (x :+: y) = ... x ... y ... f x ... f y ...
f (x :*: y) = ... x ... y ... f x ... f y ...
```

Lists

- built-in type of lists is not special (has only special syntax)
- equivalent user-defined datatypedata List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
- •e.g. [1,2,3] or 1:2:3:[] corresponds to Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 3 Nil))
- recursive definitions by pattern-matching

```
mapList :: (a → b) → (List a → List b)
mapList _f Nil = Nil
mapList f (Cons x xs) = Cons (f x) (mapList f xs)
```

List design pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a pattern of definition
- task: define a function $f :: List P \rightarrow S$
- step 1: solve the problem for the empty list f Nil = ...
- step 2: solve the problem for non-empty lists; assume that you already have the solution for xs at hand; extend the intermediate solution to a solution for $cons\ x\ xs$

```
f Nil = ...
f (Cons x xs) = ... x ... xs ... f xs ...
you have to program only a step
```

put on your problem-solving glasses

Binary trees

```
externally-labelled binary trees (leaf trees)
data Btree a = Tip a | Bin (Btree a) (Btree a)
e.g. Bin (Tip 1) (Bin (Tip 2) (Tip 3))
e.g. size (number of elements)
size :: Btree a → Int
size (Tip _) = 1
size (Bin t u) = size t + size u
```

Binary search trees

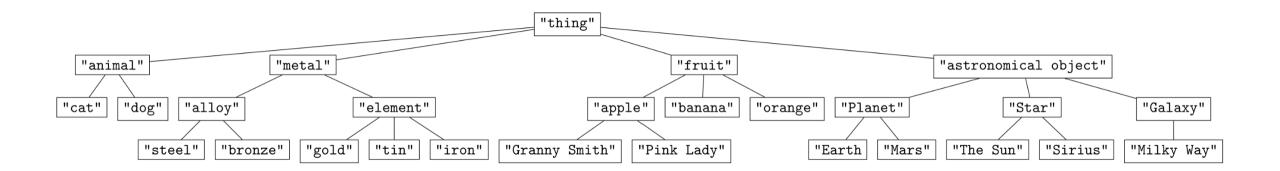
```
internally-labelled binary trees (search trees)
   data STree a = Nil | Node (STree a) a (STree a)
e.g. Node Nil 1 (Node 3 (Node Nil 2 Nil) Nil)
e.g. size (number of elements)
   size :: STree a → Int
   size Nil = 0
   size (Node t _ u) = size t + 1 + size u
```

Binary search trees -- cont

 finding an element contains :: (Ord a) \Rightarrow STree a \rightarrow a \rightarrow Bool contains Nil = False contains (Node 1 v r) x | x < v = contains l x | x > v = contains r x | otherwise = True • inserting an element insert :: (Ord a) \Rightarrow STree a \rightarrow a \rightarrow STree a insert Nil x = Node Nil x Nil insert (Node 1 v r) x | x < v = Node (insert l x) v r| x > v = Node l v (insert r x)| otherwise = Node 1 v r

General trees

- internally-labelled trees with arbitrary branching (rose trees)data Gtree a = Branch a [Gtree a]
- •e.g. Branch 1 [Branch 2 [], Branch 3 [Branch 4 []], Branch 5 []]



Rose tree design pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a pattern of definition
- •task: define a function $f :: Gtree P \rightarrow S$
- data type consists of a single clause: only 1 step
- •step 1: solve the problem for branches; assume that you already have a *list of solutions* of trs at hand; extend the intermediate solutions to a solution for Branch e trs

```
f (Branch e trs) = ... e ... trs ... (map f trs) ...
```

Game trees

• given available moves mov :: Pos → [Pos], generate game tree gametree :: (Pos → [Pos]) → Pos → Gtree Pos gametree mov p = Branch p (map (gametree mov) (mov p))

Case study: longest domino chain



- Let **pieces** by a set of dominoes. Find the longest possible chain that can be made from these dominoes.
- idea:
 - step 1: create one (gigantic) data structure (i.e. a rose tree) containing all admissible chains.
 - step 2: collect the chains of dominoes from this rose tree.

Longest chain: representation

representation

```
type Piece = (Int,Int)
type Chain = [Piece]
```

- structure of the tree:
 - the root contains number 0 (for simplicity)
 - all pieces that have a 0 at one end will start a new branch; the number at the other end of each piece will be stored in the root of the corresponding subtree
 - this process is repeated for all subtrees

```
type DominoTree = Gtree Int
```

Longest chain: growing and harvesting

 growing a tree growtree :: (Int, [Piece]) → DominoTree growtree (m,pcs) = Branch m (map growtree lvs) where lvs = [(if a == m then b else a, delete (a,b) pcs) | $(a,b) \leftarrow pcs, a == m \mid b == m$ picking the chains type Path a = [a] allpaths :: GTree a \rightarrow [Path a] allpaths (Branch el []) = [[el]] allpaths (Branch el trs) = $[el:p \mid ps \leftarrow map allpaths trs, p \leftarrow ps]$

Overloaded Functions

- a (polymorphic) function is called *overloaded* if its type contains one or more *class constraints*
- $eg(+) :: Num a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$
 - for any numeric type a, (+) takes two values of type a and returns a value of type a
- constrained type variables can be instantiated to any types that satisfy the constraints
- Haskell has a number of type classes, including Num, Eq, Ord.
- A type class is essentially a set of types.
 - eg the prelude adds instances of Double, Float, Int, Integer to Num
- You can also add new instances yourself.

Class declarations

- new classes can be declared using the class mechanism.
- eg the class **Eq** of equality types is declared in the standard prelude as follows:

```
class Eq a where
(==), (/=) :: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow Bool
x /= y = not (x == y)
```

- this declaration states that for a type a to be an instance of the class Eq, it must support equality and inequality operators of the specified types.
- default definition has been included the /=
 - declaring an instance only requires a definition for ==

Instance declarations

the type
data Blood = A | B | AB | O
can be made into an equality type as follows:
instance Eq Blood where
A == A = True
B == B = True
AB == AB = True
O == O = True
= False

- Haskell can automatically generate trivial instances for some standard classes (Eq, Ord, Show, ...); you just need to add a **deriving** clause to your data type.
- ie

```
data Blood = A | B | AB | O
  deriving (Eq, Show)
```

More instance declarations

the type
data Gtree a = Branch a [Gtree a]
can be made into an equality type as follows:

instance (Eq a) \Rightarrow Eq (Gtree a) where

Branch e1 trs1 == Branch e2 trs2 = e1 == e2 && trs1 == trs2

Overloading is contagious

what's the type of this function?

```
triple :: Num a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a
triple x = x + x + x
```

what's the type of this function?

```
avg :: Fractional a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a
avg x y = (x + y) / 2
```

The art of functional programming



- model static aspects of the real world using datatypes
- model dynamic aspects using functions
- don't shy away from introducing new types