

Introduction to Functional Programming

Modelling with data types, and list functions

Some slides are based on Graham Hutton's public slides

Recap previous lecture

- Guarded equations (cases)
- Recursion, again
- Types
- Lists and tuples



Today

- Another student representative GU
- List comprehensions
- Modelling with data types
- The ‘cons’ operator
- Defining (recursive) functions over lists
- `where`-clauses and `let`-expressions
- (Testing with properties)



MODELLING DATA

Type declarations

String is a *synonym*
for the type [Char]

- In Haskell, a new name for an existing type can be defined using a *type declaration*.
- Type declarations can be used to make other types easier to read.
- Type declarations can be nested
 - They cannot be recursive

```
type String = [Char]
```

```
type Pos = (Int, Int)
```

```
origin :: Pos  
origin = (0, 0)
```

```
left :: Post -> Pos  
left (x, y) = (x - 1, y)
```

```
type Trans = Pos -> Pos  
type Tree = (Int, [Tree])
```

Data declarations

- A completely new type can be defined by specifying its values using a *data declaration*.
- The two values `False` and `True` are called the constructors for the type `Bool`.
- Type and constructor names must always begin with an upper-case letter.
- Data declarations are like context free grammars. The former specifies the values of a type, the latter the sentences of a language.

```
data Bool = False | True
```

`Bool` is a *new type*, with two new values `False` and `True`

Using data declarations

- Values of new types can be used in the same ways as those of built in types.

```
-- Given:  
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
```

```
answers :: [Answer]  
answers = [Yes, No, Unknown]
```

```
-- We can define  
flip :: Answer -> Answer  
flip Yes      = No  
flip No       = Yes  
flip Unknown  = Unknown
```


Storing data

- The constructors in a data declaration can also have parameters.
- These are also called (constructor) fields
 - We create these fields by listing the type of the field after the constructor name
- We use these fields to 'store' data in a constructor
 - For example, we store a single floating-point number (of type `Float`) in the `Circle` constructor
- `Circle` and `Rect` can be viewed as functions that construct values of type `Shape`

```
data Shape = Circle Float
           | Rect Float Float
```

```
square :: Float -> Shape
square n = Rect n n
```

```
area :: Shape -> Float
area (Circle r) = pi * r^2
area (Rect x y) = x * y
```

```
-- Circle has type Float -> Shape
-- Rect has type Float -> Float -> Shape
```

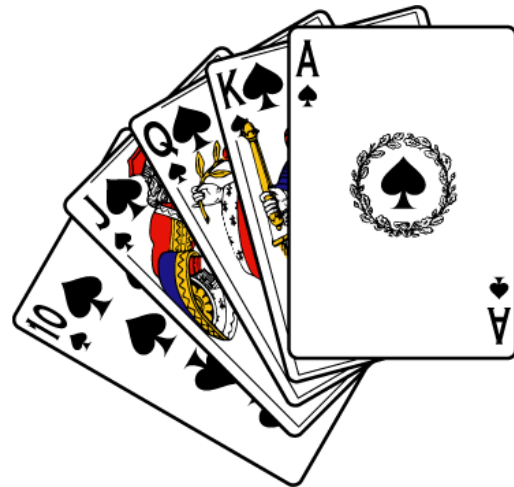
Modelling a card game

- Consider playing cards used in card games
- Every card has a suit: ♠ ♥ ♦ ♣
- We can define a new data type for suits:

```
data Suit = Spades | Hearts | Diamonds | Clubs
```

The new type

The values
of this type

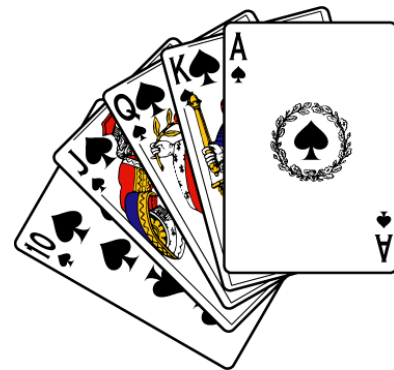


Types and constructors

The new type

The values
of this type

```
data Suit = Spades | Hearts | Diamonds | Clubs
```



- Interpretation:
 - “*Here is a new type* `Suit`. *This type has four possible values:* `Spades`, `Hearts`, `Diamonds` *and* `Clubs`.”
- This definition introduces five things:
 - The type `Suit` and
 - four constructors (`Spades :: Suit`, `Hearts :: Suit`, ...)

Types and constructors

Type

Type

```
data Rank = Numeric Integer | Jack | Queen | King | Ace
```

Constructor

Constructor

- This definition introduces six things:

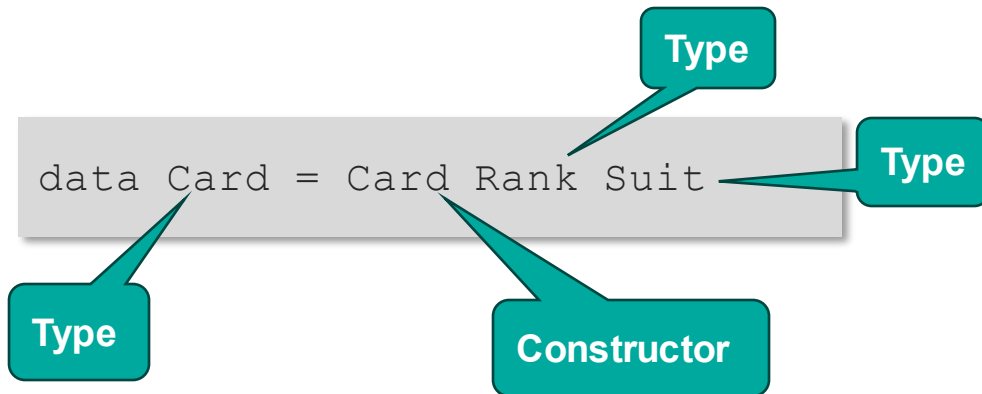
- The type `Rank`

- The constructors:

- `Ace :: Rank`
- `King :: Rank`
- `Queen :: Rank`
- `Jack :: Rank`
- `Numeric :: Integer -> Rank`



Types and constructors



- This definition introduces two things:

- The type `Card`
- The constructor
 - `Card :: Rank -> Suit -> Card`

```
data Card = Card
  { rank :: Rank
  , suit :: Suit
  }
```

Alternative (record) syntax

Pattern matching

- Functions on the values of a data type are usually defined by *pattern matching*
- Functions will often have one equation for each alternative in the data type
- Sometimes alternatives can be combined by using variable or wildcard (don't-care) patterns

```
colour :: Suit -> Colour
colour Spades = Black
colour Clubs  = Black
colour _      = Red
```

```
rank :: Card -> Rank
rank (Card r _) = r
```

FUNCTIONS ON LISTS

Prelude functions on lists

- Haskell comes with a large number of standard library functions. In addition to the familiar numeric functions such as `+` and `*`, the library also provides many useful functions on *lists*.

```
ghci> head [1,2,3,4,5]  
1
```

Select the first element of a list

```
ghci> tail [1,2,3,4,5]  
[2,3,4,5]
```

Remove first element from a list

```
ghci> [1,2,3,4,5] !! 2  
3
```

Select the n-th element of a list

```
ghci> take 3 [1,2,3,4,5]  
[1,2,3]
```

Select first n elements of a list

```
> drop 3 [1,2,3,4,5]  
[4,5]
```

Remove first n elements from a list

Prelude functions on lists

- Haskell comes with a large number of standard library functions. In addition to the familiar numeric functions such as `+` and `*`, the library also provides many useful functions on *lists*.

```
ghci> length [1,2,3,4,5]  
5
```

Calculate the length of a list

```
ghci> sum [1,2,3,4,5]  
15
```

Calculate the sum of all elements

```
ghci> product [1,2,3,4,5]  
120
```

Calculate the product of all elems

```
ghci> [1,2,3] ++ [4,5]  
[1,2,3,4,5]
```

Append two lists

```
> reverse [1,2,3,4,5]  
[5,4,3,2,1]
```

Reverse a list

List patterns

- Internally, every non-empty list is constructed by repeated use of an operator `(:)` called “cons” that adds an element to the start of a list.
- Functions on lists can be defined using `x:xs` patterns
 - `head` and `tail` map any *non-empty* list to its first and remaining elements.

```
[1,2,3,4]
```

= means =>

```
1 : (2 : (3 : (4 : [])))
```

```
head (x:_) = x
```

```
tail (_:xs) = xs
```

List patterns

- `x:xs` patterns only match *non-empty lists*
- `x:xs` patterns must be *parenthesised*, because application has priority over `(:)`.
 - For example, the definition of `head` on the right gives an error

```
ghci> head []  
*** Exception: empty list
```

```
head x:_ = x
```

Recursion on lists

- Recursion is not restricted to numbers, but can also be used to define functions on *lists*.
- The `product` function maps the empty list to 1, and any non-empty list to its head multiplied by the product of its tail.

```
product [] = 1
product (n:ns) = n * product ns
```

```
product [2,3,4]
= 2 * product [3,4]
= 2 * (3 * product [4])
= 2 * (3 * (4 * product []))
= 2 * (3 * (4 * 1))
= 24
```

Recursion on lists

- Using the same pattern of recursion as in product we can define the `length` function on lists.

length maps the empty list to 0, and any non-empty list to the successor of the length of its tail.

```
length [] = 0
length (_:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

```
length [1,2,3]
= 1 + length [2,3]
= 1 + (1 + length [3])
= 1 + (1 + (1 + length []))
= 1 + (1 + (1 + 0))
= 3
```

Recursion on lists

- Using a similar pattern of recursion we can define the `reverse` function on lists.

reverse maps the empty list to the empty list, and any non-empty list to the reverse of its tail appended to its head

```
reverse [] = []  
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]
```

```
reverse [1,2,3]  
= reverse [2,3] ++ [1]  
= (reverse [3] ++ [2]) ++ [1]  
= ((reverse [] ++ [3]) ++ [2]) ++ [1]  
= (([] ++ [3]) ++ [2]) ++ [1]  
= [3,2,1]
```

Local definitions

- In Haskell we have two ways of making local definitions:
 - `where`-clauses
 - `let`-expressions
- This useful for helper functions and being able to reuse the same name
 - Finding good names is hard
- Lexical scope: the definition that is 'closest' is chosen.
 - For example: `inc` from defined in the `where/let` has precedence over the top-level `inc`

```
inc x = x + 10
```

```
addN :: Int -> [Int] -> [Int]
addN n xs = [inc x | x <- xs]
  where
    inc x = x + n
```

```
addM :: Int -> [Int] -> [Int]
addM m xs =
  let inc x = x + m in [inc x | x <- xs]
```



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