Type classes part 2

LYaH:

- Chapter 3 Types and Type Classes
- Chapter 8: Making Our Own Types and Typeclasses

Another generalization of classes

- 1. Done: classes as sets of types that have certain ops defined.
- 2. Done: classes as sets of *tuples* of types that have certain ops defined.
- 3. New: classes as sets of **type constructors**.

Notation: * stands for the *kind* of all types. Some Haskell versions use type for *.

```
Int :: *
[Int] :: *
[Int] -> Int :: *
```

Notation: $* \rightarrow *$ is the kind of all one-argument type constructors.

```
[] :: * -> * -- for any type a, [a] is a type, i.e. a \mapsto [a]

Maybe :: * -> * -- a \mapsto Maybe a

Tree :: * -> * -- where data Tree a = \text{Leaf a} \mid \text{Node (Tree a)}

((->) r) :: * -> * -- a \mapsto r->a

((,) r) :: * -> * -- a \mapsto (r,a)

Tut = Int = (-7) Int Int }

Parameter \geq a \mid b \mid r.
```

The Functor class for "container" type constructors

```
class Functor (f) where
fmap:: (a -> b), -> f a -> f b -- for f=[], fmap=map
instance Functor [] where
     fmap f l = map f l
instance Functor Maybe where
     fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
     fmap f Nothing = Nothing
data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)
instance Functor Tree where
    fmap f (Leaf x) = Leaf (f x)
fmap f (Node t0 t1) = Node (fmap t0) (fmap t1)
```

$$\alpha \mapsto (r, \alpha)$$

```
class Functor ((,) r) where
    -- fmap :: (a -> b) -> (r,a) -> (r,b)
    fmap f (x,y) = (x, f y)

class Functor ((->) r) where
    -- fmap :: †(a -> b) -> g'(r -> a) -> (r -> b)
    fmap f g = \( x -> f \) (g x) -- = f g
```

A puzzle for you. What does fmap fmap do?

Monads

General definition of monad with type

```
class Monad m where
  (>>=) :: t a -> (a -> t b) -> t b -- the "bind" operator -- ???
  --)(>>) :: t a -> t b -> t b -- just a special case of the bind operator return :: a -> t a -- insert a value
```

What does this mean in general? Nothing!

We understand it through particular kinds of instances.

if t: type-stype is a Monad instance

```
instance Monad Maybe where
  -- (>>=) :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b) -> Maybe b
Just x >>= f = f x
Nothing >>= f = Nothing
  -- return :: a -> Maybe a
  return x = Just x

instance Monad IO where
  (>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b = ...
  return :: a -> IO a = ...
```

What do translates to in Haskell

```
do

x1 <- e1

x2 <- e2

xn <- en

e

e1 >>= (\x1 ->

e2 >>= (\x2 ->

en >>= (\xn ->

e))...)
```

Can use the constructors directly:

```
printWithIntro :: (Show a) -> String -> a -> IO()
printWithIntro str x = putStr str >> print x
```

```
instance Monad [] where
 -- (>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
 l >>= f = concat (map f l)
 -- return :: a -> [a]
  return x = [a]
```

A puzzle for you. What does the following return?

A puzzle for you. What does the following return?

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{do} \\
\text{x} \leftarrow [1,2,3] \\
\text{y} \leftarrow [4,5,6] \\
\text{return} (x,y)
\end{array}$$

Interpreters

Big picture

Theme

Symbolic computing

Metaprogramming

Reflection

Compilers

Interpreters

Common element:

Center on formalization of syntax, i.e. data structures representing syntax.

Formalized syntax from assignment 6

"Concrete" ("surface") syntax example:

```
f=plus(times(3.3,23.4),0.0)

g=x

h=f(f(g(x,y)),h(z))
```

Haskell type for "abstract" syntax:

```
data Exp
= Const Double
| Var String
| If Exp Exp Exp
| App1 Name Exp
| App2 Name Exp
```

Writing interpreters in Haskell

- representative of a large&important category of applications
- functional programming with pattern matching is ideally suited
- writing interpreters deepens understanding of the interpreted language
- will learn about two important+deep CS topics:
 - term-rewriting
 - denotational semantics

Plan

- 1. Overview of the Scheme programming language.
- 2. Formalize the (almost-trivial) syntax of Scheme in Haskell.
- 3. Develop an interpreter (evaluator) based on term-rewriting.
- 4. Develop an interpreter (evaluator) based on structural recursion (i.e. recursion with pattern matching).

Scheme: a variant of Lisp, the first FP language

We'll just be using the functional part.

Scheme as compared to Haskell:

- No currying: each function has a fixed number of arguments.
- No types/typechecking.
- No pattern matching or guards.
- Call-by-value: in function call, arguments are evaluated before being passed to function.
- Data is only numbers, strings, #t/#f (true/false), nil and "conses" (pairs).
- Syntax is by far the simplest of any programming language.

Example Scheme programs

```
;;; Using built-in integers
(define (factorial n)
   (if (eq? n 0)
          1
          (* n (factorial (- n 1)))))
```

A Haskell data type for Scheme expressions

```
data Exp
    = Atom String
    | List [Exp]
    | Number Integer
    | String String
    | Nil
    | Bool Bool
    deriving (Eq, Ord, Show)
```

Parse of "(define (factorial ..."

```
List
    [ Atom "define"
    , List [ Atom "factorial" , Atom "n" ]
    , List
        [ Atom "if"
        , List [ Atom "eq?" , Atom "n" , Number 0 ]
        , Number 1
        , List
            [ Atom "*"
            , Atom "n"
            , List
                Atom "factorial"
                , List [ Atom "-" , Atom "n" , Number 1
```

Tree addressing

The result returned by parseExp :: String -> Exp is called a

- parse tree or an
- abstract syntax tree, AST for short

It will be convenient to refer to subtrees using tree paths.

Convenient fact: Scheme AST nodes are simply either leaves or a list of subtrees.

```
type Path = [Int]
```

Exercise: locate the expression at the path address [2,3,0] on the previous slide.

It's convenient to package together an expression and a path into it.

```
data Lens = Lens
{ lensExp :: Exp
, lensPath :: Path
}
```

Two fundamental operations on lenses:

```
-- Get the subexpression addressed by the path.
get :: Lens -> Exp
-- Replace (can't really "set" anything in Haskell) the addressed subexpression
set :: Lens -> Exp -> Exp
```

Exercise: try set and get on lens0 in the lecture's Haskell file.