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Records in Haskell

A record is really just a standard data type with one constructor:

```
data Pair a b = Pair a b
```

To use a type like this you might provide some "accessor" functions:

```
first :: (Pair a b) -> a
first (Pair a _) = a

second :: (Pair a b) -> b
second (Pair _ b) = b
```

Defining the data type as a record type is just a syntactic convenience for creating those accessors, or "fields":

```
newtype Pair a b = Pair {
          first :: a,
          second :: b
}
```

Note that two different record declarations must have disjoint access names.

We can either create values using the urual constructor, or using the named fields:

```
f = Pair 1 'a'
g = Pair { second = 'b', first = 2 }
```

(notice the order doesn't matter when we use the fields)

We can look them up using the field names:

```
h :: (Pair int b) -> Int
h p = (first p) + 1
```

There's also a convenient syntax for creating a new value based on an old one:

```
h = g { second = 'B' }
> h
Pair 2 'B'
```

Consider the following plan to treat Ints differently, by having a show instance that produces roman numerals, plus some code to do additions.

```
newtype Roman = Roman Int
```

We will want a way to get at the underlying Int inside a Roman:

```
unRoman (Roman i) = i
```

We can then define addition:

```
rAdd r1 r2 = Roman (unRoman r1 + unRoman r2)
```

We can now define our Show instance:

```
romanShow i
  | i < 4 = replicate i 'I'
  | i == 4 = "IV"
  | i < 9 = 'V' : replicate (i-5) 'I'
  | i == 9 = "IX"
  | i < 14 = 'X' : replicate (i-10) 'I'
  | otherwise = "my head hurts"</pre>
```

newtypes using Records

From the Roman example we had:

```
newtype Roman = Roman int
unRoman (Roman i) = i
```

Using the record idea, we can do this all in the newtype declaration (lets use R2/unR2 to avoid clashing with the Roman/unRoman)

```
newtype R2 = r2 { unR2 :: Int }
So we can code show and addition as
instance Show R2 where show = romanShow . unR2
```

r2Add r1 r2 = R2 (unR2 r1 + unR2 r2)

Standard (Prelude) Classes in Haskell

A wide range of classes and instances are provided as standard in Haskell

- Relations
 - Eq, Ord
- Enumeration
 - Enum, Bounded
- Numeric
 - Num, Real, Integral, Factional, Floating, RealFrac, RealFloat
- Textual
 - Show, Read
- Higher-Order
 - Functor, Applicative, Monad, Monoid, Foldable, Traversable

Eq a Class

• Class Members

```
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool
(/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

• Intances

```
(), Bool, Char, Int, Integer, Float, Double, Ordering, IOError, Maybe, Either, [a], (a,
```

- Comments
 - $-\,$ There is no instance of Eq for any function type
 - Function equality is undecidable
 - f = g iff f x = g x for all x in input type of f and g

Ord a Class

• Class Members

```
compare :: a -> a -> Ordering
(<), (<=), (>=), (>) :: a -> a -> Bool
max, min :: a -> a -> a
```

• Instances

```
(), Bool, Char, Int, Integer, Float, Double, Ordering, Maybe, Either, [a], (a, b), (a, b
```

- Comments
 - Requires Eq
 - Almost everything with the equality also has ordering defined
 - (except IOError)

The Ordering Type

• It is straightforward data definition

```
data Ordering = LT | EQ | GT
```

• It represents the three possible outcomes of an order comparison

Enum a Class

• Class Members

• Instances

```
Bool, Char, Int, Integer, Float, Double
```

- Comments
 - Basically types for which notation [stard .. end] makes sense
 - The Float and Double instances for Enum should be used with care (rounding errors)

Bounded a Class

• Class Members

```
minBound :: a
maxBound :: a
```

• Instances

```
(), Bool, Char, Int, Ordering, (a, b), (a, b, c)
```

- Comments
 - Types that have a (natural) minimum and maximum value

Num a Class

```
(+), (-), (*) :: a -> a -> a

negate :: a -> a

abs, signum :: a -> a

fromInteger :: Integer -> a
```

```
Int, Integer, Float, Double
```

- Comments
 - Required: Eq, Show
 - Most general notation of number available
 - (Note lack of any form of division)

The Rational Type

• The Rational type, defined in library module Data.Ratio

```
type Rational = Ratio Integer
```

• The Ratio type constructor forms a pair

```
data Ratio a = a :% a
```

• We can build Ratio values using infix data constructor: %

Real a Class

• Class Members

```
toRational :: a -> Rational
```

• Instances

```
Int, Integer, Float, Double
```

- Comments
 - Required Num, Ord
 - A strange class, basically those numbers that can be expressed as rationals (ratio of type numbers)

Integral a Class

• Class Members

• Instances

Int, Integer

- Comments
 - Requires Real, Enum
 - Number types that suuport integer-division in various forms

Fractional a Class

• Class Members

• Instances

Float, Double

- Comments
 - Requires Num
 - Number types that handle real-number division

Floating a Class

Float, Double

- Comments
 - Requires Fractional
 - All the well-known floating-point functions

RealFrac a

• Class Members

```
properFraction :: (Integral b) => a -> (b, a)
truncate, round :: (Integral b) => a -> b
ceiling, floor :: (Integral b) => a -> a
```

• Instances

Float, Double

- Comments
 - Requires Real, Fractional
 - Numbers supporting conversions from real to integral forms

RealFloat a Class

• Class Members

```
floatRadix
                  :: a -> Integer
floatDigits
                  :: a -> Int
floatRange
                  :: a -> (Int, Int)
decodeFloat
                  :: a -> (Integer, Int)
                  :: Integer -> Int -> a
{\tt encodeFloat}
exponent
                  :: a -> Int
significand
                  :: a -> a
                  :: Int -> a -> a
scaleFloat
isNaN, isInfinite, isDenormalised,
isNeative, isIEEE :: a -> Bool
atan2
                  :: a -> a -> a
```

• Instances

Float, Double

- Comments
 - Requires RealFrac, Floating
 - Numbers supporting a floating-point representation plus from IEEE $754~\mathrm{support}$

Show a Class

• Class Members

```
showsPrec :: Int -> a -> ShowS
show :: a -> String
showList :: [a] -> ShowS
```

• Instances

```
(), Bool, Char, Int, Integer, Float, Double, IOError Maybe, Either, Ordering [a], (a, b)
```

- Comments
 - Ways to produce a textual display of a type
 - showPrec tables an intiial precedence argument for pretty-printing
 - There is no instance of Show for functions

The ShowS type

• Define as

```
type ShowS = String -> String
```

• Using string building functions is often more efficient than directly generating strings

Read a Class

```
readsPrec :: Int -> ReadS a
readList :: ReadS [a]
readPrec :: ReadPrec a
readListPrec :: ReadPrec [a]
```

```
(), Bool, Char, Int, Integer, Float, Double, IOError, Maybe, Either, Ordering [a], (a, b
```

- Comments
 - These are parsers that parse the output of show

The ReadS and ReadPrec types

• Define as:

```
type ReadS a = String -> [(a, String)]
newtype ReadPrec = P (Prec -> Read P)
```

- $\bullet\,$ The first function takes a string and return a list of successful parses
- The second is defined in a parser library, that is not part of the Prelude. (We won't discuss this further)

Functor f Class

• Class Members

```
fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f a \rightarrow f b
```

• Instances

```
Maybe, IO, [], (Either e), ((->) r)
```

- Comments
 - Basically any data type where mapping a $\emph{single-argument}$ function makes sense
 - This is in a type-constructor class

Applicative f Class

```
pure :: a -> f a
(<*>) :: f (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
(*>) :: f a -> f b -> f b
(<*) :: f a -> f b -> f a
```

```
Maybe, IO, [], (Either e), ((->) r)
```

- Comments
 - Requires Functor
 - $-\,$ Basically any data type where mapping a $multiple\mbox{-}argument$ function makes sense
 - This is a type-constructor class

Monad m Class

• Class Members

```
(>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
(>>) :: m a -> m b -> m b
return :: a -> m a
fail :: String -> m a
```

• Instances

```
Maybe, IO, [], (Either e), ((->) r)
```

- Comments
 - Requires Applicative
 - Types where sequencing of "actions" makes sense
 - Like Functor, this is also a type-constructor class

Monoid a Class

• Class Members

```
mempty :: a
mappend :: a -> a -> a
mconcat :: [a] -> a
```

• Instances

[], Ordering

- Comments
 - Basically any datatype with an associate binary operation that has a unit element
 - This is a type-class

Foldable t Class

• Class Members

```
fold
                :: Monoid m => t m -> m
foldMap
                :: Monoid m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m) \rightarrow t a \rightarrow m
foldr, foldr'
               :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
foldl, foldl' :: (b -> a -> b) -> b -> t a -> b
foldr1, foldl1 :: (a -> a -> a) -> t a -> a
toList
                :: t a -> [a]
null
                :: t a -> Bool
length
               :: t a -> Int
                :: Eq a => a -> t a -> Bool
elem
                :: Ord a => t a -> a
maximum
                :: Ord a => t a -> a
minimum
sum
                :: Num a => t a -> a
product
                :: Num a => t a -> a
```

• Instances

[], Maybe, (Either a)

- Comments
 - Basically any datatype where the concept of folding makes sense
 - This is a type-constructor class
 - It doesn't require Monoid, but some of its functions expect it!
 - So we can use foldl on a type without a Monoid instance, because it takes the binary operator and unit element as explicit arguments
 - The use of fold requires a type Monoid instance so it can its mempty and mappend values

Traversable t Class

• Class Members

```
traverse :: Applicative f \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow f b) \rightarrow t a \rightarrow f (t b)

sequenceA :: Applicative f \Rightarrow t (f a) \rightarrow f (t a)

mapM :: Monad m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m b) \rightarrow t a \rightarrow m (t b)

sequence :: Monad m \Rightarrow t (m a) \rightarrow m (t a)
```

• Instances

```
[], Maybe, (Either a)
```

- Comments
 - Requires Functor, Foldable
 - This allows traversing a structure with functions that might fail, and lest failure be handled gracefully
 - This is a type-constructor class

A Key Principle

- Haskell execution replaces sub-expressions, by ones defined to be equal (but hopefully simpler)
- This is an example of a general principle that is very desirable in functional languages Referential Transparency
- A language is Referentually Transparent if
 - replacing an expression by another equal expression does not change the meaning/value of the program as a whole
 - e.g. Given program 2 * sum (3:2:1:[]) + x, then the following are all equivalent programs:

```
2 * (3 + sum (2:1:[])) + x
2 * (3 + 2 + 1 + 0) + x
2 * 6 + x
12 + x
```

Refential Transparency

- Referentially Transaprent
 - A function whose output depends only on its inputs
 - Expressions built from standard arithmetic operators
 - None of the above have and "side-effects"
- Referentially Opaque
 - A function whose value depends on some gloval variable elsewhere
 - A procedure/function that modifies global state
 - The assignment statement
 - A function that performs I/O, it depends on the gloval state of "real world" and modifies it
 - Most of the above are examples of "side-effects"

Why Referential Transparency matters

- Reasoning about program behaviour is easier "substituting equals for equals"
- Code optimization is much simpler
- Scope for code optimization is much greater
- A programming language where every construct is refentially transparent, w.r.t to the "obvious" semantics, is calling "pure"
 - Haskell (and Clean) are pure functional languages
 - ML, Scheme, LISP are generally considered impure functional languages (they have explicit assignment and I/O side-effects), but this is w.r.t. a simple functional semantics for such languages

What Referential Transparency isn't

- Referential Transparency does *not* mean:
 - The language is functional
 - The language has no side-effects
- Referential Transparency is a property relating a language and its semantics
 - Most languages can be given a semantics that makes them referentially transparent
 - This issue is one of degree: such a semantics may be very complex
 - $-\ Pure$ functional languages are referentially transparent w.r.t a relatively simple and obvious semantics
 - An imperative language with a *full* semantics is also referentially transparent

I/O in Haskell

- \bullet We are now going to explore how Haskell supports I/O with all its side effects, whilst also maintaining referential transparency w.r.t the "natural" functional semantics
- First we shall look at a few file operations to note their (destructive) sideeffects
- Then we shall introduce the Haskell IO type constructor

File I/O Operations

Open/Close

- openFile
 - Input: pathname, opening mode(read/write)Effect: modifies filesystem by creating new file
 - Return value: handle to new file
- hClose
 - Input: hile handle
 - Effect: closes file indicated by handle, modifying filesystem
 - Return value: none
- Real-world items affected: filesystem, file status
- Opening Modes: ReadMode, WriteMode, ...

Put/Get

- hPutChar
 - Input: file handle, character
 - Effect: modifies file by appending the character
 - Return value: none
- hGetChar
 - Input: file handle
 - Effect: reads character from file current-position, which is then incremented
 - Return value: character read
- Read world items affected: contents of and positions in open files

I/O in Haskell

- Functions that do I/O (as a side-effect) use a special abstract data type: ${\tt IO}$ a
- Type IO a denotes a "value":
 - whose evaluation produces an I/O side-effect
 - which returns a value of a type a when evaluated
 - such values are called "I/O-actions"
- I/O-actions that don't return a value hav type IO ()

- Type () is the singleton (aka "unit") type
- It has only one value, also written ()
- I/O-actions are usually invoked using special syntax ("do-notation")

Other File I/O Types

• File opening mode

```
data IOMode = ReadMode | WriteMode | ...
```

• File Pathname - just a string

```
type FilePath = String
```

 $\bullet\,$ File Handles - pointers to open files

```
data Handle = ...
```

- This are no types to represent file themselves, or the file-system
- $\bullet\,$ I/O in Haskell works by hiding references to external data that is destructively updated