

Functional Programming 2

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Part 0

Overview

0.0 Outline

Contents

Organization

Literature

0.1 Recap: Functional Programming 1

- equational style of programming
- expression-oriented style of programming
- computation by evaluation
- datatypes (static aspects) and functions (dynamic aspects)
- static typing
- universal polymorphism: parametric polymorphism
- ad-hoc polymorphism: type classes
- higher-order functions
- equational reasoning

0.1 Contents: Functional Programming 2

1. Lazy evaluation

Haskell: being lazy with class

2. Imperative Programming

Haskell: the world's finest imperative language

3. Applicative functors and monads

APIs of the future

4. Type and class system extensions

adventures with types

5. Duality: folds and unfolds

two for the price of one

6. Case study: turtles and tessellations

fun with graphics

0.2 Organizational matters

- *your goal*: obtain a good grade
- (*my goal*: show you the beauty of FP)
- *how to achieve your goal*:
 - ▶ make good use of me i.e. attend the lectures and the tutorials
tutorials: Q&A and worked example
 - ▶ make good use of the teaching assistants:
Mart and Ward
 - ▶ obtain at least a sufficient grade for at least 5 practical sets
 - ▶ work and submit in pairs
 - ▶ submission: Friday night
 - ▶ redo possible within two weeks if insufficient
 - ▶ pass the final exam
- *a gentle request and a suggestion*:
 - keep the use of electronic devices to a minimum;
 - make notes using pencil and paper

0.3 Literature

- Miran Lipovaca, *Learn You a Haskell for Great Good!: A Beginner's Guide*, No Starch Press, 2011.
- Richard Bird, *Thinking Functionally with Haskell*, Cambridge University Press, 2015.
- Paul Hudak, *The Haskell School of Expression: Learning Functional Programming through Multimedia*, Cambridge University Press, 2000.
- Graham Hutton, *Programming in Haskell (2nd Edition)*, Cambridge University Press, 2016.
- Bryan O'Sullivan, John Goerzen, Don Stewart, *Real World Haskell*, O'Reilly Media, 2008.
- Simon Thompson, *Haskell: The Craft of Functional Programming (3rd Edition)*, Addison-Wesley Professional, 2011.

Part 1

Lazy evaluation

1.0 Outline

Evaluation orders

Efficiency and Strictness

Case study: dynamic programming

Infinite data structures

1.1 Evaluation orders

- different evaluation orders are possible
- it matters which strategy we choose
 - ▶ applicative-order evaluation
 - ▶ normal-order evaluation
 - ▶ lazy evaluation

1.1 Different evaluation orders

- recall different evaluation orders from before (the function *square* is defined *square* $x = x * x$):

	<i>square</i> (3 + 4)	\Rightarrow	<i>square</i> (3 + 4)
\Rightarrow	{ definition of + }		{ definition of <i>square</i> }
	<i>square</i> 7	\Rightarrow	(3 + 4) * (3 + 4)
\Rightarrow	{ definition of <i>square</i> }		{ definition of + }
	7 * 7	\Rightarrow	7 * (3 + 4)
\Rightarrow	{ definition of * }		{ definition of + }
	49	\Rightarrow	7 * 7
			{ definition of * }
			49

- not two different answers
- but sometimes no answer at all, see next slide!

1.1 Non-terminating evaluations

- consider script

three :: Integer → Integer
three _ = 3

infinity :: Integer
infinity = 1 + *infinity*

- two different evaluation orders:

<i>three infinity</i>	
⇒ { definition of <i>infinity</i> }	
<i>three</i> (1 + <i>infinity</i>)	
⇒ { definition of <i>infinity</i> }	
<i>three</i> (1 + (1 + <i>infinity</i>))	
⇒ ...	
	⇒ <i>three infinity</i>
	{ definition of <i>three</i> }
	3

- not all evaluation orders terminate, which order to choose?

1.1 Applicative-order evaluation

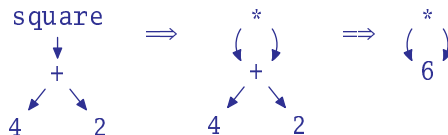
- to reduce the application $f e$:
 - ▶ first reduce e to normal form
 - ▶ then expand definition of f and continue reducing
- simple and obvious
- easy to implement
- may not terminate when other evaluation orders would

1.1 Normal-order evaluation

- to reduce the application $f\ e$:
 - ▶ expand definition of f , substituting e
 - ▶ reduce result of expansion
- avoids non-termination, if any evaluation order will
- may involve repeating work

1.1 A third way: lazy evaluation

- like normal-order evaluation, but instead of copying arguments we share them



- terms are directed graphs, not trees; *graph reduction*
- best of both worlds: evaluates argument only when needed, so terminating, but never evaluates argument more than once, so efficient

1.1 Lazy evaluation via **let**

- equivalently, expand application to **let** expression

square (3 + 4)
⇒ { application }
let $x = 3 + 4$ **in** *square* x
⇒ { definition of *square* }
let $x = 3 + 4$ **in** $x * x$
⇒ { reduce argument }
let $x = 7$ **in** $x * x$
⇒ { substitute }
 $7 * 7$
⇒ { definition of $*$ }
 49

- sharing is expressed using **let**-expressions

1.1 Undefined and strictness

- some expressions denote no normal value (e.g. *infinity*, $1 / 0$)
- for simplicity (every syntactically well-formed expression denotes a value), introduce special value *undefined* (sometimes written ' \perp ')
 - in evaluating such an expression, evaluator may hang or may give error message
- can apply functions to \perp ; *strict* functions (*square*) give \perp as a result, *non-strict* functions (*three*) may give some non- \perp value
- the function *f* is strict iff $f \perp = \perp$

1.1 Normal forms

- recall, an expression is in *normal form* (NF) when it cannot be reduced any further
- an expression is in *weak head normal form* (WHNF) if it is a lambda expression, or if it is a constructor applied to zero or more arguments
 - ▶ e.g. $n \rightarrow 2 * 3 + n$
 - ▶ e.g. $fx: \text{map } fxs$
 - ▶ e.g. $(1 + 2, 1 - 2)$
- an expression in normal form is in weak head normal form, but converse does not hold

1.1 Demand-driven evaluation

- pattern-matching may trigger reduction of arguments to WHNF

$head [1 .. 1000000] = head (1 : [1 + 1 .. 1000000]) = 1$

- patterns matched top to bottom, left to right

$False \ \&\& \ x = False$

$True \ \&\& \ x = x$

- guards may also trigger reduction

$f \ z \mid fst \ z > 0 \quad = \ fst \ z$
 $\quad \mid otherwise = snd \ z$

- local definitions not reduced until needed

$g \ x = (x \neq 0 \ \&\& \ y < 10) \ \mathbf{where} \ y = 1 / x$

1.1 A pipeline

- the outermost function drives the evaluation

```
    foldl (+) 0 (map square [1..1000])  
⇒ foldl (+) 0 (map square (1:[2..1000]))  
⇒ foldl (+) 0 (1:map square [2..1000])  
⇒ foldl (+) 1 (map square [2..1000])  
⇒ foldl (+) 1 (map square (2:[3..1000]))  
⇒ foldl (+) 1 (4:map square [3..1000])  
⇒ foldl (+) 5 (map square [3..1000])  
⇒ ...  
⇒ foldl (+) 14 (map square [4..1000])  
⇒ ...  
⇒ 333833500
```

- note:* the list `[1..1000]` never exists all at once

1.1 Demand-driven programming

- lazy evaluation has useful implications for program design
- many computations can be thought of as *pipelines*
- expressed with lazy evaluation, intermediate data structures need not exist all at once
- same effect requires major program surgery in most languages

Slogan: lazy evaluation allows new and better means of modularizing programs

- (but that realization does not help so much in other languages)

1.2 Efficiency

- measure time taken by number of reduction steps
- measure space usage by maximum expression size
- *garbage collection* reclaims discarded space

1.2 Simplifications

- time measure is an approximation, because we ignore time to find redexes
- space measure also an approximation (sharing!)
- e.g. to evaluate and print `[1 .. 1000]` does not take 1000 units of space
- on the other hand, *space leaks* may surprise

`numbers = [1 .. 1000]`

evaluating and printing `numbers` leaves a pointer, prevents garbage collection

- space occupied by script may grow with use

1.2 Strictness

- recall summing a list (simplified)

$\text{foldl } (+) 0 [1..100]$
 $\Rightarrow \text{foldl } (+) 1 [2..100]$
 $\Rightarrow \text{foldl } (+) 3 [3..100]$
 $\Rightarrow \dots$

- this is a white lie; additions are not forced yet

$\text{foldl } (+) 0 [1..100]$
 $\Rightarrow \text{foldl } (+) (0 + 1) [2..100]$
 $\Rightarrow \text{foldl } (+) ((0 + 1) + 2) [3..100]$
 $\Rightarrow \dots$

- linear space usage, unnecessarily
- what to do about it?

1.2 Forcing evaluation with *seq*

- judicious mix of lazy and eager evaluation to force additions (safe, because $+$ is strict in both arguments)
- the primitive *seq* $a\ b$ reduces a to WHNF, then returns b

$$\begin{aligned} \text{strict} &:: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \\ \text{strict } f\ a &= \text{seq } a\ (f\ a) \end{aligned}$$

- strict* f is a strict function i.e. $\text{strict } f\ \perp = \perp$
- same reductions (on strict functions), but in different order

$\text{succ } (\text{succ } (8 * 5))$	$\text{strict succ } (\text{strict succ } (8 * 5))$
$\Rightarrow \text{succ } (8 * 5) + 1$	$\Rightarrow \text{strict succ } (\text{strict succ } 40)$
$\Rightarrow ((8 * 5) + 1) + 1$	$\Rightarrow \text{strict succ } (40 + 1)$
$\Rightarrow (40 + 1) + 1$	$\Rightarrow \text{strict succ } 41$
$\Rightarrow 41 + 1$	$\Rightarrow 41 + 1$
$\Rightarrow 42$	$\Rightarrow 42$

1.2 A strict variant of *foldl*

- now try *sfoldl* $(+)$ 0 $[1..100]$, where

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{sfoldl} &:: (\textit{ans} \rightarrow a \rightarrow \textit{ans}) \rightarrow \textit{ans} \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow \textit{ans}) \\ \textit{sfoldl} (\triangleleft) e &= \textit{loop} e \\ \textbf{where} \textit{loop} a [] &= a \\ \textit{loop} a (x:xs) &= \textit{strict loop} (a \triangleleft x) xs \end{aligned}$$

1.3 Case study: postage in Fremont

You are a postal worker in Fremont. Given postage denominations, 1, 10, 21, 34, 70, and 100,



dispense a given amount to customer using smallest number of stamps.

- a greedy approach doesn't work:

greedy: $140 = 100 + 34 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$

optimal: $140 = 70 + 70$

- for simplicity, let us assume that we are only interested in the total number of stamps

1.3 Postage: a recursive implementation

- a naive recursive implementation

```
stamps :: [Integer] → Integer → Integer
stamps ds n = f n
  where f 0 = 0
        f i = minimum [ f (i - d) + 1 | d ← ds, d ≤ i ]
```

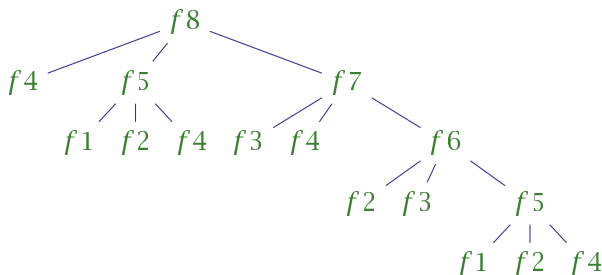
- why naive?

```
>>>> stamps [4, 3, 1] 6
2
>>>> stamps [100, 70, 34, 21, 10, 1] 140
...
```

- the second call is answered by a looong wait

1.3 Naive recursion: analysis

- recursion tree of $f = \text{stamps } [4, 3, 1]$:



- very slow: exponential running-time
- problem*: solutions to sub-problems are computed over and over again, e.g. $f5$

1.3 Dynamic programming

- *idea of dynamic programming*: replace a function that computes data by a look-up table that contains data
- we trade space for time: we decrease the running-time at the cost of increased space consumption
- candidates for look-up tables
 - lists: linear running time of look-up $\Theta(i)$
 - arrays: constant running time of look-up $\Theta(1)$
- (the term “programming” refers to the method of finding an optimal program, in the sense of a schedule for logistics)

1.3 Interlude: lazy functional arrays

- the library *Data.Array* provides *lazy* functional arrays
- an array is a finite mapping from indices to values

type *Array* *ix* *val*

class *Ix* *ix*

array :: (*Ix* *ix*) \Rightarrow (*ix*, *ix*) \rightarrow [(*ix*, *val*)] \rightarrow *Array* *ix* *val*

(!) :: (*Ix* *ix*) \Rightarrow *Array* *ix* *val* \rightarrow *ix* \rightarrow *val*

- elements of many types may serve as indices e.g. tuples of indices yield multi-dimensional arrays
- the function *array* (*l*, *u*) lazily constructs an array from a list of index/value pairs with indices within bounds (*l*, *u*)
- the operator ! is array indexing
- (but no update operation: Haskell is pure)

1.3 Postage: dynamic programming

- we simply (!) replace recursive calls by table look-ups

```

stamps :: [Integer] → Integer → Integer
stamps ds n      = memof! n
  where f 0      = 0
        f i      = minimum [ memof! (i - d) + 1 | d ← ds, d ≤ i ]
        memof = array (0, n) [ (i, f i) | i ← [0..n] ]

```

- lazy evaluation at work: look-up table is filled in a demand-driven fashion
- linear running time $\Theta(d \cdot n)$ where d is the number of denominations and n is the target denomination

```

>>>> stamps [4, 3, 1] 6
2
>>>> stamps [100, 70, 34, 21, 10, 1] 140
2

```


1.4 Infinite data structures

- demand-driven evaluation means that programs can manipulate *infinite* data structures
- whole structure is not evaluated at once (fortunately)
- because of laziness, finite result can be obtained from (finite prefix of) infinite data structure
- any recursive datatype has infinite elements, but we will consider only lists

1.4 Infinite lists

- $\text{ones} = 1 : \text{ones}$
- $[n..] = [n, n + 1, n + 2, \dots]$
- $[n, n + k..] = [n, n + k, n + 2 * k, \dots]$
- $\text{repeat } n = n : \text{repeat } n$
- $\text{iterate } f\ x = x : \text{iterate } f\ (f\ x)$
- $\text{fibs} = 0 : 1 : \text{zipWith } (+) \text{ fibs } (\text{tail fibs})$

1.4 No magic

- can apply functions to infinite data structures

filter even [1 ..] = [2, 4, 6, 8...]

- can return finite results

takeWhile (<10) [1 ..] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

- note that these do not always behave like infinite sets in maths

filter (<10) [1 ..] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]

- to interrupt, ctrl-C

1.4 What does it mean?

- essential idea is that infinite data structure is *limit* of series of *approximations*
- e.g. infinite list

$[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots]$

is limit of series of approximations

\perp

$1 : \perp$

$1 : 2 : \perp$

$1 : 2 : 3 : \perp$

\dots

where \perp represents the “lack of information”

1.4 Primes

- recall bounded sequences of primes

$primes\ m = [n \mid n \leftarrow [1..m],\ divisors\ n == [1, n]]$
 $divisors\ n = [d \mid d \leftarrow [1..n],\ n\ 'mod'\ d == 0]$

- infinite sequence of primes

$primes = [n \mid n \leftarrow [1..],\ divisors\ n == [1, n]]$

- much more efficient version: *sieve of Eratosthenes*

$primes = sieve\ [2..]$ **where**
 $sieve\ (x:xs) = x: sieve\ [y \mid y \leftarrow xs,\ y\ 'mod'\ x \neq 0]$

1.4 What's the point?

- better abstraction: some real-world entities are infinite
- better modularity: separation of concerns, reuse of components
- fun!

1.4 Summary

- two principal evaluation strategies:
 - applicative order: efficient, but may not terminate
 - normal order: avoids non-termination if possible, but work possibly replicated
- lazy evaluation: best of both worlds
- enables infinite data structures
- better modularity: creation and traversal of structures can be cleanly separated (eg game trees)

Part 2

Imperative programming

2.0 Outline

Separation of Church and state

The I/O interface

Case study: Haskinator

References

Summary

2.1 Separation of Church and state

- a pure functional language such as Haskell is *referentially transparent*
- expressions do not have side-effects
- remember: the sole purpose of an expression is to denote a value
- but what about state-changing computations (e.g. printing to the console or writing to the file system?)
- how to incorporate these into Haskell?

2.1 Gedankenexperiment

- imagine you are a language designer
- how would you incorporate an outputting computation?

putStr :: *String* → ()

- what's the value and what's the effect of

let *x* = *putStr* "ha" **in** [*x*, *x*]

- and of this one?

[*putStr* "ha", *putStr* "ha"]

- if we noticed different effects, then we would no longer be able to replace equals by equals!
- side-effects and lazy evaluation are not natural bedfellows

2.1 To-do lists and procrastination

- *idea*: *putStr* "ha" has *no* effect at all
- introduce a new type of I/O computations

putStr :: *String* → *IO* ()

- *IO a* is type of computation that may do I/O, then returns an element of type *a*
- *IO a* can be seen as the type of a *to-do list*
- to-do list vs actually doing something
- recording an I/O computation vs executing an I/O computation
- *main* has type *IO* ()
- *only* the to-do list that is bound to *main* is executed

2.1 Interpreting strings

- if evaluator evaluates non-*IO* type, prints value; otherwise, performs computation
- strings as values get displayed as strings:

```
>>>> "Hello,\nWorld"  
"Hello,\nWorld"
```

- *putStr* turns a string into an outputting computation:

```
>>>> putStr "Hello,\nWorld"  
Hello,  
World
```

2.2 The I/O interface

- *IO a* is an abstract datatype of I/O computations
- *return* turns a value into an I/O computation that has no effect

$\text{return} :: a \rightarrow \text{IO } a$

- $m \gg n$ first executes m and then n

$(\gg) :: \text{IO } a \rightarrow \text{IO } b \rightarrow \text{IO } b$

- $m \gg= n$ additionally feeds the result of the first computation into the second

$(\gg=) :: \text{IO } a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow \text{IO } b) \rightarrow \text{IO } b$

2.2 I/O operations

- console I/O

putStr :: *String* → *IO* ()
putStrLn :: *String* → *IO* ()
getLine :: *IO String*

- console I/O via *Show* and *Read*

print :: (*Show a*) ⇒ *a* → *IO* ()
readLn :: (*Read a*) ⇒ *IO a*

- file I/O

type *FilePath* = *String*
writeFile :: *FilePath* → *String* → *IO* ()
readFile :: *FilePath* → *IO String*

- many, many more ...

2.2 Example: console I/O

- a simple interactive program

```
welcome :: IO ()  
welcome  
  = putStr "Please enter your name.\n" >>  
    getLine >=> \s →  
    putStr ("Welcome " ++ s ++ "!\n")
```

- remember: $\backslash s \rightarrow \dots$ is a lambda expression, an anonymous function

2.2 Example: console I/O

- the same program using **do** notation

```
welcome :: IO ()  
welcome  
  = do putStr "Please enter your name.\n"  
      s ← getLine  
      putStr ("Welcome " ++ s ++ "!\n")
```

- syntax: layout-sensitive versus braces and semicolons

```
welcome :: IO ()  
welcome  
  = do { putStr "Please enter your name.\n";  
        s ← getLine; putStr ("Welcome " ++ s ++ "!\n") }
```

2.2 Do notation

- special syntactic sugar for expressions of type $IO\ a$
- inspired by (in fact, a generalization of) list comprehensions

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{do}\ \{m\} &= m \\ \mathbf{do}\ \{x \leftarrow m; ms\} &= m \gg= \backslash x \rightarrow \mathbf{do}\ \{ms\} \\ \mathbf{do}\ \{m; ms\} &= m \gg= \backslash _ \rightarrow \mathbf{do}\ \{ms\} \\ \mathbf{do}\ \{\mathbf{let}\ ds; ms\} &= \mathbf{let}\ ds\ \mathbf{in}\ \mathbf{do}\ \{ms\} \end{aligned}$$

where x can appear free in ms

- “a generator” (pronounce “ x is drawn from m ”)

$$x \leftarrow m$$

- note that m has type $IO\ a$, whereas x has type a

2.2 Example: file I/O

- processing a file

```
processFile :: FilePath → (String → String) → FilePath → IO ()  
processFile inFile f outFile  
  = do s ← readFile inFile  
      let s' = f s  
      writeFile outFile s'
```

2.2 I/O computations as first-class citizens

- we can freely mix I/O computations with, say, lists

```
main :: IO ()  
main = sequence [ print i | i ← [0..9]]
```

- don't forget the list design pattern

```
sequence :: [ IO () ] → IO ()  
sequence [ ]      = return ()  
sequence (a : as) = a >> sequence as
```

(the predefined version of *sequence* is more general)

- I/O computations are first-class citizens!
- Haskell is the world's finest imperative language!

2.2 Composition of effectful functions

- pure functions can be chained with function composition ◦
- effectful functions can be chained with

$$\begin{aligned}(\odot) &:: (b \rightarrow IO\ c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO\ b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO\ c) \\ (f \odot g)\ x &= g\ x \gg= f\end{aligned}$$

- turning a pure into an effectful function

$$\begin{aligned}lift &:: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO\ b) \\ lift\ f\ x &= return\ (f\ x)\end{aligned}$$

- example

$$\begin{aligned}processFile &:: FilePath \rightarrow (String \rightarrow String) \rightarrow FilePath \rightarrow IO\ () \\ processFile\ outFile\ f \\ &= writeFile\ outFile\ \odot\ lift\ f\ \odot\ readFile\end{aligned}$$

2.3 Case study: Haskinator

Think about a real or fictional character ... I will try to guess who it is.

iGuessTheCelebrity :: IO ()

Think of number between *l* and *r* ... I will try to guess the number.

iGuessTheNumber :: Integer → Integer → IO ()

2.3 A game tree

Goal: separate the game logic from the underlying data.

```
data Tree a b = Tip a | Node b (Tree a b) (Tree a b)
deriving (Show)
```

The type is parametric in the type of labels of external nodes (i.e. tips) and in the type of labels of internal nodes.

```
bimap :: (a1 → a2) → (b1 → b2) → (Tree a1 b1 → Tree a2 b2)
bimap f _ (Tip a)      = Tip (f a)
bimap f g (Node b l r) = Node (g b) (bimap f g l) (bimap f g r)
```

The function *bimap* is a binary variant of *fmap*.

2.3 The game logic

```
guess :: Tree String String → IO ()
```

```
guess (Tip s)
```

```
    = putStrLn s
```

```
guess (Node q l r)
```

```
    = do b ← yesOrNo q
```

```
        if b then
```

```
            guess l
```

```
        else
```

```
            guess r
```

```
yesOrNo :: String → IO Bool
```

```
yesOrNo question
```

```
    = do putStrLn question
```

```
        answer ← getLine
```

```
        return (map toLower answer `isPrefixOf` "yes")
```

```
        — empty answer means “yes”
```

2.3 I guess the celebrity

```
iGuessTheCelebrity  
  = do putStrLn ("Think of a celebrity.")  
      guess (bimap (\s → s ++ "! ") (\q → q ++ "?") celebrity)
```

```
celebrity:: Tree String String  
celebrity  
  = Node "Female"  
    (Node "Actress"  
      (Tip "Angelina Jolie")  
      (Tip "Adele"))  
    (Node "Actor"  
      (Tip "Brad Pitt")  
      (Tip "Steve Hackett"))
```

2.3 I guess the number

```
iGuessTheNumber l r  
  = do putStrLn ("Think of number between " ++  
                show l ++ " and " ++ show r ++ ".")  
      guess (bimap (\n → show n ++ " ! ")  
                  (\m → "<= " ++ show m ++ "?")  
              (nest l r))
```

```
nest :: Integer → Integer → Tree Integer Integer  
nest l r  
  | l == r      = Tip l  
  | otherwise = Node m (nest l m) (nest (m + 1) r)  
where m = (l + r) `div` 2
```

2.4 Other I/O goodies

- the *IO* type offers a lot more
 - ▶ exception handling
 - ▶ threads
 - ▶ updatable variables (aka references or pointers)
 - ▶ updatable arrays
 - ▶ ...
- Haskell's sin bin

2.4 References

- remember referential transparency
- updatable variables live in the *IO* world
- excerpt of the interface

type *IORef* *a*

newIORef :: *a* → *IO* (*IORef* *a*)

readIORef :: *IORef* *a* → *IO* *a*

writeIORef :: *IORef* *a* → *a* → *IO* ()

- *newIORef* creates a new *IORef* and initializes
- *readIORef* reads the value of an *IORef*
- *writeIORef* writes a new value into an *IORef*

2.4 References: examples

- copying “variables”

$copy :: IORef\ a \rightarrow IORef\ a \rightarrow IO\ () \quad \text{--- } x := y$
 $copy\ x\ y = \mathbf{do}\ b \leftarrow readIORef\ y$
 $\quad \quad \quad writeIORef\ x\ b$

- swapping “variables”

$swap :: IORef\ a \rightarrow IORef\ a \rightarrow IO\ ()$
 $swap\ x\ y = \mathbf{do}\ a \leftarrow readIORef\ x \quad \text{--- } x, y := y, x$
 $\quad \quad \quad b \leftarrow readIORef\ y$
 $\quad \quad \quad writeIORef\ x\ b$
 $\quad \quad \quad writeIORef\ y\ a$

2.4 Singly-linked lists



- *IORefs* are first class citizens; they can mix and mingle
- singly-linked lists

type *ListRef elem* = *IORef (List elem)*

data *List elem* = *Nil* | *Cons elem (ListRef elem)*

- the two types are mutually recursive
- likewise, operations on singly-linked lists often come in pairs defined by mutual recursion
- (no *null* pointer; Tony Hoare's billion-dollar mistake)



2.4 Linked lists: length

- the length of a singly-linked list (definition style)

length :: *ListRef elem* → *IO Integer*

length ref = **do** { *list* ← *readIORef ref*; *length'* *list* }

length' :: *List elem* → *IO Integer*

length' *Nil* = *return 0*

length' (*Cons x next*) = **do** { *n* ← *length next*; *return (n + 1)* }

2.4 Linked lists: length

- alternative definition (expression style)

```
length :: ListRef elem → IO Integer
length ref =
  do list ← readIORef ref
  case list of
    Nil          → return 0
    Cons x next → do { n ← length next; return (n + 1) }
```

- note: layout-sensitive syntax and syntax using braces and semicolons can be freely mixed

2.4 Linked lists: concatenation

- rear of a list (last reference cell)

```
rear :: ListRef elem → IO (ListRef elem)
rear ref =
  do list ← readIORef ref
  case list of
    Nil          → return ref
    Cons a next → rear next
```

- concatenating two singly-linked lists

```
append :: ListRef elem → ListRef elem → IO ()
append xref yref =
  do ref ← rear xref
  copy ref yref
```

2.4 Linked lists: a puzzle

- what's printed?

```
puzzle =  
  do x ← fromList [0..14]  
    y ← fromList [15..19]  
    append x y  
    n1 ← length x  
    print n1  
    append x y  
    n2 ← length x  
    print n2
```

2.5 Summary

- “lazy makes you pure”
- I/O computations are first-class citizens!
- Haskell is the world's finest imperative language
- in general, try to minimize the I/O part of your program

Part 3

Applicative functors and monads

3.0 Outline

Applicative functors

Monads

Case study: Monty Hall problem

Advanced: laws and interdefinability ★

Summary

3.1 Manifest interfaces

- functions have manifest interfaces
- (**manifest**. Clearly revealed to the eye, mind, or judgement; open to view or comprehension; obvious.)
- this is both a blessing and a curse
- blessing: definitions can be read and understood in isolation
- curse: details cannot be brushed under the carpet

3.1 An evaluator

- recall the datatype of expressions

infixl 6 :+:

infixl 7 :*:

data *Expr*

 = *Lit Integer* — a literal
 | *Expr* :+ *Expr* — addition
 | *Expr* :* *Expr* — multiplication
 | *Div Expr Expr* — integer division

- small extension: integer division

good, bad :: Expr

good = *Div* (*Lit* 7) (*Div* (*Lit* 4) (*Lit* 2))

bad = *Div* (*Lit* 7) (*Div* (*Lit* 2) (*Lit* 4))

3.1 The vanilla evaluator

- recall the evaluation function

eval :: *Expr* → *Integer*

eval (*Lit* *i*) = *i*

eval (*e1* :+ : *e2*) = *eval* *e1* + *eval* *e2*

eval (*e1* :* : *e2*) = *eval* *e1* * *eval* *e2*

eval (*Div* *e1* *e2*) = *div* (*eval* *e1*) (*eval* *e2*)

- example evaluations:

>>>> *eval good*

3

>>>> *eval bad*

Exception : divide by zero

3.1 Exception handling

- evaluation may fail, because of division by zero
- let's handle the exceptional behaviour:

```
evalE :: Expr → Maybe Integer  
evalE (Lit i)           = Just i  
evalE (Div e1 e2) =  
  case evalE e1 of  
    Nothing → Nothing  
    Just v1 →  
      case evalE e2 of  
        Nothing           → Nothing  
        Just v2 | v2 == 0 → Nothing — division by zero  
        | otherwise → Just (div v1 v2)
```

- (other cases omitted for reasons of space)

3.1 Counting evaluation steps

- we could instrument the evaluator to count evaluation steps:

```
type Counter a = (a, Int)
evalC :: Expr → Counter Integer
evalC (Lit i)      = (i, 1)
evalC (Div e1 e2) = let (v1, n1) = evalC e1
                      (v2, n2) = evalC e2
                      in (div v1 v2, 1 + n1 + n2)
```

- (other cases omitted for reasons of space)

3.1 Ugly!

- none of the two extensions is difficult
- but each is rather awkward, and obscures the previously clear structure
- how can we simplify the presentation?
- what do they have in common?

3.1 Ugly!

- none of the two extensions is difficult
- but each is rather awkward, and obscures the previously clear structure
- how can we simplify the presentation?
- what do they have in common?
- both evaluators have type $Expr \rightarrow F Integer$ where F specifies the *computational effect*

3.1 The applicative type class

- a type class for computations

```
infixl 4  $\langle * \rangle$ 
```

```
class (Functor f)  $\Rightarrow$  Applicative f where
```

```
  pure :: a  $\rightarrow$  f a
```

```
  ( $\langle * \rangle$ ) :: f (a  $\rightarrow$  b)  $\rightarrow$  f a  $\rightarrow$  f b
```

- *pure* turns a value into a pure computation that has no effect
- $\langle * \rangle$ is function application where both function and argument are obtained as results of computations

3.1 The applicative type class—continued

- there are also one-sided versions of $\langle * \rangle$ —useful if a computation is *only* executed for its effect

infixl 4 $\langle *, * \rangle$

$(\langle * \rangle) :: f\ a \rightarrow f\ b \rightarrow f\ a$

$(*) :: f\ a \rightarrow f\ b \rightarrow f\ b$

$a\ \langle * \rangle\ b = \text{pure } (\backslash x\ y \rightarrow x)\ \langle * \rangle\ a\ \langle * \rangle\ b$

$a\ *\ b = \text{pure } (\backslash x\ y \rightarrow y)\ \langle * \rangle\ a\ \langle * \rangle\ b$

- in addition to these generic operations, each instance of *Applicative* also provides operations for the *effect-specific behaviour*

3.1 Evaluator, applicative style

- recall the vanilla evaluator

eval :: *Expr* → *Integer*

eval (*Lit* *i*) = *i*

eval (*e1* :+ *e2*) = *eval* *e1* + *eval* *e2*

eval (*e1* :* *e2*) = *eval* *e1* * *eval* *e2*

eval (*Div* *e1* *e2*) = *div* (*eval* *e1*) (*eval* *e2*)

- same evaluator in an applicative style

evalA :: (*Applicative* *f*) ⇒ *Expr* → *f* *Integer*

evalA (*Lit* *i*) = *pure* *i*

evalA (*e1* :+ *e2*) = *pure* (+) <*> *evalA* *e1* <*> *evalA* *e2*

evalA (*e1* :* *e2*) = *pure* (*) <*> *evalA* *e1* <*> *evalA* *e2*

evalA (*Div* *e1* *e2*) = *pure* *div* <*> *evalA* *e1* <*> *evalA* *e2*

- two changes compared to the vanilla evaluator
 - ▶ prefix: (+) *a* *b* instead of *a* + *b*
 - ▶ application made explicit: *pure* *f* <*> *a* <*> *b* instead of *f* *a* *b*
- still pure, but much easier to extend

3.1 Recovering the vanilla evaluator

- meet the identity functor

```
newtype Id a = I { fromI :: a }
instance Functor Id where
    fmap f (I x) = I (f x)
instance Applicative Id where
    pure a      = I a
    I f ⟨*⟩ I x  = I (f x)
```

- *pure* is the identity and *⟨*⟩* is function application
- example evaluation:

```
>>>> fromI (evalA good)
3
```

3.1 The counter instance

- counters instantiate the functor and applicative class:

```
newtype Counter a = C { fromC :: (a, Int) }
```

```
  deriving (Show)
```

```
instance Functor Counter where
```

```
  fmap f (C (a, n)) = C (f a, n)
```

```
instance Applicative Counter where
```

```
  pure a = C (a, 0)
```

```
  C (f, m) <*> C (x, n) = C (f x, m + n)
```

- the effect-specific behaviour is to increment the count:

```
tick :: Counter ()
```

```
tick = C ((), 1)
```

3.1 Counting evaluator, applicative style

- to integrate *tick* we use $\langle * \rangle$

evalC :: Expr → Counter Integer

evalC (Lit i) = (pure i) $\langle * \rangle$ tick

evalC (e1 :+: e2) = (pure (+) $\langle * \rangle$ *evalC* e1 $\langle * \rangle$ *evalC* e2) $\langle * \rangle$ tick

evalC (e1 :*: e2) = (pure (*) $\langle * \rangle$ *evalC* e1 $\langle * \rangle$ *evalC* e2) $\langle * \rangle$ tick

evalC (Div e1 e2) = (pure div $\langle * \rangle$ *evalC* e1 $\langle * \rangle$ *evalC* e2) $\langle * \rangle$ tick

- tick* is only called for its effect, not its value
- example evaluation:

$\rangle\rangle\rangle\rangle$ fromC (*evalC* good)

(3, 5)

3.2 The exception instance

- exceptions instantiate the functor and applicative class

data *Maybe a* = *Nothing* | *Just a*

instance *Functor Maybe* **where**

fmap f (Nothing) = *Nothing*

fmap f (Just a) = *Just (f a)*

instance *Applicative Maybe* **where**

pure a = *Just a*

Nothing *<*>* *Nothing* = *Nothing*

Nothing *<*>* *Just x* = *Nothing*

Just f *<*>* *Nothing* = *Nothing*

Just f *<*>* *Just x* = *Just (f x)*

3.2 Exception handling evaluator

- but how to modify the interpreter?

$evalA (Div\ e1\ e2) = pure\ div\ \langle *\rangle\ evalA\ e1\ \langle *\rangle\ evalA\ e2$

- *div* can check whether its second argument is zero, but it cannot raise an exception as it is a pure function
- we need an additional combinator that applies an impure function ($a \rightarrow Maybe\ b$) to an impure argument ($Maybe\ a$)

3.2 The monad type class

- the required combinator is a method of a sub-class of *Applicative*

class (*Applicative* *m*) \Rightarrow *Monad* *m* **where**

return :: $a \rightarrow m\ a$

(\gg) :: $m\ a \rightarrow m\ b \rightarrow m\ b$

$(\gg=)$:: $m\ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m\ b) \rightarrow m\ b$

$m \gg n = m \gg= \backslash_ \rightarrow n$

- (have you seen the combinators before?)
- (*monad* is a term from category theory, purloined from philosophy)

3.2 Levels of impurity ★

- notice the difference between *fmap*, $\langle * \rangle$, and $\Rightarrow\Leftarrow$ (the combinator $\Rightarrow\Leftarrow$ with arguments interchanged)

$$fmap :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f\ a \rightarrow f\ b$$
$$(\langle * \rangle) :: f\ (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f\ a \rightarrow f\ b$$
$$(\Rightarrow\Leftarrow) :: (a \rightarrow f\ b) \rightarrow f\ a \rightarrow f\ b$$

- first argument of
 - ▶ *fmap*: a pure function
 - ▶ $\langle * \rangle$: an impure computation that yields a pure function
 - ▶ $\Rightarrow\Leftarrow$: an impure function
- $\Rightarrow\Leftarrow$ is strictly more powerful than $\langle * \rangle$, which in turn is more powerful than *fmap*, more later

3.2 The exception instance

- exceptions instantiate the monad class:

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
instance Monad Maybe where
    return a      = Just a
    Nothing >>= _ = Nothing
    Just a  >>= f = f a
```

- the effect-specific behaviour is to terminate the execution:

```
halt :: Maybe a
halt = Nothing
```


3.2 Exception handling evaluator

- using $\Rightarrow\!\!\Leftarrow$ we can guard the second argument of *div*

evalE :: *Expr* → *Maybe Integer*

evalE (*Lit i*) = *pure i*

evalE (*e1* :+ : *e2*) = *pure* (+) ⟨*⟩ *evalE e1* ⟨*⟩ *evalE e2*

evalE (*e1* :* : *e2*) = *pure* (*) ⟨*⟩ *evalE e1* ⟨*⟩ *evalE e2*

evalE (*Div e1 e2*) = *pure div* ⟨*⟩ *evalE e1* ⟨*⟩ (*guard* $\Rightarrow\!\!\Leftarrow$ *evalE e2*)

guard :: *Integer* → *Maybe Integer*

guard n = **if** *n* == 0 **then** *halt* **else** *pure n*

- example evaluations:

⟩⟩⟩⟩ *evalE good*

Just 3

⟩⟩⟩⟩ *evalE bad*

Nothing

3.2 Original evaluator, monadically

- we can also write the interpreter in a monadic style

$$\begin{aligned} evalM &:: (Monad\ m) \Rightarrow Expr \rightarrow m\ Integer \\ evalM\ (Lit\ i) &= return\ i \\ evalM\ (Div\ e1\ e2) &= evalM\ e1 \gg= \backslash n1 \rightarrow \\ &\quad evalM\ e2 \gg= \backslash n2 \rightarrow \\ &\quad return\ (n1\ 'div'\ n2) \end{aligned}$$

- (other cases omitted for reasons of space)

3.2 Original evaluator, using **do** notation

- we can also use **do**-notation for *Monad* instances

$$\begin{aligned} evalM &:: (Monad\ m) \Rightarrow Expr \rightarrow m\ Integer \\ evalM\ (Lit\ i) &= \mathbf{do}\ return\ i \\ evalM\ (Div\ e1\ e2) &= \mathbf{do}\ n1 \leftarrow evalM\ e1 \\ &\quad n2 \leftarrow evalM\ e2 \\ &\quad return\ (n1\ 'div'\ n2) \end{aligned}$$

- (other cases omitted for reasons of space)
- imperative look'n'feel

3.2 Exceptional evaluator, monadically

- the monadic version is equally easy to extend

```
evalE :: Expr → Maybe Integer  
evalE (Lit i)           = do return i  
evalE (Div e1 e2) = do n1 ← evalE e1  
                        n2 ← evalE e2  
                        if n2 == 0 then halt  
                        else return (n1 'div' n2)
```

- (other cases omitted for reasons of space)

3.2 The IO monad

- monads like applicative functors form
an abstract datatype of computations
- we have already encountered a monad: *IO*
- computations in general may have *effects*: I/O, exceptions, mutable state, non-determinism etc
- applicative functors and monads are a mechanism for cleanly incorporating such impure features in a pure setting
- there's no magic to monads in general: all monads are just plain data, implementing a particular interface
- but there is one magic monad: the *IO* monad
- its implementation is hard-wired in Haskell

```
data IO a = ...  
instance Monad IO where ...
```

3.3 Case study: Monty Hall problem

Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors: Behind one door is a car; behind the others, goats. You pick a door, say No. 1, and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door, say No. 3, which has a goat. He then says to you, "Do you want to pick door No. 2?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice?

- probabilistic programming
- two strategies: stick to original choice, or switch choice
- strategies as programs

3.3 The probability monad

- discrete probability distribution (probability mass function)

type *Prob* = *Rational*

newtype *Dist event* = *D* { *fromD* :: [(event, *Prob*)] }

- invariant*: probabilities of a distribution *dist* sum up to 1

$sum [p \mid (e, p) \leftarrow fromD \ dist] == 1$

- (ideally, each event occurs exactly once; *exercise*: define *norm* :: (*Ord event*) \Rightarrow *Dist event* \rightarrow *Dist event*)
- uniform distribution

uniform :: [event] \rightarrow *Dist event*

uniform es = *D* [(e, 1 % n) | e \leftarrow es]

where *n* = *genericLength es*

3.3 The probability monad

- functor, applicative, and monad instances

instance *Functor* *Dist* **where**

$fmap\ f\ (D\ d) = D\ [(f\ e,\ p) \mid (e,\ p) \leftarrow d]$

instance *Applicative* *Dist* **where**

$pure\ a = D\ [(a,\ 1)]$

$D\ fd\ \langle * \rangle\ D\ xd = D\ [(f\ x,\ p * q) \mid (f,\ p) \leftarrow fd,\ (x,\ q) \leftarrow xd]$

instance *Monad* *Dist* **where**

$return\ a = D\ [(a,\ 1)]$

$D\ xd\ \gg= k = D\ [(y,\ p * q) \mid (x,\ p) \leftarrow xd,\ (y,\ q) \leftarrow fromD\ (k\ x)]$

- *exercise*: is the invariant always satisfied?

3.3 Roll the dice

- a fair dice

dice = *uniform* [1..6]

- sum of two dice (applicative and monadic style)

rollA = *pure* (+) ⟨*⟩ *dice* ⟨*⟩ *dice*

rollM = **do** { *a* ← *dice*; *b* ← *dice*; *return* (*a* + *b*) }

- roll the dice

⟩⟩⟩ *rollA*

D [(2, 1 % 36), (3, 1 % 36), (4, 1 % 36), (5, 1 % 36), (6, 1 % 36),
(7, 1 % 36), (3, 1 % 36), ...

⟩⟩⟩ *norm it*

D [(2, 1 % 36), (3, 1 % 18), (4, 1 % 12), (5, 1 % 9), (6, 5 % 36), (7, 1 % 6),
(8, 5 % 36), (9, 1 % 9), (10, 1 % 12), (11, 1 % 18), (12, 1 % 36)]

3.3 Back to Monty Hall

- we model the game show as follows

data *Outcome* = *Win* | *Lose* **deriving** (*Eq*, *Ord*, *Show*)

data *Door* = *No1* | *No2* | *No3* **deriving** (*Eq*, *Enum*)

doors = [*No1*..*No3*]

- host hides the car behind one of the doors; you pick one

hide, pick :: *Dist Door*

hide = *uniform doors*

pick = *uniform doors*

- host teases you by opening one of the doors

tease h p = *uniform (doors \ \ [h, p])*

- the two strategies

stick, switch :: *Door* → *Door* → *Dist Door*

stick p t = *return p*

switch p t = *return (head (doors \ \ [p, t]))*

3.3 Back to Monty Hall

- whole game parametrized by strategy

```

play :: (Door → Door → Dist Door) → Dist Outcome
play strategy =
  do h ← hide           — host hides the car behind door h
     p ← pick            — you pick door p
     t ← tease h p       — host teases you with door t (≠ h, p)
     s ← strategy p t    — you choose, based on p and t
     return (if s == h then Win else Lose)
  
```

- you win iff your choice s equals h

```

>>>> norm (play stick)
D [ (Win, 1 % 3), (Lose, 2 % 3) ]
>>>> norm (play switch)
D [ (Win, 2 % 3), (Lose, 1 % 3) ]
  
```

- switching doubles (!) your chance of winning

3.4 Applicative functor laws ★

- instances of *Applicative* are required to satisfy the applicative functor laws

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pure } \text{id} \langle * \rangle v &= v \\ \text{pure } (\circ) \langle * \rangle u \langle * \rangle v \langle * \rangle w &= u \langle * \rangle (v \langle * \rangle w) \\ \text{pure } f \langle * \rangle \text{pure } x &= \text{pure } (f x) \\ u \langle * \rangle \text{pure } x &= \text{pure } (\backslash f \rightarrow f x) \langle * \rangle u \end{aligned}$$

- identity, composition, pure computations can be combined, pure computations can be interchanged with impure ones

3.4 Monad laws ★

- instances of *Monad* are required to satisfy the monad laws

$$\begin{aligned}m \gg= \backslash a \rightarrow \text{return } a &= m \\ \text{return } a \gg= \backslash b \rightarrow f b &= f a \\ (m \gg= \backslash a \rightarrow f a) \gg= \backslash b \rightarrow g b &= m \gg= \backslash a \rightarrow (f a \gg= \backslash b \rightarrow g b)\end{aligned}$$

- or, expressed in terms of *return* and \odot

$$\begin{aligned}f \odot \text{return} &= f \\ \text{return} \odot f &= f \\ (f \odot g) \odot h &= f \odot (g \odot h)\end{aligned}$$

- (so monads are intimately related to monoids)

3.4 Interdefinability ★

- applicative functor implies functor

instance (*Applicative m*) \Rightarrow *Functor m* **where**
fmap *f* *mx* = *pure* *f* $\langle*$ *mx*

- (the instance declaration is not legal Standard Haskell)
- (snappier: *fmap* = *liftA*, where *liftA* is provided by the standard library *Control.Applicative*)

3.4 Interdefinability ★

- monad implies functor and applicative functor

instance (*Monad m*) \Rightarrow *Functor m* **where**
 fmap *f* *mx* = **do** { *x* \leftarrow *mx*; *return* (*f* *x*) }

instance (*Monad m*) \Rightarrow *Applicative m* **where**
 pure *a* = *return* *a*
 mf $\langle*$ \rangle *mx* = **do** { *f* \leftarrow *mf*; *x* \leftarrow *mx*; *return* (*f* *x*) }

- (the instance declarations are not legal Standard Haskell)
- (snappier: *fmap* = *liftM* and $\langle*\rangle$ = *ap*, where *liftM* and *ap* are provided by the standard library *Control.Monad*)

3.4 Interdefinability: pragmatics ★

- recall: *Ord* is a sub-class of *Eq*
- standard approach: provide an instance of *Eq*, then provide an instance of *Ord*, possibly using *Eq*
- surprisingly, we can also turn things upside down:

```
instance Eq T where  
    a == b = compare a b == EQ  
instance Ord T where ...
```

- the *Ord* instance is used to define the *Eq* instance!

3.4 Interdefinability: pragmatics ★

- *Monad* is a sub-class of *Applicative*, which in turn is a sub-class of *Functor*
- standard approach: provide an instance of *Functor*, then provide an instance of *Applicative*, and finally of *Monad*
- again, we can turn things upside down:

```
instance Functor M where  
    fmap = liftM  
instance Applicative M where  
    pure = return  
    (<*>) = ap  
instance Monad M where ...
```

- the *Monad* instance is used to define *Applicative* and *Functor* instances!

3.5 Abstraction, abstraction, abstraction

- question: what are the three most important concepts in programming?
- answer: abstraction, abstraction, abstraction!
- applicative functors and monads allow you to abstract over patterns of computations (effects)
- a small hierarchy in order of expressiveness:
 - ▶ functor
 - ▶ applicative functor
 - ▶ monad
- Haskell allows you to implement your own computational effect or combination of effects (how cool is this?)
- two levels of computations
 - ▶ application independent: *Applicative* and *Monad* instance
 - ▶ application dependent: e.g. *eval*
- datatypes for/as computations: *Maybe*, `[]` etc

Part 4

Type and class system extensions

4.0 Outline

Nested Datatypes

Type families

Case study: C's printf

Rank-2 types ★

Summary

4.0 Recap: strong typing and polymorphism

- Haskell is *strongly typed*: every expression has a unique type
- each type supports certain operations, which are meaningless on other types

4.0 Recap: strong typing and polymorphism

- Haskell is *strongly typed*: every expression has a unique type
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- Haskell is *statically typed*: type checking occurs before run-time (after syntax checking)
- type checking guarantees that type errors cannot occur

4.0 Recap: strong typing and polymorphism

- Haskell is *strongly typed*: every expression has a unique type
- each type supports certain operations, which are meaningless on other types
- Haskell is *statically typed*: type checking occurs before run-time (after syntax checking)
- type checking guarantees that type errors cannot occur
- type safety and flexibility are in tension
- *polymorphism* partially releases the tension
- parametric polymorphism: same code for all types
- ad-hoc polymorphism: different code for different types

4.0 Overview

- we take a closer look at some features of Standard Haskell
 - kinds
 - nested datatypes
- we also discuss some extensions of the type and class system
 - type families
 - rank-2 types
- we take an example-driven approach

4.0 Types of types

- *Int* is a type
- *Maybe* is a unary type constructor
- the function space “ \rightarrow ” is a binary type constructor
- types and type constructors also possess types, called *kinds*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textit{Int} &:: * \\
 \textit{Maybe} &:: * \rightarrow * \\
 [] &:: * \rightarrow * \\
 (,) &:: * \rightarrow * \rightarrow * \\
 (\rightarrow) &:: * \rightarrow * \rightarrow *
 \end{aligned}$$

- $*$ is the kind of types
- binary type constructors are curried!

4.1 Random-access lists

- lists: extension is cheap, but indexing is slow

```
>>> let n = 99999 :: Int
>>> let x = map square [n, n - 1 .. 0]
>>> sum x
333328333350000
(0.08 secs, 27,416,896 bytes)
>>> sum [x!! i | i <- [0 .. n]]
333328333350000
(23.32 secs, 28,217,600 bytes)
>>> let s = fromList x
>>> sum [s! i | i <- [0 .. n]]
333328333350000
(0.28 secs, 221,007,960 bytes)
```

- goal: efficient sequence type, extensible, fast indexing

4.1 Natural numbers and lists

- a datatype for unary numbers (Peano numbers)

data *Nat* = *Zero* | *Succ Nat*

$(+)$:: *Nat* → *Nat* → *Nat*

Zero + *n* = *n*

Succ m + *n* = *Succ (m + n)*

- Haskell's list datatype

data *List elem* = *Nil* | *Cons elem (List elem)*

$(++)$:: *List elem* → *List elem* → *List elem*

Nil ++ *n* = *n*

Cons a m ++ *n* = *Cons a (m ++ n)*

- same structure with the elements witnessing the number

4.1 Natural numbers and lists

- removing the witnesses

$$\begin{aligned} \text{length} &:: \text{List } \textit{elem} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \\ \text{length } (\text{Nil}) &= \text{Zero} \\ \text{length } (\text{Cons } \textit{a } n) &= \text{Succ } (\text{length } n) \end{aligned}$$

- adding the witnesses

$$\begin{aligned} \text{replicate} &:: \textit{elem} \rightarrow \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{List } \textit{elem} \\ \text{replicate } \textit{a } (\text{Zero}) &= \text{Nil} \\ \text{replicate } \textit{a } (\text{Succ } n) &= \text{Cons } \textit{a } (\text{replicate } \textit{a } n) \end{aligned}$$

4.1 Numerical representations

- lists are modelled after the unary numbers
- operations on lists are modelled after the corresponding operations on unary numbers

unary numbers	lists
meaning	length
zero	nil
increment	cons
decrement	tail
addition	concatenation
comparison	indexing
number system	container type

- the list datatype is a so-called *numerical representation*
- can we repeat the exercise with binary numbers?
- binary numbers are more efficient than unary numbers

4.1 Recap: binary numbers

- a datatype for binary numbers

data *Binary*

= *Nil*

| *Zero Binary*

| *One Binary*

- meaning of a binary number (semantics)

natural :: *Binary* → *Int*

natural (*Nil*) = 0

natural (*Zero n*) = 0 + 2 * *natural n*

natural (*One n*) = 1 + 2 * *natural n*

4.1 Binary numbers and random-access lists

- a datatype for binary numbers

data *Binary*

= Nil — *natural (Nil) = 0*

| *Zero Binary* — *natural (Zero n) = 0 + 2 * natural n*

| *One Binary* — *natural (One n) = 1 + 2 * natural n*

- sequence type modelled after binary numbers (failed attempt)

data *Sequ elem*

= Nil

| *Zero* (*Sequ elem*)

| *One elem* (*Sequ elem*)

- doesn't work: tails must contain twice as many elements

4.1 Binary numbers and random-access lists

- a datatype for binary numbers

data *Binary*

$= Nil$ — $natural\ (Nil) = 0$

| *Zero Binary* — $natural\ (Zero\ n) = 0 + 2 * natural\ n$

| *One Binary* — $natural\ (One\ n) = 1 + 2 * natural\ n$

- if N is a container type for storing exactly n elements, then *Pair* N allows us to store exactly $2 * n$ elements

type *Pair elem* = (*elem*, *elem*)

- sequence type modelled after binary numbers

data *Sequ elem*

$= Nil$

| *Zero* (*Sequ* (*Pair elem*))

| *One elem* (*Sequ* (*Pair elem*))

4.1 Regular versus nested datatypes

- all of the datatypes we have seen before are *regular*
- occurrences of the declared type on the right-hand side of the defining equation are copies of the left-hand side
- *Sequ* is a *nested datatype*
- occurrences on the right-hand side appear with different instances of the accompanying type parameter(s)

```
>>>> foldr cons Nil [1..7]  
One 1 (One (2, 3) (One ((4, 5), (6, 7)) Nil))  
>>>> cons 0 it  
Zero (Zero (Zero (One (((0, 1), (2, 3)), ((4, 5), (6, 7))) Nil)))
```

- the elements are integers, pairs of integers, pairs of pairs of integers, ...

4.1 Meaning and size

- meaning of a binary number (semantics)

natural :: *Binary* → *Int*

natural (*Nil*) = 0

natural (*Zero* *n*) = 0 + 2 * *natural* *n*

natural (*One* *n*) = 1 + 2 * *natural* *n*

- size of a random-access list

size :: *Sequ elem* → *Int*

size (*Nil*) = 0

size (*Zero* *n*) = 0 + 2 * *size* *n*

size (*One* *a n*) = 1 + 2 * *size* *n*

- the function *size* uses *polymorphic recursion*: the recursive call is at type *Sequ (Pair elem)*, not *Sequ elem*
- the type signature is mandatory!

4.1 Increment and cons

- incrementing a binary number

$$\begin{aligned} \text{succ} &:: \text{Binary} \rightarrow \text{Binary} \\ \text{succ} \text{ (Nil)} &= \text{One Nil} \\ \text{succ} \text{ (Zero } n) &= \text{One } n \\ \text{succ} \text{ (One } n) &= \text{Zero (succ } n) \end{aligned}$$

- extending a random-access list (cons)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cons} &:: \text{elem} \rightarrow \text{Sequ elem} \rightarrow \text{Sequ elem} \\ \text{cons } a \text{ (Nil)} &= \text{One } a \text{ Nil} \\ \text{cons } a \text{ (Zero } n) &= \text{One } a \text{ n} \\ \text{cons } a1 \text{ (One } a2 \text{ n)} &= \text{Zero (cons (a1, a2) n)} \end{aligned}$$

4.1 Comparison and indexing

- comparison: is a binary number above a given natural?

$$\begin{aligned}
 (>) &:: \text{Binary} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \quad \text{---} \quad (b > i) == (\text{natural } b > i) \\
 \text{Nil} \quad &> n &= \text{False} \\
 \text{Zero } b &> n &= b > (n \text{ 'div' } 2) \\
 \text{One } b &> 0 &= \text{True} \\
 \text{One } b &> (n + 1) &= b > (n \text{ 'div' } 2)
 \end{aligned}$$

- indexing (only defined for indices smaller than the size)

$$\begin{aligned}
 (!) &:: \text{Sequ } \textcolor{brown}{elem} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \textcolor{brown}{elem} \\
 \text{Nil} \quad &! n &= \text{error "(!): index out of bounds"} \\
 \text{Zero } b &! n &= b ! (n \text{ 'div' } 2) !' (n \text{ 'mod' } 2) \\
 \text{One } \textcolor{brown}{a} &b ! 0 &= \textcolor{brown}{a} \\
 \text{One } \textcolor{brown}{a} &b ! (n + 1) &= b ! (n \text{ 'div' } 2) !' (n \text{ 'mod' } 2) \\
 (\textcolor{brown}{a1}, _) &! 0 &= \textcolor{brown}{a1} \\
 (_ , \textcolor{brown}{a2}) &! 1 &= \textcolor{brown}{a2}
 \end{aligned}$$

4.1 Numerical representations

- random-access lists are modelled after the binary numbers
- operations on random-access lists are modelled after the corresponding operations on binary numbers

binary numbers	random-access lists
meaning	size
zero	nil
increment	cons
decrement	tail
comparison	indexing
conversion: from unary	conversion: from lists
conversion: to unary	conversion: to lists
number system	container type

- what about addition?
- other numerical representations: binomial heaps

4.2 Type classes

- a method of a type class can be seen as a *family* of functions
- e.g. the family of equality functions

$(==) :: Char \rightarrow Char \rightarrow Bool$
 $(==) :: Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Bool$

- is captured by

```
class Eq a      where (==) :: a → a → Bool  
instance Eq Char where ...  
instance Eq Int  where ...
```

4.2 Type families

- how to capture families where two types vary?

insert :: Bool → BitVector → BitVector

insert :: Int → SearchTree → SearchTree

- for each element type there is a dedicated set type

4.2 Type families

- how to capture families where two types vary?

```
insert :: Bool → BitVector → BitVector  
insert :: Int → SearchTree → SearchTree
```

- for each element type there is a dedicated set type
- *type families* come to the rescue

```
type family Set elem :: *  
type instance Set Bool = BitVector  
type instance Set Int = SearchTree
```

```
class Elem elem where insert :: elem → Set elem → Set elem  
instance Elem Bool where ...  
instance Elem Int where ...
```

- *Set* can be seen as a function on types

4.3 Case study: C's printf

- a *type-safe* version of C's *printf* in Haskell

```
>>> printf("I am "&D&" years old.") 51  
"I am 51 years old."  
>>> printf("I am "&D&" "&S&" old.") 1 "year"  
"I am 1 year old."  
>>> fmt = "Color "&S&", Number "&D&", Float "&F  
>>> printf fmt "purple" 4711 3.1415  
"Color purple, Number 4711, Float 3.1415"
```

- quite amazingly, *printf* takes a variable number of arguments, depending on the format directive

4.3 Format directives

- different format directives have different types!

```

>>>> "Color " & S& ", Number " & D& ", Float " & F
("Color ", (S, ("Number ", (D, ("Float ", F))))))
>>>> : type D
D
>>>> D& "" & S
(D, ("", S))
>>>> : type D& "" & S
D& "" & S :: (D, (String, S))

```

- non-trivial format directives are nested pairs; & is simply an infix operator for pairing

4.3 Format directives

- a domain-specific language (DSL) for format directives

data $D = D$ **deriving** (*Show*)

data $F = F$ **deriving** (*Show*)

data $S = S$ **deriving** (*Show*)

infixr 4 **&**

$(\&) :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow (a, b)$

$a \& b = (a, b)$

- $D, F, S, (D, D), (D, (S, F))$, etc are *singleton types*: each type contains exactly one element (ignoring \perp)

4.3 The type of *printf*

- the type of *printf* depends on the type of the format directive

$printf :: D$	$\rightarrow Int \rightarrow$	$String$
$printf :: F$	$\rightarrow Double \rightarrow$	$String$
$printf :: String$	\rightarrow	$String$
$printf :: (D, F)$	$\rightarrow Int \rightarrow Double \rightarrow$	$String$
$printf :: ((D, F), (String, D))$	$\rightarrow Int \rightarrow Double \rightarrow Int \rightarrow$	$String$

- a “functorial” view of *printf*'s type

D	$\rightarrow (Int \rightarrow)$	$String$
F	$\rightarrow (Double \rightarrow)$	$String$
$String$	$\rightarrow Id$	$String$
(D, F)	$\rightarrow ((Int \rightarrow) \circ (Double \rightarrow))$	$String$
$((D, F), (String, D))$	$\rightarrow ((Int \rightarrow) \circ (Double \rightarrow) \circ Id \circ (Int \rightarrow))$	$String$

- so the type of *printf* is $dir \rightarrow Arg \rightarrow dir \rightarrow String$
- (the type operator section $(a \rightarrow) = (\rightarrow) a$ is not legal Haskell)

4.3 Interlude: functors

- recall the identity functor

```
newtype Id a = I { fromI :: a }  
instance Functor Id where  
    fmap f (I x) = I (f x)
```

- functors compose

```
newtype (f ∘ g) a = C { fromC :: f (g a) }  
instance (Functor f, Functor g) ⇒ Functor (f ∘ g) where  
    fmap f (C x) = C (fmap (fmap f) x)
```

- recall that $(a \rightarrow) = (\rightarrow) a$ is a functor

```
instance Functor ((→) a) where  
    fmap f g = f ∘ g
```

4.3 The type of *printf*—continued

- the argument type of *printf* depends on the type of the format directive

type family *Arg* *dir* :: * → *

type instance *Arg* *D* = (→) *Int*

type instance *Arg* *F* = (→) *Double*

type instance *Arg* *S* = (→) *String*

type instance *Arg* *String* = *Id*

type instance *Arg* (*a*, *b*) = *Arg* *a* ∘ *Arg* *b*

- for example

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Arg } (D, (String, S)) \ x &= ((\rightarrow) \text{ Int} \circ \text{Id} \circ (\rightarrow) \text{ String}) \ x \\
 &= ((\text{Int} \rightarrow) \circ (\text{String} \rightarrow)) \ x \\
 &= \text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{String} \rightarrow x)
 \end{aligned}$$

4.3 Towards *printf*

- we first define a helper function

class (*Functor* (*Arg* *dir*)) \Rightarrow *Format* *dir* **where**
 format :: *dir* \rightarrow *Arg* *dir* *String*

instance *Format* *D* **where**
 format *D* = *show*

instance *Format* *F* **where**
 format *F* = *show*

instance *Format* *S* **where**
 format *S* = *id*

instance *Format* *String* **where**
 format *s* = *I s*

instance (*Format* *dir1*, *Format* *dir2*) \Rightarrow *Format* (*dir1*, *dir2*) **where**
 format (*d1*, *d2*) = *C* (*format* *d1* \diamond *format* *d2*)

4.3 Composition of formatters

- composing formatters (\triangleright is a flipped variant of *fmap*)

$$(\diamond) :: (\text{Functor } f, \text{Functor } g) \Rightarrow f \text{ String} \rightarrow g \text{ String} \rightarrow f (g \text{ String})$$

$$f \diamond g = f \triangleright \backslash s \rightarrow g \triangleright \backslash t \rightarrow s \mathbin{++} t$$

$$(\triangleright) :: (\text{Functor } f) \Rightarrow f a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f b$$

$$x \triangleright h = \text{fmap } h \, x$$

- let's inspect the types:

g	$:: G \text{ String}$
$(\backslash t \rightarrow s \mathbin{++} t)$	$:: \text{String} \rightarrow \text{String}$
$g \triangleright (\backslash t \rightarrow s \mathbin{++} t)$	$:: G \text{ String}$
f	$:: F \text{ String}$
$(\backslash s \rightarrow g \triangleright \backslash t \rightarrow s \mathbin{++} t)$	$:: \text{String} \rightarrow G \text{ String}$
$f \triangleright (\backslash s \rightarrow g \triangleright \backslash t \rightarrow s \mathbin{++} t)$	$:: F (G \text{ String})$

4.3 Getting rid of newtypes

- unfortunately, we are not quite there
- we have:

```
>>>> : type format (D & F)  
format (D & F) :: ((( $\rightarrow$ ) Int)  $\circ$  (( $\rightarrow$ ) Double)) String
```

- we want:

```
>>>> : type format (D & F)  
format (D & D) :: Int  $\rightarrow$  (Double  $\rightarrow$  String)
```

- the **newtypes** get in the way
- solution: type cast

```
>>>> : type cast (format (D & F))  
cast (format (D & D)) :: Int  $\rightarrow$  (Double  $\rightarrow$  String)
```

4.3 Getting rid of newtypes—continued

- the final implementation of *printf*

printf :: (Format dir, Cast (Arg dir String)) ⇒ dir → U (Arg dir String)
printf d = cast (format d)

- the method *cast* transforms an element of a newtype *new* into the underlying type *U new*

```
class Cast new where
  type U new
  cast :: new → U new
```

- U* is an associated type family (a family associated to a class)

4.3 Getting rid of newtypes—continued

- “recursive” elimination of newtypes

instance *Cast String* **where**

type *U String* = *String*

cast = *id*

instance (*Cast b*) \Rightarrow *Cast (a \rightarrow b)* **where**

type *U (a \rightarrow b)* = *a \rightarrow U b*

cast f = $\backslash a \rightarrow \text{cast } (f\ a)$

instance (*Cast a*) \Rightarrow *Cast (Id a)* **where**

type *U (Id a)* = *U a*

cast (I a) = *cast a*

instance (*Cast (f (g a))*) \Rightarrow *Cast ((f \circ g) a)* **where**

type *U ((f \circ g) a)* = *U (f (g a))*

cast (C a) = *cast a*

4.4 A little game ★

- recall the game from FP1: I give you a type, you give me a function of that type

$$\forall a . a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$$

- how many total functions are there of this type?

4.4 A little game ★

- recall the game from FP1: I give you a type, you give me a function of that type

$$\forall a . a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$$

- how many total functions are there of this type?
- only two!
- hence the type is isomorphic to the type *Bool*

4.4 Booleans as functions ★

- the Booleans can be represented as functions

type Boolean = $\forall a . a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$

- the \forall makes explicit that these functions are polymorphic
- type of an if-then-else
- *idea*: the Booleans act as conditionals

false, true :: Boolean

false = $\backslash x y \rightarrow y$

true = $\backslash x y \rightarrow x$

- read *false e1 e2* as **if false then e1 else e2**; likewise, read *true e1 e2* as **if true then e1 else e2**

4.4 Booleans as functions—continued ★

- negation, conjunction, and disjunction

not :: *Boolean* → *Boolean*

not b = *b false true*

(*&&*), (*||*) :: *Boolean* → *Boolean* → *Boolean*

a && b = *a b false*

a || b = *a true b*

- *not*, *&&*, and *||* take polymorphic functions as arguments and return polymorphic functions as results
- some example evaluations:

```
>>>> (false && true) "yes" "no"  
"no"
```

```
>>>> (false || true) "yes" "no"  
"yes"
```

4.4 Natural numbers as functions ★

- the natural numbers can be represented as functions, via repeated composition

type *Natural* = $\forall a . (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow a)$

- the representation of *n* takes a function and an initial value, and applies the function *n* times to the initial value
- idea*: the natural numbers act as for-loops (*bounded* iteration)

zero :: *Natural*

zero *f* = *id*

succ :: *Natural* → *Natural*

succ *n* *f* = *f* ∘ *n* *f*

- read *n f a* as *x* = *a* ; **for** (*i* = 0; *i* < *n*; *i*++) *x* = *f* *x*; **return** *x*
- these are called *Church numerals*

4.4 Naturals as functions—continued ★

- addition is a sequence of two for-loops

infixl 6 .+

$(.+)\ ::\ \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Natural}$

$(m.+n)\ f = m\ f \circ n\ f$

- multiplication is given by two nested for-loops

infixl 7 .*

$(.*)\ ::\ \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Natural}$

$(m.*n)\ f = m\ (n\ f)$

- exponentiation (mysterious?)

infixr 8 .^

$(.^)\ ::\ \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Natural}$

$m.^n = n\ m$

4.4 Naturals as functions—continued ★

- some example evaluations:

```

>>>> two = succ (succ zero)
>>>> (two .+ succ two) (' | ':) ""
" | | | | "
>>>> (two .* succ two) (' | ':) ""
" | | | | | "
>>>> (two .^ two .^ two) (' | ':) ""
" | | | | | | | | | | | | | | "
>>>> (two two two) (' | ':) ""
" | | | | | | | | | | | | | | "

```

- (difficult: predecessor and subtraction)

4.5 Summary

- nested datatypes capture structural invariants
- dependent type: a type that depends on a value
- type families mimic dependent types via singleton types
- polymorphic functions are first-class citizens

Part 5

Duality: folds and unfolds

5.0 Outline

Folds and unfolds

Generic programming

Case study: a duality of sorts

Summary

5.1 Duality: fold revisited

- so far we have focused on *consumers* (this seems to be close to the spirit of the time)
- *producers* are important too
- producers (unfolds) are *dual* to consumers (folds)
- to exhibit the duality we first re-define *foldr*

5.1 Fold re-defined

- a *non-recursive* “variant” of the list datatype

data *List elem list* = *Nil* | *Cons elem list*

- one layer of a list
- *foldr* reformulated

fold :: (*List elem ans* → *ans*) → ([*elem*] → *ans*)

fold alg = *consume*

where *consume* [] = *alg Nil*

consume (*x* : *xs*) = *alg* (*Cons x* (*consume xs*))

5.1 Examples of fold

- summing a list of numbers

```
sum :: (Num a) => [a] -> a
sum = fold (\x -> case x of
                  Nil      -> 0
                  Cons a b -> a + b)
```

- *map* can be expressed as a fold

```
map :: (a -> b) -> ([a] -> [b])
map f = fold (\x -> case x of
                  Nil      -> []
                  Cons a x' -> f a : x')
```


5.1 Unfold

- folds consume lists
- *dually*, unfolds produce or generate lists

unfold :: (state → List elem state) → (state → [elem])

unfold coalg = *produce*

where *produce* *x* = **case** *coalg* *x* **of**

Nil → []

Cons a x' → *a* : *produce* *x'*

- think of *produce*'s argument as a state
- relation to OO iterators?

5.1 Examples of unfold

- $[m..n]$ aka *enumFromTo m n*

```
enumFromTo :: (Num a, Ord a) => a -> a -> [a]
enumFromTo m n
  = unfold (\i -> if i > n then Nil
              else Cons i (i + 1)) m
```

- *map* can also be expressed as an unfold

```
map :: (a -> b) -> ([a] -> [b])
map f = unfold (\x -> case x of
                        [] -> Nil
                        a : x' -> Cons (f a) x')
```

5.1 Sorting by insertion

- given

$$\begin{aligned} \text{insert} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow \text{List } a [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{insert Nil} &= [] \\ \text{insert (Cons } x []) &= [x] \\ \text{insert (Cons } x (y:ys)) & \\ &\quad | x \leq y = x:y:ys \\ &\quad | \text{otherwise} = y:\text{insert (Cons } x ys) \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{insertionSort} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{insertionSort} &= \text{fold insert} \end{aligned}$$

- focus on the input (more later)

5.1 Sorting by selection

- dually, given

$$\begin{aligned} \text{select} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow \text{List } a [a] \\ \text{select } [] &= \text{Nil} \\ \text{select } (x:xs) &= \text{case select } xs \text{ of} \\ &\quad \text{Nil} \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \text{Cons } x [] \\ &\quad \text{Cons } y \text{ } ys \\ &\quad \quad | x \leq y \quad \quad \rightarrow \text{Cons } x (y:ys) \\ &\quad \quad | \text{otherwise} \rightarrow \text{Cons } y (x:ys) \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{selectionSort} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{selectionSort} &= \text{unfold select} \end{aligned}$$

- focus on the output (more later)

5.1 Duality

- *unfold* is *dual* to *fold*

$$\text{fold} \quad :: (\text{List } a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow b)$$
$$\text{unfold} :: (b \rightarrow \text{List } a) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow [a])$$

- *fold* reduces a list to a value
- *fold*'s argument is a so-called *algebra*
- an algebra reduces a single 'layer' (step function)
- *unfold* grows a list from a seed
- *unfold*'s argument is a so-called *coalgebra*
- a coalgebra creates a single 'layer' (step function)

5.2 Generic programming

- many of the higher-order operators on lists generalize to other datatypes
- *map*
- *fold*
- *unfold*
- in fact, possible to give a single *generic* definition of each
- *map* using **deriving** (*Functor*)

5.2 Recursive datatypes and their base functors

- recall the recursive datatype of expressions

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

- base functor*: abstract away from recursive components

```
data EXPR expr
  = LIT Integer
  | ADD expr expr
  | MUL expr expr
```

- one layer of an expression
- note*: *Expr* and *EXPR Expr* are isomorphic

5.2 Base functor

- the base functor is a functor

instance *Functor* *EXPR* **where**

$fmap\ f\ (LIT\ i) = LIT\ i$

$fmap\ f\ (ADD\ e1\ e2) = ADD\ (f\ e1)\ (f\ e2)$

$fmap\ f\ (MUL\ e1\ e2) = MUL\ (f\ e1)\ (f\ e2)$

- $fmap\ f$ applies f to the “recursive components”

5.2 Tying and untying the recursive knot

- relating base functor and recursive datatype

```
class (Functor f) ⇒ Base f where
  type Rec f :: *
  inn :: f (Rec f) → Rec f  — tying the recursive knot
  out :: Rec f → f (Rec f) — untying the recursive knot
```

- idea*: the types $\text{Rec } f$ and $f(\text{Rec } f)$ are isomorphic:
 $\text{out} \circ \text{inn} = \text{id}$ and $\text{inn} \circ \text{out} = \text{id}$

```
instance Base EXPR where
  type Rec EXPR = Expr
  inn (LIT i)      = Lit i
  inn (ADD e1 e2) = Add e1 e2
  inn (MUL e1 e2) = Mul e1 e2
  out (Lit i)      = LIT i
  out (Add e1 e2) = ADD e1 e2
  out (Mul e1 e2) = MUL e1 e2
```

5.2 Generic fold and unfold

- fold and unfold given by

$fold :: (Base\ f) \Rightarrow (f\ a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (Rec\ f \rightarrow a)$

$fold\ alg = consume$

where $consume = alg \circ fmap\ consume \circ out$

$unfold :: (Base\ f) \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow f\ a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Rec\ f)$

$unfold\ coalg = produce$

where $produce = inn \circ fmap\ produce \circ coalg$

- note the duality: much clearer in generic presentation

$fold \quad :: (Base\ f) \Rightarrow (f\ a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (Rec\ f \rightarrow a)$

$unfold :: (Base\ f) \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow f\ a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Rec\ f)$

$consume = alg \circ fmap\ consume \circ out$

$produce \quad = inn \circ fmap\ produce \circ coalg$

5.2 Examples of fold

- evaluating an expression

eval :: *Expr* → *Integer*

eval = fold (\x → **case** x of

LIT i → i

ADD v1 v2 → v1 + v2

MUL v1 v2 → v1 * v2)

5.2 Example: binary trees

- recursive datatype of binary trees and its base functor

data *Tree elem* = *Empty* | *Node* (*Tree elem*) *elem* (*Tree elem*)

data *TREE elem tree* = *EMPTY* | *NODE tree elem tree*

- instance of *Functor* and *Base*

instance *Functor* (*TREE elem*) **where**

fmap *f* (*EMPTY*) = *EMPTY*

fmap *f* (*NODE l a r*) = *NODE* (*f l*) *a* (*f r*)

instance *Base* (*TREE elem*) **where**

type *Rec* (*TREE elem*) = *Tree elem*

inn (*EMPTY*) = *Empty*

inn (*NODE l a r*) = *Node l a r*

out (*Empty*) = *EMPTY*

out (*Node l a r*) = *NODE l a r*

5.2 Example: binary trees

- examples of folds: measures on trees

size :: *Tree elem* → *Integer*

size = *fold* (\x → **case** x **of**
 EMPTY → 0
 NODE *sl a sr* → *sl* + 1 + *sr*)

depth :: *Tree elem* → *Integer*

depth = *fold* (\x → **case** x **of**
 EMPTY → 0
 NODE *dl a dr* → 1 + *dl* 'max' *dr*)

- example of an unfold: growing a tree

create :: *Integer* → *Tree ()*

create = *unfold* (\n → **case** n **of**
 0 → *EMPTY*
 m + 1 → *NODE* *k* () (*m* - *k*)
 where *k* = *m* 'div' 2)

5.2 Example: binary trees

- inserting an element into a binary search tree (failed attempt)

```

insert :: (Ord elem) => elem -> Tree elem -> Tree elem
insert a = fold (\x -> case x of
    EMPTY -> Node Empty a Empty
    NODE al b ar
    | a <= b    -> Node al b ??
    | otherwise -> Node ?? b ar)

```

- problem*: the original sub-trees are not available

5.2 Primitive recursion

- meet *fold*'s mate

$$\begin{aligned} para &:: (Base\ f) \Rightarrow (f\ (Rec\ f \times a) \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (Rec\ f \rightarrow a) \\ para\ alg &= consume \\ \textbf{where}\ consume &= alg \circ fmap\ (id\ \triangle\ consume) \circ out \end{aligned}$$

- the algebra is additionally provided with the original sub-components (*para* eats its argument and keeps it too)

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{data}\ a \times b &= a :@ b \\ (\triangle) &:: (x \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (x \rightarrow a \times b) \\ (f \triangle g)\ x &= f\ x :@ g\ x \end{aligned}$$

- (*para* is short for paramorphism—from the Greek παρά meaning “beside”, “next to”, or “alongside”—aka primitive recursion or iteration)

5.2 Example: binary trees

- inserting an element into a binary search tree

insert :: (Ord elem) ⇒ elem → Tree elem → Tree elem

insert a = para (\x → case x of

EMPTY → Node Empty a Empty

NODE (l:@ al) b (r:@ ar)

| a ≤ b → Node al b r

| otherwise → Node l b ar)

- l* is the left sub-tree; *al* is the solution for the left sub-tree i.e. the sub-tree *l* with *a* added
- relies on lazy evaluation (why?)

5.2 Primitive co-recursion

- the recursion scheme *para* also has a dual

$$apo :: (Base\ f) \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow f\ (Rec\ f + a)) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow Rec\ f)$$

$$apo\ coalg = produce$$

$$\textbf{where}\ produce = inn \circ fmap\ (id \nabla produce) \circ coalg$$

- the coalgebra signals whether to stop or to continue

$$\textbf{data}\ a + b = Stop\ a \mid Go\ b$$

$$(\nabla) :: (a \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (a + b \rightarrow x)$$

$$(f \nabla g)\ (Stop\ a) = f\ a$$

$$(f \nabla g)\ (Go\ b) = g\ b$$

- two recursion schemes for the price of one!
- (*apo* is short for apomorphism—from the Greek $\alpha\pi\omicron$, meaning “away from” or “separate”—aka primitive co-recursion or co-iteration)

5.2 Example: binary trees

- inserting an element into a binary search tree revisited

insert :: (Ord elem) \Rightarrow elem \rightarrow Tree elem \rightarrow Tree elem

insert a = apo (\x \rightarrow **case** x **of**

Empty \rightarrow NODE (*Stop* *Empty*) a (*Stop* *Empty*)

Node l b r

| *a* \leq *b* \rightarrow NODE (*Go* l) b (*Stop* r)

| *otherwise* \rightarrow NODE (*Stop* l) b (*Go* r))

- we continue in one branch and stop in the other
- does not rely on lazy evaluation

5.3 Case study: a duality of sorts

- insertion sort is dual to selection sort
- insertion sort is a fold
- selection sort is an unfold
- *next*: insertion itself is an unfold (actually an apo)
- *next*: selection itself is a fold (actually a para)

5.3 Type-directed programming

- let's derive the types of the algebras and coalgebras
- let $L = [a]$ and $F = \text{List } a$ for some type a

$$\begin{aligned} \text{insertionSort} &= \text{fold } a :: L \rightarrow L \\ a &= \text{unfold } c && :: FL \rightarrow L \\ c &= \text{swap} \circ \text{fmap out} && :: FL \rightarrow F(FL) \\ \text{swap} &&& :: F(FL) \rightarrow F(FL) \end{aligned}$$

- dually

$$\begin{aligned} \text{selectionSort} &= \text{unfold } c' :: L \rightarrow L \\ c' &= \text{fold } a' && :: L \rightarrow FL \\ a' &= \text{fmap inn} \circ \text{swap} && :: F(FL) \rightarrow FL \\ \text{swap} &&& :: F(FL) \rightarrow F(FL) \end{aligned}$$

5.3 Swapping elements

- the *algorithmic core* of swap-based sorts

$$\text{swap} :: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow \text{List } a (\text{List } a \ x) \rightarrow \text{List } a (\text{List } a \ x)$$
$$\text{swap } \text{Nil} = \text{Nil}$$
$$\text{swap } (\text{Cons } a \ \text{Nil}) = \text{Cons } a \ \text{Nil}$$
$$\text{swap } (\text{Cons } a \ (\text{Cons } b \ x))$$
$$\quad | \ a \leq b \quad = \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Cons } b \ x)$$
$$\quad | \ \text{otherwise} \quad = \text{Cons } b \ (\text{Cons } a \ x)$$

- swaps two adjacent elements that are out of order
- note that *swap* is polymorphic in x
- the benefit of polymorphism: only one sensible definition

5.3 Two naive sorting algorithms

- naive insertion sort (why naive?) is dual bubble sort

naiveInsertionSort :: (Ord elem) ⇒ [elem] → [elem]
naiveInsertionSort = fold (unfold (swap ∘ fmap out))

bubbleSort :: (Ord elem) ⇒ [elem] → [elem]
bubbleSort = unfold (fold (fmap inn ∘ swap))

- fold of an unfold *versus* unfold of a fold
- two algorithms for the price of one!

5.3 Swapping elements revisited

- the definition of insertion sort is naive because insert always traverses the ordered list to its very end
- the variant below stops in one branch

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{swop} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow \text{List } a \ (x \times \text{List } a \ x) \rightarrow \text{List } a \ (x + \text{List } a \ x) \\
 \text{swop } \text{Nil} &= \text{Nil} \\
 \text{swop } (\text{Cons } a \ (x:@ \text{Nil})) &= \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Stop } x) \\
 \text{swop } (\text{Cons } a \ (x:@ \text{Cons } b \ x')) & \\
 \quad | \ a \leq b &= \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Stop } x) \\
 \quad | \ \text{otherwise} &= \text{Cons } b \ (\text{Go } (\text{Cons } a \ x'))
 \end{aligned}$$

- swop is short for swap'n'stop

5.3 Two sorting algorithms

- insertion sort is dual selection sort

$$\begin{aligned} \text{insertionSort} &:: (\text{Ord } \text{elem}) \Rightarrow [\text{elem}] \rightarrow [\text{elem}] \\ \text{insertionSort} &= \text{fold } (\text{apo } (\text{swop} \circ \text{fmap } (\text{id } \triangle \text{ out}))) \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \text{selectionSort} &:: (\text{Ord } \text{elem}) \Rightarrow [\text{elem}] \rightarrow [\text{elem}] \\ \text{selectionSort} &= \text{unfold } (\text{para } (\text{fmap } (\text{id } \nabla \text{ inn}) \circ \text{swop})) \end{aligned}$$

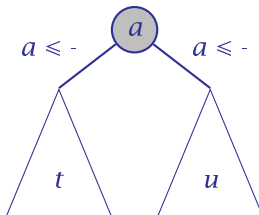
- fold of an apomorphism *versus* unfold of a paramorphism
- two algorithms for the price of one

5.3 Heapsort and minglesort ★

- insertion sort and selection sort have a running time of $\Theta(n^2)$
- quadratic running-time is unavoidable if only adjacent elements are swapped
- efficient sorting algorithms typically involve some intermediate data structure e.g. a search tree or a heap
- let's take a closer look at *heap sort*
- two-phase algorithm:
 - ▶ first phase: create heap from unordered list
 - ▶ second phase: reduce heap to ordered list

5.3 Heap-ordered trees ★

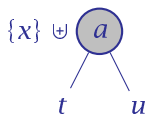
- a tree is *heap-ordered* if the element at each node is no larger than the elements at its children



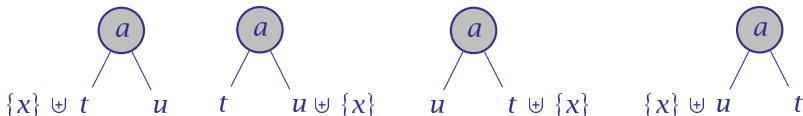
- thus, the element at the root is minimal
- the elements on any path from the root to a leaf are ordered
- note that there are no conditions on the relative order of elements between siblings

5.3 Inserting an element into a heap ★

- what are our options?



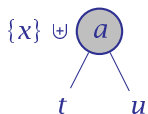
- the minimum, say a , must be kept at the root
- the maximum, say x , must be inserted recursively
- we have essentially four (!) choices:



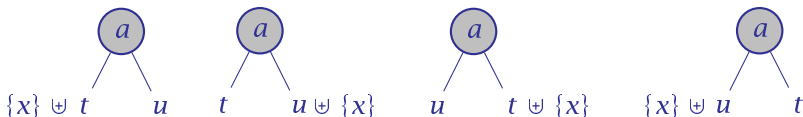
- which one is preferable?

5.3 Inserting an element into a heap ★

- what are our options?



- the minimum, say a , must be kept at the root
- the maximum, say x , must be inserted recursively
- we have essentially four (!) choices:



- which one is preferable?
- one of the two on the right: we always recursively insert into the left (right) subtree, but additionally *swap* the two subtrees

5.3 First phase: creating a heap ★

- base functor for binary heaps

data *Heap elem tree* = *Null* | *Heap elem tree tree*

- (exercise: define *Functor* and *Base* instances)
- *algorithmic core* of heap creation

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{pile} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow \text{List } a \times \text{Heap } a \times \rightarrow \text{Heap } a \times (\text{List } a \times) \\
 \text{pile } \text{Nil} &= \text{Null} \\
 \text{pile } (\text{Cons } a \ (t:@ \text{Null})) &= \text{Heap } a \ (\text{Stop } t) \ (\text{Stop } t) \\
 \text{pile } (\text{Cons } a \ (t:@ \text{Heap } b \ l \ r)) & \\
 \quad | \ a \leq b &= \text{Heap } a \ (\text{Go } (\text{Cons } b \ r)) \ (\text{Stop } l) \\
 \quad | \ \text{otherwise} &= \text{Heap } b \ (\text{Go } (\text{Cons } a \ r)) \ (\text{Stop } l)
 \end{aligned}$$

5.3 Second phase: reducing a heap ★

- *algorithmic core of heap reduction*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{sift} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow \text{Heap } b \ (x \times \text{List } a \ x) \rightarrow \text{List } b \ (x + \text{Heap } a \ x) \\
 \text{sift } \text{Null} &= \text{Nil} \\
 \text{sift } (\text{Heap } a \ (l:@ \text{Nil}) \ (r:@ _)) &= \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Stop } r) \\
 \text{sift } (\text{Heap } a \ (l:@ _) \ (r:@ \text{Nil})) &= \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Stop } l) \\
 \text{sift } (\text{Heap } a \ (l:@ \text{Cons } b \ l') \ (r:@ \text{Cons } c \ r')) & \\
 \quad | \ b \leq c &= \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Go } (\text{Heap } b \ l' \ r)) \\
 \quad | \ \text{otherwise} &= \text{Cons } a \ (\text{Go } (\text{Heap } c \ l \ r'))
 \end{aligned}$$

5.3 Two efficient sorting algorithms ★

- heap sort is dual to “mingle sort” (a variant of merge sort)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{heapSort} &:: (\text{Ord } \text{elem}) \Rightarrow [\text{elem}] \rightarrow [\text{elem}] \\ \text{heapSort} &= \text{unfold } (\text{para } (\text{fmap } (\text{id} \nabla \text{inn}) \circ \text{sift})) \\ &\quad \circ \text{fold } (\text{apo } (\text{pile} \circ \text{fmap } (\text{id} \triangle \text{out}))) \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \text{mingleSort} &:: (\text{Ord } \text{elem}) \Rightarrow [\text{elem}] \rightarrow [\text{elem}] \\ \text{mingleSort} &= \text{fold } (\text{apo } (\text{sift} \circ \text{fmap } (\text{id} \triangle \text{out}))) \\ &\quad \circ \text{unfold } (\text{para } (\text{fmap } (\text{id} \nabla \text{inn}) \circ \text{pile})) \end{aligned}$$

- two, well, actually four (!) algorithms for the price of one

5.4 Summary

- producers are *dual* to consumers
- single *generic* definition of fold and unfold
- (duality much clearer in generic presentation)
- folds generalize to paramorphisms
- unfolds generalize to apomorphisms
- algorithmic duality: comparison-based sorting

Part 6

Case study: turtles and tessellations

6.0 Outline

Reptiles and Setisets

One-level Turtles

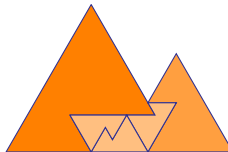
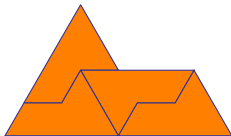
Two-level Turtles

Fractal Curves

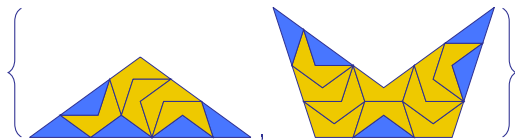
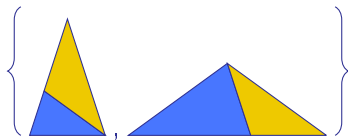
Self-tilings

Summary

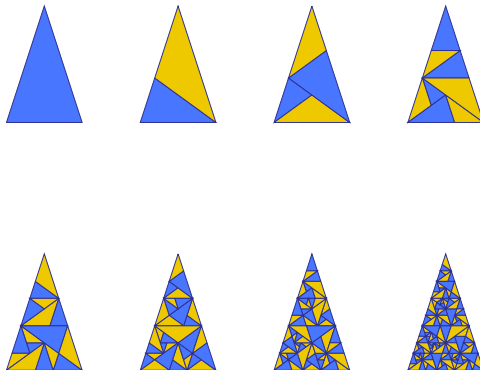
6.1 Reptiles



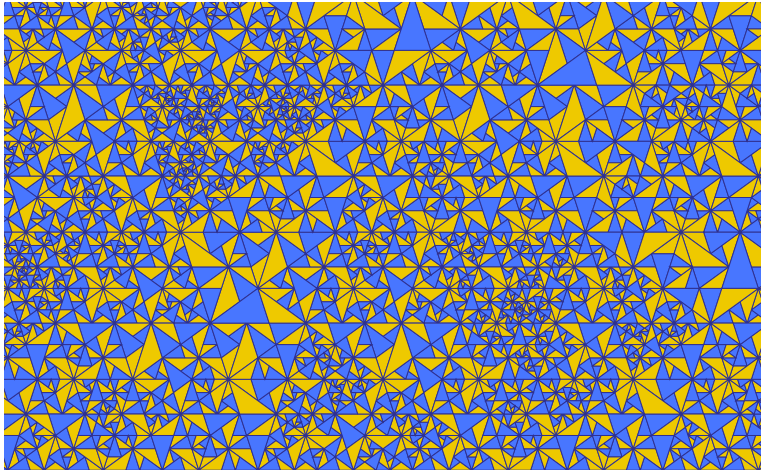
6.1 Setisets



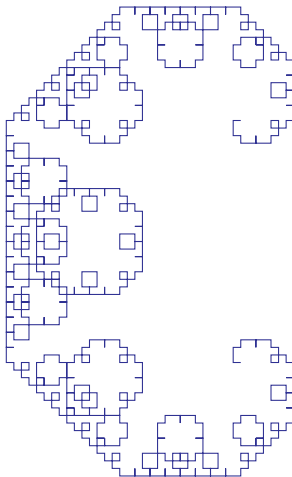
6.1 Self-tilings



6.1 Self-tilings



6.2 Lévy C Curve



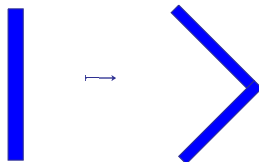
6.2 Lévy C Curve: Turtle Graphics

lévy :: Integer → Program G8

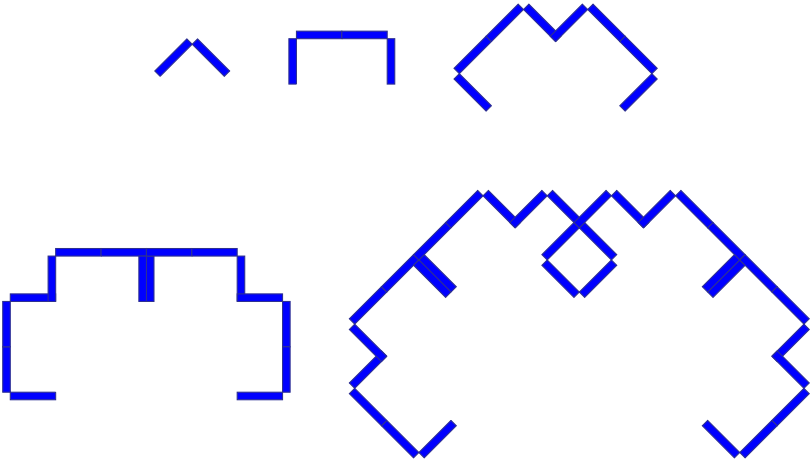
lévy 0 = forward 1

lévy (n + 1) = left 1 ; lévy n ; right 2 ; lévy n ; left 1

6.2 Lévy C Curve: Substitution Rule



6.2 Lévy C Curve



6.3 Turtle Graphics: Geometries

Turtle graphics is vector-based.

To avoid dealing with the nitty-gritty details of representing vectors, directions, and lengths, we introduce a type class:

```
class (Num g, Num (Dir g), Num (Len g))  $\Rightarrow$  Geometry g where  
  type Dir g  
  type Len g  
  origin    :: g  
  polar     :: Dir g  $\rightarrow$  Len g  $\rightarrow$  g  
  cartesian :: g  $\rightarrow$  (Double, Double)
```

We use tailor-made geometries for different types of reptiles: in n -gonia, G_n , the command *left 1* instructs the turtle to turn left by $360^\circ / n$ degrees. (We assume exact *real* arithmetic, making free use of algebraic numbers such as the golden ratio ϕ).

6.3 A DSL for Turtle Graphics

A turtle program is a list of commands (for technical reasons, we fuse the type of lists with the type of commands):

```
data Program g obj = Skip
                    | Drop obj                (Program g obj)
                    | Forward (Len g)          (Program g obj)
                    | Left      (Dir g)         (Program g obj)
                    | Fork      (Program g obj) (Program g obj)
```

Smart constructors for single commands:

```
drop :: obj → Program g obj
drop obj = Drop obj Skip

forward :: Len g → Program g obj
forward a = Forward a Skip

...
```

6.3 Turtle Graphics: Sequencing

Sequencing (concatenation of two lists of commands):

$(;) :: \text{Program } g \text{ obj} \rightarrow \text{Program } g \text{ obj} \rightarrow \text{Program } g \text{ obj}$
Skip $\quad \quad \quad ; \text{cmd} = \text{cmd}$
Drop obj cnt $; \text{cmd} = \text{Drop obj } (cnt; \text{cmd})$
Forward a cnt $; \text{cmd} = \text{Forward a } (cnt; \text{cmd})$
Left α cnt $; \text{cmd} = \text{Left } \alpha \quad (cnt; \text{cmd})$
Fork cmd₁ cnt $; \text{cmd} = \text{Fork cmd}_1 (cnt; \text{cmd})$

6.3 Turtle Graphics: Substitution

First-order terms with variables form a monad with substitution acting as “bind”:

```
instance Monad (Program g) where
  return a = drop a
  Skip      >>= k = Skip
  (Drop a   cnt) >>= k = k a;           (cnt >>= k)
  (Forward r cnt) >>= k = Forward r     (cnt >>= k)
  (Left i   cnt) >>= k = Left i         (cnt >>= k)
  (Fork cmd cnt) >>= k = Fork (cmd >>= k) (cnt >>= k)
```

A mapping from variables to terms is extended to a mapping from terms to terms (Kleisli extension):

```
ext :: (a → Program g b) → (Program g a → Program g b)
ext k m = m >>= k
```

6.4 Lévy C Curve Revisited

A set is given by

- a set of shapes and
- a collection of substitution rules, one for each shape.

Shapes are represented by elements of some datatype. Their semantics is specified by a mapping to turtle graphics:

data *Shape* = *Line*

line :: *Shape* → *Program* *G8* *Void*

line *Line* = *forward* 1

A substitution rule is represented by a coalgebra:

lévy :: *Shape* → *Program* *G8* *Shape*

lévy *Line* = *left* 1 ; *drop* *Line* ; *right* 2 ; *drop* *Line* ; *left* 1

6.4 Lévy C Curve Revisited

To create a picture, the substitution rule is repeatedly applied to a “start string”, followed by an invocation of the semantic mapping:

$$\text{ext line} \searrow (\text{ext lévy})^n \searrow \text{drop Line}$$

where $f \searrow a$ is right-associative function application and f^n denotes the n -fold self-composition of f .

6.4 Dragon Curve: Substitution Rules



6.4 Symmetry

We use coproducts to make symmetries explicit.

```
data  $a + b = L\ a \mid R\ b$ 
```

```
infix 1  $\nabla$ 
```

```
 $(\nabla) :: (a \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow x) \rightarrow (a + b \rightarrow x)$ 
```

```
 $(f \nabla g)\ (L\ a) = f\ a$ 
```

```
 $(f \nabla g)\ (R\ b) = g\ b$ 
```

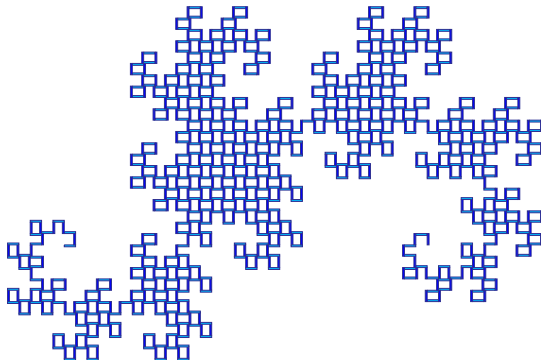
6.4 Dragon Curve

Only one substitution rule is programmed:

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{dragon} &:: \textit{Shape} \rightarrow \textit{Program} \textit{G8} (\textit{Shape} + \textit{Shape}) \\ \textit{dragon} \textit{Line} &= \textit{left} \ 1 \ ; \ \textit{drop} \ (\textit{L} \ \textit{Line}) \ ; \ \textit{right} \ 2 \ ; \ \textit{drop} \ (\textit{R} \ \textit{Line}) \ ; \ \textit{left} \ 1 \end{aligned}$$

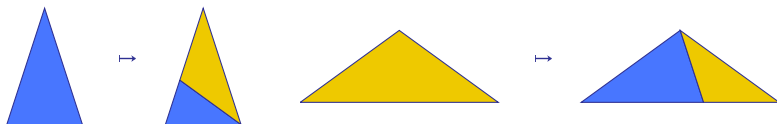
The coalgebra is then given by $\textit{mirror} \cdot \textit{dragon} \nabla \textit{dragon}$, where the transformation \textit{mirror} changes left to right turns and vice versa: $\textit{mirror} (\textit{left} \ \alpha) = \textit{left} \ (-\alpha)$.

6.4 Dragon Curve

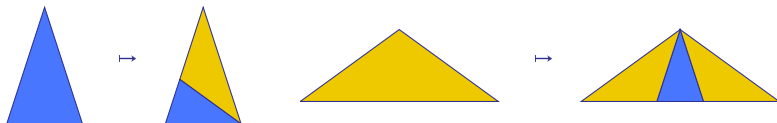


*ext (line ∇ line) \diagup (ext (mirror \cdot dragon ∇ dragon))¹⁰ \diagdown drop (R Line)
:: Program G8 Void*

6.5 Golden Triangles: Substitution Rules



A closer inspection of the set reveals that it is irregular. We obtain a regular set if we sub-divide the larger copy of the \triangle triangle:



6.5 Golden Triangles: Substitution Rules

data *Robinson* = *A* | *B*

robinson :: *Robinson* → Program G_{10} Void

robinson *A* = forward 1 ; left 3 ; forward ϕ ; left 4 ; forward ϕ

robinson *B* = forward ϕ^2 ; left 4 ; forward ϕ ; left 2 ; forward ϕ

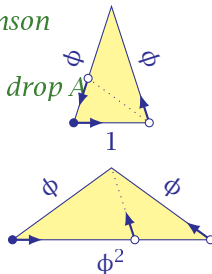
phidias :: *Robinson* → Program G_{10} *Robinson*

phidias *A*

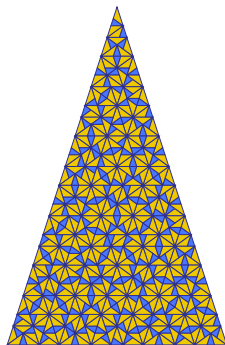
= fork (left 2 ; forward $(1 / \phi)$; left 5 ; drop *A*)
 ; fork (forward 1 ; left 3 ; drop *B*)

phidias *B*

= fork (forward ϕ ; left 3 ; *phidias* *A*)
 ; fork (forward ϕ^2 ; left 4 ; drop *B*)



6.5 Golden Triangles



fmap robinson / (scale ϕ · ext phidias)⁷ / drop A
:: Program G_{10} (Program G_{10} Void)

6.5 Sun and Star

We combine a triangle and its mirror image to form a kite or a dart:

```
kite, dart :: Program G10 (Robinson + Robinson)
kite = drop (R A) ; left 4 ; drop (L A) ; right 4
dart = drop (R B) ; left 2 ; drop (L B) ; right 2
```

and then whirl the combined diagrams:

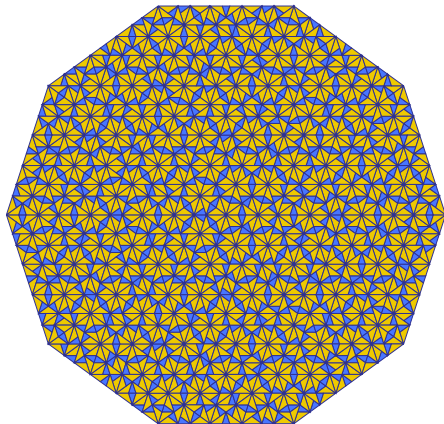
```
sun, star :: Program G10 (Robinson + Robinson)
sun = repeat 5 (kite ; repeat 2 (forward 1 ; left 1))
star = repeat 5 (dart ; left 2)
```

To adapt *phidias* we make use of the coproduct of coalgebras:

```
infix 1 ⊕
(⊕) :: (Functor f) ⇒ (a → f a) → (b → f b) → (a + b) → f (a + b)
f ⊕ g = fmap L · f ∇ fmap R · g
```

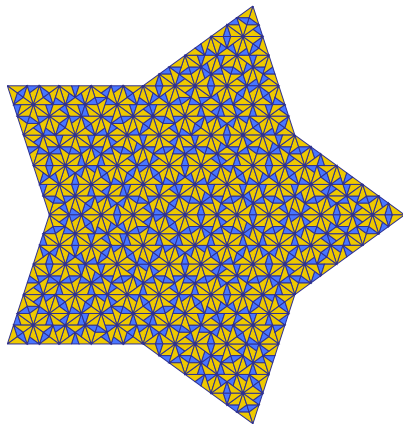
The coalgebra is then *mirror · phidias ⊕ phidias*.

6.5 Golden Triangles: Sun



$fmap (mirror \cdot robinson \nabla robinson) /$
 $(scale \phi \cdot ext (mirror \cdot phidias \oplus phidias))^6 / sun$
 $:: Program\ G_{10} (Program\ G_{10}\ Void)$

6.5 Golden Triangles: Star



$fmap (mirror \cdot robinson \nabla robinson) /$
 $(scale \phi \cdot ext (mirror \cdot phidias \oplus phidias))^5 / star$
 $:: Program\ G_{10}\ (Program\ G_{10}\ Void)$

6.6 Conclusion

- reptiles, setisets, and fractal curves
- free monads and coalgebras
- typed Lindenmayer systems

Part 7

Conclusion

7.0 Outline

Recap

7.1 Recap: Functional Programming 2

- lazy vs eager evaluation
- “lazy makes you pure”
- monadic approach to I/O
- abstract datatypes of computations (effects)
 - ▶ (functor)
 - ▶ applicative functor
 - ▶ monad
- nested datatypes capture structural invariants
- numerical representations
- type classes and type families
- generic programming: folds and unfolds

7.1 Thank you

Thanks for listening. It was good fun!