Haskell for Grownups

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Pragmatics

Modules are the basic unit of a Haskell program Using GHCi

How to Write a Haskell Program

Haskell Basics

- Modern (pure) lazy functional language
- Statically typed, supports type inference
- Compilers and interpreters:
 - http://www.haskell.org/implementations.html
 - ▶ GHC Compiler
 - GHCi interpreter
- ► A peculiar language feature: indentation matters
- Also: capitalization matters

Some Reference Texts

- Programming in Haskell by Graham Hutton. This is an excellent, step-by-step introduction to Haskell. Graham also has a lot of online resources (slides, videos, etc.) to go along with the book.
- A Gentle Introduction to Haskell by Hudak, Peterson, and Fasal.
 Available at http://www.haskell.org/tutorial/.
- ► Learn You a Haskell for Good by Miran Lipovaca. Highly amusing and informative; available online.
- Real World Haskell by Bryan O'Sullivan. Also available online (I believe). "Haskell for Working Programmers".
- Course notes and Slides by me.
- ► Google.

Question: What does this program do?

```
n = i;
a = 1;
while (n > 0) {
    a = a * n;
    n = n - 1;
}
```

Functions in Mathematics

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n * (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

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$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n * (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

What does this have to do with that?

```
n = i;
a = 1;
while (n > 0) {
    a = a * n;
    n = n - 1;
}
```

First Haskell Function

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n * (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

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$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n * (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

It's relationship to this Haskell function is apparent:

```
fac :: Int -> Int
fac 0 = 1
fac n = n * fac (n-1)
```

Hello World in C

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
  printf("hello_world\n");
}
```

Hello World in Haskell

```
module HelloWorld where
helloworld :: IO ()
helloworld = print "Hello_World"
```

Factorial Revisited

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fac(int n) {
 if (n==0)
    { return 1; }
 else
    { return (n * fac (n-1)); }
int main() {
 printf("Factorial_5_=_%d\n", fac(5));
 return 0;
```

Hello Factorial

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fac(int n) {
  printf("hello_world");  // new
  if (n==0)
    { return 1; }
  else
    { return (n * fac (n-1)); }
}
...
```

Hello Factorial

```
#include <stdio.h>
int fac(int n) {
 printf("hello, world");  // new
 if (n==0)
    { return 1; }
  else
    { return (n * fac (n-1)); }
(N.b., the type is the same)
               int fac(int n) {...}
```

Hello Factorial in Haskell

Data Types + Functions = Haskell Programs

Haskell programming is both data type and functional programming!

Arithmetic interpreter

data type:

```
data Exp = Const Int | Neg Exp | Add Exp Exp
```

► function:

```
interp :: Exp -> Int
interp (Const i) = i
interp (Neg e) = - (interp e)
interp (Add e1 e2) = interp e1 + interp e2
```

Data Types + Functions = Haskell Programs

Haskell programming is both data type and functional programming!

- Arithmetic interpreter
 - data type:

```
data Exp = Const Int | Neg Exp | Add Exp Exp
```

► function:

```
interp :: Exp -> Int
interp (Const i) = i
interp (Neg e) = - (interp e)
interp (Add e1 e2) = interp e1 + interp e2
```

- ▶ How do Haskell programs use data?
 - Patterns break data apart to access:

```
"interp (Neg e) =..."
```

Functions recombine into new data:

```
"interp e1 + interp e2"
```

Type Synonym

 $\underline{\text{Type synonym}}\text{: new name for an existing type; e.g.,}$

type String = [Char]

String is a synonym for the type [Char].

Type synonyms can be used to make other types easier to read; e.g., given:

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

```
origin :: Pos

origin = (0,0)

left :: Pos -> Pos

left (x,y) = (x-1,y)
```

Parametric Polymorphism

Type synonyms can also have parameters

```
type Pair a = (a,a)

mult :: Pair Int -> Int
mult (m,n) = m*n

copy :: a -> Pair a
copy x = (x,x)
```

Nesting Type Synonyms

Type declarations can be nested

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

type Trans = Pos -> Pos -- GOOD
```

However, they cannot be recursive:

```
type Tree = (Int,[Tree]) -- BAD
```

Data Declarations

A completely new type can be defined by specifying its values using a <u>data declaration</u>.

data Bool = False | True

Data Declarations

A completely new type can be defined by specifying its values using a <u>data declaration</u>.

data Bool = False | True

- ▶ Bool is a new type.
- ▶ False and True are called constructors for Bool.
- ▶ Type and constructor names begin with upper-case letters.
- Data declarations are similar to context free grammars.

New types can be used in the same way as built-in types

For example, given

data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown

New types can be used in the same way as built-in types

For example, given

```
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
```

We can define:

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

flip :: Answer -> Answer
flip Yes = No
flip No = Yes
flip Unknown = Unknown
```

Constructors with Parameters

The constructors in a data declaration can also have parameters. For example, given

we can define:

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

Note:

- Shape has values of the form Circle r where r is a float, and Rect x y where x and y are floats.
- Circle and Rect can be viewed as functions that construct values of type Shape:

```
-- Not a definition
```

Circle :: Float -> Shape

Rect :: Float -> Float -> Shape

Not surprisingly, data declarations themselves can also have parameters. For example, given

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

we can define:

```
safediv :: Int -> Int -> Maybe Int
safediv _ 0 = Nothing
safediv m n = Just (m 'div' n)
```

```
safehead :: [a] -> Maybe a
safehead [] = Nothing
safehead xs = Just (head xs)
```

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General form of a Haskell module

```
module ModuleName where
import L_1 -- imports
import L_k
data D_1 = \cdots -- type decls
data D_n = \cdots
f_1 = \cdots -- fun decls
```

- Order does not matter
- Modules, Types & constructors are always capitalized
- ► Module *ModuleName* stored in file, *ModuleName*.hs

Starting GHCi

```
bash-3.2> ghci
GHCi, version 7.6.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ghc-prim ... linking ... done.
Loading package integer-gmp ... linking ... done.
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
*Prelude>
```

Loading a File into GHCi

```
*Prelude> :l ExtractList
[1 of 1] Compiling ExtractList (ExtractList.hs, interpreted)
Ok, modules loaded: ExtractList.
*ExtractList>
```

- ▶ :1 is short for :load.
- ► Could type ghci ExtractList to load it at start up.

Checking Types in GHCi

```
*ExtractList> :t head
head :: [a] -> a
*ExtractList> :t tail
tail :: [a] -> [a]
*ExtractList> :t (:)
(:) :: a -> [a] -> [a]
```

- :t is short for :type.
- Can check the type of any function definition
 - ▶ The above are list functions defined in Prelude

Reloading and Quitting GHCi

```
*ExtractList> :r
Ok, modules loaded: ExtractList.
*ExtractList> :q
Leaving GHCi.
bash-3.2>
```

- ▶ :r is short for :reload.
- ▶ :q is short for :quit.
- Reload only recompiles the current module. Use it when you have only made changes to the current module—it's faster.
- ► Emacs Users: can use C-p, C-n, C-e, C-a, C-f at the GHCi prompt to cycle through and edit previous commands.

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Type-Driven Programming in Haskell

Types first, then programs

- ▶ Writing a function with type $A \rightarrow B$, then you have a lot of information to use for fleshing out the function.
- ▶ Why? Because the input type A whatever it happens to be — has a particular form that determines a large part of the function itself.
- ► This is, in fact, the way that you should develop Haskell programs.

Recursive Types

In Haskell, new types can be declared in terms of themselves. That is, types can be <u>recursive</u>.

data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat

Nat is a new type, with constructors

Zero :: Nat

Succ :: Nat -> Nat

Note:

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

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



Note:

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

```
Succ (Succ (Succ Zero)) represents the natural number 1 + (1 + (1 + 0))
```

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

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

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

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

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

add Zero
$$n = n$$

add (Succ m) $n = Succ$ (add m n)

The recursive definition for add corresponds to the laws

$$0 + n = n$$

and

$$(1+m)+n=1+(m+n)$$

The edit-compile-test-until-done paradigm

I'm guessing that this is familar to you

When I was a student—the process of writing a C program tended to follow these steps:

- 1. Create/edit a version of the whole program using a text editor.
- 2. Compile. If there were compilation errors, develop a hypothesis about what the causes were and start again at 1.
- 3. Run the program on some tests. Do I get what I expect? If so, then declare victory and stop; otherwise, develop a hypothesis about what the causes were and start again at 1.

An Exercise

- Write a function that
 - 1. takes a list of items,
 - takes a function that returns either True or False on those items,
 - 3. and returns a list of all the items on which the function is true.
- ► This is called *filter*, and it's a built-in function in Haskell, but let me show you how I'd write it from scratch.
 - I call the function I'm writing "myfilter" to avoid the name clash with the built-in version.

Step 1. Figure out the type of the thing you're writing

- Think about the type of filter and write it down as a type specification in a Haskell module (called Sandbox throughout).
- With what I've said about filter, it takes a list of items—i.e., something of type [a].
- It also takes a function that takes an item—an a thing—and returns true or false—i.e., it returns a Bool. So, this function will have type a → Bool.

```
myfilter :: [a] -> (a -> Bool) -> [a]
```

Step 2: Fill in the type template & Load the module.

- In this case, we have a function with two arguments. The second argument of type a->Bool does not have a matchable form like the first argument.
- This leaves us with:

```
myfilter :: [a] -> (a -> Bool) -> [a]
myfilter [] f = undefined
myfilter (x:xs) = undefined
```

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- In this case, we have a function with two arguments. The second argument of type a->Bool does not have a matchable form like the first argument.
- This leaves us with:

```
myfilter :: [a] -> (a -> Bool) -> [a]
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```

▶ Reloading module reveals an error in the template as typed:

Step 2 (continued)

Debugging via Type-checking!

- ► Fix the error NOW! Forgot 2nd f param. in 2nd clause.
 - ► Type error just committed can be fixed *now*.
 - Alternative: wait until I have "first draft" of the whole program and check it.
 - Incremental approach: can check each new part of the program as I create it so that I'm not surprised by errors.
 - Identifying the source of error easier—i.e., it is the line you just typed.
- Fixing the error yields:

```
myfilter :: [a] -> (a -> Bool) -> [a]
myfilter [] f = undefined
myfilter (x:xs) f = undefined
```

Step 3: Fill in the clauses one-by-one reloading as you go.

The [] case is obvious because there is nothing to filter out:

```
myfilter :: [a] -> (a -> Bool) -> [a]
myfilter [] f = []
myfilter (x:xs) f = undefined
```

No problems with this last bit:

```
> ghci Sandbox.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Sandbox
Ok, modules loaded: Sandbox.
*Sandbox>
```

Step 3 (continued).

► The second clause should only include x if f x is True; one way to write that is with an if—then—else:

Loading this into GHC reveals a problem:

Step 3 (continued).

This error occurs on line 8 of the module, which is the line "then x : myfilter f xs". GHCi is telling us that it expects that f would have type [a] but that it can see that f has type a → Bool. After a moment's pause, we can see that the order of the arguments is incorrect in both recursive calls. The corrected version works: