

Fundamental Concepts

CS4450/7450

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Overview

- *Scripts* are collections of definitions.
- *Definitions* are equations describing mathematical functions.
- *Type signatures* describe the basic behavior of definitions.
- *Sessions* are interactions between the programmer and language system during which *expressions* are *evaluated*.
- Expressions evaluated in a session may refer to definitions given in a script.

GHCi Sessions

Starting the interpreter:

```
Athena:~ Bill$ ghci
```

This spits out the following:

```
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>
```

The prompt, “Prelude>”, signifies that GHCi has loaded the Haskell prelude, which is a script auto-loaded every time GHCi starts.

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Interactive Sessions

You interact with GHCi during a session.

```
Prelude> 42
```

```
42
```

```
Prelude> 6 * 7
```

```
42
```

```
Prelude> :type 42
```

```
42 :: Num a => a
```

```
Prelude> :quit
```

```
Leaving GHCi.
```

Writing Scripts

- “Script” = “Bunch of definitions in a file”.
- Create a script with a text editor (e.g., vi, emacs, notepad, etc.); the following saved in `Script.hs`.

```
square  :: Integer -> Integer
square x = x * x
smaller :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
smaller (x,y) = if x <= y then x else y
```

- Load the script while in GHCi:

```
Prelude> :load Script
[1 of 1] Compiling Main    ( Script.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main>
```

- Evaluate expressions using definitions in script:

```
*Main> square 14198724
201603763228176
*Main>
```


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Evaluation

- Expressions are *evaluated* (a.k.a., *simplified*, *reduced*) by simplifying until no other simplification is possible.
- Non-deterministic: Usually a choice of simplifications

E.g., here are two “reduction sequences”:

```
square (3+4)
= square 7
= 7 * 7
= 49
```

```
square (3+4)
= (3+4) * (3+4)
= 7 * (3 + 4)
= 7 * 7
= 49
```

N.b., just “replacing equals for equals”.

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Termination & Non-termination

Not all evaluation terminates. Consider:

```
three :: Integer -> Integer
three x = 3
infinity :: Integer
infinity = infinity + 1
```

These are two possible reduction sequences.

<pre>three infinity = three (infinity + 1) = three (infinity + 1 + 1) ⋮</pre>	<pre>three infinity = 3</pre>
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- Reduction sequences for an expression may include both terminating and non-terminating ones.
- Order of evaluation matters!* Haskell's *lazy evaluation* finds a terminating red-seq if one exists. (Ch. 7).

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Purity vs. Impurity

The following C program **returns** 6:

```
#include <stdio.h>

int main () {
    int x,i;
    x = 0;
    for (i=1; i<=3; i++) {
        x = x + i;
        printf("x is %d\n",x);
    }
    return x;
}
```

The following Haskell expressions **are** 6:

```
sum [1,2,3]
1 + 2 + 3
6
```

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Values and Expressions

- Impurity: C program returns 6 but what it does is not captured by its `int` type.
- Purity: Haskell expressions **denote** the value 6.
- Name/Object distinction: think of each Haskell expression (e.g., `sum [1, 2, 3]`) as a name for an object (e.g., 6).

The distinction between syntax and semantics is **critical** to the study of programming languages.

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Functions **are** Values

- Functional languages have all of the usual sorts of basic values: integers, floats, etc.
- They also have “first class” functions.
- “First class” means that functions can be passed and returned just as with a “normal” value
- Consider this definition:

```
add :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
add x y = x + y
```

- When loaded into GHCi:

```
*Main> :type add
add :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
*Main> :type add 9
add 9 :: Integer -> Integer
*Main> let foo = add 9
*Main> foo 6
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```

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First Class Functions

Recall the function:

```
square :: Integer -> Integer
square x = x * x
```

Here's a function that takes a function as input:

```
twice :: (Integer -> Integer) -> Integer -> Integer
twice f x = f (f x)
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For example:

```
*Main> twice square 4
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```

Q: What are the types of `twice square 4` and `twice square`?

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An Aside on Types and Applications

- “ \rightarrow associates to the right”. That is, a type like

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is really shorthand for:

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- Function application is to an input argument is expressing by juxtaposition
 - `square 9` is a function application of `square` to `9`.
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Extensionality

- Consider the following functions:

```
double, double' :: Integer -> Integer
double x      = x + x
double' x     = 2 * x
```

- These functions are equal — but why?
- They are equal because, for any `Integer i`,

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double i == double' i
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- This is called the principle of **extensionality**, which says that, *two functions are equal if they are equal on all inputs.*

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Currying

- Consider the following functions:

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smaller :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
smaller (x,y) = if x <= y then x else y
smallerc :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
smallerc x y = if x <= y then x else y
```

- `smaller == smallerc`?
- `smaller` is a function that takes a single input—a pair of Integers—while `smallerc` takes two inputs (each of which is an Integer).
- `smallerc` is in “curried” form, while `smaller` is in “uncurried” form.
- Named for American logician, Haskell Curry (1900-1982).

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Currying Function

Currying can be written as a function:

curry :: ((a,b) -> c) -> (a -> b -> c)

curry f a b = f (a,b)

While `smaller` \neq `smallerc`, they are equivalent in a sense:

```
curry smaller i j == smaller (i,j)
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== **if** i<=j **then** i **else** j
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Function Composition

- If we have `square`, we can define `quad`, which raises its argument to the 4th.

```
quad :: Integer -> Integer
quad x = square (square x)
      where square :: Integer -> Integer
            square x = x * x
```

- In high school algebra, this is just “function composition” of `square` with itself.
- In standard mathematical notation, this would be $\text{square} \circ \text{square}$.
- In Haskell, this is:

```
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Just FYI: Defining Composition

Composition operator $(.)$ defined in the Haskell prelude as:

```
(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> (a -> c)
(f . g) a = f (g a)
```

Composition is associative:

$$f . (g . h) == (f . g) . h$$

Therefore, we can simply write: $f . g . h$

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Definitions with Guards

- Recall the definition of smaller:

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- An equivalent definition uses **guards**:

```
smaller :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
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               | otherwise = y
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- The “| *test*” are guards.
- Each guard test is checked in order until a true one is found; corresponding branch is returned.
- The else case is the otherwise guard.
- Guards are *syntactic sugar*—any guarded definition could be translated into one using only `if – then – else`.

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Recursion

- Recursion is the main engine in a functional language.
- Loops are, in fact, recursive constructs. The loop, `while (b) { c }` can be written as a recursive procedure:

```
procwhile b c = if b
                  then (c ; procwhile b c)
                  else skip
```

- No surprises:

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } (n == 0) \\ n \times ((n-1)!) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- ...can be written:

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Recursion

- Note that it may also be written with guards:

```
fact :: Integer -> Integer
fact n | n==0      = 1
       | otherwise = n * (fact (n-1))
```

- Guards provide a convenient means for input checking:

```
fact :: Integer -> Integer
fact n | n<0      = error "Argghhh..."
       | n==0     = 1
       | otherwise = n * (fact (n-1))
```

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Recursion

- Note that it may also be written with guards:

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fact :: Integer -> Integer
fact n | n==0      = 1
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- Guards provide a convenient means for input checking:

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Local Definitions

- Definitions as we've seen them thus far are at the “top level” (i.e., global)

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foo :: A -> B    -- foo can call bar
foo a = ...
bar :: A -> C    -- bar can call foo
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- Some times we want local definitions (a.k.a., helper functions) for convenience. Local definitions are hidden.

```
foo :: A -> B    -- can call bar and boo
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    where boo x = ...
bar :: A -> C    -- can call foo, but not boo
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- Seen this already:

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quad :: Integer -> Integer
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Types, what are they good for?

The main point of types and type systems is to restrict a language to sensible expressions by “weeding out” nonsense.

Ex: the following are nonsense:

```
9 + True
square square
...
```

- *Type*: a collection of values.
- *Type system*: rules for assigning types to expressions.
- *Strong type system* for a language insists that every expression have a type.
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Just FYI: Typing rules

- Every type system (incl. Haskell's) is defined by “inference rules”.
- Ex: the rule for function application looks like:

$$\frac{e_1 :: A \rightarrow B \quad e_2 :: A}{e_1 \ e_2 :: B}$$

where A and B can be any type.

- Rule is pronounced: “if e_1 has type $A \rightarrow B$ and e_2 has type A , then the application $e_1 \ e_2$ has type B .”

$$\frac{\text{twice} :: \overbrace{(\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer})}^A \rightarrow \overbrace{\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}}^B \quad \text{square} :: \overbrace{\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}}^A}{\text{twice square} :: \underbrace{\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}}_B}$$

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Parametric Polymorphism

- Consider the following transcript:

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*Main> length ['x','y','z']  
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*Main> length [1,2,3]  
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- The first example would suggest that $\text{length} :: [\text{Char}] \rightarrow \text{Int}$ and the second example that $\text{length} :: [\text{Int}] \rightarrow \text{Int}$.

- Which is it? length **must** have a single type.
- The solution: allow types to have “parameters”:

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“Ad Hoc” Polymorphism & Type Classes

- For some operations, parametric polymorphism is too general. E.g., addition only makes sense applied to numerical values:

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'a' + 'b'      -- makes no sense!
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- Upshot: restrict to a class of sensible types:

```
*Main> :t (+)  
(+) :: Num a => a -> a -> a
```

- Here `Num` is called a type class. All the familiar numbers are in `Num`: `Int`, `Integer`, `Float`, etc.
- The “`Num a =>`” is a class constraint. The type of `(+)` is pronounced: for every `Num` type `a`, `(+)` has type `a → a → a`.

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