

# Simple Functional Programming in Haskell

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# Haskell: Defining Functions

- Programs are **collections of functions**.
- A function is a mapping from one set (domain) to another set (range).

## Math

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$f(x) = x^2 - 1$$

## Haskell

```
f :: Float -> Float
f x = x * x - 1
```

# Haskell: Computing with Functions

- Computation is **evaluation of expressions**

$$f(3) = 3 \times 3 - 1 = 8$$

- In the Haskell interactive system:

```
Main> f 3  
8
```

## Type signature and definition

*-- return the square of an integer*

**square** :: **Integer**  $\rightarrow$  **Integer**

**square** x = x \* x

- `--` begins a comment line
- Type signature
- Function equation

`=` is the equation operator

it is not assignment

- The LHS is defined to be equivalent to the expression on the RHS

# Bindings

*-- return the square of an integer*

`square :: Integer -> Integer`

`square x = x * x`

A definition **binds** names to values.

- `square` is bound to a function
- `x` is the formal name of the argument given to the function
- A set of bindings is called an environment

## Function evaluation

```
Main> square 3
9
Main> square 5678
32239684
Main> square (square 5678)
1039397224419856
```

An expression is evaluated by

- looking up names in the environment,
  - replacing the names with their values,
  - carrying out the needed operations.
- Haskell is **lazy**: an expression is evaluated only if its value is needed.

## A function with multiple inputs

-- *return the smaller of a pair of Integers*

`smaller :: (Integer, Integer) -> Integer`

`smaller (x,y) = if (x < y) then x else y`

- The name `smaller` is bound to a function that takes a pair of Integers, and returns an Integer
- The pair notation is a container; this is one argument with 2 sub-components.
- The `if e1 then e2 else e3` syntax:
  - Force evaluation of `e1`; if `True` return `e2`, else return `e3`
  - In Java/C/C++: `e1 ? e2 : e3`



## A function with multiple arguments

-- *return the smaller of a pair of Integers*

`smaller2 :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer`

`smaller2 x y = if (x < y) then x else y`

- The name `smaller2` is bound to a function that takes 2 Integers, and returns an Integer
- Each parameter is handled separately; they are not a single unit.

# How to work with The Glasgow Haskell Compiler

- Start Haskell on Lab machines by typing “ghci”
- The GHC is part of “The Haskell Project”  
<http://www.haskell.org/>
- Includes a compiler (ghc), an interactive system (ghci), libraries and applications.

# How to work with The Glasgow Haskell Compiler

```
savoy[1]% ghci
GHCi, version 6.10.4: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/  :? for help
Loading package ghc-prim \ldots linking \ldots done.
Loading package integer \ldots linking \ldots done.
Loading package base \ldots linking \ldots done.
Prelude> :l functional
[1 of 1] Compiling Main          ( functional.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> square 3
9
*Main> square (square 3)
81
```

# A C programmer's first factorial function in Haskell

```
factorial  :: Integer -> Integer
factorial n =
  if (n == 0) then
    1
  else
    n * factorial (n - 1)
```

- If-then-else is familiar, but this is very ugly.
- Important: **White space for indentation is significant.**

## Guarded equations for multiple cases

```
factorial3  :: Integer -> Integer
factorial3 n | n == 0    = 1
              | otherwise = n * factorial3 (n - 1)
```

Compare this to a definition you might find in a textbook:

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

## Using patterns

```
factorial6  :: Integer -> Integer  
factorial6  0 = 1  
factorial6  n = n * ( factorial6  (n-1))
```

- Patterns are checked in order
- Patterns with literal values are tests of equality
- Patterns with names bind the name to the given value

## Using local definitions

```
factorial6  :: Integer -> Integer
factorial6  0 = 1
factorial6  n = n * fnm1
  where fnm1 = factorial6 (n-1)
```

- The where-clause creates a local binding.
- Values and functions can be defined locally.

# Newton's method in Haskell

-- *Square root: simple recursive version*

```
sqrt1 :: Double -> Integer -> Double
sqrt1 x n | n == 1      = 1
          | otherwise    = (y + x/y)/2
          where y = sqrt1 x (n-1)
```

Compare to:

$$y_1 = 1$$

$$y_n = \frac{y_{n-1} + \frac{x}{y_{n-1}}}{2}$$



## Computing square roots to within given accuracy

-- *Flexible square root*

`sqrt5 :: Double -> Double -> Double`

`sqrt5 eps x = sqh x`

`where sqh y | abs (x - y*y) < eps = y`  
               | otherwise          = sqh ((y + x/y)/2)

- Local definition of recursive function with guarded equations.
- Note: The inner function uses  $x$  which is bound by the outer function.

## Expressions that evaluate to functions

```
sqrt_loose  :: Double -> Double
```

```
sqrt_loose = sqrt5 0.5
```

```
sqrt_close  :: Double -> Double
```

```
sqrt_close = sqrt5 0.0001
```

- Haskell functions are values too!
- A function call that does not have all the needed arguments creates a new function!

## Sending functions as values to functions

-- *radical square root*

squareroot :: **Double** -> **Double** -> **Double**

squareroot eps x = **until** closeEnough improveGuess 1

**where** improveGuess y = (y + x/y)/2

    closeEnough u = **abs** (x - u\*u) < eps

**until** p f x = **if** (p x) **then** x **else** **until** p f (f x)

Haskell's compiler contains a very powerful type checking system.  
This allows programmers to define very powerful functions.

## Find the root of any function $g$

-- *radical root*

```
root :: Double -> (Double -> Double) -> Double
```

```
root eps g = until closeEnough improveGuess 1
  where g' x = (g (x+eps) - g x)/eps
        improveGuess y = y - (g y)/(g' y)
        closeEnough u = abs (g u) < eps
```

- **until** is defined by the Haskell prelude.
- There are restrictions on  $g$ ; can you deduce what restrictions must apply to  $g$ ?

## Specializing the generic root function

-- *sqrt to 5 decimal places*

sqrt5 a = root 0.00001 (sq a)

**where** sq a x = x\*x - a

-- *cube root to 5 decimal places*

cubert a = root 0.00001 (cu a)

**where** cu a x = x\*x\*x - a

-- *rewriting sqrt5 using function composition*

sqrt6 = (root 0.00001) . sq

**where** sq a x = x\*x - a

# Haskell: Features Overview

- Purely Functional
- Strongly typed
- Polymorphic
- Lazy Evaluation
- Modern

# Haskell: Purely Functional

## Purely functional

The value of an expression depends only on the components of the expression.

- This allows programmers to use functions in powerful ways.
- Side-effects like I/O are localized and cannot have hidden effects on other functions.
- No mutation, pointers
- Functions are “first-class” values

# Haskell: Strongly typed

## Strongly typed

The type of an expression can be inferred from the expression itself.

- A Haskell program that compiles has no “silly bugs.”
- Type signatures, eg `f :: Float -> Float`, are a key part of the function definition
- Haskell's type system uses a powerful inference engine



# Haskell: Polymorphic

## Polymorphic function

A function that can be applied to data of many different types

- Polymorphism is achieved through use of **type variables** and **type conditions**.
- Code reuse: write one function, use many times

# Haskell: Lazy Evaluation

## Lazy evaluation

An expression is only evaluated when the value is needed.

- If the value of an expression is not needed yet, its evaluation is delayed.
- Familiar examples from other languages:
  - `if...then...else...`
  - `...and...`
  - `...or...`
  - These are special cases for other languages.
- In Haskell, **expressions are lazy by default**. It is not a special case.

# Haskell: Purely Functional

- Functions are **first-class** objects
  - Can be easily passed as arguments to other functions
  - Can be easily created “on the fly”
  - Can have names, but can also be anonymous
- Benefits:
  - No bugs due to side effects, pointers
  - Functional languages may aid programmer productivity
  - Correctness is much easier to prove
- The challenge: New ways to think about putting programs together.

# Haskell: Modern

- Language features designed for programmer productivity (not the compiler's productivity)
- Good interactive compilers – easy to test functions
- Can compile to native code (stand-alone)  
The GHC compiler produces better code than C++ compilers on some benchmarks

# General Syntactic Information

- Haskell syntax was designed to be clean and sparse.
- White space used for indentation is significant; white space outside of indentation is not significant.
- Two basic components to Haskell programs:

## Types

- Types, datatypes, polymorphic data types, classes, instances, constructors
- Identifiers are always Capitalized

## Functions

- Signatures, definitions, names, variables
- Identifiers are always lower case

# Basic Haskell Types

- booleans: **Bool** ; values: **True** , **False**
- integers: **Int** , **Integer**
- floating point numbers: **Float** , **Double**
- characters: **Char** : values: eg, **'a'** , **'b'**
- strings: **String** : eg, **"abc"** , **""**

## Every expression has a type

- You can declare a type for any value you define

```
pi :: Float  
pi = 3.1415926
```

```
lucky :: Int  
lucky = 7
```

```
myname :: String  
myname = "Inigo_Montoya"
```

The type expression operator `::` is pronounced “is of type”

- (remember, the `=` creates a binding  
**IT IS NOT AN ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT.**)

## Function type signatures

- A function maps input type(s) to an output type
- The type operator  $\rightarrow$  is pronounced “to”
- A function's type has at least one  $\rightarrow$

```
square :: Integer  $\rightarrow$  Integer  
square a = a * a
```

“The identifier `square` is of type `Integer` to `Integer`.”



## Functions of 1 argument

```
letterGrade :: Integer -> Char
```

```
letterGrade grade
```

```
| grade < 0      = error "negative_grade"  
| grade < 50     = 'F'  
| grade < 60     = 'D'  
| grade < 70     = 'C'  
| grade < 80     = 'B'  
| grade <= 100   = 'A'  
| grade > 100    = error "grade_too_high"
```

## Functions of 2 arguments

- Functions of 2 arguments have 2  $\rightarrow$

```
-- return the maximum
maxOf2 :: Int -> Int -> Int
maxOf2 x y
  | x > y      = x
  | otherwise  = y
```

- Reading from left to right, the two input types and the output type

# The $\rightarrow$ operator

- The operator  $\rightarrow$  associates to the right:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} &= \text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \\ &\neq (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}) \rightarrow \text{Int} \end{aligned}$$

## Functions of 3 arguments

- Functions of 3 arguments have 3  $\rightarrow$

```
quad :: Float  $\rightarrow$  Float  $\rightarrow$  Float  $\rightarrow$  Float
-- calculate one root of the
-- quadratic equation:
--  $a*x*x + b*x + c = 0$ 

quad a b c | a == 0    = error "not_quadratic"
           | disc < 0  = error "not_real"
           | otherwise = (-b + (sqrt disc))/(2 * a)
           where disc = b*b - 4*a*c
```

Three input types, finally the output type.

# Strong typing

- Every syntactically correct expression has an unambiguous type.
- The type of an expression can be deduced from the expression itself.
- Any expression whose type is ambiguous or inconsistent is rejected as incorrect!
- A type error in a simple program is usually a typo
- A type error in a sophisticated program means your design has a bug: you are passing the wrong information around!

# Haskell is able to deduce type signatures

```
f x | x == 'a'  = 1  
    | x == 'b'  = 1  
    | otherwise = 1
```

- The syntax tells Haskell that `f` is a function
- Let's assume `1` is an `Int`
- The guards compare input `x` to a `Char`
- The function outputs `1`
- So `f :: Char -> Int` is the type of this function.

## Inconsistent definitions

$g \ x$	$ $	$x == 'a' = 1$
	$ $	$x == 1 = 'a'$

- The two equations are not consistent about types
  - The first equation suggests  $g :: \text{Char} \rightarrow \text{Integer}$
  - The second equation suggests  $g :: \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Char}$
- Haskell rejects the definition:

No **instance** for (**Num Char**)  
 arising from the literal '1' at badg.hs:2:15  
 Possible fix: add an **instance** declaration for (**Num Char**)

- Loose Translation: “You tried to use a Char where the compiler expected a number”
- The given “possible fix” is nonsensical for this example.

## The Gravitational Force Example

- Gravity is a force between any 2 masses separated by a distance:

$$\text{force}(M_1, M_2, r) = \frac{G \times M_1 \times M_2}{r^2}$$

- Gravitational field is the effect of a particular mass (eg., the earth) on any other mass (eg., an apple) at any distance
- Weight is the effect of a particular mass (eg., the earth) at a particular distance (eg., the surface of the earth) on any other mass



## Haskell implementation

```
-- gravitational constant for our universe
gravConstant :: Float
gravConstant = 6.67e-11 -- units: N m**2/kg**2

-- the force of gravity

gravForce :: Float -> Float -> Float -> Float
gravForce mass1 radius mass2
  | radius == 0 = 0
  | otherwise   = gravConstant*mass1*mass2/square radius
```

`gravForce` is useful because it can be used many ways

## Giving 3 arguments to gravForce

Applied with 3 arguments, it evaluates the force of gravity between 2 masses separated by a distance

```
Main> gravForce 1 1 1  
6.67e-011
```

```
Main> gravForce earthMass earthRadius 68  
666.196
```

The names `earthMass` and `earthRadius` were defined but not shown.

## Giving only 2 arguments to gravForce

Applied with 2 arguments, a new function of the remaining argument is created.

```
weightOnEarth :: Float -> Float  
weightOnEarth = gravForce earthMass earthRadius
```

- This name is bound to a function created by the expression on the right side of the equation.
- The value not given to gravForce is the mass of any object
- **weightOnEarth** calculates the weight of any object, as measured on Earth, given its mass.

## weightOnEarth is really a function

```
Main> :type weightOnEarth  
weightOnEarth :: Float -> Float
```

```
Main> weightOnEarth 30  
293.9101
```

```
Main> weightOnEarth 100  
979.70026
```

```
Main> weightOnEarth 68  
666.19617
```

## Giving only 1 argument to gravForce

Applied with 1 argument, a new function of the other 2 arguments is created.

```
sunGravity :: Float -> Float -> Float  
sunGravity = gravForce sunMass
```

- This name is bound to a function created by the expression on the right side of the equation.
- The values not given to gravForce are the distance and mass of the other object.
- **sunGravity** is a function that represents the gravitational field created by the sun.

## sunGravity is really a function

```
Main> :type sunGravity  
sunGravity :: Float -> Float -> Float
```

```
Main> sunGravity 1e10 100  
132.733
```

```
Main> sunGravity 3.7e9 68  
659.302
```

## Boring astronomical facts

```
earthMass :: Float
```

```
earthMass = 5.96e24 -- units: kg
```

```
earthRadius :: Float
```

```
earthRadius = 6.37e6 -- units: m
```

```
sunMass :: Float
```

```
sunMass = 1.99e30 -- units: kg
```

## Lazy evaluation

- Consider the function

```
seven x = 7
```

- Haskell is lazy: the value for  $x$  is not needed, so it is not evaluated.
- Consider the following function, which is an infinite loop:

```
dumb y = 1 + (dumb y)
```

- Using lazy evaluation:

```
Main> dumb 0  
^C Interrupted.  
Main> seven (dumb 0)  
7
```