

# FIT2102

## Programming Paradigms

### Lecture 6

(Haskell . PureScript .  $\lambda$ Calc . JavaScript) yourBrain



# Learning Outcomes

- Apply reduction steps to Lambda Calculus expressions and describe how this leads to a general model for computation
- Describe how Haskell-like languages (and in particular PureScript) improve over JavaScript syntax to better support the functional programming paradigm
- Describe how Haskell uses type inference to perform strong type checking with minimal annotation
- Create small programs in Haskell using:
  - recursion
  - pattern matching
  - guards
  - algebraic data type definitions

# Lambda Calculus - Recap

$I = \lambda x . x$

lambda calculus expression

`I = x => x`

JavaScript

# Lambda Calculus - application

$(\lambda x . x) y$

lambda calculus expression

$(x \Rightarrow x) (y)$

JavaScript

# Lambda Calculus

$I = \lambda x . x$       I-Combinator

$K = \lambda x y . x$       K-Combinator

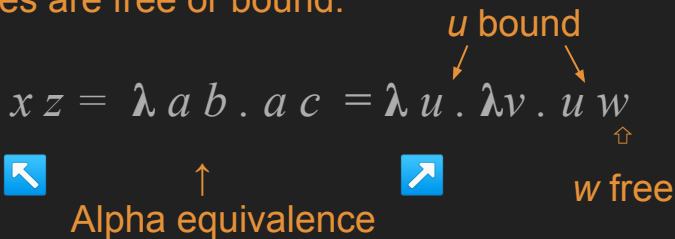
$$\begin{aligned} KI &= (\lambda x y . x) (\lambda x . x) \\ &= \lambda y . x \ [x := \lambda x . x] && \Leftarrow \text{Beta reduction} \\ &= \lambda y . (\lambda x . x) \\ &= \lambda yx . x && \Leftarrow \text{Equivalent due to currying} \\ &= \lambda xy . y && \Leftarrow \text{Alpha equivalence} \end{aligned}$$

Lambda's are always curried, i.e.:

$$\lambda x y . x = \lambda x . \lambda y . x$$

Variables are free or bound:

$$\lambda x y . x z = \lambda a b . a c = \lambda u . \lambda v . u w$$



Alpha equivalence

$$\lambda x . M x = M$$

$\Uparrow$   
Eta conversion

# Lambda Calculus

Three operations:

- Alpha Equivalence
  - expressions are equivalent if their variables are renamed
- Beta Reduction
  - application of functions involves substituting the argument into the expression
- Eta Conversion
  - wrapping a simple lambda around an expression does not change the expression

Lambda expressions are anonymous ( *although we've been making "macros" (e.g. I,K) with =* )

- They can't refer to themselves! ( *but there's a trick for recursion: the Y-combinator* )

# Lambda Calculus Reduction Recap

$(\lambda z. z) (\lambda a. a a) (\lambda z. z b)$

# Lambda Calculus Reduction Recap

$( (\lambda z.z) (\lambda a.aa) ) \quad (\lambda z.zb)$        $\Leftarrow$  Function application is left-associative.



# Lambda Calculus Reduction Recap

$(\lambda z. z) (\lambda a. a a) (\lambda z. z b)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda z. z [z := \lambda a. a a]) (\lambda z. z b)$

⇨ BETA Reduction

$\Rightarrow (\lambda a. a a) (\lambda z. z b)$

$\Rightarrow \lambda a [a := \lambda z. z b]. a a$

⇨ BETA Reduction

$\Rightarrow (\lambda z. z b) (\lambda z. z b)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda z [z := \lambda z. z b]. z b)$

⇨ BETA Reduction

$\Rightarrow (\lambda z. z b) b$

$\Rightarrow \lambda z [z := b]. z b$

⇨ BETA Reduction

$\Rightarrow b b$

# Beta Reduction vs Eta Conversion

$(\lambda z. z \ b) \ x$

$\Rightarrow \lambda z \ [z := x]. \ z \ b$

$\Rightarrow x \ b$

⇐ BETA Reduction:

$\lambda z. z \ b$  on its own  
is irreducible

$(\lambda z. b \ z) \ x$

$\Rightarrow b \ x$

⇐ ETA Conversion:

$\lambda z. b \ z == b$

```
z =>  
  function (x) {  
    return some expression involving x  
  }  
(z)
```

} b

# Divergence

$(\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x [x := (\lambda x. x x)] . x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x [x := (\lambda x. x x)] . x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x [x := (\lambda x. x x)] . x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x [x := (\lambda x. x x)] . x x)$

$\Rightarrow (\lambda x. x x) (\lambda x. x x)$

...

Can keep on applying  
reduction rules forever !

# Lecture Activity 1

To be announced...

# Lambda Calculus and Computation

TRUE =  $\lambda xy. x$

FALSE =  $\lambda xy. y$

IF =  $\lambda btf. b\ t\ f$

AND =  $\lambda xy. \text{IF } x\ y\ \text{FALSE}$

OR =  $\lambda xy. \text{IF } x\ \text{TRUE } y$

NOT =  $\lambda x. \text{IF } x\ \text{FALSE } \text{TRUE}$

# PureScript

If you want to try out the examples on the next couple of slides you need to install PureScript:

```
$ npm install -g purescript pulp bower
```

Download `purescriptstartercode.zip` and unzip

```
$ cd purescriptstartercode
```

Your code goes under the import statements in `src/Main.purs`

```
$ pulp run
```

## Some PureScript code:

```
fibs 0 = 1                -- two base cases,  
fibs 1 = 1                -- resolved by pattern matching  
fibs n = fibs (n-1) + fibs (n-2) -- recursive definition  
  
fibsArray = map fibs (0..9)  
  
main = log ( show fibsArray )  
  
> [1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55]
```

## Some PureScript code:

```
fibs 0 = 1  
fibs 1 = 1  
fibs n = fibs (n-1) + fibs (n-2)
```

```
main = log ( map fibs (0..9) )
```

```
> [1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55]
```



# Some PureScript code:

```
fibs 0 = 1
fibs 1 = 1
fibs n = fibs (n-1) + fibs (n-2)
```

```
main = log $ map fibs $ 0..9
```

```
> [1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55]
```

\$ is an “infix” function with low precedence:

$$f \$ x = f x$$

Allows us to eliminate some ( )

Think of expressions like these as “pipelines of functions”, chained from right-to-left

# PureScript source

```
fibs 0 = 1
fibs 1 = 1
fibs n = fibs (n-1) + fibs (n-2)
```

# Generated JavaScript

```
var fibs = function (v) {
    if (v === 0) {
        return 1;
    };
    if (v === 1) {
        return 1;
    };
    return
        fibs(v - 1 | 0)
        + fibs(v - 2 | 0) | 0;
};
```

# Tail Recursive Form

```
fibs :: Int -> Int
```

```
fibs n = fibsTC n 0 1
```

```
where
```

```
  fibsTC 0 _ b = b
```

```
  fibsTC i a b = fibsTC (i-1) b (a+b)
```

} local scope

```
var fibs = function (n) {  
  var fibsTC = function ($copy_v) {  
    return function ($copy_v1) {  
      return function ($copy_b) {  
        var $tco_var_v = $copy_v;  
        var $tco_var_v1 = $copy_v1;  
        var $tco_done = false;  
        var $tco_result;  
        function $tco_loop(v, v1, b) {  
          if (v === 0) {  
            $tco_done = true;  
            return b;  
          };  
          $tco_var_v = v - 1 | 0;  
          $tco_var_v1 = b;  
          $copy_b = v1 + b | 0;  
          return;  
        };  
        while (!$tco_done) {  
          $tco_result = $tco_loop($tco_var_v,  
                                $tco_var_v1, $copy_b);  
        };  
        return $tco_result;  
      };  
    };  
  };  
  return fibsTC(n) (0) (1);  
};
```

# Introduction to Haskell

syntax is very similar to Purescript

- Only variance from the previous example was the list range operator - PureScript: `1..10` vs Haskell: `[1..10]`

repl available with `ghci` (if you installed `stack`, run with `> stack ghci`)

can compile to native code (GHC) or JavaScript (GHCJ)

- But with a run-time system

uses lazy evaluation by default

is strongly typed with a powerful type inference system

# Haskell 101

Make a file: `fibs.hs`

```
fibs 0 = 1           -- two base cases,  
fibs 1 = 1           -- resolved by pattern matching  
fibs n = fibs (n-1) + fibs (n-2) -- recursive definition
```

`$ stack ghci fibs.hs`

```
> fibs 6  
13
```

```
> fibs 6 == 13  
True
```

```
> if fibs 6 == 13 then "yes" else "no"  
"yes"
```

```
> if fibs 6 == 13 && fibs 7 == 12 then "yes" else "no"  
"no"
```

To reload your `.hs` file into `ghci` after an edit:  
`> :r`

If-then-else expressions return a result (like javascript ternary ? :)

Basic logic operators same as C/Java/etc:  
`==`, `&&`, `||`

# Haskell 101

`where` lets you place local definitions after expression body:

```
fibonacci n = fibs n 1 1
  where
    fibs 0 a b = a
    fibs n a b = fibs (n-1) b (a+b)
```

`let ... in` allows you to place definitions before expression body:

```
fibonacci :: Int -> Int
fibonacci n =
  let
    fibs 0 a b = a
    fibs n a b = fibs (n-1) b (a+b)
  in
    fibs n 1 1
```

**Whitespace rule:** Expressions can continue across a line break but must be indented.  
Definitions in the same scope must be left-aligned.

# Lecture Activity 2

To be announced...

# Specifying types of top-level functions is a good idea


Instead of letting them be inferred automatically, we can specify the type explicitly:

```
factorial :: Int -> Int
factorial 1 = 1
factorial n = n * factorial (n-1)
```



# Guards are a more flexible alternative to pattern matching

```
factorial :: Int -> Int
factorial n
  | n <= 1 = 1
  | otherwise = n * factorial (n-1)
```



You can put a full expression here

# Specifying types of top-level functions is a good idea

What is the type of this function?

```
factorial 1 = 1
factorial n = n * factorial (n-1)
```

We can ask GHCi:

```
$stack ghci test.hs
*Main> :t factorial
factorial :: (Num t, Eq t) => t -> t
```

compiler tries to infer the most generic type possible

# We can ask ghci about type classes

```
> :i Num
class Num a where
  (+) :: a -> a -> a
  (-) :: a -> a -> a
  (*) :: a -> a -> a
  negate :: a -> a
  abs :: a -> a
  signum :: a -> a
  fromInteger :: Integer -> a
  {-# MINIMAL (+), (*), abs, signum, fromInteger, (negate | (-)) #-}
      -- Defined in `GHC.Num'
instance Num Word -- Defined in `GHC.Num'
instance Num Integer -- Defined in `GHC.Num'
instance Num Int -- Defined in `GHC.Num'
instance Num Float -- Defined in `GHC.Float'
instance Num Double -- Defined in `GHC.Float'
```

⇨ Type classes are like a TypeScript interface, a promise that certain functions are available for types that are 'instances' of the type class.

⇨ These are all of the instances of the Num typeclass

What operations are missing here compared to what you can do with a JavaScript number?

# We can ask ghci about type classes

```
> :i Eq
class Eq a where
  (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
  (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
  {-# MINIMAL (==) | (/=) #-}
      -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance (Eq a, Eq b) => Eq (Either a b)
      -- Defined in `Data.Either'
instance Eq a => Eq [a] -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Word -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Ordering -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Int -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Float -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Double -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Char -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Eq Bool -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'

etc...
```

What is still missing here compared to what you can do with a JavaScript number?

# We can ask ghci about type classes

```
> :i Int
data Int = GHC.Types.I# GHC.Prim.Int#    -- Defined in `GHC.Types'
instance Eq Int -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Ord Int -- Defined in `GHC.Classes'
instance Show Int -- Defined in `GHC.Show'
instance Read Int -- Defined in `GHC.Read'
instance Enum Int -- Defined in `GHC.Enum'
instance Num Int -- Defined in `GHC.Num'
instance Real Int -- Defined in `GHC.Real'
instance Integral Int -- Defined in `GHC.Real'
instance Bounded Int -- Defined in `GHC.Enum'
```

More numeric types:

Integer - arbitrarily big ints

Double - 64 bit floats (on x86)

Rational - Integer / Integer

# Data

```
data Student = Student Int String Int
```

```
> t = Student 123 "Tim" 45
```

⇨ Student is now a constructor function

```
name (Student _ n _) = n
```

```
> name t
```

```
"Tim"
```

⇨ Use pattern matching to bind variables inside the data structure

```
best :: [Student] -> Student -> Student
```

```
best [] b = b
```

```
best (a@(Student _ _ am):rest) b@(Student _ _ bm) =
```

```
  if am > bm
```

```
  then best rest a
```

```
  else best rest b
```

↑

“as” pattern

Binds b to the whole data structure

then pattern matches whatever's inside the brackets

# Record Syntax

```
data Student = Student { id::Integer, name::String, mark::Int }
```

```
> t = Student 123 "Tim" 95
```

```
> mark t
```

```
95
```

```
> name t
```

```
"Tim"
```

```
> id t
```

```
123
```



Creates named getter functions for each field

# Algebraic Data Types

```
data ConsList = Null | Cons Int ConsList
```

```
l = Cons 1 $ Cons 2 $ Cons 3 Null
```

```
consLength :: ConsList -> Int
```

```
consLength Null = 0
```

```
consLength (Cons _ rest) = 1 + consLength rest
```

⇐ Defined through algebraic operations

$A \mid B$  and  $A \ B$

↑

Or

↑

And



# Haskell Lists - cons lists

Lists use syntax that looks like JavaScript arrays (but they are linked-lists):

```
> [1,2,3]  
[1,2,3]
```

Cons operator:

```
> 1:[]  
[1]
```

```
> 1:2:3:[4,5,6]  
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

Concat operator:

```
> [1,2,3] ++ [4,5,6]  
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

# Basic list functions

```
> length [1,2,3]
```

```
3
```

```
> minimum [1,2,3]  -- assuming the type of things in the list is orderable
```

```
1
```

```
> maximum [1,2,3]  -- ditto
```

```
3
```

# Quick Sort

A simple version of the quick sort algorithm:

QuickSort list:

Take **head** of list as a *pivot*

Take **tail** of list as *rest*

return

**cons**

**filter**



QuickSort( elements of rest < pivot ) ++ (pivot : QuickSort( elements of rest >= pivot ))



**filter**

**concat**

```
forEach(console.log)(sort(fromArray(marks)))
```

```
0
6.73
7.15
7.23
8.16
9.5
10.91
11.56
11.88
14.68
...
```

# We could do functional programming in JavaScript

... but it wasn't ideal!

```
const
  sort = order=>
    list=> !list ? null :
      (pivot=>rest=>
        (lesser=>greater=>
          concat(sort(order)(lesser))(cons(pivot)(sort(order)(greater)))
        )(filter(a=> order(a)(pivot))(rest))(filter(a=> !order(a)(pivot))(rest))
      )(head(list))(tail(list))
```

# We could do functional programming in JavaScript

... but it wasn't ideal!

```
const
  sort = order=>
    list=> !list ? null :
      (pivot=>rest=>

        ) (head(list)) (tail(list))
```

# We could do functional programming in JavaScript

... but it wasn't ideal!

```
const
  sort = order=>
    list=> !list ? null :
      (pivot=>rest=>
        (lesser=>greater=>

          ) (filter(a=> order(a) (pivot)) (rest))
            (filter(a=> !order(a) (pivot)) (rest))
          ) (head(list)) (tail(list)))
```

# We could do functional programming in JavaScript

... but it wasn't ideal!

```
const
  sort = order=>
    list=> !list ? null :
      (pivot=>rest=>
        (lesser=>greater=>
          concat (sort(order) (lesser))
                (cons (pivot)
                      (sort(order) (greater)))
        ) (filter(a=> order(a) (pivot)) (rest))
          (filter(a=> !order(a) (pivot)) (rest))
      ) (head(list)) (tail(list))
```

# Compare:

```
const
  sort = order=>
    list=> !list ? null :
      (pivot=>rest=>
        (lesser=>greater=>
          concat(sort(order)(lesser))(cons(pivot)(sort(order)(greater)))
        )(filter(a=> order(a)(pivot))(rest))(filter(a=> !order(a)(pivot))(rest))
      )(head(list))(tail(list))
```

JavaScript

```
sort [] = []
sort (pivot:rest) = lesser ++ [pivot] ++ greater
where
  lesser = sort (filter (<pivot) rest)
  greater = sort (filter (>=pivot) rest)
```

Haskell



# Expressive, declarative code

**Pattern matching:** like destructuring of parameters in TypeScript, but better:

`sort [] = []` ← the pattern will be matched to args to determine which version of the function to run



`sort (pivot:rest) = lesser ++ [pivot] ++ greater`

where

`lesser = sort $ filter (<pivot) rest`

`greater = sort $ filter (>=pivot) rest`



\$ is an “infix” function with low precedence:

$f \$ x = f x$

Allows us to eliminate some ( )

← Think of code like this as a “pipeline” or “chain” of function application, working right-to-left

# Type definitions

Type-class  
constraint on t



`sort :: Ord t => [t] -> [t]` ⇐ Type definition, list with elements of type t

`sort [] = []`

`sort (pivot:rest) = let`

`below = partition (<pivot)`

`above = partition (>=pivot)`

`in`

`below rest ++ [pivot] ++ above rest`

`where`

`partition comparison = sort . filter comparison`



. is compose

Compare definitions of . and \$:

`infixr 9 .`

`(.) :: (b->c) -> (a->b) -> (a->c)`

`(f . g) x = f (g x)`

`infixr 0 $`

`($) :: (a->b) -> a -> b`

`f $ x = f x`

# Expressive, declarative code - *preview*

```
qsort :: Ord t => [t] -> [t]
qsort [] = []
qsort (pivot:rest) = rest `below` pivot ++ pivot : rest `above` pivot
where
  below = flip (part . (>))
  above = flip (part . (<=))
  part = (qsort .) . filter
```

→ Point-free gung-fu  
- we'll dig into how we do this in week 8

# Conclusions

- There's nothing to be scared of in Haskell
- It's just a more elegant way to express the functional programming concepts we have already covered in JavaScript and TypeScript
- We'll be seeing a lot more of Haskell in coming weeks, the aim is to make you proficient enough to do something interesting in Assignment 2
- In particular, we'll be looking at some interesting type classes that provide powerful abstractions of common types of computation, and elegant ways to combine pure and effectful code (e.g. with IO)