



Introduction to Functional Programming

Part 3: Types and Polymorphism

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2.9 Algebraic datatypes

- eg people with names and ages

```
type Name = String
type Age = Integer
data Person = P Name Age
```

- then $P :: \text{Name} \rightarrow \text{Age} \rightarrow \text{Person}$
- such *constructor functions* do not simplify, they are in normal form
- so they can be used in pattern-matching:

```
showPerson :: Person → String
showPerson (P n a) = "Name: " ++ n ++ ", Age: " ++ show a
```

2.9 Sum types

- datatypes can have multiple *variants*

data *Maybe a = Just a | Nothing*

- eg *Just 13 :: Maybe Int*; so *Just :: a → Maybe a* and *Nothing :: Maybe a*
- useful for modelling exceptions

safeHead :: [a] → Maybe a
safeHead [] = Nothing
safeHead (x:xs) = Just x

- the library definition of *unfold*:

unfoldr :: (b → Maybe (a, b)) → (b → [a])
unfoldr f z = case f z of
 Nothing → []
 Just (x, z') → x : unfoldr f z'

2.10 Arithmetic expressions

- algebraic datatypes may be recursive too
- eg datatype of arithmetic expressions

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

- an arithmetic expressions is either a literal, or two expressions added together, or two multiplied

2.10 Constructing expressions

- constructing expressions

expr1, expr2 :: Expr

expr1 = Add (Mul (Lit 4) (Lit 7)) (Lit 11)

expr2 = Mul (Add (Lit 4) (Lit 7)) (Lit 11)

- note the difference between *syntax*

Main> *Add (Lit 4) (Mul (Lit 7) (Lit 11))*

Add (Lit 4) (Mul (Lit 7) (Lit 11))

- and *semantics*

Main> *4 + 7 × 11*

81

2.10 *Expr* definition pattern

- recursive definitions by pattern-matching

evaluate :: *Expr* → *Integer*

evaluate (*Lit* *i*) = *i*

evaluate (*Add* *e1* *e2*) = *evaluate* *e1* + *evaluate* *e2*

evaluate (*Mul* *e1* *e2*) = *evaluate* *e1* × *evaluate* *e2*

- the evaluator essentially replaces syntax (*Add* and *Mul*) by semantics (+ and ×)

2.10 *Expr* definition pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a definition pattern
- task*: define a function $f :: Expr \rightarrow S$
- step 1*: solve the problem for literals

$$f(Lit\ n) = \dots n \dots$$

- step 2*: solve the problem for addition;
assume that you already have the solution for x and y at hand;
extend the intermediate solution to a solution for *Add* $x\ y$

$$\begin{aligned} f(Lit\ n) &= \dots n \dots \\ f(Add\ x\ y) &= \dots x \dots y \dots f\ x \dots f\ y \dots \end{aligned}$$

you have to program only a *step*

- step 3*: do the same for *Mul* $x\ y$

$$\begin{aligned} f(Lit\ n) &= \dots n \dots \\ f(Add\ x\ y) &= \dots x \dots y \dots f\ x \dots f\ y \dots \\ f(Mul\ x\ y) &= \dots x \dots y \dots f\ x \dots f\ y \dots \end{aligned}$$

2.10 Naturals

- *Peano* definition of natural numbers (non-negative integers)

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

- every natural is either *Zero* or the *Successor* of a natural
- eg *Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))* corresponds to 3
- extraction

nat2int :: *Nat* → *Integer*
nat2int Zero = 0
nat2int (Succ n) = 1 + *nat2int n*

- addition

plus :: *Nat* → *Nat* → *Nat*
plus Zero n = *n*
plus (Succ m) n = *Succ (plus m n)*

(does this look familiar?)

2.10 Peano definition pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a definition pattern
- *task*: define a function $f :: \text{Nat} \rightarrow S$
- *step 1*: solve the problem for *Zero*

$$f \text{ Zero} = \dots$$

- *step 2*: solve the problem for *Succ n*;
assume that you already have the solution for *n* at hand;
extend the intermediate solution to a solution for *Succ n*

$$\begin{aligned} f \text{ Zero} &= \dots \\ f (\text{Succ } n) &= \dots n \dots f n \dots \end{aligned}$$

you have to program only a *step*

- put on your problem-solving glasses
- (exercise: multiplication, exponentiation)

2.10 Lists

- built-in type of lists is not special (has only special syntax)

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

- eg `[1, 2, 3]` or `1 : 2 : 3 : []` corresponds to *Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 3 Nil))*
- recursive definitions by pattern-matching

mapList :: $(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (\text{List } a \rightarrow \text{List } b)$

mapList *f Nil* = *Nil*

mapList *f (Cons x xs)* = *Cons (f x) (mapList f xs)*

2.10 List definition pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a definition pattern
- *task*: define a function $f :: \text{List } P \rightarrow S$
- *step 1*: solve the problem for the empty list

$$f \text{ Nil} = \dots$$

- *step 2*: solve the problem for the non-empty list;
assume that you already have the solution for xs at hand;
extend the intermediate solution to a solution for $\text{Cons } x \ xs$

$$\begin{aligned} f \text{ Nil} &= \dots \\ f (\text{Cons } x \ xs) &= \dots \ x \dots \ xs \dots f \ xs \dots \end{aligned}$$

you have to program only a *step*

- put on your problem-solving glasses

2.10 Binary search trees

- definition

data *BST* *k v* = *Leaf* | *Branch* (*BST* *k v*) *k v* (*BST* *k v*)

- eg insertion

insert :: *Ord* *k* \Rightarrow *k* \rightarrow *v* \rightarrow *BST* *k v* \rightarrow *BST* *k v*

insert *k v Leaf* = *Branch Leaf k v Leaf* -- insert at leaf

insert *k v (Branch l k' v' r)*

 | *k* < *k'* = *Branch (insert k v l) k' v' r* -- insert to the left

 | *k* > *k'* = *Branch l k' v' (insert k v r)* -- insert to the right

 | *otherwise* = *Branch l k v r* -- overwrite the root

2.10 Binary search tree definition pattern

- remember: every datatype comes with a definition pattern
- *task*: define a function $f :: BST\ K\ V \rightarrow S$
- *step 1*: solve the problem for the empty tree

$$f\ Leaf = \dots$$

- *step 2*: solve the problem for non-empty trees;
assume that you already have solutions for l and r at hand;
extend the intermediate solution to a solution for $Branch\ l\ k\ v\ r$

$$\begin{aligned} f\ Leaf &= \dots \\ f\ (Branch\ l\ k\ v\ r) &= \dots\ k\ \dots\ v\ \dots\ l\ \dots\ f\ l\ \dots\ r\ \dots\ f\ r\ \dots \end{aligned}$$

you have to program only a *step*

- put on your problem-solving glasses

Part 3

Types and polymorphism

3.1 Strong typing

- Haskell is *strongly typed*: every expression has a unique type
- each type supports certain operations, which are meaningless on other types
- type checking guarantees that type errors cannot occur
- Haskell is *statically typed*: type checking occurs before runtime (after syntax checking)
- experience shows well-typed programs are likely to be correct
- Haskell can *infer types*: determine the most general type of each expression
- wise to specify (some) types anyway, for documentation and redundancy

3.2 Simple types

- booleans
- characters
- strings
- numbers

3.2 Booleans

- type *Bool* (note: type names capitalized)
- two constants, *True* and *False* (note: constructor names capitalized)
- eg definition by pattern-matching

```
not :: Bool → Bool  
not False = True  
not True = False
```

- and *&&*, or *||*, both strict in first argument

```
(&&) :: Bool → Bool → Bool  
False && _ = False  
True && x = x
```

- comparisons *==*, *≠*, orderings *<*, *≤* etc

3.2 Characters

- type *Char*
- constants in single quotes: 'a', '?'
- special characters escaped: '\', '\n', '\\'
- ASCII coding: *ord* :: *Char* → *Int*, *chr* :: *Int* → *Char*
(defined in module *Data.Char*)
- comparison and ordering, as before

3.2 Strings

- type *String*, in fact $[Char]$
- constants in double quotes: "Hello"
- comparison and (lexicographic) ordering
- concatenation ++
- display function $show :: Integer \rightarrow String$
- (actually more general than this; see later)
- monadic $putStr :: String \rightarrow IO ()$ to print formatted text

```
Main> putStr "abc\ndef\n"  
abc  
def
```

3.2 Numbers

- fixed-size (32-bit or 64-bit) integers *Int*
- arbitrary-size integers *Integer*
- single- and double-precision floats *Float*, *Double*
- others too: rationals, complex numbers, ...
- comparisons and ordering
- $+$, $-$, \times , \uparrow , $**$
- *abs*, *negate*
- */*, *div*, *mod*, *quot*, *rem*
- etc
- operations are overloaded (more later)

3.3 Enumerations

- enumerations as degenerate algebraic datatypes

```
data Day = Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun
```

- eg *Bool* is not built in (although **if ... then ... else** syntax is):

```
data Bool = False | True
```

3.4 Tuples

- pairing types: eg $(Char, Integer)$
- values in the same syntax: $('a', 440)$
- selectors fst , snd
- definition by pattern matching:

$$fst(x, y) = x$$

- nested tuples: $(Integer, (Char, Bool))$
- triples, etc: $(Integer, Char, Bool)$
- nullary tuple $()$
- comparisons, (lexicographic) ordering

3.5 Polymorphism

- what is the type of *fst*?
- applicable at different types: *fst* (1, 2), *fst* ('a', True), ...
- what about strong typing?
- *fst* is *polymorphic* — it works for *any* type of pairs:

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

- *a*, *b* here are *type variables* (uncapitalized)
- *implicit* universal quantification—really means something like

$$fst :: \forall a\ b. (a, b) \rightarrow a$$

- values can be polymorphic too: $\perp :: a$, $[] :: [a]$
- regain *principal types* for all expressions

3.5 A little game

- here is a little game: I give you a type, you give me a function of that type
 - ▶ $Integer \rightarrow Integer$
 - ▶ $a \rightarrow a$
 - ▶ $(Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer$
 - ▶ $(a, a) \rightarrow a$
 - ▶ $(a, b) \rightarrow a$
 - ▶ $[a] \rightarrow [a]$
- polymorphic functions: flexible to use, hard to define

3.5 Theorems for free

- you can tell a lot about a function from its (polymorphic) type
- consider an unknown function $h :: [a] \rightarrow [a]$
- h cannot manipulate list elements, or even invent them
- all it can do is rearrange or duplicate them
- as a consequence, for any f ,

$$\text{map } f \circ h = h \circ \text{map } f$$

- the *free theorem* of (the type of) h
- similarly for any polymorphic type
- a kind of *representation independence*—a deep rabbit hole!

3.5 Natural numbers as functions

Generalize *twice* :: $\forall a. (a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$:

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

zero :: *Natural*

zero *f* = *id*

succ :: *Natural* \rightarrow *Natural*

succ *n* *f* = *f* \circ *n* *f*

The \forall makes explicit that these functions are polymorphic.

These are called *Church numerals*. We could define:

one, *two* :: *Natural*

one = *succ zero*

two = *succ one* -- aka *twice*

Caveat: here, explicit universal quantification is necessary.

Beyond plain Haskell; type inference no longer available...

Conversion from *Int* using *iter*:

$$\textit{iter} :: \textit{Int} \rightarrow \textit{Natural}$$
$$\textit{iter} \ 0 \ f = \textit{id}$$
$$\textit{iter} \ n \ f = f \circ \textit{iter} \ (n - 1) \ f$$

How about back again?

$$\textit{extract} :: \textit{Natural} \rightarrow \textit{Int}$$

such that *iter* and *extract* are inverses?

3.6 Type classes

- what about numeric operations?
- $(+) :: Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer$
- $(+) :: Float \rightarrow Float \rightarrow Float$
- cannot have $(+) :: \forall a. a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$ (too general)
- the solution is *type classes* (sets of types)
- eg the type class *Num* is a set of numeric types; includes *Integer*, *Float*, etc
- now $(+) :: (Num\ a) \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a)$
- *ad hoc polymorphism* (different code for different types), as opposed to *parametric polymorphism* (same code for all types)

3.6 Some standard type classes

- *Eq*: $=$, \neq
- *Ord*: $<$ etc, *min* etc
- *Enum*: *succ*, ...
- *Bounded*: *minBound*, *maxBound*
- *Show*: *show* :: $a \rightarrow \text{String}$
- *Read*: *read* :: $\text{String} \rightarrow a$
- *Num*: $+$, \times etc
- *Real* (ordered numeric types)
- *Integral*: *div* etc
- *Fractional*: $/$ etc
- *Floating*: *exp* etc
- more later

3.6 Derived type classes

- new **data**types not automatically instances of useful type classes
- possible to install as instances:

instance *Eq Day* where

Mon == *Mon* = *True*

Tue == *Tue* = *True*

Wed == *Wed* = *True*

Thu == *Thu* = *True*

Fri == *Fri* = *True*

Sat == *Sat* = *True*

Sun == *Sun* = *True*

_ == *_* = *False*

- (default definition of \neq obtained for free from `==`, more later)
- tedious for simple cases, which can be derived automatically:

data *Day* = *Mon* | *Tue* | *Wed* | *Thu* | *Fri* | *Sat* | *Sun*

deriving (*Eq*, *Ord*, *Enum*, *Bounded*, *Show*, *Read*)

3.7 Type-driven development

- types are a vital part of any program
- types are not an afterthought
- first specify the type of a function
- its definition is then driven by the type

$$f :: T \rightarrow U$$

- f consumes a T value: suggests case analysis
- f produces a U value: suggests use of constructors
- type safety and flexibility are in tension
- polymorphism partially releases the tension