

# Introduction to Functional Programming

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The slides are partly based on

- Richard Bird's textbook "Introduction to Functional Programming using Haskell (2nd Edition)", and
- Jeremy Gibbons' FPR slides.

Thanks to both of you!

## Part 0

# Course aims and objectives

# 0.0 Outline

**Aims**

**Motivation**

**Contents**

**What's it all about?**

**Literature**

## 0.1 Aims

- *functional programming is programming with values: value-oriented programming*
- no ‘actions’, no side-effects — a radical departure from ordinary (imperative or OO) programming
- surprisingly, it is a powerful (and fun!) paradigm
- better ways of gluing programs together: *component-oriented programming*
- ideas are applicable in ordinary programming languages too; aim to introduce you to the ideas, to improve your day-to-day programming
- (I don’t expect you all to start using functional languages)

## 0.2 Motivation

*LISP is worth learning [because of] the profound enlightenment experience you will have when you finally get it. That experience will make you a better programmer for the rest of your days, even if you never actually use LISP itself a lot.*

Eric S. Raymond, American computer programmer (1957–)  
*How to Become a Hacker*

[www.catb.org/~esr/faqs/hacker-howto.html](http://www.catb.org/~esr/faqs/hacker-howto.html)

*You can never understand one language until you understand at least two.*

Ronald Searle, British artist (1920–2011)

## 0.3 Contents

1. Programming with expressions and values
2. Types and polymorphism
3. Lists
4. Algebraic datatypes
5. Higher-order programming
6. Type classes
7. Monads

Aims

Motivation

Contents

**What's it all about?**

Literature



## 0.4 Expressions vs statements

- in ordinary programming languages the world is divided into a world of statements and a world of expressions
- statements:

- ▶ `x:=E, s1 ; s2, while b do s`
- ▶ evaluation order is important

`i:=i+1 ; a:=a*i`  $\neq$  `a:=a*i ; i:=i+1`

- expressions:
  - ▶ eg `a+b*c`, `a` and not `b`
  - ▶ evaluation order is unimportant (assuming no side-effects):  
in `(2*a*y+b) * (2*a*y+c)`, evaluate either parenthesis first (or both together!)

## 0.4 Optimizations

- useful optimizations:

- ▶ reordering:

```
x:=0 ; p ; if x#0 then ... end
=    x:=0 ; if x#0 then ... end ; p
=    x:=0 ; p
```

- ▶ common subexpression elimination:

```
z := (2*a*y+b)*(2*a*y+c)
=  t := 2*a*y ; z := (t+b)*(t+c)
```

- ▶ parallel execution: evaluate subexpressions concurrently

- most optimizations require *referential transparency*

- ▶ all that matters about the expression is its value
- ▶ follows from ‘no side effects’
- ▶ ... which follows from ‘no :=’
- ▶ with assignments, side-effect-freeness is very hard to check

## 0.4 Programming with expressions

- expressions are much shorter and simpler than the corresponding statements
- eg compare using expression:

```
z := (2*a*y+b)*(2*a*y+c)
```

with not using expressions:

```
ac := 2; ac *= a; ac *= y; ac += b; t := ac;  
ac := 2; ac *= a; ac *= y; ac += c; ac *= t;  
z := ac
```

- but in order to discard statements, the expression language must be extended
- functional programming is *programming with an extended expression language*

## 0.4 Comparison with ‘ordinary’ programming

- insertion sort
- quicksort

## 0.4 Insertion sort

```
insertSort [ ]      = [ ]  
insertSort (x: xs) = insert x (insertSort xs)  
insert a [ ]        = [ a ]  
insert a (b: xs)  
  | a ≤ b           = a:b:xs  
  | otherwise       = b:insert a xs
```

```
PROCEDURE InsertSort(VAR a:ArrayT);  
VAR i, j: CARDINAL;  
    t: ElementT;  
BEGIN  
    FOR i := 2 TO Size DO  
        (* a[1..i-1] already sorted *)  
        t := a[i];  
        j := i;  
        WHILE (j > 1) AND (a[j-1] > t) DO  
            a[j] := a[j-1]; j := j-1  
        END;  
        a[j] := t  
    END  
END InsertSort;
```

## 0.4 Quicksort

```
quickSort [ ]      = [ ]  
quickSort (x : xs) = quickSort littles ++ [ x ] ++ quickSort bigs  
  where littles    = [ a | a ← xs, a < x ]  
        bigs       = [ a | a ← xs, a ≥ x ]
```

```
void quicksort(int a[], int l, int r)
{
    if (r > l)
    {
        int i = l; int j = r;
        int p = a[(l + r) / 2];
        for (;;) {
            while (a[i] < p) i++;
            while (a[j] > p) j--;
            if (i > j) break;
            swap(&a[i++], &a[j--]);
        };
        quicksort(a, l, j);
        quicksort(a, i, r);
    }
}
```



## 0.5 Literature

- Richard Bird, *Introduction to Functional Programming using Haskell (2nd Edition)*, Prentice Hall, 1998.
- Paul Hudak, *The Haskell School of Expression: Learning Functional Programming through Multimedia*, Cambridge University Press, 2000.
- Graham Hutton, *Programming in Haskell*, Cambridge University Press, 2007.
- Miran Lipovaca, *Learn You a Haskell for Great Good!: A Beginner's Guide*, No Starch Press, 2011.
- Bryan O'Sullivan, John Goerzen, Don Stewart, *Real World Haskell*, O'Reilly Media, 2008.
- Simon Thompson, *Haskell: The Craft of Functional Programming (3rd Edition)*, Addison-Wesley Professional, 2011.

# Part 1

## Programming with expressions and values

# 1.5 Outline

**Scripts and sessions**

**Evaluation**

**Functions**

**Definitions**

**Summary**

## 1.6 Calculators

- functional programming is like using a pocket calculator
- user enters in expression, the system evaluates and prints result
- interactive ‘read-eval-print’ loop
- powerful mechanism for defining new functions
- we can calculate not only with numbers, but also with lists, trees, pictures, music ...

## 1.6 Scripts and sessions

- we will use *GHCI*, an interactive version of the *Glasgow Haskell Compiler*, a popular implementation of the standard lazy functional programming language *Haskell*
- program is a collection of modules
- a module is a collection of definitions: a *script*
- running a program consists of loading script and evaluating expressions: a *session*
- a standalone program includes a ‘main’ expression
- scripts may or may not be *literate* (emphasis on comments)

## 1.6 An illiterate script

```
-- compute the square of an integer
square :: Integer -> Integer
square x = x * x

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

## 1.6 A literate script

The following function squares an integer.

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

This one takes a pair of integers as an argument, and returns the smaller of the two as a result. For example,

```
smaller (3, 4) = 3
```

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

## 1.6 Layout

- elegant and unobtrusive syntax
- structure obtained by layout, not punctuation
- all definitions in same scope must start in the same column
- indentation from start of definition implies continuation

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

- blank lines around code in literate script!
- use spaces, not tabs!



## 1.6 A session

? 42

42

? 6 \* 7

42

? *square* 7 - *smaller* (3, 4) - *square* (*smaller* (2, 3))

42

? *square* 1234567890

1524157875019052100

## 1.7 Evaluation

- interpreter evaluates expression by reducing to simplest possible form
- reduction is rewriting using meaning-preserving simplifications: replacing equals by equals

$\text{square } (3 + 4)$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $+$  }  
 $\text{square } 7$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $\text{square}$  }  
 $7 * 7$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $*$  }  
 $49$

- expression  $49$  cannot be reduced any further: *normal form*
- *applicative order* evaluation: reduce arguments before expanding function definition (call by value, eager evaluation)

## 1.7 Alternative evaluation orders

- other evaluation orders are possible:

$square\ (3 + 4)$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $square$  }  
 $(3 + 4) * (3 + 4)$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $+$  }  
 $7 * (3 + 4)$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $+$  }  
 $7 * 7$   
 $\Rightarrow$  { definition of  $*$  }  
 $49$

- final result is the same: if two evaluation orders terminate, both yield the same result (*confluence*)
- *normal order* evaluation: expand function definition before reducing arguments (call by need, lazy evaluation)

# 1.7 Non-terminating evaluations

- consider script

*three* :: *Integer* → *Integer*  
*three* \_ = 3

*infinity* :: *Integer*  
*infinity* = 1 + *infinity*

- two different evaluation orders:

<i>three infinity</i>	
⇒ { definition of <i>infinity</i> }	
<i>three</i> (1 + <i>infinity</i> )	
⇒ { definition of <i>infinity</i> }	
<i>three</i> (1 + (1 + <i>infinity</i> ))	
⇒ ...	

	<i>three infinity</i>
⇒	{ definition of <i>three</i> }
	3

- not all evaluation orders terminate, even on the same expression; Haskell uses lazy evaluation

## 1.7 Values

- in FP, as in maths, the sole purpose of an expression is to denote a value
- other characteristics (time to evaluate, number of characters, etc) are irrelevant
- values may be of various kinds: numbers, truth values, characters, tuples, lists, functions, etc
- important to distinguish *abstract value* (the number 42) from concrete representation (the characters '4' and '2', the string "XLII", the bitsequence 0000000000101010)
- evaluator prints *canonical representation* of value
- some values have no canonical representation (eg functions), some have only infinite ones (eg  $\pi$ )

## 1.7 Undefined

- some expressions denote no normal value (eg *infinity*,  $1 / 0$ )
- for simplicity (every syntactically well-formed expression denotes a value), introduce special value *undefined* (sometimes written ' $\perp$ ')
  - in evaluating such an expression, evaluator may hang or may give error message
- can apply functions to  $\perp$ ; *strict* functions (*square*) give  $\perp$  as a result, *nonstrict* functions (*three*) may give some non- $\perp$  value

## 1.8 Functions

- naturally, FP is a matter of functions
- script defines *functions* (*square*, *smaller*)
- (script actually defines *values*; indeed, in FP functions are values)
- function transforms (one or more) arguments into result
- *deterministic*: same arguments always give same result
- may be *partial*: result may sometimes be  $\perp$
- eg cosine, square root; distance between two cities; compiler; text formatter; process controller

## 1.8 Function types

- *type declaration* in script specifies type of function
- eg  $\text{square} :: \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}$
- in general,  $f :: A \rightarrow B$  indicates that function  $f$  takes arguments of type  $A$  and returns results of type  $B$
- *apply* function to argument:  $f\ x$
- sometimes parentheses are necessary:  $\text{square}\ (3 + 4)$   
(function application is an operator, binding more tightly than  $+$ )
- be careful not to confuse the function  $f$  with the value  $f\ x$



## 1.8 Lambda

- notation for anonymous functions
- eg  $\lambda x \rightarrow x * x$  as another way of writing *square*
- eg  $\lambda a\ b \rightarrow a$  (which we'll call *const* later)
- ASCII ' $\backslash$ ' is nearest equivalent to Greek  $\lambda$
- from Church's  $\lambda$ -calculus theory of computability (1941)

## 1.8 Declaration vs expression style

- Haskell is a committee language
- Haskell supports two different programming styles
- *declaration style*: using equations, patterns and expressions

```
quad :: Integer → Integer  
quad x = square x * square x
```

- *expression style*: emphasising the use of expressions

```
quad :: Integer → Integer  
quad = λx → square x * square x
```

- expression style is often more flexible
- experienced programmers use both simultaneously

## 1.8 Extensionality

- two functions are equal ( $f = g$ ) if they give equal results for all arguments ( $f\ x = g\ x$  for every  $x$  of the right type)
- this is why the two definitions of *quad* (see previous slide) are equivalent
- the important thing about a function is its mapping from arguments to results
- other properties (eg how a mapping is described) are irrelevant
- eg these two functions are equal, as well:

*double, double' :: Integer → Integer*

*double x = x + x*

*double' x = 2 \* x*

## 1.8 Currying

- replace single structured argument by several simpler ones

$add :: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer$   
 $add\ x\ y = x + y$

$add' :: Integer \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer)$   
 $add'\ x\ y = x + y$

- useful for reducing number of parentheses
- $add$  takes a pair of *Integers* and returns an *Integer*
- $add'$  takes an *Integer* and returns a function of type  $Integer \rightarrow Integer$
- eg  $add'\ 3$  is a function;  $(add'\ 3)\ 4$  reduces to 7
- can be written just  $add'\ 3\ 4$  (see why shortly)

## 1.8 Operators

- functions with alphabetic names are *prefix*:  $f\ 3\ 4$
- functions with symbolic names are *infix*:  $3 + 4$
- make an alphabetic name infix by enclosing in backquotes:  
 $17\ 'mod'\ 10$
- make symbolic operator prefix (and curried) by enclosing it in parentheses:  $(+)\ 3\ 4$
- thus,  $add' = (+)$
- extend notion to include one argument too: *sectioning*
- eg  $(1/)$  is the reciprocal function,  $(>0)$  is the positivity test

## 1.8 Associativity

- why operators at all? why not prefix notation?
- there is a problem of ambiguity:

$$x \otimes y \otimes z$$

what does this mean:  $(x \otimes y) \otimes z$  or  $x \otimes (y \otimes z)$ ?

- sometimes it doesn't matter, eg addition

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$

the operator  $+$  is associative

- *recommendation*: use infix notation *only* for associative operators
- the operator  $+$  has also a neutral element

$$x + 0 = x = 0 + x$$

- $0$  and  $+$  form a monoid (more later)

## 1.8 Association

- some operators are not associative ( $-$ ,  $/$ ,  $\uparrow$ )
- to disambiguate without parentheses, operators may *associate* to the left or to the right
- eg subtraction associates to the left:  $5 - 4 - 2 = -1$
- function application associates to the left:  $f\ a\ b$  means  $(f\ a)\ b$
- function type operator associates to the right:  
 $Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer$  means  
 $Integer \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer)$
- not to be confused with *associativity*, when adjacent occurrences of same operator are unambiguous anyway

## 1.8 Precedence

- association does not help when operators are mixed
- to disambiguate without parentheses, there is a notion of *precedence* (binding power)
- eg  $*$  has higher precedence (binds more tightly) than  $+$

**infixl** 7  $*$

**infixl** 6  $+$

- function application can be seen as an operator, and has the highest precedence, so  $\text{square } 3 + 4 = 13$



## 1.8 Composition

- glue functions together with *function composition*
- defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}(\circ) &:: (\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}) \rightarrow (\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}) \\ &\quad \rightarrow (\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}) \\ (f \circ g) \ x &= f (g \ x)\end{aligned}$$

- eg function *square*  $\circ$  *double* takes 3 to 36
- associative, so parentheses not needed in  $f \circ g \circ h$
- (actually has a different type; explained later)

## 1.9 Definitions

- we've seen some simple definitions of functions so far
- can also define other kinds of values:

```
name :: String  
name = "Ralf"
```

- all so far have had an identifier (and perhaps formal parameters) on the left, and an expression on the right
- other forms possible: conditional, pattern-matching and local definitions
- also recursive definitions (later sections)

## 1.9 Conditional definitions

- earlier definition of *smaller* used a *conditional expression*:

*smaller* :: (*Integer*, *Integer*) → *Integer*  
*smaller* (*x*, *y*) = **if** *x* < *y* **then** *x* **else** *y*

- could also use *guarded equations*:

*smaller* :: (*Integer*, *Integer*) → *Integer*  
*smaller* (*x*, *y*)  
    | *x* < *y* = *x*  
    | *x* ≥ *y* = *y*

- each *clause* has a *guard* and an *expression* separated by =
- last guard can be *otherwise* (synonym for *True*)
- especially convenient with three or more clauses
- *declaration style*: guard; *expression style*: **if ... then ... else...**

## 1.9 Pattern matching

- define function by several equations
- arguments on lhs not just variables, but *patterns*
- patterns may be *variables* or *constants* (or *constructors*, later)
- eg

```
day :: Integer → String  
day 1 = "Saturday"  
day 2 = "Sunday"  
day _ = "Weekday"
```

- also *wildcard pattern* `_`
- evaluate by reducing argument to normal form, then applying first matching equation
- result is  $\perp$  if argument has no normal form, or no equation matches

## 1.9 Local definitions

- repeated subexpression can be captured in a *local definition*

```
groots :: (Float, Float, Float) → (Float, Float)  
groots (a, b, c) = ((-b - sd) / (2 * a), (-b + sd) / (2 * a))  
  where sd = sqrt (b * b - 4 * a * c)
```

- scope of ‘where’ clause extends over whole right-hand side
- multiple local definitions can be made:

```
demo :: Integer → Integer → Integer  
demo x y = (a + 1) * (b + 2)  
  where a = x - y  
        b = x + y
```

(nested scope, so layout rule applies here too: all definitions must start in same column)

- in conjunction with guarded equations, the scope of a **where** clause covers all guard clauses

## 1.9 let-expressions

- a **where** clause is syntactically attached to an equation
- also: definitions local to an expression

*demo* :: Integer → Integer → Integer  
*demo* x y = **let** a = x - y  
                  b = x + y  
          **in** (a + 1) \* (b + 2)

- *declaration style*: **where**; *expression style*: **let ... in...**
- **let**-expressions are more flexible than **where** clauses

## 1.10 The art of functional programming

- a problem is given by an expression
- a solution is a value
- a solution is obtained by evaluating an expression to a value
- a program introduces vocabulary to express problems and specifies rules for evaluating expressions
- the art of functional programming: finding rules
- Haskell has a very simple computational model
- as in primary school: replacing equals by equals
- we can calculate not only with numbers, but also with lists, trees, pictures, music ...

## Part 2

# Types and polymorphism



## 2.10 Outline

**Strong typing**

**Simple types**

**Enumerations**

**Tuples**

**Polymorphism**

**Type synonyms**

**Type classes**

**Summary**

## 2.11 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

## 2.12 Simple types

- booleans
- characters
- strings
- numbers

## 2.12 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

## 2.12 Boole design pattern

- every type comes with a design pattern
- *task*: define a function  $f :: Bool \rightarrow S$ ;
- *step 1*: solve the problem for *False*

$$f\ False = \dots$$

- *step 2*: solve the problem for *True*

$$f\ False = \dots$$

$$f\ True = \dots$$

- (exercise: define your own conditional)

## 2.12 Characters

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

## 2.12 Strings

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

## 2.12 Numbers

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



## 2.13 Enumerations

- mechanism for declaring new types

**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*

- types may even be parameterized and recursive! (more later)

## 2.14 Tuples

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

$$fst(x, _) = x$$

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

## 2.15 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)
- values can be polymorphic too:  $\perp :: a$
- regain principal types for all expressions

## 2.15 A little game

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

## 2.16 Type synonyms

- alternative names for types
- brevity, clarity, documentation
- eg

**type** *Card* = (*Rank*, *Suit*)

- cannot be recursive
- just a ‘macro’: no new type

## 2.17 Type classes

- what about numeric operations?
- $(+) :: Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer$
- $(+) :: Float \rightarrow Float \rightarrow Float$
- cannot have  $(+) :: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$  (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)

## 2.17 Some standard type classes

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

## 2.17 Derived type classes

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

```
data Gender = Female | Male
```

```
instance Eq Gender where
```

```
  Female == Female = True
```

```
  Female == Male   = False
```

```
  Male    == Female = False
```

```
  Male    == Male   = True
```

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

```
data Gender = Female | Male
```

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



## 2.18 Type-driven program 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: dictates case analysis
- $f$  produces a  $U$  value: dictates use of constructors
- type safety and flexibility are in tension
- polymorphism partially releases the tension

## Part 3

# Lists

## 3.0 Outline

**List notation**

**Compositional programming**

**List constructors**

**List design pattern**

**Some list operations**

**List comprehensions**

**Case study: map-reduce**

**Summary**

## 3.1 List notation

- lists are central to functional programming (cf LISP!)
- sequences of elements of the same type
- enclosed in square brackets, comma-separated: `[1, 2, 3], []`
- the type of lists with elements of type *a* is `[a]`
- strings are just lists of characters: `['H', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']`

**type** *String* = `[Char]`

but with special syntax `"Hello"`

- list elements can be any type:

```
[1, 2, 3]           :: [Integer]
[[1, 2], [], [3]] :: [[Integer]]
[(+), (*)]         :: [Integer → Integer → Integer]
```

## 3.2 Some library functions

- exploring the library *Data.List*

**import** *Data.List*

- concat* ::  $[ [a] ] \rightarrow [a]$  **eg** *concat*  $[ [1,2], [], [3] ] = [1,2,3]$
- length* ::  $[a] \rightarrow \text{Int}$  **eg** *length*  $[1,2,3] = 3$
- reverse* ::  $[a] \rightarrow [a]$  **eg** *reverse* "ralf" = "flar"
- map* ::  $(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow [b])$  **eg** *map* (+1)  $[1,2,3] = [2,3,4]$
- lines* :: *String*  $\rightarrow [ \text{String} ]$  **eg**  
*lines* "a\nbc\nd" =  $[ "a", "bc", "d" ]$
- unlines* ::  $[ \text{String} ] \rightarrow \text{String}$  **eg**  
*unlines*  $[ "a", "bc", "d" ] = "a\nbc\nd\n"$
- tails* ::  $[a] \rightarrow [ [a] ]$  **eg**  
*tails* "ralf" =  $[ "ralf", "alf", "lf", "f", "" ]$

## 3.2 How to solve it?

- write down the type (what's the input?, what's the output?)
- can you solve it using existing vocabulary?
- use function application and function composition
- some exercises: given a string (a list of characters)
  - ▶ remove newlines
  - ▶ count the number of lines
  - ▶ flip text upside down
  - ▶ flip text from left to right
  - ▶ determine the list of all substrings

## 3.2 Solutions

- remove newlines

*unwrap :: String → String*  
*unwrap = concat ∘ lines*

- count the number of lines

*countLines :: String → Int*  
*countLines = length ∘ lines*

- flip text upside down

*upsideDown :: String → String*  
*upsideDown = unlines ∘ reverse ∘ lines*

- flip text from left to right

*leftRight :: String → String*  
*leftRight = unlines ∘ map reverse ∘ lines*

## 3.2 Solutions continued

- determine the list of all prefixes (actually, also defined in the library: *inits*)

```
suffixes, prefixes :: String → [String]  
suffixes = tails  
prefixes = map reverse ∘ tails ∘ reverse
```

- determine the list of all substrings

```
substrings :: String → [String]  
substrings = concat ∘ map prefixes ∘ suffixes
```



## 3.3 List constructors

- a list is either
  - empty, written `[]`
  - or consists of an element `x` followed by a list `xs`, written `x:xs`
- every finite list can be built up from `[]` using `:`
- eg `[1,2,3] = 1:(2:(3:[])) = 1:2:3:[]`
- `[]` and `:` are called *constructors*

## 3.3 Type of list constructors

- *nil*: the empty list

$$[] :: [a]$$

- *cons*: function for prefixing an element onto a list

$$(:) :: a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

- `[]` and `:` are polymorphic
- puzzle: is `[]:[ ]` well-typed? what about `[]:([ ]:[ ])` and `([ ]:[ ]):[ ]`?

## 3.4 Pattern matching

- constructors are exhaustive
- to define function over lists, it suffices to consider the two cases  $[]$  and  $:$
- eg to test if list is empty

$$\begin{aligned} \text{null} &:: [a] \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\ \text{null } [] &= \text{True} \\ \text{null } (_:_) &= \text{False} \end{aligned}$$

(why is this different from  $(== [])$ ?)

- eg to return first element of non-empty list

$$\begin{aligned} \text{head} &:: [a] \rightarrow a \\ \text{head } (x:_) &= x \end{aligned}$$

## 3.4 Case analysis

- cases can also be analysed using a **case**-expression

```
null :: [ a ] → Bool  
null xs = case xs of  
    [ ]      → True  
    ( _ : _ ) → False
```

- declaration style*: equation using patterns; *expression style*: **case**-expression using patterns

## 3.4 Recursive definitions

- definitions by pattern-matching can be recursive too
- natural as the type is also recursively defined
- eg sum of a list of integers

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sum} &:: [Integer] \rightarrow Integer \\ \text{sum} \ [] &= 0 \\ \text{sum} \ (x:xs) &= x + \text{sum} \ xs \end{aligned}$$

- eg length of a list of elements

$$\begin{aligned} \text{length} &:: [a] \rightarrow Int \\ \text{length} \ [] &= 0 \\ \text{length} \ (\_ : xs) &= 1 + \text{length} \ xs \end{aligned}$$

## 3.4 List design pattern

- remember: every type comes with a design pattern
- *task*: define a function  $f :: [P] \rightarrow S$
- *step 1*: solve the problem for the empty list

$$f [] = \dots$$

- *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  $x : xs$

$$\begin{aligned} f [] &= \dots \\ f (x : xs) &= \dots x \dots xs \dots f xs \dots \end{aligned}$$

you have to program only a *step*

- put on your problem-solving glasses

## 3.5 Some list operations

- **append:**  $[1, 2, 3] \mathbin{++} [4, 5] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]$

$$(\mathbin{++}) :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

$$[] \mathbin{++} ys = ys$$

$$(x:xs) \mathbin{++} ys = x: (xs \mathbin{++} ys)$$

- **concatenation:**  $concat\ [[1, 2], [], [3]] = [1, 2, 3]$

$$concat :: [[a]] \rightarrow [a]$$

$$concat\ [] = []$$

$$concat\ (x:xs) = x \mathbin{++} concat\ xs$$

- **reverse:**  $reverse\ [1, 2, 3] = [3, 2, 1]$

$$reverse :: [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

$$reverse\ [] = []$$

$$reverse\ (x:xs) = reverse\ xs \mathbin{++} [x]$$

(exercise: complexity? improve!)

- is a list ordered?

*ordered* :: (Ord a) ⇒ [a] → Bool

*ordered* [] = True

*ordered* [x] = True

*ordered* (x1 : x2 : xs) = x1 ≤ x2 && *ordered* (x2 : xs)

- we distinguish three cases
- zip: eg *zip* [1,2,3] "ab" = [(1, 'a'), (2, 'b')]

*zip* :: [a] → [b] → [(a, b)]

*zip* [] [] = []

*zip* [] (\_ : \_) = []

*zip* (\_ : \_) [] = []

*zip* (x : xs) (y : ys) = (x, y) : *zip* xs ys

- we pattern match on both arguments



## 3.6 List comprehensions

- two useful operators on lists: *map* and *filter*
- list comprehensions provide a convenient syntax for expressions involving *map*, *filter*, *concat*
- analogous to a database query language
- useful for constructing new lists from old lists

## 3.6 Map

- applies given function to every element of given list
- eg *map square* [ 1, 2, 3 ] = [ 1, 4, 9 ]
- eg *map succ* "HAL" = "IBM"
- definition

$$\text{map} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow [b])$$
$$\text{map } \_ [] = []$$
$$\text{map } f (x : xs) = f x : \text{map } f xs$$

- another eg: *sum (map square [ 1..10 ])*
- (special syntax [ *m..n* ] for enumerations)

## 3.6 Filter

- returns sublist of the argument whose elements satisfy given predicate
- eg *filter isDigit "more4u2say" = "42"*
- eg *(sum ◦ map square ◦ filter odd) [1..5] = 35*
- definition

*filter* :: (*a* → *Bool*) → ([*a*] → [*a*])

*filter* \_ [] = []

*filter* *p* (*x* : *xs*)

| *p* *x* = *x* : *filter* *p* *xs*

| otherwise = *filter* *p* *xs*

## 3.6 Comprehensions

- special convenient syntax for list-generating expressions
- eg *sum* [*square* *x* | *x*  $\leftarrow$  [1..5], *odd* *x*]
- formally, a comprehension [*e* | *Qs*] for expression *e* and non-empty comma-separated sequence of qualifiers *Qs*
- qualifier may be *generator* (of the form *x*  $\leftarrow$  *xs*) or *guard* (a boolean expression)

## 3.6 Examples of comprehensions

- eg primes up to a given bound

```
primes, divisors :: Integer → [ Integer ]
primes m = [ n | n ← [ 1 .. m ], divisors n == [ 1, n ] ]
divisors n = [ d | d ← [ 1 .. n ], n 'mod' d == 0 ]
```

- eg database query

```
overdue =
  [ ( nm, ad ) | ( id, nm, ad ) ← names,
                  ( id', dt, _ ) ← invoices, id == id',
                  dt < today ]
```

- eg Quicksort

```
quicksort :: (Ord a) ⇒ [ a ] → [ a ]
quicksort [ ]      = [ ]
quicksort (x : xs) = quicksort [ y | y ← xs, y < x ]
                      ++ [ x ] ++
                      quicksort [ y | y ← xs, y ≥ x ]
```

## 3.6 Another point of view

- list comprehension is ‘really’ a form of nested loop
- eg  $[f\ b \mid a \leftarrow x, b \leftarrow g\ a, p\ b]$  is related to

```
foreach a in x do
  foreach b in g a do
    if p b then
      yield f b
```

## 3.6 Advanced: semantics by translation

- generator iterates over list, binding new variable

$$[e \mid x \leftarrow xs, Qs] = \text{concat} (\text{map} (\lambda x \rightarrow [e \mid Qs]) xs)$$

- guard prunes collection

$$[e \mid p, Qs] = \text{if } p \text{ then } [e \mid Qs] \text{ else } []$$

- empty qualifier list generates a singleton

$$[e \mid] = [e]$$

- eg

$$\begin{aligned} & [x * x \mid x \leftarrow [1..5], \text{odd } x] \\ = & \text{concat} (\text{map} (\lambda x \rightarrow [x * x \mid \text{odd } x]) [1..5]) \\ = & \text{concat} (\text{map} (\lambda x \rightarrow \text{if } \text{odd } x \text{ then } [x * x] \text{ else } []) [1..5]) \\ = & \text{concat} [[1 * 1], [], [3 * 3], [], [5 * 5]] \\ = & [1, 9, 25] \end{aligned}$$

## 3.7 Case study: Google's map-reduce

- let's explore Google's map-reduce API
- *idea*: do something uniform across a huge collection of data (in parallel) and then combine the results
- if we use lists to model huge collections of data, then the first step is simply an application of *map*
- it remains to define a reduction: collapsing a list of values into a single value



## 3.7 Reduction

- example:  $\text{reduce } 0 \ (+) \ [] = 0$ ,  
 $\text{reduce } 0 \ (+) \ [4, 7, 1, 1] = 4 + 7 + 1 + 1$
- definition

$$\begin{aligned} \text{reduce} &:: m \rightarrow (m \rightarrow m \rightarrow m) \rightarrow ([m] \rightarrow m) \\ \text{reduce } \epsilon \ (\otimes) &= \text{crush} \\ \text{where } \text{crush } [] &= \epsilon \\ \text{crush } (x:xs) &= x \otimes \text{crush } xs \end{aligned}$$

- assumption:  $\epsilon$  and  $\otimes$  form a monoid ie  $\otimes$  is associative with  $\epsilon$  as its neutral element (why?)
- *reduce* is another higher-order function (more later)

## 3.7 Applications of reduce

- numbers
  - ▶ *reduce* 0 (+)
  - ▶ *reduce* 1 (\*)
  - ▶ *reduce* *maxBound* *min*
  - ▶ *reduce* *minBound* *max*
- Booleans
  - ▶ *reduce* *True* ( $\wedge$ )
  - ▶ *reduce* *False* ( $\vee$ )
  - ▶ *reduce* *True* (==)
  - ▶ *reduce* *False* ( $\neq$ )
- *reduce* [ ] (++)
- *reduce* *id* ( $\circ$ )

## 3.7 Map-reduce

- map-reduce simply combines *map* with *reduce*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{mapReduce} &:: m \rightarrow (m \rightarrow m \rightarrow m) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow m) \\ \text{mapReduce} \in (\otimes) \quad f &= \text{reduce} \in (\otimes) \circ \text{map } f \end{aligned}$$

- the art of map-reduce is to find a suitable monoid!

## 3.7 Applications of map-reduce

- exact search eg

*member "lisa" ["anja", "lisa", "flo", "ralf"] = True*

*member :: String → ([String] → Bool)*

*member s = mapReduce False (∨) (== s)*

- substring search eg

*search "is" ["anja", "lisa", "flo", "ralf"] = True*

*search :: String → ([String] → Bool)*

*search s = member s ∘ mapReduce [ ] (++) substrings*

- ranking webpages

**type** *Rank = Int*

*best :: String → ([String] → Rank)*

*best s = mapReduce minBound max (rank s)*

*rank :: String → String → Rank* -- Google's secret

## 3.7 Decorating monoids

- of course, we usually want to see the highest-ranked webpage (*best* only returns the rank)
- *idea*: pair the webpages with their rank

**type** *RankedPage* = (*String*, *Rank*)

*best'* :: *String* → ([*String*] → *RankedPage*)

*best' s* = *mapReduce minBound' max' (λx → (x, rank s x))*

- *minBound'* and *max'* thread the information around

*minBound'* :: *RankedPage*

*minBound'* = ("<<not found>>", *minBound*)

*max'* :: *RankedPage* → *RankedPage* → *RankedPage*

*max' (s, m) (t, n)*

|  $m \geq n$  = (*s*, *m*)

| otherwise = (*t*, *n*)

## 3.8 Summary: How to solve it?

- write down the type (what's the input?, what's the output?)
- can you solve the problem using existing vocabulary?
- if not, define new vocabulary
- use the list design pattern
- remember: you only have to solve a step
- can you solve the step using existing vocabulary?
- if not, define new vocabulary (identify a subproblem)
- solve the subproblem in the same manner

## Part 4

# Algebraic datatypes

## 4.0 Outline

**New datatypes**

**Product and sum datatypes**

**Parametric datatypes**

**Recursive datatypes**

**Case study: compiler construction**

**Summary**



## 4.1 New datatypes

- we've seen **type** synonyms for existing types
- we've also seen enumerations as new **data** types
- **data** is *much* more general than this
- product and sum datatypes
- polymorphic datatypes
- recursive datatypes

## 4.2 Product and sum datatypes

- constructors of enumerated types are constants (*Mon*); constructors may be functions too
- eg people with names and ages

```
type Name = String
type Age = Int
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; moreover, they can be used in pattern-matching

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

- safer than type synonyms, and can have their own type classes (eg specialized equality)

```
type Person = (Name, Age)
```

## 4.2 Sum types

- datatypes can have multiple *variants*

**data** *Suit* = *Spades* | *Hearts* | *Diamonds* | *Clubs*

**data** *Rank* = *Faceless Integer* | *Jack* | *Queen* | *King*

**data** *Card* = *Card Rank Suit* | *Joker*

- so a *Rank* is *either* of the form *Faceless n* for some *n*, *or* a constant *Jack*, *Queen* or *King*

## 4.2 Temperatures

- another example

**data** *Temp* = *Cels Float* | *Fahr Float*  
**deriving** (*Show*)

- define our own equality function

**instance** *Eq Temp* **where**  
  *Cels* *x* == *Cels* *y* = *x* == *y*  
  *Fahr* *x* == *Fahr* *y* = *x* == *y*  
  *Cels* *x* == *Fahr* *y* = *x* \* 1.8 == *y* - 32.0  
  *Fahr* *x* == *Cels* *y* = *Cels* *y* == *Fahr* *x*

## 4.3 Parametric datatypes

- constructors may be polymorphic functions
- then datatype is parametric

**data** *Maybe a = Just a | Nothing*

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

*head' :: [a] → Maybe a*  
*head' [] = Nothing*  
*head' (x:\_) = Just x*

- similarly, sum datatype

**data** *Either a b = Left a | Right b*

## 4.4 Recursive datatypes

- datatypes may be recursive too
- arithmetic expressions
- natural numbers
- lists
- binary trees
- general trees

## 4.4 Arithmetic expressions

- 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
- constructor names may be operators (starting with ':')

**infixl** 7 :\*:

**infixl** 6 :+:

**data** *Expr*

  = *Lit Integer*      -- a literal

  | *Expr* :+ : *Expr*   -- addition

  | *Expr* :\* : *Expr*   -- multiplication

**deriving** (*Show*)

## 4.4 Constructing expressions

- constructing expressions

$expr1, expr2 :: Expr$

$expr1 = (Lit\ 4 : * : Lit\ 7) : + : (Lit\ 11)$

$expr2 = (Lit\ 4 : + : Lit\ 7) : * : (Lit\ 11)$

- note the difference between *syntax*

$? Lit\ 4 : + : Lit\ 7 : * : Lit\ 11$

$Lit\ 4 : + : Lit\ 7 : * : Lit\ 11$

- and *semantics*

$? 4 + 7 * 11$

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## 4.4 *Expr* design pattern

- recursive definitions by pattern-matching

*evaluate* :: *Expr* → *Integer*

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

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

*evaluate* (*e1* :\* : *e2*) = *evaluate e1* \* *evaluate e2*

- the evaluator essentially replaces syntax (:+ : and :\* :) by semantics (+ and \*)

## 4.4 *Expr* design pattern

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

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

- 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  $x :+: y$

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

$$f(x :+: y) = \dots\ x \dots y \dots f\ x \dots f\ y \dots$$

you have to program only a *step*

- step 2*: do the same for  $x :*: y$

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

$$f(x :+: y) = \dots\ x \dots y \dots f\ x \dots f\ y \dots$$

$$f(x :*: y) = \dots\ x \dots y \dots f\ x \dots f\ y \dots$$

## 4.4 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?)

## 4.4 Peano design pattern

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

$$f\ Zero = \dots$$

- *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*

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

you have to program only a *step*

- put on your problem-solving glasses
- (exercise: *n*th power)

## 4.4 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 → b) → (List a → List b)*

*mapList \_ Nil = Nil*

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

## 4.4 List design pattern

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

$$f\ Nil = \dots$$

- *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  $Cons\ x\ xs$

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

you have to program only a *step*

- put on your problem-solving glasses

## 4.4 Binary trees

- externally-labelled binary trees

**data** *Btree a* = *Tip a* | *Bin (Btree a) (Btree a)*

- eg *Bin (Tip 1) (Bin (Tip 2) (Tip 3))*
- eg *size* (number of elements)

*size* :: *Btree a* → *Int*

*size (Tip \_)* = 1

*size (Bin t u)* = *size t* + *size u*

## 4.4 General trees

- internally-labelled trees with arbitrary branching (*rose trees*)

**data** *Gtree* *a* = *Branch* *a* [ *Gtree* *a* ]

- eg  
*Branch* 1 [ *Branch* 2 [ ], *Branch* 3 [ *Branch* 4 [ ] ], *Branch* 5 [ ] ]
- eg given available moves  $m :: Pos \rightarrow [Pos]$ , generate game tree

*gametree* ::  $(Pos \rightarrow [Pos]) \rightarrow (Pos \rightarrow Gtree\ Pos)$   
*gametree* *m* *p* = *Branch* *p* (map (*gametree* *m*) (*m* *p*))



## 4.5 Case study: compiler construction

- let's implement a compiler that translates arithmetic expressions into stack machine code and
- a virtual machine that executes stack machine code

*compile (Lit 4 \*: (Lit 7 :+: Lit 11))*  
*= Push 4 :^: Push 7 :^: Push 11 :^: Add :^: Mul*

- when executed, the stack grows and shrinks

*[]*  
*4 : []*  
*7 : 4 : []*  
*11 : 7 : 4 : []*  
*18 : 4 : []*  
*22 : []*

- we also show the correctness of compiler and VM

## 4.5 Warm-up: showing expressions

- *showExpr* maps an expression to its string representation

*showExpr* :: Expr → String

*showExpr* (Lit i)

  = *show* i

*showExpr* (e1 :+: e2)

  = "(" ++ *showExpr* e1 ++ " + " ++ *showExpr* e2 ++ ")"

*showExpr* (e1 \*\*: e2)

  = "(" ++ *showExpr* e1 ++ " \* " ++ *showExpr* e2 ++ ")"

- parentheses is necessary for products of sums eg

*showExpr* expr2 = "((4 + 7) \* 11)"

- some parentheses is redundant, however, eg

*showExpr* expr1 = "((4 \* 7) + 11)"

## 4.5 Respecting precedence

- string representation should respect precedence
- *idea*: pass in the precedence level of the enclosing operator

*showPrec* :: Int → Expr → String

*showPrec* \_ (Lit i)

  = show i

*showPrec* p (e1 :+: e2)

  = parenthesis (p > 6) (showPrec 6 e1 ++ " + " ++ showPrec 6 e2)

*showPrec* p (e1 \*\*: e2)

  = parenthesis (p > 7) (showPrec 7 e1 ++ " \* " ++ showPrec 7 e2)

*parenthesis* :: Bool → String → String

*parenthesis* True s = "(" ++ s ++ ")"

*parenthesis* False s = s

- eg *showPrec* 0 *expr1* = "4 \* 7 + 11" and  
  *showPrec* 0 *expr2* = "(4 + 7) \* 11"

## 4.5 Instructions of a stack machine

- the operations of the VM operate on a stack

**infixr** 2 :<sup>^</sup>:

**data** *Code*

  = *Push Integer*    -- push integer onto stack  
  | *Add*            -- add topmost two elements and push result  
  | *Mul*             -- multiply  
  | *Code* :<sup>^</sup> : *Code* -- sequencing

**deriving** (*Show*)

- eg

*code1* :: *Code*

*code1* = *Push* 47 :<sup>^</sup> : *Push* 11 :<sup>^</sup> : *Add*

## 4.5 Warm-up: showing code

- *showCode* maps a piece of code to its string representation

*showCode* :: *Code* → *String*

*showCode* (*Push* *i*) = "push " ++ *show* *i*

*showCode* (*Add*) = "add"

*showCode* (*Mul*) = "mul"

*showCode* (*c1* :<sup>^</sup> *c2*) = *showCode* *c1* ++ " ; " ++ *showCode* *c2*

- eg *showCode code1* = "push 47 ; push 11 ; add"

## 4.5 Compilation

- the definition of the compiler follows the *Expr* design pattern

```
compile :: Expr → Code  
compile (Lit i)      = Push i  
compile (e1 :+ e2) = compile e1 ^: compile e2 ^: Add  
compile (e1 :* e2) = compile e1 ^: compile e2 ^: Mul
```

- for addition we first generate code for the two subexpressions and then emit an *Add* instruction
- eg *compile expr1* = *Push 4* ^: *Push 7* ^: *Mul* ^: *Push 11* ^: *Add*

## 4.5 Execution

- we implement a stack using a list of integers

**type** *Stack* = [*Integer*]

- the definition of the VM follows the *Code* design pattern

*execute* :: *Code* → (*Stack* → *Stack*)  
*execute* (*Push* *i*) = *push* *i*  
*execute* (*Add*) = *add*  
*execute* (*Mul*) = *mul*  
*execute* (*c1* :<sup>^</sup>: *c2*) = *execute* *c2* ∘ *execute* *c1*

- syntax (*Push*) is replaced by semantics (*push*)

## 4.5 Helper functions

- push* etc are *stack transformers*

*push* :: *Integer* → (*Stack* → *Stack*)

*push* *i* *xs* = *i* : *xs*

*add* :: *Stack* → *Stack*

*add* [ ] = *error msg*

*add* [ \_ ] = *error msg*

*add* (*x1* : *x2* : *xs*) = *x2* + *x1* : *xs*

*mul* :: *Stack* → *Stack*

*mul* [ ] = *error msg*

*mul* [ \_ ] = *error msg*

*mul* (*x1* : *x2* : *xs*) = *x2* \* *x1* : *xs*

*msg* :: *String*

*msg* = "VM: empty stack"



## 4.5 Advanced: Proof of correctness

Evaluating a compiled expression has the same effect as evaluating the expression and then pushing the result:

$$\textit{push}(\textit{evaluate } e) = \textit{execute}(\textit{compile } e)$$

The proof proceeds by induction over the structure of the expression  $e$ .

## 4.5 Proof of correctness: base case

Case  $e = \text{Lit } i$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{push (evaluate (Lit } i)) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of evaluate} \} \\ & \text{push } i \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of execute} \} \\ & \text{execute (Push } i) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of compile} \} \\ & \text{execute (compile (Lit } i)) \end{aligned}$$

## 4.5 Proof of correctness: inductive step

Case  $e = e1 :+: e2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{push} (\text{evaluate} (e1 :+: e2)) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of evaluate} \} \\ & \text{push} (\text{evaluate } e1 + \text{evaluate } e2) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{property of add: } \text{add} \circ \text{push } n \circ \text{push } m = \text{push } (m + n) \} \\ & \text{add} \circ \text{push} (\text{evaluate } e2) \circ \text{push} (\text{evaluate } e1) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{induction hypothesis} \} \\ & \text{add} \circ \text{execute} (\text{compile } e2) \circ \text{execute} (\text{compile } e1) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of execute} \} \\ & \text{execute} (\text{compile } e1 \hat{:} \text{ compile } e2 \hat{:} \text{Add}) \\ = & \quad \{ \text{definition of compile} \} \\ & \text{execute} (\text{compile} (e1 :+: e2)) \end{aligned}$$

Likewise for  $e1 :* e2$ .

## 4.6 The art of functional programming

- model static aspects of the real world using datatypes
- model dynamic aspects using functions
- don't shy away from introducing new types

## Part 5

# Higher-order programming

## 5.0 Outline

**Functions as first-class citizens**

**Functions as arguments**

**Functions as results**

**Functions as datastructures**

**Fold and unfold**

**Component-oriented and combinator-style programming**

**Summary**

## 5.1 Functions as first-class citizens

- *functional programming* concerns functions (of course!)
- functions are first-class citizens of the language
- functions have all the rights of other types:
  - ▶ may be passed as arguments
  - ▶ may be returned as results
  - ▶ may be stored in data structures
  - ▶ etc
- functions that manipulate functions are *higher order*

**Slogan:** higher-order functions allow new and better means of modularizing programs

## 5.2 Functions as arguments

- we have already seen many examples of higher-order operators encapsulating patterns of computation:  
*map, filter, reduce*
- each is a parameterizable program scheme
- parameterization improves modularity, and hence understanding, modification and reuse



## 5.3 Functions as results

- functions may also be returned as results

*addOrMul* :: *Bool* → (*Integer* → *Integer* → *Integer*)  
*addOrMul* *b* = **if** *b* **then** (+) **else** (\*)

- partial application
- currying
- function composition (again)

## 5.3 Partial application

- consider  $\text{add}' x y = x + y$
- type  $\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}$ ; takes two *Integers* and returns an *Integer* (eg  $\text{add}' 3 4 = 7$ )
- another view: type  $\text{Integer} \rightarrow (\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer})$  (remember,  $\rightarrow$  associates to the right); takes a single *Integer* and returns an  $\text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}$  function (eg  $\text{add}' 3$  is the *Integer*-transformer that adds three)
- need not apply function to all its arguments at once: *partial application*; result will then be a function, awaiting remaining arguments
- in fact, partial evaluation is the norm; every function takes exactly one argument
- sectioning  $((3+), (+))$  is partial application of binary ops

## 5.3 Currying

- a function taking pair of arguments can be transformed into a function taking two successive arguments, and vice versa

$add :: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer$

$add\ x\ y = x + y$

$add' :: Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer$

$add'\ x\ y = x + y$

- $add'$  is called the *curried* version of  $add$
- named after logician Haskell B. Curry (like the language), though actually due to Schönfinkel
- thus, pair-consuming functions are unnecessary

- transformations are implementable as higher-order operations

$$\begin{aligned} \text{curry} &:: ((a, b) \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \\ \text{curry } f \ a \ b &= f \ (a, b) \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \text{uncurry} &:: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow ((a, b) \rightarrow c) \\ \text{uncurry } f \ (a, b) &= f \ a \ b \end{aligned}$$

- eg  $\text{add}' = \text{curry } \text{add}$
- a related higher-order operation: flip arguments of binary function (later:  $\text{reverse} = \text{foldl} \ (\text{flip } (:)) \ []$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \text{flip} &:: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow a \rightarrow c) \\ \text{flip } f \ b \ a &= f \ a \ b \end{aligned}$$

## 5.3 Function composition

- recall function composition (now with polymorphic type)

$$\begin{aligned}( \circ ) &:: (b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c \\ (f \circ g) \ x &= f (g \ x)\end{aligned}$$

- takes two functions that ‘meet in the middle’ and an argument to one; returns the result from the other
- equivalently, type  $(b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow c)$
- takes two functions, glues them together to form a third
- exercise:* show that  $\circ$  is associative

## 5.3 Repeated composition

- double application: eg *twice square* 3 = 81

*twice* ::  $(a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow a)$

*twice* *f* = *f* ∘ *f*

- generalize: eg *iter* 4 (2\*) 1 = 2 \* 2 \* 2 \* 2 \* 1

*iter* :: *Integer* →  $(a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow a)$

*iter* 0 \_ = *id*

*iter* *n* *f* = *f* ∘ *iter* (*n* − 1) *f*

- more on this in a minute ...

## 5.4 Functions as datastructures

consider a dictionary (associative array)

**type** *Dict* *k v*

*empty* :: *Dict k v*

*insert* :: (*Eq k*)  $\Rightarrow$  (*k, v*)  $\rightarrow$  *Dict k v*  $\rightarrow$  *Dict k v*

*lookup* :: (*Eq k*)  $\Rightarrow$  *Dict k v*  $\rightarrow$  *k*  $\rightarrow$  *v*

## 5.4 Implementation as list

**type** *Dict* *k v* = [ (*k*, *v*) ]

*empty* :: *Dict* *k v*

*empty* = [ ]

*insert* :: (*Eq* *k*) ⇒ (*k*, *v*) → *Dict* *k v* → *Dict* *k v*

*insert* *kv* *kvs* = *kv* : *kvs*

*lookup* :: (*Eq* *k*) ⇒ *Dict* *k v* → *k* → *v*

*lookup* [ ] \_ = *error* "item not present"

*lookup* ((*k*, *v*) : *kvs*) *k'*

  | *k* == *k'*       = *v*

  | *otherwise* = *lookup* *kvs* *k'*



## 5.4 Implementation as function

**type** *Dict* *k v* = *k* → *v*

*empty* :: *Dict k v*

*empty* \_ = error "item not present"

*insert* :: (*Eq k*) ⇒ (*k, v*) → *Dict k v* → *Dict k v*

*insert* (*k, v*) *f k'*

  | *k* == *k'*       = *v*

  | *otherwise* = *f k'*

*lookup* :: (*Eq k*) ⇒ *Dict k v* → *k* → *v*

*lookup f* = *f*

The dictionary is the look-up function.

## 5.4 Natural numbers as functions

Functions can be used to represent other data structures.  
In fact, we've already seen how to represent the natural numbers as functions, via repeated composition.

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

*zero* :: *Natural*

*zero* \_ = *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*

Conversion from *Integer* using *iter*; how about back again?

## 5.5 Fold and unfold

- many recursive definitions on lists share a *pattern* of computation
- capture that pattern as a function (abstraction, conciseness, general properties, familiarity, ...)
- *map* and *filter* are two common patterns
- folds and unfolds capture many more

## 5.5 Fold right

- consider following pattern of definition

$$\begin{aligned} h [] &= e \\ h (x:xs) &= x \text{ 'op' } h \text{ xs} \end{aligned}$$

(simple variant of list design pattern: *xs* is only used in the recursive call)

- then

$$h (x: (y: (z: []))) = x \text{ 'op' } (y \text{ 'op' } (z \text{ 'op' } e))$$

- h* replaces constructors by functions
- capture pattern as *foldr*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{foldr} &:: (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow b \\ \text{foldr } \_ \ e \ [] &= e \\ \text{foldr } op \ e \ (x:xs) &= x \text{ 'op' } \text{foldr } op \ e \ xs \end{aligned}$$

- difference to *reduce*?

## 5.5 Examples of fold right

- many examples:

```
sum      = foldr (+) 0
copy     = foldr (:) []
length  = foldr (\x n → 1 + n) 0
map f    = foldr ((:) ∘ f) []
concat  = foldr (++) []
reverse = foldr snoc [] where snoc x xs = xs ++ [x]
xs ++ ys = foldr (:) ys xs
```

- right-to-left computation
- operator may (+, ++) or may not (:, *snoc*) be associative

## 5.5 Sorting

- given

$insertList :: (Ord\ a) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$

$insertList\ x\ [] = [x]$

$insertList\ x\ (y:ys)$

$\quad | x \leq y \quad = x:y:ys$

$\quad | otherwise = y:insertList\ x\ ys$

- we have

$insertSort :: (Ord\ a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$

$insertSort = foldr\ insertList\ []$

## 5.5 Fold left

- not every list function is a *foldr* (eg *drop*)
- even those that are may have better definitions
- eg *decimal*  $[1, 2, 3] = 123$
- efficient algorithm using *Horner's Rule*:

$$\text{decimal } [x, y, z] = 10 * (10 * (10 * 0 + x) + y) + z$$

- left-to-right computation — hence *foldl*

$$\text{foldl } op\ e\ [x, y, z] = ((e\ 'op'\ x)\ 'op'\ y)\ 'op'\ z$$

- definition

$$\text{foldl} :: (b \rightarrow a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow b \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow b$$

$$\text{foldl } _\ e\ [] = e$$

$$\text{foldl } op\ e\ (x : xs) = \text{foldl } op\ (e\ 'op'\ x)\ xs$$

## 5.5 Accumulating parameter

- recall *reverse* program

$$\begin{aligned} \text{reverse} &:: [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{reverse} &= \text{foldr} (\lambda x \text{ xs} \rightarrow \text{xs} \mathbin{++} [x]) [] \end{aligned}$$

- another definition

$$\begin{aligned} \text{reverse}' &:: [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{reverse}' &= \text{foldl} (\text{flip } (:)) [] \end{aligned}$$

- (now what is complexity?)
- second argument of *foldl* is an *accumulating parameter*



## 5.5 Duality: fold revisited

- so far we have focused on *consumers* (this seems to be close to the spirit of the time)
- *producers* are important too
- producers are *dual* to consumers
- to exhibit the duality we first re-define *foldr*
- a *non-recursive* variant of the list data type

**data** *List a b* = *Nil* | *Cons a b*

- *foldr* reformulated

*fold* :: (*List a b* → *b*) → ([*a*] → *b*)

*fold inn* [ ] = *inn Nil*

*fold inn* (*a* : *x*) = *inn* (*Cons a* (*fold inn x*))

## 5.5 Examples of fold

- summing a list of numbers

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sum} &:: (\text{Num } a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow a \\ \text{sum} &= \text{fold } (\lambda x \rightarrow \text{case } x \text{ of} \\ &\quad \text{Nil} \quad \quad \rightarrow 0 \\ &\quad \text{Cons } a \ b \rightarrow a + b) \end{aligned}$$

- *map* can be expressed as an fold

$$\begin{aligned} \text{map} &:: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow [b]) \\ \text{map } f &= \text{fold } (\lambda x \rightarrow \text{case } x \text{ of} \\ &\quad \text{Nil} \quad \quad \rightarrow [] \\ &\quad \text{Cons } a \ x' \rightarrow f \ a : x') \end{aligned}$$

## 5.5 Duality: unfold

- folds consume lists
- *dually*, unfolds generate lists
- common pattern

$$\begin{aligned} \text{unfold} &:: (b \rightarrow \text{List } a \ b) \rightarrow (b \rightarrow [a]) \\ \text{unfold out } x & \\ &= \text{case out } x \text{ of} \\ &\quad \text{Nil} \quad \quad \rightarrow [] \\ &\quad \text{Cons } a \ x' \rightarrow a : \text{unfold out } x' \end{aligned}$$

- *unfold* is *dual* to *fold*
- relation to OO iterators?

## 5.5 Examples of unfold

- $[m..n]$  aka *enumFromTo m n*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{enumFromTo} &:: (\text{Num } a, \text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{enumFromTo } m \ n &= \text{unfold } (\lambda i \rightarrow \text{if } i > n \text{ then Nil} \\ &\quad \text{else Cons } i \ (i + 1)) \ m \end{aligned}$$

- *map* can also be expressed as an unfold

$$\begin{aligned} \text{map} &:: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow [b]) \\ \text{map } f &= \text{unfold } (\lambda x \rightarrow \text{case } x \text{ of} \\ &\quad [] \rightarrow \text{Nil} \\ &\quad a : x' \rightarrow \text{Cons } (f \ a) \ x') \end{aligned}$$

## 5.5 Sorting

- given

$$\begin{aligned} \text{insertList} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow \text{List } a \ [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{insertList Nil} &= [] \\ \text{insertList (Cons } x \ []) &= [x] \\ \text{insertList (Cons } x \ (y:ys)) & \\ &\quad | \ x \leq y \quad = x:y:ys \\ &\quad | \ \text{otherwise} = y:\text{insertList (Cons } x \ ys) \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{insertSort} &:: (\text{Ord } a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ \text{insertSort} &= \text{fold insertList} \end{aligned}$$

- (exercise: write *insertList* itself as an unfold)

- dually, given

```
deleteMin :: (Ord a) => [a] -> List a [a]
deleteMin [ ] = Nil
deleteMin (x:xs)
  = case deleteMin xs of
    Nil          -> Cons x [ ]
    Cons y ys
      | x <= y    -> Cons x (y:ys)
      | otherwise -> Cons y (x:ys)
```

we have

```
selectSort :: (Ord a) => [a] -> [a]
selectSort = unfold deleteMin
```

- (exercise: write *deleteMin* itself as a fold)

## 5.6 Component-oriented and combinator-style programming

- higher-order functions make a good framework for gluing programs together
- *component-oriented programming*: pluggable units of code, software assembly instead of programming
- manifests itself in a functional language as *combinator style* programming, as higher-order functions sometimes called combinators
- eg functional parsers, see Hutton's *Programming in Haskell*
- eg functional graphics, see Hudak's *The Haskell School of Expression*
- eg functional music composition, ditto

## 5.6 Music

- Hudak's *Haskore* combinators for expressing musical structure
- primitive entities: notes, rests, durations
- transformations (transposition, tempo-scaling)
- combinations (sequential and parallel, looping)
- translation to MIDI
- algorithmic composition



## 5.6 A datatype for music

**data** *Music*

```
= Note Pitch Dur [ NoteAttribute ] -- a note (atomic object)
| Rest Dur -- a rest (atomic object)
| Music :+: Music -- sequential composition
| Music :=: Music -- parallel composition
| Tempo (Ratio Int) Music -- scale the tempo
| Trans Int Music -- transposition
| Instr IName Music -- instrument label
| Player PName Music -- player label
| Phrase [ PhraseAttribute ] Music -- phrase attributes
```

**deriving** (*Show*, *Eq*)

```
tequila = tequilaIntro :+: tequilaBody :+: tequilaCoda
```

```
tequilaIntro =
```

```
  drumIntro :+:
```

```
  (drums :=: bass) :+:
```

```
  (drums :=: bass :=: guitar) :+:
```

```
  (drums :=: bass :=: guitar :=: brassIntro)
```

```
tequilaBody =
```

```
  cut 32 (repeatM (
```

```
    twice (drums :=: bass :=: guitar) :=: brass))
```

```
tequilaCoda =
```

```
  drumCoda :=: bassCoda :=: guitarCoda :=: brassCoda
```

```
drumIntro = Instr "Drums" (cut 4 (repeatM (  
    p0 qn :+: p0 en1 :+: p0 en2)))
```

```
drums = Instr "Drums" (drumIntro :=: cut 4 (repeatM (  
    (qnr :+: p2 en1 :+: p2 en2) :=: p3 hn)))
```

```
drumCoda = Instr "Drums" (cut 2 drums :+:  
    line [  
        chord [p1 qn, p2 qn, p3 qn],  
        chord [p1 qn, p2 qn, p3 qn],  
        chord [p1 qn, p2 qn, p3 qn],  
        chord [p1 qn, p2 qn, p3 qn, p4 (tie qn wn)] ])
```

```
p1 d = perc RideCymbal2 d [Volume 50]
```

```
p2 d = perc AcousticSnare d [Volume 30]
```

```
p3 d = perc LowTom d [Volume 50]
```

```
p4 d = perc SplashCymbal d [Volume 100]
```

```
p0 d = perc PedalHiHat d [Volume 50]
```

```
bass = Instr "Fretless Bass" bassline
```

```
bassline = cut 4 (repeatM (  
    line [g 2 (tie qn en1) [] ,  
          f 3 (tie en2 en1) [] ,  
          c 3 en2 [] ,  
          a 2 qn [] ]))
```

```
bassCoda = Instr "Fretless Bass" (  
    cut 2 bassline :+ :  
    line [g 2 qn [] , g 2 qn [] , f 2 qn [] , g 2 en1 [] ,  
          en2r , wnr ])
```

```

guitar = Instr "Electric Guitar (jazz)" chordSeq
chordSeq = line [
  g qn, g qn, f (tie qn en1), g (tie en2
    en1), g (tie en2 en1), g en2, f en1, f en2, f en1, f en2,
  g qn, g qn, f (tie qn en1), g (tie en2
    en1), f (tie en2 (tie qn en1)), f en2, f en1, f en2]
where g = eChord G; f = eChord F

```

*eChord* :: *PitchClass* → *Dur* → *Music*

```

eChord key d
  | pc < pcE = Trans (12 + pc - pcE) (chord (eShape d))
  | otherwise = Trans (pc - pcE) (chord (eShape d))
where
  pc = pitchClass key
  pcE = pitchClass E
  eShape dur = [ n o dur [ Volume 30 ]
    | (n, o) ← [(e, 3), (b, 3), (e, 4)] ]

```

```
brass = Instr "Brass Section" brassRiff
brassRiff = line [
  g qn, g en1, f en2, a en1, f (tie en2 en1), g (tie en2
    en1), d (tie en2 (tie hn en1)), d en2,
  g qn, g en1, f en2, a en1, f (tie en2 en1), g (tie en2
    (tie dh en1)), d en2,
  g qn, g en1, f en2, a en1, f (tie en2 en1), g (tie en2
    en1), d (tie en2 (tie hn en1)), d en2,
  g qn, g en1, f en2, a en1, f (tie en2 en1), d (tie en2
    (tie hn qn)), en1r, d en2]
where
  g d = Note (G,4) d [ ]
  f d = Note (F,4) d [ ]
  a d = Note (A,4) d [ ]
  d d = Note (D,4) d [ ]
```

```
rep :: (Music → Music) → (Music → Music) → Int →  
      Music → Music  
rep f g 0 m = Rest 0  
rep f g n m = m ::= g (rep f g (n − 1) (f m))  
  
run      = rep (Trans 5) (delay tn) 8 (c 4 tn [ ])  
cascade = rep (Trans 4) (delay en) 8 run  
cascades = rep id (delay sn) 2 cascade  
t4      = test (Instr "piano"  
               (cascades ::+ revM cascades))
```

```
type SNote = [ (AbsPitch, Dur) ]  
pat4' :: [ SNote ]  
pat4' = [ [ (3, 0.5) ], [ (4, 0.25) ], [ (0, 0.25) ], [ (6, 1.0) ] ]  
  
data Cluster = Cl SNote [ Cluster ]  
sim :: [ SNote ] → [ Cluster ]  
sim pat = map mkCl pat  
  where mkCl ns = Cl ns (map (mkCl ∘ addmult ns) pat)  
  addmult = zipWith (λ(p, d) (i, s) → (p + i, d * s))  
  
simFringe n pat = fringe n (Cl [ (0, 0) ] (sim pat))  
fringe 0 (Cl note cls) = [ note ]  
fringe n (Cl note cls) = concat (map (fringe (n - 1)) cls)  
  
sim4s n = l1 :=: l2 where  
  l1 = Instr "flute" s  
  l2 = Instr "bass" (Trans (-36) (revM s))  
  s = Trans 60 (Tempo 2 (simToHask (simFringe n pat4')))
```



## 5.7 Abstraction, abstraction, abstraction

- question: what are the three most important concepts in programming?
- answer: abstraction, abstraction, abstraction!
- higher-order functions (HOFs) allow you to capture control structures, in particular, common patterns of recursion

## Part 6

# Type classes

## 6.7 Outline

**Type classes**

**Case study: monoids**

**Constructor classes**

**Summary**

## 6.8 Haskell's approach to overloading

- inventing names is hard!
- sometimes we wish to use the same name for semantically different, but related functions
  - ▶  $+$ ,  $*$  etc: arithmetic operations (*Int*, *Integer*, *Float*, *Double* ...)
  - ▶  $=$ ,  $\neq$ : equality and inequality (almost any type)
  - ▶ *show*, *read*: converting to and fro strings (almost any type)
- we want to *overload* the identifiers
- (put differently, we are too lazy to think of different names)
- Haskell's major innovation: a systematic approach to overloading
- (ad-hoc polymorphism vs universal polymorphism)

## 6.8 The equality type class

- overloaded functions typically come in groups
- a type class declares a group of identifiers as overloaded

```
class Eq a where  
  (==) :: a → a → Bool  
  (≠)  :: a → a → Bool
```

- *==* and *≠* are member functions of the type class *Eq* (also called methods)
- types of the member functions:

```
(==) :: (Eq a) ⇒ a → a → Bool  
(≠)  :: (Eq a) ⇒ a → a → Bool
```

- *read*: for all types *a* that are instances of the type class *Eq*, the method *==* has type *a* → *a* → *Bool*
- (*Eq* *a*) ⇒ is a *class context*; it constrains the type variable *a*

## 6.8 Overloaded functions

- since `==` is overloaded, `x == y` can be ambiguous
- what happens if the compiler can't resolve the ambiguity?
- eg list membership uses equality:

```
elem :: (Eq a) => a -> [a] -> Bool  
elem _ []      = False  
elem x (y:ys) = x == y || elem x ys
```

- *elem* becomes overloaded!
- (most programming languages insist that the problem of ambiguity is resolvable at compile-time)
- the class constraint  $(Eq\ a) \Rightarrow$  is like an infectious disease: using `==` or *elem* means that “the disease spreads”

## 6.8 Class instances

- instances of type classes have to be declared explicitly

```
data Gender = Female | Male
```

```
instance Eq Gender where
```

```
  Female == Female = True
```

```
  Female == Male   = False
```

```
  Male    == Female = False
```

```
  Male    == Male   = True
```

```
  x /= y    = not (x == y)
```

- the body of the instance declaration specifies how (in-)equality is implemented for elements of type *Gender*

## 6.8 Default definitions

- equality is typically defined in terms of inequality (or vice versa)

```
class Eq a where  
  (==), (≠) :: a → a → Bool  
  x ≠ y = not (x == y)  
  x == y = not (x ≠ y)
```

- default declarations* allow us to define the boilerplate code once and for all
- in an instance declaration it suffices now to provide either the code for `==` or the code for `≠`
- (one has to implement at least one method to break the vicious circle)



## 6.8 Instances of parametric types

- to define equality on a parametric type, say, *Tree a* we require equality on the element type *a*
- an instance declaration can have a context too

**data** *Tree a* = *Leaf a* | *Fork (Tree a) (Tree a)*

**instance** (*Eq a*)  $\Rightarrow$  *Eq (Tree a)* **where**

*Leaf* *x1* == *Leaf* *x2* = *x1* == *x2*

*Leaf* \_ == *Fork* \_ \_ = *False*

*Fork* \_ \_ == *Leaf* \_ = *False*

*Fork* *l1* *r1* == *Fork* *l2* *r2* = *l1* == *l2* && *r1* == *r2*

- *read*: if *a* supports equality, then *Tree a* supports equality too
- *exercise*: seven occurrences of ==; which is which?

## 6.8 Subclasses

- classes can be extended

```
class (Eq a)  $\Rightarrow$  Ord a where  
  compare            $:: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow \text{Ordering}$   
  (<), (≤), (≥), (>)  $:: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow \text{Bool}$   
  max, min          $:: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$ 
```

- *Ord* is a *subclass* of *Eq*
- conversely, *Eq* is a *superclass* of *Ord*
- subclasses keep class contexts manageable
- necessary if method of superclass is used in one of the default methods (see next slide)

## 6.8 Ordering

**data** *Ordering* = *LT* | *EQ* | *GT*

**class** (*Eq* *a*)  $\Rightarrow$  *Ord* *a* **where**

*compare* :: *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*  $\rightarrow$  *Ordering*

(*<*), (*≤*), (*≥*), (*>*) :: *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*  $\rightarrow$  *Bool*

*max*, *min* :: *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*

*compare* *x y* | *x* == *y* = *EQ*

| *x* ≤ *y* = *LT*

| *otherwise* = *GT*

*x* ≤ *y* = *compare* *x y* ≠ *GT*

*x* < *y* = *compare* *x y* == *LT*

*x* ≥ *y* = *compare* *x y* ≠ *LT*

*x* > *y* = *compare* *x y* == *GT*

*max* *x y* | *x* ≤ *y* = *y*

| *otherwise* = *x*

*min* *x y* | *x* ≤ *y* = *x*

| *otherwise* = *y*

## 6.8 Bounded

- instances of *Ord* have to implement a *total* order
- occasionally, a type has a least and a greatest element with respect to that ordering

```
class Bounded a where  
  minBound :: a  
  maxBound :: a
```

- the type *Int* of machine integers is bounded, the type *Integer* of mathematical integers isn't

```
? maxBound :: Int  
9223372036854775807  
? maxBound :: Integer  
No instance for Bounded Integer
```

## 6.8 Enum

- the dot-dot notation is overloaded too

**class** *Enum* *a* **where**

```
succ, pred           :: a → a  
toEnum              :: Int → a  
fromEnum            :: a → Int  
enumFrom            :: a → [a]           -- [n..]  
enumFromThen        :: a → a → [a]       -- [n, n'..]  
enumFromTo          :: a → a → [a]       -- [n..m]  
enumFromThenTo :: a → a → a → [a] -- [n, n'..m]
```

- jolly useful for generating test data

```
? [Mon..Sun]  
[Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat, Sun]
```

## 6.8 Pretty printing

- converting data into textual representation: *pretty printing*

```
type ShowS = String → String
class Show a where
  show      :: a → String
  showsPrec :: Int → a → ShowS
  showList  :: [a] → ShowS
```

- for reasons of efficiency, *Show* uses the monoid  $(ShowS, id, \circ)$  instead of  $(String, [ ], ++)$
- Hughes' efficient representation of lists (more later)
- operator precedences can be taken into account
- for each type we can also decide how to format lists of elements of that type
- you almost always want to say **deriving**  $(Show)$

## 6.8 Parsing

- converting textual representation into data: *parsing*

```
type ReadS a = String → [ (a, String) ]
```

```
class Read a where
```

```
  readsPrec :: Int → ReadS a
```

```
  readList  :: ReadS [a]
```

- *Read* uses “list of successes” technique
- $read \circ show$  should be the identity

## 6.8 Deriving instances

- defining equality is tedious, can be derived automatically:

```
data Gender = Female | Male
deriving (Eq, Ord, Enum, Bounded, Show, Read)
```

- the compiler generates the ‘obvious’ code:
  - identity for *Eq*,
  - lexicographic ordering for *Ord* etc
- Bounded* and *Enum* only work for enumerations (*Bounded* also works for records of bounded types)
- deriving** works for parametric types too

```
data Tree a = Leaf a | Fork (Tree a) (Tree a)
deriving (Eq, Ord, Show, Read)
```



## 6.8 The mother of all numeric type classes

- Haskell offers an abundance of numeric types and type classes
- *Num* is the mother of these type classes

**class** (*Eq a, Show a*)  $\Rightarrow$  *Num a* **where**

*(+), (-), (\*)* :: *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*

*negate* :: *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*

*abs, signum* :: *a*  $\rightarrow$  *a*

*fromInteger* :: *Integer*  $\rightarrow$  *a*

*x - y* = *x + negate y*

*negate x* = *0 - x*

- numerals are overloaded too!
- 4711 is shorthand for *fromInteger* (4711 :: *Integer*)

## 6.9 Case study: monoids

- map-reduce builds on monoids
- why not define a class for monoids?

**class** *Monoid* *a* **where**

$\epsilon \quad :: a$

$(\bullet) :: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$

- we require  $\bullet$  to be associative with  $\epsilon$  as its neutral element
- the implementation of *mapReduce* simplifies to

*reduce* :: (*Monoid* *m*)  $\Rightarrow$  [*m*]  $\rightarrow$  *m*

*reduce* [ ] =  $\epsilon$

*reduce* (*x*:*xs*) = *x*  $\bullet$  *reduce* *xs*

*mapReduce* :: (*Monoid* *m*)  $\Rightarrow$  (*a*  $\rightarrow$  *m*)  $\rightarrow$  ([*a*]  $\rightarrow$  *m*)

*mapReduce* *f* = *reduce*  $\circ$  *map* *f*

- the monoid operations are now passed implicitly

## 6.9 Examples of monoids

- lists form a monoid

**instance** *Monoid* [ *a* ] **where**

$\epsilon = []$

$(\bullet) = (++)$

- for lists, *reduce* amounts to *concat*

? *reduce* [ [4, 7], [], [1], [1] ]

[4, 7, 1, 1]

- *problem*: *Int* gives rise to a monoid in at least four different ways—which one to pick?

**instance** *Monoid Integer* **where**

$\epsilon = 0$

$(\bullet) = (+)$

## 6.9 Examples of monoids—continued

- for the remaining instances we have to introduce new types

```
newtype Mul = M Integer
  deriving (Eq, Ord, Show, Read)
```

```
instance Monoid Mul where
```

```
  ε          = M 1
  M x • M y = M (x * y)
```

- newtype** is like **type** in that a new type is defined in terms of an old one; **newtype** is like **data** in that the type defined is unequal to all other types

```
? reduce [1..100]
5050
? reduce [M i | i ← [1..100]]
M 3628800
```

- note that we *can't* say  $4711 + M0815$

## 6.9 Cayley representation

- the list monoid is slow when `++` is nested to the left (cf first implementation of *reverse*)
- this is why the *Show* class uses the monoid  $(ShowS, id, \circ)$  instead of  $(String, [ ], ++)$

**instance** *Show Expr* where

*showsPrec* \_ (*Lit* i) = *shows* i

*showsPrec* d (*e1* :+ : *e2*) = *showParen* (d > 6)

(*showsPrec* 6 *e1*  $\circ$  *showsString* " + "  $\circ$  *showsPrec* 6 *e2*)

*showsPrec* d (*e1* :\* : *e2*) = *showParen* (d > 7)

(*showsPrec* 7 *e1*  $\circ$  *showsString* " \* "  $\circ$  *showsPrec* 7 *e2*)

- showsString* embeds a string into *ShowS*:

*showsString* :: *String*  $\rightarrow$  *ShowS*

*showsString* s = (s++)

## 6.9 Cayley representation—continued

- the list monoid can be made more efficient by turning it into a monoid of functions
- this trick works for an arbitrary monoid

**newtype** *Cayley m* = *C* (*m* → *m*)

**instance** *Monoid* (*Cayley m*) **where**

*ε* = *C id*

*C f* • *C g* = *C (f* ◦ *g)*

*toCayley*:: (*Monoid m*) ⇒ *m* → *Cayley m*

*toCayley a* = *C (a* • *)*

*fromCayley*:: (*Monoid m*) ⇒ *Cayley m* → *m*

*fromCayley (C f)* = *f* • *ε*

- for some monoids (*• a*) may be a better choice
- the idea is usually attributed to Hughes, 1986 (but actually, it first appeared in work by Cayley, 1854)
- (Cayley: every monoid is equivalent to a monoid of functions)

## 6.9 New monoids from old

- reversing a monoid

**newtype** *Reverse m = R m*

**instance** (*Monoid m*)  $\Rightarrow$  *Monoid (Reverse m)* **where**

$\epsilon = R \epsilon$

$R x \bullet R y = R (y \bullet x)$

*toReverse* :: *m*  $\rightarrow$  *Reverse m*

*toReverse* *x* = *R x*

*fromReverse* :: *Reverse m*  $\rightarrow$  *m*

*fromReverse* (*R x*) = *x*

- efficient reverse

*reverse* :: [*a*]  $\rightarrow$  [*a*]

*reverse* = *fromCayley*  $\circ$  *fromReverse*  $\circ$

*mapReduce* (*toReverse*  $\circ$  *toCayley*  $\circ$   $\lambda a \rightarrow [a]$ )

## 6.9 New monoids from old—continued

- product of monoids (computing in parallel)

**instance** (*Monoid* *m*, *Monoid* *n*)  $\Rightarrow$  *Monoid* (*m*, *n*) **where**  
 $\epsilon = (\epsilon, \epsilon)$   
 $(a, x) \bullet (b, y) = (a \bullet b, x \bullet y)$

- replacing a double traversal by a single traversal

*sumProduct* :: [*Integer*]  $\rightarrow$  (*Integer*, *Mul*)  
*sumProduct* = *mapReduce* ( $\lambda n \rightarrow (n, M\ n)$ )

- eg *sumProduct* [1..10] yields (55, *M* 3628800)



## 6.9 New monoids from old—continued

- semi-directed product of monoids

```

data Semi m n = S m n
class Homo m n where
    homo :: m → n → n
instance (Monoid m, Monoid n, Homo m n) ⇒
    Monoid (Semi m n) where
         $\epsilon$  = S  $\epsilon$   $\epsilon$ 
        S a x • S b y = S (a • b) (x • homo a y)
  
```

- we require *homo* a to be a curried *homomorphism*:  
*homo*  $\epsilon$  = *id* and *homo* (a • b) = *homo* a ◦ *homo* b, and  
*homo* a  $\epsilon$  =  $\epsilon$  and *homo* a (x • y) = *homo* a x • *homo* a y
- *exercise*: show that *Semi* m n is indeed a monoid
- *Homo* is a *multiple-parameter type class* (Haskell extension)

## 6.9 Application: evaluation of polynomials

- a polynomial can be represented by a list of coefficients eg

*p* :: Integer → Integer  
*p* (x) = 4 + 7 \* x + x ↑ 2 + x ↑ 3

is represented by [4, 7, 1, 1]

- parallel evaluation of polynomials:

**instance** *Homo Mul Integer* **where**  
*homo* (M a) x = a \* x  
*evaluate* :: Integer → [Integer] → *Semi Mul Integer*  
*evaluate* x = *mapReduce* (λa → S (M x) a)

- eg *evaluate* 2 [4, 7, 1, 1] yields S (M 16) 30, ie  
 S (M (2 ↑ 4), p (2))

## 6.10 Mapping functions

- the type of lists is the prime example of a *container type*
- *recall*: *map* applies a given function to each element of a list

$$\text{map} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \rightarrow [b])$$
$$\text{map } \_ [] = []$$
$$\text{map } f (x:xs) = f x : \text{map } f xs$$

- *map* changes the elements but keeps the structure intact
- *map* is also known as an *internal iterator*
- (external iterators correspond to lazy lists)

## 6.10 Examples of container types

- *Maybe* is also an example of a container type

**data** *Maybe a = Just a | Nothing*

- either an empty or a singleton container
- *Maybe* also supports a mapping function

*mapMaybe* ::  $(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (Maybe\ a \rightarrow Maybe\ b)$   
*mapMaybe* \_ *Nothing* = *Nothing*  
*mapMaybe* *f* (*Just a*) = *Just (f a)*

## 6.10 Examples of container types—continued

- map on binary trees

**data** *Btree* *a* = *Tip* *a* | *Bin* (*Btree* *a*) (*Btree* *a*)

*mapBtree* :: (*a* → *b*) → (*Btree* *a* → *Btree* *b*)

*mapBtree* *f* (*Tip* *a*) = *Tip* (*f* *a*)

*mapBtree* *f* (*Bin* *t* *u*) = *Bin* (*mapBtree* *f* *t*) (*mapBtree* *f* *u*)

- map on general trees

**data** *Gtree* *a* = *Branch* *a* [ *Gtree* *a* ]

*mapGtree* :: (*a* → *b*) → (*Gtree* *a* → *Gtree* *b*)

*mapGtree* *f* (*Branch* *x* *ts*) = *Branch* (*f* *x*) (*map* (*mapGtree* *f*) *ts*)

## 6.10 The functor class

- the types of the mapping functions are very similar

$map \quad \quad \quad :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow ([a] \quad \quad \rightarrow [b] \quad \quad)$   
 $mapMaybe :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (Maybe\ a \rightarrow Maybe\ b)$   
 $mapBtree \quad :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (Btree\ a \rightarrow Btree\ b)$   
 $mapGtree \quad :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (Gtree\ a \rightarrow Gtree\ b)$

- the functor class abstracts away from the container type

**class** *Functor* *f* **where**  
    *fmap* ::  $(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (f\ a \rightarrow f\ b)$

- note that *f* is a type constructor!
- Functor* is a so-called *constructor class*
- (*functor* is a term from category theory, purloined from Carnap's "Logische Sprache der Syntax")

## 6.10 Instances of the functor class

- every container type should be made an instance of the functor class

**instance** *Functor Maybe* **where**  
    *fmap* = *mapMaybe*

**instance** *Functor Btree* **where**  
    *fmap* = *mapBtree*

**instance** *Functor Gtree* **where**  
    *fmap* = *mapGtree*

- exercise*: three occurrences of *fmap*; which is which?

**instance** *Functor Gtree* **where**  
    *fmap* *f* (*Branch* *x* *ts*) = *Branch* (*f* *x*) (*fmap* (*fmap* *f*) *ts*)

## 6.11 Abstraction, abstraction, abstraction

- question: what are the three most important concepts in programming?
- answer: abstraction, abstraction, abstraction!
- type classes allow you to capture commonalities across datatypes
- type classes make ad-hoc polymorphism less ad-hoc
- overloaded functions implement a family of algorithms
- classes are most useful if the type uniquely determines the instance (example: functor, counterexample: monoid)



## Part 7

# Monads

## 7.0 Outline

**Separation of Church and state**

**The monad interface**

**Do notation**

**Case study: Haskinator**

**Advanced: monad laws**

**Define your own monad**

**The monad type class**

**Summary**

## 7.1 Separation of Church and state

- a pure functional language such as Haskell is *referentially transparent*
- expressions do not have side-effects
- remember: the sole purpose of an expression is to denote a value
- but what about state-changing computations (eg printing to the console or writing to the file system?)
- how to incorporate these into Haskell?

## 7.1 Gedankenexperiment

- imagine you are a language designer
- how would you incorporate an outputting computation?

*putStr* :: *String* → ()

- what's the value and what's the effect of

**let** *x* = *putStr* "ha" **in** [*x*, *x*]

- and of this one?

[*putStr* "ha", *putStr* "ha" ]

- if we noticed different effects, then we would no longer be able to replace equals by equals!

## 7.1 Monadic IO

- *idea*: *putStr "ha"* has *no* effect at all
- introduce a new type of IO computations

*putStr* :: *String* → *IO* ()

- *IO a* is type of computation that may do IO, then returns an element of type *a*
- *IO a* can be seen as the type of a *todo list*
- todo list vs actually doing something
- recording an IO computation vs executing an IO computation
- *IO* is a *monad* (more later)
- *main* has type *IO* ()
- *only* the todo list that is bound to *main* is executed

## 7.1 Interpreting strings

- if evaluator evaluates non-monadic type, prints value; otherwise, performs computation
- strings as values get displayed as strings:

```
? "Hello,\nWorld"  
"Hello,\nWorld"
```

- *putStr* turns a string into an outputting computation:

```
? putStr "Hello,\nWorld"  
Hello,  
World
```

## 7.2 The monad interface

- *IO a* is an abstract datatype of IO computations
- *return* turns a value into an IO computation that has no effect

*return* :: *a* → *IO a*

- *m* >> *n* first executes *m* and then *n*

(>>) :: *IO a* → *IO b* → *IO b*

- *m* >>= *n* additionally feeds the result of the first computation into the second

(>>=) :: *IO a* → (*a* → *IO b*) → *IO b*

- every monad supports these three operations
- every monad also supports additional effect-specific operations eg

*putStr* :: *String* → *IO ()*

*getLine* :: *IO String*

## 7.2 Example

- a simple interactive program

```
welcome :: IO ()  
welcome  
  = putStr "Please enter your name.\n" >>  
    getLine >=> \s →  
    putStr ("Welcome " ++ s ++ "!\n")
```

- remember:  $\lambda s \rightarrow \dots$  is an anonymous function



## 7.2 IO computations as first-class citizens

- we can freely mix IO computations with, say, lists

```
main :: IO ()  
main = sequence [ print i | i ← [0..9] ]
```

- don't forget the list design pattern

```
sequence :: [ IO () ] → IO ()  
sequence [ ]      = return ()  
sequence (a : as) = a >> sequence as
```

(the predefined version of *sequence* is more general)

- IO computations are first-class citizens!
- Haskell is the world's finest imperative language!

## 7.2 More IO operations

```
print    :: (Show a) ⇒ a → IO ()  
readLn :: (Read a) ⇒ IO a
```

```
putChar :: Char → IO ()  
getChar :: IO Char
```

```
type FilePath = String  
writeFile :: FilePath → String → IO ()  
readFile  :: FilePath → IO String
```

```
data StdGen = ...           -- standard random generator  
class Random where ...    -- randomly generatable  
randomR :: (Random a) ⇒ (a, a) → StdGen → (a, StdGen)  
getStdRandom :: (StdGen → (a, StdGen)) → IO a
```

and many more ...

## 7.3 Do notation

Special syntactic sugar for monadic expressions.  
Inspired by (in fact, a generalization of) list comprehensions.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{do} \{ m \} &= m \\ \mathbf{do} \{ x \leftarrow m; ms \} &= m \gg= \lambda x \rightarrow \mathbf{do} \{ ms \} \\ \mathbf{do} \{ m; ms \} &= m \gg= \lambda _ \rightarrow \mathbf{do} \{ ms \}\end{aligned}$$

where  $a$  can appear free in  $ms$ .

$$x \leftarrow m$$

Pronounce “ $x$  is drawn from  $m$ ”. Note that  $m$  has type  $IO\ a$ ,  
whereas  $x$  has type  $a$ .

## 7.3 Character I/O

```
putStr, putStrLn :: String → IO ()  
putStr ""      = do { return () }  
putStr (c : s) = do { putChar c; putStr s }  
putStrLn s    = do { putStr s; putChar '\n' }  
  
getLine' :: IO String  
getLine' = do c ← getChar  
           if c == '\n' then return ""  
           else do s ← getLine'  
                 return (c : s)
```

## 7.3 File I/O

```
processFile :: FilePath → (String → String) → FilePath → IO ()  
processFile inFile f outFile  
  = do s ← readFile inFile  
      let s' = f s  
      writeFile outFile s'
```

## 7.3 Random numbers

```
import System.Random
```

```
rollDice :: IO Int
```

```
rollDice = getStdRandom (randomR (1,6))
```

```
rollThrice :: IO Int
```

```
rollThrice = do x ← rollDice  
               y ← rollDice  
               z ← rollDice  
               return (x + y + z)
```

```

Jcccc,          ,d$$$b,
J$$$$$c         ,d$$$$$,
$$$$$$$$$c, ,c$$$P$$$$,
J$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$3$$$$,
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$F$$$$$c=
J$$$$$$$$$$$$$?$$$$$F  ""
      zcd$$$$$$$$$$$$$Fb3$$$"
      ,c=cc$$$$$$$$$$$$$?$$$c
      ,z$" '$$$$$$$$$?$.?$$$b
      d$$",d$$c$$$$$$$P" ?$Fd$$$
      ,$$,dP" "$$$$$$$$$$c '$$$$$$r
      z$$$$P"=$c $$$$$P""?$, $$$$$$
      ., ,ccc, ,4$$$$$' '$ $$$$"-cc $$, $$$$$$
      ,c$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ , ,d$, $P $FJ$$$$$$$E3F
      ,$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$L"$'$ $$$ ,zd$$ $$$$$$$$??-
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$P""??c$$$ $F, $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ccc, .
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$P d$$$$bc3$$$$bc, cd$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$bc.
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$F: $$$$$$$$$P? $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$b.
      '$$$$$$$$$$$$b. ?$$$$$$$$$c" $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$c
      ?$$$$$$$$$ c, ?$$$$$$$$$, $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$h
      '$$$$$$$$$$ "d$$$cc, , ,c $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$F
      ' ?$$$$$$$$$z$$$$$$$$$$$$$ $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$F
      ?$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$P"
      $$$$$$$$?$$$$$$$'d$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$F', cccccc, ""
      '$$$$$$F "$$P$P, $$$$$$$$$$$$$$P", $$$$$$$$$$$$$$bc.
      $$$$$$P$$$$$ $b$$$$$$$$$$$$$P?", $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$c
      ' $$$$$$, "???", $$$$$$$$$$$$$$CCh$' J$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$b.
      , , , , ,
      ,c$$$$$$$$$c, $ $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$'d$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$c
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$ $ ?$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$'c$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$ $L '$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$, $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$ $$, '$$$$$$$$$$FL$$$$$$$$$$$$$L$ $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$ $c, ?$$$P"l$ $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$, '$$$$cccd$$$$$? $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$$$$$$$$$$ ?$$$$$$$$$$$$$, $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$$) $$$$$$$$$$, "$$$$$$P", c$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
      $$$$$FJ$$$$$$$$$$$b, , , , , d$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$

```

## 7.4 Case study: Haskinator

Think about a real or fictional character ... I will try to guess who it is.

*iGuessTheCelebrity :: IO ()*

Think of number between *l* and *r* ... I will try to guess the number.

*iGuessTheNumber :: Integer → Integer → IO ()*



## 7.4 A game tree

*Goal:* separate the game logic from the underlying data.

```
data Tree a b = Tip a | Node b (Tree a b) (Tree a b)
deriving (Show)
```

The type is parametric in the type of labels of external nodes (ie tips) and in the type of labels of internal nodes.

```
bimap :: (a1 → a2) → (b1 → b2) → (Tree a1 b1 → Tree a2 b2)
bimap f _ (Tip a)      = Tip (f a)
bimap f g (Node b l r) = Node (g b) (bimap f g l) (bimap f g r)
```

The function *bimap* is a binary variant of *fmap*.

## 7.4 The game logic

*guess* :: *Tree String String* → *IO ()*

*guess* (*Tip s*)

  = *putStrLn s*

*guess* (*Node q l r*)

  = **do** *b* ← *yesOrNo q*

**if** *b* **then**

*guess l*

**else**

*guess r*

*yesOrNo* :: *String* → *IO Bool*

*yesOrNo question*

  = **do** *putStrLn question*

*answer* ← *getLine*

*return (elem (map toLower answer) [ "y", "yes" ])*

## 7.4 I guess the celebrity

```
iGuessTheCelebrity  
  = do putStrLn ("Think of a celebrity.")  
      guess (bimap ( $\lambda s \rightarrow s ++ "!"$ ) ( $\lambda q \rightarrow q ++ "?"$ ) celebrity)
```

```
celebrity:: Tree String String  
celebrity  
  = Node "Female"  
    (Node "Actress"  
      (Tip "Angelina Jolie")  
      (Tip "Adele"))  
    (Node "Actor"  
      (Tip "Brad Pitt")  
      (Tip "Steve Hackett"))
```

## 7.4 I guess the number

```

iGuessTheNumber l r
  = do putStrLn ("Think of number between " ++
                show l ++ " and " ++ show r ++ ".")
      guess (bimap (\n → show n ++ "!")
                  (\m → "<= " ++ show m ++ "?"))
            (nest l r)

```

```

nest :: Integer → Integer → Tree Integer Integer
nest l r
  | l == r      = Tip l
  | otherwise = Node m (nest l m) (nest (m + 1) r)
where m = (l + r) 'div' 2

```

## 7.5 Composition of effectful functions

- pure functions can be chained with function composition ◦
- effectful functions can be chained with

$$\begin{aligned}(\odot) &:: (b \rightarrow IO\ c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO\ b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO\ c) \\ (f \odot g)\ x &= g\ x \gg= f\end{aligned}$$

- turning a pure into an effectful function

$$\begin{aligned}lift &:: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO\ b) \\ lift\ f\ x &= return\ (f\ x)\end{aligned}$$

- example

$$\begin{aligned}processFile &:: FilePath \rightarrow (String \rightarrow String) \rightarrow FilePath \rightarrow IO\ () \\ processFile\ outFile\ f \\ &= writeFile\ outFile\ \odot\ lift\ f\ \odot\ readFile\end{aligned}$$

## 7.5 Monad laws

*IO* is a monad because it satisfies the monad laws (expressed in terms of *return* and  $\odot$ ):

$$f \odot \text{return} = f$$

$$\text{return} \odot f = f$$

$$f \odot (g \odot h) = (f \odot g) \odot h$$

(so monads are intimately related to monoids)

## 7.6 Define your own monad

- *IO* is a *monad*
- monads form *an abstract datatype of computations*.
- computations in general may have *effects*: I/O, exceptions, mutable state, etc.
- monads are a mechanism for cleanly incorporating such impure features in a pure setting
- other monads encapsulate exceptions, state, non-determinism, etc
- the following slides motivate the need for a general notion of computation

## 7.6 An evaluator

Here's a simple datatype of terms:

```
data Expr = Lit Integer | Div Expr Expr  
  deriving (Show)
```

```
good, bad :: Expr
```

```
good = Div (Lit 7) (Div (Lit 4) (Lit 2))
```

```
bad  = Div (Lit 7) (Div (Lit 2) (Lit 4))
```

... and an evaluation function:

```
eval :: Expr → Integer
```

```
eval (Lit n)    = n
```

```
eval (Div x y) = eval x 'div' eval y
```



## 7.6 Exceptions

Evaluation may fail, because of division by zero.  
Let's handle the exceptional behaviour:

```
data Exc a = Raise Exception | Result a
type Exception = String

evalE :: Expr → Exc Integer
evalE (Lit n)    = Result n
evalE (Div x y) =
  case evalE x of
    Raise e → Raise e
    Result u → case evalE y of
      Raise e → Raise e
      Result v →
        if v == 0 then Raise "division by zero"
        else Result (u `div` v)
```

## 7.6 Counting

We could instrument the evaluator to count evaluation steps:

```
newtype Counter a = C (State → (a, State))  
type State = Int  
run :: Counter a → State → (a, State)  
run (C f) = f  
  
evalC :: Expr → Counter Integer  
evalC (Lit n)    = C (λi → (n, i + 1))  
evalC (Div x y) = C (λi →  
    let (u, i') = run (evalC x) (i + 1)  
        (v, i'') = run (evalC y) i'  
    in (u 'div' v, i''))
```

## 7.6 Tracing

...or to trace the evaluation steps:

```
newtype Trace a = T (Output, a)
type Output = String
```

```
evalT :: Expr → Trace Integer
evalT (Lit n)    = T (line (Lit n) n, n)
evalT (Div x y) = let
    T (s, u) = evalT x
    T (s', v) = evalT y
    p = u 'div' v
in T (s ++ s' ++ line (Div x y) p, p)
```

```
line :: Expr → Integer → Output
line t n = "    " ++ show t ++ " yields " ++ show n ++ "\n"
```

## 7.6 Ugly!

- none of these extensions is difficult
- but each is rather awkward, and obscures the previously clear structure
- how can we simplify the presentation?
- what do they have in common?

## 7.7 The monad type class

These are the methods of a type class:

```
class Monad m where  
  return :: a → m a  
  (>>)    :: m a → m b → m b  
  (>>=)   :: m a → (a → m b) → m b  
  m >> n = m >>= λ_ → n
```

We can also use **do**-notation for *Monad* instances.

## 7.7 Original evaluator, monadically

```
evalM :: (Monad m) => Expr -> m Integer  
evalM (Lit n)    = return n  
evalM (Div x y) = evalM x >>= \u ->  
                  evalM y >>= \v ->  
                  return (u 'div' v)
```

Still pure, but written in the monadic style; much easier to extend.

## 7.7 Original evaluator, using **do** notation

```
evalM :: (Monad m) ⇒ Expr → m Integer  
evalM (Lit n)    = do return n  
evalM (Div x y) = do u ← evalM x  
                   v ← evalM y  
                   return (u 'div' v)
```

## 7.7 The exception instance

Exceptions instantiate the class:

```
data Exc a = Raise Exception | Result a
```

```
instance Monad Exc where
```

```
  return a      = Result a
```

```
  Raise e >>= _ = Raise e
```

```
  Result a >>= f = f a
```

The effect-specific behaviour is to throw an exception:

```
throw :: Exception → Exc e
```

```
throw e = Raise e
```



## 7.7 Exceptional evaluator, monadically

```
evalE :: Expr → Exc Integer  
evalE (Lit n)    = do return n  
evalE (Div x y) = do u ← evalE x  
                      v ← evalE y  
                      if v == 0 then throw "division by zero"  
                      else return (u 'div' v)
```

## 7.7 The counter instance

Counters instantiate the class:

```
newtype Counter a = C (State → (a, State))
```

```
instance Monad Counter where
```

```
  return a = C (λn → (a, n))
```

```
  ma  $\gg=$  f = C (λn → let (a, n') = run ma n in run (f a) n')
```

The effect-specific behaviour is to increment the count:

```
tick :: Counter ()
```

```
tick = C (λn → ((), n + 1))
```

## 7.7 Counting evaluator, monadically

*evalC* :: *Expr* → *Counter Integer*

*evalC* (*Lit* *n*) = **do** *tick*

*return* *n*

*evalC* (*Div* *x* *y*) = **do** *tick*

*u* ← *evalC* *x*

*v* ← *evalC* *y*

*return* (*u* 'div' *v*)

## 7.7 The tracing instance

Tracers instantiate the class:

```
newtype Trace a = T (Output, a)
```

```
instance Monad Trace where
```

```
  return a      = T (" ", a)
```

```
  T (s, a)  $\gg=$  f = let T (s', b) = f a in T (s ++ s', b)
```

The effect-specific behaviour is to log some output:

```
trace :: String → Trace ()
```

```
trace s = T (s, ())
```

## 7.7 Tracing evaluator, monadically

```
evalT :: Expr → Trace Integer  
evalT (Lit n)    = do trace (line (Lit n) n)  
                  return n  
evalT (Div x y) = do u ← evalT x  
                  v ← evalT y  
                  let p = u 'div' v  
                  trace (line (Div x y) p)  
                  return p
```

## 7.7 The IO monad

- There's no magic to monads in general: all the monads above are just plain (perhaps higher-order) data, implementing a particular interface.
- But there is one magic monad: the *IO* monad. Its implementation is abstract, hard-wired in the language implementation.

```
data IO a = ...  
instance Monad IO where ...
```

## 7.8 Abstraction, abstraction, abstraction

- question: what are the three most important concepts in programming?
- answer: abstraction, abstraction, abstraction!
- monads allow you to abstract over patterns of computations (effects)
- Haskell allows you to implement your own computational effect or combination of effects (how cool is this?)
- IO computations are first-class values!
- in general, try to minimize the IO part of your program