# Lab 8

# Advanced Functional Programming with Haskell and Standard ML

## Goals

In this lab you will learn to:

- 1. Transition from Elm to using Haskell and SML
- 2. Understand the key differences between Elm, Haskell and SML
- 3. Use the unique features of Haskell and SML

## Resources

Table 8.1: Haskell Resources		
Resource	Link	
Learn you a Haskell	http://learnyouahaskell.com/chapters	
Haskell base library	https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.14.0.0	
Haskell Data.List module	https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.14.0.0/docs/Data-List.html	
Haskell Data.Maybe module	https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.14.0.0/docs/Data-Maybe.html	
Haskell Data.String module	https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.14.0.0/docs/Data-String.html	

	Table 8.2: SML Resources	
Resource	Link	
Programming in Standard ML	http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~rwh/isml/book.pdf	
Standard ML Basis library	https://smlfamily.github.io/Basis/overview.html	
Standard ML List structure	https://smlfamily.github.io/Basis/list.html	
Standard ML ${\tt Option}$ structure	https://smlfamily.github.io/Basis/option.html	
Standard ML String structure	https://smlfamily.github.io/Basis/string.html	

## **Preparations**

Skim lectures #1 to #6 for quick recap of Haskell and SML syntax and features. Try to identify features of Haskell and SML that are not present in Elm.

## 8.1 Meet Standard ML

Standard ML is considered to be one of the first modern Functional Programming languages and influenced the design of the majority of modern Functional Programming languages available today, including Haskell, Elm, F#, Scala, OCaml and other modern languages like Swift and Rust.

One of the most unique aspects of Standard ML is that its semantics are *formally specified* and verified, which is a major advantage for writing theorem provers, compilers and formal verification programs.

A variety of implementations are available and are still maintained, including Standard ML of New Jersey, PolyML, MLTon and SML#. Newer implementations include WebML and SOSML.

From a pure Functional Programming point of view its main disadvantages are that it supports mutable references and exceptions.

#### 8.2 Meet Haskell

Haskell is often considered a research experiment that escaped the labs: it was mainly designed for teaching and language design research, which is very clearly reflected in their motto:

Avoid success at all costs!

Despite all this, it still gained enough popularity to become an industry-strength language, used by companies like Facebook and Microsoft.

Its main unique feature is *lazy evaluation* and it pioneered *type classes* (type-safe function overloading).

The main Haskell implementation today is the Glasgow Haskell Compiler (GHC), which also includes numerous (optional) language extensions to the Haskell 2010 standard.

As a note, Elm's design was inspired by Haskell, so Haskell's syntax should seem familiar.

## 8.3 Modules in Haskell

#### Question 8.3.1

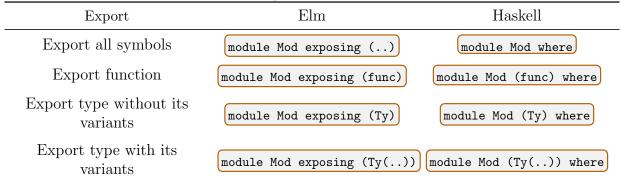
Open the Date.elm file from the 3rd lab and Date.hs.

How many differences can you spot?

## 8.3.1 Exports in Haskell

Exports in Haskell work exactly as in Elm, with a minor syntax difference: instead of the exposing keyword we use where and place it after the list.

Table 8.3: Exports in Elm and Haskell



## 8.3.2 Imports in Haskell

Table 8.4: Imports in Elm and Haskell

	<u>r</u> - <u>r</u>	
Import	Elm	Haskell
Import all symbols	<pre>import Mod exposing ()</pre>	import Mod
Open import	import Mod	import qualified Mod
Qualified import	import Mod as M	import qualified Mod as M
Globally import a type without its variants	import Mod exposing (Ty)	import Mod (Ty)
Globally import a type with its variants	<pre>import Mod exposing (Ty())</pre>	import Mod (Ty())
Globally import a function	import Mod exposing (func)	import Mod (func)
Import all except a type or function	N/A	import Mod hiding (Ty, func)

## 8.3.3 Loading modules in GHCi (Haskell REPL)

```
Prelude> :1 Date.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Date (Date.hs, interpreted)
Ok, one module loaded.
*Date>
```



#### Note 8.3.1

When loading modules in the GHCi, visibility rules are **ignored** (i.e. all definitions are visible in the REPL)!



#### Note 8.3.2

When loading a module GHCi will also load all of its dependencies (imported modules) automatically.

#### 8.4 Local declarations in Haskell with where

Besides let ... in, Haskell also has the where keyword for local declarations that are written after an expression:

```
Listing 8.4.1: Local declarations using where

double a = d where d = a * a

heron a b c = sqrt (s * (s - a) * (s - b) * (s - c)) where
    s = (a + b + c) / 2

quadruple a = q where
    d = a * a
    q = d * d
```

## 8.5 Patterns in Haskell

Lets consider the (inefficient) Fibonacci function, first written using only if expressions:

We can also rewrite it using case expressions:

#### 8.5.1 Patterns in function definitions

## Concept 8.5.1: Refutable and irrefutable patterns

Refutable - patterns that can fail to match (variants of a union type, literals). Irrefutable - patterns that always match (record fields, data from a type with a single constructor, wildcard patterns, bindings).

Both of the previous methods were also available in Elm, but in Haskell we can also write function definitions with refutable patterns:

You can think of this as writing the **case** expression directly in the function definition. This also works for multiple parameters:

```
Listing 8.5.4 of Patterns.hs (safeDiv)

Haskell code

| SafeDiv _ 0 = Nothing | SafeDiv num d = Just (div num d)
```

## 8.5.2 Partially-defined functions

By allowing refutable patterns in function definitions and not checking for exhaustiveness, Haskell allows partially defined functions.

```
Listing 8.5.5 of Patterns.hs (partialHead)

Haskell code

109 | partialHead (x:_) = x
```

```
Haskell REPL

> :1 Patterns.hs

> partialHead [1, 2,3]

1

> partialHead []

*** Exception: <interactive>:1:1-21: Non-exhaustive patterns in function partialHead
```



#### Note 8.5.1: Rules for pattern matching and destructuring in Haskell

Variable names must be unique in pattern bindings! The order of patterns is important!

- $\rightarrow$  The patterns are checked from top to bottom, until one pattern matches and that branch is chosen.
- $\rightarrow$  By default, Haskell won't warn you for redundant patterns!

By default, Haskell does not check for exhaustiveness! If no pattern matches you will get a runtime exception.

## 8.5.3 Pattern guards

In Haskell we also have *pattern guards*: expressions that can further refine pattern matching results.

Consider the **takeWhile** function, written with the pattern integrated into the function definition:

```
Listing 8.5.6 of Patterns.hs (takeWhile)
                                                                           Haskell code
   takeWhile :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
42
43
   takeWhile _ [] = []
   takeWhile p (x:xs) =
44
45
     if p x then
46
       x : takeWhile p xs
47
     else
48
```

We can use pattern guards to also skip the **if** expression, making the code even shorter:

```
Listing 8.5.7 of Patterns.hs (takeWhileGuard)

62  | takeWhileGuard :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]

63  | takeWhileGuard _ [] = []

64  | takeWhileGuard p (x:xs)

65  | p x = x : takeWhile p xs

66  | otherwise = []
```

Pattern guards may also be used with the patterns of case expressions:

```
Listing 8.5.8 of Patterns.hs (checkDiv)

78 | checkDiv num d = 
79 | case safeDiv num d of 
80 | Nothing -> "Div by 0!" 
81 | Just res 
82 | | res == 0 -> "Smaller" 
83 | | otherwise -> "Equal or Greater"
```

# 

#### Note 8.5.2: Rules for pattern guards

There are 2 main rules for pattern guards:

- 1. We use (otherwise) as the wildcard ("catch-all") pattern.
  - → By default, guards aren't checked for exhaustiveness either, so if no guard matches you will get a runtime exception.
- 2. The guard refinements are part of the patterns!
  - → In the case of function definitions, we don't place the ⓐ after the line with the function definition, but after each guard.
  - → In the case of case expressions, we don't place the → after the pattern, but after each guard.

#### Question 8.5.1

Is otherwise a language keyword? If not what is it?

## 8.6 List comprehensions and ranges in Haskell

#### **8.6.1** Ranges

Haskell also has ranges which, as the name suggests, can be used to represent a range of values.

For example, we can enumerate all integers between 1 and 10:

```
Haskell REPL > [1..10] [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

We can also enumerate every second number between 0 and 15:

```
Haskell REPL
> [0,2..15]
[0,2,4,6,8,10,12,14]
```

This happens by specifying the first element, the second element according to the a rule you would like and final element.



#### Note 8.6.1

You can only specify rules that take into consideration the first 2 elements. So if you tried to obtain the powers of 2 with the following code it wouldn't compile: [1, 2, 4..100]

## 8.6.2 List comprehensions

The other powerful feature for working with lists in Haskell are *list comprehensions*: concise syntax for filtering and transforming lists.

For example consider the (filter) and (map) functions written using list comprehensions:

We can identity 3 important components of a list comprehension:

```
[map\_fn \mid generator_1, \dots, generator_n, filter\_exp_1, \dots, filter\_exp_n]
```

- 1. The expression that is used to create the elements of the list:  $map_{-}fn$
- 2. Generators: the expression that is used to draw items that will be used:

```
generator_1, \ldots, generator_n
```

where  $generator_i$  has the form  $binding_i \leftarrow generator_i$ 

3. Guards: expressions used to filter the generated items:

$$filter\_exp_1, \dots, filter\_exp_n$$

where each  $filter_exp_i$  expression returns value of type (Bool)

List comprehensions are not limited to only one list! We can implement the cartesian product of 2 lists using list comprehensions in a very concise way:

```
Listing 8.6.2 of Lists.hs (cartesianComp)

Haskell code

12 | cartesianComp lx ly = [(x, y) | x <- lx, y <- ly]
```

```
Haskell REPL

> :l Lists.hs
> cartesianComp [1..3] ['a'...'c']
[(1,'a'),(1,'b'),(1,'c'),(2,'a'),(2,'b'),(2,'c'),(3,'a'),(3,'b'),(3,'c')]
```

## 8.7 Syntax sugar in Haskell

## 8.7.1 Infix Operators

In Haskell we can also define infix operators. Let's define an operator ??? for the Maybe.withDefault function in Elm which is fromMaybe in Haskell:

```
Listing 8.7.1 of Sugar.hs (??)

4 | infixl 3 ??
5 | (Just x) ?? _ = x
7 | _ ?? def = def
```

First we declare the operator is infix and left associative with the (infix) keyword and its precedence (3). Then we can write the normal function definition.

## 8.7.2 Infix call syntax

In Haskell we can call function that take 2 arguments with a special *infix call syntax*, by putting the name of the function between backticks (the `symbol, to the left of 1 on your keyboard):

```
Haskell REPL

> div 10 2

5

> 10 'div' 2

5
```

#### 8.7.3 Sections

In Haskell infix operators may also be partially applied, which are called sections:

```
Haskell REPL

> map (+1) [1..10]
[2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11]

> filter (<4) [1..10]
[1, 2, 3]
```

## 8.8 Arbitrary precision integers

To define the non-tail recursive factorial function in GHCi, we need to write it between :{ and :} since it is a multiline function.

```
Haskell REPL

Prelude> :{
  Prelude| fact 0 = 1
  Prelude| fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
  Prelude| :}
```

Because Haskell has arbitrary precision integers, the only limiting factor for our computations is time and memory:

Haskell REPL

Prelude> fact 1000 

#### Exercise 8.8.1

Test in GHCi: (fact 10000) and (fact 100000). What takes longer, calculating the number or printing all of its digits?

## 8.9 Function and value declarations in SML

To declare a constant in SML we can use the val keyword:

```
Listing 8.9.1: Declarations in SML code

val x: int = 2;
```

To declare a curried function we can use the fun keyword:

```
Listing 8.9.2: Declarations in SML

fun factAcc (acc: int) (n: int): int =
   if n = 0 then
      acc
   else
      factAcc (n*acc) (n-1);
```

As you can see, in SML type annotations are embedded in the declarations of the function. But SML also has type inference so you might skip them alltogether:

```
Listing 8.9.3: Declarations in SML

fun factAcc acc n =
    if n = 0 then
        acc
    else
        factAcc (n*acc) (n-1);
```

Or even annotate your function partially:

```
Listing 8.9.4: Declarations in SML

fun factAcc acc n: int =
    if n = 0 then
        acc
    else
        factAcc (n*acc) (n-1);
```

## 8.9.1 Lambda expressions

To declare a lambda expression we use the fn keyword:

```
SML REPL
- List.map (fn x => x + 1) [1, 2, 3];
val it = [2, 3, 4]: int List.list;
```

# 8.10 Types in SML

In SML type variables are prefixed with the 'character and are in front of the generic types:

```
Listing 8.10.1: Type variables in SML

fun len (1: 'a list): int =
   if 1 = [] then
    0
   else
    1 + len (tl 1)
```

## 8.11 Patterns in SML

#### 8.11.1 case expressions

In SML patterns in case expressions are separated by vertical bars |:

```
Listing 8.11.1: case expression in SML

fun take (n: int) (1: 'a list): 'a list =
   if n <= 0 then
    []
   else
     case 1 of
     [] => []
     | x::xs => x :: take (n - 1) xs;
```

#### 8.11.2 Patterns in function definitions

Similar to Haskell, we can also use patterns in function definitions:

```
Listing 8.11.2: Patterns in function definitions

fun take _ [] = []
    | take n (x::xs) =
        if n <= 0 then
        []
    else
        x :: take (n - 1) xs;

fun fib 0 = 0
    | fib 1 = 1
    | fib n = fib (n-1) + fib (n-2);</pre>
```

#### Note 8.11.1

In SML vertical bars are used to separate patterns, not as pattern guards!

## 8.11.3 Patterns in lambda expressions

```
Listing 8.11.3: case expression in SML

fun emptyOrLen2Lists ls =
List.filter (fn [] => true | [_, _] => true | _ => false) ls;
```

#### 8.11.4 Partial functions in SML

Standard ML also allows the definition of partial functions, but it will issue a warning for non-exhaustive patterns.

## 8.12 Local declarations in SML

## 8.12.1 let ... in ... end expressions

let ... in ... end expressions work exactly as they do in Elm and Haskell, with the syntactical difference that we also have the end keyword:

```
Listing 8.12.1: let ... in expressions

fun fibTail n =
   let
   fun helper f1 f2 0 = f1
        | helper f1 f2 n = helper f2 (f1+f2) (n-1);
   in
        helper 0 1 n
   end;
```

## 8.12.2 local ... in ... end expressions

local ... in ... end expressions allow to define local, helper functions before they're used:

# 

#### Note 8.12.1

In the declaration part (between let and in and local and in) all values and functions must be declared by using the val or fun keywords as appropriate!

Don't forget the end keyword!

# 8.13 Review questions

#### Question 8.13.1

Enumerate:

- 2 differences between Elm and Haskell
- 2 features of Haskell that are not present in SML
- 2 features of SML that are not present in Haskell

## 8.14 Practice problems

#### 8.14.1 Haskell

#### Exercise 8.14.1

Rewrite the <u>sudan</u> function from lab 1 using <u>where</u> in Haskell. The definition is repeated here for your convenience:

$$S(n, x, y) = \begin{cases} x + y & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x & \text{if } n > 0 \text{ and } y = 0 \\ S(n - 1, S(n, x, y - 1), y + S(n, x, y - 1)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Hint:

Try to find a function that is called twice with the same parameters.

#### Exercise 8.14.2

Define an infix operator called (12) in Haskell, which implements the logical function nand (not and):

$$x \ nand \ y = \begin{cases} false & \text{if } x=y=\text{true} \\ true & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Exercise 8.14.3

Implement the safeHead :: [a] -> Maybe a and safeTail :: [a] -> Maybe [a] functions in Haskell which return Nothing if the list is empty and the result wrapped in Just if it isn't empty.

```
Haskell REPL

> safeHead []

Nothing
> safeHead [1, 2]

Just 1
> safeTail []

Nothing
> safeTail [1, 2]

Just [2]
```

#### Exercise 8 14 4

Write a function called <a>average</a> :: [Int] -> Float, which calculates the average of a list of integers.

```
Haskell REPL > average [1..10] 5.5
```

#### Hint:

- 1. Check the signature of the (/) operator using the (:t (/) command in GHCi
- 2. Use the [fromIntegral] function to convert [Int]s to [Float]s

#### Exercise 8.14.5

Write a function called **countVowels** which counts the number of vowels in a string:

```
Haskell REPL

> countVowels "lalala"
3
> countVowels "psst"
0
```

#### Exercise 8.14.6

Write a function called addBigs which adds two big numbers given as lists of digits. E.g.:

```
Haskell REPL > addBigs [1,3,9] [2,2,2] [3,6,1]
```

#### Exercise 8.14.7

To format the result of **fact 1000** in LaTeX, I had to break the number up in groups of 80 digits.

Write a function (breakToLines lineLen str) with the signature (breakToLines :: Int -> String -> [String]) that takes a string as input an returns a list of strings which have length at most lineLen characters.

```
Haskell REPL

Prelude> breakToLines 5 (show (fact 20))
["24329","02008","17664","0000"]
```

Use the (show function to turn the result of (fact 1000) into a string and write a function (formatLines :: [String] -> String) that takes a list of string, places a newline character between each string and concatenates the list into one string.

```
Prelude> formatLines ["First", "Second"]
"First\nSecond"
```

#### 8.14.2 SML

#### Exercise 8.14.8

Write a function called **countChar** which counts how many times a given string contains a character. E.g.:

```
SML REPL
- countChar #"a" "lalala";
val it = 3 : int;
- countChar #"a" "hey";
val it = 0 : int;
```

#### Exercise 8.14.9

Write a function called [addBigs] which adds two big numbers given as lists of digits. E.g.:

```
SML REPL
- addBigs [1,3,9] [2,2,2];
[3,6,1]
```

#### Exercise 8.14.10

\*\*\*

Write a function called **toposort** which topologically sorts a dag given as parameter. E.g.:

```
SML REPL

- val dag = [("a","b"),("b","d"),("d","f"), ("a","c"),("c","e"),("e","f")];

- toposort dag;

val it = ["a","c","e","b","d","f"] : string list;
```