

Assignment Project Exam Help

COMP9141

Software System Design and Implementation

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Induction, Data Types and Type Classes Practice

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Product Types

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```
data Point = Point Float Float
    deriving (Show, Eq)
```

```
data Vector = Vector Float Float
    deriving (Show, Eq)
```

```
movePoint :: Point -> Vector -> Point
movePoint (Point x y) (Vector dx dy)
    = Point (x + dx) (y + dy)
```

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Records

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```
data Colour = Colour { redC      :: Int
                      , greenC    :: Int
                      , blueC     :: Int
                      , opacityC  :: Int
                      } deriving (Show, Eq)
```

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Sum Types

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```
data LineStyle = Solid
```

```
              | Dashed
```

```
              | Dotted
```

```
              deriving (Show, Eq)
```

```
data FillStyle = SolidFill | NoFill
```

```
              deriving (Show, Eq)
```

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Constructors

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Constructors are how an value of a particular type is created.

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

```
data Int = .. | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | ..
```

```
data Char = 'a' | 'b' | 'c' | 'd' | 'e' | ..
```

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Custom Constructors

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```
data Point = Point Float Float
    deriving (Show, Eq)
```

```
data Vector = Vector Float Float
    deriving (Show, Eq)
```

Here, Point and Vector are both constructors.

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Algebraic Data Types

Just as the `Point` constructor took two `Float` arguments, constructors for sum types can take parameters too, allowing us to model different kinds of shape.

```
data PictureObject
  = Path      [Point]      Colour LineStyle
  | Circle Point Float     Colour LineStyle FillStyle
  | Polygon [Point]        Colour LineStyle FillStyle
  | Ellipse Point Float Float Float
                Colour LineStyle FillStyle
deriving (Show, Eq)
```

```
type Picture = [PictureObject]
```

Here, `type` creates a *type alias* which provides only an alternate name that refers to an existing type.

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Patterns in Function Definitions

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- ① Patterns are used to deconstruct an value of a particular type
- ② A pattern can be a binding to a hole $(-)$, a name, or a constructor of the type.
- ③ When defining a function, each argument is bound using a separate pattern.

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Patterns in Function Definitions

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```
if' :: Bool -> a -> a -> a
if' True  then' _ = then'
if' False _      else' = else'
```

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Patterns in Function Definitions

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```
factorial :: Int -> Int
factorial 0 = 1
factorial n = n * factorial (n - 1)
```

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Patterns in Function Definitions

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```
isVowel :: Char -> Bool
```

```
isVowel 'a' = True
```

```
isVowel 'e' = True
```

```
isVowel 'i' = True
```

```
isVowel 'o' = True
```

```
isVowel 'u' = True
```

```
isVowel _  = False
```

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Records and Accessors

```
data Colour = Golden { redC :: Int, greenC :: Int
                      , blueC :: Int, opacityC :: Int
                      }
```

-- Is equivalent to

```
data Color = Color Int Int Int Int
```

```
redC    (Color r _ _ _) = r
greenC  (Color _ g _ _) = g
blueC   (Color _ _ b _) = b
opacityC (Color _ _ _ o) = o
```

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Patterns in Expressions

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```
factorial :: Int -> Int
factorial x =
  case x of
    0 -> 1
    n -> n * factorial (n - 1)
```

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Newtype

newtype allows you to encapsulate an existing type to add constraints or properties without adding runtime overhead.

```
newtype Kilometers = Kilometers Float
```

```
newtype Miles = Miles Float
```

```
kilometersToMiles :: Kilometers -> Miles
```

```
kilometersToMiles (Kilometers kms) = Miles $ kms / 1.60934
```

```
milesToKilometers :: Miles -> Kilometers
```

```
milesToKilometers (Miles miles) = Kilometers $ miles * 1.60934
```

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Natural Numbers

```
data Nat = Zero
         | Succ Nat
```

```
add :: Nat -> Nat -> Nat
add Zero 1 = 1
add (Succ a) b = add a (Succ b)
```

```
zero = Zero
one  = Succ Zero
two  = add one one
```

- 1 Nat is recursive as it has the (Succ) constructor which takes a Nat.
- 2 Nat has the Zero constructor which does not recurse and acts like a *base case*.

More Cool Graphics

Example (Live Coding of Fractal Trees)

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Type Classes

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- 1 A type class has nothing to do with OOP classes or inheritance.
 - 2 Type classes describe a set of behaviours that can be implemented for any type.
 - 3 A function or type class instance can operate on a type variable constrained by a type class instead of a concrete type.
 - 4 A type class is similar to an OOP interface.
 - 5 When creating an instance of a type class with *laws*, you must ensure the laws are held manually (they cannot be checked by the compiler).
 - 6 When using a type class with *laws* you can assume that all laws hold for all instances of the type class.
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Show

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Show simply allows us to take a type and represent it as a string.

Haskell Definition

```
class Show a where
  show :: a -> [Char]
```

This is implemented for all of the built-in types such as Int, Bool, and Char

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Read

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Effectively the dual of Show, Read allows us to take a string representation of a value and decode it.

You can *think* of read as having the following definition, but it is actually somewhat more complex.

Definition

```
class Read a where
  read :: [Char] -> a
```

This is implemented for all of the built-in types such as Int, Bool, and Char

Ord

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Ord allows us to compare two values of a type for a *partial* or *total* inequality

Haskell Definition

```
class Ord a where
    (<=) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

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- 1 **Transitivity:** $x \leq y \wedge y \leq z \rightarrow x \leq z$
- 2 **Reflexivity:** $x \leq x$
- 3 **Antisymmetry:** $x \leq y \wedge y \leq x \rightarrow x = y$
- 4 **Totality (total order):** $x \leq y \vee y \leq x$

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Eq

Eq allows us to compare two values of a type for an *equivalence* or *equality*.

Haskell Definition

```
class Eq a where
    (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
```

- 1 **Reflexivity**: $x = x$
- 2 **Symmetry**: $x = y \rightarrow y = x$
- 3 **Transitivity**: $x = y \wedge y = z \rightarrow x = z$
- 4 **Negation** (equality): $x \neq y \rightarrow \neg(x = y)$
- 5 **Substitutivity** (equality): $x = y \rightarrow f\ x = f\ y$

Derived Instances

When defining a new type we can have the compiler generate instances of `Show`, `Read`, `Ord`, or `Eq` with the deriving statement at the end of the definition.

Haskell Example

```
data Colour = Colour { redC    :: Int
                      , greenC  :: Int
                      , blueC   :: Int
                      , opacityC :: Int
                      } deriving (Show, Eq)
```

Derived instances of `Ord` will be total orders and will order by fields in the order they appear in a product type and will order constructors in the same order they are defined. Derived instances of `Eq` will be strict equalities.

Kinds of Types

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- 1 Just as values and functions in the *runtime language* of Haskell have *types*, types in the *type language* of Haskell have *kinds*.
- 2 The kind of a concrete type is `*`.
- 3 Just as *functions* exist over values (with the type `a -> b`), *type constructors* exist for types.
- 4 `* -> *` is a type constructor that takes a concrete type and produces a concrete type.

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Maybe

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Haskell Definition

```
-- Maybe :: * -> *
```

```
data Maybe a = Just a  
             | Nothing
```

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- ① Maybe is a type constructor that takes a type and produces a type that may or may not hold a value.
- ② `Maybe Int` is a concrete type that may or may not hold an `Int`.

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List

Haskell Definition

```
-- List :: * -> *  
data List a = Cons a (List a)  
            | Nil
```

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- 1 List a is recursive as it has the (Cons) constructor which takes a List a.
- 2 List a has the Nil constructor which does not recurse and acts like a *base case*.
- 3 List is a type constructor that takes a type and produces a type that holds zero or more of a value.
- 4 List Int is a concrete type that zero or more values of type Int.

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Haskell List

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Definition

```
-- [ ] :: * -> *
```

```
data [a] = a : (List a)
         | []
```

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- 1 [a, b, c] is syntactic sugar for the constructor (a : (b : (c : []))).
- 2 "abc" is syntactic sugar for the constructor ('a' : ('b' : ('c' : []))).
- 3 Both can also be used as patterns.

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Tree

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Haskell Definition

```
-- Tree :: * -> *  
data Tree a = Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)  
            | Leaf
```

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- 1 Tree a is recursive in the same manner as List a.
- 2 Tree is a type constructor that takes a type and produces a type that holds zero or more of a value in a tree.
- 3 Tree Int is a concrete type that holds zero or more values of type Int in a tree.

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Semigroup

A *semigroup* is a pair of a set S and an operation $\bullet : S \rightarrow S \rightarrow S$ where the operation \bullet is *associative*.

Haskell Definition

```
class Semigroup a where
  (<>) :: a -> a -> a
```

❶ **Associativity:** $(a \bullet (b \bullet c)) = ((a \bullet b) \bullet c)$

Example

```
instance Semigroup [a] where
  (<>) = (++)
```

Monoid

A *monoid* is a semigroup (S, \bullet) equipped with a special *identity element*.

Haskell Definition

```
class (Semigroup a) => Monoid a where
  mempty :: a
```

① **Identity:** $(mempty \bullet x) = x = (x \bullet mempty)$

Example

```
instance Monoid [a] where
  mempty = []
```

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Inductive Proofs

Suppose we want to prove that a property $P(n)$ holds for all natural numbers n . Remember that the set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} can be defined as follows:

Definition of Natural Numbers

- 1 0 is a natural number.
- 2 For any natural number n , $n + 1$ is also a natural number.

Therefore, to show $P(n)$ for all n , it suffices to show:

- 1 $P(0)$ (the *base case*), and
- 2 assuming $P(k)$ (the *inductive hypothesis*),
 $\Rightarrow P(k + 1)$ (the *inductive case*).

Natural Numbers Example

```
data Nat = Zero
         | Succ Nat
```

```
add :: Nat -> Nat -> Nat
add Zero 1 = 1
add (Succ a) b = add a (Succ b)
```

```
one = Succ Zero
two = Succ (Succ Zero)
```

Example $(1 + 1 = 2)$

Prove one 'add' one = two (done in editor)

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Induction on Lists

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Haskell lists can be defined similarly to natural numbers

Definition of Haskell Lists

- 1 `[]` is a list
- 2 For any list `xs`, `x:xs` is also a list (for any item `x`).

This means, if we want to prove that a property $P(l_s)$ holds for all lists l_s , it suffices to show:

- 1 $P([])$ (the base case)
- 2 $P(x:xs)$ for all items x , assuming the inductive hypothesis $P(xs)$.

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List Monoid Example

`(++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]`
`(++) [] ys = ys` -- 1
`(++) (x:xs) ys = x : xs ++ ys` -- 2

Example (Monoid)

Prove for all `xs, ys, zs`: `((xs ++ ys) ++ zs) = (xs ++ (ys ++ zs))`

Additionally Prove

- ① for all `xs`: `[] ++ xs == xs`
- ② for all `xs`: `xs ++ [] == xs`

(done in editor)

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List Reverse Example

```

(+++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]
(+++) [] ys = ys -- 1
(+++) (x:xs) ys = x : xs ++ ys -- 2

```

```

reverse :: [a] -> [a]
reverse [] = [] -- A
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x] -- B

```

Example

To Prove for all ls : $\text{reverse } (\text{reverse } ls) = ls$

(done in editor)

First Prove for all ys : $\text{reverse } (ys ++ [x]) = x : \text{reverse } ys$

(done in editor)

Graphics and Artwork

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```
data PictureObject
  = Path      [Point]      Colour LineStyle
  | Circle Point Float Colour LineStyle FillStyle
  | Polygon [Point] Colour LineStyle FillStyle
  | Ellipse Point Float Float Float
              Colour LineStyle FillStyle
deriving (Show, Eq)
```

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```
type Picture = [PictureObject]
```

Homework

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- 1 Last week's quiz is due before on Friday. Make sure you submit your answers.
- 2 Do the first programming exercise, and ask us on Piazza if you get stuck. It is due by the start of my next lecture (in 7 days).
- 3 This week's quiz is also up, it's due next Friday (in 9 days).

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