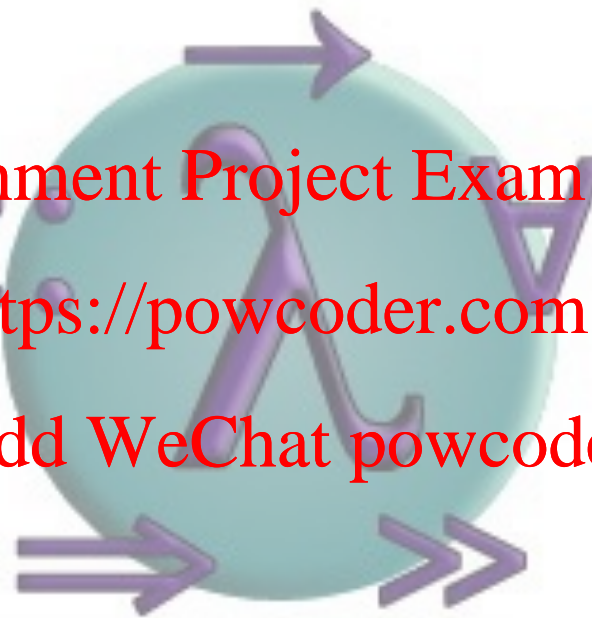


# PROGRAMMING IN HASKELL

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## Chapter 10 - Declaring Types and Classes

# Type Declarations

In Haskell, a new name for an existing type can be defined using a type declaration.

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type String = [Char]

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String is a synonym for the type [Char].

Type declarations can be used to make other types easier to read. For example, given

```
type Pos = (Int,Int)
```

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```
origin  :: Pos
origin  = (0,0)

left    :: Pos → Pos
left (x,y) = (x-1,y)
```

Like function definitions, type declarations can also have parameters. For example, given

```
type Pair a = (a,a)
```

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```
mult    :: Pair Int → Int
mult (m,n) = m*n

copy    :: a → Pair a
copy x   = (x,x)
```

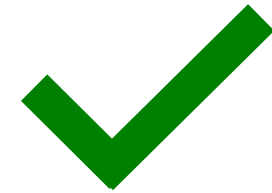
Type declarations can be nested:

```
type Pos = (Int,Int)
```

```
type Trans = Pos -> Pos
```

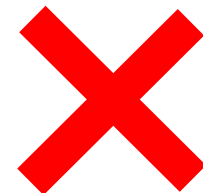
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However, they cannot be recursive:

```
type Tree = (Int,[Tree])
```



# Data Declarations

A completely new type can be defined by specifying its values using a data declaration.

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`data Bool = False | True`



Bool is a new type, with two new values False and True.

Note:

- ❓ The two values False and True are called the constructors for the type Bool.
- ❓ Type and constructor names must begin with an upper-case letter.
- ❓ Data declarations are similar to context free grammars. The former specifies the values of a type, the latter the sentences of a language.

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Values of new types can be used in the same ways as those of built in types. For example, given

```
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
```

we can define:

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```
answers    :: [Answer]
answers    = [Yes, No, Unknown]

flip      :: Answer → Answer
flip Yes  = No
flip No   = Yes
flip Unknown = Unknown
```



The constructors in a data declaration can also have parameters. For example, given

```
data Shape = Circle Float  
           | Rect Float Float
```

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```
square      :: Float → Shape  
square n    = Rect n n  
  
area        :: Shape → Float  
area (Circle r) = pi * r^2  
area (Rect x y) = x * y
```

Note:

- ❓ Shape has values of the form Circle r where r is a float, and Rect x y where x and y are floats.
- ❓ Circle and Rect can be viewed as functions that construct values of type Shape:

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```
Circle :: Float → Shape
```

```
Rect   :: Float → Float → Shape
```

Not surprisingly, data declarations themselves can also have parameters. For example, given

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

we can define:

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```
safediv  :: Int -> Int -> Maybe Int
safediv _ 0 = ?
safediv m n = ?

safehead :: [a] -> Maybe a
safehead [] = ?
safehead xs = ?
```

# Recursive Types

In Haskell, new types can be declared in terms of themselves. That is, types can be recursive.

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data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat

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Nat is a new type, with constructors `Zero :: Nat` and `Succ :: Nat → Nat`.

Note:

- ❓ A value of type `Nat` is either `Zero`, or of the form `Succ n` where  $n :: \text{Nat}$ . That is, `Nat` contains the following infinite sequence of values:

Zero

Succ Zero

Succ (Succ Zero)

•  
•  
•

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? We can think of values of type Nat as natural numbers, where Zero represents 0, and Succ represents the successor function 1+.

? For example, the value

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Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))

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represents the natural number

$1 + (1 + (1 + 0))$

=

3

Using recursion, it is easy to define functions that convert between values of type Nat and Int:

```
nat2int
```

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```
:: Nat → Int
```

```
nat2int = ?
```

```
int2nat :: Int → Nat
```

```
int2nat = ?
```

Two naturals can be added by converting them to integers, adding, and then converting back:

```
add  :: Nat → Nat → Nat  
add m n = int2nat (nat2int m + nat2int n)
```

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However, using recursion the function add can be defined without the need for conversions:

```
add Zero    n = n  
add (Succ m) n = Succ (add m n)
```



Two naturals can be added by converting them to integers, adding, and then converting back:

```
add  :: Nat → Nat → Nat
add m n = int2nat (nat2int m + nat2int n)
```

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However, using recursion the function add can be defined without the need for conversions:

```
add m n = ?
```

For example:

`add (Succ (Succ Zero)) (Succ Zero)`  
=  
`Succ (add (Succ Zero) (Succ Zero))`  
=  
`Succ (Succ (add Zero (Succ Zero)))`  
=  
`Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))`

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Note:

-  The recursive definition for add corresponds to the laws  $0+n = n$  and  $(1+m)+n = 1+(m+n)$ .

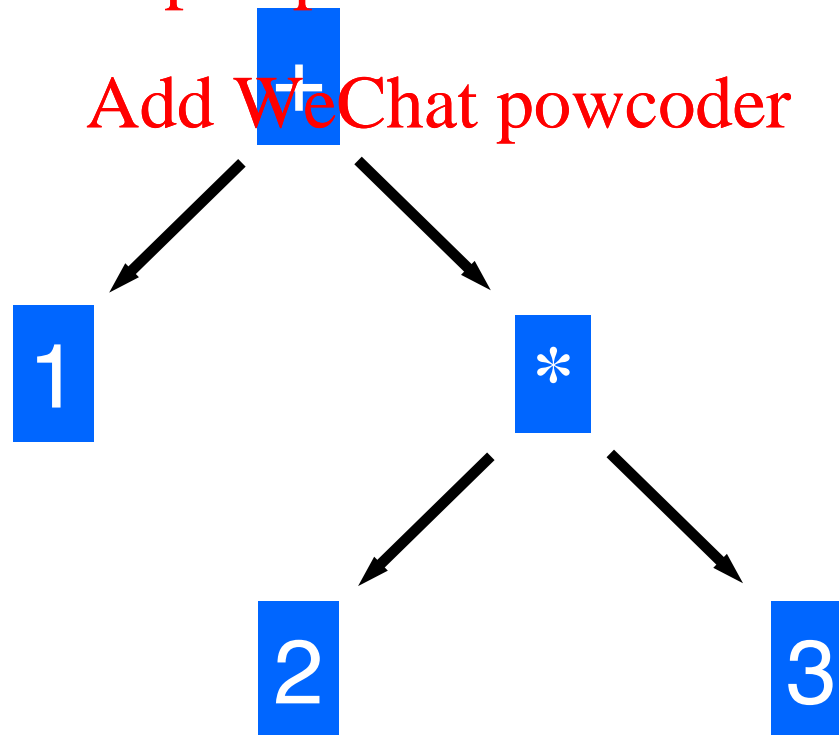
# Arithmetic Expressions

Consider a simple form of expressions built up from integers using addition and multiplication.

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Using recursion, a suitable new type to represent such expressions can be declared by:

```
data Expr = Val Int
          | Add Expr Expr
          | Mul Expr Expr
```

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For example, the expression on the previous slide would be represented as follows:

```
Add (Val 1) (Mul (Val 2) (Val 3))
```

Using recursion, it is now easy to define functions that process expressions. For example:

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```
size      :: Expr → Int
size = ?

eval      :: Expr → Int
eval = ?
```

Note:

? The three constructors have types:

```
Val :: Int → Expr
```

```
Add :: Expr → Expr → Expr
```

```
Mul :: Expr → Expr → Expr
```

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? Many functions on expressions can be defined by replacing the constructors by other functions using a suitable fold function. For example:

Exercise: Define fold!

```
eval = fold id (+) (*)
```

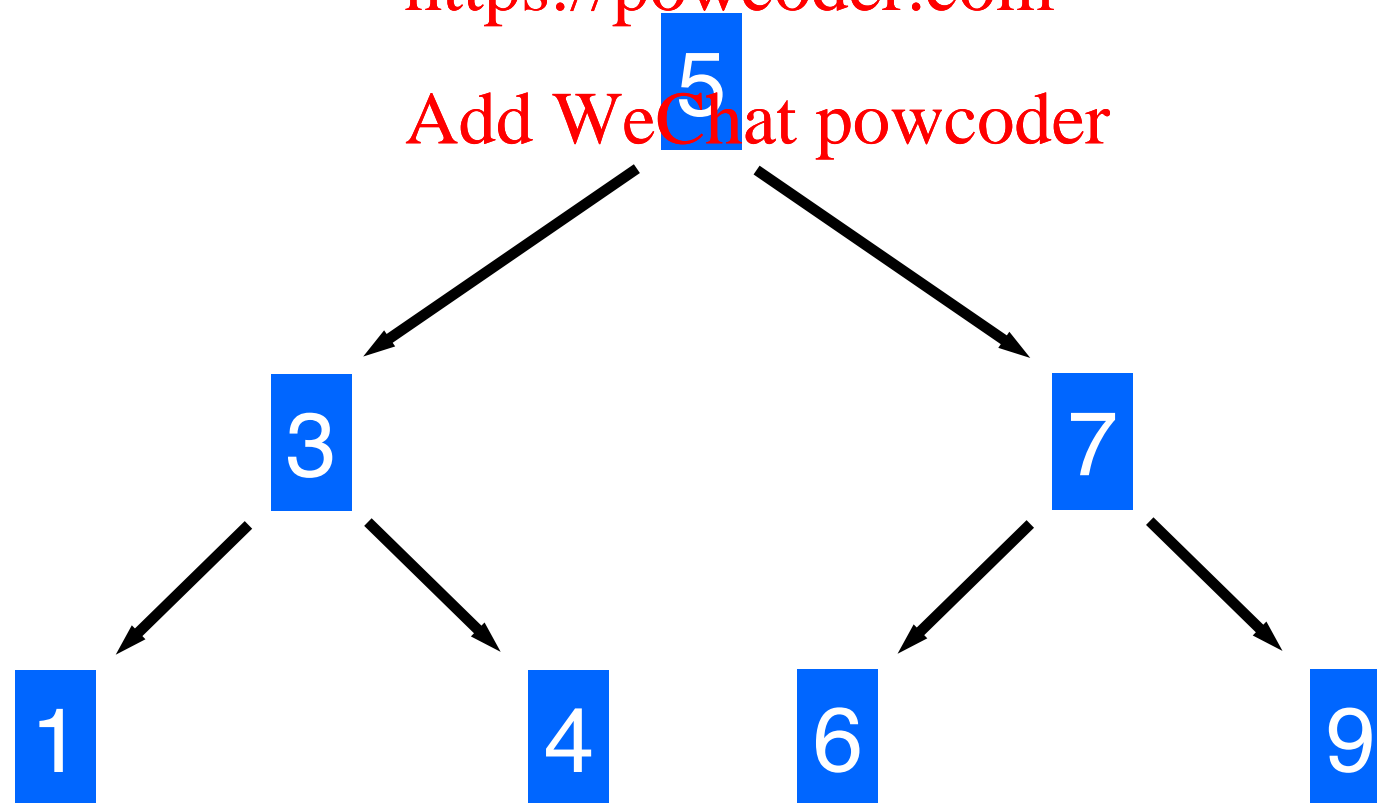
# Binary Trees

In computing, it is often useful to store data in a two-way branching structure or binary tree.

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Using recursion, a suitable new type to represent such binary trees can be declared by:

```
data Tree a = Leaf a  
            | Node (Tree a) a (Tree a)
```

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For example, the tree on the previous slide would be represented as follows:

```
t :: Tree Int  
t = Node (Node (Leaf 1) 3 (Leaf 4)) 5  
        (Node (Leaf 6) 7 (Leaf 9))
```



We can now define a function that decides if a given value occurs in a binary tree:

```
occurs :: Ord a => a -> Tree a -> Bool
occurs x t = ?
```

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But... in the worst case, when the value does not occur, this function traverses the entire tree.

Now consider the function flatten that returns the list of all the values contained in a tree:

```
flatten
```

```
flatten t = ?
```

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:: Tree a → [a]

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A tree is a search tree if it flattens to a list that is ordered. Our example tree is a search tree, as it flattens to the ordered list [1,3,4,5,6,7,9].

Search trees have the important property that when trying to find a value in a tree we can always decide which of the two sub-trees it may occur in:

occurs  $x \ t = ?$

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This new definition is more efficient, because it only traverses one path down the tree.

# Exercises

- (1) Using recursion and the function add, define a function that multiplies two natural numbers.

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- (2) Define a suitable function fold for expressions, and give a few examples of its use.

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- (3) A binary tree is complete if the two sub-trees of every node are of equal size. Define a function that decides if a binary tree is complete.