

# Haskell 02: Polymorphism and Functional Programming Paradigms

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# Additional Syntax

```
strLength :: String ->
Int
strLength []      = 0
strLength (_:xs) = let
  len_rest = strlength xs
in

  len_rest + 1
```

- let expressions
  - to define a local variable  
scoped over an expression

# Additional Syntax

```
frob :: String -> Char
frob [] = 'a'
frob str
  | len > 5    = 'x'
  | len < 3    = 'y'
  | otherwise = 'z'
where
  len = strLength str
```

- where clauses
  - to define a local variable scoped over multiple guarded branches
  - len cannot be used in the separate top-level pattern
  - where is somewhat more common than let, because using where allows the programmer to get right to the point in defining what a function does

# Additional Syntax

- Haskell Layout
  - Haskell is a *whitespace-sensitive* language
  - Haskell uses indentation level to tell where certain regions of code end, and where new statements appear
  - The *layout heralds* are *where*, *let*, *do*, *of*, and *case*.
  - In Haskell, tabs in code are considered with tab stops 8 characters apart, regardless of what your editor might show you

# Additional Syntax

```
sumTo20 :: [Int] -> Int
sumTo20 nums = go 0 nums
  where go :: Int -> [Int]
        -> Int
          go acc [] = acc
          go acc (x:xs)
            | acc >= 20 =
acc
            | otherwise = go
(acc + x) xs
```

- Accumulators
  - Haskell's one way to repeat a computation is recursion
  - Sometimes, a problem's structure doesn't exactly match Haskell's structure
  - Structure like this running sum is called an accumulator

# Parametric polymorphism

- One important thing about polymorphic function: **the caller gets to pick the types**
- It must work for every possible input type

# Parametric polymorphism

```
notEmpty :: [a] -> Bool
notEmpty (_:_) = True
notEmpty []    = False
```

- The notEmpty function does not care what a is
- This “not caring” is what “parametric” in parametric polymorphism means
- All Haskell functions must be parametric in their type parameters



# Parametric polymorphism

- A function can't do one thing when `a` is `Int` and a different thing when `a` is `Bool`
- Haskell simply provides no facility for writing such an operation
- This property of a language is called *parametricity*
- One consequence of parametricity is *type erasure*
- All the type information can be dropped during compilation

# Parametric polymorphism

```
strange :: a -> b
```

```
limited :: a -> a
```

```
limited x = x
```

- Another consequence of parametricity is that it restricts what polymorphic functions you can write
  - There is no way to write `strange`
  - There is only one possible definition for `limited`

# Total and partial functions

- *Partial function*
  - When there are certain inputs for which that function will crash
  - functions which have certain inputs that will make them recurse infinitely
- It is good Haskell practice to avoid partial functions as much as possible
- Often partial functions can be replaced by pattern-matching

# Recursion patterns

- What sorts of things might we want to do with an [a]?
  - Perform some operation on every element of the list
  - Keep only some elements of the list, and throw others away, based on a test
  - “Summarize” the elements of the list somehow(find their sum, product, maximum, ...)
  - ...

# Recursion patterns

```
f :: a -> b
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map _ [] = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

- Map
  - Perform some operation on every element of the list
  - Passing functions as inputs to other functions

# Recursion patterns

```
p :: a -> Bool
filter :: (a -> Bool) ->
[a] -> [a]
filter _ [] = []
filter p (x:xs)
  | p x      = x :
filter p xs
  | otherwise = filter p
xs
```

- Filter
  - Keep only some elements of the list, and throw others away, based on a test
  - The thing to abstract out is the *predicate* used to determine which values to keep

# Recursion patterns

```
fold :: (a -> b -> b) ->  
b -> [a] -> b
```

```
fold f z [] = z
```

```
fold f z (x:xs) = f x  
(fold f z xs)
```

```
foldr f z [a, b, c] == a  
`f` (b `f` (c `f` z))
```

- Fold

- “Summarize” the elements of the list somehow
- The idea will be to abstract out the parts that vary, aided by the ability to define higher-order functions
- There is also foldl, folds “from the left”
- However, you should use foldl' from Data.List instead

# Functional Programming

```
(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
```

```
(.) f g x = f (g x)
```

```
($) :: (a -> b) -> a -> b
```

```
f $ x = f x
```

- Functional combinators
  - (.) operator is just function composition
  - (\$) operator is useful for avoiding parentheses



# Functional Programming

```
duplicate :: [String] ->
[String]
duplicate = map (\x -> x
++ x)
```

- Lambda
  - It is sometimes necessary to create an anonymous function, or lambda expression
  - The backslash binds the variables after it in the expression that follows the ->
  - For anything but the shortest examples, it's better to use a named helper function, though

# Currying and Partial Application

```
f :: Int -> Int -> Int
```

```
f x y = 2 * x + y
```

```
f' :: Int -> (Int -> Int)
```

```
f' x y = 2 * x + y
```

- All functions in Haskell take only one argument
  - Actually it takes one argument and outputs a function
  - Function arrows *associate to the right*
  - Function application is *left-associative*

# Currying and Partial Application

```
\x y z -> ...  
\x -> (\y -> (\z -> ...))  
  
f x y z = ...  
f = \x -> (\y -> \z -  
> ...))
```

- First ones are just syntax sugar for the second ones
- The idea of representing multi-argument functions as one-argument functions returning functions is known as *currying*

# Currying and Partial Application

```
currying :: ((a, b) -> c)  
         -> a -> b -> c
```

```
currying f x y = f (x, y)
```

```
uncurrying :: (a -> b ->  
c) -> (a, b) -> c
```

```
uncurrying f (x, y) = f x  
y
```

- Standard library defines functions called `curry` and `uncurry`, defined like this
- `uncurry` in particular can be useful when you have a pair and want to apply a function to it

# Currying and Partial Application

- Partial application
  - Functions in Haskell are curried makes *partial application* particularly easy
  - The idea of partial application is that we can take a function of multiple arguments and apply it to just *some* of its arguments
  - Every function can be “partially applied” to its first (and only) argument, resulting in a function of the remaining arguments
  - The arguments should be ordered from “least to greatest variation”, that is, arguments which will often be the same should be listed first, and arguments which will often be different should come last

# Currying and Partial Application

```
foobar :: [Integer] ->
Integer
foobar []      = 0
foobar (x:xs)
  | x > 3      = (7 * x +
2) + foobar xs
  | otherwise = foobar xs
```

- Wholemeal programming
  - Problem of foobar:
    - doing too much at once
    - working at too low of a level

# Currying and Partial Application

```
foobar' :: [Integer] ->
Integer
foobar' = sum . map
((+2) . (*7)) . filter
(>3)
```

- Wholemeal programming
  - We can think about making incremental transformations to the entire input
  - foobar' as a “pipeline” of three functions
  - map and filter have been partially applied

# Currying and Partial Application

```
mumble = (`foldr` []) .  
          ((:).)
```

```
grumble = zipWith ($) .  
repeat
```

- Point-free Style
  - Style of coding in which we define a function without reference to its argument is known as “point-free” style
  - Both are equivalent to the map function