# Week 1: Getting Started with Haskell

Jan van Eijck

CWI

September 5, 2011

### A short history of Haskell



# A short history of Haskell

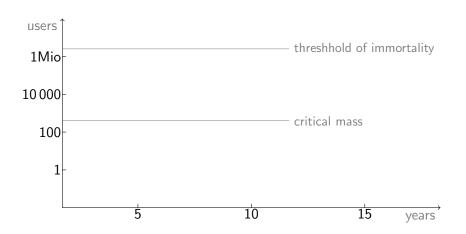
In the 80s, efforts of researchers working on functional programming were scattered across many languages (Lisp, SASL, Miranda, ML,...). In 1987 a dozen functional programmers decided to meet in order to reduce unnecessary diversity in functional programming languages by **designing a common language** that is

- based on ideas that enjoy a wide consensus
- suitable for further language research as well as applications, including building large systems
- freely available

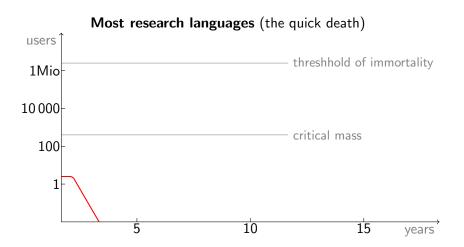
# A short history of Haskell

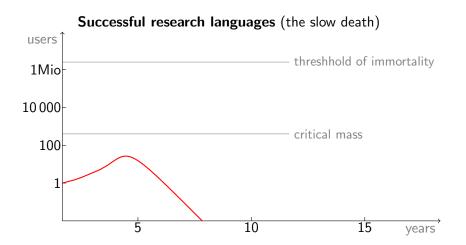
In 1990, they published the first **Haskell** specification, named after the logician and mathematician Haskell B. Curry (1900-1982).

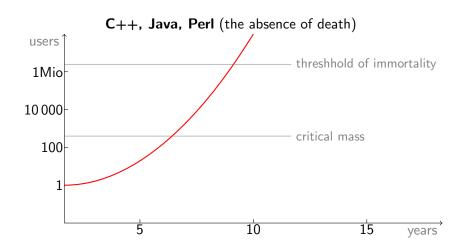




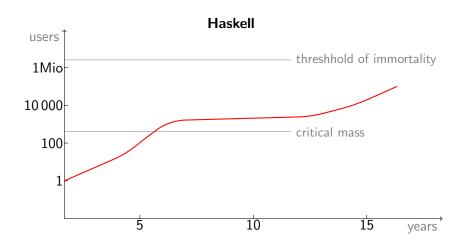
Jan van Eijck







Jan van Eijck



#### Haskell is functional

A program consists entirely of functions.

- The main program itself is a function with the program's input as argument and the program's output as result.
- Typically the main function is defined in terms of other functions, which in turn are defined in terms of still more functions, until at the bottom level the functions are language primitives.

Running a Haskell program consists in evaluating expressions (basically functions applied to arguments).

#### Imperative thinking:

- Variables are pointers to storage locations whose value can be updated all the time.
- You give a sequence of commands telling the computer what to do step by step.

#### Examples:

- initialize a variable examplelist of type integer list, then add 1, then add 2, then add 3
- in order to compute the factorial of n, initialize an integer variable f
  as 1, then for all i from 1 to n, set f to f×i

11 / 1

#### **Functional thinking:**

- Variables are identifiers for an immutable, persistent value.
- You tell the computer what things are.

#### Examples:

- examplelist is a list of integers containing the elements 1, 2, and 3
- the factorial of n is the product of all integers from 1 to n

#### **Functional thinking:**

- Variables are identifiers for an immutable, persistent value.
- You tell the computer what things are.

#### Examples:

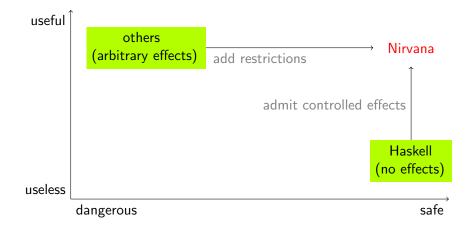
- examplelist is a list of integers containing the elements
   1, 2, and 3
- the factorial of n is the product of all integers from 1 to n

```
factorial :: Int -> Int
factorial n = product [1..n]
```

Stop thinking in variable assignments, sequences and loops. Start thinking in functions, immutable values and recursion.

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing  $13 \ / \ 1$ 

## Haskell is pure: Safety vs power



Jan van Eijck

Haskell allows for abstract, high order programming.
 (Ideally, more thinking and less writing and debugging.)

- Haskell allows for abstract, high order programming.
   (Ideally, more thinking and less writing and debugging.)
- Haskell is based on the lambda calculus, therefore the step from formal specification to implementation is very small.

- Haskell allows for abstract, high order programming.
   (Ideally, more thinking and less writing and debugging.)
- Haskell is based on the lambda calculus, therefore the step from formal specification to implementation is very small.
- Haskell offers you a new perspective on programming, it is powerful, and it is fun.

- Haskell allows for abstract, high order programming.
   (Ideally, more thinking and less writing and debugging.)
- Haskell is based on the lambda calculus, therefore the step from formal specification to implementation is very small.
- Haskell offers you a new perspective on programming, it is powerful, and it is fun.
- The type system behind Haskell is a great tool for writing specifications that catch many coding errors.

- Haskell allows for abstract, high order programming.
   (Ideally, more thinking and less writing and debugging.)
- Haskell is based on the lambda calculus, therefore the step from formal specification to implementation is very small.
- Haskell offers you a new perspective on programming, it is powerful, and it is fun.
- The type system behind Haskell is a great tool for writing specifications that catch many coding errors.
- Your Haskell understanding will influence the way you look at programming: you will start to appreciate abstraction.

- Haskell allows for abstract, high order programming.
   (Ideally, more thinking and less writing and debugging.)
- Haskell is based on the lambda calculus, therefore the step from formal specification to implementation is very small.
- Haskell offers you a new perspective on programming, it is powerful, and it is fun.
- The type system behind Haskell is a great tool for writing specifications that catch many coding errors.
- Your Haskell understanding will influence the way you look at programming: you will start to appreciate abstraction.
- Haskell comes with great tools for automated test generation: a tool we will study is QuickCheck.

#### Resources

- For everything Haskell-related: haskell.org.
- Tutorials:
  - Chapter 1 of "The Haskell Road"
  - Real World Haskell book.realworldhaskell.org/read/
  - Learn you a Haskell for great good learnyouahaskell.com
  - A gentle introduction to Haskell haskell.org/tutorial

## Getting started

#### Get the Haskell Platform:

http://hackage.haskell.org/platform/

This includes the Glasgow Haskell Compiler (GHC) together with standard libraries and the interactive environment GHCi.

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 17 / 1

### Haskell as a Calculator

Start the interpreter:

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing

18 / 1

#### Haskell as a Calculator

#### Start the interpreter:

Prelude>

```
lucht:cmpsem jve$ ghci
GHCi, version 6.12.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ghc-prim ... linking ... done.
Loading package integer-gmp ... linking ... done.
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Loading package ffi-1.0 ... linking ... done.
```

#### Haskell as a Calculator

#### Start the interpreter:

Prelude>

```
lucht:cmpsem jve$ ghci
GHCi, version 6.12.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ghc-prim ... linking ... done.
Loading package integer-gmp ... linking ... done.
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Loading package ffi-1.0 ... linking ... done.
```

GHCi can be used to interactively evaluate expressions.

```
Prelude> 2+3
Prelude> 2+3*4
Prelude> 2^10
Prelude> (42-10)/2
```

• Write the following code to a text file and save it as first.hs:

```
double :: Int -> Int
double n = 2 * n
```

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing  $19 \ / \ 1$ 

• Write the following code to a text file and save it as first.hs:

```
double :: Int -> Int
double n = 2 * n
```

Inside GHCi, you can load the program with :1 first.hs (or by running ghci first.hs).
With :r you can reload it if you change something.

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 19 / 1

• Write the following code to a text file and save it as first.hs:

```
double :: Int -> Int
double n = 2 * n
```

- Inside GHCi, you can load the program with :1 first.hs (or by running ghci first.hs).
  With :r you can reload it if you change something.
- Now you can evaluate expressions like double 5, double (2+3), and double (double 5).

• Write the following code to a text file and save it as first.hs:

```
double :: Int -> Int
double n = 2 * n
```

- Inside GHCi, you can load the program with :1 first.hs (or by running ghci first.hs).
  With :r you can reload it if you change something.
- Now you can evaluate expressions like double 5, double (2+3), and double (double 5).
- With :t you can ask GHCi about the type of an expression.

• Write the following code to a text file and save it as first.hs:

```
double :: Int -> Int
double n = 2 * n
```

- Inside GHCi, you can load the program with :1 first.hs (or by running ghci first.hs).
  With :r you can reload it if you change something.
- 3 Now you can evaluate expressions like double 5, double (2+3), and double (double 5).
- With :t you can ask GHCi about the type of an expression.
- 5 Leave the interactive environment with :q.

# Some Simple Examples

```
module Week1

where

import Data.List
import Data.Char
```

Jan van Eijck

# Sentences can go on . . .

Sentences can go on

### Sentences can go on ...

Sentences can go on and on

Jan van Eijck

### Sentences can go on ...

Sentences can go on and on and on

21 / 1

Sentences can go on and on and on and on

Sentences can go on and on and on and on and on

Sentences can go on and on and on and on and on and on

Sentences can go on and on and on and on and on and on

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 21 / 1

Sentences can go on and on and on and on and on and on

```
gen :: Int -> String
gen 0 = "Sentences can go on"
gen n = gen (n-1) ++ " and on"

genS :: Int -> String
genS n = gen n ++ "."
```

#### A lazy list

```
sentences = "Sentences can go " ++ onAndOn
onAndOn = "on and " ++ onAndOn
```

Jan van Eijck

In Haskell,  $\ \ x$  expresses lambda abstraction over variable x.

```
sqr :: Int -> Int
sqr = \ x -> x * x
```

Jan van Eijck

In Haskell,  $\ \ x$  expresses lambda abstraction over variable x.

```
sqr :: Int -> Int
sqr = \ x -> x * x
```

 The intention is that variabele x stands proxy for a number of type Int.

In Haskell,  $\setminus x$  expresses lambda abstraction over variable x.

```
sqr :: Int -> Int
sqr = \ x -> x * x
```

- The intention is that variabele x stands proxy for a number of type Int.
- The result, the squared number, also has type Int.

In Haskell,  $\setminus x$  expresses lambda abstraction over variable x.

```
sqr :: Int -> Int
sqr = \ x -> x * x
```

- The intention is that variabele x stands proxy for a number of type Int.
- The result, the squared number, also has type Int.
- The function sqr is a function that, when combined with an argument of type Int, yields a value of type Int.

In Haskell,  $\setminus x$  expresses lambda abstraction over variable x.

```
sqr :: Int -> Int
sqr = \ x -> x * x
```

- The intention is that variabele x stands proxy for a number of type Int.
- The result, the squared number, also has type Int.
- The function sqr is a function that, when combined with an argument of type Int, yields a value of type Int.
- This is precisely what the type-indication Int -> Int expresses.

### String Functions in Haskell

```
Prelude> (\ x -> x ++ " emeritus") "professor"
"professor emeritus"
```

#### String Functions in Haskell

```
Prelude> (\ x -> x ++ " emeritus") "professor"
"professor emeritus"
```

This combines **lambda abstraction** and **concatenation**.

## String Functions in Haskell

```
Prelude> (\ x -> x ++ " emeritus") "professor"
"professor emeritus"
```

This combines **lambda abstraction** and **concatenation**. The types:

```
Prelude> :t (\ x -> x ++ " emeritus")
\x -> x ++ " emeritus" :: [Char] -> [Char]
Prelude> :t "professor"
"professor" :: String
Prelude> :t (\ x -> x ++ " emeritus") "professor"
(\x -> x ++ " emeritus") "professor" :: [Char]
```

#### Concatenation

The type of the concatenation function:

```
Prelude> :t (++)
(++) :: forall a. [a] -> [a] -> [a]
```

#### Concatenation

The type of the concatenation function:

```
Prelude> :t (++)
(++) :: forall a. [a] -> [a] -> [a]
```

The type indicates that (++) not only concatenates strings. It works for lists in general.

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 25 / 1

### More String Functions in Haskell

### More String Functions in Haskell

```
Prelude> (\ x -> "nice " ++ x) "guy"
"nice guy"
Prelude> (\ f -> \ x -> "very " ++ (f x))
               (\ x -> "nice " ++ x) "guy"
"very nice guy"
The types:
Prelude> :t "guy"
"guy" :: [Char]
Prelude> :t (\ x -> "nice " ++ x)
(\ x \rightarrow "nice" ++ x) :: [Char] \rightarrow [Char]
Prelude> :t (\ f -> \ x -> "very " ++ (f x))
(\ f -> \ x -> "very" ++ (f x))
  :: forall t. (t -> [Char]) -> t -> [Char]
```

• The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].

- The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].
- Similarly, lists of integers have type [Int].

- The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].
- Similarly, lists of integers have type [Int].
- The empty string (or the empty list) is [].

- The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].
- Similarly, lists of integers have type [Int].
- The empty string (or the empty list) is [].
- The type [Char] is abbreviated as String.

- The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].
- Similarly, lists of integers have type [Int].
- The empty string (or the empty list) is [].
- The type [Char] is abbreviated as String.
- Examples of characters are 'a', 'b' (note the single quotes).

- The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].
- Similarly, lists of integers have type [Int].
- The empty string (or the empty list) is [].
- The type [Char] is abbreviated as String.
- Examples of characters are 'a', 'b' (note the single quotes).
- Examples of strings are "Turing" and "Chomsky" (note the double quotes).

- The Haskell type of characters is Char. Strings of characters have type [Char].
- Similarly, lists of integers have type [Int].
- The empty string (or the empty list) is [].
- The type [Char] is abbreviated as String.
- Examples of characters are 'a', 'b' (note the single quotes).
- Examples of strings are "Turing" and "Chomsky" (note the double quotes).
- In fact, "Chomsky" can be seen as an abbreviation of the following character list:

28 / 1

 If strings have type [Char] (or String), properties of strings have type [Char] -> Bool.

- If strings have type [Char] (or String), properties of strings have type [Char] -> Bool.
- Here is a simple property:

```
aword :: [Char] -> Bool
aword [] = False
aword (x:xs) = (x == 'a') || (aword xs)
```

- If strings have type [Char] (or String), properties of strings have type [Char] -> Bool.
- Here is a simple property:

```
aword :: [Char] -> Bool
aword [] = False
aword (x:xs) = (x == 'a') || (aword xs)
```

• This definition uses *pattern* matching: (x:xs) is the prototypical non-empty list.

- If strings have type [Char] (or String), properties of strings have type [Char] -> Bool.
- Here is a simple property:

```
aword :: [Char] -> Bool
aword [] = False
aword (x:xs) = (x == 'a') || (aword xs)
```

- This definition uses *pattern* matching: (x:xs) is the prototypical non-empty list.
- The head of (x:xs) is x, the tail is xs.

- If strings have type [Char] (or String), properties of strings have type [Char] -> Bool.
- Here is a simple property:

```
aword :: [Char] -> Bool
aword [] = False
aword (x:xs) = (x == 'a') || (aword xs)
```

- This definition uses *pattern* matching: (x:xs) is the prototypical non-empty list.
- The head of (x:xs) is x, the tail is xs.
- The head and tail are glued together by means of the operation:, of type a -> [a] -> [a].

- If strings have type [Char] (or String), properties of strings have type [Char] -> Bool.
- Here is a simple property:

```
aword :: [Char] -> Bool
aword [] = False
aword (x:xs) = (x == 'a') || (aword xs)
```

- This definition uses pattern matching: (x:xs) is the prototypical non-empty list.
- The head of (x:xs) is x, the tail is xs.
- The head and tail are glued together by means of the operation:, of type a -> [a] -> [a].
- The operation combines an object of type a with a list of objects of the same type to a new list of objects, again of the same type.

#### List Patterns

Jan van Eijck

#### List Patterns

It is common Haskell practice to refer to non-empty lists as x:xs, y:ys, and so on, as a useful reminder of the facts that x is an element of a list of x's and that xs is a list.

#### List Patterns

- It is common Haskell practice to refer to non-empty lists as x:xs, y:ys, and so on, as a useful reminder of the facts that x is an element of a list of x's and that xs is a list.
- Note that the function aword is called again from the body of its own definition. We will encounter such recursive function definitions again and again.

- It is common Haskell practice to refer to non-empty lists as x:xs, y:ys, and so on, as a useful reminder of the facts that x is an element of a list of x's and that xs is a list.
- Note that the function aword is called again from the body of its own definition. We will encounter such recursive function definitions again and again.
- What the definition of aword says is that the empty string is not an aword, and a non-empty string is an aword if either the head of the string is the character a, or the tail of the sring is an aword.

- It is common Haskell practice to refer to non-empty lists as x:xs, y:ys, and so on, as a useful reminder of the facts that x is an element of a list of x's and that xs is a list.
- Note that the function aword is called again from the body of its own definition. We will encounter such recursive function definitions again and again.
- What the definition of aword says is that the empty string is not an aword, and a non-empty string is an aword if either the head of the string is the character a, or the tail of the sring is an aword.
- The list pattern [] matches only the empty list,

- It is common Haskell practice to refer to non-empty lists as x:xs, y:ys, and so on, as a useful reminder of the facts that x is an element of a list of x's and that xs is a list.
- Note that the function aword is called again from the body of its own definition. We will encounter such recursive function definitions again and again.
- What the definition of aword says is that the empty string is not an aword, and a non-empty string is an aword if either the head of the string is the character a, or the tail of the sring is an aword.
- The list pattern [] matches only the empty list,
- the list pattern [x] matches any singleton list,

- It is common Haskell practice to refer to non-empty lists as x:xs, y:ys, and so on, as a useful reminder of the facts that x is an element of a list of x's and that xs is a list.
- Note that the function aword is called again from the body of its own definition. We will encounter such recursive function definitions again and again.
- What the definition of aword says is that the empty string is not an aword, and a non-empty string is an aword if either the head of the string is the character a, or the tail of the sring is an aword.
- The list pattern [] matches only the empty list,
- the list pattern [x] matches any singleton list,
- the list pattern (x:xs) matches any non-empty list.

### CHOMSKY GNIRUT

# CHOMSKY YKSMOHC GNIRUT

# CHOMSKY YKSMOHC GNIRUT TURING

### CHOMSKY YKSMOHC GNIRUT TURING

```
reversal :: [a] -> [a]
reversal [] = []
reversal (x:t) = reversal t ++ [x]
```

Jan van Eijck

### CHOMSKY YKSMOHC GNIRUT TURING

```
reversal :: [a] -> [a]
reversal [] = []
reversal (x:t) = reversal t ++ [x]
```

Reversal works for any list, not just for strings.

• Int and Integer, to represent integers. Elements of Integer are unbounded.

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 31/1

- Int and Integer, to represent integers. Elements of Integer are unbounded.
- Float and Double represent floating point numbers. The elements of Double have higher precision.

- Int and Integer, to represent integers. Elements of Integer are unbounded.
- Float and Double represent floating point numbers. The elements of Double have higher precision.
- Bool is the type of Booleans.

- Int and Integer, to represent integers. Elements of Integer are unbounded.
- Float and Double represent floating point numbers. The elements of Double have higher precision.
- Bool is the type of Booleans.
- Char is the type of characters.

- Int and Integer, to represent integers. Elements of Integer are unbounded.
- Float and Double represent floating point numbers. The elements of Double have higher precision.
- Bool is the type of Booleans.
- Char is the type of characters.

Note that the name of a type always starts with a capital letter.

- Int and Integer, to represent integers. Elements of Integer are unbounded.
- Float and Double represent floating point numbers. The elements of Double have higher precision.
- Bool is the type of Booleans.
- Char is the type of characters.

Note that the name of a type always starts with a capital letter. To denote arbitrary types, Haskell allows the use of *type variables*. For these, a, b, ..., are used.

Jan van Eijck

Jan van Eijck

By list-formation: if a is a type, [a] is the type of lists over a.
 Examples: [Int] is the type of lists of integers; [Char] is the type of lists of characters, or strings.

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 32 / 1

- By list-formation: if a is a type, [a] is the type of lists over a.
   Examples: [Int] is the type of lists of integers; [Char] is the type of lists of characters, or strings.
- By pair- or tuple-formation: if a and b are types, then (a,b) is the type of pairs with an object of type a as their first component, and an object of type b as their second component. If a, b and c are types, then (a,b,c) is the type of triples with an object of type a as their first component, an object of type b as their second component, and an object of type c as their third component . . .

- By list-formation: if a is a type, [a] is the type of lists over a.
   Examples: [Int] is the type of lists of integers; [Char] is the type of lists of characters, or strings.
- By pair- or tuple-formation: if a and b are types, then (a,b) is the type of pairs with an object of type a as their first component, and an object of type b as their second component. If a, b and c are types, then (a,b,c) is the type of triples with an object of type a as their first component, an object of type b as their second component, and an object of type c as their third component . . .
- By function definition: a -> b is the type of a function that takes arguments of type a and returns values of type b.

- By list-formation: if a is a type, [a] is the type of lists over a.
   Examples: [Int] is the type of lists of integers; [Char] is the type of lists of characters, or strings.
- By pair- or tuple-formation: if a and b are types, then (a,b) is the type of pairs with an object of type a as their first component, and an object of type b as their second component. If a, b and c are types, then (a,b,c) is the type of triples with an object of type a as their first component, an object of type b as their second component, and an object of type c as their third component . . .
- By function definition: a -> b is the type of a function that takes arguments of type a and returns values of type b.
- By defining your own datatype from scratch, with a data type declaration. More about this in due course.

# Mapping

If you use the Hugs command :t to find the types of the function map, you get the following:

```
Prelude> :t map
```

map :: forall a b. 
$$(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]$$

Jan van Eijck

### Mapping

If you use the Hugs command :t to find the types of the function map, you get the following:

```
Prelude> :t map
map :: forall a b. (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

The function map takes a function and a list and returns a list containing the results of applying the function to the individual list members.

Jan van Eijck

# Mapping

If you use the Hugs command :t to find the types of the function map, you get the following:

```
Prelude> :t map
map :: forall a b. (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

The function map takes a function and a list and returns a list containing the results of applying the function to the individual list members. If f is a function of type a -> b and xs is a list of type [a], then map f xs will return a list of type [b]. E.g., map (^2) [1..9] will produce the list of squares

Jan van Eijck

• In general, if op is an infix operator, (op x) is the operation resulting from applying op to its righthand side argument.

- In general, if op is an infix operator, (op x) is the operation resulting from applying op to its righthand side argument.
- (x op) is the operation resulting from applying op to its lefthand side argument.

- In general, if op is an infix operator, (op x) is the operation resulting from applying op to its righthand side argument.
- (x op) is the operation resulting from applying op to its lefthand side argument.
- (op) is the prefix version of the operator.

- In general, if op is an infix operator, (op x) is the operation resulting from applying op to its righthand side argument.
- (x op) is the operation resulting from applying op to its lefthand side argument.
- (op) is the prefix version of the operator.
- Thus (2<sup>^</sup>) is the operation that computes powers of 2, and map (2<sup>^</sup>) [1..10] will yield
  - [2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024]

- In general, if op is an infix operator, (op x) is the operation resulting from applying op to its righthand side argument.
- (x op) is the operation resulting from applying op to its lefthand side argument.
- (op) is the prefix version of the operator.
- Thus (2<sup>^</sup>) is the operation that computes powers of 2, and map (2<sup>^</sup>) [1..10] will yield
  [2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024]
- Similarly, (>3) denotes the property of being greater than 3, and (3>) the property of being smaller than 3.

# Map

If p is a property (an operation of type  $a \rightarrow Bool$ ) and 1 is a list of type [a], then  $map\ p\ 1$  will produce a list of type Bool (a list of truth values), like this:

Prelude> map (>3) [1..6]
[False, False, False, True, True]
Prelude>

# Map

If p is a property (an operation of type  $a \rightarrow Bool$ ) and l is a list of type [a], then  $map\ p\ l$  will produce a list of type Bool (a list of truth values), like this:

```
Prelude> map (>3) [1..6]
[False, False, False, True, True]
Prelude>
```

# Map

If p is a property (an operation of type  $a \rightarrow Bool$ ) and l is a list of type [a], then  $map\ p\ l$  will produce a list of type Bool (a list of truth values), like this:

```
Prelude> map (>3) [1..6]
[False, False, False, True, True]
Prelude>
```

### Filter

A function for filtering out the elements from a list that satisfy a given property.

### Filter

A function for filtering out the elements from a list that satisfy a given property.

```
Prelude> filter (>3) [1..10] [4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing 36 / 1

### Filter

A function for filtering out the elements from a list that satisfy a given property.

```
Prelude> filter (>3) [1..10] [4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

#### Filter

A function for filtering out the elements from a list that satisfy a given property.

#### List comprehension

List comprehension is defining lists by the following method:

[
$$x \mid x \leftarrow xs$$
, property  $x$ ]

This defines the sublist of xs of all items satisfying property. It is equivalent to:

filter property xs

#### Examples

```
someEvens = [ x | x <- [1..1000], even x ]
evensUntil n = [ x | x <- [1..n], even x ]
allEvens = [ x | x <- [1..], even x ]</pre>
```

#### Examples

```
someEvens = [ x | x <- [1..1000], even x ]
evensUntil n = [ x | x <- [1..n], even x ]
allEvens = [ x | x <- [1..], even x ]</pre>
```

#### Equivalently:

```
someEvens = filter even [1..1000]
evensUntil n = filter even [1..n]
allEvens = filter even [1..]
```

#### Nub

nub removes duplicates, as follows:

```
nub :: Eq a => [a] -> [a]
nub [] = []
nub (x:xs) = x : nub (filter (/= x) xs)
```

Jan van Eijck Specification and Testing

40 / 1

• The composition of two functions f and g, pronounced 'f after g' is the function that results from first applying g and next f.

- The composition of two functions f and g, pronounced 'f after g' is the function that results from first applying g and next f.
- Standard notation for this:  $f \cdot g$ .

- The composition of two functions f and g, pronounced 'f after g' is the function that results from first applying g and next f.
- Standard notation for this:  $f \cdot g$ .
- This is pronounced as "f after g".

- The composition of two functions f and g, pronounced 'f after g' is the function that results from first applying g and next f.
- Standard notation for this:  $f \cdot g$ .
- This is pronounced as "f after g".
- Haskell implementation:

(.) :: 
$$(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow b)$$
  
f .  $g = \ x \rightarrow f (g x)$ 

- The composition of two functions f and g, pronounced 'f after g' is the function that results from first applying g and next f.
- Standard notation for this:  $f \cdot g$ .
- This is pronounced as "f after g".
- Haskell implementation:

(.) :: 
$$(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow b)$$
  
f .  $g = \ x \rightarrow f (g x)$ 

• Note the types!

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

Jan van Eijck

```
elem :: Eq a => a -> [a] -> Bool
elem x [] = False
elem x (y:ys) = x == y || elem x ys
all :: Eq a => (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> Bool
all p = and . map p
```

```
elem :: Eq a => a -> [a] -> Bool
elem x [] = False
elem x (y:ys) = x == y || elem x ys
all :: Eq a => (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> Bool
all p = and . map p
```

Note the use of . for function composition.

Note the use of . for function composition.

```
and :: [Bool] -> Bool
and [] = True
and (x:xs) = x && and xs
```

"That time of year thou mayst in me behold\n" ++ "When yellow leaves, or none, or few, do hang\n"

#### Sonnet 73

sonnet.73 =

```
++ "Upon those boughs which shake against the cold,\n"
++ "Bare ruin'd choirs, where late the sweet birds sang.\n"
++ "In me thou seest the twilight of such day\n"
++ "As after sunset fadeth in the west,\n"
++ "Which by and by black night doth take away,\n"
++ "Death's second self, that seals up all in rest.\n"
++ "In me thou see'st the glowing of such fire\n"
++ "That on the ashes of his youth doth lie,\n"
++ "As the death-bed whereon it must expire\n"
++ "Consumed with that which it was nourish'd by.\n"
```

++ "This thou perceivest, which makes thy love more strong, \n

++ "To love that well which thou must leave ere long."



## Counting

## Counting

```
average :: [Int] -> Rational
average [] = error "empty list"
average xs = toRational (sum xs) / toRational (length xs)
```

44 / 1

• putStrLn sonnet73

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73

Jan van Eijck

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73
- filter ('elem' "aeiou") sonnet73

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73
- filter ('elem' "aeiou") sonnet73
- count 't' sonnet73

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73
- filter ('elem' "aeiou") sonnet73
- count 't' sonnet73
- count 't' (map toLower sonnet73)

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73
- filter ('elem' "aeiou") sonnet73
- count 't' sonnet73
- count 't' (map toLower sonnet73)
- count "thou" (words sonnet73)

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73
- filter ('elem' "aeiou") sonnet73
- count 't' sonnet73
- count 't' (map toLower sonnet73)
- count "thou" (words sonnet73)
- count "thou" (words (map toLower sonnet73))

- putStrLn sonnet73
- map toLower sonnet73
- map toUpper sonnet73
- filter ('elem' "aeiou") sonnet73
- count 't' sonnet73
- count 't' (map toLower sonnet73)
- count "thou" (words sonnet73)
- count "thou" (words (map toLower sonnet73))

Next, attempt the programming exercises from Chapter 1 and 2 of "The Haskell Road".