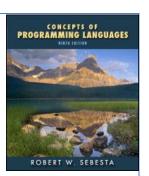
- 1 Ch15 Functional Programming Languages
 - 15.8 Haskell
- 2 Haskell, named after Haskell Curry
 - Download Winhugs
- 3 Reference
 - A Gentle Introduction to Haskell, Paul Hudak, et.al.



Function and λ expression

```
f n = if n==0 then 1 else n*f(n-1)
f = n->if n==0 then 1 else n*f(n-1) -- spaces between = and n->if
```

Pattern matching

```
f 0 = 1

f n = n*f(n-1)

f = \n->case n of 0->1

n->n*f(n-1)
```

Guard

Cf. Math definition

$$f(n) = 1$$
, if $n=0$
= $n*f(n-1)$, otherwise

Let expression

$$f n = let | f 0 a = a$$

 $f n a = f (n-1) (n*a)$
 $in f n 1$

where clause

layout

Line up in columns after let, where, and of.

module Main where

Curried function

```
cfgx = f(gx)
c = fgx - f(gx)
c = f-> g-> x->f(gx)
                        -- spaces between -> and \
c:: (a -> b) -> (c -> a) -> c -> b -- polymorphic function
c db sq 5 where db x=x+x; sq x=x*x
(db 'c' sq) 5 where db x=x+x; sq x=x*x
(db. sq) 5 where db x=x+x; sq x=x*x
(.) db sq 5 where db x=x+x; sq x=x*x
(.) :: (a -> b) -> (c -> a) -> c -> b
```

Section (partial application)

Exception

(2-) is a section;

(-2) isn't a section.

Haskell

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Lists

Constructor and selector

```
xs = [2,3,4,5]

1: xs \Rightarrow [1,2,3,4,5] :: [Integer]

head xs \Rightarrow 2 :: Integer

tail xs \Rightarrow [3,4,5] :: [Integer]

null xs \Rightarrow False :: Bool

xs++xs \Rightarrow [2,3,4,5,2,3,4,5] :: [Integer]
```

List-processing functions

```
map f [] = []
filter f [] = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
filter f (x:xs) | f x = x : filter f xs
| otherwise = filter f xs
```

Haskell

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Lists

List-processing functions

Arithmetic sequence

Lists

List comprehension

```
[x*x | x<-[1..9]]
                               \Rightarrow [1,4,9,16,25,36,49,64,81]
[x*x | x<-[1..9], even x] \Rightarrow [4,16,36,64] :: [Integer]
     generator guard

    ≡ map (^2) (filter even (enumFromTo 1 9))
N.B. \{x^2 \mid 1 \le x \le 9, x \text{ is even }\} is called a set comprehension.
[(x,y)| x<-[1..2],y<-[1..2]]
\Rightarrow [(1,1),(1,2),(2,1),(2,2)] :: [(Integer,Integer)]
qsort [] = []
qsort(x:xs) = qsort[y|y<-xs,y<x] ++ [x] ++ qsort[y|y<-xs,y>=x]
```

Lazy evaluation

Non-strict function

```
f \perp = \perp f is a strict function
f \perp \neq \perp f is a non-strict function
f x = x+x f is strict; f(1)div(0) = \bot
f x = 7 f is non-strict; f (1) div (0) = 7
+, -, *, /, etc are strict in both arguments; e.g. \bot + \bot = \bot.
: is non-strict in both its arguments
length [] = 0
length (_:xs) = 1+length xs -- : is a lazy constructor.
length [div 1 0, mod 1 0] \Rightarrow 2 -- Lists are lazy data structures
-- or, length (div 1 0 : mod 1 0 : [])
```

Lazy evaluation

Lazy evaluation

x = 2 + 3 -- Do we need to evaluate 2+3 when defining x?

Hugs> x -- Do we need to evaluate 2+3 now?

Hugs> x -- Do we need to evaluate 2+3 again?

bot = bot -- Do we need to evaluate bot when defining bot?

Hugs> bot -- Do we need to evaluate bot now? Infinite ...

Graph reduction

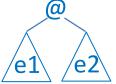


Orange-colored nodes become garbage.

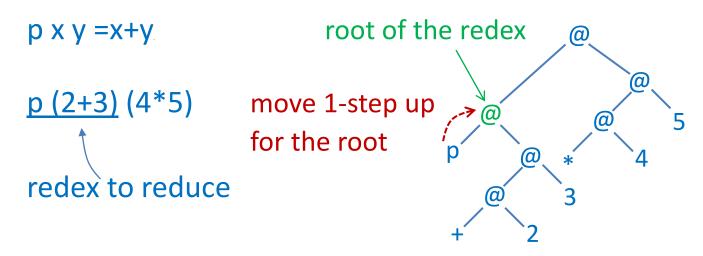


application node





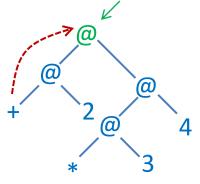
- Graph reduction algorithm
 While the expression is still reducible do
 - 1 Select the next redex (reducible expression) by unwinding the left spine of the graph to the first non-@ node
 - 2 Reduce it
 - 3 Update the root of the redex with the result

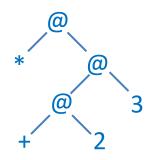


Graph reduction algorithm

root of the redex (*) (2+3) 2+3*4

$$(*)(2+3)$$



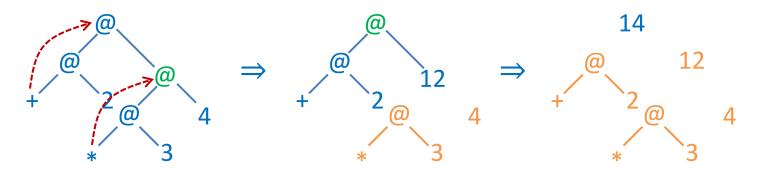


In Haskell, (*)(2+3) is irreducible.

In technical term, it is an expression in WHNF (Weak Head Normal Form), and hence irreducible.

Hugs> (*) (2+3) primMulInteger (2 + 3) :: Integer -> Integer

- Reduce primitive function applications
 - 1 Reduce strict arguments, if any
 - 2 Execute the primitive function
 - 3 Update the root of the redex with the result
- Example Reduction of 2+3*4



Green-colored nodes are the roots of the next redexes.

- Reduce λ applications
 - 1 Copy the λ body
 - 2 Substitute a pointer to the argument for each occurrence of the formal parameter
 - 3 Update the root of the redex with the result

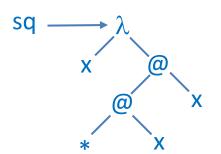
```
Normal order reduction to WHNF
+
Substitute pointers (Sharing)
+
Update redex root with result
```

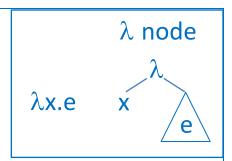
= Lazy evaluation

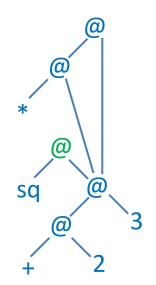
Example

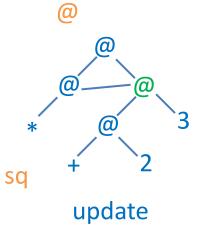
$$sq x = x*x$$

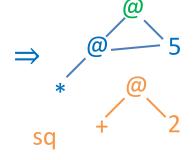
$$sq (2+3)$$

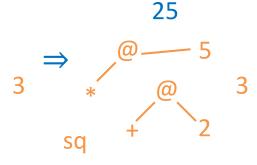












copy and substitute

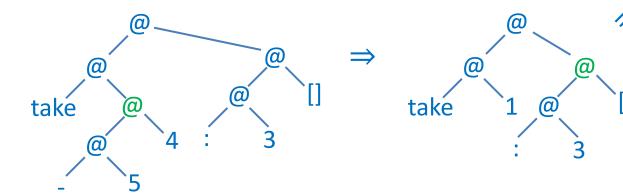
Reduce argument for pattern matching

Reduce argument for pattern matching

Pattern matching semantics: left-to-right, top-to-down

take (5-4) (3:[])

@ : take 1 3 []



Pattern matching semantics

Pattern matching semantics

```
-- Built-in take

take 0 _ = []

take _ [] = []

take n (x:xs) = x : take (n-1) xs

take bot [] = bot

-- take: another version

take _ [] = []

take 0 _ = []

take 0 bot = bot

take n (x:xs) = x : take (n-1) xs

take bot [] = []
```

Lazy data structure (Infinite data structure)

```
take 5 [1..] \Rightarrow [1,2,3,4,5] :: [Integer]

take 5 [1,3..] \Rightarrow [1,3,5,7,9] :: [Integer]

[1..] = enumFrom 1

[1,3..] = enumFromThen 1 3

enumFrom n = n : enumFrom (n+1)

enumFromThen n m = n : enumFromThen m (m+m-n)
```

N.B. These recursive functions have no boundaries.

Lazy data structure (Infinite data structure) ints = enumFrom 1 -- define by generation Here is the reduction of "take 2 ints": take 2 ints = take 2 (enumFrom 1) take 0 _ = [] = take 2 (1 : enumFrom 2) \downarrow_{+1} take _ [] = [] take n(x:xs) = x : take(n-1) xs= 1 : take 1 (enumFrom 2) enumFrom n = n: enumFrom (n+1)= 1 : take 1 (2 : enumFrom 3) = 1 : 2 : take 0 (enumFrom 3)---- 3 becomes 2+1 = 1 : 2 : [] 2---- 2-1 is reduced here for pattern matching

Remark

Output, take and enumfrom cooperate as coroutines.

Haskell is output-driven.

Hugs> enumFrom 1

[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,..... go infinitely

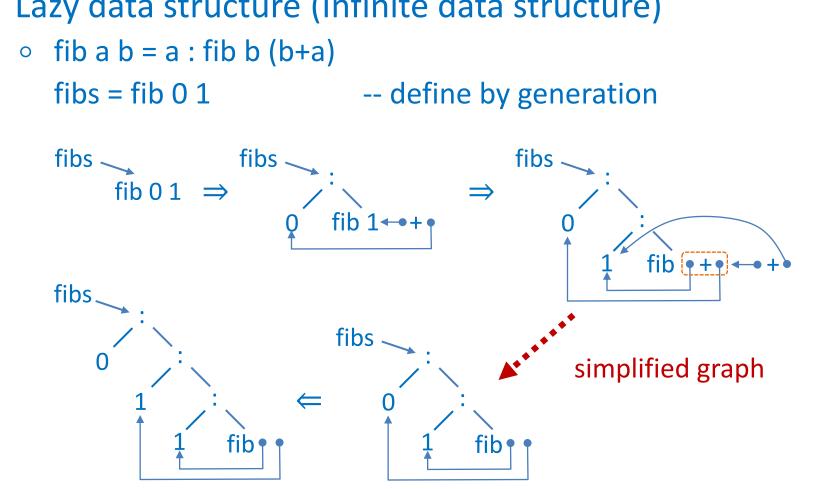
Were it not,

Hugs> enumFrom 1

would evaluate to 1: enumFrom 2 and terminate.

Remark ints memoizes the already-computed elements. enumFrom n = n : enumFrom (n+1)ints ints ints Ω enumFrom enumFrom @ enumFrom @ utput-driven > ints simplified graph enumFrom * +1

Lazy data structure (Infinite data structure)



map f [] = []

Cyclic data structure

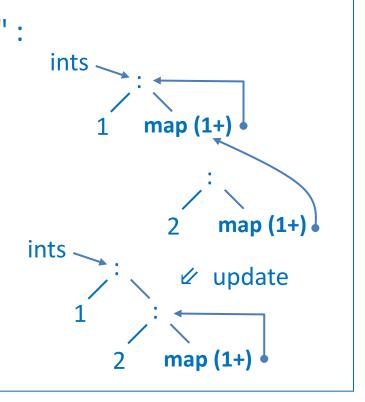
```
ints = 1 : [ x+1 | x <- ints ]
ints = 1 : map (+1) ints

Here is the reduction of "take 2 ints" :
take 2 ints
= take 2 (1 : map (1+) ints)
= 1 : take 1 (map (1+) ints)</pre>
```

= 1 : take 1 (2 : map (1+) (tail ints))

= 1 : 2 : take 0 (map (1+) (tail ints))

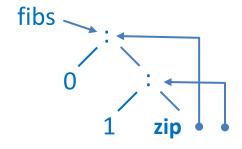
= 1 : 2 : []

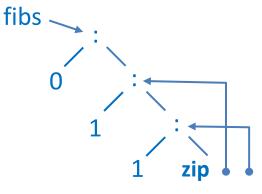


map f (x : xs) = f x : map f xs

Cyclic data structure

```
fibs = 0 : 1 : [ x+y | (x,y) <- zip fibs (tail fibs) ]
zip [] _ = []
fibs 0 1 1 2 3 5 ... zip _ [] = []
tail fibs + 1 1 2 3 5 8 ... zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : zip xs ys
1 2 3 5 8 13...
```





Big unevaluated graph

```
sum [] = 0

sum (x:xs) = x+sum xs

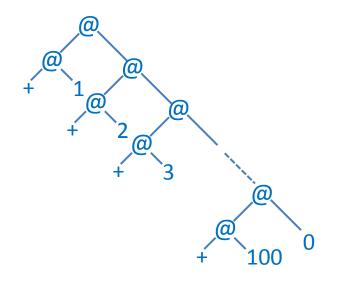
sum [1..100]

= 1+sum [2..100]

= 1+2+sum [3..100]

= ...

= 1+2+...+100+0
```



This takes O(n) time and O(n) space.

Big unevaluated graph

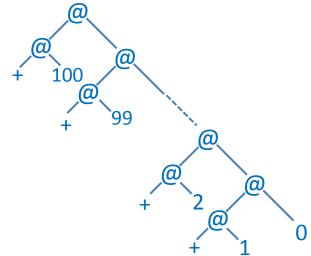
```
sum xs = sum xs 0

where sum [] a = a

sum (x:xs) a= sum xs (x+a)

sum [1..100]
```

- = sum [1..100] 0
- = sum [2..100] (1+0)
- = sum [3..100] (2+1+0)
- = ...
- = 100+...+2+1+0



This also takes O(n) time and O(n) space.

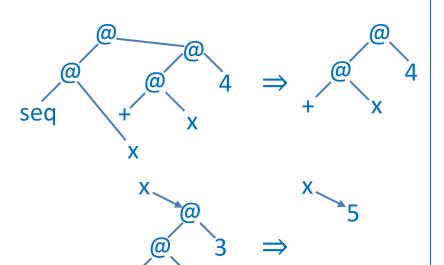
Sequence

seq e1 e2 seq is a built-in function that is strict in its first argument.

seq
$$\perp$$
 e2 = \perp
seq e1 e2 = e2, if e1 \neq \perp

Hugs> seq x x+4 where x=2+3

9 :: integer



N.B. where and let are descriptions of graphs.

Strictness

```
f ! x = seq x (f x)
$! is a built-in infix operator that forces f to be a strict function
sum xs = sum xs 0
         where sum [] a = a
                sum (x:xs) a = sum xs $! x+a
                             -- ($!) (sum xs) (x+a)
                             N.B. $! has the lowest precedence
sum [1..100]
= sum [1..100] 0
= sum [2..100] 1
= sum [3..100] 3 = ... This takes O(n) time and O(1) space.
```

Constant Application Form (CAF)

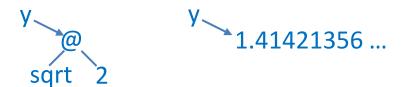
$$f x = x + sqrt 2$$

Without full laziness, the CAF sqrt 2 will be evaluated each time f is called.

With full laziness, the function f will be compiled to

$$f x = x + y$$
 where $y = sqrt 2$

Thus, sqrt 2 will only be evaluated the first time f is called.



```
take 0 _ = []
Big reduction result
                                         take _ [] = []
take = n-> xs -> if n==0 then []
                                         take n(x:xs) = x : take(n-1)xs
                   else if xs==[] then []
                   else head xs: take (n-1) (tail xs)
take100 = take 100
Hugs> take100 [1..]
Firstly, this forces take 100 to be reduced, and take 100 to
be overwritten as, due to full laziness:
take100 = xs -> if b100 then []
                  else if xs==[] then []
                  else head xs: take99 (tail xs)
                  where b100 = 100 = 0; take 99 = take (100-1)
```

Big reduction result Secondly, the result is applied to [1..], forcing the CAF's to be reduced, and b100 and take99 to be overwritten as: b100 = Falsetake99 = xs -> if b99 then []else if xs==[] then [] else head xs: take98 (tail xs) where b99 = 99 = 0; take 98 = take (99-1)Thus, as the reduction progresses, the graph will become bigger and bigger: take100 take99 take0

Big reduction result

```
To solve this problem, we shall define take100 as take100 = takeA 100

where takeA n xs = takeB xs n

takeB xs n = take n xs
```

Hugs> take100 [1..]

This forces takeA 100 to be reduced, and take100 to be overwritten as:

 $take100 = \xs -> takeB xs 100$

Note that this is no CAF in the λ expression bound to take 100

Space behavior of lazy functional programs

- Space behavior of lazy functional programs
 - 1) Not performing reductions, but holding the unevaluated graph, which is bigger than the result, e.g.

```
sum [] = 0
sum (x:xs) = x+sum xs
```

2) Performing reductions and holding the result, which is bigger than the redex (space leak), e.g. take 100 = take 100

Haskell

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