Intro to Haskell, continued

Announcements

Moved Quiz 7 to Friday

- HW6 is posted, due Tuesday Nov. 29
 - Please to install GHC as soon as possible
 - Post on Submitty forum if you hit a snag

We will release Exam 2 grades later this week

Lecture Outline

- Haskell
 - Covered basic syntax and interpreters

- Lazy evaluation
- Static typing and static type inference
- Algebraic data types and pattern matching
- Type classes
- Monads ... and more

Normal Order to WHNF Interpreter

```
Haskell syntax:
let .... in
case f of
→
```

Definition by cases on E ::= x | λx. E₁ | E₁ E₂

```
\begin{split} & \text{interpret}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \\ & \text{interpret}(\lambda \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{E}_1) = \lambda \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{E}_1 \\ & \text{interpret}(\mathbf{E}_1 \ \mathbf{E}_2) = \text{let } \mathbf{f} = \text{interpret}(\mathbf{E}_1) \\ & \text{in case } \mathbf{f} \text{ of} \end{split}
```

Apply function before "interpreting" the argument

```
No note WHNF—7 slide \lambda x.E_3 \rightarrow interpret(E_3[E_2/x])
No note HNP
NO note NF \rightarrow Homeworn \epsilon \rightarrow f E_2
No note WHNP
No note HNP
No note NF
```

Interpreter Example f < interpret ((\lambda x.x) \sqrt{y} $(\lambda x.x) y((\lambda x.x) z)$ f = interpret (lxx) -> ? XX.Ez -> Threspret (X[Y/x])

Programming Languages CSCI 4430, A. Milano

Homework

A step-by-step Normal order to Normal form

interpreter

One Step

($(\lambda \times \times) \times)$ ($(\lambda \times \times) \times$)

That

Description

- Unlike Scheme (and most programming languages)
 Haskell does use lazy evaluation, i.e., normal order reduction
 - It won't evaluate an expression until it is needed
- > f x y = x*y
- > f (5+1) (5+2)
- --- evaluates to (5+1) * (5+2)
- --- evaluates argument when needed

In Scheme: (define (fun x y) (* x y)) > (fun (+ <u>5 1</u>) (+ <u>5 2</u>)) -> (fun 6 7) -> 6#7 -> 42 (define (fun n) (cons n (fun (+ n 1)))) > (car (fun 0)) ---> (car (cons 0 (fun 1))) -> 000

Infinite recursion

: denotes "cons" : constructs a list with head **n** and tail **fun(n+1)**

In Haskell:

tru = \xy → x head = \p → p tru

fun n = n : fun(n+1)

= cous = pair = Isb -> bfs

- > head (fun 0)
- > (fun 0) fru ->
- (09 fug (0+1)) tru

(\fsb >> bfs) 0 fun(0+1) tru ->

(\sb -> b 0 s) fun (0+1) fru ->

(1b -> b 0 fun(0+1)) tru => tru 0 fun(0+1) -> #

(lust step throws away second argument fun (ott), unevaluated)

> f x = [] --- f takes x and returns the empty list
> f (repeat 1) --- repeat produces infinite list [1,1...

- > head ([1..]) --- [1..] is the infinite list of integers
- > 1

> []

Lazy evaluation allows infinite structures!

Aside: Python Generators

```
def gen(start):
  n = start
  while True:
    yield n
    n = n + 1
gen obj = gen(0)
print(next(gen obj))
print(next(gen obj))
print(next(gen obj))
```

Generate the (infinite) list of even numbers

Generate an (infinite) list of "fresh variables"

 Exercise: write a function that generates the (infinite) list of prime numbers

Static Typing and Type Inference

- Unlike Scheme, which is dynamically typed, Haskell is statically typed!
- Unlike Java/C++ we don't have to write type annotations. Haskell infers types!

```
>f:: [a] \rightarrow a

f:: [a] \rightarrow a

>f \times = head \times

True \rightarrow b
```

- > let f x = head x in f True
- Couldn't match expected type '[a]' with actual type 'Bool'
- In the first argument of 'f', namely 'True' In the expression: f True ...

Static Typing and Type Inference

- Recall apply nfnx:
- > apply_nfnx = if n==0 then x else apply_n f (n-1) (f x)

- <interactive>:32:1: error:
- Could not deduce (Num Bool) arising from a use of 'apply_n'
 - from the context: Num t2
 - bound by the inferred type of it :: Num t2 => t2
 - at <interactive>:32:1-22
- In the expression: apply_n (+ 1) True 0 In an equation for 'it': it = apply_n (+ 1) True 0

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Algebraic Data Types

 Algebraic data types are tagged unions (aka sums) of products (aka records)

```
data Shape = Line Point Point

| Triangle Point Point Point
| Quad Point Point Point Point
```

union

Haskell keyword

new constructors (a.k.a. tags, disjuncts, summands) Line is a binary constructor, Triangle is a ternary ...

the new type

Algebraic Data Types

Constructors create values of the data type

```
let
 11::Shape
 11 = Line e1 e2
 t1::Shape = Triangle e3 e4 e5
 q1::Shape = Quad e6 e7 e8 e9
In
```

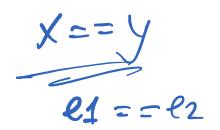
Algebraic Data Types in Haskell Homework

Defining a lambda expression

```
type Name = String
```

data Expr = Var Name

| Lambda Name Expr



| App Expr Expr deriving (Eq, Show)

-- Allows comparison and display of Expr values

- > e1 = Var "x" // Lambda term x
- > e2 = Lambda "x" e1 // Lambda term λx.x

Exercise: Define an ADT for Expressions as in your HW4

```
type Name = String
     data Expr = Var Name
               | Val Bool
               | Myand Expr Expr
               | Myor Expr Expr
               | Mylet Name Expr Expr
               deriving (Eq. Show)
evaluate :: Expr → [(Name,Bool)] → Bool
evaluate e env = ...
```

Pattern Matching

Type signature of anchorPnt: takes a Shape and returns a Point.

Examine values of an algebraic data type

```
anchorPnt :: Shape -> Point
anchorPnt s = case s of

Line p1 p2 -> p1

Triangle p3 p4 p5 -> p3

Quad p6 p7 p8 p9 -> p6
```

- Two points
 - Test: does the given value match this pattern?
 - Binding: if it matches, deconstruct it and bind pattern params to corresponding arguments

Pattern Matching

Pattern matching "deconstructs" a term

> let h:t = "ana" in t "na"

> let (x,y) = (10,"ana") in x
10

Examples of Algebraic Data Types

data Bool = True | False

data Day = Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun

Polymorphic types.

a is a type parameter!

data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)

data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a

Maybe type denotes that result of computation can be **a** or Nothing. Maybe is a monad.

Type Constructor vs. Data Constructor

Bool and Day are nullary type constructors:

```
data Bool = True | False
data Day = Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun
E.g., x::Bool, y::Day
```

Maybe is a unary type constructor

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

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Generic Functions in Haskell

We can generalize a function when a function makes no assumptions about the type:

```
const :: a -> b -> a
```

$$const x y = x$$

apply
$$g x = g x$$

Generic Functions

- -- List datatype
- data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
- Can we write a function sum over a list of a's?
- sum :: a -> List a -> a
- sum n Nil = n
- sum n (Cons x xs) = sum (n+x) xs
- Type error: No instance for (Num a) arising from a use of '+'
 - a no longer unconstrained. Type and function definition imply we apply + on a but
 - + is not defined on all types!

Haskell Type Classes

- Not to be confused with Java classes/interfaces
- Define a type class containing the arithmetic operators

class Num a where

. . .

instance Num Int where

instance Num Float where

. . .

Read: A type **a** is an instance of the type class **Num** if it provides "overloaded" definitions of operations **==**, **+**, ...

Read: Int and Float are instances of Num

Generic Functions with Type Class

```
sum :: (Num a) => a -> List a -> a
sum n Nil = n
sum n (Cons x xs) = sum (n+x) xs
```

- One view of type classes: predicates
 - (Num a) is a predicate in type definitions
 - Constrains the specific types we can instantiate a generic function with
- A type class has associated laws

Type Class Hierarchy

```
class Eq a where

(==), (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool

class (Eq a) => Ord where

(<), (<=), (>), (>=) :: a -> a -> Bool

min, max :: a -> a -> a
```

- Each type class corresponds to one concept
- Class constraints give rise to a hierarchy
- Eq is a superclass of Ord
 - Ord inherits specification of (==) and (/=)
 - Notion of "true subtyping"

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Monads

- One source: All About Monads (haskell.org)
- Another source: textbook
- A way to cleanly compose computations
 - E.g., f may return a value of type a or Nothing
 Composing computations becomes tedious: case (f s) of
 - Nothing → Nothing

 Just m → case (f m) ...
- In Haskell, monads encapsulate IO and other imperative features

An Example: Cloned Sheep

```
type Sheep = ...
father :: Sheep → Maybe Sheep
father = ...
mother :: Sheep → Maybe Sheep
mother = ...
(A sheep may have a mother and a father, just a mother, or just a father.)
maternalGrandfather :: Sheep -> Maybe Sheep
maternalGrandfather s = case (mother s) of
                            Nothing → Nothing
                            Just m → father m
```

An Example

```
mothersPaternalGrandfather :: Sheep → Maybe Sheep
mothersPaternalGrandfather s = case (mother s) of
Nothing → Nothing

Just m → case (father m) of
Nothing → Nothing

Just gf → father gf
```

- Tedious, unreadable, difficult to maintain
- Monads help!

The Monad Type Class

Haskell's Monad class requires 2 operations,
 >>= (bind) and return

```
class Monad m where
```

```
// >>= (the bind operation) takes a monad
  // m a, and a function that takes a and turns
// it into a monad m b
(>>=) :: m a → (a → m b) → m b
// return encapsulates a value into the monad
return :: a → m a
```

The **Maybe** Monad

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
instance Monad Maybe where
Nothing >>= f = Nothing
(Just x) >>= f = f x
return = Just
```

Cloned Sheep example:

mothersPaternalGrandfather s =

(return s) >>= mother >>= father >>= father (Note: if at any point, some function returns

Nothing, Nothing gets cleanly propagated.)

The **List** Monad

The List type is a monad!

```
lis >>= f = concat (map f lis)
return x = [x]
Note: concat::[[a]] → [a]
```

o a copost [[4 2] [2 4] [5 6]] violds [4 2 2 4 5 6]

e.g., concat [[1,2],[3,4],[5,6]] yields [1,2,3,4,5,6]

Use any f s.t. f::a→[b]. f may yield a list of 0,1,2,... elements of type b, e.g.,

```
> f x = [x+1]
> [1,2,3] >>= f --- yields ?
```

The **List** Monad

```
parents :: Sheep → [Sheep]
parents s = MaybeToList (mother s) ++
MaybeToList (father s)
```

```
grandParents :: Sheep → [Sheep]
grandParents s = (parents s) >>= parents
```

The do Notation

do notation is syntactic sugar for monadic bind

```
> f x = x+1
> q x = x*5
> [1,2,3] >>= (return . f) >>= (return . g)
Or
> [1,2,3] >>= \x->[x+1] >>= \y->[y*5]
Or, make encapsulated element explicit with do
> do \{ v <- [1,2,3]; w <- ((x->[x+1]) v; ((y->[y*5]) w \} \}
```

List Comprehensions

```
> [ x | x <- [1,2,3,4] ]
[1,2,3,4]
> [ x | x <- [1,2,3,4], x `mod` 2 == 0 ]
[2,4]
> [ [x,y] | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [6,5,4] ]
[[1,6],[1,5],[1,4],[2,6],[2,5],[2,4],[3,6],[3,5],[3,4]]
```

List Comprehensions

List comprehensions are syntactic sugar on top of the do notation!

```
[ x | x <- [1,2,3,4] ] is syntactic sugar for
do { x <- [1,2,3,4]; return x }
[ [x,y] | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [6,5,4] ] is syntactic
sugar for</pre>
```

do { x <- [1,2,3]; y<-[6,5,4]; return [x,y] }

Which in turn, we can translate into monadic bind...

So What's the Point of the Monad...

Conveniently chains (builds) computation

Encapsulates "mutable" state. E.g., IO:

openFile :: FilePath -> IOMode -> IO Handle

hClose:: Handle -> IO () -- void

hlsEOF :: Handle -> IO Bool

hGetChar :: Handle -> IO Char

These operations break "referentially transparency". For example, **hGetChar** typically returns different value when called twice in a row!

The End