Functional Programming Lecture 7

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Haskell

- Purely functional programming language
 - necessary exceptions (IO) wrapped as monads
- Statically typed
 - types are derived and checked at compile time
 - types are automatically inferred
 - have a crucial role in controlling flow of the program
- Lazy
 - $\cdot\,$ function arguments evaluated only when needed
 - \cdot strict evaluation has to be forced syntactically

Glasgow Haskell Compiler (GHC)

- \cdot the leading implementation of Haskell
- $\cdot\,$ comprises a compiler and interpreter
- written in Haskell, runtime system in C and C -
- compatible with the latest standard Haskell 2010
- further provides a lot of extensions
- is freely available from: https://www.haskell.org/ghcup/

The interpreter can be started from the terminal command prompt by simply typing:

\$ ghci

GHCi, version 8.0.2: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help

Prelude>

The GHCi prompt > means that the interpreter is now ready to evaluate an expression.

Prelude is a standard module imported by default.

Commands to the interpreter start with :

- :? for help
- ·:load <filename>
- :reload
- :type <expr> displays the type of expr
- :info <name> displays info on a function or type
- :quit

Can be abbreviated to the first letter, e.g. $: \mathbf{r}$

At the top level a Haskell program is a set of modules. Each module consists of type and function declarations. A module is defined within a script

- Text file comprising a sequence of definitions
- Usually have a **.hs** suffix
- Can be loaded by
 - \$ ghci <filename>
 - > :load <filename>

Every well-formed expression **e** has a well-formed type **t**, written **e** :: **t**.

Given **e** for evaluation, GHCi follows the following steps:

- 1. checks that **e** is syntactically correct.
- 2. infers a type for **e**, or checks that the type supplied by the programmer is correct.
- 3. evaluates **e** by reducing it to its simplest possible form to produce a value.
- 4. Provided the value is printable, GHCi then prints it at the terminal.

Basic syntax

```
-- Comment until the end of the line
{-
    A long comment
    over multiple
    lines.
-}
```

Expressions are built from

- literals representing constants of basic data types, e.g. 3.14
- variables
- functions (function calls use prefix notation), e.g.
 cos 3.14
- operators (binary functions using infix notation), e.g. 3+5*8

Infix notation brings precedence and left/right associativity stuff.

Haskell has a number of basic types, including:

Bool logical values True, False Char single characters 'a' String strings of characters "abc" Int fixed-precision integers Integer arbitrary-precision integers Float single-precision floating-point numbers Double double-precision floating-point numbers Function names must start with **lower-case letter**, e.g. **myFun**, **fun1**, **g_2**, **h'**

We may declare a function type, e.g.,

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
```

A function is defined by means of equations, e.g.,

```
factorial 0 = 1
factorial n = n * factorial (n-1)
power :: Integer -> (Integer -> Integer)
power _ 0 = 1
power n k = n * power n (k-1)
```

Operators

Names of operators consist only of **special symbols**, e.g. +/+

Can be defined in infix notation:

x + / + y = 2 * x + y

A prefix function turns infix by $\hat{}$ and infix turns prefix by ()

Precedence/asociativity of infix operators set by

infixr <0-9> <name>
infixl <0-9> <name>
infix <0-9> <name>

Information about associativity, precedence, and much else > :info

The first LHS that matches the function call is evaluated

```
        True
        δδ
        True
        =
        True

        _
        δδ
        _
        =
        False
```

More efficient definition:

 True
 δδ
 b
 =
 b

 False
 δδ
 _
 =
 False

Patterns may not repeat variables, due to efficiency. The following gives an error:

```
b && b = b
_ && _ = False
```

```
discr :: Float -> Float -> Float -> Float
discr a b c =
    let x = b*b
        y = 4*a*c
    in x - y
Alternatively
discr a b c = x - y
```

```
where x = b*b
y = 4*a*c
```

where cannot be used inside guarded equations unlike let

The layout rule avoids the need for explicit syntax to indicate the grouping of definitions.

```
a = b + c where
b = 1
c = 2
```

means

a = b + c where {b=1; c=2}

Keywords (such as where, let, etc.) start a block:

- The first word after the keyword defines the pivot column.
- Lines **exactly** on the pivot define a new entry in the block.
- Start a line after the pivot to continue the previous lines.
- Start a line **before** the pivot to end the block.

```
abs n = if n \ge 0 then n = lse - n
```

Conditional expressions can be nested:

There must always be an else branch.

Type of then-clause and else-clause must be the same.

```
(if True then 1 else "0")
```

throws a type error.

As an alternative to conditionals, functions can also be defined using guarded equations.

```
abs n | n >= 0 = n
| otherwise = -n
```

Definitions with multiple conditions are then easier to read:

otherwise is defined in the prelude by otherwise = True

Lists are sequences of elements of the same type, e.g. [Int]

```
[1,2,3,4,5]
[1..10]
['a'..'z']
[1,3..]
[10,9..1]
```

- Built by "cons" operator :, ended by the empty list []
- Includes all basic functions
 take, length, reverse, ++, head, tail
- In addition, you can index by **!!**
- Data type String is just [Char]

List patterns

Functions on lists can be defined using **x:xs** patterns

We will see later it works similarly for other composite data types. **x:xs** pattern mathes only non-empty lists:

> head [] => *** Exception: empty list

x:xs patterns must be parenthesised, because application has priority over (:). The following definition gives an error:

head x:_ = x

A part of the pattern can be assigned a name

copyfirst s@(x:xs) = x:s -- same as x:x:xs

Tuples

Tuples are fixed-size sequences of elements of arbitrary types, e.g. (Int, Char) (1,2) ('a', 'b')

(1,2,'c',False)

Their element can be accessed by pattern matching

```
first (x,_,_) = x
second (_,x,_) = y
third (_,_,x) = x
```

Pattern matching can be nested

f :: (Int, [Char], (Int, Char)) -> [Char]
f (1, (x:xs), (2,y)) = x:y:xs

List comprehensions

In Haskell, there is a list comprehension notation to construct new lists from existing lists.

[x² | x <- [1..5]]

x <- [1..5] is called a generator.

Comprehensions can have multiple generators behaving like nested loops

> [(x,y) | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [4,5]]
[(1,4),(1,5),(2,4),(2,5),(3,4),(3,5)]</pre>

Generators can be infinite (almost everything is lazy)

[x² | x <- [1..]]

Later generators can depend on the variables that are introduced by earlier generators.

> [(x,y) | x <- [1..3], y <- [x..3]]
[(1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(2,2),(2,3),(3,3)]</pre>

Using a dependent generator, we can define a function that concatenates a list of lists:

```
flatten :: [[Int]] -> [Int]
flatten xss = [x | xs <- xss, x <- xs]
> flatten [[1,2],[3,4],[5]]
[1,2,3,4,5]
```

Guards

List comprehensions can use guards to restrict the values produced by earlier generators.

```
[x | x <- [1..10], even x]
```

Using a guard we can define a function that maps a positive integer to its list of factors:

factors :: Int -> [Int]
factors n = [x | x <- [1..n], mod n x == 0]}</pre>

A prime's only factors are 1 and itself

```
prime :: Int -> Bool
prime n = factors n == [1,n]
```

List of all primes

[x | x <- [2..], prime x]

What have we learned?

- Haskell is a statically typed pure functional programming language.
- It has a rich 2D syntax (layout rule).
- It has an automatic type inference mechanism.
- Every expression has a type.
- Lists store elements of the same type.
- Tuples have a fixed length but elements could be of different types.
- List comprehension allows to define new list from another lists.