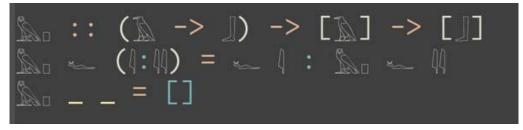


Haskell: From Basic to Advanced

Part 1 – Basic Language





Haskell buzzwords

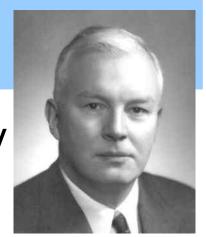
- Functional
- Pure
- Lazy
- Strong static typing
- Type polymorphism
- Type classes
- Monads

- Haskell 98 / Haskell 2010
- GHC
 - Glasgow Haskell Compiler
- GADTs
 - Generalized Algebraic Data Types
- STM
- Hackage



History

- Named after the logician Haskell B. Curry
- Designed by a committee aiming to
 - consolidate (lazy) FP languages into a common one
 - develop a language basis for FP language research
- Well crafted and designed pure FP language
 - concise and expressive
 - strong theoretical basis (λ-calculus)
 - sophisticated type system
 - evaluation on demand, at most once (laziness)





Hello, World!

```
-- File: hello.hs
module Main where

main :: IO ()
main = putStrLn "Hello, World!"
```

Not the most representative Haskell program...

- '--' starts a one-line comment
- '::' denotes a type declaration
- ' =' defines a function clause
- All but the last line are optional
- Source file names end in ". hs"



Quick sort over lists

```
-- File: qsort.hs
qsort [] = []
qsort (p:xs) =
qsort [x | x <- xs, x < p] ++
[p] ++
qsort [x | x <- xs, x >= p]
```

- [] for the empty list
- (h:t) notation for a list with head h and tail t
- Very compact and easy to understand code
- Small letters for variables
- Simpler list comprehensions

```
%% Erlang version
qsort([]) -> [];
qsort([P|Xs]) ->
   qsort([X || X <- Xs, X < P]) ++
   [P] ++ % pivot element
   qsort([X || X <- Xs, X >= P]).
```

No parentheses or punctuations needed



Another quick sort program

```
-- File: qsort2.hs
qsort [] = []
qsort (p:xs) = qsort lt ++ [p] ++ qsort ge
where lt = [x | x <- xs, x < p]
ge = [x | x <- xs, x >= p]
```

- Equivalent to the previous definition (shown below)
- Which version to prefer is a matter of taste

```
-- File: qsort.hs
qsort [] = []
qsort (p:xs) =
   qsort [x | x <- xs, x < p] ++
   [p] ++
   qsort [x | x <- xs, x >= p]
```



Running the Haskell interpreter

```
$ ghci
GHCi, version 7.4.1: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ... <SNIP>
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Prelude> 6*7
42
Prelude> :quit
Leaving GHCi.
$
```

- The Glasgow Haskell interpreter is called 'GHCi'
- The interactive shell lets you write any Haskell expressions and run them
- The "Prelude>" means that this library is available
- To exit the interpreter, type ":quit" (or ":q" or "^D")



Loading and running a program

```
$ ghci
GHCi, version 7.4.1: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ... <SNIP>
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Prelude> :load qsort.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main (qsort.hs, interpreted)
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> qsort [5,2,1,4,2,5,3]
[1,2,2,3,4,5,5]
```

Use ":load" (or ":1") to load a file in the interpreter



Functions and values

```
len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1

nums = [17,42,54]
n = len nums
```

As we will soon see, functions *are* values!

- Functions are written as equations (no fun keywords)
- Their definitions can consist of several clauses
- Function application is written without parentheses
- We can define values and apply functions to them
- Local definitions using let expressions or where clauses

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = len nums
where len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
```



Layout matters!

 Note the spaces: all clauses of a function need to be aligned nums = [17,42,54]

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
in len nums
```

On the other hand, the following is not legal

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let len [] = 0
    len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
    in len nums
```

One can also write

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let { len [] = 0; len (x:xs) = len xs + 1 }
  in len nums
```



Pattern matching

```
len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
```

- Function clauses are chosen by pattern matching
- Pattern matching also available using case expressions

```
len ls = case ls of
    [] -> 0
    x:xs -> len xs + 1
```

Strong static typing ensures the above is equivalent to



Pattern matching (cont.)

```
-- take first N elements from a list
take 0 ls = []
take n [] = []
take n (x:xs) = x : take (n-1) xs
```

- Pattern matching can involve 'multiple' arguments
- But no repeated variables in patterns (as in ML)
- Pattern matching can also be expressed with case

```
-- equivalent definition using case

take n ls =

case (n, ls) of

(0, _) -> []

(_, []) -> []

(n, x:xs) -> x : take (n-1) ls
```



Pattern matching and guards

Pattern matching can also involve guards

```
-- a simple factorial function fac 0 = 1
fac n \mid n > 0 = n * fac (n-1)
will match only for positive numbers
```

This

clause

No "match non exhaustive" warnings; runtime errors instead



More on guards

More than one clauses can contain guards

```
-- returns the absolute value of x
abs x | x >= 0 = x
abs x | x < 0 = -x
```

We can abbreviate repeated left hand sides

Haskell also has if-then-else

```
-- returns the absolute value of x abs x = if x >= 0 then x else -x
```



Type annotations

```
len :: [a] -> Integer
len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1

nums :: [Integer]
nums = [17,42,54]

n :: Integer
n = len nums
```

- Every function and value has an associated type
- This type can be (optionally) supplied by the programmer in the form of an annotation
- Note the variable in the type of len (a polymorphic type)

Type notation

- Integer, String, Float, Double, Char, ... Base types
- [X] A list of values of type X
- X -> Y A function from X values to Y values
- (X,Y,Z) A 3-tuple with an X, a Y and a Z value

•

```
pair_sum :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
pair_sum (a,b) = a + b

triple :: (Integer,(String,Integer),[Char])
triple = (17,("foo",42),['b','a','r'])
```



Type inference

- A type annotation is a contract between the author and the user of a function definition
- In Haskell, writing type annotations is optional
 - the compiler will infer types and detect inconsistencies
 - in fact, it will infer the best possible type (principal type)
- Still, providing type annotations is recommended
 - to enhance readability of programs
 - especially when the intended meaning of functions is not "immediately obvious"
- But, as we will see, often Haskell infers better types than those we would normally write by hand



User defined types

We can create new types by enumerating constants and constructors (they need to start with uppercase)

```
data Color = Green | Yellow | Red
next Green = Yellow
next Yellow = Red
next Red = Green
```

A type used in another type (such as **Double** above) has to be wrapped in a constructor – why?

Constructors vs. pattern matching

- Constructors are a special kind of functions that construct values
 - e.g. Rectangle 3.0 2.0 constructs a Shape value
- Constructors have types!

```
e.g. Rectangle :: Double -> Double -> Shape
```

- Pattern matching can be used to "destruct" values
 - e.g. below we define a function that can extract the first (x) component of a Rectangle value

```
getX (Rectangle x y) = x
```



Recursive data types

Type definitions can be recursive

```
eval (Mult (Const 6.0) (Add (Const 3.0) (Const 4.0))) \Rightarrow \ldots \Rightarrow 42.0
```



Parameterized types

Type definitions can also be parameterized

- Now Expr is a parameterized type:
 - It takes a type as "argument" and "returns" a type



Parameterized types (cont.)

Another parameterized type definition

```
data Tree a = Empty | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)

Empty :: Tree a
Node :: a -> Tree a -> Tree a -> Tree a

depth :: Tree a -> Integer
depth Empty = 0
depth (Node x 1 r) = 1 + max (depth 1) (depth r)
```

Types can be parameterized on more type variables

```
type Map a b = [(a,b)]

constraints Duo to have two elements of the same type
```



Type synonyms

- Synonyms for types are just abbreviations
- Defined for convenience

```
type String = [Char]

type Name = String
data OptAddress = None | Addr String
type Person = (Name,OptAddress)
```

A note on names: The naming style we have been using is mandatory

- Type names and constructor names begin with an uppercase letter
- Value names (and type variables) begin with a lowercase letter



Higher order functions

- Functions are first class values
- They can take functions as arguments and return functions as results

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

nums = [17,42,54]
inc x = x + 1
more_nums = map inc nums

Type variables

Function application associates to the left

$$f x y = (f x) y$$



Currying

```
add_t :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
add_t (x,y) = x + y

add_c :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
add_c x y = x + y

add42 = add_c 42
```



- add_t takes a pair of integers as argument and returns their sum
- add_c takes one integer as argument and returns a function that takes another integer as argument and returns their sum (curried version)



Anonymous functions

- A λ-abstraction is an anonymous function
- Math syntax:

```
\lambda x.exp where x is a variable name and exp is an expression that may use x
```

Haskell syntax:

$$\xspace x -> exp$$

Two examples:

inc42
$$x = x + 42$$
 \approx inc42 = $\xspace x -> x + 42$
add $x y = x + y$ \approx add = $\xspace x -> \xspace y -> x + y$
 \approx add = $\xspace x y -> x + y$



Infix operators

Infix operators (e.g. + or ++) are just "binary" functions

$$x + y \approx (+) x y$$

"Binary" functions can be written with an infix notation

- Apart from the built-in operators, we can define our own
 - Infix operators are built from non-alphanumeric characters

```
[] @@ ys = ys
(x:xs) @@ ys = x : (ys @@ xs)
```

 Operator precedence and associativity can be specified with "fixity declarations"



Infix operators & partial application

Even infix operators can be applied partially

```
Prelude > map (42 +) [1,2,3]
[43,44,45]
Prelude > map (+ 42) [1,2,3]
[43,44,45]
Prelude> map ("the " ++) ["dog","cat","pig"]
["the dog", "the cat", "the pig"]
Prelude> map (++ " food") ["dog","cat","pig"]
["dog food","cat food","pig food"]
```

Notice that for a non-commutative operator order matters! (as shown for ++ above or as shown for / below)

```
Prelude > map (/ 2) [1,2,3]
[0.5, 1.0, 1.5]
Prelude > map (2 /) [1,2,3]
[2.0,1.0,0.666666666666666]
```



Function composition

Function composition is easy (and built-in)

```
-- same as the built-in operator . (dot) compose f g = \x -> f (g x)
```

```
*Main> compose fac length "foo"
6
*Main> (fac . length) "foobar"
720
```

- Composition is not commutative
- What is the type of function composition?

```
*Main> :type compose
compose :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
```



Haskell standard Prelude

- A library containing commonly used definitions
- Examples:

```
type String = [Char]

data Bool = False | True

True && x = x
False && _ = False

[] ++ ys = ys
(x:xs) ++ ys = x : (xs ++ ys)
```

- The core of Haskell is quite small
- In theory, everything can be reduced to λ -calculus



List comprehensions

- Lists are pervasive in Haskell (as in all FP languages...)
- List comprehensions are a convenient notation for list manipulation
- Recall

```
lt = [y | y < -xs, y < x]
```

which means the same as

```
lt = concatMap f xs
    where
    f y | y < x = [y]
    otherwise = []</pre>
```

(concatMap is defined in the Prelude)



List comprehensions (cont.)

List comprehensions can have multiple generators

```
-- finds all Pythagorian triples up to n

pythag :: Int -> [(Int,Int,Int)]

pythag n =
  [(x,y,z) | x <- [1..n], y <- [x..n],
  z <- [y..n], x^2 + y^2 == z^2]
```

```
*Main> pythag 13

[(3,4,5),(5,12,13),(6,8,10)]

*Main> pythag 17

[(3,4,5),(5,12,13),(6,8,10),(8,15,17),(9,12,15)]
```

- Note that any list-producing expression can be used as a generator, not just explicit lists
- Similarly, any Boolean expression can be used as a filter



The lists zip operation

 The function zip takes two lists as input (curried) and returns a list of corresponding pairs

```
zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : zip xs ys
zip [] ys = []
zip xs [] = []
```

Two examples:

```
Prelude> zip [17,42,54] ['a','b','c']
[(17,'a'),(42,'b'),(54,'c')]
Prelude> zip [1,2,3,4] ['A'...'Z']
[(1,'A'),(2,'B'),(3,'C'),(4,'D')]
```



Abstractions using HO functions

 These two functions perform a similar traversal of the list, but apply different operations to elements

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

prod [] = 1
prod (x:xs) = x * prod xs
```



 We can abstract the traversal part and separate it from the operations



More foldr fun

Using foldr we can obtain very concise definitions of many common list functions

```
and = foldr (&&) True
concat = foldr (++) []
```

```
xs ++ ys = foldr (:) ys xs
```

```
reverse = foldr (\y ys -> ys ++ [y]) []
```

```
maximum (x:xs) = foldr max x xs
```



Syntactic redundancy

Expression style	VS.	Declaration style
each function is defined as one expression	\Leftrightarrow	each function is defined as a series of equations
let	\Leftrightarrow	where
λ	\Leftrightarrow	arguments on the left hand side of =
case	\Leftrightarrow	function level pattern matching
if	\Leftrightarrow	guards



Terminology review

- Higher-order function: a function that takes another function as argument and/or returns one as a result
- Polymorphic function: a function that works with arguments of many possible types
- Type scheme: a type that involves type variables
 - the type of a polymorphic function is a type scheme
- Parameterized type: a type that takes another type as "argument" and "returns" a type
 - their constructors are often polymorphic functions